

Forest Enets and Tundra Enets: how similar/different are they and why?

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Outline

1. Similarities/differences in lexicon and historical phonology
2. Similarities/differences in phonology
3. Similarities/differences in morphology
4. Similarities/differences in morphosyntax
5. Similarities/differences in syntax
6. Why is it so? – a sociogeographic explanation
7. Conclusion

Lexicon and historical phonology (1)

- Similarities:

Many lexemes

- Differences:

1) Regular phonetic correspondences (Helimski 1984/2000):

*ms, *ns, *rs: T *d^j*, F *z>s* (e.g. T *med^je*, F *mese* ‘wind’)

*ä in absolute beginning: T *e-*, F *na-* (T *e?*, F *na?* ‘mouth’)

*i in absolute beginning, not before a nasal: T *i-*, F *ji-* > *d^ji* (T *isi*, F *d^jisi* ‘grandfather’)

etc.

Lexicon and historical phonology (2)

- Differences:
 - 2) Cognate lexemes used for the same notion with irregular phonetic correspondences:

F <i>eba</i> , T <i>aburi</i> ‘head’	F <i>ɔtis-</i> , T <i>ɔpteso-</i> ‘smell (ipfv)’
F <i>seŋir-</i> , T <i>sɔɔro-</i> ‘look at (ipfv)’	F <i>barimagu-</i> , T <i>bariɔxo-</i> ‘barely, hardly’
F <i>ɔzaxu-</i> , T <i>ɔzeɔxo-</i> ‘that is why’	F <i>mense</i> , T <i>men'jeɔ</i> ‘old woman’
F <i>dʒɔsi-</i> , T <i>dʒudʒe-</i> ‘finish (pfv)’	F <i>kitʃi-</i> , T <i>kɔtʃi-</i> ‘almost’
F <i>dʒago</i> , T <i>dʒigoa</i> ‘there_is_no(ipfv).3SG.S’	
F <i>kanje-</i> , T <i>kane-/kanje-</i> ‘become (pfv; also means ‘leave’)’	
F <i>sɔjza</i> ‘good’ (adj), T <i>sɔu-</i> ‘be good (ipfv)’ (verb)	
etc.	

Lexicon and historical phonology (3)

- Differences:

3) Completely different lexemes used for the same notion:

F *u?*, T *tɔd̪i* 'you(sg)'; F *ud̪i?*, T *tɔd̪id̪i?* 'you(du)'; F *uda?*, T *tɔd̪ida?* 'you(pl)'

F *bu?*, T *n̪itoda* '(s)he'; F *bud̪i?*, T *n̪itod̪i?* 'they(du)'; F *budu?*, T *n̪itodu?* 'they(pl)'

F *n̪eku*, T *eŋa* 'one of, the second, the other'

F *teza?*, T *tʃinadj̪i* 'now'

F *bɔa* 'bad' (predic. adj), T *baa*, *ɔptʃi-* 'be bad (ipfv)' (verb)

F *ʃaru*, T *ɔma* 'tobacco'

F *bii*, T *ten̪i* 'mind'

F *ɔbu*, T *mii?* 'what'

F *ade*, T *d̪idu* 'нельма'

F *to*, T *tud̪iɔ* 'lake'

F *baza*, T *nau* 'word, language'

F *buuse*, T *baxo?* 'old man'

F *mɔdee-*, T *sooro-* 'see, look'

F *kɔzluj*, T *tubo* 'worm'

F *pɔlze-da*, T *logede-de* 'black'

F *n̪ami*, T *si?ɔro* 'tongue'

F *sɔse*, T *munoði* 'belly' (older people could remember F word *munoðe*)

4) Many lexemes are present in the both Enets lects, but their usage differs (e.g. in frequency)

Phonology: set of phonemes

- Similarities:

The same set of consonantal phonemes; almost the same set of vowel phonemes

- Differences [all represent recent sound changes, absent e.g. in Castrén 1854]:

- 1) In the system of vowel phonemes, F has /ɛ/, absent from T (F /ɛ/ corresponds to T /e/, and F /e/ corresponds to T diphthongs /ie/, /iɔ/ (Helimski 2007))
- 2) F has more consonantal allophones than T: [dʒ] and [tʃ] for /dʒ/, [s] for /z/, and [x] for /k/
- 3) In some morphemes /o/ > /u/ in F, and more rarely /e/ > /i/, while in T this sound change has not happened.

