A Study of the Turkmen Dialects of Afghanistan Phonology – Morphology – Lexicon – Sociolinguistic Aspects

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von Muhammad Salih Rasekh

Präsident der Humboldt-Universität zu Berlin Prof. Dr. Jan-Hendrik Olbertz

Dekanin der Kultur-, Sozial- und Bildungswissenschaftlichen Fakultät Prof. Dr. Julia von Blumenthal

Gutachter: 1. Prof. Dr. phil. Ingeborg Baldauf 2. Prof. Dr. Semih Tezcan

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PREFACE

The dissertation project whose final written product is submitted here was devoted to the study of the contemporary Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan. At present the Turkmen speaking population of Afghanistan is estimated to make up close to two million. The Turkmen language, which belongs to the South Western or Oghuz group of the Turkic languages, has for centuries been present in the region which is today North Afghanistan but due to various historical reasons has not only not kept pace with the development of some of its neighboring languages, but has even been reduced to the condition of an illiterate idiom which includes a number of dialects but is not united by a shared standard language. The Teke dialect, which in the Republic of Turkmenistan forms the basis of today's standard state language, features among the Afghan Turkmen dialects, but speakers of the Ä:rsari dialect by far outnumber those of the Teke dialects in Afghanistan. Along with these two most prominent idioms, roughly half a dozen distinct Turkmen dialects are represented on Afghan soil today.

The Loya Jirga of 2004, which passed the new Constitution of Afghanistan, has granted the Turkmen language – along with a number of others – the legal status of an official language in all regions inhabited by Turkmen speakers. This has opened a legal path towards unfolding and development of this language under the auspices of democratic progress in the country. While Article 16 of the Constitution warrants the official status of the Turkmen language along with the state languages on all territories inhabited by Turkmen speakers, Article 42 obligates the state to safeguard adequate conditions for the development of all official languages, among them Turkmen. At present the Ministry of Education of Afghanistan supports a department for composition and translation which is in charge of preparing schoolbooks in Turkmen. State radio and television as well as private agencies are broadcasting programs and various publishers are printing books, journals and newspapers in that language. Regardless of all these endeavors, a universally acknowledged standard literary language has as yet not come into being. The most basic reason for this deficit is the continuous lack of secured knowledge about the dialect basis in which such a standard language could be grounded. Therefore this author has undertaken the task of compiling and analyzing materials from all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan in order to secure a scientific basis for the standardization of a Turkmen language in the future.

The product of this scholarly endeavor, which is being submitted to the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences (Kultur-, Sozial- und Bildungswissenschaftliche Fakultät) of Humboldt Universität zu Berlin as doctoral dissertation, has come into being under the guidance of Prof. Dr. Ingeborg Baldauf, who has devoted a lifetime's efforts to the study of Central Asian Turkic languages and cultures and has provided my project with unwavering support from its very inception. She has patiently read all draft papers and provided copious feedback on various stages of the project's development; without her suggestions and corrections this piece of scholarly work would not have come into being in its current shape. I am also deeply grateful to Prof. Dr. Semih Tezcan for having agreed, given his comprehensive Turkological expertise and particular familiarity with the Oghuz languages, to be the second reader of my piece.

This scholarly work would not have been possible without the generous support of the Afghan Ministry of Higher Education and my home institution, Balkh University of Mazar i Sharif, in particular its honorable Rector Mr. Mukammal Alkuzay and Dean of our Faculty of Languages and Literatures, Prof. Abduljabbar Shaychzada. My repeated long-term leaves for field and desk work would not have been possible without my respected colleagues Mr. Haji Muhammad Qul, Mrs. Najiya Sadiq, Mrs. Kamila, Mrs. Jamila, Mr. Alla:hmirad and Mr. Penji who were ready to step in for many a replacement over all these years. Erasmus Mundus provided a generous three-year stipend, thus securing the financial basis for my project; I am grateful to the Consortium and to its representative at Humboldt Universität zu Berlin, Mr. Matthias Parske. Many distinguished colleagues and dear friends have been a continuous source of encouragement, scholarly advice and practical help during my time in Berlin: Mr. and Mrs. F. Ömer Akakça and Ayfer Durdu, Mansur Baloch, Ahmad Azizy, Dr. Thomas Loy, PD Dr. Lutz Rzehak, Mr. Gerhard Baldauf, Mr. Yusuf kö:r and Mrs. Zacharias, as well as many master and PhD students of the Central Asia Department. To all of them and to those whom I may have failed to remember here I extend my sincere gratitude. Last but not least I should like to thank my friends back home in Afghanistan, who shared the joys and difficulties of this work over the years and without whose benevolence and help I could not possibly have undergone this dissertation project, and my dear close and extended family, who have mentally and technically supported my work at all times.

My very special thanks, however, go to all the people who have generously shared their knowledge and life time in support of this scholarly project, united by our common goal to further the development of the Turkmen language and culture in Afghanistan: Turkmen gentlemen, ladies, students and children from all parts of North East, North and North West Afghanistan wherever our beloved mother tongue is thriving – above all the honorable Mr. Muhammed Nazari, Dr. Muhammed Siddiq Emini, Mr. Anna Bağshi, Mr. Haji Abdullresul Rasul, Mr. Haji Shageldi, and Mr. Penji who spared neither time nor effort to enable me to collect the materials necessary for my study, and provided information and inspiration whenever I needed them. The list of names I would have to enumerate here is much longer than the "List of Informants" provided in the Appendix. To all benefactors and supporters, whose forgiveness I ask for not specifically naming them here, I extend my deep appreciation.

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1. Introduction

In the region that is today Afghanistan, the Turkmen language boasts a fairly impressive historical past and many literary works of prose and poetry have been laid down in this language over the centuries. However, more recently, due to undue policies and measures by the rulers of their day, the language has not only been deprived of many opportunities to develop into a fully-fledged modern means of communication, but just the contrary, there have even been attempts to take the Turkmen language and literature of the region to the brink of deletion and extinction. Undue policies and deprivation of adequate means of development have at last caused the language to fall into a deplorable condition, as a result of which it has been reduced to a means of oral communication only. In today's Turkmenistan during its period of inclusion in the Soviet Union a standard written language on the basis of the Teke and Yomut dialects has been brought into being, which permitted a wealth of books, a rich periodical press and many more products of high-level scripturality to emerge over the decades, partly in a Cyrillic alphabet and partly on the basis of various Latin alphabets. The sheer difference in alphabets employed in Turkmenistan and Afghanistan, and of course also the general lack of contact and cooperation between these countries, has to this day prevented the successful processes which unfolded in Turkmenistan from taking any major positive influence on the Turkmen language of Afghanistan.

In Afghanistan until 1979, practically nothing was printed in the Turkmen language and the language was not used in the periodical press or any audio or visual medium. Before the coup d'état of April 1978 only one book was printed in that language, namely, *Farzi Ayni Turki* which saw the light of day due to the efforts of two prominent religious scholars of those times, the honorable Khalifa Sahib Qızılayaq and Khalifa Sahib Qaramqol.¹ As a matter of fact, this introductory catechism was due to its contentual orientation written in a rather archaic language; at the same time the text was rather short anyway. In the 1980s – the so-called "democratic decade" of Afghanistan – a special kind of political publications began to emerge under the auspices of the Communist Party. One of the issues of *Parcham*, the organ of the PDAP, contained a single poem written in the Turkmen idiom of Afghanistan by the late Oraz Muhammad under the pen-name "Far". From 1979 on here and there some pieces of

¹ Khalifa Qızılayaq (1342): Farzi Ayni Turki.

Turkmen prose and poetry started to appear in print, on the radio and on TV. The first Turkmen newspaper to be published in Afghanistan was the bi-weekly Göreš. From its first issue on this newspaper caused discussions and dissent with regard to the kind of language, alphabet and orthography to be employed. Some community members favored a simple adoption of the Turkmen language of Turkmenistan, arguing that there existed a ready-to-use standardized idiom equipped with an alphabet and orthography, which should therefore be employed on the pages of *Göreš* as well. Another group argued against this opinion, saying that the Turkmen language of Turkmenistan was alien to the speakers of Afghanistan since the language of the latter should be based on the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, which is the majority Turkmen dialect of the country. Since the political regime of Afghanistan was dependent on Soviet protection at that time, a decision was finally taken in favor of the standard language of Turkmenistan. However, the superior importance of the Persian language in the society of Afghanistan and consequently, its tremendous influence on the local Turkmen idiom (as opposed to the Russian/Soviet influence on the Turkmenistani idiom) led to the result that this standard was never really achieved. Instead, the Turkmen idiom that was actually employed in Afghanistan remained under heavy influence of the Persian language. This very idiom is still widely used in Turkmen-language publications of Afghanistan today.

At the same "democratic" period a Turkmen Department was opened in the Directorate of Literary Production and Translation (Rivāsati Ta'lif-u Tarjima) of the Ministry of Education, whose employees authored a Turkmen-language set of all schoolbooks up to the sixth grade of primary school. These books were written in much the same idiom as the newspaper Göreš. In the Afghan Academy of Sciences a special department existed that was responsible for Turkmen matters; this department issued a poetry book by Mulla Davlatgeldi Fidayi (with a prologue by the honorable Nur Muhammad Qargin). The language of that book diverged so far from the regular language as employed elsewhere that according to a widespread saying, no one but the author himself can fully understand it. Mr Qarqin in his turn attempted to conform to the standard language of Turkmenistan to such a degree that his text abunds with loanwords as progressiv, rekcion and others, which according to Afghan Turkmen understanding are very difficult. In other writings, which he later published in Pakistan, the author continued to use that kind of language. The schoolbooks published by the abovenamed Directorate, on the other hand, did not succeed in creating a sustainable standard either, although (or because) their authors made ample use of books printed in Ashgabat when preparing their texts.

In later years the Afghan Writers' Union (*Anjumani Navisandagāni Afghānistān*) published several volumes of lyrics by contemporary writers. The language employed in these works is again heavily influenced by Persian, which renders it heavy and difficult. Articles which were published in journals like *Milliyathāyi Birādar*² and similar ones widely share these features as well.

Turkmen language broadcasting of Afghanistan's radio and television programs, on the other hand, did not follow a consistent language policy in the period of time under consideration. Afghanistan's new Constitution of 2004 grants Turkmen, along with a number of other languages, the status of a "third official language".³ However, due to the fact that no reliable standard language has been brought into being so far, the irregular and anarchical language usage continues to persist until today. A wide range of idioms that rely on different dialect bases and imaginations of standard and style is employed from schoolbooks to newspaper and journal articles, from volumes of lyrics and stories to all other writings that are currently being submitted to the public. Even the schoolbooks published by the Ministry of Education are linguistically inhomogenous due to the fact that each one of the six authors who form the authors' collective, in the absence of a reliable standard, uses more or less their own idiolect. The Turkmen idioms of Afghanistan today can roughly be characterized as follows:

(1) The everyday language of the Turkmen population, which has not undergone standardization or normalization and is not normally scripturalized at all. The basis of this everyday language are dialects, which in the Afghan Turkmen case are in principle not locally, but ethnically determined. In ethnically mixed communication the dialects with higher prestige tend not only to be used by their primary speakers, but native speakers of lower-prestige varieties also attempt to speak the high-prestige variety. The highest prestige is by convention attributed to the Ä:rsa:ri dialect.

(2) The idiom of educated and enlightened people, which is so heavily influenced by Persian that words and phrases and even the total syntactic structure often seem to be copied from that language into Turkmen by way of translation or calque. The idiom of madrasa scholars is even more remarkable, since along with a large percentage of archaic vocabulary and phraseology, it bears a strong Arabic imprint in morphology and syntax, which in terms of

² This journal was published under the auspices of the Ministry for Ethnic Groups and Tribes (*Vizārati Aqvām-u Qabāyil*) in seven languages: Dari, Pashto, Uzbek, Turkmen, Balochi, Nuristāni, and Pashai.

³ Constitution of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan, 2004: article 16.

copying follows the example of local high-brow Persian. The copying effect prevails to such a degree that one might assume these speakers first settle their thoughts in Arabic and then translate/copy them into "Turkmen" one way or another. This idiom differs significantly from contemporary everyday popular Turkmen as characterized above and is hardly intelligible to the majority of the population. The effects of copying from Arabic and Persian give this idiom an archaic appearance that resembles historical literary idioms of five or six centuries earlier.

(3) The idiom of contemporary scripturality, that is, the – however inhomogenous – Afghan Turkmen language of today's schooling, print, and media, which is heavily influenced by the standard Turkmen language of Turkmenistan. Due to the usage of morphological, syntactical and lexicological items alien to the dialect basis of Afghan Turkmen, this idiom differs significantly from the everyday language described above. Along with that, it still also bears a heavy imprint of contemporary Persian.

Language is an important feature of cultural group identity. Ethnic groups who strive for a cultural identity of their own within a given society or nation and on a given territory do so because they strive for their common good. A shared language is a decisive factor of community building and unification. Since more than one decade among the Turkmens of Afghanistan the awareness of language as a unifying factor and distinctive marker of ethnic identity has constantly increased. This awareness comes with a steadily rising desire to attain unity of language, and with the recognition of language-making as a major social duty.

In order to build a unitary language which then can form the basis of standard and norm, much work needs to be done for the Turkmen language of Afghanistan. Language building is a complex and demanding process; painstaking work by linguists and other scholars will be part of it, and so will be benevolent support on the part of the state. In order to even meaningfully start this process, it appears indispensable to create a sound knowledge of the underlying dialectal basis. Taking all this into account, I have made up my mind to contribute to the language making effort through an investigation into the different ethnic dialects of the Turkmens of Afghanistan. So far, these dialects have not been in the focus of local or foreign scholarship at all. I hope to take a first important step by collecting first-hand dialect materials, analyzing it, and publishing my documentation and analysis.

1.1 The aim of this study

Undue and discriminatory policies pursued by states, together with radical changes in social, political, economic and cultural life, and an imbalanced availability of highly developed technologies have in recent years sported a trend away from local and minority idioms and towards the adaption of official and high-prestige languages. This trend, which has become apparent in Afghanistan as well, is putting pressure upon local and minority idioms and among these of course, the Afghan Turkmen language. Turkmen has over the last centuries actually not lost much importance in many domains of Turkmen social life. However, under the influence of all factors named above its position has been weakened. In particular, no attempts at standardization have so far been made.

This study aims at providing a documentation of, and investigation in the nature and quality of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan and their position and function within the social fabric of the area. Since so far neither local nor foreign scholars have carried out in-depth studies on Afghan Turkmen, the compilation and documentation of texts from a broad ethnic, geographical and social sample will provide a preliminary survey of the dialect landscape. The analytical part of the study cannot aim at a comprehensive investigation; yet it aims at documenting the linguistic features and social uses of the Turkmen idioms of Afghanistan, as thoroughly as the compiled material allows. It will hopefully not only bring fresh knowledge to Turkology and Central Asian Studies, by providing a comparative perspective on these idioms, but also create a basis for upcoming social initiatives in the field of language planning and language making for the benefit of the community.⁴

1.2 State of research on the Turkmen dialects

Turkmen dialects were first made the subject of scholarly research in the middle of the 19th century, when in 1845-1848 the Russian orientalist II'ya Nikolaevich Berezin published his studies on the Turkmen dialect of Astarabad.⁵ Nikolaj II'minskij collected much information on the Yomut dialect, which Schiefner translated and published in German.⁶

After the Russian occupation of major parts of the Central Asian region scholarly interest in these areas increased and the Turkmen dialects also came into the focus of Turkological, linguistic and ethnographic research by specialists like S. Agabekov, I.A. Belyaev, F.Y. Korš,

⁴ For the importance of these efforts cf. for example Mosel (2006).

⁵ See Nartiev (1994).

⁶ Ilminsky, N. I.; Schiefner, A.: "Ueber die Sprache der Turkmemen. Aus einem Briefe des Herrn Ilminsky an A. Schiefner", *Mélanges asiatiques*, Vol. 4, 1860, 63-74; see also Nartiyev (1994:23).

P. Šinkevič and others. In 1904, Agabekov published his Учебник туркменского наречия с приложением сборника пословиц и поговорок туркмен Закаспийской области in Ashgabat. Regardless of its merits as an early piece of documentation and investigation this work has major shortcomings in that its author did not observe the living everyday language of his time but occupied himself primarily with the language of written texts.

Only with the prominent Turkologist A.N. Samoylovič, who in 1906/07, 1908 and 1912 undertook fieldwork in the region, the actual Turkmen dialects became an object of study. In 1912 Samoylovič published *Hapeyuя ногайцев и туркменов Ставропольской губернии*. In 1927 he was on behalf of the Soviet Academy of Sciences again dispatched to the region and undertook dialectological and folkloristic research with speakers of the Salır, Teke of Marw and Sarıq dialects. Only shortly after that, namely in 1930, a scientific commission headed by N.K. Dmitiriev was active in Turkmenistan and collected more materials on dialects and folklore, which were consequently in 1954 published under the title, *Туркменские народные сказки Марыйского района*.⁷

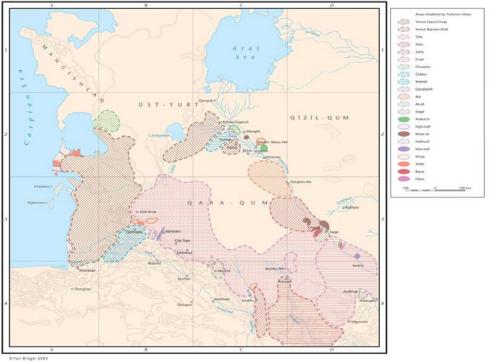
Another scholar to whom Turkmen dialectology and early linguistics in general owe major contributions was A.P. Poceluevskiy. From 1927 to 1932 he collected a wealth of materials on the Turkmen dialects and as early as in 1932 published *Диалекты туркменского языка*, which is still considered a major reference work⁸. In this study Poceluevskiy describes the important features that delineate the Turkmen dialects from each other, and attempts to establish the position of the Turkmen dialects among the Turkic languages. Poceluevskiy, in outlining the different idioms, does not relate them back to ethnic/tribal divisions but strives for a strictly areal delineation. Today it is difficult to understand if he did so because of ideological considerations – for example, so as not to "undermine the unity of the Turkmen nation" or to "rid society of noxious relics of the past" such as tribalism.⁹ After all, we may assume that in the early Soviet period most Turkmens on Soviet territory still lived in tribally determined communities so that areal distribution would more or less coincide with tribal affiliation anyway. Only mass emigration to Afghanistan in the 1920s and early 1930s led to massive uprooting, relocation and resettlement in, to some degree, ethnically more mixed communities. The contemporary Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan prove to be ethnically

⁷ Nartiev (1994:27).

⁸ Nartiev (1994:29).

⁹ Bregel (1981:12) explains that tribal division within a "socialist nation" was unwelcome in the early Soviet period to such a degree that even the materials of the census of 1926 did not lay tribal division open although the data had been collected. In the rich source materials on the Turkmens published in *Materialy* (1938), which among others include some historical information on the Ä:rsa:ri, Sarıq, Bayat and other Turkmens of what is today Afghanistan, however, such information was not suppressed.

determined, which most probably they were back on Soviet territory as well, although Poceluevskiy prefers to read language difference not in ethnic but in areal terms.



Map 1: Distribution of the Turkmen tribes in the early to mid-20th century¹⁰

Starting from the middle of the 20th century a lot of research on the Turkmen dialects has been done by scholars from Turkmenistan. A number of candidate dissertations were written on particular dialects or subgroups of a dialect. Among these are N. Durdimira:dov (1950) on the dialect of the Ali Ili¹¹; J. Amansa:riev (1954) on the northern variants of the Yomut dialect¹²; in 1959 M. Atajanov graduated with a piece on the Salır¹³, and X. Muxıyev, on the Noxur dialect¹⁴; in 1960 N. Nartiev and G. Kulmanov followed suit with works on the Sarıq¹⁵ and the Gökleŋ¹⁶ dialects, respectively. R. Berdiyev supplied a study on the northern Yomut

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¹⁰ Bregel 2003:75.

¹¹ Н. Дурдымурадов: Диалект алили туркменского языка. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1950.

¹² Дж. Амансарыев: *Северные говоры ёмудского диалекта туркменского языка*. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1954. Regrettably, most of the studies I am citing here have not been available to me for inclusion into my own work.

¹³ М. Атаджанов: Салырский диалект туркменского языка. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1959.

¹⁴ Х. Мухыев: Нохурский диалект туркменского языка. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1959. .

¹⁵ Н. Нартыев: Сарыкский диалект туркменского языка. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1960.

¹⁶ Г. Кулманов: Геокленский диалект туркменского языка. Автореферат, Ашхабад, 1960.

dialects¹⁷. In the late Soviet period in-depth studies came to be published which referred to special issues of the Turkmen dialects.¹⁸ On the other hand, investigation in selected dialects continued. ¹⁹As can be seen, in all of these studies the ethnic principle of dialect classification was resumed again.

From the 1970s on the basis was broad enough for comprehensive studies that put the accumulated materials and informations into perspective. In the year 1970 Amansa:riev²⁰ and a collective of authors²¹ published general overviews over all Turkmen dialects and Annanurov's dialect lexicon came out in 1977 as an endeavour supported by the Academy of Sciences.²²

While the Teke and Yomut dialects, which in Soviet Turkmenistan were selected to form the basis of the standard language, have gained major attention in dialectology and even minor idioms such as the dialects of the Noxur, Yemreli, Arabači, Parap, Anaw, Saqar, Čawdor, Olam, Hasar and so on have been scrutinized, the Ä:rsa:ri dialect – with regard to its speakers on the territory of Turkmenistan – has not gained just as much scholarly attention. A special study by Annanurov (1962) on the vocalism of the Ä:rsa:ri dialect of Turkmenistan²³, a study by Kakajan Šamira:dov on assimilation phenomena²⁴, and a collective volume (1972) by Annanurov and others on the general characteristics of the dialect²⁵ can be mentioned here, all of which give evidence of the fact that there is some difference between the Ä:rsa:ri dialect on the Turkmenistan, and the Afghanistan side of the border.

Outside the Soviet Union scholars have time and again devoted major or minor studies on the Turkmen dialects or a selection from these. A comprehensive introduction into the contemporary Turkmen standard language, which due to the wealth of examples from literary and everyday texts allows some insight into non-standard phenomena as well, is Larry Clark's reference grammar published in 1998²⁶, while Philippe Blacher's 1997 book²⁷ and an even more concise text by David Gray (1999)²⁸ give selective introductions for more practical

¹⁷.R. Berdiev: Türkmen diliniŋ yomut šivesiniŋ demirgazık geplešikleri, Ašğabat 1970

¹⁸ R. Berdiev: *Türkmen diliniŋ dialektlerinde ve geplešiklerinde išlikler*, Ašğabat 1988.

¹⁹ O. Čommadov: *Türkmen diliniŋ Kerki topar dialektleri*, Ašğabat 1991.

²⁰ J. Amansariev: *Türkmen dialektologiyası*. Ašğabat 1970.

²¹ S. Kürenow, K. Šamıradov, S. Arazkulıyev: *Türkmen diliniŋ dialektleriniŋ očerki*, Ašğabat 1970.

²².A. Annanurow: Turkmen diliniŋ dialektologik sözlügi, Ašğabat (Ilım nešriyatı) 1977

²³ Annanu:rov A.: Türkmen diliniŋ Ä:rsa:ri dialektinde uzı:n we ğı:sğa čekimlileriŋ olanılıš ayratı:nlıqları. Ašğabat 1962.

²⁴ Šamıradow. K.: *Türkmen diliniŋ ä:rsa:rı dialektinde assimilatsiya*. Ašğabat 1962.

²⁵ Annanu:rov A., P. Berdiyev, I. Durdiyev, K. Šamiradov: *Türkmen diliniŋ Ä:rsa:ri dialekti*. Ašğabat, (TSSR našriyatı) 1972.

²⁶ Clark, L.: *Turkmen Reference Grammar*. Wiesbaden, 1998 (= Turkologica 34).

²⁷ Blacher, Ph.: *Grammaire du Turkmène à l'usage des Francophones*, Istanbul 1997.

²⁸ Gray, D.: A Short Descriptive Grammar of the Turkmen Language, Cheltenham UK, 1999.

ends. Until Clark (1998) the most informative Western pieces on the Turkmen language were Dulling's²⁹ and Oskar Hanser's³⁰ introductions from 1960 and 1977, respectively, and Johannes Benzing's dissertation on the verb system³¹; Claus Schönig's chapter on the Turkmen language (1999)³² is a brief but informative summary. Turkish scholars like Doğan Levent³³, Saadet Čağtay³⁴, Mehmet Kara³⁵ and Talat Tekin³⁶ have also engaged in the study of the Turkmen language, but they occupy themselves with the standard language or with general turkological issues rather than with the particularities of the Turkmen dialects. In the last decade the Turkmen standard language has repeatedly been in the focus of highly specialized linguistic studies of young Turkish scholars (e.g. Cahit Başdaş 2015, Özgür S. Berkil 2003, Erkan Salan 2011, Savaş Şahin 2012); the dialects are, however, not included in these studies.

Ethnographic studies on the Turkmens of Afghanistan, authored by scholars from abroad, may not be directed on language issues in particular, but they provide helpful background information since there is a very immediate relation between tribal background and dialects, as will be elaborated below. Gunnar Jarring's study published in 1939³⁷ gives an overview of all ethnic groups of Turkic affiliation in Afghanistan, including the Turkmens. Jarring's book is a valuable tool due to the author's painstaking investigation of all prior scholarly and other writing on the topic. In wealth of detailed information this book has only been outdone by the writings of Erhard Franz who – different from Jarring – relied on half a year of field research in 1970 and had verified most of his information through evidence or at least reports by first-hand informants.³⁸

²⁹ Dulling, G.K.: An Introduction to the Turkmen Language, Oxford 1960.

³⁰ Hanser, O,: *Turkmen Manual. Descriptive Grammar of Contemporary Literary Turkmen. Texts, Glossary*, Wien 1977.

³¹ Benzing, J.: Über die Verbformen im Türkmenischen, Inaugural- Dissertation Berlin 1939.

³² Claus Schönig: "Turkmen", *The Turkic Languages*, ed. L. Johanson & Evá A. Csató, London&New York 1999, 261-272.

³³ Levent Doğan 1996: "Türkmen Türkçesinin Fonetik ve Morfolojik Özellikleri Üzerine", *Türk lehçeleri ve Edebiyatı Dergisi*, Sayı 5, Şubat.

³⁴ Saadet Çağatay: *Türk Lehçeleri Örnekleri*, Ankara 1977.

³⁵ Mehmet Kara: *Türkmen Türkçesi ve Türkmen Edebiyatı Üzerine Araştırmalar*, Ankara 1998.

³⁶ Talat Tekin (1995): *Türk dillerinde brincil uzun ünlüler*. Ankara (Simurg) 1995.

³⁷ Gunnar Jarring: On The Distribution Of Turk Tribes In Afghanistan: An Attempt At A Preliminary Classification, Lund 1939.

³⁸ Erhard Franz: "Zur gegenwärtigen Verbreitung und Gruppierung der Turkmenen in Afghanistan", *Baessler-Archiv Neue Folge* XX.1972, 191-239; see also Franz (1972b).

2. The Turkmens of Afghanistan and their dialects

2.1 Turkmens and the regions inhabited by them

The Turkmens are descendents of the ancient Oghuz who in the 10th century A.D. lived between the Altay Mountains and the Aral Sea basin, from where they emigrated to the South and West under the pressure exerted by the Seljukid Empire. While some of their tribes migrated as far as Azerbaijan and Anatolia to the West and Xinjiang, Gansu and Qinghai to the East, others remained in wider Central Asia. Those who left have mostly come to share only the denotation of "Turkmen" with the others but more often than not speak other languages today,³⁹ while those who stayed in the steppe of what is today Western Turkmenistan preserved their Turkmen idioms.

Starting from the 16th century, the Salır and Ä:rsa:rı who had been dominant groups in the Western steppes,⁴⁰ migrated to the Amū Daryā basin, yielding the West to the dominance of the Teke, Yomut and Sariq.⁴¹ In the middle course of the Amū the Turkmens who live there today appeared in the second half of the 17th century and along the Murghāb river Turkmens were reported since the 17th century as well.⁴² By the late 19th century a large part of the Turkmen territory had passed under Russian rule and the rest was divided up between Iran and Afghanistan. Those Turkmens who had come under Russian rule for a number of decades underwent policies of Russification, which implied settlement and assimilation. These policies were continued in the Soviet period and additional pressure resulted from the persecution of wealthy layers of society, among them the Turkmen living on stockbreeding and carpet weaving. As a result, in the early 20th century many ten thousand Turkmens from Lebāb, Merv and other provinces emigrated to Afghanistan. Although before the October Revolution of 1917 some Turkmens had already lived on the left bank of the Amū Daryā in what is today Afghan territory, and in places like Turghundī (Qara Depe) in the Herat province, one may say that a large part of the Turkmens of Afghanistan are recent immigrants who crossed into the Northern, North Western and Western parts of Afghanistan only in the early Soviet period.

³⁹ See Clark (1998:11) for further references.

⁴⁰ On the general history of the Turkmen, see Sümer, Faruk: Oğuzlar (Türkmenler). Tarihleri, Boy Teşkilatı, Destanları, 4. baskı Istanbul 1992; Bregel, Yuri: An Historical Atlas of Central Asia, Leiden (Brill) 2003, 72-74 and maps 36-37; on Southern Turkmen see Bregel', Juri: "Etničeskaja karta južnoj Turkmenii i Xorasana v XVII i XVIII vv., in Kratkie soobščenija instituta etnografii 31, 1959: 14-26; Džikiev, A.: Očerk etničeskoj istorii i formirovanija naselenija Južnogo Turkmenistana (po dannym etnografii), Ašgabat (Ylym) 1972; Bregel, Yuri: "Ersari", Encyclopedia of Islam, 2nd edition, suppl., fasc. 5-6, 1982 : 280-281.

⁴¹ Bregel 1981:18.

⁴² Bregel 1981:22f.

According to Döwletgeldi Fida:yi⁴³ (Fidayi, n.d.), the Turkmens first started to come to Afghanistan in a rather unsteady manner in the 1920s. In 1930, Turkmen tribes moved in significant number from the Lebāb, Dāšoğuz and Marw provinces to Afghanistan and settled in various locations like Andkhoy, Šibirghān, Aqča, Qataghan, the vicinities of Mazār-i Šarīf and even as far as Maymana and Herāt. Massive migration went on up to 1932, at which time the Afghan government began to relocate newcoming Turkmen tribes to Farah, Čaxansūr and Hilmand in Southern Afghanistan. This policy soon caused the migration flow to stop and from that point onward no significant inflow of Turkmen groups to Afghanistan happened.⁴⁴ – Basing his work on Soviet archival materials, the Tajik historian Kamoludin Abdullaev in his comprehensive book on Central Asian migration in the 20th century gives an estimate of more than 225,000 Turkmen migrants as having arrived in North-Western Afghanistan by 1926.45 Among them were Junayd Khān's Yomut from the central Karakum who had left Turkmenistan for Iran in 1928 and went on to the Herāt region in 1929, as well as the Gara clan from the region Jılıköl (East Bukhara, today Southern Tajikistan), whose total population had emigrated. The exodus of mainly Ä:rsa:r1 Turkmens from the Southern Karakum to Andkhoy, Šibirghān and Aqča in 1922-25 reduced the district of Kerki to little more than half of its previous population.⁴⁶ On Afghan territory the migrants did not mingle with the locals, but prefered to continue to live in communities of their own.⁴⁷

Until today the state authorities of Afghanistan have not published any reliable data and figures on the Turkmen population of the country. Informations given by foreign researchers are divergent and do not appear to conform to the contemporary reality of the Turkmen community of Afghanistan. According to the materials of I.I. Burgi between 1959 and 1987 the Turkmen population amounted to some 50,000, while according to the investigations of A. Davidov in late 1980 it was around 900,000⁴⁸. Larry Clark (1998:10) relates the number of Turkmen, according to different sources, as between 300.000 and 900.000 and later renders an own estimate of 400.000, out of which 350.000 would belong to the Ä:rsa:ri tribe. Clark gives the following numbers of Turkmen for the respective provinces of Afghanistan: Jowzjān

⁴³ Döwletgeldi Fidāī belongs to the rare learned persons among the Ärsa:rı Turkmen of his time. During the first stages of the Russian revolution he served as the governor of the city of Bo:rdalıq in today's Lebāb province of Turkmenistan. He eventually escaped Stalinist repression by fleeing to Afghanistan.

⁴⁴ Fidā'i, n.d., Šajarai Turkmaniya. Unpublished manuscript.

⁴⁵ Abdullaev (2009:350) does not indicate how many of these migrants remained on Afghan territory. The figure of "around 200,000" at the time of the 1979 Soviet invasion which he renders p. 349 does not appear too plausible.

⁴⁶ 11,371 households left while appr. 13,000 remained there (Abdullaev 2009:349).

⁴⁷ Abdullaev 2009:351.

⁴⁸ Cf. Durdıyev & Kadırov 1379:73.

180.000, Kunduz 73.912, Fāryāb 50.820, Balkh 39.036, Samangān 20.312, Herat 10.066. Since no reliable census of the population has ever been carried out by the government, all these figures must be considered as highly speculative. This fact has not changed for the better since Gunnar Jarring⁴⁹ back in the 1930s called for more ethnographic and linguistic studies on the local Turkic peoples (Jarring 1939:10).

Two kinds of more recent approximate figures are nevertheless around. On the one hand, the United Nations and the Independent Electoral Commission of the mid-2000s established the estimated figures of adults above age 18 who were legally entitled to vote, from which a more precise estimate of the current Turkmen population could be derived. On the other hand, tribal elders (*ya:šult*) in every location know the details and particulars of their community's size in terms of number of households and household composition. Tribal structures are quite strong among Turkmens in Afghanistan and every tribe and lineage has its own body of authoritative elders. These elders, whose authority is mostly hereditary, know the approximate amount of households affiliated to their tribe who live in any given province, district and settlement. An average of 5 to 6 person per household thus yields an approximate number of persons per tribe. The late and much lamented 'Abdulkarīm Behmen, relying on information gathered from tribal elders, estimated the Turkmen population within Afghanistan as two million.⁵⁰

The Turkmens have since ancient times been split up in tribes, clans and lineages. This system of division is reflected in distinguished texts like the *Oğuznāma*, Maḥmūd al-Kāšǧarī's *Dīvān Luǧāt at-Turk*, the *Jāmi' at-tavārīx* of Rašīduddīn Fażlullāh. The largest tribes today are Teke, Ä:rsa:rı, Yomut, Sa:rıq, Chawdur, Gögleŋ, Salır, Yemreli, Noxurlı, Ali-Eli, Muqrı, Xaṭab, Bayat and Ata. The territories which these people inhabit extend from the Caspian Basin in the West to the upper reaches of the Amū Daryā in the East, and from Khiva in the North as far as the Iranian Turkmansaḥrā, North Afghanistan, Herat and Hilmand in the South. Not all of the above-mentioned groups are present in Afghanistan today. The major groups in Afghanistan are Ä:rsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Teke and Qarqın; a small number of dispersed Yomut, Yemreli and Salır live there, too. Some authors mention a population of Ali-Eli as living in Afghanistan as well, mostly in Andkhoy: Arminius Vámbéry (1865) states that Ali-Eli – in 2,000 houses and 3,000 tents – were living in and around Andkhoy at the time of his travels⁵¹; authors from Turkmenistan, among them Durdiev&Qadırov (1379) and Ayina

⁴⁹ Jarring, G.: On The Distribution Of Turk Tribes In Afghanistan: An Attempt At A Preliminary Classification, Lund 1939.

⁵⁰ Behmen 1380:54.

⁵¹ Vámbéry (1865:250), quoted by Jarring 1939:49.

Babaeva⁵², and also Clark (1998:10) and Dupree⁵³ indicate Ali-Eli as living in Afghanistan. Contrary to this information, today there is no more evidence of this ethnic group in Afghanistan. We may thus assume that Ali-Eli actually did live in Andkhoy at Vámbéry's time but later on emigrated from there to other places. Already Jarring in the 1930s suggested that there were none left in Afghanistan in his day (1939:49f.). The other authors seem to hand down Vámbéry's information without having checked for contemporary evidence.

Along with the above-mentioned groups who are – by themselves, that is – considered "true" $(x\bar{a}l\imath\varsigma)$ Turkmen, North Afghanistan is also home to "non-actual" $(n\bar{a}x\bar{a}l\imath\varsigma)$ Turkmen groups whose dialects stand between Turkmen and Uzbek, such as the Muqrı, Xaṭab, Bayat, Xoja:mba:z, Surxı, Čandır, Ši:x and others. Although I am aware of the positional character of these terms, which reflect the viewpoint of those tribes which dominate by number of members, economic importance and/or cultural prestige, I will for practical reasons continue to use the terms $x\bar{a}l\imath\varsigma$ and $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}l\imath\varsigma$ as provisional denominations; they are, if not historically or politically correct, at least emic concepts and are widely used by members of all groups until today.⁵⁴

The Afghan Turkmen dialects appear to follow tribal lines of divide rather than zonal or regional ones. The Teke, Ä:rsa:rı, Sarıq, Muqrı and Xatab (to name the prevalent tribal groups in the country) all have their respective distinct idiom in common, no matter what their place of residence be. Tribal groups which feature only a small number in Afghanistan tend to follow the language habits of the dominant tribe of their location. The Burqaz, Qultaq, Saltuq, Čandır and Qarqın, for instance, do not use a dialect of their own but speak the idiom of the Ä:rsa:rı, among which they live. The Yemreli in their turn, who make up a few households in the city of Herat, speak the dominant Teke dialect of the region and have only preserved some traces of a different idiom.⁵⁵ My study will not answer all questions, but hopefully can elucidate the main features of dialect difference.

The main Turkmen tribes have a differentiated structure and consist of clans, which in their turn consist of many lineages and have genealogies of their own. Erhard Franz, the scholar who until today has carried out the most detailed study on the Turkmens of Afghanistan,

⁵² Babaeva 1992:22.

⁵³ Dupree, Louis: "Afghanistan iv. Ethnography". *Encyclopedia Iranica*, vol. 1, 1983, 495-501.

⁵⁴ Franz (1972a:226) also quotes the concept as being widely used in the early 1970s.

⁵⁵ Compare Franz (1972a:228f.) for details on the cohabitation of communities of different tribal affiliation, which is generally the exception rather than the rule.

mentions that while for members of the larger tribes (Ä:rsa:rı, Teke...), affiliation to the tribe is more important than their personal affiliation to a sub-entity, members of smaller tribes (Olam, Xoja:mba:z...) often consider the sub-entity as relevant.⁵⁶ A detailed description of the Turkmen tribes and their subdivisions cannot be provided here; for the purpose of this study only a rough overview of the large Turkmen tribes of Afghanistan, together with some information concerning their most important places of settlement, can be given.

2.1.1 Ä:rsa:r1⁵⁷

The Ä:rsa:ri figure most prominently in Afghanistan, making up for an estimate of 80-85% of the Afghan Turkmens today although they had moved into what is today Afghan territory only late⁵⁸. In the late 19th century the estimates of Ä:rsa:ri housholds ran as high as 40,000⁵⁹ and many more have migrated to the area in the early Soviet period. The area of their settlement stretches from Dašti Arči in the Kunduz province in the North East to as far as Marūčāq in the province of Bādghīs in the North West. They consist of the Göneš, Bekewil, Ulidepe and Ğara clans. The following table gives an overview of the main lineages of these clans.

Bekewil	Güneš	Uhdepe	Ğara ⁶⁰
Tuwačı	Ga:basaqqal	Etbaš	Aranjı
Sa:rılı	Čaqır	- Garaja	Qurayš
Yerli	Arıqba:tır	- Gızılayaq	Ögem
- Gošagoyun	Omar	- Gabırdı	Isla:m
Lamma	- Gızılja	Esenmeŋli	Yabnı
	Čekir	Surx	Meŋnejik
	Süleymen	A:qderi	Ta:ğan
	Bağšılı	Čöpbaš	Ğa:zan

 Table 1: The Ä:rsa:r1 clans and their lineages

⁵⁶ See Franz 1972a for an overview and discussion of the genealogical structure of the Turkmens of Afghanistan. Franz' findings in quite a few cases contradict ours, but this study is not the place to go into much detail on this. ⁵⁷ For the localization of the main Ä:rsa:ri communities and all other Turkmen tribes and subgroups, along with my own fieldwork findings I mainly rely on the unpublished manuscript *Türkmen görniši ta'rixde* by the late 'Abdulkarīm Behmen.

⁵⁸ Jarring 1939:47.

⁵⁹ Jarring 1939:47, relying on statistical information about the Ä:rsa:r1 of the left bank of the Amū given by Komarov in 1887.

⁶⁰ According to Jarring (1939:39): *Qara-aul*.

Ğı:nlı	Čatraq	Ha:ru:n
- Guwaq	Eleč	Čıpar
Alla:da:d	Dä:na:j1	Ba:y
Gorčaŋŋ 1	A:jı	Dä:li
Olam ⁶¹	- Gılğıstı	Čekiš
		Mamaš
		- Garaboyun
		Perrik

The geographical distribution of the Ä:rsa:ri in the provinces of Afghanistan, which I derive from my own recent fieldwork⁶², is as follows:

- Kunduz: Kunduz City; districts of Qal'ai Zāl, Imām Ṣāḥib, Čār-Dara, Šerxān Bandar, Dašti Arči
- Baghlān: Čašmai Šīr (a village related to Pulixumri)
- > Balkh: Bābāşiddīq (a village in the district of Xulm / Tāšqorghān); the districts of Keldār, Šortepe, Dawlatābād, Čārbölek, Balx, Dehdādī, Čāyi, Nahršāhī; Mazāri Šarīf City
- > Jowzjān: the districts of Aqča, Murdıyān, Menejik, Fayżābād, Xānqāh, Xojadūkūh, Qarqın, Xamyāb; Šibiryān City
- ▶ Fāryāb: the districts of Andkhoy, Xānčārbāy, Qorghān, Qaramqol, Dawlatābād, Qaysār, Almār
- Bādghīs: Marūčāq (a village in the district of Bālā Murghāb)
- Hilmand: the village Nahri Sirāj

2.1.2 Sa:rig⁶³

The Sa:riq form the second largest Turkmen tribe of Afghanistan today. As a compact group they live in Marūčāq in the North Western province of Bādghīs. Some disparate lineages also reside in Herāt.⁶⁴ The most prominent lineages of the Sa:riq are the following:

⁶¹ Bregel argues that the Olam (together with the Bayat and Bujaqlı) had lived in the region before the advent of the Ä:rsa:ri (1981:23). Franz (1972a:224) names the *Alam* as a subgroup of the Salor. ⁶² I can, however, not give any figures concerning these settlements since that was not the aim of my work.

⁶³ For the Sa:riq, Teke, Yomut, Salır and Yemreli I largely rely on Ataniyazov (1992: 263, 267, 271) and on supplementary information collected from tribal elders in the field.

⁶⁴ According to Jarring (quoting various sources, particularly the Border Commission) there were "hardly 30 families" of Sa:riq left on Afghan territory, which seems to be a somewhat too low estimate (Jarring 1939:45).

Alıša ⁶⁵	Pölatša ⁶⁶	Amaša
Alnıš	Bedeŋ	Barzaqı
Xora:sa:nlı	Bayrač	Ģızılmıra:t
Goyumjı	Suxtı	- Guöja
Ja:nıbeg	Ga:nlıbaš	Šayxdemir
Erkiseddix		Doyašı
Momatay	- Gızıl	
Usta	Xerzeki	
Xojanazar	Süyenalı	

Table 2: The Sa:riq clans and their lineages

2.1.3 Teke

Although the Teke are among the largest Turkmen tribes, in Afghanistan their number is only small. Teke live in the city of Herāt; at Bandari Turghundī; in the districts of Gülrān and Ghorīyān (province of Herāt); in Darai Šāx (province of Fāryāb); and in the village of Barmazīd (province of Balkh). The Teke tribe consists of three main clans, the most prominent lineages of which are the following:

Toxtamıš ⁶⁷		Ötemiš		Yalqamıš	
Beg	Weki:1	Sıčmaz	Bağšı	Alaša	Polatša
Amaša	A:qweki:l	A:qso:p1	A:qdašayaq	Alnıš	Bayrač
Goŋor	Garaweki:1	Meriš	Burxuz	Usta	Herzeki
Ğö:kče	Ha:ru:n	Pereŋ	- Garadašayaq	Alnax	Suxtı
Ha:r	Bükri	Ğaraaxmed	Salıq		Xora:sa:nlı
	- Garšal	Topuz	Sulta:n		
	- Ganjıq	Xojaso:p1	Ezi:z		

Table 3: The clans and lineages of the Teke

⁶⁵ Jarring 1939:37 has *Alaša* including *Alniš*, *Alnax*, *Usta* and *Xoji Nazara* (sic); the other lineages are not mentioned, while "*Xorasanli*" figure among the Pölatša tribe.

⁶⁶ According to Jarring (1939:37) the *Pulat-šah* consist of *Sapi, Bayrač, Xorasanli, Gerzeki* (sic), *Arxaki* and others (which he does not specify). There are no *Amaša* in Jarring's survey.

⁶⁷ Jarring (1939:38, 48f.) names the *Taxtamiš* ~ *Toxtamiš* (with sub-clans *Wekil* and *Bek*) and *Otamiš* ~ *Ötemiš* (with sub-clans *Bağši* and *Sičmaz*) and mentions an unspecified "great number of minor divisions".

Yüsüp	Miriš	
	Yasman	
	Čeltek	

2.1.4 Yomut

Although the Yomut figure among the large Turkmen tribes, only a very small number of them live in Afghanistan today, namely in Herat City and in Bandari Turghundī. The most prominent clans and lineages are the following:

Gutlitemir (Ö	Ĵaračuqa)	O:tlitemir (Bayramša:li) ⁶⁸			
Čonı –	Šeri:p —	Salıq	Öküz	Orsaqčı	Ušaq
Ataba:y	Japarba:y				
A:qataba:y	Šeri:p Ya:ralı	A:q Salıq	A:q Öküz	Alınjašeyta:n	Baraq
Badraq	Šeri:p Nu:ralı	G arasalıq	Gara Öküz	Jüneyt	Temeč
Tatar		Topčılar		G ırımsa	G arsaq
Eymir				Ğaraxoja	Garaboyun
Güjük				Mıralı	Tebele
Ga:nyoqmaz					Xajı
Ōojaq					
Igdir					

Table 5: The clans, sub-clans and lineages of the Yomut

2.1.5 Salır⁶⁹

The Salır make up only a small group in Afghanistan today, smaller than the Teke, Yomut and Sa:rıq which had before the departure of the Salor from the Western Turkmen steppes been only their junior members.⁷⁰ They mostly live in Herāt.⁷¹ Many Salır have after 1979

⁶⁸ According to Jarring (1939:38) *Bayramčoli* or *Utlitemir*; the *Ušaq* are in Jarring's systematization a sub-clan of their own.

⁶⁹ Against existent scholarship, I do not indicate the contemporary tribal name as Salor but as Salır in accordance with the pronunciation in Afghanistan.

⁷⁰ Cf. Bregel 1981:18.

⁷¹ Franz (1972a:204) locates Salor in several villages in the Herat province and an "eastern group" in seven villages in the Balkh province. The latter are, according to Franz, *Alam* and *Xoja:mba:z* and are by many not acknowledged as Salor; the Ä:rsa:ri with which they live together in the Balkh province are "not acknowledging them as $x\bar{a}lis$ Turkmens" and some Alam (= Olam) and Xoja:mba:z are reported as counting themselves among

emigrated to Iran due to war and lack of security. Among their prominent lineages are the following:

Kičia:ğa ⁷²	Ğaraman	Yalawač
Arslan	Ajğam	Begsaqar
Sayat	Ku:šiboqa	Kese
Bokaš	Xalılčulum	Keri:ma:ğa
Bokğara	Gedek	Orduğoja
Ya:qu:p	Öküjikli	
Ya:jı	Begbölek	
	Oljuq	

Table 5: The Salır clans and lineages

2.1.6 Yemreli

The Yemreli in Afghanistan also make up only a small number. Some of their families live in Herāt. The most prominent ones of their lineages are the following⁷³:

Table 6: The lineages of the Yemreli

Da:ğlı	Ğumlı
Ba:y	
Gazaq	
Xıdır	Taqırdıŋ
Ma:rıp	Dä:diš
Berdixoja	Jüneyt
Čaqan	Yarlı

the local Uzbeks "although their language is Turkmen and their customs are said to be more similar to those of the other Turkmens than those of the Uzbeks" (Franz *loc.cit*.).

⁷² Jarring (1939:37) has the same clan names for the Salor. He indicates that each one of them have "further 6-7 subdivisions, and each of them again is divided into 2-10 fresh groups", so that the tribal system of the Salor, according to him, amounts to about 110 names (which he does not specify).

⁷³ Jarring does not indicate any subdivisions of the Yemreli (*Yemrili* in his text).

2.1.7 Qarqın

The Qarqın are one of the 24 ancient tribes of the Turkmen. According to the Afghan Boundary Commission in 1886 they numbered around 1,000 households on Afghan territory.⁷⁴ Today they do not constitute a very big group either, nor does their dialect differ significantly from the Ä:rsa:rı dialect. A district bordering the Amū Daryā, i.e. Qarqın, bears the name of this ethnic group. Outside the Qarqın district, members of the tribe also live in Andkhoy, in the district of Imām Ṣāḥib (Kunduz province) and, in yet smaller numbers, in several other districts. The Qarqın tribe comprises the following lineages: Topbaq, Solqa, Dügir, Ya:dam, Jarčı, Ešekli, Yerya:ğ, Jüyjik, Dikayaq, Hapbek, Sırğınlı, Hekge, Čoğma, Paxta, Mälečä:kmen, Čaqqı, Tulum, Ğa:pla, Tusı, Öküz, Ğuzı, Kö:ne, Kömir, Mašša, Maxdum, Süytek, Kä:di, Mele, Tor, Bišik, Düyye, Demir, Da:š, Čağšal, Toğsa, Xanba:d, Gö:k, Jürdek, Čerm, Bığırlı, Ğoduz, Ča:lbaš, Čalšaq, Sanač, Kese, Pıčaqlı, Ğıjaq, A:lagöz, Ğa:wınčı, Dö:š, Maššaq, Pä:wler, Meleŋler, Di:wa:na, Maymaq, Čıwalı.⁷⁵

2.1.8 Ča:yi

In a compact settlement, members of this group live mostly in the district of Čāyi (Balkh province), while others live disparately in Aqča, Šibirghān and other towns. Their dialect does not differ from the Ä:rsa:rı dialect.⁷⁶ The main lineages within the Ča:yi tribe are said to be as follows: Sa:rıbaš, Pa:dalar, Yetdi, Salır, Ğaračomaq.

2.1.9 Bayat⁷⁷

The Bayat in ancient times formed one of the important Turkmen tribes and they may have lived along the Amū Daryā way before the Ä:rsa:r1 and others moved in.⁷⁸ Today in Afghanistan there exist two ethnic groups named Bayat. One of them are Turkmen-speakers, while the other Bayat group are Fārsi-speakers and do not share linguistic or cultural similarities with the Turkmens. The Turkmen-speaking Bayat live in Pīrmazīd, a village near Šibirghān; in Aqča; in Mazāri Šarīf, and scattered over a few other towns.

⁷⁴ Bregel (1981:17), quoting Adamec (1979:314-15).

⁷⁵ This list was kindly provided by our informant the estmeed Ha:j1 Uwez Durd1, a 70 year-old resident of Qarq10. – Jarring (1939:39) mentions "some divisions" of the Qarq10 but does not give names.

⁷⁶ Franz (1972:219) in his findings of 1970 names the Ča:yi as a subgroup of the (Ä:rsa:rı) *Qara-Baka'ul* (= Qara? Bekewil?) along with *Lamba/Lama*, *Qultaq*, *Sarli* and *Tuarai*.

 ⁷⁷ Information on the Bayat lineages was provided by Ha:ji Rahmatulla:h, age 48, a resident of Šibirghān.
 ⁷⁸ Cf. Bregel 1981:23 fn. 44.

Along with the tribes enumerated above there exist another couple of tribes which live in much the same regions as the Ä:rsa:rı, but are not part of the basic structure of that tribe. Nartıyev characterizes their dialects as "of Qıpčaq origin",⁷⁹ we count them among the *nāxālio* dialects. They are subdivided into the following lineages: Kette, Tirmek, Šağal, Sayat, Qadam, A:rıqlı, Sa:bıq, Gö:šti:mez, Qazaq, Maŋqa, Güneybaxtarlı.

2.1.10 Muqri⁸⁰

Members of the Muqrı tribe⁸¹ live in compact groups in Aqča, Murdıyān, in the province of Jowzjān; in the district of Xānčārbāgh (Fāryāb province); in the district of Davlatābād and in villages around Šaharak and Siyāhgird (all in the Balkh province); in the Čārdara district of the province of Kunduz. Some more Muqrı live in disparate settlements elsewhere in the region. Their dialect differs significantly from the *xālış* Turkmen dialects. Their main subtribal division reads as follows: Alčı, Köpek, Örgenji, Bašığarğalı, Egrikelle, Či:šdepeli, Yigrimtö:rtatlı.

2.1.11 Xațap⁸²

Members of this tribe live in the vicinity of Muqrı Turkmens in Aqča, Murdıyān, in the province of Jowzjān; in the district of Xānčārbāgh (Fāryāb province); in the district of Davlatābād and in villages around Šaharak and Siyāhgird (all in the Balkh province); furthermore in the districts of Qal'ai Zāl, Imām Ṣāḥib and Čārdara of the Kunduz province, as well as in a disparate form in other places. The Xaṭab are mostly immigrants from the south-eastern regions of today's Turkmenistan who came to North Afghanistan as refugees in the 1920s, as did the Ä:rsa:rı, the Muqrı and Xoja:mba:z. According to their own traditions, in their places of origin they had also lived as neighbors of the Muqrı. Their dialects are similar. Their tribal subdivision is as follows: Dö:nmez, Telter, Joŋ, Ğaralar, Jü:jeler, Kö:seler, Yu:ha:, Gö:k, Ğartaŋ, La:flar, La:jerem, Čekene, Yağmır, Nawa:yı, Abaytal, Ča:naqĕı, A:qešekli, Tutan, Ğaraburuğčı.

⁷⁹ Nartıyev 1994:36.

⁸⁰ Data was provided by Da:wu:d A:ġa:, 70, resident of Siyāgird, Balkh province.

⁸¹ Jarring (1939:39) mentions the *Mukri* as a group related to the Gögleŋ and gives no further details.

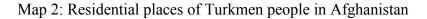
⁸² The data on the Xatab subtribal division was collected from Xuda:yberdi A:ğa:, a resident of the Aqča district.

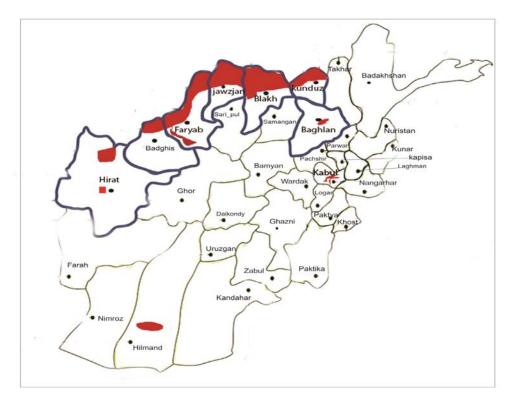
2.1.12 Surxi⁸³

Members of this little tribe live in disparate settlements in the district of Xānčārbāgh; in Aqča, Murdıyān and Fayżābād (all Jowzjān province); in the districts of Qal'ai Zāl, Imām Ṣāḥib and Čārdara of the Kunduz province. Their dialect depicts closeness to the dialects of the Bayat, Xaṭab, and Muqrı. They are divided into Yu:lıq, Muğul, Qarğalı, Qullar, Dü:pberdi, Süple, Čumbegli, Čä:ğa:rıqlı.

2.1.13 Xoja:mba:z

Members of this tribe live along the river Amū Daryā in the districts of Qal'ai Zāl, Imām Ṣāḥib and Čārdara of the Kunduz province; in the district of Šortepe (Balkh province) and in Aqča. Their dialect belongs to the *nāxālıṣ*⁸⁴ group of Turkmen dialects. Xoja:mba:z divide into Kö:seler, Qazaq, Küyük, Laqqa, Čaqqa:n, Gürji, Girrik, Šaŋŋı, Dä:liajam, Yetdiuruğ, Tosal, Keltek, Araplar, Zıya:n.⁸⁵

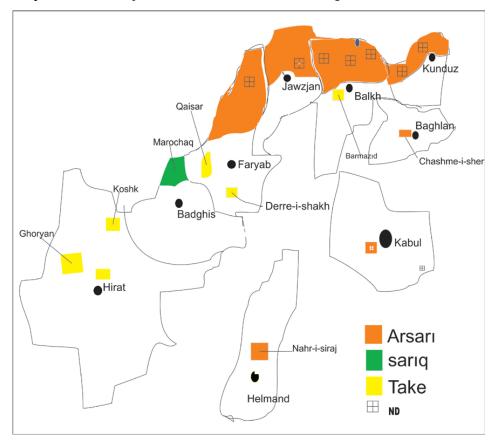


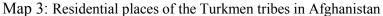


⁸³ Data was provided by Alla:berdi surx1 64, resident of Xa:nča:rba:ğ, Fa:rıya:b province.

⁸⁴ Compare Qiyāmuddin Rā'i (1358:45-46).

⁸⁵ The list was gathered from Muxammad Ami:n Qa:ni⁶, 60, a resident of the city of Kunduz. – The informants of Franz (1972a:224) mentioned the Xoja:mba:z as a subgroup of the Salor and, in very limited overlapping with our own information, reported the lineages of *Ačam*, *Arab*, *Bešleri*, *Ča:rek*, *Dä:li*, *Herekli*, *Qireq*, *Sağır*, *Šaŋı*, *Šı:x* and *Tat* (the latter of which points to the "Uzbekness" ascribed to the group since *Tat* is among Turkmens of Afghanistan a familiar derogatory denomination for Uzbeks).





In addition to the aforementioned groups, members of the Qultaq, Burqaz, Čandır and Saltıq tribes are also to be found within Afghanistan's borders, particularly in the North of the country where they reside mostly among, or in close geographical proximity to the Ä:rsa:rı. As a consequence, their idioms present very few differences from that of the Ä:rsa:rı. This is even the case of the Qultaq who live among themselves in an eponym settlement in the district of Šortepe.

Gunnar Jarring (1939:50) mentions a tribe named Qarama (sic) which dwelt to the East of Andkhoy and amounted to 12,000 families. He hypothesizes that the British agent Burnes may have mixed them up with the Saqar who lived on the shore of the Amū Daryā and whose population he estimated as 2,000 individuals. We regard these considerations regarding the Qurama as being downright mistaken. The label Qurama does not refer properly speaking to a tribe, but to an agglomeration of small Turkmen tribes and lineages who dwelt in the vicinity of Andkhoy but are not considered by Turkmen tribes as being part of the Ä:rsa:ri. According

to Ä:rsa:r1 authoritative elders (*ya:šuli*), the denomination appeared in the 1930s as an outcome of the process of taxpaying to the central government of Afghanistan. As the Ä:rsa:r1 settled in Afghanistan after having fled from the Soviet Union, their tribal leaders agreed to collect taxes from each Turkmen tribal group within their boundary of authority. The Ä:rsa:r1 split the task of tax collection between the Ğara, Bekawul, Göneš and Ulidepe tribal divisions but did not take responsibility to collect taxes from the small non-Ä:rsa:r1 tribes. The state grouped these small tribes under the pseudo-tribal name *Qurama* for the sake of tax collection. The label applied even to tribal groups like the Kiyikči (whom the Ä:rsa:r1 do not consider as being Turkmens at all). The word indeed means "agglomeration, assemblage, grouping". Besides Andkhoy, people called Qurama are also present in other places like in Šortepe, where small tribal divisions are grouped under this very label.⁸⁶

2.2 The Turkmen dialects

Scholars from the Soviet and Turkmenistani school consider the Turkmen dialects to essentially fall into two groups, namely, the Oghuz and Qıpčaq dialects. The Oghuz group includes the Teke, Yomut, Ä:rsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Salır, Ali-Eli, Gögleŋ, Yemreli, Saqar and Burqaz; the Qıpčaq group includes the Noxur, Olam, Surxı, Xaṭab, Muqrı, Čawdur, Bayat, Eski, Qarač, Änäw, Hisa:r, Saya:d, Bu:jaq, Iğdır, Diyeji and others.⁸⁷ This classification had first been introduced by the Russian linguist A.P. Poceluevskij and was refined by the Turkmenistani Turkmen scholars A. Annanurov and N. Nartıyev. For classificatory purposes, they relied primarily – on phonological grounds – on the distribution of the interdentals /t/ and /d/ and on the formation of the present continuous with *yörmek* versus *durmaq*, respectively.⁸⁸ Scholars who write in Persian also acknowledge the existence of two major dialect groups, but rather use the denominations "Turkmens proper (*turkmanāni xālış*)" and "non-proper Turkmens (*turkmanāni nāxālış*)"⁸⁹, which I will also apply in my study. Jävad Häy'ät uses the terms *lahjahā-ye xālış* and *lahjahā-ye maxlūt* instead.⁹⁰

The Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, including the majority Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, have hitherto not been objects of scholarly investigation. The only publication so far is a small introductory article authored by Qiyāmuddin Rā'i which was printed in the Afghan Yearbook of 1980;⁹¹

⁸⁶ The data regarding the Qurama was collected from Muxammadqul Ba:y, son of Ama:ngeldi Ba:tır, a *ya:šulı* of the Čaqır subdivision of the Ä:rsa:rı tribe.

⁸⁷ Nartıyev 1994:27.

⁸⁸ Nartıyev 1994:37-38.

⁸⁹ Qiyāmuddin Rāay 1358:45-46.

⁹⁰ Jawad Hayat 1380:285.

⁹¹ Qiyāmuddin Rāay 1358:45-46.

this article introduces the Turkmen language of Afghanistan in very general terms but does not provide any detailed linguistic information.

2.2.1 The Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan and their neighboring languages

In Afghanistan there exist a broad variety of Turkmen dialects, among which feature the Ä:rsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Teke, Yomut, Qarqın, Salır, Yemreli, Muqrı, Xaṭab, Bayat, Olam, Xoja:mba:z, Surxı and Š1:x. As for the other dialects which have been identified by students of the Turkmen idioms, no speakers have so far been found so that we may assume that either none, or only very few at best live on Afghan territory today who probably communicate in other idioms than those enumerated above.

On dialectological grounds and by linguistic classification we can divide the Turkmen idioms of Afghanistan into two groups: dialects which belong to the Oghuz or *turkmanī-yi xālış* group and others which belong to the Qıpčaq or *turkmanī-yi nāxālış* group. The former include the Ä:rsa:rı, Teke, Yomut, Sarıq, Qarqın, Olam, Salır and Yemreli; the latter include the Muqrı, Xaṭab, Bayat, Surxı, Xoja:mba:z and Š1:x. For the purpose of this study we will employ the denominations $x\bar{a}lış$ (*XD*) and $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lış$ (*ND*) dialects.

In addition to all dialects mentioned before, I have come across a dialect in Herāt whose speakers are called Mewri. These Mewri insist on being Turkmen and on having moved into their current area of residence from Marv in ancient times, which is where perceivedly their name originates from. However, after carefully listening to two representatives of that group, and analysing their idiom, I concluded that their idiom is much closer to Uzbek than to any variety of Turkmen. My impression was shared by the supervisor of this study, Prof. Ingeborg Baldauf, who is an expert on the Uzbek dialects of Afghanistan. I argue that this idiom may belong to descendents of the Timurids of Herāt who for a lengthy period of time ruled over Herāt and environs. Erhard Franz in his study on the Turkmens of Afghanistan does not come to a final conclusion; he mentions some 4,100 *Mauri* as living in four settlements near Herāt, and in Herāt city. According to Franz, their idiom is a "Turkic language interspersed with Persian and Pašto elements, which is not understood by Turkmens according to consensual information given by other Turkmens". While the *Mauri* themselves claimed Turkmen affiliation, their Turkmen neighbors denied them that status.⁹² For a final understanding of the actual affiliation of that idiom it will be necessary to investigate the subject in more depth.

⁹² Franz 1972a: 203.

The most widely spoken Turkmen dialect of Afghanistan is the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, whose speakers, according to reasoned estimate, make up for approximately 80% of the total of Turkmen speakers of the country. Speakers of various Ä:rsa:r1 idioms – which among themselves show little variation only – inhabit the whole region at all populated by Turkmens. In places and regions like Andxoy, Davlatābād and the Qaysar and Almār districts (all Fāryāb province) as well as in Šibirghān, Aqča, Xānqāh, Murdıyān, Fayżābād and Xoja Dūkūh (all Jowzjān province); Qal'ai Zāl, Bandari Šerxān, Čārdara and Kunduz City (all Kunduz province); and in Herāt City, Bandari Turghundī and the districts of Gulrān and Ghoriyān (all Herāt province) the Ä:rsa:r1 live in close vicinity of Uzbeks, Tajiks and Paštuns, while some places like the districts of Xamyāb, Qarqin and Mengejik (all Jowzjān province), Šortepe and Kaldār (Balkh province) are exclusively populated by Ä:rsa:r1, and Turkmens constitute the overall majority of the inhabitants of regions like Qal'ai Zāl (Kunduz province) and Marūčāq (Bādghīs province). In the public sphere, Turkmen idioms find themselves under pressure by high-prestige varieties such as Fārsī-Dari or Uzbek in many places.

Turkmen is the regular language of communication in locations which are totally or almost exclusively populated by Turkmens, for example Xamyāb, Qarqın, Šortepe, Kaldār, Marūčāq and Mengejik. Wherever Turkmens live interspersed with other ethnic groups, as is the case with Andxoy, Šibirghān, Aqča and Dawlatābād, the language of communication in domains like state administration and education is either Fārsī-Darī or Uzbek. In large cities such as Mazāri Sharīf and Kunduz the Turkmen regularly use Fārsī-Darī. Since most shopkeepers and traders in the cities are either Uzbeks or Tajiks, the regular language of trade and commerce is in more local contexts Uzbek, or in big cities altogether Fārsī-Darī.

It comes as no surprise that, these conditions prevailing, the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan are heavily influenced by Fārsī-Darī, particularly in the realm of lexicon but also to a certain degree in morphology and syntax. The influence of the neighboring Uzbek dialects – or perhaps it is more adequate to speak of similarities between the Turkmen and Uzbek dialects as long as the history of their cohabitation is not fully explained – is significant to varying degrees. While the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects depict surprisingly little influence, the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects are in many respects so similar to their immediate Uzbek neighbor dialects that one might even consider them as intermediate varieties to be placed between Uzbek and Turkmen. My study contains many details on this relation but I have not come to a definite conclusion about the issue.

Along with Fārsī-Darī, the Paštu language plays an important role, being the other overall official language of Afghanistan. Ever since the territory of what is today Afghanistan has

been under dynasties of Paštun ethnic affiliation, this language has enjoyed particular attention by the ruling class. The peak of this development was reached around 40-50 years before, when the Paštu language had come to be employed as the overall and only language of state school instruction in Northern Afghanistan regardless of the prevailing ethnic and linguistic composition of the population. The goal of promoting Paštu was entrusted primarily to the institution *Paštu Tolena* which was well provided with all means to push the state policy through. Fluency in Paštu was a compulsory requirement for all state employees and people had to pass annual language exams; if they failed to pass these exams, they would be removed from office. The policy of linguistic Paštunization, so as to say, went hand in hand with an aggressive settlement policy pursued ever since the times of king Amānullāh Khān, with a large number of Paštun-speaking households having been relocated from the Southern and Eastern regions of Afghanistan into the North. The state sponsored their new settlements primarily on the expense of the neighboring Uzbeks and Turkmens who lost part of their lands in that historical context.

In some villages, for example in the villages of Aylanmajar (district Čārdara, province of Kunduz); Zulmābād, Halqa Kö:l, Afghānmazār and Ä:rsa:rišāx (district Qal'ai Zāl) and in the district of Čārbölek (province of Balkh) Paštuns live in close vicinity with the local Turkmens.93 The Turkmen villagers there do not speak Paštu. The interethnic language of communication is mostly Farsī. I have even observed some Paštuns speaking Turkmen. Interestingly, irrespective of its status as official language of Afghanistan and of the massive support granted by the state, the Paštun language has to this day not exerted any significant influence on the Turkmen dialects beyond the inclusion of some items of military and administrative vocabulary such as sa:ranwa:l, sa:randu:y, dagarwa:l, pu:hantu:n, loya jurga and the like. There may be various reasons for this reluctance of the Turkmen dialect speakers to accept too much Paštu into their idioms. For one thing, not Paštu but Fārsī is the timehonored and prestigeous language of culture and power in the region. It is in Fārsī that religion-based primary and secondary education was given, administration was carried out, and literature and all other high-prestige culture was handed down over the last centuries. For local Turkmens as well as Uzbeks Fārsī was, and for most individuals and families still is, the language to know when striving for social acceptance and upward mobility.

⁹³ For details on the Turkmen settlements in the province of Kunduz I rely on the valuable help of Ha:jji: Ima:mqul and Xayruddi:n Šerza:d from Qal'ai Zāl.

The Turkmens of Afghanistan were for a long time not entitled to use their mother tongue in public because if they did so, they would face disapproval and contempt by members of the neighboring ethnic groups. People were even ashamed of using their own language in mixed assemblies. Modern media like the press, radio and TV, or modern means of education were not available in the Turkmen language. As has already been mentioned before, this situation only changed for the better when in the Constitution of 2004 (§ 16) the Turkmens were granted the right to use the Turkmen language as an official language (along with Darī and Paštu) of schooling, administration, court etc. in areas where they live.

These new liberties nonwithstanding, development in society has not yet progressed to a degree that factual equality of the different idioms would be achieved. Social reality until now finds the Turkmen idiom deep down the scale of social prestige, as we can observe from the following observations. If in a gathering almost everybody is Turkmen and there are only one or two Uzbeks present, the Turkmens will immediately try to speak Uzbek. If, on the other hand, Turkmens and Uzbeks together take part in an assembly of any kind where only very few Tajiks are present, too, both the Turkmens and the Uzbeks will switch to Darī. It is safe to assume that this phenomenon, which testifies to the higher social prestige of the Persian language, on the other hand lies at the basis of the higher degree of general development and cultural achievement of the Tajik population today and continuously grants people from that ethnic group better access to a professional life in the domains of science and culture. Remarkably, even in regions with a dominant Turkmen population most teachers and state officials are either Uzbeks or Tajiks, while only a small number of Turkmens have so far made it into such professions.

2.2.2 Some sociolinguistic phenomena

Most languages coexist with related dialects (geolects) that differ from them to a lesser or higher degree. Differentiation in lects can not only be determined by geographical distribution, but in many cases it correlates with difference in economic status, gender, age, religion, profession and other socio-cultural markers.⁹⁴ In the case of Turkmen of Afghanistan, ethnic and tribal differentiation appears to play the decisive role in dialect differentiation, much more than any of the other above-named factors. If a standard language exists – which is not yet the case of Afghan Turkmen, as has been stated earlier – it would be

⁹⁴ Language and Space. An International Handbook of Linguistic Variation. Vol. 1: Theories and Methods, ed. Peter Auer, Jürgen Erich Schmidt, Berlin / New York 2010: Chapter 1 "Introduction: Language and Space" (p. 18-69).

the idiom supported by the state authorities which is applied in the domains of education and everywhere else in the universe of writing. The written standard language, as opposed to other varieties, is stable and does not undergo change at a quick pace. By the same token it is less prone to decline and loss than other varieties.

Language as an abstract phenomenon depends on circumstances and preconditions. Dialects, the spoken language of the everyday, are immediately influenced by the given social conditions under which they exist. The Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan find themselves under the impact of social, economic, cultural and religious phenomena, which on the other hand the dialects are again a reflection of and, dialectically, have a hand in shaping. Many social factors determine the concrete mode of speaking that is practised by individuals and groups of people. Speech as the concretization of language for ends of mutual communication is a complex phenomenon which demands special in-depth investigation. Since in order to achieve its socio-cultural and "political" goal of laying the knowledge basis for a future standard Afghan Turkmen language this study is primarily concerned with documenting and analyzing the systemic basis of the Turkmen dialects rather than with describing and analyzing their realization in the concrete speech of individuals or groups. Therefore this book is not the place to describe such phenomena in detail. However, a few preliminary observations that have come up in the course of my fieldwork may support a deeper understanding of some - in a systemic rather than functional understanding - linguistic phenomena later described in detail. Therefore I will briefly introduce them here.

2.2.2.1 Dialect difference: Politeness

The concrete modes of speaking as we can observe them in the Turkmen dialects differ in covariation with difference in socio-cultural aspects in matters of phonology just as they do with regard to morphology and lexicon, and more generally, phenomena from spontaneous accent to stylistics and others.

An obvious case in point is linguistic features related, in a broad sense, to the functional category of politeness. Although so far the Turkmen dialects seem to be considered as one homogenous entity in this respect,⁹⁵ my field results indicate that they do in fact differ. Forms of address which in the Teke, Yomut and Sa:riq dialects express a sufficient degree of politeness in social interaction, would in the Ä:rsa:ri, Muqri, Xatab and other dialects not

⁹⁵ Baskakov (1970:180f.) states that the pluralized pronoun *sizler* in Turkmen would be a honorific form typical of the spoken language as such, which may occasionally occur in the wirtten language as well, but does not give any indication of dialect differences in these matters.

conform to standards of polite expression. The details of this distinction demand for more indepth investigation for there is even reason to assume that an overarching linguistic divide between $x\bar{a}lis$ and $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ runs through these dialects which might indeed, perhaps among other things, be marked particularly by the relevance or irrelevance of the functional criterion of politeness.⁹⁶ Although I cannot go into sufficient detail here for lack of systematic enquiry on this topic, some preliminary observations may still be worth drawing the readers' attention to.

For example, addressing a person of higher social rank than ego as 2.P.SG. *sen* (rather than 2.P.PL. *siz*) is conventional in the Teke and other dialects dominant in Turkmenistan and is not considered an insult by the addressees – which would obviously be the case if the same mode of speaking were employed when geared at speakers of \ddot{A} :rsa:r1 and the other Afghan Turkmen dialects enumerated above. It appears as if this particular Teke etc. convention were, by virtue of the prestigeous and exemplary character attributed to those dialects and the standard language of Turkmenistan that builds on them, in Afghanistan since 1979 about to even take an influence on the local dialects as well, which might sooner or later end up in a full copying of the phenomenon into the Afghan Turkmen dialects. The Teke etc. group of dialects also does not employ the plural suffix *-lAr* in predicates of 3.P.PL. related to human beings, a kind of omission which in \ddot{A} :rsa:r1 etc. would not conform to the social rules of politeness.

The assumption that social conventions find a surprisingly immediate reflection in speech conventions is supported by observations like the following: In the everyday lives of members of the Teke and Yomut ethnic groups the general standards of "politeness" (as Ä:rsa:r1 etc. would call it) are considerably lower in many ways. For example, verbal as well as nonverbal expression of politeness in hospitality, like receiving and treating guests at one's home, when measured against the standards of Ä:rsa:r1s etc. would appear greatly deficient: The guest is not repeatedly invited to help himself, but in many situations he even seems to be expected to serve himself without any support on the part of the host. Conventions of communication⁹⁷ thus clearly differ between members of the different dialect communities, as can also be shown by the following situation observed in the field: Food is served and the guests are assembled around the *sačaq*, but salt and pepper are missing. While Ä:rsa:r1 convention

⁹⁶ Claus Schönig in his paper "The internal division of modern Turkic and its historical implications" (1999:73) defines the "Central Asian Turkic Area" as characterized by the "paradigms of politeness". In this sense, the Afghan Turkmen dialects would share more commonalities with the Central Asian Turkic idioms than the dominant dialects of Turkmenistan.

⁹⁷ For the generalities of the notion see Austin (1962); more specifically: Penco&Vignolo (2005); Liu n.d.

demands for an indirect hint such as asking in a polite tone, *üyde du:z barmu?* lit. 'Is there any salt in the home?' (which in its turn might by members of many a speech community be considered a sarcastic and rude saying!), Teke etc. guests would come up with a straightforward and, by measures of an Ä:rsa:r1 recipient of the message, truly rude *sačaqda du:z y0:q du:z getir!* 'There is no salt at table, fetch salt!'.

Generally speaking, those Turkmen dialects which numerically dominate in Afghanistan observe a subtle and rather strictly-to-be-applied expression of social relations and hierarchies in verbal as well as non-verbal communication. In some cases there is even some additional internal differentiation between these dialects, as the following example will demonstrate. What has been said about the impossibility to use 2.P.SG. *sen* when addressing a person of higher social rank than ego, in the case of the Muqrı dialect also extends into the realm of the third person. When I attended an assembly of honored elderly men from the Muqrı ethnic community in the district of Aqča (Jowzjān province), one of the gentlemen introduced me to the others saying,

turkmen tilden ya: xatab tilden, ya: misa:li ola:m tilden her qaysıdan bir neti:je alar eken de bu kišiler (Mu. 1)

This gentleman intends to derive results (insights) about the Turkmen or Xatab or for example Ola:m language, from every one of them.

What sets this example apart from conventions of the \ddot{A} :rsa:r1 dialect – not to mention Teke etc. – is the pluralisation of the postponed subject *kiši-ler*. As a rule, however, single or even multiple pluralisation in comparable circumstances is compulsory in all Afghan Turkmen dialects when one refers to men of an elevated religious rank, such as *pi*:*r* and *muršid* of a Sufi order; in these cases a honorific plural marker of some kind needs to be applied not only in the presence of the person talked about, but also in their absence:

- ö:z-ler-i sağ-mı-lar? (Är.13) self-PL3POSS healthy-QPL
 'Is he healthy?'
- tağsı:r! siz qačan biz-iŋ-k-ä: bar-ar=qa:-ŋız? (Är.9)
 sirEXCL youPL when we-GENPARTDAT go-AORCLT2PLPOSS
 Sir, when are you intending to visit us (at home)?

1:ša:n ba:ba-lar ayd-ıpdır-lar (Är.1)
 eša:n ba:ba:-PL say-PSTPL
 The honorable *eša:n ba:ba:* has said...

Generally, dialect-speaking men with close ties to the religious sphere (in the local idioms denoted as *ahli madrasa* 'people of the madrasa') display a marked inclination towards overuse of pluralisation. Not only do they more or less regularly replace the PRON2SG *sen* with PRON2PL *siz* in whatever contexts, but they also attach a plural suffix to the regular IMPER2PL, e.g., *gelinler!* 'come!', *barınlar!* 'go!', obviously inspired by the excessive politeness that prevails at madrasa.⁹⁸

2.2.2.2 Dialect difference: Address

Address is a special cultural domain where politeness and other phenomena connected to human and social relations are played out in language. Whenever a speaker directs word on someone or has to call him, the specificities of the relations between these two human beings are likely to be reflected in what is being said, and how. The Turkmen dialects differ from one another in these matters to a sensible degree. Generally speaking, address reflects either balance or imbalance.

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects a balanced relation such as the one between friends, colleagues of equal status, etc. is expressed by way of addressing each other with one single term, namely, either a given name (anthroponym) or an alias / nickname / pen-name (*taxallus*). An imbalanced relation, on the other hand, such as would be teacher-pupil, doctor-patient, master-worker, landowner-farmer, but also all asymmetrical relations in terms of age and gender, and special relationships such as host-guest, necessitate a special mode of address. More often than not, the given name or *taxallus* is in such cases not used at all or if it is, it needs to be supplied with a term of address such as – from "below" directed to "above" – *sa:yib* (to follow the respected person's, male or female, name). Terms of address that are real or symbolic kinship terms can be directed "up" or "down" the social hierarchy in accordance with the hierarchy of age expressed by the term; the given name may precede the term of address, but only "up the ladder" (*Oraz ağa* 'Mr Oraz', *A:qnaba:t eke* 'Ms A:qnaba:t', *ini:m* 'my dear (lit. 'my little brother')' ...). When communicating with an unknown person, about

⁹⁸ Whether or not this pluralisation of IMPER2PL might be copied from neighboring Uzbek dialects, which also show this phenomenon, remains to be investigated.

whose social status the speakers are uncertain so that they do not know for sure which term of address would be appropriate, one does not employ any term of address but resorts to a simple *siz* 'you 2PPL/FRM'.

While these conventions are carefully observed among Ä:rsa:ri dialect speakers and others who speak that dialect in a given context, speakers of the Teke dialect do not conform to them at all, but apply *sen* 'thou 2PSG/INFRM' to persons about whose social status they are not informed, or even elders and guests, who by virtue of age or specificity of status in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect would by nature be liable for a respectful address, as which Ä:rsa:ri speakers would only consider *siz*. In the Teke dialect terms of respectful address such as *sa:yib* are hardly used at all; even a student would address his professor with a simple *mä:lim!* 'teacher!', which according to Ä:rsa:ri standards would be totally inacceptable.

2.2.2.3 Dialect difference: Incompatibility and misunderstanding

Divergence in standards is not confined to the usage or non-usage of given terms and forms, but extends to pronunciation and the realm of emphasis and accent as well. The typical Teke "tone of speaking" is by speakers of most other dialects perceived as loud (!), somewhat rude, and commanding; to the sense of Ä:rsa:r1 speakers, typical Teke word accent "shifts to the first syllable, which makes their speech sound fierce and vigorous" (quoted from my informant År.1). I remember a humorous saying of a good friend of mine, according to whom "a true Teke would be a man who, when saying 'beh!' out of surprise, makes whatever paper, straw and other light objects lie in front of him, fly up into the air" (Är. 10). The other way round, Teke speakers attribute connotations of "woman-like" feebleness, effeminacy and lack of straightforwardness to "typical Ä:rsa:r1 speech" - to which the Ä:rsa:r1 respond that their speech simply bears the mark of high literacy and that if any one should be accused of speaking unmanly, it should be the Teke, who use the purportedly more effiminate present form -yä:r- instead of -yo:r-. Teke speakers go still as far as applying the offensive pseudoethnonym "Tat" (which denotes ethnic aliens) to Ä:rsa:ri speakers, arguing that many features of their dialect do not belong to the Turkmen language but are rather borrowings, either from Persian or from Uzbek (Te. 2).

As comes clear from these last examples, dialect difference is in quite a few cases fraught with mutual stereotypisation and prejudice in perception, which in its turn appears to result from actual or perceived social imbalance between communities of speech. Most probably these phenomena result from a historical group experience rather than from individual and actual perception and interpretation. However, individuals today do make meaning of language difference as they perceive it. The following saying, which I have not only collected once again during my recent fieldwork but which had been familiar to me for a long time from serious as well as nonsense talk, is just one out of many points that are put forward as proof of the "superiority" or "inferiority" of one dialect or another: In the Teke dialect, the polite word to invite a guest into a room would be *geč!* 'go ahead!'; the same word in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect is employed for whipping on goats... (Är. 9). If a given Ä:rsa:ri speaker who is not familiar with the Teke dialect were addressed by a Teke speaker this way, interdialectal misunderstanding would doubtlessly lead to feelings of insult.

The fact that the lexicon of different dialects may feature – sometimes unexpected – differences comes as no surprise. However, the overall similitude of the Turkmen dialects seems to lead to surprise and misunderstanding especially in the case of "false friends". One of these, which has repeatedly been mentioned by my informants, is the verb $g_{i:gur}$ which in Ä:rsa:ri dialect means 'to call, to summon' while in the Teke dialect it means 'to fly into a rage, to hassle'. Many a time a Teke speaker, when hearing an Ä:rsa:ri speaker say *ata:n* $g_{i:guryo:r!}$, would ask with surprise, "Why is his father angry with him?".

2.2.2.4 The urban and the rural

Turkmen tribes have from ancient times been mobile stockbreeders with a less marked inclination towards city-dwelling. This condition to a certain extent persists until today: The percentage of urban Turkmen population is very low. In the provinces and districts which have above been mentioned as home to Turkmens, the majority of these live in rural areas rather than towns. This situation has slowly been changing in recent years: Due to a significant development of trade and commerce, but also as a result of civil war and lack of security in the countryside and of a general trend towards the amenities and cultural attractions of city life Turkmens have also begun to flock towards urban centers such as Mazāri Sharif, Shibirghān and Kunduz. In town the official language and means of – also, inter-ethnic – communication is predominantly Persian. Thus Persian is taking more and more influence on the language of Turkmen city dwellers, too. First of all, urban Turkmens include Persian vocabulary into their lexicon. Secondly, they constantly reduce the domains in which Turkmen is the exclusive or predominant medium of communication. The young generations who grow up in the city not unexpetedly lack a proper command of agricultural and pastoral terminology and do not know the specific vocabulary of folklore and ancient customs. They either prefer Persian lexemes at all, or apply and pronounce the Turkmen words incorrectly.

Along with singular lexical items the city-dwellers also copy elements of Persian grammar into their dialect or blend Persian conjunctional phrases and even morphological items into the Turkmen language: *ba:-vuju:diki* 'in view of the fact that...', *dar kulli* ... 'all over ...', *agarči* 'although'; *yüzha:* 'hundreds', *müŋha:* 'thousands' etc.

Rural-urban difference can also be made out in mode of speech and intonation. Rural people, especially stockbreeders who live at the margins of the steppes, are said to speak at a louder voice and higher pitch than city-dwellers. I have often observed disapproving remarks by Turkmens who had got used to city life over a period of time, when rural relatives came to town and were seemingly "arguing and contending" among themselves all the time; in fact, the speakers under consideration were just talking at their own normal pitch.

The urban-rural divide in dialect is most striking among the speakers of small dialects such as Muqrı, Xaṭab, Surxı and Bayat: While the idioms of the city-dwellers among those display a rather heavy influence of the Ä:rsa:rı majority dialect, villagers and rural people preserve dialects without a major imprint of Ä:rsa:rı, Persian, or other influence.

2.2.2.5 Muhājirs and the others

As has been stated above, the larger part of the Turkmen population of Afghanistan are descendents of *muhājir*s, i.e., immigrants to North, North-West and West Afghanistan who in the 1920s and 1930s settled in from the territories that are today Turkmenistan and to a lesser extent, Uzbekistan and Tajikistan. The ancestors of the others had been dwelling in the Amū Daryā Basin of the northern regions of today's Afghanistan for many centuries.

These two categories of Turkmens differ quite significantly in custom, gear and lifestyle; a major item of differentiation that permits immediate attribution of individuals to their descent group is the so-called *esgi*, a delicate veil that is attached to both sides of the female headgear. This *esgi* is red in the case of the *muhājir* women while women of ancient local descent wear the *esgi* in golden yellow.

Interestingly, in linguistic terms the difference between *muhājirs* and non-*muhājirs* is insignificant. Actually, the Turkmen population of Afghanistan as a whole has over time been mobile. Due to landlessness and inadequacy of the available lands for pastoral purposes people kept being on the move; along with this many were forcefully resettled from one area to another through cruel policies implemented by the governments of its day. However, *muhājirs* as well as internally displaced Turkmens have always aimed at settling down in the vicinity of co-ethnics and as a result of the tribalism that prevailed in Turkmen society, local

residents always attempted and managed to provide locations for their co-ethnics to make a home in their close neighborhood. This has led to relatively compact "ethnic" settlements, which is also reflected in many toponyms and denominations of villages and regions, such as $\check{C}aqur-Q\imath\check{s}la\check{g}$, Olam-Q\imath\check{s}la\check{g} (villages where members of the respective tribes or sub-entities dwell), \ddot{A} :rsa:ri $\check{S}a$:x (an irrigation canal along which \ddot{A} :rsa:ri population dwells) and similar ones. The fact that the majority of the Afghan Turkmens live in compact settlements of this kind has until this day prevented the internal cohesion of the dialects from breaking down.

The *muhājir*-non-*muhājir* divide does not seem to be a decisive criterion for dialects, nor does the geographical one. Mobility has not significantly affected the dialectal structure of the Afghan Turkmen population. In fact, the dialect borders run along ethnic lines. The Turkmens are more conservative in keeping up the tribal organisation than any other ethnic group in the region, so that until today the ethnic differentiation really matters. On the other hand, the tribal groups are not linguistically differentiated: Regardless of the considerable geographical distance between their locations, Teke from the city of Herat in the far West would not depict any significant difference in dialect from Teke who live in the village of Barmazīd (Balkh province, central North). The dialect of the Ä:rsa:r1 from the Kunduz province does not differ from the dialects spoken in the Jowzjān and Fāryāb provinces either. The idioms of the Ä:rsa:r1 Qarqın and Xamya:b, who live along the Amū Daryā and are non-*muhājir* swith a long pre-history in the region, do in their turn not differ significantly from the idioms spoken by *muhājir* Ä:rsa:r1 of Andkhoy, Davlatābād, Aqča and Šibirghān.

2.2.2.6 Literates and illiterates

The spoken language of people with formal education differs in significant ways from the idioms of illiterates. Illiterates do not copy items of other languages into their own speech; in popular local interpretation, their idioms are thus perceived as "purer" (pers. $s\bar{a}ftar$). The popular interpretation mostly relates to the lexicon – illiterate Turkmens use a higher percentage of "originally Turkmen" vocabulary (*kalimahāyi asīli turkmanī*). Along with that, literate intellectuals with a marked relation to urban cultural life (*ravšanfikrān*, *farhangiyān*) do not only copy or include a whole lot of Persian vocabulary into their language, but their speech is heavily influenced by Persian morphology and grammar, too, to the degree that it appears as if straightly copied or "translated" from Persian. Examples of this kind of speech are:

- sizleriŋ ta:nkerha:yı a:blarŋız ba:r eken, nä:dip bulara su: čıqaryo:sıŋız? (Är.19)
 You have water tanks, so why are you pulling up water to these?
- a:dım Esedulla:, bir ya:rım yıl boldıki bö:rde besıpatı wılıswa:l ijra:yı wezi:pe etyo:n. (Är.23)

My name is Esedulla:, it's been one and a half years that I am serving in the position of a district head here.

 ana šundağ etib ol neferi:ki öz ya:nında urgenedi behisa:b isti:da:di xuda:yi dige xayya:ti-yem. soŋ xayya:tiŋ ya:nına barse, bä:zi: ra:zini bilse we tari:qasını nä:me etse soŋ yaxši boladi. (Ba.3)

By doing so that person who learns (the craft) by himself, so to speak (his knowledge) is a God-given craft after all, the taylor profession, too. If later he goes to a (real) taylor and learns some of his (professional) secrets and [accepts; lit. does stuff] his modes, then that's fine.

As has been stated earlier, in this context the idiom of people with close relations to the religious sphere (ahli madrasa) deserves special attention. Within this social group we again need to differentiate, since the language of those elderly men who are in popular expression named *mullāhāvi vatanī* ('home-grown mullahs') is very different from the language of proselytization as employed by mullahs who have been educated in Pakistani madrasas of today. The language of the *vatanī* mullahs is heavily influenced by Arabic in lexicon as well as in grammatical structure. The speech of these mullahs sounds as if - not unlike what *mutatis mutandis* has been said about the speech of intellectuals influenced by Persian – they first phrased their sentences in Arabic and then translated them into "Turkmen" by way of calque as best they can. As my informants would put it, this language "does not resemble the language of today but sounds as if spoken five or six hundred years ago" (Är.50) and makes an "outdated", "old-fashioned" impression on them. The following example, which has been recorded from a sermon delivered by Mawlawi Mawliddin Zahabi (Är.50), was actually directed upon a contemporary audience of non-experts in religious matters, that is to say, a general Turkmen public, but in structure, vocabulary and style it heavily resembles literary texts of the Qişaş ul-Anbiyā' kind:

• (...) elbetde yuba:rduk Nu:hnı qawmıŋ tarafına, bes di:di olarğa ö:z da'wat tilinde, ey qawmım! qulluq aydıŋ alla: ta'a:la:nıŋ ö:zi:ğa ki yo:q sizler üčün hi:č qulluq etku:či

ondan bašğa bır za:t, čünki qorqyo:rn sizler uču:n ol küniŋ aza:bından yä:ni: qıya:mat küniniŋ aza:bından qorqyo:n sizlerge ša:mıl bolar di:p (...) (Är. 50)

Obviously I dispatched Noah to the people. Then (Noah) said to them in his language of proselytization, «My people! Express your gratitude to God Himself – for there is nobody else for you to be grateful. Because I am afraid of the pains on your behalf, I am afraid that you might be included in the pains of that day, (namely) the Day of Judgement (...)».

