

Split-S systems, language endangerment and the languages of the Caucasus

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1 Introduction

- Thanks and disclaimer
- *Split-S* (here): a system in which different intransitive predicates allow different case-/agreement-marking possibilities
 - Also known as *active* and by various other names (see Dixon 1994: 84).

(1) Georgian (Harris 1981: 40, 147; Harris 1982: 293):

a. glex-ma datesa simindi
farmer-**ERG** he.sowed.it corn.**NOM**
'the farmer sowed corn'

b. Nino-m daamtknara
Nino-**ERG** she.yawned
'Nino yawned'

c. Rezo gamoizarda
Rezo.**NOM** he.grew.up
'Rezo grew up'

- I include *fluid-S* languages under the general banner of split-S.

(2) Tsova-Tush (Holisky 1987: 105):

a. as wože
1SG.**ERG** fell
'I fell' (it was my fault)

b. so wože
1SG.**NOM** fell
'I fell' (no implication that it was my fault)

- Outline:

- Split-S: an endangered language type? (section 2)
- Split-S in the Caucasus (section 3)

* including *variation* in split-S systems

2 Split-S: an endangered language type?

- No!

- Split-S systems are rare?
 - Yes: about 2% of case systems (Comrie 2013) and 7% of agreement systems (Siewierska 2013) follow a split-S pattern according to the *World Atlas of Language Structures*.
 - But this does not by itself mean that the type is particularly endangered.

- Split-S systems are diachronically unstable?
 - This may account for their typological rarity.
 - Could instability of split-S systems contribute to increased likelihood of their extinction?
 - It's often the case that split-S languages are present in families alongside relatives that are *not* split-S, for example:
 - * **Pomoan languages of California:**
 - 7 languages (one extinct), of which 4 split-/fluid-S, 1 nominative-accusative, 2 on which data unavailable.
 - It may be reasonable to reconstruct a split-S system for Proto-Pomo, but this has been lost in at least one daughter language.
 - * **Basque:**
 - Different dialects have different degrees of split-S; some are very almost canonical ergative-absolutive (Aldai 2009 i.a.).

- Is this evidence that split-S is being lost?
- No: systems with more pronounced split-S behaviour are innovative, arising in the last couple of centuries (Creissels and Mounole Creissels and Mounole, Berro 2012).

* **Northeast Caucasian:**

- Split-S systems reported in: Ingush, Tabassaran, Tsova-Tush, Udi, Budukh, (Lezgian) (see next section for references).
- But not universal to the family, e.g. erg:abs case + agreement in Tsezic languages (Comrie et al. 2013) and Lak (Comrie 2013 and Siewierska 2013);
- Hunzib is reported to have erg:abs case (Comrie 2013) and nom:acc agreement (Siewierska 2013).

* **Kartvelian:**

- Georgian, Laz and Svan are (partially) split-S; but Mingrelian is fully nominative-accusative (Harris 1985: 57):

(3) Mingrelian (Harris 1985: 57):

- a. koč-k(i) doʔvilu γeǰ-i
man-ERG he.kill.it.II pig-NOM
'the man killed a pig'
- b. ʒγabi-k (ko)sxapu
girl-ERG she.dance.II
'the girl danced'
- c. koč-k doγuru
man-ERG he.die.II
'the man died'

- But Harris (1985) argues that split-S developed from ergative-absolutive in Proto-Kartvelian; Mingrelian nom:acc is a change from this earlier split-S system.
- Other examples of split-S systems arising in recent times: Hindi, Tibetan (Denwood 1991: 266).
- The continuing emergence of new split-S systems may mitigate against other factors endangering the type.
- *Individual* split-S languages are generally endangered?
 - True to a large extent:
 - * E.g. a high concentration of split-S languages in the Americas (see Fig. 1), where a very high proportion of languages are endangered (Whalen and Simons 2012).
 - But not all split-S languages are endangered:
 - * e.g. Hindi (258 million L1 speakers), Georgian (4.3 million speakers), Tibetan (1.1 million speakers) (Lewis et al. 2016).
- Conclusion: the split-S type as a whole is not obviously endangered, though many individual split-S languages are.