Phonology: syllable structure & word prosody

- Similarities:
 - 1) Syllable structure of root morphemes at phonological level: no closed syllables
 - 2) Syllable structure at phonetic level: closed syllables are possible due to vowel reduction
 - 3) Double/long vowels and their phonetic realizations
 - 4) Word prosody (i.e. stress)
- Differences [all represent recent sound changes, absent e.g. in Castrén 1854]:
 - 1) Syllable structure of affixal morphemes: closed syllables are possible in F, but not in T
 - final vowel reduction is typical for most F affixes (and so affixes whose form is different in the presence vs. absence of the final vowel only are not listed below as different in F and T)
 - 2) In T, consonant clusters in phonology are impossible outside Russian and Nenets loans, and in F they are very rare

Phonology: variation

- Similarities [all represent recent sound changes, absent e.g. in Castrén 1854]:
Most patterns of phonetic (=allophonic) and phonemic variation (zero realization of glottal stop; /e/~/i/, /ɔ/~/u/ in the 1st syllable)
- Differences:
 - 1) The vowel reduction is much more frequent in F than in T [recent]
 - 2) Some patterns of phonemic variation are attested in F only:
 - /ɔ/ ~ /a/ in F only (for two dozens of lexemes, e.g. /badu/ ~ /bɔdu/ 'tundra', /mal^je/ ~ /mɔl^je/ 'already', /d^jaza-/ ~ /d^jɔza-/ 'go (ipfv)', /ɔbu/ ~ /abu/ 'what');
 - /s/ ~ /z/ in F only (for two dozens of lexemes, e.g. /ɔsa/ ~ /ɔza/ 'meat', /sɔse/ ~ /sɔze/ 'belly', /mɔsa?a/ ~ /mɔza?a/ 'work');
 - /ɔ/ ~ /e/ in F only (for a dozen of lexemes, e.g. /tol^je/ ~ /tel^je/ 'here it is', /pizɔ?ɔ/ ~ /pize?ɔ/ 'scythe', /pɔd/ ~ /ped/ 'always').

Morphology: nominal inflection (1)

- Similarities:
 - 1) The same set of nominal inflectional categories and the same sets of their values
 - 2) The same system of inflectional classes (default vs. alternating, voiced alternating vs. voiceless alternating; default class has basic vs. plural possessive stems) + sets of forms derived from each stem, with 1 exception
 - 3) The same system of predicative forms, i.e. the same rules for the presence/absence of a copula
 - 4) The same subclass of defective locative nouns with archaic case markers (Dative F, T -?, Locative F -n, T -no, Ablative F -z, T -zo, Prolative F -on, T -one. E.g. F *badu* 'tundra', F, T *tɔse* 'lower part', F *inuku* 'near', T *te?i* 'upper part')
 - 5) The same reflexive, reciprocal, demonstrative, and interrogative pronouns, and those formed from them

Morphology: nominal inflection (2)