In fact elements like *yuba:rduk, olarğa, tilinde, qulluq, ö:zi:ğa, etku:či* and *sizlerge* contain phonological and morphological elements that do not conform to any Turkmen dialect of today but seem to be copied from the Chagatay literary language of a bygone age, which in its turn depicted exactly the kind of copying from Arabic syntax as we observe it here. However, the speaker did care for some phonetic adaptation to the contemporary Ä:rsa:ri Turkmen dialect.

The language of proselytization employed by mullahs with a Pakistani madrasa education, on the other hand, bears a totally different character. They struggle hard to speak the idiom of the masses they address, to make sure that their message is well understood and received. Their language also contains Arabic elements in lexicon, syntax and stylistics, but to a far lesser degree than the language of the *vațanī* mullahs. The proper Turkmen elements of their speech conform to the regular Afghan Turkmen of today, mostly its Ä:rsa:ri dialect.

 Alı ši:ri xuda: qaysı bir do:stlarınnan - bi:rinnen bi:rek dirhem qarz aldı. bi:rek dirhem. munı aldıda ba:zar bardı. bi:rek dirheme-de bi:rek ena:r berdi. hezireti Alı ši:ri xuda: šini ö:z yağšı göryo:nja hemdi:wa:l juftlerne, ö:z aya:llarna alıq-gelyo:tı ğoltığna ğısıp, bir waxt bir köčeden geliberse, bir meri:z yatı:r köčä:niŋ ğirasında. ğara:ŋ misilma:nlar! hezireti Ali šı:rı xuda:nı alla:h (j) imtiha:n edip göryo:r onı. soŋ hezireti Alı ši:ri xuda: ötip bilmedi do:šinnan yaŋqi meri:ziŋ. meri:zden so:radı nä:raqam ahwa:liŋ? nä:dip yatı:rsıŋ bi köčä:niŋ ğırasında? (Är. 2)

Ali, the Lion of God, took a loan of one dirham, one single dirham, from one of his friends. He took it and went to the bazaar. (The seller) gave him one pomegranade for one dirham. Hazrat Ali was taking this (pomegranade) to his beloved friend and partner, his own wife, stuffing (it) into his armpit. When he passed along the street (he saw that) an ill person was lying on the roadside. Look, Muslims! Allah (j) was examining Hazrat Ali the Lion of God. Then Hazrat Ali the Lion of God was unable to

(just) pass by the side of the above-mentioned sick person. He asked the sick person «How is your condition? Why are you lying on the side of this road?».

First of all, this text does not contain any outdated vocabulary or phrase; all lexical elements are taken from the active Ä:rsa:rı dialect. Secondly, the style of the text is easy and natural and keeps to popular speech. – These proselytizers have not studied at traditional Afghan Turkmen madrasas, which is why their language is not influenced by ancient literary Turkmen. Instead, they are trained to use the popular oral language which they only supply with additional lexemes in case of need. Otherwise they observe the conventions of everyday Turkmen speech, based on one of the local dialects.⁹⁹

The speech of people without formal education stands out due to simplicity and most prominently, due to the evident absence of lexical and morphosyntactic copies. In the following I am quoting the words of an illiterate woman in her seventies which may illustrate this characterization:

 men bosa oğlan, oyna:rıma bosa oğlan yo:q. bir toqmağı bä:bek edip do:nimi burenip da:ğa čıqıq gityo:n. ekelermiz bosa sö:kyo:r, heley bolıp ölen diyib. yekeje i:rigip etyo:rın-da.(Är.5)

I was a child, but there was no (other) child for me to play with. I made a doll from a stick, covered myself with my coat and climbed the hill. My elder sisters would insult me saying, may you die (immediately) after getting married. (But) I only did so (because of) being lonesome...

2.2.2.7 Social status

Much has been said about language and speech as a means to create social distinction and exert power.¹⁰⁰ The Afghan Turkmen speech community might be an excellent case for investigation into how imbalanced power that comes with hierarchies of age, gender, wealth, and social status in a broad sense, is played out in speech on the "linguistic market"; the differentiation into dialects adds yet another important aspect. However, since this study primarily pursues other goals, a few observations may suffice to point only to very few issues in this place. Much further investigation would be necessary to give justice to the topic.

⁹⁹ Informant Är. 2, Mawlawi: Ubaydulla:h, is a resident of the Qaramqol district of Fāryāb province. His speech is based on the local Ä:rsa:ri dialect.

¹⁰⁰ Pierre Bourdieu: Language and Symbolic Power, ed. John Thompson, Harvard 1993.

The typical speech of members of elevated Turkmen social groups $(a'y\bar{a}n, a\bar{s}r\bar{a}f)$ is characterized by a grave and solemn pronunciation of single words and a relatively slow pace of speaking and low pitch of intonation. Vowel reduction and consonant omission can hardly be observed at all. This mode of speaking has by many informants been characterized as "emphatic" (*mu'akkad*) and "bossy" (*āmirāna*). As for stylistics, members of these social groups display a remarkable favor of inserting proverbs and clichéd phraseologisms, words of wisdom quoted from notables (*suxanāni buzurgān*), and so on. – Speakers from lower social strata (*'avvām*), however, generally prefer to speak at a quicker pace, with less concern for a careful pronunciation and a marked inclination to reduce vowels (especially /1/ and /i/) and omit consonants (especially /r/). Elaborated stylistics does not seem to play a major role in the speech of these people, except for perhaps an occasionally inserted proverb.

These features all occur, as has been said, in an absolute manner in non-mixed speaker constellations. However, they are – at least by members of the elevated groups – also consciously employed and taken to an even higher level of distinctiveness when speakers from different social strata participate in one given situation. Afghan Turkmen $a \bar{s} r \bar{a} f$ do play out what they perceive as linguistic superiority. Their speech behavior clearly shows that they are well aware of language as an instrument of power, which they purposefully apply to make their conversation partners aware that they are facing a person of elevated status.

2.2.2.8 Gender

Difference in language and speech is not confined to the socio-economic and socio-cultural sphere, but can also be observed in the realm of gender, which is (along with age) the most obvious and important mode of social differentiation among Afghan Turkmens.

Beyond verbal utterances that are neccessitated by immediate demands of everyday life, typical male conversation is related to thematical fields like professional work, politics, societal matters and the like, while female conversation revolves around the concrete problems of life, social and economic hardship, and personal and family affairs. In mixed-gender situations it is the males who direct the conversation in the guise of intellectually superiors, setting thematical focusses and expecting the females to accord with them and abstain from alternative aspirations. While it is normal for men to allow themselves to interrupt female speech at will, the same hardly happens in the reverse direction. Females show a marked inclination towards asking questions. While men when asking questions do so in order to elicit answers, females rather apply the questioning mode as a communicative strategy to keep conversation going.

Conversation analysis would be a promising field of gender-related study. Men appear to be more versatile in control mechanisms that prevent conversation from going astray – they build up consistent lines of explicit and transparent argumentation, put forward or withdraw arguments in a strategic manner, and draw explicit verbal conclusions. Observing strict rules of seniority in bilateral and group conversation leads to what could be termed "orderly conversation" in the male sphere, which of course deprives and often silences persons low down on the hierarchical scales or enables them only of interfering with very brief and deficient sayings. – In the female realm, "orderly conversation" of the male kind is as such absent, since there seem to be no obvious rules of sequence, non-interruption, or general consistency in female group conversation. It regularly happens that two or three persons talk at the same time while nobody seriously cares to receive these verbal messages and adequately react on them, just as if communication were generally not the primary, or at least not the only important function of these verbal interactions. Arguments are mostly not elaborated in detail but come as compact, general, and often intransparent entities.

As far as I have been able to observe, women's speech generally differs from male's speech in that tempi are quicker, pitches are higher, and there is a remarkable tendency to reduce or remove vowels and consonants in positions which only an in-depth study could define. Specific morphemes are employed much more frequently than in male speech. This is mostly the case with diminutive and emphative morphems, such as the denominal *-ji:q-* derogative-emphative and deverbal *-iyi:p-* mirative-emphative. On the lexicological plane, there seems to be only little difference between female and male language; one distinctive feature is the usage of *hay!* or *ahay!* as an interjection to draw attention ('hey!') in the male, and of *ayu:!* in the female sphere. Cursing and applying derogatory speech seems to be a prerogative of females rather than men; cursewords like *yer tartan*, *a:di ğa:lan*, *juwa:nmerg* and phrases like *boq iyen*, which are in common currency in female speech, would hardly ever be heard in male settings.

2.2.2.9 Diglossia and dialect shift

Speakers of the *nāxālış* dialects (Muqrı, Xaṭab, Bayat, Xoja:mba:z ...) in their everyday lives find themselves in a diglossic situation: On the bazaar, in public assemblies and more generally, whenever they communicate with Turkmen non-fellow-community members, their means of communication would be Ä:rsa:rı, the Turkmen *franca* variety of North Afghanistan, whereas in their private homes, with family and in their quarters and villages where they live along with community members only, they speak their own dialect. The

Afghan Teke and Sa:rıq, on the other hand, are not subject to such a diglossy: they use their own dialect when interacting with other Turkmen speakers, even if those belong to the statistically dominant Ä:rsa:rı tribe.

This observation corresponds with what is otherwise described as the typical relation of dialects and standard languages in a diglossic L- and H-variety constellation.¹⁰¹ In the Afghan Turkmen case, the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, although still far from having attained the status of a standard language, seems to be regarded as a high-prestige variety which should be prefered to the other dialects in formal situations.

During my conversation and recording sessions with speakers of *nāxālış* dialects I realized that in this respect the speech of young persons differs again significantly from the speech of more aged men: While elderly people regularly used their own dialect under the conditions and in the domains described above, most of the younger men seem to be trying hard to keep to the Ä:rsa:r1 language even in situations when they are explicitly encouraged to use their own dialect. Such was the case, for example, when in Muqri-only assemblies I tried to make young men speak that dialect. (Old people responded to my request very positively, as if proud of their dialect and grateful for an occasion to boast it.) The youngsters appeared to feel ashamed of doing so, as if they were considering their dialect a socially inferior variety that needed to be denied. Once I asked a dormitory student from the village Siyāgird in the environs of Mazāri Sharif, where many Muqrı Turkmens live, what he considered to be the main difference between life in town and life in the village. He responded

 leyliyeyi yu:rde gelenmiz yağsı boldı, bu yerde hem yağšı ders oqıyo:rs, hem-de Türkmen dilini u:rendik bu yerä: gelip. (Mu. 3)
 It's been good that we came to the boarding school, here we study well and I have also (at last) learned the Turkmen language when I came here.

From his statement we may derive that he does not consider his native Muqri dialect as "proper Turkmen" at all, but for him Turkmen is tantamount to the Ä:rsa:ri dialect which he only apprehended in town.

This is not an individual case. The inclination to shift from one's own dialect to \ddot{A} :rsa:r1 can be observed with many members of the *nāxālış* dialects. They try hard to adapt to \ddot{A} :rsa:r1 modes in matters of morphology and lexicon and more generally, in their ways of speaking as

¹⁰¹ Compare for example Brit Mæhlum's chapter on "Language and social spaces" (sub-chapter 2: "The linguistic market", in *Language and Space* 2010, 18-32).

such – but they face major difficulties, for example, with regard to phonology: Using long vowels appropriately seems to be a big challenge and in a desire to "do things right" these speakers even resort to hypercorrect vowel lengthening: *a:t* instead of (\ddot{A} :rsa:rı) *at* 'horse', *a:ta* instead of *ata* 'father', *a:rpa* instead of *arpa* 'barley' (all examples from Mu. 2). Hypercorrectness is just one phenomenon that comes with the desire to accommodate to the high-prestige variety. Another one would be the inability to correctly interprete phonetic specificities of lexemes unknown to their native dialects, which then results in pseudo-correct pronunciation (and in cases of coincidence even in pseudo-lexemes). An example of this kind I encountered with the same young Muqrı speaker (Mu. 2), who used to say *doğrı at* instead of *do:rı at* – when meaning to talk about a "grey horse" he in fact said "right horse".

Male, in particular young male speakers of nāxālış dialects who frequently interact with Ä:rsa:ri Turkmens appear to be under heavy pressure to accommodate to the H-variety in many domains. Interestingly, a different situation seems to prevail in the female realm. Generally speaking, the linguistic gender divide is more conspicuous in the *nāxālis* dialects than in the others: Females do not seem to share the strong inclination encountered in the male sphere, to copy from, or even shift to the dominant Ä:rsa:ri dialect. My material may not support an ultimative statement, but it seems as if females - most probably due to lesser contact with outsiders to their dialect group - preserved the dialects in a "purer" form. I should like to conclude with an observation I have made when working with a pair of brother and sister (Gula:m Sax1, 42, and Runa, 23, both natives of Mazār-e Šarīf) from the Bayat group, whose speech I compared carefully. As a result we can state that the idiolect of the sister (Ba.3) contains a significantly higher percentage of Uzbek and Persian vocabulary, and many more items of morphology and syntax copied from these languages, than is the case with her brother's idiolect (Ba. 3), which is in its turn influenced by the Ä:rsa:ri dialect. Thus the male sibling accommodates to the "better Turkmen" variety while the female sibling accomodates to non-Turkmen high-prestige idioms altogether. This observation deserves attention and the study should in the future be extended to similar pairs of speakers from all dialects.

2.2.2.10 Other Turkic idioms

Over the last centuries Turkmens of the Ä:rsa:rı, Muqrı, Xaţab, Surxı, Bayat and Xoja:mba:z tribes used to live intermingled with Uzbeks or at least at the margins of the latter's areas of residence. Uzbek or Uzbek-speaking dynasties reigned over most regions populated by these Turkmens from the 17th to the early 20th centuries, such as was the case in the Emirate of Bukhara and the Khivan Khanate. Wherever historical Turkmen settlements existed on what is today Afghan territory – for example in the regions of Qarqın, Xamyāb, Šortepe and Marūčāq –, these Turkmens also lived in close vicinity of Uzbek communities and/or under Uzbek rule. This is why the dialects of all these Turkmen groups depict a considerabe Uzbek influence today as opposed to, for example, the dialects of the Teke, Yomut and Sa:rıq Turkmens who lived distant from Uzbek-speaking communities.

Bilingualism with some kind of Uzbek was and still is a widespread feature among the Turkmens of the above-named groups. Along with that, for many centuries the influence of Uzbek via the Chaghatay literary language has been quite considerable, too. As a result, many features of the various local and literary Uzbek idioms have found their way into the Turkmen dialects of North and North-West Afghanistan. Many of my informants were aware of this fact and commented on it in our conversations. Standard features that are always mentioned when people talk about difference between the above-named dialects and the Teke-Yomut-Sa:rıq cluster would be striking differences in lexicon, such as the frequently used "uzbekoid" lexemes *yağši* 'good', *kette* 'big' and *yaqı:n* 'near' and quite a few more – as opposed to *oŋat* ~ *ğawı*, *olaqan* ~ *olı* and *ğolay*, respectively. While popular scholarship is very much aware of these surface phenomena, little or no mention is made of copied features or calqued phenomena within deeper structures of the language, such as verbal morphology and grammar, although these also play a significant role, specifically in the Muqrı, Xaṭab, Surxı, Xoja:mba:z, Bayat and Olam dialects.

Many Turkmens, especially males, due to their frequent contacts with Uzbeks in the nonfamilial sphere have a full or at least sound command of the respective local or regional Uzbek idioms. What has already been mentioned above with regard to Persian, in an analogous manner can be stated with regard to Uzbek as well: If speakers of Uzbek and Turkmen are present in one situation, the Turkmens will automatically switch to Uzbek for communication, whereas the opposite hardly ever happens.

We have observed regional difference in the speech behavior of mixed groups. In the regions of Andkhoy, Šibirghān, Mazāri Šarīf, Kunduz and Davlatābād an assembly of Turkmen

speakers is likely to switch to Uzbek immediately upon the arrival of an Uzbek, although local Uzbeks indeed to understand quite a bit of Turkmen. On the other hand in Marūčāq, Herāt, Khamyāb and Qarqın this type of switching occurs on a smaller scale. The social position of the given interlocutors plays an important role as well: If the Turkmen conversation partner is for example a trader or a big businessman while the Uzbek belongs to the lower stratum of society (farmers, day-laborers, servants) or is in some way socially or economically dependent on the Turkmen under consideration, the Uzbek will try hard to speak Turkmen and make his partner happy, even if he cannot speak adequately - particularly the pronounciation of long-vowel words causes difficulties. The desire to accommodate to the idiom of the other does not seem to depend on the hierarchy of age, but on social, political, and most prominently, economic hierarchies.

A phenomenon that has come to the fore only in recent years is the influence of Turkish (of Turkey) on the Afghan Turkmen idioms. Commercial and business ties are constantly intensifying, and so are encounters of Turkmens with Turks and Turkey in the cultural domain. Social media, Turkish films and serials on Afghan television bring Turkmens in contact with the Turkish standard language which they can easily pick up for receptive purposes. Partially Turkish schooling in Afghan-Turk schools, which is for many young men followed by universitary studies in Turkey and for others by an employment in enterprises run by Turks, has brought about a significant degree of active proficiency in that language. A detailed study of Turkmen-Turkish (receptive?) bilingualism or more generally, the specific challenges of a situation that shares many features with diglossia, would be worth the effort, but this is not the place to go in any detail. It may suffice to mention that again, much as is the case with Uzbek, popular scholarship primarily observes surface phenomena that concern the lexicon: Single lexemes such as saygili 'honored', aday 'deputee', toplanti 'meeting', sayin (to be added to words of address), and bati 'West' have come to substitute the respective hörmetli, wakil, majlis, sa:yib, and ğarb in the oral and sometimes even written language of the urban Turkmen youth of Afghanistan, which everybody seems to be aware of, but many elders also seem to disapprove of. For many young Turkmens who are involved in Turkish language schooling/studies and/or professional work, when communicating among each other even language shift to Turkish seems to be a welcome option - whether caused by the lack of a fully-fledged Turkmen language of their own that conforms to the standards they aspire, or in order to avoid a shift to Persian, Paštu or any other standard language, or merely out of convenience since people perceive Turkish as "similar", "close" and "almost one's own", remains to be investigated.

2.2.2.11 The language of media

A unified and standardized Turkmen language of Afghanistan does not exist until today, as has been stated above. None of those people who actively participate in media like radio and TV, periodical and non-periodical press, audio broadcasting, and the internet have had proper schooling in their Turkmen mother tongue. Therefore oral and written speech is in a widely anarchical condition, where what one given author considers to be correct in phonetic realization, morphology and grammatical construction, and orthography is predictably contested and disqualified as "against the rules" (!) by many other members of the community of speech.

The language which speakers and textwriters employ in the media depicts all kinds of influences: Since many news and programs are anyway simply translated from Persian models, there is a heavy imprint of Persian on media language in the first place. In order to make up for deficiencies in available Turkmen vocabulary, people copy or translate the terms they need from Persian as best they can; these translations are often inadequate or even ridiculous. Individual attempts at terminology-making have resulted in lexemes like, for example, *tez čapyo:n* which is a calque imitating *tundrav* 'extremist, fundamentalist' (lit. 'Fast-runner'), which in Persian by convention is properly understood but when transfered into Turkmen is simply misleading and inadequate. Attempts at imitating standard Turkmen of Turkmenistan or copying from it, which other individuals deem appropriate, have so far not yielded satisfactory results either.

The language of blogs and internet sites is even more anarchic than the language of more conventional media, and the proposed innovations in lexicon and other fields are not any more convincing; just the contrary, they are often simply unintelligible. The internet has developed into a field of competition where some people – often persons with little or no experience at all in the scripturality of their mother tongue – are putting forward individual proposals and others join the debate with approval, rejection or sometimes with suggestions for improvement. According to my unsystematical observations, out of the Afghan Turkmen dialects the Ä:rsa:ri idiom is the one predominantly used for internet purposes. The kind of content typically put on the Web are literary and folkloric exercises and contributions concerning cultural topics whereas political, judicial and social topics – obviously, for lack of terminology – are so far not discussed in Afghan Turkmen, let alone scientific or technical ones.

The language of schoolbooks, as has been said before, is not consistent either since the texts are being written by different people from different dialect backgrounds without sufficient coordination. Many a textbook is simply translated from a Persian book rather than being written creatively in the mother tongue, which makes the texts appear artificial and clumsy. On the other hand some authors rely on model texts from Turkmenistan, which for reasons already discussed above turn out to be widely unintelligible for Turkmen children from Afghanistan. Inconsistency in terminology and orthography render these books totally inadequate for use at primary educational institutions.

3. Methodological and technical remarks

3.1 Fieldwork

In this study, for the extraction of the characteristics of the dialects under consideration I essentially rely on materials collected from the field. I primarily relied on elicitation through conversations which I recorded. Turkmens of various group affiliations are said to live in 37 different administrative units in the North, North East, North West, and West of Afghanistan.¹⁰² I have been able to visit most of these regions, carry out conversations and make recordings. However, over the last few years the tightening of the security situation in parts of the country has had a negative effect on the accessibility of some of the regions which were actually relevant to my study. Among the regions which I should have included in my fieldwork but due to security considerations have not been able to, are for example Marūčāq and Darai Šāx, which feature Teke population, and the village of Nahri Sirāj in the Hilmand province, where a number of Turkmens are located who in the early 20th century had immigrated from the Soviet Union. In such cases I relied on a different method of investigation: Since the areas under consideration do not have major bazaars and opportunities to provide all needs of everyday life, people from there, who speak various dialects, travel to the prominent commercial cities of North Afghanistan, for example Mazāri Sharif, Šibirghān and Andkhoy, and also to the capital, Kabul. For my fieldwork I partly relied on people who had come to such places where I was able to work.

Another problem which has become salient especially during the last years is the general increase of political tension, which comes with the security problems and has lead to a loss of trust in social relations. Many people have become shy of conversing with strangers, which made access to informants difficult for me and in some cases rendered it totally impossible.

A particular problem is the prevailing gender segregation in society. Women have been hardly accessible for conversation at all, either out of an unwillingness of their own or because their families did not grant them permission to talk to an unrelated male person like me. In some cases I have been able to explain my scholarly aims and was finally granted access, in others I resorted to the help of female family members, students and colleagues for the collectioning of records of female voices. Nevertheless there is a clear male bias in my materials.

¹⁰² Behmen 1380:54.

Yet another methodological problem was caused by the fact that quite a few speakers of various dialects in conversation with me as a representative of the Ä:rsa:ri Turkmen tribe, whose dialect in North Afghanistan enjoys the highest prestige of all varieties and functions as a *franca* variety in interethnic communication, were trying to adapt and adjust to my own dialect. In some of these cases I left the stage after having explained my goals and having asked my informants to continue their conversation in my absence, so that recording would take place without me being present, and to just call me back in when they were done. This method of recording has proved quite efficient in avoiding echo effects and other interference phenomena.

3.2 Sample and data processing

My materials have been collected through various approaches. In many cases I had to first explain that whatever recordings I would make were not intended for political or other goals alien to scholarly work, and would be used for my research purposes only. When informants had finally agreed to cooperate, we would start our conversation from topics related to the life situation given persons find themselves in, or about their professional background, and people would respond to these questions as they pleased. In some cases when a person was irritated by the technical devices used for recording, or did not explicitly agree to have their voices recorded, I myself, or in some situations my helpers, had to carry out covert recordings. Recordings about religious topics which were carried out in public audiences where religious personnel pursued a clearly missionary intention have been recorded with the consent of these persons only.

One of the main goals of this investigation was to include people from as many different personal backgrounds as possible into the recording sample. Thus males and females, aged and young people, highly educated persons as well as analphabets and people without or with only very little formal education, rich and poor, (descendents of) migrants from the Soviet Union as well as non-migrants, farmers and people engaged in animal husbandry, merchants and traders, religious personnel and intellectuals, craftsmen, day laborers, politicians and representatives of society, members of noble families, city-dwellers as well as rural people have been included in the research process. Except a few intellectuals, the conversation partners were not bilingual. All respondents considered themselves as active speakers of their respective dialects.

As a result of this fieldwork, 162 persons have been included in the sample and from most of them recordings have also been taken. The total of the recordings comprises 30 hours 27

minutes,¹⁰³ out of which 3 hrs. 38 min. proved technically inappropriate for further usage, including inadequate audibility or comprehensibility, and were thus ruled out. Since in Northern Afghanistan the majority of the Turkmen are Ä:rsa:r1 and their dialect functions as a *franca* idiom understood by almost all and is used by many in interethnic communication, contributions from members of the Ä:rsa:r1 tribe have been included in the sample according to their proportional relevance. While this seeming imbalance in the sample correlates to social reality and has therefore been willingly accepted, another type of imbalance also prevails, however against my initial intentions and only out of lack of better options: the gender imbalance. As explained above, I have not been able to include as many female voices into the sample as I had intended to. Among my informants of smaller dialects, namely Sa:r1q, Muqr1, Surx1 and Xoja:mba:z, there is not a single female, and among the speakers of all other dialects which I have included in my study, women are also heavily underrepresented.

This study aims at a description and analysis of materials related to the basic features of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan; the materials have been collected through fieldwork. While doing fieldwork, three essential methods of acquisition have been employed, namely, conversation, elicitation and observation. Many of my informants who know their dialects very well are at the same time analphabets or people with only very little formal education. When working with people who share these preconditions, elicitation through conversation and the recording of informal conversations between two or more speakers of the dialect under consideration proved to be the most suitable, reliable and easy methods of material acquisition. Compared with interviewing along questionnaires and the collecting of notes, conversation and the recording hereof has been chosen as primary method of data collecting, while elicitation has been used only when necessity of special in-depth enquiry arose. This method does not unravel all features of the Turkmen dialects which one may deem necessary and it does not yield full paradigms, which will be seen everywhere in my chapters. I am aware of these shortcomings, but on the other hand I argue that full paradigms which are actually full of only theoretically relevant "ghost features" which never occur in natural situations are not superior to incomplete paradigms which mirror the realities of natural speech. Many features which in actual speech just never occur would have been extremely difficult to elicit, too. In such cases I have not strived for completeness.

Besides purely linguistic analysis, this work aims at providing insights into the social uses of the idioms in question, all of which are understudied in Turkology. This is why I mostly give

¹⁰³ See Appendix 1.

full sentence examples from natural speech rather than extracting singular phenomena and presenting them out of context.

In a first step of analysis, the phonological, morphological and lexical features have been extracted from the materials. After double-checking these findings against the recordings and field notes, the features drawn from the analysis have been systematized in order to establish the main differentiation between the dialects; in some chapters dialect difference plays a minor role compared to the description of the main features as such, since the dialects simply do not differ a lot. Difference comes out most prominently in the phonology and lexicology chapters, whereas dialect difference in morphology plays a lesser important role. Verbal morphology, where dialect difference is relatively important, has not been included in this study.

For the analysis of my materials and for the presentation of the findings, Abdurrishit Yakup's study on The Turfan Dialect of Uyghur (2005) has been a source of manifold inspiration, and so has been Larry Clark's Turkmen Reference Grammar (1998). On the other hand I have not been able to follow the modes of analysis, presentation and documentation of dialectological work from Turkmenistan. As stated above, most studies from the Soviet period have not been available to me so that systematic comparison would have been impossible; rather than going for accidental comparison then, I decided to build my study primarily on my own material for the time being, hoping that in the future there may be opportunities for me to work in Turkmenistan and avail myself of all the relevant dialectological literature. There is no doubt that the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan will add important fresh material to Turkmen dialectology - after all the Afghan Turkmen dialects have remained widely untouched by developments of their respective correlates in Turkmenistan over the last eighty years in which the contacts of speakers from both sides of the border were occasional at best. Contacts with correlating Turkmen dialect speakers from Iran may have intensified over the last decades in the context of Afghan Turkmen (refugee or labour) migration to Iran; in my sample there are no such speakers either so that this interesting topic cannot be touched here.

3.3 Technical remarks

My informants comprised people from age twenty to seventy-five, who are representatives of different social strata, as has been mentioned above. Information about ethnic and linguistic group-affiliation, age, gender, educational level and so on is provided in Appendix 1.

3.4 Abbreviations

Är.	Ä:rsa:rı
Ba.	Bayat
Mu.	Muqrı
Ol.	Olam
Qa.	Qarqın
Sa.	Sa:rıq
Sal.	Salır
Su.	Surx1
Te.	Teke
Xa.	Xaṭab
Xoj.	Xoja:mba:z
Yem.	Yemreli
Yo.	Yomut
ND	nāxālış dialect(s) (Bayat, Xatab, Muqrı, Xoja:mba:z and Surxı dialekts)

XD xālış dialect(s) (Ä:rsa:rı, Teke, Olam, Sa:rıq, Salır, Yemreli and Yomut dialects)

These abbreviations are also used for short reference to my informants: (Xa.1), (Är.13) and the like.

3.5 Symbols

- () elements inserted into original texts by this author
- [] elements inserted into translations for additional explanation
- V: long vowel
- $A \sim B$ "A is at variation with B"
- > "becomes"
- < "comes from"

4. Phonology

4.1 The phonemic inventory

4.1.1 Vowel phonemes

(a) In the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, like in the Turkmen language as such, eight short and eight long vowel phonemes can be determined: /a, ä, 1, i, o, ö, u, ü/; /a:, e:, 1:, i:, o:, ö:, u:, ü:/. In that, along with Yakut and Khalaj, Turkmen counts among those Turkic languages which have systematically preserved ancient vowel length.¹⁰⁴ The Turkmen language in general has the fullest matrix of long vs. short vowel phonemes of all Turkic languages.¹⁰⁵ The Afghan Turkmen dialects preserve the phonemic distinction of long and short vowels.

(b) Some scholars have argued that Turkmen has nine short and long vowel phonemes. They were considering $|\ddot{a}|$ and |e| as phonemes in their own right which come as short as well as long, respectively; however it has been admitted that |e| exists in two verbs only.¹⁰⁶ Our findings do not support this assumption but rather indicate that |e| is the short correlate of long $|\ddot{a}|$ while neither */e:/ nor */ $\ddot{a}|$ can be regarded as phonemes. In fact a few Persian / Arabic words which were by informants copied on an individualistic, spontaneous basis but should not be considered part of the regular Afghan Turkmen lexicon, seem to form minimal pairs whose meaning differs along with the $|\ddot{a}|$ vs. |e| opposition. However, these singular and spontaneous rather than systemic, examples do not justify the assumption of a regular complete opposition matrix of $|\ddot{a}|$ vs. $|\ddot{a}|$ and |e| vs. |e|.¹⁰⁷

ph	onemes	closed s	yllables	open sylla	ables
/a/	/a:/	at 'horse', gal	<i>a:t</i> 'name', <i>ga:l</i>	<i>āara</i> 'black'	
		'stand up!'	'stay!'		
/e/	/ä:/	ek 'grow up', pel	<i>ä:k</i> 'seam',	depe 'mound'	
		'yard '	pä:l'intent'		
/1/	/1:/	\bar{g}_{lz} 'warm up',	<i>īī:z</i> 'girl',	garrı 'old, aged',	
		<i>ğır</i> 'hill'	<i>īī</i> ∶ <i>r</i> 'gray'	duri 'clear '	
/i/	/i:/	biz 'our', pil	<i>bi:z</i> 'awl', pi:l	peri 'fairy', kiči	
		'elephant'	'shovel'	'small'	
/0/	/o:/	ot 'grass', <i>gol</i>	<i>o:t</i> 'fire', <u></u> go:1		
		'branch'	'mountain edge'		
/ö/	/ö:/	<i>öl</i> 'die', <i>öč</i> 'be	hö:l 'soggy', ö:č		
		silent '	"revenge"		
/u/	/u:/	but 'shoe', uč 'fly,	bu:t 'leg', tu:t		
		jump'	'mulberry', <i>u:č</i>		
			'brim'		
/ü/	/ü:/	düš 'come down',	dü:š 'dream',		
		süri 'herd'	sü:ri 'elliptical'		

Table 4-1: Vowel phonemes

 $^{^{104}}$ Annanurov 1972:10; for a discussion of the nature of Turkic vowel length and especially the /ä/-/e/ issue see Johanson 1998:81- 90.

¹⁰⁵ Tekin 1995: 118.

¹⁰⁶ Azmun 1981:18.

¹⁰⁷ The same opinion is held by Nartiev 2010:44.

The minimal pairs given in Table 4-1 prove the phonemic quality of vowel length (mind the opposition of short /e/ and long /ä:/, however, as explained above). As Table 4-1 demonstrates, the phonemic long vs. short distinction is thoroughly represented in one-syllable minimal pairs. In open syllables the opposition can be demonstrated only in a few minimal pairs. If the minimal pair consists of a verbal and nominal stem – which is the most frequent kind of minimal pairs –, the verbal stem normally has short vowel and the nominal one, long vowel. Minimal pairs consisting of nominal stems are not as frequent as verb-and-noun pairs; verb-only pairs are rare in the Turkmen dialects.

(c) Primary phonemic length in the dialects mostly conforms to ancient Turkic length. In some lexemes length / non-length varies between the different Afghan Turkmen dialects. In these cases, the Ärsa:ri and Sa:riq dialects appear closest to general Turkic, while Teke, Yemreli and Yomut dialects differ from the broad picture. Examples:

- Är. *yo:lbars* ~ Te. *yolbars* 'lion' (yo:l Clauson 1972:917, bars (< ir. pars) p.368)
- Är. *ğo:n-* ~ Te. *ğon-* 'landing' (Ko:n- Clauson 1972:632)
- Är. *ğo:ra-* ~ Te. *ğora-* 'definding' (Kori:- Clauson1974:645-646)
- Är. *jaha:n* ~ Te. *jahan* 'world' (< pers. jaha:n)
- Är. *dünya:* ~ Yem. *dünye* 'world', (< pers. dunya:)
- $\text{Är. } a:xi:rqi \sim \text{Yo. } axirqi \text{ 'the latter' (< pers. } a:xir)$
- Är. yöri:ŋ ~ Sa. yöriŋ 'go! '

(d) Along with primary phonemic length, the dialects also have vowel length in copied lexemes, and secondary length resulting from contraction and reduction. Details about length in copied lexemes, and secondary length, will be given in the paragraphs on the individual vowels below.

	fro	ont	bac	k
high	i	i:		
middle	e	ä:	1	1:
low			а	a:
high	ü	ü:	u	u:
middle	Ö Ö:		0	0:

 Table 4-2:
 Vowels:
 high-middle-low,
 front-back

 Table 4-3: Vowels: rounding

	fro	ont	back		
close	i / i:	ü / ü:	1 / 1:	u / u:	
mid-open	e	ö / ö:			
open	ä / ä:		a / a:	o / o:	

4.1.2 Consonant phonemes

The Afghan Turkmen dialects have 27 consonant phonemes: /b, p, d, t, j, g, k, q, m, n, ŋ, r, l, w, s, z, š, ž, y, ğ, h, č/. In addition, there are $[\dot{g}] (\sim /g/), [\bar{g}] (\sim /\check{g}/), [f] (\sim /p/), [b] (\sim /b/)$, and $[x] (\sim /h/)$, whose character of either phonemes or, more probably, allophones in variation with the phonemes indicated here, needs as yet to be determined.

	stop-p	losive	frica	ative	aff	ricate	trill	nasal	lateral	glide
	voiced	voicele	voiced	voicele	voice	voiceles		voice	voiced	
		SS		SS	d	S		d		
bilabial	b	р	[b] (~/b/)					m		W
labio-				[f]						
dental				[f] (~/p/)						
inter-			[ð]	[θ]						
dental										
dental	d	t	Z	S						
palatal			ž	š	j	č	r	n	1	Y
velar	g	k	[ġ] (~/g/)					ŋ	[1] (~ /1/)	
uvular	[̄g] (~ ğ)	q	QQC							
glottal				h		[x] (~/h/)				

Table 4-4: Consonant	phonemes a	nd their	systemic allo	phones ((in brackets)
	phonemes a	ind then	systemic and	phones	(III UIdekets)

(a) The allophonic alternance between [b] and [b] and between [p] and [f]

The phoneme /b/ has two reflexes, [b] and [b], occurring respectively in head and intervocalic positions, compare for instance the two realizations of /b/ in *baba*: [baba]. The fricative bilabial may also appear in non-intervocalic intrasyllabic position in the context of a voiced consonant, for instance, in [tadbir] ~ [tadbir] ('measure, precaution') and [Abdulla] ~ [Abdulla].

Similarly, the phoneme /p/ has two reflexes, [p] and [f], occurring respectively in tail and intervocalic positions, compare for instance the two realizations of /p/ in *köpirip*: [köfirip] ('foaming'). In non-intervocalic intrasyllabic position, one may observe a freely occurring allophonic alternance, as for instance between [körpe] and [körfe] ('green, unripe'), and between [kö:fte] and [kö:pte] ('meatball').

(b) The allophonic alternance between [g] and [\dot{g}] and between [\check{g}] and [\bar{g}]

The phoneme /g/ appears to have an allophonic reflex [\dot{g}] which occurs only in intervocalic position. For instance $g\ddot{o}:gimtil$, 'bluish', is realized as [$\ddot{g}\ddot{o}:\dot{g}imtil$], *yegen* 'nephew (ZS)' as [yeġen], *bi:gelmek* 'to grow tall' as [bi:ġelmek]. In copied lexemes, [g] and [ġ] seems to freely alternate: [bi:ga:na] ~ [bi:ġa:na]. One should note that it never appears in non-intervocalic position: $g\ddot{o}:klem$, 'spring' is realized as [$\ddot{g}\ddot{o}:klem$] but never as ???[$\ddot{g}\ddot{o}:\dot{g}lem$], and the like.

In word-head position, $[\bar{g}]$ can appear as an allophonic reflex of $/\check{g}/:\check{g}atan\check{c}$, 'alloy' is systematically realized as $[\bar{g}atan\check{c}], \check{g}ol$, 'hand, arm' as $[\bar{g}ol]$. Despite the clear phonemic opposition between /q/ and $/\check{g}/$ in word-head position (contrast for instance $\check{g}ara:r$ [$\bar{g}ara:r$], '(sb.) looks (after)' with *qara:r*, 'decision'), in that position [q] and [\bar{g}] seem to freely alternate, like for instance in [qanar] ~ [$\bar{g}anar$] '(a kind of) huge sack'.

(c) The allophonic alternance between [1] and [1]

The lateral phoneme /l/ exhibits two reflexes, the palatal [l] and the velar [l], occurring respectively in front and back vowel contexts. For instance, we can contrast *elek* realized as [elek] with *ala*, realized as [ala]; or [gö:l] with [\bar{g} ol], and [\bar{a} tlär] with [atlar].

(d) The allophonic alternance between [h] and [x]

Two allophones, [h] and [x], seem to occur across Afghan Turkmen dialects as reflexes of the same phoneme, transcribed as /h/ in Table 4-4; the choice of reflex does not follow any apparent regularity, or predictable dialectal distribution, but rather seems to be either the result of the force of habit, or even merely idiosyncratic. For instance [ha:n] appears to freely atlernate with [xa:n] ('Khan, tribal leader'), [xorruq] with [horruq] ('snore'), [muhit] with [muxit] ('environment'), [muxaddır] with [muhaddır] ('stupefiant, intoxicating') and [šayx] with [šayh] ('Sheikh, religious leader'). In voiceless consonant contexts, we observe regressive assimilation as, for instance, in [xudmuhtar] ~ [hudmuhtar] ('autonomous').

(e) The dialectal and sociolectal alternance between [s] and $[\theta]$ and between [z] and $[\check{d}]$

In the Teke dialect, and exclusively in this one, /s/ is systematically articulated as $[\Theta]$ and /z/ as $[\delta]$, in all position where [s] and [z] would occur in the other dialects. In other dialects, the alternance between alveo-dental ([s] and [z]) and inter-dental ($[\Theta]$ and $[\delta]$) fricatives is merely idiosyncratic. Also, a few religiously educated people make use of the inter-dental fricatives in their sermons and speeches in lexemes copied from Arabic, where the corresponding consonant is an interdental: *za:lum* 'cruel; ignorant' in such a context would be realized as $[\deltaa:lum]$ rather than as [za:lum].

4.2 Phonological processes: Vowels

4.2.1 Fronting and raising

(a) Fronting of low vowels in native stems occurs in the Afghan Turkmen dialects, but its character is occasional rather than consistent and systematic; in most cases the low variants coexist with their raised correlates in either different dialects, or even within the same dialect.

(i) A few single native stems exist with low-back /a:/ in part of the dialects, and with raised /ä:/ in others, or both variants coexistent in the same dialect:

- a:ŋ ~ ä:ŋ : jıma:ba:yıŋ-am a:ŋı ğačıpdır. (Är. 3)
 Jıma:ba:y has lost his mind.
- a:ŋ ~ ä:ŋ : esa:si: ä:ŋ edip otırsaq hira:t wela:yatı turkmen kökenli šehir bolya: . (Te. 2)

If we consider (the matter) principally, the province of Herat – (Herat) is a city with Turkmen roots.

- **a:(r)dım** ~ **ä:dim** : ğorğan biyerden ozaq yer dä:l, bir **a:rdım** yo:l. (Är. 13) Ğorğan is not a place far from here, it is (just) one footstep's way (to there).
- a:(r)dım ~ ä:dim : hä:zir türkmenler oğıl-ğı:zlarnı mektebe berya:lar, šuna:m bir ä:dim öŋe diyip hasa:plamaq gerek. (Te. 5) Nowadays the Turkmens send their sons and daughters to school. This (we) need to consider a step forward.

(b) Raising of low and front, unrounded as well as rounded vowels occurs in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. While in stems this phenomenon appears rare and unsystematic, in the suffixation process it is quite frequent and follows systematic rules.

(i) Raising of unrounded low back /a/ into [1] occurs in a few dissyllabic native stems; mostly there coexist a variant that preserves the low back /a/, and a raised one with [1], whether within one dialect or distributed along dialect boundaries. The analogous pairing has been observed with low front /e/ä:/ and [i/i:]. Actually the question which variant is primary or secondary cannot be solved here; we consider the phenomenon as raising (instead of lowering of primary /1/ and /i/ into [a] and [e], respectively). Examples:

ayra ~ ayrı : a:ğam bilen ğoyunlarmız ayra dä:l yö:ne onıŋ gi:rdijisni ya:rım iki bölıp paylašyo:rs. (Är. 12)

Our sheep are not separate from my brother's, but we divide the revenues equally.

- **ayra** ~ **ayrı** : bul purzalar **ayrı** dä:l, kempilit satılya: . (Te. 17) These parts are not sold separately, but as a set.
- čü:re- ~ čü:re- : alma čü:redi. (Te.5) The apple rotted.
- čü:re- ~ čü:ri:- : üzümi yaxča:lda qoysam-am iki günde cü:ri:di. (Är.32) I stored the grapes in the refrigerator, but after two days spoiled.
- nä:če ~ niče : nä:če deli:llere görä: bu xi:l inek oğanista:nıŋ yağdayna bara:bar gelyo:r. (Är. 4)
 According to quite a few pieces of evidence, this sort of cattle fits to the conditions of Afghanistan.
- nä:če ~ niče : haji ba:ba niče qoyıŋız ba:r? (Mu. 1) Sir, how many sheep do you have?
- **ni:re-** ~ **ni:ri-** : **ni:rede** bolsağam sizden xabar aljaq bolars. (Te. 6) Wherever we are we hope to get news of you.
- **ni:re-** ~ **ni:ri-** : Emi:ni: sa:yıbı **ni:ride** gördiŋiz? (Är. 13) Where have you seen Emi:ni: Sa:yıb?

(ii) Raising of first-syllable rounded low front $/\ddot{o}/$ into $/\ddot{u}/$ has been observed in a few dissyllabic native stems; the non-raised variants persist, mostly in the Teke dialect, while

raising is more typical of the Ärsa:rı dialect: Te. *kökrek* ~ Är. *kükrek* 'breast'; Te. *öylen*- ~ Är. *üylen*- 'to marry'; Te. *döšek* ~ Är. 5 *düšek* 'mattrass'.

- töket- ~ tüket- : gečen a:yda a:x1:r qarzımı töketdim. (Te. 21) Last month I payed off my debts at last.
- töket- ~ tüket- : ğa:wını satıp tüketdiŋizmi? (Är. 17) Did you sell off (all) melons?

The phenomenon has also been observed in a few strongly nativized copied stems: Te. $g\ddot{o}w(i)n \sim \ddot{A}r. \ g\ddot{u}w(i)n \sim guwin$ 'spirits, liking' < arab. *kawn*; Te. *hötde* ~ $\ddot{A}r. \ h\ddot{u}tde$ 'obligation' < pers. *uhda*, $\ddot{A}r. \ u:ren- \sim$ 'learn' Te. $\ddot{o}wren-$.

- siz bıl i:šiŋ **hötdesinnen** gelip bilmejek bolsaŋız öŋnen aydıŋ. (Te. 3) If you can't carry this piece of work out as necessary, tell (me) from the start.
- her ha:lda men bil i:šiŋ **hütdä:sinnen** gelip bilerin. (Är. 19) I will in any case do this work as I am supposed to.

(iii) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, dissyllabic verbal stems which end in a vowel can only have a low unrounded /a/ or /e/ there. These low vowels are preserved as low /a/a:/ and /e/ä:/ in some grammatical forms while in others they are raised into /1/1:/ and /i/i:/, respectively. The details of these processes are discussed in the respective paragraphs of the morphology chapter. Generally speaking, the Ärsa:r1 and all $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects shows a tendency towards raising, while the Teke, Yomut and Sa:r1q dialects preserve the low quality in most cases. Examples:

- alma čü:redi (Te. 5) ~ čü:ridi (Är. 32) The apple rotted.
- alma čü:rä:n (Te. 13) ~ mewä čüri:pdir (Är. 53) The fruit is rotten.
- üšä:rsıŋ (Te.) 'you are going to catch a cold!'
- bä:begiŋ ğolajığnı yap **üši:mesin**! (Är. 28) Cover the baby's ears, it must not feel cold!
- gerdenine bir nerse **döredi.** (Te. 3) Something (i.e., a bump) appeared at his neck.
- oğlım yaman bolıp **döri:p** dir. (Är. 7) My son has taken a bad development.
- ders **oq1:masa** meniŋ 1la:j1m nä:me (Är. 1) What can I do if he doesn't do his homework.
- na:mi xuda: qura:n oqi:šiŋ yağši eken. (Är. 17) By God, your Koran recitation is good!
- o yerde bir ya:rim yil i:šlä:nen son alma:nı dimukirati:ge gidip altı a:y **oqadım**. (Sa. 2) After I had worked there for one and a half years I went to the GDR and studied six months.
- oğlımnı yağšı **oqasın** dib mazar uzatdım. (Mu.2) I sent my son to Mazar, saying he should study (something) good.

4.2.2 Rounding and unrounding

(a) Rounding of unrounded high and low vowels occurs mostly in juxtaposition with the bilabials /b/ and /w/; it is an unfrequent phenomenon and is unevenly distributed in the Afghan Turkmen dialects.

(i) In copied lexemes which have /w/ in juxtaposition with the low front vowel /e/, rounding can in rare cases result in [ö]: pers. *sawdā:* > Te. *söwda:* (but Är. *sewda:*); Te. *örküč* 'hump' > Är. *ürküč*, Te. *öwey* 'step- (relative)' > Är. *üwey*.

In some copied lexemes /a/+/w/ is rounded into [ow]; the non-rounded correlates also exist. Examples: $awal \sim owal$ 'first' < pers. awwal; $awa:z \sim owa:z$ 'voice' < pers. $\bar{a}w\bar{a}z$.

(ii) The vowel [i] of singular copied lexemes can be rounded into [ü], [u] or an intermediate [u] : pers. *birinj* > $\ddot{A}r$. *bürünj* ~ *burinj* 'rice'; pers. *jilga* > Te. *jülge* 'meadow, pasture' (but $\ddot{A}r$. *jilge*), pers. *ji:b* > Te. *jübi* 'pocket'.

(iii) In native lexemes rounding of high vowels has been observed only in single cases, in many of which juxtaposition of bilabial consonants is involved. Examples: min- ($\ddot{A}r$.) ~ $m\ddot{u}n$ -(Te.) 'riding, to mount, to climb'; imsim ($\ddot{A}r$.) ~ $\ddot{u}ms\ddot{u}m$ (Te.) 'silent, shutting up'.

The lexeme 'camel' exists in an unrounded variant *di:ye* in the Teke dialect, and in a rounded variant *dü:ye* in the Ärsa:ri dialect.

(iv) Rounding of low front vowel /e/ mostly occurs in connection with the demonstrative adjective/pronoun *bu*; it may result in a rounded low [ö] as well as rounded high [ü]. Unrounded and rounded variants coexist, with unrounded ones being typical of the Teke dialect and rounded ones, of the Ärsa:n dialect. Examples: *bu yerde* (Te.) > *bö:rde* (Är.); *o yerde* (Te.) > *ö:rde* (Är.), *ö:dip-bö:dip* (Är.) ~ *eydip-beydip* (Te.); *büyleki mu:xma:nlar* 'the other guests' (Är.) ~ *be:yleki ihtiya:jliği uči:n* 'for its other needs' (Te.).

The coexistence of a variant with low back vowel /a/ and a rounded back correlate /o/ in the Ärsa:ri lexeme pair $\check{c}aq$ - $\sim \check{c}oq$ - 'to sting' is so far the only example of its kind recorded in my materials:

- menä:m ičya:n čaqdı. (Är. 31) A scorpion has stung me!
- meni čıya:n čoqdı. (Är. 26) A scorpion has stung me.

(v) Rounding of low vowels in the second syllable of dissyllabic native stems (labial attraction) has in very few cases been observed in the Teke dialect; the other dialects preserve the unrounded vowel in these cases: $\text{År. } \check{c}\ddot{o}r\ddot{o}k \sim \text{all others } \check{c}\ddot{o}rek$ 'bread'; $\text{År. } \ddot{o}:rd\ddot{o}k \sim \text{all others } \ddot{o}:rdek$ 'duck'.

(b) Unrounding is an unfrequent phenomenon in the Afghan Turkmen dialects, but it seems to occur in all dialects.

(i) Unrounding of /u/ in juxtaposition with the bilabials /m/ or /b/ occurs mostly in the Ärsa:ri dialect: Te. *yumurta* ~ Är. *yimirta* 'egg'; Te. *murut* ~ Är. *miri:t* 'moustaches'; *munča* ~ Är. *minča* 'so many/much'; Te. *juma:* ~ Är. *jima:* 'Friday', *bul* ~ Är. *bil* 'ADJ/PRONDEM'; *bu* ~ Är. *bi* ~ bi 'ADJ/PRONDEM'.

(ii) In the Yomut dialect, in native lexemes which have rounded vowels in a /w/ environment, these vowels can undergo unrounding. Examples: Är. *uwren-* vs. Teke, Yo. *ewren-* 'to learn'; Är. *du:w-* vs. Teke, Yo. *dew-* 'demon'; Är. *öwüt* vs. Teke, Yo. *ewit* 'advice'.

(iii) In copied lexemes [1] may in individual cases result from original rounded [u]; these variants may occur in variation with preserved original rounded [u] (or [ü] that renders original [u]). Examples: $nipu:s \sim n\ddot{u}pu:s$ (År.) 'population' < pers. $nuf\bar{u}s$; wiliswa:l 'district mayor' (År. 21) < paš. wuluswal; mina:sip 'adequate' (År. 12) < pers. $mun\bar{a}sib$; $jima: g\ddot{u}ni$ 'Friday' (År. 17) ~ $juma: g\ddot{u}ni$ (Te. 14) < pers. [juma]; sipa 'sofa' (Te. 13) < pers. suffa; tapa:wit 'difference' (Te. 13) < pers. $taf\bar{a}wut$; merdim 'people' (År. 4) < pers. mardum.

4.2.3 Complex vowel change

(a) A fairly common phenomenon in clusters of $[a]^{108}/e/+/w/$ and /i/i:/+/w/ of copied lexemes is the rounding and raising, combined with contraction of the vowel with the consonant into [u:w] or [u:]. (The original [aw]/[ew] cluster can coexist with rounded-cum-raised variants and be realized like this by some speakers, but they do so only in careful and educated speech.) Examples: *duwa:m* ~ *dawa:m* 'continuation', *duwa:* ~ *dawa:* 'medicine', *muwla:na:* ~ *mawla:na:* '(religious title of honor)'; *yo:lbarsıŋ gu:resi* 'the body of the panther' (Är. 17) < *gewre*; *hu:li:mizda* 'in our house' Sa.1, *hu:lısı* 'his house' (Är. 12), *hu:lıda* 'in the house' (Te. 8) < pers. *hawlī*; *uwalı* 'first of all' (Te. 3) < pers. *awwal*; *ku:šim* 'my shoe' (Te. 3) < pers. *kawš*; *šu:qun* (Är. 9) ~ *šu:xun* (Te. 5) 'noise' < pers. *šawqin*; *duwıŋ ustine* 'onto the *dēw*' (Är. 42); *huwwa:* (Är. 11) ~ *hawa:* (Te. 16) 'air'; *du:leda:ba:d* (Te. 4) ~ *dewleda:ba:d* (Är. 38) 'Dawlatābād'.

(b) Of a few singular lexemes there coexist variants indicative of different stages of vocalization – unrounded low-back /a/ ~ rounded low-back /o/ ~ rounded raised back /u/. Examples: Te. Sa. $\breve{g}awi \sim$ Te. $\breve{g}owi \sim$ Te. $\ddot{R}r. \breve{g}uwi$ 'good'; Te. $tawiq \sim$ Yo. $towiq \sim \ddot{A}r. tu:q$ 'hen'.

(c) Singular lexemes exist in variants with low-front unrounded [e] and high-front rounded [ü] : Te. *mejber* ~ Är. *müjber* 'measure' < arab.

4.2.4 Prothesis

(a) Vowel prothesis occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although there is some variation in detail.

(b) The prothetic vowel is in most cases identical with the vowel of the subsequent syllable. Another option, which is less frequently observed, is harmonization in analogy with the high vowel harmony (see below), and there are individual cases which do not follow either of these principles. There is variation between the dialects in details of the phonetic realization of vowel prothesis.

¹⁰⁸ As a rule, short /a/ of copied (Persian and other) lexemes is in the Turkmen dialects interpreted as /e/; however, in singular cases it is nevertheless realized as [a], like e.g. *awal* (not ???*ewel*) 'first' < pers. *awwal*.

- **ro:za** > **oro:za** haydı bilen ğorba:n haydınıŋ aralığında toy eden yo:qlar. (Te. 3) They don't celebrate weddings between the '*īd al-fitr* and the '*īd al-qurbān*.
- ro:za > ara:za ayinda bir yerä: gidišem ği:n bolya:r. (Yo. 1) Going places is difficult in the fasting month.

(c) Vowel prothesis is most often realized with copied lexemes whose original has a consonant in the onset which does not, or only in very few cases, exist in the onset of native lexemes – such as /r/, /l/, /š/, /č/, and /n/ : raxma:n > uraxma:n 'merciful'; ra:diya > ura:diya 'radio'; ra:hat > ura:hat 'calm'; ra:zi: > ura:zi:; ru:s > orus 'Russian, *sülle* > *üsüle* ~ *išülle*.

- la:y > aqpa:miq kulčä:niŋ gä:dilen yerine ila:y yabširsam bolar diyip šarta bir a:zajiq ila:y tafib kulčä:niŋ gä:dik yerine yapišdirip dir. (Är. 44)
 Aqpa:miq said (to himself), it is fine if I spread (some) clay on the spot where the breadloaf is shredded, and he quickly found a little bit of clay and spread it on the shredded spot of the loaf.
- **šu:le** > günerta:n **üšüle** biširen ekenler üyde. (Sa. 5)¹⁰⁹ Early in the morning they had prepared (the rice dish) *šu:le*.
- ner > ana iner šul asil arwa:na: šul ayri:ni ğoysaŋ iner doğyä: . (Te. 1)
 Well, an *iner* (is) if you crossbreed the precious (female camel) *arwa:na* with a Bactrian camel, an *iner* will be born.

In those dialects which do not regularly have /k/ in the onset of native lexemes, such as the Ärsa:ri dialect (which would have /g/ in those cases), loanwords with initial /k/ also have prothetic vowels.

• **kita:p** > ö:zi ölennen soŋ **ikita:plara:m** asta-asta tozıpdır. (Är. 1) After he had died, his books also slowly-slowly got lost.

(d) Vowel prothesis is also applied in order to break consonant clusters in the onset of copied lexemes: *sport* > *isport* 'sports'; *spožmey* >*ispožmey* '(an originally Pashto name)'; *štriŋ* > *ištiriŋ* 'role'.

(e) Vowel prothesis can be combined with elision of the first syllable vowel, so that in fact the result of this process appears like a product of metathesis: rejeb > (*erejeb) > erjeb (Te.Yo.) '(the month of) Rajab; n.pr.m.', .

4.2.5 Epenthesis

(a) Vowel epenthesis occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although it is not a very frequent phenomenon.

(b) High unrounded [i] and [1] are the vowels that most frequently appear in epenthesis; [a] also occurs, while all other vowels do not seem to be used as epenthetics.

(c) Epenthesis appears to be confined to copied lexemes, in which it breaks clusters of consonants which do in that respective form not at all occur in native lexemes, or at least not in the respective position.

¹⁰⁹ Sa. 5 is a speaker of what he calls the "subdialect *Suqdi*" of the Sa:riq dialect; the existence of a distinct *Suqdi* subdialect cannot yet be confirmed on the basis of my materials.

/pl/ > [pal] [pil]	pla:stik > pala:stik (Sa. 2), pila:stik (Är.) 'plastic'
/sl/>[s1]	asl > asil (Är. 53) 'basis'; $fasl > pasil$ (Är. 44) 'season'
/pq/ > [paq]	<i>šapqat > šapaqqat</i> (Te. 10) 'mercy'
/pn/ > [pin]	<i>depn</i> > <i>depin et</i> - ($\ddot{A}r$. 1) 'to bury'
/hr/ > [har] [hir] [her]	<i>qahr > xalqiŋ ğaharı</i> (Är. 16) 'the anger of the people'; <i>šehr ></i>
	<i>šehir</i> 'city'; <i>zehr</i> > <i>zeher</i> 'poison'
/kr/ > [kir]	$\ddot{s}\ddot{u}kr > \ddot{s}\ddot{u}kir$ (Te. 4) 'thanks'
/mr/ > [mir]	<i>emr</i> > <i>emir</i> (Är. 39) 'order'; <i>ömr</i> > <i>ömir</i> (Är. 1)
/zr/>[zir]	hezret > pa:šša: hezireti (Är. 39) 'his majesty the king'
/lm/ > [lim]	<i>xulm > xulım</i> (Te. 1) 'Xulm (n.pr.loc.)'

Epenthesis of this kind is mostly retracted if the cluster under consideration is anyway broken by agglutination of a suffix with a vowel in the onset or by an initial vowel in the subsequent word; however, it can be sustained in such cases as well. Examples:

- biziŋ üyimiz **šehiriŋ** ičinne (Är. 18) Our house is located in the city.
- xalqam **zulıma** čıdamaz a:xi:r turarlar bir gün (Är. 19) The people don't tolerate oppression, in the end they will revolt one day.
- sadaqa **qabır** aza:bınnan ğotararmıš adamı (Är. 38) (Giving) alms is said to rescue man from the pains of the grave.

In individual lexemes there exist individual epenthetic solutions, such as for example the epenthetic breaking of *waqt* 'time' into *wağıt* in the Teke dialect (while in the Ärsa:rı dialect the unwelcome [qt] cluster is affricated into *waxt*).

(d) In some cases it is difficult to decide whether a given phonological realization is the result of epenthesis, or rather a relic of an original form which has otherwise disappeared. Thus, the second syllable [i] of *payidasi* 'its advantage' ($\ddot{A}r$. 31) (< pers. $f\bar{a}yda$) may either be epenthetic, or it may point to the alternative phonological realization of the original as trisyllabic [fa:'ida] in some local Persian dialect.

(e) In native stems, epenthesis is a very rare phenomenon. In my material so far only one example has been found, in which the difference of Teke and Ärsa:rı variants is caused by epenthesis in the Ärsa:rı lexeme: Te. *büdre-* \sim (Är. 14) *büdire-* 'to stumble'.

(f) Seemingly "epenthetic" vowels in native stems or suffixes are also difficult to interpret. While, for example, the Teke dialect has the intraterminal marker -yA:r immediately follow the stem syllable, my material also contains examples like the following:

• čöregi sačağa salıp ğoymasaŋ **ğataya:r**. (Te. 5) If you don't keep the bread in the tablecloth it will dry out.

whose "epenthetic" second syllable [a] is reminiscent of converbial -A of other Turkic languages in comparable constellations (which, however, does not exist in the Afghan Turkmen dialects).

A similar phenomenon can be observed with the comparative marker, which in the Afghan Turkmen dialects is generally -rA:Q:

bağıšlaŋ men köprä:k kepleyä:n. (Te. 18)
 Excuse (me), I talk too much (lit. more).

In the Yomut and Ärsa:r1 dialects examples like the following have been found,

- doqma i:nče bolsa hayal**ıra:q** doqalya: . (Yo. 2) If the carpet is delicate, it is woven more slowly.
- ulkä:mizin köp**irrä:k** nupu:sini d1:xanlar we čarwačılar ğuršayo:r. (Är. 3) Farmers and cattlebreeders make up most (lit. more) (of the) population of our country.

which have an "epenthetic" [1] breaking the consonant cluster between stem (*hayal*, $k \ddot{o} p$) and suffix. Or should it be interpreted as reflecting *ura:q* 'farther', the etymological background of today's comparative suffix?

4.2.6 Epithesis

Epithesis is a rare phenomenon in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. It has so far been observed only in single lexemes of the Teke and Ärsa:rı dialects: *kepderi* (Te.) 'pigeon' < *kepter* << pers. *kabūtar*; *xarji* (Är.) 'expense' < pers. *xarj*.

- kepder > Maza:ršeri:pde hemme kepderiler a:ğ eken, Hira:tda we kä:bilde weli:n kepderiler her xi:l bolya:r. (Te. 13)
 In Mazāri Šarīf all pigeons are white, but in Herat and Kabul the pigeons are (of) all sorts.
- **xarj** > her bir i:ši etmek üči:n **xarjı** gerek. (Är.7) To start a deal, funds are needed.

4.2.7 Deletion

(a) Deletion of initial vowels

(i) In singular native lexemes, the initial vowel can be deleted. My materials do not permit an interpretation of this rare phenomenon: $a\check{s}a:q\imath$ (Är.) ~ $\check{s}a:q\imath$ (Sa.) 'lower down'.

(ii) Initial vowels of copied lexemes are in singular cases deleted in some dialects, while in their correlates in other dialects they are preserved. The Ärsa:r1 dialect appears to be more conservative with regard to non-deletion: hek (Te.) ~ ehek (Är.) 'lime'; na:r (Te.) ~ ena:r (Är.) 'pomegranade'.

(b) Deletion of unstable vowels

(i) Unstable unrounded and rounded high vowels of second stem syllables, which are a familiar phenomenon in the Turkic languages¹¹⁰ and do not appear in front of suffixes with a vowel in the onset, occur in many Afghan Turkmen lexemes. The non-appearance of these vowels is here interpreted as deletion. Some examples (+Poss3SG or +DIR) :

¹¹⁰ Compare Johanson 1998:31f.

oğul 'son' > oğlı (all dialects) ~ oğli (Är.) ağız 'mouth' > ağzı (all dialects) köŋil 'heart' > köŋli (all dialects) deŋiz 'sea' > deŋze ğolay 'near the sea' (Är.) burun 'nose' > burnı (all dialects) ğoyun 'sheep' > ğoynı (sic; all dialects) *uğur 'favorable auspices' > uğrı > u:rı bolan yo:q 'it was inauspicious' (Är. 6)

The lexeme 'moustaches' has two short stem vowels in the Teke dialect, the second one of which is unstable: Te. *murit* 'moustaches' > *murti* 'his moustaches'¹¹¹; the correlate in the Ärsa:ri dialect has long vowel in the second stem syllable, which consequently is not unstable but appears before suffixes with a vowel in the onset: $\text{År. } muri:t > muri:di \sim muri:di. - \text{Yet}$ another interesting case is the lexeme 'brains', which in the Teke dialect is *bi:ni* and in the Ärsa:ri dialect is *pi:ni* (TRS *beyni*; Sevortyan 1978:106f. *beyin* etc.), with regular suffixation (*pi:ni:m* 'my brains' År.; *bi:nisi* 'his brains' Te.), which does no longer show an indication of a previously unstable second-syllable vowel.

(ii) The vowel of the lexicalized directive suffix -rI / -rA is unstable and often does not appear before suffixes with a consonant in the onset: *yoqari* 'above' > *yoqarda* (Te. Yo. Sa. Yem. dialects); **ni:re* > *ni:rden* 'from where?!' (År.14).

- bä:ri-rä:k > bä:rrä:k süyšip otırıŋ! (Är. 6) Come sit closer!
- **aŋırı-qı** > alla:beren qaryada:rıŋ üyi **aŋırqı** o:bada bolmalı. (Är. 3) The house of village mayor Alla:beren is probably in the village over there.

However, the final vowel of *ni:re-/ni:ri- 'where-' need not be deleted but can appear, which seems to be the case especially if the word is used in its direct, non-rhetorical sense:

- emi:ni: sa:yıbı **ni:ride** gördiŋiz? (Är. 13) Where have you seen Emi:ni: Sa:hib?
- biz **ni:rede** bolsağam sizden xabar ajlaq bolars. (Är. 6) Wherever we are, we hope to get news about you.

(iii) The vowel in the onset of POSS1PL, POSS2PL and POSS3SG is unstable to a degree that renders the assumption plausible that it might even be at all missing; in any case it does not appear before a further suffix with a vowel in the onset or - in the case of POSS3SG - the pronominal n.

- **ğıšla:ğ-ımız-** > **ğıšla:ğmızda** bä:š-alti dükä:n bar. (Te. 9) In our village there are five or six shops.
- aya:ğ-ım- > bu ku:š ayağma sığmadı. (Är. 5) The shoe is not the right size for my foot.
- čeken-i-(ni-hem) > onıŋ neše čekennä:m hi:čkim görmedi. (Är. 19) Nobody has seen him smoke hashish, either.
- **ğolajığ-ı**-> bä:begiŋ ğolajı**ğnı** yap. (Är. 28) Cover the little ears of the baby!

¹¹¹ In my material there is also the variant *murt* which lacks the unstable vowel from the beginning: *da:yum (...) murt goyberipdir* (Te. 3) 'My uncle has grown moustaches'.

- **yüreg-i-** > kä:bi:riniŋ **yüregni** urya:r eken. It affects the heart of many a person. (Te. 10)
- **yan-i-** > her hepde **ya:nna** barıp ğaytyo:s. (Är. 22) Every week we go to him (lit. to his side) and come back.

(c) Deletion in word boundaries

If in word boundaries the final vowel of the precedent and the initial vowel of the subsequent word get into a hiatus position, this unwelcome hiatus can be avoided through deletion of one of the vowels, generally the one in the coda position of the precedent. The phenomenon occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects.¹¹²

(i) Compounds of numeral + substantive noun are particularly prone to undergo this type of deletion; some of them are lexicalized, others co-exist in the lexicalized form and in an unreduced spontaneous form: **alti atar* > *altatar* 'six-shooter' (lexicalized); *iki u:čli* > *iku:čli* 'double-ended'; *yeke üyli* > *yeküyli* 'single-married (i.e., not polygamous)'; *alti a:y* > *alta:y* 'six months'.

(ii) Compounds whose subsequent element is the copula *eken* can undergo deletion of the final vowel of the precedent word: *do:li eken > do:l-eken*.

• soŋ ča:ğa bir a:yla:p šu **ta:yd-ekeni** (Sa. 2) Then the child was (= remained) like that for one month.

(iii) Compounds formed with the interrogative $n\ddot{a}:me$ as precedent element can undergo deletion of the final vowel of the interrogative pronoun: $n\ddot{a}:me \ oqaya:r > n\ddot{a}:moqaya:r$ 'what is he reading?' and the like.

• šolar ya:nı ğı:n yağdayda ümsüm otıra:masaŋ **nä:mi:š** edibiler a:dam? (Är. 7) In such a difficult situation, what (else) can one do than sit still?!

(iv) More generally, vowel deletion often occurs when words with a vowel in the final and initial positions follow on another; it appears as if it were always the word-final vowel that is deleted : $kiči \ oğlum > kičoğlum$ 'my little son'; $ro:za \ a:y > ro:za:y$ 'the fasting month'; $ğara \ atlu > ğaratlu$ 'a man riding a black horse'; $junlu \ a:dam > junla:dam$ 'a crazy person'; $kö:ne \ örgenc < kö:nörgenc'$ 'Kö:ne Örgenč (n.pr.loc.)'.

(c) If in the interior of copied lexemes vowels aggregate into hiatus constellations (which are unwelcome in the Turkmen dialects), one of these vowels – either the first or the second – is deleted; the deletion can lead to a lengthening of the remaining vowel: $m\ddot{a}:lumler$ ($\ddot{A}r.$) ~ mu:lumlar (Sa. 4) 'the teachers' < muallumlar << pers. muallim; na:la:j ($\ddot{A}r. 23$) ~ na:ula:j 'willy-nilly' < pers. $n\bar{a}\cdot il\bar{a}j$. – This phenomenon is extended to cases of complex reduction, for example of consonant deletion + vowel contraction in words like $m\ddot{a}:sil$ 'student' < mua:sil << pers. $muhassil; m\ddot{a}:rek$ 'blessed' < $mu\ddot{a}:rek <<$ pers. $mub\bar{a}rak$.

¹¹² The phenomenon has in detail been described for the Turfan dialect of modern Uyghur by Yakup 2005:88ff.

4.2.8 Vowel harmony

(a) Vowel harmony in native stems and in suffixes

In native dissyllabic or polysyllabic stems vowel harmony implies that a front vowel in the first syllable may be followed by front vowels only, and a back vowel in the first syllable may be followed by back vowels only. In derival or grammatical suffixes, the front or back quality of vowels is determined by the respective quality of the syllable that immediately precedes them.

Generally, /a/a:/, /ı/ı:/, /o/o:/ and /u/u:/ are back vowels while /e/ä:/, /i/i:/, /ö/ö:/ and /ü/ü:/ are front vowels. However, the /ı/ vs. /i/ opposition and, to a lesser degree, the /u/ vs. /ü/ opposition is not as strictly determined as the /a/ vs. /e/ or /o/ vs. /ö/ oppositions. In stems as well as in suffixation processes the harmony principle is often disregarded when $[1]\sim[i]$ is involved, so that back consonants combine with front [i] rather than back [1]; in the case of the $[u]\sim[\ddot{u}]$ opposition, we rather observe the realization of an intermediate [u] than a clearly back [u] or front [\ddot{u}]. (For details see below.)

(i) Vowel harmony in stems

Tables 4-5 and 4-6 give an overview of the patterns of harmonic front and back stem syllables in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. The primary goal has been to identify which patterns exist in all dialects; examples of this kind are unmarked in the tables. In patterns which do not exist in all dialects, the specific dialects have been indicated.

/e – e/ jeren 'deer', wesket 'jacket', kesel	/e – ä:/ tenekä:r 'brazing flux', dellä:k
'sick', <i>kebelek</i> 'butterfly'	'barber', <i>zergä:r</i> Te. 'goldsmith'
$/\ddot{\mathbf{a}}$: - e/ $d\ddot{a}$: de Yo. 'father', Är. 'elder sister',	/ ä : – ä :/ dä:nä: 'wise' , mä:tä:j Te.'needy'
mä:rek 'blessed'	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,
/i – e/ yigrime 'twenty', sinek Te.'fly', iner	/i – ä:/
Te. 'kamel'	
/i: - e/ gi:je 'night', ki:se Är. XD 'pocket',	/i: – ä:/ bi:kä:r 'workless', bi:čä:re 'poor',
<i>i:ge</i> 'file'	<i>bi:gä:k</i> 'hooligan'
/ ö – e / <i>göle</i> Te. 'calf', öpge 'lung', <i>döret-</i> 'to	/ ö – ä :/ <i>örä:n</i> Xa. 'very', görä: Xa.
create', <i>čörke</i> - 'hurt', <i>töleg</i> 'payment'	'compared to'
/ ö: – e/ <i>ö:ke</i> Är. 'grudge', <i>ö:rdek</i> 'duck',	/ö: – ä:/
<i>kö:ne</i> 'obsolete'.	
$/\mathbf{\ddot{u}} - \mathbf{e}/$ <i>üše-</i> 'to feel cold', <i>tüpeŋ</i> 'gun',	/ ü – ä: / <i>hünä:r</i> 'art', <i>üzä:rlik</i> Te.'wild rue',
süyeg 'backrest'	günä: Te. 'guilt'
/ ü : – e/ <i>ü:ke</i> Te.'grudge', <i>sü:se</i> 'glass',	/ ü: – ä: / <i>ü:lä:n</i> År. 'at noon', <i>ü:lä:k</i> Te. 'as'
sü:ke- 'pulverize', sü:bek 'oval-shaped',	
/e – i/ erkin 'independent', eriš 'warp', ekin	/e – i:/ erti:r 'morning', heni:z 'as yet', eli:n
'farming', egri 'crooked'	'genuine', enti:- Är. 'to tramp'
$ \ddot{\mathbf{a}}: - \mathbf{i} $ ä:dik 'boot', šä:nik 'kernel', ä:girt	/ ä: – i: / <i>mä:ši:n</i> 'machine', <i>tä:mi:r</i>
Te. 'high', <i>dä:li</i> 'lunatic ', <i>ä:pišge</i> Sa.	'building', <i>tä:si:n</i> 'approval', <i>tä:li:n</i> 'by
'window'.	good luck', hä:ki:m Är. 'village/district

Table 4-5: Patterns of harmonic front syllables in native and copied lexemes

$/\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{i}/ilki$ 'first'; <i>pikir</i> 'thought' $/\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{i}/i:ri$ 'big', <i>di:ri</i> 'living', <i>i:njik</i> 'leg', <i>i:šik</i> 'door' $/\mathbf{\ddot{o}} - \mathbf{i}/göni$ Te. 'straight', <i>ötir</i> - 'to let pass', <i>ötinč</i> 'apology' $/\mathbf{\ddot{o}}: - \mathbf{i}/b\ddot{o}:ri$ 'wolf', <i>ö:ri</i> 'pastureland' <i>sö:ginč</i> 'swearword, curse', <i>ö:nim</i> 'yield', <i>ö:rim</i> 'tressed', $/\mathbf{\ddot{u}} - \mathbf{i}/s\ddot{u}ygi$ 'love', <i>süri</i> 'herd', <i>hünji</i> 'shell'. $/\mathbf{\ddot{u}}: - \mathbf{i}/t\ddot{u}:dik$ 'fife', <i>tü:pilik</i> 'spit', <i>sü:ri</i> , 'elliptical', <i>gü:jik</i> - ' to gradually stauten', <i>gü:lin</i> - 'to purl'	mayor', $\ddot{a}:rti:r$ Mu. 'morning', / $\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{i}:/ sigri:s$ 'cigarette', $giri:p$ 'grippe', gizli:n ' secretly', $silti:$ - Är. 'to shake' / $\mathbf{i}: - \mathbf{i}:/ i:\check{s}li:$ - Är. 'to work', $di:\check{s}i:$ -Är. 'to transfer', $pi:\check{s}i:n$ 'noon' / $\ddot{\mathbf{o}} - \mathbf{i}:/ h\ddot{o}zi:r$ 'reward', $y\ddot{o}ri:$ - Är. 'to walk', $d\ddot{o}ri:$ - Är. 'to emerge' / $\ddot{\mathbf{o}}: - \mathbf{i}:/ g\ddot{o}:ri:p$ 'jealous', $\ddot{o}:gi:$ - Är. 'to puke', $\ddot{o}:rli:$ - Är. 'to get up' / $\ddot{\mathbf{u}} - \mathbf{i}:/ \ddot{u}\check{c}i:n$ 'for', $y\ddot{u}zzi:n$ Är. 'face down ' / $\ddot{\mathbf{u}}: - \mathbf{i}:/ \ddot{c}\ddot{u}:ri:$ - Är. 'to putrefy', $s\ddot{u}:ri:$ - Är. 'to drag'
/e – ö/ /ä: - ö/ /i – ö/ /i – ö/ /ö – ö/ čörök Är ' cookies ', gödök Är. 'young child' /ö: - ö/ /ü -ö/ /ü:-ö/	/e - ö:/ /ä: - ö:/ /i - ö:/ /i: - ö:/ /ö - ö:/ /ö:- ö:/ /ü-ö:/ /ü- ö:/
/e – ü/ endirewük Te. 'wonky', gübirdewük Te. 'with a roaring voice' /ä: - ü/ bä:gül 'rosewater', mä:šüwe 'corn soup' /i – ü/ /i: - ü/ bi:rgün 'after tomorrow' /ö – ü/ ömür 'life', kömür 'coal', gönük- 'to	/e – ü:/ /ä: - ü:/ /i – ü:/ /i: - ü:/ /ö – ü:/
start' /ö: - ü/ dö:nük 'traitor', bö:gür- 'to rave' /ü – ü/ ümsüm Te. 'quiet', dürüs 'correct', yüzük 'ring', üšük 'cool creek', ümür 'haze', ümlük Te. 'ruler', kükürt 'sulphur', düwük 'broken' /ü: - ü/ sü:šük 'extra, additional', čü:rük ' decayed '	/ö: - ü:/ /ü – ü:/ /ü: - ü:/

 Table 4-6:
 Patterns of harmonic back syllables in native and copied lexemes

/a – a/ hačan 'when', tarap 'side', bağana	/a – a:/ bala:r 'wood stick', tama: 'greed',
'lambskin', dašarı 'out', ğaŋraw 'urceolate',	qala: 'castle'.
balaq 'trousers'	
/ a: - a / a:la 'motley', pa:da 'herd', ča:ğa	/a: - a:/ pa:ta: 'beginning', da:lğa: 'cold
'child', <i>ğa:zan</i> 'pot', <i>da:ban</i> 'metatarsus'	wind'
$/\mathbf{i} - \mathbf{a}/$ <i>ilan</i> Mu. 'snake', <i>sičan</i> 'mouse',	/ ı – a: / <i>ıla:y</i> 'mud', <i>ıla:lašıq</i> 'agreement',
čıra 'lamp', ınam 'trust', ıšğalaŋ 'lighting'	<i>bıča</i> :ğ Mu.'knife '

/ı: - a/ ğı:nanč 'regret', sı:nağ 'exam',	/ 1: - a: / <i>i:ša:n</i> 'eshan', <i>i:la:n Mu</i> .	
<i>čı:ban</i> 'rash'	'declaration'	
$/\mathbf{o} - \mathbf{a}/$ oraq 'sickle ' oqara 'bowl', oyat	/ o – a: / <i>doğa:</i> 'prayer', <i>soğa:p</i> 'oblation',	
'good', <i>čola</i> 'hidden', <i>doqma</i> 'carpet', <i>doğan</i>	<i>jorra:p</i> 'socks'	
'brother'		
/o: - a/ o:ba 'village', do:daq 'lip', jo:ra	/ o: - a: / <i>o:la:m</i> '(the tribe) O:la:m', <i>jo:ma:rt</i>	
'pair; peer', so:rağ 'qeustion'.	Te. 'chivalrous',	
$ \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{a} $ buğday 'wheat', tumar 'scroll',	/ u – a :/ usda:d 'professor', juğda:n	
<i>buqa</i> 'bull', <i>duzaq</i> 'snare'	'thorax',	
/u: - a/ u:qala- 'to knead', u:sar 'bridle',	/ u: - a: / <i>ğu:ğa:</i> 'din', <i>qu:qa:ja</i> '(a kind of	
<i>bu:jaq</i> '(the tribe) Bu:jaq', <i>du:la-</i> 'to pail '	ringdove)', <i>su:sa:n</i> 'thirsty ', <i>su:ra:t</i> 'photo'	
/a – 1/ ayı 'bear', yazığ 'inscription', alqım	/ a – i :/ yaqi:n 'near', paqi:r 'poor', tağsi:m	
'double chin', <i>dari</i> 'millet'	'distribution', dašarı:q Te. 'out(side)'	
/a: - ı/ a:ğı 'poison', ya:zıq 'sin', pa:rım	/a: - i:/ qa:ni: 'sufficient', qa:ri: 'reader;	
'mild', a:wi 'venom', sa:bin 'soap', ya:šil	blind', pa:ni: 'inconstant', a:li:n ' upmost',	
'green', <i>ga:win</i> 'melonen', <i>ga:biq</i> 'haut'	<i>a:di:</i> 'normal', <i>a:si:</i> 'insurgent', <i>da:ri:-</i> Är.	
	'to stand', <i>ya:ši:</i> - År. 'to live'	
$/\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{I}$ biqin 'flank', diriši 'suit', gīsim	/1 -1:/ <i>iri:</i> - ' to shake', <i>čiŋsi:</i> - År.' whimper',	
'handful', <i>yılğın</i> 'tamarisk', <i>ırım</i> 'presage',	<i>ınjı:-</i> Är. ' to miff '	
<i>yılqı</i> 'female horse '		
/ 1: - 1 / $pi:qi$ 'falcon', $\bar{g}i:qiliq$ 'noise', $\bar{g}i:\bar{s}iq$	/1: - 1:/ <i>si:xi:</i> - År. 'to curry',	
'crooked', <i>si:qiliq</i> 'catcall ', <i>di:nim</i> År.		
'break'	/a a/	
/0 - 1/ topir 'dust', toqim 'saddle', otiz	/0 - 1:/yoğu:n' thick', oru:- År 'to round	
'tirthy', <i>otir</i> - ' to sit ', <i>soqi 'pounder'</i> , <i>oyin</i> 'play', <i>orin</i> 'place', <i>goyin</i> 'sheep', <i>boyin</i> Är.	something', <i>dolı:</i> - Är. 'to twist', <i>oğrı:n</i> 'secretly, hidden', <i>doğrı:n</i> 'clearly'	
' neck', <i>omiz</i> 'scapula'	secretry, modell, <i>uogri.n</i> clearly	
$/0: - 1/\check{c}o:ri$ 'bondwoman', $\bar{g}o:nim$ 'seat',	/o·_u/āo:ru-Är 'to advocate' so:ru-Är	
<i>lo:li</i> 'whore', <i>do:li</i> 'full'	/ 0: - 1: / <i>ḡo:r1:-</i> Âr. 'to advocate', <i>so:r1:-</i> Âr. 'to ask'	
$ \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{i} $ čuqır 'deep', ğuzı 'lamb', ulı 'big'	/ u - 1:/ <i>uzi:n</i> 'long', <i>uti:</i> Mu. 'boot'	
$/\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{i} / (u_{i} + u_{i}) + (u_{i} + u_{i$	1 1 <i>u</i> 2 <i>i</i> . <i>i</i> 10119, <i>ui</i> . 1010. 0001	
<i>hu:li</i> 'house', <i>ğu:ri</i> 'dry', <i>qu:čin</i> '(the tribe)	/u: - 1:/ hu:li:- Är. 'to mope', <u><u>g</u>u:ni:-Är. 'to</u>	
Qu:čin'	heal', $\overline{gu:ri:-}$ Är. 'to become dry'	
/a – o/	/a – o:/	
/a: - o/	/a: - o:/	
/1-0/	/1-0:/	
/1: - 0/	/1: - 0:/	
0 - 0 o gol Är. 'boy, son', <i>motor</i> Är. 'car',	/o - o:/	
<i>čoloq</i> Är. 'shepherd's hand', <i>mojoq</i> Är.'bad'		
/o:- o/	/0: - 0:/	
/u - o/	/u - o:/	
/u: - o/	/u: - o:/	
/ a – u / tawuq Mu. 'hen', sawuq Mu.'cold',	/a – u:/ alu:-satu: Är. 'buy and sell', qabu:l	
ğaytawul 'reaction'	'admission', <i>patnu:s</i> 'tray'	
$/\mathbf{a}$: – u / $\bar{g}a$:wun 'melon', tapa:wut	/ a: - u: / <i>a:lu:</i> 'plum', <i>a:xu:n</i> 'mullah',	
'difference'	<i>qa:nu:n</i> 'law', <i>pa:nu:s</i> 'lamp'	
/ı – u/	/ı – u:/	
/1: - u/	/1: - u:/	

/o – u/ boğun 'joint ', doğum 'birth'	/o - u: / boyu:n Är. 'in full length'
/o: - u/	/o: - u:/
/ u – u / <i>uruğ</i> 'tribe', <i>duluŋ</i> 'temple', <i>uzun</i>	/u - u:/
Mu. 'long', <i>ulus</i> 'people', <i>quduq</i> ND. 'well',	
yumuš 'order '	
/u: - u/ šu:qun Te. 'noise', su:ğuš 'seagull'	/u: - u:/

(ii) Vowel harmony in stem + suffix

The Afghan Turkmen dialects have low vowel suffixes with a double twofold variation of the vowel as either [a] and [a:], following back vowel syllables, or [e] and [ä:], following front vowel syllables. This twofold variation is symbolized by capital A. Examples are plural -lAr, negative -mA, conditional -sA.

High vowel suffixes have a double twofold variation of either [1] and [1:], following back vowel syllables, or [i] and [i:], following front vowel syllables. This twofold variation is symbolized as capital I. Examples are possessive 1PSG -Im and the deprivative derival -sIz.

High vowel suffixes following syllables with rounded vowels can through labial attraction be realized as also rounded. Whether this is a regular phenomenon or rather depends on situational or individual preferences only, can for shortage of materials not be determined here. Since the regularity of this fourfold variation cannot be considered as established, we employ the symbolization as capital I in suffixes which at least occasionally depict fourfold variation, rather than capital X (*-Ip* for CONV rather than -Xp). Examples: $\bar{g}oy$ -up (Te.) ~ $\bar{g}oy$ -up (all) 'to put' + CONV; doy-up (Te.) ~ doy-up (all) 'to get full' + CONV.

Many examples suggest that the rounding phenomenon mostly (re-)occurs in non-final syllables which follow rounded syllables while in final syllables that follow rounded ones, rounding does not frequently occur: $\ddot{u}y\ddot{u}n-de$ 'in his home' vs. $\ddot{u}y-i$ 'his home' (År.); $k\ddot{u}\ddot{j}\ddot{u}-jik$ 'little puppy' and $g\ddot{u}\ddot{j}\ddot{u}g-i$ 'his puppy' (Te.) vs. $k\ddot{u}jik$ 'puppy' (Te.) (but År. also has an occasional $k\ddot{u}\ddot{c}\ddot{u}k$ 'puppy'); $s\ddot{u}ri$ 'flock (of sheep etc.)' > $s\ddot{u}r\ddot{u}ler$.

Rounded low vowels – as a feature of labial harmony – only very scarcely occur in derival suffixes. Examples: *dök-öm* (Är.) 'fertilizer', *dök-ön* (Te.) 'id.', *goyon* (~ *goyun*) 'sheep' (Är.).

Rounded low vowels have also been observed in grammatical suffixes, although very infrequently. Examples: goy-oy (År. 39) 'to allow + IMPER2PL'; *bolor* (År.) 'to be(come)' + AOR, *görör* (År.) 'to see' + AOR.

(iii) Vowel harmony across word boundaries

Vowel harmony across word boundaries has in the Teke and Ärsa:ri dialects been observed in singular cases, mostly in combinations of demonstrative adjectives and substantives.

- bügün ča:r1:ŋ oğlanları da gelipdi. (Te. 5) < bu gün Today Ča:r1:'s sons have also come.
- bu yere **šügün** gelenmiz ğowı bollı. (Te. 7) < **šu gün** It's turned out good that we have come here today.

- buwın yağmır čabğala:p yağyor. (Är. 13) < bu gün (also > buwın Är. 35) Today is raining heavily.
- šuwin geldiņizmi? (Är.12) < šu gün (also > šuwin Är.) Have you come today ?

This type of harmony across word boundaries has also in singular cases been observed as regressive harmony – although generally speaking, regressive vowel harmony is not a phenomenon typical of the Afghan Turkmen dialects. We have again identified single examples mostly in combinations of demonstrative adjectives + substantives. My materials hitherto don't support the formulation of a general rule governing this rare phenomenon.

• **bıl wesket** maŋa kičjik geldi. (Är. 40) < **bıl** << bul 'this' This jacket is (too) small for me.

4.2.9 Consonant-vowel synharmony

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the principle of intrasyllabic and intersyllabic consonantvowel synharmony is generally preserved in native lexemes.

(a) Intrasyllabic synharmony

(i) The frontness or backness of a syllable is signalled by both vowels and consonants, ¹¹³ with $/q/, /\breve{g}/, /x/$ and $[\bar{g}]$ occurring in back syllables together with the vowels /a/a:/, /1/1:/, /o/o:/ and /u/u:/; and /k/, /g/ and $[\dot{g}]$ occurring in front syllables together with $/e/\ddot{a}:/, /i/i:/, /\ddot{o}/\ddot{o}:/$ and $/\ddot{u}/\ddot{u}:/$. The other consonants can be regarded as neutral and occur with all vowels. Examples: *buq*- 'take shelter', *doğrı* 'straight', *maxta*- 'to praise', go:n- 'to perch'; *ki:k* 'stag', *göni* 'straight', *či:ġ* 'raw'; *ba:lıq* 'fish' ~ *bi:l* 'waist', *mö:jek* 'wolf' ~ *mıllıq* 'silly', *pı:qı* 'hawk' ~ *perek* 'feather', *dart*- 'to pull' ~ *dü:r*- 'to roll up', *sığır* 'cow' ~ *ses* 'voice', etc.

(ii) Deviation from intrasyllabic synharmony is in native lexemes an infrequently observed phenomenon, which seems to generally affect the [1] / [i] opposition only. Almost all examples in my material come from $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects: *qiz* 'girl' (Mu.), *qaziq* 'peg' (Mu.), *qir* 'forty' (Mu.), *čaqir*- 'to call' (Xa.). The only example from a $x\bar{a}lis$ dialect is $\bar{g}i:n$ 'difficult' (Är.), as opposed to a regular $\bar{g}i:n$ 'id.' (Te.).

(b) Intersyllabic synharmony

(i) In the suffixation process, the front or back quality of the (last) stem syllable, either indicated by its vocalism, by front/back consonants, or by both, determines the quality of the derival or grammatical suffix as front or back, again with regard to both vowels and (where applicable, see above a.i) consonants: $a:\check{c}-liq$ 'hungry + ABSTRSUBST' (Är.) ~ *yigit-lik* 'young man + ABSTRSUBST' (Är.); *kiči-rä:k* 'small + COMP' (Te.) ~ ull-ra:q 'big' + COMP' (Te.); *a:rtla-maq* 'to jump + INF' (Är.) ~ *git-mek* 'to go + INF' (Är.); $\bar{g}i:nan-sa-q$ 'to regret + COND1PL' (Sa.) ~ gör-se-k 'to see + COND1PL' (Sa.).

(ii) Intersyllabic synharmony is more strictly observed with regard to back/front consonants than with regard to back/front vowels. Thus, phenomena like a:za-jiq 'few/little + DIM' (Är.

¹¹³ Johanson 1998:31.

42) and di:xa:n-čiliq 'farmer + ABSTRPROF (Xat. 5), where the suffix with back consonant contains a front vowel, occur quite frequently, while the reverse phenomenon – back stem followed by a back-vowel yet front-consonant suffix (???a:za-jik) – is not found in my materials.

