# 5 Bulgarian 

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## 1 Introduction

Bulgarian is the national language of the Republic of Bulgaria - the native language of its ethnic Slavonic majority. The estimated population of Bulgaria in 1986 was close to 9 million, nearly 85 per cent of whom were recorded as ethnic Bulgarians. Modern Bulgarian directly continues the Slavonic dialects spoken in the eastern Balkan Peninsula from the time of the arrival of Slavs in the middle of the first millennium AD. It is first recorded in the earliest Slavonic, that is Old Church Slavonic (Old Bulgarian), manuscripts.

Four periods are customarily distinguished in the history of Bulgarian: (1) the prehistoric period (essentially Proto-Slavonic), from the time of the Slavonic invasion of the eastern Balkans to the Cyrillo-Methodian mission to Moravia in the ninth century; (2) Old Bulgarian - the ninth to the eleventh centuries, reflected in Old Church Slavonic manuscripts; (3) Middle Bulgarian - from the end of the eleventh to the beginning of the fifteenth century, a time of rich literary activity and major structural innovation; (4) Modern Bulgarian - from the end of Middle Bulgarian to the present, including the years of Ottoman domination (early fifteenth century to 1878).

While the early stages of a number of major innovations are perhaps attested in Old Church Slavonic texts, the most significant changes in the evolution of Modern Bulgarian appear to have begun in the Middle and early Modern periods. Details of these changes are not reflected systematically in written records. The penetration of vernacular features into the written language was impeded for a number of reasons, most importantly conservative scribal attitudes and various orthographic reforms which artificially normalized scribal practices during Middle Bulgarian.

Written records from the first two centuries of Modern Bulgarian are quite limited owing to the Ottoman conquest, which severely curtailed the rich literary activity of earlier years. After approximately 1600 - the time of the beginning of the Bulgarian Възра́ждане/Văzràždane 'Renaissance' - increasingly numerous vernacular intrusions into popular texts suggest that the major changes differentiating Modern Bulgarian from its pre-
decessor were essentially complete. In so far as continuing conservative orthographic conventions make textual evidence problematical, we can only reconstruct the general lines of the actual processes of these changes.

The form of the modern Bulgarian literary language began to take shape only towards the middle of the nineteenth century. Earlier, within the prolific literary activity that developed from the beginning of the nineteenth century, three different orthographic positions competed with one another: (1) conservative, advocating a modern literary language based on the Russian/Serbian recension of Church Slavonic used in the Bulgarian Orthodox Church at that time; (2) progressive, calling for a literary language based on the speech of one or the other of the most influential regions of nineteenth-century Bulgaria; (3) intermediate, advocating use of those features shared by all regional dialects plus Church Slavonic features whenever the dialects differed. The emergence of north-eastern Bulgaria in the middle of the nineteenth century as the nation's cultural, economic and political centre led to wide acceptance of north-eastern dialects as the basis for the literary language. Of these dialects, that of Tărnovo, one of northeastern Bulgaria's most important cities and the country's first modern capital, was taken as the model for the emerging literary language. On 5 February 1899, the Bulgarian Ministry of Education officially codified the modern literary language with the adoption of the first orthographic system sanctioned for the entire nation. Reformed to any significant extent only once, in February 1945, this system remains in use today.

Despite the fact that the modern Bulgarian literary language reflects the north-eastern dialect of Tärnovo, it incorporates a number of non-eastern, western features (the major dialect division of Bulgarian is east versus west; see section 6). Originally, 'westernisms' were due to adoption of a number of Church Slavonic features coincidentally identical to features of western Bulgarian. However, with the shift of the Bulgarian capital from Tărnovo to Sofia (in the centre of western Bulgaria) in 1879 and the latter's rapid growth into the nation's single most influential urban centre, literary Bulgarian began a gradual process of accommodation to the native dialect of the new capital. As a result, the official literary language - described in standard reference works (Георгиева, Станков/Georgieva, Stankov 1983; Тилков, Бояджиев/Tilkov, Bojadžiev 1981; Граматика/ Gramatika 1982-3; Пашов, Първев/Pašov, Părvev 1979; Романски/ Romanski 1955-9; Чолакова/Čolakova 1977-90) - represents no naturally occurring regional dialect. Rather, it is an artificial hybrid, learned to a greater or lesser extent by all Bulgarians in the course of their schooling.

Prescriptively correct Bulgarian is spoken only under the most formal circumstances and only by speakers particularly concerned with proper usage. In less formal circumstances, non-literary features characteristic of speakers' regional dialects frequently occur. The speech of many educated

Bulgarians represents a continuum, with the colloquial, non-literary speech of their native regions at one end and the learned, literary standard at the other. In actual usage, speakers move back and forth between these two poles, incorporating, to various degrees, non-literary features into their formal speech and vice versa. Since the Second World War, owing to the rapid growth of the population and cultural prestige of Sofia, the westernized conversational speech of educated natives of the city has gained increasing prestige and has come to be regarded by some linguists as a (if not the) standard spoken variant of the literary language.

## 2 Phonology

### 2.1 Segmental phoneme inventory

Table 5.1 Vowel phonemes
Front Central Back

| High | i |  | u |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mid | e | à | o |
| Low |  | a |  |

/i eu o/ are relatively lax. /ă/ is tenser and higher than [a], but lower than Russian [i]. Word-initial vowels are preceded by a glottal stop.

Unstressed vowels are shorter and weaker than their stressed counterparts, and approach one another pair-wise, /i<>e ă<>a u<>o/, without merging completely - at least not in careful literary speech (Граматика/ Gramatika 1: 132). Unstressed word-final vowels are often voiceless.

Vowels are nasalized before nasal consonants followed by fricatives; often the nasal consonant is lost: о́нзи/ónzi ['̣nzi] ~ ['̆zi] 'that (M SG)'.

In native Bulgarian words vowel sequences occur only across morpheme boundaries: знáeш/znáeš /znà-e-š/ 'know-PRS-2 SG'. In borrowings they are common: теа́тър/teàtăr 'theatre'.
$/ \mathrm{tdszcl} /$ are alveo-dental, $/ \mathrm{nr}$ / alveolar. The acute accent (') marks palatalization in labials and alveolars. Alveo-palatal obstruents are weakly palatalized. Palatalized labials are pronounced by many Bulgarians as sequences of [Cj]; palatalized alveo-dentals, especially $/ \mathrm{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{l}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}^{\prime} /$, may shift towards alveo-palatals.
$/ \mathrm{n}$ / has a velar allophone, [ $\mathrm{\eta}$ ], before velars: га́танка/gàtanka [gàtanka] 'riddle'.
$/ 1 /$ is markedly velarized except before front vowels.
$/ \mathrm{c} /$ and $/ \mathrm{x}$ / have voiced allophones [3] and [ y ] before voiced obstru-

Table 5.2 Consonant phonemes

|  | Bilabial | Labiodental | Alveodental | Alveopalatal | Palatal | Velar |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Stops | $\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{p} & \mathbf{p}^{\prime} \\ \mathbf{b} & \mathbf{b}^{\prime} \end{array}$ |  | $t^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ |  | $k^{\prime}$ | k |
|  |  |  | d d' |  | $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ | g |
| Fricatives |  | $\mathrm{f}^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ | s s' | š |  | x |
|  |  | $\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^{\prime}$ | z $\mathrm{z}^{\prime}$ | ž |  |  |
| Affricates |  |  | c $c^{\prime}$ | č |  |  |
|  |  |  |  | 3 |  |  |
| Nasals | $\mathrm{mm}{ }^{\prime}$ |  | n $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Laterals |  |  | $11^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Trills |  |  | r $\mathrm{r}^{\prime}$ |  |  |  |
| Glide |  |  |  | j |  |  |

ents (except $/ \mathrm{v}^{\prime}$ '/; see below). x / has a palatal allophone [ $\mathrm{x}^{\prime}$ ] before front vowels (see below).

Some inventories of Bulgarian phonemes include $/ x^{\prime} 33^{\prime} /$. However, $/ x^{\prime} 3^{\prime} /$ occur only in foreign proper nouns, for example, X'́m/Xjúm /x'ùm/ from English Hume, Ядзя/Jádzja /jà3'a/ from Polish Jadzia. Besides foreign proper nouns, $/ 3 /$ occurs in a small number of nonliterary, dialectal words which, if used in the literary language, regularly replace $/ 3 /$ by $/ z /:$ дзйфт/dzift ~ зйфт/zift 'tar'.

Obstruents contrast voice before sonorants and /v v'/: бóб/bób /bóp/ 'bean' versus пón/póp /pòp/ 'priest', твóй/tvój /tvój/ 'your-SG (M SG)' versus дво́p/dvór /dvór/ 'yard'. Otherwise they are voiceless word-finally or before voiceless obstruents, and voiced before voiced obstruents.

Palatalized and non-palatalized consonants contrast only before nonfront vowels. Moreover, in native words they contrast before /ă u o/ only across morpheme boundaries: xо́дя/xódja /xód'-ă/ '(I) walk' (= 'walk-1 SG') versus xóда/xóda /xód-ă/ 'the course' (= 'course-the'), бя่л/bjàl /b'àl/ 'white (M SG)' versus бáл/bàl /bàl/ 'ball (= dance)'. Otherwise -word-finally, before consonants or before front vowels - they are nonpalatalized.

Palatals and velars contrast before non-front vowels; palatals occur here only in words of foreign origin: го́л/gòl/gòl/ 'naked (M SG)' versus гьо́л/ gjol /g'oll/ 'puddle' (from Turkish). Otherwise palatals are regular before front vowels, velars elsewhere.

After vowels / j / occurs at the end of words or before consonants (мо́й/ mój 'my (M SG)', дадйте/dàje '(you-PL) give!'); before non-front vowels it occurs word-initially or after vowels (яязва/јàzva 'ulcer', мо̀я/mója 'my ( F SG)'). It neither follows consonants, nor precedes front vowels - except word-initially in a few borrowings (йезуйт/jezuit 'Jesuit').

Geminate consonants occur only across morpheme boundaries: отделл/
otdèl /od-dèl/ 'department, section' ( $=$ 'of-part'). Consonant clusters are subject to other constraints (Граматика/Gramatika 1: 135ff.).

The letters of the Bulgarian alphabet and their standard transliteration according to the Bulgarian Academy of Sciences are shown in table 5.3.

## Table 5.3 Bulgarian alphabet



Except for the details that follow, orthographic spellings give a close approximation of phonemic representations (tables 5.1 and 5.2). However:
1 щ denotes /št/. /̌̌/ is written дж/dž. To the extent that it occurs at all, $/ 3$ / is written дз $/ \mathrm{dz}$.
2 Spellings show the underlying (morphophonemic) voicing of obstruents; compare 'alive' м SG жйв/žív /žif/ versus F SG жйва/živa /živa/.
3 Palatal and palatalized consonants before non-front vowels are indicated by я (for /a/ and /ă/), ю (/u/), ьо (/о/). Two of these symbols, я and ю, also indicate /j/ followed by /a à/ and /u/, respectively (see examples above). Otherwise, /j/ is written й: мо́й/ mój 'my (M SG)'.
4 The letter я is ambiguous. Most frequently it represents /a/ after palatals, palatalized consonants or $/ \mathrm{j} /$. It is also used in two morphological categories for /ă/ after palatalized consonants or / $\mathrm{j} /:$ (a) masculine singular definite article, for example, деня่т/denjàt /den'ă't/ 'the day (SBJ)'; (b) first person singular/third person plural present tense forms of first-/second-conjugation verbs: хо́дя/xódja /xód'ă/ 'I walk', броя̀т/brojàt /brojắt/ 'they count'.
5 Similarly, a is ambiguous; in two categories it marks /ă/, not /a/: (a) objective (not subjective) masculine singular definite article of nouns: града̀/gradà /gradằ/ 'the city (M SG OBJ)'; (b) first person singular/ third person plural present forms of first-/second-conjugation verbs: пека̀т/pekàt / pekằt/ 'they bake'.
/ă/ is the regular Bulgarian reflex of PSl. * $\varphi$ and 'strong' *b: *pótь пъ்т/ pắt 'road', ${ }^{*} z ъ ъ$ зъл $/ z a ̆ ̀ l ~ ' e v i l ~(M ~ S G) ' . ~ L a t e r ~ i n ~ t h e ~ h i s t o r y ~ o f ~ B u l g a r i a n, ~$ /ă/ was inserted to break up stem-final consonant clusters terminating in liquids or nasals ('epenthetic ă'): *dobrъ добъ่ $/$ /dobằr 'good (M SG)' (compare F SG добрà/dobrà). /e/ is the regular reflex of PSI. ${ }^{*} \varepsilon$ and strong *b: ${ }^{*} p e t$ t пѐт/pèt 'five', *dьnь дѐн/dèn 'day'. Weak * $\boldsymbol{b} / \mathrm{b}$ were generally lost: *zъla злà/zlà 'evil (F SG)', * dьni днй/dni 'days'. However, weak * $\quad$ / $\boldsymbol{b}$ remained in a number of monosyllabic roots (Velcheva 1988: 146-8): дъ่но/dăno 'bottom' from * dъno, пѐсове/pésove 'dogs' plural of nèc/pés from *pbsъ. There is a small number of examples in which PSI. ${ }^{*} b$, weak or strong, gives /ă/ ('Umlaut of jers', Velcheva 1988: 136-9): *рьпь gives пъ่н/pằn 'stump', *tьma gives тъмà/tàmà 'darkness'.

Bulgarian has lengthened and metathesized reflexes for Proto-Slavonic liquid diphthongs with *ole:

| *gordъ | гра́д/grád 'city' |
| :--- | :--- |
| *bolto | бла́то/bláto ‘swamp' |
| *bergъ | бря́г/brjàg 'shore' |
| *melko | мля́ко/mljàko 'milk' |

Proto-Slavonic liquid diphthongs with ${ }^{*} b / b+l / r$ merged with sequences of $* l / r+\mathbf{b} / \mathbf{b}$ with loss of the distinction between $\mathbf{b}$ and $b$. Subsequently /ă/ developed in all instances, before or after the liquid depending on the following consonantal environment: liquid-vowel before two consonants, vowel-liquid before consonant-vowel. This is the origin of the metathesis alternation described in section 2.3 (see examples there).

PSI. ${ }^{*} t j$ (and ${ }^{*} k t+$ front vowel), ${ }^{*} d j$ gave /št žd/:
*světjb cвèщ/svèšt 'candle'
*noktb нóm/nóšt 'night'
*medja межда̇/meždă 'boundary'
Bulgarian word stress is dynamic: stressed syllables are louder and longer and have a higher fundamental frequency than unstressed syllables. Stress is free: it may fall on any syllable of a polysyllabic word. It is mobile: its position may vary in inflection and derivation. Compare:

Stress is distinctive: въ่лна/vằlna 'wool' versus вълна̀/vălnà 'wave'. For stress patterns of major lexical categories see section 3.

Simple Bulgarian words have a single stressed syllable. Compound words may carry a secondary stress, or even two stresses of equal prominence; for example, на́й-доб'்p/nàj-dobằr 'best' (= 'most-good'),

сѝлното́ков/silnotókov 'high-tension (M SG ADJ)'.
Bulgarian distinguishes three small classes of inherently stressless clitics: proclitics, enclitics and variable clitics (either enclitic or proclitic depending on syntactic conditions). See 4.1 for details.

### 2.2 Morphophonemic alternations inherited from Proto-Slavonic

1 Velar ~ alveo-palatal: / kgxskzg ~ /č ž š št žd/ - reflexes of the Proto-Slavonic first regressive palatalization of velars before front vowels and ${ }^{*} j$. Extremely common in Modern Bulgarian, the alternation is no longer conditioned solely by phonological factors. In inflection, it is limited to three categories: (1) a few masculine vocatives in /-e/: 'god' SG бór/ bóg, vос бо́жe/bóže; (2) certain types of first-conjugation verbs: 'weep' 1 SG PRS плáча/pláča, 1 SG AOR пла́ках/plàkax; (3) two anomalous neuter plurals: 'eye' SG oкó/okó, PL очй/oči and 'ear' SG yxó/uxó, PL ушй/uši. In derivation, it occurs in diverse nominal and verbal formations; for example, мля่ко/mljàko 'milk' : мле்чен/mléčen 'milky, of milk (м SG)', глу̀x/glúx ‘deaf (M SG)' : глушѐя/glušèja '(I) grow deaf'.

2 Velar ~ dental: / $\mathrm{kgx} / \sim / \mathrm{czs} /$ - reflexes of the Proto-Slavonic second and third palatalizations of velars. The alternation is regular (though with exceptions) in the plural of masculine nouns with polysyllabic stems, for example, 'language, tongue' SG ези́к/ezik, PL езйци/ezici. It occurs in the plural of two common feminine nouns, 'hand, arm' SG ръкà/ răkà, PL ръцѐ/răcè and 'foot, leg' (dialectal) SG ногá/nogà, PL нозè/ nozè. In derivation it is uncommon; for example, мàлко/málko 'little, few': малцинство́/malcinstvó 'minority'.

