Ga in Lak and the Three "There"s: Deixis and Markedness in Dagestan

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1a. na naj ø-ur-a
1b. ga naj ø-ur
2a. na b-axxara čvu
2b. gana-l b-axxaj čvu
3a. na ga ucara
3b. ganal na ucara

Morphologically, the demonstratives agree with their referent according to class as indicated in Table Two.5

Local deictics can either take the local case affixes directly, e.g. ši-vu 'in here', ši-v-un 'into here', mi-vu-n-n-aj

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TABLE ONE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demonstrative Proneuns</th>
<th>demonstrative</th>
<th>local</th>
<th>manner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>near to speaker (new, following, focus)</td>
<td>va</td>
<td>ši-</td>
<td>ukun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>near to addressee (old, preceding)</td>
<td>mu</td>
<td>mi-</td>
<td>mukun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>distant from both, neutral (level, opposite)</td>
<td>ta</td>
<td>ti-</td>
<td>tukun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>below speaker (neutral)</td>
<td>ga</td>
<td>gi-</td>
<td>gukan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>above speaker</td>
<td>k'a</td>
<td>k'i-</td>
<td>k'ukun</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demonstratives decline after the pattern of ga in Table Two. (But mu keeps its vowel in the oblique and its plural is mi.) The other oblique cases are formed by replacing the ¹ of the genitive, e.g. dative gana-n. Lak also has absolutive affixes and clitics that attach to the nominative.

TABLE TWO

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRONOUNS</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nom. gen.</td>
<td>nom. gen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first person</td>
<td>na</td>
<td>ttu-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>second person</td>
<td>ina</td>
<td>vi-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demonstrative class</td>
<td>ga</td>
<td>gana-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>gani-1</td>
<td>gajnnu-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The personal pronouns, which are limited to the first and second persons, are opposed to demonstratives, any of which can fill the function of a third person, for which no special form exists.5 In keeping with the markedness hierarchy identified by Silverstein (1976), the personal pronouns remain in the nominative (absolutive) case regardless of whether they are the subject or direct object of a normal transitive or intransitive verb (examples 1a,2a,3a), whereas the demonstrative pronouns, like all other nominals, will be in the absolutive as the subjects of normal intransitives and as the objects of normal transitives but will be in the genitive (which serves ergative and other functions) when the subject of a normal transitive, as in examples (1b, 2b, 3b).4

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'towards in there by you (class 2)' or three special local affixes:

- kku location
- kkun toward
- cča away from

e.g., šikku 'here', kikkun 'up thither', etc.

Given that all of Lak's five demonstratives can and do function in roles played by third person pronouns in languages that make such a distinction, our first question can be which of the five deictics occurs most freely in this use. In the first full description of Lak, published in 1890 but based on fieldwork done in the early 1860s, Uslar (1890:63) states unequivocally that ta serves this function. He adds that ta is used when the object is undifferentiated with respect to its position in relation to the speaker and addressee, especially when it is to one side of both. He goes on to state that va is used for objects closer to the speaker than to the addressee, mu is used for those closer to the addressee than to the speaker, k'α is used for objects higher than the speaker, and ga for those lower than the speaker. The next description of Lak phonology and morphology was published by Žirkov (1955). In his discussion of demonstratives (Žirkov 1955:71), he repeats Uslar's formulations, but with some modifications. Although Žirkov states that ta is the most neutral with respect to level and distance, he also notes that for ga the meaning 'lower' has been significantly weakened, and that it is often used as a neutral demonstrative or a simple third person pronoun. His formulations for va and mu are also slightly more general: va is defined simply as denoting the 'nearest', while mu is defined as being in the 'sphere' of the addressee. For k'α he states that the indication of the object as higher is usually quite clear.

In the next Lak grammar, Murkelinskij (1971:62) repeated Uslar's formulations without any modification, and did so again in his Lak school grammar (Murkelinskij 1980:85).