4.2.10 Disharmony

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects we cannot always draw a clear distinction between occasional deviation from the harmony-and-synharmony principle and systematic disharmony. Deviation from the harmony principle occurs quite frequently, but my materials give reason to assume that it is mostly an occasional or idiolectal phenomenon only, which can be countered by an equal or greater number of non-deviant examples. Such cases have been mentioned above in 4.2.1 and 4.2.2. Although deviation from the harmony principle occurs in all dialects, it appears to affect the XD dialects more thoroughly than the ND dialects.

(a) Deviation or disharmony?

(i) Deviation from the harmony principle affects native stems only in rare cases: *ğati* 'hard' (Yo. 1), *u:ren-* 'to learn' (Te. 14), *qaziq* 'peg' (Mo. 4), *da:yi* 'maternal uncle' (Är.10). In the suffixation process, on the other hand, it is a frequent and diverse phenomenon:

- dašarı yu:rtlerdä:ki ya:šolılar (Är. 10) influential elders abroad
- oniŋ bir hepbes-ä:m esgere yetmedi. (Är. 14) Not a (single) grain of it reached the soldiers.
- awad bolmaqin ustine baryo:-da (Mo. 2) It has to do with becoming well-bred.
- yu:saŋ a:t awad bolmali. (Mo. 2) If you wash the horse, it will become well-bred.
- sekgiz otaği ba:rti, šüniŋ dašini-ičini suwašdirip berdiler (Sa. 2) (The house) had eight chambers, they whitewashed them outside and inside.
- tilpo:ni yoqarda ča:rja ğoydıŋız**mi**? (Är. 11) Have you put the telephone on the charge upstairs?

(ii) A few consonant-vowel constellations depict an almost regular deviation from the harmony principle, so that we may assume that erosion of the principle is under way, which might end up in phenomena of systemic disharmony. The vicinity of sibilants – intrasyllabic, intersyllabic and also across word boundaries – very often causes a shift from back to front vocalism in stems and suffixes: yabiš- 'to stick' (År.); a:zajiq 'very little/few' (År.); burč 'corner' + Poss3SG > burči (År.); d:xa:nčiliqlarmiz 'our agricultural activities' (Xat. 5), yaxti čura 'bright lamp' (Te. 5), yatsin 'may he go to sleep' (Mu. 4).

The vicinity of the approximant /y/ also often causes a shift from back to front vocalism in stems and suffixes: *da:yim* 'my maternal uncle' (Är. 14, Te. 14); *serpa:yimiz* 'our garment of honor' (Xo. 1); *ya:diŋizda* (Är. 9) and *ya:diŋizda* (Är. 7) 'in your memory'.

(b) Systemic disharmony in suffixes

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects most grammatical suffixes are harmonic along the principles defined above. However, there are also a few suffixes which represent an early stage of suffix

development¹¹⁴; this can imply that they are systemically not (yet) harmonized, or that in some dialects they are already harmonized while in others they are not yet, or even that the situation is undecided, which is demonstrated by the coexistence of harmonized and non-harmonized variants in the same dialect.

(i) The intraterminal *yo:r* ($\ddot{A}r.$, Xat., Xoj., Mu.) ~ *o:r* (Sa.) is generally excluded from harmonic adjustment to the preceding syllable (but is followed, in accordance with the harmony principle, by back syllables):

- göreše gitjek bolip ağlı**yo:r**tım-am (Är. 6) When I was to go to war I wept (a lot).
- xa:hiš etyo:s ki burs berilse (Är. 36) We demand that stipends be given.
- ökizlere yim beryo:s, merdikä:r tütyo:s (Xat. 5) We give fodder to the oxen and employ daylaborers.
- ağšamna palaw keba:b ber**yo:**tılar. (Xo. 1) At night they would serve (us) pilav and kebab.
- a:t yaramas bolsa hem tep**yo:** hem tišli**yo:**. (Mu. 2) If a horse is bad, it kicks and bites.
- yerkumme diyo:s türkmeni: dilde (Sa. 3) We call (these objects) dugouts in the Turkmen language.
- ha:li šu marčağıŋ ö:zinnen čiqo:r. (Sa. 2)
 The carpets emerge from this very (town of) Marčaq.

In contrast, the Teke correlate has developed into a low vowel suffix -(y)A:r and follows the harmony principle:

- šehr ičinne ya:šaya:lar. (Te. 6) They live in town.
- derrä:niŋ yoqarsınnan aylanıp su: gel**yä:r** eken. (Te. 3) The water comes from the upstream (part) of the valley.

The Yomut correlate seems to vary between a disharmonic -(y)a:(r) and harmonic -(y)A:(r); my material contains examples of both variants.

- oŋa buxara:yı diyelar. (Yo. 1) They call it Bukharan.
- erišem kelep bolya:, ši eriš diyya:s. (Yo. 2) The warp is (sold) in bundles, we call this a warp.
- i:r zama:nlarda ğati ha:la: uns beryetılar, jıda: uns beryetiler. (Yo. 1) In former times (people) would care about carpets, they would care a lot.

(ii) In the Ärsa:ri dialect the participle is an invariable, disharmonic -yo:n, in the Sa:riq dialect it is invariably -o:n.

- ašağında di:mä:n, teyinde diyo:n dir (Är. 1) (They) don't say ašağında 'below', (but) they say teyinde.
- giyo:n dırıšı:ŋızıŋ müjberi qanča? (Är. 22)

¹¹⁴ Johanson 1998:109.

How much is the size of the suit you are wearing?

• mektep oğlanlarıŋ gel**o:n** waxtı boldı. (Sa.3) It's the time when the schoolboys are coming.

In the Teke and Yomut dialects, the participle has two possible forms, one being a disharmonic, invariable *-yo:n* and the other a harmonic *-yA:n* (Te.) $\sim -(y)A:n$ (Yo.):

- qad1:m waxtlarda ğudalara öŋinde ğoyul**yo:n** etler-em belli eken. (Te. 19) In ancient times the (pieces of) meat that were served to the in-laws were clearly defined.
- werzišden kä:ra:ta: gid**yä:n**lammız-am ba:r ya:šlardan. (Te. 18) Among the youth, we also have those who (among) sports go to karate.
- bašğa za:t bo:m**a:n** soŋ (Yo. 1) since nothing else was (there)

(iii) The negation of the habitual past is in the Teke dialect a combination of participle and negative existential, contracted into the complex -Ano:q (as opposed to non-contracted -(y)An yo:q in the other dialects), when necessary supplied with a possessive suffix referring to the satellite of the construction; the syllable which comes from the existential has clearly developed into a suffix, but it is always disharmonic and invariable:

- biz o yerä: ğatna:p bilemmiz**o:q**, olaram gelip bilenn**o:q**. (Te. 2) We cannot go there for a visit, nor can they come (here).
- axtaran bile tap**amo:q**. (Te. 5) I didn't find (it), although (I) looked for it.

(iv) Some postverbs like *ber*- (and its derivates) and *bil*-, which are realized as quasi-suffixes, are also generally disharmonic. They can in their turn even cause regressive harmonization of the preceding converbial *-I*- into [i].

- ö:z tiliŋizde aytıwerıŋ. (Mo. 1) Tell (it) in your own language!
- yerinnen turi<u>b</u>ilen yo:qti. (År. 12) He was unable to get up from his place.

4.2.11 Vocalism and vowel harmony in copied lexemes

(a) The vocalism of copied lexemes

(i) Copied lexemes, regardless of their initial provenance, mostly enter the Afghan Turkmen dialects via Dari or the local Persian dialects by whose phonetic realization, consequently, the phonetic realization of these loanwords in the Turkmen dialects is primarily determined. There is, however, a marked tendency to include loanwords into the general Turkmen phonetic system by subjecting them – although not thoroughly or systematically – to the principle of vowel and vowel-consonant harmony.

(ii) For the interpretation of a copied lexeme as back or front, the consonants of the lexeme are of primary importance. The vocalism of copied lexemes that contain only consonants which are not marked as back or front (/d/, /m/, /z/, /l/, /r/ ...) can consequently be interpreted

as either back or front, or mixed. The dialects often differ in realization, but there seems to be no definite rule according to which, for example, the Ärsa:n dialect would prefer front vocalism against predominantly back vocalism of the Teke dialect, or vice versa. My material is not rich enough to permit statements about frequencies; we can only state that no option seems to be generally excluded. Examples: Är. $w\ddot{a}:de \sim$ Te. wa:da 'promise', but Är. $da:na: \sim$ Te. $d\ddot{a}:n\ddot{a}:$ 'wise' and Är. $zinda:n \sim$ Te. $zind\ddot{a}:n$ 'prison'; Te. $h\ddot{a}:zir \sim$ ND ha:zir 'nowadays'.

The unmarkedness of this type of loanwords also permits a simple copying of the vocalism of the original without any harmonization at all. Examples: *tilpo:n* 'telephone'; *pu:hantu:n* 'university'; *du:šemme* 'Monday'; *a:rši:p* 'archive'.

(iii) Loanwords' back consonants that exist in native lexemes as well (/q/, /ğ/, /x/ ...) in most cases not only determine the intrasyllabic realization of the vowel as back, but generally also lead to intersyllabic harmonization of the whole lexeme as back-vowel. Examples: *qadı:m* (Är. 31, Yo. 1, Te. 19) 'ancient' < pers.</p> *exaira; qarib* 'almost' < pers. *qarīb; xalqı:* (Te. 3) 'member of the Xalq faction' < pers. *xalqī; paqı:r* 'soft (person)' << arab. *faqīr*. Copied lexemes that contain a long vowel [a:], however, can regardless of a back consonant also be totally realized as front, or at least contain front vowels as well. Examples: *inqila:b* 'revolution' (Te. 3); *xa:hiš* 'wish' (Är. 36); *qa:no:ni:* 'lawabiding' (Är. 4).

The original quality of retroflex-alveolar, emphatic-alveolar or otherwise perceivedly "back" consonants¹¹⁵ whose original (Arabic, Pashto, ...) phonetic realization is not preserved in Persian (*toy, şad, 'ayn, hā', ...*), does in general not determine the Turkmen vocalism as back (which points to the fact that loans have generally entered the Turkmen dialects orally rather than through a written medium). Examples: *rütbe* 'rank' < pers. [rutbä]; *esger* 'soldier' < pers. *askar*; *šert* 'condition' (Är.) < pers. *šart*; *mehessil* 'student' (Te.) < pers. *muhassil*; *heltek* 'wheel' (Är.) < pers. *ğaltak*; *setil* 'bucket' (Mu.) < pers. *satil.* – In the Teke dialect, however, a small number of lexemes with alveolar and other "Arabic back consonants" do have back vocalism. In some cases this phenomenon coincides with particularities observed in renderings of originally Arabic lexemes in the Tatar language, so that we may assume that these loans have come via Tatar rather than Persian, and have been "imported" into Afghanistan by *muhājir*s from the Soviet Union (on whose language for some time in the early 20th century Tatar intellectuals exerted a strong linguistic influence): Te. *watan* 'homeland' vs. *weten* in all other dialects.

(iv) In other cases the consonantism of the originals does not necessarily imply back vocalism, although back-vowel variants do exist. The dialects show an ambiguous picture in this phenomenon: Many lexemes have back-vowel variants in the Teke dialect while the Ärsa:r1 variants have front vocalism: Te. *taya:r* ~ Är. *teyya:r* 'ready' < pers. *tayyār*; Te. *wa:da* ~ Är. *wā:de* 'promise' < pers. [wa:dä]; On the other hand, there are correlates whose back-vowel variant is typical of the Ärsa:r1 dialect while Teke has front-vowel variants: Är. *a:lam* ~ Te. *ä:lem* 'world' < pers. *ālam*; Är. *aynek* ~ Te. *eynek* 'eyeglasses' < pers. *aynak*; Är. *šama:l* ~ Te. *šema:l* < pers. *šamāl*: Är. *da:na:* ~ Te. *dä:nä:* 'wise'; Är. *zında:n* ~ Te. *zindä:n* 'prison' < pers. *zindān*.

¹¹⁵ The perceived "back" quality is actually not grounded in the consonants themselves, but in the articulation of their surrounding vowels. Neither in the immediate Persian originals, nor in their Turkmen copies this effect on the vowels is, however, preserved.

(v) The vocalism of copied lexemes that contain consonants marked as front (mostly /k/ or /g/) is generally front: *köče* 'street, quarter' < pers. $k\bar{u}ča$, $t\bar{a}:kje$ 'shelf, board' < pers. $t\bar{a}kča$, $g\ddot{u}l$ 'flower; carpet pattern' < pers. *gul*. Original short [u] of front-consonant copied lexemes is in the Turkmen dialects often retracted into a rounded high vowel [u] between [u] and [ü], neither clearly front nor back: [mukemmel] 'perfect'; [šukir] 'thank God'.

(vi) The stem vowels of copied lexemes can be harmonized. This is particularly the case with [i] and [i:] in syllables anteceding a long [a:] (or less frequently, short [a]), which are regressively harmonized (i.e., lowered) into back-middle [1] and [1:], respectively. Examples: *i:ma:n* 'faith' (År. 2) < pers. $\bar{i}:m\bar{a}n$; *ixtiya:r* 'free will' (År. 10) < pers. *ixtiyār*; *zinda:n* 'prisons' (År. 16) < pers. *zindān*; *piša:r* 'blood pressure' (Te. 10) < pers. *fišār*; *mi:za:n* '(the month of) Mizan' < pers. *mīzān*; *mina:r* 'minaret' (Te. 13) < pers. *minār*; *i:da:m et-* 'to sentence to death' (År. 17) < pers. *īdām*; *si:lxa:na* 'flooded area' (Te. 3) < pers. *sīlxāna*; *xizmat* 'service' < pers. *xizmat*.

Another harmonization phenomenon is the unrounding of [u] > [1] in dis- or polysyllabic stems that also have an [a] or [a:]. Examples: *wuluswa:l* 'district mayor' (Är. 21) < paš. *wuluswāl; muna:sup* 'adequate' (Är. 12) < pers. *munāsib; juma: güni* 'Friday' (Är. 17) ~ *juma: güni* (Te. 14) < pers. [juma]; *supa* 'sofa' (Te. 13) < pers. *suffa; tapa:wut* 'difference' (Te. 13) < pers. *tafāwut; merdim* 'people' (Är. 4) < pers. *mardum*.

(vii) Along with the tendency towards harmonization of the stem vowels of copied lexemes, we can also observe an inclination towards assimilation of vowels in copied dissyllabic and polysyllabic stems. The phenomenon has been observed in XD dialects, without obvious preferences or rules; in quite a few cases the dialects show difference, or assimilated and non-assimilated variants exist even within one dialect. Examples: *hasa:plan-* 'to count as sth.' (Är. 17) << pers. *hisāb* 'account'; *derweze* 'gate' (Är.) < pers. *darwāza; teyya:r* (Är.) ~ *taya:r* (Te.) 'ready' < pers. *tayyār; šama:l* (Är.) ~ *šema:l* (Te.) 'wind' < pers. *šamāl; xarman* (Te. 4) ~ *xırman* (Är. 12) 'crop' < pers. *xirmān; ala:j* (Te.) ~ *ila:j* (Är.) 'medicine' < pers. *ilāj; qa:ğuz* (Te.) ~ *qa:ğaz* (Är.) 'paper' < pers. *qāğaz; maha:jur* 'migrant' (Är. 31) < pers. *muhājir*.

(b) Harmony of copied lexemes + suffix

(i) Derival suffixes agglutinated to the stems of copied lexemes in principle follow the same rules as suffixes agglutinated to native stems: The quality of the suffix vowel(s) and consonant(s) as back or front is determined by the quality of the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. Examples: *bi:güna:-liq* 'innocence' (< pers. *bēgunāh* 'innocent'); *šā:gird-lik* 'apprenticeship' (< pers. *šāgird* 'apprentice'); *do:st-luq* 'friendship' (< pers. *dōst* 'friend'); *a:damča-jiq* 'tiny little man' (< pers. *ādamča* 'little man'); *depterče-jik* 'little notebook' (< pers. *daftarča*).

(ii) The back/front quality of grammatical suffixes agglutinated to copied stems is in principle determined by the quality of the syllable immediately preceding the suffix. Examples: *sa:z-i* 'his instrument' (År. 9) < pers. *sāz*; *ustaxan-i* 'his bone' (Mu. 1) < pers. *ustaxān*; *motar-iŋ čayn-i* 'the chain of the car' (Te. 16) < pers. [čayn] << engl. [čäyn]; *derya:-niŋ o yaqıda* 'on the other side of the river' (Mu. 1); *tarap-lar-a* 'to the directions' (Är. 12) < pers. *taraf*; *bir ja:y-da* 'in one place' (Mu. 2) < pers. *jāy*.

(iii) Although long [a:] in copied lexemes is generally interpreted as a back vowel, the quality of high vowel suffixes (e.g. GEN $-(n)I\eta$, AKK -(n)I, POSS1PL -(I)mIz etc.) depicts a marked

tendency to shift from back to front-high [i] when such suffixes are agglutinated to stems that have [a:]. Examples: *molla:-niŋ oğlı* (Sa. 1) 'the son of the mullah' < pers. *mullā*; *mi:rza:-niŋ zama:nında* 'at the times of Mīrzā' (Te. 13) < pers. *mīrzā*; *ši:ri xuda:-niŋ dili* (Är. 2) 'the tongue of the Lion of God' < pers. *xudā*; *bir na:n-i suwa aqdiriq gido:r* 'he has a (loaf of) bread float away with the water' (Sa. 7) < pers. *nān; serpa:y-imiz* 'our clothes of honor' < pers. [sarpāy]; *piša:r-iŋiz* 'your blood pressure' (Är. 17) < pers. *fišār*.

As has been stated in 2.2.2, it is the marked consonants rather than the vowels that determine the back/front quality of a stem; this is underlined by the fact that the shift from back to front vowel following [a:] does not cause a simultaneous shift from back to front in the consonants of suffixes that contain marked consonants (e.g. NOMABSTR *-lIQ*): $di:xa:n-\check{c}iliq$ (not ??? $di:xa:n-\check{c}ilik$) 'the farmer profession' (Xa. 5) < pers. $dehq\bar{a}n$; $ihtiya:j-li\check{g}-i$ (not *ihtiya:j-lig-i) 'its necessity' (Te. 3) < arab. $ihtiya\bar{j}$.

However, alongside this shift from [1] to [i], in many cases the back quality [1] is also often realized in the high vowel suffixes. Examples: pa:y-i (År. 1) 'his share' < pers. $p\bar{a}y$; $za:d-u\eta z-i$ berin 'give your belongings' (År. 6) < pers. $z\bar{a}t$; $qaryada:r-u\eta$ üyi (År. 3) 'the house of the village mayor' < pers. $qaryad\bar{a}r$.

(iv) In the Sa:rıq and Teke dialects the shift from [1] to [i] occurs not only after long [a:], but also after short [a] : *xalq-ı ayt-* 'to invite the people' (Sa. 2); *Balx wela:yat-i-niŋ* 'the Balx province's ...' (Te. 15) < pers. *walāyat, weza:rat-iŋ a:damı* 'a man of the ministry' (Te.) < pers. *wazāyat*.

4.3 Phonological processes: Consonants

4.3.1 Voicing

(a) Voiceless obstruents and affricates in the coda position of native monosyllabic long-vowel stems and of native dis- or polysyllabic stems are voiced when a derival or grammatical suffix with vowel in the onset is agglutinated. (Voicing does not occur if the suffix has a consonant in the onset.)¹¹⁶

/p/ > [b] or [b]

ya:p 'canal' > $ya:\underline{b}i$ 'canal + ACC'; $\underline{g}a:p$ 'sack' > $\underline{g}a:\underline{b}i$ 'sack + ACC'; etra:p 'around' > etra:\underline{b}i 'its environs', $d\underline{u}:p$ 'bottom' > $d\underline{u}:\underline{b}i$ 'its bottom'; $\underline{g}azap$ 'wrath' > $\underline{g}aza\underline{b}i$ 'his wrath', $ayaq\overline{g}a:p$ 'shoe' > $ayaq\overline{g}a\underline{b}i$ 'his shoe'.

/t/ > [d]

a:t 'name' > *a:dum* 'my name'; *ya:t* 'strange' > *ya:durğa*- 'to have stranger anxiety'; *nesu:hat* > *nesu:hadu* 'admonition + ACC'; *o:t* > *o:du* 'fire + ACC'; *sü:t* 'milk' > *sü:di* 'its milk'; *paraxat* 'peace' > *paraxadu* 'his peace of mind'.

¹¹⁶ Johanson 1998:32 explains the phenomenon without reference to the long vowels in monosyllabic stems; he postulates two morphophonological variants of an originally weak (lenis) obstruent which is devoiced in syllable-final position.

/k/>[g]

gö:k 'blue, green' > *gö:ger-* 'to sprout' ; *ki:k* 'stag' > *ki:giŋ gö:šti* 'the stag's meat'; *i:k* 'spindle' > *i:gi* 'her spindle'; *mö:jek* 'wolf' > *mö:jegi* 'wolf + ACC'; *kičirä:k* 'smaller' > *kičirä:gi* 'the smaller one of them'.

 $/q/ > [\check{g}]$

a:q 'white' > $a:\check{g}ar$ - 'to become white'; $\bar{g}i:q$ 'noise' > $\bar{g}i:\check{g}ir$ - 'to shout'; $\bar{g}apaq$ 'lid' > $\bar{g}apa\check{g}i$ berk 'its lid is closed'.

 $\check{c} > [j]$

 $a:\check{c}$ 'hungry' > a:ji- 'to become hungry'; $a\check{g}a\check{c}$ 'tree' > $a\check{g}aji$ 'tree + ACC'.

(b) Voicing of this kind also occurs across word boundaries:

- mä:kä:m yapiši<u>b</u> otırdım (Är. 29) I sat and clung tightly (to ...)
- pes alıšla:<u>b</u> aldım (Är. 13) then I exchanged (it)
- burs berilse köp**rä:g onda:m** šil billen Türkmenlemmize kömek edilse (Te.2) If (only) stipends were given more and then our Turkmen were supported with that...

(c) The possessive suffixes (+ pronominal *n*) have an unstable initial vowel which does not appear before suffixes with a vowel in the onset (see "deletion of vowels"). However, final /q/, /k/, /p/, /t/ and /č/ of dissylabic stems, when a possessive suffix as mentioned above is added, do undergo the same voicing as described in (a) although the initial vowel of the possessive suffix is missing:

- küčük > *küčügimiz > küčügmiz daŋığli. (Är. 30) Our dog is tethered.
- **ğolaq** > *ğolağına > **ğ**olağna tamğa basyo:rlar. (Är. 12) They put a mark on its ear.
- **golaq** > yoqarı čıqanımda **golağma** bir ses geldi. (Sa.3) When I went up, I heard something .
- **ğıšalaq** > **ğıšlağmıza** ya:zda su: barano:q. (Te.14) There is no irrigation water in our village during sumer
- yürek > *yüreġini > hemmä:niŋ yüreġni tapıp du:r (Är. 8) He finds the heart of everybody.
- yürek > *yüreġini > piša:r kä:bi:riniŋ yüreġni urya:r eken (Te.3) (High) blood pressure attacks the heart of many a person.

(d) The voicing of final /t/ of verbal stems when these are followed by a suffix with a vowel or the approximant /y/ in the onset (e.g., et- 'to do' > edip) occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects; non-voicing has only been identified in some examples from the Bayat dialect.

- iki xarman **edipdik** (Te. 4) we made a double harvest
- deli:liŋizi **ešdip** imsim boldı. (Är. 10) When he heard your arguments, he fell silent.
- Kä: waxt diri:werler sä:girdleri pulsızam **alıgid**yo:r. (Xa.2)

Sometime, the drivers take the students to the destination without money.

• ana šundağ **etip** (Ba. 3) doing like this

4.3.2 Assimilation

Assimilation of three different types – progressive, regressive and combined – occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects. However, there is some difference in detail. In the Teke, Yomut and Sa:riq dialects the phenomenon plays a greater role than in the Ärsa:ri dialect, Muqri, Xatab and others. Assimilation is an overall phenomenon: It affects native as well as copied stems and happens in the suffixation process.

(a) Progressive assimilation

(i) Clusters where voiced plosives follow their voiceless counterparts, either in stems or as a result of suffixation processes, can through fortition be assimilated into voiceless-only clusters:

 $\begin{array}{l} /pb/>[pp] \ topbaq > toppaq \ 'together' (Är.5) \ (Clauson: \ tobik \ (<to:b)^{117} \\ /td/>[tt] \ gitdi > kitti \ 'went' \ (Mu.2) \\ /kg/>[kk] \ sekgiz \ (Är.) \ 'eight', > sekkiz \ (ND.), > sekiz \ (Te.) \ (Clauson: \ sekkiz)^{118} \\ /q\bar{g}/>[qq] \ caq\bar{g}i > caqqi \ 'knife' \ (Clauson: \ caki, \ caki)^{119} \end{array}$

(ii) Clusters in which /d/ follows the liquid /l/, the alveolar fricative /z/, or the nasal /n/ are progressively assimilated: /ld > [ll]; /zd > [zz]; /nd > [nn]. This assimilation occurs in stems as well as in the suffixation process. It is most prominent in the Teke dialect, but occasionally occurs in other dialects as well.

/ld/ > [11]

- **baldız** > bu menin **ballız**ım bolya: (Te.12) This is my sister-in-law.
- **ğaldı** > doqma satilmadi weli:n čiten doqmalari ellerniŋ ustinne **ğallı**. (Te. 6) The carpet was not sold, but (instead) the carpets they had made remained on their hands.
- **geldi** > šu inqila:biŋ dewra:nında mana bašğa yerlerdä:kilermiz-em **gelli**. (Te. 3) In this revolution period our (relatives) who were in other places have come (here).

/zd/ > [zz]

• **aramızda** > heni:zem **a:ramızza** edebiya:t dil türkmeni hi:č bir šüyle üytgä:n za:di yo:q. (Te. 4)

Among us so far there is nothing Turkmen that has changed (for the worse) – literature, language...

- **alanımızda** > ha:li:nıŋ erišini satin **alammizza** (Yo. 2) when we purchase the warp for the carpet
- **gezdirir** > sizi bügün ča:rya:r **gezzi:r**. (Te. 13) Today it is Čāryār who guides you round.

¹¹⁷ Clauson. 1972: 437.

¹¹⁸ Clauson. 1972: 823.

¹¹⁹ Clauson. 1972: 613.

/nd/ > [nn]

- **sandığıŋ** > **sannığıŋ** ačarını yitirdim. (Te. 5) I have lost the key of the chest.
- **indi** > bend dä:lde ačılan **inni**. (Te. 3) It is not closed, it has been opened now.
- **mindik** > ba:zar orta: ešek **minnik**. (Yo. 1) We rode on donkeys as far as the bazaar.

The /n+d/ > [nn] assimilation in the Teke dialect occurs even across word boundaries: /nd/ > [nn]

• **men dä:l** > ağšam ği:ğıran **men-nä:ldim**. (Te. 6) (The person) who shouted (last) night was not me.

The /n+d/ > [nn] assimilation occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects when the locative or ablative suffixes (-*dA*, -*dAn*) follow a final /n/. /nd/ > [nn]

- **men-de** > **menne** munča pul yo:q. (Te.16) I don't have that much money.
- **üstin-de** > bir da:ğıŋ **üstinne** (Te. 7) on top of a mountain
- ičin-de > šehr ičinne ya:šaya:lar. (Te. 6) They live in the city.
- **kim-den** > bi ati **kimnen** aldıŋız? (Är.25) Who bought that horse from?
- **yoqarsın-dan** > derrä:niŋ **yoqarsınnan** aylanıp su: gelyä:r eken. (Te. 3) Water comes from upstream.
- milliyetin-den, wela:yatın-dan > türkmen milliyetinnen bolyo:rn, ğunduz wela:yatınnan bolyo:rn. (Är. 21)
 Lam from the Turkmen nation (...) Lam from Kunduz province

I am from the Turkmen nation, (...) I am from Kunduz province.

- **özin-den** > ha:lı šu marčağıŋ **ö:zinnen** čıqo:r. (Sa. 2) The carpets come from this very Marčaq.
- **bolan-dan** > **bolannan** soŋ (Mu. 3, Yo. 1) after initially being from....

(iii) Clusters in which /b/ follows the bilabial nasal /m/, whether in stems or across word boundaries, are often assimilated: $/m/+/b/ > [mm] : t \ddot{u}mbek > t \ddot{u}mmek$ 'fraught' (Är.5); **yerkümbe* > *yerkumme* 'dugout shelter' (Sa.). This phenomenon is known in all dialects.

- **i:šim ba:r** > i:ši**m-m**a:r. (Är. 51) I am busy.
- *üm bilmez > men-em ümmülmez oğlan šo pille (Är. 6) I also was a silly boy at that time.
- **ja:num bilen** > men sağ bolsam ja:nu**m-m**ılen i:šlejek. (Te. 18) If I were healthy I would work with pleasure (lit. with my soul).

(iv) Clusters in which /t/ follows the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ can be assimilated: /st/ > /ss/. This process has been observed in the Teke dialect.

• **üstinden** > depeleriŋ **üssinnen** (Te. 21) over the hills

(v) Clusters in which /l/ follows the voiced alveolar fricative /z/ are assimilated: /zl/ > [zz]. Examples have been found only in the Teke dialect.

- **gözle-** > šu depeleriŋ üssinnen **gözzä:p** durya:s kä: waxtlar. (Te. 21) Sometimes we watch from the top of those hills.
- **gizle-** > oyınjaqları yoqarda **gizzä:p** ğoydım. (Te.12) I hid the toys upstairs.

On the other hand, in the combination of PRONOM1PL and PRONOM2PL and the plural suffix, regressive assimilation takes place: *biz-ler* > *biller*, *siz-ler* > *siller*.

- /zl/>[ll] bizler > biller erte gitmeli boldıq. (Är.45) We will be going tomorow.
- /zl/>[ll] sizler > siller ni:rden geldiniz? (Är.48)
 Where do you come from ?

(vi) Clusters where /k/ or /g/ follows the velar nasal / η / are assimilated: / η k/ > [$\eta\eta$], / η g/ > [$\eta\eta$]. This phenomenon occurs in the Teke dialect only.

- /ŋk/>[ŋŋ] süŋki > etleri süŋŋi bilen ğoymalı eken. (Te. 19) The meat was to be served together with its bones, as they say.
- /ŋk/>[ŋŋ] i:šeŋgi:r > na:mı xuda: oğlanlarıŋ hemmesi i:šeŋŋi:r bolıp čıqdı. (Te. 16) By God, all your sons have come out as hard-working!

(vii) Clusters where $/\check{c}/$ follows the voiceless postalveolar fricative $/\check{s}/$ are assimilated: $/\check{s}\check{c}/ > /\check{s}\check{s}/$. This phenomenon has been observed in the Ärsarı dialect only.

 /ŋb/>[ŋm] müŋbaščılıq > buxara: pa:šša:sı müŋmaššılıq rütbe beren eken. (Är. 9) The king of Bukhara used to award the rank of müŋbašı.

(b) Regressive assimilation

(i) Clusters where /s/ follows the voiceless plosive /t/ as result of a suffixation process, are assimilated: /ts/>[ss]. This phenomenon is typical of the Ärsa:ri dialect.

- /ts/>[ss]sat-saq > altı mitiri sassaq qarzımı bererin. (Är. 41) If we sell the six-meter (carpet), I will pay my debts back.
- **git-se git-sin**> ğoyoŋ kö:la:ta **gisse gissin**! (Är. 39) Let him (go), may he go to the pumpkin field if he wants to!
- et-sin > i:r bilen i:š essin!(Är.5) Let him do his work early!

(ii) Clusters where $|\check{s}|$ follows $|\check{c}|$ - which mostly occurs across word boundaries – are assimilated: $|\check{c}\check{s}| > [\check{s}\check{s}]$.

- $/\check{c}\check{s}/>[\check{s}\check{s}]$ üč šertim > saņa üš šertim ba:r. (Är. 39) I have three conditions for you (to fulfill).
- **a:č šağal** > senem **a:š šağal** ya:nı čapala:p yörme. (Är.1) Don't you run everywhere like a hungry jackal!
- uč šä:rik > biz uš šä:rik bolip išliyors. (Ar.11) We are three partners, working together.

(iii) Clusters where $/\check{c}/$ follows /t/ as a result of suffixation processes, are assimilated: $/t\check{c}/>$ [čč].

• /tč/>[čč] para:xatčiliq > o:ğa:nista:nna-da para:xaččiliq bolsa bašğa hi:č kemi yo:q. (Te. 16)

If in Afghanistan there were also peace, nothing else would be deficient.

(iv) Clusters where /m/ follows the nasal /n/ or the trill /r/ are assimilated: /nm/ > [mm] and /rm/ > [mm]. The phenomenon has been found in the Teke and Ärsarı dialects.

• /nm/>[mm] bilenmiz yo:q > biz o yerä: ğatna:p bilemmizo:q olaram gelip bileno:q. (Te. 2)

We cannot go for visits there, nor can they come (here).

- **alanmiz yo:q** > bizem kita:p **alammizo:q**. (Te.5) We did not receive the books yet.
- **ğarindašlarmıza** > wi:ze za:dlar berse biz **ğarindašlammıza** yetip biljek. (Te. 14) If they gave visas and stuff, we could reach our relatives (there).
- türkmenlermize > türkmenlemmize kömek edilse (Är. 36) if our (fellow) Turkmens were supported
- tujjarlarmizin > tujjarlammizin vuzde segseni (Är. 25) • eighty percent of our merchants

The /rm/ cluster is excluded from assimilation of this kind if the personal suffix -mIz follows the lexeme *ba:r* : *ba:rmiz* 'we are present', but not ???*ba:mmiz*.

(c) Dialect difference in progressive / regressive assimilation

(i) As the examples in (a)-(b) show, the Teke dialect depicts a strong tendency towards progressive assimilation, while the Ärsa:ri dialect is mostly characterized by regressive assimilation; however, there are exceptions to this general observation in both directions, too. As for the other dialects, my materials do not provide sufficient examples to support general assumptions about them in these matters.

(ii) In clusters of /n/+/l/ the distribution becomes most clearly visible: While /nl/ is in the Ärsa:rı, Yomut and Sa:rıq dialects assimilated into [11], it is in the Teke dialect assimilated into [nn]:

günlükči 'workman' (Är.) ~ güllükči (Yo., Sa.) ~ günnükči (Te.) yağınlı 'rainy' (Är.) ~ yağıllı (Yo., Sa.) ~ yağınnı (Te.) gelneje 'sister-in-law (BW)' (Är.) ~ gelleje (Yo.) ~ genneje (Te.) gelin aliji '(relatives who go to fetch the bride from her father's home)' ~ genna:ji (Te. 2)

- **dalna-** > men **danna:p** duramo:q, nä:me bolsa i:yä:n! (Te. 13) For me, I am not picky, I eat everything. (see Clauson: taŋil-¹²⁰ or: tinil- < tin-¹²¹)
- dalna- > men hemme za:dı i:yä:n, hi:č danna:mo:q (Te. 18)
 I don't differentiate, I eat whatever is there.
- **dalnama:n** iyiberde! (Är. 8) Just eat without picking!

(c) Coalescence

Along with full assimilation, partial/mutual assimilation (coalescence) of consonant clusters also occurs in the Afghan Turkmen dialects.

(i) Clusters of /s/+/j/, as results of a suffixation processes, coalesce into a devoiced "compromise cluster". This phenomenon occurs in the ND dialects.

/sj/ > [sč] kes-jek > kesček 'want(s) to cut'; as-jaq > asčaq 'want(s) to hang'.

(ii) If the affricate $|\check{c}|$ forms a cluster with a subsequent |d|, |l| or |s|, it is reduced into $[\check{s}]$ and the other consonant is preserved without assimilation. This phenomenon occurs in XN dialects.

 $|\check{c}d| > [\check{s}d] \ a\check{c}-d\iota > a\check{s}d\iota$ 'he opened'

• **geč-dik** > sa:leŋde ğa:r köp yağan eken, ağšam ğı:nlıq bilen **gešdik**. (Är. 10) Much snow had fallen on the Sālang Pass. Last night we crossed (it) with difficulties.

 $|\check{c}l| > [\check{s}l] a:\check{c}lq > a:\check{s}lq$ 'hunger '

ač-lıq > ellinji yillarda meymene, ba:diği:s we ğo:r taraplarda örä:n yaman ašlıq bolipti. (Är. 7)
 In the 1250a over there in Meymene. Dādžīs and Čān there was a tarrible femine.

In the 1350s over there in Maymana, Bādǧīs and Ğōr there was a terrible famine.

 $|\check{c}s| > [\check{s}s]$

 ač-sa-da > kä:rmelin waxtinda hökü:met zında:nlarin derwezelerni ašsa-da xalqin ğaharını ğačirip bilmedi. (Är. 16) Although in the time of Kārmal the government opened the doors of the prisons, they could not fend off the anger of the populace.

(iii) If the affricate $/\check{c}/$ forms a cluster with its voiced counterpart /j/ or with another $/\check{c}/$, t the cluster coalesces into [šš]. This phenomenon occurs in XD dialects.

/čj/>[šš]

• **ač-jaq** > biz geldik, i:šigi **aššaqmi**? (Är. 8) We have arrived, will you open the door?

 $|\check{c}\check{c}| > [\check{s}\check{s}]$

 ağač-či > demir-pala:stik za:tlar čiqannan bä:ri indi öŋkiler ya:li ağašši ussalar-am yo:q. (Sa. 2)

¹²⁰ Clauson, 1972:520.

¹²¹ Clauson, 1972:514.

Since iron and plastic objects have appeared, there are no (more) carpenters like previously, either.

(iv) Clusters of /t/ + /j/ coalesce in a devoiced [čč]. This phenomenon occurs in the Ärsa:ri dialect.

• **git-jekmi** > šınnan siz maza:ra **giččekmi**? (Är. 35) Are you then going to Mazār?

(v) Clusters of /n/ + /b/ coalesce into [nm] : $m\ddot{u}nbas\imath > m\ddot{u}nmas\imath$ (Är. 9) 'commander', münbi:r > münmi:r (Är.) 'thousand and one '.

(vi) If postverbs with $|\check{g}|$ or |g| in the onset follow a converb with |p| in the coda position, the consonant clusters $|p\check{g}|$ and |pg| coalesce into [qg] (without, in the latter case, observation of vowel-consonant harmony). The phenomenon has been observed in the Ärsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Xatap, and Muqri dialects.

- **bolıp-ğal-** > hezireti ali ši:ri xuda: köp peri:ša:n **boliqğaldi**. (Är. 2) Hazrat Ali the Lion of God fell into great confusion.
- **alıp-gel-** > šuni soŋ pes 1:zina ğaytarıp **alıqgeldiler**. (Är. 1) Then they returned him back (lit. on his footprints).
- gelip gör-, aqdırıp-git- > soŋ bosa gelikgörse bir ya:šoli a:dam bir na:ni suwa aqdiriqgido:r ekeni. (Sa. 7)
 Then, as he arrived and looked, an old man had a (loaf of) bread float away in the water.
- **alıp ğač-** > **aliq ğačar** o:ğa:nlardan ekende ol. (Mu. 1) And he obviously was one of these thievish Pashtuns.

4.3.3 Dissimilation

Dissimilation is in the Afghan Turkmen dialects a rather infrequent phenomenon, but it does occur in all dialects. My material contains examples of dissimilation of geminates and – as the opposite of coalescence – separation.

(a) Dissimilation of geminates

The co-existence of analogous stems which occur with geminate plosives in some dialects, and with a cluster of analogous voiceless and voiced plosives in others, allows for two different interpretations: If the geminates /pp/, /tt/, /kk/, /qq/ and /čč/ are primary, the clusters [pb], [td], [kg], [qğ] and [čj] would be products of dissimilation. If the dissimilar clusters /pb/, /td/, /kg/, /qğ/ and /čj/ were primary, the simple geminates would be products of assimilation. Since the distribution does not support a consistent assumption, the problem is left open for the time being.

Table 4-7:

	Teke	Ärsa:rı	ND dialects	Gloss
$pp \sim pb$	topbaq ¹²² ,	toppaq, heppe	toppaq, hepbe	'pill'
	hepbe			
$tt \sim td$	(yedi)	yetdi,	yetti (Mu.),	'seven'
		ketde	kette (Xa.)	'big'
kk ~ kg	(sekiz)	sekgiz	sekkiz (Ba.)	'eight'
qq~qğ	(doquz)	toq <u>g</u> ız~toq <u>g</u> ız	toqqız (Mu.),	'nine'
	čaqqı	čaqīg	čaqqı (Mu.)	'knife'
$\check{c}\check{c}\sim\check{c}j$	(kiči)	kičjik ~ kižžik	kičik	'small'

(b) Separation

Separation – as the opposite of coalescence – implies that a cluster of consonants that share one feature, in this case voicelessness, is dissimilated with regard to that feature. My material contains examples of separation of /kt / > [kd], /šq / > [šğ] and /pt / > [pd].

/kt/>[kd] *mektep* > *mekdebe gityo:r* 'he goes to school' (Är. 28) /šq/>[šğ] *bašqa* > *bašğa* 'other' (Te. 3) /pt/>[pd] *ğaptal* > *ğapdal* 'side' (Är), *kepter* > *kepder* 'pigeon' (Är. 40)

4.3.4 Metathesis

Metathesis occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although with some variation in detail. There exist several types of metathesis.

(a) Simple metathesis

(i) Simple metathesis in consonant clusters of native stems often occurs if /g/ or $/n/\sim/n/$ are elements of the cluster. The metathetic and non-metathetic variants mostly coexist in the same dialect.

 $b\breve{g}\sim\breve{g}b$

- buwın yağmır **čabğala:p** yağyo:r. (Är. 13) Today it rains cats and dogs.
- bizem čağbada ğa:lıp suwa düšen sıčan ya:nı boldıq. (Är. 40)

We were caught in a heavy shower and were soaked like mice fallen into the water.

 $m \breve{g} \sim \breve{g} m$

 ğoyunların ğolağna tamğa basyo:rlar son herkim ö:z ğoynını tamğasınnan taniyo:r. (Är. 12)

They print a mark on the ears of the sheep, then everybody recognizes his own sheep by its mark.

• deri:niŋ (...) **tağması** ba:r eken (Är. 5) The sheepskin has a brand mark.

¹²² Clauson 1972:437 tobik (< to:b).

 $r\breve{g}\sim\breve{g}r$

- bi yil **yorğan**-düšegiŋ hemmesini tä:zeledik. (Är. 5) This year we have renewed all quilts and mattresses.
- paxtası kem bolsa-da:m ğıšda kempelden görä: **yoğran** yağšı. (Är. 41) Even if it (contains) little cotton only, in winter a quilt is better than a blanket.

$\check{s}\check{g}\sim\check{g}\check{s}$

- pä:kista:ni: bürünjiŋ biširmesi **bašğa** burinjlere ğara:nda aŋsa:t. (Är. 11) Pakistani rice is easier to prepare than other (sorts of) rice.
- türkmenler maha: jir bolip bildilerki oqu:dan **bağša** hi:č za:dıŋ pa:yidası yo:q. (Är. 31) As migrants the Turkmens have understood that nothing but studying (brings) advantage.

 $l\eta\sim\eta l$

- men šo pille-dä:m aytdim, sizleriŋ bul i:šiŋiz **yalŋıš** di:dim. (Är. 19) I already said so at that time: I said it is wrong what you are doing.
- men size **yaŋlıšma:n** gürriŋ bereyin. (Är. 31) I tell you (all) without mistake.

šŋ ~ ŋš

- a:t **kišnese** hem oniŋ bir ma:nası ba:r. (Mu. 2) If the horse neighs, there is some meaning to that.
- at mö:jegiŋ yaqı:n gelenni gözi görmese-de bilbilyo:rmıš we **kiŋšiyo:rmıš**. (Är. 12) Even if the horse does not see that the wolf has come close, it seems to somehow know it and neighs.

Simple metathesis of $/pr/ \sim /rp/$ as in (ND) *torpağ* ~ (XD) *toprağ* appears as a singular phenomenon in the dialects.

- **toprağı** yağšı bolan soŋ bı yerlerde nä:me ekseŋ gö:geryo:r. (Är. 34) Since its soil is good, whatever you sow at these places here, will grow.
- ka:rteyi xura:sa:n šehire yaqın bolsa-da onıŋ torpağı bolmıyo:r, torpağı šo:r onıŋ. (Mu. 1)

Although the Xurāsān Quarter is close to the city, its soil won't do, it is salty.

(ii) Clusters that result from the agglutination of a -lI suffix to a participial noun ending in $-I\check{G}$ in the coda can be subject to simple metathesis; however, their non-metathetic correlates also exist, although dialect difference can be observed: The Teke dialect appears most inclined towards metathesis in such cases, while the Ärsa:r1 dialect favors the non-metathetic clusters. Examples: Är. *tikig-li* ~ Te. *dikilģi* 'sewn'.

- xayya:tlıqda aslan mata:nı bišmek ğı:n, **bičiğli** küynegi tikmek aŋsa:t. (Är. 5) Actually in tayloring the difficult thing is to cut the fabric. Sewing together a tailored shirt is easy.
- ağšam **bičilgi** za:tları bir ya:nnan dikip bašladim. (Te. 5) I have started to sew together all the items (I) tailored (last) night.
- geliberiŋ! küčügmiz **daŋığli**. (Är. 30) Come in! Our dog is tethered.
- sıpa:nıŋ ašağında iki sa:nı at-am **daŋılğı** du:r eken. (Te. 3) Down the platform two horses were tethered.
- olar yüzine aji:b xatlar **yazığlı** sikkeler-ä:m bize görkezdiler. (Är. 17) They showed us coins on whose sides interesting inscriptions were drawn.

- belki olar ba:rada **yazılğı** mektu:b za:tlar elimizde yo:q.(Te.13)
 - But we don't have letters or stuff with writings about them in our hands.

(b) Metathesis across a vowel

Metathesis of consonants across an in-between vowel is a rare phenomenon; my materials contain examples from the Ärsa:r1 dialect only.

- **turuz-** > yatıbersin o:qıdan **tuzur**ma! (Är. 40) May he sleep on. Don't make him get up from sleep.
- **horaz** : **horaz** hemme yerde bir x1:l q1:ğ1ryo:r eken ağam! (Är. 16) My friend (lit. brother), the roosters crow the same way everywhere!
- horaz > i:rden turıp čöle tarap u:radım, ortašaxdan ötenimde hozarlar qı:ğıryo:rtı. (Är. 41)

I got up early and made my way to the steppes; when I passed by Ortašax the roosters were crowing.

The swearword *peder nä:let* 'curse over his father' (< pers. [padar la:nat] ~ [padar na:lat]) is familiar in all dialects. However, it seems to have been readily copied from Persian in the metathetic form rather than being a product of spontaneous metathesis across an in-between vowel.

(c) Consonant-vowel metathesis

(i) One special type of metathesis appears to be designed for the avoidance of /r/ in syllableinitial position following a consonant in the coda position of the preceding syllable; the /r/actually swaps places with the vowel of the subsequent syllable:

ŋrı > ŋır

• **aŋrı** > xataplar bile muqrılar **aŋırda**-da türkmenistanda-da bir yerrä:kde ya:šıyo:r-ekenler. (Mu. 1)

The Xatap and Muqri used to live rather (close) together over there, in Turkmenistan. jri > jir

jri > jir • • • • • • • • • • • • •

• **tejribe** > biz ö:zimiz šu i:ši **tejirbe** edip gördik. (Är. 37)

We have tried out this work as an experience for ourselves.

 $\breve{g}r_1>\breve{g}_1r$

• **doğrı** > **doğırdan-am** šul oğlanlara nä:me berseŋiz arzıyo:r. (Är. 10) These guys are truly worth whatever (reward) you give them.

(ii) A singular case of consonant-vowel metathesis is the lexeme $\check{c}_{iya:n} \sim \imath\check{c}_{ya:n}$ 'scorpion', which appears in both variants: *meni čiya:n čoqdi* (Är. 26) ~ *menä:m ičya:n čoqdi* (Är. 31) 'a scorpion stung me'.

4.3.5 Prothesis

(a) Prothesis is a rare phenomenon in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. My materials contain a few single examples of y- and h-prothesis in copied words, whose situational specifics indicate that the prothetic consonants might have been inserted in order to bridge the hiatus at word boundaries.

- esi:r > qadı:m zama:nlarda bir yerini bası<u>b</u> alsalar merdimi yesi:r alyo:r ekenler. (Är. 44)
 - In ancient times, when they raided a place they would take the people as hostages.
- izzet > ola: hürmet kičä: šapaqqat m1:xmana hizzet gerek diyipdirler. (Te. 10) They say, one must (pay) respect to the elders, mercy to the little ones, and generosity to guests.

(b) In native lexemes, h-prothesis occurs with the demonstrative pronoun where enhanced stress appears to cause the phenomenon:

- ol > hajı resu:ldaŋı ho:l köčede yašaya:rlar. (Te. 3) The Hajı Resu:l family live in *that* street over there!
- **ol** > ba:la:po:šiŋizi **ho:l** yerde goyandırn. (Te. 14) I have left your overcoat over *there*!

The prothesis of [h] has otherwise been observed in single lexemes, native as well as copied. The phenomenon appears to be confined to the Teke and Sarıq dialects: *aŋırmaq* (Är.) ~ *haŋırmaq* (Te. Sa.) 'to bray' (Clauson: *aŋra*-)¹²³; *aqıllı* (Är.) ~ *haqıllı* (Te. Sa.) 'intelligent'.

(c) In singular copied lexemes, "prothetic" [h] appears to reflect an '*ayn* of the original (which in the intermediate Persian is, however, not phonetically realized): *asa:* ~ *hasa:* 'walking stick' < pers. *asa:* << arab. '*asa:*.

4.3.6 Epenthesis

(a) Epenthesis of the approximant [y] has been observed in the Afghan Turkmen dialects, but it is a rare phenomenon. In some copied lexemes *y*-epenthesis seems to bridge vowel hiatus where an intervocalic glottal stop of the original is otherwise not preserved: $na:insa:p \sim na:yinsa:p$ 'unfair' < pers. $n\bar{a}'ins\bar{a}f$ [nāinsāf], in others it may reflect an original [h] which otherwise is not preserved in the copied lexeme: $k\bar{o}:ne \sim k\bar{o}:yne \sim k\bar{o}yne$ 'old, ancient' < pers. kohna [kōnä].

(b) Epenthesis of the approximant [r]

Epenthesis of [r] has been observed in the lexeme 'step', which is $\ddot{a}:dim$ in the Teke dialect, but a:rdim in the Ärsa:r1 dialect. (Compare a:dim in Clauson 1972:59; and a:dim in Sevortyan 1974:88f., who cites a:rdim uniquely from the Sa:r1q dialect.¹²⁴)

- ba:zar bilen biziŋ üyimiziŋ ortası dört **ä:dim** yer. (Te. 6) The distance between the bazaar and our home is four steps.
- biziŋ üyimiz bilen šehreče birki **a:rdım** yo:l. (Är. 11) From our home to town it's (only) one or two steps' way.

(c) Gemination as a special case of epenthesis occurs in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. As a spontaneous phonological process - of, however, a certain regularity and predictability - it needs to be separated from an obviously historical phenomenon that concerns the lexicalized

¹²³ Clauson 1972:189.

¹²⁴ Sevortyan (1974:89) quotes N. Nartyev: *Türkmen diliniŋ sarık dialekti*, unpublished cand.diss. Čärjew 1959:67.

occurrance of readily geminated consonants, so to speak. Some details about gemination processes are discussed in subchapter 4.5e on phonological difference between the dialects, and in the respective paragraphs on the phonemes that are affected.

4.3.7 Deletion

Deletion of consonants is a familiar phenomenon in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although there is some dialectal difference in detail.

(a) Deletion of word-initial consonants

The non-representation of initial *y and *h in native lexemes, which characterizes some of the dialects against others, is here not considered as a contemporary, active process of deletion but as the pre-existent product of a historical process. The phenomenon is discussed below in the chapter on phonological difference of the dialects (4.5.e).

(i) Deletion of the initial /h/ of the enclitic particle *hem* 'also' is a regular phenomenon in all Afghan Turkmen dialects; only in rare cases of very careful and distinct speech is the lexical copy *hem* preserved in its original form. Deletion of the initial consonant, attraction of the enclitic to the preceding word, and even harmonization of the vowel in line with low-suffix harmony (most prominent in the Teke dialect) form a complex process. (The meaning of the particle is often reduced from an explicit 'too' to a more general 'and', or to the simple stressing of the general meaning of the word to which it is attached; for details see the chapter on particles.)

- **men hem** > **men-em** erte kä:bil gitjek, bile giders. (Är. 19) I am also going to Kabul tomorrow, we will go together.
- hä:zir hem > šol mu:lımlardan hä:zir-em ine xuda:yrahı:mxa:n diyip šol o:ba:nıŋ ö:zinde ğa:lan. (Sa. 4)
 And nowadays out of those teachers (only) Xuda:yrahımxa:n has remained in that village.
- peštu:ni hem, ol hem > qanča köp bilsek šonča ğawı, xusu:san pa:rsi hatta peštu:na:m u:rensek ğawı, ol-am resmi: dewlet dili. (Te. 14) The more (languages) we know the better. It is good if we learn especially Persian, or even Pashto – that is also an official state language.

(b) Deletion of intervocalic consonants

Intervocalic [y] can be deleted in stems, derivals, in the process of grammatical suffixation, and across word boundaries. Secondary hiatus, which would emerge from this deletion, is prevented through simple contraction, or through assimilation of the coalescing vowels (identical and different ones, respectively). Deletion in stems: $\breve{g}_{12}n > \breve{g}_{12}n$ 'difficult'. – Deletion in derivals: giyimlik > gi:mlik 'slice'. Deletion in the suffixation process: verbal stem+INF+Poss3SG : $sayra - > sayr1:\breve{s}1$ 'his singing' (Är.), $geple - > gepli:\breve{s}1$ 'his mode of speaking' (Är.), $s\ddot{o}zle - > s\ddot{o}zli:\breve{s}1$ 'his mode of talking' (Är.). Deletion across word boundaries: $bu \ yerde$ (Te.) ~ $b\ddot{o}:rde$ 'here' (Är.); $o \ yerde$ (Te.) ~ $\ddot{o}:rde$ 'there' (Är.).

(c) Deletion of consonants in final position

(i) Deletion affects the trill /r/ in word- and stem-final position and in the coda of syllables. My materials contain examples of *r*-deletion in the lexeme *ba*:*r* :

- ba:r+ti > tö:rt sa:naq ği:zim ba:ti, tö:rt sa:nağam oğlim ba:ti. (Är. 2) I have four daughters and also four sons.
- **ba:r+dirs** > yedi yuz nika: **ba:dirs** (...) (Te. 7) Us are 700 married couples (...).

In all dialects, *r*-deletion often affects the intraterminal marker $-yo:r \sim -yA:r \sim -yAr$:

- **tur-yo:rsıŋız** > siz gi:č **turyo:sıŋız**. (Är. 45) You get up late.
- **bol-yo:r** > bizleŋ i:šimiz ši m:za:nnan soŋ köp **bolyo:** . (Är. 41) Our work is particularly much after this (month of) Mīzān.
- ya:ša-ya:r > hıra:tdä:ki ti:releri sa:na:p gešjek bolsaq yomutlar tekeler sa:riqlar ya:šaya:. (Te. 2)

If we'd like to enumerate the tribes in Herat: (there) live Yomut, Teke and Sa:riq.

- bol-ya:rs, ya:ša-ya:rs > wela:yati meymeneden bolya:s (...) yedi yuz nika: ba:dirs ki biz šo ta:yda ya:šaya:s. (Te. 7)
- We are from the province of Maymana (...). Us are 700 married couples that live there.
- alın-yer > bılar bı ta:yda afğa:nista:nda arza:n alınye. (Yo. 2) These (carpets) are here in Afghanistan purchased at cheap price.
- **ber-yer** > i:r zama:nlarda ğati ha:la: uns **berye**tilar. jida: uns **berye**tilar. (Yo. 1) In former times they would consider carpets important. Very important.

(ii) Deletion of the liquid /l/ occurs in word- and stem-final position.

- **dä:l** > elbetde pul alan **dä:** dir (Te. 3) He has obviously not got (any) money.
- dä:l > hökü:metimiz aŋsa:tčılıq döretse biz-em ha:lı:nı pä:kistan üstinnen uzatma:na xoš dä: . (Är. 35)
 If our government made things easy (for us), we would not want to export the carpets
- via Pakistan!
 bol-sa > bizler tarapda bosa imkä:nat yo:q. (Är. 1) As for us here, there are no facilities.

Since the demonstrative pronouns are regularly *ol*, *šol~šul* and *bıl*, the co-existence of the variants *o*, *šo* and *bı* is by the speakers perceived as *l*-reduction.

- **ol** > ena:r alayın di:se pulı yo:qtı, **o** yo:ğ **o**, ki:sede indi, soŋ ya:rtı ena:r alyo:. (Är. 2) As he wanted to buy a pomegranade he had no money, neither in his pocket, (so) then he purchases a half pomegranade.
- šol > šo görünyo:n depeden a:šsaq, qarqınıŋ ğıšlağları mä:lim bolyo:r. (Är. 7) If we cross that hill, the Qarqın villages will be visible over there .
 bıl > bı but maŋa bara:bar gelmedi. (Är. 45) This shoe is not fet in my feet.

(ii) Deletion of /h/ occurs in word- and syllable-final position of copied lexemes. This deletion can lead to the lengthening of the precedent vowel. Examples: *isla: bolan* 'corrected' ($\ddot{A}r. 4$) < pers. *islāh*; *lejeleriŋ her haysısı* 'each one of the dialects' (Te. 13) < pers. *lahja*.

(iii) The deletion of final /q/ in singular words can occur in all dialects. It affects frequently used lexemes:

- yo:q > yo: ičimizä: inni ğıšlağa gitsek a:z-kä:n ičimiz ğısya: . (Te. 14) No – our heart-ä, if we now go to the village, our heart is a bit unhappy...
- **qırq-qırqaltı** > a:talarmiziŋ ölenä:m **qır-qıraltı** yıl boladı da. (Mu. 1) It's now forty or forty-six years that our father has died.

(iv) Deletion of $/\check{g}/$ in syllable-final position occurs in singular cases and results in the lengthening of the precedent vowel: $ya\check{g}liq > ya:liq$ 'kerchief'; $u\check{g}ri yo:q > u:ri yo:q$ 'it has no blessing' (< $u\check{g}ur$).

(v) The deletion of syllable-initial $/\underline{g}$ / in the lexeme *yumurtğa* ~ *yumurta* 'egg' has been observed in the Ärsa:ri dialect (where, however, the lexeme exists in variants with and without $/\underline{g}$ /); for the Teke dialect we have evidence of $/\underline{g}$ /-lessness only. (Compare TRS *yumurtğa*, but western Oghuz *yumurta*; Clauson 1972:938 has *yımırtğa*: / *yumurtğa*).

- šu šekilli ısla: bolan tu:qlariŋ gö:štiniŋ ya: **yumurta**sınıŋ maza:sı yo:q. (Är. 4) The meat or eggs of chickens ameliorated that way have no (good) taste.
- iki derjen **yumurta**-da:m alıŋ! (Te. 5) You take please two dozen of eggs.

(vi) The deletion of /n/ in the word *onsoy* > *osoy* 'following this' is a frequently heard singular reduction phenomenon in fluent and careless speech; it occurs in XD dialects.

(d) Deletion from consonant clusters

(i) The deletion of word-final /q/ and /k/ of dissyllabic native stems occurs regularly when these are followed by the diminutive suffix -jIQ:

- **ayaq+jıq** > šı jorra:p bä:begiŋ **ayajığna** bara:bar gelermikä:? (Är. 15) Will this stocking fit the tiny foot of the baby?
- küjük+jik > öten yıl-am men 1:sa:qxa:na bir küjüjik beripdim. (Te. 7) Last year I had presented a little puppy to I:sa:qxa:n.

Interestingly, no comparable deletion of /q/ or /k/ occurs if to a verb stem finalizing in [q] or [k] a suffix with initial [j] is added:

- heni:z waxt, **da:rıqjaq** bolman! (Är.24) There is still time, don't hurry!
- biz indi bi:r-bi:ri:mize **bi:rikjek** bolip kö:ši:š etmeli. (Är.18) Now we have to try to support each other by uniting (with one another).

The suffixation of the diminutive -jIQ can lead to the above-named reduction effect with monosyllabic native words that have a consonant cluster containing a right-hand /t/, in the coda position. This type of reduction is, however, not as regularly realized as the one just mentioned before: $\bar{g}urtjiq$ 'little worm' ($< \bar{g}urt-jiq$) is preserved in the Sa:riq dialect, while in all other Afghan Turkmen dialects the word is realized as [$\bar{g}urjiq$] – in which the original voiceless word-final consonant /t/ has left its traces insofar as the suffix consonant appears devoiced.

(ii) In word-boundary clusters of /p/+/b/ in converbial phrases with the postverb *bil-* 'to be able to...', deletion of [p] is a frequent, although not invariable phenomenon in the Ärsa:rı dialect¹²⁵; in the other dialects it does not occur. The phenomenon can come with fricativization of the remaining bilabial into [b].

- biz birlešmesek hi:č i:š-em **edibilmers** (Är. 1) If we don't unite we cannot achieve anything.
- ümsüm otıra:masaŋ nä:mi:š edibiler a:dam? (Är. 7) What else can one do than (just) sit and shut up...
- yerinnen **turibilen** yo:qti. (Är. 12) He was unable to stand up from his place.
- her ha:lda men bil i:šiŋ hütdä:sinnen **geli<u>b</u>ilerin**. (Är. 19) In any case I can perform this piece of work as necessary.

(iii) Cluster reduction in the final position of copied lexemes has been observed in all dialects; in careful speech, however, the respective original consonant clusters can be preserved as well: $ra:st \sim ra:s$ 'right'; $pest \sim pes$ 'low, lowly'; $d\ddot{u}r\ddot{u}st \sim d\ddot{u}r\ddot{u}s$ 'sound, correct'; $j\ddot{u}ft \sim j\ddot{u}p$ 'pair'.

(iv) Cluster reduction in singular lexemes is unevenly distributed among the Afghan Turkmen dialects. Its rules cannot be determined on the basis of my materials. Example: *alaŋqa* 'a little rodent, pers. $m\bar{u}\bar{s}$ -xurma' in the Sa:rıq dialect ~ *alaqqa* in the Teke dialect ~ *alaqqā* in the Ärsa:rı dialect. (Compare DTS 33 *alaŋır* with reference to Kāšǧarī, who indicates that "the Turkmens eat this animal".)

4.3.8 Consonant-vowel complex reduction

Complex reduction, which involves consonants and vowels, is a common feature in the Afghan Turkmen dialects. While there are regularities in some cases, in others the process of complex reduction appears occasional and non-systematic. Some phenomena are equally distributed in the dialects while in others, there is difference among the dialects.

(a) Complex reduction of consonant-vowel clusters in the Afghan Turkmen dialects frequently affects words that contain a genitive suffix. The genitive forms of the PRON1SG and PRON2SG are only in very accurate speech fully pronounced, but otherwise are almost regularly reduced: *menin* > *men*; *senin* > *sen*. The same reduction of the cluster *nI* can generally affect the genitive allomorph *-nIn* (which follows stems with a vowel in the coda) > $-\eta$.

¹²⁵ Yakup 2005:76 (50a-c) mentions the same phenomenon for the Turfan Uyghur dialect; in his case, the postverbs *qoy-*, *kät-*, *baq-* and *ber-* are involved, but not *bil-*.

- meniŋ > yö:ne dä:dem birinji gišiki meŋ zindegi:mde köp bir yaxti čira meŋ uči:n. (Te. 5)
 - But my father is the number one person in my life, (he is) a very bright lamp for me.
- **menin** > ata-ba:bamam-hem **men** usta:dim bolo: . (Sa. 1) My father and grandfather are also my masters.
- seniŋki > menıŋ etya:n i:šim na:doğri bolsa yüzimi görmä:n seŋki bolano:q diyiŋ men qabu:l etyä:n. (Te. 5)
 If what I do is wrong, don't consider me (lit. without looking at my face), but say yours is not right I will accept that.
- -nıŋ > bügün ča:rı:ŋ oğlanları-da gelipdiler. (Te. 5) Today Ča:rı:'s kids have also come.

If the genitive suffix follows a plural suffix $(-lAr+I\eta)$, the cluster *rI* is reduced:

- **olarıŋ** > **olaŋ** aytya:nı doğrı dä:l. (Te. 14) What they said is not right.
- **bizlerin** > bu at **bizlen** atımız ya:lı dä:l. (Te.7) This horse is not like ours, there is a difference
- **-larıŋqı -leriŋki** > **o:ğa:nlaŋqi** bilen **türkmenleŋki** ikisi bir. (Är. 1) The [language] of the Afghans and that of the Turkmens, both are equal (in difficulty).

(b) In the Teke and Yomut dialects reduction of clusters that involve the consonants /l/ or /r/ is a phenomenon of some importance, while the Ärsa:ri dialect does not favor this type of complex reduction.

(i) Reduction of the cluster *li* occurs in the Teke and Yomut dialects when the converb of *al*-'to take' is combined with a postverb: *alip ber-> apber* 'bring!':

• ya:nıŋda:qı piya:la:nı **apber**! (Te. 16) Give (me) the cup which is next to you!

(ii) Reduction of clusters [rA] and [lA] occurs in the Teke, Yomut and Sa:riq dialects in a rist forms of verbal stems that have a r/ or l/ in the coda position; the reduction process results in the lengthening of the remaining vowel: *yetirer* > *yeti*:r; *berer* > *be*:r; *bolar* > *bo*:r.

- yetirer > ğam i:mä:ŋ! toyıŋ xarjın-a:m xuda: yeti:r. (Är. 5) Don't worry! God will grant (you) the expenses for the feast.
- berer > bize-de be:rmikä: di:yä:n. (Te. 17)
 I say (to myself), will he also give us (something)?
- **bolar** > marčaqda hemme za:tlar ekip **bo:r**. (Sa. 2) In Marčaq everything can be cultivated.

(c) In the Teke, Yomut and Sa:riq dialects reduction of clusters that occur in the negative forms of postterminal PART+POSS + yo:q is a regular phenomenon.

- axtaran bile tap**amo:q**. (Te. 5) I didn't find (it), although (I) looked for it.
- men hemme za:dı i:yä:n, hi:č danna:mo:q (Te. 18) I eat everything, I don't differentiate.

- biz o yerä: ğatna:p bilemmizo:q, olaram gelip bilenno:q. (Te. 2) We cannot go there for a visit, nor can they come (here).
- mektebi ğotarannan soŋ yoqari oqu:lara bä:ri:k ornašasi **geleno:qdilar**. (Sa. 4) When they had finished primary school they did not even think of settling closer for higher learning.

(d) Word clusters that contain the interrogative pronoun *nä* or *nä:me* 'what?' often undergo complex reduction: *nä:(me) etjek > nä:tjek* 'what is he doing?'; *nä:me ederin > nä:derin* 'what shall I do?'.

- **nä:(me) üči:n** > siz **nä:še** mınya:nı boldıŋız? (Är. 5) Why have you become like that?
- nä:(me) edeyin > oğlanlaram erti:rden bä:ri šo:xlıq ba:rını etdiler nä:di:n bıları? (Är. 15)

The kids have committed all sorts of nuisance since the early morning – what shall I do (with) them?

(e) Word clusters that contain demonstrative pronouns *bu*, *šo*, *o(l)* or derivates of these, in the Ärsa:ri dialect often undergo complex reduction, which often also affects the high/low and/or front/back and/or rounded/unrounded quality of vowels involved: *bu yerde* > *bö:rde* 'here' (Är.); *šu yerde* > [šö:rde] 'here'; *eyle edip* > [ö:dip] 'that way (lit. doing like that)' (Är.); *šeyle edip* > [šö:dip] 'like this'; *šeyle di:di* > [šö:di:di] 'he said so' (Är.).¹²⁶

- mana šı za:dları ö:zimiz ğoršayo:rs **bö:rde**. (Är. 37) These things we construct here ourselves.
- **šö:rde** ya:šiyo:n nipu:siŋ ya:riminnan ğo:rra:ği türkmenler bolyo:. (Är. 18) More than half of the population that live here are Turkmens.
- **šö:di:n** soŋ yuregne ğulğula dušdi (Är. 2) < **šüyle diyen** After saying that, worries befell his/her heart.

4.4 Vowels: Details of realization and processes

A. /a/ and /a:/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects /a/ and /a:/ are unrounded open low-back vowels.

The phonemic context doesn't have any influence on the quality of the vowel, be it in velar or liquid context, or in open and closed syllables. For instance in $\bar{g}ara$, the two /a/ share the same realization.

(b) The phonemic contrast of short /a/ and long /a:/ exists in all dialects, but primary length of [a:] is not evenly realized in the dialects.

In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects primary [a:] occurs in fewer lexemes than in the XD; on the other hand, however, in the Muqri dialect a few nominal stems have [a:] as opposed to an [a] of the other dialects:

¹²⁶ Yakup 2005:88, (69a), describes an analogous reduction phenomenon for the Turfan Uyghur dialect, but without rounding of the vowel.

- qırq künde **a:t** ö:zini yetiryo:r. **a:rpa** beren pillen (...) bir xorji götermeli. (Mu.2) In forty days the horse will get ready. When (you) give barley, you need to bring a handful.
- bu yıllarda **a:tı** saqlamağ-am aŋsat dä:l. (Mu.3) These days, raising the horse is not so easy
- ti:zrä:k **atıŋı** alda yo:la duš, **arpasın-a:m** oğlaq ja:yda berersiŋ. (Är. 25) Quickly, outwit your horse and you can give it its barely at the buzkashi arena.
- yağšı seyis bolsa **atıŋ** suwını-**arpasını** yetirip, iki ayda oğlağa tıya:rlı:du:r. (Sa.3) A good horse trainer timely gives water and grass (to) the horse, then it will be ready in two months.
- o wağıtlar qa:qamız altı-yetdi at saqlıya:rdı, arslan a:ğa olara günde üč mertebe arpa berya:rdı. (Te.7)
 In the past, my father used to raise six or seven horses, and Arsalan A:ğa used to give

In the past, my father used to raise six or seven horses, and Arsalan A:ğa used to give them barely three times a day.

(c) Primary length of /a:/ occurs frequently in lexemes copied from Persian/Arabic. In these lexemes the Ärsa:r1 dialect systematically preserves [a:], while in the other dialects, most of all in Teke, there is a remarkable tendency for a reduced realization as [a], or altogether allophonic variation [a:] ~ [a].

- O:ğa:nısta:nda mawa:dı muxaddır **a:za:d** bolsa-da, bu yerde neše čekyo:n a:dam a:z. (Är.11)
- Although narcotics are permitted in Afghanistan, there are (only) few people here who use opium.
- Türkmenista:n **azatlığnı** alan soŋ o yerä: barıp gelmek bıraz aŋsa:tlašdı. (Te. 8) After Turkmenistan got its independence, going there has become a bit easier.
- bir za:t meni a:za:r beryo:r usta:d! hä:zir bir Türkmen sa:zı dä:l, belki Türkmenčiligem ortadan gidip baryo:r.(Är.9)
 Professor, one thing troubles me! Today not only Turkmen music gets lost, but so does Turkmenhood as well.
- haywa:nlara-da **azar** bermeli dä:l, onıŋ günä:si bar. (Te.1) One must not torture animals either, that is sinful.
- qadı:mlar **na:squtı** yo:ğ eken, **na:s** kä:di ba:r eken. (Är.31) In ancient times there were no *nas* tins but *nas* pumpkins.
- bizde ekseren yigitler nas atmaya:r, olar indi sigrit we kä:bi:rleri čars čekyä:ler. (Te.16)

Mostly men don't take nas here, they now smoke cigarets or some (smoke) hashish.

- ya:dıŋızda bolsa, ülkä:mizde birinji yo:la: türkmen dilinde xalı:pa sa:yıp ğızıl ayağıŋ parzı aynı ča:p bolıptı. (Är.17)
 If you remember: In our country for the first time in Turkmen language Xalı:pa
- Sa:yıp Ğızılayağ's *Farżi 'Ayn* was printed.
 Mağtımğulı:nıŋ kita:bı güma:nıma o:ğa:nista:nda iki gezek čap edildi. (Te.2) Mağtımğulı's book was in Afghanistan printed twice, I believe.
- menä: ol o:ğa:nıŋ ti:z gepli:šine **hayra:n** ğaldım. (Är.13) I was surprised how fast that Pashtun there was speaking.
- soŋ ol giši ederne i:š tapma:n **hayran** bolıp otirip dir. (Yo.1) Then that person didn't know what to do and remained stunned.

(d) Secondary vowel length¹²⁷ occurs in all dialects. The conditions under which it occurs differ among the dialects in cases which are described below; unless otherwise stated, a lengthening rule apples to all dialects.¹²⁸

(i) In all $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects the combination of final short [a] in both nominal and verbal stems, and a suffix with initial [a] (e.g. directive suffix -*A*) results in secondary [a:]. (This lengthening rule also applies to all other final short vowels.)

- **ma:ma** > šil za:tlar-a:m šol ğarrı **ma:ma:** bermeli. (Är. 22) It is also necessary to give these things to that old woman.
- **molla** > siz bu söziŋizi maŋa aytma:ŋ, qaysı bir **molla:** aydıŋ! (Sa.1) You don'nt tell me your mind, you have to say it to some mullah.
- sa:da > hüšya:r a:dama bir aytsaŋ düsino:r, amma: sa:da: o:n aytsaŋam düsinmi:du:r. (Sa. 5)

If you tell a wise man one time it's okay, but to a stupid (one), even if you tell him ten times, (he's) not going to understand.

(ii) In the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects the final short [a] of nominal stems is lengthened when followed by suffixes with initial *n* or *m*, such as for example the suffixes of possessives 1.PSG and 1.PPL, genitive, and accusative.

- **ata** > **ata:m** šo waxtlarda qaryada:rtı ta:ğana:rıqda. (Är. 6) At those times my father was village headman at Ta:ğana:rıq.
- molla > siz-em molla:niŋ oğlı bolaŋŋız üči:n šerei: geplere yağšı düšünyo:rsıŋız. (Sa. 1)

You also, since you are the son of a mullah, understand sharia matters well.

• **bala** > altı-yetdı **bala:nı** baqıp, olaldıp güzera:n etmek aŋsa:t dä:l. (Är. 5) Looking after six or seven children, raising and caring (for them), is not easy.

Exception: The final [a] of some nouns – my preliminary assumption is that they are all kinship terms, e.g. *ma:ma* 'grandmother', *a:ğa* 'elder brother', *dayza* 'maternal aunt', *qa:qa* 'father' (but not *ata* 'father') – is excluded from this lengthening rule:

- **ma:ma** > erti:r mektebe baryo:n, pi:ši: **ma:mam** bilen baqıšyo:n. (Är. 36) In the morning I go to school, in the afternoon I help my grandmother.
- **a:ğa** > šil ğoyunlar-am **a:ğamqı**. (Är. 12) These sheep are my brother's.
- **dayza** > kelderde-hem menin bir **dayzam** ba:r. (Är. 3) I have an aunt in (the district of) Kelder.
- **qa:qa** > meniŋ a:dim Jama:liddi:n bolyä:, **qa:qamıŋ** a:dı Bayram. (Te. 15) My name is Jama:liddi:n, my father's name is Bayram.
- **ata** > šo pille iki muŋ ğoyunı ba:rtı **ata:mızıŋ**, hanı indi ol ğoyunlar hanı? (Är. 5) In those times our father had two thousand sheep, where are these sheep now?!

(iii) In the case of adverbial derivates in *-n* of lexemes with final [a], the final syllable vowel is lengthened into [a:] : arqa 'back' > arqa:n yat- 'to lie on the back'.

¹²⁷ Cf. Nartyev 2012:48.

¹²⁸ The materials collected for this study do not permit to give a full sample for all dialects under all conditions.

(iv) The original short vowel of the locative suffix -dA is lengthened if followed by the suffix -QI which makes locatives attribuable to substantives.

- eliŋ**dä:ki** xalta:nı maŋa berseŋä:! (Är. 32) Pass me the bag (you hold) in your hand!
- üyimizin **alında:qı** daraxtı ansa:tlıq bilen ulaltmadıq. (Sa. 3) We raised the tree in front of our house only with diffeculties.

(v) When verbal stems ending in [a] take on the aorist suffix -(A)r, the converbial suffix in -p, or the imperative 2.PPL in $-\eta$, or the 1.PPL -yIn, the resulting vowel is long [a:].

- yalma- > sala:m haqımı bermedik bolsaŋ seni iki üzüp bir yalma:r-tım, diyip, dew gözlerini a:lartdı. (Är. 42)
 The *dew* rolled his eyes saying, "If you had not granted me the salute I am entitled to, I would have swallowed you at two bites".
- **bağla-** > öŋki itimiz örä:n ya:raqtı, onı hemi:še **bağla:p** ğoyyo:rtıq. (Är. 13) Our former dog was very savage, we would always keep him tethered.
- **ba:rla-** > motarı yağšı **ba:rla:ŋ**! diyip hemme za:tlarmızı düširtdi. (Är. 30) He said, "Search the car carefully!" and had all our belongings unloaded.
- **dara-** > šol darağı alıp ber, sačımı **dara:yın**. (Te. 5) Give me that comb, I want to brush my hair.
- **alma-**> indikillä: ba:nkden qarz **alma:yın**, diyip ähd etdi. (Te.5) The (people) of today swear not to take a loan from the bank.

(vi) In the Teke dialect the vowel of the infinitive / necessitative -mAQ is lengthened (and $q \ge \check{g}$) when it takes on the directive case suffix.

• mejlise gelip **aytma:ğa** otanya:lar. (Te. 10) They are shy of coming to a reunion and speaking up.

The $\ddot{A}rsa:ri$ infinitive / necessitative -*mAQ*, when taking on the directive, can be realized either as -*mağa* (without lengthening of the vowel) or -*ma:na* (with vowel lengthening).

- qomanda:n bolıp bılarıŋ jena:yat i:šleri kä:n, **aytmağa** dilim baran yo:q. (Är. 1) As commanders, their crimes are plenty. My tongue is not ready to tell.
- onda hezireti alı ši:ri xuda:nıŋ dili barmadı bı za:dı **aytma:na**. (Är. 2) At that (time) Hazrat Ali the Lion of God's tongue was not able to say anything.

(e) Secondary vowel shortening a: > a

This type of vowel shortening does occur in the dialects, but my materials do not permit to specify the conditions under which this happens.

• **a:dıl** > hä:ki:m bolan a:dam xalqıŋ ğamını iyip, **adıl** bolmalı, di:di. (Te.1) He said, "A man who becomes a governer should care for people and be just".

(f) For the systematic raising of final /a/ of verbal stems into /i/, see the above paragraph 4.2.1.b(i) on vowel-raising.

(g) In copied lexemes which have long \bar{a} in the Persian or Arabic prototype, the quality of this vowel is in the vicinity of front consonants /p/, /k/, /t/, /š/ etc. often raised from [a:] to [ä:]. Examples: $p\ddot{a}:ki$ 'razor' < pers. $p\bar{a}k\bar{i}$; Te., Yo. $s\ddot{a}:li \sim sa:li$ 'rice' < pers. $s\bar{a}l\bar{i}$; $k\ddot{a}:r$ 'job' < Pers. $k\bar{a}r$; XD tä:rät 'ritual purity' ~ ND ta:rat 'id.' < arab. *ṭahārat*.

B. /e/ and /ä:/

(a) In the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, /e/ and /ä:/ are front unrounded vowels.

The phonemic context doesn't have any influence on the quality of the vowel. In open and closed syllables context as well as before and after occlusive and fricatives, they are realized the same.

(b) The short-long phonemic opposition is reflected in the phonetic realization: Short /e/ is mid-open while long $/\ddot{a}:/$ is an open vowel.

(i) In the Teke dialect, there are two exceptions to this rule: In the aorist form of *gel-* 'to come' and *ber-* 'to give', syllable contraction results in secondary vowel length; however, in these two cases the mid-open quality of [e:] is preserved: *berer* > *be:r*, *geler* > *ge:r*.

• elbetde pul alan dä: dir, alan bolsa bizede **be:r**. (Te. 3) He has obviously not got (any) money, if he gets, he gives us (some), too.

(ii) The /ä:/ phoneme is long and open. Short [ä] can occur as a result of syllable reduction in frequently used lexemes such as *äkäl*- 'to fetch' (< *alıp käl*-), *äkit*- 'to take away' (< *alıp git*-), *äpber*- 'to bring' (< *alıp bär*-).

 Jıma:ğulı:nıŋ enesi dä:ktere barmazdan yağšı bolıp, šunı pes ı:zına ğaytarıp äkeldiler. (Är. 1)

Jima:guli's mother recovered without having gone to the doctor; they turned back and brought her (home).

Short [ä] also occurs in a number of lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, where the Turkmen realization conforms to the pronunciation rules of the model: [ähd] 'contract', [zähär] 'poison', [mähriba:n] 'dear'.

(iii) Length of [ä:] in lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic or other languages – where the model words have [a:] in that place – may be preserved as [ä:] in some dialects while being reduced, with the realization resulting in [e], in others: $p\ddot{a}:ki$ 'razor' < pers. $p\bar{a}k\bar{i}$; $p\ddot{a}:k\ddot{u}lte$ 'faculty' < pers. $f\bar{a}kulta$.

- kita:bi **tä:kčede** ğoyıptım, kim aldıqa:? (Är. 23) < pers. *tākča* I have put the book on the shelf, who has taken it away?
- **tä:kjä:ni** gör! (Te. 5) Mind (lit. see) the shelf!
- soŋ ča:ğa bir a:yla:p šu ta:yda ekeni, šol suwıŋ ičinde, **tekjede** ya:šı:du:r . (Sa. 7) Then the child stayed like that for a month, in that water, he lived on a shelf.

(c) Secondary length of [ä:] occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although with some difference in detail. Unless otherwise stated, the phenomena described below apply to all dialects.

(i) In all $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects the combination of final short *e* or *i* in both nominal and verbal stems, and a suffix with initial [e] (e.g. directive suffix -*A*, participle suffix -*An*) results in secondary [ä:].

- **kelle** > omar a:ğa:nıŋ šalğamnan bedi gelyo:nı **kellä:** gelmä:n dir. (Är. 11) It did not come to mind that Omar A:ğa might dislike turnips.
- **döre** > muja:hidlar **dörä:n** soŋ ši ğı:nčılıqlar tapıldı, öŋ yo:qdı. (Te.16) After the *mujāhidīn* emerged, a lot of hardship was brought about; before (that, there) were none.
- **geple**-> sizem ümsüm otırma:ŋ, **geplä:ŋ**, di:di. (Sa.1) He said, "Please say something, do not be silent!"
 - **kiči** > **kičä:** kiči bermeli ula: ulı bermeli! (Är. 1) One needs to give to the little one a little (gift) and to the big one, a big!
 - **gä:di** > **gä:dä:** minip sä:wčilige gidenmišin, di:diler. (Är. 5) They told (us) that they had taken a carriage and had gone to woo for a girl.

(ii) If nominal stems ending in [e] take on a suffix with initial n (e.g. AKK. -nI, GEN. - $ni\eta$), m (e.g. 1.SGPOSS, 1.PLPOSS) or η (e.g. 2.SGPOSS, 2.PLPOSS), the [e] is lengthened into [ä:].

- tä:kje > tä:kjä:ni gör! šo yerde ğoyan dırın. (Te. 5) See the shelf! I have put (it) there.
- yeke > biz birlešmesek hi:č i:š-em edibilmers, yekä:niŋ čaŋı čıqmaz diyipdirler qadı:mnan. (Är. 1)
 - Unless we unite we cannot achieve anything, (as) in olden times they would say, "Dust won't rise from a single (horseman)".
- **mi:de** > ti:z-ti:z na:n i:mesem, **mi:dä:m** a:ğrı: du:r. (Sa. 5) If I don't eat regularly, my stomach aches.

(iii) If in the Ärsa:ri and Sa:riq dialects, final [e] is followed by the particle de (actually dA) 'also', the contraction of these elements results in the realization of long [ä:].

- yere > sağlıq, imkä:na:t we emniyet. bu üč za:d bolmasa hi:č yerä:-de ğo:rjanıp bilmiyä:ŋ a:dam. (Sa. 1)
 Health, opportunities and safety. If these three things are not (given), man, you cannot go anywhere.
- **jemi:le** > b1 hepde **jemi:lä:-de** pül bermedim. (Är. 53) This week, I haven't given money to Jemi:le.

By the same token, in the Ärsa:rı, Teke, Yomut and Sa:rıq dialects, the enclitic particle *hem* 'also'¹²⁹ often coalesces with its antecedent. If the antecedent ends in *e* or *i* (which is particularly often the case if the clitic dA 'also' has already been added to the word) contraction results in the deletion of *h*, and lengthening of the vowel into [ä:].

¹²⁹ The meaning of *hem* is actually in many cases reduced; the particle then simply adds some semantic stress to its antecedent or loses all of its primary meaning, becoming sort of an expletive.

nemede hem > ol nemedä:m aslan ö:zi qawmlığna arab, yö:ne özbeki gepliyo:r. (Är.
 1)

For some reason he again speaks Uzbek, although he is an Arab by ethnicity.

- yenede hem > yö:ne šo waxt köp bi kita:blarım yitdi, muja:hıdlar we ta:lıba:n dewrlerinde, men yene-dä:m tä:zeden oları tapıb aldım. (Sa. 1)
 At that time many a book of mine has been lost, at the time of the *mujāhidīn* and Taliban, but I have found them anew.
- **geči häm** > šu aydan sözlerini bir wağtlar bir **gečä:m** aydıpdı. (Te. 13) These words which you have said, an(other) time a goat has also said.
- **bir-ikisi häm** > šu tatarlarıŋ šu ja:yda, tatar diyip yazılan da:šlara:m ba:r, bir-ikisini alıp ğaytdı höku:met, **birikis-ä:m** ba:r-dı. (Sa. 2) These Tatars -, in that place there are stones with allegedly Tatar writings; the government has taken away one or two of them, but one or two were (still there).
- gi:mi häm > ğunduzda türkmenleriŋ gi:m-ä:m bä:ri maza:rišeri:pde ya:šayo:n türkmeniŋkiden parx etyo:r. (Är. 1)
 In Qunduz, the garments of the Turkmens are all different from those of the Turkmens living in Mazāri Šarīf.

(iv) In the case of adverbial derivates in *-n* of lexemes with final [e], the final syllable vowel is lengthened into [\ddot{a} :] : $\ddot{u}yle$ 'noon' > $\ddot{u}yl\ddot{a}$:*n* 'at noon'.

(v) The original short vowel of the locative suffix is lengthened if the suffix -QI is added.

- yu:rtlerde > šo:ra:ni ačmaq üči:n Pä:kista:nnan bašğa yu:rtlerdä:ki ya:šolılar bilenem maslaxat etdik. (Är. 10)
 In order to found (lit. open) the Council we also consulted with elders in other countries than Pakistan.
- meymenede > ma:llarıŋ hemmesini diyen ya:lı satdıq, bir meymenedä:ki ma:llar ğa:ldı. (Te.3)

We sold almost all (our) belongings; only those in Maymana remained back.

• elinde > bil elindä:ki pulini yo:ğadıp gelip dir. (Sa.5) This (boy) squandered whatever money he had in hands.

(vi) When verbal stems with final [e] take on the aorist suffix -(A)r, the converbial suffix in - p, or the imperative 2.PPL in $-\eta$, the resulting vowel is long [ä:].

- **diŋle-** > jıma:ba:y hi:čkimiŋ sözini qabu:l etmese-de, meniŋ sözimi **diŋlä:r.** (Är.17) Although Jumabay doesn't accept anybody's words, he listens to my advice.
- **meŋze-** > na:mi xuda: bujağaz ma:masına **meŋzä:p** du:r. (Är. 5) By God, this little (baby) does resemble her grandmother!
- gözle- > men geli:nčä:m šu ča:ğa: gözlä:ŋ! (Te. 5) Look after this baby until I come (back)!

(vii) In the Teke dialect the vowel of the front variant of the infinitive/necessitative -mAQ is lengthened (and k > g) when it takes on the dative case suffix.

 i:mek > mö:jek ata baqip men seni i:mä:ge geldim diyä:r. (Te. 13) The wolf looked at the horse and said, "I have come to eat you up". The Ärsa:ri infinitive/necessitative following a front vowel, when taking on the directive, can be realized either as *-mege* (without lengthening of the vowel) or *-mä:ne* (with vowel lengthening).

- dimek > ketteleriŋ gepini ğaytarıp, yo:q men mını qabu:l etjek dä:l, men moŋa ğaršı dimege-de jüret gerek. (Är. 19)
 Talking back on elders, saying no, I don't accept this, I am against that, also demands courage.
- **dilemek** > bil mennen na:n **dilemä:ne** gelyo:r eken (Är. 2) This (person) seems to come in order to ask me for food.

(d) Secondary shortening of [ä:] into [e]

In ND dialects, instead of long vowel [ä:], a secondary short [e] occurs with some lexical copies, as for example $\text{\AAr. }k\ddot{a}:\check{s}ir \sim \text{ND }ke\check{s}ir$ 'carrot'; $\text{\AAr. }k\ddot{a}:di \sim \text{ND }kedi$ 'gourd'.

- ana qıslağımızda su:w kemra:ğ, künji ekemiz, qawun-tarbız, kedi ekemiz, yene terkeri boledı bu yerde. (Mu.2)
 In our village there is very little water; we (only) sow sesame, melons and gourds, and greens also grow there.
- palaw piširgende awal piya:zni kü:dirip, soŋ **kešir**ni taslamalı. (Xa.2) When we prepare pilaff, fist we fry the onions and then the carrots need to be added.

C. /1/ and /1:/

(a) In the Turkmen dialects, /1/ and /1:/ are unrounded middle back vowels; realization of long [1:] causes the tip of the tongue to move closer to the palate.

(i) There is some difference in occurrence of [1] and [1:], as opposed to other vowels, between the dialects. For example, in a few verb stems which have final a in all other dialects, the Ärsa:r1 dialect features final long i: – Är. daši:- 'to carry' vs. Te. Sa. Yo. and ND dialects daša- 'id.'; Är. da:ri:- 'to stroll, to stop by' vs. Te. Yo. Sa. and ND dialects da:ra- 'id.'; Är. aldi:- 'to cheat' vs. all other dialects alda- 'id.'.

- ba:zardan nä:rse **daši:dim**. (Är. 8) I carried things (home) from the bazaar.
- büti:n ya:zda čölden o:dın **dašadım.** (Te.21) The whole summer, I was busy carrying bushes (home) from the steppes.
- yo:lda ča:ri hajilaŋqa:-da da:ri:diq. (Är. 5)
 On (our) way we stopped by at Ča:ri Haji's place.
- Meymenä: gidende bir-iki gün Šaxa-da:m **daradıq**. (Te.16) When we travelled to the Maymana, for one or two days we visited Šax, too.

In the Ärsa:ri dialect, aorists from verbal stems whose first-syllable vowel is *o* and second-syllable vowel is *a* undergo raise of the second-syllable vowel to *i*; *gora-* 'to answer' > $\breve{gori:r}$ ($\breve{gora:r}$), oqa- 'to study' > oqi:r. The other dialects do not share this phenomenon.

• kiči oğlım ketde bolsa bıl pä:külte **oqı:r** inša:alla: . (Är. 8) When my little son is big, he will hopefully study at the faculty. • toydan gelip soŋ ha:lı **doqı:rs**. (Är. 28) Back from the wedding, we will start carpet weaving.

(ii) In copied lexemes unrounded [1] may in individual cases occur in variation with preserved original rounded [u] (or [ü] that renders original [u]). Examples: $nupu:s \sim n\ddot{u}pu:s$ (Är., Sa.) 'population' < pers. $nuf\bar{u}s$; nuqa:p ~ niqap 'mask' < arb. nuqa:b.