The interaction of the two preceding alternations creates a small number of alternations of /cz/ with /č ž/; for example, 'old man' SG ста́рец/ stảrec: VOC crápчe/stàrče.

## 3 Jotation reflects the influence of PSI. *j on preceding dentals and labials (velars above):

labials: /p b v m/ ~ / $\mathrm{pl}^{\prime} \mathrm{bl}^{\prime} \mathrm{vl}^{\prime} \mathrm{ml}^{\prime} /$
dentals: /t d st s z n lr/ ~/št žd št šžn' l' r'/
Though once widespread in Old Bulgarian, these alternations are now extremely limited. In inflection, only the alternations /s zlr/~/šzl'r'/ are preserved in the paradigms of certain first-conjugation verbs: 'write' 1 SG PRS пйша/piša, 1 SG AOR пйcax/pisax. In derivation, all of the alternations occur in isolated, unproductive formations. All examples of alternating labials, most of alternating $/ \mathrm{s} \mathrm{z}$ / and many of $/ \mathrm{td} \mathrm{dt} /$ are in borrowings from Russian or Russian Church Slavonic: 'send' 1 SG AOR PRFV прàтих/pràtix, 1 SG AOR IMPFV прáщах/pràštax; дàвя/dávja '(I)
drown (ITR)', давлѐние/davlènie 'pressure (from Russian or Russian Church Slavonic)'; козà/kozà 'goat', ко́жа/kóža 'skin'.

Rare examples of PSI. *kt/gt before front vowels, which develop like * $t$, are included here; for example, мóra/móga '(I) can', мо́щ/móšt 'power'.

This set of alternations was radically reshaped by two historical developments: (a) the simplification of sequences of labial and $/ l^{\prime} /$ to palatalized labials (the loss of 'epenthetic l' originally arising in Proto-Slavonic from labial +j ) and (b) the substitution of $/ \mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{d}^{\prime} \mathrm{s}^{\prime} \mathrm{z}^{\prime} /$ for $/$ št $\check{z} \mathrm{z} \mathrm{s} \check{\mathrm{z}} /$, respectively. The result is the alternation of homorganic palatalized and nonpalatalized consonants, /pbfvmtdsz/ $\sim / p^{\prime} b^{\prime} f^{\prime} v^{\prime} m^{\prime} t^{\prime} d^{\prime}$ $s^{\prime} z^{\prime} /$, in place of the earlier alternations. The newer alternations are common in paradigms of certain first- and second-conjugation verbs; for example, 'drip' 1 SG PRS кàпя/kàpja, 1 SG AOR кáпах/kápax; 'walk' 1 SG PRS хо́дя/xódja, 1 SG AOR xóдих/xódix. They are also common in verbal derivation; for example, 'turn' 1 SG PRS PRFV извъртя่/izvărtjà, 1 SG PRS IMPFV извъртя่вам/izvărtjàvam.
$4 \mathbf{o} \sim \mathbf{e}$ : This alternation is a vestige of the Proto-Slavonic change of back vowels to front vowels after alveo-palatal consonants or the reflexes of the third palatalization of velars. Compare: градове̇/gradovè 'cities', but бро́eве/bróeve 'numbers' (sG бро́й/brój). The alternation is nonproductive and lexically limited, and allows numerous alternatives; for example, зме̇йове/zméjove ~ зме̇еве/zméeve 'dragons'.

5 Consonant truncation: Consonants are deleted before other consonants or at the end of a word. This alternation comprises a number of special cases. (a) / j / is deleted in the inflection of first-conjugation verbs which show stem-final $/ \mathrm{j}$ / in the present tense; truncation here is regular and productive, though morphologically conditioned: 'drink' 1 SG PRS пйя/ pija, 1 SG AOR пйx/pix (but compare 2 PL IMP пййте/pijte). (b) Stemfinal /t d/ are regularly deleted before /l/ in the aorist participle of first-conjugation verbs: 'read' 1 SG PRS четà/četà, M SG AOR PART чѐл/ čè. (c) $/ \mathrm{nst}$ t/ alternate with $\emptyset$ in singular and plural forms of some neuter nouns: 'time' SG врѐме/vrème, PL времена̀/vremenà; 'taxi' SG такси'/ taksi, PL таксйта/taksita. The alternations occur sporadically elsewhere in inflection and derivation: зна̇я/znàja '(I) know', зна̇к/znàk ‘sign'.

6 Vowel truncation: Stem-final vowels alternate with $\emptyset$ in verbal inflection (the relevant stem elements are italicized in the following transliterated examples): 'walk' 1 SG PRS хо́дя/xódja, 1 SG AOR xóдих/xódix; 'write' 1 SG PRS пйша/piša, 1 SG AOR пйcax/pisax.
$7 / \mathbf{t /} \sim / s /$ : This alternation is limited to a few derivationally related items, such as стра́дам/stràdam '(I) suffer', стрàcт/stràst 'passion'.

8 Ablaut: Vestiges of Proto-Slavonic ablaut are preserved in derivation, particularly aspectual derivation; for example, бepà/berà '(I) gather', йзбор/izbor 'selection'; 'die' 1 SG PRS PRFV ympà/umrà, 1 SG PRS IMPFV умйрам/umiram. A few examples occur in verbal inflection: 'gather' 1 SG PRS бepà/berà, 1 SG AOR бpàx/bràx.

### 2.3 Morphophonemic alternations resulting from changes after ProtoSlavonic

Here three types are distinguished with respect to the conditions of their application.

1 General, phonologically conditioned, optional alternations. In casual speech these apply across word boundaries as well as within words.
(a) $\mathbf{C C} \sim \mathbf{C}$ : Geminate consonants, which arise principally across morpheme boundaries (see above), alternate with their single counterparts: отту̀к/ottùk /ottùk ~ otùk/ 'from here'.
(b) alveo-dental ~ alveo-palatal: /t d s z c/ ~/č $\check{j}$ šž č/, respectively, before /č $̧$ ̧̌ ž/: безжйзнен/bezžiznen /bezžiznen ~ bežžiznen/, and with reduction of geminate /žž/ /bežiznen/ 'lifeless (M SG)'.
(c) ST ~S: /s zšz/ before a word boundary or other consonant, /st zd št žd/ otherwise; for example, мóщ/móšt /móšt ~ móš/ 'power', 'powerful' M SG мо́щен/móšten /móšten/ and F SG мо́щна/ móštna /móštna ~ móšna/.
(d) $\mathbf{E} \sim \mathbf{J}$ : unstressed /e/ and /i/ contiguous to a lower, usually stressed, vowel become /j/; thus, материàл/material /materiàl ~ materjàl/ 'material', бащà ѝ/baštà ì /baštài ~ baštàj/ 'her father' (= 'father her-DAT'). Similarly, /u o/ become [w]: воàл/voàl [voàł ~ vwàł] 'veil'. Sequences of consonant and $[\mathrm{j}] /[\mathrm{w}]$ of this source are often pronounced as palatalized or labialized consonants: [mater'all], [vwał].

## 2 General, phonologically conditioned, but obligatory alternations.

(a) Word-final devoicing: Word-final voiceless obstruents alternate with voiced obstruents before non-obstruents. Compare 'city' m SG гра́д/ gràd /gràt/ and PL градовѐ/gradovè /gradovè/. While obstruents devoice before enclitics (except the definite article), they do not devoice at the end of prepositions; compare: гра̇д ли/gràd li /gratli/ 'a city?' (compare град'тт/gradắt/gradắt/ 'the city') and под липйте/pod lipite /podlipite/ 'under the lindens'.
(b) Voicing assimilation in clusters: A voiced obstruent alternates with a voiceless obstruent before a voiceless obstruent; a voiceless obstruent alternates with a voiced obstruent before a voiced obstruent. For
example, 'sweet' M SG сла̇дък/sládăk /slàdăk/ ~ F SG сла̇дка/ slảdka /slàtka/, свàт/svàt /svàt/ 'matchmaker' ~ сва̇тба/svàtba /svadba/ 'wedding'. The same alternation occurs between fully stressed words and clitics, and in colloquial speech between fully stressed words as well: от бáба/ot bàba /odbàba/ 'from grandmother', без товà/bez tovà /bestovà/ 'without this (NSG)'. The alternation applies allophonically to /c x /; for example, че̇тох ги/čètox gi /četoyg'i/ '(I) read (AOR) them'. Presumably inherited from ProtoSlavonic, the alternation became much more frequent with the loss of weak * $\boldsymbol{b} / \mathrm{b}$.
$/ \mathrm{v} \mathrm{v}^{\prime} /$ followed by sonorants do not cause preceding voiceless obstruents to become voiced: сва̇т/svàt /svàt/ 'matchmaker'; but от вдовйцата/ot vdovicata/odvdovicata/ 'from the widow'. Between a voiceless obstruent and a sonorant $/ \mathrm{v} \mathrm{v}^{\prime} /$ are optionally voiceless: /svàt ~ sfàt/.
(c) Velar ~ palatal: $/ \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\prime} /$ before front vowels $\sim / \mathrm{kg} /$ elsewhere (the rule applies allophonically to /x/); for instance, 'book' F SG кнйга/ kniga /kniga/ ~ PL кнйги/knigi /knig'i/. It occurs across word boundaries in casual speech. The alternation arose after the change of PSI. * $y$ to $i$, well after the velar palatalizations of Proto-Slavonic.
(d) $\mathbf{C}^{\prime} \sim \mathbf{C}$ : Palatalized consonants before non-front vowels alternate with non-palatalized consonants elsewhere. This alternation is the result of relatively recent changes which eliminated palatalized consonants before front vowels, consonants, and word boundaries, as in 'land' F SG земя่/zemjà : PL земй/zemi : зѐмна/zèmna 'earthly, earthen (FSG)' : земля่к/zemljàk 'countryman'; 'blue’ F SG си́ня/sinja : N SG си́ньо/ $\sin$ 'o : M SG сѝн/sin : PL сйни/sini 'blue'.
(e) $/ \mathbf{i} / \sim 0: / \mathrm{j} /$ before back vowels, consonants or word boundaries alternates with $\emptyset$ before front vowels; for example, м SG 'my' мо́й/mój versus PL мо́и/mói. This alternation is perhaps optional (Маслов/ Maslov 1981: 51).
(f) $/ \mathbf{j} \sim \mathbf{C}^{\prime} /$ : Root-initial $/ \mathrm{j} /$ alternates with palatalization of prefix-final consonant; thus, я่м/jàm '(I) eat' but обя่двам/objádvam /ob'ádvam/ '(I) dine'.
(g) /s/ ~ Ø: /s/ alternates with $\emptyset$ between /št st č šž/ and /k/. This alternation occurs only in adjectives with the derivational suffix/-sk-/; for example, чèшки/čěški 'Czech (M SG)' from the noun /čex-/ + $/$-sk-/ with $/ \mathrm{x} /$ to /š/ (see 2.2).

3 Lexically restricted alternations, conditioned by phonological factors, morphological factors or a combination. All have exceptions.
(a) C'á $\sim \mathbf{C e}$ : Stressed /a/ preceded by a palatalized consonant alternates with /e/ (stressed or unstressed) preceded by a non-palatalized
consonant. The alternation is lexically limited to approximately $90-100$ stems and several affixes (Scatton 1984, appendices 1 and 2). Otherwise it is conditioned by phonological factors: / $\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{a} /$ if the alternating syllable is stressed and not followed by (1) a palatalized or alveopalatal consonant; (2) a consonant cluster containing such a consonant; or (3) a syllable containing a front vowel; otherwise / $\mathrm{Ce} /$ or $/ \mathrm{Ce}$. Thus: 'blind' м SG сля̀п/sljàp : PL слѐпи/slèpi : слѐпчо/ slèpčo 'blind man' : заслепя่/zaslepjà '(I) blind'. Exceptions are common: for instance, 'place', N SG мя́сто/mjásto and PL местà/ mestà, but related adjective мѐстна/mèstna 'local (F SG)'. The alternation is the result of the characteristic north-eastern Bulgarian treatment of PSI. *ě jat'.
(b) Metathesis: As a result of the development of Proto-Slavonic liquid diphthongs with ${ }^{*} \mathbf{b} / \mathrm{b}$ (section 2.1 ), the position of the consonants $/ \mathrm{rl}$ / with respect to /ă/ varies as a function of the following environment: /ră/ and /lă/ before two consonants, /ăr/ and /ăl/ before a consonant followed by a vowel. Lexically limited, the alternation is common in derivation, but infrequent in inflection; for example, върба̀/vărbà 'willow tree' : Връ่бница/Vrắbnica 'Palm Sunday'. In monosyllabic forms with more than one consonant after the liquidvowel sequence, /ă/ always follows the liquid: кр'்ст/krằst 'cross'. In other monosyllabic forms, both orders occur: грвм/grắm 'thunder' versus вь่лк/vằlk 'wolf'. Exceptions are numerous: смйртна/ smắrtna 'fatal ( FSG )'. See Scatton (1984, appendix 3) for details.
(c) Vowel ~ 0: In the inflectional and derivational patterns of many nominal and verbal forms, /ă/ and /e/ alternate with $\emptyset$. The alternation is the idiosyncratic property of many roots and affixes. For example, 'day' M SG дѐн/dèn : PL днй/dni; 'silver (ADJECTIVE)' M SG сре̇бърен/srèbăren : F SG срёбърна/srèbărna : срѐбърник/ srèbărnik 'silver coin' : сребрó/srebró 'silver ( N )'. The alternation is the result of the evolution of the PSI. * $\quad \mathbf{b} / \mathrm{b}$ plus the apparent epenthesis of /ă/ in word-final clusters of consonant plus liquid (see section 2.1).

## 3 Morphology

### 3.1 Nominal morphology

### 3.1.1 Nominal categories

Bulgarian nominal morphology includes the following categories:
form (Bulgarian бро́йна фо́рма/bröjna förma) with cardinal numerals.
2 Definiteness, expressed by a definite article, postposed to the first nominal constituent of definite noun phrases.
3 Case (extremely limited): Two classes of nouns and masculine singular adjectives have singular vocative forms (non-productive and limited). The masculine singular definite article contrasts subjective and objective forms (a distinction not strictly observed in colloquial Bulgarian). Personal pronouns and the masculine personal interrogative pronoun ко́й/kỏj 'who' (and other pronouns derived from it) have nominative, accusative and dative forms; non-clitic dative forms, however, are replaced by prepositional phrases (see 3.1.3).

Other case forms were common in the literary language in the past, particularly for masculine personal nouns; for example, NOM Владимйр/Vladimir, DAт Владими́ру/Vladimiru, АСС Владимйра/Vladimira. They are now found only in regional, non-literary dialects (see section 6). For case vestiges in adverbial formations, see section 3.1.4.
4 Grammatical gender: masculine, feminine, neuter, reflected in the number suffixes (singular/plural) of nouns. In addition, gender and number are the basis for agreement of verbal and other nominal forms with nouns. Gender is natural only to the extent that certain nouns denoting humans, regardless of their inflectional patterns, are masculine or feminine for agreement purposes depending on their meaning; for example, although inflected like a feminine noun in $/-\mathrm{a} /$, слуга́/slugà '(male) servant' shows masculine agreement; likewise чиччо/čičo 'uncle', although it is inflected like a neuter noun in /-o/. In addition, a small number of nouns with singulars in $/-\mathrm{a} /$ which denote men or women show masculine or feminine agreement depending on the sex of their referents; for instance, пияница/pijanica 'drunkard'.

### 3.1.2 Noun morphology

The most important inflectional patterns of nouns are as follows:

## 1 Masculine singular /-0/

| Monosyllabic | 'son' | SG INDEF сйн | SG VOC сине | PL INDEF синове் | PL COUNT сйна |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\sin$ | sine | sinovè | sina |
|  | 'city' | гра̇д | гра̇де | градове̇ | гра̇да |
|  |  | grad | grade | gradove | grada |
| Polysyllabic | 'teacher' | учйтел | учи่телю | учйтели | учйтеля |
|  |  | učitel | učitelju | učiteli | učitelja |

Vowel-zero alternations are common in this class: the vowel occurs in all singular forms and the count plural, zero in other plural forms: 'fool' SG глупе̇ц/glupèc, vOc глупѐцо/glupèco - PL глупцй/glupci.

Vocative suffixes are /-e/, /-u/ (see above), or /-o/ ('man, husband' мъ่ж/mằž - мъ̇жо/mằžo; ‘citizen’ гра́жданин/gràždanin - гра́жданино/gráždanino). Their distribution depends on the stem-final consonant (Scatton 1984: 140-2).
/-ove/ is the regular plural suffix for monosyllabic stems. After $/ \mathrm{j} /$, it is sometimes replaced by /-eve/: 'tea' ча́й/čàj - чáeве/čàeve. Often /-i/ replaces /-ove/, especially in borrowings: 'day' дѐн/dèn - днй/dni, 'fact' фа́кт/fàkt - фа̇кти/fàkti (borrowed from Latin).

