

UNIVERSITY OF TARTU
FACULTY OF ARTS AND HUMANITIES
INSTITUTE OF ESTONIAN AND GENERAL LINGUISTICS
DEPARTMENT OF FINNO-UGRIC STUDIES

Eda-Riin Leego

IŽMA KOMI DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS AND THEIR
PRAGMATIC USE

MA thesis

Supervisor: Prof. Gerson Klumpp

TARTU 2019

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Table of Contents	1
List of tables	2
Abbreviations	3
1. Introduction.....	4
2. Pragmatic use of demonstrative pronouns	7
2.1 Exophoric use	7
2.2 Endophoric use	8
2.2.1 Tracking use	9
2.2.2 Discourse Deixis use	9
2.3 Recognitional use	10
2.4 Using demonstratives as filler words	10
3. Ižma Komi and its demonstratives.....	13
3.1 Background on the Ižma Komi dialect and the Komi language.....	13
3.2 Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns	15
4. Empirical part	21
4.1 Variety of used forms	23
4.1.1 Stem variation	28
4.1.2 Accusative forms.....	32
4.1.3 Demonstrative pronoun <i>мия</i>	34
4.2 Pragmatic use	36
4.2.1 Exophoric use.....	36
4.2.2 Endophoric use.....	54
4.2.3 Recognitional use	66
4.2.4 Using demonstratives as filler words	68
4.2.5 Additional observations	72
5. Conclusions.....	73
Appendix: Data	77
References	86
Resümee	89

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1: Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns.....	15
Table 2: Declinational paradigms for (ə)тая and (ə)сьа.....	19
Table 3a: <i>s</i> -based forms	24
Table 3b: <i>s</i> -based forms with <i>e</i> -prefix	24
Table 4a: <i>n</i> -based forms.....	25
Table 4b: <i>n</i> -based forms with <i>e</i> -prefix.....	26
Table 5a: <i>t</i> -based forms.....	26
Table 5b: <i>t</i> -based forms with <i>e</i> -prefix.....	27

ABBREVIATIONS

All abbreviations in glossings are in accordance with the Leipzig glossing rules (<https://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php>). In addition the following abbreviations have been used:

ABE	–	abessive
CN	–	connegative
≡CNTR	–	contrast
CMP	–	comparative
DER	–	derivative
DP	–	discourse particle
EGR	–	egressive
ELA	–	elative
ILL	–	illative
INE	–	inessive
IP	–	index particle
PART	–	particle
PX	–	possessive suffix
=QP	–	question particle
(Ru.)	–	elements belonging to Russian
SF	–	short form of the pronoun
SUPL	–	superlative
TERM	–	terminative

1. INTRODUCTION

In the recent years the most notable work on researching Komi pronouns has been done by Galina Fedjuneva, whose monography “Первичные местоимения в пермских языках” (“*The Primary pronouns in Permic languages*”) (2008: 120) mostly focuses on the etymology and historical development of these pronouns. Her predecessors, most notably Klara Majtinskaja (1969), have done the same and pragmatical functions of these pronouns have stayed on the background. With this study I hope to offer a much needed insight into the role the demonstrative pronouns play in communication.

Demonstrative pronouns are deictic, meaning that we need context to understand their meaning. Many languages have a deictic system where spatial opposition plays a role. For demonstratives it means that different forms are used to indicate a distance contrast between the things that are referred to. According to Majtinskaja (1967: 147), same applied for the Proto-Finno-Ugric language, where demonstratives expressed the distance of the thing talked about, but also carried an anaphoric function. For spatial opposition, *t*-based demonstratives were used and the degree of distance was expressed by the stem vowel – front vowels were used for proximal demonstratives and back vowels for distal ones; there were also *s*-based demonstratives, which were used more for general indication or in anaphorical sense (Fedjuneva 2008: 75).

In contemporary Finno-Ugric languages the spatial opposition (where it still exists) can be marked in different ways, with some languages still mainly using the vowel alternation in *t*-based demonstratives and some having an opposition between *s*- and *t*-bases instead. Permic languages belong to the latter group, but that does not mean that the vowel alternation marking is totally gone in these languages (Fedjuneva 2008: 75, 118). In Permic languages the proximal demonstratives are *t*-based and the distal ones are *s*-based (Fedjuneva 2008: 119).

Personal pronouns have developed from demonstrative ones. While the 1st and 2nd person pronouns seem to have separated earlier on, being distinct already in the Proto-Uralic language, the 3rd person pronouns developed later. The *s*-based demonstrative

acted as a 3rd person pronoun in most Proto-Finno-Ugric dialects. In Permic languages the 3rd person pronouns started to develop, presumably, rather late, due to which they are still not fully personal, as they still have the role of general indication (Fedjuneva 2008: 140). Raja Bartens (2000: 163) writes that in Komi demonstrative and 3rd person pronouns are differentiated only in plural, since only the personal pronouns have the *s-n* opposition. While this holds true for the literary language and most dialects, as the plural for demonstrative pronouns is formed with the plural suffix *there*, it does not apply for the Ižma and Vym dialects, where the plural forms of demonstrative pronouns are also *n*-based (Fedjuneva 2008: 125, 146). These *n*-based plural forms are still separated into demonstrative and personal pronouns, but as will be featured in this study, it is questionable how clear-cut this separation actually is. The fact that the *t*-based proximal demonstrative pronouns can also be used in a 3rd person pronoun function further indicates the lack of a proper personal pronoun (Fedjuneva 2008: 141).

While in both grammars, that of the Komi Literary Language (Bubrix 1949) and that of the Ižma dialect (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976), demonstrative and 3rd person pronouns are handled as separate categories, as these works offer an overview of the language focusing on traditional categories. I do not feel the need to do the same in a work studying the pragmatic functions of these categories that are not actually fully distinguishable from each other. Thus this work will be about Ižma Komi demonstratives, some of which also carry the functions of 3rd person pronouns.

The nature of this work is exploratory, with an aim to describe the pragmatic functions of Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns, descriptions of which have so far been only theoretical and rather scarce. The Ižma Komi dialect was chosen for research because there exists a video corpus of Ižma Komi spoken language, which provides a good research material (videocorpora.ru, a more in depth description of the corpora will be given in chapter 4). In addition, the Ižma Komi demonstrative system is rich in forms and has some features that are not shared by the literary language or other dialects, making it a very interesting research subject. This variety of used forms also poses an additional research topic – mapping the forms that are actively used in today's spoken Ižma Komi dialect.

The thesis consists of five chapters. The following second chapter will introduce different deictic use types and pragmatic uses that have been described for demonstrative pronouns crosslinguistically. Based on theoretical literature I will create a classification of uses that I will later apply in the empirical part of my research.

In the third chapter I will introduce the Ižma Komi dialect and its demonstrative system, comparing it to the literary language and other dialects where needed.

The fourth chapter will be an empirical study of Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns. For that I will use the aforementioned video corpus at the Komi media collection. In the first part of this chapter I will introduce all the different forms of demonstrative pronouns that appeared in my material and analyze the possible reasons for their variation. In the second part I will try to describe patterns in the pragmatic use of these pronouns, relying on the theory introduced in chapter one.

The fifth chapter contains the conclusions, where I will summarize the observations I made in the empirical part and suggest ways to further study some appeared phenomena.

The work is also equipped with an appendix giving background information on the speakers who participated in the recordings where the examples are taken from. All the examples will be glossed and equipped with an English translation. A list of tables and a list of glossing abbreviations are given in the beginning of the work. I have chosen to present the examples and full forms of demonstratives in Cyrillic as they would be written according to Komi orthography. This choice was motivated by the fact that this work is probably mostly of interest to people who are already familiar with the Cyrillic script. When talking about phonemes, I use the IPA transcription. Different demonstrative stems are written in the Latin script, since they are not exclusive to Komi and are already mentioned in relation to other Finno-Ugric languages. For proper names and lesser known place names originally written in Cyrillic I use the scientific transliteration of Cyrillic. Place names that already have an established form in English will be referred to by them.

2. PRAGMATIC USE OF DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

As deictics, the main pragmatic function of demonstratives is to help us orientate in communication. Different types of deictic uses were first described by Karl Bühler (1934/1990) who separated them into three modes: ocular, anaphorical and imagination oriented deixis (*Deixis-am-Phantasma*). After him many researchers have introduced their own systems, added and regrouped usage types.

Below I will present the classification of different pragmatic usage types of demonstrative pronouns that I will further use in my work. I use the word *pragmatic* instead of *deictic*, because some of these types are less traditionally deictic than others. For example, in subchapter 2.4 I will describe the use of demonstratives when speakers are having word-formation trouble. While the categories presented below are established on the basis of the context of the reference, pronoun choices can also be affected by other things, for example the speaker's emotion towards the referent. John Lyons (1977: 677) calls this the emotional deixis, but it has also been called the affective deixis. Maria Averintseva-Klisch (2016) has written about pejorative use of demonstratives, which falls under a similar category.

2.1 Exophoric use

Holger Diessel (1999: 93) follows M.A.K. Halliday and Ruqaiya Hasan (1976: 57–76) and separates the deictic uses of demonstrative pronouns into *exophoric* and *endophoric*, with exophoric use referring to an entity present at the speech situation. Nikolaus P. Himmelmann (1996: 219) calls this use the *situational* use. The exophoric use has three distinctive features not shared by the endophoric use: it establishes a deictic center, it is distance sensitive (in languages that have demonstrative pronouns that contrast in distance) and it may be accompanied by pointing (Diessel 1999: 94). Himmelmann (1996: 220) writes that in languages with more than two demonstratives, only some of them are applicable for the exophoric use.

Charles Fillmore (1997: 63) distinguishes between two exophoric uses which he calls the *gestural* and the *symbolic* use. The gestural use requires a physical gesture to locate the referent in the surroundings, while with the symbolic use the listener has to activate their knowledge of the speech situation and the referent. In my work I will consider demonstrative uses where the entity referred to is present in the speech situation and could be identified by a gesture under gestural use even if a gesture doesn't occur, since if we go beyond first mention, in Komi present entities tend to be referred to exophorically also in later mentions.

Diessel (1999) and Himmelmann (1996) also consider the exophoric notion of *Deixis-am-Phantasma* 'deixis in the imagination'. Lyons (1977: 579) calls this use *deictic projection*. *Deixis-am-Phantasma* is a term coined by Bühler, who further divides it into three groups: in the first group, the speaker projects the imagined referents to their surroundings, and in the second, they project themselves into imagined surroundings where the referents are located. The third type is intermediate – both the speaker and the entity referred to stay in their real surroundings, but the speaker still sees it in their mind-eye and can gesture to the direction they see it in (Bühler 1934/1990: 149–152). This use can also be accompanied by pointing (Diessel 1999: 94–95).

2.2 Endophoric use

While the exophoric use draws its referents from the surrounding language-external context, the aim of the endophoric use is to create a language-internal coherence, with referring to entities from the surrounding discourse (Diessel 1999: 159). Diessel (1999) also considers the recognitional use endophoric, stating that his division is based on exophoric versus all else uses. I will not follow his classification here, as I feel that recognitional use could be looked at under a category of its own. I will however consider the other two endophorical uses from his classification under the same label.

2.2.1 Tracking use

While Diessel (1999: 95) calls this use the anaphoric use, Himmelmann (1996: 226) prefers the term tracking use, since *anaphoric* and *co-referential* are used in a wider sense. I am following Himmelmann's nomenclature, since the term anaphoric also plays a role concerning the discourse deictic discussed in the next subchapter.

Tracking use means the tracking of participants mentioned in a discourse (Himmelmann 1996: 226). Pronouns used for tracking are co-referential with a noun phrase appearing in the previous discourse (Diessel 1999: 95). In languages where demonstrative pronouns and 3rd person pronouns form different categories, both of them, as well as other devices, can be used for tracking, but there seems to be a difference in their function. Demonstrative pronouns are used less than 3rd person pronouns and they might signal low topicality of the referent or a problem with ambiguity that might otherwise arise. Demonstratives are sometimes also used for tracking right after first mention, this signals that the referent will be thematically prominent (Diessel 1999: 96).

2.2.2 Discourse Deixis use

A discourse deictic doesn't have a co-referential noun or a noun phrase, but it refers to an immediately adjacent proposition. Discourse deictics can refer both to previous (anaphoric) and following (cataphoric) parts of the discourse. In some languages the anaphoric and cataphoric use differ in form, for example in English, the proximal demonstrative *this* can be used both anaphorically and cataphorically if it refers to utterances produced by the same speaker and distal *that* can only be used anaphorically (Diessel 1999: 102–103). Discourse deictic use is usually not tracked further (Himmelmann 1996: 224–225).

Lyons (1977: 667–668) differentiates between pure text deixis and impure text deixis, the latter of which is the same as discourse deixis described here. Pure text deixis is an exophoric use instead, where the linguistical entities (lexemes, expressions etc) not their

meaning are referred to. Lyons also says that pure and impure text deixis are often hard to tell apart.

2.3 Recognitional use

Recognitional use means that the entity referred to should be recognizable from specific knowledge that the speaker and listener share. Uncertainty about how accessible the referent is for the listener usually prompts the speaker to use this tactic. Specifying information about the referent, or *you know?*-type tag questions that open up a possibility to ask for specification may accompany the recognitional use. The recognitional use often refers to participants with low topicality and is thus not tracked further. While it can appear as a first mention in a given conversation, it can also refer to participants already mentioned. In the latter case it can be hard to tell apart from tracking use (Himmelmann 1996: 239). Recognitional use can only occur adnominally (Diessel 1999: 93). Auer (1984) has discussed recognitional use using the term *indexicality marking*. Lakoff (1974) marks the sympathetic nature of the deixis, calling it *emotional deixis*.

2.4 Using demonstratives as filler words

In his book Diessel (1999: 154) writes about demonstratives grammaticalizing. He mentions the use of demonstratives as signals of hesitation as one of the examples of a currently ongoing grammaticalization process. Himmelmann (1996: 234–236) mentions hesitation as one of the characteristics of recognitional use. Makoto Hayashi and Kyung-Eun Yoon (2010: 34–35) argue that while demonstratives used in hesitant contexts can be functionally similar with the recognitional use, the differences are big enough for this category to receive separate attention. They single out two functions the demonstratives may occur in when the speaker has trouble formulating a word: the placeholder and the interjectional hesitator.

A placeholder, produced when the speaker has trouble coming up with a word, takes on the syntactic role of the word searched and participates as a constituent of the sentence. When using a placeholder, the speaker already knows what they want to convey, they just have trouble coming up with a specific lexical item. The placeholder serves as a referent for the more specific lexical item which it substitutes. Demonstratives can also be constituents of fixed expressions that function as placeholders. Placeholders can look similar to cataphoric demonstrative use, but the main difference is the motivation: placeholders are used when the speaker has problems with lexical retrieval, the cataphoric use is not associated with that. Also the demonstrative forms used for cataphoric reference and placeholders can be different. Same goes for differentiation between the recognitional and placeholder use – different demonstrative forms may be applied: recognitional always being adnominal, while placeholder tends to be pronominal. Even when the placeholder use is adnominal, the following noun isn't usually descriptive like with recognitional uses, but generic – *place, thing* etc. Placeholders also don't have additional anchoring expressions like recognitional use often does. The requirement of shared knowledge between speakers is also something that the placeholder use doesn't imply. The main divergence seems to lie in the type of trouble the speaker is facing. With recognitional use the trouble lies in the fact that the speaker is not sure if the reference produced by them is accessible enough for the hearer. With placeholder use it is coming up with the referent that troubles the speaker (Hayashi and Yoon 2010: 36–43).

Interjectional hesitators also signal a delay in producing the next item in discourse, but, unlike placeholders, they don't fill a syntactic role. They can come up anywhere during an utterance and they don't have a referent. Since they have no referent they are further removed from the standard usage of demonstratives. Hayashi and Yoon make sure to distinguish the process the interjectional hesitator demonstratives have gone through as pragmaticization not grammaticalization, since while the demonstratives used like this haven't moved in to a new restricted grammatical role, they do serve a new pragmatic role. In many languages interjectional hesitators don't only signal trouble with coming up with an utterance, they also serve pragmatic functions, such as signaling upcoming conversational moves. For example, in Japanese and Korean they can signal a change in

the conversation topic. They can also be used as conversation starters, so called “attention-getters”, which means that while not referential, they still have some pointing value, drawing the listener’s attention to where it is needed (Hayashi and Yoon 2010: 43–47).

In an earlier article, Hayashi and Yoon (2006: 501–507) also mention a third type of demonstrative use when the speaker has trouble formulating a word – the *avoidance use*. Similar to the placeholder use, these demonstratives serve as a syntactic constituent and have a referent, but the trouble with producing the lexical item is not cognitive but rather social. One of the subtypes of this use is the *taboo use*, where instead of a taboo name, a demonstrative is used for a lexical entity that the speaker doesn’t want to say out for some reason, being it the fear to offend or something else.