(b) The short-long phonemic opposition is preserved in all dialects, but it is not completely evenly distributed.

(i) The Ärsa:rı dialect has long *i*: in a few lexemes where all other dialects feature short *i*. Examples: Är. *si:p-* 'to scoot' vs. Te. *sip-* 'id.'; Är. *si:n-* 'to go bankrupt' vs. Te. *sin-*; Är. *si:la-* 'to stroke' vs. ND *sila-* 'id', Är. *di:z* 'knee' vs. ND *tiz*.

(ii) In many lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, original high [i] or [i:] is realized as low [1] or [1:], respectively: *a:lum* 'learned person' $< \bar{a}lim, pa:lbi:n$ 'diviner' $< f\bar{a}lb\bar{i}n$.

(iii) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, the Ärsa:rı dialect renders original long [1:] conservatively in a few cases where the Te. Yo. Sa and ND dialects have short [1]. Examples: Är. ma:ni:li 'bearing meaning, meaningful' vs. Te. ma:nili 'id.' ~ ND manili; Är. qa:ni: 'satisfactory', Te. And ND qa:ni 'id.'.

(c) Secondary length of ι occurs under specific conditions as described below. Unless otherwise stated, the phenomenon relates to all dialects.

(i) Final *i* followed by suffixes with initial *m* (e.g. 1.PSGPOSS -(I)m), *n* (e.g. ACC -nI, GEN $-nI\eta$) or η (e.g. 2.PPLIMPER $-\eta Iz$). In the ND this lengthening does not occur regularly.

- **ğorqı** > xıya:nat etmedigim üči:n meniŋ hi:čkimnen **ğorqı:m** yo:q. (Är. 16) Since I have not betrayed (anyone), I am not afraid of anybody.
- $\bar{\mathbf{g}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{i} > \operatorname{son} \operatorname{m\ddot{o}:jek} \operatorname{bu} \bar{\mathbf{g}}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{z}\mathbf{i}:\mathbf{n}\mathbf{i}: \operatorname{jek} \operatorname{bolip} \operatorname{dir.} (\operatorname{Te.} 22)$
- **quzi** > **quzini** nime qildiniz? (Xa.2) What have you done to the lamb?
- yağšı > yağšı:nı görmeg-em soga:p! diyip dirler. (Är. 10) They say, "It is merit(orious) to simply see a good (man)!"
- yağšı > yağšını gepiden-hem bilesiz. (Mu.2)
 You can recognize the good man from his speech.
- **pi:qi** > hä:zirki mudirn heleylerin dirnağ-a:m **pi:qi:nin** dirnağı ya:li bolo:r. (Sa. 1) The fingers of modern women of today are similar to falcon claws.
- **ğuzı** > ya:š š1:rba:z1 **guz1:n1ŋ** gö:šti on1ŋ bašğa maza:s1 bar. (Är. 12) The meat of a young four-month-old lamb is especially delicious.
- yılqı > yılqı:ŋız nä:me boldı? (Är. 31) What has happened to your mare?
- **yılqını** nime qıldıŋız? (Xa. 5) What have you done to the mare?

(ii) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the POSS1./2.PSG/PL suffixes have all short vowels. When following a "pronominal n" supplied to the demonstrative pronouns bu, o and šo, however, the first vowel of the suffix is lengthened (-*I*:*m*, -*I*:*mIz* etc.). Again, the ND often disregard this rule and have a short vowel instead.

- siz hemi:še gi:č turyo:sıŋız, **šon::ŋız** bolan yo:q. (Är. 10) You always get up late, that (habit) of yours won't do.
- kiči oğlım yağšı oqıyo:r, **onı:mız** bir gün-em mekdepden ğa:lan yo:q. (Är. 33) My little son studies well, he has not cut school a single day.
- **mun:miz** köp aqıllı, a:ğası ya:lı tentek dä:l. (Te. 5) This one (lit. of ours) is very smart. He is not a troublemaker like his elder brother.
- aydılan waxtda geleŋo:q, **šunı:ŋ** yağšı dä:l. (Sa. 7)
- You're not coming at the agreed time, this (behavior) of yours is not good.
- **šuniŋ** bolmeydi-da! (Mu. 1) This (behavior) of yours won't go!

The same lengthening of *i* occurs if the possessive follows a back vowel numeral ending in consonant: on > on:miz 'ten of us', qirq > qirqi:niz 'forty of you'. If the possessive follows a back vowel numeral ending in vowel, it is this vowel that will be lengthened: alti:miz 'six of us'.

qırq ğı:zlarıŋ hemmesi, biz qırqı:mız-am qala:dan tašla:lı diyip ähd edip dirler. (Är. 43)

All forty girls made a pledge (saying), "All forty of us will jump down from the fortress".

- siz **o:n:ŋız** birinji bolıp barıŋ, soŋ basğaları i:beryä:s. (Te. 18) First the ten of you should go there, then we'll dispatch the others.
- biz šonča ğa:lan palawı **dö:rdi:miz** bolıp i:dik. (Yo. 1) The four of us ate up this much (of the) remaining pilaff!

(d) Deletion of [1] occurs under the conditions named below.

(i) If the dative suffix -*A* follows a nominal stem with final [1], the [1] is deleted but the two vowels merge into a long [a:] :

- p1:q1 > sa:ra:niŋ enes-ä:m tu:q basdırdı, jü:je köp čıqdı weli:n, yağšı ketegi bolma:n soŋ p1:qa: i:mit boldı jü:jeler. (Är. 30)
 Sa:ra's mother had the hen hatch (eggs), many chicks came out, but since she did not have a proper henhouse the chicken fell prey to the hawk.
- **ba:lıqčı** > derya:nıŋ boynında iki sa:nı **ba:lıqča:** duwıšdıq. (Te. 16) On the river bank we met two fishermen.
- **ya:šulı** > biziŋ gelenmizi **ya:sula:** xabar berdiŋizmi? (Sa. 3) Did you inform the chief about our arrival?

(ii) If in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects the enclitic particle hem 'also' follows a word featuring (for whatever reason) final *i*, contraction results in the deletion of the *h* of the particle, in lowering and lengthening of the vowel into [a:], and in accent shift to the last syllable : oni hem > oná:m 'him also'; ši dayza:ni hem > ši dayza:ná:m 'that auntie, too'; atasi hem > atasá:m 'his father as well'; ğarni hem > ğarná:m 'his stomach as well'; yağdayi hem > yağdayá:m 'his situation, too'.

oni hem ; ğarnı hem > ona:m aytma:m gerek, mana birki yıldan bä:ri mana xušksa:llıq gelip dä:ni ğoyunlarıŋ ğarna:m otdan doymadı. (Är. 12)

I also need to say that since one or two years this draught has come and the stomachs of the sheep did not get full with the grass (they ate).

- yağdayı hem > šupille hä:zirki waxtda marčaq xalqınıŋ yağdaya:m ğawı dä:l, amma: šonda-da ya:ši:do:rlar. (Sa. 2) Now the present situation of the people of Marčaq is not good, but they nevertheless survive.
- resim-rava:ji hem ; dessu:ri hem > öŋki boliši ya:li, čenna:n ü:tgä:nnoq, ğuwi, resim-rava:ja:m ğawi, dessu:ra:m ğuwi. (Te. 4)
 As (things) used to be before, not many things have changed, traditions and etiquette are good.

In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects, on the other hand, contraction of words with final *i* and the enclitic particle *hem* results in the raising of the vowel to [i], and insertion of the approximant *y*, without shift of accent: *atasi hem* > *atasiyem*, *oni hem* > *oniyem*.

- ši hem > özbek-em bolsa bizlerdek gepuredi ši-yem. (Ba. 3) He, although he is an Uzbek, he talks like us.
- **a:tı hem** > jima:nazarni **a:ti-yem** oğlaqqa boladı. (Mu. 2) Jima:nazar's horse will do for buzkashi.

(f) In the Ärsa:r1 dialect, aorists and imperatives derived from verbal stems whose firstsyllable vowel is *o* and second-syllable vowel is *a* undergo raising of the second-syllable vowel to *i*; *gora*- 'to advocate, ward off' > $\check{gori:r}$ (not ??? $\check{gora:r}$).

- **oqa-** > kiči oğlım ketde bolsa, bıl pä:külte **oqı:r** inša:alla: . (Är. 8) When my little son is big, he will hopefully study at the faculty.
- ši:ri yalnıš **oqı:maŋ**! (Är. 9) Don't recite the poem incorrectly!
- bi ha:liča:ni bir ayda **doqi:rin** inša:lla:. (Är. 5) I hope to weave this rug in one month.

The other dialects do not share this phenomenon.

D. /i/ and /i:/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /i/ and /i:/ are front-high, close unrounded vowels. When following the consonants k, g and j, [i] / [i:] may be slightly lowered without, however, attaining quite the middle (or back) quality of [1].

(b) The short-long phonemic opposition is observed in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, but between the dialects there is some difference in detail.

(i) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic the *xālis* dialects generally preserve original length of [i:], while in the *nāxālis* dialects, short [i] replaces it in many cases. Examples: *ki:ne* XD vs. *kine* ND 'desire for revenge', *ki:se* XD vs. *kise* ND 'purse', *pi:r* XD vs. *pir* ND 'spiritual leader', *mi:z* XD vs. *miz* ND 'table'.

(c) Secondary length of i occurs under the specific conditions described below. Unless otherwise stated, the phenomenon relates to all dialects.

(i) In adverbial derivates in *-n* of lexemes with final [i], the final syllable vowel is lengthened into [i:] : *gizli* 'secret (adj.)' > *gizli:n* 'secretly'; *kindi* 'prayer before dinner' > *kindi:n* 'at prayer time'.

(ii) In the *xālis* dialects, final *i* followed by suffixes with initial *m* (e.g. 1.PSGPOSS -(I)m), *n* (e.g. ACC -nI, GEN $-nI\eta$) or η (e.g. 2.PPLIMPER $-\eta Iz$), is lengthened into [i:] while in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects such lengthening does not take place.

- **geči** > **geči:miz** günde iki setil sü:t beryo:r. (Är. 41) Our goat gives two buckets of milk every day.
- **geči** > bir inek we iki **gečimiz** ba:r. (Ba. 2) We have one cow and two goats.
- **öli** > **öli:ni** depin etmä:ne-de köp xarji gerek. (Är. 1) Large expenses are necessary for burying a deceased.
- **öli** > bizde xu **ölini** liba:si bilen kömmeydiler, hetmen kefen qıladılar. (Be. 5) At ours they don't bury the dead with his garments, they absolutely wrap (lit. do) him (in) a shroud.
- **giši** > bu zama:nda ğari:b **giši:ni** kim esgeryo:r? (Är. 38) Who cares for the poor these days?!
- **kiši** > her **kišini** loyejirgege čaqirmeydiler. (Xa. 3) They do not invite (just) everybody to the Loya Jirga.
- yöri- > yöri:ŋ, gideli! (Är. 32) Come on, let's go!

(iii) The lengthening of first vowels in possessive suffixes 1./2.PSG/PL following numerals, which has been described above (cf. C.c.ii.), also occurs with front vowel numerals: *tö:rdi:miz* 'four of us', *üči:ŋiz* 'three of you', *bä:ši:ŋiz* 'five of you'. If the possessive suffix follows a front vowel numeral ending in a vowel, that final vowel is lengthened: *iki:miz* 'two of us', *yetdi:miz* 'seven of us'.

• ulağ tapmadıqda, hajı resu:llarıŋ toyına bir **iki:m** bardıq. (Te. 7) Since we did not find a vehicle, only the two of us went to Hajı Resu:l's feast.

The vowel of the numeral 'one' *bir* is in its turn lengthened when possessive suffixes (those of first and second persons, following the above-mentioned rule; the 3.PPOSS suffix vowel is short and does not undergo change) are added: *bir* 'one' > *bi:ri:m(iz)*, *bi:ri:n(iz)*, but *bi:risi*.

Bir 'one', when added to a decadid numeral, also has its vowel lengthened: *onbi:r* 'eleven', *yigrimebi:r* '21' etc. Lengthening of *bir* also occurs when the diminutive / intensive suffix - *ejik* is supplemented:

• xuda:ya: šükir xuda:yıŋ berenne yitdi axtığım ba:r, tö:rdisi oğıl üčisi ğı:z, **bi:rejik** oğlım bar, **bi:rejik** oğlımnan ö:nen bılar. (Är. 28) Thank God, (thanks) for God's gifts, I have seven grandchildren, four of them are boys and three are girls. I have one single son, they have (all) been begotten through him.

(iv) In the Ärsa:ri dialect, the lengthening of the 1.PSGPOSS suffix does not only occur with numerals as described above. So far the rules governing the occurrence of the phenomenon have not been discovered. Examples are:

- gün > bil meni pul beren güni:m yağšı göryo:r, pul bermedik güni:m ya:nımada gelen yo:q. (Är. 6)
 On days when I give (him) money he likes me, (but) on days when I don't give (him) money, he does not even come to me.
- yer > ğu:rra:q boljaq yeri:m da:yımlaŋqı, mıra:dlaŋqa:-da:m kä:pille bararın. (Är. 32) The place where I am more often is my uncle's, and sometimes I go to Mıra:d's as well.

(v) Lengthening of *i* can occur on a spontaneous basis in order to stress the lengthened word.

- soŋ bosa:ni:nim men aytdım, ortaq dil ši pa:rsı **ji:q** geplä:ŋ di:dim. (Är. 1) After that I said, "Persian is the common language; do speak (it)", I said.
- men size birmebir wa:qıyeti aydıp bereyin, siz **ešdi:p** durıŋ! (Är. 7) I will tell you one by one what has happened, you listen (carefully)!
- bi yeri:ni issi görseniz, m1:xma:n di:wala baral1, šo yerde ča:y **iči:p** yatars. (Är. 6) If you deem this place (too) hot let us go into the guestroom, there we (can) drink tea!

In the latter examples, the lengthening of the vowels in *ešidi:p* and *iči:p* also underlines the durative meaning of the action described in the clause.

(vi) Secondary length of *i*: also occurs as a result of contraction of syllables containing the liquid *r*. This is often the case with the aorist form:

• yetirer > ğam i:mä:ŋ! toyıŋ xarjın-a:m xuda: yeti:r. (Är. 5) Don't worry! God will also grant (you) the expenses for the feast.

(d) The high-front quality of i and i: is in the cases which are described below given up for lowering and shift towards mid-back [1] and [1:], respectively.

(i) In lexemes copied from other languages, original high-short [i] is generally preserved, but in word-initial position or in a back-vowel surrounding it can also be lowered and realized as [1]. The exact rules that govern the phenomenon have as yet to be determined; lowering or non-lowering might even be an individual choice depending on the educational and linguistic background of the speakers. Examples: *isla:h* (Är. Te. Yo. Sa.) ~ *isla:* (Är. 4) 'correction, melioration'; *sa:hib* (Är. 2) ~ *sa:yip* 'sahib' (Är. 17) < pers. *sāhib*; *mira:a:t et-* 'to observe' (Te. 10) < pers. *mir'a:t*;

(ii) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, an original high-long [i:] can be preserved, but it can also be lowered and then realized as long [1:]. This phenomenon has been observed in the Ärsa:r1 dialect. Examples: xali:pa (Är. 17) ~ xali:pa 'spiritual leader' < pers. xalīfa; šeri:pe (Är. 5) '(a female name)' < Ar. šarīfa. In the ND dialects it is only short: xalipa, šaripe.

(e) In the Ärsa:r1 dialect, the final *e* of some verbal stems, when followed by a suffix *-me*, *-di*, is turned into long *i*: as in the following example:

- **üše-** > peži yaqayın! yene **üši:mä:ŋ**. (Är. 11) I will fire the stove. You should not get cold.
- döre- > bolan i:š uwal čekkä:me bir si:m dürtildi, soŋ šu yerden bir yara döri:di. (Är.47)

What occured is: First a nail hurt my temple, then a wound came into being there.

• **derge-** > men sizi öten hepdedä:m **dergi:dim.** (Är. 10) Last week I looked for you.

(f) In single lexemes copied from Persian, [i:] occurs as a result of monophtongization of original [ey] or [ay]: *di:me* 'gourds' (Sa. 2) < pers. *dayma*. In the Ärsa:ri dialect this contraction regularly occurs in imperatives: *nä:deyin* 'what can I do?' > *nä:di:n*; *gideyinmi*? 'can I go?' > *gidi:nmi*?, *gi:reyinmi*? 'may I come in?' > *gi:ri:nmi*? **E. /o/ and /o:**/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /o/ and /o:/ are back-middle rounded vowels.

(b) The phonemic character of /o/ and /o:/ is preserved in all Afghan Turkmen dialects. However, the dialects differ in details of the occurrence of short / long o in some single lexemes. Examples: *yo:lbars* (Är. Sa.) ~ *yolbars* (Te. Yo. Yem.) 'lion'; *ğo:n*- (Är. Sa.) ~ *ğon*- (Te. Yo. Yem.) 'to perch '; *ğo:ra*- (Är. Sa.) ~ *ğora*- (Te. Yo.) 'to ward off'.

(i) Secondary length of o: occurs in the far deictic demonstrative adjectives / pronouns $o \sim ol$ 'that' in order to stress great distance:

• **o:l** a:dami goryo:rsiŋmi? (Är. 18) Do you see thaaaat man (over there)?

The same lengthening can occur for stylistic reasons, in order to express specific markedness and/or hierarchical distinction.

• do:ğrı barıberiŋ! (Är.53) Walk on straaaaight!

(c) In nominal and verbal stems, /o/ or /o:/ mostly occur in first syllables only. There are only a few native lexemes in which non-first stem syllable /o/ is at variation with non-rounded vowels. Examples: *soğon* (Te.) ~ *soğan* (Yo.) 'onion'. As a rule, /o/ and /o:/ do not occur in derival suffixes.

(i) Some grammatical suffixes have [o]. They are historically the result of contraction of verb + postverb, or noun + negative existential. The dialects differ in these matters.

In the Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects, the intraterminal markers are yo:r (Är.) and o:r (Sa.), while in the Teke and Yomut dialects these are realized as yAr.

- ḡıšlağmızıŋ a:dına Ta:ğana:rıq **di:yo:rlar**. (Är. 6) They call our village (lit. our village's name) Ta:ğana:rıq.
- buğday **eko:rlar** ša:lı **eko:rlar**. (Sa. 2) They grow wheat, they grow rice.
- bermezi:dde su: bolma:n soŋ paxta **ekmeyä:rler**. (Te.4) Since in Bermezid there is no wather, they don't plant cotton (there).
- hıra:tda-da ğawı ha:lı **doqaya:rlar**. (Yo. 2) In Herat they weave carpets, too.

In the Ärsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects, the participle is yo:n (Är.) and o:n (Sa.), while in the Teke and Yomut dialects it is realized as yA:n.

- bi:rinnen alıp yene bi:rine **satyo:n** a:dama jella:p diyo:rlar. (Är. 12) A person who purchases from someone and retails to another is called *jella:p*.
- šu günlerde ha:lı:nı **alo:n** a:dam yo:q. (Sa. 3) No one buys rugs these days.
- qa:z1 **bolya:n** giši a:d1 bolmal1. (Te. 13) A person who wants to be a judge must be just.

In the Teke and Sa:riq dialects, the negation of habitual past as a finite verb form is a composite of participle + o:q (contracted and shortened from the existential *yo*:*q*).

• ol i:šler **bolanno:q**-da bašğa. (Te. 6) These things did no longer exist.

(ii) In copied lexemes, [o] can be realized in non-first stem syllables as well, but there is a tendency to raise the realization towards [u] (which also affects first-syllable [o] in many cases). Examples: *tilfo:n* ~ *tilfu:n* 'telephone', *komisyo:n* ~ *komisyu:n* ~ *kumisyu:n* 'comission'.

F. /ö/ and /ö:/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /ö/ and /ö:/ are front-middle mid-open rounded vowels.

(b) The phonemic character of $|\ddot{o}|$ and $|\ddot{o}|$ is preserved in all Afghan Turkmen dialects. However, there is some variation in details of occurrence. Examples: $\ddot{A}r. \ddot{o}:rdek \sim Te. \ddot{o}rdek$.

(c) In nominal and verbal stems, $|\ddot{o}|$ or $|\ddot{o}:|$ most frequently occur in first syllables. There are single lexemes in which [\ddot{o}] in non-first stem syllables occurs in variation with |e|. Examples: $\ddot{c}\ddot{o}r\ddot{o}k$ (Te.) ~ $\ddot{c}\ddot{o}rek$ (Är.) 'flat bread'. As a rule, $|\ddot{o}|$ or $|\ddot{o}:|$ do not occur in derival or grammatical suffixes.

(d) Length of [ö:]

(i) Secondary length of \ddot{o} : is a result of contraction of syllables or reduction of neighboring consonants. Contraction that results in the lengthening of [\ddot{o}] often affects word clusters that include demonstrative adjectives / pronouns like *bu*, *šu*, *o*, or derivates of these such as *šeyle* 'like this' etc. Examples: *bu yerde* > *b* \ddot{o} :*rde* 'here' (\ddot{A} r.); *šu yerde* > *š* \ddot{o} :*rde* 'here'; *eydip* > \ddot{o} :*dip* 'that way (lit. doing like that)' (\ddot{A} r.); *šeydip* > *š* \ddot{o} :*dip* 'id.'; *beydip* > *b* \ddot{o} :*dip* 'like this'; *šeyle di*:*di* > *š* \ddot{o} :*di*:*di* 'he said so' (\ddot{A} r).

- mana šı za:dları ö:zimiz ğoršayo:rs **bö:rde**. (Är. 37) These things we construct here ourselves.
- **šö:rde** ya:šiyo:n nipu:siŋ ya:riminnan ğo:rra:ği türkmenler bolyo:. (Är. 18) More than half of the population that live here are Turkmens.
- goyan za:dim **bu yerde** yo:q. (Yo. 2) The thing which I put here is (now) gone.
- Siz šu yerde yatıŋ! (Te. 18) Please you can sleep here.

(ii) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, secondary length of [ö:] results from the reduction of the glottal voiceless fricative [h] which follows, in the original, mostly [u] or [ü]. The phenomenon occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects, although there is some variation in

detail of occurrence. Examples: $z\ddot{o}:re \sim z\ddot{o}hre XD$ 'Zuhra (n.pr.f.)' < pers. *zuhra*; $t\ddot{o}:met \sim t\ddot{o}hmet XD$ 'slander' < pers. *tuhmat*. In these cases, non-reduction of [h] would be typical of an elevated style as used by educated people.

(e) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, middle-front [\ddot{o}] / [\ddot{o} :] often renders original high-front [\ddot{u}] (< [u]) following or preceding glottal or uvular consonants. Non-occurrence of this lowering is typical of elevated speech. Examples: *höku:met* (Sa. 2) 'government' < pers. *hukūmat; mö:teber* (Är. 38) 'prestigeous' < pers. *mu'tabar*.

G. /u/ and /u:/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /u/ and /u:/ are back-high rounded vowels.

(b) The phonemic character of /u/ and /u:/ is preserved in all dialects, although in detail there is some variation in occurrence.

(i) Secondary length of [u:] occurs in the Ärsa:ri dialect as a result of contraction of [uwu].

- **tuwuq** < a:q **tu:qlarıŋ** ya: ısla: bolan **tu:qlarıŋ** gö:štiniŋ maza:sı yo:q. (Är. 4) The meat of white chickens and meliorated chickens has no taste.
- **suwuq** < öten yıl köp **su:q** boldı. (Är.44) Last year was very cold.

(c) In the Ärsa:ri dialect [u] in singular copied lexemes can be the result of contraction of original [aw] : qu:s 'the month of Qaws' (Är. 12) < pers. qaws; $\bar{g}uwi$ 'good (but $\bar{g}awi$ in Te.).

(d) Unrounding of [u], which results in secondary [1], is a frequent phenomenon in copied lexemes; the non-unrounded variants co-exist with the unrounded ones. Examples: *supa* ~ *supa*: 'sitting plateau' < pers. *suffa~supa*; *muna:sup* ~ *mina:sup* 'adequate' < pers. *munāsib*.

H. /ü/ and /ü:/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /ü/ and /ü:/ are front-high rounded vowels.

(b) The phonemic character of $/\ddot{u}/$ and $/\ddot{u}:/$ is preserved in all dialects.

(i) The exact phonetic quality of $/\ddot{u}:/$ in the Afghan Turkmen dialects cannot yet be determined here. There is reason to assume that in fact, phonetically long \ddot{u} is (always? only under specific circumstances?) realized as a semi-long vowel followed by the approximant y. In absence of apparative analyses, transcription in this book will keep to the rendering as $\ddot{u}:$ rather than $\ddot{u}y$. Only in examples where the [y]-element is very obvious in the pronunciation of our respondents, it will be included in the transcription.

(ii) Secondary length of [ü:] does not occur in the Afghan Turkmen dialects.

4.5 Phonetic realization, phonotactics, processes: Consonants

Table 4-0 . Consoliants, position	Table	4-8 :	Consonants:	position	
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pho	initial	intervocalic	in consonant clusters	final
ne				
me /b/	<i>bal</i> 'honey', <i>ba:lıq</i> 'fish', <i>ba:y</i> 'wealthy', <i>bedew</i> 'horse'; <i>bä:š</i> 'five', <i>bir</i> 'one', <i>bi:l</i> 'waist', <i>bıqın</i> 'flank', <i>bı:l Är</i> . 'this year', <i>bol</i> ' loose', <i>boğın</i> 'joint', <i>bo:ğır-</i> 'to rave', <i>bölek</i> 'share', <i>bö:lim</i> 'part', <i>bürenjek</i> 'shawl', <i>bü:rgün</i> Är. 'the day after tomorrow', <i>buqa</i> 'bull', <i>bula-</i> 'to stir', <i>bu:ğ</i> 'steam'	<i>aba</i> Är. 'father', <i>abay</i> 'favorable' <i>ğabı</i> 'coat', <i>kebelek</i> ' butterfly', <i>lä:bik</i> 'muddy', <i>ğıbırdı</i> 'movement', <i>čı:biq</i> 'bundle of bud sticks', <i>sübse</i> Te. 'broom', <i>sü:bek</i> 'rump'	<i>iqba:l</i> 'luck', <i>selbi</i> '(female name)', <i>gö:kbö:ri</i> Sa. <i>tepčil</i> '(element of the wedding cermonies)', <i>telbe</i> 'lunatic', <i>ekber</i> Är. 'Ekber (n.pr.m.)', <i>bašboği</i> '(a special female headgear)', <i>ğarbala-</i> 'to grasp', <i>čepbe</i> 'converse'	
/p/	<i>palaw</i> 'pilaff', <i>pa:y</i> 'share', <i>perek</i> 'feather', <i>pä:l</i> 'intent', <i>pil</i> 'elephant', <i>pi:l</i> 'shovel', <i>pintiq</i> 'bloom', <i>pi:qi</i> 'hawk', <i>poq</i> 'shit', <i>po:l</i> 'tin', <i>pökker-</i> 'to swell', <i>pul</i> 'money', <i>pu:daq</i> 'blossom', <i>pür</i> 'powder'	<i>gapaq</i> 'cover', <i>kepek</i> 'bran', <i>yipek</i> 'silk', <i>köpik</i> 'blubber', <i>köpek</i> 'dog', <i>topır</i> 'soil', <i>tüpeŋ</i> 'gun', <i>tü:pilik</i> 'spittle'	<i>kepder</i> 'pigeon', <i>köpri</i> 'birdge', <i>kirpi</i> 'hedgehog'	sap 'handle', ğa:p 'sack', gep 'word', yip 'thread', ip Mu. 'thread', üp Qa. 'web', dü:p 'basis, bottom'
/d/	darı 'millet', da:ğ 'mountain', da:t- 'to taste', deri 'skin', dä:ri 'medication', dil 'tongue', di:ri 'alive', dım 'silence', dı:ğ 'dominance', doğrı 'right', dolaq 'feet cloth', do:lı 'full', döl 'progeny', dö:nik 'traitor', dul 'widow', du:l 'top home', düšek 'carpeting', dü:š 'dream'	<i>a:da</i> 'island', <i>a:dıl</i> 'just', <i>edep</i> 'decorum', <i>ä:dik</i> 'boot', <i>gödek</i> 'young child', <i>do:daq</i> 'lip', <i>o:dın</i> 'firewood', <i>ğuduz</i> 'mad (dog)'	<i>merda:na</i> 'male, gentlemanish', <i>kepder</i> 'pigeon', <i>ö:rdek</i> 'duck', <i>tüydik</i> 'pipe', <i>ökde</i> 'adept', <i>perde</i> 'curtain', <i>hemdem</i> 'friend'	usda:d Är. 'professor', meded 'help', ö:d 'bile', derd 'pain', umi:d 'hope'
/t/	<i>tay</i> 'foal', <i>ta:na</i> Yo. 'calf', <i>tegen</i> 'corral',	<i>čataq</i> 'intricate', <i>gatıq</i> 'yogurt',	<i>gartaŋ</i> 'old', <i>kertik</i> 'edge-notched', <i>erti:r</i>	<i>a:t</i> Mu. 'horse', XD

	<i>tä:kirim</i> 'delay', <i>tigir</i> Te. 'tire', <i>ti:z</i> 'early', <i>tılla:</i> 'gold', <i>tı:ğ</i> 'spear', <i>toğolaq</i> Är. 'round', <i>to:ğ</i> 'banner ', <i>tulum</i> 'waterskin', <i>tu:q</i> Är. 'hen', <i>tüwi</i> Te. 'rice', <i>tüwerey</i> 'tornado', <i>tü:pilik</i> 'spit', <i>tü:dük</i> 'pipe'	etek 'skirt', čitenek 'claw', gotır 'pockmarked', ötinč 'pardon', otır- 'to sit ' uta:q 'room', küti 'thick'	'morning', <i>sırtlan</i> 'hyena', <i>ötgir</i> 'sharp', <i>ü:tgešik</i> 'strange', <i>yırtıq</i> 'torn'	'name', <i>čet</i> 'corner', <i>löt</i> Är. 'sediment', <i>ot</i> 'herbage', o:t 'fire', <i>it</i> 'dog', <i>bulut</i> 'cloud', <i>bulut</i> 'cloud', <i>bu:t</i> 'thigh', <i>görgüt</i> Är. 'torment', <i>süt</i> ND 'milk', <i>sü:t</i> XD 'milk'
/j/	<i>jar</i> 'announcemet', <i>jalbar</i> 'pants', <i>ja:m</i> 'cup', <i>jem</i> 'total', <i>jä:jek</i> Te. 'flower', <i>jiger</i> 'liver', <i>ji:l</i> 'dogged', <i>jiğa</i> 'crown', <i>jiqir</i> 'waterwheel', <i>ji:qla-</i> Te. 'to see', <i>jorra:p</i> 'sock', <i>jo:jiq</i> 'piglet', <i>jöne-</i> 'to depart', <i>jö:gi</i> 'gipsy', <i>jul</i> 'saddle cloth', <i>ju:ran-</i> 'to worry', <i>jübi</i> Te. 'bag',	<i>bajı Te.</i> 'sister', <i>jä:jek Te.</i> ' flower', <i>jikjikke</i> Är. 'sparrow', <i>-beje</i> 'o'clock', <i>ğojır</i> 'honor', <i>gi:je</i> 'night', <i>jup</i> 'pair, double', <i>jü:je</i> 'chick'	<i>janjal</i> 'brawl', <i>enjir</i> 'figs', <i>xorjin</i> 'carpetbag', <i>sü:ji</i> 'sweet',	<i>ja:j</i> 'scot', <i>kej</i> 'crooked', <i>ğašawj</i> Mu. 'a handful'
/g/	geda:y 'beggar', gä:r 'dirty', gözel 'beautiful', gö:bek 'navel', gila:s 'glass', gi:le 'groan', güzera:n 'subsistence', gü:z 'autumn'	<i>deġer</i> 'legacy', <i>bä:gül</i> 'rosewater', <i>deġirmen</i> 'mill', <i>i:ġe</i> 'rasp', <i>ö:ġi:-</i> 'to cause nausea'	<i>beġenč</i> 'rejoicing', <i>yiġde</i> '(a fruit)', <i>etgel</i> 'luck', <i>mergen</i> 'gunner'	<i>beġ</i> 'thane', <i>dileġ</i> 'wish', <i>dümeġ</i> 'cold'
/k/	<i>kelle</i> 'head', <i>kä:di</i> 'gourd ', <i>kir</i> 'impure', <i>ki:ne</i> 'hatred', <i>köšk</i> 'palace', <i>kö:l</i> 'lake', <i>kün</i> Mu. 'day', <i>kündik</i> 'ewer', <i>küti</i> Te. 'thick', <i>kü:me-</i> 'to burn', <i>kü:ze</i> 'amphora'	<i>eke</i> Är. 'elder sister', ND. 'big brother, <i>ekiz</i> 'twins', <i>pä:ki</i> 'razor', <i>ö:ke</i> 'enmity', <i>iki</i> 'two', <i>kö:ne</i> 'obsolete', <i>tiken</i> 'thorn', <i>üke</i> Mu. 'youger brother', <i>ü:ke</i> Te. 'enmity'	<i>ekle-</i> 'to foster', <i>ökde</i> 'skilled', <i>yelken</i> 'sail', <i>tilki</i> 'fox'	<i>čä:k</i> 'crack', <i>gerček</i> 'apt', <i>kiyik</i> 'deer', <i>kök</i> 'stem', <i>gö:k</i> XD 'blue, green, grey', <i>küčük</i> Är. 'dog', <i>köprük</i> Mu.'bridge', <i>süŋk</i> 'bone'
/ğ/		<i>bağana</i> 'lambskin', <i>yağı</i> 'enemy', <i>yığın</i> 'assembly', <i>soğan</i> Te. 'onions', <i>boğın</i>	yağšı Är. ND 'good', yılğın 'tamarisk', doğrı 'right', doğduq 'birthplace'	<i>ya:ğ</i> 'oil', <i>ğıšlağ</i> 'village', <i>tarığ</i> Xa. 'millet', <i>dı:ğ</i>

/ <u>ğ</u> /	<i>ğara</i> 'black', <i>ğalıŋ</i>	'joint', <i>sığır</i> 'cow', <i>suğun</i> 'fawn', <i>nu:ğa:nčı</i> 'harvester'	saqğal 'beard',	'dominance', <i>tawuğ</i> Mu. 'hen', <i>bu:ğ</i> 'steam'
, g,	'thick', <i>ga:š</i> 'eyebrows', <i>goniq</i> 'guest', <i>gol</i> Är. 'hand', <i>go:zğalay</i> 'rebellion', <i>g</i> iš 'winter', <i>gil</i> 'body hair', <i>gi:n</i> 'difficult', <i>gul</i> 'bondsman', <i>gu:ri</i> 'dry', <i>gu:zaq</i> 'cottonseed'		saqğız 'limy', toqğız 'nine'	
/q/	<i>qala:</i> 'fortress', <i>qars</i> 'kerchief', <i>qa:yıda</i> 'principle', <i>qa:rı:</i> 'reader', <i>qırq</i> 'forty', <i>qı:r</i> ' <i>asphalt</i> ', <i>qol</i> ND 'hand', <i>quda</i> Ba. 'in- laws', <i>quduq</i> Xa. 'pit', <i>qu:-</i> 'to run after',	yaqa 'collar', oqara 'bowl', aqıl 'wit', yaqı:n 'near', jıqır ' waterwheel', yıqılım 'submission', toqım 'packsaddle', oquw 'studies', yu:qa 'thin', u:qı 'sleep'	<i>ıqjam</i> 'adroit', <i>ıqba:l</i> 'good luck', <i>yalqım</i> 'shine', <i>yılqı</i> 'mare', qırq 'forty ', <i>suŋqar</i> 'buzzard'	<i>a:q</i> 'white', <i>toqmaq</i> 'stick', <i>do:daq</i> 'lip', <i>goniq</i> 'guest', <i>yirtiq</i> 'torn', <i>i:q</i> 'bulwark ', <i>oq</i> 'bullet', <i>doq</i> 'fed', <i>suwiq</i> 'cold', <i>quruq</i> ND 'dry', <i>tu:q</i> Är. 'hen'
/m/	<i>maral</i> 'deer', <i>ma:l</i> 'livestock', <i>mele</i> 'camel', <i>mä:reke</i> 'congregation', <i>min</i> - 'to ride', <i>mi:n</i> 'shame', <i>mi:lis</i> 'meet', <i>milqi</i> 'flabby', <i>mi:qilda</i> - 'to walk softly', <i>mojiq</i> Är. 'bad', <i>mo:ri</i> 'chimney', <i>möčber</i> Te. 'size', <i>mö:y</i> 'tarantula', <i>mö:jek</i> 'wolf', <i>murt Te.</i> 'moustache', <i>mün</i> - Te. 'to ride', <i>müčber</i> Är. 'size', <i>mü:n</i> Te. 'shame'	damar 'vein', ma:ma 'grandmother', temek 'tobacco', demir 'iron', gömelek 'mushroom', ömir 'life', duma:n 'brume', omača 'femur', düme Sa. 'kitchen garden'	<i>tağma</i> 'mark', <i>da:rmal</i> 'heavy rain', <i>damja</i> 'drop', <i>tamdır</i> 'oven'	xa:m'raw', <u>g</u> am'sorrow', nem'wet', giyim'dress', <i>i:m</i> 'animal feed', <i>dım</i> 'muggy', <i>tulum</i> 'waterskin', <i>čüm</i> 'turf'
/n/	nay 'flageolet', na:n 'bread', ner 'male', nä:kes 'ignoble', niče ND 'how many', ni:l 'bluish', ni:kje 'thin', niša:n 'sign', noğola 'fodder', nöker 'handyman', nu:rı	<i>ana:yı</i> 'beautiful', <i>ča:naq</i> 'tray', <i>ena:r</i> 'pomegranade', <i>ene</i> 'mother', <i>inaq</i> 'reliable ', <i>iner</i> Te. 'camel', <i>hünä:r</i> Te. 'art', <i>ğonıq</i> '	<i>menje</i> 'bed', <i>mo:njiq</i> 'pearl'	qotan 'swan', ga:n 'blood', weten 'fatherland', sergin 'snowslide', čin 'right', gi:n

	'menure', <i>nüdre</i> 'dregs'	Är. 'guest', <i>u:nıq</i> 'pony'		'difficult', üči:n 'for', suğun 'stag', u:n 'flour', gün 'day', dü:n 'yesterday'
/ŋ/		daŋatar 'daybreak', deŋe - 'to compare', diŋirgen- 'to attend', oŋırğa 'spine'	<i>aŋrı</i> 'yonder', <i>maŋqa</i> 'flat nose', <i>öŋki</i> 'previous', <i>tüŋter</i> - 'to turn upside down'	<i>čaŋ</i> 'dust', <i>a:ŋ</i> 'mind', <i>deŋ</i> 'equal', <i>diŋ</i> 'hill', <i>gi:ŋ</i> 'wide', <i>doŋ</i> - 'to freeze', <i>güŋ</i> 'dumb', <i>yüŋ</i> 'wool'
r	<i>ra:xat</i> 'at ease', <i>ra:s</i> 'right', <i>reje</i> 'plan', <i>rehim</i> 'merciful', <i>rıza:</i> 'contentment', <i>ri:l</i> 'railway', <i>ro:za</i> 'fast', <i>rup</i> 'sause', <i>ru:l</i> 'roll'	<i>arı</i> 'bee', <i>daraq</i> 'comb', <i>a:rıq</i> 'canal', <i>deri</i> 'skin', <i>erik</i> 'apricots', <i>di:ri</i> 'living', <i>göreč</i> 'pupil', <i>bö:ri</i> 'wolf', <i>čıra</i> 'lamp', <i>boyıntırıq</i> 'yoke', <i>jo:ra</i> ' peer', <i>čo:rı</i> 'bondswoman', <i>durı</i> 'crystal clear', <i>čü:re-</i> 'to rot'	hamraq Yo. 'kind', bardaq 'cup', hemra: 'comrade', xıdra 'uncultivated land', doğrı 'right', buğra: 'male camel', bükri 'bent, crooked'	damar 'vein', <u>g</u> a:r 'snow', deger 'leaky', kir 'dirt', pi:r 'preceptor', <u>a</u> <u>g</u> ir 'heavy', xamı:r 'dough', kö:r 'blind', <u>ömür</u> 'life'
/1/	<i>laqqa</i> 'catfish', <i>la:y</i> 'mud', <i>legen</i> 'tray', <i>lä:bik</i> 'muddy', <i>lıqırdı</i> 'vibration', <i>londa</i> 'round', <i>lödre</i> 'silt', <i>luwırdı</i> 'sway', <i>lükke</i> 'major'	<i>da:laq, mele</i> 'camel', <i>dilik</i> 'slice', <i>ğılıq</i> 'temper', dolaq 'screw', <i>do:lı</i> 'full', <i>dulıq</i> 'fase', <i>ğulan</i> 'mule'	<i>ğolča</i> ' jug', <i>tilki</i> 'fox', <i>ya:ğliq</i> 'handkerchief', <i>mılqı</i> 'flabby'	yal 'mane', yıl 'year', dil XD 'tongue', pi:l 'shovel', döl 'progeny', kö:l 'lake', po:l 'tin', dul 'widow', du:l 'corner house', kül 'ash'
/w/	<i>watan</i> Te. 'homeland', <i>waxt</i> 'time', <i>weli:</i> 'guardian', <i>wä:de</i> 'promise', <i>wi:ran</i> 'dilapidated'	<i>tarawa</i> 'Tarawih prayer', <i>ha:wa:n</i> 'mortar', <i>jüwenek</i> 'hoarfrost', <i>čuwal</i> 'sack', <i>düwik</i> 'broken', <i>hewirtge</i> 'nest', <i>hi:were</i> Yo. 'many', <i>tüwerey</i> 'tornado', <i>tuwaq</i> 'membrane',	<i>haywa:n</i> 'animal', <i>kerwen</i> 'convoy'	dayaw 'strong', tarnaw 'hod', mahaw 'daemon', ernew 'lazy, inactive ', lelew Är. 'racket', giyew

		<i>düwil-</i> 'to break', <i>duwa:m</i> 'continuation', <i>jüwen</i> 'white corn', <i>tüwi</i> Te. 'rice '		'bridegroom'
[f]		<i>ğalfaq</i> 'cap', <i>ğaflat</i> 'neglect', <i>ğafi</i> 'door', <i>köfik</i> 'foam'	<i>yafraq</i> 'leaf', <i>arfa</i> 'barley', <i>telfek</i> 'hat', <i>köfri</i> 'bridge'	<i>qa:f</i> 'Caucasus', <i>la:f</i> 'vainglory'
/z/	<i>zağara</i> 'one', <i>zer</i> 'gold', <i>zo:r</i> 'force', <i>zikir</i> 'recitation', <i>zı:ğır</i> 'flak', <i>zığla-</i> 'to throw', <i>zürya:d</i> 'offsprings'	azı 'tooth', qa:zı 'judge', a:zıq 'food', nezir 'vow', hä:zir 'now', nä:zik 'thin', gözel 'beautiful', hözi:r 'reward', uzaq 'far away', uzır 'excuse', uzı:n 'long', kü:ze 'amphora'	<i>gaznek</i> 'deep', <i>ezber</i> 'skilled', <i>mezmu:n</i> 'contents'	a:z 'few', biz 'we', ğı:z 'girl', göz 'eye', kö:z 'embers', gü:z 'autumn', du:z 'salt'
/s/	saqba:n 'guard', sa:ri 'yellow', sene 'date', sä:gin- 'to delay', soqi 'pounder', sığır 'cattle', so:rağ 'question', sök- 'undo', sullay- 'to wither', su: 'water', sö:k- 'to beshrew', süri 'herd', sü:ri 'elliptical'	<i>qasam</i> 'oath', <i>kese</i> 'horizontal', <i>kä:se</i> 'bowl', <i>ğısır</i> 'barren', <i>kö:se</i> 'thin-bearded', <i>ösgün</i> 'grown', <i>ki:se</i> 'pocket', <i>kü:se</i> - 'to will'	<i>qast</i> 'oath', <i>ast</i> 'under', <i>qıst</i> 'installment', <i>üst</i> 'upside'	na:s 'snuff', bars 'tiger', ters 'stubborn', mi:s 'copper', burs 'stipend'
/š/	<i>šar</i> 'squint', <i>ša:d</i> 'happy', <i>šeker</i> 'sugar', <i>šä:nik</i> 'kernel', <i>šıbaq</i> '(a kind of desert bush)', <i>ši:r</i> 'lion', <i>šol</i> 'that', <i>šo:r</i> 'saline', <i>šöhle</i> 'flare', <i>šu</i> 'this', <i>šu:la-</i> 'to whistle (wind)', <i>šülle</i> '(a dish made of rice', <i>šü:le</i> 'such'	ya:šıl 'green', dešik 'hole', kä:šir 'carrot', giši Yo. 'person', gošun 'division', gī:šiq 'crooked', düšek 'carpeting'	a:šıq 'lover', ıšda:n 'breeches', di:šleme 'bonbon'	<i>aš</i> 'noodles', <i>ga:š</i> 'eyebrows', <i>geŋeš</i> 'consultation', <i>yeŋiš</i> 'victory', <i>i:š</i> 'work', <i>gīš</i> 'winter', <i>di:š</i> 'tooth', <i>gūš</i> 'bird', <i>dü:š</i> 'dream'
/ž/		<i>aždar</i> Te. 'dragon', <i>hažžıq</i> 'lizard', <i>ežderha:</i> Är. 'dragon', <i>mežnu:n</i> 'lunatic', <i>wižda:n</i> 'conscience', <i>mižıq</i> Te. 'wet'		<i>pež</i> 'heater', <i>gež</i> 'chalk'

/y/	yarağ 'weapon', yabı 'workhorse', ya:n 'side', yegen 'nephew', yigit 'young man', yi:ti Mu. 'sharp', yıl 'year', yorğan 'quilt', yoğı:n 'thick', yo:l 'way', yöriš 'march', yö:rme '(a kind of food)', yu:lıq 'grandson', yük 'load'	<i>aya:l</i> 'woman', <i>ayı</i> 'bear', <i>iyer</i> Te. 'saddle'	<i>taylaq</i> 'camel foal', <i>ğaymaq</i> 'cream', <i>o:yluq</i> 'shepherd's robe', uyluq 'thigh'	<i>tay</i> 'colt', <i>torğay</i> 'lark', <i>a:y</i> 'month', <i>tey</i> Mu. 'basis, bottom', <i>toy</i> ' wedding party', <i>o:y</i> 'thought', <i>üy</i> 'home'
/x/	<i>xal</i> 'spot', <i>xa:n</i> 'khan', <i>xorjin</i> 'carpetbag', <i>xo:r</i> Är. 'debased' Te. 'thin', <i>xırš</i> 'itching', <i>xı:la</i> 'stick used for animals' <i>xum</i> 'jar', <i>xurma</i> 'date'	paxal 'straw', saxı: 'generous', paxı:r 'needy', a:xur 'stable', a:xu:n 'mullah', u:xı Är. 'sleep'	axla:q 'morality', axm:r 'revenge', axtıq 'grandchild', maxtan- 'to boast', axdar- 'to search'	<i>čarx</i> 'wheel', <i>nırx</i> 'price', <i>sı:x</i> 'skewer', <i>ğo:x</i> Te. 'jungle'
/č/	<i>čaq</i> 'conjecture', <i>ča:l</i> 'senescent', <i>čalım</i> 'mean', <i>čerim</i> 'leather', <i>čä:k</i> 'rift', <i>čig-</i> 'to clench', <i>či:š</i> 'edema', <i>čizıq</i> Te. 'scrape', <i>či:ğ</i> 'moist', <i>čola</i> 'covered', <i>čoluq</i> 'helper of shepherd', <i>čo:r1</i> 'bondswoman', <i>čöl</i> 'wild land', <i>čö:r</i> 'sheep excrement', <i>čuwal</i> 'sack', <i>ču:luq</i> 'great- grandchild', <i>ču:ğla-</i> 'to bunch', <i>čüm-</i> 'to sink', <i>čü:rik</i> 'addle', <i>čü:re-</i> 'to rot'	<i>pačaq</i> 'melon skin', <i>ğačır</i> 'mule', <i>beče</i> Mu. 'child', <i>miče</i> 'meat', <i>pičaq</i> 'knife', <i>geči</i> 'goat', <i>köče</i> 'alley', <i>ğočaq</i> Sa. 'big', <i>nu:ča</i> 'tall man'	<i>mečji:d</i> 'mosque ', <i>müčber</i> 'size', <i>ni:čge</i> .Är'thin', <i>zerče</i> 'sparrow', <i>ğurčıq</i> 'larva'	ağač Är. 'wood' Te. 'tree', artıqmač 'extra', göč 'migration', goč 'ram', gi:č 'late', di:nč 'assured', pu:č 'nil', gü:č 'power'
/h/	haray 'aid', ha:lı 'carpet', heley 'woman', hä:li 'now', hille 'difficulty', hi:le 'ruse', hi:č 'nothing', hır 'slit', hı:n 'lair', horaz 'rooster', ho:z 'walnut', hözi:r 'reward', hö:l 'soggy', hürri 'stray', hü:r 'paradise virgin', hü:t 'Pisces'	nahar 'meal', nehir 'riverbed', na:hıya 'disrict', leheŋ 'whale', zehi:n 'mind', jöhü:d 'jew', ji:hu:n 'mad', muhı:t 'environment'	<i>lehje</i> 'dialect', <i>mehrem</i> 'intimate', <i>mehnet</i> 'toil'	<i>beh!</i> (Te. Yo. Yem.) 'wow!'

The distributional features shown on Table 2-5 generally relate to all Afghan Turkmen dialects. In the phonetic realization and allophonic rules, however, there is some variation in detail. These features will be discussed in the respective subchapters following below.

4.5.1 Stops / plosives

A. The voiced bilabial plosive /b/

(a) /b/ in initial position:

(i) The voiced bilabial /b/ most frequently occurs in the word-initial position, where it can precede all vowel phonemes (see Table 2-5). In some single lexemes, there is dialect difference in the occurrence of this initial /b/, against /m/ in the correlate: Te. *büdre*- vs. Är. *müd(i)re*- 'to stumble'; Är. *onjuq-bunjuq* vs. Te. *onjuq-munjuq* 'whim-wham'.

(ii) In the Teke dialect, initial [b] in some copied and native lexemes occurs as a result of the voicing of initial /p/, while the Ärsa:rı dialect preserves initial [p] in these lexemes:

- siziŋ ya:ğdan **berhi:ziŋiz** barmı? (Te. 16) Are you on a fat diet?
- men elli ya:šdan gečennen soŋ ya:ğlı nä:rseden **perhi:z** edip bašladım. (Är. 24) After I passed my fiftieth year I started keeping a diet from fat things.
- Tilla: araq ičse derrew barıp **bi:nisine** yetya:rda soŋ dä:lerip bašlaya:r. (Te. 3) If Tilla drinks alcohol, (the drink) immediately goes into his brains and he starts making bullshit.
- a:damin hemme paa:liyetleri pi:nisine bağlı, pi:ni ğorjansa son o a:dam sağalmıyo:r. (Är. 18)

All activities of a person depend on his brains, if the brains are shaken then a man will not recover.

(b) /b/ in intervocalic position:

(i) In the Ärsa:ri, Sa:riq, Teke and Yomut dialects the bilabial stop /b/ in intervocalic position may undergo affricativization > [b] This happens in single dissylabic lexemes as well as in connected speech. [b] is a bilabial affricate with a tendency towards labio-dentalization, realized between [b] and [v]. The phenomenon, however, is to be regarded as spontaneous and occasional, depending on (quick) tempi of speech and (low) degree of formality, rather than being subject to general rule. There are many cases of non-affricativization in analogous positions.

- öten yıl-am čölde ot bolmadı, qu:sača ö:dip-bö:dip čölde saqladıq, soŋ ğoyunları
 o:ba: alıq geldik. (Är. 12)
 Last year in the steppe there was no grass. Somehow we kept the sheep in the steppe until the Sagittarius month, then we took the sheep (home) to the village.
- derya:nıŋ su:wı aŋrı gidende bä:ri tarapda kö:l köp bolyo:r, soŋ biz ba:lıqları ğar<u>b</u>a:p tutu<u>b</u>alyo:rs. (Är. 39)
 When the river water retreats to over there, many puddles are on this side, then we

When the river water retreats to over there, many puddles are on this side, then we catch the fish.

 o zama:nlarda mekteblerde jeza: köpdi, oğlanlar sapağı bilmese čı:<u>b</u>ıqla:p urardılar. (Sa. 4)

In those times in school there was a lot of punishment; if the boys didn't know the lesson, they would beat them with whipping rods.

- osoŋ gö:kbö:ri **di:<u>b</u>-em** bir za:dı ba:r ekeni. (Sa. 3) And then they have a thing called *gö:kbö:ri*.
- **yab**ı indi erkek yorğa ata aydılya:, asıla: bedew di:meli. (Te. 1) Now *yab*ı is said to a male pacesetter horse; actually one should call it *bedew*.
- šükir xuda:ya: hä:zir šul göreš čıqıp **gidi<u>b</u>** otı:r. (Te. 2) Thank God now this wrestling has come up and is going on.
- Indi gi:č bollı, **gidibotırmaŋ**! (Yo. 3) It's become late now, don't leave!
- köp ğa:r **yağıberse** ol ğoyunları i:qra:q yere eltmeli. (Är. 12) If it snows a lot (we) need to take these sheep to an awning place.
- **tapıbaldım**. (Sa. 1) I have found (it).
- **alıberiŋ**! palaw ğawı bolıp dır. (Yo. 1) Help yourself! The pilaff is delicious.

(ii) Affricativization can also occur with /b/ in a syllable onset position following the liquid /r/ or /l/ in the coda of the preceding syllable, both in dissyllabic lexemes and in connected speech.

- soŋ biz ba:lıqları **ğar<u>b</u>a:p** tutu<u>b</u>alyo:rs. (Är. 39) Then we catch the fish.
- **ba:r** <u>b</u>ol! (Är.) (Standard response to *ha:rma!* 'don't get weary', which is used as a greeting and wish to people at work.)
- köp aya:llar doqma:nıŋ üstinde sı:l **kesel <u>b</u>ollı**. (Yo. 2) Many women have become ill over the carpet.

(ii) In the Muqri dialect, intervocalic /b/may undergo fricativization > [w]. This happens in dissylabic lexemes as well as in connected speech. The phenomenon is to be regarded as spontaneous rather than as being subject to general rule.

- a:ba:d > hä:, awad bolmaqiŋ üstine baryo:da, yu:saŋ a:t awad bolmalı. (Mu. 2) Yes, (this) has to do with becoming well-bred, if you wash it the horse becomes wellbred.
- zeba:n, ba:ba > bolmasa payz qaryada:r bilen zewa:nımız bir, bizler a:taba:walarmız bir yerde bola:n. (Mu. 1)
 Otherwise our language is the same as (lit. with) Payz Qaryada:r's, our forefathers had been together.
- ö:z tiliŋizde **aytıwerıŋ**. (Mu. 1) Say (it) in your own language!

(c) /b/ in final position:

(i) In the coda of native single lexemes voiced /b/ does not occur.

(ii) In the coda of copied lexemes /b/ may preserve its voicing but may also be devoiced > [p]. Preservation of voicing appears to be characteristic of "careful" or "educated" speech: *sa:hib* (Är. 2) ~ *sa:yip* (Är. 17) 'Sir'; *ğari:b* (Är. 38) ~ *ğari:p* 'poor'; *hara:p* (Te. Yo.) ~ *xara:b* (Är. Sa.) 'destroyed'; *hasa:p* (Är.) ~ *hasa:b* (Är.) 'account'.

(d) /b/ in consonant clusters:

(i) /b/as first or subsequent element of a consonant cluster does not occur in word- or syllable-initial position.

(ii) As an element of consonant clusters in syllable or word boundaries, /b/ does not lose voice if following an unvoiced plosive (e.g. /q/, /k/, /p/).

- bil **a:q balıqları** a:miderya:nıŋ ba:lığa: di:yo:rlar, yö:ne bilar pä:kista:nnan gelyo:r. (Är. 11)
 - They call these white fish Amu Darya fish, but they come from Pakistan.
- yö:ne šipilleki hä:zir türkmenče kepleya:n xalq ba:r bolsa inha, bolar türkmenista:nnan göčip baran. (Te. 2)
 But if today there are (at all) people who speak Turkmen, these (pers.), these have migrated from Turkmenistan.
- **Ekber** A:ğa da širketiniŋ depterini kipa:yat markitde ğoršadı. (Är. 22) Ekber A:ğa constructed the office of his company in the Kipa:yat market.
- osoŋ **gö:kbö:ri** di:<u>b</u>em bir za:dı ba:r ekeni. (Sa. 3) Then they have a thing called *gö:kbö:ri*.
- Bermezi:d de Tekeler bir **topbaq** ot1:rlar, amma: šehirde bul ya:l1 dä:l.(Te. 3) In Bermezi:d the Teke live (as) one compact group, but in town it is not like that.
- pa:l::za kepbe tikdik. (Yo. 1)
 `We constructed a makeshift shelter in the gourd field.
- millel müttehidden berilen buğdayni hem ketdeler özleri taqsı:m qıldılar, bir **hepbesi**hem merdimge birilmedi. (Mu.1)
- The powerful ones distributed all of the wheat which was aided by United Nations among themselves; not one grain of it was given to the commoners.

(e) Assimilation of /b/ :

In dissylabic lexemes, clusters of nasals /m/, /n/ + /b/ are assimilated into [mm] : *qammar* 'Qanbar (n.pr.)' < pers. *qanbar*; *imisim boldi* 'he became quiet' > *imisimmoldi*; *ammar* 'storehouse' < pers. *anbar*. This assimilation does not occur in connected speech.

(f) Dissimilation of /b/ :

(i) Dissimilation of geminated /b/ occurs in some copied lexemes only; the first [b] is devoiced into [p]. The phenomenon can be observed in all dialects.

 šo waxtlar qomanda:nlar hayrata:nnan köp buğday dašadılar, yö:ne oniŋ bir hepbesä:m esgere yetmedi. (Är. 14) < pers. *hebbe* In those times the commanders carried along much wheat from (the border station of) Hayrata:n, but not a single grain of it got available to the soldiers. (ii) Dissimilation can follow a more complicated pattern. In some dissylabic lexemes [b] occurs as result of "secondary" dissimilation of an original /p/+/m/ cluster, which had first been assimilated into *[pp]: *topmaq* > **toppaq* > *topbaq* (År.) 'bunch' (compare Clauson 1972:137 tobik < tob).

B. The voiceless bilabial plosive /p/

(a) Occurrence

(i) The voiceless bilabial plosive /p/ can occur in all positions: *palčiq* 'clay', *gapi* 'door', *kepder* 'pigeon', *sap* 'handgrip'. However, it does not very frequently occur in the initial position of native lexemes.

(ii) /p/ often occurs in allophonic variation with [f], particularly in intervocalic position and in the vicinity of the liquid /r/. Examples: $\breve{g}api$ 'door' ~ $\breve{g}afi$, topraq 'soil' ~ tofraq, köpri 'bridge' ~ $k\ddot{o}fri$, $\breve{g}opar$ - 'to break (sth.) loose' ~ $\breve{g}ofar$ -.

(b) /p/ in intervocalic position

If a suffix with vowel in the onset follows the final /p/ of a monosyllabic long-vowel lexeme or a dissylabic lexeme with long vowel in the second syllable, /p/ is regularly realized as [b] or [b]. Examples: $\bar{g}a:p$ 'sack' + 3PPOSS > $\bar{g}a:\underline{b}\iota \sim \bar{g}a:b\iota$; ya:p 'canal' > $ya:\underline{b}\iota$; yi:p 'thread' > $yi:\underline{b}i$; $d\ddot{u}:p$ 'bottom' > $d\ddot{u}:\underline{b}\iota \sim d\ddot{u}:\underline{b}\iota$; hasa:p 'account' > hasa: $\underline{b}\iota$.

(c) /p/ in consonant clusters

(i) Geminated /pp/ often has its second [p] dissimilated into voiced [b] : *toppaq* 'round' ~ *topbaq*, *keppe* 'dust cover' ~ *kepbe*.

(ii) In the postverbial construction *-Ip gel-* the [pg] cluster at the word boundary is in the Är. dialect mostly dissimilated into [qg] :

• ba:lığı hayrata:nnan **alıq geldik**. (Är.25) We brought the fish from Hayratan.

(iii) In copied lexemes with original /f/, [p] can occur as part of consonant clusters in the coda position: *sunp* ~ *sump* 'class, grade' < pers. *sinf*.

C. The voiced alveolar plosive /d/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiced alveolar plosive /d/ occurs in all positions, but between the dialects there is quite some difference in the details of occurrence. In all dialects, final [d] occurs much less frequently than /d/ in initial or intervocalic position.

(b) $/d/ \sim /t/$ difference among the dialects

(i) In some lexemes that have initial /d/ in the Teke and Yomut dialects, the Ärsa:ri dialect has voiceless /t/ instead: Te. *dö:rt* 'four', *doquz* 'nine', *doğsan* 'ninety', *dart-* 'to pull', *dartğınlı*

'disaster', *du:ča* 'sour', *dik-* 'to sow' etc. as opposed to Är. Sa. ND *tö:rt*, *toqīgz*, *toğsan*, *tart-*, *tartğınlı*, *tu:ča*, *tik-*.

(ii) On the other hand, there are very few lexemes which in the Ärsa:rı dialect have word- or syllable-initial /d/ while having initial /t/ in the Teke dialect: Är. *digir* 'wheel' vs. Te. *tigir* 'id.'; Är. *pındıq* 'bloom' vs. Te. *pıntıq* 'id.'.

(iii) In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects voiced /d/ generally occurs much less frequently than in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects: Mu. *tep-* 'to kick' (vs. *dep-*), *tišle-* 'to bite' (*di:šle-*), *til* 'tongue' (*dil*), *tilet-* 'to summon' (*dilet-*), *tešik* 'hole; full of holes' (*dešik*); Ba. *ayt-* 'to say' (*ayd-*).

(iv) In consonant clusters in which /d/ precedes or follows the approximate /y/, the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects frequently have [t], while [d] is dominant in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects. Examples: *git*- 'to go' (*gid*-), *ğayt*- ' come back' (*ğayd*-)

- **aytıberiŋ** hajı ba:ba, bu kiši biziŋ lehjelermizi u:renyo:r eken. (Ba. 4) Tell (us), Hajı Ba:ba, this person seems to be learning our dialect?
- Siz so:raŋ! men **aydıbereyin.** (Är.48) You ask! I will answer.
- bizlerden pul almıyo:r, kä:sisi šınya:nı **alıgityo:r**. (Xa. 2) (They) don't take money from us, some of them take (us) along just like that.
- bašqa yerlere-de ha:lı:nı Aqčadan **alıgidyo:rlar.** (Mu. 3) They also take the carpets from Aqča to other places.

(c) Assimilation of /d/

(i) In the $\ddot{A}rsa:r1$ and ND dialects, in consonant clusters of a voiceless obstruent + /d/, the latter is generally devoiced.

- men Istambu:lda bir köfri ba:r-dır **diyiptim** (Är. 17) I had said, in Istanbul there is one bridge.
- iki künde ta:ğdan **aštı**. (Mu. 4) He crossed the mountain in two days.
- tonıma ya:ğ **tökti**. (Ba. 2) She poured oil on my cloak.
- **sačtan** tutma! (Är. 41) Do not pull (my) hair!

(ii) In the XD dialects, consonant clusters /md/ and /nd/ (mostly as a result of suffixation of ABL -*dAn*, but not of LOC -*dA*) are often assimilated into [mn] and [nn], respectively.

- men **bilenimnen** bä:rä: andxoyda küčük oruš bolyo:r. (Är. 10) Ever since I remenber (lit. know) there have been dogfights in Andxoy.
- bil **mennen** na:n dilemä:ne gelyo:r-eken (Är. 2) She is coming in order to demand bread from me.
- mennen ayb etmä:ŋ! (Te. 10) Do not blame me!
- **mennen**, siz qaysı **qawmnan** bolyo:rsıŋız diyip so:radı. (Är. 7) He/she asked me, "From which qawm are you?".

- šu qomanda:nlar čıqannan bä:ri ri:šsepi:dleriŋ ıxtıya:rı yo:q. (Sa. 3) Since these commanders have appeared, the elders have no agency any more.
- sadaqa qabır **aza:bınnan** ğotararmıš adamı. (Är. 38) Alms(-giving) is said to rescue man from the tortures of the grave.

(iii) In the Yomut and Teke dialects, clusters of /l/ + /d/ are often assimilated into [ll].

- köp aya:llar doqma:nıŋ üstinde sı:l kesel <u>bollı</u>. (Yo. 2) Many women have become sick (with) tuberculosis over the carpet.
- qa:qaŋ **gellimi**? (Te. 19) Has your father come?

(d) /d/ in consonant clusters

In consonant clusters, [d] which follows the voiceless bilabial obstruent [p] occurs as a result of dissimilation from [t] : *hepde* 'week' < **hepte* < pers. *hafta*, *šepda:li* Är. 'peach' > pers. *šaftālū*.

(e) /d/ in final position

(i) Final /d/ in native monosyllabic lexemes in isolated pronunciation is mostly, though not necessarily, devoiced into [t] : *a:t* 'name' (~ *a:d*), XD; but $\ddot{o}:d$ 'bile' (~ $\ddot{o}:t$ 'id.'); a:rt- 'to walk' (~ *a:rd* 'id.').

(ii) Final /d/ in copied lexemes is in all dialects often devoiced into [t]; the original voiced quality is preserved only in hypercorrect pronunciation. (In that, the Turkmen dialects actually conform to the rules governing the languages from which these lexemes are copied.) Examples: *mura:d* 'desire' (~ *mura:t*), *gerd* 'dust' (~ *gert*), *dert* 'pain' (~ *derd*), *mert* 'gentleman' (~ *merd*), Är. *jo:mart* 'chivalruos' ~ Te *joma:rt* < pers. *juwānmard*.

D. The voiceless alveolar plosive /t/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, /t/ occurs in all positions.

(b) /t/ in intervocalic position

(i) If a native monosyllabic long-vowel stem is supplemented by a suffix with a vowel in the onset, /t/ is regularly voiced into [d]. This phenomenon pertains to all dialects.

- a:t > a:dı(m) meniŋ a:dım ahmedša: bolyä:, qa:qa:mıŋ a:dı abdılleti:p. (Te. 14) My name is Ahmedša:, my father's name is Abdılleti:p.
- yu:t-> yu:dar säla:m haqımı bermedik bolsaŋ seni iki uzup bir ağızda yu:dartım. (Är. 42)
 If you had not given me the greetings I deserve, I would have torn you (into) two (pieces) and swallowed you in one mouthful.
- ğu:rt > «ğu:rdı ağzasaŋ ğu:rt geler» diyip dirler. (Sa. 4) They say, "If you mention the wolf, the wolf will come".

This rule can also be extended to copied monosyllabic lexemes with long vowel and a /t/ in the coda:

• **za:t** (< pers. *zāt*) > **za:dıŋizı** waxtında beriŋ! (Är. 6) Hand in your belongings at the right time!

The phenomenon can also occur with dissyllabic native lexemes whose second vowel is long; the exact rules governing this phenomenon have not yet been established.

• **murut** > **mur1:t** > saqīgal-**m1r1:d1m1z1** s1:r1p gitdi. (Är. 14) He shaved our beards and moustaches.

(ii) The /t/ in the coda of the short-vowel verbal stems *et-* 'to do' and *git-* 'to go' is also regularly voiced into [d] when a suffix with initial vowel is agglutinated.

- geda:yčılıq **edere** de xarjı gerek, onda-da šı zama:nda ğı:mıldasaŋ pul gerek. (Är. 10) Even in order to (live) as a beggar some expenses are necessary; if today you (only as much as) move, money is necessary.
- men gi:jä: ğa:lma:n gideyin di:se, du: bolyo:r gel diyipdir. (Är. 42)
 When (he) said, I won't stay (over) night but move on, the *du*:¹³⁰ said, all right, come on!

(iii) If a suffix with initial vowel or approximate /y/ is added to a dissylabic verbal stem with /t/ in the coda, the consonant is voiced into [d] :

• yarat- > bizi yaradan alla:taa:la: risğalmız-a:m be:r. (Yo. 1) God Almighty is (the one who) has created us; he will give us our daily bread, too.

(c) /t/ in consonant clusters

(i) If a suffix with initial vowel is added to a verbal stem with a coda consonant cluster of a liquid /l/ or /r/ + /t/, the latter /t/ is voiced into [d]: *sağalt-* 'to heal' + AOR > *sağaldar*; *olalt-*'to make sth. big' + AOR > *olaldar*, *sa:rart-* ' to make sth. yellow ' + *Aor* > *sa:rardar*.

- šu dä:rileri i:seŋiz sizi ti:z **sağaldar**. (Är.35) If you eat this medicine, it will quickly make you (feel) better.
- hawwa iki gün 1ss1 bolsa gülleri **sa:rardar**. (Är.) If the weather becomes hot, it will make the flowers wither in two days.

(ii) Voiceless /t/ in the coda of a dissyllabic stem is voiced into [d] if followed by a suffix with a liquid or the approximate /y/ in the onset: go:rit- 'to dry' + PART > go:ridya:n; erbet 'fine' + COMP > erbedrä:k.

(iii) Clusters of a sibilant + /t/ in word-final position, which occur in copied lexemes, often lose their [t] element in non-elevated speech. Examples: $g\ddot{o}:\check{s}t \sim g\ddot{o}:\check{s}$ 'meat' < pers. $g\bar{o}\check{s}t$; $d\ddot{u}\ddot{r}\ddot{u}st \sim d\ddot{u}\ddot{r}\ddot{u}s$ 'correct' < pers. durust.

(d) Dissimilation of /t/

 $^{^{130}}$ *du:* < pers. *de:w* is a harmful spirit in the shape of an oversize human being.

In clusters of a voiceless obstruent + /t/, the latter can (but need not necessarily) be voiced into [d]: $ketdelik \sim kettelik$ '(big) size', $mektep \sim mekdep$ 'school', $hepde \sim hepte$ 'week'.

E. The voiced velar plosive /g/

(a) Occurrence of /g/

(i) In all Afghan Turkmen dialects, in native stems the voiced velar plosive /g/ occurs almost exclusively in the word-initial position of front-vowel lexemes: *gerek* 'necessary', *gä:r* 'dirty', *gila:s* 'glass', *gi:m* Är. 'clothing', *göreč* 'pupil', *gö:k* 'blue', *gül* 'flower', *gü:č* 'power'.

(ii) As a result of dissimilation of geminated /kk/ of some single lexemes, the coda element of the geminated cluster is realized as [g]: *sekgiz* 'eight' ($\ddot{A}r$. Sa.) < *sekkiz* (which coexists in the ND dialects); *čekge* 'temple' ($\ddot{A}r$.) < *čekke* (which coexists in the ND dialects).

- saat **sekgiz** ya:rım bolanda siz üyden čıqıŋ (Är. 3) Leave home when it is eight o'clock!
- ol **sekgiz** diyende u:x1dan oyandı. (Sa. 1) At eight o'clock he woke up from sleep.
- toy **sekkiz** bajede bašlanadı. (Mu. 3) The wedding begins at eight o'clock.

(iii) In copied lexemes, /g/ can be preserved in all positions, especially in the speech of educated and/or urban speakers. There is, however, in all non-initial positions a tendency towards either devoicing or affricativization.

(b) $/g/ \sim /k/$ variation among the dialects

(i) In some single lexemes the Afghan Turkmen dialects are at variation in the voiced \sim voiceless quality of the initial /k/g/ consonant. There is, however, no simple rule governing this distribution.

(ii) In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects, in single lexemes this initial consonant is represented as /k/ while in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects it is /g/: *kel-* 'to come' ND vs. *gel-* XD.

(iii) In some lexemes the Ärsa:rı dialect has initial /g/ while all others have /k/: *giši* (Är.) vs. *kiši* (Te. and ND) 'person'.

(iv) In some lexemes the Teke dialect has initial /g/ while the Ärsa:r1 and ND dialects have /k/: gü:jük (Te. Yo.) ~ küčük (Är. ND) 'dog'.

(c) Affricativization of /g/

In the final position of native lexemes and in consonant clusters, /g/ is generally realized as [ġ]; this affricativization can also occur in post-long-vowel position of /g/: *beġ* 'lord', *berġi* 'debt', *eġlen*- 'to linger'.

(d) Devoicing of /g/

In isolated lexemes of the Teke dialect, the devoicing of initial /g/ has been observed. The phenomenon might occur on an idiolectal basis only; further investigation is necessary.

• türkmenče **kepleya:n** xalq ba:r bolsa (Te. 2) < pers. *gep* 'word' if there are people who speak Turkmen

F. The voiceless velar plosive /k/

The voiceless velar plosive /k/can in native lexemes occur in all positions of front-vowel words.

(a) /k/ in initial position

In some native lexemes, the ND dialects have initial voiceless /k/ whereas the XD dialects have voiced /g/. Examples: ND dialects: *kel-* 'to come' ~ XD *gel-* 'id.; ND: *kiyin-* ' to don' ~ *giyin-* XD; *kir-* 'to enter' ~ XD *gi:r-*.

(b) /k/ in intervocalic position

(i) /k/ in intervocalic position of nominal and verbal stems occurs in all Afghan Turkmen dialects.

(ii) In secondary intervocalic position, caused by the agglutination of a derival or morphological syllable with a vowel in the onset, stem-final /k/ of a long-vowel stem is replaced by [g]; with short-vowel stems, no changes occur. Examples: $s\ddot{o}:k$ - 'to undo' > $s\ddot{o}:gil$ - 'to be undone'; but $d\ddot{o}k$ - 'to spill' > $d\ddot{o}ki\eta$; $d\ddot{o}kil$ - 'to be spilled' > $d\ddot{o}kildi$.

(c) /k/ in final position

(i) /k/ in the final position of long-vowel monosyllabic native nominal stems and in long-vowel monosyllabic copied lexemes is generally voiced into [\dot{g}] when a suffix with initial vowel is added. Examples: $g\ddot{o}:k$ 'sky' + DIR > $g\ddot{o}:\dot{g}e$; *i:k* 'spindle' + 1PPoss > *i:gim*; $\ddot{c}\ddot{a}:k$ 'rift' (< pers. $\dot{c}\bar{a}k$) + 1PPoss > $\ddot{c}\ddot{a}:\dot{g}i$.

(ii) In the *xālis* dialects, final /k/ of polysyllabic words (native or copied, long- or shortvowel) is regularly voiced into [ġ] when a suffix with initial vowel is added. Examples: Är. Te. Yo. Sa. *tü:dik* 'flute' + 1PPOSS > *tü:diģim*, Är. Te. Yo. Sa. *bi:rik-* 'to gather' + PART + LOC > *bi:riģende* 'when (they) gather', *gö:bek* 'navel' + 3PPOSS > *göbeģi; perek* 'feather' (< pers. per) + 3PPOSS > *pereģi*. In the ND dialects in all these cases [k] doesn't change.

(d) /k/ in consonant clusters

(i) In clusters of /k/ + the comparative suffix $-r\ddot{a}:k$, the Teke, Yomut and Yemreli dialects have voicing into [g], while in the Ärsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects [k] is preserved under these circumctances. Examples: $g\ddot{o}:k$ 'blue' + COMP -rA:Q > Te. $g\ddot{o}:g\ddot{r}\ddot{a}:k$ vs. Är. $g\ddot{o}:kr\ddot{a}:k$ 'somehow bluish'; *biyik* 'tall' > Te. *biyigrä:k* vs. Är. *biyikrä:k* 'fairly tall'.

(ii) Voicing and affricativization /k/ > [ġ] in the onset of secondary clusters is in the Teke dialect generally a more frequent phenomenon. It has, along with what has been described

above in (i), been observed in the case of polysyllabic stems supplemented with the suffixes yä:n (participle) and -yä:r (intraterminal), both of which have the approximant /y/ in the onset; with the future participle -jek and diminutive -jik, which both have the voiced affricate /j/ in the onset; and also with -di (simple past). The rules determining this change need as yet to be fully determined. The phenomenon does not occur in the other dialects. Examples: gi:jik- 'to be delayed' > Te. gi:jigyä:r 'he is delayed' vs. Är. gi:jikyo:r 'id.'; bi:rik- 'to unite' > Te. bi:rigyä:n 'those who unite' vs. Är. bi:rikyo:n; bi:rik- 'id.' > Te. bi:rigjek vs. Är. bi:rikjek; berčik- 'to harden (intrans.)' > Te. berčigdi 'it stiffened' vs. Är. berčikdi.

(iii) In single lexemes which include geminated /kk/ clusters, the second [k] is dissimilated into [g] in the XD dialects: *sekkiz* 'eight' > *sekgiz* (while the ND dialects preserve [kk]).

• sa:at sekgiz ya:rım bolanda (Är. 3) when it was half past eight

(iv) Clusters of /k/ + /j/ are regularly avoided: When a suffix with /j/ in the onset follows a stem with /k/ in the coda, the /k/ is regularly reduced: $k\ddot{u}\check{c}ijik$ 'little puppy' $< k\ddot{u}\check{c}ik$ 'puppy' + DIM -jIQ.

G. The voiced uvular plosive [g]

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiced uvular plosive $[\bar{g}]$ is an allophone of $/\check{g}/$, whose phonetic realization is very similar to the latter. While $[\bar{g}]$ occurs in initial and intervocalic positions of back-vowel lexemes only, $[\check{g}]$ occurs primarily in final position and in consonant clusters as specified below in the subchapter on \check{g} . This distribution is not evenly observed in all dialects, with $\check{A}r$., Te., Yo., Sa. and Yem. observing it more regularly while the ND dialects depict a marked preference for $[\check{g}]$ in all positions. The specifics of this distribution demand for closer investigation

(i) In the word-initial position of native back-vowel lexemes, [\bar{g}] is the preferred realization of / \check{g} /. Examples: $\bar{g}a$:wun 'melon', $\bar{g}ar\check{g}a$ 'crow', $\bar{g}i$:z 'girl', $\bar{g}i$ z- 'to warm up, to rage', $\bar{g}o$:ri $\check{g}ma$:l 'keeper', $\bar{g}or\check{g}an$ 'fortress', $\bar{g}u\check{s}aq$ 'belt', $\bar{g}uraq$ 'quilt'.

(ii) [g] does not regularly occur in intervocalic or final position.

(b) As a result of dissimilation of geminate /qq/ in dissylabic native and copied lexemes, [\bar{g}] occurs in the coda position of the cluster: *saq\bar{g}al* 'beard', *doq\bar{g}iz* 'nine', *diq\bar{g}at* 'attention'. In the ND dialects /qq/ doesn't change: ND *saqqal*, *toqqiz*, *diqqat*. H. The voiceless uvular plosive /q/

(a) Occurrence of /q/

(i) The voiceless uvular plosive /q/ occurs in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan; however, there is some variation in details of occurrence. Generally speaking, /q/ in initial position occurs much less frequently than in all other positions.

(b) /q/ in initial position

(i) In the $x\bar{a}li$ s dialects, initial /q/ occurs only in singular native lexemes such as qas 'eyebrow', qaq 'dry', ql- 'to make', qorci 'guardian', qu:- 'to drive away', qorq- Är. 'to be afraid'.

(ii) In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects native initial /q/ occurs much more frequently.

(iii) Initial /q/ of copied lexemes is preserved in most Afghan Turkmen dialects. In the Teke dialect, however, initial /q/ of copied lexemes is almost always voiced into $[\bar{g}]$: *qand* > Te. $\bar{g}and$ 'candis sugar'; *qadi:m* > Te. $\bar{g}adi:m$ 'antique'; *qala:* ~ Te. $\bar{g}ala$: 'fortress'. The Teke and Yomut speakers of the Herat province – obviously under the influence of the local Persian dialects – realize initial /q/ as $[\bar{g}]$; the Teke of the Balx province and of Dara-i Šāx (Fāryāb province) do not share this phenomenon.

- Türkmenleriŋ za:dınna **ğadı:mkiler**, bizleŋkiler üč gün toy tutılya:dı. (Te. 2) At the core of the Turkmens, (in) ancient (times), our (people) would celebrate feasts for three days.
- **qadı:mqı** a:damlar bizden dayaw ekeni. (Är.30) People of past time were stronger than us.
- bu bizniŋ **qadimki** üyimiz. (Mu. 3) This is our house of olden times.

(c) /q/ in intervocalic position

(i) Voiceless /q/ from the final position of long-vowel monosyllabic lexemes (native and copied) is regularly voiced and realized as intervocalic [ğ] if a suffix with vowel in the onset is agglutinated: a:q 'white' + 3PPoss > $a:\check{g}i$; i:q 'haven' > $i:\check{g}i$; tu:q 'hen' + DIR > $tu:\check{g}a$; hu:q 'fool' > $hu:\check{g}a$.

(ii) Final voiceless /q/ of dissylabic lexemes (again, native and copied) is regularly voiced and realized as intervocalic [ğ] if a suffix with vowel in the onset is agglutinated: daraq 'comb' + 3PPOSS > daraği; u:niq 'grandchild' > u:niği; a:jiq- 'to get hungry' + PART > a:jiğan 'hungry'; da:riq- 'to be angry' + CONV > da:riğip.

(iii) In connected speech, if vowel +/q/ in the coda of the antecedent meets an initial vowel in the following word, /q/ is voiced into [ğ] or [g] just as described in (ii). In the ND dialects such voicing does not take place.

- yo:q + eken > bir ba:r eken bir yo:ğ eken, qadi:m zama:nlarda bir a:damıŋ yetdi sa:nı oğlı ba:r eken. (Är. 42)
 - Once upon a time there was a man who had seven sons.
- yo:q + ol ~ yo:q + o > her ğı:zımı bir oğlıma nika: edip berdim. siziŋ šeri:atıŋızda yo:ğ ol di:di. čunki yo:ğ o bizde. (Är. 2)
 She said, I gave each one of my daughters to one of my sons in marriage. This does not exist in your sharia, she said. Because that does not exist at ours.
- **dara:q** + **al-** > yaŋı elime **dara:ğ alıp** sačımı dara:yın diyenimde tilpu:n geldi. (Är.27) Just when I had taken a comb and was about to brush my hair,the phone rang.
- öten yıl a:xı:rda sawıq bolıp ba:demları **su:ğ urıpdı.** (Te. 1) Last year it was utterly cold and all almond trees were frozen and damaged.
- reyis sa:yip depteride **yoq eken**. (Xa. 4) The boss was not in his office.
- qawunlanı derrewden **sawuq urupdı**. (Mu. 2) The melons were immediately frozen.

4.5.2 Nasals

A. The voiced bilabial nasal /m/

(a) Occurrence of /m/

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiced bilabial nasal /m/ occurs in all positions. However, in native lexemes it does not often occur in the initial position.

(b) /m/ in consonant clusters

(i) Geminated [mm] is mostly the result of assimilation of a cluster consisting of /m/ + /b/: *qammar* 'Qanbar (n.pr.)' < pers. *qanbar*; *ammar* 'storehouse' < *ambar*; *nummira* (Te. 15) 'number' < pers. *nambar*.

(ii) Regressive assimilation before m exists only in ND dialects. Example: Mu. *bilip+men > bilimmen* 'I understood'; Ba. *körip+miz > körimmiz* 'we saw'; Mu. Ba *kelip+ mi? > kelimmi?* 'Has he come?'.

(iv) Progressive assimilation of *m* is widespread in the ND dialects. Example: $\text{År. }a:limdan \sim \text{ND }a:limnan$ 'from the scholar'; *elimden* ~ *elimnen* 'from my hand'; *gözimden* ~ *gözimnen* 'from my eye'.

B. The voiced palatal nasal /n/

(a) Occurrence of /n/

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiced palatal nasal /n/ occurs in all positions. However, aside from interrogative adjectives and pronouns derived from $n\ddot{a}$:, in native lexemes initial /n/ does not frequently occur.

(b) /n/ in consonant clusters

(i) Assimilation of *n* in lexemes that contain clusters has been reported from many dialects: *sandiq* 'chest' ~ *sanniğ* (Te. 5).

(ii) If a word with /n/ in the coda position is followed by the ablative suffix -dAn, assimilation can lead to the realization of the [nd] cluster as [nn]. This assimilation phenomenon, which is fostered by quick speech tempi, can be observed in the XD dialects.

- bolar **türkmenista:nnan** göčip baran. (Te. 2) They have migrated from Turkmenistan.
- šo waxtlar qomanda:nlar **hayrata:nnan** köp buğday dašı:dılar. (Är. 14) In those times the commanders carried much wheat (along) from Hayratan.

With the locative suffix -dA, assimilation into [nn] has mostly been observed in the Teke and Yomut dialects.

• **üstinde** < bir da:ğıŋ **üstinne** (Te. 7) on top of a mountain

- ičinde < šehr ičinne ya:šaya:lar (Te. 6) They live in town.
- **mende** < aytya:n za:dıŋız **menne** yo:q. (Yo. 1) The thing that you have mentioned I do not have.

C. The voiced velar nasal /ŋ/

(a) The voiced velar nasal /ŋ/ occurs in all positions except initial.

(i) In lexemes copied from Persian, [ŋ] is often the realization of an original /ng/- or /nğ/- cluster. Examples: *reŋ* 'color' < pers. *rang*, *čeŋel* 'claw' < pers. *čangal*.

(b) $\eta + dAn > \eta nAn$:

• **daŋnan** turıq gitdik. (Är. 40) We got up at dawn and left.

4.5.3 Liquids

A. The palatal trill /r/

(a) Occurrence of /r/

The palatal trill /r/ does in native lexemes not occur in the initial position, while in copied lexemes, initial /l/ does occur.

(b) /r/ in initial position

In the Teke and Yomut dialects, initial /r/ of copied lexemes often causes vowel prothesis; the prothetic vowel may conform to the first syllable vowel of the lexeme, but does not necessarily do so. Examples: pers. $r\bar{a}dio >$ Te. Yo. *iradiya:* 'radio', pers. $r\bar{o}za$ 'fast' > Te. Yo. *oro:za*. Another possibility to avoid initial [r] would be metathesis: pers. rajab '(the month of) Rajab > Te. Yo. *erjeb*.

(c) /r/ in final position

Final /r/ can be reduced, which leads to secondary lengthening of the preceding vowel. This reduction is most typical of the Yomut dialect, where the reduction of [r] concerns for eample the plural suffix, which is -lA: < -lAr, the intraterminal -yA: (or even -yA) < -yAr, and many others.

• **ba:r** < yašolı üyde **ba:**mı? (Är. 23)

Is any olderman at home?

- **diyo:r** < size gelsin **diyo:**lar. (Är. 46) somebody ask you.
- **bolya:r** < **bolya** men šolya:lı ederin. (Yo. 1) Okay, I will do like that.
- **gelya:r** < dä:dem günde sağat bä:šde **gelya.** (Yo. 2) My father comes at five o'clock every day.

B. The palatal liquid /l/

(a) Occurrence of /l/

The palatal liquid /l/ in the Afghan Turkmen dialects does not occur in the initial position of native lexemes, while in copied lexemes initial /l/ occurs quite frequently. In all other positions /l/ occurs in native as well as copied lexemes.

(b) Phoneme /l/ or allophones $/l \sim l/$

(i) The palatal liquid /l/ is in the Turkmen dialects generally said to occur in two allophones: the lateral alveolar [l] and alveolar [ł]. This allophonoc variation – in accordance with the rules of synharmony as described above – does in the Afghan Turkmen dialects not seem to be consistent. In the XD dialects the [ł] allophone appears more regularly than in the ND dialects; however, the realization of [ł] might even be interpreted as occurring on a more individual basis, with some individuals following it more regularly than others. Copied lexemes seem generally exempt from the allophonic variation rule. The exact rules governing allophonic alternation of [l ~ l] have as yet to be determined. In this study the liquid is always transcribed as <l>.

(ii) In the Teke dialect, in clusters with the approximant /y/, the liquid is generally realized as lateral [1], regardless of back or front quality of the vowels. The other dialects do not share this phenomenon. Examples: Te. [alyä:r] 'he takes' vs. all others [ałya:r] ~ [ałyo:r].

(iii) In copied lexemes the allophone [1] is generally not realized, but in native lexemes the allophone can be realized. Examples: *taqba* 'fool', *bat* 'honey', *tat* 'white poplar'.

(c) /l/ in consonant clusters

(i) In clusters of /l/ + obstruent /d/, progressive assimilation leads to the realization of [ll] in the Yomut and Teke dialects.

- **boldı** > köp aya:llar doqma:nıŋ üstinde sı:l kesel **bołłı**. (Yo. 2) Many women have become sick (with) tuberculosis over the carpet.
- **geldi** > qa:qam aǧšam **gelli**. (Te.17) My father came at night.

(ii) In clusters of nasal /n/ + /l/, regressive assimilation can lead to the realization of [ll] in the Ärsa:r1 dialect: *toqqiza čelli* (Är. 6) 'until nine' < *čenli*.

(d) /l/ in initial position

Initial /l/ of copied lexemes is in educated and careful speech realized without any adaption; in less careful speech, however, the prothesis of [1] can often be observed: $la:y \sim la:y$ 'clay'.

(d) /l/ in final position

In the coda position of syllables, /l/ can be deleted. While this phenomenon occurs almost regularly in some grammatical forms of the verb *bol*- 'to be(come)' and (in the Teke dialect) in the negation particle $d\ddot{a}:l$, in other cases it seems to be rather situational or idiolectal.

- **bolsa** > bizler tarapda **bosa** imkä:nat yo:q. (Är. 1) In our region (on the other hand) there are no facilities.
- dä:l > elbetde pul alan dä: dir (Te. 3) He has obviously not got (any) money.

4.5.4 Fricatives

A. The voiced bilabial fricative /w/

(a) Occurrence of /w/

(i) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiced bilabial fricative /w/ occurs in all positions. Examples: *weten* 'homeland', *wa:li:* 'governor', *uwadan* 'beautiful', *uwir-* 'to change', *ya:ğlaw* 'rolling pin', *ya:daw* 'tired'.

(ii) In native lexemes, initial /w/ occurs only in onomatopoetic words: *wağırda-* 'to yelp', *waqırda-* 'to guffaw', *wajırda-* 'to yell', *wızırdı* '(a gentle noise)'.

(b) Rounding of vowels in juxtaposition with /w/

(i) In the Ärsa:r1 dialect, in clusters of /a/+/w/, which occur primarily in copied lexemes, the vowel preceding /w/ is rounded into [u]. The original [aw] cluster is preserved only in careful educated speech. Examples: $duwa:m \sim dawa:m$ 'continuation', $duwa: \sim dawa:$ 'medicine', $muwla:na: \sim mawla:na:$ '(religious title of honor)'.

(ii) In native lexemes the /a/+/w/ cluster can be rounded into [u:] and reduced into [u] : $su:-\sim saw$ - 'to expel'; $qu:-\sim qaw$ - 'to fend off', Te. $\breve{g}aw\iota$ 'good, well' ~ Är. $\breve{g}uw\iota$.

(c) Unrounding of vowels

In the Yomut dialect, in native lexemes which have rounded vowels in a /w/ environment these vowels can undergo unrounding. Examples: $\ddot{A}r.$ *uwren-* vs. Te. Yo. *ewren-* 'to learn'; $\ddot{A}r.$ *du:w-* ~ Te. Yo. *dew-* 'to break'; $\ddot{A}r.$ *uwüt* ~ Yo. *ewit* 'advice'.

B. The voiceless labio-dental fricative [f]

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiceless labio-dental fricative [f] does not have phonemic character, but is an allophone of the bilabial voiceless plosive /p/. In native lexemes it occurs only in intervocalic position. In initial or final position its occurrence is limited to lexemes copied from Persian or Arabic which are realized in consciously "correct" pronunciation (which is limited to speakers of a markedly educated background): *ğaflat* 'ignorance, carelessness' ~ *ğaplat*; *sap* 'pure(ly)' ~ *saf*; *parz* 'obligation' ~ *farz*; *hepde* 'week' ~ *hefte*; *tekli:p* 'trouble' ~ *tekli:f*; *pil* 'elephant' ~ *fi:l*; *nupu:s* ~ *nifu:s* 'inhabitants'; *piša:r* ~ *fiša:r* 'blood pressure'.