Several common monosyllabic nouns take other plural suffixes: /-išta/: 'path, road' пъ่т/pắt - пъ่тища/pắtišta; /-a/: 'brother' бра̀т/bràt бра́тя/bratja (with irregular palatalization of /t/); 'foot' кра́к/krak крака̀/krakà; /-è/: ‘man, husband’ мъ̇ж/mằž - мъжѐ/mǎžé.
$/-\mathrm{i} /$ is the regular plural suffix for polysyllabic stems; here stem-final velars generally become dentals: 'pupil' ученйк/učenik - ученйци/ učenici. Exceptions are common, especially in borrowings: 'dinner jacket' (from English via Russian) смо̀кинг/smóking - смо́кинги/smókingi. The suffix /-in-/ is lost in the plural: 'citizen' гра́жданин/gráždanin гра́ждани/gràždani. Rarely, /-ove/ occurs for expected /-i/: 'fire' о́гън/ ógăn - огньóве/ogn'óve.

Alternative plural forms are common: ‘sign’ зна̀к/znàk - зна̀ци/znàci ~ зна́кове/znàkove.
The suffix of the plural count form is $/-\mathrm{a} /-$ never stressed.
In vocative and count forms, stress falls on the same stem-syllable as in the singular. Monosyllabic stems show three possibilities in the plural:

| Stem | 'sign' | зна́к/znàk | znàкове/znàkove |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Suffix initial | 'chair' | сто́л/stól <br> столо́ве/stolóve |  |
| Suffix final | 'city' | гра́д/grád | градове̇/gradove |

The first pattern is by far the most common. For polysyllabic stems, stress is fixed on the stem: 'pupil' ученйк/učenik - ученйци/učenici; an apparent shift to the plural suffix occurs with the loss of stressed suffixal vowels: 'fool' глупе̇ц/glupèc - глупцй/glupci.

2 Neuter nouns with SG /-o/ (/-e/), PL /-a/

|  | SG INDEF | PL INDEF |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'place' | мя́сто/mjásto | местá/mestá |
| 'heart' | сърце̇/sărcé | сърцá/sǎrcá |
| 'doctrine' | учение/učénie | учения/učenija |

The singular suffix / $-\mathrm{o} /$ may be /-e/ after stems terminating in palatalized,
palatal or, rarely, other consonants. Other suffixes are rare: /-i/ (two examples): ‘eye’ oкò/okó - очи่/oči, 'ear' yxó/uxò - ушѝ/uši (both with velar to alveo-palatal); /-è/ (three examples): 'wing' крилó/kriló криле̇/krilè (~ крила̇/krilà), 'knee' коля่но/koljàno - коленѐ/kolené (~ коленà/kolenà), ‘shoulder’ рàмо/ràmo - раменѐ/ramenè (~ раменà/ramenà).

Stress is usually fixed on the stem ('doctrine' above) or the suffix ('heart'). Some nouns shift stress from stem to plural suffix, for instance 'place'.

A number of kinship terms and names for men have singulars in /-o/; they use the plural suffix /-ovci/; stress is fixed: 'grandfather' дя่до/djado - дя́довци/djádovci.

## 3 Neuter nouns with SG /-e/, PL /-eCa/

|  | SG INDEF | PL INDEF |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 'lamb' | àгне/àgne | áгнета/ágneta |
| 'stool' | сто́лче/stólče | сто́лчета/stólčeta |

This formation is regular for neuter nouns with the common diminutive suffix /-e/ or any of its variants, like /-če/. Stress is fixed. The suffix /-ta/ is productive for foreign borrowings terminating in $/-\mathrm{i}$ / or $/-\mathrm{u}$ / (unknown as singular suffixes in native nouns): 'taxi' таксй/taksi - таксйта/taksita.

Seven nouns take stressed /-nà/ instead of /-ta/: 'seed' cème/sème семена̇/semenà; also врѐме/vrème 'time', йме/ime 'name'.

Stressed /-sà/ occurs with two neuters in /-o/ or /-e/: ‘sky, heaven' небѐ/nebè (archaic не்бо ~ небó/nèbo ~ nebó) - небесà/nebesà, 'miracle' чу̀до/čùdo - чудесà/čudesà. A few other plurals of this type are archaic alternatives to regular formations; thus, 'speech' сло́во/slóvo слова̀/slovà and archaic словеса̀/slovesà.

## 4 Feminine nouns with sg/-a/

| 'woman, wife' | SG INDEF жена่ | sG voc жено | PL INDEF женй |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | žená | žèno | eni |
| 'land' | земя่ | зёмь | ем |
|  | zemjá | zèm'o | zem |

The vocative is regularly formed with /-o/ (see above) or /-e/ ('tsarina' цари́ца/carica - цари́це/carice) (Scatton 1984: 140-2 for rules and exceptions). Stress in the vocative is always on the stem. The plural suffix is $/-\mathrm{i} /$, before which velars do not become alveo-palatals. Two nouns take /-e/ with shift of velar to dental: 'arm, hand' ръка́/răkà - pъце்/răcé and 'leg, foot' (dialectal) нога̀/nogà - нозе̇/nozé.

This pattern also includes some masculine personal nouns: '(male) servant' SG слугà/slugà, VOC слу́го/slủgo, PL слугѝ/slugi.

Vocative forms aside, the stress of nouns in $/-a /$ is fixed.

## 5 Feminine nouns with sG /-(/)

|  | ND | PL indef |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ng' | пècer/pèse | пе̇сни/pèsni |
| 'bone' | ко́cт/kóst | ко̇сти/k̇ |

The plural suffix is $/-\mathrm{i} /$. Vowel-zero alternations occur (section 2.3). Stress is fixed (except with the definite article: see below).

Many Bulgarian noun types are defective with respect to number. Some (singularia tantum) occur only in the singular: уравновесеност/ uravnovesenost 'equilibrium'; others (pluralia tantum) occur only in the plural: очилà/očilà 'eye glasses'.

As the first constituent of a definite noun phrase, nouns carry the postposed definite article:

Singular:
masculine -ø: -ът ~ -a (-ят ~ я)/-ăt ~ -a (-jat ~ at) (учйтелят/ učiteljat 'the teacher', глупѐцът/glupècăt 'the fool')
feminine/masculine /-a/: -та/-ta (жена̀та/ženàta 'the woman, wife')
feminine - $\emptyset:$-тá/-tá (песента́/pesentà 'the song')
masculine /-o/, all neuter: -то/-to (мяястото/mjástoto 'the place')
Plural:
/-а/: -та/-ta (места́та/mestàta 'the places')
/-i/ or /-e/: -те/-te (женйте/ženite 'the women, wives')

## Notes:

1 Masculine singular forms distinguish case: forms in /t/ - nominative, forms without /t/ - objective: то́й е профе́сорът/tòj e profésorăt 'he is the professor' versus ста́ята на профécopa/stajata na profésora 'the room of the professor'. In spoken usage, depending on regional dialect or idiolect, one of the two forms is generalized. With some monosyllabic masculine nouns the stress unpredictably shifts to the article: град'்т/gradắt 'the city'. See section 2.1 for spelling.
2 With feminine singular nouns in $-\emptyset$, stress is always on the article, which, additionally, is often pronounced [-tằ]: [pesentằ] ~ [pesentà].

Noun morphology has changed dramatically in the history of Bulgarian. Except for masculine and feminine vocative forms, all case forms were lost. The Proto-Slavonic nominative-accusative dual of $o$-stem masculine nouns was the source of masculine count forms. Otherwise, the dual was lost
(except for vestiges: some feminine and neuter plurals in $/-\mathrm{e} /$, some masculine plurals in $/-a /$, the plurals of 'eye' and 'ear' (examples above)). The definite article developed from the demonstrative pronoun PSI. ${ }^{*} t$-.

The declensional types of Modern Bulgarian continue the major patterns of Late Proto-Slavonic. Masculine and neuter stems with singulars in /-ø/ and $/-\mathrm{o} /$, respectively, are descendants of $o$-stem masculines and neuters. The plural suffix of monosyllabic masculines, /-ove/, preserves the nominative plural of $u$-stem masculines, otherwise absorbed by $o$-stems. The rare masculine plural suffix $/-\dot{e} /$, as in мъжѐ/mǎžé, reflects nominative plural -ьe of masculine $i$-stems, otherwise absorbed by $o$-stem masculines. Feminine nouns in $/-\mathrm{a} /$ continue Proto-Slavonic feminine $\bar{a}$-stems, feminine nouns in /- $\emptyset /-i$-stems. Masculine personal nouns with singular in /-o/ are an innovation.

Vestiges of Proto-Slavonic 'hard' versus 'soft' inflectional patterns for $o$ and $\bar{a}$-stems are found in the vocative (though with redistribution of suffixes, including the extension of $/-\mathrm{o} /$ to masculines), in the masculine plural suffix /-eve/ (for /-ove/), and in the neuter singular suffix/-e/ (for /-o/).

With one major exception, all minor classes of Proto-Slavonic nouns were either absorbed by major patterns or became non-productive and limited in number. As mentioned, $u$-stem and $i$-stem masculines merged with $o$-stem masculines. Most feminine $\bar{u}$-stems, developing singular forms in /-va/, merged with $\bar{a}$-stem feminines (ці்рква/cắrkva 'church'); a few became feminines in $/-\emptyset /$ (кръ́в/krắv 'blood'). Feminine $\bar{z}$-stems became feminines in $/-\mathrm{a}$ / (рабйня/rabinja 'slave'). Masculine $n$-stems generally merged with masculines in $/-\emptyset /-$ with or without a change of suffix (пла̀мък/plàmăk 'flame' versus дѐн/dèn 'day'). The original suffix of 'stone' was more or less preserved in the plural while being replaced in the singular: ка́мък/kàmăk - ка̇мъни/kàmăni.

Neuter $s$-stems became neuters in /-o/ ('speech’ сло́во/slóvo слова̇/slovà); likewise for several neuter $n$-stems ('letter' писмо́/pismó from ocs pisme). Several $n$-stems retain the old plural ('seed' cème/seme - семенà/semenà). Neuter $n t$-stems, preserved with plurals in $/-$ ta/, are very common due to the productivity of diminutive suffixes in $/-\mathrm{e} /$ and the use of /-ta/ with borrowings. Finally, two feminine $r$-stems, ocs mati 'mother' and $d ъ s ̌ t i$ 'daughter', became feminine nouns in $/-\mathrm{a} /:$ ма́йка/ màjka and дъщеря่/dǎšterjà (the latter with the vocative дъંще/dằste).

### 3.1.3 Pronominal morphology

The personal pronouns of Bulgarian are shown in table 5.4. Нйй/nij and вйй/vij are normal in spoken Bulgarian. With decreasing consistency, second person plural forms are used for polite address of second person singular interlocutors. The clitic feminine dative singular is written with a grave accent to distinguish it from и/i 'and'.

Table 5.4 Personal pronouns

| (a) | NOM | ACC |  | DAT |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | Stressed | Clitic | Stressed | Clitic |  |
| 1 SG | à3 | ме̇не | ме | (ме̇не) | ми | 'I' |
| 2 SG | тй | те̇бе | те | (те̇бе) | ти | 'you (SG)' |
| 3 SG M | то́й | не̇го | го | (не̇му) | my | 'he/it' |
| N | то̀ | не̇го | го | (не̇му) | my | 'it' |
| F | тя่ | не̇я | я | (не்й) | ѝ | 'she/it' |
| 1 PL | нйе (нйй) | нàc | ни | (нàm) | ни | 'we' |
| 2 PL | вйе (вйй) | bác | ви | (ва̇м) | ви | 'you (PL)' |
| 3 PL | те̇ | тя่х | ги | (тя̆м) | им | 'they' |
| REFL | - | се̇бe си | ce | (се̇бе си) | си | '-self' |


| (b) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 sG | àz | mène | me | (mène) | mi | 'I' |
| 2 sG | ti | tebe | te | (tetbe) | ti | 'you (SG)' |
| 3 SGM | tòj | nègo | go | (nèmu) | mu | 'he/it' |
| N | tó | nėgo | go | (nèmu) | mu |  |
| F | tjà | nèja | ja | ( n ¢j) | ì | 'she/it' |
| 1 PL | nie (nij) | nás | ni | (nàm) | ni | 'we' |
| 2 PL | vie (vij) | vàs | vi | (vàm) | vi | 'you (PL)' |
| 3 PL | te | tjax | gi | (tjȧm) | im | 'they' |
| REFL | - | sebe si | se | (sébe si) | si | '-self' |

Stressed dative forms, now archaic, are replaced by prepositional phrases of на/na + stressed accusatives. Stressed accusative forms serve as objects of prepositions and, with logical stress, as direct objects of transitive verbs. Clitic forms are normal as unmarked verbal complements, accusative as direct object, dative as indirect object:

Да́дох нѐго на нѐя./Dádox nègo na nèja.
'(I) gave it to her.'
Дадох ѝ го./Dádox ì go.
'(I) gave it to her.'
Enclitic datives are the customary expression of possession (see section 4.9). 'Ethical' (modal) dative forms, usually clitics, are common in colloquial Bulgarian: то́й си пййва/tòj si pijva 'he likes to take a drop' (= 'he self-DAT drinks-SEMELFACTIVE').

Personal pronouns are matched by personal possessive pronouns, inflected for gender and number like adjectives (see table 5.5). Like adjectives, possessive pronouns may carry the definite article (section 3.1.4). However, in first person singular, second person singular and reflexive

Table 5.5 Personal possessive pronouns

| M SG | FSG $\quad$ NSG |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |


| (a) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 SG | мо́й | мо่я | móe | мо่и | 'my' |
| 2 SG | тво́й | тво́я | твȯe | тво̇и | 'your-SG' |
| 3 SG M/N | не̇гов | не̇гова | не̇гово | не̇гови | 'his/its' |
| F | не̇ин | нёйна | не̇йно | не่йни | 'her/its' |
| 1 PL | на่ш | на่ша | на่ше | на่ши | 'our' |
| 2 PL | вàш | ва̇ша | вàme | ва́ши | 'your-PL' |
| 3 PL | теххен | тяхна | тя่хно | теххни | 'their' |
| REFL | сво́й | сво́я | cróe | сво́и | '-own' |


| (b) |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 SG | mój | mója | móe | mói | 'my' |
| 2 SG | tvój | tvója | tvóe | tvói | 'your-sG' |
| 3 SG M/N | nègov | négova | négovo | nègovi | 'his/its' |
| F | nèin | nėjna | nėjno | nèjni | 'her' |
| 1 PL | náš | náša | náše | náši | 'our' |
| 2 PL | váš | vàša | vȧše | váši | 'your-PL' |
| 3 PL | texen | tjàxna | tjàxno | texxni | 'their' |
| REFL | svój | svója | svȯe | svói | '-own' |

forms, /-ij-/ is not added before the masculine singular article: 'my' M SG DEF мо́sт/mójat versus 'their' M SG DEF тѐхният/téxnijat.

Other pronominal forms, also inflected for gender and number, are demonstrative (table 5.6) and interrogative (table 5.7).

The masculine singular form of 'who' and all pronominal forms derived from it (below) have an oblique form, koró/kogó, used as direct object and object of prepositions. In colloquial Bulgarian it is often replaced by ко́й/kój. The archaic dative кому́/komù is replaced by PREP на/na + кого́/kogó.

With the exception of 'everyone, ...' (below), other pronominal forms are derived from interrogatives.

Relative pronouns add the suffix -то/-to: ко́йто/kojjto 'who, which, that (M SG)', какъ่вто/kakắvto 'which sort (M SG)'.

Negative pronouns add stressed нй-/ni-: нйкой/nikoj 'no one (M SG)', ни่чий/ničij 'no one's (M SG)', ни́какъв/nikakăv 'no sort of (M SG)', нйщо/ništo 'nothing ( NSG )'.

## Indefinite pronouns:

1 'some, a certain': stressed ня่-/njà- + interrogative; here /à/ ~ with /è/; ня่кой/njákoj ‘someone (M SG)', ня́какъв/njàkakăv ‘some sort

Table 5.6 Demonstrative pronouns

|  | M SG | F SG | N SG | PL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) |  |  |  |  |
| 'this' | то́зи/то́я | та่зи/та̇я | това̇/ту̀й | те̇зи/ти่я |
| 'that' <br> 'such a' | о́нзи/о́ня | она́зи/она่я така̇ва | онова่/ону́й тако́ва | оне̇зи/онйя такйва |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| (b) |  |  |  |  |
| 'this' |  |  | tovà/tùj |  |
| 'that' | ònzí/ónja | onàzi/onàja | onovà/onùj | onėzi/onija |
| 'such a' | takăv |  |  | takiva |

of (M SG)', нѐчий/néčij 'someone's (M SG)', не̇що/néšto 'something ( NSG ).
2 'someone, so-and-so, such-and-such': èди-/èdi- + interrogative cи/si, written as two words with secondary stress on the first constituent; ѐди-ко́й си/èdi-kój si 'so-and-so, a certain one (M SG)', ѐди-как'вв си/èdi-kakằv si 'such-and-such a, a certain (M SG)'.
3 'whoever, whatever, somebody or other, something or other, whatever sort of': interrogative + да è/da è, three words with secondary stress on the last; for example, ко́й да è/kój da è 'someone or other, anyone (M SG)', какво́ да è/kakvó da è 'whatever (N SG)'. Alternative forms replace the interrogative with a relative pronoun and add и/i: ко́йто и да è/kojjto i da è.