- Differences:
 - 1) DU: T NOM *-xɔ?* / *-kɔ?* / *-gɔ?* (*-xa?* / *-ka?* / *-ga?* with /a/-final stems), OBL *-xi?* / *-ki?* / *-gi?*; F *-xi?* / *-ki?* / *-gi?* does not differentiate between the two core cases
 - 2) Optional marker *-?* for Oblique is occasionally used in T and only very rarely in F with nouns of all inflectional classes
 - 3) Ablative PL: T differentiates between possessed and non-possessed Ablative PL forms: non-possessed *-xito* / *-kito* / *-gito*; *-xizo* / *-kizo* / *-gizo*, possessed *-xiti* / *-kiti* / *-giti*; *xizo* / *-kizo* / *-gizo*, *xizi* / *-kizi* / *-gizi*; F *-xit(i)* / *-kit(i)* / *-git(i)*; *-xiz(i)* / *-kiz(i)* / *-giz(i)*
 - 4) Translative : F *-Vʃ* (taking the last vowel of the stem, or rarely *-iʃ*), cf. F *ɔsa-aʃ* 'as meat', *entʃeu-ʔ-uʃ* person-PL-TRANSL 'as people' + differentiates Sg vs. Pl using 2 different stems
 - T *-ʔa* ~ *-ʔaj* (in free variation), rarely *-ʔe*, *-ʔej* with e-final stems, cf. T *nio-ʔa*, *nio-ʔaj* 'as a child, as children', T *enetʃe-ʔa*, *enetʃe-ʔaj* 'as a person/human, as people' + does not differentiate Sg vs. Pl

Morphology: nominal inflection (3)

- Differences:
 - 5) ‘Past’ possessive markers used with nouns in predicate position: 1SG F -*bitʃ* / -*mitʃ* / -*mitʃ* vs. T -*jidʒi* / -*midʒi* / -*midʒi*
 - 6) Stem used for locative cases of personal pronouns: F *nɔ-*/ne- vs. T *nɔɔ-*
 - 7) Only-series of personal pronouns uses different stems: a truncated one in T, a standard one in F (T: *mo-l̥io-no* ‘only me’, *mo-l̥io-n̥i?* ‘only us(du)’, *mo-l̥io-na?* ‘only us (pl)’ vs. F *modʒi-ruu-n?* ‘only me’, *modʒi-ruu-n̥i?*, ‘only us(du)’ *modʒi-ruu-n̥a?* ‘only us(pl)’)
 - 8) A series of pronouns formed from the same stem with different affixes: F *else* ‘such, this’, *tɔrse* ‘such, this’, *kurse* ‘what’ (<*-rəjä or *-rəje)
T *eloe* ‘such, this’, *tɔroe* ‘such, this’, *kuroe* ‘such, this’ (<*-rsä)

Morphology: numerals

- Similarities: the same system of simple numerals
- Differences

In F, complex numerals from 11 to 19 are built by one of the models: (i) + (ii) + (iii), or (i) + (ii), or (ii) + (iii).

(i) Ablative of *biu?*, *bi?* ‘ten’, (ii) numerals from 1 to 9, (iii) adjective *bɔzade* ‘surplus’.

<i>biu-koz</i>	<i>size</i>	<i>bɔzade</i>	<i>biu-koz</i>	<i>size</i>	<i>bɔzade</i>	F
ten-ABL.SG	two	surplus	ten-ABL.SG	two	two	surplus
‘twelve’			‘twelve’		‘twelve’	

In T, 11-19 for lesser units follow bigger units:

<i>biu?</i>	<i>size</i>	T
ten	two	
‘twelve’		

Morphology: verbal inflection (1)

- Similarities (1):
 - 1) The same system of Slavic-style aspect (Aorist, Probabilitive, and Suppositional refer to the present with imperfective verbs and to the past with perfective verbs; Perfect can have both present and past reference with imperfective verbs and always has past reference with perfective verbs)
 - 2) The same system of inflectional classes (default vs. alternating, voiced alternating vs. voiceless alternating). Default stems distinguish only 2 stems: basic vs. aorist-imperative.
 - 3) The same system of 16 cross-reference paradigms (S, SOsg, SOnsg, M * basic, past, imperative, contrastive).