3. IŽMA KOMI AND ITS DEMONSTRATIVES

In this chapter I will give a brief introduction of the Ižma Komi dialect and, as much is needed in regard to studying one of its dialects, the literary Komi language. The main focus of this chapter will be on introducing the demonstrative system of Ižma Komi and the pragmatical functions of the demonstratives as much as they are described.

3.1 Background on the Ižma Komi dialect and the Komi language

Ižma Komi, one of 10 Komi dialects, is spoken by Ižma Komis, whose traditional place of inhabitation is in northern Komi Republic, by the Ižma River. First Komi settlements in these areas date back to the 16th century, when Komis from Udora and Vym Okrugs moved up north. During the 19th century the Ižma Komis expanded their area, moving east and settling along the middle course of the Pechora River, along the Usa River and finally also establishing their villages beyond the Ural Mountains, on the Ob river. Some Ižma Komis also moved west, settling on the Kola Peninsula. Today Ižma Komi settlements outside of the Komi Republic can be found in Tyumen Oblast in Yamalo-Nenets and Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug and in Arkhangelsk Oblast in the Nenets Autonomous Okrug and in the Murmansk Oblast (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 3–4).

The exact amount of Ižma Komi speakers is hard to pinpoint. In 2002 and 2010 Russian census it was possible to mark yourself as an Ižma Komi, separate from just Komi. Kirill Istomin and Juri Shabaev write in their article “Ižma Komi and Komi-Permiak: Linguistic Barriers to Geographic and Ethnic Identity” (2016) that while there has been some historical opposition between northern and southern Komis, this separate ethnic identity (endonym *Iz'vatas*) is a recent thing and common only for Ižma Komi speakers who live along the Ižma River. According to the 2010 Russian census 228,235 people in the Russian Federation had considered themselves Komi and 6420 people Ižma Komi. The general language statistics don't separate the two, marking only the number of Komi speakers as 156,099. Separate statistics made by Okrugs do mark Ižma Komi

speakers in the Komi Republic separately though, reporting that out of 202,348 Komis in the Komi Republic 130797 considered themselves Komi speakers and out of 5725 Ižma Komis 5387 could speak their native language (VPN). The fact that according to the census 94% of Ižma Komis know their language while the same goes for only 65% of Komis supports the notion that marking yourself as an Ižma Komi in that census is more a question of strong self-identity than it actually being a strongly separated group. This means that there most likely are speakers of Ižma dialect who have just marked themselves as Komis and Komi speakers in the census, thus the actual amount of Ižma Komi speakers is not be visible from the census.

Main contact languages for the Ižma dialect have been Russian and Nenets from north, Russian and the Vym dialect from west, the Upper Vyčegda dialect from south and the Pechora dialect from east (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 3).

As can be seen below, the demonstrative system of Ižma Komi has many features different from the literary language and other dialects.

3.2 Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns

As stated in the introduction, in this work I will not consider demonstrative pronouns and 3rd person pronouns as separate categories, as in the Komi language and its Ižma dialect they have not fully separated, but rather some demonstrative pronouns also fill the function of 3rd person pronouns.

Demonstrative pronouns in Ižma Komi can be divided into proximal and distal:

	Proximal	Distal
Singular	тая, та этая, эта	сыя, сы эсія, эсыя, эсы этія, этіі, эты
Plural	(ная, на) эная, эна	(ныя, ны) энія, эніі, эны

Table 1: Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns (Fedjuneva 2008: 399–400; Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 74)

In Table 1 we can see the *t-s* opposition between the proximal and distal demonstrative pronouns that is also present in the literary language, where the proximal demonstrative pronouns are *майö* and *эмайö*, and the distal ones *сийö* and *эсийö* (Bubrix 1949: 109–110). In addition, we can see a stem-vowel based opposition between *t*-pronouns: the open vowel /a/ occurs in the proximal demonstratives *этая* and *эта*, and the closed vowels /i/ and /i/ in the distal demonstratives *этія*, *этіі*, and *эты*. This kind of stem-vowel based opposition (open : closed, or back : front), common also to some other Finno-Ugric languages, is not preserved in the literary language, but it can still be found in some dialects, for example the Udora and Lower-Vučegda dialects also have *t*-based demonstratives with a back vowel in the stem, *тія* and *тыя* respectively, that carry a distal meaning. These kinds of forms are preserved in even more dialects, as well in Ižma Komi, with the prefix *э-* attached to them, although in many of these dialects they have lost the distal indication (Fedjuneva 2008: 123; Popova and Sažina 2014: 171).

The distal demonstrative *сыа* is also used in the 3rd person pronoun function as is *сйӧ* in the literary language (Bubrix 1949: 109; Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 64).

Raja Bartens (2000: 163) writes that in Komi demonstrative and 3rd person pronouns are differentiated only in plural, since only the personal pronouns have an *s-n* opposition. In most dialects and the literary language this holds true, since the plural forms for demonstratives are formed with the general plural marker *-jas* (*тайӧ-яс, этайӧ-яс, сйӧ-яс, эсйӧ-яс* in the literary language) and a separate *n*-based form (*найӧ* in the literary language) acts a 3rd person plural pronoun. In the Ižma dialect, though, the plural forms of demonstratives are also *n*-based, as we can see from Table 1 (Fedjuneva 2008: 125). Besides the Ižma dialect this kind of plural formation can only be found in the Vym dialect¹. While this contradicts the *s-n* opposition being a dividing criteria between 3rd person pronouns and demonstrative pronouns, we still see different forms listed as Ižma Komi 3rd person plural pronouns and plural demonstrative pronouns in the Ižma dialect chrestomathy (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 64, 72): *эная, эна энія, энии, эны* are named as demonstratives and *ныа* and *ная* as personal pronouns. The difference between *ныа* and *ная* is explained as *ныа* being used for referents that are not in sight, less close or less know and *ная* for referents that are in sight, and closer or more known. This kind of spatial distinction is in fact common for demonstrative pronouns, not personal ones (Himmelmann 1996: 210–211). Visibility (Diessel 1999: 41–42) and recognizability (see Jarbou 2010 about Arabian Jordanian) have also been described as characteristics that can be conveyed by the choice of demonstrative pronoun. All this suggests once again, that the personal pronouns can not be considered fully separated from the demonstrative ones. While Saxarova and Sel'kov (1976: 75) suggest that the opposition between aforementioned demonstratives *эная, эна* and *энія, энии, эны* comes from a similar opposition between *ная* and *нія, ныа*, at the same time considering them as personal pronouns, Fedjuneva (2008: 146–147) writes that she has not seen such a spatial opposition between *ная* and *нія, ныа* in her Ižma Dialect data. She also argues that the declinational paradigm and postpositional constructions for 3rd

¹ In Vym, the *n*-based plural is only formed for a proximal demonstrative, the plural distal demonstrative is formed from the *s*-based distal demonstrative plus plural suffix (Fedjuneva 2008: 125, 400).

person plural pronoun are based on the *ны-* stem of *ныа* and a separate paradigm for *ная* is missing, meaning, that while the *n-*stem is not fully separated from the demonstrative pronouns, it is moving towards it, having lost the spatial opposition. Based on my data I would argue that the *на-* stem is still productive for some speakers and in today's language use the choice between these pronouns seems to depend more on the individual speakers and their geographic and/or sociolinguistic background (see chapter 4.1.1).

What concerns number, Fedjuneva (2008: 144–145) also writes that in Komi-Permyak the singular form of the 3rd person pronoun (*сыа*, here described as a singular distal demonstrative pronoun) can be used in a plural meaning, but that in Komi such forms have not been noted. In the Ižma Komi corpus I have found a few examples where the speakers use *сыа* and *сия* to refer to plural subjects (see chapter 4.2.2.1).

All Komi demonstratives, both singular and plural, can attach an *e-*prefix (Bubrix 1949:110). Fedjuneva considers it to most likely be a borrowing from Russian, where it was especially widely used in Northern-Russian dialects, which were the main contact language of Komi (2008: 108–110). In older Russian the *e-*prefix was added to *t-*-based demonstrative stems to mark proximity and it could also appear unattached from these forms. In today's language we see the *e-*prefix in Russian demonstrative pair *это-то*, where the first one is proximal and second distal (Černyx 1952: 195). In Komi dialects, including Ižma Komi, it does not carry a spatial notion but is rather just an amplifying expressive element. The fact that the *e-*prefix doesn't contribute to the spatial opposition in any way is also seen as a proof of it being a loaned element. In Komi-Permyak, on the other hand, it still has a function in expressing proximity, with the opposition in most dialects and the literary language being between proximal *эта* or *этия* and distal *сия*. This kind of distinction suggests that the *e-*prefix was borrowed rather late. In the other Permic language, Udmurt, this prefix does not appear nor does it in any other Finno-Ugric language (Fedjuneva 2008: 123, 125–127; 130–131).

Demonstrative pronouns inflect like regular nouns, the case ending is added to the short form of the pronoun: *та*, *сы* or *ны*, all of which can also appear with the *e*-prefix, and *эты* (Fedjuneva 2008: 134–135). In Table 2 I will present the declinational paradigms for (э)*тая* and (э)*сыа* and next to it the paradigms for corresponding literary language forms (э)*тайӧ* and (э)*сийӧ*.

	Ižma Komi	Literary Komi	Ižma Komi	Literary Komi
Nominative	(э)тая	(э)тайӧ	(э)сыа	(э)сийӧ
Genitive	(э)талэн	(э)талӧсь	(э)сылэн	(э)сылӧсь
Ablative	(э)талысь	(э)талысь	(э)сылысь	(э)сылысь
Dative	(э)талы	(э)талы	(э)сылы	(э)сылы
Accusative	(э)тае	(э)тайӧс	(э)сие	(э)сийӧс
Instrumental	(э)таен	(э)таӧн, тайӧн	(э)сыен	(э)сыӧн, (э)сийӧн
Comitative	(э)такэд	(э)такӧд	(э)сыкэд, (э)сыкедэ	(э)сыкӧд
Abessive	(э)татэг	(э)татӧг	(э)сытэгя	(э)сытӧг
Consecutive	(э)тала	(э)тала	(э)сыла	(э)сыла
Inessive	(э)таын	(э)таын	-	(э)сыын
Elative	(э)таысь	(э)таысь	(э)сыысь	(э)сыысь
Illative	-	(э)таӧ	-	(э)сыӧ
Approximative	(э)талань	(э)талань	(э)сылань	(э)сылань
Egressive	(э)тасьянь	(э)тасьянь	(э)сысьянь	(э)сысьянь
Transitive	-	(э)тати	(э)сыті, (э)сытіыс ²	(э)сыті

² In Ižma Komi the transitive form *сытіыс* is only used when the demonstrative pronoun is used in a 3rd person function (Fedjuneva 2008: 392, 401).

Terminative	(э)таедз	(э)таөдз	(э)сьедз	(э)сьөдз
Preclusive	-	-	-	(э)сьсьа ³

Table 2: Declinational paradigms for (э)тая and (э)сьа (Fedjuneva 2008: 392, 401, 403–404; 405–406)

From Table 2 we can see that case endings, that in literary language would contain the vowel *ö* [ə], appear with *e* [e] in the Ižma dialect, as is to be expected due to the vowel change $\text{ə} > \text{e}$ in non-initial syllables. The accusative case formation also differs: in literary language the accusative marker *-ös* [əs] is used, while in the Ižma dialect no *s* appears. In plural the accusative form would be *ние* and in Lovozero, Murmansk Oblast *ные* is also used (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 66).

All Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns have almost a full declinational paradigm with the exception of *сьа*, *эсьа*, *эсья* and *нья* not declining in illative and inessive, *тая*, *этая*, *эная* in illative and transitive, *этия*, *этий* in inessive, illative and transitive and *эняя*, *эний* in transitive (Fedjuneva 2008: 389, 404, 406, 408, 410, 412). Some of these forms are rarely used though, for example Fedjuneva (2008: 136) writes that the *t*-based demonstrative with a front vowel in the stem that in many dialects is preserved in forms with the *e*-prefix – in Ižma Komi distal *этия*, *этий*, *эты* – has in theory a full declinational paradigm, but its use is questionable, since in spoken language they usually appear in the nominative form and fill a modal particle role. In chapter 4.2.4 I will discuss their use as demonstrative fillers and discourse markers.

When used pronominally, demonstrative pronouns inflect for case. In adnominal use demonstrative pronouns appear in their full form only in nominative and accusative case, agreeing with the head noun, for other cases the non-inflected short form is used. If the adnominal demonstrative is a prepositional possessor, it will appear in full genitive form with a nominative head and full ablative form with an accusative head, otherwise it will also appear in the short form. Short forms are also used for postpositional

³ In the literary language the preclusive case form *сьсьа* and its plural counterpart *насьа* only appears if the demonstrative pronoun is used in a 3rd person pronoun function (Fedjuneva 2008: 392, 401).

constructions. Postpositional constructions can exist parallel with many case forms, carrying the same meaning. In adnominal constructions with demonstrative pronouns the head usually attaches the 3rd person possessive suffix (Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976: 69–71, 75–77). Popova and Sažina (2014: 172) write almost 30 years later that in Ižma dialect both long and short forms can be used as adnominal demonstratives. In my material the short forms appear rarely outside of postpositional constructions, with the exception of *эма* and *эна* which can also appear pronominally.

As already mentioned in the introduction, pragmatic functions of these pronouns are described scarcely – Fedjuneva has mentioned the modal particle function of *этия* in spoken language and Saxarova and Sel'kov (1976: 77) mention the placeholder function of *майму* and lexicalized construction *сы мый*, first of which should already be considered a grammaticalized particle.

4. EMPIRICAL PART

The empirical part of my study is based on the data available on an online video corpus consisting of recordings made during field works for the project “Ižva Komi: Building an annotated digital corpus for future research on Komi speech communities in northernmost Russia” (<https://langdoc.github.io/IKDP>). It consists of 45 recordings made from 2014 – 2016 during field works to the Districts of Ižma and Sosnogor in the Komi Republic, the Nenets Autonomous Okrug and Murmansk Oblast. Most of the recordings are in interview form, with an Ižma dialect speaking interviewer asking the interviewees questions about their life, but some of the recordings also feature Ižma dialect speakers presenting songs and *chastushkas* or participating in a workshop. All the recordings are from 20 minutes to one hour long and feature 196 speakers of the Ižma dialect between 12 and 86 years old. The corpora also features 16 older audio recordings. All the recordings are transcribed and, at least to some extent, translated into Russian and English.

For my analysis, I first created a database using all the video recordings that were conducted in an interview form and had a Russian and English translation. That criteria was matched by 15 recordings featuring 19 different Komi speakers. A longer description for each of the recordings used can be read in Appendix: Data. The database consists of all instances of demonstrative pronoun use in these recordings, altogether amounting to 1610 instances. From these 1610 instances 261 were omitted from the analysis because they were (i) used by a non-native interviewer, whose use of language, while surely very interesting on its own, doesn't give a real overview of how the language is used by native speakers, (ii) they were a part of false starts and interrupted speech acts, making it hard to determine, what the speaker wanted to convey with the uttered pronouns (not to be confused with demonstratives used for word-formation trouble, which will be described in chapter 4.2.4), (iii) they were a part of lexicalized constructions (the placeholder constructions used in case of word-formation trouble were included to the analysis and will be discussed in chapter 4.2.4) or (iv) they didn't actually appear in the conversation and were probably transcribed mistakenly. This

number also contains 17 instances left out because the motivation for the pronoun use was left too ambiguous for me. Some of these instances are probably uncorrected mistakes, but they were categorized separately in case of future research. That leaves 1349 instances that I analyzed and grouped into different demonstrative usage categories, which I will discuss below, when I describe the pragmatic functions of the analyzed pronouns. In addition, in some cases where the initial database seemed inconclusive, I also used other recordings from the corpus to gather additional data on certain phenomena. These instances will be separately marked and the necessary metadata will be given in the text when they appear.

In chapter 4.1 I will present all the forms that were used according to my data and analyze their variation and possible motivations for it through some examples.

In chapter 4.2 I will describe the observed pragmatic functions of these pronouns. For that I will use the theoretical background knowledge from chapter 1. In my analysis, I focus on the form of the demonstrative, whether it appears pronominally, adnominally or in other constructions, the function it fills in the sentence and number and animacy of the referent it conveys. I also pay attention to extralinguistic elements like gestures.

4.1 Variety of used forms

In this chapter the variety of used forms will be discussed. Tables 3–5 show all the 1610 instances and the forms they were transcribed as in my initial material.

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
сы	Short form	48	44
сыа	Nominative	492	439
сія ~ сја	Nominative	49	45
сіяс ⁴	Nominative	1	1
сіе	Nominative / Accusative	174	135
сійö	Nominative	44	13
сійöс	Accusative	2	1
сіес	Accusative	52	49
сылöн	Genitive	8	5
сылэн	Genitive	47	46
сылы	Dative	33	30
сылысь	Ablative	1	1
сіен ⁵	Instrumental	21	9
сыкöд	Comitative	8	4

⁴ The actual form uttered is most likely *сія*, since I don't hear an /s/ element in the end, but the transcription could have been motivated by the fact that in this context the form is semantically plural.