For my own study, I examined deictic usage in texts in a variety of genres: literary prose, expository prose, and epic poetry. The literary prose turned out to have the greatest variety of deictic usage, although the expository prose also provided useful examples. Due to its dependence on formulae, rhythmic structure, and repetition, Lak epic poetry provides a relative paucity of demonstratives. The author or narrator is much more likely to repeat the name of the referent. The small expository prose sample of about 2,600 words was striking in that va and mu accounted for over 90% of the 62 deictics, with ga accounting for the remainder. This will prove useful in our discussion of the distinction between va and mu later. My main source of material, however, was a collection of folk narratives (Xalilov 1976), which contained 540 deictics in a corpus of over 7,000 words. With one exception, the 33 narratives were collected between 1950 and 1966 from more than 15 speakers from the Kumux dialect area, which is the largest and also provides the basis for Literary Lak.

From what has just been said, it can be seen that ta and ga are the two most likely candidates for unmarked demonstrative/third person pronoun. In her chapter entitled "Myths About Markedness" Andrews (1990) rightly points out that statistical rarity is not a defining characteristic of markedness. It can and does happen in language that the meaning for which a word is marked is one which speakers have frequent cause to specify, e.g. personal confirmation in Macedonian (cf. Friedman 1977). In looking at a complex deictic system in a broad range of contexts, however, if we see one set accounting for almost 52% of the examples as is the case with Lak ga in our corpus of folk tales, and another totalling less than 9% as occurs with k'α, we can at least look first at the less frequent form for a defining characteristic. And when we discover that the deictic traditionally described as the most neutral accounts for under 3% of the examples in the same corpus, we have reason to investigate carefully the basis of the traditional description.

In the folktales corpus, the 278 occurrences of forms based on ga do not display any invariant meaning that can be connected with the concept "lower". Example (4) is typical:

(4) ivk'un ur, qqaivk'un ur ča šjaravu ča čjav'ul mall ivk'un ur. Cal, njužmar qini ganimizitravu quran kkalaj ivk'un ur. (Xalilov 1976:204) Once upon a time in a certain aul there was a clever mullah. One Friday, he was reading aloud the Koran in the mosque.

On the other hand, the occurrences of ta all display a sense of contrast or opposition, as in (5) and (6):

(5) Žuva urč'a insan uru, tγ k'ija. (Xalilov 1976:217) We are nine people, they[are only] two.

(6) Ca "hura" buvkkuna qquv - a's kussaksa, Sašisu dullajssa lakral ċuluxa, Ca "uh" qqak buvkkuna tamurčuluxa, Pat'ima paxrilij ššičux bavčukun. (Xalilov 1969:33) A "hurrah!" like thunder and lightning was heard from the rejoicing Lak side

An "ugh" was heard grumbling from their [the enemy's] side

As Patima proudly rode in front of them.
Similarly, Lak fixed expressions contrasting proximal and distal local expressions use the forms based on tī- as in example (7)

(7)  
tīj-šīj on both sides (lit. 'thereon hereon')
tīn-šīn baqqā without hesitation (lit. 'thither-thither not-being')
tīxa-sīxa thence and hence

tīxunmaj-sīxunmaj thither and thither (class 3)

Example (8) occurs in the context of two rooms. In one the faithful wife entertains importunate suitors one at a time, in the other stands a kettle of boiling water into which the suitors fall when they flee her supposedly returning husband. The use of the locational deictic tī- not only stresses the "oppositeness" of the second room, but also conveys the sense of the victim walking in expecting a level floor before falling to his death:

(8)  
Gagu, tīyun naj una, k'unkurduvuun ahnu ur. (Xalilov 1976:216)

He, too, going into there, fell into the kettle.

