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A sentence illustrating some of the above features is (in syllabic transcription):

šum-ma a-wi-lum mâr a-wi-lim ši-ih-ra-am iš-ta-riq, id-da-ak
'If a man has kidnapped a man's infant son, he will be put to death.'

Here *awilum* is nominative, while *awilim* is genitive following *mâr*, the construct state of *mârum*, 'son.' Then, *šihram* ('young') is accusative, agreeing with *mâr*, or rather with the accusative that *mâr* would have been had it not been followed by a genitive. Finally, *ištariq* (with infixed -ta-) is 3sg prf indic of *šarāqu*, 'to steal' (*šumma*, 'if,' though introducing a subordinate clause, does not take the subjunctive), and *iddak* (<*indak* with infixed -n-) is 3sg pres/fut pass of *dāku* (root *dwk*), 'to kill.'

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J. G. Macqueen

Alarcos Llorach, Emilio (1922–)

Emilio Alarcos Llorach is best known as the linguist who introduced into Spain ideas that had earlier gained currency elsewhere in Europe, thus breaching in the late 1940s the isolation of Spanish scholarship under Franco. He is an advocate of Martinet school functionalism and he hosted in 1977 an international conference of functionalist linguistics in Oviedo; he has also flirted briefly (1951) with Hjelmlevian glossematics. His most influential work is on synchronic and diachronic Spanish phonology (*Fonología española*, in many editions since 1947), but he writes also on Spanish grammar and on Catalan and Asturo-Leonese.

He was born in Salamanca on April 22, 1922, studied in Valladolid and Madrid, then taught in Oviedo, with a period as lector in Switzerland, obtaining his doctorate at Madrid with a thesis on *El libro de Alexandre*. In 1960 he was appointed to the Chair of Historical Grammar at the University of Oviedo and later was visiting professor at several American universities. In 1972 he was elected to the Academy, and in 1983 was offered a five-volume testimonial volume in honor of his quarter century at the University of Oviedo. Under new Spanish regulations he officially retired in 1987, but still may undertake some graduate teaching, as well as pursuing research. He gave a keynote address—on sixteenth-century phonetic changes—at the first international congress of Spanish historical linguistics at Cáceres in 1987. He plays a somewhat muted, but supportive, role in the topical sensitive debates on the status of Asturian, or *bable*.

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R. Posner

Albania: Language Situation

Albania (Albanian: *Shqipëri*) is a country in which about 97 percent of the population have some form of Albanian (Albanian: *shqipja/gjuha shqipe*) as their mother tongue. Albania itself forms part of a continuous Albanian-speaking area which extends across the border into Kosovë (Kosovo) and Macedonia. In Albania there is also a small minority (about 3 percent) which has Greek as its first language and is located in the south with Gjirokastër as the main town. Reliable information on language maintenance or indeed ethnic vitality in the very small traditional Macedonian, Aromanian ('Vlach'), and Romani ('Gipsy') communities is nonexistent.

Local/vernacular forms of Albanian can be grouped into just two major dialect areas. The Geg dialect (Albanian: *Gegërishtja*) area is found to the north of the Shkumbin river (which, flowing east to west, divides Albania into two roughly equal parts), and the Tosk dialect (*Toskërishtja*) area is found to its south. With the exception of a small area in southwest Macedonia in which a Tosk variety is spoken, it is Geg dialect varieties which extend into the neighboring republics.

In the years following the independence of Albania (1912), and especially in the 1920s and 1930s, attempts were made to develop a standard language based largely on the southern Geg variety of Elbasan—a form transitional between Geg and Tosk. After World War II, however, during more than four decades of rule by the Albanian Party of Labor, a change in linguistic policy led to the creation of a Standard Albanian based on Tosk. This new standard form of Albanian was widely diffused through the mass media and the education system, resulting in widespread bidialectalism (in the local variety and the standard). In 1968 the Albanians of Kosovë decided to adopt as their standard the Standard Albanian of Albania itself.