## Table 5.7 Interrogative pronouns

|  | M SG | F SG | N SG | PL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (a) |  |  |  |  |
| 'who, which' | ко́й | коя | Koè | кой |
| 'what' |  |  | какво̇/що் |  |
| 'what sort of' | какъ่в | каква̇ | какво́ | каквй |
| 'whose' | чи่й | чия | чие̇ | чий |
| (b) , |  |  |  |  |
| 'who, which' | kȯj | kojà | koé <br> kakvó/štó | koi |
| 'what' ${ }^{\text {'what sort of }}$ | kakằv | kakvà | kakvo/što kakvó | kakvi |
| 'whose' | čij | čijà | čiè | čii |

4 'everyone, every single, each’ M SG все̇ки/vsèki, F SG вся́ка/vsjàka, N SG вся́ко/vsjàko, PL всйчки/vsički. Referring to persons, the masculine singular form of 'everyone ...' has accusative forms всехкиго/ vsékigo, вся́кого/vsjákogo; they are obsolescent in the colloquial language.
'everything' N SG вси่чко/vsičko
'every sort of' M SG вся́какъв/vsjàkakãv, F SG вся́каква/vsjákakva, $\mathbf{~}$
SG вся่какво/vsjákakvo, PL вся่какви/vsjàkakvi
'all (of)' м SG всйчкият/vsičkijat, F SG всйчката/vsičkata N SG вси́чкото/vsičkoto, PL вси่чки(те)/vsički(te)

See section 4, especially 4.7-4.9 for pronominal usage.

### 3.1.4 Adjectival morphology

Adjectives are inflected for number and, in the singular, gender; there is a masculine singular vocative form:

|  | 'new' | 'goat's' | 'fraternal' |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M SG | нós/nóv | коззи/kózi | бра̇тски/bràtski |
| m SG Voc | но̇ви/nóvi | ко̇зи/kȯzi | бра̇тски/bràtski |
| FSG | но́ва/nóva | ко̇зя/kȯzja | бра̇тска/bràtska |
| NSG | но́во/nóvo | ко̇зе/kòze | бра̇тско/bràtsko |
| PL | но̇ви/nóvi | ко̇зи/kȯzi | бра̇тски/bràtski |

The usual masculine singular suffix is $/-\emptyset /$. The suffix $/-\mathrm{i} /$ is limited to adjectives in /-sk-/, a small number of possessive adjectives, and a few Russian loans in /-ov-/ (бреговй/bregovi 'shore (ADJECTIVE)'). Stems with vowel-zero alternations have a vowel in the masculine singular before /-ø/, otherwise zero: ‘good’ M SG добъ่p/dobằr - F SG добрà/dobrà.

The regular neuter suffix /-o/ may be /-e/, as in кóзe/kóze (see section 2.2).

Most adjectives are stem-stressed. End-stress is limited to Russian borrowings with /-ov-/ (see above) and two native stems: 'good' (above), 'alone' M SG càm/sàm ( F SG самà/samá).

A few colloquial adjectives borrowed from Turkish and, more recently, other languages are not inflected: сербе̇з чове̇к/serbèz čovèk 'bold man', сербе́з женй/serbèz ženi 'bold women' (see section 5.3).

Masculine singular forms in /-i/ continue definite Proto-Slavonic forms; others continue indefinite forms. All earlier non-nominative case forms, the dual and, in the plural, gender were lost. Except for irregular neuter singular forms in $/-\mathrm{e} /$, all trace of the soft adjectival paradigms of ProtoSlavonic was lost. The number of adjectives with palatalized stem-final consonants is limited to a few possessive adjectives (ко́зя/kózja 'goat's ( F SG)'), and one non-derived adjective 'blue' M SG си́н/sin, F SG си́ня/sinja, N SG сйньо/sin'o, PL сйни/sini.

## Table 5.8 Cardinal numerals

| (a) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| '1' едйн |  | едина̇десет |  |  |  |  |
| '2' два̇ |  | двана̇десет |  | два̇десет | '200' | две̇ста |
| '3' трй | '13' | тринаддесет |  | трйдесет | '300' | трйста |
| '4' че̇тири | '14' | четирина̇десет | '40' | четйридесет | '400' | че̇тиристо̀тин |
| '5' пѐт |  | петна̀десет |  | петдесет | '500' | пе̇тсто̀тин |
| '6' шѐст |  | шестнаддесет |  | шестдесет | '600' | ше̇стсто̀тин |
| '7' седем |  | седемнаддесет | '70' | седемдесе̇т | '700' | седдемсто̀тин |
| '8' о́сем |  | осемнаддесет |  | осемдесѐт | '800' | о́семсто̀тин |
| '9' де̇вет | '19' | деветна́десет | '90' | деветдесе่т | '900' | де̇ветсто̀тин |
| '10' де̇сет |  |  | '100' |  | 1,000' | хиля่да |
|  | 'mill | on' милио́н | 'thousand million' милиӑрд |  |  |  |


| (b) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| '1' edin | '11' edinàdeset |  |  |
| '2' dvà | '12' dvanàdeset | '20' dvàdeset | '200' dvesta |
| '3' tri | '13' trinàdeset | ' 30 ' trideset | '300' trista |
| '4' četiri | '14' četirinadeset | '40' cetirideset | '400' čétiristòtin |
| ' 5 ' pèt | ' 15 ' petnàdeset | '50' petdesèt | ' 500 ' pètstòtin |
| '6' s'est | '16' šestnádeset | '60' sestdesèt | ' 600 ' šéststòtin |
| '7' sédem | ' 17 ' sedemnàdeset | '70' sedemdesèt | '700' sédemstòtin |
| '8' osem | '18' osemnàdeset | ' 80 ' osemdesèt | '800' ossemstòtin |
| ' 9 ' dèvet | '19' devetnàdeset | ' 90 ' devetdesét | '900' dévetstòtin |
| ' 10 ' deset |  | ' 100 ' sto | ' 1,000 ' xiljáda |
|  | 'million' milión | 'thousand millio |  |

Comparative adjectives are formed with preposed stressed nò-/pó-: M SG по́-но́в/pó-nóv 'newer'. Superlatives use на́й-/nàj-: M SG на́й-но́в/ najj-nóv 'newest'. Note the regular 'double' stress in both formations.

The synthetic comparative forms of Proto-Slavonic were lost - with vestiges in вйсш/viš̌ ‘higher, superior', нйзш(и)/nizš(i) 'lower, inferior', ста́рши/stàrši 'elder, senior', младдши/mlàdši 'junior'.

As the first constituent of definite noun phrases, adjectives carry the definite article: M SG /-ă(t)/, F SG /-ta/, N SG /-to/, PL /-te/. Before the masculine singular definite article, the adjectival stem is extended with /ij/: 'the new' м SG но́вия(т)/nóvija(t), F SG но́вата/nóvata, N SG но́вото/ nóvoto, pl но́вите/nóvite. See section 2.1 for spelling of masculine singular forms. Forms with /t/ are subjective, those without it are objective (section 3.1.2). Stress remains unchanged with the definite article.

Certain adjectival forms function productively as adverbs: (1) masculine singular (or plural) forms of adjectives in /-sk-/ (бра́тски/bratski 'fraternal' and adverb 'fraternally'); (2) neuter singular forms of qualitative adjectives with masculine singular in /-ø/ (ху́баво/xúbavo 'nice' and adverb 'nicely');
(3) colloquially, definite feminine singular forms (здра̇вата/zdrávata 'healthy-the' and adverb 'soundly'). The comparison of adverbs follows rules for the comparison of adjectives: пó-xýбаво/pó-xúbavo 'more nicely'.

Non-productive, lexicalized adverbial formations - from noun and adjectival bases - often preserve old case distinctions; thus, locative до́лу/ dólu 'downward'; instrumental ти́хом/tixom 'quietly'. Similarly in frozen prepositional phrases: сно́щи/snóšti 'last night' (preposition c/s 'from' and genitive singular of нóщ/nóšt 'night').

### 3.1.5 Numeral morphology

Cardinal numerals (see table 5.8): spoken and sometimes written Bulgarian use /-nàjset/ for /-nádeset/ ('11' единàйсет/edinàjset), and in '20', ‘30', ‘40', ‘60'/-jset/ for /-deset/ ('20' два́йсет/dvàjset).

Other cardinals are made up of the forms in table 5.8. Here 'thousand' has the plural хилляди/xiljadi (with shifted accent), and 'million' and 'thousand million' have the count forms милио́на/milióna, and милиàрда/miliàrda. For example, ' $36,620,105$ ' трйста и шѐст милио́на, шѐстсто̀тин и два̇десет хйляди, сто́ и пе̇т/trista i šést milióna, šèststòtin i dvádeset xiljadi, stò i pèt. Note the regular use of и/i 'and' in each compound term.
' 1 ' is inflected like an adjective: една̀ кнйга/ednà kniga 'one book'. Its plural is used with pluralia tantum: еднй кле̇щи/edni klěšti 'one (set of) pliers'. Increasingly ' 1 ' functions as an indefinite article 'a(n), some': едйн чове̇к/edin čovèk 'a person'.
' 2 ' два̇/dvà is used with masculine nouns, двѐ/dvè with neuters and feminines: два̇ гра̇да/dvà gràda 'two cities', две̇ женй/dvè ženi 'two women ( F )', две́ местà/dvé mestà 'two places ( N )'.

There are special forms of ' 2 '-' 6 ' for masculine personal nouns (and groups of male and female persons):
'2' два̀ма/dvàma
'3' трйма/trima
'4' четирйма/četirima ~ чети́рма/četirma
'5' петйма/petima
'6’ шестйма/šestima
For example, два́ма учени่ци/dvàma učenici 'two pupils'.
Cardinal numerals may be definite. In this respect ' 1 ' is adjectival: 'the one' M SG едйният/edinijat, F SG една̇та/ednàta. 'Million', 'thousand million' and all cardinals in $/-\mathrm{a}$ / follow rules for nouns: 'the million' милио́нът/milionnăt, 'the two (м)' дватта/dvata. Remaining cardinals use /-te/, always stressed except with '2 ( $\mathrm{F} / \mathrm{N}$ )' and ' 3 ': 'the two ( $\mathrm{F} / \mathrm{N}$ )' две்те/ dvète, 'the 700 ' седемсто̀тинте்/sedemstòtintè.

Ordinal numerals are adjectives formed from cardinals with characteristic adjectival gender/number suffixes. Masculine singular ordinals up to and including ' 90 ' use $/-\mathrm{i}$ /, those from ' 100 ' on use /- $\varnothing /$; пѐти/péti ' 5 th (M SG)', сто́тен/stóten '100th (M SG)'. Note:

1 Suppletive forms for:
'1st' пъ̀рви/pắrvi (~ пръ̀в/prắv)
'2nd' вто́ри/vtóri
'3rd' трѐти/trèti
'4th' четвъ'рти/četvắrti
2 ' 100 th' is /stoten/; /e/ alternates with $\emptyset$ and /o/ is stressed: деветсто́тно/devetstótno '900th (N SG)'.
3 'Thousandth', 'millionth' and 'thousand-millionth' use the adjectival suffix /-en-/; /e/ alternates with Ø: хияляден/xiljaden 'thousandth (M SG)'.
4 Accent shifts take place in the formation of '9th', '10th', '40th': девѐти/devèti, десе่ти/desèti, четиридесѐти/četirideséti.
5 Stem final vowels are lost in '7th' седдми/sedmi and '8th' óсми/ósmi.
In compound phrases only the final elements are ordinals: трйста петдесѐт и вто́ри/trista petdesét i vtóri '152nd (M SG)'.

Definite ordinal numerals are formed as definite adjectives: вто́рият/ vtórijat 'the second (M SG)', сто̀тната/stótnata 'the hundredth (F SG)'.

### 3.2 Verbal morphology

3.2.1 Verbal categories

Finite Bulgarian verbal forms are simple or compound. Simple forms convey person - first, second, third - and number - singular, plural. In addition, compound forms using participles show gender in the singular: masculine, feminine, neuter.

There are three tenses in the indicative mood - present, past, future which, combined with other categories, occur in nine formations:

1 Present, temporally unmarked, a simple form made up of verbal stem plus complex suffix - /e/ or / i / (both $\emptyset$ in first person singular and third person plural) or $/ \mathrm{a} /$, plus person/number marker:

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| First person | /-à $\sim-\mathrm{m} /$ | /-m $\sim-\mathrm{me} /$ |
| Second person | /-š/ | /-te/ |
| Third person | $/-\emptyset /$ | /-ăt/ |

2 Past imperfect, a simple form, expressing actions contemporaneous with
or subordinate to other past actions; made up of the present-tense stem plus a complex suffix consisting of a vowel /e $\sim \dot{a} /$ followed by:

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| First person | $/-\mathrm{x} /$ | /-xme/ |

3 Past aorist, a simple form, relating a temporally independent, concrete past action; the aorist stem plus:

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| First person | $/-\mathrm{x} /$ | /-xme/ |
| Second person | $/-\emptyset /$ | /-xte/ |
| Third person | $/-\emptyset /$ | $/-\mathrm{xa} /$ |

4 Future, a compound form:
invariant proclitic auxiliary щe/šte + present tense
Negated future forms, and other forms involving the future (see below), use the neuter third person singular auxiliary няяма да/njàma da ('has-not to'); note the colloquial alternative не щѐ/ne šté.

5 Present perfect, a compound form expressing an action completed in the past but relevant for or related to the present:
present tense 'be' + aorist past active participle
6 Past perfect, a compound form expressing an action completed in the past relative to another past action:
past tense 'be' + aorist past active participle
7 Future perfect, a compound form expressing an action to be completed in the future prior to another future action:
future tense 'be' + aorist past active participle
8 Past future, a compound form expressing an action to be completed in the past but future with respect to another past action; commonly used in conditional constructions (see section 4.5):
imperfect past of щ’่/štjà '(I) will, want' + да/da + present tense
9 Past future perfect, a compound form conveying a past action which is

Table 5.9 Indicative forms

| Non-perfect |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Non-future | Future |
|  | Non-futurect |
| Future |  |


| (a) Non-past | пи่ша | ще пи่ша | пйсал съ | ще съм писал |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Past |  | щя่х да пи่ша | бя่х пйсал | щя่х да съм пйсал |
| Aorist | пйсах |  |  |  |
| Imperfect | пи่шех |  |  |  |


| (b) |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Non-past | piša | šte piša | pisal såm | šte sǎm pisal |
| Past |  | štjàx da piša | bjáx pisal | štjàx da săm pisal |
| Aorist | pisax |  |  |  |
| Imperfect | pišex |  |  |  |

future with respect to a past action, which itself is prior to another past action; rare, commonly replaced by the past future:
past future of щ’่/štjà '(I) will, want' + aorist past active participle
Thus 'write ( 3 SG M IMPFV)' has the paradigm shown in table 5.9.
Bulgarian verbs also express aspect: perfective verbs mark the completion of the action of the verb, imperfective verbs are unmarked. Most Bulgarian verbs have perfective-imperfective pairs: 1 SG PRS IMPFV пи่ша/ piša '(I) write' - PRFV напи่ша/napiša '(I) write down, complete writing'. 'Bi-aspectual' verbs - verbs with one stem for both aspects - are common; most are borrowings: тренйрам/treniram '(I) train (IMPFV/PRFV)' (from English) (see section 5.3).

Morphological processes related to the creation of aspectual pairs begin with non-prefixed imperfective verbs (see section 3.3.3), from which perfective stems are formed by suffixation or prefixation. Besides changing the aspect, perfectivizing prefixes often add their own meaning: допи்ша/ dopiša '(I) finish writing (PRFV)' versus подпйша/podpiša '(I) sign' (for lists and definitions of prefixes see Граматика/Gramatika 2: 217ff.). The single perfectivizing suffix $/-\mathrm{n}-/$ imparts semelfactive meaning to the base: па̇дна/pàdna '(I) fall (PRFV SEMELFACTIVE)' (< па̇дам/pádam '(I) fall (IMPFV)').
'Secondary' imperfectives, all third conjugation (see below), are formed from perfectives by suffixation. While this process allows many alternative forms and shows random consonantal and vocalic alternations, there are only two imperfectivizing suffixes. The non-productive suffix /-a-/ occurs with a limited number of stems; 'speak' 1 SG PRS IMPFV говópg/govórja ,
'converse' 1 SG PRS PRFV разгово́ря/razgovórja > 1 SG PRS IMPFV разгова́рям/razgovarjam. The productive suffix is /-(a)va-/ (unstressed initial /a/ is deleted): 1 SG PRS IMPFV 'count' броя̀/brojà > 'enumerate' 1 SG PRS PRFV изброя /izbrojà > 1 SG PRS IMPFV изброяявам/izbrojävam; 'write' 1 SG PRS IMPFV пйша/piša > 'copy' 1 SG PRS PRFV препйша/ prepiša > 1 SG PRS IMPFV препйсвам/prepisvam. See Scatton (1984: 285310) for details.