In view of this evidence, we may well wonder why the grammars all state or give the impression that tā is the least marked demonstrative and the closest equivalent to a third person pronoun. I believe the answer is to be found in a combination of time and space. Although Uslar writes that he worked in Kumux with his chief informant, Abdulla Omar-ogly, Žirkov states that the dialect described by Uslar was that of Viexi, which is a dialect area to the north of the Kumux region. In our corpus, more than half the examples of tā occur in a single tale, the only one recorded before 1950 from a speaker from outside the Kumux area, viz. in 1934 in the aul of Kurkli in the northern Viexi region. I would suggest that while tā may well have been the unmarked demonstrative for Viexi speakers in the 1860's -- and this apparently reflects the original situation (cf. Burčuladze 1985) -- Kumux speakers of today have shifted the marking. Markedness for depth in ga has been replaced by markedness for contrast or opposition in tā. The persistence of Uslar's description is probably due to a combination of respect for his work and lag time between normative and descriptive grammar.

Unlike ga, k'ā has clearly retained its height orientation. All of our examples clearly refer to some sense of physical height, even when they are temporal. Thus, for example in a tale about Nadir Shah of Persia planning a campaign against Lakkia, which is physically higher than Persia, forms of k'ā are used repeatedly to refer to things connected with Lakkia, as in example (9):

(9)  
Lakral a'rrallunnavu t'ur'ēa bik'anyagv, k'ā č'unal šanazara insan ivk'un ur. (Xalilov 1976:207)

As for the Lak army, at that time it had three thousand people.

Similarly, example (10) shows that ga can occur as a referent to a preceding item in the discourse which can also be explicitly referred to with k'ā, which here functions much as English 'the above'. This is additional evidence that ga is unmarked with respect to k'ā:

(10)  
Podlezasē she skazuemoe calčinmur daražalul čentur. Gajanaqissar predloženijalul hanu. ...  
Xhal dannu ukunssā k'ira predloženie: Int durk'uni. Vapredloženie sakin āunu dur tak k'iva  
calčinmur daražalul čentraja -- podlezasilija va skazuemilija. Kā predloženie lači dannu. ...  
Zununtavun gilissa int čējani durk'uni.  

K'ā predloženijalulv va calčinmur daražalul čentru -- int durk'uni -- qanaqissar predloženijalul hanunu.  
(Burcunov 1975:27)

The subject and predicate are the primary constituents. They constitute the basis of the sentence.

...  
Look at such a two-member sentence: Spring arrived. This sentence is made up of only two primary constituents: a subject and a predicate. Lengthen this sentence. ... A warm spring came early to the mountains.

In this sentence the primary constituents -- spring arrived -- constitute the basis of the sentence.

Thus, if we take the subset of Lak demonstratives that have traditionally been described as referring to height with relation to speaker (above - level - below), and which we can call the dimensional set, we find the following situation. In the recent past and in the North, unmarked tā was opposed to k'ā marked for 'highness' and ga marked for 'lowness', and tā had a chief contextual variant meaning of 'opposite'. Over time, however, 'opposite' has developed into the marked meaning of tā while ga has lost its marking for 'lowness' and become the unmarked member of the opposition.

The next question is how ga relates to va and mu and how these two relate to each other. In view of traditional descriptions, we can refer to this group for the time being as the personal set. Here again Žirkov (1955:71) seems closer to a broader generalization than Uslar. It is clear that "closer to the addressee" will not account for the use of mu in example (11) but "in the sphere of the addressee" will, if "sphere" is understood in a sense of "sphere of interest":

(11)  
Calčinmanal kunu bur: - qqarššunni cukunč'av ššinavun. Tnumutula jarunnin kkvkkunni, -
kunu. (Xalilov 1976:214)
The first one said: "No way did it touch the water. I saw it with these my own eyes."
Thus, while the speaker's eyes are obviously closer to him than to his interlocutor, he uses *mu* because he wishes to draw the addressee's attention to his eyes. Consider also the shift in deictic reference in example (12) in which a rich merchant is giving deathbed instructions to his spendthrift son:

You do not save anything, you are a spendthrift and a wastrel. My wealth is not enough for this kind (mu) of life you lead. *These* (va) friends of yours having ruined you and left you with nothing, *they* (ga) will turn their backs on you. When *they* (ga) leave you, you will not want to live. At *that* (mu) time, take a rope and hang yourself from the second beam of our house.