(b) In the Ärsa:ri dialect, intervocalic [f], or [f] preceding the sonorant /r/ in consonant clusters, correlates to /p/ of the other dialects in these positions (which also occurs in the Ärsa:ri dialect): $\check{g}afi$ 'door' ~ $\check{g}api$; $\check{g}ofar$ 'it breaks loose' ~ $\check{g}opar$; tofraq 'soil' ~ topraq.

- **tapıb** ~ šarta bir a:zajıq ılay **tafib** külčä:niŋ čä:k yerine yapıšdırıp dir. (Är. 42) He quickly found a small amount of clay and stuck it into the crack of the breadloaf.
- **köpri** ~ men istambu:lda bir **köfri** ba:rdır diyiptim, ola:r üč **köfri** ba:r eken. (Är. 17) I had believed (lit. said) in Istanbul there is one bridge, (but) they are three bridges

(c) In consonant clusters, [f] of copied lexemes – which is more often than not realized as [p] – can undergo assimilation and reduction; it is not easy to tell if these processes occur in the Turkmen realm, or the copies are taken over from already reduced or assimilated forms in local Persian dialects. Examples: Te. *šetta:lı* ~ Är. *šepta:lı* 'peach' < pers. *šaftālū*; Är. *jüp* 'pair' < pers. *juft*.

C. The voiced alveolar fricative /z/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiced alveolar fricative /z/ occurs in all positions. In the initial position of native lexemes, however, it seems to occur only infrequently: *zi:ren-* 'to bewail', *ziğ-* 'to throw'.

(b) In the XD dialects /z/ can sometimes be realized as voiced interdental spirant [ð]. This spirantization occurs primarily in initial and intervowel position. Examples: $za:lum \sim \delta a:lum$ 'cruel', $maza \sim ma\delta a$ 'taste', $a:z \sim a:\delta$ 'little', $gi:z \sim gi:\delta$ ' girl'.

D. The voiceless alveolar fricative /s/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiceless alveolar fricative /s/ occurs in all positions, although /s/ is generally unfrequent in native lexemes.

(b) In the XD dialects /s/ can sometimes be realized as voiceless interdental spirant [Θ], while the ND do not have this allophone.

E. The voiced postalveolar fricative /ž/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiced postalveolar fricative $/\check{z}/$ occurs only in a few single native lexemes: *hažžıq* 'crocodile', *mıžžıq* 'wettish', *ažder* 'dragon' For the time being, its phonemic character must remain uncertain.

(b) In copied lexemes [ž] is generally preserved, but can on an idiolectal basis be realized as j/j or z/. Examples: *müžde* 'good news' ~ *müjde*; *žanda* 'rag, flag' ~ *janda*.

F. The voiceless postalveolar fricative /š/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiceless postalveolar fricative $/\check{s}/$ occurs in all positions. In native lexemes, however, it rarely occurs in the initial position. The main body

of native lexemes with initial /\$/ is formed by onomatopoetic words like \$aqurda- 'to talk a lot', $\$a\$ agla- 'to rustle'.

(b) In the Ärsari dialect, syllable-final /č/ can be converted into [š]; the exact rules governing this phenomenon cannot yet be defined. Examples: $ge\check{c}sin \sim ge\check{s}sin$ 'is needs to pass'; $\bar{g}a\check{c}dim \sim \bar{g}a\check{s}dim$ 'I ran away'; $a\check{c}di \sim a\check{s}di$ 'he opened'.

G. The voiced palatal approximant /y/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiced palatal approximant /y/ occurs in all positions.

(b) Complex reduction phenomena with /y/

In the \ddot{A} rsa:r1 dialect complex processes of contraction occur in colloquial speech; in many of these cases the phoneme /y/ is involved. As a result of these processes vowel quality is changed, vowels undergo lengthening or shortening, and consonants are reduced or removed.

- **bü:l** yağmır köp yağdı (Är. 12) < bu yıl This year much rain has fallen.
- menem siz bile **gidi:nmi**? (Är. 24) < gideyinmi Should I also go with you?
- **nä:di:n** aydanım bolmasa! (Är. 6) < nä: edäyin? What shall I do if (things) don't happen (as) I said!

H. The voiced uvular fricative /ğ/

(a) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects, the voiced uvular fricative $/\breve{g}$ occurs in allophonic variation with $[\bar{g}]$, whose phonetic realization is very similar to $[\breve{g}]$. Some dialects (Ärsa:rı, Teke, Yomut, and Sa:rıq) appear to observe this variation more systematically than the others.

(i) In native lexemes of the Afghan Turkmen dialects $/\check{g}/$ occurs in the final and intervocalic position in back-vowel words: $da:\check{g}$ 'mountain', $sa\check{g}$ 'healthy' $\check{c}o\check{g}$ - 'ebullition' $\check{c}i:\check{g}$ 'moist', $bu:\check{g}$ 'steam', $tu:\check{g}$ 'flag', $a\check{g}a$ 'elder brother', $bo\check{g}$ - 'to choke'.

(ii) In native lexemes $|\check{g}|$ occurs in consonant clusters together with liquids $(/r/ + /\check{g})/\check{g}ar\check{g}a$ 'crow'; $/l/ + /\check{g}/$, dural $\check{g}a$ 'station'; $/\check{g}/ + /r/$ do $\check{g}rama$ '(a kind of dish)'; $/\check{g}/ + /l/$ da $\check{g}lama$ 'roast') and nasals $(/\check{g}/ + /m/\check{g}o:ri\check{g}ma:l$ 'keeper'; $/m/ + /\check{g}/tam\check{g}a$ 'brand'; $/n/ + /\check{g}/man\check{g}it$ '(a tribe name)', $/\check{g}/ + /n/da\check{g}niq$ 'scattered', $/n/ + /\check{g}/an\check{g}al$ 'sickle ').

(iii) In all Afghan Turkmen dialects $/\breve{g}$ / occurs in the onset of back-vowel words and syllables: $\breve{g}ar\breve{g}a$ 'crow', $\breve{g}i\breve{c}$ 'bottom', $\breve{g}oy$ - 'to leave', $\breve{g}uzi$ 'lamb'. Some Teke and Yomut speakers from Herat – most probably under influence of the local Persian dialect – do not (or not generally) realize initial $/\breve{g}$ / but devoiced /q/ instead:

- ğo:rya:n < wılıswa:lı: qo:rya:nda bir o:ba ba:r qalayıba:ba diyilya:, o yerde türkmenleriŋ köpisi ya:šaya: . (Te. 2)
 <p>In the district of Ğo:rya:n there is a settlement called Qalayıba:ba, most of the Turkmens live there.
- **ğa:zı** < jaha:d da uršan a:dama **qa:zı** diyya:lar. (Te.18) Those men who fight in holy war are called *ğa:zı*.

This phenomenon does not occur with the Teke of Barmazid (Balx province), but seems to be confined to the Herat region.

(iv) In lexemes copied from Persian / Arabic, /ğ/ can occur in all positions in educated and careful speech. Example: *ğalmağal* 'noise', *ba:ğ* 'fruit garden', *nağma* 'melody', *tı:ğ* 'spear'.

(v) In the Teke and Yomut dialects, original *ayn* of Arabic lexemes – which is realized as a glottal stop or results in the lengthening of surrounding vowels in Persian – is in some cases realized as [ğ]. There is reason to assume that this development dates back to the pre-*muhājir* era and has taken place back in early Soviet Turkestan under the influence of Tatar intellectuals. Examples: Te. *sa:ğat* 'hour' < tat. *sağat* << arab. *sā 'at*; Te. *tağlı:m* 'teaching ' < arab. *ta 'līm; ta:ğat* 'observance' > arab. *tā 'at; sunğat* 'art' < arab. *san 'at*.

I. The voiceless glottal fricative /h/

(a) /h/ in initial position

In the initial position of native lexemes the voiceless glottal fricative /h/ is unevenly distributed in the dialects, with a higher frequency in the Teke dialect than in all others.

(i) The interrogative adjectives / pronouns derived from Old Turkic *qa*- have *h*- in the onset, where the Ärsa:r1 and ND dialects have *q*- : Te. *hays1* 'which one?' (Clauson 1972:592 kačan), *hačan* 'when?' (DTS 400 *qačan*) etc. vs. Är. and ND *qays1*, *qačan* etc.

(ii) In some single native lexemes which have initial q in Old Turkic, the Afghan Turkmen dialects have either h- or x-; the Teke dialect mostly has h- while the Ärsa:r1 and ND dialects have x-: OT qan 'lord' (DTS 417) ~ Te. han, Är. xan. (compare Clauson 1972:611 xa:ğan).

(iii) In some single native lexemes which have initial vowel, the Ärsarı dialect has initial *h*-, while Teke doesn't. These are for example Är. *hö:l* vs. Te. Yo. *ö:l* 'moist' (compare Khalaj *hōl* in Doerfer&Tezcan 1980; OT *öl* DTS 383, Clauson 1972:124 *ö:l*); Te. *hamraq* 'dear' vs. Är. *amraq* (compare OT *amraq* DTS 42; Clauson 1972:163 *amraq*).

(iv) In copied lexemes initial [h] often results from the weakening of /x/ > [h]. This phenomenon occurs particularly frequently in the *xāliṣ* dialects: *halı:l* 'Halı:l (n.pr.)' < arab. *xalīl; hara:p* 'destroyed' < pers. *xarāb; ha:lıs* 'genuine' < pers. *xāliṣ*. However, the original /x/ may also be realized as [x], probably depending on the degree of the speaker's familiarity with the Persian original: *ha:s* ~ *xa:s* 'specific' < pers. *xāṣṣ; nä:hi:li düye* 'what kind of a camel' ~ *šu xı:lı tapmadıq* 'we didn't find this kind' < pers. *xīl*.

(v) [h] in copied lexemes can also be the result of the weakening of a secondary [x], which in its turn is the rendering of an original /q/ : *hatar bolip duran düyeler* 'the camels standing in row' (År.) < pers. *qatār*. This phenomenon /q/ > [x] >> [h] occurs more frequently in the Teke dialect than in all others: Te. *dayha:nčiliq* and *dayxa:nčiliq* vs. all others *dayxa:nčiliq* 'farming' < pers. *dehqān* 'farmer'.¹³¹

(b) /h/ in consonant clusters

³⁵.Dihkhuda 1385:1390.

(i) *h* in the coda of a syllable which is followed by a syllable with a liquid or nasal in the onset is often reduced; this results in a lengthening of the first syllable vowel. Examples: $z\ddot{o}hre > z\ddot{o}:re$ 'Z $\ddot{o}:re$ (n.pr.f.)', $\ddot{s}\ddot{o}hl\ddot{a}t > \ddot{s}\ddot{o}:l\ddot{a}t$ '(a kind of Turkmen sausage)', $t\ddot{o}hmet > t\ddot{o}:met$ 'slander'.

In singular cases, *h* in syllable-final position followed by a derivative suffix with a consonant in the onset has been observed as being either assimilated, or deleted altogether: $\text{Ar. } xalla- \sim$ Te. xala- 'to wish' < $xahla- \ll$ pers. $*xw\bar{a}h-$; $p\ddot{a}:lwa:n$ 'wrestler, strong man' < $pehlewa:n \ll$ pers. $pers. pahlaw\bar{a}n$; $s\ddot{a}:w$ 'mistake' << pers. sahw.

(c) /h/ in final position

Final /h/ in copied lexemes is frequently reduced. Examples: *ısla: bolan* 'repaired' < pers. *islāh, sala:* 'weapons' < pers. *salāh; barga:* 'residence' < pers. *bārgāh*.

4.5.5 Affricates

A. The palatal / postalveolar affricate /j/

The postalveolar affricate /j/ in the Afghan Turkmen dialects occurs in all positions.

(a) /j/ in initial position

Initial /j/ occurs in many copied lexemes (*jeza:* 'punishment', *jeŋŋel* 'shrubs', *jema:at* 'prayer community', *jennet* 'paradise', *ja:y* 'spot', *ja:du* 'witch', *jın* 'djin' etc.). In native lexemes, on the other hand, initial /j/ is very rare – my materials contain only a few lexemes (*jeren* 'gazelle', *jurru* 'body of a new-born karakul lamb', *jur*- Te. 'to flee').

(b) /j/ in intervocalic position

(i) In derivals of long-vowel nominal stems with $|\check{c}|$ in the coda, and if morphological suffixes with initial vowel are agglutinated to these, $|\check{c}|$ is regularly voiced and rendered as [j]; this does not happen with short-vowel stems. Examples: $a:\check{c}$ 'hungry' > a:ji- 'grow hungry'; $u:\check{c}$ 'tip' + 3PPOSS > u:ji, $g\ddot{u}:\check{c}$ 'power'+ 3PPOSS > $g\ddot{u}:ji$.

(c) /j/ in consonant clusters

(i) In consonant clusters /j/ occurs only as second element following a nasal or liquid; most often these clusters are at syllable boundaries of dissylabic nominal or verbal stems. Examples: *bürünj* (Är.) 'rice'; *künji* (Är.) 'sesame', *damja* XD 'drop', ğarjı:- (Är.) 'to mix', *aljıra*- (Te.) 'to rush up', *ğorjan*- XD 'to vary'.

(ii) In the *xālis* dialects, the ordinal suffix is regularly realized as *-InjI* (*bā:šinji* 'fifth', *yigriminji* 'twentieth' etc.). In the *nāxālis* dialects, voiceless *-InčI* can occur in variation with *-InjI*. Example: *bešinči* ~ *bešinji* 'fifth', *ikinči* 'second', *yigriminči* 'twentieth' etc.).

(iii) In copied lexemes /j/ can occur in consonant clusters of many kinds. However, in word-final position and when clustered with voiceless consonants there is a tendency towards

devoicing into [č]. Examples: $xarj \sim x\ddot{a}r\check{c}$ 'expenses' < pers. xarj; $x\ddot{a}r\check{c}l\ddot{a}$ - 'to spend' < pers. xarj; $falj \sim fala\check{c}$ 'paralytic' < arab. falj; $k\ddot{u}nj \sim k\ddot{u}n\check{c}$ 'corner' < pers. kunj.

(d) /j/ in final position

In native lexemes /j/ occurs only unfrequently in the final position. In the XD there are only singular lexemes with a *j* in the coda: *ğašawj* 'a handful', *ja:j* 'scot'.

Copied lexemes actually often have devoiced [č] rather than [j] in the final position even in the original; these two variants are copied into the Turkmen dialects: $kej \sim keč$ 'slant' < pers. $kaj \sim [kač]$; $ta:j \sim ta:\check{c}$ 'crown' < pers. $t\bar{a}j \sim [t\bar{a}\check{c}]$.

B. The voiceless palatal affricate /č/

The palatal voiceless affricate /č/ in the Afghan Turkmen dialects occurs in all positions.

(a) /č/ in intervocalic position:

(i) Intervocalic /č/ which is the result of agglutination of a vocalic suffix to a monosyllabic nominal stem with \check{c} in the coda, is preserved if the stem vowel is short: $sa\check{c} + 1.PSGPOSS > sa\check{c}im$ 'my hair'; $g\ddot{o}\check{c} > g\ddot{o}\check{c}im$ 'my household'; $bur\check{c} + 3.PPOSS > bur\check{c}i$ 'his corner', $\ddot{u}\check{c} > \ddot{u}\check{c}i$ 'three of them'.

(ii) If on the conditions of (i), however, the stem vowel is long, \check{c} becomes voiced [j] : $a:\check{c} + 3$. PPOSS > a:ji 'the hungry one of them'; $u:\check{c} > u:ji$ 'its apex'; $\ddot{o}:\check{c} + 1$. PSGPOSS > $\ddot{o}:jim$ 'my revenge'; $g\ddot{u}:\check{c} > g\ddot{u}:jim$ 'my strength'; $g:\check{c}$ 'late' > g:jik- 'to come late'.

(iii) Voicing also occurs if the agglutinated suffix following a long-vocalic stem has a liquid /r/ or /l/ in the onset: $a:\check{c} + \text{COMP} > a:jra:q$ 'somehow hungry'; $gi:\check{c} > gi:jr\ddot{a}:k$ 'later'; $a:\check{c} + \text{PL} > a:jlar$ 'the hungry ones'.

(b) $/\check{c}/$ in consonant clusters

Final $/\check{c}/$ of native stems can undergo dissimilation into [\check{s}] if followed by a suffix with a plosive /d/ or /t/ in the onset. This reduction phenomenon occurs mainly in the Ärsa:r1 dialect.

- yaŋı ča:rbölekden gešdik. (Är. 3)
 We have just passed (the town of) Ča:rbölek.
- bu tilpu:n elimnen **ğašdı**. (Är. 16) This telephon had fallen from my hand.

(c) Secondary [\check{c}] can in the Teke dialect occur as a result of dissimilation in syllables that originally have a / \check{s} / in the onset and in the coda position:

• šaš- > čašıp anırqı köčeden gelip dirın. (Te. 14) I have erroneously come here via the next street.

C. The voiced velar affricate [ġ]

(a) In the Teke and Ärsa:ri dialects, voiced velar affricate $[\dot{g}]$ is an allophone of /g/ which occurs in the following positions:

(i) In many native lexemes with an original /g/ in the coda position, this final consonant is occasionally realized as [ġ]. Examples: XD *beġ* 'lord', XD *bezeġ* 'embellishment', XD *iġle-* ' to atrophy', Är. ö*ġi:-* 'to puke'.

(ii) In consonant clusters of sonorant (mostly liquid /r/ and /l/, or alveolar fricative /z/) + /g/ or vice versa, /g/ is generally realized as $[\dot{g}]$. Examples: *berģi* 'debt', *i:ldirģič* 'peg', *eģlen-* 'to tarry', *süzģič* 'strainer'.

E. The voiceless glottal fricative /x/

(a) Occurrence of /x/

(i) In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the voiceless glottal fricative /x/ occurs in all positions. However, it occurs in only a few native stems and can there be in allophonic variation with /q/ or /g/ at that. In the case of variation, it is the Ärsa:r1 dialect which mostly realizes [x], while the Teke dialect prefers [g] or [q].

- gi:je **u:xlama:n** erti:reče motar haydadı. (Är. 16) Without sleeping (last) night, he drove the car until the early morning.
- ağšam yağšı **u:qladıŋızmı**? (Te. 19) Did you sleep well last night?
- haji xalmuxammedin yigrim bä:š axtığı ba:rmiš. (Är. 5) Haji Xalmuxammed is said to have twenty-five grandchildren.
- xuda:ya šükür iki **ağdığım** ba:r meniŋ. (Te. 10) Thank God, I have two grandchildren.

(ii) In some copied lexemes secondary [x] can in the XD replace original /h/ or /q/; both of these, however, are in careful and educated speech preserved in their original pronunciation. Examples: $rahma:n \sim raxma:n$ 'merciful; n.pr.m.' < pers. $rahm\bar{a}n$; $ahmed \sim axmed$ '(n.pr.m.)' < pers. ahmad; $farq \sim parx$ 'difference' < pers. farq; di:xa:n 'farmer' (Är. 3) < pers. $dehq\bar{a}n$.

(iii) In the Teke dialect, /x/ – whether original or secondary – is often realized as a voiced uvular fricative [ğ]. In monosyllabic copied lexemes which in the coda have a consonant cluster containing [ğ], the cluster can be opened through insertion of [1]. Examples: pers. *daraxt* > Te. *darağt* 'tree'; pers. *taxt* > Te. *tağıt* 'throne'; pers. *waqt* >> *waxt* > Te. *wağıt* ~ *wağit* 'time'; pers. *paxta* > Te. *pağta* 'cotton'.

- gadı:m **wağıtlarda** da:ğıŋ depesinde bir qala: ba:r eken. (Te. 3) In ancient times there was a fortress on top of the mountain.
- gadı:m wağitlardan bä:ri (Te. 13)

(iv) In copied lexemes there is generally no clear differentiation between [x] and [h], which can both be the rendering of either original /x/ or /h/. The weakening of initial /x/ into [h] appears to be a regular phenomenon in the XD dialects: *ha:s* 'specific' < pers. *xāṣṣ; hal:l* 'n.pr.m.' < pers. *xalīl; hara:p* 'destroyed' < pers. *xarāb; ha:lıs* 'genuine' < pers. *xāliṣ.* In other positions both realizations are possible: $[x] \sim [h]$. Examples: *maslaxat etyä:rler* (Te. 6) 'they give advice' ~ *maslahat* (Är.) < pers. *maşlaḥat*.

4.6. Phonological difference among the dialects

The Afghan Turkmen dialects do not depict difference of the phonemic inventory, but some phonemes significantly differ in occurrence. There is also difference – in some cases plain, in others ambiguous or blurred – in the effects of phonological processes. Many details are rendered in the discussion of the respective phonemes and also in the morphology chapter; here I will only discuss a few features of general relevance which are crucial for delineating the basic characteristics of the respective dialects.

(a) Initial *y and *h in native stems

The Afghan Turkmen dialects depict significant difference in the existence/non-existence and concretization of initial *y and *h in native stems. Due to the practicalities of my field research, I have not been able to collect full paradigms for all dialects. For the sake of documentation I have made up my mind to put down the following deficient observations all the same.

(i) The initial *y, whose existence is today accepted by most Turkologists¹³², is in some Afghan Turkmen dialects preserved while in others it is deleted. The *nāxālis* dialects depict a marked tendency towards deletion, although the picture is not totally regular.

Clauson	Är.	Te.	Sa.	Yo.	Mu.	Xat.	Qar.	Gloss
yigde ¹³³	yiġde				jide	jide	yiġde	oleaster
yigit ¹³⁴	yiġit	yiġit	yiġit	yiġit	igit	igit	yigit	young
								man
yinčkä ¹³⁵	ni:čge	i:nče	i:nče	i:nče	inčge	inčge	ni:čge	delicate,
								thin
yip ¹³⁶	yip	yüp	yüp	yüp	ip	ip	üp ¹³⁷	string
yipek	yipek	yipek	yipek	yipek	ipek	ipek	üpek	silk
yiplik ¹³⁸	yiplik	yiplik	yiplik	yiplik	iplik	iplik	üplik	thread
yıla:n ¹³⁹	yıla:n	yıla:n	yıla:n	yıla:n	ıla:n	ıla:n	yıla:n	snake
yıldam	yıldam	yıldam	yıldam	yıldam	ıldam	ıldam	yıldam	fast
yit- ¹⁴⁰	yit-	yit-	yit-	yit-	it-	it-	yit-	to get lost

¹³² For a detailed discussion of the debate, cf. Johanson 1998: 96ff.

¹³³ DTS 260 *yigdä*.

¹³⁴ Clauson 1972: 911.

¹³⁵ DTS 261 *yinčkä*, Clauson 1972:945 *yinčge*.

¹³⁶ DTS 267 yip 'thread'; Clauson 1972:870 yip'thread'.

¹³⁷ While *yip* is the general variant in the Ärsa:rı dialect, the people of the Qarqın subtribe have *üp*.

¹³⁸ Clauson 1972:870.

¹³⁹ Clauson 1972:830.

¹⁴⁰ Clauson 1972:885.

ye-	i:-	i:-	i:-	i:-	ye-	ye-	i:-	to eat
yem ¹⁴¹	i:mit	i:m	i:m	i:m	yim	yim	i:m	fodder
yemiš ¹⁴²	i:miš	i:miš	i:miš	i:miš	yimiš	yimiš	i:miš	dry fruit
i:k ¹⁴³	i:g				ik	ik	i:k	spindle
yilig~ ilik ¹⁴⁴	yilik	yilik	yilik	yilik	ilik	ilik	yilik	marrow
erin ¹⁴⁵	erin	erin	erin	erin	yerin	yerin	erin	Corner of the lips
iriŋ ¹⁴⁶	iriŋ	iriŋ	iriŋ	iriŋ	yiriŋ	yiriŋ	iriŋ	purulence

(ii) Initial /h/ : My material does not contribute significantly to the ongoing debate about the initial *h in Turkic. The Afghan Turkmen dialects depict a complex situation: In some cases, all dialects have initial /h/; is is the case of hi:n 'den', where initial [h] is not confirmed by Clauson (1972:166 *i:n*) or DTS (209 *in*); however, TRS 698 has *xi:n* and Sevortyan (1974:352) refers to hi:n.

- *sıčan hı:nına gi:ren ya:nı* (Är. 14) as if a mouse went into its hole
- *sıčanıŋ hini ya:lı görinyä:r* (Te. 16) it looks like the hole of a mouse

In other cases the dialects disagree: Te. and Yo. have *hamraq* 'dear' vs. Är. *amraq* (compare OT *amraq* DTS 42; but TRS *xamrak*, Clauson 1972:163 amraq); Te. and Yo. have *ö:l* vs. Är. *hö:l* 'moist' (compare Khalaj *hōl* in Doerfer&Tezcan 1980, OT *öl* DTS 383, Clauson 1972:124 *ö:l*).

(b) Voiced versus voiceless plosives in the onset of native stems

(i) Initial /b/- that relates to OT *b*- is in some lexemes represented in the Teke dialect while in the Ärsa:rı dialect it is represented as /p/- : Te. $bičaq \sim Är. pičaq$, ND $biča:\check{g}$ 'knife' (compare DTS 98 bičaq); Te. $bi:ni \sim Är. pi:ni$, ND pini 'brain'. For some more details of the /b/-/p/ opposition cf. the paragraph on the phoneme /b/.

(ii) With regard to initial /d/- versus /t/-, the Afghan Turkmen dialects render an ambiguous picture: There are lexemes in whose realization of the initial consonant as voiceless there is no difference among the dialects: *tozan* (Te. Yo. Yem.) ~ *tozaŋ* (Är. Sa.), *tuza:n* (ND). There are lexemes where all dialects have initial /d/-. In again other cases, the dialects fall into groups that have voiced /d/-, and others that have voiceless /t/. As a general rule, the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects are mostly with the /t/- group while Teke is mostly with the /d/-group; there are, however, singular examples to the contrary effect as well. The Ärsa:r1 dialect is most ambiguous of all.

Initial /d/- in native stems is a feature more typical of the Teke and Yomut dialects, while the Ärsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Muqrı, Xatap, Bayat, Surxı and Xojambāz dialects mostly have voiceless /t/-

¹⁴¹ DTS 255 yem.

¹⁴² DTS 255f. yemiš 'fruit'.

¹⁴³ Clauson 1972:99; DTS 203 ig ~ 260 yig ~ 261 yik.

¹⁴⁴ DTS 208 *ilik* ~ 261 *yilig*.

¹⁴⁵ Clauson 1972:232; DTS 258 yerin-~178 erin.

¹⁴⁶ Clauson 1972:233; DTS 263 *yiriŋ* ~ 212 *iriŋ*.

in the respective stems. The *nāxālis* dialects mostly have /t/- even in such lexemes which have /d/- in the Ärsa:ri and Sa:riq dialects: ND *tariq* 'millet', *tešik* 'hole', *tiš* 'tooth', *tüš* 'dream', *tep*- 'to kick' versus Ärsa:ri and all other *xālis* dialects *dari*, *dešik*, *diš*, *dü:š*, *dep*-.

Ärsa:rı	Teke	Yomut	Sa:rıq	ND	Gloss
tö:rt	dö:rt	dö:rt	tö:rt	turt	four
toqqız	doquz	doquz	toquz	tuqqız	nine
toğsan	doğsan	doğsan	toğsan	tuqsan	ninety
di:š	di:š	di:š	di:š	tiš	tooth
dü:š	dü:š	dü:š	dü:š	tüš	dream
dešik	dešik	dešik	dešik	tišik	hole
darı	darı	darı	darı	tarıq	millet
da:r	da:r	da:r	da:r	ta:r	dark
dep-	dep-	dep-	dep-	tep-	to kick
dil	dil	til	dil	til	language
da:ğ	da:ğ	da:ğ	da:ğ	ta:ğ	mountain
tart-	dart-	dart-	dart-	tart-	to pull
tik-	dik-	dik-	dik-	tik-	to sew

(iii) The /k/- vs. /g/- opposition also shows an ambiguous picture: While the dialects agree in most of the cases – with initial voiced /g/ occurring much more frequently than voiceless /k/ –, there are singular cases of variation, like $\ddot{A}r$. voiced *giši* vs. Te. and Mu. voiceless *kiši* 'person'; but variation to the opposite effect as well: $\ddot{A}r$. voiceless *küčük* vs. Te. voiced *güjük* 'puppy'.

(c) Voiced versus voiceless plosives in the onset of suffixes

My material contains only one example of this type of dialectal divergence, so that it is impossible to deduce general observations. However, for the sake of documentation I quote the example here:

- o pille men oyın**jaq** oyna:p yören oğlantım. (Är. 5) At that time I was a child who played (with) toys.
- šo:ra: diyip enjimen diyip bı za:tlara:m oyın**čaq** etdiler kä: bir a:damlar. (Te. 4) Some people said council, union – (but) they made these things (into) toys.

(d) /q versus /h in the onset of interrogatives

The *nāxāliş* dialects seem to have *q*-variants of the interrogative adjectives and pronouns: *qani* 'where' (Ba. 3, Xa. 1, Mu. 4). The Teke dialect, according to my materials, has only *h*-variants: *haysi* 'which' (Te. 13); *hačanda* 'whenever' (Te. 6) etc. The Ärsa:ri dialect has *hani* 'where' (Är.), but at the same time *qaysi* 'which' (Är. 7), *qačan* 'when' (Är. 9).

Ärsa:rı	Teke	Sa:rıq	ND dialects	Gloss
hanı	hanı	hanı	qanı	where
qačan ~ hačan	hačan	hačan	qača:n	when
qaysı ~ haysı	haysı	haysı	qaysı	which

(e) Geminates versus non-geminates, gemination versus geminates reduction

The Afghan Turkmen dialects have lexicalized geminates which may be considered the product of historical gemination, and they know the phonological process of actual gemination. The dialects differ in both of them.

(i) The Ärsa:ri dialect is rich in lexicalized geminates in lexemes whose correlates in the Teke dialect (in accordance with OT) has non-geminate consonant instead. Some of these correlate pairs differ in more than one significant marker, which points quite clearly to the fact that the Ärsa:ri dialect shares more Qarluq features where the Teke dialect has Oğuz ones.

Ärsa:rı	Teke	Yomut	Sa:rıq	Muqrı	ОТ	Gloss
yassı	yası	yası	yası	yassı	yası (DTS 245)	flat
ašš1q	ašıq	ašıq	ašıq	ašš1q	ašuq (DTS 64)	knuckle
						bone
<u></u> gıšša	<u></u> gıša	<u></u> gıša	<u></u> gıšša	qıšša		reed
sekkiz ~	sekiz	sekiz	sekgiz	sekkiz	sekiz (DTS	eight
sekgiz					494)	
ğurbaqqa	gurbaqa ∼	<u></u> gurbaqa	<u></u> gurbaqa	qurbaqqa	baqa (DTS 82)	toad
	<u></u> gurbağa	~				
		<u></u> gurbağa				
yetti ~	yedi	yedi	yedi	yetti	yeti (DTS 295)	seven
yetdi						
toqquz ~	doquz	doquz	doquz	toqquz	toquz (DTS	nine
toq <u></u> guz					578)	

In a few lexemes with a more complex phonological history, regardless of the complex background, the Ärsa:ri dialect's preference of geminates as opposed to preference of non-geminates on the part of the Teke dialect is discernible:

Ärsa:rı	Teke	ОТ	Gloss
iyye	iye	idi ~ iδi (DTS 203)	owner
iyyer	iyer	edär ~ eδär (DTS 162, 164)	saddle
düyye	düye	devä ~ tevä ~ tevi (DTS 160)	camel

Yet another analogous example might be the geminate in singular Ärsa:r1 comparatives, as opposed to non-geminate correlates in the Teke dialect; possibly, from a shared precedent of lexeme + *ira:q 'further, more...' the two dialects have taken different paths of development, with Är. preferring vowel preservation + consonant gemination, but Te., vowel reduction and non-gemination: Är. *köpirrä:k* ~ Te. *köprä:k* 'more'.

- ulkä:miziŋ **köpirrä:k** nupu:sini d1:xanlar we čarwačılar ğuršayo:r. (Är. 3) Farmers and cattlebreeders make up most (lit. more) population of our country.
- bağıšla:ŋ men **köprä:k** kepleyä:rn. (Te. 18) Excuse (me), I talk more (than would be polite).

(ii) Gemination as a spontaneous process is, as opposed to the occurrence of ready geminates, rather unfrequent in native lexemes; where it occurs, it reflects again the Ärsa:r1 (and to a

certain extent, Sa:rıq also) preference of geminates versus Teke, of non-geminates: Är. *čizziq* ~ Te. *čizıq* 'stripe, crack; striped'.

Some examples from my material – native as well as copied lexemes – suggest that this type of gemination comes with semantic emphasis and stress (comparable to gemination in prefixes of emphasis like *appaq* 'lily white').¹⁴⁷

- ağšam **huwwa:** su:q eken. (Är. 22) Last nigh the weather was cold.
- bu gün **huwa** sawuq dä:l. (Te. 3) The weather is not cold to day.
- Ačılba:ıŋ atası-babasa:m uðði:n a:dam eken. (Är. 12) Ačılba:y's father and grandfather were also *tall* men.
- menin ata:m uði:n boyli a:dam-di. (Te. 19)
 My father was a tall man.
- ol saqarlar **ollaqan** o:ba ä:rsa:ri o:ba-da. (Sa. 1) This Saqarlar is a *huge* village, (and) an Ärsa:ri village (at that).
- šu **olaqan** ha:li:n-a:m gellejeŋiz gi:je gündi:z gi:zi bile yatma:n doqadi. (Yo. 1) Your sister-in-law has woven this big carpet together with her daughter, not sleeping night or day.
- ba:lığı tä:ze ya:ğa ğu:rsaŋ **ma**ðð**a:lija** bolyo:r (Är. 23) if you grill the fish in oil it become tasty.
- yo:lda **maða:lija** nahar tapmaya:sıŋıð. (Te. 11) You can not find better food along the way.

(iii) Interestingly, the Teke dialect's "aversion" of geminates manifests itself in (etymologically speaking) hypercorrect de-gemination, which can be observed in native as well as copied lexemes. The Ärsa:ri dialect in these examples preserves the original geminates: Är. *sallančaq* ~ Te. *salančaq* 'swing', Är. *sülle* 'rice ' Te. *süle*. For examples of de-geminated copied lexemes, see table below.

(iv) The preference of geminates/gemination and non-geminates/reduction manifests itself also in copied lexemes. The underlying phonological processes which lead, in result, to the occurrence of geminate or singular consonants, may be different as the table below demonstrates, but the overall picture remains the same: The Ärsa:r1 dialect prefers geminates (sometimes combined with lengthening of the adjacent vowel) while Teke favors nongeminates. Examples:

Ärsa:rı	Teke		Gloss
melle	mele	< pers. malla	golden yellow
owwal	owal	< pers. awwal	first
kürre	küre	< kurra	donkey foal
baqqa:1	baqa:l	< pers. baqqāl	grocer
jorra:p	jorap	< pers. jūrāb <<	stocking

¹⁴⁷ Some of the examples Yakup renders in 2.3.5(a), especially [tazza] 'really' and [yuğğan] 'big' (Yakup 2005:79) also suggest this interpretation, although the author does not say so but keeps to a strictly phonological description of the phenomenon.

		arab. jawrab	
mekkä:m	mä:käm	< pers. mahkam	tight
xalla-	xala-	< pers. xwāh-	to wish
tešše	teše	< pers. tīša (?)	hatchet

(e) Final consonant versus Ø

The Afghan Turkmen dialects share many phonological features, but they also differ quite significantly in some. What today by the speakers is understood as phonological difference, in fact often relates back to difference in the historical morphology of the dialects. Since my study is a synchronic rather than diachronic one, I treat truly phonologic and allophonic phenomena as well as – etymologically speaking – morphological ones together here in this paragraph with only occasional reference to historical developments.

(i) In some lexemes the dialects differ in the representation of final OT -ğ/-g. While the ND dialects depict an inclination towards representation as /q/, the XD dialects favor the deletion of the final consonant: ND yamaq ~ XD yama 'patch' (DTS 231 yamağ); ND issiq ~ XD issi 'hot' (DTS 213/220 isig~isig~isig); ND tariq ~ XD dari 'millet' (compare DTS 537 tariğ 'grain, bread'), ND tirik ~ XD di:ri 'alive' (Clauson 1972:848 tiriġ), ND sarıq ~ XD sa:ri 'yellow' (Clauson 1972:848 sarı/sarığ).

(ii) In lexemes that have the lexicalized directive suffix *-rI*, in the Teke, Yomut and Sa:riq dialects the suffix can be repleted with an additional *-Q* and the lengthening of the final vowel, which is missing in the other dialects (and according to my materials can be missing in the speech of Teke and others, too): $dašari \sim$ Te. Yo. Sa. dašari:q 'outside, in the open'; $b\ddot{a}:ri \sim$ Te.Yo.Sa. $b\ddot{a}:ri:k$ 'here, closer to ego; POSTPOS since',¹⁴⁸ anri \sim Te. Yo. Sa. anri:q 'beyond'¹⁴⁹; yoqari (Te. Sa.) \sim yoqari:q (Te.).¹⁵⁰

- men bir hepdeden **aŋrı:q** ašğaba:d barıp gelišim gerek. (Te. 5) After one week I have to go to Ašğaba:d.
- derya:dan **aŋrı**da-da yerimiz bar. (Är.7) On the other side of the river, we also have lands.
- men bilenimnen **bä:rı** andxoyda küčük oruš bolyo:r. (Är. 10) Ever since I know, in Andxoy there are dogfights.
- **bä:ri:k** geleno:qdilar. (Sa. 4) They have not come here.
- iki yıldan **bä:ri** su: yetišen yo:q. (Är. 12) Since two years no water has reached (our place).
- ğadı:m wağitlardan **bä:ri:k** türkmenler göčip-ğonıp yören soŋ. (Te. 13) Since olden times the Turkmens have been leading a mobile life, after all.
- mektebi ğotarannan soŋ **yoqarı** oqu:lara **bä:ri:k** ornašasi geleno:q-dilar. (Sa. 4) After having completed primary school, they did not settle here for higher education.
- yoqarı: geliŋ, yoqarı:q gečiŋ! (Te. 4) Come up, come upstairs!

¹⁴⁸ TRS 124 differentiates by interpreting $b\ddot{a}:ri:k$ as the essential nomen loci and $b\ddot{a}:ri$ primarily as postposition and only in a secondary meaning, as nomen loci; in the Afghan context this differentiation does not exist.

¹⁴⁹ TRS 46 renders *aŋrı:q* as a secondary variant of *aŋrı* without indicating dialect specificities.

¹⁵⁰ TRS 313 renders *yoqarı:q* as a secondary variant without indication of dialectal or other difference.

(iii) Final /q/ in singular lexemes like $ya:naq^{151}$ 'like' and šo $ta:q^{152}$ 'there' (in variation with ya:na and šo tayi) also appears in the Ärsa:ri and Teke dialects, while it is missing in ND.

- hilmende bir segsen üyli **ya:naq** türkmen bir waxtda maha:jir bolip baran. (Är. 1) Some 80 households of Turkmens have once upon an time moved to Hilmand.
- ata-ba:balammız birinjiden du:leda:ba:d gelip, birki yıl otırıp, soŋ šo ta:qdan šaxa göčip barıpdırlar. (Te.1)
 Our grandfathers, first settled in Dawlatābād, they lived there for 2-3 years and then migrated to Šāx.
- owwal čöle barars, soŋ **šo tayı** barıp tesmi:m alars. (Är.12) First, we have to go the countryside, then, we will decide (what to do next).

(iv) Final -(1)t versus Ø

Final -(*I*)*t* is in the Ärsa:r1 dialect realized in singular lexemes which do not have this element in the other dialects: Är. *görgit* ~ Te. *görgi* 'nuisance, trouble' (Clauson 1972:742 *görgi*; TRS 201 *görgi*); Är. *i:mit* ~ Te. *i:m* 'fodder' (Clauson ; TRS 348 *i:m*, *i:mit*¹⁵³).

- bi nä: **görgit** boldi! hi:č waxt minya:ni ği:nanıp görmä:ntim. (Är. 6) What a nuisance! I have never been troubling so hard.
- bu gün ča:ğa bilen **görgi:mi** gördim. (Te. 12) Today I have had full trouble with the baby.
- ineklermize günde iki -üč gezek **i:m** berya:rs. (Te. 4) We feed our cows 2-3 times a day.
- oğlaqčı atlariŋ **i:mitini** yağšı bermeli. (Är.26) We have to give our buzkashi horses their fodder in a perfect manner.

(v) Final -(I)n versus Ø

Some adverbs which denote a point in time have in the $\ddot{A}rsa:r1$ and ND dialects final (*I*)*n*, which is not realized in the other dialects; however, the n-less variants coexist in the $\ddot{A}rsa:r1$ dialect as well.

- erte **ši pillen** men inša:alla kä:bilde bolarin. (Är. 10) Tomorrow the same time as now I will hopefully be in Kabul.
- šu **pille** elim boš dä:l. (Är. 5) Right now I am not free.
- ba:zara **üylä:n** giders. (Är. 12) In the afternoon we'll go to the bazaar.
- širkete **üyle** bararsmi? (Te. 6) Are we going to the office in the afternoon?
- mä:lim sa:yipni **erteŋ** kuremiz. (Mu. 3) We'll see the teacher tomorrrow.
- čöle erte gitseg-em bolar. (Te. 8) We can go to the countryside tomorrow.

¹⁵¹ Missing in TRS.

¹⁵² TRS 612 renders ta:y 'side' but has no ta:q.

¹⁵³ TRS interprets *i:m* as 'fodder', but *i:mit* as 'food, dish'; this differentiation in meaning does not exist in the Afghan Turkmen dialects.

(f) The representation of *-oğ* and **-ög*

(i) In the lexemes 'child, youngster' and 'kid', the Afghan Turkmen dialects differ in the representation of syllable-final $-o\check{g}$. The Ärsa:rı dialect keeps to $[o\check{g}]$ while the Teke dialect has unrounding of the vowel and fronting-cum-labialization of the consonant, the process resulting in the realization of [aw].¹⁵⁴

- **oğlanlar-am** her qaysısı bir i:š bilen mesru:p (Är. 28) The children (i.e., my adolescent sons) are each one busy with a (different kind of) work.
- o:bada **awlanlar** köprä:k bi:kä:r, i:š tapılano:q (Te. 10) In the village, the youngsters are mostly (lit. more) unemployed, there is not work to be found.
- bi oğlıŋ geči:niŋ oğlağı ya:ni ča:r tarapa bökyo:r (Är. 4)
 This son of yours bounces into all (lit. four) directions like a goat's kid.
- bir semiz geči:ni iki **awlağı** bilen mubaylıŋ deregne berdi (Te. 20) He gave a fat goat along with her two kids in exchange for a mobile phone.

Interestingly, there exists a hypercorrect realization of the copied lexeme sawa:p < pers. sawab in line with this phenomenon, namely, [soğa:p] (Är. 19) 'religious merit'.

(ii) In the lexeme 'surroundings; whirlwind'¹⁵⁵, the dialects differ in the representation of *- $\ddot{o}g$, which is in the Teke dialect represented with an unrounded vowel and a fronted-cumlabialized consonant as [ew], and in the Ärsa:rı dialect with a raised vowel and fronted-cumlabialized consonant as [üw]. (According to my materials, the latter realization occurs with Teke speakers as well.)

- **tüwerey** gelip xırmanıŋ sa:manlarna:m ča:šırıp gitdi (Är. 34) A whirlwind came and scattered the straw of the stack.
- ma:ri **tewereginde** (Te. 3) in the surroundings of Marw
- ol emri:kä:niŋ **tüweleyi** qanča erbet eken xuda: saqlasın onnan. (Te. 3) How bad these whirlwinds of America are! May God save (everyone) from these.

(i) Opposition of /n/ and /n/ appears in the suffix IMPEREMPH2PERS, which is realized as - $sA\eta A \sim -sA\eta A$: in Är., but as $-sAnA \sim -sAnA$: in Te.

- eliŋdä:ki xalta:nı maŋa **berseŋä:**! (Är. 32) Could you give me the bag in your hand!
- ča:ğa:nı maŋa **bersene**! (Te. 5) Give me the baby!

The preference of $\ddot{A}r$. /ŋ/ against Te. /n/ is also represented in a few single lexemes such as $\ddot{A}r$. *tozaŋ* ~ Te. *tozaŋ* 'dust, duststorm'.

⁽g) $/\eta$ versus /n

¹⁵⁴ TRS has *oğlan* 'son' and *owlaq* 'kid', but neither **oğlaq* nor **awlan* or **awlaq*.

¹⁵⁵ Compare OT tegärä 'around (postpos.)', DTS 565.

(h) /ŋ/ versus /g/ğ/ , /k/q/ and /n/

(i) The opposition of $/\eta$ / and other phonemes renders an ambiguous picture. Whereas in some examples the Ärsa:ri dialect has $/\eta$ / while the Teke dialect has $/g/\check{g}/$, in others the opposite distribution prevails. My materials do not contain enough examples to establish a consistent rule.

- **derŋe-** misteri:niŋ aydan purzesını **derŋä:p** tapmadıq. (Te. 14) We searched for the spare parts which the mechanic told us (to bring along), but we didn't find them.
- **derge-** sizi bi:ri **dergä:p** gelipdir. (Är. 11) Someone has come and searched for you.
- **zıŋ-** bı a:dam su:či gido:r suwa **zıŋo:r** ö:zini, tapıp šol oğlanı tapo:r. (Sa.7) A man – a swimmer – was passing by, he threw himself in the water and found-, he brought that child to the surface (again).
- **zığ-** duwıŋ ustine **zığıp** bašını da:ğ ya:nı jesedinnen yolup alıpdırlar. (Är. 42) They jumped on the *dew* and snapped his head off his mountainlike body.
- **yıŋna-** toy etjek diyip köp pul **yıŋnamalı** boldıq. (Te. 16) Saying we want to make a wedding, we had to assemble a lot of money.
- yığna- mınča a:damı iki güniŋ ičinde yığnamaq aŋsa:t i:š dä:l-ti. (Är. 7) It was not an easy task to assemble so many people within two days.
- **egil-** ozal gi:rjek yerinde bir dešik bar onnan **egilip** gi:rmeli. (Te. 7) In the place where you first enter there is a hole, (you) must bend down and go through (that).
- **eŋil-** kelinler ya:nı **eŋilip** sala:m berdi. (Är. 8) He gave his greetings, bending like brides (do).

(ii) The opposition of $/\eta$ and /n is also a rare phenomenon in my materials: Te. *inpe* ~ Är. *inne* 'sewing needle'.

(j) Consonant assimilation

The Afghan Turkmen dialects significantly differ in matters of consonant assimilation. Generally speaking, the Teke dialect depicts the most obvious inclination towards progressive assimilation, while regressive assimilation is most typical of the Ärsa:r1 dialect. (Exceptions to this general rule, however, exist in both directions.) Details and examples are given above in 4.3.2.c.

5. Morphology

Morphological elements of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan are mostly suffixes; prefixes form only a very small part of the morphological inventory. Divergence between the dialects may not be as considerable in morphology as it is in phonology and lexicon, but the collected materials show that there is some divergence in morphology, too, which concerns the phonetic realization as well as the function of the affixes.

5.1 Nominal morphology

5.1.1 Nouns

A. Plural

Compared with other Turkic idioms, for example the neighboring Uzbek dialects of Afghanistan, in the Turkmen dialects plural markers are used rather liberally.

(a) Pluralisation with the suffix *-lAr*

(i) All Turkmen dialects have the plural suffix *–lAr*.

(ii) The suffix *-lAr* immediately follows the nominal basis and precedes all possessive and case suffixes. The only exception to this rule is the metaphorical pluralisation which actually denotes "a person and their household" (e.g. *ha:jikeri:mler* 'the family of Ha:jikeri:m'); in that case a potential possessive precedes the plural suffix:

• ši gelišime hä:zir enemlerden gelyo:n. (Är. 27) I am just coming from my mother's.

(iii) The plural suffix in the Turkmen dialects, along with the actual pluralisation, has several more semantic functions. It underlines quantity:

- möŋ**ler**če a:dam muza:hira etibdirler (Är. 43) thousand+PL of people demonstrated
- nä:če yıl**lar**dan bä:ri (Är. 36) since how many year+PL

It denotes internal differentiation:

- šolar ya:nı ğı:n yağdayda (Är. 7) in a difficult situation like this+PL
- etleri süŋŋi bilen ğoymalı eken (Te. 19) The meat+PL had to be served together with its bones.
- bašğa burinj**ler** (Är. 11) other (types of) rice+PL

It indicates the vague or approximate character of a denotate:

 darğanata:q taraplara barıpdırlar (Te. 19) They went into the direction+PL of Darğanata:q. • sa:at ikilerde ba:zardan ğaytdim. (Är. 19) I returned from the bazaar around two o'clock.

In the *nāxālis* dialects it is often used as an indicator of respect and politeness:

• her qaysıdan bir neti:je alar eken de bu kišiler. (Mu. 1) This person+PL draws a conclusion from each one of (the informations).

(iv) Temporal locatives which refer to bygone times are almost regularly pluralized:

- a:m:derya:ŋ boyı qadı:m zama:n**lar**da-da hi:č waxt 1:la:ts1z bolma:n dır. (Yo. 1) The banks of the Amūdaryā were in ancient times never without population.
- qadı:m waxtl**ar**da ğudalara öŋinde ğoyulyo:n etler-em belli eken. (Te. 19) In ancient times the meat+PL which was to be placed in front of the in-laws was (well) defined.

Phrases denoting habitual temporal locatives can generally be marked with either PL + LOC or with a simple plural suffix only:

- šo waxtlarda dewleta:ba:dda gi:jeler köp göreš bolartı. (Är. 6) In those times in Dewleta:ba:d at night+PL there used to be much wrestling.
- qadı:mlar ğıš ğatı-tı, köpı a:damlar messı giyyo:-tılar. (Är. 31)
 (In) ancient+PL (times) winter was severe, most people would wear gaiters.
- gant-šeker diyen za:tlar öŋ**ler** hä:zirki ya:lı onča köp-em dä:l eken. (Te. 3) The thing+PL called diabetes was before+PL not as much (widespread) as now.
- öŋler ğa:wunlar-am qand ya:nı širin-ti. (Är. 34) Before+PL, melon+PL was as sweet as candy.

(v) The plural suffix -lAr functions as a substitute for substantive heads of the participle construction; there is not obligatory connotation of plural in these examples:

 (*aydan sözi >) aydanları bilen ki:giŋ gö:šti onča širin bolan yo:ğ-eken. (Är. 33) According to what (people) say, stag meat is not so tasty.

(b) Pluralisation with the collective particle $da\eta \sim da\check{g}i$

(i) The particle $da\eta i$ (År.) ~ $da\check{g}i$ (Te.) can function like the suffix *-lAr* as described in a.ii above: When postposed to an anthroponym, a kinship nomer or the like, it denotes "person X and their household/family/kin":

- hajı resu:l dağı ho:l köčede yašaya:rlar. (Te. 3) The Hajı Resu:ls live in that street over there.
- enwer **daŋı** ağšam geldiler (Är. 10) Enwer and his family came (last) night.
- ata:m dağı sügün medi:nede-miš (Te. 14)
 My father and his company are probably in Medina today.

(ii) The particle $da\eta \sim da\check{g}i$ can also be used to form a generic term, which the plural suffix - lAr can also achieve in the Turkmen dialects, as the following example clearly shows:

• gi:z oğlan **daŋı** ulannan soŋ erkek oğlan**lar** bile oynamaz. (Är. 53) Girls do not play with boys after having grown up.

(c) Copied plural forms

The lexicon of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan contains a few lexicalized plural forms which are copied from Arabic and Persian, like *ulama*: 'the learned men', *ta:luba:n* 'Taliban' etc.:

• ma:mu:ri:n sa:t tö:rdeče i:šliyo:r. (Är. 22) State employees work until four o'clock.

Individuals who habitually use the Persian language (too), or who wish to display erudition and elevated style, may intersperse their speech with ad-hoc Persian plural suffixes. However, this is a rare phenomenon and remains limited to intellectuals, religious personnel and the like.

men motarlara yuklesen köp tunha: munnan, munha tuni ba:r bizin wetenmizde, süyle di:dim. (Är. 6)
 I said if you load many tons (of this product) on cars -, there are thousands of tons of that in our homeland, thus I said.

B. Possessive suffixes

Possessive suffixes immediately follow the nominal stem and derivative suffixes.

possessor person	noun stem -C	noun stem -V
1.SG	-Im (~ -im, -1m) (~ -Xm)	-m
2.SG	-Iŋ	-ŋ
POLSG	-IŋIz	-ŋIz
3.SG	-I (~ -i, -1) (~ -X)	-sI
1.PL	-ImIz (~ -mIz)	-mIz
2.PL/POLPL	-IŋIz	-ŋIz
3.PL	-I	-sI

Table 5-1: Possessive suffixes

(a) Morphonological effects

(i) The vowel of possessive suffixes 1.SG in general appears to be {I}, although deviation from the principle of twofold back/front harmony also occurs quite frequently, with {i} as well as {1} being applied in disharmonic position: $o g l m \sim o g l m$ (År.Ba.Mu.Xa.). On the other hand there is also a certain tendency towards {X}, whose labial rounding after rounded vowel stems is supported by the [m] element of the possessive suffix; rounded and unrounded suffix vowel variants coexist in my materials: $g \ddot{z} \ddot{z} \ddot{m}$ 'my eye' $\sim g \ddot{z} \dot{z} \ddot{z} m$ 'myself' $\sim \ddot{o} z \ddot{z} m$; $o g l m \sim o g l m \sim o g l m$ 'my son' (all År.); $g \ddot{u} \ddot{u} m$ 'my rose'; $do:num \sim do:num$ 'my cloak'; $du:zum \sim du:zum$ 'my salt'; gu:sum 'my chest' ($\leq gu:s$, compare Tü. $g \ddot{o} g \ddot{u} \ddot{s}$). – An

anologous phenomenon affects, although rather unfrequently, the vowel of the possessive suffix 3.SG, which generally is $\{I\}$ but shows a tendency towards $\{X\}$ in cases where the possessive suffix is followed by the 'pronominal *n*', which also seems to support labial rounding: *üyünde* ~ *üyinde* 'in his house'.

(ii) The vowel(s) of possessive suffixes 2.SG and 2.PL is/are {I}: $o\check{g}lin$ 'your son', $o\check{g}lanlarin$ 'your children', $\ddot{u}yiniz$ 'your house'. Deviation from the front/back harmony principle occurs quite frequently, although not on a systematic basis: $ya:diniz \sim ya:diniz$ 'your memory'. If the suffix follows a noun with [1] in the coda position, however, the suffix vowel(s) can become {X} as well: dul 'widow' > dulunuz 'your widow'; $\bar{g}ul$ 'slave' > $\bar{g}ulunuz \sim \bar{g}ulin$ / $\bar{g}ulunuz \sim \bar{g}ulin$ / $\bar{g}ulunuz \sim \bar{g}ulin$ harmony option.

(iii) The vowel of the possessive suffix 3.SGPL is generally $\{I\}$: *ha:lisi* 'her carpet' (Yo. Sa. Te.), *li:sesi* 'its lyceum', *sü:di* 'her milk', *ğapağı* 'its lid', *toyi* 'his feast'. Deviation from the back/front harmony principle has often be reported, with a marked tendency in favor of front vocalization of the suffix regardless of the quality of the preceding syllable: *doqmalari* 'their carpets' (Te.), *sačaği* 'his tablecloth' (Är.).

(iv) In the *xāliṣ* dialects the initial suffix vowel is almost regularly reduced or altogether deleted if the possessive suffix of 1.PL and 2.PL follows a noun with plural suffix *-lAr*; assimilation of the final [r] of the plural suffix is almost regular in the Teke dialect and does occur in the others, too: atalar(i)miz (Är. 53) ~ atalarmiz 'our fathers' (Är. 12) ~ atalammiz 'our forefathers' (Te. 7); *üylermiz* 'our houses' (Te. 4); *ğarindašlammiz* (Är. 1).

The same reduction/deletion of the possessive suffix vowel can also occur if the noun is nonmonosyllabic with a [r], [ğ], [g], [w], [m], or [n] in the coda position : *keptermiz* 'our pigeon', *motarŋız* 'your car', *ğıšlağmız* 'our village', *küčüğmiz* 'our dog' (Är. 30), *oqlawŋız* 'your rolling pin', *ğalammız* 'our pen', *wetenmiz* 'our homeland', *jerenŋız* 'your antelope' (Är. 53), *gelenmiz ğawı bollı* 'good that we have come' (Te. 7), *görenmiz yo:q* 'we'd not seen' (Är. 38).

Deletion of the suffix vowel – which in that case is tantamount to dropping the suffix altogether – can occur if the possessive suffix of 3.SG follows a plural suffix and is in its turn followed by a (pronominal n plus) case suffix, the latter one preferably having a low vowel. Cases of deletion without a plural suffix preceding the possessive suffix have also been observed.

- ellerinin > čiten doqmalari ellernin ustinne gallı. (Te. 6) The carpet they had woven remained in their hands.
- atlarıniŋ > türkmenista:nıŋ at**larniŋ** soŋ boynı dik bi:li ni:čge bolyo:r. (Är. 25) The necks of the horses of Turkmenistan then are straight and their waist is slim.
- a:ğalarına > öte barıp a:ğalarna baqıšar. (Är. 39) He'd go there and help his brothers out.
- olar dünyä:niŋ köp yer**lerne** yayra:pdırlar. (Te. 13) They are scattered over many places of the world.
- derwezelerini > kä:rmelin waxtinda hökü:met zında:nlarin derwezelerni ašsa da xalqın ğaharını ğačırıp bilmedi. (Är. 16) Although in Kārmal's time the government opened the doors of the jails, it was unable to remove the anger of the people.

- ağšamına > ağšamna palaw keba:b beryo:tılar. (Xo. 1) For supper they'd offer pilaff and kebap.
- ya:nına > ba:bam ğıšlağda bolyo:r, her hepde ya:nna barıp ğaytyo:s. (Är. 22) My grandfather lives in the village. We go to (see) him every week.
- golajığını > bä:begiŋ golajığnı yap üšemesin! (Är. 28)
 Cover the baby's little ears, she shall not feel cold!
- yüregini > pıša:r kä:bi:riniŋ yüreğni urya:r-eken. (Te. 10) Blood pressure is said to affect many a person's heart.
- gi:rdiji**si**ni > gi:rdijisni ya:rım iki bölıp paylašyo:rs. (Är. 12) We split the revenues into two parts.
- toyına > ha:ji kerimlerin toyna bardınızmı? (Är. 53)
 Have you gone to the wedding of Ha:ji Kerim's (family)?

(iv) The possessive suffix -sI of 3.SG is, against the rule displayed in the table above, sometimes seemingly taken on by nouns with a consonant in the coda position. In fact, this "juxtaposition of -C+sI" is due to the deletion of a stem-final vowel in a mid-syllable position caused by suffixation (perhaps phonologically comparable to the phenomenon described in 4.2.7.b).

• yoqarısı > derrä:niŋ **yoqarsınnan** aylanıp su: gelyä:r-eken. (Te. 3) Water comes running from further upstream.

(v) In the *xāliş* dialects, a final stem vowel is generally lengthened if followed by a suffix with initial *-m* or *-ŋ* (compare 4.4.A.d.ii, 4.4.C.c.i) – a rule that also applies in the case of the possessive suffixes.

- kellä, u:qi > öten ağšam kellä:m ağrı:p u:qi:m gelmedi. (Är. 4) Last night I had a headache and couldn't sleep (lit., my sleep didn't come).
- ini > meniŋ-em bir ini:m pu:hantu:nda oqıyo:r. (Är. 9)
 A younger brother of mine studies at university.
- qaysı > sıčan hı:nına gi:ren ya:ni biz-em her **qaysı:m** mawza: gi:rdik. (Är. 14) Like mice withdraw in their hole, each one of us also withdrew into our place.

Only a few single lexemes from the field of close kin terminology are exempt from this rule, such as *a:ğa* 'elder brother (Är.)', *aqqa* 'elder brother (Te.)', *da:yi* 'mother-brother', *dayza* 'mother-sister', *eje* 'mother (Te.Yo.)', *eke* 'elder sister (Är.)', *ene* 'mother (Är.), grandmother (Te.Yo.)', *ma:ma* 'grandmother (Är.)', *qa:qa* 'father (Te.)'.

My materials contain several Ä:rsa:ri dialect examples of lengthening which does not affect a final stem vowel (since these lexemes finalize in a consonant), but the possessive 1.SG and 2.SG suffix vowel:

- Bıl meni pul beren güni:m yağšı göryo:r, pul bermedik güni:m ya:nıma-da gelen yo:q. (Är. 7) He likes me on days when I give (him) money, (but) on days when I don't give money he does not even come to me.
- gu:rra:q boljaq yeri:m da:yımlaŋqı. (Är. 32) The place where I am more (often) is my uncle's.

- qaysı yer**i:ŋ** a:ğrıyo:r? (Är. 53) Where do you have pain?
- kiči oğlım yağšı oqıyo:r, o**n:mız** bir gün-em mekdepden <u>ğ</u>a:lan yo:q. (Är. 33) My little son studies hard, this one of ours has not skipped school a single day.
- siz hemi:še gi:č turyo:sıŋız, šo**n:ŋız** bolan yo:q. (Är. 10) You always get up late, this (habit) of yours won't do.

In the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects any possessive suffix which follows a numeral will have its first vowel lengthened: *iki:miz* 'the two of us', *üči:miz* 'the three of us', *o:ni:ŋiz* 'the ten of you'. If the numeral is 'one', not only the suffix vowel is lengthened but also the stem vowel: *bir* > *bi:ri:miz* 'one of us'; the indefinite pronoun *qaysi* 'which one; any one' has its final vowel lengthened when followed by a possessive suffix: *qaysi:ŋiz* 'any one of you guys'. (If followed by the possessive suffix of 3.SG, the numeral 'one' has its vowel lengthened: *bi:ri* 'one of them'; as far as other numerals are concerned, neither their stem vowel nor the possessive suffix is lengthened when a Poss3.SG follows.)

In the *nāxālis* dialects, the possessive suffix does not cause vowel lengthening at all:

- ini > bu beče hem meniŋ inim boladi. (Ba. 3) And this young man is my brother.
- mäde > murč ya: turši i:sem **mädem** ağraydı. (Xa. 4) If I eat chilies or pickles my stomach aches.
- (b) Possessor-possessed clauses

In the possessor-possessed relation the satellite (i.e., the possessor) comes in the genitive while the head (the possessed) is in its turn marked with the possessive suffix. If the possessor is a 1^{st} or 2^{nd} person, the pronoun – which then has the genitive suffix – needs to be employed as topic marker if there is thema change, or particular stress on the pronoun for some other reason:

• **meniŋ** a:d**im** jama:liddi:n bolyä:, **qa:qamıŋ** a:d**i** bayram. (Te. 15) My name is Jama:liddi:n, my father's name is Bayram.

However, even if there is no particular topic marking involved in 1st or 2nd person possessorpossessed-clauses, all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan display a marked tendency to employ the pronoun with genitive all the same:

• **biziŋ ba:balarmız** aslında türkmenista:n dewletiniŋ leba:b wela:yatınıŋ Xojamba:z wılıswa:llığınıŋ beši:r ğıšlağınnan O:ğa:nısta:na hijret edip dirler. (Är. 7) Our forefathers have actually migrated to Afghanistan from the village of Beši:r, district of Xojamba:z, Leba:b province of Turkmenistan.

In colloquial language the genitive-bearing satellite often, without obvious change of meaning, follows after its head noun rather than preceding it. These postposed satellites are enclitic.

• soŋ **ata:m meniŋ** šo waxtlarında qaryada:r edip dir ğıšlağıŋ a:damı. (Är. 6) Then my father-, the villagers made (him) headman of the village at that time.

- indi ozaq weli: ozaq-ğam bolsa šu **sı:lxana:mız biziŋ** oŋa barya: . (Te. 3) Our flooded area is now far away, but although it is far, (at least) it reaches out there (at all).
- šo pille iki müŋ **ğoyunı** ba:rtı **ata:mızıŋ**. (Är. 5) At that time our father had two thousand sheep.

(c) Unmarkedness of the possessive

In the Ärsa:rı, Teke, Yomut and Sa:rıq dialects the possessive suffix may be missing from the head noun in possessor-possessed clauses with 1.PL or 2.PL possessors while the satellite is marked with the genitive suffix. There seems to be no noticeable difference of meaning between marked and unmarked clauses. The tendency to drop the possessive suffix is strongest if the possessor-possessive clause is followed by dA or *hem* 'also'.

- (biziŋ) **o:ba:miza** barjaq dä:lmi? ~ biziŋ **o:ba:** barjaq dä:lmi? (Är. 53)
- Aren't you going to our village?
- **biziŋ nazar** de dü:n gitti. (Är. 12)
- Our (son) Nazar has also left yesterday.

The *nāxālis* dialects do not share this phenomenon.

(d) Reduplication of the possessive

Reduplication of the POSS3SG has been observed in lexemes like $k\ddot{a}:sisi < k\ddot{a}:s+i+si$ 'some(one) of them' (Xa.), $k\ddot{o}pisi < k\ddot{o}p+i+si$ 'many/most of them'¹⁵⁶ (Te., Är.), $bi:risi < bi:r+i+si \sim bi:ri$ 'one of them' (both variants in all dialects). Reduplicated variants coexist with non-reduplicated ones: $k\ddot{a}:bi:risi \sim k\ddot{a}:bi:ri$ 'quite a few / many of them' (Te.).

- biziŋkileriŋ her qay**sı**na bir a:zajıq yer berip dir. (Te. 1) He gave each one of us a little bit of land.
- lehjelerin her haysısının tapa:wıtları köp. (Te. 13) Each one of the dialects has many divergences (from the others).
- (e) Composite nouns

The possessive suffix marks composite nouns in which qualifyer and qualified are both substantive nouns; the possessive suffix is taken on by the head while the satellite is unmarked. The default option is the 3.SG suffix: *türkmen milliyeti* 'the Turkmen nation' (Är. 21), *sewda: merkezi* 'commercial center' (Yo. 1), *oro:za haydi* 'the *Id al-Fitr*' (Te. 3), *dert yamani* 'the worst of illnesses' (Te. 7).

If the qualified noun takes on a grammatical possessive suffix, this suffix serves the morphological and the grammatical functions in one: *i:š a:damlarmiz* (< i:š a:damlarmiz, for the vowel reduction cf. 3.1.1.A.b above) 'our workers (lit. workmen)' (Är. 25).

¹⁵⁶ In the case of $k\ddot{o}p$, the "first possessive suffix" might otherwise be understood as a lexicalized part of the lexeme, since the word is used with or without a final *i* when attributed to a noun. Example: $k\ddot{o}pi$ a:damlar messi giyyo:-tilar 'many/most people used to wear gaiters' (Är. 31). The phenomenon may be interpreted as an imitation of $b\ddot{a}:zi$: a:damlar 'some people' < pers. ba'zi.

C. Case suffixes

The case suffixes in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan take on the forms and variations depicted in Table 5-2.

Table	5-2:	Case	suffixes
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case	nominal stem -C	nominal stem -V	
Nom/Voc	Ø	Ø	
Gen	$-X\eta \sim -I\eta \sim -i\eta$	-nIŋ -ŋ (Te. Yo.) -ni (Ba.Mu.Xa.)	
	-IŋQI ~ Iŋki	-ŋQI ~ -ŋkI	
ACC	-Ø	-Ø	
	-I / -X	-nI	
Dat	-A (XD) -A \sim -ge (ND.)		
Едт	-čA -dek (Ba.) / -dağ (Ba.) -dey (Mu.Xa.Ba.) / -deyin (Mu.Xa.Ba.)		
LIM	-AčA		
Loc	$-dA \sim -tA$		
ABL	$-dAn \sim -tAn$		

Case suffixes immediately follow the (derivate) nominal stem or, if applicable, the possessive suffix. The only exception to that rule is the so-called pronominal n. Case suffixes following a POSS3SG require the insertion of a pronominal n:

- teke lehje**sinnen** görä: ä:rsa:r1:ŋ lehjesi turk dil**ine** meŋzešrä:k mikä: diyä:n. (Te. 13) I'd assume that the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect is closer to the Turkish language than the Teke dialect.
- oğlanjıq teyya:ra:nıŋ očuš**ına** hayra:n <u>ğ</u>a:ldı. (Är. 40) The little boy admired the aeroplane's way of flying.
- erti:rine tawıq čo:rba beryo:tılar. (Xo. 1) They would offer chicken soup for breakfast (lit. for its morning).
- iki güniŋ ič**inde** (Är. 7) within two days

In the Muqrı and Xatap dialects the pronominal *n* does not necessarily occur under the conditions explained above:

• xataplar bilen muqrılar derya:nıŋ o yaq**ıda**-hem bir ja:yda ya:šıyo:r-ekenler. (Mu. 1) The Xatap and Muqrı lived together on that (other) side of the river, too.

(a) Nominative / Vocative

(i) The nominative / vocative is in all dialects marked with the zero suffix.

(ii) The nominative combines with postpositions such as $\ddot{u}\dot{c}i:n$ (Är.Te.Yo.Sa.Yem.) / $u\dot{c}in$ (Mu.Xa.Ba.) 'for ...'; $bilen \sim bile$ (Är.) 'with, and'; $ya:ni \sim ya:ni \sim ya:naq$ (Är.) $\sim ya:ni:q$

(Är.) / *ya:lı* (Te.Yo.Sa.Yem) 'like ...; such as ...'; *kemi:n* (Är. Te.) 'like'; *sayın* 'by the ...'. In NOM+POSTPOS clauses the syllable immediately preceding the postposition bears a distinct positional pitch. – In the case of pronouns, these postpositions can also take the genitive (see chapter pronouns).

(b) Genitive

In the Afghan Turkmen dialects the following basic types of the genitive suffix have been identified: (i) $-I\eta / -nI\eta$; (ii) $-\eta$; (iii) -ni; (iv) $-I\eta QI / -\eta QI$; (v) -QI.

Table 5-3: Genitive suffixes

	nominal basis -C	nominal basis -V / V:
	$-I\eta \sim -i\eta$	$-nI\eta \sim -ni\eta \sim nI:\eta$
		(Te.)
Gen		-ŋ (Te.Yo.Sa.Yem.)
		-ni (Sa.Mu.Xa.)
	-IŋQI ~ Iŋki	-ŋQI / -ŋki
	-QI (Är.)	-QI (ND.)

(i) In all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan the genitive suffix which follows a nominal stem with final consonant is in general {Iŋ}: $\ddot{colig} < \ddot{col}$ 'steppe', $e\ddot{s}egig < e\ddot{s}ek$ 'donkey', $sanni\check{g}ig$ (Te.) < sandiq 'chest', nipu:sig < nipu:s 'population', toyig < tog 'wedding'. My materials also abund (in native and even more so in copied lexemes) with examples of suffixation where the back/front harmony is not observed, which mostly results in the realization of the suffix as front-vowel {iŋ}; disharmonic realization as back-vowel {iŋ}, on the other hand, occurs only unfrequently. Examples: $da:\check{g}ig \sim da:\check{g}ig$ (Te.) $< da:\check{g}$ 'mountain', $ya:zig \sim ya:zig$ (Är.) < ya:z 'summer'; $tu:qlarig \sim tu:qlarig$ (Är.) < tu:q 'hen', inqila:big (Te.) < inqila:b 'revolution'; menig (Te.) $\sim menig < men$ 'I'.

Nominal stems with final short vowel take on the genitive suffix {nIŋ} or, regardless of front or back quality of the preceding syllable, simply {niŋ}. In the *xālış* dialects the suffixation of the genitive with initial [n] causes lengthening of the stem-final vowel: *guzı:nıŋ gö:šti < guzı* 'the meat of the lamb' (Är.), *derrä:niŋ < derrä* 'valley' (Te.), *doqma:nıŋ üstinde < doqma* 'over the carpet' (Yo.), *mağtımğulı:nıŋ kita:bı < mağtımğulı* 'Mağtımğulı's book' (Te.), *jıma:gulı:nıŋ enesi < jıma:gulı* 'Jıma:gulı's mother' (Är.).

yeke > yekä:niŋ čaŋı čıqmaz diyip dirler qadı:mnan. (Är. 1)
 Since olden times they say, dust won't be raised by a single (horseman).

The short vowel of the 3.Sg -I / -sI is not subject to this lengthening phenomenon: *yumurtasinin sa:rusi* ~ *yumurtasinin sa:rusi* 'the yolk of her egg'.

In the *nāxālis* dialects there is no lengthening of the noun-final vowel at all: *teriniŋ baza:ri* 'market of the karakul hides' (Mu.).

• marčaq xalqınıŋ yağday-a:m ğawı dä:l. (Sa. 2) The situation of the people of Marčaq is not good either. Nominal stems with final long vowel also take on the genitive suffix $\{nIn\} \sim \{nin\}: derya:nin su:wi (Är.) 'the river's water', huwwa:nin suwiqliği (Är.) 'the air's coldness', molla:nin oğli (Sa.) 'the mullah's son'.$

(ii) In the Teke and perhaps also the Yomut dialect, nominal stems / bases with a final short or long vowel can also take on the simple genitive suffix $-\eta$:¹⁵⁷

- Ča:rı: > bü gün Ča:rı:ŋ oğlanları-da gelipdi. (Te. 5) Today Ča:rı:'s children have also come.
- ağšam hemsa:ya:**ŋ** iti u:la:p yatara ğoymadı. (Te. 3) (Last) night the neighbor's dog was howling and didn't let (us) sleep.
- Teke lehjesinnen görä: Ä:rsa:ri:**ŋ** lehjesi turk diline meŋzešrä:kmi-kä: diyä:n. (Te. 13) I'd say the Ä:rsa:ri dialect is more similar to the Turkish language than the Teke dialect, isn't it?
- a:m:derya:**ŋ** boyı qadı:m zama:nlarda-da hi:č waxt 1:la:ts1z bolma:n dır. (Yo. 1) The riverbanks of the Amudarya have in ancient times never been unpopulated.

The genitive of composite nouns, whose second element (the qualified) normally has a POSS3SG suffix, has in the Teke and Ä:rsa:r1 dialects been reported as a simple $-I\eta$ (rather than $-I-nI\eta$:

- sereta:n keseli+niŋ > sereta:n keseliŋ heni:zeče ala:ji yoq diyä:ler. (Te. 16)
 There is as yet no medicine for the cancer disease, they say.
- soğa:b i:šleri+niŋ > olı:nı sı:lamaq we oŋa ıhtira:m etmek soğa:b i:šleriŋ bi:ri. (Är. 19) It is one of the meritous works to honor the elder.

Here, as in the examples quoted above, we actually observe the dropping of a syllable $\{ni\}$. We may thus assume that there is a general tendency to drop this syllable when it precedes – for whatever reason – a $\{n\}$.

(iii) The genitive suffix -ni has been observed in the Muqrı, Sa:rıq and Xatap dialects only, where it exists alongside with (i)-type -nin. My materials do not support a safe guess about the frequency of occurrence of the respective types.¹⁵⁸

- šuni učin bizlerni wılıswa:l sa:yib tiletipdi. (Mu. 1) For that the head of district has summoned us.
- jima:nazar**ni** a:ti-yem oğlaqqa boladı. (Mu. 2) Jima:nazar's horse will also do for buzkashi.
- bu kiši da:wud ekeni oğlı. (Xa. 5) This person is Mr. Dawud's son.

¹⁵⁷ In the phonology part of this book (4.3.8.a) I am describing the complex reduction of consonant-vowel clusters, which affects among others clusters of [n]+[I]. This reduction seems at work in forms like *meny* (< *meniy*) 'my' (Te.Är.), *šoy* (< *šony*) 'that one's' (Är.), *seyki* (< *seniyki*) 'yours' (Te.Är.) and *sarata:n keseliy ala:ji* (< *keseliniy*) 'medicine for the cancer disease'. Although this reduction might be at work here as well, if we understand the - η suffix as a product of [ni]-reduction affecting the regular genitive suffix - $nI\eta$, with regard to its regularity of occurrence I prefer to interpret - η as a type of genitive suffix in its own right.

¹⁵⁸ Yakup 2005 also mentions the coexistence of $-nX\eta$ and -nX for the Turfan dialect of Uyghur; in his case the -nX variant is by far the most frequent one (96; 99ff.).

(iv) The genitive produced by the suffix $-I\eta QI / -\eta QI^{159}$ is different from the other genitive types in that it can take on a non-attributive / non-adverbial function which is then marked by the respective case suffixes. There is no pronominal *n* in these cases.

- iŋ yağšı čaqqı čeyrekä:ŋki bolyo:r. (Är. 37) The best knives are Čeyrekä:'s (i.e., Čārikār's).
- murtını pišig**iŋki** ya:lı edip (Te. 16) making his whiskers like a cat's
- berdiler**iŋkä:** hem bardiŋizmi? (Är. 53) Did you also go to the Berdis?
- **oŋqa:** buwin barmali dä:l (Är. 35) We shouldn't go to his (place) today.
- gunduzda türkmenleriŋ gi:m-ä:m bä:ri maza:rišeri:pde ya:šayo:n türkmen**iŋkiden** parx etyo:r. (Är. 1) In Qunduz even the garments of the Turkmens are different from those of the

In Qunduz even the garments of the Turkmens are different from those of the Turkmens living in Māzāri Sharif.

• Gundalıŋ zähäri yıla:n**ıŋqıdan**-am beter-mišin diyo:rlar. (Är. 41) They say the poison of a tarantula is worse than a snake's.

If the genitive suffix follows a plural suffix, the cluster [lArIŋQI] is regularly reduced to [lAŋQI]:

- kä:bir ğandha:rlılarıŋam yüzi haza:ralaŋqı ya:nı yassı bolyo:r. (Är. 1) Many a Kandahari's face is flat like that of the Hazaras.
- ğu:rra:q boljaq yeri:m da:yım**laŋqı**, mıra:d**laŋqa:**-da:m kä:pille bararın. (Är. 32) The place where I most often am is my uncle's; sometimes I also go to the Mıra:ds'.
- yo:lda ča:ri hajilaŋqa:-da da:ri:diq. (År. 5)
 On (our) way we also dropped by at Ča:ri Haji's.
- biziŋ ğoynimiz o**laŋqi** bilen deŋešdirende köp semiz bolyo:r. (Är. 12) Our sheep, when compared with theirs, are very fat.

Reduction of [nI], which is a familiar phenomenon and has been described in 4.3.8.a, results in abbreviated forms like *menki* (< *meninki*), *senki* (< *seninki*), *šoŋ* (< *šoniŋ*).

sa:nap görsek xuda:ybereniŋ goynı sekkiz yüz ya:nı, meŋki bosa iki yüz elli eken. (Är. 16)

As we counted, Xuda:yberen's sheep were some eight hundred; mine were two hundred fifty.

menıŋ etya:n i:šim na:doğrı bolsa yüzimi görmä:n seŋki bolano:q diyiŋ! (Te. 5)
 If what I am doing is not right, tell me «Yours isn't (right)» without regard of my face!

(v) The genitive suffix type -QI occurs only very unfrequently in my materials, so that its existence as an independent type (rather than a result of some contraction or reduction) cannot yet be taken for granted. The examples are all from the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect.

• šil ğoyunlaram a:ğam**qı** (Är. 12) These sheep are also my elder brother's.

¹⁵⁹ Schönig 1999:65 mentions the Salar genitive in *-niği* as an unusal form; compare also *-nlki* in the Turfan dialect of modern Uyghur (Yakup 2005:96f.).

- bul oğlanlar kim**ki**? (Är. 15) Whose are these kids?
- yoqarda duran ha:lılarıŋ hemmesi ol a:damqı. (Är. 38) The carpets which are upstairs are all that man's.

(c) Accusative

Table 5-4: Accusative suffixes

	nominal stem -C	nominal stem -V / -V:
	(ð
Acc	-I ~ -i -ni (Mu.Xa.)	-nI ~ -ni

(i) The accusative marker of indefinite nouns is the zero suffix, which is necessarily combined with the positioning of the zero-marked noun next to the verb that takes it as indefinite direct object.

- qomanda:nlar hayrata:nnan köp **buğday dašadılar**. (Är. 14) The commanders hauled much wheat across (the) Hayrata:n (checkpoint).
- **Ilan gürgendey** qorqdı. (Mu. 1) He was frightened as if (he) had seen a snake.

In case of impending misunderstanding, indefinite nouns which serve as direct objects can take the suffix -I/-nI, which otherwise marks the accusative of definite nouns only:

 yağšı > yağšı:nı görmegem soğa:p diyipdirler. (Är. 10) They say, even to (only) see a good (man) is (already a) merit(uous deed).

(ii) Definite nouns, all pronouns, and words and clauses which ad hoc or by definition count as definite, take on an accusative suffix as shown in table 5-4.

The accusative suffixes mostly follow the twofold high vowel harmony. Disharmonic variants of the suffixes occur unfrequently, maybe on an occasional or idiolectal basis only. The suffix variant *-ni* following nouns with final consonant, which is also mostly disharmonic, is used only in the ND dialects.

- oğlanlar sapağı bilmese čı:bıqla:p urardılar. (Sa. 4) If the kids didn't know the lesson, (the teachers) would cane (them).
- o:di tutašdirip bilmä:n dir. (Är. 42) He was unable to light the fire.
- bu kiši biziŋ lehjelermizi u:renyo:r-eken. (Ba. 4) This man investigates our dialects.
- soŋ xalqı aytma:n diŋe bir giyyewiŋ ö:zini čağiriq-ğoybero:r. (Sa. 3) Then without inviting the people they invite (only) the groom himself.

men ömrimde gula:mdey yaman a:damni kürmedim. (Mu. 2)
 I have never in my life seen such a bad man as Ğula:m.

(iii) In the *xālis* dialects, agglutination of the accusative suffix leads to the lengthening of a short final vowel; in the *nāxālis* dialects this lengthening does not occur.

- ayrı > asil arwana: šul ayrı:nı ğoysan iner doğyä:. (Te. 1) If you allow that two-humped camel to mate with an *arwana*-camel, an *iner*-camel will come into being.
- öli > öli:ni depin etmä:ne-de köp xarji gerek. (Är. 1)
 In order to bury a dead person great expenses are necessary.
- öli > bizde xu ölini liba:si bilen kömmeydiler. (Ba. 5) At our (place) they don't bury the dead body with his clothes.
- orta > tašqulin eline oq tegip kičik ustaxani mana šu ortanı alıp kiten. (Mu. 1)
 A bullet hit Tašqul's hand and removed the little bone, this part (I am pointing at).

The final vowel of the POSS3SG suffix (-*I* or -*sI*) is in all dialects mostly excluded from lengthening; my materials contain only rare examples with lengthening of a possessive suffix vowel preceding the accusative suffix.

- depter+i+ni > ekber a:ğa-da širketiniŋ depter**ini** kipa:yat markitde goršadı. (Är. 22) And Ekber A:ğa established the office of his company in the Kifa:yat Market.
- dil+i+ni > hizbiŋ mara:mna:masında her bir milletiŋ haqı ba:r-eken ö:z ene dilini olanma:ğa. (Te. 5)

According to the Party's statute every nation has the right to use their own language.

- til+i+ni > her kim ö:z tilini keplemeli. (Te. 7)
 Everybody must speak his own language.
- yer+i+ni > bi yeri:ni issi görseniz mı:ma:ndi:wa:la baralı, šo yerde ča:y iči:p yatars. (Är. 6)

If you consider this place (of all places) too hot, let's go to the guestroom and drink tea over there!

(iv) The dropping of the accusative suffix vowel after POSS3SG, -InI > -In, which is a familiar phenomenon in the pre-modern Turkmen Turki of Afghanistan, has been observed in the contemporary Ä:rsa:r1 dialect as well:

- ja:nın > bä:š yılla:p ja:nın ayama:n i:ra:nda i:šledi. (Är. 41) He worked five years in Iran without sparing himself (lit. his body).
- xuda:ybereniŋ tä:ze hu:lı**sın** gördiŋizmi? (Är. 12) Have you seen Xuda:yberen's new house?
- ba:dı pä:lwa:nıŋam a:xır šul oğlaq bašın iyer. (Är. 10)
 In the end this buzkashi will exhaust (lit. eat the head of) Ba:dı Pä:lwa:n!

(v) The accusative of the PRON1SG has in the Muqrı dialect been reported as *mini* 'me':

• mini kürip qorqdı (Mu. 1) He was frightened when he saw me.

My materials do not contain enough examples to decide whether this is a regular form in that dialect, or just an occasional or idiolectal variant.

(d) Dative

Table 5-5: Dative suffixes

	nominal stem -C	nominal stem –V
	-A	$-V+D_{AT} > -A$:
	-ĞA (Ä	r.Mu.)
DAT	-I:Q (Te.)	-V+DAT > -A:Q / -I:Q (Te. Yo.)

(i) The dative suffix in all Afghan Turkmen dialects is -A. Examples: *bi:rini dä:ktere görkez*-'to show somebody to the doctor'; *suwa git-* 'to go to (fetch) water'; *turk diline meŋzeš* (XD) 'similar to the Turkish language', *deŋze ḡolay* 'close to the sea'; *üč o:ğa:na: bir ḡa:win* 'one watermelon for three Afghani', *sarayı bā:š yıla kirey al-* 'to rent the businessplace for five years'.

- itimiz örä:n paxi:r, hi:čkime degen yo:q! (Är. 5) Our dog is utterly gentle, he attacks nobody at all.
- düyyä:niŋ dö:rt ya:ša:rın**a** buwırčı di:yä: . (Te. 1) They say *buwırčı* to the four-year-old (foal) of a camel.

(ii) If the dative suffix follows a stem with a final vowel, that vowel coalesces with the dative suffix vowel into -A: . Examples: alma > alma: 'to the apple', arl > ara: 'to the bee'; giši > gišä: 'to the person', $\ddot{u}lke > \ddot{u}lk\ddot{a}$: 'to the country', ha:ll > ha:la: 'to the carpet'.

In the Ä:rsa:ri, Yomut and Teke dialects, the dative of the lexeme *yer* 'place' (and its plural form) is *yerä*: (*yerlerä*:) with a long suffix vowel; as for the other dialects, examples are hitherto missing. My materials do not contain any other such exceptional forms.

- siz ra:s aytya:ŋız, bir **yerä:** gitmeg-em aŋsa:t dä:l. (Te. 10) You are saying right, it is not easy to go somewhere.
- ara:za a:yinda bir **yerä:** gidiš-em ği:n bolya:r. (Yo. 1) In the month of Ramadan it is difficult to go some place.
- nesi:be tartmasa o yerlerä: gidip bolmaz. (Är. 5) If it is not (one's) lot, one cannot go to these places.

(iii) In the Ä:rsa:rı, Xatap, Olam, and Muqrı dialects the dative suffix $-\check{G}A$ also occurs, although unfrequently. In the Ä:rsa:rı dialect it might most probably occur under the influence of the pre-modern literary language – its occurrence seems to be confined to the speech of mullahs and literati. In the Muqrı dialect, on the other hand, it may be due to the close relation with neighboring Uzbek dialects.

- birinjiden kö:ne qala:**ğa** barıp soŋ aŋrı xa:nča:rba:ğ barars. (Är. 9) First we go to the ancient fortress and after that we go to Xa:nča:rba:ğ over there.
- men mesjidi nebewi:**ge** haja barıptım. (Är. 2) I had gone to the Prophet's Mosque for hajj.

• biltir a:ta bererge a:rpem qalmegen idi. (Mu. 2) Last year not even rye had remained (for us) to give to the horse.

(iv) In the Teke dialect, placenames and relational nouns can take -(I:)Q / -V:Q as dative suffix. My materials contain only a limited number of examples so that the conditions under which this suffix is prefered to the -*A*-suffix cannot be determined. Examples: $b\ddot{a}:ri > b\ddot{a}:ri:k$ 'hither' (Te.Yo.Sa.), $a\eta ri > a\eta ri:q$ 'beyond', (Te.Yo.Sa) o tayi > o tayi:q 'to that side', ileri > ileri:k 'forward', $\bar{g}ayra > \bar{g}ayra:q$ 'backward / south', $i\check{c}eri > i\check{c}eri:k$ 'into' (Te. Yo.Yem.Sa.).

- biziŋ ata-ba:balarmız ınqıla:p yıllarında birinjiden darğanata:q taraplara barıpdırlar, soŋ o yerde durma:n **bä:ri:k** gelipdirler. (Te. 19) Our forefathers first went to Darğanata:q (and) those environs; then they didn't stay there (but) came here.
- biz hemme türk doğanlarmızı bi yeri:k ča:ğirya:s ki gelip görsinler we hemkä:rlik etsinler. (Te. 11)

We invite all our Turkic brethren here so that they may come and see and cooperate.

(v) In the Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects the dative of a placename need not take any of these suffixes if it immediately precedes a verb bearing the meaning of 'to go to...':

- öten hepde **dewlada:ba:d bar**ıp **andxoy bar**ıp šu xı:lı ha:lı tapmadıq. (Är. 38) Last week we went to Dawlatābād, we went to Andkhoy, (but) we didn't find this type of carpet.
- ye:tim sa:yibi ča:rjewde görmedim, so:rasam **marı gid**ipdir di:iler. (Är. 10) I didn't see Ye:tim Sa:yib in Charjou. When I asked, they said he had gone to Marw.
- qawmlar **marčaq gel**ende... (Sa. 3) When the tribes came to Marčaq...

(vi) The dative forms of the personal pronouns of 1.SG and 2.SG are in XD dialects *maŋa* and *saŋa*; the dative forms of the demonstrative pronouns are *oŋa*, *šoŋa* etc.

(vii) The dative case combines with postpositions like $\bar{g}arap$ 'according to ...'; $\check{c}elli \sim \check{c}enli \sim \check{c}enli:k$ 'until ..., as far as ...'; $deg \sim degi:\check{c}$ 'until ...'; $megze\check{s}$ 'similar to...'; $g\ddot{o}r\ddot{a}$: 'according to ...'; $\bar{g}ara:nda$ 'compared with ...'; $\bar{g}olay$ 'close to ..., approximately ...'; tarap 'in the direction of ...'; $\bar{g}ar\check{s}i$ 'against ...' (for more details see the chapter on postpositions).

In postposition clauses of this type the dative suffix can be missing:

• iki:mizem **andxoy ğara:p** yo:la düšdik. (Är. 53) We both started our way towards Andkhoy.

(e) Equative / Limitative

 Table 5-6: Equative / limitative suffixes

nominal stem -C	nominal stem –V
-čA (~	šA)

Eqt/Lim	-dey / -deyin (Mu.Xa.Ba.)	
	-dek / -dağ (Mu. Xa.Ba.)
Lim	- AčA	-V+LIM > -A:čA
	-Adeŋ (Xa.Mu.)	deŋi:č

(i) All Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan have the equative/limitative suffix $-\check{c}A$. In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect the suffix is occasionally realized as { $\check{s}A$ }.

- ora:z, alla:berenče yağšı nimmira almadı. (Te. 15) Ora:z did not get as good marks as Alla:beren.
- bir daraxt-za:d-ama: yo:ġ-ekeni aydišlariča (Sa. 3) As they say (lit. according to their sayings), there is no tree (or any)thing (there).

The EqT/LIM of 1. and 2.PERSSG may be derived from the nominative as well as the genitive form of the respective pronoun¹⁶⁰: *menče* ~ *meninče* 'like me, to the same degree as I, according to me', *senče* ~ *seninče* 'like you, to the same degree as you, according to you'.

EQT/LIM forms of the interrogative and demonstrative pronouns have been recorded in different variants: $n\ddot{a}:\check{c}e$ (År., Te.) ~ $n\ddot{a}\check{c}e$ (År.) ~ $n\ddot{a}:\check{s}e$ (År.) ~ $ni\check{c}e$ (Mo.) 'how many'; *qanča* (all) ~ *qanša* ~ *hanča* (År.) 'how much; how many'; *onča* (all) 'like that'; *minča* ~ *munča* (all) 'like this'; *šonča* (all) 'like this'.