Morphology: verbal inflection (2)

- Similarities (2):

4) Finite verb forms attested in both Enets lects with the same markers:

Perfect (F, T *-bi-* / *-pi-* / *-bi-*), Future (F, T *-da-* (*-za-*) / *-ta-* / *-da-*), Debitive (F, T *-tſu-* / *-dju-* / *-tſu-*), Probabilitive (F, T *-ta-*), Habitual (F *-ubi-*, T *-obi-*), Suppositional (F, T *-daraxa-* (*-zaraxa-*) / *-taraxa-* / *-daraxa-*), Auditive (F, T *-unu-*).

5) Non-finite verb forms attested in both Enets lects with the same markers:

Supine (F *-od^j*, T *-od^ji*), Conditional converb (non-inflecting F, T *-bu?* / *-pu?* / *-bu?*, *-b* / *-p* / *-b*; inflecting F, T *-bu-* / *-pu-* / *-bu-* (voiceless); Negative anterior participle (F *-uzaj*, T *-ozaj*)

6) The same way to form negation; the same negative verb (F, T *n^je-* and *i-*; *n^je-* functions as the aorist-imperative stem, *i-* as the other stems); the same word order in the negative construction

Morphology: verbal inflection (3)

- Differences (1):

- 1) Alternating verbs have different number of stems: 4 in T, 6 in F; T does not differentiate between F basic and extended, and between F habitual and nominalization.
- 2) Default stems have different rules for formation of aorist-imperative stem depending on the last vowel of the stem and the number of syllables in the stem.
- 3) Differences in individual cross-reference markers:

1SG.M: F -*j?*, -*bi?*, *b?* vs. T -*j?*, *bo?*, -*o?*,

3SG.M: F -*z?*, -*zo?* vs. T -*zo?*, -?

3DU.S: F -*xi?* vs. T -*xa?*, *xo?*, -*xi?*

3DU.M: F -*xi?* vs. T -*xo?*

3SG.S.IMP: F -*j*, -*bi* vs. T -*aba* (-*eba*)

3DU.IMP: F -*gi?* vs. T -*ago?*, -*agi?* (-*ego?*)

3PL.IMP: F -*j?*, -*bi?* vs. T -*aba?* (-*eba?*)

2SG.M.IMP – formed from extended or **reduced** stem in F, but from basic stem in T

Morphology: verbal inflection (4)

- Differences (2):

4) Finite forms attested in one Enets lect only:

F Hypothetical (-*dokoda*- (-*zokoda*-) / -*tokoda*- / -*dokoda*-) form, absent in T

F Prospective suppositional (-*udaraxa*-), absent in T

T Analytical Debitive V-*tʃuzɔ*- / -*tʃuzɔ*- / -*dʒuzɔ*- + *a* 'be' in Probabilitive, absent in F

5) Non-finite forms attested in one Enets lect only:

F Anterior converb -*xajaf* / -*kajaf* / -*gajaf*, absent in T

F Negative jussive converb (can be built from the negative verb only) -*do*-, absent in T

F Passive anterior participle -*duuj* / -*tuuj* / -*duuj*, absent in T

F Posterior participle -*uda*, absent in T

F Irreal converb of the copula only (*ɛ-bu-za*), absent in T

Morphology: verbal inflection (5)

- Differences (3):

6) Verb forms attested in both Enets lects, but with different markers:

Subjunctive: F *-n^ji-* / *-n^ji-* / *-n^ji-* vs. T *-i-* / *-i-* / *-i-*

Interrogative: F *-sa-* / *-tfa-* / *-d^ja-* (+ *-si-* for Interrogative of the negative verb) vs. T *-ba-* / *-pa-* / *-ba-*

Soft imperative: F *-guri-* / *-kuri-* / *-guri-* vs. T *-goa-* / *-ko^a-* / *-goa-* (unclear how similar are the functions)

General converb / Infinitive: F *-f* / *-tf* / *-d^j* vs. T *-e* / *-tfe* / *-d^je*

Simultaneous participle: F, T *-da* (*-za*) / *-ta* / *-da* vs. T *-de* (*-ze*) / *-te* / *-de*

Anterior participle: F *-j* vs. T *-sij* / *-tfij* / *-d^jij*, *-si* / *-tfi* / *-d^ji*