The Proto-Slavonic aspectual distinction between determinate and indeterminate verbs of motion is entirely lost in Bulgarian.

Aspect is subject to some constraints. Only imperfective verbs have present active participles, gerunds, verbal nouns in /-ne/ and negative imperatives. Only imperfective verbs can be complements of verbs meaning 'begin', 'continue' or 'end'. Present perfective verbs are rare in independent clauses. Imperfect forms are most frequently imperfective aspect, and aorists perfective. Perfective imperfects and imperfective aorists are possible: perfective imperfects for usually repeated series of completed actions presented as subordinate ('backgrounded') with respect to other, 'major' past actions; imperfective aorists for 'major' past events the completion of which is not relevant for the narration. For discussion and examples see Scatton (1984: 318-32) and Lindstedt (1985).

Imperatives are simple or compound. Simple forms are second person singular or plural; there are compound forms for all persons and numbers. Simple forms use the suffixes SG /-i/ and PL /-ete/; the suffix-initial vowel is $/ \mathrm{j} /$ with third-conjugation verbs and with verbs of other conjugations whose present stems terminate in /j/; compare 'write' 2 SG пишй/pisil, 2 PL пишѐте/pišéte; ‘look' 2 SG гле̇дай/glèdaj, 2 PL глѐдайте/glédajte. The vowel is lost unpredictably in a few other verbs: влѐз/vlèz 'enter ( 2 SG)'. See section 4.2 for compound imperatives.

The conditional is a compound form using the aorist past tense of the stem /bi-/ 'be' (used only here) plus aorist past active participle: 'write' 1 SG M би́х пйсал/bix pisal '(I) could/should/would write/have written'. See section 4.5 for conditionals using the indicative.

There are several passive formations:
1 Any tense of 'be' + past passive participle of transitive verbs: писмо́то бе̇ше напйсано/pismóto béše napisano the letter was written'.
2 Finite forms of transitive verbs with the accusative reflexive pronoun $\mathrm{ce} / \mathrm{se}$ : писмо́то се пйше/pismóto se piše 'the letter is (being) written'.
'Impersonal' (subjectless) third person plural finite forms of transitive verbs: та́м прода́ват мля́ко/tàm prodávat mljáko 'milk is sold there' ( $=$ 'there sell-3 PL milk').

These formations have slightly different semantic and grammatical nuances (Граматика/Gramatika 2: 245ff.). A rare 'impersonal passive' uses 'be' and neuter singular past passive participles of transitive and intransitive verbs: по трава́та е хо́дено/po travàta e xódeno 'someone (or something) has walked on the grass' ( $=$ 'on grass-the is walked'; Граматика/ Gramatika 2: 381).

Reflexive verbs, which carry the clitic accusative reflexive pronoun, have various functions:

1 Many common intransitive verbs are reflexive. Some occur only reflexively: смѐя ce/smèja se '(I) laugh'; others are derived from non-reflexive transitive verbs: бйя/bija '(I) beat (TR)' > бйя ce/bija se '(I) fight (ITR)'.
2 Reflexive verbs derived from non-reflexive transitive verbs occur in passive constructions (see above).
3 Reflexive forms of transitive and intransitive verbs are used in third person singular 'impersonal' constructions: (a) to express desire, спй ми ce /spi mi se 'I want to sleep' (= 'sleep-3 SG me-DAT self-ACC'); (b) to express permission, тỳк не cè пỳши/tùk ne sè púši 'no smoking here' (= 'here not self-ACC smoke-3 SG').

For reciprocal and genuinely reflexive uses of reflexive verbs see section 4.8.

Indicative forms relate events personally witnessed or otherwise assumed to be true by speakers. For events not witnessed or known only through hearsay, Bulgarian uses so-called 'renarrated' forms (Chvany 1988). Every indicative form has a renarrated form; however, each renarrated tense, except one, corresponds to two indicative tenses:

| Indicative | Renarrated |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| present/imperfect | present | present 'be' + imperfect past participle |
| aorist | aorist | present 'be' + aorist past participle |
| present/past perfect | perfect | perfect 'be' + aorist past participle |
| (past) future | future | perfect 'will, want' + /da/ + present <br> (past) future perfect <br> future perfect <br> perfect 'will, want' $+/ d a /+$ perfect |

In addition, the present auxiliary 'be' is deleted in all third-person forms. Thus, the renarrated paradigm for 'write ( 3 SG M IMPFV)' shown in table 5.10. Compare indicative тóй напйса писмо̀то/tój napisa pismóto 'he wrote the letter (and I saw him do it)' versus renarrated то́й напйсал писмо́то/toj napisal pismóto '(it is said that) he wrote the letter'.

First-person renarrated forms are uncommon; they convey a sense of surprise or denial: пи́шел съм рома́н/pišel săm romàn 'I'm writing a novel!?' (= 'it's claimed that I'm writing a novel'). Emphatic present, aorist, future and future perfect renarrated forms replace the present-tense auxiliary 'be' with its present perfect form, while dropping the third-person

## Table 5.10 Renarrated forms

| Non-perfect |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Non-future | Perfect |  |
| Future | Non-future |  |
| Future |  |  |


| (a) |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Non-past | пи่шел | щя่л да пи่ша | би่л пи่сал | щя่л да е пйсал |
| Aorist | пйсал |  |  |  |

(b)
$\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { Non-past } & \text { pišel } \\ \text { pisal } & \text { štjàl da piša } & \text { bil pisal } \\ \text { Aorist } & \text { štjảl da e pisal }\end{array}\right]$
present auxiliary: renarrated пи่шел/pišel - emphatic renarrated би่л пи่шел/bil pišel '(he) writes' (Граматика/Gramatika 2: 361).

Some grammars describe another renarrated form, one which relates facts not personally witnessed by speakers, but presumed by them to be true. Presumptive forms use the present tense of 'be' plus a past participle, either aorist or imperfect (only aorist participles are used in indicative forms): то́й е пи่шел писмо́то/tòj e pišel pismóto 'he (presumably) wrote the letter'. Largely identical to other indicative or renarrated forms, this category is controversial (Scatton 1984: 332-3).

Non-finite verbal forms are the following:
The late Proto-Slavonic infinitive and supine have been replaced by phrases with да/da + present tense: и́скам да пи่ша/iskam da piša '(I) want to write'. A vestigial infinitive of very limited use is identical to the second-third person singular aorist (see section 4.5).

Bulgarian lost the present active, present passive and the 'first', nonresultative past participles of Proto-Slavonic. On the other hand, it preserved two other participles and innovated two more.

A present active participle is formed from imperfective present stems with the suffixes /-ašt- ~ -ešt-/: M SG пйшещ/pišešt 'writing'. A strictly literary form devised in the late nineteenth century on Russian and Church Slavonic models, it is only used attributively.

The imperfect past active participle is formed from imperfect present stems with /-el- ~ -al-/: m SG пи่шел/pišel 'wrote'. Used only in renarrated forms, it is a Bulgarian innovation.

The aorist past active participle is formed from aorist stems with the suffix /-1-/: m SG пйсал/pisal 'wrote'. The direct descendant of the 'second',
resultative past active participle of Proto-Slavonic, it is used in compound verbal forms and, occasionally, attributively.

The past passive participle is formed from aorist stems with the suffixes /-(e)n- ~ -t-/: m SG пйсан/pisan 'written'. Continuing the past passive participle of Proto-Slavonic, it is used predicatively in passive formations and attributively.

Based on western Bulgarian forms which continue the Proto-Slavonic present active participle, the Bulgarian gerund (verbal adverb) is formed from imperfective present stems with the suffix -(e)jki: пи่шейки/pišejki '(while) writing'. It relates an action contemporaneous with, but subordinate to, the main verb. It is a strictly literary form. For more on participles and gerunds see section 4.5 .

A neuter singular noun, denoting the action of the verb, is formed with /-(e)ne/ from imperfective stems: пйсане/pisane 'writing'.

### 3.2.2 Conjugation

Traditional grammars distinguish three conjugations on the basis of the initial vowels of present-tense suffixes:

| First conjugation | /e/ | пйш-е-ш/piš-e-š | '(you-SG) write' |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Second conjugation | /i/ | хо́д-и-ш/xód-i-š | '(you-SG) go, walk' |
| Third conjugation | /a/ | йм-а-ш/im-a-š | '(you-SG) have' |

Various subclasses of the first and second conjugations reflect the relationship between the stems of the aorist past and present tenses. For example, the first subclass of the first conjugation makes its aorist stem by adding $/ \mathrm{e} /(2 / 3 \mathrm{SG})$ or $/ \mathrm{o} /$ (elsewhere) to the present stem. Table 5.11 gives examples of major subclasses and their characteristic alternations. Double stresses indicate alternative pronunciations. See Пашов/Pašov (1966) and Граматика/Gramatika (2: 304ff.) for exhaustive lists.

Other verbal forms belong to one or the other of two 'systems', depending on which of the two stems is the basis for their formation:

Present system
present tense
imperfect past tense imperative present active participle imperfect past participle gerund

Aorist system aorist past tense aorist past participle past passive participle infinitive (vestigial) verbal noun

The first and second conjugations continue thematic patterns of Late Proto-Slavonic - with characteristic Bulgarian changes: loss of dual, loss of

Table 5.11 Bulgarian conjugational patterns



Table 5.11 continued

| Old Church Slavonic | Modern Bulgarian |
| :--- | :--- |
| Class 1 sG pres int | Class 1 sG pres 3 su pres 1 sG AOR |

(b)

infinitive and supine, loss of present active, present passive and nonresultative past active participles, simplification of the simple imperative, generalization of a single aorist formation, restructuring of imperfect forms on the present stem, elimination of the results of dental and labial assimilations to ${ }^{*} j$ (see section 2.2), and changes in individual suffixes. The third conjugation, a Bulgarian innovation, was accomplished by extending the unproductive Proto-Slavonic athematic type Old Church Slavonic 'have' PRS 1 SG imamb to many first-conjugation verbs with present theme -je(table 5.11). This conjugation, by far the largest, is productive for derivation of secondary imperfectives and the assimilation of borrowed verbs. Otherwise, vestiges of athematic forms are limited: first person singulars да̀м/dàm '(I) give (PRFV)' (otherwise /dad-/: даде̇ш/dadèš '(you-SG) give') and я่м/jàm '(I) eat (IMPFV)' (otherwise /jad-/: яде்ш/jadèš); imperatives я่ж(те)/jáž(te) 'eat (2 SG (PL))', вйж(те)/viž(te) 'see (2 SG (PL))'.

The following paradigms illustrate the first subtype of each conjugation; those of other subtypes follow from the examples in table 5.11.

Conjugation Ia 'read'

## Present

1 SG четà/četà
2 SG чете̇ш/četéš
3 SG чете̇/četé
1 PL четѐм/četèm
2 PL чете̇те/četète
3 PL четàт/četàt

## Imperfect

четя́х/četjà
четѐше/četeše
четѐше/četéše
четя́хме/
с̌етахмме
четя่хте/četjàxte чете̇те/četète
четя่ха/četjà́xa

Imperative
чети่/četi

辟

Aorist чѐтох/čètox че்те/čète че̇те/čète чѐтохме/ čétoxme чѐтохте/čètoxte че̇тоха/čètoxa

Stem-final /t/ or /d/ is lost before /l/ of the aorist participle: m SG чѐл/ čel. Otherwise, the consonant is retained with vowel-zero alternation: 'bake' M SG пе́къл/pèkàl - F SG пѐкла/pèkla. Retraction of stress to the root is regular in aorist forms.

Conjugation IIa 'go, walk'

|  | Present | Imperfect | Imperative | Aorist |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 SG | хо̇дя/xódja | хо́дех/xódex |  | xóдйх/xódix |
| 2 SG | хо́диш/xódiš | хо́деше/xódeše | ходй/xodi | xózй/xódi |
| 3 SG | хо́ди/xódi | хо́деше/xódeše |  | хо́дй / xȯdi |
| 1 PL | хо́дим/xódim | хо́дехме/ |  | хо́дйхме/ |
|  |  | xódexme |  | xódixme |
| 2 PL | xóдите/xódite | хо́дехте/xódexte | ходе̇те/xodėte | хо́ди́хте/xódixte |
| 3 PL | хо́дят/xódjat | хо́деха/xódexa |  | хо́дйха/xódixa |

This is the only conjugational type that regularly contrasts two stress patterns; compare 'pay' PRS 1 SG платя่/platjă, AOR 1 SG платйх/platix.

Conjugation III 'have'

|  | Present | Imperfect | Imperative | Aorist |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 SG | иммам/imam | имах/imax |  | ймах/imax |
| 2 SG | ймаш/imaš | ймаше/imaše | ймай/imaj | йма̇/ima |
| 3 sG | йма/ima | ймаше/imaše |  | йма̇/imà |
| 1 PL | ймаме/imame | ймахме/imaxme |  | ймаххме/imáxme |
| 2 PL | ймате/imate | ймахте/imaxte | ймайте/imajte | йма̇хте/imaxte |
| 3 PL | ймат/imat | ймаха/imaxa |  | ймахха/imaxa |

The negated form of 'have' is suppletive: 1 SG PRS няямам/njamam, 1 SG AOR ня́мах/njàmax and немàx/nemáx.

The optional shift of stress from the root in the present to the suffix vowel in the aorist occurs in other aorist forms as well: m SG AOR PART хо̇дйл/xȯdil, йма̀л/imàl. Reflecting variation in usage, reference works do not agree on which stems allow shifted forms. In any case, verbs of foreign origin are least likely to shift: 'telephone' 1 SG PRS телефонйрам/ telefoniram and 1 SG AOR телефонйрах/telefonirax.

The conjugational pattern of 'be' is suppletive:

1 sG
2 sG
3 sG
1 PL
2 PL
3 PL
Present
cъм
cи/sam
cı $/$ si
e/e
cмe $/$ sme
cre/ste
ca/sa

Imperfect/aorist participle: m SG бйл/bil, F SG билà/bilà, N SG било́/biló, PL билй/bili

Present forms are clitics. Alternative present forms, based on the stem of the imperative, 1 sG б'่да/bắda, 2 sG б'่деш/bắdeš, often replace regular present forms in future constructions and infinitival da-constructions.

Preserving a Proto-Slavonic anomaly, the aorist past participle of /id-/ (-jd-) 'go' is suppletive: м SG -шъл/-šăl and -шел/-šel, F SG -шла/-šla, N SG -шло/-šlo, PL -шли/-šli; for example 'arrive' 1 SG PRS до́йда/dójda, M SG AOR PART дошъ่л/došà̀.

### 3.3 Derivational morphology

### 3.3.1 Major patterns of noun derivation

Noun derivation is suffixal or compound. Suffixal formations are emotive or non-emotive. Productive emotive formations are (1) augmentative and/ or pejorative: жени่ще/ženište 'large woman' (< жена̇/ženà 'woman'), дебела่н/debelàn 'obese person' (< дебе̇л/debèl 'fat (M SG ADJECTIVE)'); or (2) diminutive and/or endearing: сто̀лче/stólče 'stool' (< сто̀л/stól 'chair'), бе̇бенце/bébence '(dear) baby' (< бèбe/bèbe 'baby').

Typical productive non-emotive formations are:
1 /-àk-/: always stressed, masculine personal nouns: проста̇к/prostàk 'simpleton' (< про́cт/próst 'simple (M SG)').
/-àč-/: masculine personal agent nouns from verbal bases: водàч/ vodáč 'leader' (< 1 SG PRS во́дя/vódja '(I) lead').
3 /-(e)c-/: masculine personal nouns: лъже̇ц/lǎžèc ‘liar’ (< 1 SG PRS лъжà/lăžà '(I) lie').
4 /-ic-/: feminine nouns, often counterparts to masculine nouns in /-(е)с-/: вдовйца/vdovica 'widower' (< вдове̇ц/vdovèc 'widower').
5 /-k-/: diverse feminine nouns, including counterparts to masculine personal nouns: вода̇чка/vodáčka 'leader (F)', проста́чка/ prostáčka 'simpleton ( $F$ )'.
6
/-ost-/: abstract de-adjectival feminine nouns: вя́рност/vjàrnost 'fidelity' ( вѐрен/vèren 'faithful, true (M SG)').