- **onča** yagmır bolmadı. (Är. 38) There was not much rain (lit. rain like that).
- bul xatarlı i:šlere **onča** ğošülma:mız am gerek dä:l. (Är. 3) We had better not so much mingle with these dangerous matters.

The EqT/LIM often occurs in a lexicalized form in adverbs: bašǧača 'special, particular(ly good)', $t\ddot{a}:zeče$ 'recently', $o\check{g}ri:n\check{c}a$ 'secretly'. Some lexicalized forms are derived from a functional or non-functional plural form: $m\ddot{o}pler\check{c}e$ a:dam 'thousands (of) men', $qahrama:nlar\check{c}a$ 'in a heroic manner'. The equative forms derived from tribal names have come to denote the linguistic "quality": $t\ddot{u}rkmen\check{c}e$ geple- 'to speak Turkmen-like = in the Turkmen language' (also $fa:rs\check{c}a$ 'Persian', $\ddot{o}zbek\check{c}e$ 'Uzbek' etc.). – In lexicalized forms the pronominal n may be missing, most probably under the influence of the premodern literary language or the neighboring Uzbek idioms: qa:nu:n $boyun\check{c}a \sim boyi\check{c}a$ (Är.) 'in accordance with the law'.

(ii) The limitative suffixes *-dey / -deyin*, which do not follow vowel harmony, have been recorded from Muqri speakers only.

¹⁶⁰ Erdal (2000:42) states that an element (in his particular case, the clitic (*y*)*la* 'with') which governs the genitive of (nouns and) pronouns is "unlike case suffixes". In this sense the Turkmen - $\check{c}A$ is like and unlike case suffixes.

- men ömrimde gulamdey yaman a:damni kürmedim. (Mu. 2)
 I have never in my life seen as bad a man as Ğulam.
- biz-xo a:dem**deyin** birine söz bersek šo sözimizde dormalı. (Mu. 1) If we give our word to somebody, we have to stand by that word of ours like a man.

(iii) The equative suffix *-dek* / *-dağ* has been reported from the Bayat dialect only: *bizlerdek* 'like us', *šundağ* 'like that'.

(iii) The combination of the dative in -A with the EQT/LIM suffix -čA is a limitative form which exists in all dialects: *erti:reče* (Är.Te.Yo.Sa.) 'till next morning', *heni:zeče* 'until now' (Te.).

- Maza:ri šeri:pden sıya:gird**eče** ša:yad o:nbä:š ki:lu:mitir yo:l ba:r dir. (Xa. 2) From Mazāri Sharif as far as Siyāgird it's probably fifteen kilometers.
- ma:mu:ri:n sa:at tö:rdeče i:šliyo:r. (Är. 22) The clerks work until four o'clock.
- gi:je na:waxt**ača** yatasım gelmedi. (Är. 23) I didn't want to go to bed until late at night.
- men altınjı sınp**ača** tağana:rıqda oqı:dım. (Är. 6) Until sixth grade I attended school in Tağana:rıq.

A long final vowel of the dative, which in its turn is caused by the suffixation of -A to a nominal basis with final vowel, is preserved in the combination:

- ni:rä 'where' + DAT > ni:rä: + LIM > šunnan serek ni:r**ä:če** qi:r bolan? (Är. 13) As far as what place from here is the road paved?
- meymene '(the city of) Maymana' + DAT > meymenä: + LIM > qadi:m munnan Meymenä:če-dä:m biz düye tartip bariqgördik. (Är. 39) (In) olden times we even traveled from here as far as Maymana by camel.

(iv) In the Xatap dialect the combination of DAT in -*A* with the EQT/LIM suffix -*deŋ*, which then does not follow vowel harmony, is a limitative form. My materials do not contain examples from the other dialects.

• ta: m1:za:nadeŋ š1 raqam edip at1 baqyo:s. (Xa. 4) We keep the horse like this until the Libra month.

(v) Clauses containing combinations of verbal nouns and the EQT/LIM suffix -*čA*, like *aydarča ba:r* 'it is (important) enough to tell', *gördikče* 'the more one sees', *geli:nčä* 'until ... comes' are not discussed here any further.

(f) Locative

	nominal stem -C	nominal stem -V
Loc	-dA	

(i) The locative suffix is in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan -dA. Back-front vowel harmony is not thoroughly observed, especially in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects. Assimilation of the

suffix-initial consonant happens frequently and follows the principles described in the phonology chapter.

Examples for the spatial and temporal meanings of the locative are: ni:rede (Te.) ~ ni:ride (Är.) 'where?', anirda (Är.) ~ anirda (Mu.) 'on the other side', *šehr ičinne* 'in town' (Te.), $da: gin \ ustinne$ (Te.) 'on top of the mountain'; $sa:at \ učde$ 'at 3 o'clock', $i:r \ zama:nlarda$ 'in former times' (Yo.), $ama:nillah \ xa:nin \ waxtinda$ 'in the era of Amānullāh Khān' (Är.); toy bolanda 'when a feast happens'; günde 'on (every) day', aslinda 'basically'.

- bi di:ričilik**de** di:nč yeri yo:ğ eken! (Är. 1) In this life there seems to be no tranquil place.
- ya:zda hawa: 1ss1 bolsa ğıšda sawıq bolya: diyä:ler. (Te. 16) If the weather is hot in summer, it will be cold in winter, they say.
- mende o:n möŋ da:lar ba:r. (Är. 53) I have 10.000 Dollars on me.
- goyunıŋ etin**ne** hatta: sü:din**ne** de ya:ğ köp bolmalı. (Te. 5) In the sheep's meat and even in its milk the fat is plenty.

(ii) Simple locatives can be used as attributes:

• o:ğanısta:n**da** bağšılar qaysı yo:lı 1:zarlıyo:rlar? (Är. 9) Which style do singers in Afghanistan follow?

More often, however, locative forms take the additional suffix *-QI* in order to be used as attributive nouns; on that occasion the vowel of the locative suffix is lengthened:

- hıra:tdä:ki ti:releri sa:na:p gešjek bolsaq yomutlar tekeler sa:riqlar ya:šaya: . (Te. 2)
 If we want to enumerate the tribes in Herāt Yomut, Teke and Sa:riq live (there).
- buwin asma:nda:qi dilegime yerde duwišdim. (Är. 17) Today I have encountered on earth my desire in heaven.

(g) Ablative

	nominal stem -C	nominal stem –V
ABL	-dAn	

(i) The ablative suffix is in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan -dAn. Back-front vowel harmony is mostly observed. Assimilation of the suffix-initial consonant occurs under the conditions defined in the phonology chapter. Examples: uzaqdan 'from afar', kä:bilden gayt-'to come (back) from Kabul', a:lamnan öt- 'to pass away (lit. from the world)'; demirden a:dam 'a man (made) of iron'; suwıqdan öl- 'to die from cold'; erti:r waxtdan tur- 'to get up early'; birden (Är.) 'all of a sudden'.

The following sample sentences demonstrate different functions of the ablative.

• o:balardan čiqip gelip šehr ičinne ya:šaya:lar (Te. 6) They originated from the villages and have some (to) live do

They originated from the villages and have come (to) live down-town.

- šo waxt bir a:damıŋ aydannı edip seregi šehriŋ ičin**nen** ötirmediler. (Är. 19) At that time they did what one (particular) man said and did not let the road pass through the town.
- motarba:n yo:lda yüzyigrimi**den** sürdi. (Är. 11) The driver drove 120 km/h on the way (here).
- bul goyunları bä:š müŋ o:ğa:nı**dan** aldıq. (Är. 12) We purchased these sheep for five thousand Afghani each.
- her bir künden iki künden bir xorji götermeli (Mu. 2) Every day (or) every other day one must take a bundle (of hay) (to the horse).
- bu yıl emniyet bolan soŋ šä:girdleriŋ yüz**den** altmıšı geldi. (Är. 24) Since this year security is (good), 60% of the students have come (to school).
- kellä:m, ha:piza:m šukir allah tarap**dan** šunya:naq gü:jli we i:ti menin. (Är. 1) My head and that memory of mine, thank (God), are by (the help of) Allah sooo strong and sharp!
- čöl ma:lı üydä:ki**den** dayaw bolmalı. (Är. 12) Animals (kept in the) steppes are tougher than those (bred) at home.
- ö:z sü:tdeš doganna-hem ö:zin**nen** kette bolsa a:ğa diyediler. (Xa. 3) To their own brother (from the same mother), if he is elder than themselves, they say *a:ğa*.

(ii) Some postpositions take the ablative: *di:meden bašğa* 'aside from gourds and squashes', *elli ya:šdan soŋ* 'after age 50', *onnan soŋ* 'after this'; *köpden bä:ri* 'since long ago (lit. much)'; *teke lehjesinnen görä:* 'compared with the Teke dialect'; *bir hepdeden aŋırı:q* 'after one week' (Te.).

In clauses of comparative ablative+*son* the ablative suffix can be dropped. This happens particularly often with the participial construction -*AndAn son* : *alandan son* > *alan son* 'after (sb.) had taken', *gidenden son* > *giden son* 'after (sb.) had left'; but also with singular lexemes such as onson < onnan son 'after that'.

D. Derivative nouns

The line between semantic and grammatical derivation is blurred in the Turkic languages and so it is in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan; a case in point would be the aorist form -Ar which can be meaningfully interpreted as both. In this chapter only more or less positive cases of semantic derivation are discussed, while grammatical derivation is discussed in the respective subchapters on morphology. Most examples quoted below are to a certain degree lexicalized. Fully productive derivational suffixes have been marked with an X (e.g. *X*-dA:QI).

(a) Denominal nouns

-čII generates adjectives which render the basic meaning 'well provided with X', 'rich in X', 'particularly interested in X'. Examples: *ğayğı* 'sorrow' > *ğayğıčıl ene* 'a caring mother', *edeb* 'manners' > *edebčil šä:girt* 'a disciple with good manners', *gep* 'word, conversation' > *gepčil ğarrı* 'a chatty old man', *et* 'meat' > *etčil* 'carnivore', *etčil a:dam* 'a man who is keen on eating meat'.

X-dA:QI which is actually a composite of LOC+QI, turns locatives into attribuables. Examples: $\ddot{o}y$ 'house' > $\ddot{o}yd\ddot{a}:ki yax\check{c}a:l$ 'the refridgerator at home', o:ba 'village' > o:bada:qi hu:lu:muz 'our house in the village'. **X-jA** generates diminutives of adjective nouns, often connoting intensity of the semantic property, and/or affection on the part of the speaker. Examples: kiči 'small' > kičije 'very small, fairly small', oli 'big' > olija oğlum 'my (dear) big boy'.

-jAQ like -*jA*; occurs only in the Ä:rsa:rı dialect. Examples: *ümsüm* 'silent, non-budging' > *ümsümjek oğlan* 'a silent boy', *yılı* 'lukewarm' > *yılıjaq su:* 'nice and warm water'.

-jAŋ generates adjectives which denote characteristics positively related to the meaning of the nominal basis. Examples: *i:š* 'labor, work' > *i:šjeŋ i:šji* 'a hard-working toiler', *huwes* 'enthusiasm' > *huwesjeŋ a:dam* 'an enthusiastic person'.

-IAQ 'provided with X', 'rich in X' etc. Examples: *pul* 'money' > *pullaq a:dam* 'a wealthy man', *i:n* 'width' > *i:nlek yo:l* 'a broad road', *et* 'flesh' > *etlek giši* 'a stout person'.

X-II 'provided with X', 'rich in X', 'full of X' etc. Examples: du:z 'salt' > du:zli 'salty', edeb 'manners' > edebli 'well-behaved', aqil 'intelligence' > aqilli 'intelligent', ba:yisgi:l 'bicycle' > ba:yisgi:lli geldim 'I have come by bicycle'. In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the suffix can be reduced in lexicalized derivatives such as $s\ddot{u}:tb\ddot{u}r\ddot{u}nj$ 'ricepudding' (< $s\ddot{u}:tli$ $b\ddot{u}r\ddot{u}nj$), $dilt\ddot{u}:dik$ 'reed flute' (< dilli $t\ddot{u}:dik$). The variant yarati of yarali 'injured' (< yara 'wound') has been recorded in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect only.

X-II generates the meaning 'originating from X', which is generally attribuable to human beings only. Examples: *kä:billi mixma:nlar* 'the guests from Kabul', *maza:rli* 'from Mazāri Šarīf', *o:bali ği:z* 'a village girl', *čölli xalq* 'desert people'.

X-IIQ generates abstract nouns. Examples: *mehessil* 'student' > *mehessillik dewresi* 'the period of students life', *misa:pir* 'stranger; foreign' > *misa:pirliq* $\bar{g}i:n\check{c}ili\check{g}i$ 'the troubles of being away from home'.

-IIQ 'rich in X' (applicable only to locations): *ağač* 'tree' > *ağačlıq mantaqa* 'a woody region'.

X-IIQ (following a noun that denotes a timespan) generates the meaning 'of/for such-andsuch time'. Examples: $g\ddot{u}n$ 'day' > $b\ddot{a}$: \check{s} $g\ddot{u}nlik$ $\ddot{o}mir$ 'life (which lasts only) for five days', y_{ll} 'year' > *iki yıllıq zehmet* 'the hard work of two years'.

-QI makes locatives of space and time attributable which are not marked with the locative suffix -dA; a final vowel of the lexeme may be reduced. Examples: $b\ddot{u}g\ddot{u}n$ 'today' > $b\ddot{u}g\ddot{u}nki$ siya:sat 'the politics of today', $d\ddot{u}:n$ 'yesterday' > $d\ddot{u}:nki$ i:mit 'the food of yesterday'; dašari 'outdoors, outside' > dašarqi derweze 'the exterior gate', *ileri* 'suoth' > *ilerki* hemsa:ya:miz 'our southern neighbor'.

X-sIz 'lacking X', 'X-free' etc. Examples: *du:zsiz* 'saltless, salt-free', *su:siz čöl* 'a waterless desert', *atasiz oğlan* 'a fatherless child'.

The lexicon of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan contains many products of derivatoin with suffixes or prefixes that originate from the Persian language. Most of these lexemes are fully lexicalized copies and their affixes are not productive in the Turkmen dialects, although they may be phonologically adapted: *-a:na* 'X-like, typical of X' (*ša:yira:na xiya:l* 'poetic imagination' < *ša:yir* 'poet', *zena:na kesel* 'women's disorders' (< **zen* 'woman', not used in Turkmen), etc.); *-ba:z* 'X-player' (*quma:rba:z* 'gambler', *bečeba:z* 'boylover'); *-paraz* < pers. *-parast* 'mad with X, addicted to X' (*quwmparaz* 'ethnicist', *mi:xma:nparaz* 'utterly hospitable') and a few others.

Some copied suffixes are at least partly productive in the Turkmen dialects:

X-čA : generates diminutives of substantive nouns. Examples: ha:li 'carpet' > ha:liča 'small carpet', $\bar{g}i:z$ 'girl' > $\bar{g}i:z\check{c}a$, $\bar{g}a:zan$ 'caldorn' > $\bar{g}a:zan\check{c}a$, $\check{c}a:naq$ 'pot' > $\check{c}a:naq\check{c}a$, topiq 'knuckle' > $topiq\check{c}a$, $k\"{o}rpe$ 'big quilt' > $k\"{o}rpe\check{c}e$ 'small mattrass'.

-da:r : 'having X, equipped with X'. Examples: *ilim* 'knowledge, literacy' > *ilimda:r* 'literate' (which does not exist in the Afghan Persian lexicon), *oturum* 'settlement' > *oturumda:r* 'settled, equipped with settlements'.

Some copied affixes are productively used in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, while the Teke dialect employs other means to generate the respective meaning:

bed- : 'provided with a bad X'. Examples: axla:q 'morals' > bedaxla:q giši (Är.) ~ axla:qsız giši (Te.) 'an immoral person', ğılıq 'character' > bedğılıq (Är.) ~ ğılıqsız (Te.) 'vicious'.
bi:- : 'X-less'. Examples: na:mıs 'honor' > bi:na:mıs (Är.) ~ na:mıssız (Te.) 'dishonorous, dishonored', gerek 'necessary' > bi:gerek (Är.) ~ gereg dä:l (Te.) 'unnecessary'.
na:- : 'un-X'. Examples: beled 'knowing the place' > na:beled (Är.) ~ belet dä:l (Te.) 'a stranger to the place', doğrı 'right' > na:doğrı (Är.) ~ doğrı dä:l (Te.) 'wrong'.

(b) Deverbal nouns

-AĞAn : generates adjectives which bear the meaning 'doing X frequently, intensely, habitually'.¹⁶¹ Examples: $g\ddot{u}l$ - 'to laugh' > $g\ddot{u}legen \ o\breve{g}lan$ 'a child that laughs a lot, a well-tempered child', *i:*- 'to eat' > *i:yegen \vec{g}oyun* 'a sheep that eats a lot', *ur*- 'to hit' > *uraǧan a:dam* 'a man who uses to beat'.

-(A)Q : 'habitually doing X, inclined towards doing X'. Examples: u:xla- 'to sleep' > u:xlaqča:ğa 'a child that sleeps more than usual', oriš- 'to hassle' > oršaq aya:l 'a quarrelsome woman', qorq- 'to fear' > qorqaq oğlan 'a fearful child', ya:r- 'to tear to pieces' > ya:raq küjük 'a rapacious dog'.

-ArmAn : 'inclined to do X, ready to do X'. Examples: $\bar{g}a:l$ - 'to remain' > $\bar{g}a:larman$ mi:xma:n 'a guest who is going to stay overnight', et- 'to do' > edermen $\bar{s}a:girt$ 'a capable disciple', git- 'to leave' > gidermen misa:pir 'a traveller who is about to leave'.

- $\check{G}AQ$: '-ing, -y'. Examples: *yapıš-* 'to stick (to)' > *yapıšğaq ıla:y* 'sticky clay', *bez-* 'to shy away' > *bezgek ğoyın* 'a shy sheep'.

X-(I)ĞII ~ **X-(I)IĞI** : generates adjectives that convey the meanings 'which can X', 'which ought to be X' or 'which has already been X'; mind the inherently passive/reflexive character of the derivative. Examples: *et-* 'to do' > *ediģli* (År.) ~ *edilģi* (Te.) *iš* 'work that needs to be done', *min-* 'to ride' > *miniģli* (År.) ~ *minilģi* (Te.) *at* 'a broken horse', *yu:-* 'to wash' > *yuwiğli* (År.) ~ *yuwilği* (Te.) *ga:zan* 'a cauldron that has been washed', *pa:yla-* 'to distribute' > *pa:ylanği*¹⁶² (Är.) ~ *pa:ylağli* (Te.) *yer* 'lands that have been / need to be distributed'. (For details on metathetis and dialectal difference, cf. 4.3.4.a.ii.)

- $\check{\mathbf{GUn}}$ - $\check{\mathbf{GUn}}$: generates adjectives whose meaning is the 'result of action X'. Examples: yaz- 'to spread' > yazğın yer 'broad areas', ös- 'to grow (intr.)' > ösgün sač 'long hair', i:r- 'to tire' > i:rgin a:dam 'a tired man'.

- $\check{\mathbf{G}}\mathbf{Ir} \sim -\check{\mathbf{G}}\mathbf{Ur}$: *al*- 'to seize' > *alğır guš* 'a rapacious bird', *öt*- 'to pass' > *ötgir pä:ki* 'a sharp razor'.

 $-IQ \sim -UQ$: generates adjectives that denote the 'result of action X'. Examples: *yıq*- 'to pull down' > *yıqıq di:wa:l* 'a demolished wall', *yol*- 'to dishevel' > *yoluq yip* 'a broken rope'.

¹⁶¹ Johanson 2005:154f. mentions a "deverbal adjective -EGEn" denoting "intensity, duration, iteration and habituality" for, among others, the Turkmen language. My materials would not support the element of duration, but does support all others.

¹⁶² The [n] is a result of haplology prevention.

-jAŋ : 'inclined to do X'. Examples: *uyal-* 'to be bashful' > *uyaljaŋ oğlan* 'a bashful child', *bašar-* 'to succeed' > *bašarjaŋ mä:lim* 'a successful teacher', *yalın-* 'to flatter' > *yalınjaŋ giši* 'a flatterer person'.

-msAQ (rare) : 'incessantly doing X'. Examples: *geple-* 'to talk' > *geplemsek a:dam* 'a talkative man', *čöple-* 'to pick' > *čöplemsek a:dam* 'a picky man'.

5.1.2 Pronouns

(a) Personal pronouns: First person

Table 5-7 : Personal pronouns (1.PERS)

CASE			
Nom	men	biz	bizler (Är. Sa.Mu.Ba. Xat.) ~ biller (Är.Sa.)
Gen	meniŋ ~ meniŋ (XD.) meŋ (Te.Yo.Yem.). meŋki (Är.)	biziŋ	bizleriŋ (Är.Sa.) ~ billeriŋ (Är.) billeŋ Är.
Акк	meni	bizi	bizlerni (Mu.Xa.Ba.Xo.)
Dat	maŋa ~ menge (Mu.Xa.Ba.)	bize	bizlere (Är.Sa.) ~ billere (Är.)
Eqt	menče ~ meninče (Te.Yo.Yem.)	bizče ~ biziŋče (Te. Yo.Yem.)	bizlerdek Ba.
Loc	mende ~ menne (Te.Yo. Yem.)	bizde (all) ~ bizze (Te.Yo.Yem)	bizlerde (all) ~ billerde (Är.Sa.)
Abl	menden ~ mennen (Är.Te.Sa.)	bizden (all) ~ bizzen (Te. Yo.Yem)	bizlerden ~ bizzerden (Te.)

Unless otherwise specified, the forms quoted in the table exist in all dialects. The dative, like in many Turkic languages, has the special back-vowel form *maŋa*. The EQT/LIM form may or may not take the genitive suffix, without obvious difference of meaning or function. The assimilated and reduced variants (*menne, meŋ* etc.) follow the principles discussed in the phonology chapter.

(i) The personal pronouns for first persons are *men*, *biz* and *bizler*. The usage of the 1.PERS personal pronouns is in the Turkmen dialects less restricted than in many other Turkic idioms, with the Teke and Yomut dialects applying the pronouns most liberally. Regardless of personal markers like possessive suffixes, personal suffixes or finite verbs which co-exist in a phrase/sentence, the pronouns are mostly used in unstressed as well as stressed (thema or

rhema) position. Kinship-related phrases appear to generally necessitate the mentioning of the personal pronoun to denote the possessor.

- oroz čopanda:z ya:nı gü:čli čopanda:z heni:zeče **biz** görenmiz yo:q. (Är. 38) We have to date not seen a(nother) buzkashi player as powerful as Oroz čopanda:z.
- **men** hemme za:dı i:yä:n, hi:č danna:mo:q! (Te. 18) I eat everything, I am not picky!
- yo:q, marıdan dä:l, **biziŋ** ata-ba:balarmız ta:šhawızdan gelen. (Yo. 1) No, not from Marı – our forefathers came from Ta:šhawız.
- **menin** ata:m uz1:n boyl1 a:dam-d1. (Te. 19) My father was a tall man.
- **biziŋ** ba:balarmız (...) beši:r ğıšlağınnan o:ğa:nısta:na hijret edip dirler. (Är. 7) Our forefathers have migrated from the village of Beši:r to Afghanistan.
- **meniŋ** oğlım her ha:lda tib oqı:šı gerek. (Är. 15) My son must in any case go for medical studies.
- Kelderde-hem **meniŋ** bir dayzam ba:r. (Är. 3) I have an aunt in Kelder.

(ii) The pronoun *men* denotes a single first person.

- **men** sekiz yıldan bä:ri berhi:z etyä:n. (Te. 8) I have been keeping to a diet since eight years.
- **men** yetti ya:šımdaqa:m enem ölipti. (Är. 40) When I was seven years old my mother died.
- **menin** pikrimä görä: watannan ayrılmaq iŋ yaman za:tlarıŋ bi:ri. (Te. 6) According to my opinion, being separated from one's homeland is one of the worst things.
- ağšam **meni** čıya:n čoqdı. (Är. 26) (Last) night a scorpion stung me.

(iii) Things are not as simple as that in the cases of *biz* and *bizler*. A group of (single) first persons is mostly denoted by *biz* (often with the extension (*h*)*em*).

- **biz-em** yığnağa dö:rt bolıp bardıq. (Te. 5) We went to the meeting as (a group of) four.
- **biz-em** čağbada ğa:lıp suwa düšen sıčan ya:nıı boldıq. (Är. 40) We got caught in the rain and were (drained) like mice fallen into the water.
- **biz** ol yerä: sa:ğat sekize barmalı. (Te. 6) We need to go there at 8 o'clock.
- **biz-em** ba:zar orta: ešek minnik. (Yo. 1) We rode on horseback as far as the bazaar.

A plurality of first persons understood as a collective is generally denoted by *biz (hem)*. In the ND the usage of *biz* seems to be less liberal than in the XD.

- **biz-em** ča:ğalıqda kä:n ašıq oyna:rdıq. (Te. 3) In (our) childhood we [= the kids of our neighborhood] used to extensively play with knucklebones.
- **biz** mekteb oqasaq-da pa:rsını ğawı bilemmizo:q. (Te. 20)

Even if we [= the Teke people] study (in) school we don't know Persian well.

- **bizde** mele čä:kmeni köprä:k ya:šolılar giyä: . (Te. 19) At ours it is mostly the elders who put on gold-colored cloaks.
- **biz** tekelerde šu x1:1 jorap doqaya:lar. (Te. 12) At us, the Teke's, they knit this type of stockings.
- **bizde-**xu ölini liba:si bilen kömmeydiler, hetmen kefen qıladılar. (Ba. 5) At ours they don't bury the dead body with garments; they definitely wrap him in a shroud.
- **bize** bir juma: günnen bašğa rusğatı yo:q. (Te. 14) For us there are no days off aside from Friday.

In the Ä:rsa:rı, Muqri, Xatap and Bayat dialects a plurality of first persons understood as a collective can also be denoted by the pronoun *bizler*:

- **biller** nä:mi:š edibilers. (Är. 4) What can we do....
- köprä:g onda:m šil **billeŋ** türkmenlemmize kömek edilse. (Är. 36) And if then more (than anyone else) our Turkmens were supported!
- **bizler** a:ta-ba:walarmız bir yerde bola:n. (Mu. 1) Our forefathers have been (living) at the same place.
- özbek-em bolsa **bizlerdek** gepuredi ši-yem. (Ba. 3) Although he is an Uzbek, he speaks like us.
- diri:werleriŋ ö:zi bä:zi:si oqı:čılarmıza kömek etyo:, yä:ni: bizlerden pul almiyo:r. (Xa. 2)

The drivers themselves, some of them, support our students, that is, they don't take money from us.

Explicit singularity of individuals within a group of first persons has in rare cases also been reported as expressed by *bizler*:

• soŋ šo gi:je birbeje gelip **billeriŋ** saqğal-mırı:dımızı sı:rıp gitdi. (Är. 14) Then that night at one o'clock (they) came and shaved everybody's beard and moustaches.

In all dialects the pronoun *biz* is in modest speech used for a single first person:

biz ni:rede bolsağ-am sizden xabar aljaq bolars. (Te. 6)
 Wherever I am [= 1SGMODEST] I [= I] try to keep track of you [= 2SGRESP].

In the Är.Sa.Mu.Ba.Xa. dialects the pronoun *bizler (hem)* expresses modesty:

- **biller**-em altınjı sınpača marčaqda mekdep oqadıq. (Sa. 3) I attended school in Marčaq up to sixth grade.
- šuni učin **bizlerni** wılıswa:l sa:yib tiletipdi. (Mu. 1) Therefore the district chief summoned me.

(b) Personal pronouns: Second person

CASE			
Nom	sen	siz	sizler (Är.Sa.) ~ siller (Är.)
Gen	seniŋ	siziŋ	sizleriŋ (Är.Sa.) silleriŋ
	seŋ (Te.Yo.Yem)		(Är.)
ACC	seni	sizi (XD) ~	sizleri (XD) ~ sizlerni (ND)
		sizni (ND)	
DAT	saŋa (XD) ~ siŋe	size	sizlere ~ sillere (Är.)
	(ND)		
Eqt/Lim	senče ~ seniŋče	sizče	sizlerče ~ sillerče (Är.)
Loc	sende ~ senne	sizde	sizlerde (Är.Sa.ND) ~
	(Te.Yo. Yem.)		sillerde (Är.)
Abl	senden ~ sennen	sizden	sizlerden (Är.Sa. ND) ~
	(Te.Yo.Yem.Är.)		sillerden (Är.)

Table 5-8: Pronouns second person

Unless otherwise indicated, all forms are used in all dialects. The dative is the back-vowel word *saŋa*; the parallel form *siŋe* has been reported in the Är.Mu.Ba.Xa. dialects. The EQT/LIM may or may not take the genitive suffix (*senče* ~ *seniŋče*, *sizče* ~ *siziŋče*), without obvious difference in meaning or function. The assimilated forms (*senne* etc.) follow the principles described in the phonology chapter.

The postposed particle *-hem* or derivates of it (-Am), or (in rare cases) its equivalent *-dA*, can be added without any obvious change in meaning.

(i) The personal pronoun *sen* denotes single second persons who are addressed without particular respect, such as children and minors, subalterns, subordinates; irreverence or disrespect is not generally involved, but the social position of the adressed person equals that of the speaker at best. Unfamiliarity would in the Är. and ND dialects exclude a person from being addressed as *sen*.

When a third person's address to ego is quoted, the respective personal pronoun directed on ego is also often quoted as *sen* irrespective of the actual form that had been used in the address:

- bu yerdä:ki šä:girdlerimin hi:č haysi **sennen** ökde dä:l di:di. (Te.) He said (to me), none of my students here is more intelligent than you.
- tuja:rat etjek bolsan senne šunča pul barmi di:di. (Te. 7) He said (to me), if you want to go in for trade – do you have so much money (available)?!

In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the pronoun *sen* has been reported as functioning as an impersonal pronoun:

• **sen** bir gitsen iki yılača gelesin yo:q. (Är. 45) If you go (to Iran for work), you won't come back for as much as two years. (ii) The pronoun *siz* is directed on a plurality of persons without particular regard to their individual social positions towards the speaker:

- **siziŋ** hemmä:ŋiz mehessilmi? (Te. 15) Are you all students?
- **siz** hemmelerŋiz aša:qı ta:mda yatıŋ. (Är. 1) All of you (guests), (please) retire to rest in the room downstairs!

The pronoun *siz* is also applied when addressing a single person with respect or deference, for example because of his superior social position. In the Teke dialect, the usage of *siz* (as opposed to *sen*) appears to be more restricted than, for example, in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect.

- **sizi** bi:ri derġä:p gelipdir. (Är. 11) Somebody has come in quest of you.
- **siziŋ** tö:rt sa:nı oğlıŋız ba:r, šüyle dä:lmi? (Är. 19) You have four sons, isn't it?
- **siz** ikra:ma nesi:hat berib otirma:ŋ, yaqımı yo:q šoŋ. (Är. 1) Don't waste your time on giving advice to Ikra:m, he is no good.
- **siz** bıl i:šiŋ hötdesinnen gelip bilmejek bolsaŋız öŋnen aydıŋ. (Te. 3) If you can't see this piece of work through, tell (me) from the beginning.

In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, quotations containing an address to oneself can be rendered as *siz* (rather than *sen*) if that was the original address:

• mennen, **siz** qaysı qawmnan bolyo:rsıŋız diyip so:radı. (Är. 7) He asked me, which tribe are you from.

If an impersonal pronoun is necessary, in my materials it is mostly *siz*. It is difficult to decide, however, if this is due to my own presence (as a guest or otherwise honored person) in the recording situations, or should rather be considered an independent feature.

- xayya:t awal **siziŋ** mejberiŋizi alar soŋ šoŋa garap tiker. (Te. 5) First the tailor takes your [= one's] measurements and then he sews according to that.
- siz piša:riņiz bolsa yımırta hem köp i:mä:ŋ. (Är. 17)
 If you have [= one has] (high) blood pressure, don't eat (too) many eggs.
- bir sapar xalqı aldasanız son hemi:še **size** ınanmaya:lar. (Te. 16) If you deceive the people once, then they will never (again) trust you.
- siz bir rewšen bir giši bosanız mawla:n qomanda:n siz bilen ğatı gelišyo:r-tı derrew. (Är. 6)

If you were [= one was] an educated person Mawla:n Qomanda:n would quickly come to terms with you.

(iii) The pronoun *sizler*, which is more commonly used in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect than in the others, is directed on a plurality of second persons whose social position is perceived as (slightly or distinctly) inferior of the speaker's position. Even a connotation of disrespect can be contained in this form of address.

• **sizler** nä:če giši bolıp bir hu:lıda ya:šaya:sıŋız? (Te. 14) How many persons are you living in this compound?

- **sizler** qačan marčaq barjaq? (Sa. 2) When are you guys going to Marčaq?
- hä:zir men **sizlere** ayıq-ayıq edip aydıp bereyin. (Är. 42) Now I am going to tell you (everything) in detail.
- sillerin hemme ma:liniz (...) bir motara degmiyo:r di:di. (Är. 12) All of your possessions, he said, does not equal one car.
- men šo pille-dä:m aytdim, **sizleriŋ** bul i:šiŋiz yalŋıš di:dim. (Är. 19) I told (them immediately) at that time, what you are doing is wrong, I said.

(c) Personal pronouns: Inclusive

(i) In the Turkmen dialects there are two variants of a personal pronoun that includes first and second persons of which apparently at least one is imagined as an actual plurality: *siz-bizler* and *biz-sizler*.

- ya: bolmasa **siz-bizler** yip diyo:rs, olar bosa üp diyo:r. (Är. 1) Or other than that, you and us, we say *yip* ('thread'), while they say *üp*.
- hä: biz-sizler bil diyo:rs ya: šol diyo:rs. (Är. 12) Well, we say *bil* or *šol*.

(ii) An inclusive personal pronoun composed of *sen* and *men*, such as exists in some neighboring non-Turkmen dialects, has not been recorded in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan.

(d) Demonstrative pronouns / adjectives

In the Turkmen dialects there are three basic types of demonstrative pronouns with their respective phonetic variants and extended basic forms: *bu, o and $\underline{s}u$. The demonstrative pronouns also substitute the personal pronoun of the third person. The unmarked forms of the demonstrative pronouns, and the equative-limitative form of it, function as demonstrative adjectives.

The table shows only variants which are represented in my materials; most probably there exist even more variants than these, but they have not been recorded in actual speech. Unless otherwise indicated, the indicated forms exist in all dialects.

	*bu	0	šu
	bul ~ bıl	ol ~ o:l (Är.) ~	šul ~ šol (Te.Är.Sa.)
	(Te.Är.Yo.) ~ bil	ho:l (Te.Yo.)	~ šıl (Är.)
	(ND)		
	bı (Är.)	0	šı (Är.Te.) ~ šo (Är.)
PRONSG			~ šu (Te.Sa.)
Nom	bul-am (Är.) / bul- da (Är.Te.Yo.)	ol-am (Te.Yo.Är.)	ši-yem (Ba.Mu.Xa.)

	bitgi (Qa.)	-	šotğı (Qa.)
PRONPL	bular (Te.) ~ bılar	olar	šolar (Är.) ~ šılar
NOM	(Är.Yo.)		(Yo.)

(i) The demonstrative pronoun 'this', which refers to an object which is locally or mentally close to the speaker, has been reported in its simple NOMSG form *bu only in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect (as bi) and is very rare there, too:

• **bi** nä: görgit boldı. (Är. 6) What a nuisance is this!

The extended variant *bul* (all dialects) ~ *bul* (Te.Är.Yo.) ~ *bil* (Är.) is the standard demonstrative pronoun for near deixis in all dialects.

When used as a PRONPERS3, in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects the simple demonstrative pronoun *bu is in polite speech replaced by bu kiši or bu kišiler:

• türkmen tilden (...) bir neti:je alar eken-de **bu kišiler**. (Mu. 1) He is drawing conclusions from the Turkmen language.

(ii) The pronoun *o* 'that', which refers to more distant objects and to objects previously mentioned, and its extended variant *ol*, are in universal usage in the dialects.

siziŋ šeri:atıŋızda yo:ğ ol, di:di, čunki yo:ğ o bizde. (Är. 2)
 This does not exist in your sharia law, he said, because it does not exist at ours.

The Ä:rsa:r1 dialect has yet another variant with lengthened vowel (*o:l*), which bears a stronger stress; in the Teke dialect a similarly stressed variant is *ho:l* with h-prothesis.

(iii) The pronoun $\check{s}u$ 'that' and its extended variant $\check{s}ul$ (all dialects) ~ $\check{s}ol$ (Te.) ~ $\check{s}ul$ (Är.), which refers to absent objects on one hand, and to objects that are immediately being pointed to, on the other, are used in all dialects.

• **šul** zi:ğir ya:ğıŋ palawı! (Är. 6) This (one here) is sesame oil pilaff!

(iv) The forms *bitgi* and *šotği* have by informants from the town of Qarqin (which belongs to the Ä:rsa:ri complex) and by other Ä:rsa:ri dialect speakers been postulated as replacing *bil* and *šil* respectively, in the (Ä:rsa:r) regiolect of Qarqin. However, I have not been able to record examples from natural speech which contain these variants.

- **šotğı:nı** alıqgel disek šonı alıqgel diyenmiz bolyo:r. (Qa. 1) If we say *šotğı:nı alıqgel* ('bring that one!'), (that is) our way of saying *šonı alıqgel*.
- **bitgi** diyo:rs bil dijegne. ana šol ya:naq ortasinda lehjeler parx etyo:r. (Qa. 1) We say *bitgi* instead of saying *bil*. Like that the dialects differ among themselves.

hä: biz-sizler bil diyo:rs, ya: šol diyo:rs, olar bitti diyo:r bil di:jegine. šol di:jegine šotti šotti diyo:, šu terti:p ortasında. (Är. 1)
 Yeah, we-and-you say *bil* or *šol*, they say *bitti* instead of saying *bil*. Instead of saying *šol* they say *šotti-šotti*. (That's) the way (how things are) among them.

(v) In all dialects, supplying the demonstrative pronoun with the enclitic particle *da* and/or its Persian-origin equivalent *hem* (which can follow vowel harmony and often loses its initial [h]), both of which are in these cases devoid of their original meaning ('also'), is a common phenomenon: *bul-am*, *šolar-da*, *ši-yem* etc. Actually, the variants containing the particle are in natural speech more frequently used than those without, so that one may consider these forms as "pronouns in statu nascendi".

(vi) The demonstrative/personal pronoun plural forms are *bolar*, *olar* and *šolar* in all dialects, with first syllable high vowel variants (*bılar* etc.) occurring in some of the dialects (see table above).

(vii) The declension of the demonstrative pronouns shows some differences between the dialects. The table below may be incomplete; it does not render an ideal full paradigm, but only those forms which have been recorded in my materials and can therefore be safely postulated.

The bases for declined demonstrative pronouns are mostly the simple variants *bu, o and $\check{s}u$; only the Teke form bulya:li 'like this' is based on the extended variant bul. – The possessive and case suffixes follow the simple variants of the pronouns only after the pronominal n: on:miz 'that one of ours', $on\check{c}a$ 'that much', $\check{s}on:miz$ 'that one of yours'.

	ψ1		~
	*bu	0	šu
Gen	muniŋ	onıŋ ~ oniŋ	šunıŋ ~ šonıŋ ~ šüniŋ
		(År.ND.)	(Sa.) ~ šoŋ (Te.Yo.)
		oŋqı (Är.)	šuni (Mu.)
	PL bılarıŋ (Är.)	51 ()	× ,
	1 2 chiming (1 200)	PL olaŋ (Te.Yo.)	
		PL olaŋqi (Är.)	
	mını (Är.)	oni	šonı (Är.) ~ šuni (Är.)
A 1717	mm (Ar.)	UIII	
Акк			~ šuni (Är.)
	PL bıları (År.)	PL olari ~ oları	šotğı:nı (Qa.)
		(Sa.)	
Dat	mıŋa ~ moŋa (År.)	oŋa (Te.Är.Yo.)	šuŋa (Te.)
	monča (Är.) ~ munča	onča (Är.)	šunča (Te.) ~ šonča
Eqt/Lim			(Är.)
	(Te.)		< ,
	minya:ni ~ munya:ni		šonya:lı (Te.)
	(Är.)		
	bulya:l1 (Te.)		žun da ž (Da Mu Va)
	büyle (År.)		šundağ (Ba.Mu.Xa.)

Table 5-10: Declension of the demonstrative pronouns
--

Loc	munna (Te.)	onda (Är.Te.) ~	šunda ~ šonda (Sa.) ~
		onna (Te.)	šonna (Te.Yo.)
Abl	munnan (Är.)	onnan (Är.)	šonnan (Te. Är.) ~
			šunnan (Är.) ~ šınnan
			(Är.)

(viii) Almost all declined forms of the pronoun *bu have initial [m] : EQT/LIM monča ~ munča ~ munča (Är.) 'so much, so many', LOC munda ~ munna 'here, at this point', ABL mundan ~ munnan ~ minnan (Är.).

(ix) The postpositions which follow the nominative of nouns can in all dialects follow either the nominative or the genitive of pronouns: $o \ bilen \sim onip-bilen$ 'with that, with him', so bilen $\sim sonip-bilen$ 'with that one over there'; $onya:ni \sim onip-ya:ni$ 'like that, like him'; sonya:ni / sunya:ni ~ sonip-ya:ni.

(x) The phrase *onnan son* (Är.) 'after that' is often used as a filler in the sentence-initial position. It exists in various contracted variants: *onson* (Är.Sa.), *oson* (Yo.Sa.).

(xi) The EQT/LIM forms bear, along with their primary meaning 'this much etc.', also the meaning 'very much': *onča rawa:j dä:l* 'It is not very usual.'

(xii) Demonstrative pronouns are in sentence-final position used as emphasizers which underline the correctness, relevance etc. of the statement in total (rather than bearing an actual anaphoric function):¹⁶³

- yağšı atadan dörä:n oğlan xo:y-xıslatınnan bildiryo:r **ol**. (Är. 1) The child procreated from a good father will be identified by his character and qualities!
- xalqı aldamaq onıŋ gözine topır ormaq hi:č bir mezhebde dürüs dä:l **o**l. (Är. 2) It is not okay according to any sect to deceive the people and throw dust in their eyes!
- piša:r yaramaz za:d eken **bil**. (Te. 10) (High) blood pressure is a nasty thing!

(xiii) A demonstrative pronoun separating thema and rhema exposes the thema; syntactically, it should resume the function of the thema element:

- gurbaqqa sayrasa **šol** ya:ziŋ niša:nası bolyo:r. (Är. 12) When the frogs croak, that's the indicator of spring.
- ya:š ši:rba:zi ğuzi:niŋ gö:šti oniŋ bašğa maza:si ba:r. (Är. 14) The meat of a young *ši:rba:zi* lamb – that has a different taste!

(xiv) When used as demonstrative adjectives, all extended variant types (*bul*, *ol* and *šol*) are represented in the dialects; out of the simple forms, the *bu* and *šu* types are as adjectives universally used in the dialects.

¹⁶³ Erdal (2004:414) suggests that in some Old Turkic cases a pronoun *ol* in the end of both nominal and verbal predicates "seems to function like a copula" while in some cases its source may be a "topicalizing structure". The latter explanation is most plausible for our (Te. 10) example. Erdal's information (2004:234) that "in 3rd persons we often find the [postposed, I assume] pronoun *ol*, even when there is an explicit subject" is interesting for comparison with the phenomenon described here.

Table 5-11: Demonstrative adjectives

Dем	bul (Är.ND). ~ bıl (Är.Te.)	ol (XD) ~ o:1 (Är.) ~ ho:1 (Te.)	šol (Är.Te.Sa.) ~ šul (Är.Te.) ~ šıl (Är.)	šol-šu (Är.)
Adj	bu ~ bı (Är.Te.Yo.) ~ bi(Är.)	o (Te.)	šu (Är.Te.Sa.Xat.) ~ šo (Är.Te.Sa.) ~ šı (Är.Te.) ~ ši (Te.Yo.)	-

(xv) A demonstrative adjective type o has in its simple form been reported only in the Teke and Yomut dialects. The extended variant ol, on the other hand, is present in all dialects and appears also as a lengthened variant o:l in the Ä:rsa:r1, and ho:l with vowel lengthening and h-prothesis, in the Teke dialect; the latter forms bear special stress:

- ba:la:po:šiŋizi **ho:l** yerde ĝoyandirn. (Te. 14) I have stored your overcoat away over theeeere.
- **o:l** a:dami gördiŋmi? (Är. 24) Can you see that man over there?

(xvi) Contraction leads to spontaneous forms like *b-a:dam* 'this man' (Te.), *š-oğlan* 'this boy' (Te.) and, primarily in the Ä:rsa:rı dialect, to quasi-lexicalized forms like $b\ddot{u}:l < bu$ yıl 'this year', $\ddot{s}\ddot{u}:l < \ddot{s}u$ yıl 'this year', $b\ddot{o}:r\ddot{a}: < *bu$ yere 'here (DAT)', $\ddot{s}\ddot{o}:rde < *\check{s}u$ yerde 'here' (LOC), $\ddot{s}\ddot{u}win$ 'today' $< *\check{s}u$ gün, etc.

(xvii) All demonstrative adjectives can have their deictic function stressed by a preposed presentative interjection *mana* or *ana*:

- Tašqulıŋ eline oq tegip kičik ustaxanı **mana šu** ortanı alıp kiten. (Mu. 1) A bullet has hit Tašqul's hand and has taken away the little bone, this place (which I am pointing at).
- **mana šı** za:dları ö:zimiz ğoršayo:rs bö:rde, **ana bı** za:dlar bosa sa:xtegi: bılar pä:kista:nnan gelyo:r. (Är. 37) These things here, we construct here ourselves; those over there on the other hand, they are fake, (they) come from Pakistan.

(xviii) As opposed to the demonstrative pronoun type δu , which operates for distant deixis, the demonstrative adjective δu and its variants refer to objects that are close to speaker and addressee, and can literally be pointed at:

- šı dayza:n-a:m motarıŋızda alıp gitjekmi? (Är. 7) Are you taking this elderly woman (to which I am pointing) along, too?
- š-oğlanı göryo:miŋ? meniŋ yegenim bolya:r. (Te. 3) Do you see that boy over there? (He) is my nephew.

The demonstrative adjective type δu often serves as a simple affirmative, without bearing an actually demonstrative function (not unlike the word "that" in English):

• bizleŋ i:šimiz **ši mı:za:n**nan soŋ köp bolyo:. (Är. 41) Our work is much after that Libra (month)! ba:dı pä:lwa:nıŋ am a:xır šul oğlaq bašın iyer. (Är. 10) That buzkashi is finally going to ruin Ba:dı Pä:lwa:n!

(xix) The reduplicated demonstrative adjective šol-šu 'this very ...' has been reported in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect only.

• šol-šu waxtda ayağna bir iŋŋe gi:ren eken. (Är.1) At that very moment a needle got stuck in his foot.

(xx) Sequence of demonstrative pronouns / adjectives

If a sentence or a connected set of sentences contains more than one demonstrative elements – pronoun(s) or adjective(s) – a particular sequence appears to be observed. My material is not very rich in examples; the given examples contain the sequence types $o \gg \check{s}u$ and $\check{s}u \gg bu$.

- **o:l** a:dami gördiŋmi? uzi:n a:dami, **šol** yağši čopanda:z. (Är. 24) Have you seen that man? The tall man. *He* is the good buzkashi player.
- **oni** gözi gö:k hä:ki:m di:yo:tılar, šo waxtda a:zajiq **šoni** bilyo:r ekeni:m. (Är. 6) They call him "the blue-eyed officer". At that time I used to know that one a bit.
- oniŋ oğlı **šul** o:bada ya:šiyor, yö:ne ö:zi **bö:rde** yo:q. (Är. 34) His son lives in this village, but he himself is not here.

(e) Reflexive pronouns / adjectives

(i) The reflexive pronoun is in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan *ö:z*- '-self'.

(ii) The reflexive pronoun is supplied with the possessive suffixes to indicate the person and number. In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect POSS1PERSPL and POSS2PERSPL of the reflexive pronoun occur with and without plural suffix: $\ddot{o}:zimiz \sim \ddot{o}:zlermiz$ 'ourselves', $\ddot{o}:ziniz \sim \ddot{o}:zlerniz$ 'yourselves'. Although as a rule the vowel of the possessive suffix is high and unrounded, occasional cases of rounding have been found in the *xaliş* dialects:

- **ö:zi** ölennen soŋ ikita:plara:m asta-asta tozıpdır. (Är. 1) After he himself has died, his books are also bit by bit scattered.
- ö:rde **ö:zlerŋiz-**em paxta ekyo:rsıŋızmı? (Är. 39) Do you also grow cotton there yourselves?
- suwa zıŋo:r **ö:zini**, tapıp šol oğlanı tapo:r. (Te. 13) He throws himself into the water and finds that boy.
- qırq künde a:t **ö:zini** yetiryo:r. (Mu. 2) In fourty days the horse recovers (lit., itself).
- **ö:züm** doqadim ši ha:li:ni. (Yo. 2) I myself have woven this carpet.

(iii) The declension of the reflexive pronoun regularly includes the pronominal n; assimilation phenomena (\ddot{o} :*zinnen* etc.) occur as described in the phonology chapter.

(iv) In the nominative case the reflexive pronoun is often supplied with the respective personal pronoun without an obvious change in meaning:

- meji:de yaz di:sem erinip etmedi, a:xir xati **men ö:zim** yazdım. (Är. 13) I said to Meji:d, "write!", but he was lazy and didn't do (it); in the end I wrote the letter myself.
- **biz ö:zimiz** šu i:ši tejirbe edip gördik. (Är. 37) We have ourselves tried that work out.
- **siz ö:ziŋiz** aytmasaŋız hi:čkim ğamıŋızda bolmaz. (Te. 2) If you don't tell, nobody will care for you.
- ol nemedä:m aslan ö:zi qawmlığna arab, yö:ne özbeki gepliyo:r. (Är. 1) He is himself (for) whatever (reason) actually an Arab by ethnicity, but he speaks Uzbek all the same.

(v) In order to draw special stress to a phrase, the respective simple clause can be extended into a possessor-possessed construction in which the reflexive pronoun is the head and bears the case marker of the respective satellite:

- *men > meniŋ ö:zim ğaytadan yene bazara barmali boldim. (Är. 29)
 I myself (then) had to go to the bazaar once over.
- *marčaqdan > ha:li šu Marčağıŋ ö:zinnen čiqo:r. (Sa. 2) The (best) carpets emerge from that very Marčaq.
- *rozgeldi > intejik sabır etseniz rozgeldi:**niŋ ö:zä:m** bı meselä:ni čözer. (Är. 2) If you are a little bit patient, Rozgeldi himself will solve this problem.

(vi) The reflexive adjective ö:z exists in all dialects but is only restrictively used.

- goyunlarıŋ golağna tamğa basyo:rlar soŋ herkim ö:z goynını¹⁶⁴ tamğasınnan taniyo:r. (Är. 12) They print a mark on the ears of the sheep and then everyone identifies his own sheep by their earmarks.
- **ö:z** tiliŋizde aytiwerıŋ. (Mu. 1) Talk in your own language!

(f) Interrogative pronouns / adjectives

In the interrogatives there is quite a bit of lexical and/or phonological variation among the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan; for details on this, see the respective subchapters.

(i) Some interrogatives are in the Turkmen dialects used as pronouns as well as adjectives. However, the dialects may differ in usage to the effect that some interrogatives are preferebly used as a pronoun in one, and as an adjective in other dialects: $n\ddot{a}$: (År.) 'What, which' and its extended variant $n\ddot{a}$:me (År.Te.); qaysı (År.Mu.Xa.Ba.) ~ haysı (Te.Yo.Sa.Yem.) 'Which'; $n\ddot{a}$: $\check{c}e$ (År.Te.Yo.Sa.Yem) ~ ni: $\check{c}e$ (Mu.Xa.Ba.) 'how many, how much'; qanča (Är.Te.Yo.Sa.) ~ qanša (Är.); $n\ddot{a}$:hi:l (År.)¹⁶⁵ ~ $n\ddot{a}$:hi:li (Te.Yo.Sa.) 'how, of what kind'. In the declined forms, phonotactic phenomena such as lengthening of vowels, contraction, and assimilation occur as described in the phonology chapter. The interrogatives are often used in rhetorical

¹⁶⁴ In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the lexeme $\bar{g}oyun$ 'sheep', when a suffix with initial vowel is added, can indeed have its middle syllable vowel deleted (e.g. $\bar{g}oyunina \sim \bar{g}oynina$ 'to his sheep'); this reduction does not occur in the other dialects.

¹⁶⁵ For the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect my materials establish the usage as an adjective only.

questions and, combined with *her* 'each', as generalizing indefinite pronoun/adjective. Examples:

- nä:di:n aydanım bolmasa! (Är. 6) (< nä: edeyin)
 What shall I do if what I say is not (taken into account)?!
- **nä: xızmat**? (Är. 1) What service (can I do for you)?
- bu ča:ğa: **nä:me** bollı, munča a:ğlaya:r. (Te. 16) What has happened to this child, (so that) she weeps so much?
- saŋa **nä:m-**moldı? (Är. 3) (< nä:me boldı) What has happened to you?
- **nä:me sebeb**dendir oni maxtımğola: bermä:ndirler. (Te. 2) For some (lit. what) reason they did not give her to Maxtım<u>ğ</u>ulı.
- sıčan hı:nına gi:ren ya:ni bizem her **qaysı**:m mawza: gi:rdik. (Är. 14) Like mice withdraw in their hole, each one of us also withdrew into our place.
- her **qaysı**dan bir neti:je alar eken de bu kišiler (Mu. 1) This person takes a result from each one of (the materials he collects).
- o:ğanısta:nda bağšılar **qaysı yo:l**ı 1:zarlıyo:rlar? (Är. 9) Which style do singers in Afghanistan follow?
- her **haysı**sınıŋ tapa:wıtları köp. (Te. 13) Each one of them has many distinctions.
- **haysı** gün geldiŋiz? (Te. 5) which day did you come?
- a:qpa:miq her **nä:če** etse o:di tutašdirip bilmä:ndir. (Är. 42) However much A:qpa:miq did (struggle), he was unable to light the fire.
- **nä:če deli:ller**e görä: bu xi:l inek oğanista:nıŋ yağdayna bara:bar gelyo:r. (Är. 4) According to quite a few pieces of evidence (lit. how many arguments), this sort of cattle suits the conditions of Afghanistan.
- sizler **nä:če giši** bolıp bir hu:lıda ya:šaya:sıŋız? (Te. 14) As how many people are you living in this compound?
- Haji ba:ba **niče qoy**ıŋız ba:r? (Mu. 1) Grandfather, how many sheep do you have?
- müjberi **qanča**? (Är. 22) How much is his dress size?
- qanča erbet. (Te. 3)
- How bad!
- uwalam men **qanča mertebe** aytdım, hi:čkim ğolağ asmadı. (Är. 6) How many times I said (so) before, (but) nobody listened.
- andxoya su:w gelmiyo:ni **qanša yıl** boldı. (Är. 40) It's been so many years that the water (of the Fāryāb river) is not coming as far as Andxoy.
- iner **nä:hi:li düye**? (Te. 13) What kind of a camel is an *iner*?
- ašğaba:t uzaqdan **nä:hi:li** görünya:r? (Te. 8) What does Ašğaba:t look like from afar?
- indi **nä:hil** boldı, gu:niŋize yaqdımı? (Är. 10) How is it now, do you like it (lit. does it please your mind)?

(ii) Other interrogatives function as pronouns only: *kim* 'who', *ni:re* ~ *ni:ri* (Är.) 'where' (whose final vowel is in the suffixation process mostly reduced, e.g. *ni:rde* 'where LOC', *ni:rden* 'from where'), *hani* (XD) ~ *qani* (ND) 'where', *qalay* 'how' (Är.), *hačan* ~ *qačan* (Är.Sa.) 'when'.

- bu alma **ni:ri:niŋ** alması? (Är. 23) Where is this apple from? (lit. this apple is an apple of where)
- kita:bi tä:kčede ğoyıptım, kim aldı-qa:? (Är. 23)
 I have put the book on the shelf, (I wonder) who has taken it away?
- sizler **qačan** marčaq barjaq? (Sa. 2) When are you guys going to Marčaq?

(g) Indefinite pronouns / adjectives

(i) The preposed generalizing adjective *her* (lit. 'each') turns some of the above named interrogative pronouns into indefinite pronouns: *herkim* 'whoever, everyone', *hernä:me* ~ *hernimerse* (Mu. 2) 'whatsoever', *herhaysi* 'which one ever', *hernä:če* 'however much'.

- hernimerse di:seŋ (Mu. 1) whatever you say
- sıčan hı:nına gi:ren ya:ni bizem **her qaysı:m** mawza: gi:rdik. (Är. 14) Like mice take refuge in their holes, we also took refuge to (our) positions, each one of us.
- a:qpa:miq her**nä:če** etse o:di tutašdirip bilmä:ndir. (Är. 42) However much A:qpa:miq did (try), he was unable to light the fire.

The composites *herhaysı* ~ *herqaysı* (Är.) and *hernä:če* are used as adjectives as well. The preposed element $hi:\check{c} \sim hi:\check{s}$ (Är.) replaces *her* in negative clauses:

- büwin mektebe **hi:škim** gel**me**di. (Är. 36) Today nobody has come to school.
- biz šu mehpilde **hi:čqaysı:mız** geple**me**dik. (Är. 22) At that meeting none of us said a word.

(ii) Other indefinite pronouns are $bi:ri \sim birte$ (Mu.Xa. Ba) '(some)one' (which can be extended with *her-/hič-*), *bä:zi* 'several, some', *köpi* 'many; most'¹⁶⁶. *Hemme*, *bä:zi* and *köpi* are used as indefinite pronouns and as adjectives as well; *bašğa* ~ *bašqa* (Mu.Ba.Xa.Är.) 'another ...', *büyleki* (Är.) 'the other ...' and *kä:* (Te.) 'many a ...' are used as adjectives only. Examples: *bä:zi* xa:nlarmız (Är.) 'some (of) our governors', *köpi* ja:ylarda 'in many/most places', *kä: wağıtlar* (Te.) 'at times'.

- sizi **bi:ri** dergä:p gelipdir. (Är. 11) Somebody has come in quest of you.
- men bö:rde bolmasam **hi:čbi:ri** hi:čhačan doğrı nahar biširmiyo:rlar. (Är. 1) If I am not here nobody will ever cook a real meal.
- bu setil tešik eken, **bašqa birte**sini a:l. (Mu. 5)

¹⁶⁶ The adnominal form $k \ddot{o} pi$, which might be perceived as coined along the Arabo-Persian copies $b\ddot{a}:zi$ and $k\ddot{u}lli$, on the other hand resembles $\ddot{u}k\ddot{u}\ddot{s}+i$ in Erdal 2004:163, an adnominally used partitive POSS3PERS. However, this fails to explain the reduplication of the possessive suffix in $k\ddot{o}pisi$ 'many of them'.

This bucket has a hole, take another one!

- o yerde türkmenleriŋ **köpisi** ya:šaya:. (Te. 2) Most of the Turkmens live there.
- **büyleki** mı:xma:nlar qačan gel**jek**? (Är. 13) When are the other guests coming?

(iii) The copied lexemes *külli* (Är.Sa.) and *ehli* (Te.) function as indefinite adjectives 'all ..., the total of ...'; while *kä:bir* (+ PL.) 'many a ...' is present in all dialects, *bira:n* 'a ... of some sort' has been reported only from the ND dialects.

- bu sapar **külli** čaqır bir bolıp bir a:dama ra:y berdik. (Är. 5) This time all Čaqır (people), we allied and voted for one man.
- ehli o:ba bolıp a:rıq ğazma:ğa ğatnašdıq. (Te.18) We joined the digging of the canal as the total of the village.
- ata-ba:balarmızıŋ **kä:bir** resim-rawa:jları aji:b. (Är. 9) Many a custom of our forefathers is wonderful.

commander or village chief of some sort.

her kišini loyejirgege čaqirmeydiler bira:n ya:šolığ molla qumandan ya: qaryada:r bolmese. (Xa. 3)
 They don't invite (just) everybody to the Loya Jirga – unless he is an elder, a mullah,

(h) Collective pronouns / adjectives

(i) Collective pronouns can be generated by postposing *hem* 'each' to the partitive pronoun/numeral, which in its turn is generated from the cardinal number by suffixation of the possessive: *ikisä:m* (\leq *ikisi+hem*) 'both of them', *bä:ši:mizä:m* 'all five of us' etc.

(ii) The collective pronoun *ba:ri* 'all' has been recorded from the Teke dialect only: *bulaŋ ba:ri* 'all of them'.

(iii) The copied lexeme *hemme* 'all' exists in all dialects and is used as as a pronoun and as an adjective. In pronominal usage it can be doubled up by a postposed *hem*.

- i:sa i:ša:ni-da marı tewereginde **hemme** tanıya:r eken. (Te. 5) In the environs of Marı all (people) used to know I:sa I:ša:n.
- saxii:ja:niŋ kepderleri nä:dip **hemmesi** a:q bolyorqa? (Är. 40) How come the pigeons of Saxija:n¹⁶⁷ are all white?
- **hemmesä:m** mara: degišli. (Yo. 1) They are all affiliated to Marı.
- biz **hemme** türk doğanlarmızı bi yeri:k ča:ğirya:s ki gelip görsinler we hemkä:rlik etsinler. (Te. 11)

We invite all our Turkic brethren here so that they may come and see and cooperate.

- marčaqda **hemme** za:tları ekip bo:r. (Sa. 2) In Marčaq all plants (lit. things) can be grown.
- a:damıŋ **hemme** paa:liyetleri pi:nisine bağlı. (Är. 18) All activities of man depend on his brain.

¹⁶⁷ Term of endearment for (the mausoleum of) Hazrat Ali in Mazāri Šarīf, where myriads of white pigeons live.

5.1.3 Adjectives

(a) Simple adjectives

(i) There is no morphological distinction between adjective and substantive nouns; both categories are distinguished by function only.

(ii) In the Turkmen dialects the adjective qualifies the noun to which it is attributed; the qualifier immediately precedes the qualified: $ya\check{g}\check{s}i$ si\check{g}irlar 'good cows' (Är. 4), bir onat nama:yiš 'a good spectacle' (Sa. 3). Attributables can be grammatically derived from verbal stems (aqar su: 'running water' < aq- 'to flow'; i:rigen göz 'purulent eye' < i:rik- 'to tire' etc.). For details on derival adjectives in general, see the subchapter on derivation.

(iii) There is no pluralisation, indication of possessive relation, or declension, of the adjective. If an adjective noun takes on plural, possessive or declension suffixes it loses its adjective character and functions as a substantive noun:

- **yağšıları** görmek hem soğa:p dır. (Är. 15) To see good ones (*yağšı*-PL-ACC) is already a merituous deed.
- ikki oğlımız bar, **ulı:mız** mekteb oqıyo:r **kiči:miz** bosa heni:z ya:š. (Är. 34) We have two sons, our big one (*ulı*-POSS1PL) studies (at) school, our small one (*kiči*-POSS1PL) is still young.

(b) Intensification, comparative/superlative, downgrading

(i) Reduplication is one way to highlight the meaning of an adverb; is not very frequently used thoughm and it appears to "go" only with a small selection of adjectives: *sü:ji-sü:ji mi:weler* 'very sweet fruits', *ozi:n-ozin sačlar* "very long hair'.

(ii) Intensification by means of preposed qualifiers, on the other hand, is a very frequent phenomenon and there is a great choice of qualifiers available: *yaman* (lit. 'bad'), *čatti* (Är.Mu. Xa. Ba.) (lit. 'dirty' ~ 'very'), *ğati* (Te.) (lit. 'hard'), *ökde* (Är.), *örä:n* (XD), *jida:* (Yo.Te.Sa.Är), *mojiq* (Är.Mu.Xa.Ba.) (lit. 'bad'), *köp* (Är.Mu.Ba.Xa.Qa.) (lit. 'much'). Examples: *yaman yağšı yigit* 'a very good young man', *čattı issi ay* (Är. 12) 'a very hot month', *ğati širin su:* (Te.Yo.) 'very sweet water', *šehre ökde beled a:dam* (Är. 33) 'a man who knows the city very well', *örä:n yaman ašlıq* (Är. 7) 'a very bad famine', *mojiq širi:n ğa:wın* (Är. 11) 'a very sweet honeymelon', *köp semiz ğoyun* (Är. 12) 'a very fat sheep', *köp bir yaxti čira* (Te. 5) 'a very bright candle'.

(iii) The comparative suffix is -rA:Q, and it can occur with some phonotactic adjustments which are in more detail described in the subchapter on phonological processes. There is one major difference between the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects: In the Teke dialect suffixation of the comparative leads to the voicing of a final voiceless plosive of the lexeme, while in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect such a voicing does not occur.

- biyik > (...) son o:ba: ser etjek bolip biyigrä:ge čıqdıq. (Te. 3) Then we climbed the higher (hill) in order to look at the village.
- biyik > o:ğa:nısta:nda sa:lenden biyikrä:k da:ğlar-am bar. (Är. 44) In Afghanistan there are higher mountains than the Salang.

In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the variant -I(r)raQ with a suffix-initial high vowel has also occasionally been observed:

• ulkä:miziŋ **köpirrä:k** nupu:sini dı:xanlar we čarwačılar ğuršayo:r. (Är. 3) Farmers and cattlebreeders make up most (lit. more) population of our country.

(iv) The comparative form is also used to denote the meaning "somehow ...", which can actually be understood as a downgrader pointing to deminuation rather than augmentation of a particular quality: $g\ddot{o}:kr\ddot{a}:k$ ($\ddot{A}r.$) ~ $g\ddot{o}:gr\ddot{a}:k$ (Te.) 'bluish, sort of blue', *biyikrä:k* ($\ddot{A}r.$) ~ *biyigrä:k* (Te.) 'rather tall'.

(v) The superlative of an adjective is determined by the preposed particle $i\eta$: $i\eta$ kiči ini:m 'my youngest brother', $i\eta$ gözel $\bar{g}i:z$ 'the most beautiful girl'.

• watannan ayrılmaq **iŋ yaman** za:tlarıŋ bi:ri. (Te. 6) Being separated from (one's) homeland is one of the worst things.

(vi) Adjectives can also be intensified through the prefixation of a syllable that echoes the initial consonant + vowel of the lexeme and terminates in -*p*, -*m*, -*s* or a lengthened -*ppA* or - *ssA*. Examples: $\bar{g}ara:\eta qi$ 'dark' > $\bar{g}ap\bar{g}ara:\eta qi$; $g\ddot{o}:k$ 'blue ' > $g\ddot{o}mg\ddot{o}:k$; $\bar{g}u:ri$ 'dry' > $\bar{g}us\bar{g}u:ri$; *sağ* 'healthy' > *sappasağ*; *doğri* 'correct' > *doppadoğri*; *mä:lim* 'well-known' > *messemä:lim*. These forms, no matter how systematic and transparent their morphological qualities are, cannot be varied at will.

Along with the morphological intensifyers, in the dialects there occur a few completely lexicalized intensifying prefixes on an individual and unpredictable basis, e.g. $\bar{g}ara$ 'black' > $dum\bar{g}ara$ (Te.Yo.) ~ $d\ddot{u}$: $t\check{g}ara$ ~ $zunt\bar{g}ara$ (Är.); $\bar{g}ızıl$ 'red' > $\check{c}um\bar{g}ızıl$ (Är.Sa.); a:q 'white' > $\check{c}uwwa:q$ (Är.Sa.). In the Teke dialect the preposed particle la:p intensifies the meaning of an adjective: la:p ulı 'very very large'.¹⁶⁸

(vii) The downtoning of adjectives results from the suffixation of elements such as $-I\check{s}$, $-\bar{g}ult$, $-\check{c}\iota q$, -(I)mtIl, -(I)mtuq and others; it occurs mostly with denominations of colors, which may undergo phonotactic changes as described in the phonology chapter. Examples: a:q 'white' > $a:\dot{g}i\check{s}$ 'whitish' (XD), $g\ddot{o}:k$ 'blue' > $g\ddot{o}:gi\check{s}$ (XD), $a:q\check{c}\iota q$ (År.), $a:\check{g}untul$ (XD) 'whitish'; $\bar{g}ara$ 'black' > $\bar{g}aramtuq$; sa:ru 'yellow' > sa:rumtul (Te.Yo.), sa:rumtuq (Är.Sa.); $\bar{g}uzul$ 'red' > $\bar{g}uz\bar{g}ult$ (XD) etc.

5.1.4 Numerals

In the Turkmen dialects numerals can function the same way as substantive and adjective nouns. Pluralisation, declension etc. occur through suffixation of the respective suffixes.

(a) Cardinal numerals

¹⁶⁸ For a discussion of similar individual standard Turkmen intensifyers "obscure in origin", cf. Clark 1998:510-511; on irregular intensive adjectives more generally, see Kim 2013.

The cardinal numbers display some difference between the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan and some intradialectal variation, too. In the following table, Muqrı can be regarded as representative of all *nāxālis* dialects.

	Ä:rsa:rı	Teke	Sa:rıq	Muqrı
0	sıfır	sıfır	sıfır	sıfır
1/2	ya:rım ~ ya:rı ~ ya:rpı	yarım ~ ya:rı	ya:rım	yarım ~
				ya:rp1
1	bir	bir	bir	bir
2	iki ~ ikki	iki	iki	ikki
3	üč	üč	üč ~ uč	üč ~ uč
4	tö:rt ¹⁶⁹	dö:rt ~ dört	dö:rt	tört
5	bä:š	bä:š	bä:š	biš
6	altı	altı	altı	a:ltı ~ alti
7	yetdi ~ yetti	yedi	yedi	yetti
8	sekgiz ~ sekkiz	sekiz	sekiz	sekkiz
9	toqgīz ~ toqqiz ~	doq1z ~ doquz	doqız	toqqız
	toqquz			
10	0:n	o:n	o:n	on
11	onbi:r	onbi:r	onbi:r	onbir
12	oniki ~ onki	oniki	oniki	onikki
20^{170}	yiģrimi ~ yiģrime	yiġrimi	yiġrimi	yigrime
30	otız	otız	otız	ottiz
40	qırq	qırq	qırq	qırğ~qır
50	elli	elli	elli	elli: ~ ellik
60	altmıš	altmıš	altmıš	almıš
70	yetmiš	yetmiš	yetmiš	yetmiš
80	seģsen	seģsen	seģsen	seksen
90	toğsan	toğsan	toğsan	toqsan
100	yüz ~ yuz	yüz	yüz	yüz
101	bir yüz bir ~ bir yüz u	bir yüz bir	bir yüz bir	bir yüz u bir
150	bir bir yüz elli ~ yüz u elli	bir yüz elli	bir yüz elli	bir yüz ellik
1,000	muŋ ~ müŋ	müŋ	müŋ	miŋ
1,000	bir müŋ iki yüz elli	bir müŋ iki yüz	bir müŋ iki yüz	bir miŋ iki
1,200		elli	elli	yüz ellik
10,000	o:n müŋ ~ o:n möŋ	o:n müŋ	o:n müŋ	on miŋ
100,000	lek ~ yüz müŋ	lek ~ yüz müŋ	lek ~ yüz müŋ	lek ~ leg ~
				ley ~ yüz miŋ

Table 5-12: Cardinal numbers

¹⁶⁹ The initial voiceless plosives of $t\ddot{o}:rt$, $toq\bar{g}tz \sim toqqtz \sim toqqtz$ and $to\bar{g}san$, which among the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects are typical only of the Ärsa:ri dialect, have been suggested as resulting either from extensive contact with neighboring Uzbek dialects or from a certain influence of the premodern literary Turki, cf. Annanurov 1972:120; Malov 1951:54.

¹⁷⁰ According to Schönig's classification model (1999:74f.) the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan and the Ä:rsa:ri dialect in particular are located at the interface of Eastern and Western Turkic; Schönig defines the word-final high-vowel variants of 'twenty' as typically Western, and the low-vowel variants as typically Eastern. For Turkmen he cites only *yigrimi*, which is, however, due to the strong influence of the Teke dialect on the modern Turkmenistani literary language.

(i) The numeral 'half' depicts some interesting variation in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect. When used like a substantive noun, it occurs in the short form *ya:ri* as well as the long form *ya:rim*:

- nıpu:sıŋ ya:rımınnan ğo:rra:ğı (Är. 34) more than half of the population
- šu müjelleriŋ ya:rısı (Är. 16) half of these journals
- gi:rdijisni **ya:rım iki bö**lıp paylašyo:rs.¹⁷¹ (Är. 12) We split the revenues in halves – in two.

An interesting variant comes from the Qarqın regiolect of the Ä:rsa:rı dialect:

• üč qarya:**nıŋ**-hem **ya:rın**nan ğurrağını hä:zir-de derya: alıp du:r (Qar. 1) The river has now again taken away more than half of all the three villages.

In clauses which denote the time, only the variant *ya:rim* has been recorded: *sa:at sekgiz ya:rimbeje* 'at half past eight'.

(ii) The numeral *bir* has in the *xāliş* dialects its vowel lengthened whenever a suffix with initial vowel is added: *bi:ri:miz* NUM+POSS1PL 'one of us', 'someone'; *bi:rejik* NUM+DIM 'a single, only one'; *bi:rik-* 'to unite, to gather'. The same lengthening occurs when *bir* follows a decadic numeral: *yigrimebi:r* '21', *yetmišbi:r* '71'. In the *nāxāliş* dialects the short vowel is always preserved.

(iii) The vowel of the numeral o:n is shortened when within the teens decade another numeral is added, e.g. onbi:r '11', $oniki \sim onki$ '12', $onb\ddot{a}:\check{s}$ '15' etc.; this shortening does, however, not occur if o:n is followed by another numeral as part of a five-digit number: $o:n m\ddot{u}\eta$ '10,000'.

(iv) The final vowel of the numeral *yigrimi~yigrime* can be deleted when a one-digit numeral follows:

- yigrimbä:š axtığı ba:rmıš (Är. 5) He is said to have 25 grandchildren.
- jima: ĝuli yigrimiki ya: šinda esgerlige gidipti (Är. 26) Jima: ĝuli went to military service at age 22.

(v) In standard phrases final or initial vowels of numerals in word boundaries are often deleted: birki < bir-iki (År.) 'one (or) two', onki < oniki 'twelve'; alta:y < alti a:y (Xat.) 'six months'; altatar t lipen < alti atar 'six shooter gun'.

(vi) There is a certain tendency of possessive suffixes to be doubled up when added to numerals:

yitdi axtığım ba:r tö:rdisi oğıl üčisi ğı:z (Är. 28)
 I have seven grandchildren, four of them (four-Poss3Poss3) are boys, three of them (three-Poss3Poss3) are girls.

¹⁷¹ The sentence has been recorded like this. It is unclear whether *ya:rum iki böl-* is a specific phrase, or the speaker has just by error doubled the numeral instead of saying *ya:rum böl-* or *ike: böl-*, both of which would render the intended meaning.

(vii) While in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect numerals always combine with the possessive suffix plural, in the Teke dialect these can combine with the possessive singular as well:

• ulaq tapmadıq-da hajı resu:llarıŋ toyına **bir iki:m** bardıq. (Te. 7) We didn't find a means of transportation, so (only) one-two of us went to Hajı Resu:l's wedding feast.

(vii) Two-digit numbers which are one or two below the next higher decadic position are in colloquial speech, and especially in phrases indicating people's age, phrased as "one/two-less-than-": *bir kem otiz* '29' (lit. one less than 30) etc.

• men hä:zir ikkem qırq ya:šadım. (Är. 53) I am now 38 years old.

(b) Classifiers

The Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan use classifiers that are inserted between the numeral and its noun of reference. Some of these classifiers are semantically neutral and can be applied to any noun: $d\ddot{a}:ne$ (lit. 'piece'); others are semantically related to classes of nouns and can only be applied to categories of nouns which are semantically adequate (or are deemed suitable by convention): $d\ddot{a}:p$ lit. 'root' = applicable to plants and similars only. The classifier $sa:na \sim sa:naq$ (År.), although lit. 'piece', in my materials occurs almost exclusively as a classifier of human beings and animals, with the single exception of one phrase *elli sa:ni si:rim* '50 (bottles of) serum' (År. 1). Examples:

- sıpa:nıŋ ašağında **iki sa:nı at**-am daŋılğı du:r-eken. (Te. 13) Down at the sitting platform two horses are tied.
- siziŋ **tö:rt sa:nı oğlıŋız** ba:r, šüyle dälmi? (Är. 19) You have four sons, isn't it?
- jela:la:ba:t wela:yatında šipillen köp bir, bir lek iki lek sa:naq tuwıq saqlamaq pa:bri:keler (...) ğoršalıp bašlanıp dır. (Är. 4) In the Jalālābād province nowadays many a factory is being started to construct, which houses 100,000 (or) 200,000 chicken.

(c) Ordinal numerals

(i) In all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan ordinal numerals can be construed with the suffix - $(I)njI \sim -(X)nj)I$: *birinji* 'first'; *ikinji* 'second'; *üčünji* ~ *üčinji* ~ *učinji* 'third' etc.

• xalı:pa sa:yıb ğızılayaq **qırqınjı** yillarda a:lamnan ötdiler. (Är. 17) Xalı:pa Sa:yıb Ğızılayaq¹⁷² passed away in the forties.

(ii) In the Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects the ordinal numerals can also be construed with the suffix *-lAnjI* : *üčlenji* 'third', *o:nlanji* 'tenth'.

(iii) In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect there exist also the ordinal suffixes -(I)mjI and -lAmjI:

 $^{^{172}}$ The most revered spiritual leader of the Turkmen *muhājirs* who fled the early Soviet Union and were after a lengthy migration resettled in the Jowzjān province.

- oğlım **toqğızımjı:nı** bö:rde gotardı. (Är. 32) My son has completed the ninth (grade) here.
- o waxtlar qalayıza:lda **toqğızlamjı** sınpdan soŋ mekdep yo:q-tı. (Är. 39) In those times in Qalayıza:l there was no school after ninth grade.

(iv) In the Teke dialect the ordinal numeral 'first' (as opposed to "all others") exists in the variants *ilki* and *ilkinji* :

- ilki hira:t turkmenleri segsen bä:š yil öŋirrä:k turkmenista:nnan tejen we marı wela:yatinnan göčip o:ğa:nista:na barip yerlešenler. (Te. 2) The first Turkmens of Herat eighty-five years ago emigrated from the Tejen and Mari provinces of Turkmenistan, went to Afghanistan, and settled down (there).
- derreyišaxa ilkinji gelenler biz dä:l, bizden öŋ-em ol yerde turkmen ba:r-eken. (Te. 1) The first (Turkmens) to come to Derreyišax were not us; prior to us there have been Turkmens there, too.

(d) Distributive / partitive numerals

(i) In all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan distributive numerals are generated with the ablative suffix -dAn; the distributive numbers also occur in variants like $b\ddot{a}:\check{s}den \sim b\ddot{a}:\check{s}-b\ddot{a}:\check{s}den$ 'five (...) each', *altidan* ~ *altidan*-altidan 'six (...) each'.

- bä:šden-bä:šden sa:na:beriŋ! (Är. 53) count them in (entities of) five each
- bä:š müŋ o:ğa:nıdan aldıq. (Är. 12)
 We purchased (them for) five thousand Afghani each.

(ii) The distributive numerals in -dAn are also used in fraction numbers to designate the full number out of which the fraction is taken. The fraction numeral is included in a possessor-possessed construction:

• bu yıl emniyet bolan soŋ šä:girdler**iŋ** yüz**den** altmıšı geldi. (Är. 24) Since this year security is (good), 60% of the students have come (to school).

(iii) In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect there exists the partitive numeral *bi:reģi* 'one out of (...)'. While in the premodern Turki literary language the suffix *-egü* would generate distributives from all numerals,¹⁷³ today it appears to be preserved only in the single form *bi:regi* but is not derived from any other numeral.

bu yil üč sa:ni ena:r ekdik, bi:reģi mana šul, yene bi:reģi ol, yene bi:reġ-ä:m ta:min arqasinda. (Är. 17)
 This year we planted three pomegranade (trees), one of them is this one here, another one is that one, and yet another one is behind the house.

¹⁷³ Clauson 1959:28 defines the suffix $-A\check{G}U$ as collective marker (see also Erdal 2004:224, who for Old Turkic interprets *biregü* as 'a set of one'. The collective marker function is until today preserved in Uzbek dialects neighboring the Afghan Turkmen dialects. However, in my materials it has only been found to function as indefinite marker.

In all other dialects – and in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect as well – partitive numerals are generated with the possessive suffix, which can occur in doubled form (e.g. $bir > bi:ri \sim bi:risi$).

- uč toqrtğa:nıŋ **bi:ri** inha: šu yerde, **bi:risi**-de ol depä:niŋ yanında, yene **bi:ri**-de iki ki:lo:mitir aŋrıda. (Te. 8) One of the three mud water pipes is at this place here, again one is beside that hill over there and again one of them is two kilometers away.
- kita:plarin **bi:risini** aldım, **ikisini** yerinde ğoydım. (Te. 15) One of the books I have taken, two of them I have put (back) in their place.

5.1.5 Adverbs

In the Turkmen dialects, adverbs come in different forms – simple, derived, and combined. They modify the action denoted by verbs, or the manner or degree of a quality denoted by adjectives or adverbs, all of which they immediately precede in regular speech. Their position before verbs / verbal phrases, adjectives and adverbs makes them easily discernible from, for example, homonymous adjectives, which in their turn appear immediately before the substantives they modify:

• bul galam **yagšı** yazyo:r. (Är. 53) This pen writes *well*.

as opposed to

• ol **yağšı** šä:girt. (Är. 53) He is a *good* pupil.'

(a) Morphological features of adverbs

(i) Simple adverbs

Simple adverbs can be lexemes which are only applied as adverbs, for example *čalt* (Är.) 'quickly', *derrew* 'immediately', *hemi:še* 'always'. Many others are lexemes which can be employed as either adverbs or something else (adjectives, substantives) and become recognizable as adverbs only through their function and position within a specific phrase are for example: *ğimmat* 'expensive' (*ğimmat al-* 'to purchase at an expensive price' vs. *ğimmat mŏtar* 'an expensive car'), *arza:n* 'at a cheap price', *ilki* 'firstly', *gi:č* 'late, too late', *ti:z* 'fast', *ağšam* 'at night', *erti:r* 'in the morning', *yasyaŋı* 'very recently', *yalğu:z* 'only, simply'.

Most adverbs are used in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan. However, there are some which are more typical of one dialect than of another – among them a few very frequently used ones, like *basim* (Te.) vs. *ti:z* ~ *čalt* (År.) 'fast'; *doğri* (År.) vs. *göni* (Te.Yo.) 'right'.

siziŋ üyiŋizde köpek saqlansa, ol basım ta:zı bolar. (Te. 5)
 If in your home a dog¹⁷⁴ were raised, it would quickly become a racing dog.

 $^{^{174}}$ Köpek bears the connotations of coarse and untrained animal, mongrel – all opposites of the characteristics of a *tazi*.

• inege ya:da ğoyuna kunja:ra berseŋiz **ti:z** semiryo:r. (Är. 4) If you give the cow or sheep oilcakes it will quickly gain weight.

(ii) Derived adverbs

Many derived adverbs are fully lexicalized, that is, they exist only in their current form and are by the average speakers of Turkmen dialects not recognized as derivals any more, although etymologically they can be traced back to a nominal/verbal stem supplied with derivative suffixes or – in fewer cases – prefixes. As has been stated above with regard to simple adverbs, some of these derived lexemes are used as adverbs only, while others can also be used as adjectives. Among the affixes which have derived currently lexicalized adverbs there are a few which are copied from Persian, like *bi:*- 'without ...' and *na:*- 'un-...'; combinations with these are more frequent in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect and in the *nāxālış* dialects than in Teke and Yomut. - Examples for lexicalized combinations are the following:

-AQI : yüzeki 'superficially, on the surface', *dileki* 'orally, verbally'

-ArI : in deictic directives like *dašari* 'out', *ičeri* 'in', *ileri* 'forward'

-(A)rI:Q : *bä:ri:k* 'closer, my way', *ileri:k* 'forward', *aŋri:q* 'that way, into that direction'

bi:-/**be:**- : *bi:waste* 'immediately', *bi:guma:n* 'without suspicion', *bi:waqt* 'prematurely', *be:dalil* 'for no reason, out of the blue'

-dAn : *birden* 'all of a sudden', *i:rden* 'very early', *dü:pden* 'thoroughly, from scratch', *tötä:nden* 'suddenly', *ti:zden* 'very fast, immediately, on the spot', *zo:rdan* 'by force; with great difficulty, hardly'

-(y)I:n : *yani:n* 'at the side, sideways', *yüzzi:n* 'head-on, frontally', *arqayın* 'at rest, at ease, easy in one's mind'

-IAy : *büti:nley* 'totally', *düpley* 'profoundly', *yüzley* 'superficially, on the surface only'

-lAyI(:)n : *bilgešleyi:n* 'consciously, intentionally'¹⁷⁵, *yüzleyin* 'superficial '

-II : *āıstağlı* 'urgently', *yarağlı* 'armed', *gerekli* 'necessary'.

-IIQ : yašırı:nlıq 'secretly', gündi:zlik 'at daytime'

-IIĞnA : *di:riligne* 'while (sb./sth.) is alive, at lifetime, alive', *uzi:nligna* 'lengthwise; at full length', *yassılığna* 'flat (adv.)'

na:- : *na:ga:h* 'all of a sudden, unexpectedly', *na:ča:r* 'willy-nilly, involuntarily, of necessity'

Adverbs derived by means of productive suffixes, whose scope is explicitly or implicitly known to the average speaker, also exist in the Turkmen dialects. Not all of them will be enumerated here, but a few examples are the following:

-beje(de)	: gi:je birbeje 'at 1 o'clock a.m.', <i>üčbejede</i> 'at 3 o'clock'		
-dA	: sa:at ikide 'at 2 o'clock', bašda 'initially', her zama:nda 'at any time'		
-dAn	: tä:zeden 'anew', birden 'all of a sudden', a:q yürekden 'faithfully'		
-I:n	: (restricted to lexemes that denote points in time) $\bar{g}_{1}\bar{s}_{1}$: <i>n</i> 'in winter', <i>yassi:n</i> 'in		
the afternoon,	at night'		
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-IAr : (restricted to lexemes that denote points in time) *ol wağtlar* 'at that time, then', *gi:jeler* '(always/regularly) at nighttime', *öyler* 'in former times'

-IAy : (restricted to numerals) *yüzley* 'a hundred times', *müŋley* 'a thousand times, by the thousand'

¹⁷⁵ Also shorter as *bilgešli:n* 'id.'.

-IA:p : (restricted to time units) *ayla:p* 'for months', *bä:š heptelä:p* 'for five weeks', *yilla:p* 'for many years'

-(s)InA : (restricted to lexemes that denote points in time, particularly daytimes; connotes repetitiveness) $a\check{g}\check{s}amina$ (Är.Te.) ~ $a\check{g}\check{s}amna$ (Xa.) 'in the evening, (always/usually) at night', *erti:rine* 'in the morning, (regularly) at morning time', *gi:jesine* '(regularly) at night' -sIz : *i:zsiz* 'without a trace', $\bar{g}i:\check{s}arniqsiz$ 'without distortion; faithfully', *yalqušsiz* 'undoubtedly'

(iii) Combined adverbs

Combined adverbs can come into being by different operations. The most simple one is the reduplication of an adjective or numeral: *bir-bir* 'one by one', *ti:z-ti:z* 'quickly, swiftly', *yuwaš-yuwaš* 'slowly', *čalt-čalt* (Te.,Yo.) 'quickly', *šappa-šappa* 'in the blink of an eye'. Reduplication with an additional insertion of *-A-* results in only a few adverbs, such as *bašabaš* 'head-to-head', *badaba:t* 'immediate', while reduplication with insertion of *-mA-* can derive many adverbs from lexical items that denote time spans, but also other things: *günmegün* 'day by day', *heptemehepte* 'week by week', *a:ymaa:y* 'month by month', *sa:atmasa:at* 'by the hour'; *sözmesöz* 'word-by-word; exactly', *birmebir* 'one by one'.

Adverbials also reduplicate into adverbs: *bara-bara* 'more and more..., increasingly', *bile-bile* 'knowingly, on purpose'.

Yet another type of reduplicated adverbs comes into being by two onomatopoetic descriptives joined together; they may be phonetically identical, or differ in vocalism: *šap-šup* (swiftly, producing low noises), *pasir-pusir* (movements etc.: without delay, hastily and swiftly), *šipir-šipir* (making a noise on slobbery material).

Along with these single-lexeme combinations adverbs can be a combination of two or more different lexemes of many different categories with or without declension markers, which may or may not be joined together by a conjunction:

 gi:je gündiz 'at day and night; at all times', ya:z-u-ğiš 'in summer and winter; all year round', bašdan ayaq 'all over, completely'
: ğara guwın 'maliciously', yaqın günlerde 'soon'
e: <i>bir guni</i> 'one day; once upon a time', <i>her yılı</i> 'every year',
<i>ö:z bašına</i> 'alone', <i>kä: piller ~ kä: waxtlar</i> 'time and again'
: <i>daŋ bilen</i> 'at daybreak', <i>gunı bi:ri:n</i> 'in one day',
gün sayın 'by the day, day by day'
: <i>baš büti:n</i> 'completely, fully', <i>baš a:ša</i> 'intermittently,
every other'
: üzil kesil 'tersely', ğızıl ğıstağ 'in a hurry', bälli külli
'totally, completely'
: <i>barıb yatan</i> 'finally, at last'
: <i>ğınansaq-da</i> 'unfortunately, alas'

A special case of combined adverbs are phrases of the type '....times', which consist of a numeral or other lexeme denoting quantity, plus an adverbial multiplicative: *bir yo:la:* 'once', *yedi yo:la:* 'seven times', *qanča gezek* ~ *qanča mertebe* 'how many times'.

(b) Some remarks on the semantics of adverbs

Adverbs respond to questions like 'where?', 'when?', 'how?', 'to what degree?' – they specify and modify the action of verbs and the properties of adjectives with regard to place, time, manner, quantity and so on. The morphological features enumerated above occur in all of these functions. It may thus suffice to treat one example in some more detail, namely, adverbs of time. Adverbs of time respond to interrogatives such as hačan ~ qačan 'when?', $n\ddot{a}:waxt$ 'at what time?'.

Some adverbs of time are the same in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan from which we were able to record them: $d\ddot{u}:n$ 'yesterday', $\ddot{o}yl\ddot{a}:n$ 'in the afternoon', $hemi:\check{s}e$ 'always'. Others depict some phonetic variation: 'today' has been recorded as $\check{s}\ddot{u}g\ddot{u}n \sim \check{s}ugun \sim bug\ddot{u}n \sim b\ddot{u}g\ddot{u}n$ from the Teke dialect; as $\check{s}\ddot{u}win \sim \check{s}ug\ddot{u}n \sim buwin \sim b\ddot{u}win \sim b\ddot{u}g\ddot{u}n$ from Ä:rsa:r1; and $b\ddot{u}k\ddot{u}n$ from the Muqr1 dialect; 'just now' is *indi* in the Ärsar1 and Sa:r1q dialects, but assimilated into *inni* in the Teke dialect. Again others depict lexical variation: 'sometimes' is $k\ddot{a}: waxtlar$ in Te., but $k\ddot{a}:pille$ in Är. – In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, $a\check{g}\check{s}am$ stands for 'in the evening' and 'last night' (the latter one of which can also be $\ddot{o}ten a\check{g}\check{s}am$); in the Teke dialect, $a\check{g}\check{s}ama$ or $a\check{g}\check{s}amna$ (the latter most probably connoting habituality or reiteration); in Är. and Yo., 'last night' can also be gi:je, which otherwise in Är. means 'by night' (the latter in Är., if habitual, also gi:jeler).