Simultaneous converb: T non-inflecting form *-bu?* / *-pu?* / *-bu?* and inflecting form *-bu?* / *-pu?* / *-bu?* (voiceless alternating) + Oblique possessive markers vs. F *-bu?uj* / *-pu?uj* / *-bu?uj* (default) + 1st person Oblique possessive markers, 2nd and 3rd persons Nominative markers

7) Nominalization has the marker F, T *-a*, but in F it has allomorphs conditioned by the last vowel of the stem: *-e* after /e/ and /i/, *-o* after back vowels.

8) Nominalization + Ablative in a converb-like function is formed in F in a different way as compared to standard nominalization vs. T only one way to form nominalization

Morphology: verbal inflection (6)

- Differences (4):
 - 9) Probabilitive: used in T with basic cross-reference vs. in F with contrastive cross-reference
 - 10) Interrogative expressing a probable event in the past: used in T with Probabilitive and basic cross-reference vs. in F with contrastive cross-reference
 - 11) Copula: in T, *a-* in all forms vs. in F, *ŋa-* in Aorist, Imperative, Jussive, Connegative, *ɛ-* in all other forms
 - 12) F modal-interrogative verb *ɔbjuta-* ‘what for’, absent in T
 - 13) Different intransitive verbal stems may take both S and M markers

Derivation: nominal

- Similarities:

Diminutive F, T -*ku*, F, T -*gu*, F, T -*kutʃa*;

Emotive Diminutive F, T -*kuji*;

Agent nouns F -*xaz* / -*gaz* / -*kaz*, T -*xazo* / -*gazo* / -*kazo*;

Place nouns F, T -*raa* / -*laa* / -*laa*

- Differences:

Derivations attested in both Enets lects, but with different markers:

Pejorative-Augmentative F -*je*, T -*dʒa*

Diminutive F -*tʃa*, T -*tʃu*

Non-productive action nouns F -*tʃu*, T -*tʃe*

Derivations: adjectival

- Similarities:

Diminutive F, T *-ku*;

Nominal adjectivizer F, T *-j*;

Comitative F *-saj* / *-tʃaj* / *-dʒaj*, T *-sae* / *-tʃae* / *-dʒae*;

Comparative F, T *-raxa* / *-laxa* / *-laxa*;

Numerical adjectivizer F, T *-de*

- Differences:

1) Derivations attested in both Enets lects, but with different markers:

Augmentative F *-lee*, T *-le?*

Comparative: F *-zurau* / *-turau* / *-durau*, T *-zorič* / *-torič* / *-dorič*

2) Derivations attested in F only:

F Attenuative *-jta*: *aga* ‘big’ > *aga-jta* ‘rather big’, absent in T

F Attenuative *-rka*: F *buuse* ‘old man’ > *buuse-rka* ‘elderly’, absent in T

F Locative adjectivizer *-ne*: *umu* ‘North’ > *umu-ne* ‘Northern’, absent in T

Derivations: adverbial

- Similarities:

Adverbs from adjectives are derived by the Prolative case marker F -on (-an), T -one (-ane)

- Differences:

F: adverbs are derived from nouns and adverbs with -noju:

pεufuma ‘evening’ > *pεufuma-noju* ‘in the evening’, *badu* ‘near’ > *badu-noju* ‘near’; with related to it Adverbial Diminutive -nokun, and presumably lexically restricted Adverbial Restrictive -nori (*pεufuma* ‘evening’ > *pεufuma-nokun* ‘more or less in the evening’, *sira* ‘snow’ > *sira-nori* ‘only in winter’)

T: a postposition *nɔɔ?* ‘on (directive)’ is used in this function, with a related Diminutive form (*sira* ‘snow’ > *sira nɔɔ?* ‘in winter’, *sira nɔɔku* ‘more or less in winter’)

Derivation: verbal

- Similarities:

Durative (F, T -go- / -ko- / -go-);