There are two types of compounding: (1) with 'linking' vowel /-o-/ (/-e-/): хлебопека́p/xlebopekàr 'bread-baker' < хляяб/xljàb 'bread' + пек-/pek- 'bake'; (2) simple concatenation: кандида่т-члѐн/kandidàtčlèn 'non-voting member' < 'candidate' + 'member'.

Bulgarian adjectives are regularly used as nouns: но́вото/nóvoto 'the new one/thing ( N )'. Several forms of this origin are used only in this way: 'insect' N SG насеко́мо/nasekómo - PL насеко́ми/nasekómi (as adjective).

### 3.3.2 Major patterns of adjective derivation

Adjectives are formed by suffixation and compounding. Productive suffixal formations include:

1 /-(e)n-/: qualitative and relational adjectives: 'successful' m SG успе̇шен/uspéšen, F SG ycпèшна/uspéšna (< ycпèx/uspéx 'success').
2 /-in-/: possessive relational adjectives from animate feminine and masculine nouns with singulars in /-a/: сѐстрин/séstrin 'sister's (м SG)' ( < сестрà/sestrà ‘sister').
3 /-ov-/: possessive relational adjectives from masculine personal nouns: бра́тов/bratov 'brother's (M SG)' (< бра̀т/bràt 'brother').

Compound formations use (1) linking with /-o-/ (/e/), злочѐст/ zločést 'unfortunate (M SG)' < зъл/zàl 'evil (M SG)' + чécт/čèst 'fate', or (2) simple concatenation, полу̀грамо̀тен/polùgramóten 'semi-literate (M SG)' < полу-/polu- 'semi' + грамо̀тен/gramóten 'literate (M SG)'.

See section 3.1.4 for comparative and superlative adjectives. Two other stressed prefixes affect the degree of adjectives: (1) вбъз-/vằz- attenuates the adjective: вங̇ззелѐн/văzzelèn 'greenish (M SG)'; (2) прѐ-/prè-
heightens it: преддобъ่р/prèdobăr 'too good, overly good (M SG)'.

### 3.3.3 Major patterns of verb derivation

A small number of Bulgarian non-prefixed imperfective stems are nonderived, such as пек-/pek- 'bake'. Most are formed with a limited number of verbalizing suffixes, which appear in the present and/or aorist stems; for example:

1 present stem in /-ø/ ~ aorist stem /-a-/: ‘write’ 1 SG PRS пи่ша/piša, 1 SG AOR пйcax/pisax (< пис-/pis- 'write');
2 present stem /-èj-/ ~ aorist stem /-à-/: 'live’ 1 SG PRS живе̇я/živèja, 1 SG AOR живя́x/živjàx ( жи́в/živ ‘alive (M SG)');
3 present stem in /- $\emptyset / \sim$ aorist stem /-i-/: 'go, walk’ 1 SG PRS xóдя/ xódja, 1 SG AOR xóдих/xódix (< xóд/xód 'course, movement').

In the process of deriving perfective stems from non-prefixed imperfectives the meaning of the verbal base may be augmented (1) by the meaning of the perfectivizing prefix or (2) by the semelfactive meaning of the perfectivizing suffix $/-\mathrm{n}-/$. For examples see section 3.2.1.

## 4 Syntax

### 4.1 Element order in declarative sentences

The unmarked order of main constituents in simple declarative sentences is Subject-Verb-Object: Ива̇н отво́ри врата̇та/Ivàn otvóri vratáta 'Ivan opened the door'. Other orders change the logical stress or other stylistic nuances: врата́та отво́ри Ива́н/vratata otvóri Ivàn 'Ivan opened the door' (Rudin 1986: 14ff.; Пенчев/Penčev 1984: 89ff.).

Adverbial modifiers in verb phrases normally come at the end of the sentence: Ива̀н ще до́йде ту̀к ра́но у̀тре/Ivàn šte dỏjde tùk ràno ùtre 'Ivan will come here early tomorrow'.

Subjectless sentences are common. Some result from the omission of subject pronouns (see section 4.7). Others - with neuter third person singular verbs - seem to be genuinely impersonal; these include (1) verbs denoting natural phenomena (валй/vali 'precipitates'), (2) the copula 'be' plus adjectives (горе்що e/gorešsto e '(it) is hot'), (3) reflexivized verbs in constructions denoting desire/lack of desire, permission or prohibition (see section 3.2.1), (4) modal verbs (such as би́ва/biva 'ought', тря่бва/ trjàbva 'needs, must'), (5) certain copular verbs (such as стру̀ва ce/strùva se 'seems', изгле̇жда/izglèžda 'appears').

Bulgarian has many clitics - phonologically unstressed words - whose positions with respect to other constituents are fixed. Proclitics include (1) prepositions (из на́шата странà/iz nášata stranà 'throughout our
country'), (2) the negative particle не/ne 'not' (see section 4.6), (3) the future auxiliary ще/šte (section 3.2.1), (4) the infinitival complementizer да/da (и́скам да пйша/iskam da piša '(I) want to write'), (5) the conjunctions и/i 'and', но/no 'but', a/a 'and/but' and the complementizer че/če 'that' (и мѐне/i mène 'me too' (= 'and me')).

Enclitics include (1) the definite article (see section 3.1.1), (2) the interrogative particle ли/li (section 4.2), (3) 'short' dative personal pronouns denoting possession (section 4.9).

Two groups of verbal clitics - (1) non-emphatic dative and accusative personal pronouns (as indirect and direct objects, respectively) and (2) present forms of 'be' - are variable: when the verb phrase is the initial constituent of the sentence, they are enclitics on its first stressed constituent; otherwise they are proclitics. In addition, dative pronominal clitics precede accusatives; third person singular 'be' follows pronominal clitics while other persons and numbers precede them:

| си му ги./Dàl si mu gi. <br> -M SG be-2 SG-PRS him-DAT <br> them-ACC | Тй си му ги да̀л./Ti si mu gi dàl. you-sG be-2 sG-PRS him-DAT them-ACC gave-M SG |
| :---: | :---: |
| -F SG him-DAT them-ACC | she him-DAT them-ACC be-3 SG-PRS |
| e) has g | has give |

For details on the interaction among various rules of clitic placement see Hauge (1976) and Ewen (1979).

The order of constituents within simple noun phrases is:
$\underset{\text { pronoun }}{\text { demonstrative }}+\underset{\text { pronoun }}{\text { possessive }}+\underset{\text { quantifier }}{+\underset{\text { phrase( }}{ } \text { adjectival }}+\underset{\text { noun }}{\text { prepositional }}$
The minimal noun phrase is a single noun; the maximal noun phrase contains all of the above elements: тѐзи мо́и двѐ мно́го скъ்пи но́ви кнйги от Герма̇ния/tézi mói dvé mnógo skắpi nóvi knigi ot Germànija 'these my two very expensive new books from Germany'.

Quantifiers include cardinal numerals and other quantifying words, such as мàлко/málko 'few, little' and мно́го/mnógo 'many, much' (see section 4.10). Only cardinal numerals co-occur with pronouns; *те̇зи мо́и мно́го кнйги/tèzi mói mnógo knigi 'these my many books' is impossible.

The definite article and demonstrative pronouns do not co-occur: тѐзи кнйги/tèzi knigi 'these books' or кнйгите/knigite 'the books'.

Adjectival phrases contain any number of adjectives. Adjectives are modified by adverbs of quantity or degree, which regularly precede them: мно́го интере̇сен чове̇к/mnógo interesén čovèk 'a very interesting
person'. Adverbs of this type also modify predicate adverbials (above): мно́го ху́баво/mnógo xúbavo 'very nicely'.

Adjectives and other inflected noun-phrase attributes may follow their heads. Very rhetorical, this usage is common in poetry, both literary and folk: векове̇ цѐли/ра̇зум и съ்вест с нѐя се бо́рят .../vekovè cèli/ rázum i sắvest s nèja se bórjat ... 'entire centuries/reason and conscience struggle with it ...' (= 'centuries entire'; Xristo Botev, cited Граматика/ Gramatika 3: 286).

### 4.2 Non-declarative sentence types

There are two types of interrogative sentences.
1 Yes-no questions use several question-markers; much less frequently, they are formally identical to declarative sentences but carry a final rising intonation (rather than a falling, declarative intonation).

Neutral yes-no questions use the particle ли/li. The particle follows the first stressed constituent of the verb phrase, if the scope of interrogation is the entire sentence; otherwise it follows the interrogated constituent. In either case, the constituent to which the particle is attached begins the question:

Йскат ли ракйя?/İskat li rakija?
'Do (they) want brandy?'
Ракйя ли йскат?/Rakija li iskat?
'Is it brandy (they) want?'
Rarely, the questioned constituent is not initial: мо́жеш да плу̀ваш ли?/ móžeš da plúvaš li? and да плу̀ваш ли мо́жеш?/da plúvaš li móžeš? ‘can (you-SG) swim?' (Граматика/Gramatika 3: 53).

In neutral questions an overt subject may follow or precede the interrogated verb phrase. The latter construction, which topicalizes the subject, is marked by a sharp intonational rise over the subject followed by a slight pause before the predicate: ще до́йде ли Ива́н?/šte dójde li Ivàn? ~ Ива́н | ще до́йде ли?/Ivàn i šte dójde li? ‘will Ivan come?’.

Далй/dali introduces a strongly rhetorical question or one which the speaker regards as difficult to answer in some sense: далй ще ни прие்мат?/dali šte ni priemat? 'will (they or won't they) accept us?' (Граматика/Gramatika 3: 54).

Налй/nali introduces a question anticipating а positive answer: нали่ сте бо́лен?/nali ste bólen? '(you-m SG POLITE) are sick(, aren't you)?'. It is also the universal tag question after declarative sentences: то́й е бо́лен, налй?/tòj e bólen, nali? 'he's sick, isn't he?'.

Нимà/nimà forms questions anticipating negative answers, often with a sense of surprise, shock or doubt: нима่ то́й ме е видя่л?/nimà tòj me e vidjàl? 'did he see me?' (= could he possibly have seen me?).

A positive simple question is answered дà/dà 'yes' or нè/né 'no' to express the hearer's assertion of the truth or falseness of the corresponding statement:

Ива̀н, изпра̀ти ли писмо̀то?/Ivàn, izpràti li pismóto?
'Did Ivan send the letter?'
True: Дả, (изпра̇ти го)./Dá, (izpráti go).
'Yes, (he) sent it).'
False: Нè, (не го́ изпра̇ти)./Né, (ne gó izpráti).
'No, ((he) didn't send it).'
Simple negative questions, formed with the negative particle не/ne, are answered on the basis of the hearer's assertion of the truth or falseness of the corresponding positive statement:

Не изпра̇ти ли Ива́н писмо́то?/Ne izpràti li Ivàn pismóto?
'Didn't Ivan send the letter?'
He did not send it: Hé, (не го́ изпра̀ти)./Né, (ne gó izpráti).
'No, ((he) didn't send it).'
He did send it: Дà, изпра́ти го./Dà, izpràti go.
'Yes, (he) sent it.'
As an answer to a negative question, дà/dà alone is unacceptable. See Лакова/Lakova (1978; examples hers).

2 Constituent questions are formed with interrogative pronouns (see section 3.1.3) and interrogative adverbs such as ка́к/kàk 'how', къдѐ/ kădè 'where', когà/kogà 'when' and защо́/zaštó 'why'. Such wh words generally begin questions: какво́ вйждаш?/kakvó viždaš? 'what do (youSG) see?'. Prepositions always precede the wh words they govern: c когó рабо́тиш?/s kogó rabótiš? 'with whom are (you-SG) working?'. Multiple WH words normally occur in the beginning of the sentence: ко́й какво́ кога́ ка̇зва?/kój kakvò kogà kàzva? 'who says what when?' (= 'who what when says'). Questions with non-initial wh words are interpreted as echo questions: ти́ си видя่л кого́?/ti si vidjàl kogó? 'you-sG saw whom?' (Rudin 1986: 82).

WH words and ли/li co-occur in two ways. (1) ли/li after an initial WH word makes a strongly rhetorical question: и каква่ ли сладдост нами́рат в не̇го?/i kakvà li sládost namirat v nègo? 'and what sweetness do (they) find in it?'. (2) Sentence-final ли/li makes an echo question: какво́ ще я่м ли?/kakvó šte jàm li? 'what will (I) eat?', as an echo to какво́ ще яде̇ш?/kakvó šte jadés? 'what will (you-SG) eat?' (Граматика/ Gramatika 3: 61).

Simple questions with далй/dali or, less commonly, ли/li and questions with wH words may be embedded in diverse syntactic positions:
 '(I) don't know whether (he/she/it) is there.'
(Далй/dali is more common in indirect questions than ли/li; Rudin 1986: 63.)

Пи́таха ме, ко́й те е ті́рсил./Pitaxa me, kój te e tắrsil.
'(They) asked me who was looking for you-SG.'
Commands are expressed with simple or compound imperatives. Simple imperatives are limited to second person singular and plural (see section 3.2). Negative simple imperatives use (1) the negated simple imperative or (2) недёй (те) да/nedėj(te) da + second person present tense: не пишй!/ ne piši! ~ неде́й да пи́шеш!/nedèj da pišeš! ‘don’t write (you-SG)!’. Rarely, недёй(те)/nedèj(te) is followed by the vestigial infinitive (section 3.2): неде́й пйса!/nedèj pisa! Only simple imperfective imperatives can be negated. Positive imperatives are possible for both imperfective and perfective verbs; imperfectives carry a sense of urgency lacking in perfectives.

Compound imperatives use да/da or не̇ка (да)/nèka (da) + present tense:

Нѐка às (да) пйша!/Nèka àz (da) piša!
'Let me write!'
Да зна̇еш какво̀ ста̇ва!/Da znáeš kakvò stàva!
'(You-SG) should/ought to know what's happening!/May (you-SG) know what's happening!'

Second-person formations with да/da are more categorical than simple imperatives. Forms with нѐка/nèka carry an element of exhortation; they are uncommon in the second person (Граматика/Gramatika 3: 69ff.).

Present- and future-tense forms spoken with the intonational pattern of simple imperatives commonly serve as imperatives: ще пйшеш и тй!/šte pišeš i ti! 'and you-SG too will write!'.

### 4.3 Copular sentences

Copular sentences use 'be' or one of a small number of other verbs, notably биввам/bivam '(I) happen (to be)', оста́вам/ostàvam '(I) remain', ста́вам/stávam '(I) become'. Predicate adjectives, including participles, agree in number and gender with the subject: Мàма изгле̇жда бо́лна/ Màma izgléžda bólna 'Mother looks sick-F SG'. With second person plural personal pronouns referring to singular addressees for politeness (see section 3.2), participles in compound verbal forms and predicative adjectives are singular and masculine or feminine as appropriate; simple verbal forms are plural: вие сте била่ мно́го добра̀/vie ste bilà mnógo dobrà
'you ( $=$ F SG) have been very kind' ( $=$ 'you-PL are- 2 PL be-F SG-PAST PART very kind-F SG'). In formal writing and speech adjectives and participles in these constructions are often plural.

Perceived qualities or states are commonly expressed by impersonal sentences using neuter adjectives, 'be' and optional prepositional phrases with $\mathbf{н а} /$ na or clitic dative personal pronouns:

Студѐно ми e./Studéno mie.
'I feel cold.' (= cold-N SG me-DAT is')
На Ива̇н му е мно́го ску́чно./ Na Ivàn mu e mnógo skúčno.
'Ivan is very bored.' (= 'to Ivan him-DAT is very boring-N SG'; for duplicated pronoun see 4.7)

A similar construction with a small number of nouns, like стрáx/strax 'fear', срàm/sràm 'shame', uses an accusative pronoun: сра́м го е/srám go e 'he is ashamed' (= 'shame him-ACC is') (Граматика/Gramatika 3: 95).

### 4.4 Coordination and comitativity

The coordination of all types of phrasal constituents is possible with the conjunction и/i 'and' preceding the last coordinated constituent: ку̀пих си рйза, чадъ่р и ша́пка/kủpix si riza, čadắr i šàpka '(I) bought myself a shirt, an umbrella and a hat'. Repetition of the conjunction before all conjoined elements stresses their parallelism: и Пѐтър и Ива̇н оти́доха на мàч/i Pétăr i Ivàn otidoxa na máč 'both Peter and Ivan went to the game'.