3 Split-S in the Caucasus

- Split-S seems to be something of an areal feature amongst languages of the Caucasus, though it is by no means universal (see section 2).

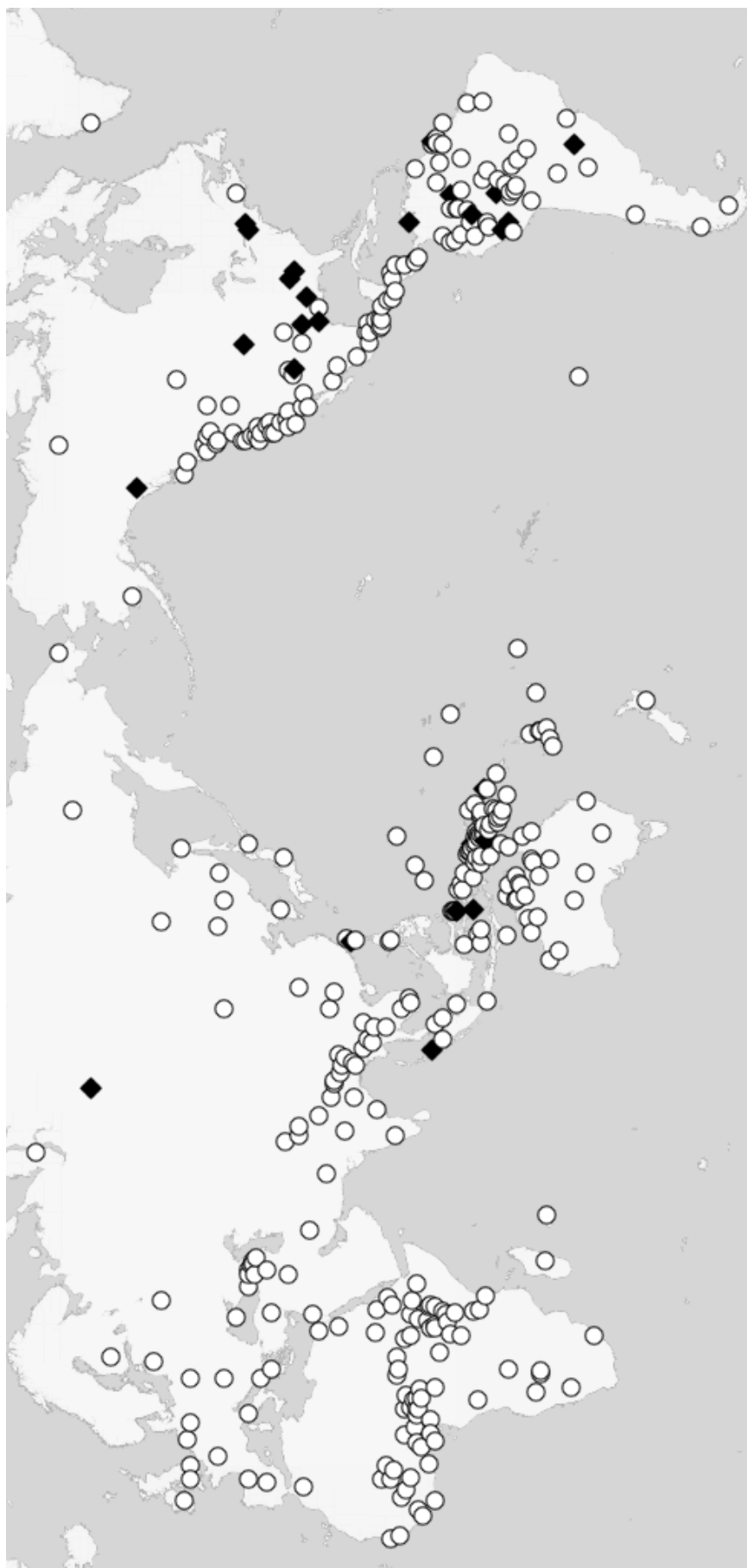


Figure 1: Agreement alignment in the world's language (Siewierska 2013). Black: split-S; white: other.