All education and internal broadcasting is in Albanian. French (through the education system) and Italian (mainly through reception of Italian television programs) are the most widely known foreign languages.

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M. A. French

Albanian

In addition to an exposition of the facts usually expected to characterize a language and the people who speak it, this article stresses certain salient features of the Albanian language and its study that set it apart. Some facts of its grammar are presented because (among European languages) many accessible libraries lack serviceable books on Albanian. A somewhat detailed mention of its dialects is worthwhile since their scattered and isolated evidence is important in supplementing our poverty in historical documentation and in supplying data for language contact study; during the twentieth century dialect study has been increasingly practised, and in the future must be important and urgent. To Indo-European studies the badly neglected

Albanian offers unexpectedly unique testimony; a language often reputed to be invaded and riddled by innovation, Albanian really offers disguised idiosyncracies of striking archaism.

1. What and Where

An Indo-European language, the sole surviving member of its branch, Albanian is spoken by more than six million, for whom it is normally their first language, centered in the Western Balkans if emigration to Western Europe and the Western Hemisphere plus Australia is ignored. This territory embraces Albania, Kosovë, Makedonija (Macedonia) west of a line from Kumanovo to Lake Prespa, border fragments of Crna Gora, enclave villages (many thriving) of Molise, Basilicata, Puglia, Calabria, and Sicily in southern Italy, and discontinuous areas (largely undergoing language death) of Voiotia, Attica, Évvoia, Ándros, and the Pelopónnesos in southern Greece. There are other outliers better treated as elements of the dialectology.

The Shkumbîni River divides, with a spectral gradient, the language and this territory into two markedly separate dialects, Geg to the north and Tosk to the south; their branching is over a millennium deep. The bridging of this dichotomy forms a major problem for the standardization of the language, a question reopened with the demise of communism; this divergence, which affects morphology and phrasal construction as well as prominent phonology, is more costly than the fragmentation within Geg in the north (including Shkodër) and the northeast of the whole territory. A Geg outlier is found at Arbanasi, earlier Borgo Erizzo, which in the late twentieth century was engulfed by the Croatian city of Zadar and established early in the eighteenth century by emigrés from two villages near Bar (Alb. *Tivar*).

The rest of Albanian dialectology is Tosk: the dialects of southern Greece reflect a detachment in the thirteenth century or before from the southernmost dialects of Albania (in Çamërija), which earlier and into the nineteenth century extended south through Épiros. These dialects in the early 1990s, in contact with Greek, conserve their original syllables well and a very archaic morphology. Then in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, under pressure of Turkish rule, the founders of the Italian diaspora parted company, it seems, with their kin in Greece; at the end of the twentieth century 50 (soon to be 45) villages survive in Italy, many tenacious and conserving their Byzantine rite, but earlier there were about 20 more. The important dialects of Italy have diverged greatly, and since the late eighteenth century gave rise to modern Albanian literature. Villa Badessa, near Pescara, was settled in 1745 from the Épiros coast, and the dialect is now extinct. An eastward migration of south Tosk settled perhaps several centuries ago in Bulgaria and Turkish Thrace, but of these only Mandritsa in Bulgaria, near Edirne, is known to have survived World War II; it is the most striking product of language contact in the Albanian dossier. A splinter of Mandritsa from the Balkan Wars survives in Mándres, south of Kilkis in Greece. Other offshoots of this eastward trek are extinct in Pontic Bulgaria and Romania, but a last outpost lives on in four villages of the south Ukraine. An extinct dialect is documented for Istria, but another of Srem (Sirmio) left no testimony. There are surviving speakers in the USA

among emigré colonies from Italian and Greek Albanophone enclaves.