⁵ Some instances of *сіен* were left out of the analysis since this form has also grammaticalized into a conjunction (meaning 'because of that') and thus they can't be considered demonstrative pronouns. The origins of this conjunction do seem to be in a deictic use, more precisely discourse deictic.

сыкед	Comitative	15	15
сыысь	Elative	12	12
сыын	Inessive	1	1
сыэ ⁶	-	1	0

Table 3a: *s*-based forms

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
-	-	-	-

Table 3b: *s*-based forms with *e*-prefix

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
на	Short form	5	5
ны	Short form	6	6
ныа	Nominative	44	42
ная	Nominative	125	109
наа ⁷	Nominative	11	11
найö	Nominative	23	12
нае	Nominative / Accusative	18	11
наес	Accusative	18	16

⁶ The form sounds like *сыа* and is a part of a lexicalized construction.

⁷ Forms transcribed as <наа> in the corpus seemed to actually represent either *ныа* or *ная*, but due to the phonetic ambiguity of these instances, it was often hard to tell.

нiе	Accusative	9	8
нiес	Accusative	1	0
ные	Accusative	3	3
ныес ⁸	Accusative	1	1
найöс	Accusative	1	1
налöн	Genitive	6	4
налэн	Genitive	20	16
нЫлэн	Genitive	20	19
налы	Dative	9	9
нЫлы	Dative	8	8
нЫлысь	Ablative	2	2
налысь	Ablative	2	1
нЫысь	Elative	1	1
накöд	Comitative	1	1
ныкед	Comitative	4	4
накед	Comitative	6	6

Table 4a: n-based forms

⁸ Listening to this instance, it sounds rather ambiguous and the other instance of plural accusative use for this speaker is transcribed as (and sounds like) *наес*. If we search for the form *ныес* in the corpus, we find one other speaker, not included in the initial data, who supposedly uses this form in addition to *наес*. In her speech a different vowel instead of /a/ is a bit more clearly heard in the *ныес* instance. Of course to know if these unconventional forms are a real strategy motivated by something or perhaps just phonetical mishaps or examples of free phonetic variety, we would need more than just a few examples.

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
эна	Short form	1	1
энія	Nominative	1	1
эная	Nominative	1	1
энае	Nominative	1	1
энаес	Accusative	1	1

Table 4b: n-based forms with e-prefix

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
та	Nominative	7	5
тая	Nominative	23	19
тія	Nominative	1	1
тайӧ	Nominative / Accusative	21	5
тае	Accusative	62	36
таес	Accusative	1	1
таысь	Elicative	2	2

Table 5a: t-based forms

Form	Case	Quantity in the transcription	Used for analysis
эта	Short form	78	75
этая	Nominative	8	8

этаа ⁹	Nominative	20	20
этія	Nominative	12	12
этае	Accusative	7	7
этаес	Accusative	1	1
этіе	Accusative	4	1
эталэн	Genitive	3	3
эталысь	Ablative	1	1
это* ¹⁰	Nominative*	1	1

Table 5b: *t*-based forms with *e*-prefix

In Tables 3–5, most of the forms are already familiar from subchapter 3.2, but there are also forms not mentioned previously: (i) in addition to the expected nominative forms *тая, этая, сыя, ныя, ная, этія* we see the literary language forms *тайӧ, сійӧ* and *найӧ* and *тае, сие* and *нае* that we would expect to see only in accusative function; (ii) there is also *тія* which is reported to be a distal demonstrative pronoun in Udora and Lower-Vučegda dialects but not in Ižma, and (iii) *сія ~ сиа*, which is the nominative form of the singular distal demonstrative in most other Komi dialects besides Ižma (Popova and Sažina 2014: 163). We also see that both *ныя* and *ная* are used quite a lot and other cases formed from the *на*- stem also exist. In the following subchapters I will discuss all these phenomenas in more detail.

⁹ Forms transcribed as <этаа> in the corpus often sounded like phonetically ambiguous forms of *эта, этая* or *этае*.

¹⁰ The pronoun *это* is Russian not Komi. This was the only instance where a Russian pronoun appeared in otherwise Komi context and is counted in because of that. Other appearances of Russian pronouns were not included because they were always used in a codeswitching situation, meaning that the lexical context surrounding them was also Russian.

4.1.1 Stem variation

According to the transcription of the interviews, 6 out of 17 speakers used both *ныа* and *ная*, 2 speakers used *наа* in addition to *ныа*, 7 used only *ная* and 2 did not produce neither of the forms. When it comes to other cases, 3 used both *на-* and *ны-* based case forms besides nominative, 6 only *ны-* based forms, 6 only *на-* based forms and 2 didn't produce any of these case forms. While this is the description according to the transcription, the real use might differ a little, since some of the forms were hard to distinguish due to unclear pronunciation or technical problems. In the case of two speakers who supposedly use both *на-* and *ны-* based non-nominative case forms, I clearly hear a base different from the one transcribed, making the amount of speakers who in these recordings produce case forms with both stems only one. The solitary *наа* forms used by speakers who otherwise used *ныа* and other *ны-*-based forms also seems questionable and might not be a consciously motivated choice for another pronoun, but a phonetically ambiguous form where the first vowel /i/ is shortened. It still seems that both, *ныа* and *ная* can be used by the same speaker, but I did not detect a pattern in these uses. For example, there was one speaker who used *ныа* only once versus *ная* 19 times and all other case forms of that pronoun were also *на-*-based (short form *на*, accusative *наес*, comitative *накед*, dative *налы*, ablative *налысь*). The one instance where *ныа* was used is the following: the interviewee is talking about her home village, how there used to be kolkhoz but now there isn't and many people don't have a job, so they breed horses and grow everything themselves. The *ныа* used in the following example refers to the village people, but there is actually no co-referring NP – the village is mentioned and the following verbs occur without an overt subject, but with a 3rd person plural marker.

(1) АЕКан'ева and ВИКан'ев: 23:20–23:37

АЕК: *Олэны, картошка уна быдтасны да эта, зэй*
live.PRS.3PL potato a_lot grow.TR.FUT.3PL and DEM.PROX very

уна малина быдтэны деревняас да. Овоци
a_lot raspberry grow.TR.PRS.3PL village.INE3SG and vegetables
ставыс вед быдме: огурцы, помидор, морков,
all.PX3SG DP grow.INTR.PRS.3SG cucumber tomato carrot
капуста свекла **Нья** на всю зиму ставсэ
cabbage beetroot DEM.PL for_all.ACC_winter.ACC (Ru.) everything.ACC3SG
быдтэны, ставсэ солаласны.
grow.TR.PRS.3PL everything.ACC3.SG salt.FUT.3PL

‘People live, grow a lot of potatoes, lot’s of raspberries grow in the village and. All the vegetables grow: cucumbers, tomato, carrot, cabbage, beetroot. They grow and salt everything for the winter.’

If the speaker really differentiates between *ная* and *нья* in function, this example raises at least two theories in addition to the spatial and/or emotional distance mentioned by Saxarova and Sel’kov: (i) *нья* is chosen because the topic shifts from the activities done in the village (and the village people implied to be doing them) to the vegetables that grow there and then back to the village people (this time personalized) or (ii) that before personalizing the village people, they are only referred to by person endings on the verbs and their identity is only implied by the association: village = people who live there. We do see a similar situation with the use of *ная*, though. In the following example the interviewee tells how there is not much left in her home village, only school and some other things, prompting the following exchange with the interviewer:

(2) АЕКан’ева, ВІКан’ев 24:49–24.57

MSF: Сэн тоже начальнэй классъ-яс только, да?
there also beginning_grade(Ru.).PL only_yes(Ru.)
велэдэны Устеас?
teach.PRS.3PL Uste.INE3SG

АЕК: Оз. Эні до восьмого **ная** велэдэны.
NEG.PRS.3SG now until_eighth.GEN(Ru.) DEM.PL TEACH.PRS.3PL

‘MSF: There are also only the beginning grades, right? taught in Uste? АЕК: No. Now they teach until the 8th grade.’

Here the subject is again only implied by the collective noun school and before only verb endings are used to imply the subject. This leaves the topic-change theory, since I'd expect the impersonal villagers and impersonal teachers of Uste to be on the same end of the scale both in spatial and emotional distance. All uses of *ная* tracked a continuing topic. But looking at other speakers who use both *ная* and *ныа*, this pattern does not seem to continue. This of course doesn't rule this out as a motivation for this specific speaker: I have also theoretized about similar motivation for the use of *эна* in examples (48) and (49). In general, the only pattern that seems to be emerging is that some speakers have a preference for *на*-based forms and some for *ны*-based forms. This could have something to do with the speaker's backgrounds, like the people from the Komi Republic who come into closer contact with other dialects and the literary language preferring *на*-based forms, but this would need a bigger database and some additional information on the speaker's sociolinguistic background to be confirmed. Also a third form – *ния* – can be found from the additional recordings in the corpus, making the picture even more diverse. I do think that the tendency to prefer one pronominal stem and the possible motivation for choosing the pronoun for the speakers who still use multiple variables should definitely be studied further.

In the following examples the same referent is referred to with different based pronouns by different speakers:

(3) NNČuprov 00:36–00:48

MSF: *Краснощельеас* *Тіян* *ай-мамныд* *олісны?*
 Krasnoshchel'e.INE3SG PRO.2PL.GEN father-mother.PX.2PL live.PST.3PL

NNC: *Но.*
 DP

MSF: *А* *ная* *кытысь* *локтісны?*
 but DEM.PL where.ELA come.PST.3PL

NNC: *Ныа,* *ныа* *волісны* *ныа* *Ловозерасянь.*
 DEM.PL DEM.PL be.PST.3PL DEM.PL Lovozero.EGR

‘MSF: Did your mother and father live in Krasnoshchel’e? NNC: Yes. MSF: But where did they come from? NNC: They, they, from Lovozero were they.’

In the following example *налэн* and *нылэн* both refer to the Nenets people whose clothing they are discussing:

(4) DAKан’eva 01:06:15–01:06:22

MSF: *А на-лэн вöли сертэм?*
 but DEM.PL-GEN be.PST.3PL pattern.ABE

DAK: *Ны-лэн сертэм, ны-лэн мужикъясыслы*
 DEM.PL-GEN pattern.ABE DEM.PL-GEN man.PL.PX3SG.DAT
нойтор пуктасныс
 cloth_piece put.FUT.3PL

‘MSF: And theirs was without pattern? DAK: Theirs was without pattern, for their men they put a small cloth ...’

A nominative form *сия* ~ *cia* instead of expected *сыя* is used by 9 speakers. For five of them it seems to be an isolated case and due to phonetical ambiguity and the fact that the isolate case doesn’t seem to differ from the use of *сыя* (or probably adnominal short form *сы* in one case) that they use in all other instances, it could just be a mistake in the transcription or a random moment of phonetical ambiguity as can happen in spoken language. The other four use it regularly though, one uses it parallel with the literary form *ciйö* and nominative *cie* which will be discussed in the next paragraph and three speakers use it parallel with *сыя* according to the transcription. Backgroundwise these speakers are rather different – two of them are from southern Ižma areas, one from northern and one from Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug. For all of these speakers, the phonetic difference between the parallel versions seems not very clear and in some cases non-existent to me, making me believe that while their pronoun use might vary on the phonetic scale, there is no systematical motivation behind it. This is also supported by the fact that these differently transcribed pronouns don’t seem to differ in function when compared to others. If we look at the whole corpora, we can see the *сия* form also

used by some speakers not included in the initial data. While some of the forms transcribed as *ciя* seem to be accusative *cie* instead, we also find some speakers who seem to use *ciя* regularly, if not exclusively (with the phonetic ambiguity of some forms it is hard to tell). Interestingly one of them is from the Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug, one from the southern part of Ižma dialect area and one, although she is from the Nenets Autonomous Okrug herself, mentions that their mother was from Ust'-Ižma, the same village that one of the northern Ižma speakers using *ciя* was from, so a geographical picture is starting to form, although based on way too little data to make any real conclusions.

4.1.2 Accusative forms

We see the nominative use of forms *mae*, *cie*, *hae*, which by Ižma declination should be the accusative forms. This phenomena is most clearly seen in a speaker who also regularly uses literary forms. With *cie* and *hae* it seems again to be a case of phonetical ambiguity of spoken language for the other four people who, according to the transcription, use these forms in a nominative context, but with *mae* the nominative use seems a bit more common and in addition to the speaker with strong literary language influence can be seen in the speech of 7 speakers. Such use is not mentioned in theoretical literature about the Ižma dialect, which could mean, that is a newer tendency, maybe an influence of the literary language, where the literary forms undergo the $\ddot{o} > e$ phonetical change that happens in non-initial syllables in the Ižma Dialect. This theory is supported by the fact that the speakers who most clearly use these forms as nominatives have a background connecting them to the literary language.

We can also see variation in the accusative case, which should traditionally be marked with an *-e* in the Ižma dialect: forms like *maec*, *ciес*, *haec*, *hiес*, *эhaec* and *эmaec* are additionally marked by *-s* which is a traditional component in the accusative marking only for the the literary language and few other, southern dialects (Fedjuneva 2008: 401, 403). According to the transcription we see *s*-marked accusatives in the speech of 10 informants. 6 speakers who use *s*-marked accusative form *haec* don't use an *s*-less

parallel form to that, but out of 7 speakers who use *s*-marked accusative form *ciec*, only one doesn't use it parallel to *cie*. 2 of those 7 speakers use *ciec* only once and in all those cases I don't really hear the *s*-marking, meaning, it could just be a mistake in the transcription. *S*-marked singular forms seem to be used mostly by educated and younger speakers, making it possibly a literary language influence.

We can also see the 3rd person possessive accusative suffix sometimes attach to the pronouns. This marking doesn't actually signal an accusative case form but is an emphatic clitic, described in that function along with the second person singular possessive accusative *-mō* first by Bubrix (1949: 55–56) who marks its contrastive function and compares it to Russian enclitic particle *=mo*. The functions of this clitic has later been discussed by Boris Serebrennikov (1963), Vadim Ponarjadov (2000) and Gerson Klumpp (in preparation). The pronoun *cie=cə* used in example (5) does have this contrastive reading with the contrast between not being sure in some things but knowing this particular thing.

(5) DAKan'eva 01:09:23–01:09:26

DAK:	<i>Абу</i>	<i>татысь,</i>	<i>cie=cə</i>	<i>ме</i>	<i>тöда</i>
	NEG	here.ELA	DEM.DIST.ACC=CNTR	PRO.1SG	know.PRS.1SG

‘Not from here, that I know (...)’

I did however find an instance from the rest of the corpus where this suffix was used with a pronoun to as accusative marking. In the recording titled *Иван Андреевич Артеев* the interviewee is using the form *таясə* as accusative, since the adnominal construction acts as an object to the verb ‘forget’.

(6) Иван Андреевич Артеев 04:54–05:06

IAA: кучемке толчок для себя дать, чтобы ме иэ
some_kind push_for_self_give_so_that(Ru.) PRO.1SG NEG.PRS.1SG
вуньд тая-сэ культура, таясэ кыв
forget DEM.PROX-ACC3SG culture DEM.PROX-ACC3SG language

‘(...) give somekind of a push to myself, that I won’t forget this culture, this language
(...)’

This example is a bit problematic though, since the language proficiency of the speaker is not very good – he often struggles to express himself and mentions that his family language switched to Russian when he went to school. In that case it might offer some interesting research material for studying language loss.

The accusative form *ные*, used in Murmansk Oblast according to Saxarova and Sel’kov (1976: 66), appears 3 times in the transcriptions of the recordings I used, used twice by a speaker from the Komi Republic and once by a speaker from the Murmansk Oblast. From the rest of the corpus we also find a speaker from the Nenets Autonomous Okrug, who uses *ные* three times, and a speaker from Murmansk oblast who uses it twice. All except for the last one also use *ние* according to the transcription and when listening to the supposed *ные* forms, they don’t sound very distinct from the *ние* forms produced by same speakers. This could just point to a slight phonetic variation, not necessarily separate forms. The speaker who only uses *ные* has a rather clear /i/ vowel in the pronoun though, showing, that this form is definitely still used.

4.1.3 Demonstrative pronoun *тия*

The form *тия* appears in my initial data only once, when the interviewee is talking about one of her relatives and then mentions the relative’s brother:

(7) ДАКан’ева: 01:01:17–01:01:22

ДАК: Вот эни вокьис тай тия з’овно
IP now brother.PX3SG DP DEM.DIST shit

татэн шляйтче, да оз тӧд.
 here.INE loiter3SG and NEG.PRS.1SG know.CN

‘Well now his brother, that shit, loiters around here and I don’t know.’

It is also possible that the form used is actually *этия*, but the preceding /i/ melts together with /e/, making it hard to distinguish the form.

This form appeared a few more times in another recording that wasn’t used for my initial data. In the recording titled *Дети оленеводов* the form *тия* could be more clearly heard and was used as a placeholder both times.

In the following examples the interviewed kids are recalling animals they have seen in tundra.