3.1 Caucasian split-S languages

- Northeast Caucasian:

- **Ingush** (323,000 speakers¹; status: vulnerable²):³

- (4) a. Muusaaz nab-ju
Musa.(V).**ERG** sleep(J)-J.AUX.PRES
'Musa is sleeping'
- b. yz chy-v.axar
3SG.V in-go.V.WP
'he went home'

(Nichols 2008: 58, 59)

- **Tabassaran** (127,000 speakers; status: vulnerable):

- (5) a. uzi har? aqun-**zu**
1SG forest end.up-1SG.A
'I end up in a forest'
- b. uzu hariz Rušun-**za**
1SG forest end.up-1SG.P
'I enter the forest'

(Kibrik 1985: 277)

- **Tsova-Tush** (Bats, Batsbi; possibly 'far fewer than 3000' active speakers; status: severely endangered.):

* see example (2) above.

¹Numbers of speakers for each language taken from *Ethnologue* (Lewis et al. 2016)

²Endangerment statuses taken from Moseley (2010).

³v, J = gender classes; WP = witnessed past.

– **Udi** (6500 speakers; status: severely endangered):⁴

- (6) a. äyel-en ɔne-ne-xa
 child-**ERG** crying-3S-LV.PRES
 ‘the child is crying’
- b. d’yel kana-ne-bak-e
 child.**ABS** big-3SG-BE-AORII
 ‘the child grew up’

(Harris 2002: 252, 253)

– **Budukh** (200 speakers; status: severely endangered) also displays split-S behaviour (Harris 2002: 255).

– **Lezgian** (617,000 speakers; status: vulnerable) has slight split-S patterns (see below).

• Kartvelian:

– **Georgian** (4.3 million speakers):

* see example (1) above.

– **Laz** (22,000 speakers; status: definitely endangered):

- (7) a. ʃoɣo-epe-k-ti lales
 dog-PL-**NAR**-also bark
 ‘the dogs barked’
- b. bee dirdu
 child-**NOM** grow
 ‘the child grew’

(Asatiani 1974: 44, 82)

⁴LV = light verb.

- **Svan** (15,000 speakers; status: definitely endangered):

- (8) a. m̄are-d čwadm̄əšie
 man-**ERG** work.AOR
 ‘the man has worked’
- b. č’q’int’ kaloxgidda d̄ina-s
 boy.**NOM** looked.AOR girl-DAT
 ‘the boy looked at the girl’

(Sumbatova 1993: 258)

3.2 Variation in split-S systems

- Globally, there is a lot of variation amongst split-S systems: different languages employ different conditioning factors for the case/agreement split in intransitive predicates, for example:
 - Control/volition: Koasati (Kimball 1991), Eastern Pomo (McLendon 1978) ...
 - Performance/effectedness/instigation: Lakhota (Mithun 1991).
 - Eventivity/stativity/dynamicity: Baniwa do Içana (Danielson and Granadillo 2008), Galela (Creissels 2008) ...
 - Multiple factors may interact, e.g. control and perspective in Northern Pomo (Deal and O’Connor Deal and O’Connor); control, eventivity and affectedness in Central Pomo and Caddo (Mithun 1991).
 - Languages may also have some degree of apparently idiosyncratic lexical variation, e.g. Mohawk *-yeshu* ‘smile’ always takes patientive marking even where agentive might be expected: namely,

where it describes a voluntary act (Mithun 1991: 533).

- This variation is also apparent amongst languages of the Caucasus.
 - **Tsova-Tush**: fluid-S, broadly related to control/volition (Holisky 1987):

* most intransitives allow either ergative or nominative marking (though some are more commonly found with one or the other).

(9) Tsova-Tush (ibid.: 105):

a. as wože
1SG.ERG fell

‘I fell (intentionally)’

b. so wože
1SG.NOM fell

‘I fell (non-intentionally)’

* some verbs (which denote necessarily *uncontrolled* events/states) are only accepted with nominative: e.g. *maicdar* ‘be hungry’, *q’erl’ar* ‘be afraid’, *dah” ġordar* ‘freeze’ etc. (ibid.: 109).