Complete sentences are conjoined with и/i: ді่жд валй и вя่тър дẏxa/dăžd vali i vjàtăr dúxa 'rain is falling and wind blowing'. Here repetition or deletion of the coordinating conjunction adds a stylized, literary flavour:

И сль่нцето се върте̇ше, и врѐмето лете̇ше и изтйчаше като́ ста́до, като́ река́, като́ о́блак./I slằnceto se vărtéše, i vrèmeto letě̌e i iztičaše kató stàdo, kató rekà, kató óblak.
'And the sun was revolving, and time was flying and running out like a flock, like a river, like a cloud.' (A. Dončev, cited in Граматика/Gramatika 3: 294)

Coordinated subjects generally show plural verbal concord (examples above). Singular agreement is also possible, for example (1) with paired subjects construed as a unit: в кола̇та ѐкна смя่х и ки́кот/v kolàta èkna smjax i kikot 'in the car (there) resounded-3 SG laughter and giggling'; or (2) with coordinated series: нйе не щѐ каджем нйщо дру̀го осве̇н това่ че все̇ки човѐк и все̇ки наро́д те̇гли от умà си/nie ne štè kàžem ništo drúgo osvèn tovà če vséki čovèk i vsèki naròd tègli ot umà si 'we shall say nothing except that every person and every nation is responsible for
itself'. For additional details on singular agreement with plural subjects see Граматика/Gramatika 3: 146-54 (preceding examples there).

Comitative constructions use a prepositional phrase with c/s 'with': ма่йка с дете̇ ча̇каше на опа̇шката/májka s detė čàkaše na opáškata 'a mother (together) with a child waited (SG) in the line'. Pronominal heads of comitative constructions, regardless of their actual number, are plural, as are related verbs: ни่е с баща่ ми оти́дохме на ки́но/nie s baštà mi otidoxme na kino 'I went to the movies with my father/my father and I went to the movies' ( $=$ 'we with father me-dat ...'). Comitative constructions are possible as direct and indirect objects:

Аресту́ваха ги с баща่ му./Arestúvaxa gi s baštà mu.
'(They) arrested him and his father.' ( $=$ '... them-ACC with father him-DAT')
На на̀с със жена่ ми ни изпраттиха пода̀рък./Na nàs sǎs ženà mi ni izprátixa podárăk.
'(They) sent me and my wife a gift.' (= 'to us-ACC with wife me-DAT us-DAT ...')
Other types of coordination utilize other conjunctions: илй /ili 'or', илй ... или่/ili ... ili 'either ... or', a/a 'and, but' (contrasting opposition), но/ no 'but, however' (strong contrast, contradiction), oбáчe/obáče 'however' (stronger, more literary form of $\mathbf{н о} / \mathrm{no}$ ):

Аз ймам чаді̀р, а тя่ ня่ма./Az imam čadắr, a tjà njàma.
'I have an umbrella, but she doesn't.'
Пиѐсата йма голя่м успе̇х, но въпрекй това́ па̀дна./Piésata ima goljàm uspéx, no văpreki tovà pàdna.
'The play had great success, but nevertheless closed (literally 'fell').'

### 4.5 Subordination

Headed relative clauses, postposed to noun phrases, are marked by initial relative pronouns (see section 3.1.3), preceded by prepositions governing them. The number and gender of relative pronouns agree with their antecedents; case is determined by the function of the pronouns in the relative clauses: изпра่тих пакѐт на студе̇нта, с кого́то се запозна่хме мйналата годйна в Cóфия/izpràtix pakèt na studénta, s kogòto se zapoznáxme minalata gódina $v$ Sófija '(I) sent a package to the student, with whom I got acquainted ( $=$ with whom-ACC self-ACC acquainted-1 PL) last year in Sofia'. Relative clauses using relativizers formed from interrogative adverbs modify prepositional and adverbial phrases: намерих кнйгата та́м, къдѐто я бя่х оста́вил/namèrix knigata tàm, kădèto ја bjàx ostávil '(I) found the book there, where (I) had left it'.

Relative pronouns with noun phrase antecedents have alternative formations with the invariant relative pronoun дѐто/dèto 'that'. Most frequent in dialects, this construction is colloquial in literary Bulgarian: това́ е кнйгата дѐто ( ~ коя́то) бѐше на ма́сата/tovà e knigata dèto ( $\sim$ kojäto) béše na másata 'that is the book that (which) was on the table'.

If дѐто/dèto is not the subject of its clause, the clause may contain a clitic personal pronoun 'echoing' the grammatical categories of the antecedent; in relativization from a prepositional phrase a full, stressed personal pronoun is necessary as the object of the preposition:

Това̇ е кнйгата дѐто (я) ку̀пих./Tovà e knigata déto (ja) küpix.
'This is the book that (it) (I) bought.'
Това́ е кнйгата дѐто гово́рехме за нѐя./Tovà e knigata déto govórexme za nèja.
'This is the book that (we) spoke about (it).'
See Rudin (1986: 129-30) for discussion; the examples are hers.
Free (headless) relatives are possible:
Вземй какво̀то йскаш!/Vzemi kakvòto iskaš!
'(You-SG) take whatever (you-SG) want!'
Ко́йто не внима̇ва, то́й пра́ви гре̇шки./Kójto ne vnimàva, tòj právi greški.
'Whoever doesn't pay attention, makes mistakes.'
In multiple free flatives all wH words are clause initial: ко́йто къде̇то е сви́кнал, та́м си живе̇e/kỏjto kădèto e sviknal, tàm si živèe 'everyone lives where he's accustomed' ( $=$ 'whoever wherever is became-accustomed-m SG, there self-dat lives'; Rudin 1986: 167).

The complementizer че/če 'that' introduces subordinate clauses as complements of verbs of saying or believing, as complements of nouns and as sentential subjects:

Мйсля че ско̀po ще завалй дъ่жд./Mislja če skóro šte zavali dắžd.
'(I) think that soon (it) will rain.'
Имам чу́вство че ще до́йдат./İmam čùvstvo če šte dójdat.
'(I) have a feeling that (they) will come.'
Сйгурно е че ня่ма да до́йдат./Sigurno e če njàma da dójdat.
'(It) is certain that (they) won't come.'
In place of an infinitive, Bulgarian uses a subordinate clause consisting of да/da plus a present-tense verbal form which agrees in person and number with its implicit subject. Infinitive-like 'da-clauses' are used as complements of many modal verbs (for example, тря́бва/trjàbva '(it) is necessary', йскам/iskam '(I) want', мо́га/móga '(I) can'), as complements of verbs of motion or being, as nominal complements, as sentential subjects and in indefinite constructions with 'have' and 'have not':

И́скам да отйда на мáч./İskam da otida na máč.
'(I) want- 1 sG to go- 1 sG to a game.'
Дошлй сме да слу்шаме му̀зика./Došli sme da slưšame múzika.
'(We) have come to listen-1 PL to music.'
Ня́мам намере́ние да се напря́гам./ Njàmam namerénie da se naprjàgam.
'(I) don't have (the) intention to exert-1 sG myself.'

И́мам с кого́ да говópя./İmam s kogò da govórja.
'(I) have someone to talk to.' (= 'have-1 SG with whom-ACC to talk-1 SG')
The subject of a main clause may differ from that of a da-clause: дошлй сме да ни разка́жете за пъту́ването си в Бълга́рия/došli sme da ni razkážete za pătúvaneto si v Bălgárija '(we) have come for (you-PL) to tell us about your (own) trip to Bulgaria'. See Rudin (1986) for discussion of Bulgarian complementizers and relative clauses.

The vestigial infinitive (see section 3.2.1) occurs rarely in the literary language as the complement of мо́га/móga '(I) can' and смѐя/sméja ‘(I) dare', and in negative imperatives (section 4.2): не мо́га пйса/ne móga pisa '(I) can't write'. Da-clauses are normal here: не мо́га да пи่ша/ne móga da piša '(I) can't write'.

Diverse subordinate clauses expressing circumstances related to the actions of main clauses are formed with subordinating conjunctions.

1 Conditional clauses use the conjunction àкo/àko 'if' (or its colloquial, poetic variant да/da). Real conditionals use indicative verbal forms in both condition and result clauses: а̀ко до́йдат, ще ги вйдим/àko dójdat, šte gi vidim 'if (they) come, (we) will see them'. Contrary-to-fact conditionals normally use imperfect or past perfect indicative forms in the condition clause and subjunctive or past future indicative forms in the result clause; these tense distinctions apparently entail no semantic differences: бйх я поздравйл (щя่х да я поздравя́), а̀ко бя่х та́м/bix ja pozdravil (̌̌tjàx da ja pozdravjà), àko bjàx tàm '(I) would greet/would have greeted her, if (I) were/had been there'.

2 Other subordinate clauses function as predicate adverbials of time, place, manner, reason and so on:

Гово́риш, без да знадеш какво́ ста́ва./Govóriš, bez da znáeš kakvó stáva.
'(You-SG) speak without knowing ( = without to know-2 sG) what is happening.' Доко́лкото ми е изве̇стно, няяма да до́йдат./ Dokólkoto mi e izvéstno, njáma da dójdat.
'As far as (it) is known to me, (they) will not come.'
In written and formal spoken Bulgarian participial phrases often replace relative clauses. An active participle - either present or aorist - replaces a subject relative pronoun and its verb. The participle is present tense if the action of the verb in the relative clause is contemporaneous with that of the main verb; it is aorist if the action of the verb of the relative clause precedes that of the main verb:

Позна̇вах протестйращите xópa./Poznàvax protestiraštite (PRS ACT PART) xóra. '(I) knew the protesting people.'

Наме́рихме пристйгналия влàк./Namérixme pristignalija (AOR ACT PART) vlák. '(We) found the arrived train.'

A past passive participle replaces a transitive verb and direct object relative pronoun: намѐрих загу́бената кнйга/namérix zagúbenata (PAST PASS PART) kniga '(I) found the lost book'.

The sense of a present passive participle (otherwise lacking) is expressed by an imperfective past passive participle: но́сена от сла̀бия у̀тринен вя́тър, [отро́вна мъгла̀] запълзя́ .../nósena (IMPFV PAST PASS PART) ot slábija ùtrinen vjàtăr, [otróvna măglà] zapălzjà ... 'carried by the weak morning wind, [a poisonous fog] drifted ...' (Маслов/Maslov 1981: 262).

Participial phrases regularly allow diverse predicative elements: мно́го са жела่ещите да почйват ту́к/mnógo sa želáeštite (PRS ACT PART) da počivat tùk 'many are those wishing (literally 'wishing-the') to vacation here' (Narodna mladež, 1 December 1989). While usually preposed to their heads (see above), participial phrases may also be postposed: . . . след кардина่лните промѐни, насть்или в БКП/... sled kardinàlnite proméni, nastắpili (AOR ACT PART) v BKP '... after the fundamental changes, which have taken place in the BCP (= Bulgarian Communist Party)' (Narodna mladež, 1 December 1989).

An adverbial subordinate clause may be replaced by a gerundive phrase if (1) the subjects of both clauses are the same and (2) the action of the subordinate clause is contemporaneous with that of the main clause: чете̇йки но́вия му рома̇н, намѐрих .../četèjki nóvija mu román, namérix ... '[while] reading his new novel, (I) found ...'. Postposed active participles occasionally function as gerunds: маши่ната те̇глеше ле̇ко и пла́вно, не усе̇щаща това̇ра/mašinata tègleše lèko i plàvno, ne useštašta (PRS ACT PART) tovara 'the car drew away easily and smoothly, not feeling the load' (Маслов/Maslov 1981: 282-3).

Gerundive phrases are limited to formal writing and speech, and even there they are avoided. A study of a corpus of 15,000 words of a modern Russian novel and its Bulgarian translation found that of 107 gerunds in the Russian original, only fifteen ( 14 per cent) were translated as Bulgarian gerunds; the rest were replaced by subordinate clauses (Дончева/ Dončeva 1975).

The extraction of interrogative and relative pronouns from various types of embedded clauses has been studied by Rudin (1986). The following summarizes her major findings.

Questions cannot be formed by extraction from indirect (embedded) questions: *кого́ се чу̀диш ко́й е видя́л?/kogó se čúdiš kòj e vidjál? 'whom do (you-SG) wonder who saw?'. However, interrogation and extraction are possible over the complementizer че/če 'that': кого' мйслиш че е видя́л?/kogó misliš če e vidjàl? 'whom do you think that he
saw?' (examples from Rudin 1986: 105f.).
Relative-clause formation can move relative pronouns an indefinite distance: кнйгата, коя่то тй ми ка̇за че Ива̇н мйсли че Пѐтър йска да ку்пи .../knigata kojàto ti mi kàza če Ivàn misli če Pètăr íska da kúpi ... 'the book which you-sG told me that Ivan thinks that Peter wants to buy ...'S Similarly, the relativizer дѐто/dèto 'that' is interpreted over an unbounded domain: кнйгата дѐто тй ми ка̀за че Ива́н мйсли че Пѐтър йска да (я) ку̀пи .../knigata dèto ti mi kàza če Ivàn misli če Pétăr iska da (ja) kúpi ... 'the book that you-SG told me that Ivan thinks that Peter wants to buy (it) ...

The formation of WH relative clauses is blocked in two instances:
1 The determiner of a noun phrase cannot be relativized: *това́ e момче̇то (на) коѐто тря́бва да наме̇рим (не̇говата) ма̇йка/ *tovà e momčéto (na) koèto trjàbva da namérim (négovata) májka 'this is the boy (of) whom (we) must find (his) mother'.
2 Relativization out of a noun phrase containing a head noun and a modifying clause is impossible: *това̀ е момчѐто на коѐто мисълта́ че (му) да́дохме бонбо́ни ядо́сва ле̇каря/*tovà е momčéto na koèto misăltà če (mu) dádoxme bonbóni jadósva lékarja 'this is the boy to whom the thought that (we) gave him candies angers the doctor'.

Relativization with дедто/déto is grammatical in both cases. See Rudin (1986: 140-3) for additional discussion (examples hers).

The complementizer че/če 'that' cannot in general be deleted, including cases with movement across the complementizer:

Ми́сля че си видя่л чове̇ка./Mislja če si vidjàl čovèka.
'(I) think that (you-SG) saw the man.'
Not *Мйсля си видяял .../*Mislja si vidjàl...
'(I) think you saw ...'
Позна́вам чове̇ка кого̀то мйсля че си видя́л./Poznávam čovèka kogóto mislja če si vidjàl.
'(I) know the man whom (I) think that you saw.'
Infrequent examples with deletion of the complementizer are reported in direct speech (or thought): мйсля си, тй си видя́л чове்ка/mislja si, ti si vidjàl čovèka '(I) think (to myself): you-sG saw the man' (Граматика/ Gramatika 3: 344).

### 4.6 Negation

A sentence or any of its constituents can be negated. If the scope of negation is the entire sentence, the negative particle $\mathrm{He} / \mathrm{ne}$ attaches to the verb: то́й не рабо́ти/tòj ne rabóti 'he doesn't work'. Otherwise, не/ne
precedes the negated constituent, which generally begins the sentence: не на Ива̀н да́дох кнйгата/ne na Ivàn dádox knigata 'it wasn't Ivan I gave the book to' (= 'not to Ivan gave-1 SG book-the').

Negative sentences are conjoined with нй(то)/ni(to) 'neither, nor', repeated before each conjoined constituent: нйто Ива́н, нйто Ва́ля, нйто Дймчо не зна̀ят, къде̇ живѐя/nito Ivàn, nito Válja, nito Dímčo ne znàjat, kădè živèja 'neither Ivan, nor Valja, nor Dimčo know where I live'.

Negative constituent questions (see section 4.2) use negative pronouns and other negative pro-forms (section 3.1.3); here не/ne accompanies the verb as well:

На ни่кого не ка̀зах новина̀та./ Na nikogo ne kàzax novinàta.
'(I) told no one the news.' (= to no-one-ACC not told-1 sG news-the')
Нйкога не слу்шат./Nikoga ne slúšat.
'(They) never listen.'

### 4.7 Anaphora and pronouns

The principal anaphoric pronouns of Bulgarian include:
1 third-person personal pronouns: тóй/tòj 'he, it'
2 personal possessive pronouns: нѐгов/négov 'his, its'
3 demonstrative pronouns: то́зи/tózi 'this (M SG)' о́нзи/ónzi 'that (M SG)' такъ่в/takằv 'such (M SG)'

Forms in /on-/ are marked as distanced from the speaker; forms in /t-/ are unmarked.

4 relative pronouns: ко́йто/kójto 'who, which, that (M SG)' какі่вто/kakằvto 'which sort (M SG)'
5 reflexive pronouns: cèбе си/sèbe si '-self'
(See section 3.1.3 for full paradigms; for relative, reflexive and personal possessive pronouns see also sections 4.5, 4.9 and 4.10.) For example:

Speaker A: Tя́ пи่ше но́ва грама̀тика./Tjá piše nóva gramátika.
'She's writing a new grammar.'
Speaker B: Та́зи грама̀тика не мѐ интересу́ва/Tázi gramátika ne mè interesuva.
'This grammar doesn't interest me.'
or B : Това̇ не ме̇ интересу̀ва./Tovà ne mè interesúva.
'This doesn't interest me.'
Anaphoric adverbs are formed from the demonstrative root / t -/ 'this'; for example, та́м/tàm 'there', ту̀ка/tủka 'here', тога́ва/togáva 'then':

Откри́ха но́в магазйн. Та́м прода̇ват всйчко./Otkrixa nóv magazin. Tám prodávat vsičko '(They) found a new store. There (they) sell everything.'