(8) *Deti olenevodov* 05:52–05.55

ОАК: *Да, тия дзодзегьяссэ.*
 yes DEM.DIST goose.PL.ACC

‘Yes, whatchacallit, geese.’

(9) *Deti olenevodov* 06:07–06:10

ОАК: *Тія мый, абу енот=а?*
 DEM.DIST what NEG raccoon=QP

‘What’s that, not raccoon?’

4.2 Pragmatic use

4.2.1 Exophoric use

In my database I have categorized 112 instances of demonstrative use as exophoric, making up about 8%. This low statistic is largely due to the nature of the material – the interviewers usually ask people about the lives they have led, not so much about the immediate surroundings.

According to my data, for exophoric use, *t*-based demonstratives are usually chosen and the spatial opposition is conveyed by the differing stem vowels. There are a few cases where an *s*-based demonstrative seems to be used exophorically – those examples and their possible motivation will also be discussed under the subtype they represent.

Since the exophoric use is rather unrepresented in my data, additional examples have been searched for and used from the corpus, especially concerning the spatial opposition and expected *n*-based plural forms.

4.2.1.1 Gestural use

The gestural use refers to an exophoric use of the demonstrative, where the referent is located by a pointing gesture. As mentioned in chapter 2.1 I will also discuss gesturless references to present entities under this use, if they could be identified by a gesture if needed, since this will play a role in the non-initial mentioning of these entities. In my data this kind of use made up 7 of the 112 exophoric uses. In my initial data only *t*-based proximal forms appear: *ma*, *mae* and *эма*.

The forms *ma* and *эма* are short forms of *мая* and *эмая* respectively. While the short form *ma* appeared in a postpositional construction as is to be expected, *эма* was used pronominally. In the following example the interviewee is talking about her handicraft

skills and how her grandson took some slippers for sale. When talking about slippers she stretches out her legs and the interviewer points to interviewee’s slippers and asks:

(10) DAKan’eva 17:38–17:39

MSF: *Эта асьныд вуриныд?*
DEM.PROX.SF PRO.REFL.2PL sew.PST.2PL

‘Did you sew these yourself?’

This example is interesting for three reasons: (i) pronominal demonstratives are expected to appear in their full form, (ii) we would expect an accusative marked form here since the slippers are an object to the verb ‘sew’ and (iii) the referent is plural and in Ižma the stem for plural forms is *n*-based. The plural use of singular pronouns is something that keeps occurring in my data under other uses also as we will see in the upcoming subchapters. The pronominal use of a short form is also not an isolated case here, but it seems to be restricted to *эма* in my data (for the possible pronominal use of *эна* see example (48) on page 59). While out of the scope of this paper, this raises some questions about possible convergence with *это* – the proximal demonstrative pronoun in Russian, the most influential contact language for the Komi language today.

The form *мае* appeared both ad- and pronominally in my data and represented the nominative form in all these cases. In the following example the interviewer is pointing to the building they are standing next to and asks what it is:

(11) APFilippov: 22:36–22:39

MSF: *Кутшем нэ мае зданиеыс?*
what_kind DP DEM.PROX building.PX3SG

APF: *Тае склад.*
DEM.PROX warehouse

‘MSF: What is this building? APF: This is a warehouse.’

Example (11) also brings up the topic of non-initial mention of present entities. As shown in chapter 4.2.2.1 the pronoun of choice for tracking participants is almost always *s*-based. This means that when the referent is present in the speaker's surroundings, it can be continued to be mentioned with an exophoric *t*-based pronoun.

The statistic of only seven gestural uses is very low for getting an overview of the exophoric use of demonstratives. For that I searched the corpus for recording where the gestural use was more prominent. As a result I found 2 recordings where gestural use was more present.

Firstly a recording titled *Мастер-класс по изготовлению традиционных кукол-оберегов* 'A workshop on making traditional talisman-dolls'. The only background information given is that it is recorded in Ižma, but we can recognize some of the interviewers as participants of the workshop. The main speaker in the video is the woman (marked by initials VVA) who is leading the workshop and who we can assume is an Ižma Komi speaker. In the beginning she introduces different types of dolls. Example (12) is taken from the introduction of one of the doll types.

(12) *Мастер-класс ... 00:51–59; 01:08–01:13*

VVA:	<i>эта</i>	<i>кудз</i>	<i>бы</i>	<i>сувенирнэй</i>	<i>вариант</i>	<i>нин.</i>
	DEM.PROX.SF	like	COND(Ru.)	souvenir	variant	already
	<i>Зэй</i>	<i>интереснэй</i>	<i>тая,</i>	<i>дельнэй</i>	<i>образыс</i>	<i>та-лэн</i>
	very	interesting	DEM.PROX	practical	form.PX3SG	DEM.PROX-GEN
	<i>куклаыслэн</i>	<i>Вот</i>	<i>сы-лэн</i>	<i>важъя,</i>	<i>важен</i>	<i>сэтием</i>
	doll.PX3SG.GEN	IP	DEM.DIST-GEN	old.ADV	old.INE	like this

'(...) this would already be like a souvenir version. This one is very interesting, this doll has a practical form (...) Well it has [it] in old style, in old times that kind (...)'

We can see that the doll is first mentioned by an *e*-prefixed short form *эта*, but then referred to with pronouns without the *e*-prefix. We see a similar pattern in her introduction of another dolls. Since there are more than one doll present at the situation, the initial mention with the prefix probably signals the contrast from other dolls. When the referent has already been established, it doesn't have to be emphasized anymore. We can also see that the same referent will be referred to with an *s*-based pronoun a bit later.

One way would be to still consider it an exophoric reference, where the use of an *s*-pronoun is motivated by something, but I think it just goes to show that when a situationally present entity has been established as a referent, further mentions could go either way - be continuingly exophoric or be endophoric tracking.

From the corpus we also find a recording titled *Ирина Викторовна Канева*. The interviewee is a woman from and living in Murmansk Oblast born in 1959 and a big part of her recording is her talking about dolls she has made. The collection of dolls is on the table in front of her and she also introduces them separately. This prompts a lot of gestural demonstrative use – I counted the amount of these instances to be 34, this also includes the forms produced by the interviewer, Marina Fedina. According to the transcription the following demonstratives were used for exophoric gestural use: proximal *тая, тае, таес, эта, этая, этаа, этае, этия, нае* and distal *этия* and *эния*. The forms *эта, этая* and *этая* sounded rather ambiguous to me at times and I consider it possible that some of them could be transcribed as others instead. The one instance of *нае* also sounded like *энае* to me, which would also be more expected, if we consider the *n*-forms without the *e*-prefix to be more personal pronoun like and the forms with the prefix more demonstrative like. Looking at the forms which include both proximal and distal demonstratives according to the theoretical literature about *Ižma* demonstrative pronouns, we would hope to see some kind of opposition between these forms. In the following examples the speaker uses the distal plural form *эния* when she refers to all the dolls that are in front of her, but when she introduces the different dolls one by one, she exclusively uses *t*-based proximal demonstratives: *эта, этая* and *этае*.¹¹ It should also be noted that while the plural distal adnominal *эния* modifying an accusative head stays in its nominal form, the singular proximal adnominal *этая* takes on the accusative form *этае* in front of an accusative head.

¹¹ The speaker seems prone to codeswitching to Russian, which also happens during introducing the different types of dolls. Then the whole utterance is said in Russian and the Russian demonstrative pronoun *это* is used. Example (timestamp 05:27–05:29):

Но это пусть будет уже сразу жених.
 DP DEM.PROX OPT.PART be.FUT.3SG already soon groom

‘Well this one will already soon be a groom.’

(13) Ирина Викторовна Канева 05:00–5:18

IVK: *А энія кукляссэ ме велэди,*
and DEM.DIST.PL doll.PL.ACC3SG PRO.1SG study.PST.1SG
Ветлі Нарьян-Маре, вёліс семинар Да, карны
go.PST.1SG Naryan-Mar.ILL be.PST.3SG seminar yes make.INF
вот именнэ энія кукляссэ.
IP exactly DEM.DIST.PL doll.PL.ACC3SG

‘And these dolls I learned to (make), went to Naryan Mar, (there) was a seminar ... Yes, make exactly these dolls.’

(14) Ирина Викторовна Канева 06:03–06: 09

IVK: *А вот этае кукласэ ме кари,*
but IP DEM.PROX.ACC doll.ACC3SG PRO.1SG make.PST.1SG
этае уже атюм кари кукласэ ...
DEM.PROX.ACC already (Ru.) PRO.RELF.1SG make.PST.1SG doll.ACC3SG

‘But this doll here I made, this one I already made myself, the doll ...’

The instance where (э)нае is used is when the interviewer asks about the dolls not having faces:

(15) Ирина Викторовна Канева 09:43–09:55

MSF: *А мыля вот тая куклясылэн, но, висьталам,*
but why IP DEM.PROX doll.PL.PX3SG.GEN DP say.PRS.2PL
чужемыс абу рисуйтэма?
face.PX3SG NEG draw.PERF

IVK: *А чужемыс абу, кукла-оберег энае, оберег да*
a face.PX3SG NEG doll_talisman(Ru.) DEM.PROX.PL talisman and

‘MSF: But why these dolls, well, let’s say, why the face is not drawn on? IVK: There is no face, these are doll-talismans, talismans and (...)’

The choice of proximal versus distal demonstratives doesn't seem to come from a clear distal opposition in these examples, since the dolls are on the table in front of the interviewee the whole time and the interviewer sits just opposite from her, so the dolls are close to both of them. The singular distal demonstrative *этия* is also used three times by the interviewee, two of which can definitely be considered exophoric gestural use.¹² In example (16) the interviewer asks about the size of the interviewee's doll collection and she signals to the same dolls on the table, saying that this is what's left and in example (17) the interviewee decides to gift one of the dolls to the interviewer.

(16) Ирина Викторовна Канева 17:42–17:47

MSF: *И ыджыд=э Тиян коллекцияыс кукла?*
 and big=Q PRO.2PL.GEN collection.PX3SG doll

IVK: *А вот этия колис мый.*
 a IP DEM.DIST be_left.PST.3SG what

‘MSF: And is your collection of dolls big? IVK: This is what's left.’

(17) Ирина Викторовна Канева 19:43–19:46

IVK: *Но вот этия ме бабсэ, навернэ, тэныд*
 DP IP DEM.DIST PRO.1SG woman.ACC3SG probably PRO.2SG.DAT
сета, нөдарок.
 give.PRS.1SG gift

‘Well this woman, probably, I will give to you, a present.’

¹² The third example isn't referring to the dolls anymore, the interviewer is searching for a picture of the woman who taught her to make dolls from a magazine and when she finds it and shows it to the interviewer (and the filming crew), she says (timestamp 21:10–21:12):

Вот таенэ, этия. Вот она.
 IP(Ru.) IP.PROX DEM.DIST IP(Ru.) PRO.3SG.FEM (Ru.)

‘Look, here, this. Look, she.’

The referentiality of *этия* isn't as clear here as in other examples and it might be a hesitator of some sort instead.

Example (15) also raises two observations. Firstly, the adnominal *тая* is modifying a clearly plural marked noun and, secondly, while the interviewee exclusively uses forms with the *e*-prefix attached, the interviewer does not. The function of the *e*-prefix has not been described well, but some sort of emphasis has been marked. Looking at the demonstrative instances produced by the interviewee, we can see some kind of contrast in all of them – in the beginning between earlier mentioned store-brought dolls and self-made dolls, then between the individual dolls and in the case of example (16) between the dolls she used to have and the ones she has now. The interviewer however just talks about the dolls in sight and doesn't have to emphasize them or contrast with anything.¹³ As the data presented has already shown, the amount of variation between different forms used by different speakers is quite big. Due to this I find it also important to mention that the interviewee in the discussed recordings is (one of the) only people who uses an *s*-based pronoun with the *e*-prefix (see example (50)) and whose *n*-based plural personal functioning pronoun of choice seems to be *ни́я*. If Ižma Speakers really do have rather different pronominal systems they apply, these observations might be in relation with her constant *e*-prefix use and the use of *эни́я*. This is of course only a speculation, since most other recordings don't offer a setting for the exophoric demonstrative pronoun use to really come out.

4.2.1.2 Symbolic use

While the gestural use of a demonstrative requires a gesture to locate the referent, the symbolic use does not, instead the listener has to activate their knowledge of the speech situation. In my data the symbolic use counted for 17 instances and the following demonstratives were used: *тае, тая, эта, этаа, этае, этаес, эна, эная*.

¹³ The interviewer also uses the the accusative form *тае* or *таес* a few times to refer to the activity of doll making, which we can probably consider exophoric gestural use, although she is behind the scene and we can't actually see any accompanying gestures.

The demonstratives conveying symbolic exophoric use were mostly used adnominally. This seems expected to me, considering the interview form of the recordings.

(18) AJTerent’ev 07:04–07:10

AJT: *Мый мянэс никод из вунэд, и*
 COMP PRO.2PL.ACC PRO.NEG NEG.3.PRS forget and
сыа актуальнэй тая мирас.
 DEM.DIST topical DEM.PROX world.INE3SG

‘So that no one would forget us and that is topical in this world.’

(19) MVFilippova 01:04–01:08

MVF: *Вот, а сэсся ме эстче локті, потому что*
 IP but after PRO.1SG here.ILL come.PST.1SG because(Ru.)
зэй ёна любита этаес просторьяссэ.
 very strong.ADV love.PRS.1SG DEM.PROX.ACC open space.PL.ACC3SG

‘So then I came here, because I love these open surroundings very much.’

In one case the demonstrative actually followed the noun it was modifying. The postnominal position of the demonstrative is most likely related to a topic switch. Example (20) is from a recording made in Ižma during a forum¹⁴ where the interviewer came to participate in. After one of the conversation topics (differences between speech between the local people and what the interviewer is used to) kind of gets stuck, the interviewer decides to change the topic. He chooses the forum currently happening around them as a new conversation topic and asks:

(20) LPČuprova 05:01–05:05

VPC: *Но, ладнэ. А мый сетэ тэныд личнэ*
 DP okay but what give.PRS.3SG PRO.2SG.DAT personally

¹⁴ Probably the big Ižma Komi festival called “Lud” or a part of it, since many of the interviews with people who are from outside of Komi Republic are made during it.

форумыс тae?
 forum.PX3SG DEM.PROX

‘Well, okay. But what does this forum give you?’

There was also one instance of pronominal use, prompted by the interviewer mentioning something about almost drowning while visiting a place near there yesterday. The interviewee then refers to the flood outside with a pronominal *эта*, because it is clear from the context what she is referring to.

(21) АЕКан’eva & ВІКан’ev 44:28–44:38

MSF: *Да, тöрыт тай ми ветлим, этиа иг нöдэ.*
 yes yesterday DP PRO.1PL go.PST.1PL little NEG.1PL drown

АЕК: *Аaa. Хехе. Эта мян быд тулыс, эстчедз.*
 aaa hehe DEM.PROX PRO.1PL.GEN every spring here.TERM

‘MSF: Yes, yesterday we went, nearly drowned. АЕК: Аaa, haha. We have this every spring, up to here.’

In example (19) we saw the adnominal singular demonstrative modifying a plural marked head. In my data there is a speaker who also uses a plural pronoun in an adnominal construction where the head is plural marked. Before that she also uses a singular form in a similar construction, but that one has another singular modifier, which might play a role in that specific pronoun choice.

(22) ДАКан’eva 07:32–07:38

ДАК: *Тae тай ме этиа бöр луньяс=сэ бура*
 DP DP PRO.1SG DEM.PROX last day.PL=CNTR good.DER

виси, *эная* *лунъяс=сэ* *өттөрье* *вися* ¹⁵
 ail.PST.1SG DEM.PL day.PL=CNTR constantly ail.PRS.1SG

‘ Well, these last days I strongly ailed, these days I constantly ail (...)’

While with the symbolic use gestures aren’t necessary to locate the referent, they may still appear. In the following example the interviewer has asked the interviewee why she chose to stay in Naryn Mar after leaving the reindeer herding life in tundra, instead of moving back to her home village for example. The interviewee explains that all her children have gotten married to this area and so on. She mentions the apartment she lives in and where the interview is taking place, saying that it was given to her husband after they left tundra. The utterance is accompanied by looking around the apartment and gesturing with hands. I think it would be understandable even without gestures that she means the same apartment that surrounds them during the discussion, the gestures are used as an extra not main device here.

(23) ДАКан’ева 42:58–43:01

ДАК: *И* *эмае* *квартирасэ* *дедколы* *сетисныс.*
 and DEM.PROX.ACC apartment.ACC3SG old_man.DAT give.PST.3PL

‘And this apartment was given to my husband.’

When it comes to *e*-prefix forms versus prefixless forms, the comparison is a bit harder to do since in this subcategory most of the forms are produced by different speakers and the strategies they use might differ. A contrast seems unlikely in some examples, like number (22) where the flooding doesn’t really contrast with anything.

¹⁵ *Этая* is originally transcribed as *эма*, and *эная* as *эмае*, but I hear the long nominal forms. The accusative marking on the head nouns is the emphatic clitic described on page .