The nomenclature of this language is intricate. The name behind 'Albanian' derives from that of a region in central Albania which in its local form betrays passage through Slavic speech, i.e., earlier first millennium, before undergoing a Tosk change; a similar sequence has been claimed for *Ohrid*, and may well correlate the Tosk denasalization with that of Macedonian and Bulgarian. The present standard name for the language *Shqip*, and hence for the country *Shqipëri*, and the adjective *shqiptar*, are recent and seem to be special senses of 'pronounce clearly.' The native appellation has now been standardized in Italy as *Arbëresh*, in Greece one can hear *arbër(isht)*, in Greek such a person is *Arvanitis* and in Turkish *Arna(v)ut*, and there is the Geg village of *Arbanasi* (Croatian form; cf. North Geg *arbenisht* 'in Albanian [style]'); these all show the typically early Greek change of *l* to *r* before consonant. The name has nothing to do with the Caucasus, and is simply obscure; yet it is instructive for chronologies.

2. Post-Byzantine History

The evidence available will be pursued before drawing more hazardous inferences, including those based on the comparative method and most in favor with the best Albanian scholars before World War II. From the first decade of the twentieth century, on the basis of congresses and competing proposals of the late nineteenth century, until World War II a standard roman orthography was accepted and applied to the south Geg dialect of Elbasan, a variety relatively easily converted into Tosk readings. With the coming of the communist government that orthography was applied to a form of central Tosk. After World War II, Kosovë, then officially bilingual with Serbian, applied the orthography to a variety of its Northeast Geg, but in 1972 under considerations of solidarity accepted Tirana's Tosk standard. Up to 1908 the sparse production, largely hampered by Turkish regulation, was written in any of the regional scripts and also in innovating proposals, and these applied to diverse dialects; ironically this anarchy gives the linguist richer evidential data. For three centuries earlier in the north, mainly centered on Shkodër, there had evolved a serviceable Geg orthography based on a mild variant of roman.

This graphic evidence, mainly in the form of printed books, manuscripts, and onomastics, brings one back preponderantly through North Geg, especially Scutarene, work to the baptismal formula of 1462, found in a Latin manuscript. Creditable philological work has been done since the 1940s and re-editions have been issued, but much remains to be done and no perspicuous synthesis has yet been reached. Of course there have been linguistic changes of detail. But the general shape of the Albanian language that is found at the beginning of this graphic testimony is not arrestingly different from what is seen in the early 1990s. And if the full panoply of surviving dialect evidence is employed, it is already clear, a much more fine-grained detail and broader scope and coverage is reached for a time depth into the later first millennium AD than the approximate picture of 1462 vouchsafed by all the documents from then on. To be sure, literary and culture history gain here where linguistics may not. So it can be seen without aid of

the printed books that the intervocalic voiced obstruents which must have been lost after the Roman period in such words as *mjek* 'physician' from Latin *médicus*, as well as between sonants in such Indo-European words as *ujë* 'water' from **udriā*, must equally have been lost before the first millennium splitting of Geg and Tosk, which both show their prior loss. Thus one is led naturally by the rich Albanian formal evidence from the late twentieth century to productive distant inferences.

3. The Indo-European Evidence

Since the middle of the nineteenth century Albanian has been regarded as surely of Indo-European (I-E) affiliation; the basic exact regularities were worked out by Gustav Meyer in the 1880-90s and by Holger Pedersen over the turn of the century. These masterly works are still underappreciated. It is easy under later theory to illustrate persuasive etymological equations that embody involute relations and reasoning: *asht* 'bone' (**H_oost-*), *besë* 'trust' (**bhidh-ti-*), *bir* 'son' (**bher-u-*), *darkë* 'supper' (**dork-*), *ditë* 'day' (**di-t-*), *djathë* 'cheese' (**Dedh-*), *dorë* 'hand' (**ghesr-*), *shtatë* '7' (**septm-ti-*). All these involve morphological as well as phonological reasoning, and have been chosen because of this; there are of course easier, more obvious specimens, but these are the sort that test a theory. Although they involve intricacies, an obvious set on first inspection is the simple numerals; see Hamp 1992.