Multiplicative (F -r-, T -ro-);

Inchoative (F -ru- / -lu- / -lu-, T -ro- / -lo- / -lo-);

Inceptive (F -u-, T -o-);

Attenuative (F -jtu-, T -itu-);

Passive (F, T -ra- / -la- / -la-);

Causative (F, T -ra- / -la- / -la-, F, T -za-, F, T -ta-)

- Differences:

1) Derivations attested in both Enets lects, but with different markers: Causative F -da-, T -do-, -de-

2) Derivations attested in F only:

F Discontinuative -ga- / -ka- / -ga: F *bɛɛ-* ‘throw (pfv)’ > *bɛɛ-ga-* ‘throw from time to time (ipfv)’, absent in T

F Caritive -se-: F *sej* ‘eye’ > *sej-se-* ‘be blind (ipfv)’, absent in T

F marginal verbalizer -zi-: F *sɔbi* ‘path’ > *sɔbi-zi-* ‘use a path (ipfv)’, absent in T

Transcategorial markers

- Similarities:

Vocative (lengthening of the last vowel); Exclamative (F, T -*ɔu*, F, T -*ej*)
Topical (F -*xoa*, -*xoo* / -*koa*, T -*xoa* / -*koa* / -*goa*)

- Differences:

Derivations attested in both Enets lects, but with different markers:

Restrictive F -*ru* / -*lu* / -*lu* vs. T -*reo* / -*l̥eo* / -*l̥eo*

Insistive F -*xuru* / -*kuru* / -*guru* vs. T - *xoreo* / -*koreo* / -*goreo*

Morphosyntax: use of verbal forms (1)

- Similarities:
 - 1) Uses of Perfect, both absolute and narrative ones, are the same; uses of Aorist, Future, Debitive, Habitual, Passive, and Imperatives are the same (cf. detailed corpus studies)
 - 2) Aorist of the negative verb is used with the contrastive cross-reference to denote an emphatic positive statement.
- Differences
In T, negative clauses are widely used in positive contexts with an extra modal shade; this is possible, but rare in F

Morphosyntax: use of verbal forms (2)

EXAMPLE: Perfect

1) Inferential use of Perfect:

(1)	<i>buniki u-ta,</i>		<i>taxa-no-ju</i>		<i>biz</i>	<i>bar-xon</i>
F	dog	footstep-NOM.SG.3SG	behind-ADV-RESTR		water	border-LOC.SG
	<i>kan^je-bi</i>					

leave(pfV)-PRF.3SG.S

'A dog's footprint, it went further along the shore.'

(2)	<i>sira-xane</i>	<i>tea</i>	<i>ɔze-zo</i>		<i>ɔzi-?</i>	<i>kan^je-bi-?</i>
T	snow-LOC.SG	reindeer	be_visible(ipfv)-NOM.PL.2PL	be_visible(ipfv)-3PL.S		leave(pfV)-3PL.S

'Reindeer footsteps are seen on the snow. They left.'

Morphosyntax: use of verbal forms (3)

EXAMPLE: Perfect

2) Introducing/Opening use of Perfect at the beginning of traditional narratives:

(3)	<i>tɔnane-da</i>	<i>ŋob</i>	<i>nɛ</i>	<i>tɔnie-bi</i>
F	once-OBL.SG.3SG	one	woman	there_is(ipfv)-PRF.3SG.S

‘Once upon a time there was a woman’.

(4)	<i>ŋu?</i>	<i>aga</i>	<i>enetse?</i>	<i>ire-bi,</i>	<i>ne-saj</i>
T	one	big	person	live(ipfv)-PRF-3SG.S	woman-COM

‘There lived one old man with his wife.’