Again other adverbs of time depict lexical as well as phonetic variation, which then amounts to a rather complex picture: 'tomorrow' is *erte* in Är., but *erte* as well as *erti:r* in Te.; in Är., on the other hand, *erti:r* means '(early) in the morning', which has been recorded as *günerta:n* from Sa., and *erti:rine*, from the Xojamba:z dialect. – The word for 'now, nowadays' is *hä:zir* in Te., Sa. and Är., and *ha:zir*, in Mo.; Te. has *šipilleki hä:zir* along with it, while Är. has *šipillen* ~ *šipillenen*; in addition, *ši zama:nda* has been found in Är., and *šu waxt*, in Sa.

5.1.6 Postpositions

Postpositions govern noun phrases in a way comparable to, for example, what prepositions do in the Persian language. The nouns, pronouns, numerals and participles or phrases – which are then the scope of the respective postposition – which precede the postpositions, bear additional stress while the postpositions themselves are enclitic and unstressed. Postpositions do typically not change according to the principles of vowel harmony, nor are their initial consonants assimilated to consonants in the final position of the nouns etc. to which they belong. The etymology of postpositions can be obvious, but the semantic relation to the etymological basis need not necessarily be so; postpositions can, however, be derived from nouns/nominals which are also used in the Turkmen dialects independently.

The postpositions require their antecedents to come in a specific case – nominative, dative, or ablative. Therefore they will be introduced here according to the case with which they combine.

(a) Postpositions with the nominative case

Some of the postpositions which in principle require the nominative case, although by far not all, can take either the nominative or the genitive when combined with personal pronouns (see

also ix. in the personal pronouns chapter). Whether or not the genitive applies seems to be somehow undecided, in many cases both the variant with, and that without, can be applied. Unless otherwise stated below, the respective postposition takes the nominative only.

(i) arqalı

This postposition can be translated as 'through, by means of, via'; it is used in all Turkmen dialects.

• pä:kista:nıŋ yağšı yeri šında, biz o yerde **terjima:n arqalı** geplešmeli dä:l, dilini ö:zimiz bilyo:rs. (Är. 35) The good thing about Pakistan is that there we need not communicate through a translator, (because) we know their language ourselves.

(ii) **ba:rada**

This postposition, which is copied from Persian *dar bāra-yi čīzi* means 'related to ..., connected to ...' and is rather frequently used in all dialects. If combined with a personal pronoun, this postposition is supplied with the respective possessive suffix.

- xalqımız asta-asta dunya:ğarayišları, xusu:san oqu: ba:rada, tä:li:m-terbiye ba:rada:qı pikirleri ü:tgešip gelyo: . (Är. 3) The worldview of our people, their thoughts, particularly about learning and education, are slowly changing.
- men size **ši matlap ba:rada** hezreti mu:sa: alayhissala:mnan bir qıssa aydıp berreyin. (Är. 2)
 - Related to this topic, I will tell you a story about Moses.
- dü:n jelsede meniŋ **ba:ramda** nä:me tesmi:m alındiı? What was decided about me in the meeting, yesterday?

(iii) bilen ~ bile ~ minen

While in all $x\bar{a}ls$ dialects the postposition *bilen* occurs in the same form, and a shorter variant *bile* has been reported from the Teke dialect in addition to that, in the Bayat dialect the postposition has been recorded in an assimilated form comparable to the one in which it occurs in the neighboring Uzbek dialects: *minen*. – This postposition almost regularly takes the genitive case of personal and demonstrative pronouns: *menin bilen* 'with me', *šunny bilen* 'with that'; however, *men bilen*, *biz bilen* 'with us' etc. also exist.

- aslında biz **ha:lı almaq niyyeti bilen** čıqıptıq, toy barlığnı bö:rä: gelip eštdik. (Är. 31) Actually we had set out with the intention to purchase carpets. (Only) when we came here we heard that there is a wedding (going on).
- qaysi **a:dam minen**? **omar minen** qawm dä:lbiz. (Ba. 1) With what man? We are not relatives of (lit.: with) Omar!
- oğlım **men bilen** geldi. (Är. 53) My son has come along with me.

An important feature in all dialects is the combination of bile(n) with the -An participle, in causal as well as adversative construction:

- aydanları bilen ki:giŋ gö:šti onča širin bolan yo:ğ eken. (Är. 33) According to (lit. with) what they say, the meat of deer is not so very tasty.
- axtar**an bile** tapamo:q. (Te. 5) Regardless of (my) searching I didn't find (it).

The combination (-nIŋ) üsti bilen translates as 'via' in direct and transferred sense:

- biz šibirğana ğaytsaq hemi:še **a:qja:nıŋ üsti bilen** ğaytyo:rs. (Är. 20) If we travel to Shibirghān, we always travel via Aqcha.
- men bıl i:ši **parılma:nıŋ üsti bilen** čözerin. (Är. 16) I will solve this matter via the Parliament.

(iv) **boyı**

The postposition is used in all dialects; it denotes 'all along...' and can be applied to spatial as well as temporal notions.

• **yo:l boyı** šu ba:rada pikir edip geldim. (Är. 42) All along (my) way I was pondering about this.

(v) *boyıča ~ boyunča*

The postposition comes with and without the pronominal n and with rounded or unrounded mid-syllable vowel. It is used in all dialects, its meaning being 'according to..., in accordance with...'.

• **qa:nun boyıča** aslan ha:lı ši:rden o:ğa:nista:nnan sa:dır bolmalı. (Är. 35) According to the law, the carpet needs to originate from here, (that is, from) Afghanistan.

(vi) čemeli

This postposition is typical of the Teke and Yomut dialects, while in the $\ddot{A}rsa:ri$ dialect the same meaning – 'as much as, approximately...' – is rendered by the postposition $\check{g}olay + DAT$.

• oniŋ oğlı **onaltı-onyedi ya:šlar čemeli** bola:masa. (Te. 16) Seems as if his son is something like sixteen or seventeen years old....

(vii) *haqda*

The postposition, which translates as 'about ..., related to ...' is used in all dialects. If combined with personal pronouns, the respective possessive suffixes are inserted: *meniŋ haqımda* 'about me' etc.

• men size bügün **hezreti alı haqda** bir hika:yat aydıp bereyin. (Är. 2) Today I will tell you a story about Hezreti Ali.

(viii) *hökminde*

This postposition is used in all dialects; it translates as 'as ..., in lieu of ...' and combines with substantive nouns only.

• men bu gepiŋizi **bir nesi:hat hökminde** qabu:l etyo:rin. (Är. 22) I accept this word of yours as a (piece of) advice.

(ix) *kemi:n*

This postposition, which translates as 'like ...', occurs in all dialects, but is not very frequently employed. The regular postposition in its place would be $ya:ni \sim ya:li$.

ağšam di:šim yaman ğatı ağradı, čıda:bilmä:n it kemi:n erti:reče u:la:p čıqdım. (Är. 34)

(Yesterday) night my tooth hurt very badly; unable to bear up (against the pain), I howled like a dog until the morning.

(x) mına:sıbetli

The postposition, which is copied after the Persian *ba-munāsabat-i* and means 'on the occasion of ...', occurs in all dialects.

• bil mehpili **maxtimquli:nıŋ doğılan güni mına:sıbetli** gečirers. (Är. 3) We celebrate this party on the occasion of Maxtimquli's birthday.

(xi) *müčberi ~ möjberi*

While *müčberi* has been reported from the Ärsa:ri dialect, the Teke variant is *möjberi* 'around ..., approximately ...'.

• siddi:q ağšam gi:č gellı, **sa:at iki möjberi** gelen dir. (Te. 4) Siddi:q arrived late at night, he came around two o'clock.

(xii) sayın ~ sayı

This postposition exists in two variants, which are, however, not typical of one dialect or another, but can occur in all. The postposition is combined with notions of time and with participles.

- ata:m heni:zem šapaxa:nada, amma **gün sayın** yağšı bolyo:r. (Är. 20) My father is still in hospital, but he is getting better by the day.
- a:dam bir tä:ze yere **baran sayı** iči ğısyo:r. (Är. 32) When a man moves to a new place, he feels homesick.

(xiii) *sebä:bli*

This postposition, which exists in all dialects but is not very frequently used, seems to combine only with the nominative of verbals.

• **waxtımız bolmadığı sebä:bli** biz sizleŋkä: barıbilmedik. (Är. 23) Since we had no time we were unable to come to your place.

(xiv) *tarapdan* ~ *tarapınnan*

This postposition, which may or may not contain a possessive suffix to refer to its satellite, is used in all dialects – mostly to mark the actor of a passive verb:

- šil töhpe size enjimen tarapından berildi. (Är. 3) This prize has been given to you by the Organisation.
- kellä:m, ha:piza:m šukir allah tarap**dan** šunya:naq gü:jli we i:ti meniŋ. (Är. 1) My head, that memory of mine, thank (God), are by (the help of) Allah sooo strong and sharp!

(xv) tüweregi

This postposition is used in all dialects, denoting approximate numbers ('around..., approximatively ...').

 dü:nki yığnaqda a:dam köp dä:l-ti, köp bolsa altmiš-yetmiš tüweregi a:dam ba:r-ti. (Är. 23)

At yesterday's meeting there were not many people; if it was many, there (may) have been around sixty or seventy people.

(xvi) *üči:n*

The postposition 'for..., on behalf of...' is frequently used in all dialects. In combination with personal and demonstrative pronouns it mostly requires the genitive case.

- yašlığna ğaramazdan ikra:m ya:wer **ö:z xalqı üči:n** köp i:šler bejerdi. (Är. 8) Irrespective of his (young) age Ikra:m Ya:wer achieved many things for his people.
- bil köp ansa:t i:š, **munin üči:n** da:riğip durmalı dä:l. (Ol. 1) This is a very easy matter, one should not worry about it.
- hä:zirki günde yüz u:ğa:n-a:m **meniŋ üči:n** köp arzıšı ba:r. (Är. 53) At the present time hundred Afghani also has a lot of value for me.

In final and causal clauses, which respond to the question $n\ddot{a}:m\ddot{u}\check{c}in$ 'what for' and 'why', it combines with the *-mAQ* infinitive and with the *-An* and *-dIQ* participles, respectively:

- jilgeler **ma:l baqmaq üči:n** mına:sıp bolyo:r. (Är. 12) The shrubs are suitable for livestock herding.
- bu xabarı **ja:lıp bolanı üči:n** aytmazča dä:l. (Är. 43) One cannot but relate that news, because it is (so) interesting.
- **molla:niŋ oğlı bolaŋŋız üči:n** šerei: geplere yağšı düšünyo:rsıŋız. (Sa. 1) Since you are the son of a mullah, you understand sharia matters well.
- **xıya:nat etmediğim üči:n** meniŋ hi:čkimnen ğorqı:m yo:q. (Är. 16) Since I have not betrayed (anyone), I am not afraid of anybody.

(xvii) ya:nı ~ ya:lı

This postposition, which translates as 'like ...', comes as $ya:ni \sim ya:ni \sim ya:ni:q \sim ya:naq \sim ya:laq$ in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect and as ya:li in the Teke, Sa:riq and Yomut dialects. In combination with personal pronouns it mostly requires the genitive case.

- ata:miŋ **šular ya:ni** gurriŋleri aydanını bilyo:rin. (Är. 6) I know that my father used to tell stories (lit. conversations) like these.
- olar hemi:še **iki doğan ya:nı** bolıp yašadılar. (Är. 5) They always lived like two brothers.
- **a:dam ya:ni:q** edeblije otir! (Är. 28) Sit well-mannered like a human being!
- šo:rdepelilier bile geplešseniz a:z-da köp-de parq etyo: amma ol **ğarqının dili ya:naq** dä:l. (Är. 1)

If you talk with people from Šo:rdepe, (their dialect) makes some difference, but not as (much as) the language of that Ğarqin.

- šu ga:wın-am **sirke ya:lı** za:t, mi:dä: yaqano:q, zerdä:ni čoğdıro:r. (Sa. 5) These melons are a thing like vinegar, they don't please the stomach, they raise the bail.
- **seniŋ-ya:lı** bir olı haywa:n ölennen ğoy men öleyin, diyip dir. (Te. 13) He said, "Rather than (allowing) a big animal like you (to) die, come on, I will die myself."

When used with numerals or other words/phrases denoting measures, the postposition *ya:ni~ya:li* indicates an approximate number/amount:

 sa:nap görsek xuda:ybereniŋ goynı sekkiz yüz ya:nı, meŋki bosa iki yüz elli-eken. (Är. 16)

When we counted (we saw that) Xuda:yberen's sheep were about eight hundred while mine were two hundred fifty.

• yılda **bir a:y ya:nı** ruxsat beryo:r, bašğa čaqı i:šlemeli. (Är. 40) He gives (the workers) around one month (of) leave per year, the other time they need to work.

The postposition is also employed with the *-Iš* infinitive or *-An* participle to form comparative verbal clauses:

- o:ba:mızda šükir resm-rawa:jımız **öŋki bolıšı ya:lı**, čenna:n ü:tgä:nnoq. (Te. 4) Thank God in our village our customs are (still the same) as they were before, (they) have not changed much.
- ona bul i:š **ešekden palan alan ya:lı**-eken. (Te. 16) For him this (lit. this work) is said to be (as easy) as taking the saddlecloth off an ass.
- inne bilen **güyyi ğazan ya:nı** i:š bıl. (Är. 17) This is a (piece of) work as (hopeless) as digging a well with a needle.

Together with positive or negative aorist forms the postposition produces final clauses:

• do:nıŋ čä:gini yama:p **bildirmez ya:nı** etdim. (Är. 5) I patched the tear of the cloak and made it invisible.

- men otırar ya:lı yer-em berjek di:p bizleri äŋri:k alıp giden. (Sa. 3) He took us over there promising, "I will also give you land plots (good enough) for settling down".
- atı **yağšı baqıbilmez ya:nı** bolsaŋ alma! (Är. 18) If you are like unable to keep the horse decently, don't buy (any)!
- yenedä:m biz köp i:šler etdik ö:z **dilimizi yitirmer ya:lı**. (Te. 20) And still we have done a lot so as not to lose our own language.
- huwwa futbo:l wiju:dini **sa:lim saqla:r ya:l**ı, ja:nsağliq uči:n ğuwı. (Te. 18) Yes, football is good for keeping your body fit (and) for (one's) health.

When combined with simple nouns, or even more so with pronouns, the postposition $ya:ni \sim ya:li$ is so closely connected that it seems to be morphologized: šinya:ni, munya:ni 'like that'. This is why it has been mentioned in the chapter of nominal morphology as a quasi-case suffix along with the equative *-dek*.

(b) Postpositions with the dative case

Unless otherwise specified, all postpositions enumerated below are used in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan.

(i) *baqa: ~ baqa:n*

This postposition, which translates as 'in the direction of ..., facing ...' and the like, is used in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects only.

- xuda:yberen **dewleda:ba:da baqa:** baryo:r-eken. (Är. 11) Xuda:yberen set out into the direction of Dewleda:ba:d.
- siz awwal toya barıŋ, ondan soŋ **bize baqa:n** geliberiŋ! (Är. 44) First go to the wedding and then come to us (lit. in our direction).

(ii) baqma:n ~ baqmazdan

This postposition is used only in the Teke dialect, where it occurs interchangeably with *seretmezden* (see below). It translates as 'irrespective of ...' and often combines with a phrase containing the nominalizer *-IIQ* (then to be translated as 'although... '). In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, $\bar{g}arama:n \sim \bar{g}aramazdan$ (see below) is used instead.

- yo:lda hi:č yere **baqma:n** doğrı mektebe barıŋ! (Är. 5) Don't look anywhere on the way, (just) go straight straight ahead to school.
- huwwa:nıŋ yağınlılığına baqmazdan yo:la düšdik. (Te. 14) We set out although the weather was rainy.

(ii) čenli ~ čenli:k

In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect this postposition, which translates as 'as far as ...', 'until ...', comes as $\check{cenli} \sim \check{celli}$, while in the Teke and Yomut dialects it has been recorded as $\check{cenli:k}$.

• šu yerden **pulxumra: čenli** qanča ki:lu:mitir bar-qa:? (Är. 41) How many kilometers is it from here to Pulixumri? • hira:tdan **tu:rğonda čenli:k** iki-üč sa:atlıq yo:l ba:rdır. (Te. 8) It's presumably a two or three hours' drive from Herat to Tu:rğondı.

In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the postposition can be used interchangeably with the limitative suffixes $-\dot{c}An$ or $-\dot{c}A$; in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects only the suffix $-\dot{c}A$ is being used, while the postposition is missing altogether.

(iii) deŋ ~ deŋi:č

This postposition translates as 'until ...', 'as far as ...'. Double-coding in combination with the preposition $t\bar{a}$ occurs, although not very frequently.

- **qawsa deŋ** ğoyunlar meyda:nda oŋyo:r, soŋ ğišda sa:man bermese bolmiyo:r. (Är. 12) Until (the month of) Sagittarius the sheep graze in the open steppe, afterwards in winter one cannot do but give them straw.
- du:šemme gün **ağšama: deŋi:č** i:šledik. (Är. 40) On Monday we worked till night.
- **ta: m::za:na deŋ** ši raqam edip ati baqyo:s. (Xa. 4) We keep the horse like this until the Libra (month).

(iv) **garšı**

The postposition *garši* 'opposite ..., against ..., contrary to ...' occurs in all dialects.

- men **moŋa ğaršı** dimege-de jüret gerek. (Är. 19) It takes courage to say, "I am against this".
- jelsede bir heki:m a:ğa **maŋa ğaršı** čıqdı, bašğalar mawa:pıqdı. (Te. 2) At the meeting only Heki:m A:ğa stood against me, the others were in favour.

(v) **g**ara:nda ~ **g**ara:nıŋda

This postposition translates as 'compared with ...'. It occurs in all dialects; in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect, it is used instead of *baqanda* (see above). The postposition can be "personalized" by its respective possessive suffix.

- pä:kista:ni: bürünjiŋ biširmesi **bašğa burinjlere ğara:nda** aŋsa:t. (Är. 11) Pakistani rice is easier to prepare than other (sorts of) rice.
- **peštuwe gara:nda** turkmen-ä:m aŋsa:tra:q bolsa gerek. (Är. 17) Compared to Pashto, even Turkmen is obviously easier.
- qa:dırlarıŋ hemsa:yasına ğara:nıŋda yenedä:m biziŋ hemsa:yalarmiz köp yağšı. (Är. 32)

Compared (lit. if you compare) to the neighbors of the Qa:dır (family), our own neighbors are still very nice.

(vi) **golay**

The postposition *golay* 'near ...', approximately, up to a limit of ...' is used in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect; in the Teke dialect, the latter meaning is rendered by the postposition *čemeli* (with nominative, see above) instead.

- ista:nbul šeheri **deŋze golay**. (Är. 32) The city of Istanbul is (located) near the sea.
- her gün erti:r **ya:rım sa:ata ğolay** piya:da yöriyo:n. (Är. 7) Every morning I take a walk for approximately half an hour.

(vii) görä:

This postposition is used in all dialects; it translates as 'compared with ...', which may express affirmative comparisons ('according to ...') as well as adversative ones ('different from ...', 'as opposed to ...'). In its adversative meaning, the postposition can also require the ablative case (see below).

- **meniŋ pikrimä görä:** watannan ayrılmaq iŋ yaman za:tların bi:ri. (Te. 6) According to my opinion, being separated from one's homeland is one of the worst things.
- **nä:če deli:llere görä:** bu xi:l inek oğanista:nıŋ yağdayna bara:bar gelyo:r. (Är. 4) According to quite a few pieces of evidence, this sort of cattle suits the conditions of Afghanistan.
- **šuŋa görä:-**de mejlise gelip aytma:ğa otanya:lar. (Te. 10) And because of this / in accordance with that, they are ashamed of coming to a meeting and speaking up.
- yö:ne čigit ya:ğa ya:da naba:tı ya:ğa görä: kunji ya:ğı ğummatraq. (Är. 6) But compared with cotton oil or (other) vegetable oil, sesame oil is more expensive.

(viii) *seredende* ~ *seredeŋde*

This postposition has been recorded from the Teke and Yomut dialects only; its meaning 'compared with ...' would in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect be rendered by the postposition *ğara:nda* (see above). The postposition *seredende* can be personalized by inserting the possessive suffix that relates to its (virtual) satellite; *seredeninde*, lit. 'if you consider...' (which is also used for impersonal satellites like "one"), is then often contracted into *seredende*.

- **gečen zama:nlara seredeŋde** hä:zir yağın hemme yerde-de a:z. (Te. 10) Compared with former times, precipitation is less in all places today.
- **zehmetine seredende** ha:l1:n1ŋ bahası hi:č nä:rse dä:l. (Yo. 2) Compared with the hard work (it takes), the price of carpets is nothing at all.

(ix) seretmezden

This postposition has been recorded from the Teke and Yomut dialects. Its meaning 'regardless of ...' is also rendered by *baqmazdan* and (also in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect) by *garamazdan*.

• olar **hawwa:nıŋ ıssılığına seretmezden** yo:la düšdiler. (Te. 16) They set out without regarding the hot weather.

(x) *tarap*

The postposition translates as 'in the direction of ...', 'turned torwards ...'.

• i:rden turıp **čöle tarap** u:radım, ortašaxdan ötenimde hozarlar qı:ğıryo:r-tı. (Är. 41) I got up early and went to the countryside. When I passed by Ortašax, the roosters were crowing.

(xi) yaqı:n ~ yaqın

Together with a numeral, this postposition denotes an approximative number. The postposition is used in all dialects. The short-vowel variant is typical of the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects.

- mawlewi: sa:yıbıŋ **üč yüze yaqı:n** šä:girdi bar dır. (Är. 17) Mawlewi: Sa:yıb has close to three hundred students.
- hu:telde **bir miŋŋe yaqın** a:dam ba:r edi. (Mu. 3) In the hotel there were almost one thousand people.

(c) Postpositions with the ablative case

(i) aŋrı ~ aŋrı:q

This postposition, which is *aŋrı* in the Ä:rsa:rı, and *aŋrı:q* in the Teke dialect, forms spatial, temporal and quantifying clauses denoting 'on the far side of ...', 'beyond ...', 'after ...', 'more than ...'.

- šil görinyo:n **da:ğdan aŋrı** ma:rmul bolyo:r. (Är. 53) On the far side of that mountain which can be seen (here), there is (the area called) Ma:rmul.
- ata:miŋ ya:ši **yüzden aŋrı:q** gečipdi. (Te. 10) My father's age has transgressed hundred years.
- men **bir hepdeden aŋrı:q** ašğaba:d barıp gelišim gerek. (Te. 5) After one week I have to go to Ašğaba:d.

(ii) artıq

The postposition *artiq* 'more than...' can be considered a synonym of the (more frequently used) $ziya:d \sim ziya:da$ (see below).

• siz bizi **mınnan artıq** ğı:namaŋ di:di. (Är. 5) He said, "Don't you torture us any more (lit. more than this)!"

(iii) bašğa

The postposition *bašğa* 'except..., besides..., other than ...' exists in all dialects.

- bize bir **juma: günnen bašğa** rusğatı yo:q. (Te. 14) For us there are no days off other than Friday.
- šo:ra:ni ačmaq üči:n **pä:kista:nnan bašğa** yu:rtlerdä:ki ya:šolılar bilen-em maslaxat etdik. (Är. 10) In order to found (lit. open) the Council we also consulted with the elders in other

In order to found (lit. open) the Council we also consulted with the elders in other countries than Pakistan.

• ol yerde menä: **bir qanča esger bilen i:ščiden bašğa** hi:čkimi görmedim. (Är. 18) There I saw nobody but a few soldiers and workers. • marčaqda **sa:rıqlardan bašğa**, ä:rsa:rılar özbekler we arablar ya:ši: du:r. (Sa. 1) In Marčaq other than Sa:rıq there also live Ärsa:rı, Uzbeks and Arabs.

(iv) *bä:ri*

The postposition *bä:ri* 'since...' has been reported from all dialects. In the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect, the rare variant *bä:rä:* has also been reported: *men bilenimnen bä:rä:* (Är. 10) 'since I am in my right mind'.

- ona:m aytma:m gerek, mana birki yıldan bä:ri mana xušk sa:llıq gelip dä:ni: ğoyunlarıŋ ğarna:m otdan doymadı. (Är. 12) I also need to say that since one or two years this draught has come and the stomachs of the sheep have not been satiated with grass.
- m1:xma:nlar erti:rden bä:ri gelib oti:rlar. (Är. 10) The guests keep coming since the early morning. *men bilenimnen bä:rä:* (Är. 10) 'since I am in my right mind'
- **gadı:m wağitlardan bä:ri** türkmenler göčip-ğo:nıp yören soŋ olar dünyä:niŋ köp yerlerne yayra:pdırlar. (Te. 13) Because the Turkmens have been migrating here and there since ancient times, they have spread out to many places of the world.
- demir-pala:stik za:tlar čıqannan bä:ri indi öŋkiler ya:li ağaššı ussalaram yo:q. (Sa. 2)

Since iron and plastic things have appeared, now there are no (more) woodworking masters like (in) former (times).

(v) *beylä:k*

The postposition *beylä:k* 'on the far side of..., beyond..., after...' has been reported from the Teke dialect only, and only in the crystallized phrase *mundan beylä:k* 'from now on'; another variant, namely *beyle*, was by informants said to exist, but has not been reported from actual speech.

• **mundan beylä:k** maŋa pul ber di:mä:ŋ! qaqaŋızdan alıŋ. (Te. 5) From now (lit. this) on don't say "Give me money!", take it from your father.

(v) buya:n ~ bıya:n

This postposition, which renders the same meanings and is used the same way as $beyl\ddot{a}:k$ above, appears to be the Ä:rsa:r1 correlate of the latter; it also seems to be confined to the phrase 'from now on':

• **munnan buya:n** pä:kültä: günde erti:r sekgizde barmalı boldıq. (Är. 27) From now on we'll have to go to the faculty at eight o'clock in the morning.

(vi) dašarı

The postposition *dašarı* 'outside ..., other than ...' exists in all dialects.

• kö:ši:š ediŋ hi:čkim **pro:gira:mnan dašarı** geplemesin. (Är. 7) Please make an effort so that nobody should talk outside the schedule(d presentations).

(vii) **gayrı**

The postposition *ğayrı* 'other than...', which exists in all dialects but is only unfrequently used, is at semantic variation with the above-mentioned postposition *bašğa*.

• ğarı:p düšseŋ **ö:ziŋnen ğayrı** hi:čkim saŋa ğamxo:r tapılmaz. (Är. 5) If you become poor, nobody but yourself will be found to care about you!

(viii) görä:

The postposition *görä:* 'compared with...', which has already been mentioned as requiring the dative, can also be used with the ablative case. There seems to be no evident semantic difference between the two options.

- yo:lbarsıŋ gu:resi **ši:rden görä:** sıplaŋ bolyo:r. (Är. 17) The body of a tiger is longer than (the body of) a lion.
- **teke lehjesinnen görä:** ä:rsa:r1:ŋ lehjesi turk diline meŋzešrä:k mikä: diyä:n. (Te. 13) I'd assume that the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect is closer to the Turkish language than the Teke dialect.

(ix) owwal ~ ozal ~ awwal

The postposition which translates as 'before ...' comes in two variants, namely, *owwal* and *ozal*. In verbal phrases the postposition combines with the negative aorist. In the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}ls$ dialects the variant *awwal* also exists.

- siz ortala:p gitseniz **mennen owwal** bararsınız. (Är. 11) If you take the way through the middle, you will arrive before me.
- yo:lıŋ onča u:rı yo:q, **ğaraŋqı düšmezden ozal** yo:ldan ötmeli bolars. (Är. 23) The road is not in a good condition, we need to have passed that (piece of) road before dusk moves in.
- a:tı **oğlaqdan awwal** üč tört a:y baqmalı. (Mu. 2) Before the buzkashi race one needs to build the horse up for three or four months.

(x) *öŋ*

The postposition $\ddot{o}\eta$ 'before...' is used in all dialects. In verbal phrases it requires the negative aorist.

- banke barjaq bolsanız **sa:at sekgizden öŋ** barın. (Är. 25) If you are planning to go to the bank, go (there) before eight o'clock!
- toqayda **maha:jır gelmezden öŋ** türkmen yo:g ekeni. (Är. 35) Before the migrants arrived, there were no Turkmens in the lowland forest area.

(xi) öŋi:nčä:

This postposition, which has been recorded from the Teke dialect only, translates as 'before...'.

• qa:dır **sizden öŋi:nčä:** gelip gitdi. (Te. 16) Qa:dır had come and left (again) before you (did).

(xii) *ötri*

This postposition, which translates as 'due to...', has been recorded only from the Teke dialect.

• siz hemi:še bize kömek edip gelyo:rsıŋız, **šonnan ötri** biz sizi yağšı görya:s. (Te. 3) You always help us, therefore we like you.

(xiii) ö:zge

This postposition can be considered a synonym of basša and $\bar{g}ayri$ 'other than ...' (both see above), but is less frequently used than these.

• **sennen ö:zge** bıl i:ši hičkim bašarmaz. (Te. 10) Nobody else but you (can) accomplish this work.

(xiv) soŋ

The postposition's original meaning is 'after ...', and verbal clauses formed with it can be understood as either purely temporal or as temporal-and-causal.

- dö:rt yarım a:ydan soŋ bizler pes i:zimiza gečip geldik. (Sa. 5) After four and a half months we again returned back (lit. on our footprints).
- bizler aslan **a:qjadan bolannan soŋ** bu yere **gelen soŋ** šu lebze giden. (Mo. 3) After actually being from Aqča, we have shifted to this dialect after coming here.
- segsenbi:rinji yılı **ma:llar ölenden soŋ** men-em ma:lda:rlığı ğoydım. (Är. 12) After/because the animals had died away in the year (13)81, I also gave up livestock breeding.

Interestingly, the ablative suffix can be missing in combinations of a participle and the postposition *soy*: *gelen soy* (Te. 7) 'after having come', *qaziq qaqan soy* (Mo. 2) 'after driving in the peg'.

(xv) yaŋa:

The postposition *yaŋa*: translates as 'because of...'; it bears much the same meaning as *ötri* (see above), which, however, is used only in the Teke dialect while *yaŋa*: is known in all dialects.

• hanıpa:nıŋ bosa **ša:dlıqdan yaŋa:** yüregi ya:rıljaq boldı. (Är. 5) And Hanıpa:'s heart was about to burst with happiness.

5.1.7 Relational nouns¹⁷⁶

Relational nouns are part of a possessive construction, in which they are the head that is marked with the possessive suffix; their satellite generally has the genitive suffix if the

¹⁷⁶ This terminology follows Erdal 2004:332 and chapter 4.22. Erdal credits Clark 1998 with the term "relational nouns" (2004:332 fn. 533); however, Clark lists these nouns as "auxiliary nouns" (1998:427ff.), a term that appears less appropriate than Erdal's own.

relation is to be understood in a literal, spatial sense, but remains unmarked if the relation is understood in a transferred sense.

There is some overlapping between relational nouns and adverbs on one, and relational nouns and postpositions on the other side. These cases will be specified below.

Relational noun constructions can occur in the nominative, accusative, and all adverbial cases, with the case suffix marking the head of the construction, that is, the relational noun.

My materials do not contain all relational nouns which have elsewhere been identified as occurring in the Turkmen language (Clark 1998:427ff.). While some of those which have been reported here are frequently used, others occur only rarely. There is only little dialectal variation, which will be specified below.

(i) *aŋrı*

Apri is etymologically related with apri (Te.) or apir (Mo.) 'the other side, the opposite shore':

• xataplar bile muqrılar **aŋirda-da** türkmenistanda-da bir yerrä:kde ya:šıyo:r ekenler. (Mu. 1)

The Xatap and Muqri are said to live more (or less) together on the other side (of the border), in Turkmenistan, too.

The deictic directive¹⁷⁷ ann operates as a spatial adverb in sentences like the following:

- derya:nıŋ su:wı **aŋrı** gidende bä:ri tarapda kö:l köp bolyo:r. (Är. 39) Whenever the water of the river retreats over there, on this (near) side many puddles come into being.
- birinjiden kö:ne qala:ğa barıp soŋ aŋrı xa:nča:rba:ğ barars. (Är. 9)
 First we go to the ancient fortress and after that we cross over to Xa:nča:rba:ğ.

From the Teke dialect, *aŋırda* 'further away', which bears the locative suffix, has also been reported.

• uč toqırtğa:nıŋ bi:ri inha: šu yerde, bi:risi-de ol depä:niŋ yanında, yene bi:ri-de iki ki:lo:mitir **aŋrıda**. (Te. 8) One of the three mud water pipes is at this place here, again one is beside that hill over there and again (another) one of them is two kilometers away.

Mostly, however, *aŋrı* is used in relational noun constructions; in this function it occurs in all dialects.

- šu **depä:niŋ aŋrısınna** iki sa:nı o:lajığ-am otla**:**p yö:r. (Te. 13) Across that hilltop two calves are grazing.
- üyi **derya:nıŋ aŋrısında**-tı. (Är. 53) His house was across the river.

¹⁷⁷ Cf. Erdal 2004:178.

(ii) arqa

Arqa 'back, reverse side' and the adverb *arqada* 'back, behind' are used in all dialects, and so is the relational noun:

bu yil üč sa:ni ena:r ekdik, bi:regi mana šul, yene bi:regi ol, yene bi:regä:m ta:miŋ arqasında. (Är. 17)
 This year we planted three pomegranade (trees), one of them is this one here, another one is that one, and yet another one is behind the house.

(iii) *büyle*

Büyle, as a synonym of *bašğa*, means 'otherwise' and can by means of the suffix *-ki* be turned into an attributable adjective 'the other...':

• **büyleki** mı:xma:nlar qačan geljek? (Är. 13) When are the other guests coming?

As a relational noun, *büyle* denotes the 'ulterior', 'what is beyond...':

• šol či:lden **büylesi** meniŋ pi:ka:lım (Är. 18) (The piece that) is beyond this path is my field.

(iv) boy

The substantive *boy* denotes 'body length, full length'. As a relational noun *boy* is part of phrases that mean 'all along...', 'along...':

• **a:miderya:ŋ boyi** qadı:m zama:nlarda-da hi:č waxt 1:la:tsız bolma:ndır. (Yo. 1) (The area) along the Amūdaryā was in ancient times never devoid of population.

(v) *ič*

The relational noun *ič* translates as 'in ...', 'inside ...', 'within ...' in a spatial, temporal, or transferred understanding of the word.

- sekgiz utaği ba:rti, **šüniŋ dašini-ičini** suwašdirip berdiler. (Sa. 2) (The house) had eight chambers; they whitewashed their exterior and interior.
- gelya:nıŋ sačağı alınıp **šoŋ ičine** bašğa za:d salınıp pes berilya:r-eken. (Te. 2) The kerchiefs of the new-arrivals are taken, something else is put into them, (and) then they are handed back.
- yö:ne šu **marčağıŋ ičinde** tö:rt üyli owğa:n ba:r. (Sa. 2) And in this very Marčaq there exist four households (of) Pashtuns.
- birden xalı:lıŋ durmadığını gördim-de, men-em **čä:gä:niŋ ičinnen** sürdim. (Är. 1) All of a sudden I saw that Xalı:l had not stopped and (therefore) I also drove (my car) through inside the dune area.
- iki güniŋ ič**inde** (Är. 7) within two days

türkmenler tä:zeden šehirniši:ni:ye u:renšdiler, o:balardan čıqıp gelip šehr ičinne ya:šaya:lar. (Te. 6)
 The Turkmens have (only) recently got used to urban life; they have left the villages and are (now) living in town.

(vi) *tewereg*

This relational noun translates as 'around ...' and can be considered a synonym of *etra:f* 'the environs of ...'.

• i:sa i:ša:ni-da **marı tewereginde** hemme tanıya:r-eken. (Te. 5) (At that time) everyone around Mary knew I:sa I:ša:n.

(vii) *üst*

The relational noun *üst* means 'top'; it can also be used in various transferred meanings.

- bi bala:rlar egreyšip du:r, **ta:miŋ üstine** bomaz bilar. (Är. 13) These beams are curved, they won't do for on top of the roof.
- yö:ne šunya:nı **bir da:ğıŋ üstinne** qadı:m bir sılta:n sanjar diyip bir pa:šša: otırıp giden diyyä: . (Te. 7) And (they) say on top of such a hill (in) ancient (times) a certain king named Sultan

And (they) say on top of such a hill (in) ancient (times) a certain king named Sultan Sanjar was residing.

 hökü:metimiz aŋsa:tčılıq döretse biz-em ha:lı:nı pä:kistan üstinnen uzatma:na xoš dä: (Är. 35)
 If our gouerrment granted easy conditions, we would not insist on (lit, he fond of)

If our government created easy conditions, we would not insist on (lit. be fond of) exporting the carpet(s) via Pakistan.

• **šunıŋ üstinne** derrä:niŋ yoqarsınnan aylanıp su: gelyä:r-eken. (Te. 3) On top of this, water was (over and over again) coming from the upstream region.

(viii) ya:n

With its primary meaning 'side', the relational noun *ya:n* can also be used to denote 'near...', 'to...' and the like.

 Bıl meni pul beren güni:m yağšı göryo:r, pul bermedik güni:m ya:nıma-da gelen yo:q. (Är. 7)

He likes me on day(s) when I give him money, (while) on days when I don't give (him) money he doesn't even come to me.

- ba:bam ğıšlağda bolyo:r, her hepde **ya:nna** barıp ğaytyo:s. (Är. 22) My grandfather is in the village. Every week we go to him.
- ya:nıŋda:qı piya:la:nı apber (Te. 16) Bring (me) the teacup next to you!
- sen-em **qa:dırıŋ ya:nına** bara:ğay! (Är. 6) (Now come on,) go to Qa:dır!

(ix) yoqarı

The deictic directive *yoqarı* 'upward' can be used as an attribute: *yoqari oqu:lar* 'higher education'. The relational noun derived from *yoqarı* translates as 'upper region of...', 'higher up the ...' and the like.

• ğoyun **derrä:niŋ yoqarsınnan** aylanıp gelyä:r-ti. (Te. 3) The sheep were approaching from further up the valley.

5.1.8 Conjunctions

Conjunctions connect words, phrases or sentences. Some of the conjunctions coordinate two or more such elements. Other conjunctions subordinate one element to another; only sentences can be subordinated to other sentences by means of conjunctions.

(a) Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions can signal connection, contradiction, correlation 178 and specification.

(i) *bilen* ~ *bile*

The conjunction *bilen* and its rare variant *bile* (which has been reported only from the Muqri dialect) can coordinate only pairs (or in rare cases, triples) of substantives or short noun phrases of analogous syntactic function. It translates as a simple 'and'.

- **xataplar bile muqrılar** aŋirda da türkmenistanda da bir yerrä:kde ya:šıyo:r-ekenler. (Mu. 1)
- The Xatap and Muqri lived more (or less) in the same place over there in Turkmenistan.
- **enem bilen uyya:m**ı pä:kista:n äkidip dä:ktere görkezdim. (Är. 11) I took my mother and my sister to Pakistan and showed them to the doctor.
- **o:ğa:nlaŋqi bilen türkmenleŋki** ikisi bir. (Är. 1) The [language] of the Afghans and that of the Turkmens, both are equal.

Some relational noun constructions (*orta* 'middle, center', *ara* 'in-between' and derivals of these) require a pair of nouns / noun phrases joined by the conjunction *bilen* in their satellite:

- bizde-dä:m **oro:za haydı bilen ğorba:n haydınıŋ aralığı**nda toy eden yo:qlar. (Te. 3) At ours, they don't celebrate weddings between the *'īd al-fitr* and the *'īd al-qurbān*.
- **ba:zar bilen biziŋ üyimiziŋ ortası** dört ä:dim yer. (Te. 6) The distance between the bazaar and our home is a space (of) four steps.

Note an interesting case of contamination of constructions – the speaker sets out with a construction of the type just mentioned above, but continues with one that would have required an ablative at the first element (*biziŋ üyimizden šehreče*).¹⁷⁹

• **biziŋ üyimiz bilen šehr**eče birki a:rdım yo:l. (Är. 11) From our home to town it's (only) one or two steps' way.

¹⁷⁸ This threefold classification follows Clark (1998:434); Clark does not list "specification", however.

¹⁷⁹ I document this example here although I consider it to be a trivial slip of the tongue rather than a "mistake" in the understanding of Henri Frei's *La grammaire des fautes*.

While generally the conjunction *bilen* can join only analogous elements, this rule can be neglected for the sake of conciseness in the case of genitive-possessive constructions where one element of the analogous pair is a personal or reflexive pronoun; the "suppressed" subject is still reflected in its referent at the head:

- bolmasa payz qaryada:r bilen zewa:nımız¹⁸⁰ bir, bizler a:ta-ba:walarmız bir yerde bola:n. (Mo. 1)
 On the other hand Payz Qaryada:r's language and ours is the same, our forefathers had been together.
- a:ğam bilen ğoyunlarmız ayra dä:l yö:ne onıŋ gi:rdijisni ya:rım iki bölıp paylašyo:rs. (Är. 12)

Our sheep and my brother's are not separate, but the income from it we divide (by) half.

The same idea appears to be at the bottom of the coordination-like construction contained in the following example (where *bilen* is not used as a postposition!), in which the "suppressed pronoun" re-appears in the verbal predicate:

• **ahmed bilen** ba:zar güni **barars**¹⁸¹ diyip qara:r ğoydıq. (Är. 34) Ahmed and (myself/ourselves) decided to go (there) on market day.

(ii) **dIr**

The conjunction dIr 'and', which connects substantives of analogous syntactic function, has been reported only from the Teke dialect.

• Qa:dır ba:yıŋ doğanı-**dır** oğlanları hi:č qaysısı üyde yo:ğ-eken. (Te. 16) None of Qa:dır Ba:y's brothers or sons seems to be at home...

(iii) **u**

The conjunction u 'and' is not very widely used, although it is known in all dialects. It connects substantives or concise nominal phrases; some of these are lexicalized (e.g. *i:r* u $gi:\check{c}$ 'in the morning and at night' = 'at all times').

 čopanlar ya:z u ğıš di:mä:n zehmet tartyo:rlar, šonıŋ üči:n aylığnı köprä:g bermeli. (Är. 33)

The shepherds work without minding summer or winter, therefore one needs to give (them) more salary.

• asta:n a:ğa di:yo:n a:damnan bir meniŋ ata:m **u** uč ği:z doğani ba:r eken. (Är. 6) Except a man named Asta:n A:ğa, there were only my father and his three sisters.

(iv) *we*

The conjunction *we* connects pairs or chains of simple substantives or verbs, and it can also connect phrases to sentences, or whole sentences to one another. Generally, however, the conjunction is not frequently used.

¹⁸⁰ Short for * *payz qaryada:r bilen biziŋ/ö:zimiziŋ zewa:nımız*.

¹⁸¹ Short for * *ahmed bilen ö:zim(iz) ba:zar güni barars*.

• sılta:n sanjar šu yere gelende wezi:rleri **we** qomanda:nları bilen maslaxatlašıb otırıpdır. (Sa. 4)

When Sultan Sanjar came to this place, he used to have consultations with his ministers and field commanders.

- marčaqda sa:rıqlardan bašğa, ä:rsa:rılar özbekler we arablar ya:ši: du:r amma: olar hemmesi sa:rıq dilinde gepli: du:r. (Sa. 1) In Marčaq other than Sa:rıq there also live Ä:rsa:rı, Uzbeks and Arabs, but they are all speaking in the Sa:rıq language.
- at mö:jegiŋ yaqı:n gelenni gözi görmese-de bilbilyo:r-mıš **we** kiŋšiyo:r-mıš. (Är. 12) Although the horse – its eyes – cannot see the wolf coming closer, it is said to recognize it and to neigh.
- minnan üye barars we ča:y ičers. (Är. 24) After this we'll go home and drink tea.

(v) *dA*

The conjunction dA 'and' connects sentences with verbal predicates. It exists in all dialects, but is used even less frequently than the conjunctions just mentioned; the regular means to join sentences with verbal predicates would be gerund constructions.

• xatı tı:z-tı:z yazdı-**da** maŋa berdi. (Är. 6) He hastily wrote the letter and gave it to me.

(vi) hem - hem

The conjunction hem - hem '... as well as ...', 'both ... and ...' can connect nominal as well as verbal phrases.¹⁸² It is used in all dialects, but it occurs only unfrequently. It can precede or follow the elements which it connects and it can undergo various shortening and assimilation.

- a:t yaramas bolsa **hem** tepyo: **hem** tišliyo:. (Mu. 2) If a horse is bad, it both kicks and bites.
- resim-rava:j-**a:m** gawı, edä:b-**a:m** guwı, dessu:r-**a:m** gawı bir topar za:tlar. (Te. 4) (These people) are a bunch of guys whose customs are good as well as their manners and their morals.
- šipille-ki yo:q, oğri-**yem** yo:q bašğa-**yem** yo:q, šipille pi:len-xo hi:č gep yo:q. (Mo. 1) These days there is nothing – no thieves, no others. These days there is simply no nothing (lit. no word).

(vii) *ya:*

The conjunction *ya*: 'or' signals an alternative correlation between the words, phrases, or sentences which it connects. It can also connote an explanatory specification like the conjunction $y\ddot{a}:ni$: 'that is, ...'.

¹⁸² Clark's examples (1998:436) are with one exception (last example, and the example with *hem-de*) all misplaced, since in them *hem* is being used as a postposed assertive particle rather than as a conjunction.

- ba:zar barsaniz gö:št **ya:** ba:miya aliq-geliŋ! (Är. 30) If you go to the bazaar bring along some meat or ladyfingers!
- burč ya: turši i:sem mädem ağraydı. (Xa. 4) If I eat chilies or pickles my stomach aches.
- hä:zir ekin-tikinmiz **ya:** zira:atimiz öŋe giden dä:l. (Är. 8) For the time being our grain farming, that is, our agriculture, has not taken any progress.

(viii) *ya: ... ya: ...*

This conjunction precedes both of the words or phrases which it connects, signalling the alternative correlation 'either ... or ...'.

• gawın bišende bir görišeli, **ya:** siz geliŋ **ya:** biz baralı. (Är. 35) Let us meet when the melons are ripe – either you come, or we will go.

(ix) *ya-da*

The conjunction *ya-da* 'and also ..., or even ...' connects non-first elements of a series of syntactically analogous substantives or verbal predicates to the respective next element in the row.

- mana ba:zarlara ğara:b görsek hemi:še aq tuwiğ-am pa:kista:n bilen i:ra:n ya-da hindusta:nnan gelyo:r. (Är. 4)
 If we look at the markets, the white chickens always come from Pakistan or Iran or even from India.
- ağšam geliŋ otıralı, ča:y ičers, gürriŋlešers, **ya:-da** qarta oyna:rs. (Är. 1) Come tonight, let us sit (together), drink tea, chat, or even play cards.

(x) *ne* ... *ne* ...

This conjunction, which precedes both of the words or clauses which it connects, translates as 'neither ... nor ...'.

• **ne** men seni gören bolayın **ne** sen meni gören bol. (Är. 34) Neither shall I (admit) having seen you, nor should you (admit) having seen me!

(xi) *hatta:*

The conjunction *hatta:* connects two words, phrases or sentences to the effect that the first is specified by the second in a way which can best be translated by 'and even...':

- ğoyunıŋ etinne **hatta:** sü:dinne de ya:ğ köp bolmalı. (Te. 5) In the sheep's meat and even in its milk the fat is plenty.
- qanča köp bilsek šonča ğawı, xusu:san pa:rsı **hatta:** peštu:na:m u:rensek ğawı, ol-am resmi: dewlet dili. (Te. 14)

The more (languages) we know the better; especially if we learn Persian and even Pashto it's good, they are the official state languages after all.

(xii) *yä:ni:*

The conjunction *yä:ni:* 'that is to say, that means' connects two sentences, the first one of which is in an explanatory way specified by the second. The first one of the connected elements may even be missing, or have been communicated outside an immediate sequence; the explanatory specification would still remain in place.

diri:werleriŋ ö:zi bä:zi:si oqı:čılarmıza kömek etyo: yä:ni: bizlerden pul almiyo:r. (Xa. 2)

The very drivers, some of them, support us students, that is, they don't take money from us.

• **yä:ni:** oğlanlar bilen boğıšdıŋız? (Är. 39) That is to say, you have wrestled with the (other) kids?!

(xiii) *di:mek*

The conjunction *di:mek* is a synonym of *yä:ni:* and is being used the same way.

di:mek siz onda iki gün-em ğa:lıp biljek gä:mi? bir-ki gün bolsanız ğawı bolardı. (Te. 11)

That is to say, you won't be able to stay on for two days? Would have been good if you'd been (around) for one or two days...

(xiv) *weli:n* ~ *weli:*

The conjunction *weli:n* ~ *weli:n* 'but' signals contradiction between the two sentences which it connects. It is used in all dialects. The conjunction mostly precedes the sentence or phrase which contains the contradictory message, but it can also be postposed to it: *inni göryä:s weli:n* (Te. 6) 'but now we see'.

- onbä:š gün boldi weli:n yambašdan gelyä:mišin diyip merdim bir gorqya:r yö:ne merdim titrä:b du:r. (Te. 1)
 It's (already) been fifteen days (since the attack) but people are so afraid (the raiders) might come back the people are still trembling.
- biz mehpile bardıq **weli:** sen yo:q-tiŋ. (Är. 22) We went to the party but you weren't (there).
- sa:ra:nıŋ enes-ä:m tu:q basdırdı, jü:je köp čıqdı weli:n yağšı ketegi bolma:n soŋ pı:qa: i:mit boldı jü:jeler. (Är. 5)
 Sa:ra:'s mother hatched chickens; the chickens were plenty, but since she had no good henhouse they were all eaten up by the rooster.
- doqma satilmadi **weli:n** čiten doqmalari ellerniŋ ustinne ğallı. (Te. 6) The carpet was not sold, but (instead) the carpets they had woven remained on their hands.
- maza:ršeri:pde hemme kepderiler a:ğ-eken, hira:tda we kä:bilde weli:n kepderiler her xi:l bolya:r. (Te. 13)
 In Mazāri Šarīf all pigeons are white, but in Herat and Kabul the pigeons are (of) all sorts.

(xv) *amma*:

The conjunction *amma*:, which signals contradiction like *weli*:*n*, is only unfrequently used.

- marčaqda sa:rıqlardan bašğa, ä:rsa:rılar özbekler we arablar ya:ši: du:r amma: olar hemmesi sa:rıq dilinde gepli: du:r. (Sa. 1) In Marčaq other than Sa:rıq there also live Ärsa:rı, Uzbeks and Arabs, but they are all speaking the Sa:rıq language.
- biz boynımıza alan wezi:pä:mizi bejerdik **amma:** olariŋ heni:zeče eden i:ši yo:q. (Är. 8)

We have fulfilled the duties which we had accepted, but (by) them, no work has been done as yet.

(xvi) *bolmasa*

As a conjunction, *bolmasa* (lit. 'if it is not') indicates that the second one of two sentences which it connects suggests an alternative to what is expressed in the first one. It can be translated as 'or ...', 'otherwise ...', 'however, ...', 'actually, ...' and the like.

- zehmet čekiš gerek, bira:z sarpajoyı ediš gerek, **bolmasa** pulıŋ yığılması ğı:n. (Är. 25) It is necessary to toil, it is necessary to economize a bit, or otherwise the accumulation of money will be difficult.
- qadı:m buxara: sewda: merkezi bolannan soŋ oŋa buxara:yı diyelar, bolmasa türkmen ha:lısı bıl. (Yo. 1)
 Since in ancient times Bukhara was center of trade, they call this (type of carpet)
 Bukharan; however, it is a Turkmen carpet.
- siziŋ deli:liŋizi ešdip abdıraxma:n imsim boldı, bolmasa hi:čkimiŋ gepini qabu:l etmä:n otı:r-tı. (Är. 10) Now that Abdıraxma:n has heard your arguments, he has shut up. Otherwise he never accepted anybody's words.

As can be seen from the following example, the conjunction *bolmasa* can even be applied if the phrase/sentence which it "contradicts" is not explicitly said.

siz bir yo:la: arı:za:ŋızı weza:rata berik-göriŋ, bolmasa soŋ men bıl i:ši parılma:nıŋ üsti bilen čözerin. (Är. 16)
 Give it one try to hand in your petition at the ministry. [Maybe you are successful.] If not, I will then solve the matter via the parliament.

(xvii) onda-da

The conjunction *onda-da* connects two sentences, the second one of which signals contradiction to the first; it can be translated as '....all the same', 'nevertheless ...' and the like.

buyerde xuda:ya: šükür biziŋ hemme nä:rsä:miz ba:r, onda-da turkmenista:n ata watanmız bolanı üči:n göresimiz gelä:r. (Te. 19)
 Here, thank God, we have everything. Nevertheless, since Turkmenistan is our forefathers' homeland we desire to see (it).

(xviii) yo:ğsa ~ yo:ğsam

The conjunction yo: gsa(m) (lit. 'if it is not') connects two sentences in similar ways as *bolmasa* (see above), in that the second element is at semantic contradiction to the first.

- di:šiŋiz čü:ri:n bolsa soğırdıŋ **yo:ğsa** sizi helä:k eder. (Är. 20) If your tooth is rotten, have it extracted – otherwise it will kill you.
- yaŋqı yigitlerin köpisinin sewa:dı yo:q **yo:ğsam** olar mekdeb-em oqa:dılar. (Är. 11) Most of these youngsters are analphabets – although they go to school.

(xix) *g̃ayta:m* ~ *<i>g̃aytada:m*

The conjunction $\bar{g}ayta:m \sim \bar{g}aytada:m$ sets the subsequent sentence in immediate contradition to the precedent one; it can be translated as 'just the contrary, ...'. The preceding sentence may include the adverb *bir* ('for one thing'), which "cross-references" with the conjunction.

- behmen sa:yıp ğari:ma:n dir **ğaytada:m** öŋkiden ya:šarıp dır. (Är. 21)
 Behmen Sa:yıp has not aged just the contrary, he's gotten younger than before!
- bize wi:zä: bir bermedi ğayta:m bir heptelä:p sergerda:n-am etdi. (Te. 16)
 He, for one thing, didn't give us a visa just the contrary, he drove us nuts for a whole week.

(xx) *tersine*

The conjunction *tersine* is a synonym of *ğayta:m* and functions in exactly the same way.

• a:qm:ra:d bize pul-a: bir bermedi, **tersine** aldad-a:m. (Är. 29) A:qm:ra:d for one thing did not give us money – just the contrary, he betrayed us at that.

(b) Subordinating conjunctions

Subordination is in Turkmen grammar confined to conditional clauses. Consequently, most of the subordinating conjunctions occur at the initial position of a conditional clause and many of them also signal some kind of conditional connection between the clauses and sentences joined together by the conjunction. Other types signal causation, contingency and quotation.¹⁸³

(i) eger ~ eger-de

The conjunction *eger* ~ *eger-de* 'if...', which takes the initial position of a conditional clause (or in rare cases, the position immediately following the verb marked by the conditional suffix), can be understood as a product of double-coding in imitation of the Persian conditional construction (in which, other than Turkmen, the conjunction is an indispensable supplement to the subjunctive).

• eger dä:dem meŋa kömek etmedik bolsa, men-hem bul i:šleriŋ hemmesini yeke ö:zim bejerip bilmeya:dim. (Te. 5)

¹⁸³ For these categories, see also Clark (1998:434).

If my father hadn't helped me, I wouldn't have been able to accomplish all this work.

- ol waxtlarda o:t hemi:še öčmä:n kö:z bolip durar-miš, eger öčirse soŋ o:di yaqmaq ği:nmiš. (Är. 44)
 In those times the fire always kept glowing without going out: if it went out, it was
 - In those times the fire always kept glowing without going out; if it went out, it was difficult to light (another) fire.
- **egerde** siz gi:jä: ğalar ya:naq bolsaŋız motarda gidiŋ. (Är. 10) If it looks as if you were late, go (there) by car!

(ii) soŋ

While the protasis of a conditional construction can take the conjunction *eger* as an (additional) marker of its connectedness with the apodosis, the apodosis in its turn can be marked with the – equally superfluous, in a syntactic understanding – "consecutive" conjunction *soy* 'then ...' in its initial position.

- bir sapar xalqı aldasanız **soŋ** hemi:še size ınanmaya:lar. (Te. 16) If you deceive the people once, then they will never (again) trust you.
- a:damıŋ hemme paa:liyetleri pi:nisine bağlı, pi:ni ğorjansa soŋ ol a:dam sağalmıyo:r. (Är. 18)

All of man's action depends on his brains; if the brain (suffers) concussion, then that man won't recover.

• tilla: araq ičse (...) **soŋ** dä:lerip bašlaya:r. (Te. 3) If Tilla: drinks alcohol, then he starts fooling round.

(iii) **mI**

The element mI, which is primarily known as interrogative particle, can also function as a conjunction that signals that two phrases are connected by condition. While mostly conditional clauses form the protasis of a conditional construction, the combination of a verb with preterite suffix and the conjunction mI can do the same. The preterite suffix is in these cases to be understood as a non-tense element only signalling the perfective aspect; together with the conjunction it connotes repetitiveness or even "general fact". The supplementary conjunction *soy* can, as it does with regular conditional clauses, take the initial position of the apodosis.

- quma:rba:z bir yola: oğırlıq etdi**mi onsoŋ** ol bašğa za:dlar am edesi geler. (Är. 2) Once a gambler has commited theft, then he will feel like doing other (bad) things as well.
- hemsa:ya:ŋqa: ötdi**mi** mıŋqıdan bır za:dı oğirlamaqčı bolar bıl. (Te. 5) Any time he walks over to the neighbor's, he tries to steal something from there.

(iv) *bardı-geldi*

This conjunction can be best compared to the Dari conjunction *iḥyānan* 'if...' which implies an undesirable case ('under the unwelcome condition that ...').

• awala: oğlıŋız kä:miya:b bolar, **bardı-geldi** bolmasa soŋ bir čä:re eders. (Är. 3) First your son will be successful in school. If – unwantedly – he is not, then we'll do something about it. • **bardı-geldi** biz ö:zimiz toya gelip bilmeseg-em, oğlanları i:berers. (Är. 35) If – as we hope won't happen – we cannot come to (your) feast ourselves, we'll send the kids.

(v) *čunki*

The conjunction *čunki* 'because...' connects two finite clauses the second of which, whose initial position the conjunction holds, gives an explanation for the proposition put forward in the first clause. The construction with *čunki* is clearly understood as copied from Persian; it is not frequently used.

- šo:ra:nıŋ orta: geleninnen biz bi:xabar ğaldıq čunki biz o waxt dašarda-tıq. (Är. 10) We remained unaware of the Council's coming into being, because at that time we were abroad.
- siziŋ šeri:atıŋızda yo:ğ ol, di:di, čunki yo:ğ o bizde. (Är. 2)
 This does not exist in your sharia law, he said, because it does not exist at ours.

(vi) *diyip*

The conjunction *diyip*, which is in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan the gerund of the verb di- 'to say', marks a piece of direct speech (to which it is postposed) and connects or inserts it to the main clause.¹⁸⁴

- **men ya:š haywa:nlari i:merin diyip** šert edipdim. (Te. 13) I had made a bet, "I won't eat young animals".
- šo pille **sa:yb diyip** bir ğı:ğırdim. (Är. 14) At that time I burst out shouting, "Sir!".
- qa:z1 1:da:m ediŋ diyip höküm beripdir. (Är. 17) The judge passed sentence saying, "Put him to death!".

This type of construction is often interpreted as signalling a causal or final relation:

- maŋa:ha: ša:yat bi:sawa:d diyip kita:p bermedik bolsalar, size nä:müči:n bermä:nkä:ler? (Är. 11)
 Probably they didn't give me a book because (I am) illiterate; (but) why haven't they given (any) to you?!
- šo wağıtlar **čelpek guni diyip** gelya:nlara sačaq za:d oŋarılya:r-eken. (Te. 2) In those times a kerchief (or) stuff would be prepared for those (visitors) who came because of the "day of the flat loaves¹⁸⁵".
- toy etjek diyip köp pul yıŋnamalı boldıq. (Te. 16) We had to save up much money because we were planning to make a wedding.
- **nä:me diyip** siz oğlanlar bilen boğıšdıŋız? (Är. 39) What for did you fight with the boys?

¹⁸⁴ From the Teke dialect *diyip* has been recorded in two more functions: (1) as a synonyme of the participle *diyen*, which occurs in attributive phrases of the 'the ... called ...' type (*a:dam diyen haywa:n* 'the animal called human', also *siltan sanjar diyip bir pa:šša:* 'a king named Sultan Sanjar'), (2) as marking a non-resultative predicative adjunct (Hentschel 2008) (*šun-a:m bir ä:dim öŋe diyip hasa:plamaq gerek* 'this has to be judged *as* one step forward').

¹⁸⁵ Rituals of the so-called *čelpek guni* include gift exchange among relatives and friends.

(vi) hačan ~ qačan ~ qačan-da

This conjunction, which is *hačan* in all dialects and *qačan(-da)* in the Ärsa:ri and *nāxālış* dialects, signals contingency: It comes at the initial position of a conditional clause, which expresses the precondition for the proposition contained in the main clause. It can be translated as 'in case', 'given the condition'; *qačan-da* also translates as 'whenever ...', 'as soon as ...'.

- **hačan** di:seŋ barars. (Är. 54) We'll go whenever you want (lit. say).
- **qačan-da** biz i:šimizi gotarsaq size xabar berers. (Är. 13) We'll let you know when we finish our work.

5.1.9 Modal words

Modal words express the attitude of the speaker towards what he/she is saying. They range from plain affirmation / negation to the expression of nuances like confirmation, supposition, doubt, hesitation, topicalization, demonstration and others. Some modal words are lexical and functional copies from Persian.

Modal words expressing affirmation are in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan $huwwa \sim hawwa$ and $h\ddot{a}$: ; there seems to be no significant dialectal or regional difference in the use of the variants.

- **huwwa**, men-em šu xabarı öŋ ešdiptim. (Är. 22) Yes, I had also heard this news before.
- **hä:**, awad bolmaqiŋ üstine baryo:da, yu:saŋ a:t awad bolmali. (Mo. 2) Yes, (this) has to do with becoming well-bred, if you wash the horse it becomes wellbred.
- **hä:**, onda gitmeli bolsa biz-em teyya:r bolalı. (Är. 10) Okay, if then (we all) need to leave let us get ready, too.

Affirmation by means of *haqi:qatdan* or *doğrıdan*, the literal meaning of both of which is 'in fact', 'truly', is even stronger.

• **haqi:qatdan** siz erte gelibiljek dä:mi? (Är. 24) Really – you won't be able to come tomorrow?

Affirmation with special emphasis is expressed by *hetmen* 'absolutely', 'no doubt' (which is interestingly generally followed by an aorist or another non-tense dispositive verb form, as if to refrain from an all-too-certain proposition anyway):

• oğlıŋız ders oqa:n bolsa **hetmen** kä:nku:rde kä:miya:b bolyo:r. (Är. 3) If your son has learned (his) lesson he will no doubt be successful in the entrance competition.

Negation is expressed by *yo*:*q* – which is actually the negative existential – , *yo*: or *yaa*: :

• **yo:q**! marčaqda teke we yomut qawmlar ya:ša:n yo:q. (Sa. 2) No! In Marčaq there live no Teke or Yomut tribes.

• **yaa:**! ol mekdebe baran yo:q. (Är. 28) No way! He has never gone to school.

Certainty – whether factual or pretended, hopeful etc. – is in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan expressed with *elbetde* (which then comes with predicates that indicate indirectivity or evidentiality, as if to abstain from too much certainty of prediction):

- **elbetde**! sawa:dl1 a:dam sawa:ds1z a:damnan tapa:w1tl1, siziŋ aydaniŋiz doğr1. (Är. 12) Absolutely! Literate people are different from illiterates, your remark is correct.
- **elbetde** pul alan dä:l dir, alan bolsa bizede be:r. (Te. 3) He has certainly not received money; if he had received (any) he would give us (some).

Supposition, which may be inclined towards either affirmation or doubt, is expressed by *belki* :

• **belki** siziŋ aydaŋŋız doğrı dir, meniŋki yalŋıš bolmağı mümkin. (Är. 33) Maybe what you say is right, mine might be wrong.

Supposition or inference is expressed by $šekilli \sim šekilli:m$ (Te.), lit. 'in the shape of ...', 'looking like ...', which is attached to the end of the clause or sentence which is its scope. It has been recorded also in double coding together with phraseologisms which render the same meaning.

- bügün-em i:šimiz boljaq dä:l šekilli. (Är. 8) Looks like our problem is not going to be (settled) today...
- paha:! axdığıız ketde bola:n šekilli? (Är. 17)
 Oh! Looks like your grandson has grown up?!
- men bügün bi:kä:r boljaq dä:l **šekilli:m**, sizi bugün ča:rya:r gezzi:r. (Te. 13) Looks like I won't be free from work today..., (so) today Ča:rya:r will show you round.
- ey yene i:šimiz bitmedi, güma:nıma sonqı hepdä: ğaljaq šekilli. (Är. 22)
 Alas, our work is not done once over I guess it looks like it will remain (to be done) next week.

Much the same meaning can also be expressed by means of the modal word *ya:naq*, which is otherwise known as a postposition ('like ...'). Our materials do not contain many examples of this application of the word, though, and there is reason to assume that it is typical of female speech – as a downgrader for modesty and "non-insistence on one's own opinion in the face of others".

• halıma:nıŋ üč oğlı bir ğı:zı **ba:r ya:naq**. (Är. 5) Halıma has three sons and one daughter, it seems.

Inference¹⁸⁶ can be expressed by *di:mek*, lit. 'that is to say':

di:mek siz onda iki gün-em ğa:lıp biljek gä:mi? bir-ki gün bolsanız ğawı bolardı. (Te. 11)

¹⁸⁶ Clark (1998:378) names *di:mek* together with other modal words which imply "generalization", but actually his example (p. 398) points to inference rather than generalization.

So you won't be able to stay for two days then? Would have been good if you'd been about for one or two days...

A modal word designed to motivate the addressee is *hani*, which otherwise also means 'where?'.

• **hanı** ti:z bolıŋ, gi:jä: ğaldıŋız! (Te. 4) Come on, speed up, you are being late!

The modal word *bosa* (Te.Yo.Är.Sa.) ~ *bosa:n* (Mu.) ~ *bosa:ni:nim* (Är.) ~ *bosa:ni:gim* (Är.) immediately follows the word/phrase which is its scope. The general meaning of this element is to highlight or topicalize its referent, often as opposed to other parts of the phrase.

- **men bosa** bi yerde otız yıldan bä:ri deyha:nčılıq etyo:n. (Är. 10) As for me, I have been farming here for thirty years.
- **soŋ bosa** gelik-görse bir ya:šoli a:dam bir na:ni suwa aqdiriq-gido:r ekeni. (Sa. 7) And *after that* as he went and looked, (he saw that) an old man was throwing a loaf of bread into the water.
- a:tiŋ a:datları yaramas bolsa hem tepyo: hem tišliyo:. yağšı čıqsa bosa:n, ni: tepyo: ni: ti:šliyo:. (Mo. 2)
 If the horse's habits are bad it will kick and bite. If it comes out well, however, it will neither kick nor bite.
- erti:r edilen xami:rlar bišiberende bosa ol ya:ğ dušer. (Är. 5) And as soon as the dough which has been prepared in the morning is ripe, that grease will fall out.
- ol ğızıl esgili bosa:ni:nim maha:jirlar umu:man ğızıl esgili, uwwaldan otirimda:rlar bosa:ni:nim sa:ri esgili. (Är. 1) As for these (women) wearing red headscarfs – the immigrants generally have red headscarfs (while) those who had been living here before have yellow headscarfs.

5.1.10 Existentials¹⁸⁷

All Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan have the positive and negative existentials *ba:r* and *yo:q*. The occurrence of the short-vowel variant *bar* appears to be only occasional; voiced *yo:ğ* almost regularly occurs in word boundaries when followed by a vowel-initial word or clitic (e.g. *yo:ğ-ekeni* Är. 'there wasn't').

The negative existential also functions as a substitute for the non-existent lexeme 'no':

- **yo:q**, marıdan dä:l, biziŋ ata-ba:balarmız ta:šhawızdan gelen. (Yo. 1) No, not from Marı our forefathers have come from Ta:šhawız.
- **yo:q**, bend dä:l-de ačılan inni. (Te. 3) No, it is not closed (but) open now.

Clauses with bare existentials occur rather unfrequently, with the sheer negation of something's existence even more scarcely occurring than its affirmation.

¹⁸⁷ Clark (1998:378) lists the existentials ba:r and yo:q as modal words of affirmation and negation, respectively. Since this interpretation does not conform to our (and his) definition of modal words, we list them as a separate category of adjuncts here.

- yö:ne šu marčağıŋ ičinde tö:rt üyli owğa:n ba:r. (Sa. 2)
 An in the center of Marčaq there exist four households (of) Pashtuns.
- wılıswa:lı: qo:rya:nda bir o:ba ba:r qalayıba:ba diyilya:, o yerde türkmenleriŋ köpisi ya:šaya: (Te. 2)
 In the district of Qo:rya:n there is a village, (it) is called Qalayıba:ba, most of the Turkmens live there.
- bize bir juma: günnen bašğa rusğatı **yo:q**. (Te. 14) For us there exists no holiday except the one (and only) Friday.
- demir-pala:stik za:tlar čıqannan bä:ri indi öŋkiler ya:li ağaššı ussalaram yo:q. (Sa. 2) Since iron and plastic things have appeared, now there exist no (more) woodworking masters like in former times.

The assertiveness of existential clauses can be downgraded (for politeness, reluctance to take high risk, etc.) by means of an adequate modal word (e.g., ya:ni 'as if ...'), suffix (e.g. the intensive-and-downgrader -rA:Q like in $yo:\check{g}ra:q$) or clitic (*dIr*).

• Halıma:nıŋ üč oğlı bir ğı:zı **ba:r ya:naq**. (Är. 5) It seems that Halıma has three sons and one daughter.

Existentials combined with possessives render the meaning of 'to have'.

- saŋa üš šertim ba:r šoları bejersen seni goyberjek diyipdir. (Är. 39)
 He said, "I have three tasks for you. If you fulfill them, I will let you free."
- werzišden kä:ra:ta: gidyä:nlam**mız**-am **ba:r** ya:šlardan. (Te. 18) Among the young (men) we also have (some) who out of the (various) sport(s) are going for karate.
- siziŋ tö:rt sa:nı oğl**ıŋız ba:r**, šüyle dä:lmi? (Är. 19) You have four sons, isn't it so?
- sekgiz otaği **ba:r-ti**, šüniŋ dašini-ičini suwašdirip berdiler. (Sa. 2) (The house) had eight rooms. They painted their exterior and interior.
- xalq behrin dü:bi yo:q diyyo:lar amma: onıŋ-am dü:bi bolmalı. (Är. 17) Folks say the ocean has no bottom, but it also does have a bottom.
- sereta:n keseliŋ heni:zeče ala:ji yo:q diyä:ler. (Te. 16) The cancer illness as yet does not have medication, they say.

The existentials can combine with clitics for all the tense, evidentiality and modality marking of which the existentials themselves are not capable. These issues are not explicated here.

5.1.11 Particles

Particles are elements which cannot stand alone; they gain meaning only in combination with words or phrases, to which they are postposed. Particles are enclitic – while they do not receive stress themselves, more stress falls on their immediate antecedent. Particles may or may not be harmonized with the antecedent they are attached to (vowel and/or consonant harmony).

(a) Epistemical particles

Epistemical particles relate to the veracity of the proposition put forward in the word, phrase or sentence to which they are attached, and they do so in the interrogative or in some attitudinal¹⁸⁸ mode.

(i) *mI*

The particle mI is in regular sentences mutually exclusive with interrogative adjectives and adverbs.

The interrogative particle per se, mI, has in unfrequent cases been reported as [mu] or [mü] as well, but generally it follows the twofold harmony model in all dialects.

In regular speech, the interrogative particle mI is attached to the comment rather than to the topic, even if the topic is what the particle is semantically bound to.

 goyunlarnızı ö:zlerniz baqyo:rsınızmı¹⁸⁹? (Är. 40) Do you herd your sheep *yourself*?

As a rule, the particle mI follows only independent parts of speech; attributes, satellites of possessive constructions and other dependent elements, including converbs, may be the actual scope of the interrogative particle, but the particle is nevertheless attached to the respective heads and postverbs, or to the comment (whether it is a nominal or a verbal predicate) altogether.

- haja:ğa kö:ne pul-am alyo:n-dırmı? (Är. 11) I wonder if Haji A:ğa also accepts *old* bills?
- size-hem pul **birmey** bolar**mi**? (Mo. 1) Would it be okay *not* to give you money?
- ya:šoli **o:xla:p** yati:r**mi**? (Är. 53) Is the old man lying *asleep*?

The positioning of the particle *mI* in relation to person markers is not discussed here in detail. It may suffice to mention that there is some dialectal variation in this (e.g. *sağmısıŋ* Är. as opposed to *sağmıŋ* Te. 'Are you well?'; *bilyo:rsIŋmI* Är. as opposed to *bilyä:mIŋ* Te. 'Do you know?'), and there may even be situational variation within one dialect.

(ii) **d**A

The particle dA can be used as an interrogative particle; questions containing this particle (rather than mI) bear a connotation supporting the veracity of the proposition that is expressed in the sentence, which makes the "question" appear to be a rhetorical one. Examples:

- görišim ya:ni saŋa kömek beryo:n-am yo:q-da? (Är. 5) As far as I (can) see, nobody is helping you, isn't it?
- aliq-ğačar o:ğa:nlardan-eken-**de** ol? (Mo. 1)

¹⁸⁸ Clark 1998:458 includes in this category particles that are about speculation, confirmation, assertion and emphasis; the latter, to our understanding, is not well placed here, but according to Clark's table should come in the category he calls "emotional".

¹⁸⁹ In this book I follow the Turkmenistani orthographical convention of not separating the interrogative particle by space or hyphen. All other particles are hyphenated.

Isn't he one of these thievish Pashtuns?

• bil i:ši men etmeli-**de**? (Är. 34) Am I the one who has to do this work, then?!

(iii) *A* ~ *A*:

The interrogative particle $A \sim A$: always takes the final position of the sentence, which as a whole appears to be its scope. Compared with dA, and certainly with mI, $A \sim A$: is only unfrequently used. Again, similar to dA, this particle supports the veracity of the proposition, which gives the question a markedly rhetorical character.

- erte ba:zar bararsıŋ-a:? (Är. 53) Aren't you going to the bazaar tomorrow?
- šonča palaw mi:dä:sini a:ğırtjağnı öŋ-hem bilyä:rdi-**ä:**? (Te. 18) Wouldn't he have known from the start that this much pilaff would give him stomach pain?

(iv) **Q**A:

The clitic *QA*: , which fulfills several different functions, can among others be used as an epistemical particle which expresses speculation.¹⁹⁰ It is then hosted by the predicate of an interrogative sentence. While there seem to be no restrictions concerning the host – nominal or verbal predicate, affirmative or negative, etc. – , the propositions do seem to be restricted to the 3rd person.

- ol görinyo:n kim-kä:? (Är. 5) Who could this (person) be that can be seen (over there)?
- injinyer pru:žadan pul alıp bilse bize-de be:rmi-kä: di:yä:n. (Te. 17) I'd say, if the engineer can find money for the project, I wonder if he's going to give us (some), too.
- saxii:ja:nin kepderleri nä:dip hemmesi a:q bolyor-qa:? (Är. 40) 71 How come (lit. doing what) the pigeons of (the mausoleum of) Hazrat Ali are all white?!

(v) *dIr*

The clitic dIr, which otherwise adds evidentiality to many different verb forms, is also used as an epistemical particle which expresses supposition and confirmation. Although there seems to be no restriction on 1st and 2nd person propositions for *dIr* to be attached, the particle occurs by far most frequently together with 3rd person propositions, obviously for semantic reasons.

- siziŋ xabarŋız ba:r-**dır**. (Te. 2) No doubt you are informed.
- xuda:y ta:la:nıŋ ö:zi dä:nä:-**dir**, biziŋ da:r aqlımız bul i:šlere yetišmez. (Te. 10) God himself is all-wise, our narrow mind does not suffice for (the understanding of) these things.

¹⁹⁰ Compare Clark 1998:458.

- xuda:yberen a:ğa issi-suwığı gören qırq yıllıq čopan-**dir**. (Är. 13) Xuda:yberen A:ğa is a forty-years(-active) shepherd who has seen the hot and the cold (i.e., who is experienced in all difficult matters)!
- nesi:besi tartan dä:l-dir, o yerlerä: nesi:be tartmasa gidip bolmaz. (Är. 5) It has obviously not been his lot [to go for the Hajj]; if it is not one's lot, one cannot go those places.
- bil bir tejribe, ya:zi issi gelen yili ğiša:m suwiq bolyo:n-**dir**. (Är. 17) This is an (insight from) experience: In years whose summer was (lit. came) hot the (lit. its) winter will also be cold.
- onda bul i:ši men etyo:n-**dırn** (Är. 10) Then it's obviously me who is going to do this work

(b) Emphatic particles

(i) $A \sim A$:

The particle $A \sim A$:, which has above been mentioned as bearing interrogative function, is also used for adding emphasis to a sentence, in which it always holds the final position.

- peyğamber ya:ša bardığ-**a:**! (Är. 1) I have reached the Prophet age!¹⁹¹
- yoqarı gityo:nı čin ekeni-**ä:**! (Är. 11) It is true that he has gone up (there)!
- qawma:-m keliŋ di:di hawlı biremen-**ä:** diyedi leki:n (...). (Mo. 1) He tells the people, "Come, I give (you) a home!", he says, but (...).

(ii) **a:w**

The particle a:w, which is typical of male speech, adds emphasis to a sentence or phrase and can connote (positive) surprise.

- örä:n yağšı palaw ekeni-**a:w**! (Är. 53) What a good pilaff this is!
- baybay, sala:m ba:y sen zor-**a:w**! (Är. 11) Wow, Sala:m Ba:y, you are awesome!

(iii) Ay

The particle Ay adds emphasis to the whole sentence to which it is attached. It can connote surprise, astonishment, and also joy and delight.

- ol gelyä:n kim-kä:-ey?! (Är. 5)
 Who is thiiiis (lit. the one who is arriving)?!
- waxtında gela:dıŋ-**ey**! (Är. 34) You have come exactly on time!

¹⁹¹ *Peyğamber ya:* $\check{s}(\iota)$ is the age of 62.

(iv) *A:hA*:

This particle adds emphasis to the word or phrase which is its scope, and it connotes nuances like "anyway", "in the first place". If the antecedent has a vowel in the coda position, that vowel is integrated into the long vowel in the onset of the particle: maya + a:ha: > maya:ha:

- ši pillede hem yigitler mejlise gelmä:ne utanya:lar, šuŋa görä:-de ḡi:z-**a:hä:** hemi:šede weki:l tutilıp nikä: edilya: . (Te. 10) Even today the young men are shy of coming to the (engagement) ceremony. Taking this into account, girls are anyway always being given in engagement by taking a custodian.
- maŋa:ha: ša:yat bi:sawa:d diyip kita:p bermedik bolsalar, size nä:müči:n bermä:n-kä:ler? (Är. 11)
 While they may have given me no book, saying, I am anyway illiterate, why might they not have given you one?!

(v) hem $\sim Am \sim A:m$

The by far most frequently used emphatic particle is in all dialects *hem* and several variants of it, whose initial [h] can be dropped and whose vowel can be harmonized and/or lengthened. The particle is often combined with its synonymic particle dA 'also' (which in its simple form, however, occurs only unfrequently in the Turkmen dialects). In these cases dA is always immediately attached to the word/phrase which is its scope and *hem* is attached to dA; the reverse sequence has not been recorded. The combination is then often contracted into [dä:m] or [da:m].

The emphatic quality of *hem* and its variants ranges from very strong to hardly noticeable; in many cases it appears more like a filler word altogether. Its original meaning 'also', which is copied from Persian and exists independently in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, does not seem to be relevant here any more. Many speakers use the particle abundantly, even when a specific intention to emphasize one part of their speech or another is hardly discernable.

On the strong end of the application scale, the particle functions as an outright topicalizer¹⁹²:

- šu depä:niŋ aŋrısınna iki sa:nı o:lajığ-**am** otla:p yö:r. (Te. 13) It's *two calves* that are grazing over there across that hilltop!
- ö:z sü:tdeš doganna **hem** ö:zinnen kette bolsa a:ga diyediler. (Xa. 3) To their *maternal* siblings – if they are older than themselves – they say *a:ga*.
- bizde-**dä:m** oro:za haydı bilen ğorba:n haydınıŋ aralığında toy eden yo:qlar. (Te. 3) At *ours* they don't make weddings between the *'īd al-fitr* and the *'īd al-qurbān*.

Next down the scale would be a pure and simple emphasizing effect that comes with the particle in its various shapes:

- oğlanlarıŋ begra:ma gideni altı a:y boldı heni:z-em o yerde i:šlä:b otı:rlar. (Är. 8) It's been six months since the guys have left for Begra:m but they are *still* working there.
- qadı:m waxtlarda ğudalara öŋinde ğoyulyo:n etler-em belli eken. (Te. 19)

¹⁹² In this function it can best be compared with Old Turkic *ymä* as characterized by Erdal (2004:347).

In ancient times the (pieces of) meat that had to be placed in front of the in-laws were clearly defined.

- olarıŋ o:balar-**a:m** da:ğ eteginde-keni. (Är. 43) Their village was/is on the hillside.
- za:yirša:nıŋ zama:nında-**da:m** ba:ylarıŋ üyünde bir-iki altatar tüpeŋ ba:r-ti. (Är. 12) In Zāhiršāh's time there used to be one or two six-shooting guns in the homes of the stockbreeders.
- men ata:mıŋ gelmedigini öŋ-**em** size xabar beriptim. (Är. 7) I had (*already*) told you earlier that my father has not come.

The phenomenon that a feature can denote itself and, along with this, its own exact opposite is well-known in linguistics. (In the Turkmen dialects, for example, diminutives can be used to verbally increase their heads, etc.) The emphatic particle *hem* appears to be a case in point: When the particle comes with personal pronouns – of 1^{st} person singular or plural – , it functions as the opposite of an upgrader for attention, namely, a downgrader for modesty.

- men-em güzera:na yetiššek bolıp altı ča:ğa:nı olaltjaq bolıp sačım ti:z ağardı. (Är. 5) While I struggled for the essentials of life and was intent to raise (my) six children, my hair has quickly turned white.
- biz-em yığnağa dö:rt bolıp bardıq. (Te. 5) We went to the meeting as (a group of) four.
- meniŋ-em oğlum köp yaman bolip čiqdi (Är. 6) My son turned out to be very bad.

(vi) *lA*

This assertive particle adds extra emphasis to the word or sentence to which it is attached. The particle often comes with conditionals in volitional function.

- bä:! bil oğlan kiči bolsa-da edyo:n i:šleri ketde a:damqı ya:ni-le. (Är. 30)
 Wow! Although this boy is (still) young, the things he does are really like an adult man's!
- bi gi:je yaman köp ičdiŋ-le?! (Är. 5) But last night you had boozed a hell of a lot!
- goysaŋ-la! šunı ö:ziŋ yazdiŋmı? (Te. 14) Now hang on! Have you really written this yourself?
- elim šel boldı, šu ča:ğa:nı alsaŋ-la! (Te. 5)
 My hands are like paralyzed, now wouldn't you take that child?!

(vii) **ol**

The particle ol – which is otherwise known as a demonstrative pronoun – can be employed to add emphasis. Other demonstrative pronouns (bl, šl...) also occur in this function, although less frequently. Differently from all above-named emphatic particles, which emphasize either single words/phrases, or the topic of a sentence, or the sentence as a whole, ol emphasizes the comment part of the sentence.

• yağšı čopan bolsa ö:zı yağdaya düšünmeli **ol**, köp ğa:r yağıberse ol ğoyunları i:qra:q yere eltmeli. (Är. 12)

As for a good shepherd, *he must understand the situation all by himself*. If much snow falls, he must take the sheep to a more sheltered spot.

- yağšı atadan dörä:n oğlan xo:y-xıslatınnan bildiryo:r ol. (Är. 1) A child who has been procreated by a good father *can be recognized from his character*.
- piša:r yaramaz za:d eken **bil**. (Te. 10) (High) blood pressure *is a nasty thing*!

(viii) xo ~ ki

The particle xo, which in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects also comes as ki, emphasises the word to which it is attached and connotes suggested consent on the part of the audience.

- onda aytti: men-**xo** bil a:dam-i tanı-me-y-men. (Mu. 1) Then he said, but I don't know that man!
- šipille-ki yo:q, oğri-yem yo:q bašğa-yem yo:q, šipille pi:len-xo hi:č gep yo:q. (Mu. 2) Nowadays there is nothing (dangerous going on) – no thieves, no others, today there is literally nothing!

(ix) *inha* ~ *inha*:

The particle *inha* \sim *inha*: has been reported from the Teke and and Yomut dialects only. It adds emphasis to the word or phrase which is its scope and to whose final position it is attached.

- yö:ne šipilleki hä:zir türkmenče kepleya:n xalq ba:r bolsa-inha, bolar türkmenista:nnan göčip baran (Te. 2)
 And if today there *are any* folks *at all* who speak Turkmen, these are (the ones) who have immigrated from Turkmenistan.
- uč toqrtğa:nıŋ bi:ri-inha: šu yerde, bi:risi-de ol depä:niŋ yanında, yene bi:ri-de iki ki:lo:mitir aŋrıda. (Te. 8)
 One of the three muddy water pipe is at this place here, again one is beside that hill over there and again one of them is two kilometers away.

5.1.12 Interjections

Interjections replace or complete verbal expressions which communicate emotions like joy, sadness, surprise, compassion, sorrow, discontent, despair and others, or highlight speech acts like order and command, admonition and alert and so on. In the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan there exist a number of lexicalized interjections; stress and pitch can modify the quasi-lexical meaning of these words according to the communicational needs and intentions of the speaker. We can differentiate two types of interjections – simple items which bear no literal meaning, and phrase-like items which have crystallized in a specific understanding beyond their literal meaning.

(a) Simple interjections

Simple interjections consist of one syllable or a group of syllables which are not necessarily syntactically related to the phrase or sentence which they precede or follow. Their phonetic

structure need not conform to the phonotactic rules that otherwise guide Turkmen speech. Some simple interjections are gendered, others are typical of one given dialect, again others occur without obvious restrictions.

(i) Interjections typical of female speech

- axi: expresses grief, sorrow, compassion
 - axi: ! hali:ma:nıŋ ği:zi heni:z yigrimä:m yašama:ntı, juwa:nmerg bolıpdir bi:čä:re. (Är. 5)

Axi:, Hali:ma:'s daughter had not even lived twenty (years), now she has died at young age, poor thing.

ayuw draws attention to the speaker

• **ayuw**! bä:ri ğaraŋ! (Är. 52) *Ayuw*! Look my way!

hi: expresses regret, sorrow, despair

• qa:dır hajı:nı iki mertebe emelya:t etdirdik, **hi:** ol yağšı boljaq dä:l šekilli. (Är. 18) We had Qa:dır Hajı: unergo surgery twice, but *hi:*, it doesn't seem as if he were going to recover.

waxay ~ *waxwaxey* expresses deep concern, sorrow, compassion

• **waxwaxey**! büjağaza nä:m-boldi? (Är. 5) *Waxwaxey*! What has happened to this poor little (thing)?!

wi: expresses regret and compassion

• wi: oğulša:d eke ölipdir!? (Är.) *Oh*, Oğulša:d Eke has died!

(ii) Dialectal difference

 $ba:y \sim bayba:y \sim bay-bayaw \sim baybu: \sim baybo:$ expresses positive surprise, astonishment coupled with joy and enchantment. While the first, second and third variants are typical of the Ä:rsa:ri dialect, *baybu:* would be the typical Teke, and *baybo:*, the Sa:riq variant.

• **bay-bay** sala:mba:y sen zor-aw! (Är. 53) *Bay-bay*! Sala:mba:y, you are great-*aw*!

 $b\ddot{a}$: ~ *beh* : expresses surprise and astonishment; the *bä*: variant is typical of the Ä:rsa:ri dialect while *beh*, which is uttered with particular stress and raised voice is typical of the Teke dialect.

• **bä:** bil oğlan kiči bolsa-da edyo:n i:šleri ketde a:damqı-ya:nı-le. (Är. 30) *Bä:* ! Although this boy is small, his achievements are like a big man's! • **beh** činmi aytya:niŋ? (Te. 1) *Beh*! Is (it) true what you are saying?!

 $\ddot{u}bi: / \ddot{u}b\ddot{u}y \sim wi:$ expresses grief and sorrow. $\ddot{u}bi:$ is typical of the Moqri, Xatap and Bayat dialects, while wi: is typically used in the Teke dialect.

• **übi:** mutar yıqılıp biš a:dam ölipdi. (Ba. 3) *Übi:* , the car has been overturned and five men have died...

wa:y ~ *wa:ywa:y* expresses surprise about something undesirable.

• wa:ywa:y onıŋ salsa:l bolıp gelišin göriŋ! (Är.) Wa:ywa:y, look how draggingly he is coming!

wä: expresses surprise, mostly about matters unpleasant to the speaker. Children use this interjection to express malicious glee and spitefulness.

• **wä:** sende minya:ni oyinjaq yo:q. (Är. 4) *Wä:*, you don't have toys like this!

(iii) Universally applied interjections

a:y: is used to draw attention of a crowd to what is going to follow; it is frequently used by (professional) barkers on the bazaar or during sports events.

a:y merdim ešitdim ešitmedim di:ymä:ŋ! uwal ta:bağıŋ yüz da:lar bilen bir do:n serpa:y ba:r a:w!
 A:y people, don't say I've heard or not heard (the message)! (For) the first lap there is a prize of one hundred dollars and a coat!

 $a:w \sim aw$: follows the actual message; it draws attention and adds emphasis to what has been verbally expressed before. (Compare also the above example.)

- bay-bay sala:mba:y sen zor-aw! (Är. 53) Bay-bay! Sala:mba:y, you are great-aw!
- *ey* expresses disappointment and regret
 - ey yene i:šimiz bitmedi, güma:nıma soŋqı hepdä: ğaljaq šekilli. (Är. 22) *Ey*, our matter has again not been completed. I guess it looks like it will remain for next week....

ey-ho: expresses surprise and astonishment, but is also used to alert people of dangerous situations.

- **ey-ho:** bi nä:hi:li a:dam-eken-ä:? (Är.) Hey, what a strange man indeed!
- ey-ho: mä:kä:m yapıšıŋ! düšip ğa:la:ma:ŋ! (Är. 26) *Ey-ho:* hold on tight! Don't fall down!

hä: confirms and underlines what another person has said or is doing.

- **hä:** šüylä diyiŋ-ä:, men-hem šünya:nı bolar diyip oylıyo:r-tım. (Är. 27)
- *Hä:*, you are right, I was also thinking that (things are) this way.

ha-ha-ha expresses pride and joy

• **ha-ha-ha** biz utdıq! (Är. 12) *Ha-ha-ha* we've won (the game)!

ha:y is shouted in order to attract attention and avail oneself of somebody's help. It can precede or follow the actual message or both (as is the case in the example below):

ha:y! oğrı ğašdı ha:y! ğoyma:ŋ! (Är.)
 Ha:y! The thief has escaped-ha:y! Don't let go of him!

 $he \sim h\ddot{a}$:- $h\ddot{a}$: expresses disapproval and is applied in order to embarrass and/or intimidate somebody; it precedes the actual phrase.

• **hä:-hä:** yene biz bilen ji:l edersiŋmi? (Är.) *Hä:-hä:*, are you again having an argument with us?

hey: is an expression of regret and despair.