4.2.1.3 Deixis-am-Phantasma

Deixis-am-Phantasma meaning ‘deixis in the imagination’ is used when the speaker either projects themselves to an imagined surrounding or an imagined referent to their current real surroundings. With 79 instances, this kind of use was the most prevalent exophoric use in my data which is also to be expected due to the nature of the material – the interview format favours narrations and descriptions of things, situations and places that aren’t really there. In a way this was also the motivation of deictic use easiest to misclassify since the speakers could slip in and out of their imagined deictic grounds even during the same conversation topic. In the instances I classified as Deixis-am-Phantasma following demonstrative pronouns were used: *тая, тае, тайö, эта, этаа, этая, этае, эталэн, эталысь, энаес, накед, этия, эти, эния* and *сылэн*. The demonstratives in this use appeared both pronominally (42 instances) and adnominally (37 instances) and referred to both animate and inanimate entities.

In chapter 2.1 I described the three types of this use, all of which were also accounted for in my data. While I didn’t subclassify all the examples of Deixis-am-Phantasma use, I will now present some more illustrating and interesting examples of the different type uses I came across.

In the first type the speaker projects an invisible entity to their surroundings and refers to it as it is there. In example (24) the interviewer wants to know how does the interviewee, who is a reindeer herder know which fawns belong to which reindeer? She makes hand gestures that point to an imaginary fawn and an imaginary reindeer.

(24) APFilippov 12:28 – 12:31

MSF: *А вот кудз тэ тöдмалан, но кудз мукедыс*
 but IP how PRO.2SG know.PRS.2SG DP how other.PX3SG
вообще тöдмалэны, мый тае тае
 DP know.PRS.3PL COMP DEM.PROX DEM.PROX
теляыслэн көртийс?
 reindeer.PX3SG.GEN fawn.PX3SG

‘But how do you know, well how does anyone know at all, that this is this reindeer’s fawn.’

The second use type is the opposite – instead of the referred entity the speaker projects themselves into another place. In example (25) the interviewee is talking about how some Russian people in Komi Republic are opposed to studying Komi at school. He then goes on to quote them, shifting the deictic centre to another place and also person:

(25) AJTerent’ev 15:12 – 15:19

AJT: *мый* *вылэ* *тая* *коми кылыс* *колэ,*
 what on.ILL DEM.PROX Komi language.PX3SG to_be_needed.PRS.3SG
тая *всё равно* *кулас.* *Сёрнитэны сёмын*
 DEM.PROX anyway(Ru.) DIE.FUT.3SG speak.PRS.3PL only
сиктъясын да *бабъяс-дедъяс,* *томъяс*
 village.PL.INE and grandmother.PL_grandfather.PL young.PL
сиен *оз* *сёрнитны.*
 DEM.DIST.INST NEG.3PL speak.INF

‘ (...) for what is this Komi language necessary, it will die anyway. It is spoken only in villages and (by) grandmas-grandpas, young people don’t want to speak it.

The third use type is described as intermediate by Bühler. In example (26) the interviewee is describing how the town of Naryan Mar has changed and how it would have been nice if they would have left the centre of the town more like it was in the old days. When mentioning the bad big houses she points behind her with her thumb.

(26) АЕКан’eva and ВИКан’ev

АЕК: *Да,* *топ мый нэ,* *кудз* *ыджыд* *городъясад,* *миян*
 yes DP how big town.PL.INE2SG PRO.1PL.GEN
эта *лёк* *ыджыд керкаяссэ* *стрöитисны.*
 DEM.PROX bad big house.PL.ACC3SG build.PST.3PL

‘Yes, of course, like in big cities, they built these bad big houses here.’

This use can also appear recognitional at first (see subchapter 2.3), but it is the physical gestures that point towards a Deixis-am-Phantasma use. It is also arguable if the referent, the bad big houses, would be recognizable to the interviewer, since it appears the interviewees and the interviewer are not acquainted beforehand and the interviewer isn’t local. In the following example the recognitional aspect is even bigger, since the interviewer and the interviewee are from the same village and it has been made clear that they know each other well enough. In the example they are talking about reindeer herding in their village and nearby. The interviewee says that he himself nor his family doesn’t take part in it. He then brings up a man from their village who does:

(27) AFХozjainov 17:49 – 17:57

AFJ: *Миян* *на* *тае* *соседныйд* *тай* *Егор, Канев,*
 PRO.1PL.GEN also DEM.PROX neighbour.PX2PL DP Egor Kan’ev
Егорыс *Пакесь* *Егорыс,* *сыа* *тоже* *көр* *доре*
 Egor.PX3SG Pakes’ Egor.PX3SG DEM.DIST also reindeer to.ILL
ветлис.
 go.PST.3SG

‘Well we also have this one here, your neighbour, Egor, Kan’ev Egor, Pakes’ Egor, he also used to go reindeer herding.’

Between *тае* and *соседныйд* there is a pause and *тае* is accompanied by a head nod in a certain direction. Here it is clear that the interviewee thinks the interviewer should know who he is talking about, but also follows the term neighbour by a specification, the neighbour’s name. The pause gives reason to think that the speaker might change the strategy of introducing the referent midway through the utterance, making it a mixed strategy.

Gestures became an important feature in categorizing the last two examples as exophoric, but example (25) shows that they aren’t a compulsory element in the Deixis-

am-Phantasma use. Example (25) also shows that if the speakers remain in that different deictic reality, the already named entities will also be mentioned with an exophoric *t*-based pronouns. The ending of that same example, where the Komi language, before mentioned with *мая*, is referred to with *сиеи*, also shows, that the same entities can later be tracked by an endophoric pronoun, meaning that the speaker has probably moved away from the deictic projection.

It becomes clear from my material that some speakers are more prone to the Deixis-am-Phantasma use than others. While some speakers describe events that have happened and things outside of their real surroundings with endophoric pronouns, tracking with them the referents usually introduced by NPs, others will project things (or themselves) very easily. These instances of projection are often accompanied by hand motions and visible disconnection from their real surroundings – for example they often don't hold eye contact with their communication partner. This phenomena appears a lot in the recordings of Darja A. Kan'eva and Evgeni A. Igušev. In Darja A. Kan'eva's extensive Deixis-am-Phantasma use another interesting things occurs. She uses both front vowel and back vowel stemmed *t*-based pronouns, but they don't seem to be motivated by a distance contrast. Once she even refers to the same imagined referent with different pronouns: when talking about her youngest son with whom and whose family she seems to live with, she gestures towards a certain direction, possibly their living spaces, but in example (28) she uses the proximal demonstrative *этая* and in example (29) the distal demonstrative *этия*. In example (28) she says that her youngest son speaks the Nenets language well and in example (29) she is talking about how everyone is drinking these days, but her husband didn't drink and neither does her youngest son.

(28) DAKan'eva 25:39 – 25:43

DAK: *Этая*¹⁶ код меддзоля ние, Алёша, милицияас
 DEM.PROX who SUPL.small son.PX1SG Aljosha police.INE3SG
рöбитэ да сыа дзик яран моз сёрнитис
 work.PRS.3SG and DEM.DIST PART Nenets like speak.PST.3SG

¹⁶ Transcribed as *эта*, but I hear *этая*.

‘This one who is my youngest son, Aljosh, works in the police and he just like a Nenets spoke (...)’

(29) DAKan’eva 01:01:52 - 01:01:55

DAK: *Менам* *этия* *меддозля* *ниэ*
 PRO.1SG.GEN DEM.DIST SUPL.small son.PX1SG

оз *же ю.*
 NEG.PRS.3SG DP drink.CN

‘This youngest son of mine also doesn’t drink.’

She also uses the same tactic when referring to her daughter-in-law and granddaughter – gesturing towards their presumed living space – but with them she only uses the proximal *t*-based stem.

In my analysis so far I have described *t*-based pronouns as the default exophoric pronouns. There were a few instances though where *s*-based pronouns were also used. In example (30) the speaker describes how he knows which fawn belongs to which reindeer. He illustrates it by actually pointing at the imagined reindeer and saying “this one’s, this one’s”.

(30) APFilippov 12:40 – 12:46

APF: *Приметит-ан* *и* *бөрвыы* *уже* *караляс,*
 notice(Ru.)-PRS.2SG and back already(Ru.) corral.INE3SG

аха, сы-лэн, *сы-лэн.*
 аха DEM.DIST-GEN DEM.DIST-GEN

‘You notice and already back in the corral, аха, this one’s, this one’s.’

Since we haven’t so far had a clear example of distance contrast we can’t rule out that *сыа* can be used exophorically to indicate just that. In this example it seems unlikely though, since nothing indicates the imagined reindeer being far away. The speaker makes two pointing gestures, one closer to him and other a bit further, but uses the same

pronoun for both of them. What might be the motivation here is that *сыя* also functions as a 3rd person pronoun. This possible motivation seems also possible in example (31), taken from an additional recording named *Манифа Ефимовна Вокуева*¹⁷, where the speaker is describing how if some people knew each-other, they knew what was sewn by who. All the demonstratives are accompanied by a pointing gesture and while the *s*-based pronouns do get a gesture pointing more to the distance than the *t*-based ones, they also represent an animate entity, a human who has made the inanimate thing or things.

(31) *Манифа Ефимовна Вокуева* 40:03–40:16

MJV:	Например,	код	ёрта-ёртныссэ	тödэныс			
	for_example(Ru.)	PRO.Q	PRO.REFL.PX3PL.ACC3SG	know.PRS.3PL			
	да	ная	даже	ылысянь	аддзеныс:	аха,	этая=сэ
	and	DEM.PL	even	far.EGR	see.PRS.3PL	aha	DEM.PROX=CNTR
	сие,	сыя=сэ	вурема	этие ¹⁸			
	(correction)	DEM.DIST=CNTR	sew.PERF	DEM.DIST.ACC			
	сыасэ	вурема,	а	этие	точно.		
	DEM.DIST=CNTR	sew.PERF	but	DEM.DIST.ACC	exactly(Ru.)		

‘For example, who know each other well, they even from far away see: ахаа, this one, sewn by her, that one sewn by her, but that one – exactly.’

This kind of motivation, if true, isn’t very common though, in my data there are more examples where animate entities are exophorically referred to with a *t*-based pronoun, like examples (32) and (33) where the interviewees describe the times when they knew instantly where someone wanted to go and which bus they needed to take for that.

¹⁷ The speaker is a woman from the Murmansk Oblast, born in 1944.

¹⁸ Transcribed as <этія> but I hear *этие*.

(32) АЕКан'ева & ВІКан'ев 40:55–41:03

ВІК: *остановка* *вылас* *йӧзыс* *неуна* *сулалэны,*
 busstop on.ILL.PX3SG people.PX3SG not.many stand.PRS.3PL
видзедан, *мортыс* *кыче,* *аа,* *тая* *оз*
 see.PRS.3SG person.PX.3SG where.ILL аа DEM.PROX NEG.PRS.3SG
сэтче *мун,* *он* *сут* *да* *водзе* *мунан* .
 there go.CN NEG.PRS.2SG stop.CN and forward go.PRS.2SG
 да и всё
 and_all(Ru.)

'(...) some people are standing at the busstop, you see where a person wants to go, oh, this one doesn't go there, you don't stop and go forward and that's it.'

(33) АЕКан'ева & ВІКан'ев 41:14–41:18

АЕК: *Этая* *номерыс* *эта-лэн,*
 DEM.PROX number.PX.3SG DEM.PROX-GEN
эта *эта-лэн,* *ставсэ* *тӧдім.*
 DEM.PROX DEM.PROX-GEN all.ACC3SG know.PST.1PL

'This number to this one, this to this one, we knew everything.'

When it comes to number, in example (26) we can once again see a singular pronoun used to modify a plural noun. The *n*-based plural forms can also be used for Deixis-am-Phantasma. The following example is in its context clearly a case of just that – the speaker, a former kindergarten teacher, is describing how some kids were not happy that they were left out of a Komi only group.

(34) АЕКан'ева and ВІКан'ев 33:29–33:37

АЕК: *Ӧстальнэйыс* *ӧбижайтчены,* *мый* *вот*
 the_ones_left.PX3SG take_offence.PRS.3PL COMP IP
Анна Ефимовна *энаес* *босьтэ,* *накед*
 Anna Efimovna DEM.PL.ACC take.PRS.3SG DEM.PL.COM

коми песня-яс сьылэ, а миянтэ
 komi song(Ru.)-PL sing.PRS.3SG but PRO.1PL.ACC
оз бось
 NEG.PRS.3SG take.CN

‘The ones left get offended, that Anna Efimovna takes these, sings Komi songs with them, but doesn’t take us.’

Another clear case of Deixis-am-Phantasma using plural pronouns can be seen in the recording with titled *Манифа Ефимовна Вокуева*. In this example she is describing the life in the chums. All the plural pronouns are also accompanied by gestures.

(35) *Манифа Ефимовна Вокуева* 36:26–36:35

MFV: *Часть дежуритэныс. На со-, **ная** дежуритэныс,*
 a_part(Ru.) be_on_duty.PRS.3SG (correction)DEM.PL be_on_duty.PRS.3SG
*а **эна** бара мӧдасылас мунэныс на смену,*
 but DEM.PROX.PL.SF again tomorrow.INE3SG go.PRS.3PL to_shift(Ru.)
***эная** локтэны*
 DEM.PROX.PL come.PRS.3PL

‘Some are on duty. They are on duty, but these go again on duty the other morning, these come back (...)’

The pronoun transcribed as <ная> sounds like it could also be *эная* and *эна* was originally transcribed <эная>. While the first and last pronoun refer to people who are supposed to be on duty, away from the chum, the speaker seems to be referring to them by pointing to their imagined sleeping places, as she has described before how people were sleeping on both sides from her imagined deictic centre. This could be the reason why all the demonstratives used were proximal.

When searching the corpus for more *n*-based forms with the *e*-prefix attached, we can also find it used for tracking though (see example (48) from subchapter 4.2.2.1).

4.2.2 Endophoric use

Demonstratives are used endophorically when they refer to entities from the surrounding discourse – anaphorically if the entity is preceding and cataphorically if it is following. As Fedjuneva pointed out, already in Proto Finno-Ugric the *s*-based demonstratives are thought to have been used anaphorically. In Komi the main endophoric demonstrative pronoun also seems to be the *s*-based *сыа* (*сия* for some speakers), used both anaphorically and cataphorically.

4.2.2.1 Tracking use

Tracking use is the most widely occurring deictic use in my data, making up 901 of all the uses. 808 of these uses are pronominal, 69 adnominal and 24 appear in a postpositional construction as a short form of the demonstrative. The following forms were used for tracking: *сы, сыа, сия ~ сиа, сійӧ, сие, сиес, сылэн, сылӧн, сылы, сыкӧд, сыкӧд, сылысь, сыысь, ны, на, ныа, ная, наа, найӧ, нае, ние, наес, ные, нылэн, налэн, налӧн, накед, накӧд, нылы, налы, налысь, ныысь* and *тия**, *эта**. In addition to demonstrative pronouns it is possible to track referents through verb endings and possessive suffixes. This means that pronouns are not actually necessary, making Komi a pro-drop language. In example (36) the interviewee is speaking about her and her friend, but no pronouns are used. It is still understandable who she is talking about since the verbs have a first plural (and in the case of the interviewer – second plural) ending.

(36) ДАКан’ева 09:42 – 09:46

ДАК: *Быд пӧра, и первой местэ пыр босьт-і-м.*
every time and first place always take-PST-1PL

MSF: *Передовикъ-яс вӧл-і-нныд?*
leader(Ru.)-PL be-PST-2PL

‘Every time, and we always took the first place.’ ‘You were leaders?’

Both pronominal forms and adnominal construction containing demonstratives can function as subjects (examples (37) (38)), objects (examples (39) (40)) and different adverbials (examples (41) (42)).

(37) AFXozjainov 35:12 – 35:16

AFX: *Тандзе Марьяылэн керкаыс **сыа** эні*
 Tandze Mar'ja.PX3SG.GEN house.PX3SG DEM.DIST now
миян эні детской сад
 PRO.1SG now kindergarten(Ru.)

‘Tandze Mar’ja’s house, that is now our kindergarten ...’

(38) MVFilippova 25:09-25:13

NTP: *Сійö кытысь вöлі?*
 DEM.DIST where.ELA be.PST.3SG

VPC: *Сыа **Ыджыдвидзь.***
 DEM.DIST Ydžydivdz.ELA

MVF: *А кытэн сыа **Ыджыдвидз?***
 but where DEM.DIST Ydžydivdz

‘NTP: Where was he from? VPC: He was from Ydžydivdz. MVF: But where is that Ydžydivdz?’

(39) AJTerent’ev 05:00 – 05:04

AJT: *ми, изъватасыс, кöсьям босьны*
 PRO.1PL Iz’vatas.PX3SG want.PRS.1PL take.INF
 статус "коренного малочисленного народа Севера".
 status_native_minority_people_of_north(Ru.)
*Миян **сие** оз сетны.*
 PRO.1PL.GEN DEM.DIST.ACC NEG.3SG give.INF

‘(...) we, the Iz’vatas, want to get the status of “Indigenous Minority People of the North”. But they don’t feel like giving it us.’