Morphosyntax: use of nominal forms

- Similarities:
 - 1) The same contexts of uses of core (Nominative vs. Oblique) and locational cases (Dative, Ablative, Locative, Prolative)
 - 2) The same contexts of uses of Destinative forms
 - 3) The same contexts of uses of Predicative forms
 - 4) The same patterns for DOM outside Destinative forms
 - 5) Discourse/referential use of possessive markers
- Differences

Patterns for DOM of Destinative NPs are different:

 - in F, Oblique is possible regular in other-benefactive (vs. self-benefactive) contexts,
 - in T, Oblique is possible regular in specific (vs. non-specific) contexts

Syntax: NP

- Similarities:

Syntax of NP is the same: word order, presence/absence of agreement between constituents and the head (including NPs with adjectives, NPs headed by numerals)

Syntax: PP

- Similarities:

Syntax of PP is the same

Syntax: simple clause

- Similarities:
 - 1) Word order is the same, including the position of particles.
 - 2) Expression of core arguments is the same, including cross-reference rules for direct objects (only topical objects) and distribution of the two ditransitive constructions by referential properties of their arguments.
 - 3) Syntax of agreeing adverbs is the same.
 - 4) Syntax of intensifier (F, T *kere-*) is the same.
 - 5) Syntax of non-verbal and interrogative clauses is the same.
 - 6) Syntax of coordination (including the set of possible coordinators) is the same

Syntax: clause combining (1)

- Similarities:
 - 1) Word order is the same
 - 2) All types of complement, relative, and adverbial clauses (except for different-subject purpose clauses) are formed the same way
 - 3) The same types of constituents can be relativized; the same rules for possessive marking of participles are followed
- Differences:
 - 1) Different-subject purpose clauses are sentence-like with verb in Subjunctive in F; in T, the postposition *ncc?* 'on' with Nominalization is used. In F, negative different-subject purpose clauses can also be marked by Negative jussive converb.
 - 2) More limited use of the Nominalization for complementation in F than in T
 - 3) F 'pleonastic' participle construction used, not attested in T

Syntax: clause combining (2)

EXAMPLE: ABL of the NMLZ for adverbial clauses of anteriority

- (5) *ccm-a-xazo-nji?* *peo-do* *ozima-zcu*
T eat(ipfv)-NMLZ-ABL.SG-OBL.SG.1SG outdoors-DAT.SG be_visible(ipfv)-INC-1SG.S.EXC
‘Having eaten, I went outside.’

- (6) *tʃeta?* *fuzibe-r* *oor-o-xozo-da* *to-zokoda*
F tomorrow giant-NOM.SG.2SG eat(ipfv)-NMLZ-ABL.SG-OBL.SG.3SG. come(pfv)-HYPOT-3SG.S
‘The next day, having eaten, the giant would come.’

Syntax: clause combining (3)