Turning from phonology and vocabulary (though *zjarm* 'fire' < **g^hhermo-s* also implicates interesting morphology), one may note some important points of historical grammar. Archaic peripheral dialects still show a neuter gender with limited membership; this involves interesting questions of sentence concord, and some oddities in formal shape, making it a remarkable survival. Allied to the last is the class of nouns that shifts from masculine to feminine in the plural. Along with Greek, Albanian conserves in the verb paradigm middle endings beside the active ones. However, in the preterite one sees for the middle use of the reflexive, which has swept the field in Balto-Slavic; this requires a complex accounting, but a curious archaism is the fact that the reflexive proclitic *u* has incorporated the I-E augment (**e- μ +*). Conservative dialects in Greece also distinguish primary and secondary personal endings in the verb. On the phonological level it may be noted among archaisms that it has been claimed that Albanian alone conserves a reflex in initial position of a fourth laryngeal, which colored an adjacent **e*, but not an **o*. In position before front voicoid Albanian shows distinct reflexes of the long disputed three I-E guttural series.

There is space only to sample these matters here, but it has given the opportunity also to introduce more grammatical topics.

4. The Early History

The development of Albanian from I-E to Common Albanian before the split into Geg and Tosk will be briefly surveyed here, an account which will necessarily be very compressed.

Albanian was most closely related within I-E to Balto-Slavic, and the common innovations and shared features are often most clearly discernible in Baltic. A very abstract but telling pair of features is the lengthening of syllabics

before mediae obstruents, and the distinct treatment of long syllables ending in a sonant. Because it was associated with Balto-Slavic Albanian must have been a member of the North (Central) European area, and in contact with the non-I-E substratum that contributed to that areal group; in fact, it seems that the lexeme that became 'apple' in those languages results in 'sorbus' in Albanian.

Next, at an indeterminate time, Albanian or its close kin is found to have spread through the Carpathian arc from southeast Poland to Croatia; this accounts for the diffusion of **vatra*, **strunga*, etc., in a continuum. After this the Albanians came into contact with the Romans, at which time their language may well have had a word structure and phonetic shape not unlike that of Lithuanian. It was into this structure that the many Latin loans were received, to live on and develop (e.g., *qytet* from *ciuitat-*) alongside the I-E patrimony. By this time Albanian must have had some of its later character; the Danube toponym *Drobeta* seems to be '*drū-iē*, the wood,' with postposed article. The eastern portion of this speech area adopted Latin but kept traces of its old grammar and many lexemes. The result is called Romanian; the latter are the well known but inexactly analyzed so-called autochthonous elements (e.g., *cioară* 'Alb. *sorrë*, blackbird' < Alb-Balto-Slav. **k^hērsnā*), and the former include recognized so-called Balkanisms (e.g., the postposed article) as well as generally unsuspected facts (e.g., the fact that Romanian *zece* '10,' indeclinable in Latin, is feminine, as *douăzeci* '20' shows, as is Alb. *dhjet*, as *tridhjet* '30' shows). The western portion accepted many Latin loans, but kept its language.

Albanian (and Romanian) had very little contact with ancient Greek because it was located north of the so-called Jireček Line, which divides Greek and Roman inscriptional remains. There is no place in our account for Illyrian since we have no clear evidence of their language.

In the borrowings from Latin one can distinguish an east and west Balkan dichotomy. Albanian also has slight traces of contact with Goths. By the time of the coming of the Slavs in the Balkans Albanian was not yet Common Albanian; **č* or **ć* had not yet become *s*, as in *porosis* from Slavic *porōčit-* 'to order.' But the shape of words was by that time close in syllable count and vowel reductions to the shape of Common Albanian. The many borrowings from European neighbors are to be placed after Common Albanian.

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E. P. Hamp

Aleut

SEE Eskimo-Aleut

Algebra

An algebra, *A*, is defined as a set of arbitrary elements together with one or more operations on that set. It may