The use of *mukunssa* by the father to refer to the son's life style is in keeping with second person reference, but it also refers to the topic introduced in the sentence which preceded it. The use of *va* in the following sentence, however, is not due to the son's friends being closer to the father but rather to their being introduced as a new topic related to the theme of the discourse; they had not been referred to at any previous point in the narrative. This done, they are indicated by the neutral *gaj* in subsequent clauses. In the final sentence, the father is again referring anaphorically to what he has just said, hence his choice of *mu*. In fact, the expression "at that time" usually refers to the time of an event just referred to, and hence its standard expression in Lak is *mu c'umal*. However, if the narrator wishes to emphasize the gap in time between two events, then one of the other deictics will be used as in example (9) cited above or example (13), in which the speaker, who has not seen his interlocutor for 15 years, is referring to the fight they got into the last time they met:

(13) *Dak'nijrīv zuļa axmaqāss ba jāvavu. Amma ci t'určagu, ga'umal culk'l mag nexeļan šuna*. (Xalilov 1976:214)

Truly we were fools. But anyway, *that* time the fox's tail did touch the river.

Example (14) provides a compact contrast of the three deictics that are not marked for dimension:

(14) *Mugu mañxallalu dżunu durg va isiraj va ganiqast dżunu dur insanatural t'imir mjajžansa buriv xxal ban*. (Xalilov 1976:204)

_She, too_, was amazed at this thing, and and _she_ decided to see if what people were saying was true,

The woman was introduced into the narrative in the preceding sentence as the wife of a mutalim 'seminarian', and *mu* is the first anaphoric reference to her. The _thing_ she was amazed at was the focus of the first main incident of the story. Thus *va* is something new to her but known to the reader/listener. It is also further back in the narrative. The third demonstrative, the class 3–4 dative singular of *ga*, refers again to the woman, whose pronominal identity was established by *mu* and which fact therefore now shifts to the background.

Consider in this context also the use of *va* in example (10) above, repeated here as example (15):

(15) *Podležašēse va skazuemoе calčinmur daražalul člentrul. Gajanaqissar predloženijalul hanu*. ...

*Xxal wannu ukunssa k'ira predloženie: Int durk'unnu. Va predloženie sakiŋ xunu dur tak k'iva calčinmur daražalul člentraja -- podležašilija va skauemilija. K'a predloženie laqi wannu*. ...

*Zuntavan gilissi int ččjani durk'unnu*.

*K'a predloženijaluva calčinmur daražalul člentru -- int durk'unnu -- qanaqissar predloženijalul hanunu*. (Buržunov 1975:27)

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_In this_ sentence the primary constituents -- *spring* arrived -- constitute the basis of the sentence.

The author began the paragraph with an exposition on the primary and secondary constituents of a sentence, with all demonstratives being of the *ga* type. He then begins a new paragraph telling the reader to consider a concrete example. In referring to this newly introduced material, he uses *va* on the first reference, and subsequently switches to the marked positional deictic *k'a* in further references.

In an expository text such as the introduction to Xajdakov and Žirkov (1962:8–10, 16–20), the reader is led from point to point with no sense of digression. In this text of some 2,600 words the are 45 occurrences of deictics based on *mu*, 12 from the *va* group, 5 based on *ga*, and none based on *ta* or *k'a*. The explanation for
this is the fact that the majority of deictics in this text are referring to preceding material that is at the same
time not newly introduced. The examples with va refer to new or following material, while the few with ga
are neutral with respect to these values. There are no binary contrastive contexts, hence the lack of ta, and
likewise no references to a specific foregoing item (as in example 10/15), hence the lack of k'a. The following
examples are illustrative of these contrasts:

(16) Amma xaqinussa qininin cavagu,毯assa buxhrzgq u s'qallussa -ja qivissa, ja qunmassa lakku mazral
va o'rus mazral slovar' bukkkan qaqabvussija. V'a'canassa slovar' qanaqissar calcinsa mukunassa
slovar'nu. (Xajdakov and Zirkov 1962:9)

But until today not one more or less satisfactory Lak-Russian dictionary has been published. This (va)
present dictionary constitutes the first such (mu) dictionary.