• **hey** saŋa nä:me diyeyin men?! indi ö:ziŋ bilibermeli hemme za:tları! (Är. 10) *Hey* what else shall I tell you?! Now it is for yourself to know/understand everything!

how expresses consent. It also serves as a response when one is being addressed, saying something like "yes, please".

hümmm expresses disapprovement of, or disagreement with an action after it has been completed, or the same with regard to the person who has accomplished it.

• hümmm ey bolya:-da, öŋnen u:rına čıqsaŋiz yağšra:q bolar-dı. (Te.) *Hümmm ey* it's okay (but), it would have been better if you had cared for its good quality beforehand!

oho: expresses surprise about unpleasant, sad, embarrassing etc. news and can include the affirmation of one's compassion and/or sorrow. It is typical of male speech.

• **oho:**! men-ä: ešdenim yo:q, hajia:ğa qačan öldi? (Är. 3) *Oho:*! I had not heard (about it), when has the old man died?

päh ~ *paha*: expresses positive surprise and approval.

• **paha:** axdığŋız ketde bola:n šekilli? (Är. 17) *Paha:*! Your grandson has grown up, it seems?!

tüf is an expression of disgust and utter disapproval.

- tüf ekrem a:dam dä:l ol, ınsa:niyet diyen za:t onda hi:č yo:q. (Är. 10) *Tüf*! Ekrem is not a man. The thing called humaneness is totally absent in him.
- (b) Interjection phrases

These phrases, whose literal meaning is often independent from their situational function, precede or follow the actual sentence; in some situations they can be used as self-sufficient speech acts of their own.

al kerek bolsa (Te.) ~ *al gereġŋı* (Är.): The literal meaning of this phrase is "Take what (you) want(ed)!". It is employed when somebody has messed up a situation and the speaker reacts with a despiteful, mischievous remark.

berekella: is a phrase of applause, most often used by elders or superiors in order to encourage somebody.

• **berekella:**, yağšı i:š edipsiniz, sizden um:d-am šüyle! (Är. 6) *Berekella:*, you have performed well and this is what (we had) expected from you!

ey wella: is an expression of despair, sorrow and grief, full of frustration.

• **ey wella:**! nä:me bela: bolsa ğari:bıŋ üstine gelyo:-da. (Är. 41) *Ey wella:*, whatever disaster is (available) will come over the poor...

tuweleme: is another phrase of applause directed on inferiors, particularly children for encouragement. It is accompanied with light spitting intended to avert the evil eye.

• **tuweleme**, göz degmesin! bä:begiŋ öre:n uwadan! (Är. 5) *Tuweleme*, may the evil eye not hit (the baby)! Your baby is very pretty!

ya:ša : which literally means 'stay alive!' is an interjection of approval and support uttered for encouragement. It can be supplied with enforcing elements: *yüz ya:ša* 'live a hundred (times)!', *müŋ ya:ša* 'a thousand (times) bravo!'.

6. Lexicology

Difference between the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan is to a significant degree constituted by difference in the lexical stock. The basic lines along which the lexicon falls apart coincide roughly, as we have already observed when discussing phonology and morphology, with the delineations of the tribes.

Many reasons may have led to the variegated picture the dialects are depicting today. While part of the Turkmen tribes over time engaged primarily in livestock breeding and animal husbandry, others were preoccupied with agriculture and craftsmanship. Some groups lived in isolation while others lived in close vicinity of other Turkmen tribes or people belonging to altogether ethnically and linguistically different groups. Economic relations with neighboring groups were not evenly distributed – while some groups had intense economic and cultural relations with others, some hardly had any, or if they did, their coming and going was directed towards other neighbors so that possible influences came from very different directions. These factors have all contributed to the development of specific lexical features.

The Ä:rsa:ri tribe, for example, until the 16th century led a primarily mobile life like the other Turkmen tribes. Starting from that time, however, the Ä:rsa:ri began to settle down along both banks of the Amu Daryā river. Consequently, the Ä:rsa:ri lexicon bears significant traits of a sedentary mode of living – including agricultural and horticultural terminology but also terms related to arts and crafts. Much the same can be said about the Sa:riq dialect, whose speakers shared a similar geographical and climatic environment and occupied themselves with similar professions as the Ä:rsa:ri speakers.

Another important historical factor of influence on the lexicon is cohabitation with nonmembers of the own language community, or a lack of such. Since the Ä:rsa:ri speakers have for a relatively long period of time lived in areas which they share with Uzbek and Persianspeaking peoples, they have adopted many lexical items from the idioms of these neighbors which in other Turkmen dialects were not accepted at all. Or even if the same lexemes (including secondary copies which had incursed the Uzbek and Persian dialects before from Arabic, Mongolian or other background languages) from other Turkic or from Iranian idioms were copied into the Ä:rsa:ri dialect, they were not copied the same way, with the degree of phonetic adaptation or non-adaptation and semantic transformation or non-transformation varying from the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect to others to a significant extent: Lexical copies that were included in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect are generally closer to the prototypes than those included into the other xālis dialects, that is, Sa:riq, Yomut and Teke. Only the lexemes copied into the *nāxālış* dialects – Moqri, Bayat, Xatap and Surxi - are even closer to the prototypes of the background languages. Within the xāliş dialects the Teke dialect, whose speakers had for centuries been living in relative isolation from neighboring peoples, firstly contains a significantly smaller stock of copied lexemes and secondly, stands out with a high degree of phonetic and semantic adaptation of whatever copies exist at all.

6.1 Lexical difference between the Turkmen dialects

Difference in the lexicon is of two basic types: variation and distinction. While some lexemes exist in some, many, or all dialects (although they display variation in form and/or function), others are distinctive elements of one specific dialect or a limited number of dialects only.

Due to the obvious limitations of my material it is of course risky to claim reliability of my findings with regard to the latter: fresh research might bring variants to the fore which we cannot overlook today. However, my field research together with many previous years of observation has led to some certainty with which intermediary results can be put forward here, however with caution and some reserve.

Lexical items which are distinctive of a given dialect can mostly be related back to cultural difference grounded in a divergent historical experience. For example, among the Ä:rsa:ri Turkmens and small groups of speakers of other dialects, who have also dwelled along the Amu Daryā for a long time, an important item of female bodily self-improvement is the piercing of one nasal wing so that a piece of jewelry can be inserted. This type of jewelry is thus an areal feature. It is called *isirğa* in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect. In the Teke and Yomut dialects such a word does not exist – nor does the custom of piercing the nasal wings of women.

In a similar vein, economic and festive practices which are confined to a particular language community are denoted with specific terms in these communities while practise as well as denotate are missing in the others. Such is the case, for example, with social practises like $geštek^{193}$, $degene^{194}$ and $hašar^{195}$ which are unknown among the Teke and Yomut of Afghanistan; consequently, the respective terms are missing in these dialects as well. The Ä:rsa:ri know a social institution named $g\ddot{u}:\check{c}$ givew which implies that a family who has no sons arranges a marriage of one of their daughters with a bridegroom who is ready for uxorilocal residence; in fact the bridegroom is by his in-law family considered an innate son. Again, both the social institution as well as the term is absent in the Teke and Yomut context.

Food terminology is another case in point: Some special dishes which the Ä:rsa:r1 people are used to prepare are unknown in Teke and Yomut contexts, and so are the respective terms, like for example $š\ddot{o}hla:t^{196}$ or $y\ddot{o}:rme$. Some popular games are also endemic in one given dialect community, which consequently is the only one to have a term denoting that game; to name just one example, a customary competitive shooting game typical of the Ä:rsa:r1 only is the so-called *altın ga:baq.*¹⁹⁷

Lexical variation is a much more common type of dialect difference in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan and cannot be related back to simple reasons.¹⁹⁸ The lexeme 'calf', for example, varies from *göle* (Te.) to *ta:na* (Yo.) and *höjek* (Är.). In most cases such variants are

¹⁹³ *Geštek* (which has been described in the ethnographic literature on Tajik, Uzbek and Uyghur communities all over the region but is not so widely spread among the Turkmens of Afghanistan) is a type of socializing event which unites a given group of friends who belong to the same age cohort, often share affiliation to the same water distribution system, or have other socio-economic interests in common. The members of the circle meet on a regular basis circulating from one member's home to the next, mostly over the winter months, to enjoy food and entertainment together.

¹⁹⁴ Degene is another type of rotating socializing event. It differs from *geštek* in that the expenses for each party are shared between all members of the group, although again, one group member hosts the party in his home.
¹⁹⁵ Hašar is a practise of mutual support of households in a given village in major endeavors of one particular household, such as construction or renovation of a house, or collaborative work of the village population in the realization of major community projects.

¹⁹⁶ A kind of sausage prepared from a mixture of meat, liver and onions and stuffed into the intestine fat or into guts of sheep.

¹⁹⁷ Altın $\bar{g}aba:q$ is a shooting competition with either bow and arrow or with guns. The target consists of a belllike object dangling from a 40-50 meter high pole.

¹⁹⁸ Lexical variation is not necessarily at the same time a feature of dialect difference, though, as can be seen from the lexeme 'wolf', for which there exist three synonyms (*mö:jek*, *ḡu:rt*, *bö:ri*) and a taboo word (*ja:nda:r*), all of which, however, are present in all of the dialects.

intelligible across dialect borders; some can even be understood without context, others within an explanatory context only. Some variants, however, are unknown and unintelligible beyond the borders of a given dialect. The 'webfoot of animals' is in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect called *nu:ri*, while the Teke dialect has *ders*; none of these lexemes is known to speakers of the respective other dialect. As a matter of fact, among Teke speakers *Nu:ri* is a favorite male anthroponym, which causes surprise or even disapproval on the part of many an Ä:rsa:ri speaker. – In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the homonym of Sa:riq *čaqildaq* 'apricot' would be understood as 'lump of dry dirt'¹⁹⁹; although one may speculate about a shared etymological background as 'dried-out object', the striking difference in contemporary meaning is more obvious for the average speaker. – The Sa:riq word *samsiq* 'plum' has a Teke homonym *samsiq* meaning 'silly, foolish'. – Needless to say that these examples, and quite a few more which are funny or embarrassing or both, are common currency in local knowledge and support mutual stereotyping of dialects – and along with them their speakers – as strange, funny, or stupid. On the other hand the average speaker of one given dialect does not have much knowledge of actual lexical specifics of the respective other dialects.

There is no full symmetry in the distribution of lexical materials among the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan. While two dialects may agree in one part of the lexicon they may disagree in other parts, in which, however, they agree with a third or fourth dialect. This fact can be illustrated with the phrase expressing 'one's bile being up':

- turši nä:rse i:sem **zerdä:m küy**yo:r. (Är. 45) If I eat sour things my gall will be up.
- sebä:bini bilmedim, üč günnen bä:ri sa:ri:m ğaynaya:r. (Te. 16)
 I don't know the reason (why, but) since three days my gall has been up.
- šu ğa:wın-am sirke-ya:lı za:t, mi:dä: yaqano:q **zerdä:ni čoğdır**o:r. (Sa. 5) Honey melons are a vinager-like thing: they don't cause the stomach acid to overflow but they make the gall go up.

In the following we will discuss four different sub-types of variation between the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects, and after that examples of distinction between the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke and the Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects. (Since my material is very rich with regard to the majority Ä:rsa:r1 dialect and lesser substantial concerning all other dialects, I take the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect as general reference.)

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke		
father	i	ata	g	randfather
mother	e	ene	g	randmother
paternal and maternal grandmother	ma	a:ma	m	naternal grandmother
moist, wet	č	źı:ğ	ra	aw

6.1.1 Homonyms varying in lexical meaning

¹⁹⁹ These small lumps are by some people used instead of toilet paper.

6.1.2 Phonetic divergence in synonymic lexemes

Some of the phonetic features in which divergence between the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects can be observed highlight the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect's relative closeness to the Qarluq end of the Oğuz group of the Turkic languages in contrast to the unequivocally Oğuz character of the Teke dialect.

Ä:rsa:r	1		Teke
kelin	bride, daughter-in-law		gelin
kelineke	sister-in-law (elder brother's wife)		gel(i)neje, genneje
ni:kče	thin, slim, delicate		i:nče
čünnek	1	beak	čüŋk

Other phonetical or morphological features seem to point to a more qypčaqoid character of the Ä:rsa:ri dialect as opposed to the Oğuz one of the Teke dialect: e.g. 'broom' = Är. *süpürgič* ~ Te. *sübse*. Single examples seem to reflect more ancient divides among the Turkic languages: 'obvious; specific' = Är. *ayiq* ~ Te. *aniq*; 'adequate' = Är. *habay* ~ Te. *abay*. Some lexemes whose phonetic realization varies broadly among all Turkic languages while clearly reflecting a single core pattern also depict a varying phonetic realization: 'butterfly' = Är. *kebelek* ~ Te. *kemelek*.

Finally, in quite a few lexemes dialectal variation is confined to simple phonotactic phenomena such as assimilation: 'peach' = $\ddot{A}r$. *šepta:lı* ~ Te. *šetta:lı*; (pers. šafta:lu:), As has been discussed in more detail in the phonology chapter, the Teke dialect generally shows a stronger inclination towards modification of lexical copies (which often contain phoneme combinations otherwise unusual or inacceptable in the Turkmen language).

6.1.3 Dominant versus recessive meanings

The Ä:rsa:ri and Teke dialects share a relatively large number of synonymic pairs or (only in single cases) triples which consist of one/two dominant and two/one recessive element(s) each. Interestingly, the dialects are almost always complementary in this respect: what is dominant in one dialect will be recessive in the respective other.

The "qarluqoid ~ oğuzoid" and "qypčaqoid ~ oğuzoid" divides which have been mentioned above, and "qarluqoid ~ qypčaqoid" ones in addition, can be traced in many synonyme couples of verb stems. In some of these cases the divide relates back to earlier processes of copying from non-Turkic languages which happened in one of the main groups of Turkic languages but did not likewise happen in the other(s), as can be readily seen from the examples below:

dominant in the Ä:	rsa:r1 dialect	dominant in the Teke dialect		dialect
čap-	to run		ılğa-	
īgara-	to look		baq- \sim se	eret-
öt-	to pass		geč-	
pinek et-	to take a nap		irkil-	
tart-	to	o pull	ček-	

T 11 (1	D · //	•	1	C 1 4
1 able 6. 1:	Dominant/	recessive	couples	of verb stems

maxta-	to praise	ÖW-
erin-	to idle; to avoid/evade doing	yaltan-
doğ-	to give birth	guzıla-

Some couples of dominant/recessive substantive and adjective nouns can also reflect these grand lines of Turkic language group devides.

However, there are many more examples where one member is a (more) ancient Turkic word while the respective other member belongs to an obviously more recent layer of lexical copies, mostly from the neighboring Persian dialects. Where the latter is the case, the Ä:rsa:ri dialect is generally (though not without exceptions) more favorable of recent loans than the Teke dialect – which does not come as a surprise, given the above-mentioned areal distribution of the tribes over the last couple of centuries.

Yet another type of synonymic couples are those (relatively few) where both members are obviously recent copies from (different?) neighboring Persian dialects.

dominant in the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect		domina	ant in the Teke dialect
ayıl	saddle girth		čeki
<u>ā</u> ayıš	leathe	er belt	čeki
taylaq	came	l foal	kö:šek
tegen	stable, shed (specially for	a:ğıl
	sheeps an	d ghoots)	
suwlıq	sna		ağizdrıq
čoğan		odder plant)	gö:k tu:dana
depgi	` 11	oing piece of a	golaq (pi:liŋ golağı)
	spa		
tä:kmek	cho	lera	<u>g</u> araxassa
gömüsge	buried to	reasures	xazı:na
čomuč	skimmer		kürüšge
na:n ğa:rma	(a dish)		doğrama
gülbent	(knife's) silver garnment		ya:ğlaw
hemsa:ya	neig	hbor	ġoŋš₁
kipt	shou	ılder	egin
peček	vet	ch	čırmašıq
petde	(a kind of shrub)		toraŋŋi
pille	time		waxt
duwa:y1	medi	icine	derma:n
ta:y	pla	ice	ja:y

 Table 6.2:
 Dominant/recessive couples of substantives

 Table 6.3: Dominant/recessive couples of adjectives/adverbs

dominant in the Ä:rs	a:r1 dialect	domina	dominant in the Teke dialect	
ernew	lazy		yalta	
ičiğara	envious		<u>ā</u> 1sāganč	
yağšı	1		gawı, oŋat	
yaramaz	bad,	evil	erbet	

köp	many; much	kä:n
asta	slow(ly)	yuwaš, hayal
ketde	big	olaqan
ra:st	straight; right, correct	doğrı
ti:z	quick	basım
ziya:d	too many, too much	artıq

6.1.4 Monosemy versus polysemy

Many word pairs in the Ä:rsa:ri and Teke dialects appear as synonyms at first sight but when more closely scrutinized turn out to be incomplete synonyms only: While the dialect couples share one meaning of the lexeme, other possible meanings which have been reported in one dialect were not found in the respective other. (The fact that my materials from the Ä:rsa:ri dialect are more comprehensive and more differentiated may be at the ground of the observation that in almost all cases a given lexeme in this dialect bears more than one meaning while in the Teke dialect it is confined to one only.)

Table 6.4: Incomplete synonyms

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke
wood, timber	ağač	1. wood, timber; 2. tree
1. favorable; 2. threatening /	abay	favorable
intimidating appearance		
1. head; 2. bunch (of grapes etc.)	baš	head
1. pit, pothole; 2. deep	čuqur	pit, pothole
1. lake; 2. stagnant river waters	kö:l	lake
1. rib (anat.); 2. rib (boat)	<u></u> gapır <u>g</u> a	rib (anat.)
1. reed; 2. mat	yeken	reed
1. to suffer; 2. to be	ğı:nan-	to suffer
(economically) deprived		
1. to elongate; 2. to see off	uzat-	to elongate

6.1.5 Lexical distinction

Lexical distinction implies that in the dialects totally different lexemes are used to express the same meaning or, as has been shown in the introductory paragraphs (but is a relatively rare phenomenon), that one dialect has a lexeme for a notion for which no lexeme exists in the respective other dialect.

In a similar vein as has been said with regard to dominant/recessive pairs, some of the distinct word pairs relate back to different layers of lexical copies from neighboring languages, while a smaller number highlight the Oğuz-Qarluq or Oğuz-Qypčaq divide.

Ä:rsa:ri	Teke	
aba /ata	father	qa:qa
a:ğar	moisture	ızğa:r
ayrı	Bactrian camel	iki ürkičli düye
aqrap	(halter for camels)	osar di:ši
ammır	bull-nose pliers	at ağız
asdar	lining (material)	išlik
atala	roux soup	bolamaq
a:šna:	friend, pal	do:st
a:riq	irrigation canal	ulı ya:p
balaxa:na	second floor (of a two- storey building)	iki gatja:y
bekewıl	master of ceremonies	toyiŋ ya:šolısı
bena:t	banāt (a kind of fabric)	begres
biya:ra	tendril	pa:zil
göle	calf	höjek
setil	bucket	bedre
č1:b1n	fly	sinek
gö:dek	youngster, immature child	ja:hıl; yigitče
na:n	bread	čörek
čörek	(sweet flat cake)	čörekče
erre	saw	bıčğı
pa:lbaqar	bladebone	pi:lče
hišt	brick	kerpič
kirmek	silk worm	yupek gorčığı
hali:li	<i>xalīlī</i> (a kind of grape)	ti:zbišer
ıŋŋırjaq	donkey saddle	ḡaŋŋa
ğundal	tarantula	ayaqči
dä:ldirik	wild rue	üzä:rlik
juwa:na	two-year old male bull	ökizče
piya:z	onion	soğan
<u>ā</u> alampur	red chilies	burč
pira:ri	renegade	gelmišek
süŋŋalša	exchange of daughter (form of marriage)	<u></u> garša
qabrısta:n, u:lya:	cemetery	go:namčılıq
a:šıq-ma: šıq	hinge	petle
bi:jirim	fearless	<u></u> gorq1siz
arqanla-	to tether	örkle-
axtala-	to castrate	bič-
baqıš-	to help each other	kömekleš-
hemme	all	ähli
arna	drainage for flood water	

Table 6.5: Distinct word pairs from the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects

²⁰⁰ Not established in my materials.

Ä:rsa:rı		Sa:riq
erik	apricot	čaqıldaq
čä:ge	dune	<u>ā</u> ırmıq
č1:b1n	fly	Pešše
ta:baq	plate	mejme
üček	observatory post made of wood	sabat

Table 6.6: Distinct word pairs from the Ä:rsa:ri and Sa:riq dialects

6.2 Lexical difference in special semantic fields

After the general considerations on lexical difference I am now going to discuss lexical difference between the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan in a number of semantic fields.

6.2.1 Animal husbandry

The lexicon of animal husbandry does display some difference among the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, but not too much. All Turkmen tribes have a long history in mobile animal husbandry and although some, like for example the Ärsa:ri, have to a large extent settled down starting from the 16th century, this has until today not caused a significant break-off from the common stock of Turkmen lexicon of animal husbandry. However, there is difference in detail.

The lexicon of animal husbandry is not structured the same way in all dialects. While some dialects have specific lexemes to denote given items, others may use descriptive terms for these. In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect there exists a term for 'five-year old sheep', namely *merri*, while in the Teke dialect it would be circumscribed as *dišden ğalan ğarri ğoyon* (lit. 'old sheep that has no more teeth'). The Teke dialect in its turn is rich in descriptive terms for animals of a special age, which are missing in all other dialects: *mä:lemez* 'two-year old lamb' (lit. 'a lamb that does no longer bleat for its mother'), *maŋ* 'four-year old sheep', *maŋramaz* 'seven-year old sheep'. In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect female sheep are termed according to how often they have given birth to lambs: *bä:š / alti / yetti doğan ğoyun* 'a sheep which has given birth five/six/seven times'. Another example of an asymmetric pair including a lexical and a descriptive term is 'Bactrian camel', which is *ayri* in the Ä:rsa:ri dialect as opposed to *ikki ürküčli düye* (lit. 'two-humped camel') in the Teke dialect.

Terminology for herds of animals of sorts, and of their guarding personnel, also varies among the dialects. While the Ä:rsa:ri dialect has *pa:da* 'herd of cows' and *pa:daba:n / pa:diqba:n* 'herdsman', the Teke dialect has *siğir sürüsi* and *siğir čopan* for these; Ä:rsa:ri *gä:le* 'herd of horses / camels' and *darğa* for the respective herdsmen, Teke has *yılqı (sürüsi)* and *düye sürüsi* for horse and camel herds and *čopan* for both types of herdsmen.

The following table gives an overview of variants in animal husbandry terminology between the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects.

Ä:rsa:rı			Teke
juwa:na	two-year old male bovine		öküzče
<u>ā</u> unajın	two-year old	female bovine	tuve
höjek	са	ılf	göle
pa:da	cow	herd	sığır sürüsi
pa:daba:n ~ pa:dıqba:n	cow	vboy	sığır čopan
gä:le	herd of catt	le or horses	diye / yılqı sürüsi
bo:rdeki	(sheep kept in	the home for	ba:ğ <u>g</u> oyon
	immediate c	onsumption)	
ši:rba:zı	lar	nb	toqli
ālja:yi ğoyon	Ghilzay sheep		ösgun tüyli <u>g</u> oyon
do:sba:yı	Dostbāy	yi sheep	kurtli ğoyon
serke	billy	-goat	erkeč
četir	four-year	old camel	dö:rd ya:šar diye
ayri	Bactrian camel		iki ürküčli diye
darğa	camel h	erdsman	diye čopan
čira:zı	grey kara	akul hide	ča:l bağana

Table 6.7: Variants in animal husbandry terminology

Table 6.8: The following table shows asymmetrically distributed terms:

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke		
öküz ~ boqa	່ວນ	ıll	öküz	
taylaq ~ kö:šek	came	l foal	kö:šek	
sığır	cat	ttle	sığır	
inek	co)W	sığır	

6.2.2 Agriculture and horticulture

A lexeme which depicts a surprisingly broad variation between the dialects is the word for 'small irrigation canal': It is *ša:x* in the Ärsa:rı, *salma* in the Teke, *soqma* in the Yomut, and *ğoljuq* in the Sa:rıq dialect. Unfortunately my materials are not equally rich in all dialects in the total of the vocabulary, so that further on I must confine myself to a comparison which includes only the Teke and Ä:rsa:rı dialects.

abic 0.7. Agricultur					
Ä:	rsa:ri	Teke			
almur1:t	ре	ar	armut		
dayma	rain	field	düme		
düyyedi:š	(a large-grained	(a large-grained type of wheat)			
kelekbaš	(motified se	ed of wheat)	_		
čalmakä:di	(a yellow kind	l of pumpkin)	_		

 Table 6.9: Agriculture

²⁰¹ Not established in my materials.

tarpız	watermelon	<u>ā</u> arp1z
bürünj	rice	tüwi
a:rıq	irrigation canal	ulı ya:p
šax	small irrigation canal	kiči ya:p ~ soqma
arna	drainage for flood water	—
toqortga	water pipe	turba
piya:z	onion	soğan
serdaba	cistern	yapıq hu:z
lo:lba	bean	no:yba

6.2.3 Household equipment

Ä:rsa:	sri	Teke			
lä:li	tray		telper īga:p		
tağara	large	bowl	da:š kersen		
boğjama	Special f	abric bag			
setil	buc	ket	bedre		
gü:düš	milking	, bucket	—		
asma ya:yıq	(Leather bag for	making yoghurt)	yanlıq		
güpi	big sar	nowar	da:š yanlıq		
čığıl	(Traditional filter for cleaning		sıq elek		
	seeds)				
depgi	depgi (wooden stepp		pi:liŋ ġolağı		
spade)		de)			
č1rapa:ya	candl	estick	—		
jıla:jın	(smal	l bell)	kičijik jaŋ		
desšo:y	handwashing basin		(el yuwilya:n) legen		
zi:ne	staircase		basğančaq		
arqan	ro	pe	yüp		

6.2.4 Items of construction and architecture

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke			
bečge	muddy inforc	emnet to keep	203		
	W	all			
mertxa:na	labour	room	yer do:la		
bala:r	roofbeam		(ja:yıŋ ustine goyılya:n)		
			ağač		
balaxa:na	two-storey building		iki <u>ā</u> at ja:y		
yerdešik	air vent		_		
xišt	brick		kerpič		
üček	observatory post made of		ta:m1ŋ üsti		
	wo	ood			

²⁰² Not established in my materials.²⁰³ Not established in my materials.

6.2.5 Food items

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke		
atala	roux soup		bolamaq	
börek	(meat dish in layer p	astry)	etli ğı:ta:p	
čeki:de	curd		süzme	
čerbi ya:ğ	intestine fat		ič ya:ğ	
čökölık	(a kind of curd)	ğaynadılan süzme	
na:nğa:rma	(a dish of boiled me	at , fat	doğrama	
	bread and,onion mi	nced		
	together)			
miče	(meat stewed in the	pilaff)	—	
yasama	(a kind of flat bre	ad)	bızmıq	
yö:rme ~ šöhla:t	(a dish from minced	meat)	—	

6.2.6 Garment items

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke		
asdar	lini	ng	ičlik	
tayxa	(a kind of	headgear)	taxya	
<u>ā</u> alpaq	(a kind of me	n's headgear)	bö:rük	
ki:se	poc	ket	jübi	
sümmen	fur	cap	šırma telpek	

6.3 Proper names

Name-giving has over the last 30-40 years for various reasons undergone significant change. In former times the custom of giving apotropaeic names was in common currency among the Turkmens of Afghanistan. Preferred names of that kind would be taken from surrounding items of everyday life such as *ğa:zan* 'cauldron', *ta:ğan* 'tripod', *čerkez* 'a kind of a desert bush' and many others, or from natural phenomena, which led to names like Yağmır (lit. 'rain'), Gündoğdı (lit. 'sun has risen'), Ga:ryağdı (lit. 'it was snowing'), Daŋatar (lit. 'dawn') and the like. Meanwhile these names have passed out of use and the only remaining bearers are persons of mid or old age. Customs have changed and one of the main reasons for that is the continuously growing interference of spiritual leaders in the name giving process. Most male names given today are Arabic-Islamic or Persian ones. Among the most popular contemporary women's names there are European and Hindi ones, which relates to the growing popularity of movies and serials.

Conventional anthroponyms were to a certain degree indicative of a person's ethnic affiliation. Although quite a few names occur in more than one or even in all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, it is in many cases possible to identify a person's tribal affiliation by their first names. In the Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialects a familiar apotropaeic name was *Uwez*, whose equivalent in the *nāxālış* dialects would have been *Orun. Bö:ri* (lit. 'wolf'), *Asta:n* (lit. 'threshold of a saint person') and *Nawru:z* (lit. 'new year') were typically given to their offspring by members of the *nāxālış* tribes while being almost unknown in the others. Typically Teke names, in their turn, would be *Yo:lbars* ('tiger'), *Bayram* ('religious holiday'),

Wepa: ('fidelity'), *Jeren* ('gazelle'), *Ma:ya* ('thoroughbred female camel') and *Yalqa:p* ('forgiven (by God)'). Names inspired by natural phenomena like those mentioned earlier were not frequently used among members of the *nāxālış* speaking communities.

Turkmen anthroponyms often consist of two elements, of which either the first or the second can be considered an auxiliary element in that it indicates the gender of its bearer: While *Ğurba:n Mohemmed*, *Ğurba:n Ğolı*, *Ğurba:n Geldi* and *Ğurba:n Berdi* are by their second (auxiliary) elements recognizable as men's names, *Ğurba:n Sılta:n*, *Ğurba:n Gözel*, *Ğurba:n Baxt* and *Ğurba:n Gül* are marked as women's names.

The different dialects have different favorite name components. The *Mıra:t* element in names like *Saparmıra:t*, *Xojamıra:t*, *Sä:tmıra:t*, and *Atamıra:t*; the *Durdı* element of *Mıra:tdurdı*, *Jıma:durdı* and *Annadurdı*; and *Mä:met* in many composite names points to a bearer from a Teke dialect speaking group. *Niya:z*, *Jıma:*, *Nazar* and *Beren* in names like *Ö:denıya:z*, *A:ğajıma:*, *A:nnajıma:*, *Jıma:nazar* and *Alla:beren* are favorites of the Sa:rıq speaking groups, while *Ğulı* and *Berdi* in *Alla:ğulı*, *I:ša:nğulı*, *Muxammedğulı*, *Annaberdi* and *Xuda:yberdi* are typical names of Ä:rsa:rı speakers. In the *nāxālış* dialects the respective element would be *Qul : Jıma:qul*, *I:ša:nqul*, *Xuda:yqul*.

In a similar vein, elements like *Gözel* (lit. 'beautiful') and *Jama:l* (lit. 'beauty') occur in women's names primarily among Teke speakers (e.g. *Bi:bigözel, Mayagözel, Bibijama:l*), while *Xa:n*, *Bi:ke* and *Beģ*, all of which suggest a high rank of the female name's bearer, are widely used among Ä:rsa:r1 speakers (e.g. *Oğulxa:n, Aqbi:ke, Ağabeģ, Oğulbeģ*) and the element *Sılta:n* occurs mostly in Sa:r1q names (e.g. *A:qsılta:n, Beģsılta:n*). The element *Baxt* (lit. 'good luck') is a Yomut favorite and finally, *Gül* (lit. 'flower, rose') as either a pre- or post-element is very common with speakers of *nāxālis* dialects (e.g. *Na:rgül, Xurmagül, Ro:z1gül, Gülsenem*).

In the realm of non-composite anthroponyms we can also make out different preferences between members of the dialect groups.

While indicating the position of a given child in the row of siblings is an ubiquitous practise among Turkmens, the concretization differs: Ärsa:rı, Sa:rıq, Salır, Muqrı, Xatap, Olam and Surxı give names like $\check{C}a:r\iota$ and *Penji* to their fourth and fifths sons – both taken from Persian; in the Teke and Yomut dialects $D\ddot{o}:rt\bar{g}ul\iota$ and $B\ddot{a}:\check{s}im$, derived from tkm. 'four' and 'five' respectively, are prefered in these cases. In Ä:rsa:rı and $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}l\iota\varsigma$ dialect speaking families second-born children would be named *Hemra:* or *Jo:ra* (both meaning 'companion') so that they may forever give true support to their elder siblings; in the Teke dialect the same goal is pursued by naming the second-born child *Yo:ldaš*.

Teke speakers observe the custom of including kinship terms into anthroponyms, which results in composite names like *Ataja:n*, *Atamira:t*, *Qa:qaja:n*, *A:ğamıra:t* (all male names), *Eneği:z* and *Ejeği:z*.

Apotropaeic names like seemingly "ugly" animal names (*Köpek* 'dog', *Kürre* 'ass foal', *Ešek* 'ass', *Göjik* 'dog'), which are given to babies by parents who had remained deprived of offspring for a long time, or whose newborn children had died so far, are particularly common among Teke dialect speakers. Composite names containing similar elements have been recorded from Ä:rsa:r1 and Sa:r1q dialect speakers (e.g. *Köpekmıra:t, Italmaz* lit. 'a dog wouldn't take (that baby away)'). Again as an apotropaeic device, Sa:r1q families have been

found to name their babies *Satlıq*, while from a Yomut speaking context *Satlıqğılıč*, and from *nāxālış* dialect speaking families, *Satıbaldı* has been reported, all of which are meant to cheat noxious spirits by pretending that this baby is not a human being but just a purchased object of sorts.

Among Teke speakers the additional element *tuwaq* can be added to the main component of the name if the baby is born together with its placenta: examples are *Annatuwaq*, *Oğıltuwaq*. While this element seems to be unique among Teke speakers, the Persion-origin equivalent *perde*, which in that language denotes the placenta, has been found to be used in a Sa:riq speaking context (although not as an element of a composite name but as a full name *Perde* or *Perdek*).

Naming male children after wild animals has been a familiar custom among Turkmens over time. Among the Turkmens of Afghanistan today, the choice of name is in these cases again indicative of tribal affiliation: While in the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects $\check{G}u:rt$ ('wolf') and Yo:lbars ('tiger') are used, their equivalents $B\ddot{o}:ri$ and $Arslan \sim \check{S}e:r$ are more familiar in the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects.

In Turkmen communities people are often known by two different names – first, the so-called 'true name' (*čın a:t*) given to them right after birth by parents or elders, and second, the 'untrue name' (*yalan a:t*) which is given to them by age-mates and friends, sometimes out of teasing and fun, but also out of anger and with the desire to harm their personality. With advancing age some people cast these untrue names off again, others are called that way until their dying day. There seems to be no major dialectal variation in this type of names, with *Jummi, Mašal, Šammi* and the like occurring in all dialects. Secondary elements can also be joined to a person's 'true name', as can be seen in examples like *Saparğuli Šatta, Ha:mit Wağar, Ča:ri Qaqaw* and so on.

Abbreviation or distortion of anthroponyms, which result in a kind of nickname, are again features which display some dialect difference. *Mustaq* (< *Mustafa:*), *Jimaq* (< *Jima:ğuli*), $M\ddot{a}:mi \sim M\ddot{a}:t$ (< *Muxammed*), *A:qi* (< *A:q Muxammed*), *Hümmi* (< *Hümmet*) and the like are more typical of the Teke dialect than of any other.

Additional elements which point to bodily particularities or character traits of a given person are on the other hand universal in the Turkmen dialects and have been reported from all dialects. Examples are Abdıraxı:m nu:ča 'Abdıraxı:m beanpole', Ačıl kö:r 'blind Ačıl', Xuda:yberen ğotır 'pock-marked Xuda:yberen', Yüsüp kel 'baldhead Yusuf', Raxı:m čolaq 'limping Rax1:m'. Ill-tempered persons have küčük ('dog') added to their true name, stupid ones, ešek 'donkey', persons of unbalanced temperament will be named dä:li 'mad', and double dealers, *šeyta:n* 'devil'. In many communities such elements are added to names for distinction, since aliases as well as family names are unusual in Turkmen contexts. If there are seven *Ča:ri* in a village, they may be distinguished by additional elements like *Qagaw* 'gang', *Ğara* 'dark', *Geda:y* 'the beggar', *Kö:r* 'the blind', *Kelte* 'short', *Janjal* 'trouble-maker' or *Bela:* 'disaster' (of which the latter bears positive and approving connotations). - Elements added to a person's true name by members of the community can also bear a thoroughly positive meaning, like pä:lwa:n (lit. 'wrestler', 'strong man'), jığa 'crown', güda:mda:r 'store-keeper', serda:r 'chief', ba:tir 'hero', mira:xir (a military title given by the late Bukharan Emir). This kind of honorary titles can even be handed down from father to son, so that it is not necessarily indicative of a given man's personal achievements.

As has been discussed in the phonology chapter, in the Teke and Yomut dialects – more than in all others – there is a marked tendency towards phonetic assimilation and simplification of copied lexemes. Anthroponyms copied from Arabic are particularly affected by this phenomenon. *Moxammed* also exists in a reduced form *Mä:t*; *Huseyn* becomes *Süyen*, *Ğiya:s* is transformed into *Qiya:s*.²⁰⁴

6.4 Gender marking

In the Turkmen language there is no grammatical gender. If natural gender needs to be marked, lexemes denoting animals can be supplied with the attributes *erkek* 'male' and *orqači* 'female': *erkek pišik* 'tomcat', *orqači pišik* 'she-cat'.

Specific lexemes for male/female animals are not symmetrically distributed in all dialects: *at* 'stallion', *baytal* 'mare'; $\ddot{o}k\ddot{u}z$ (Te.Är.) ~ *buqa* (Är.) 'bull', *inek* (Är.) ~ *siğir* (Te.) 'cow'; *yekeğapan* 'boar', *mekejin* 'sow'; *ner* 'camel bull', *arwana* 'she-camel'; goc' 'ram', goyun 'sheep'.

Unless otherwise specified, some human kinship terms in the Turkmen dialects denote the male: *doğan* 'sibling; brother', *yegen* 'nephew; offspring of ego's brother or sister', *oğlan* 'son; child'. The attributes *erkek* 'male' and *aya:l* ~ $\bar{g}i:z$ 'female' can be applied to these lexemes in order to specify their gender: *erkek doğanım* 'my brother', *aya:l doğanım* 'my sister' (*xālış dialects*); $\bar{g}i:z$ *yegenim* 'my niece' (Är.), *erkek oğlan* 'son', $\bar{g}i:z$ *oğlan* 'daughter'.²⁰⁵ In the Teke dialect *yegen* is only used for 'nephew' while there is an extra lexeme *yegenči* for 'niece'.

In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect the lexemes *üyya* is 'younger sister' and *jo:ra* (used only by females) means (female) 'friend'. In the Sa:riq dialect, on the other hand, the correlates of these lexemes can be used by and for females as well as males, with *iya* meaning both 'younger sister' and 'younger brother', and *jo:ra* is 'male friend' among males and 'female friend' among females. The Teke dialect has specific lexemes for younger brother and sister, *ini* and *üya*; however, it is more common to use *erkek doğan* and *aya:l doğan* instead.

Lexemes for garments can in some dialects differ according to the gender of the persons who wear them, but coincide in others. In the Sariq dialect *bö:rök* denotes women's and men's headgear of one specific type; in the Teke dialect, on the other hand, *bö:rök* denotes female headgear while the male equivalent is *taxya*.

6.5 Animal calls

Calls which are uttered either to attract or to fend off domestic animals often resound the denotate for that very animal in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan: When shooing a dog ($k\ddot{u}\ddot{c}\ddot{u}k$) one says $k\ddot{u}\ddot{c}$; a sheep ($\bar{g}oyon$), qost; a goat ($ge\check{c}i$), $ge\check{c}$; chickens (tu:q), toq. A donkey ($e\check{s}ek$) is halted by saying $i\check{s}$. In the Ä:rsa:ri dialect, where the regular word for 'calf' is $h\ddot{o}jek$, the call for shooing a calf is $h\ddot{o}\check{c}$ - $h\ddot{o}\check{c}$; in the Teke dialect, on the other hand, 'calf' is $g\ddot{o}le$ and consequently, the shooing word is $g\ddot{o}le$ - $g\ddot{o}le$.

²⁰⁴ Some of these products of phonetic transformation resound funny, weird or embarrassing words in the same dialect or in another.

²⁰⁵ *Oğul* as part of female anthroponyms has been mentioned above; compare also *Oğul bi:ke*, *Oğul ša:t*, *Oğul naba:t*, *Oğul durdı*.

6.6 Synonyms

The Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan consist of complex layers of vocabulary which include Turkic elements that point to different areal or temporal cohabitation and community; along with these, they are rich in lexical copies which again relate back to various relations over time.

My materials do not allow to draw definite conclusions about what tribes may have lived in close connection with what other(s) and where; until now the picture is blurred in some cases and in many fields the material is simply not thick enough as yet. I will only point to a few single examples of synonyms – which in some cases exist in all dialects (with uneven distribution, as has been shown above) and in others don't – which show interesting features that would be worth investigating in more depth whenever the sociopolitical situation makes ample field research possible again.

6.6.1 Plain synonyms

We have already briefly mentioned lexical items which are plain synonyms, all of them timehonored in the Turkic languages without any obvious criterion by which they could be attributed to a specific subgroup of these. For the lexeme 'wolf', for example, all Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan have three synonyms available, namely, $b\ddot{o}:ri$, $\check{g}u:rt$ and $m\ddot{o}:jek$. Etymologically speaking the latter two are apotropaeic words serving to avoid the actual appellative $b\ddot{o}:ri$, but the contemporary speakers (regardless of dialect) are not aware of this fact and use them alternately like real synonyms. (The fourth item denoting 'wolf', *ja:nda:r*, is perhaps only a partial synonym since it is preferably used in taboo situations.) The triple *altın* ~ $\check{g}uzil$ ~ *tulla:* 'gold' is another example for fully interchangeable lexemes, where variation can be made out neither along dialect borders nor between registers or styles. Again much the same can be said about the group of lexemes all denoting 'God': *taŋrı*, *xuda:*, *xuda:wend*, *perwerdiga:r*, *alla:h*, *bi:ruba:r*. Although *taŋrı* generally appears to hold a recessive position in all dialects today and there is some difference in frequency of use between the others, they are basically real synonyms and are being applied as such.

6.6.2 Asymmetric synonyms

The Turkmen dialects have a few synonym pairs which I call asymmetric. This is the case of *ağšam* and *gi:je*; both lexemes mean 'evening' in the first place, but *gi:je* can also denote 'night', that is, it denotes not only the onset of the dark daytime as *ağšam* also does, but then remains valid for the rest of the dark daytime until dawn, which *ağšam* does not. So the meaning of the pair overlaps in one part – where they are synonyms – but does not overlap in the other.

6.6.3 Synonyms and dialectal variation

While the above-named plain synonyms exist in all dialects and are likewise dominant or recessive in all, there are several cases of synonym pairs/triples where regardless of unity in existence there is diversity in frequency. As has been mentioned above in the subchapter on dialectal variation, there are pairs and triples of synonyms where dialectal variation plays out in dominance/recessivity, such as the triple $basim \sim ti:z \sim terk$ whose first member is

dominant in the Teke dialect while *ti*:*z* and *terk* are dominant in all others; the respective other items are in all cases known in the other dialects as well, but they are less frequently used.

Some synonym pairs exist in one given dialect while in the others only one member of the pair is known. The pair *yaz- / bit-* 'to write' exists in the Ä:rsa:rı dialect while for example in the Teke dialect only one member is known, namely, *yaz-*. The following table points out several lexical items that in the Ä:rsa:rı dialect exist as synonym pairs, triples or even quadruples, but are single items in the Teke dialect. Generally speaking, the Ä:rsa:rı dialect seems to contain more synonyms than any of the other dialects.²⁰⁶

Ä:rsa:rı		Teke		
ata ~ aba ~ dä:de	fa	ther	qa:qa	
guwı ∼ a:lın ∼ oŋat ~ guraw ~	g	ood	āgaw1	
ya:ğšı				
artıq ~ sü:šik ~ ziya:d	m	uch	artıq	
dä:ri ~ duwa: ~ derma:n	mee	dicine	derma:n	
mojiq ~ yaman ~ yaramaz ~	t	oad	erbet ~ bed	
bed				
doğrı ~ ra:st ~ düzew	right,	correct	doğrı ~ düzew	
aya:l ~ heley	W	vife	aya:l	
waxt ~ mewrit ~ ča: \breve{g} ~ pille	time		wağit ~ möwrit	
ti:z ~ terk ~ bejit	quick		ti:z ~ basım	
köp ~ kä:n ~ zıya:d	m	any	kä:n	
ketde ~ i:ri ~ ulı ~ olaqan	big		olaqan	
xišt ~ kerpič b		rick	kerpič	
tayxa ~ galpaq ~ bö:rik (a type		of men's	taxya	
	head	dgear)		

6.7 Copying

6.7.1 Lexical and phraseological copying

Etymological issues are not the topic of this book. It may suffice to point to the fact that the contemporary Turkmen dialectal lexicon is multi-layered and includes loans and copies from many idioms spoken or written by neighboring peoples with whom the Turkmens have been in contact and communication over time. The dialects contain lexical loans which are quite obviously primary copies immediately adapted from an idiom in which they may have originated, but most copies would be generally difficult to trace since they appear to have been handed down from an ancient original through several intermediate idioms, phonetically adapted to various target languages and re-adapted in again others, to end up in a given Turkmen dialect of today.

The analysis of the contemporary dialect lexicon could be a worthy endeavor but it cannot be achieved on the narrow basis of my material. I only want to draw attention to more or less

²⁰⁶ As has been repeatedly indicated, my material is very thick for the Ä:rsa:ri dialect while less complete for all others, so that from the absence of a given lexeme here we can so far not draw any conclusions about its non-existence.

spontaneous copying phenomena which can today be observed in the process of evolving. This chapter only describes copies which could have happened spontaneously – since the "non-copy" way to express the same meaning is readily available and has in fact been realized during the period of my observation. I can in many cases not quote parallel examples of copied and non-copied items since my materials are mostly collected from natural speech; in order to establish the non-copied correlates, I would have had to resort to elicitation which I didn't do in a systematic way. The non-copied items thus come from additional observation. Non-copied correlates of single lexemes and phrases will be given wherever possible, but we cannot always be sure that the non-copied variant is equally often used in the respective register, whether it may or may not have been given up in the respective dialect, whether it would really be regarded as a fully synonymous word/phrase in the same community of speech, and so on.

The spontaneous insertion of single copied words, very often substantive nouns, into Turkmen speech is particularly common among people from all layers of society who regularly interact with speakers of the other language; this could be due to cohabitation in mixed-language neighborhoods or to life in mixed-ethnic families altogether, but also to regular and frequent visits of the bazaar and other ethnically diverse commercial and professional places, to temporary inclusion in a militia or the national army, to involvement in state schooling, and so on. The higher somebody's level of education, the more they are generally inclined to include lexical copies in their speech, be it by force of habit or by desire for distinction.

In the following a few concrete examples will be discussed.

- gıšlağmızda köprä:k tu:t zerda:lu: alma we ba:dam diyen-ya:nı mi:weler boladı. (Ba.2)
 - In our village there are mostly fruit (trees) like mulberry, apricot, apple and almond.

While *tu:t* 'mulberry' and *ba:dam* 'almond' are well-established lexical copies for which there exist no non-copy words in any one of the Turkmen dialects, the regular word for 'apricot' is *erik*, which does exist in the Bayat dialect as well. Is there a greater temptation to slip in one more Persian loanword in a row? Why then didn't the speaker use *se:b* instead of *alma* as well? Copying seems to be an irregular, inconsistent process where speakers have much agency for spontaneous choice-making.

• üyde ö:z ičimizde ö:z **zaba:nimiza** geplešyo:rs. (Xa. 2) At home, among ourselves, we speak our own language.

There is no doubt that *dil* 'language' rather than *zaba:n* 'id.' is the standard lexeme used in the Xatap dialect, regardless of Xatap being one of the *nāxālış* dialects which are generally very open to influences from the neighboring languages. As can be seen from this sentence, not only has the speaker copied the Persian lexeme into his speech without any obvious need, but he also applies the dative rather than the locative, which the verb *gepleš*- otherwise governs in his dialect; this is also copied from Persian, whose *bä-zaba:ne xud* the speaker obviously interprets as a dative.

• ata-babalarmız kerkiden öten soŋ šu aqjada **zindegi: ed**ip ğa:lan. (Mo. 1) Our forefathers ended up living in this (very city of) Aqja after crossing (the border) from Kerki (into Afghanistan).

The speaker might have used *diričilik* rather than *zindegi*: 'life'; or he could have avoided the phraseological copy zindegi: et- 'to live' (after Pe. zindägi: kärdän) altogether by using one of the verbs usually applied in this kind of Turkmen sentences, like va:ša- 'to live', otir- 'to dwell', dur- 'to stay' etc. The processes of code-copying apparent in this example and the one above go much deeper than just the use of single nouns.

6.7.2 Imitation of foreign language syntactical structures

There are a few types of syntactical copies in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan which have settled in over time and can today be considered part of the regular Turkmen dialect syntax or even of the lexicon, since they are normally employed in crystallized phrases only. The Persian *izāfat* construction is part and parcel of so many locutions and phrases in all Turkmen dialects that hardly a speaker would still acknowledge them as copies: bä:zi: xa:nlarmiz (Är. 1) 'some of our khans'.²⁰⁷ The Russian construction of infinitive+*nel'zva*, which functions as an impersonal negative imperative, appears to have bee successfully copied into the Teke dialect as a ready pattern INF+bolano:q, and come to Afghanistan in that dialect:

• Turkmenista:nda umu:mi: ja:ylarda čilim ček**mek bolano:q**. (Te. 2) Smoking is forbidden in public places in Turkmenistan.

On the other hand, the spontaneous imitation of Persian syntactic structures seems to go way beyond what can be meaningfully grasped with the term "copying": long phrases or even sentences in total are construed as though they were in the Persian language altogether. It may suffice here to give just a few examples from various dialects. The phenomenon as such occurs across dialect borders; it seems to be more directly tied to social borders, since all of these examples were collected from educated upper-class speakers.

•	aslan actuall	tuja:ra y busine		iki two	raqam kind	tuja:ra busine		o:ğa:nista:n-d Afghanistan-I		ba:r Exist
	bir	raqam	tujarat	-i:-ki			ata	kesb-i	bol-ip,	
	one	kind	busine	ss-Izafi	NDEF-R	EL	father	trade-Poss	be-Co	NV
	bi	raqam	pi:š		git-yo:	r. (Är.	25)			
	one	kind	forwar	d	go-PAI	rtPrs				
	Actually business is of two sorts in Afghanistan: One kind that was father's trade and									
	one kir	nd is in j	progres	s. ²⁰⁸						

From the use of the existential *ba*:*r* as an equivalent of pe. *ast* in a phrase that certainly does not take an existential in non-copied Turkmen, to the yāy-i tankīr followed by the relative suffix -ki and a phrase-final finite verb (converted into a Turkmen-style converb so as to link the coordinated verb chain) rather than an attributive participle, and to the interesting calque pi:š git- after pe. pe:š-raft(an) '(to make) progress', there is actually not much Turkmen substance left in this phrase, which can hardly pass for a sentence according to conventional Turkmen modes. However, this example is not untypical of the kind of speak which is common currency among members of a still Turkmen-speaking, but perhaps more adequately Persian-conceptualizing-and-thinking community of speech. This example shows how the

²⁰⁷ One may even consider the construction köpi ja:ylarda 'in many places' (Är. 12) a copy after this Persian pattern. (A different explanation is given by Erdal 2004: 163, who has put forward several examples of exactly that construction which he interprets as a partitive possessive.) ²⁰⁸ اصلا دو شکل تجارت در افغانستان است. یکی تجارتی است که کسب پدر بوده و یک رقم پیش میرود.

Ä:rsa:ri dialect can be transformed by massive copying and imitation of Persian items. Much the same features can be observed in speech that is based on another $x\bar{a}lis$ dialect, and on a $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialect, too:

Turkmenista:n-a • ki ataba:ba-lam-miz-in yu:rd-i forefather-PL-POSS1PL-GEN land-POSS3SG Turkmenistan-DAT Rel bol-an. ged-em-miz-o:q. (Sa. 7) be-PST go-PART-POSS1PL-EXISTNEG We have never gone to Turkmenistan, which is the land of our forefathers. etib ol nefer-i:-ki ana šundağ ÖΖ • person-(NOM). UNI-REL DEIC like.this ADJUN this own ya:n-i-nda urgen-edi be hisa:b isti:da:d-i learn-PRS3SG quasi side-Poss3SG-Loc craft-IZAF xuda:vi dige xayya:ti-yem. (Ba. 3) God.given CONFIRM tailoring-(NOM)-CLT Like this, that person who learns (tailoring) by himself – (to him) tailoring is a quasi-God-given craft!

In the first example the Persian relative construction is imitated; in the second one, the attributive participles are replaced by the Persian $iz\bar{a}fat$ construction with, in the prior case, a $y\bar{a}y$ -i wahdat, and the result of all this is a "Turkmen" word cluster that hardly retains any non-copied structural elements.

In local discourse on "how language should be" this kind of massive copying and imitation of foreign features is vividly disapproved of, no matter how common it is in actual speech. As a preliminary conclusion I should like to say that until now these features are clearly judged as foreign and strange rather than being fully appropriated and naturalized in one's own language. This holds true even for such a relatively simple feature as the *izāfat*, which can actually be easily integrated without major impact on the syntactic structure of Turkmen speech. However, change seems to be under way since acceptance is growing with more and more speakers frequenting Persian-speaking milieus on a regular basis.

6.7.3 Double coding

Double coding implies that the same lexical or other feature is expressed by two different means, in our case a non-copied and a copied item.

Simple double coding occurs when a lexical item is doubled up by a synonymic one outside lexicalized standard phrases.²⁰⁹ It is not always easy to decide whether a given word pair is just a quickly corrected slip of the tongue or actually a spontaneous case of double coding:

- qıša yaqın **qala:n pillen** ba:ğlamalı. qırq künde a:t ö:zini yetiryo:r. (Mu.2) At the |:time:| when winter is near one needs to tie (the horse). Within 40 days the horse will recover.
- o yerde yuz pi:sed yuzdeyuz turkmenler ya:šayo:r (Är. 3) In that place there live |:one hundred percent:| Turkmens.

²⁰⁹ While the neighboring Uzbek dialects abund with hendiadyoins, this feature is not very common in the Turkmen dialects.

In one particular case, however, there can be no doubt about the nature of the phenomenon – the doubling-up of the clitic particles dA and hem, both of which bear the meaning 'also'; they are contracted into dA:m. This feature has particularly often been recorded from the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects.²¹⁰

- gu:rra:q boljaq yeri:m da:yımlaŋqı, mıra:dlaŋqa:-**da:m** kä:pille bararın. (Är. 32) The place where I more often stay is my uncle's, (and) I also sometimes go to the (home of) Mıra:d (and his family).
- O:ğa:nısta:nda onča emniyet bolmasa-**da:m** bu yerde ıqtısa:dı: ta:ydan ya:šama:na abay. (Är. 5) Although in Afghanistan there is not so much security, it is from an economic

perspective favorable to live here.

Actually the double feature, just like the single items, does not add much to the verbal meaning of the phrase; it is more often than not used as a downgrader for politeness, or to the contrary, an element that highlights its antecedent, or often just as an expletive.

Interestingly, the feature comes especially often after locative suffixes (while with other case suffixes, for example, normally either dA or some derivate of *hem* are applied but not both), which results in a haplologic effect.

- Za:yırša:nıŋ zama:nın**da-da:m** ba:ylarıŋ üyünde bir-iki altatar tüpeŋ ba:rtı. (Är. 12) In Za:hirša:'s time – well – there used to be one or two six-shooter guns in the homes of the cattlebreeders.
- turkmenler ya:šayo:n yerinde-dä:m asta-asta zama:n gečiši bilen mektebler orta: gelipdir, goršalıpdır. (Är. 3) In places where Turkmens live, too, slowly-slowly with the course of time schools have come into being, have been constructed.
- bizde-dä:m oro:za haydı bilen ğorba:n haydınıŋ aralığında toy eden yo:qlar. (Te. 3) In our (milieu) they don't actually make weddings between the Ramazan and Qurban feasts.

6.8 Euphemisms and vulgarisms

Euphemisms and vulgarisms are items of metaphorical speech designed to upgrade or downgrade referents against their primary lexical representations. Single lexemes as well as phrases can be subject to euphemistic and vulgarizing endeavors.

6.8.1 Euphemisms

The need to express unpleasant and negative content in pleasant and acceptable language has led to a number of euphemistic words and phrases.

Taboo words are not spontaneously created but have long ago been lexicalized. The Turkmen dialects do not contain many taboo words; the most famous ones from the realm of dangerous animals are probably *arqan* 'rope' (for 'snake'), $\bar{g}oyruği$ čayti 'crooked tail' (for 'scorpion') and *ja:nda:r* 'animal' (for 'wolf'). The clear words for these items (*yılan, čıyan, bö:ri* ~

²¹⁰ Salan (2011) in his comparative study on *hem* in Turkish and Turkmen does not mention this phenomenon at all. Berkil (2003) does not mention it either, but differently from Salan lists at least the simple enclitic form -Am.

 $m\ddot{o}:jek \sim \bar{g}u:rt$) are also general knowledge and are used along with the taboo words. – Taboo also concerns objects which can be sexually connoted. Thus it is quite impossible for females to name their pantaloons by the actual lexeme *išta:n* 'bloomers'; instead they use *balaq* (lit. 'footlets').

Phrases around death and dying circumscribe the unspeakable in euphemistic terms: *ja:ni* haqa tabšur- 'to entrust (one's) soul to God', dünya:dan göz yum- 'to close (one's) eyes from the world', rihlet et- 'to depart'. When talking about a deceased child, the lexeme 'to die' cannot be applied; instead, the adequate euphemistic phrase is pala:ni:niŋ čağası sıčra:pdir 'someone's child has passed away' – the literal meaning of sıčra- being 'to be sprinkled (like water)'.

Formal and polite speech is another field where euphemisms are often used. In Turkmen it is virtually impossible to directly address a high-ranking person saying, your words are wrong or lies. Instead one uses euphemistic speech like for example *siziŋ söziŋiz sä:w bolsa gerek* 'seems as if what you said is erroneous' – whose message, however, because of its high degree of conventionalization is just as unequivocal as the respective clear text. – Bodily deficiencies of honorable persons cannot be directly addresses either. Thus one uses *qa:ri:* (lit. 'reader of the Koran') instead of $k\ddot{o}:r$ 'blind' and *ğolağı ağır* 'heavy-eared' instead of *ker* 'deaf'.

6.8.2 Vulgarisms

Vulgarisms are metaphorical items considered as shameful, insulting, absurd, obscene or otherwise going against socially accepted modes. Many vulgarisms are conventionalized and can thus be decoded irrespective of semantic reference to their denotate; there is, however, more space for creativity in vulgar than in euphemistic speech.

The Turkmen dialects include vulgarisms which are despite their metaphorical quality by speakers characterized as "natural" and "logically consistent" no matter how contingent and arbitrary the subject-referent relation may be. Examples are *tilki* (lit. 'fox') or *qırq emjek* (lit. 'sb. who has forty breasts') for a cunning person; *xamı:rxa:n* (lit. 'dough-eater') and *debeŋ* (lit. giant) for a fat person; *iskili:t* (lit. 'skeleton') for a skinny person; *berzeŋŋi* (an epical hero historically related to East Africa) for a person of dark complexion; *enesiniŋ emjegni kesen* (lit. 'sb. who has cut the breasts of his mother') for an ignorant but tricky person. This type of vulgarisms can be employed for a variety of intentional purposes from ridiculing and derogation to insult but also mockery and joke.

Another type of vulgarisms can only be applied as swearword or offense; there seems to be no obvious semantic correlation between subject and referent beyond the desire on the part of the speaker, to insult the adressee or object of his speech. Examples: *hara:mza:da* and *wellezzina:*'born out of wedlock'; *hara:mxo:r* 'consumer of illicit things'; *lewde* 'fool'; *ešek* 'ass'; *ğüyruqsız ešek* 'tailless ass'; *it* ~ *küčük* 'dog'; *kö:rmüš* 'bat'; *doŋuz* 'pig'; *mekejin* 'sow'; *juwa:nmerg* 'sb. who dies at young age'; *yertartan* 'sb. whom the ground/grave attracts'; *yeryu:dan* 'sb. whom the ground will swallow'; *dejja:l* 'devil'; *ğu:ruayaq* 'ugly'; *lo:lu* 'prostitute'.

Interestingly, some vulgarisms are undergoing a process of upgrading to the effect that while initially denoting something very contemptuous and disrespectful, they are actually used to express approval and appreciation. The vulgarisms *beče gar* 'son of a bitch' and *ene gar* 'sb.

whose mother is a whore' are applied to very active young men, or to extraordinary people and objects in general.

6.9 Phraseologisms

Phraseologisms are crystallized lexical units with a limited degree of variability. They differ from proverbs in their adaptability to syntactic needs; their lexical components, on the other hand, are widely or totally unchangeable. In the phraseologism *bir čuqura tüykir*- (lit. 'to spit in a (shared) pit'), that is, 'to cooperate closely', none of the elements can be exchanged for another – thus it would be impossible to say *bir a:riğa tüykir*-. Only within a community of speech all of whose members are well aware of the form and function of a given phraseologism can an element possibly be replaced by another one. There is reason to assume that actually the above-mentioned phraseologism in fact contains a euphemism; instead of *tüykir*- 'to spit' the verb could have been an indecent word which denotes an optically similar action. Since all speakers share the awareness of the original phrase they can even draw additional pleasure from the euphemistic innovation and of course the shared knowledge makes sure that communication is not violated.

Much phraseologism is common in all or at least many of the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan. However, there is also variation in detail, or even difference all along the line between phraseologisms in different dialects. Some phraseologism has been reported from one given dialect only and do not seem to exist in others.

In the following a selection of phraseologisms will be presented. Once again due to the superior quality of my materials from the Ä:rsa:ri dialect I take this dialect as point of reference. (If in the Teke dialect a given semantic unit is not rendered by phraseologism but in plain speech, I indicate the respective word or phrase in paranthesis.)

Ä:rsa:rı	Teke	(explanation)
ağzınıŋ parawızı	ağzınıŋ jehegi yo:q	about a person who talks instead of
yo:q	'his mouth has no	shutting up
'his mouth has no	seam'	
stitch'		
yüz gören	(dul aya:l)	about a woman who marries again
'who has seen a face'	('widow')	after the death of her husband
edep čöpi sı:rılan	yüzi ačılan	about a shameless person
'whose stick of	'whose face is opened'	
decency has been		
broken'		
burnı i:s alan	(jahıl čıqan oğlan)	about a quick-tempered young man
'whose nose has	(a youngster whose	
taken in smell'	temper rises)	
ča:y jöğa:p et-	bušuq- 'to relax'	to urinate
'to respond to the tea'		
gepiŋ geda:yi	(gepe čeper)	about a quick-witted person who
'a beggar of words'	(ready for words)	can aptly express his/her thoughts
₫apırğa et-	(čekin-)	to behave in a modest manner
'to be boring'	'to be shy, modest'	

Table 6.10: Phraseologisms in the Ä:rsa:r1 and Teke dialects

olarıŋ a:rasından boğaz či:bin ğısılip ötyo:r. 'A pregnant fly can (hardly) squeeze through between them.'	olariŋ arasınnan ğıl gečeno:q. 'Not (even) a hair passes between them.'	about people who are very close friends and cannot be played out against one another
arpa:ŋi xa:m ordımı? 'Has he cut your barley (while it was still) unripe?'	ekiniŋe düšdimi? 'Has he befallen your crop?'	did he do something wrong to you ?
kešb ačıl- 'cheer up'	güwin ačıl- 'opening (heart)'	to become happy
bir yerä: garšı ökje göter- 'to raise (one's) heels against a place'	bir yere garšı du:dek bol- 'to be running against a place'	to run away, to flee
1:ša:nlardan gāčan ya:ni 'as if run-away from the shaykhs'	sa:l-sa:l ešikli 'dressed in torn pieces'	about someone dressed in rags
bolamağa batğa, u:n aša yıla:n diyyon waxtıŋ-am biz onı bilyo:r-tıq. 'When you called <i>bolamaq</i> a bog and noodles a snake, we were aware of (your talking nonsense).'	sen čörege čöčge diyä:rkä:ŋ-em biz oni bilyä:dik. (Te.) 'When you called the breadloaf <i>čöčge</i> , we were aware of (your talking nonsense).'	about someone who considers himself to be smarter and know better
tezegini aldıran tomazaqğa ya:nı bolıp ğa:l- 'to be like a beetle who has lost its dung'	elinnen a:wını aldıran ya:lı bolıp ğal- 'to be like (sb.) who had his prey taken away'	about sb. who is regretting what he did
ğolaq kesyo:n ba:r 'it is ear-cutting'	šepta:lı arza:n boldı 'peaches are cheap'	it is very cold
demi zağara biširyo:r 'his breath fries corn'	demi da:ğ ya:rya:r 'his breath splits hills'	about an ill-tempered person
gü:ni qa:f da:ğında 'His heart is at the Qāf Mountain.'	hekkesi goš dileyä:r 'His magpie wishes twofold.'	about sb. who cherishes idle wishes

My materials also contain a number of phraseologisms from the Ä:rsa:r1 dialect for which no parallels at all have been found in the Teke or other dialects.

 Table 6.11:
 Ä:rsa:ri phraseologisms

burnınıŋ usti derlä:p du:r.	about a person who is enraged for no
'He is sweating on his nose.'	reason at all
na:nıŋ ičinnen gögerip čıqan	about sb. who has risen into a high
'sprouted from inside the breadloaf'	position without merit
künjiden zıya:n gören ya:nı	about sb. who behaves sulky
'as if he had suffered losses from sesame oil'	
gu:ni xa:m tarpız iyen ya:ni	he repents
'his mood is as if he had eaten unripe	
watermelons'	
ešekden palaŋa alan ya:nı	about a very easy task
'like taking the saddlecloth off an ass'	
bi:rine asdarlı gep ayt-	to speak vaguely, to make allusions
'to say lined words to sb.'	
ağzınnan ma:l basan	about a very silly person
'(sb.) whose mouth an animal has kicked'	
buxar gitdi	He has fallen asleep.
'He has gone to Bukhara.'	
yo:l ayrı:nıŋ üstinde bol-	about a 15-20 years old boy who is
'to be at a fork in the path'	extremely hot-tempered
ešegi köpriden öti:nčä: dost bol-	to be unfaithful
'to be friends until the ass has passed the	
bridge'	
si:dik siŋiren ğara: keče	about sb. who has lived the longer
'black felt moistened by urine'	part of his life

6.10 Kinship terms

While in some languages kinship terminology depicts no dialectal variation at all, this is not the case in the Turkic languages.²¹¹ This holds true for the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan, too, as can be seen from the table below: A few terms depict no dialectal variation at all, but others vary between the $x\bar{a}lis$ and $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ groups, and again others show some variation even within the groups. Many of the kinship terms of the $n\bar{a}x\bar{a}lis$ dialects resemble the respective terms used in the neighboring Uzbek dialects more closely than the Turkmen terms from the $x\bar{a}lis$ dialects.

In the table we have marked those terms which cannot be applied as address terms with an asterisk *.

²¹¹ Li (1999).

Ego's		Xālış									
1905	Ärsa:rı	Sa: rıq	Teke	Yomut	Yemreli	Muqrı	Xatap				
father (F)	ata ~ aba^{212}	aqqa	qa:qa	qa:qa	dä:de ~ atda	ata	ata				
Stepfathe r (MH)	uwei ata*	uwei aqqa	uwei qa:qa	uwei qa:qa	uwei dä:de	ugei ata	ugei ata				
mother (M)	ene	eje ~ ene	eje	eje	eje	ana	ana				
Stepmoth er (FW)	uwei ene*	uwei ene	uwei eje	uwei eje	uwei eje	ugei ana	ugei ana				
sibling (Sb) ²¹³	doğan*	doğan	doğan	doğan	doğan	toğan	toğan				
Sister (Z)	ğı∶z doğan*	ğı:z doğan	ğı:z doğan	ğı:z doğan	ğı:z doğan	siŋli	siŋli				
brother (B)	erkek doğan*	erkek doğan	erkek doğan	erkek doğan	erkek doğan	ini-a:ğa	ini- a:ğa				
Step- silbing (FWCh, MHCh)	uwey doğan*	uwey doğan	uwey doğan	uwey doğan	uwey doğan	ügey ini- a:ğa	ügey ini- a:ğa				
elder brother (eB)	a:ğa ~ erkek doğan*	aqqa ~ erkek doğan	ğočaq doğan	olaqan doğan	a:ğa	a:ğa ~ eke	a:ğa ~ eke				
younger (yB)	ini ~ injik ~ erkek doğan*	ini ~ erkek doğan	kiči doğan ~ jigi	kiči doğan ~ jigi	ini	üke	üke ~ ini				
elder sister (eZ)	eke ~ aya:l doğan ~ dä:de	eje ~ aya:l doğan	eje	eje	eje	ара	apa ~ afa				
younger sister(yZ)	uyya ~ aya:l doğan*	uyya , ayal doğan	jigi ~ i:ya	jigi	jigi	siŋli	siŋli ~ üyya				
child (C)	oğlan ~ erkek oğlan*	oğlan ~ erkek oğlan	oğlan	oğlan	oğlan	oğla:n ~ beče	oğla:n ~ beče				

Table 6.12: Kinship terms in the Turkmen dialects of Afghanistan

²¹² The word aba is mostly used by young children, for address and reference alike.

²¹³ Siblings are refered to categorically speaking as *doğan* etc (as shown under the Sb entry) with no regard to gender and elderliness. The word is nevertheless used in address, too. Z and B terms are used analytically in reference to stress the sibling's gender. yB, eB, yZ, eZ terms are common terms of address but, as can be seen in the table, usage may show no clear boundary between elders and youngers. Also, no Turkmen dialect displays separate terms for cross and parallel siblings, for instance between "younger sister male speaking" (yZm) and "younger sister female speaking" (yZf).

son (S)	oğıl	oğıl	oğıl	oğıl	oğıl	oğıl	oğıl
elder S	kette oğıl*	ulı oğıl	gočaq oğıl	gočaq oğıl	olaqan oğıl	kette oğıl	kette oğıl
(middle S) younger S	ortanjı oğıl* kiči oğıl ~ kižžik oğıl*	ortanjı oğıl kiči oğıl oğıl ~ kižžik oğıl	ortanji oğıl kiči oğıl	ortanji oğıl ortanjı oğıl	ortanji oğıl kiči oğıl	ortanjı oğıl kičik oğıl	ortanji oğıl kičik oğıl
first born C	düwinji*	düwinji	düwinji	düwinji	düwinji	214	
last born C	körpe	körpe	körpe	körpe	körpe	körpe	körpe
stepson (HWS)	üwei oğıl*	üwei oğıl	üwei oğıl	üwei oğıl	üwei oğıl	ügey oğıl	ügey oğıl
daughter (D)	ğı:z∼ğı:z oğlan*	ğı:z∼ ğı:z oğlan	<u>ğ</u> ı:z	ğι:Ζ	ğı:z	qız	qız
elder D	kette <u>ğ</u> ı:z*	ulı ğı:z	₫očaq ğı:z	olaqan ğı:z	olaqan ğı:z	kette qız	kette qız
younger D	kiči <u>ğ</u> ı:z*	kiči <u>ğ</u> ı:z	kiči <u>g</u> 1:z	kiči <u>ğ</u> ı:z	kiči g1:z	kiči qız	kiči qız
stepdaug hter (HWD)	üwey ğı:z	üwey <u></u> gi:z	üwey ğı:z	üwey ğı:z	üwey ğı:z	ügey qız	ügey qız
next-born child	ergeš*	tirkeš	215			ergaš	ergaš
grandchil d (CC)	axdıq*	axdıq	axdıq	axdıq	axdıq	axdıq ~ nebire	nebire
great- grandchil d (CCC)	ču:lıq*	ču:luq	ču:lıq	ču:lıq	ču:luq	ču:luq	ču:luq
(CCCC)	yu:lıq* ~ du:luq ²¹⁶ *	yu:lıq	yu:lıq	yu:lıq	yu:lıq	u:lıq	u:lıq
(CCCCC)	ya:dlıq* ~ du:zluq ²¹⁷ *	218			ğu:lıq artıq	_	

²¹⁴ Not established in my materials.
²¹⁵ Not established in my materials.
²¹⁶ du:luq has been reported from the honourable Dä:kter Abdusatta:r, a member of the Ğa:basaqğal qawm of the Ä:rsa:rı tribe, from Dawlatābād/Balkh.
²¹⁷ du:zluq has also been reported from the same gentleman only.
²¹⁸ Not established in my materials.

(CCCCC	2 10						
C)	Ø ²¹⁹	Ø	Ø	Ø	dolanan *	Ø	Ø
grandfath er (FF)	ba:ba	ba:ba	ata	ata	atda	ba:ba	ba:ba
grandfath er (MF)	ba:ba	ene ba:ba	ba:ba	ba:ba	ba:ba	ba:ba	ba:ba
grandmot her (FM)	ma:ma	ma:ma	ene	ene	ene	bi:bi ~ mama	bi:bi ~ eje
grandmot her (MM)	ma:ma	ma:ma	ma:ma	ma:ma	ma:ma	bi:bi	bi:bi
uncle (FB)	atadoğan*	aqqa ~ ata	gočaq qaqa	gočaq qaqa	qa:qa	ameki ~ atadoğan ağa	emeki ∼ ağa
aunt (FZ)	eke ~ ata doğan eke*	eje	eje ~ īgočaq eje	ejeke	ejeke	emme	kette bibi ²²⁰
uncle (MB)	da:yı	da:y1	da:yı	da:yı	da:yı	dayı ~ tağa	tağa
aunt (MZ)	dayza	dayza	dayza	dayza	dayza	xala	xala
cousin (FBS)	atadoğan oğlanı*	a:ğamıŋ oğlı	doğan oğlan	doğan oğlan	doğan oğlan	emeki beče	emeki beče
cousin (FBD)	a:ğamıŋ ğı:zı*	a:ğamıŋ ğı:zı	jigi	jigi	jigi	a:ğamıŋ ğı:zı	
cousin (FZS)	ekemiŋ oğlı*	ejemiŋ oğlı	ejemiŋ oğlı	ejekemiŋ oğlı	ejekemi ŋ oğlı	amma beče	amma beče
cousin (FZD)	ekemiŋ ğı:zı	ejemiŋ ğı:zı	ejemiŋ <u>ğ</u> ı:zı	ejekemiŋ ğı:zı	ejekemi ŋ ğı:zı	ammami ŋ qızı	amma mıŋ qızı
cousin (MBS)	da:yımıŋ oğlı*	da:yımıŋ oğlı	da:yımı ŋ oğlı	da:yımıŋ oğlı	da:yımı ŋ oğlı	tağamniŋ oğlı	tağam niŋ oğlı
cousin (MBD)	da:yımıŋ ğı:zı*	da:yımıŋ ğı:zı	da:yımı ŋ ğı:zı	da:yımıŋ ğı:zı	da:yımı ŋ ğı:zı	tağamniŋ qızı	tağam niŋ qızı
cousin (MZS)	čıqan ~ dayza:mıŋ oğlı*	čıqan	čıqan	čıqan	čıqan	xala beče čıqan	xala beče
cousin (MZD)	čiqan ~ dayza:mıŋ ği:zi*	čiqan	čiqan	čıqan	čıqan	xalemniŋ qızı ~ čıqan	xalem niŋ qızı
husband (H)	ä:r*	ä:r	ä:r	ä:r	ä:r	ä:r	ä:r

²¹⁹ There is no term for this in the dialect.
²²⁰ According to Xuda:yberdi Xatap : *bi:bi*.

wife (W)	aya:l *~ heley	heley ~ aya:l	heley ~ aya:1	aya:l	aya:l	Xatın ~ heley	xatın
religiousl y married woman	nika:lı*	nika:lı	nika:lı	221			
bridegroo m, son-in- law (DH)	gi:yew	gi:yew	giyewı ~ köreken	gi:yew~ köreken	köreken	giyaw	kiyaw
DH in uxoriloca l resindenc e	gi:č gi:yew*	gi:č gi:yew	gi:č gi:yew	gi:č ge:yew	gi:č gi:yew	gič kiyaw	kič kiyaw
daughter- in-law, sister-in- law (SW, yBW)	kelin	gelin	gelin	gelin	gelin	kelin	kelin
sister-in- law (eBW)	kelin eke ~ keleke ~ yenŋge	gelin eje ~ gelleje	gelin eje ~ genneje	gelin eje ~ genneje	gelin eje	уеђђе	уеђђе
sister-in- law (HZ, WZ)	ba:ldız*	ba:ldız	baldız	baldız	ba:ldız	ba:ldız	ba:ldı z
brother- in-law (WB)	āgayın a∶ğa*	gayın a:ğa	gayın a:ğa	ġayın a∶ğa	gayın a:ğa	qayın a:ğa	qayın a:ğa
brother- in-law (HB)	yu:rji*	yu:rji	yurji	yurji	yurji	yurji	yurji
father-in- law (HF, WF)	ğa:yınata*	ğa:yınata	ğa:yınat a	ga:yınata	ğa:yınat a	qayinata	qayin ata
mother- in-law (HM, WM)	ğa:yınene*	ga:yınen e	ga:yine ne	ga:yınene	ga:yıne ne	qayinane	qayin ana
co-wife (HW)	gündeš*	gündeš ~ güni	gündeš	gündeš	gündeš	gündaš	künda š
WZH	ba:ja	ba:ja	baja bajanaq	baja	baja	ba:ja	ba:ja
affins (SWF, SWm, DHF, DHM,	ğuda	<u>ğ</u> uda	guda	guda	<u>ğ</u> uda	quda	quda

²²¹ Not established in my materials.

relatives on ChPa side)							
HBW	elti	elti	elti	elti	elti	awsin	awsin

According to Turkmen custom people who are not consanguineous can enter a kindred-like relationship if, for example, a man/woman "in place of his own father/mother" cares for a child as if he/she were his parent. This kind of relationship is denoted by adding the suffix - *lIQ* to the respective kinship term: *atalıq* 'surrogate father', 'accepted father'; *enelik* 'accepted mother'; *oğollıq* 'person in place of one's own son' and the like.

An interesting term is *dolanan* 'grandson of ego's brother', which has been recorded from the Yemreli dialect only.²²² The term *dolanan ğarındaš* for 'distant relative' also exists in the Ä:rsa:rı dialect, but the Ä:rsa:rı speakers do not have the term *dolanan* as such.

The term *čiqan* for 'cousin' according to local knowledge is derived from *čiq-* 'to exit' and points to a specific historical custom. According to ancient Turkmen tribal law male relatives would be obliged to practise vendetta in case a relative were killed. The nephews of the murdered person, however, were exempted (literally, they "had quit") from this obligation which at the same time implies that they were not actually counted among "relatives" in an immediate sense.²²³

Sophisticated items from kinship terminology are today widely unknown to members of the young generation and may disappear from the Turkmen dialect vocabulary in the near future.

We conculde this chapter with some terms which are not actually part of kinship terminology but belong to the wider semantic field of human conditions and interhuman relations.

		xālış(X		nāxālış(ND)		
	Ärsa:rı	Sar 1q	Teke	Yemreli	Muqrı	Xatap
man	erkek	erkek	erkek	erkek	erkek ~ erkey	erkek ~ erkey
old man	ğarrı ∼ ča:l ∼ ğarrı ba:ba	ğarrı ∼ ğarrı ba:ba	ğarrı ∼ ğoja ∼ ğarrı ba:ba	ğarrı ∼ ğoja ∼ ğarrı ba:ba	qarrı ~ ča:l ~ qarrı ba:ba	qarrı ~ ča:l ~ qarrı ba:ba
old woman	ğarrı ma∶ma ∼ kempir	ğarrı aya:l ~ kempir	ğarrı aya:l	ğarrı aya:l	qarrı xa:tin ~ kempir	qarrı xa:tin ~ kempir
young man	yiġit ~ ya:š yiġit ~ gödek	yiġit ~ gödek	yiģitče ~ ya:š ja:hıl	yiġit	yigit	Yigit
unmarried	öylenmedik	boy yiġit	boy yiġit	boy yiġit	boyda:q	boyda:q

Table 6.13

²²² Information by the honorable Ha:jı: Da:dmuhammed Yemreli from Herat.

²²³ Information by the honorable Ha:j1: Abdulkeri:m from the village of Ba:ğbusta:n / district of Andkhoy.

man	yiġit ~ boy yiġit		~ sallax			
unmarried girl/woman	kette <u>g</u> i:z	ulı <u>ğ</u> i:z	gočaq g1:z	gočaq g1:z	qarrı qız	qarrı qız
divorced woman	ä:rden ayrılan	ä:rden ayrılan	quwındı	224	bi:we	bi:we
widow	dul	dul	dul ~ bašiboš	dul ~ bašiboš	tul	tul

²²⁴ Not established in my materials.

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Appendix: List of conversation participants and informants

No.	Name	Identi fier	Sex	Ag e	Occupation	Liter- acy	Tribe	Place
1	Juma bay Xamyabi	Är.1	male	63	tribe elder	low	Ärsa:rı	Xamiyab / Jawzjan
2	Mawlewi Ubeydullah	Är.2	male	48	mullah, clergyman	literate	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
3	Mohemmed Nayzari	Är.3	male	52	professor	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
4	M.Emin Nazari	Är.4	male	57	professor	high	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
5	Bibi Jamal	Är.5	fema le	71	housewife	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
6	Enjinyer M. Emin	Är.6	male	55	businessma n	high	Ärsa:rı	Čayı / Balx
7	Rozıgeldi Oyčı	Är.7	male	54	politician	literate	Ärsa:rı	Šordepe/ Balx
8	Ismetıllah	Är.8	male	42	businessma n	literate	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
9	M. Sadıq Bağšı	Är.9	male	60	musician, epic singer	literate	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
10	Enjinyer Abdırahman	Är.10	male	52	manager	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
11	Hajı Abdilqadır	Är.11	male	40	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Čarbölek / Balx
12	Abdırahim Nuča	Är.12	male	58	businessma n	low	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
13	Xudaynazar	Är.13	male	50	civil servant	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
14	Abdılmejid	Är.14	male	57	caretaker	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Čayı / Balx
15	Fatma Resuli	Är.15	fema le	48	civil servant	high	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
16	Allah Nazar Nazari Türkmen	Är.16	male	47	politician	literate	Ärsa:rı	Qalayi Zal / Qunduz
17	Mawlewi Jora	Är.17	male	77	clergyman	literate	Ärsa:rı	Qalayi Zal / Qunduz
18	Hajı.M. Ibrahim	Är.18	male	60	manager	literate	Ärsa:rı	Imam Sahib / Qunduz
19	Hajı	Är.19	male	55	tribe elder	low	Ärsa:rı	Murdiya

	Baymurad							n / Jawzjan
20	Jelil Joyan	Är.20	male	58	officer	literate	Ärsa:rı	Xamiyab / Jawzjan
21	Abdılqadır Ašna	Är.21	male	53	officer	literate	Ärsa:rı	Qalayi Zal/ Qunduz
22	M. Ikram Yawer	Är.22	male	38	civil servant	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy/ Faryab
23	Esedullah Behramı	Är.23	male	56	civil servant	literate	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
24	Rahımqul	Är.24	male	61	headmaster of school	literate	Ärsa:rı	Qalayi Zal / Qunduz
25	Salam Bay	Är.25	male	48	businessma n	literate	Ärsa:rı	Mazar-i Šarif / Balx
26	Nadır	Är.26	male	30	laborer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
27	Fawziye	Är.27	fema le	27	civil servant	high	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
28	Oğulbaxt	Är.28	fema le	76	housewife	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
29	Qadır	Är.29	male	47	laborer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
30	Mohemmed Kemal	Är.30	male	50	businessma n	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Keldar / Balx
31	Pırnazar	Är.31	male	44	craftsman	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
32	Ismayıl	Är.32	male	68	craftsman	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
33	Imamqul Xan	Är.33	male	53	manager	high	Ärsa:rı	Qalayı Zal / Qunduz
34	Gulam resul	Är.34	male	50	farmer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Imam Sahib / Qunduz
35	Hajı Qandıl	Är.35	male	56	businessma n	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
36	Hanifa	Är.36	fema le	15	student	literate	Ärsa:rı	Qalayı zal / Qunduz
37	Wezir Mohemmed	Är.37	male	62	goldsmith	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
38	Hajı Ekber	Är.38	male	65	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Mazar-i Šarif / Balx
39	Xudayberdi	Är.39	male	74	laborer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Qalayı Zal /

								Qunduz
40	Mahmud	Är.40	male	26	laborer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
41	Abdılqayyu m	Är.41	male	47	laborer	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Meŋŋejik / Jawzjan
42	Abdılahad Garajalı	Är.42	male	53	businessma n	literate	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
43	M. Ibrahim Tewekkeli	Är.43	male	55	intellectual	literate	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
44	H. Abdılwahha b Daniš	Är.44	male	54	politician	literate	Ärsa:rı	Aqča / Jawzjan
45	M. Kemal Göneš	Är.45	male	48	politician	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
46	Abdılqadır Maliya	Är.46	male	50	arbitrator	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Qarqın / Jawzijan
47	I:sa Hajı	Är.47	male	68	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Xamiyab / Jawzijan
48	Hajı M. Ismayıl	Är.48	male	65	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Aqča /Jawzjan
49	Sandıqčılar	Är.49	male	67	craftsman	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Xamiyab / Jawzijan
50	Mulla Rehmetillah	Är.50	male	60	mullah, clergyman	literate	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
51	Halima	Är.51	fema le	10	housewife	illiterat e	Ärsa:rı	Dewleta bad / Balx
53	M.Salih Rasekh	Är.53	male	51	professor	high	Ärsa:rı	Andxoy / Faryab
54	Yengejan	Är.54	fema le	60	civil servant	high	Ärsa:rı	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
54	Hajı Nazar a:ğa	Te.1	male	75	tribe elder	illiterat e	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
55	M. Emin Ferheŋ	Te.2	male	45	civil servant	literate	Teke	Herat city
56	Hajı Abdıllah	Te.3	male	68	businessma n	illiterat e	Teke	Derre-i Šax / Faryab
57	Bayram Ağa	Te.4	male	54	farmer	illiterat e	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
58	Feride Emini	Te.5	fema le	40	civil servant	high	Teke	Šıbırğan / Jawzjan
59	Mohemmed Ismayıl	Te.6	male	42	shopkeeper	literate	Teke	Herat city
60	Hajı Šageldi	Te.7	male	60	businessma n	illiterat e	Teke	Herat city
61	Paraxat	Te.8	male	58	civil servant	literate	Teke	Herat

								city
62	Abdılqayyu: m	Te.9	male	25	farmer	literate	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
63	Mawlewi Abdılkerim	Te.10	male	62	mullah, clergyman	literate	Teke	Herat city
64	Qa:rı Sebu:r	Te.11	male	40	civil servant	literate	Teke	Herat city
65	Tä:zegül Ama:nya:r	Te.12	fema le	35	civil servant	literate	Teke	Herat city
66	Dawudša:h Ferheŋ	Te.13	male	40	civil servant	literate	Teke	Herat city
67	Ahmedšah	Te.14	male	23	student	literate	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
68	Jama:lüddi: n	Te.15	male	22	student	literate	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
69	Hajı Abdıresu:l	Te.16	male	68	businessma n	illiterat e	Teke	Bermezi d / Balx
70	Mohemmed Dawud	Te.17	male	47	shopkeeper	literate	Teke	Herat city
71	Ča:rya:r Mura:dı	Te.18	male	40	sport teacher	literate	Teke	Turğundi / Herat
72	Hajı Sa:bır	Te.19	male	72	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Teke	Turğundi / Herat
73	Abdılxalı:l	Te.20	male	27	farmer	illiterat e	Teke	Turğundi / Herat
74	Dawud	Te.21	male	28	civil servant	illiterat e	Teke	Turğundi / Herat
75	M. Sıddı:q Emini	Sa.1	male	64	politician	high	Sa:rıq	Maručaq / Badğ1:s
76	Hajı Abdılxalı:l	Sa.2	male	62	tribe elder	literate	Sa:rıq	Marčaq / Badğı:s
77	Aqmohemm ed A:ğa	Sa.3	male	64	businessma n	illiterat e	Sa:rıq	Marčaq / Badğı:s
78	Ši:rmohem med Yeŋiš	Sa.4	male	55	poet	high	Sa:rıq	Marčaq / Badğı:s
79	Anna Bağšı	Sa.5	male	45	musician, epic singer	literate	Sa:rıq	Marčaq/ Badğı:s
80	Gül Ahmed	Sa.6	male	53	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Sa:rıq	Herat city
81	Dawudšah	Sa.7	male	52	civil servant	literate	Sa:rıq	Herat city
82	Hajı Ša:geldi	Yo.1	male	60	businessma n	illiterat e	Yomut	Herat city
83	N.N.	Yo.2	fema le	58	carpet weaver	illiterat e	Yomut	Herat city
84	Hajı Rehmetılla: h	Mu.1	male	50	businessma n	illiterat e	Muqrı	Aqča / Jawzjan
85	Da:wud ağa	Mu.2	male	70	farmer	illiterat	Muqrı	Siyagird

						e		/ Balx
86	Penji	Mu.3	male	25	student	literate	Muqrı	Siyagird / Balx
87	Seyis	Mu.4	male	48	horsebreede r	illiterat e	Muqrı	Aqča / Jawzjan
88	Hajı Gaybullah	Mu.5	male	52	Horse breeder	illiterat e	Muqrı	Aqča/ Jawzjan
89	Amanullah	Xa.1	male	56	farmer	illiterat e	Xatap	Šehrek / Balx
90	Abdulheki: m xatap	Xa.2	male	27	student	literate	Xatap	Šehrek / Balx
91	Xudayberdi	Xa.3	male	43	farmer	illiterat e	Xatap	Aqča / Jawzjan
92	Hani:fa	Xa.4	fema le	18	student	literate	Xatap	A:qdepe / Qunduz
93	Kema:l	Xa.5	male	40	farmer	illiterat e	Xatap	A:qdepe / Qunduz
94	Zi:ba:	Xa.6	fema le	50	housewife	illiterat e	Xatap	A:qdepe / Qunduz
95	M. Emin Qa:ni	Xoj.1	male	63	civil servant	literate	Xojamba :z	Qunduz
96	Šükrüllah	Xoj.2	male	32	farmer	illiterat e	Xojamba :z	Ča:rdere / Qunduz
97	M. Seddı:q	Ba.1	male	37	craftsman	literate	Bayat	Šıbırğan city
98	Seyfullah	Ba.2	male	35	labourer	literate	Bayat	Šıbırğan city
99	Runa	Ba.3	fema le	23	student	literate	Bayat	Mazar-i Šarif city
100	M. Alım Rahmanya:r	Ba.4	male	40	journalist	literate	Bayat	Šıbırğan city
101	Hajı Yo:lbars Ata:yı	Ba.5	male	65	businessma n	literate	Bayat	Šıbırğan city
102	Hajı Rehmetulla h	Ba.6	male	48	businessma n	illiterat e	Bayat	Pi:rmezi d / Šıbırğan
103	Hajı Xudayqul	Ol.1	male	65	shopkeeper	illiterat e	Olam	Aqča / Jawzjan
104	Abdılleti:f	Ol.2	male	25	student	literate	Olam	Ča:rdere / Qunduz
105	Usta:d Nayı:m	Qar.1	male	60	professor	high	Qarqın	Qarqın / Jawzjan
106	Xadi:ja	Qar.2	fema le	26	student	literate	Qarqın	Qarqın / Jawzjan
107	Hajı Uwez Durdı	Qar.3	male	70	craftsman	illiterat e	Qarqın	Qarqın / Jawzjan
108	gula:m Saxı Behra:mi	Qar.4	male	26	student	high	Qarqın	Qarqın / Jawzjan