* others are only accepted with ergative: e.g. *dağar* ‘come’, *lalar* ‘walk, wander’, *dadar* ‘swear’, *axar* ‘bark’, *loca(d)dalar* ‘say’, *cerdal’ar* ‘finish’, *da:xar* ‘live’, *tešar* ‘believe’, *lap’c’ar* ‘play’ (ibid.: 113).

· Nb. even in these cases the opposite marking may not be *categorically* impossible, just strongly dispreferred (see ibid.: 115).

- * Holisky attributes the split primarily to volitionality, but with some complications (1987: §3.7), for example (p. 116):

The verb *h"alO dopxdalar* 'get dressed', for example, is usually used with ergative marking, whether or not the subject acts agentively. However, in the unusual situation sketched above, where one gets dressed unintentionally, *if* the speaker wishes to emphasize the unusual nature of the situation, nominative marking is available to express non-agentive dressing. It must be stressed that use of nominative marking in this situation is optional.

Holisky goes on to provide a more complex characterisation of the patterns (1987: 4.3).

- **Tabassaran:** similar patterns to Tsova-Tush, though marked in terms of *agreement* (Kibrik 1985: 277–278, see also Arkadiev 2008: 108–109):
 - * some verbs only occur with agentive marking (-*za* in 1SG): e.g. *daqun-za* 'I lay down', *Rit'itXan-za* 'I flew away', *Rižun-za* 'I began to cry', *RiliXun-za* 'I worked (for a while)', *Rušun-za* 'I came' (Kibrik 1985: 278);
 - * others only occur with patientive marking (-*zu* in 1SG): e.g. *kābqun-zu* 'I drowned', *RaRIun-zu* 'I swelled', *RarRun-zu* 'I froze', *kelXun-zu* 'I hung', *ergra-zu* 'I got tired' (ibid.);
 - * still others occur with both, depending on whether the action is intentional or not e.g. *Ružun-za/-zu* 'I remained', *aqun-za/-zu* 'I fell', *hilirqun-za/-zu* 'I shook'.
 - * control/volitional again seems to be the main factor in the

split.

– **Udi:**

* Some intransitive verbs have ergative subjects (in certain dialects): *gölös-p-* ‘dance’, *maq-p-* ‘sing’, *ači-p-* ‘play’, *ayt-p-* ‘speak’, *one-p-* ‘cry’, *füt-p-* ‘whistle’, *axšum-p-* ‘laugh’, *xuru-p-* ‘snore’; *üzmiš-b-* ‘swim’, *fikir-b-* ‘think’; *dava-sak-* ‘fight’ (Harris 2002: 252, 254) and all verbs with similar semantics with the exception of *t’it* ‘run’ (ibid: 253).

· Such verbs are historically formally transitive (except possibly *t’it*).

* Other intransitives have absolutive subjects: *t’it* ‘run’, *bas-k-* ‘be lying down’, *kala-bak-* ‘grow (up)’, *q’ari-bak* ‘dry’ (ibid.: 253, 278).

* my tentative analysis: intransitives denoting *states* or *changes of state or location* assign ABS; other intransitives assign ERG.

· This is similar to the patterns found in other languages, e.g. Chol (Mayan, Coon 2010), and also possibly Georgian (see below).

– **Lezgian:** intransitive verbs derived from N+*do* compounds take ergative subjects (Haspelmath 1993: 284):

(10) *ada k’walax-zawa*
 she.ERG work-IMPF
 ‘She was working’

(cf. *ada k’walax iji-zwa* ‘she.ERG work do-IMPF’)

- * Other examples include *c'uğ-* 'howl' and *q'üler-* 'dance' (ibid.).
- * There may also be some non-derived ergative-assigning intransitives (e.g. *xkadurun* 'run', *čukurun* 'chase')—but these are rare and their non-derived status is dubious (ibid.: 286).
- * All other intransitives uniformly associated with absolutive case, e.g. *q̄uğun* 'play', *q^hürün* 'laugh'; *ifin* 'become hot', *kusun* 'fall asleep' (ibid.: 271).