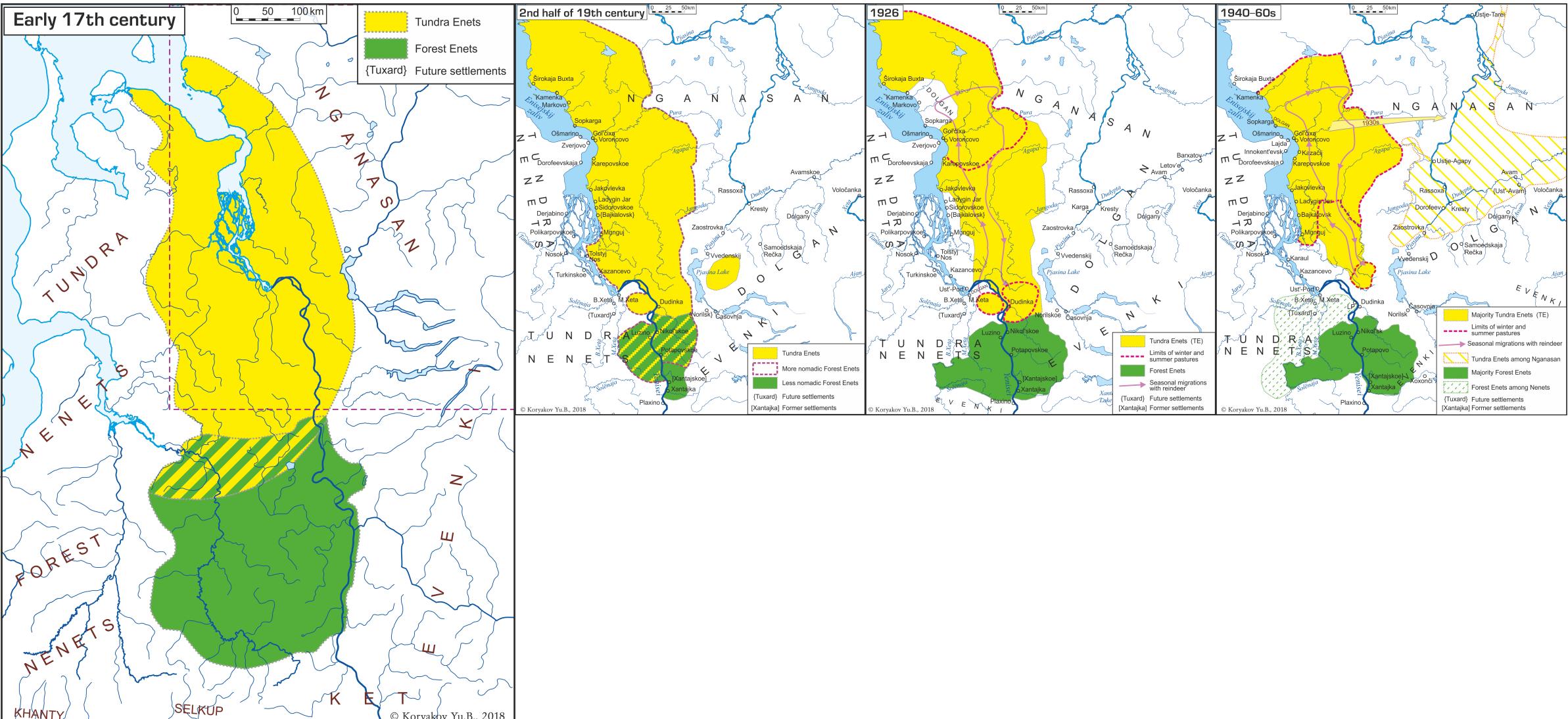
EXAMPLE: Participle as the strategy of relative clause formation

- (7) *badu-n d^jiri-da entʃeu-? tɔrse kamozo-raxa muj?-ubi-?*
F tundra-LOC. live(ipfv)-PTCP.SIM person-PL. Such house-CMP make(ipfv)-HAB-3PL.S
‘People who live in tundra make such a thing like a house.’

- (8) *kɔɔ n^jin ire-de ne-? nee-zu? name-reɔ-one
T ridge in. live(ipfv)-PTCP.SIM woman-PL child-NOM.SG.3P breast-RESTR-PROL.SG
ɔta-gɔ-zu?
feed(pfv)-DUR-3PL.SOsg
‘Women who live in tundra feed their children only with breastmilk.’*

Explanation: geographic facts

Khanina, Olesya, Yuri Koryakov & Andrey Shluinsky. 2018. Enets in space and time: a case study in linguistic geography. *Finnisch-Ugrische Mitteilungen* 42, 1-28.



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Results

- Massive differences in lexicon, historical phonology, and morphology suggest quite **a significant divergence in the past** (at least several hundreds years ago)
- Massive similarities in morphosyntax and syntax suggest **a secondary convergence** (that happened afterwards)
- Some recent phonetic/phonological processes suggest **a secondary divergence** (in the last 100 years, i.e. after Castrén)
 - > This development reconstructed from the linguistic data corresponds ideally to the geographic facts:
 - different territory in the 17th century (divergence),
 - shared territory in the 19th century (convergence),
 - different territory in the 20th century (divergence)

This scenario gives some explanation to the puzzle of the two Enets!