(17) Carda'salssu socetanijartu ukunkakkan buvnu bussar. (Xajdakov and Zirkov 1962:17)

Nominal collocations are shown thusly (va):
(18) Lakku mazral va o'rus mazral slovar' qanaqissar c'javuqil mjunpat lasunssa lunu. Munil'unmassa
kumag bantissar lakral skolardal ucitelturan, ... (Xajdakov and Zirkov 1962:10)

The Lak-Russian dictionary is a book useful for everyone. It (mu) is marked with respect to
Lak schools, ...

(19) Muqul ca mja'na gamur ma'nalijatu k'unt' xiriv bivussa baçi c'anssa a'rab tarixraj liçij durnu
dussar; ... (Xajdakov and Zirkov 1962:17)

A bold-faced Arabic numeral followed by a period differentiates one meaning of a word from another (ga)
meaning.

Examples (16), (17), and (18) show contrasts of various forms based on va and mu: the va forms refer either
to a new topic or to following material, whereas the mu forms refer to the immediately preceding clause.
Additional evidence for the meanings of va and mu can be found in the deictics most frequently used in certain
expressions such as munixluunu 'therefore', mukunma 'likewise', which typically refer to some immediately
preceding statement or item (see also the discussion of mu c'umal 'at that time' above), whereas expressions
such as vaj maqssa śiārdij 'in recent years', va maqssa c'umunu 'recently' are used to introduce a new topic in
the discourse. Another common usage is an adjectival form of ga to mean 'another', as in example (19). This
usage is conditioned by the fact that as the least marked deictic, ga is used to qualify an item that is being
separated from but not contrasted with some other.

In terms of markedness relationships, va and mu form a pair opposed to ta and ga, which are also paired.
The four together are all opposed to k'a, which is clearly marked for the feature 'height'. I would argue that
the opposition between va/mu on the one hand and ta/ga on the other is that the former are marked for a
higher degree of discourse salience (cf. Hanks 1989, Kirsner 1979). Both va and mu are clearly associated with
deictic and discourse meanings such as 'speaker/addressee', 'anticipation/anaphora', while both ta and ga do not
mark such connections in a narrative. In a sense, va/mu are more 'demonstrative' than ta/ga, but it would be a
mistake to use 'demonstrative' as a distinctive feature in view of the fact that all five deictics can function as
both demonstratives and as personal pronouns; they can all modify another noun phrase or stand alone. But it is
clear from the foregoing examples that va/mu direct the addressee's or reader's attention to specific places in the
text/discourse such as 'sphere of speaker, following information, new information' on the one hand and 'sphere
of addressee, preceding information, old information', on the other. The deictics based on ta and ga do not have
this type of discourse function.

Within each pair, it is clear that ta is marked with respect to ga, and I would argue that va is marked with
respect to mu. As noted above, frequency of occurrence does not constitute proof of markedness. Nonetheless,
the fact that ga in narrative prose and mu in expository prose are the overwhelmingly predominant pronouns
suggests that it is pronouns that can be defined in terms of an invariant meaning. In the case of ta,
a meaning such as 'contrast' or 'opposition' was suggested above, while for va the meaning is associated with
'anticipation, speaker, new topic'. Kirsner (1979) has identified a scale of deictic emphasis in Dutch that is
relevant for Lak. According to such a scale, deictics are marked for the emphasis they place on the act of
deixis itself (high vs low intensity) rather than on a feature such as relative proximity. This seems to be
particularly applicable to va and ta. In the case of ta marking for intensity without marking for salience gives
the meaning 'opposite, contrasting', while in the case of va marking for both salience and intensity gives
'speaker, anticipation, new topic'. For mu, marking for salience without marking for intensity yields 'addressee,
preceding, anaphora', while, k'a marks maximal distance and ga is the most neutral deictic.