(40) FT Davydova 05:28 – 05:31 ... 06:32 – 06:35

FTD: *Кыксё челядь мян велэдче, даже*
 two_hundred children PRO.1PL.GEN study.PRS.3SG even
ундзык. Ми сідз воспитывайтам, сідз велэдам
 many.CMP PRO.1PL so educate.PRS.1PL so teach.PRS.1PL
сіе челядьясэ.
 DEM.DIST.ACC children.PL.ACC3SG

‘Two hundred children study here, even more (...) We educate, teach these children in that way.’

(41) AP Filippov 18:05 – 18:10

APF: *Иван Иванович вёлі, сыкед смена .*
 Ivan Ivanovič be.PST.3SG DEM.DIST.COM shift(Ru.)
вылын вёлім.
 POST be.PST.1PL

‘There was Ivan Ivanovič, with him we were on the same shift.’^а

(42) AE Kan’eva & VI Kan’ev 20:49–20:54, 21:08–21:14

MSF: *А Устеас сэк вёбяссэ разводісны*
 but Uste.INE3SG then horse.PL.ACC3SG breed.PST.3PL
или видзисны бура, из?
 or keep.PST.3PL good.ADV NEG.PRS.3SG
 MSF: *зэй удивительнэ, мый ёні вёбяссэ*
 very surprising COMP now horse.PL.ACC3SG
сыя местаас зэй заводісны.
 DEM.DIST place.INE3SG very start_to_get.PST.3PL

‘But in Uste at that time horses were bred or kept a lot, no? ... very surprising that horses are now so much bred in that place.’

Example (37) also illustrates a strategy mentioned by Diessel – following new topics with a demonstrative right away, to signal the topicality of the entity.

Short forms mostly appear with postpositions and form an adverbial construction.

(43) FTDavydova 14:59–15:04

FTD: *Кык детина воисныс, зэй томесь. И ме оттони*
NUM boy come.PST.3PL very young.PL and PRO.1SG constantly
ны бõрын видеді ...
DEM.PL.SF after.INE look.PST.1SG

‘Two boys come, they are very young. And I constantly kept an eye on them ...’

There were a few instances where the short form was used adnominally. According to X this is to be expected in Ižma Komi, but looking at their occurrence rate, this does not seem like a productive tendency.

(44) FTDavydova 04:35–04:39; 05:03–05:06

FTD: *И менэ сэтче пригласитісны сэтче центрас*
and PRO.1SG.ACC here.ILL invite.PST.3PL here.ILL centre.INE3SG
рõбитны. И рõбита це-, вот сы центрас
work.INF and work (correction) IP DEM.DIST.SF centre.INE3SG’’

‘And I was invited here to work in the centre (...) And I work in this centre (...)’

So far we have mostly looked at examples with singular demonstratives, although the plural *n*-stem can be seen in example (43) where it is used as a short form in a postpositional construction. If we look at the prefixless forms *ныа* and *ная*, which in literature are already considered personal or demonstrative-personal pronouns, we can see they mostly appear pronominally.

(45) IGTerent’eva 05:00–05:05

VPC: *А тэ наес пõнмайтин?*
But you DEM.PL.ACC understand.PST.2SG

IGT: *Ме* *ни*¹⁹ *пõнмайта* *мыляке,* *но* *мен*
 PRO.1.SG DEM.PL.ACC understand.PRS.1SG somehow DP PRO.1SG.DAT
зэй *кокни* *вõлис* *ни* *пõймитны.*
 very easy be.PST.3SG DEM.PL.ACC understand.INF

‘But you understood them?’ ‘I somehow understand them, well it was very easy for me to understand them,’

Adnominally they only acted as possessors.

(46) AJTerent’ev 03:10–03:18

AJT: *Зэй* *любита,* *õ,* *тõдмасьны* *виль йõзкед,*
 very love.PRS.1SG INTERJ become_aquainted_with.INF new people.COM
тõдмавны *на-лән* *культура* *йылысь,* *кытысь* *ныа.*
 find_out.INF DEM.PL-GEN culture over.ELA where.ELA DEM.PL

‘I very much love to, ee, get acquainted with new people, find out about their culture, where they are from.’

In my data there was one case though, where the *e*-prefixless *n*-based pronoun could have been used adnominally. In example (47) the interviewer is asking about the differences of Izhma Komi and Nenets traditional clothing. The interviewee confirms that they are different and goes on to describe a certain clothing object, asking, if the interviewer has seen such a thing. When the interviewer says that she has, the interviewee says the following:

(47) DAKan’eva

DAK: *Сэтшемес* *вед* *ныа*²⁰ *ненкаясыс* *ноолэныс ...*
 that_kind.ACC1SG DP DEM.PL Nenets.PL.PX3SG wear.PRS.3PL

¹⁹ Initially transcribed as <ны>, but the speaker shortens her vowels and otherwise uses *ни* accusative, so it is probably *ни*, but phonetically ambiguous.

²⁰ Originally transcribed as <ная>, but I hear *ныа* – the form that the speaker mostly uses.

‘Well that kind of thing these Nenets wear ...’

The translation in the corpus considers this a case of pronominal use where the intended referent is repeated with a NP right after, but in my opinion the utterance lacks the necessary prosody for that explanation. Even if this is an adnominal *e*-prefixless *n*-based pronoun, though, it is an isolate case in my material.

Since *n*-based forms with the *e*-prefix also appeared rarely in my initial data and were all used exophorically, I searched the corpus for more such forms. In at least one instance such a form was used endophorically for tracking. In the recording titled *Мария Павловна Чупрова*²¹ the interviewer wants to know when and why the interviewee’s parents moved to the village she was born at.

(48) *Мария Павловна Чупрова* 07:05–07:09

MSF: *Но сыа артме, мый войнаэдзыс нин*
 DP DEM.DIST turn_out.PRS.3SG COMP war.TERM.PX3SG already
*ная*²² *локтисны.* *Да?*
 DEM.PL come.PST.3PL yes

MPČ: *Ну да, наверно.*
 DP yes probably(Ru.)

MSF: *А эна*²³ *из висьтоолыны, мый*
 but DEM.PROX.PL.SF NEG.PRS.3PL tell.INF COMP
кодкеэс сэн раскулачитэмаась или мый
 PRO.INDF.ACC1SG there make_a_kulak.PERF.PL or what
ли локтэмаась
 QPART come.PERF.PL

²¹ The interviewee is a woman born in 1939 in the Nenets Autonomous Region and currently living in Naryan Mar. The interviewer is Marina S. Fedina, who is also mentioned in the Appendix: Data.

²² Transcribed as <ныа>, I hear something more towards *ная*. In other recordings the speaker also tends to use *ная*.

²³ Transcribed as <эная>, I hear the short form *эна*. This of course would mean that the pronominal use of the short form of a demonstrative is not only restricted to *эна*.

‘MSF: So it turns out they already came before the war. Yes? МРС: Well yes, probably. MSF: But they didn’t tell you that someone there was made a kulak or why did they come?’

The *e*-prefix seems to signal some kind of emphasis here. One explanation for it would be to differentiate between the interviewee’s parents and other people who moved to that village. In the beginning the interviewer inquires only about the parents but the topic then shifts to other villagers who had moved there from the same place. The interviewer asks about the amount of families who had moved, but the interviewee doesn’t remember anymore. The interviewer then asks:

(49) *Мария Павловна Чупрова* 06:51–06:53

MSF: *А кутшем воын нэ наа локтісны?*
 but which year.INE DP DEM.PL come.PST.3PL

‘But what year did they come?’

It is possible that example (49) was incorrectly transcribed and the question actually was:

MSF: *А кутшем воын эна локтісны?*
 but which year.INE DEM.PROX.PL.SF come.PST.3PL

‘But what year did THEY come?’

This would make sense for many reasons. Firstly – it does sound like it and the linguistic context of example (49) would make it easy to attribute the /n/ from the end of *воын* to the particle *нэ* and mistranscribe the utterance. The *эна* form the speaker uses in example (48) can be heard pretty clearly, making it sure that such a form belongs to the vocabulary of the speaker. Use of a marked form could be a strategy to move the topic back to specific entities. In example (48) it would also make sense if the form *эна* would refer to the interviewee’s parents not the whole village people, since the parents are most likely to tell their kids about family and local history.

As a last remark on the *e*-prefix use in this subchapter I would like to add, that while the *n*-based forms with the prefix were not used often, no *s*-based forms with an *e*-prefix appeared in my initial data, but from the rest of the corpus we can find one instance. In the following example the interviewee is talking about her forefathers and foremothers, mentioning where they were from. Emphatic *ə*- might be triggered by the contrast, because before she was telling about her grandmother who's heritage was different.

(50) Irina Viktorovna Kan'eva 01:33–01:41

IVK:	В общем,	<i>Павел Васильевич</i>	<i>вёл</i>	<i>дед</i>	...
	in_general(Ru.)	Pavel Vasil'evič	be.PST.3SG	grandfathe	
	<i>менам</i>	<i>Эсия</i>	<i>Бакурысь.</i>		
	PRO.1SG.GEN	DEM.DIST	Bakur.ELA		

‘In general, Pavel Vasil’evič was my grandfather (...) He was from Bakur.’

In the chapter about exophoric use we saw that semantic plurality could also be expressed with singular pronouns. In endophoric use the same phenomena appears a few times in adnominal constructions (see also example (40)). This explains the lack of adnominal *n*-based forms a bit, but in general it seems that plural entities are mostly tracked with pronominal forms. When it comes to pronominal forms, Fedjuneva mentions that in Komi Permyak a singular demonstrative used as a 3rd person pronoun can also be used in a plural meaning, but she hasn’t seen such a function in Komi. I did find some examples of it in my initial data and also the rest of the corpus.²⁴ In example (51) the use of a singular pronoun could be triggered by the fact that morphologically the coreferential noun *вокыс* isn’t marked for plural, since it is modified by a number. It remains plural semantically though and the verb ‘to drink’, which the singular *сыя* is the subject of, appears with a 3rd person plural marking.

²⁴ I won’t include here the instances that had more to do with part versus whole relationship, for example when reindeers were sometimes mentioned in plural, sometimes in singular, but the singular forms actually referred to the species in general.

(51) DAKan’eva 01:01:58–01.02.02

DAK: *А кум, кык вокыс кӧрдорас=сэ*
but three two brother.px3sg tundra.INE3SG=CNTR
сыа юэныс.
DEM.DIST drink.PRS.3PL

‘But three, two brothers in tundra, they drink.’

Example (52) doesn’t have the triggering singular morphology, the speaker, also featured in examples (48) and (49), is telling about how her parents moved to a new village. She first talks about her mother, then mentions her father and after that they make a plural unit referred to as *ня*. All the verbs also have a plural ending, including the one for which the subject is the singular form *сия*. This speaker uses this kind of semantically-plural-morphologically-singular form a few more times during her interview.

(52) Maria Pavlovna Šuprova 0:00:53–00:01:01

MPČ: *воисныс ня²⁵ Смекаловкаа Вот сия воисныс.*
come.PST.3PL DEM.PL Smekalovka.INE IP DEM.DIST come.PST.3PL

‘(...) they came to Smekalovka (...) And so they came.’

As can be seen, the *s*-based forms are the most productive for tracking use. Cases where referents were tracked with *t*-based pronouns seem to fall under some type of Deixis-am-Phantasma, meaning that they were treated exophorically. There was one instance that caught my eye though. In example (53) the speaker uses a *t*-based pronoun to track a participant just mentioned.

²⁵ Transcribed as <НЯ> but I hear *ня*. Some other instances by the same speaker instances are also transcribed as <ня> in the corpus.

(53) DAKan’eva 01:01:17–01:01:22

DAK: *Вот эні вокыс тай тія гөвно*
IP now brother.PX3SG DP DEM.DIST shit
татэн иляйтче
here.INE loiter. PRS.3SG

‘Well now his brother, that shit, loiters around here ...’

While I wouldn’t rule out Deixis-am-Phantasma use here – the speaker is prone to it and doesn’t hold eye-contact with the interviewer during the utterance – it is also possible that the motivation behind the *t*-based form was (negative) emotion, since it modifies a noun with very negative connotations. Looking at the chosen pronoun more closely, we can also see that it is a distal form of the *t*-based demonstratives. In the beginning of chapter 2 I briefly describe the affective use which plays a role in pronoun selection in many languages and distal demonstratives are often associated with less positive things.

4.2.2.2 Discourse deictic use

The discourse deictic use accounts for 238 of all uses. 191 of them are pronominal, 21 adnominal and 26 postpositional constructions with a short form of the pronoun. The following forms appeared in my data: *сы, сыа, сја, сје, сјес, сјен, сыын, сыысь, та, тае, таысь, эта, это**.

Discourse deictics can be separated to anaphoric (example (54)) and cataphoric (example (55)). According to my data the anaphoric use is more prominent, accounting to 197 cases. In Komi the anaphoric and cataphoric use don’t differ in form.

(54) IGTerent’eva 05:05–05:15

IGT: *А, даже ме, навернэ, тōда став кыысэ,*
and even pro.1SG probably know.PRS.1SG all word.ACC3SG

но *ме* *ог* *вермы* *сие* *висьтооны,*
 but PRO.1SG NEG.PRS.1SG can.CN DEM.DIST.ACC say.INF

ме *всё равно* *ас* *диалектнам* *сёрнита.*
 PRO.1SG anyway(Ru.) own dialect.INS1SG speak.PRS.1SG

И *сыя* *зэй* *төдче.*
 and DEM.DIST very be_apparent.PRS.3SG

‘And I even, probably, know all the words, but I can’t say them, I anyway speak in my own dialect. And that is very apparent.’

(55) APFilippov 21:20–21:25

MSF: *Ме* *и то* *сие* *төда,* *мый*
 PRO.1SG DP DEM.DIST.ACC know.PRS.1SG COMP

кõчыс *абу* *хищник.*
 hare.PX3SG NEG predator(Ru.)

‘That even I know, that the hare isn’t a predator.’

As with tracking use, short forms were usually used with postpositions (example (56)), but there were also a few instances where they appeared adnominally (example (57)).

(56) DAKan’eva 43:00–43:09

DAK: *кор* *дедколы* *этае* *квартира-сэ*
 when old_man.DAT DEM.PROX.ACC apartment(Ru.)-ACC3SG

сетисныс, *ми* *сы* *бõрын* *эстче* *ооны=сэ*
 give.PST.3PL PRO.1PL DEM.DIST.SF after.INE here.ILL live.INF=CNTR

лэччим.
 go_down.PST.1PL

‘When my husband was given this apartment, we after that came to live down here.’

(57) FTDavydova 07:06–07:10

FTD: *сы* *семьяын,* *кõн* *сёрнитэныс* *ас*
 DEM.DIST.SF family.INE where speak.PRS.3PL own

кыы *вылынас*
 language POST.INE3SG

‘(...) in that family, where they speak their own language.’

No *n*-based plural forms appeared in my data, but there were a few cases where a singular adnominal pronoun modified a plural head, like in example (58).

(58) AJTerent’ev 03:54–04:00

AJT: *кутием* *кыыас* *ме* *велэда* *и* *төда*,
 what_kind language.PL PRO.1SG study.PRS.1SG and know.PRS.1S

 сыа *местаясас* *бы* *ветлыны* ...
 DEM.DIST place.PL.INE3SG COND(Ru.) go.INF

‘(...) what languages I study and know, to these places [I] would go (...)’

While *s*-based demonstratives are still the most productive choice in this category also, the *t*-based pronouns also make an appearance. One of the interviewers uses *t*-based discourse deictics four times. While the discourse deictic function in example (59) seems clear, it is possible that the use of a *t*-based pronoun was triggered by some kind of an exophoric, most likely Deixis-am-Phantasma related notion the speaker was sensing. As mentioned in subchapter 4.2.1.3 the amount of deictic projection differed between speakers, with some of them being affected by it constantly and some almost never.

(59) LPČuprova 00:49–00-58

VPC: *Кутием* *тэнад* *тундра* *дорас*, *кутием* *тэнад*
 what_kind PRO.2SG.GEN tundra at.INE.PX3SG what_kind PRO.2SG.GE

 казьтылэмьяс, *воспоминание-яс*, *кутием* *тэнад*
 memory.PL recollection.(Ru.)-PL what_kind PRO.2SG.GEN

 отношение *көр* *видзем* *дорас?* *Мый* *тэ*
 relationship(Ru.) reindeer herding at.INE.PX3SG what PRO.2SG

та *йылысь* *верман* *висьтооны?*
 DEM.PROX.SF over.ELA can.PRS.2SG tell.INF

'How do you feel about the Tundra, what are your memories, recollections, how is your relationship with reindeer herding? What can you tell about that?'