– **Georgian:**

- * precise factors conditioning the split unclear:
 - Holisky (1981) suggests Class III verbs (intransitives which assign nominative not ergative) are *atelic* (or stative);
 - Cherchi (1997) connects the split to aspectual and agentive oppositions.
 - Another possible overall generalisation might be that verbs expressing states or changes of state or location assign nominative and others assign ergative ...
 - but this doesn't work perfectly (e.g. *i-brjv-is* 'fight', *ṭir-is* 'cry', *tamaš-obs* 'play' associated with nominative—Holisky 1981: 172, 175).

– **Svan:** situation 'very much the same as Georgian' (Sumbatova 1993: 266).

- * Nb. a degree of dialect variation (to be covered below).
- * Intransitives which govern ergative in Series II include *limšie* 'work', *lizelāl* 'walk', *lic'k'ūli* 'mew, squeak' (Sumbatova 1993:

258–259); also *läigərgle* ‘he talked’, *äd̄k̄īzanāle* ‘he laughed’, *läṭwīlēle* ‘he yelled’, *läičirxāle* ‘he sledded’, *läicuzāle* ‘he swam’, *läičmuriāle* ‘he ran’ (Harris 1985: 45).

- * Those associated with nominative include *lisgdi* ‘look’ and verbs meaning ‘die’, ‘break’, ‘be born’, ‘get lost’, ‘go crazy’ (Sumbatova 1993: 258, 266; Harris 1985: 44).
 - The small class of ablaut verbs are associated with nominative regardless of semantics (Sumbatova 1993: 266).
 - Also associated with nominative are verbs expressing reciprocal relations e.g. *liq’hāl* ‘kiss’, *limqlaräl* ‘embrace’, *liq’ärjäl* ‘fight’, *lišjäl* ‘make war’ (ibid.).
- Harris (1985: 123–4) discusses variation in case assignment in Series II amongst cognates in the split-S Kartvelian languages:
 - The reflexes of **qad/*qd* ‘come, go’ are associated with nominative in Svan and Old Georgian, but also occurs with ergative in Georgian dialects and Laz:
 - (11) a. Svan: *eji anqad* (he.NOM came);
 - b. Laz: *ia moxtu* (he.NOM came);

cf. *ia koč-epe-k komoxtes* (that man-PL-ERG came) = ‘those men came’.

- The reflexes of **gor/*gr* ‘roll’ are associated with ergative in Georgian but nominative in Laz:
 - (12) a. Georgian: *kac-ma igora* (man-ERG roll) ‘the man rolled’;
 - b. Laz: *koči ingoru* (man-NOM roll) ‘the man rolled’.
 - The reflexes of **gza* ‘travel’ occur with ergative in Svan and Georgian but nominative in Laz.
 - Cognates meaning ‘talk’ and ‘play’ each occur with ergative in some Svan dialects; but vary between ergative and nominative in other Svan dialects and Laz.
- Other variation between different Svan dialects (Harris 1985: 120–1, 123):
 - In the Naḡra-Laxamula dialect but not elsewhere, some verbs may occur with either nominative and ergative in Series II, with no change in meaning:
 - (13) a. *dina ädšdiral*
girl.NOM she.play.II
‘she played’
 - b. *dina-d ädšdirale*
girl-ERG she.play.II
‘she played’
 - * Other variable verbs include those meaning ‘run’, ‘fight’, ‘whistle’, ‘yell’, ‘sing’, ‘sled’, ‘crawl’, ‘play’, ‘laugh’, ‘pass by’, ‘shoot a gun’, ‘limp’, ‘hurry’, ‘jump, spring’.
 - * These verbs all characterised by *-al* suffix.

- Further, the verb meaning ‘sled’ governs the ergative in the Upper Bal dialect but the nominative in Lašk (*läičirxāle* vs. *edčirxān* ‘he sledded’).
- While the split-S type as a whole may not be endangered (see section 2), the endangerment of many split-S languages may threaten the *variety* of split-S systems we can observe.
 - Consequences for our understanding of the ways in which split-S systems may vary
 - Potentially further implications for our understanding of language / the human mind more generally

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