These relations are given as a feature matrix in Table Three and as a hierarchical diagram in Figure One.
The foregoing analysis differs significantly from previous analyses in two important points. First, it has shown that \( ga \) and not \( ta \) is the unmarked deictic in modern literary Lak. This appears to be the result of a relatively recent shift through which \( ta \) has become restricted to its chief contextual variant meaning of 'oppositeness' while \( ga \) has lost its specificity for 'lowness'. Second, in differentiating \( va \), \( mu \), and \( ta \) the analysis has shown that relation to speaker and addressee is not the defining factor. With regard to what do in fact constitute the semantic features, I have suggested a combination of markings for 'salience' and 'intensity' to account for the differences in meaning.

NOTES

1 An earlier version of this paper appears in A Calculus of Meaning: Markedness, Deixis and Distinctive Features, ed. by Edna Andrews and Yishai Tobin. Amsterdam: Benjamins. The present version has been expanded and the conclusions revised.

2 Lak examples are all given in Latin transcription of Cyrillic Literary Lak orthography.

3 It is important to note that any of the five deictics can occur alone in the function of a third person pronoun; none of them is limited to a purely demonstrative function.

4 By normal I am excluding verbs and constructions that take dative or ablative subjects, which neutralize the distinction personal/nonpersonal (cf. Kibrik 1978).

2c. \( ttu\)-n \( va\) \( čvu\) \( b-axxan\) ččaj b-ur I want to sell this horse
2d. \( gana\)-n \( va\) \( čvu\) \( b-axxan\) ččaj b-ur He wants to sell this horse
2e. \( ttu\)-šša \( va\) \( čvu\) \( b-axxan\) bjuqlaj b-ur I can sell this horse
2f. \( gana\)-šša \( va\) \( čvu\) \( b-axxan\) bjuqlaj b-ur He can sell this horse

5 In general, class 1 is used for mature male humans, class 2 for mature female humans, class 3 for other animates and some inanimates, and class 4 for inanimates and some animates. The demonstrative agreement type, whose patterns of syncope are illustrated in Table (i) as Type A, is peculiar to those pronouns and the morphologically related definite adjectives. It differs significantly from the syncope patterns in most other agreeing parts of speech (verbs, numerals, adverbials, emphatics, directive cases, durative adjectives), illustrated here as Type B. A Third pattern, Type C, is found only in the oblique reflexive pronoun, while Type D occurs in possessive pronominal adjectives in -ssa.

Table (i)
Patterns of Syncope in Lak Class Markers

6 In the folktales, \( mu \) was slightly more frequent than \( va \), accounting for almost 24% of the deictics while \( va \)
accounted for almost 19%.

7 Cf. also example (14) below.

8 It is also worth noting that this part of the system is unstable. In the Arakul dialect, spoken in two auls in southernmost Lakkia, va can substitute for any of the demonstrative forms (Xajdakov 1966:28-30). It may be that Azeri influence has contributed to this breakdown.

9 The Lak deictic mu is reminiscent of Turkish su, which like Lak mu is described as marked for closeness to the addressee, but which appears to be marked for deictic salience (Šćerkak 1977:129, cf. also Anderson and Keenan 1985:285) rather than any sort of proximity. Unlike su, however, mu is used anaphorically, whereas słu is used to introduce following material, the less emphatic but more proximate bu being the deictic of anaphora.

REFERENCES


Zirkov, L. I. 1955. Lakskij jazyk. Moscow: AN SSSR.