4.2.3 Recognitional use

Due to the nature of the material, the recognitional use is very scarce in my data., accounting only to four instances, some of which are probably not purely recognitional. In many cases the interviewers and interviewees don't seem to know each other beforehand and even if they do, the format of the interview keeps the communication more formal than a regular conversation between these people might be.

In subchapter 4.2.1.3 examples of Deixis-am-Phantasma use were compared to recognitional use, showing the possible similarities in these uses. In a way some of these examples could be considered a mixed strategy, especially if a part of the speaker's motive was the presumption that the referent is shared knowledge. Example (60) falls into the same category. The same interviewer and interviewee as in example (27) talk about airtransport in the area.

(60) AFХozjainov 23:25–23:35

AFX: *А* семесят, семесят седьмой или семесят восьмой-*ын*
 and seventy (Ru.) seventy seventh (Ru.) or (Ru.) seventy eighth-INE
миан, *эта* ТУ-сто пейсят четыре-*ыс* *код*
 PRO.1PL.GEN DEM.PROXS.SF TU hundred fifty four.PX3SG PRO.Q
*тай*²⁶ *пуксьыліс* *ыджыдыс,* *вот* *сіе* .
 PART land.PST.3SG big.PX3SG IP DEM.DIST.ACC
аэродромсэ *карисны*
 airport.ACC3SG make.PST.3PL

²⁶ The discourse particle *тай* used in that sentence sounds to me like it could also be *тая*.

'And in seventy, seventy seven or seventy eight here this TU-154 landed, the big one, that airport was built.'

While the demonstrative *эма* is accompanied by a head nod in a certain direction, the referent – TU-154 – is also followed by a specification – something common to the recognitional use. The fact that the referent is of low topicality and isn't tracked further is also characteristic to recognitional use. It is questionable if the interviewee would mention this plane at all to people who he wouldn't think would know anything about it.

In example (61), again from the recording where the speakers are from the same village and know each other, the referent, professor Bušar, seems to be introduced with the help of a recognitional demonstrative. He has not been mentioned before and comes up as a way to illustrate that the interviewee's daughter is good at internet communication and keeping in touch.

(61) AFХozjainov 37:42–37:53

AFХ: *Но миян Алёна, например, **этая**²⁷ Бушаркед*
 DP PRO.1PL.GEN Aljona for_example(Ru.) DEM.PROX Bušar.COM
*да мый да, **эма** профессор Канадасьыс да,*
 and what and DEM.PROX.SF professor Canada.ELA.PX3SG now
өні на связь өнэдз на кутэ.
 now in_touch(Ru.) now.TERM still keep.PRS.3SG

VPC: *Ная ветлалісны тшөтти экспедицияэн,*
 DEM.PL go_around.PST.3PL also expedition.INSTR
фольклорнэй, да, да
 folklore.ADJ yes yes

'AFХ: Well our Aljona, for example, with that Bušar or that, that professor from Canada, now is in touch, until now keeps in touch. VPC: They also went together on an expedition, a folkloristic one, yes yes.'

²⁷ Transcribed as <эта>, I hear the long form *этая*.

This low topicality of the referent, preceding specifications about him (a professor from Canada) and the fact that the interviewer signals that he has recognized the referent make this the clearest case of recognitional use in my data. Unfortunately in the video part of this recording the scene has frozen, so we don't know if any gestural activity is happening in the speech situation and can't compare it to Deixis-Am-Phantasma use as we have done with other examples.

4.2.4 Using demonstratives as filler words

In Komi, like in many other languages, demonstratives can be used as filler words. Hayashi and Yoon focus on the demonstrative fillers used in case of word-formation trouble and separate them into two more specific categories. I did that only for some instances, where it seemed clear what the motivation behind the demonstrative was – to hold a place for an upcoming referent that the speaker already had in mind but for some reason couldn't produce (e.g. placeholders), or to signal general hesitation (e.g. interjectional hesitators). I will also describe other pragmatic functions of demonstrative fillers I encountered in my material.

In my data demonstrative fillers accounted for 93 uses and the following demonstratives were used: *эма*, *этая*, *этае*, *этия*, *этие*, *сыя* and *сие*.

The most used demonstrative fillers were *t*-based demonstratives with an *e*-prefix. They could be used as both placeholders and interjectional hesitators and they also served the pragmatic function of signaling an upcoming speech act.

Example (62) contains two demonstrative fillers, both in the form of *эма*, but their pragmatic function is different. The first *эма* is used to signal a topic change or better yet – a return to the old topic. The interviewee is describing how she and her husband met and got together.

(62) AEKan'eva and VIKan'ev 01:26–01:44

АЕК: *познакомитчим и влюбитчим. Хаха. Миян*
 get_aquainted.PST.1PL and fall_in_love.PST.1PL haha PRO.1PL.GEN
первей любовь. И эта, помалім сіе,
 first_love(Ru.) and DEM.PROX.SF graduate.PST.1PL DEM.DIST.ACC
ся Сыктывкарын ме велэдчи помалі эта
 after Syktyvkar.INE PRO.1SG study.PST.1SG graduate.PST.1SG DEM.PROX.SF
воспитатель вылэ, дошкольнэй педучилище.
 educator(Ru.) on.ILL preschool pedagogical_school(Ru.)

‘(...) we got acquainted and fell in love. Haha. Our first love. So, we graduated it [the school], then I studied in Syktyvkar, graduated, umm, as an educator, a preschool pedagogy school.’

The phrase ‘our first love’ interrupts the narrative for a moment. She signals the return to the chronological narrative with the demonstrative *эта*. The second *эта* is elongated a bit and the motivation for its use seems to be either to signal that the speaker isn’t sure how to exactly end the sentence or that she has trouble coming up with the wanted form. Either way, she seems to already have in mind what she want’s to say, just not how she’s going to say it. In my opinion this use falls somewhere between a placeholder and interjectional hesitator, but the hesitation part they both convey is definitely present.

In example (63) the topic is a healer who used to live in the village both the interviewer and interviewee are from. The interviewee talks about the healer and then comments on how people like this do exist, but nowadays there are less. The interviewer then brings the topic back to the specific local healer they were talking about before.

(63) AFXozjainov 07:43–07:47

VPC: *А этия, нук-нучкаясыс Тандзе Марьялэн*
 a DEM.DIST grandson-granddaughter.PL.PX3SG Tandze Mar’ja.GEN
выйы.месь на?
 exist.PL still

‘So, are there still grandchildren of Tandze Marja left?’

Hayashi and Yoon (2010: 54) make it clear that they don't consider demonstratives used during word-formation trouble to fit into any of the traditionally described use types of demonstratives (as are exophoric, endophoric and recognitional here), but I see a clear link between some of the instances where the speaker has trouble with word formation and exophoric use, more specifically the Deixis-Am-Phantasma use. In example (64) the speaker has trouble with remembering the name of a specific person. The interviewer asks if there are any farmers in the woman's home village and she says there are, but then has trouble with coming up with the specific name. She looks to her husband to help her out, but the name that her husband suggests is not the one she meant, so she continues trying to remember the right name, using placeholders in the process.

(64) АЕКан'eva and ВIKан'ev 24:07–24:15

АЕК: *Абу, абу, эта, Маша нима эта, вийым*
 NEG NEG DEM.PROX.SF Маша name.ADJ DEM.PROX.SF exist
эта, сьлэн мӧсьяс.
 DEM.PROX.SF DEM.DIST.GEN cow.PL

'No, no, this one, the one called Maša, this one is, she has cows.'

While searching for the correct word, she looks away from her conversation partners, a feature common for the Deixis-Am-Phantasma use in my data. It seems that she is able to see the referent in her imagination, but has trouble with naming them, prompting the placeholder / Deixis-Am-Phantasma use of the demonstrative. In the end she seems to have established the referent well enough to go on with the sentence, the last *эта* seems to be more confirming than searching, but still directed towards the imagination. Having established the referent she comes out of the state of deictic projection and tracks the referent with an *s*-based pronoun. The fact that the intended referent is somehow activated in the speaker's imagination would make sense. In example S we see the speaker looking up when searching for the word 'rocket'.

(65) АЕКан'ев and ВІКан'ев 55:11–55:18

VIK: Но, но, *эта*, ракетаыс кор кыпедче
 DP DP DEM.PROX.SF rocket.PX3SG when launch.PRS.3SG

‘Yes, yes, what-do-you-call-it, rocket when launches (...)’

As Hayashi and Yoon mention, demonstratives can also be a part of constructions that function as placeholders. In chapter 3.2 *тайми* and *сы мый* were mentioned as placeholders in Komi. The first one is already a grammaticalized particle and while it did appear in my material, not much attention was given to it. The construction *сы мый* did not appear in my data. What did appear was a set of constructions that could be gathered under the general meaning of “how to say it”. All of them were formed with *s*-based pronouns. In example (66) two constructions of this type can be seen. Shorter versions like *кудз сыа / cie* that leave out the verb were also used.

(66) АЕКан'ева and ВІКан'ев 22:34–22:47

MSF: кудз *cie* висътооны, кудз *сыа*
 how DEM.DIST.ACC say.INF how DEM.DIST
 шусе, вӧлыс кор уж, а мӧдыс?
 be_called.PRS.3SG horse.PX3SG when uʒ but other.PX3SG

‘(...) how is it said, how to call it, if a (male) horse is *uʒ*, then the other one?’

4.2.5 Additional observations

In this subchapter I will present two demonstrative pronoun related observations that didn't fit to be described elsewhere.

In some of the instances where demonstratives were used they were actually a part of a lexicalized construction. Some of these constructions were already described in the previous chapter where they functioned as placeholders. In addition demonstratives could be seen in lexicalized constructions such as *сыя и выйым тая* ('that is it'), *өти и сие же* ('one and the same'), *сие же* ('the same'), *сы мыйта* ('so many') and *тае май* (a discourse particle).

Secondly I would like to mention a use not discussed in this work before – a demonstrative as a pseudo-article. The only occurrence of it in my data was example (67), where the interviewees are a married couple who have been together since the age of 15. The interviewer expresses her admiration:

(67) АЕКан'ева and ВІКан'ев 58:16–58:23

MSF: *вот колэ пример тиянсьыныд босьны,*
IP need.PRS.3SG example PRO.ELA2PL take.INF
кудэ сыя семьясэ кутны.
how DEM.DIST family.ACC3SG keep.INF

' (...) people have to set you as an example, how to keep the family.'

The demonstrative *сыя* in this example doesn't refer to a certain family but rather the concept of family in general.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The Ižma Komi corpus offers a valuable material for studying spoken Ižma Komi dialect and its demonstrative use – the speakers are of various ages and backgrounds, both socially and geographically, and most of the recordings are equipped with a video, which is necessary to study the deictic use of demonstratives. It offers a great starting place for an exploratory study which can then identify tendencies to study more in depth. In my research I hope to have done just that – while the data available wasn't big enough for drawing certain conclusions about some phenomena, it definitely set a frame for further research. In this conclusive and final chapter I will describe all the tendencies I observed in the empirical part of my work, addressing them by the pronoun type in connection to what they came up.

From the expected Ižma Komi *t*-based demonstratives the following appeared in my data: *тая*, *та*, *этая*, *эта* and *этия*. In addition to them and their traditional declinational forms nominal *тае*, *майö* and *тия* and accusative *таес* and *этаес* were used. From the short forms *та* was only used with postpositions, but *эта* was used both ad- and pronominally. A possible convergence with similar sounding Russian demonstrative *это* would be interesting to look into, since all the speakers are bilingual in these two languages and Russian figures heavily in the everyday life of most Ižma Komis. The *t*-based pronouns which are formally singular could be used as semantically plural, especially in adnominal constructions. The *t*-based demonstrative pronouns were mostly used to refer to entities that are located in the surroundings of the speaker, be it in real life or imagination. This means they are mostly used exophorically. When *e*-prefixed forms are used, it seems to signal some kind of contrast or general emphasis. When an *e*-prefixed *t*-based form is used for the first mention, the same entity can, atleast in some cases, later be referred to with a prefixless *t*-based form. After first mention tracking with an *s*-based demonstrative also seems possible. The opposition between the *t*-based forms with different stem vowels would need some more research and maybe a different material, collected with that exact study question in mind. Based on my material it seems that the selection of and between *t*-based pronouns could also

signal the speaker's attitude towards the referent, with the distal demonstrative carrying a more negative connotation. Both this and the spatial opposition of these pronouns should definitely be studied more in depth. In addition to exophorical reference the *t*-based pronouns with an *e*-prefix were also used as demonstrative fillers. They could act as placeholders or signal general hesitation. They could also act as discourse markers and signal returning back to an interrupted topic. The *t*-based pronouns also seem to be the pronouns of choice for recognitional use, although additional inquiry with less formal data would be needed to confirm that.

In addition to the expected *сы*, *сыа* and its case forms the following *s*-based demonstratives appeared in my data: nominal *сия* ~ *cia*, *cie* and *ciйö*, accusative *ciec*, genitive *сылөн* and comitative *сыкөд*. No *s*-based demonstratives with an *e*-prefix appeared in my initial data. The variation between the nominal forms seems to be related to the speaker's background, both geographical and sociolinguistical. The short form *сы* appeared mostly in postpositional constructions, but a few times adnominally also. Usually the pronouns would appear in their full form adnominally and agree with the head in nominative and accusative case. For other case forms the adnominal demonstratives would stay in nominative. The formally singular *s*-based demonstratives could also be semantically plural, usually when they were adnominal, but such instances could also be seen in pronominal use. The motivations for it in pronominal use offer another interesting research question that can't be answered by this work, since the occurrence them in my data was very low. The main function of *s*-based demonstratives was endophoric reference – tracking and discourse deictic use. They also appeared a few times in exophoric context. I would speculate that their use as 3rd person pronouns plays a role here and instances of exophoric use could be possible signs of an ongoing grammaticalization process. As they also represent a distal demonstrative in the spatial opposition of demonstratives, their possible use in representing a distance contrast should be also studied. In addition to endophoric use the *s*-based pronouns acted as constituents of lexicalized placeholder constructions, all fitting to the general category of “how do you say/call it” questions. As an isolated instance the use of the *s*-based demonstrative *сыа* as a pseudo-article was also noted.

The *n*-based plural demonstratives offered the greatest variety in form: both *ныа*, *ны* and *ная*, *на* and their respective case forms and also the *e*-prefixed forms *эна* and *эная* were used, in addition the following forms also appeared in my data: nominative *нае* and *найö*, accusative forms *наес*, *найöс*, *ниес*, *ныес* and *энаес*, genitive *налöн*, comitative *накöд*. Based on my data the variety between the *ны*- and *на*- stems seems to be speaker specific. Still both forms are used and sometimes even by the same speaker. This suggests that the variation of these pronouns is still something to research, preferably just with a bigger database. The *n*-based plural pronouns are the only ones that are divided into personal and demonstrative pronouns. This distinction still raises many questions though and in my work I don't consider them as fully separated categories. In my material one case of adnominal *e*-prefixless *n*-pronoun seemed to appear – a use outside of the possessor function only possible for demonstratives. The *n*-based *e*-prefixless pronouns are mostly used for pronominal tracking and the *e*-prefixed pronouns for exophoric use.

When it comes to the deictic use of Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns in general, we can see that while most of the uses fit to universally attested classes, the borders between these classes aren't always clear. Both the placeholder and recognitional use show some overlapping with the exophoric Deixis-am-Phantasma use. In my opinion this kind of complex and mixed strategies are only to be expected when it comes to spoken language, especially if we consider all of these categories to typically represent the first mentions of entities. Deixis-am-Phantasma seems to play an overall important and interesting role in the deictic use of Ižma Komi pronouns, with some people being more prone to it than others. If Ižma Komi speakers really do separate their pronouns based on notions that have been described under the exophoric vs endophoric use in this work, the use of Deixis am Phantasma by different speakers and its role in sensing the referent could serve a really interesting research topic for the future. As for other more specific research topics I would suggest studying the spatial notions of Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns with a material where the contrasts are bound to come out. Data collection with specifically designed experiments could provide good material for that. Same goes for the recognitional use – a material where the speakers know each other well and aren't bound by the structure of an interview would provide a very good

research material for that. The variation in used forms also offers many further research questions, some of which could maybe be answered with the help of a bigger database.

APPENDIX: DATA

The appendix contains background information on all the recordings used in my initial data, like the full name of the recording by which it can be found from the corpus, the length of the recording, and the names, origins and current locations of the participants.

1) **Code in examples:** AEKan'eva, VIKan'ev

Name of the recording: Анна Ефимовна Канева и Василий Ипполитович Канев

Length: 58 min 37 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Marina Sergeevna Fedina

Date of birth: 1968

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Anna Efimovna Kan'eva

Date of birth: 1955-06-01

Place of origin: Ust-Izma, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Naryan-Mar, Nenets Autonomous Okrug

Interviewee:

Name: Vasili Ippolitovich Kan'ev

Date of birth: 1956-03-02

Place of origin: Lasta, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Naryan-Mar, Nenets Autonomous Okrug

2) **Code in examples:** AFXozjainov

Name of the recording: Алексей Филиппович Хозяинов

Length: 38 min 51 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovich Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Aleksei Filippovič Xozjainov

Date of birth: 1958-10-17

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

3) **Code in examples:** AJTerent'ev

Name of the recording: Александр Юрьевич Терентьев

Length: 16 min 59 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Aleksandr Jurevič Terent'ev

Date of birth: 1992-06-06

Place of origin: Pustynja, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

4) **Code in examples:** AKXozjainova

Name of the recording: Агафья Константиновна Хозяинова

Length: 15 min 05 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Agafja Konstantinovna Xozjainova

Date of birth: 1932-02-14

Place of origin: Odesdino, Sosnogorsk District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Požnja, Sosnogorsk District, Komi Republic

Notes: Interviewee marked as a Ižma / Upper-Vučegda Dialect speaker, because Odesdino borders the two dialect areas.

5) **Code in examples:** APFilippov

Name of the recording: Александр Петрович Филиппов

Length: 25 min 11 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Marina Sergeevna Fedina

Date of birth: 1968

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Aleksandr Petrovič Filippov

Date of birth: 1960-05-11

Place of origin: Lovozero, Murmansk Oblast

Currently living: Lovozero, Murmansk Oblast

6) **Code in examples:** DAKan'eva

Name of the recording: Дарья Алексеевна Канева

Length: 1 h 12 min 14 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Marina Sergeevna Fedina

Date of birth: 1968

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Darja Alekseevna Kan'eva

Date of birth: 1929-04-02

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Naryan-Mar, Nenets Autonomous Okrug

7) **Code in examples:** FTDavydova

Name of the recording: Фаина Тимофеевна Давыдова

Length: 16 min 35 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Faina Timofeevna Davydova

Date of birth: 1962-05-11

Place of origin: Saranpaul, Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug

Currently living: Khanty-Mansiysk, Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug

8) **Code in examples:** IGTerent'eva

Name of the recording: Терентьева Ирина Гавриловна

Length: 06 min 54 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Irina Gavrilovna Terent'eva

Date of birth: 1996-02-27

Place of origin: Salekhard, Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug

Currently living: Salekhard, Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug

9) **Code in examples:** EAIgušev

Name of the recording: Евгений Александрович Игушев

Length: 46 min 31 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Evgeni Aleksandrovič Igušev

Date of birth: 1939-03-11

Place of origin: Pozhnya, Sosnogorsk District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

10) **Code in examples:** KVKoinova

Name of the recording: Клавдия Васильевна Койнова

Length: 10 min 45 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Marina Sergeevna Fedina

Date of birth: 1968

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemy District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Klavdija Vasil'evna Kojnova

Date of birth: 1944-01-21

Place of origin: Njaksimvol, Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug

Currently living: Berjozovo, Khanty-Mansi Autonomous Okrug

11) **Code in examples:** LPČuprova

Name of the recording: Людмила Прокопьевна Чупрова

Length: 05 min 35 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Ljudmila Prokopjevna Čuprova

Date of birth: 1994-08-31

Place of origin: Khorey-Ver, Nenets Autonomous Okrug

Currently living: Khorey-Ver, Nenets Autonomous Okrug

12) **Code in examples:** MVFilippova

Name of the recording: Мария Владимировна Филиппова

Length: 26 min 28 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewer:

Name: Niko Tapio Partanen

Date of birth: 1986

Place of origin: Finland

Interviewee:

Name: Maria Vladimirovna Filippova

Date of birth: 1984-03-31

Place of origin: Ižma, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Ižma, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

13) **Code in examples:** NNČuprov

Name of the recording: Николай Никитич Чупров

Length: 45 min 42

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Marina Sergeevna Fedina

Date of birth: 1968

Place of origin: Vertep, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Nikolai Nikitič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1941-07-13

Place of origin: Krasnoshchele, Murmansk Oblast

Currently living: Lovozero, Murmansk Oblast

14) **Code in examples:** SAArtiev

Name of the recording: Семён Алексеевич Артиев

Length: 03 min 56 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Semjon Alekseevič Artiev

Date of birth: 1992-04-12

Place of origin: Krasnoshchele, Murmansk Oblast

Currently living: Krasnoshchele, Murmansk Oblast

Notes: The interviewee speaks very little komi, the value of this recording is more in the forms used by the interviewer.

15) **Code in examples:** VAFilippov

Name of the recording: Виктор Алексеевич Филиппов

Length: 02 min 58 s

Participants:

Interviewer:

Name: Vasili Panteleimonovič Čuprov

Date of birth: 1993

Place of origin: Gam, Izhemsky District, Komi Republic

Currently living: Syktyvkar, Komi Republic

Interviewee:

Name: Viktor Aleksejevič Filippov

Date of birth: 1997-06-29

Place of origin: Kharsaim, Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug

Currently living: Salekhard, Yamalo-Nenets Autonomous Okrug

REFERENCES

- Auer**, J. C. P. 1984. *Referential Problems in Conversation*. *Journal of Pragmatics* 8: 627–648.
- Averintseva-Klisch**, Maria. 2016. Pejorative demonstratives. In Rita Finkbeiner, Jörg Meibauer & Heike Wiese (eds.). *Pejoration*. (Series Linguistics Today). Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 119–142.
- Bartens**, Raija. 2000. *Permiläisten kielten rakenne ja kehitys*. (Suomalais-Ugrilaisen Seuran Toimituksia 238.) Helsinki: Suomalais Ugrilainen Seura.
- Bubrix** 1949 = Бубрих, Д. В. 1949. *Грамматика литературного коми языка*. Ленинград: Изд-во Ленинградского государственного университета.
- Bühler**, Karl. 1934/1990. *Theory of language: the representational function of language*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company
- Černyx** 1952 = Черных, П.Я. 1952. *Историческая грамматика русского языка*. Москва: Учпедгиз.
- Diessel**, Holger. 1999. *Demonstratives: Form, Function, and Grammaticalization*. (Typological Studies in Language 42.) Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Fedjuneva** 2008 = Федюнева, Г.В. 2008. *Первичные местоимения в пермских языках*. Екатеринбург: УрО РАН
- Fillmore**, C. J. 1997. *Lectures on Deixis*. Stanford: CSLI Publications.
- Halliday**, M. A. K. and **Hasan**, R. 1976. *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.
- Hayashi**, Makoto and **Yoon**, Kyung-Eun. 2006. A cross-linguistic exploration of demonstratives in interaction: With particular reference to the context of word-formulation trouble. *Studies in Language* 30: 485–540.
- Hayashi**, Makoto and **Yoon**, Kyung-eun. 2010. A cross-linguistic exploration of demonstratives in interaction: With particular reference to the context of word-formulation trouble. In: Amiridze, Nino, Boyd Davis & Margaret Maclagan (eds). *Fillers, Pauses and Placeholders*. Amsterdam & Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 33–66.

- Himmelmann**, Nikolaus P. 1996. Demonstratives in Narrative Discourse: a taxonomy of universal uses. In Barbara Fox (ed.), *Studies in Anaphora*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 205–254.
- Istomin**, Kirill V. and Juri P. Šabaev. 2016. *Ižma Komi and Komi-Permiak: Linguistic Barriers to Geographic and Ethnic Identity*. Okrug, vol. 5, no. 1, 2016, pp. 53–74. Bloomington: Slavica Publishers.
- Jarbou**, Samir Omar. 2010. *Accessibility vs. physical proximity: an analysis of exophoric demonstrative practice in Spoken Jordanian Arabic*. *Journal of Pragmatics* 42, 11, 3078–3097
- Klumpp**, Gerson (in preparation). Contrast clitics in Komi.
- Lakoff**, Robin. 1974. Remarks on this and that. *Papers from the Tenth Regional Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society (CLS)* 10: 345– 356.
- Lyons**, John. 1977. *Semantics*. 2 vols. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Majtinskaja 1967** = Майтинская, К.Е. *Семантика указательных местоимений в финно-угорских языках /Вопросы финно-угорского языкознания*. Вып. IV. Ижевск.
- Majtinskaja 1969** = Майтинская, К.Е. *Местоимения в языках разных систем*. Москва.
- Ponarjadov 2000** = Понарядов, В.В. 2000. Коми аффиксы -тö, -сö в неаккузативном употреблении. *Коми слово в грамматике и словаре*. Труды Института языка, литературы и истории ; 62. Сыктывкар, 52–57.
- Popova and Sažina 2014** = Попова Р.П., Сажина С.А. 2014. *Фонетические и морфологические особенности коми диалектов (сравнительный аспект исследования)*. Сыктывкар.
- Saxarova and Sel'kov 1976** = Сахарова М.А., Сельков Н.Н. *Ижемский диалект коми языка*. Сыктывкар.
- Serebrennikov 1963** = Серебренников, Б.А. *Историческая морфология пермских языков*. Москва: Изд. АН СССР

VPN = Всероссийская перепись населения.

http://www.gks.ru/free_doc/new_site/perepis2010/croc/perepis_itogi1612.htm

RESÜMEE

Käesoleva magistritöö eesmärk on uurida komi keele Ižma murde demonstratiivpronomeneid ja nende pragmaatilist kasutust, kuna viimast ei ole komi pronomeneid käsitlevas teaduskirjanduses siiani eriti puudutatud.

Töö algab sissejuhatusega, kus kirjeldan lühidalt demonstratiivpronomeenite olemust ja komi pronomeenite arengut soome-ugri keelte kontekstis. Kuna komi keeles ei ole kolmanda isiku pronomeenid demonstratiivpronomeenitest täielikult eraldunud, käsitlen neid antud töös ühtselt demonstratiivpronomeenitena, millest osadel on ka kolmanda isiku pronomeni funktsioon.

Üldisele sissejuhatusele järgneb esimene teoreetiline peatükk, mis tutvustab demonstratiivpronomeenite võimalikke deiktilisi ja pragmaatilisi funktsioone. Eksofoorselt kasutatakse pronomeneid selleks, et viidata millelegi, mis on kõneleja tajutavas ümbruses. Endofoorne on aga see, kui neid kasutatakse diskursuses sidususe loomiseks – viidatakse tagasi juba mainitud entiteetidele (mis tahes, mis on olemas) või võetakse nende abil kokku laiemaid diskursuses esinenud mõtteid. Kolmanda kasutusliigi all kirjeldan seda, kui demonstratiivpronomeenitega viidatakse millelegi, mis ei eksisteeri ei kõneleja tajutavas ümbruses ega ümbritsevas diskursuses, vaid ühistes teadmistes, mida ta kellegagi jagab. Entiteedi esmamainimisel viidatakse eestäändiks oleva pronomeeniga sellele, et suhtluspartnerile peaks viidatav olema tuttav. Viimase suurema demonstratiivpronomeenite kasutamise kategooriana käsitlen nende rolli kohatäitjana – nimelt kasutatakse paljudes keeltes ununenud või muudel põhjustel kättesaamatute sõnade asendamiseks demonstratiivpronomeneid. Samuti kasutatakse neid väljendamaks üldist viivitust kõneaktis. Viimasest on omakorda välja arenenud demonstratiivpronomeenite kasutus diskursuse markeritena, mille abil signaliseeritakse kõneakti eesmäärke ja suunda.

Töö teine teoreetiline peatükk on pühendatud Ižma murde ja selle demonstratiivpronomeenite tutvustamisele. Ižma murdes esineb kolm demonstratiivpronomeni tüve – ainsuslikud *t*- ja *s*-tüvi ning mitmuslik *n*-tüvi. Demonstratiivpronomeenitele omast ruumiliste parameetrite (tavaliselt viidatava objekti kaugus) kontrasti märgib nii *t*- ja *s*-tüve vastandumine, kui *t*- ja *n*-tüveliste

pronoomenite tüvevokaalidel põhinev vastandumine. Lisaks võib kõigile demonstratiivpronoomenitele liituda *e*-prefiks, mille rolli on siiani kirjeldatud emfaatilisena.

Kahele teoreetilisele peatükile järgnebki empiiriline, töö mahukaim osa. Uurimismaterjalina kasutasin lindistusi Ižma murde suulist keelt sisaldavast videokorpusest (videocorpora.ru), mis koosneb välitöödel Ižma dialekti kõnelejatega tehtud intervjuudest ja muudest ülesvõtetest. Valitud lindistuste põhjal koostasid esmase korpuse, kuhu koondasin kokku kõik korrad, kui kõnelejad kasutasid demonstratiivpronoomeneid. Kokku saadud 1610-st pronoomenikasutusest valisin analüüsiks 1349. Analüüs keskendus nii pronoomenite vormilisele varieerumisele kui nende kasutuse pragmaatilistele külgedele. Selgus, et demonstratiivide vormiline varieeruvus on suurem, kui siiani kirjeldatud. Nii *s*- kui *n*-tüvelistel pronoomenitel esineb mitmeid variante ning nende varieeruvuse põhjus ei ole selge. Töö põhjal võib aga eeldada, et nende kasutamine on suuresti seotud konkreetsete kõnelejatega ja vormilise varieeruvuse põhjused võivad olla nii geograafilised kui sotsiolingvistilised. Demonstratiivpronoomenite deiktilises ehk osutavas/viitavas funktsioonis eristub selge vahe eksofoorse ja endofoorse kasutuse vahel, esimese jaoks kasutati üldiselt *t*-tüvelisi pronoomeneid ning teise jaoks *s*-tüvelisi. Mitmuslike *n*-tüvede puhul eristatakse kirjanduses tavaliselt personaalpronoomeneid ja demonstratiivpronoomeneid, viimasteks loetakse *e*-prefiksiga vorme. Selline jaotus ei pruugi olla aga kivist raiutud ja *n*-tüveliste vormide kasutus nõuaks veel eraldi uurimist. Selle töö uurimismaterjalis kasutati *n*-tüvelisi *e*-prefiksita pronoomeneid tavaliselt endofoorselt, viitamaks juba mainitud entiteetidele, ning *e*-prefiksilisi variante eksofoorselt. Mõlemas kasutuses võis neid aga asendada ka vormiliselt ainsuslik *t*- või *s*-tüveline pronoomen. Kaks ülejäänud kategooriat – demonstratiivpronoomen viidatava tuttavuse märkijana ja demonstratiivpronoomen kohatäitjana – tundusid kohati kattuvat eksofoorse viitamisega, eriti selle eriliigiga, mis lubab nii kõneleja enda kui asjade, millele ta viitab, deiktulist projektsiooni. See tähendab, et ümbritsevana võidakse tajuda ka entiteete, mis on seda vaid kõneleja kujutelmas. Sellist deiktulist projektsiooni esineb mõnel kõnelejal tunduvalt rohkem kui teistel. Kui Ižma murde pronoomenikasutus

jagunebki suuresti eksofoorsete ja endofoorsete tunnuste põhjal, võib selline „fantaasiamaailma“ kasutus pakkuda väga huvitavat uurimisainet.

Töö eesmärk on kaardistada üsna laia teemat, mida varem palju puudutatud ei ole. Seetõttu võib seda tööd käsitleda ka pilootprojektina, mille eesmärk on selgitada välja sügavamad uurimist vajavaid tendentse. Iga käsitletud kasutusliik vääraks tegelikult eraldi põhjalikumad uurimist selleks kohandatud materjaliga. Eksofoorse viitamise ruumiliste suhete uurimiseks oleks näitaks hea koguda ja kasutada materjali, kus kõnelejad on pandud olukorda, kus selline viitamistaktika enim avaldub. Viidatava tuttavusele osutavate demonstratiivpronoomenite uurimiseks oleks jällegi vajalik materjal, kus kõnelejad üksteist hästi tunnevad. Loodan, et antud töös esitatud tähelepanekud pakuvad kasvupinda edasistele uurimustele, mis käsitlevad mainitud teemasid juba sügavamalt.

Lihtlitsents lõputöö reprodutseerimiseks ja üldsusele kättesaadavaks tegemiseks

Mina, Eda-Riin Leego,

1. annan Tartu Ülikoolile tasuta loa (lihtlitsentsi) minu loodud teose „Ižma Komi demonstrative pronouns and their pragmatic use“, mille juhendaja on Prof. Gerson Klumpp, reprodutseerimiseks eesmärgiga seda säilitada, sealhulgas lisada digitaalarhiivi DSpace kuni autoriõiguse kehtivuse lõppemiseni.
2. Annan Tartu Ülikoolile loa teha punktis 1 nimetatud teos üldsusele kättesaadavaks Tartu Ülikooli veebikeskkonna, sealhulgas digitaalarhiivi DSpace kaudu Creative Commons'i litsentsiga CC BY NC ND 3.0, mis lubab autorile viidates teost reprodutseerida, levitada ja üldsusele suunata ning keelab luua tuletatud teost ja kasutada teost ärieesmärgil, kuni autoriõiguse kehtivuse lõppemiseni.
3. Olen teadlik, et punktides 1 ja 2 nimetatud õigused jäävad alles ka autorile.
4. Kinnitan, et lihtlitsentsi andmisega ei riku ma teiste isikute intellektuaalomandi ega isikuandmete kaitse õigusaktidest tulenevaid õigusi.

Eda-Riin Leego

29.05.2019