The omission of pronominal subjects, including first and second person, is extremely common. In a comparison of a Russian novel and its Bulgarian translation, Дончева/Dončeva (1975) found that Bulgarian omitted 58 per cent of possible personal pronominal subjects (Russian only 42 per cent). Omission is naturally facilitated by verb and adjective concord with the subject: бо́лен e/bólen e '(he) is sick-M SG'. Often, however, omission leaves the subject ambiguous within its clause: в момѐнта пйше/v momenta piše 'at the moment (he/she/it) writes'. In such cases the larger context provides the appropriate interpretation of the intended subject.

The presence or absence of overt personal pronominal subjects may be affected by discourse factors. According to Маслов/Maslov (1981: 356), the pronominal subject is omitted when topic, but retained when focus (where it generally identifies the actual agent among a number of possibilities); compare: днѐс оти́вам на кйно/dnès otivam na kino 'today (I) am going to the movies' versus дне́с àз оти́вам на ки́но/dnès àz otivam na kino 'today I (as opposed to someone else) am going to the movies'.
'This' and 'that' used alone as subjects of copular verbs are invariably neuter singular, and verbal concord is with the predicate: това́ са мо́ите но́ви дре̇хи/tovà sa móite nóvi drexi 'these ( $=$ this-N SG) are my new clothes'.

The definite article marks the presupposition that the referent of the noun phrase is known to the participants in the speech or narrated event: кнйгата е интере்сна/knigata e interèsna 'the book is interesting'. See Mayer (1988) for details.
'The former' and 'the latter' are expressed by the definite ordinal numerals пъ่рвият/pằrvijat 'the first (M SG)' and вто́рият/vtorijat 'the second (M SG)', inflected to agree with their antecedents: п'ьрвият [прймер] пока̇зва ..., а вто́рият .../părvijat [primer] pokàzva ..., а vtorijat ... 'the former [example-m SG] shows ..., while the latter ...'. Longer series use successive ordinal numerals beyond 'second'.

In colloquial Bulgarian, and to some extent in more formal styles, nouns or full, stressed personal pronouns as direct or indirect objects are often 'echoed' by appropriately inflected clitic personal pronouns (Граматика/ Gramatika 3: 186-8, 191). While clitic doubling is generally optional, it is subject to discourse factors: an emphasized noun phrase is apt to occur first in the sentence - the position of focus - and if the noun is the direct or indirect object the clitic pronoun is apt to appear (Rudin 1986: 139). Compare:

Neutral: Кàзах новини่те на Ива̀н./Kàzax novinite na Ivàn.
'(I) told the news to Ivan.'

Focus on Ivan: На Ива̀н му ка̀зах новинйте./Na Ivàn mu kàzax novinite.
'(I) told the news to Ivan.' ( = 'to Ivan him-DAT told-1 SG newsthe')
Focus on news: Новини́те ги ка̇зах на Ива́н./Novinite gi kàzax na Ivàn.
'(1) told the news to Ivan.' (= 'news-the them-ACC told-1 SG to Ivan')

The pronoun is obligatory if the subject and direct object are ambiguous: ма́йката я глѐда дете́то/májkata ja gleda deteto 'the child takes care of the mother' ( $=$ 'mother-the-F SG her-ACC takes-care-of child-the-N SG') versus детѐто го гле̇да ма́йката/detėto go glèda májkata 'the mother takes care of the child' ( $=$ 'child-the-N SG it-ACC takes-care-of mother-theF SG').

Echoed clitics are not possible in wh-relative clauses: *човѐка, ко́йто Борйс го видя่/čovèka, kójto Boris go vidjà 'the person, whom Boris saw' (= 'man-the who Boris him-ACC saw-3 SG') (Rudin 1986: 126, for discussion; example hers). On the other hand, echoed clitics with дѐто/ deto-relatives are optional or obligatory depending on the syntactic function of the relative pronoun (see section 4.5 for examples and references).

Bulgarian grammars describe stressed personal pronouns as 'echoes' of subject nouns. Here, however, the nouns are in apposition to the personal pronouns: тя́, бе̇дната да́ма, запо́чна да пла́че/tjà, bédnata dàma, zapóčna da pláča 'she, the poor lady, began to cry' (Граматика/ Gramatika 3: 123; also Пенчев/Penčev 1984: 83).

### 4.8 Reflexives and reciprocals

Reflexive personal pronouns (see section 3.1.3) replace non-subject personal pronouns whose antecedents are the subject of the clause in which they occur: мйя ce/mija se '(I) wash myself'. Stressed forms - in the case of the dative a prepositional phrase with $\mathbf{~ н a / n a ~}+$ accusative - are used for emphasis: се̇бе си мйя/sèbe si mija '(I) wash myself'. In other, nondative prepositional phrases only stressed accusative forms are possible: то́й мйсли са́мо за се̇бе си/tój misli sámo za sèbe si 'he thinks only about himself'.

In colloquial Bulgarian first- and second-person non-reflexive forms may replace reflexives in prepositional phrases: вземй ме с те̇бе!/vzemi me s tèbe! ~ ... със cèбe cu!/. . . sǎs sèbe si! 'take me with you/yourself!'. Although considered non-standard, this usage is gaining ground. Substitution for direct or indirect objects is ungrammatical: only купй си но́ви дре́хи!/kupi si nóvi dréxi!, not *купѝ ти ~ *на тёбе...!/*kupi ti ~ *na tèbe ...! 'Buy-2 SG yourself new clothes!'.

Substitution of personal for reflexive pronoun in the third person regularly changes the pronominal reference: то́й го ми่е/tòj go mie 'he washes him ( $=$ someone else)'.

The reflexive pronoun always refers to the subject of the verb of the clause in which it occurs. Through the subject, even if deleted, it may refer to earlier nouns and pronouns:

Ива́н йска да си ку̀пи но́ва рйза./Ivàn iska da si kùpi nóva riza.
'Ivan wants to buy-3 SG himself a new shirt.'

Possessive expressions (see section 4.9) in predicates use reflexive personal pronouns and possessive adjectives in much the same way: à взе̇х кнйгата си/àz vzéx knigata si 'I took my (own) book'. The dative enclitic reflexive is regularly replaced by the reflexive possessive adjective for emphasis: àз взѐх сво́ята кнйга/àz vzéx svójata kniga 'I took my own book'. In the first and second person, non-reflexive possessives are possible for greater emphasis: взе́х мо́ята кнйга/vzèx mójata kniga 'it was my book that I took' ( $=$ 'took 1 -SG my book'). Here dative nonreflexive forms are ungrammatical or questionable:
*Взе́х кнйгата ми./Vzéx knigata mi.
'(I) took my book.'
? Да́дох му кнйгата ми./Dádox mu knigata mi.
'(I) gave him my book.'
(Маслов/Maslov 1981: 302)
Reflexive possessives cannot be subjects or predicative nominatives: *ну่жна ми е сво́ята ста́я/*núžna mi e svỏjata stảja 'I need my own room' ( $=$ 'necessary-F SG me-DAT is own-F SG room-F SG').

With plural subjects and verbs of appropriate meanings, reciprocal constructions are formed with enclitic reflexive pronouns, dative and accusative and/or the expression едйн дру̀г/edin drúg 'one another'. Enclitic pronouns are customary for direct and indirect objects: тé ce целу̀ват/tè se celúvat 'they kiss (one another)'. Едйн дру̀г/edin drúg is added for emphasis: тѐ се целу̀ват едйн дру̀г/tè se celúvat edin drùg 'they kiss one another'. Едйн другг/edin drug is the unmarked form of this expression; feminine and neuter forms are used only with subjects that are all feminine or all neuter, respectively.

In other, non-dative prepositional phrases reciprocity is expressed only by едйн дрỳг/edin drúg: те̇ намйрат интере்сни неща่ едйн в дру̀г/ té namirat interésni nešta edin $v$ drùg 'they find interesting things in one another'.

Reciprocal sentences with enclitic reflexive pronouns may be ambiguous with respect to number: те̇ си пйшат/tè si pišat may mean 'they-two write to one another' or 'they-more-than-two write among themselves'. The ambiguity is eliminated with едйн дру̀г/edin drug. Compare те́ намйрат интере̇сни неща่ еднй в дру́ги/té namirat interèsni neštá
edni ( PL ) v drugi ( PL ) 'they (more than two) find interesting things in one another'.

In so far as they use the same pronouns, reflexive and reciprocal constructions are formally identical. The meaning of the verb often makes one or the other interpretation the more likely. Compare:

Мйят ce/Mijat se.
'(They) wash themselves.' (not '(They) wash each other.')
Бйят ce./Bijat se.
'(They) hit one another.' (not '(They) hit themselves.')
Alternative readings are forced and ambiguities avoided with cèбe си/ sèbe si '-self' and едйн дру̀г/edin drùg 'one another':

Мйят се едйн дру̀r./Mijat se edin drùg.
'(They-two) wash one another.'
Сёбе си бйят./Sébe si bijat.
'(They) beat themselves.'

### 4.9 Possession

Possession is expressed verbally with ймам/imam '(I) have' and its negative counterpart няямам/njàmam '(I) don't have': Ива́н йма мно́го прия่тели/Ivàn ima mnógo prijäteli 'Ivan has many friends'. Possession in noun phrases is expressed in several ways:

1 Clitic dative personal pronouns (see section 3.1.3): товад са кнйгите ми/tovà sa knigite mi 'these are my books' (= 'this-N SG are books-the me-DAT').
2 Prepositional phrases with на/na: това̀ е домъ่т на бра̀т ми/tovà e domắt na brat mi 'this is the home of my brother'.
3 Possessive personal pronouns (section 3.1.3): товà са мо́ите кнйги/ tovà sa móite knigi 'these are my books'.
4 Possessive adjectives derived from personal nouns (section 3.3.2): това́ е бра่товият до́м/tovà e bràtovijat dóm 'this is (my) brother's home'. Adjectives of this sort are colloquial.

### 4.10 Quantification

The principal quantifiers of Bulgarian include cardinal numerals (see section 3.1.5), pronominal quantifiers (like ко́лко/kólko 'how many, much') and мно́го/mnógo 'many, much', мàлко/málko 'few, little', немно́го/nemnógo 'not many, much'.

Two cardinal numerals are inflected for gender: ' 1 ' is masculine, feminine or neuter, depending on the gender of its head; ' 2 ' contrasts masculine and feminine/neuter forms. (See section 3.1.5 for forms and examples.)

Used alone, ' 1 ' governs a singular noun: една̀ кнйга/ednà kniga 'one book'. In compounds ' 1 ' is regularly singular and the noun plural or, less commonly, singular: три́десет и една́ кнйги (кнйга)/trideset i ednà ( F SG) knigi (PL) (kniga (SG)) '31 books' (Граматика/Gramatika 2: 183).

With all other quantifiers, feminine and neuter nouns are plural: мно́го кнйги/mnógo knigi 'many books ( F )', два̇десет и две̇ писмà/dvàdeset i dvé pismà ' 22 letters ( N '. Masculine nouns with quantifiers make use of both normal and count plurals (see section 3.1.2):

1 All masculine nouns use the normal plural with 'many', 'few' and 'not many' or with 'how many' in exclamations: мно́го студѐнти/mnógo studenti 'many students', ко́лко студеннти!/kólko studenti! 'how many students!'.
2 Masculine personal nouns use the normal plural after cardinal numerals ' 2 '-‘' 6 ' in -(и)ма/-(i)ma: два̀ма студѐнти/dvàma studènti 'two students'; otherwise they use the ordinary plural or count plural (with a clear preference for the former): пѐт учени́ци/pèt učenici ~ пѐт ученйка/pèt učenika 'five pupils (PL ~ COUNT PL)'.
3 Otherwise, masculine non-personal nouns use the count plural: трй гра́да/tri gràda 'three cities (COUNT PL)'.
'Incorrect' usage with masculine nouns is common; see Граматика/ Gramatika (2: 183) and Scatton (1984: 312-13).

Verbs with cardinal numerals as subjects are singular if the numeral is ' 1 ', alone; otherwise they are plural:

## Една̇ жена่ дойде̇./Edná žená dojdé. <br> 'One woman came.' <br> Две̇ женй дойдо́ха./Dvè ženi dojdóxa. <br> 'Two women came.'

Personal pronouns are quantified with cardinal numerals. The pronoun occupies the first position; the numeral, generally definite, follows. Cardinals in -(и)ма/-(i)ma (' 2 '-' 6 ') are used with groups of men or men and women: ни́е два̇мата ще до́йдем/nie dvàmata šte dójdem 'we two ( $=$ two males or a male and a female) will come-1 PL'.

Quantification is also expressed by nouns denoting measurements (лйтър/lităr 'litre'), containers (чàша/čáša 'cup, glass'), collections of elements (ста́до/stàdo 'herd'), parts (по̀рция/pórcija 'portion') and others. The quantifier precedes the noun, which is singular or plural as appropriate: ли่тър мля่ко/lităr mljàko 'a litre of milk', чйфт во́лове/ čift vólove 'a pair of oxen'. In these constructions verbal concord is usually with the quantifier: ча́шата ви́но е била́ на мàcата/čášata vino e bilá na másata 'the glass-F SG of wine-N SG was-F 3 SG on the table'. However, groups show two types of concord: singular, focusing on the group as a
unit, or plural, focusing on the latter as a collection of individuals:
Накра́я гру́па байловча̇ни изле̇зе на сцѐната./Nakrája grúpa bajlovčảni izléze na scenata.
'Finally a group of inhabitants-of-Bajlovo came-3 sG on stage.'
Гру்па младе̇жи от Ру̀се замйнали за Съве̇тския съю่з./Grúpa mladéži ot Rủse zaminali za Sǎvètskija sảjùz.
'A group of young-people from Ruse left-3 pl for the Soviet Union.'
(Граматика/Gramatika 3: 151-2)
These quantifiers may themselves be quantified as ordinary nouns: две் ча́ши вода่/dvé čáši vodà 'two glasses of water'.
'Existential-be' is йма/ima 'has'; its negative counterpart is няяма/ njàma 'hasn't'. They are invariably neuter third person singular and, as the syntax of pronominal forms shows, they take direct object complements:

Ня́маше яйца̀./ Njàmaše jajcá.
'(There) weren't-3, sG eggs-PL.'
Има ги вкъщщ./Ima gi vkăšti.
'They are at home.' (= 'has-3 SG them-ACC at-home')

## 5 Lexis

### 5.1 General composition of the word-stock

The standard 'Academy' dictionary of Bulgarian (Романски/Romanski 1955-9) contains over 63,000 entries, of which 25 per cent are foreign borrowings or words derived from them (Бояджиев/Bojadžiev 1970). Of native lexical items, perhaps as many as 2,000 are directly inherited from Proto-Slavonic through Old and Middle Bulgarian (Русинов/Rusinov 1980: 76). Inherited words represent diverse lexical domains and include much of the most common, basic vocabulary of the language. The number of words derived from them is perhaps 15-20 times greater, in the order of 30-40,000.

The relative weight of inherited Proto-Slavonic material can be estimated from Николова/Nikolova (1987) - a study of a 100,000 -word corpus of conversational Bulgarian. Of the 806 items occurring there more than ten times, approximately 50 per cent may be direct reflexes of ProtoSlavonic forms; nearly 30 per cent are later Bulgarian formations and 17 per cent are foreign borrowings or words derived from them. (The remaining items are problematical; figures mine, EAS.)

Russian is the only Slavonic language that has had any significant influence on Bulgarian. Large numbers of native Russian and Russian Church Slavonic words are common throughout the language (examples below). Until recently, Russian has been the principal intermediary source for much of Bulgarian's international vocabulary.

### 5.2 Patterns of borrowing

Of approximately 16,200 foreign words in Романски/Romanski (19559 ), a single original source can be found for about 14,500 . Of these, 96 per cent are attributable to only eight languages, each accounting for at least 1 per cent or more:

| 1 | Latin | $25.5 \%$ | $(3,700)$ |
| :--- | :--- | ---: | ---: |
| 2 | Greek | $23.0 \%$ | $(3,350)$ |
| 3 | French | $15.0 \%$ | $(2,150)$ |
| 4 | Turkish* | $13.5 \%$ | $(1,900)$ |
| 5 | Russian | $10.0 \%$ | $(1,500)$ |
| $6-7$ | Italian | $3.5 \%$ | $(500)$ |
| $6-7$ | German | $3.5 \%$ | $(500)$ |
| 8 | English | $2.0 \%$ | $(300)$ |

*including Arabic and Persian. Figures based on Бояджиев/Bojadžiev 1970.
The vast majority of Latin borrowings - mostly international terms in the areas of politics, civil administration, scholarship, law, medicine and others - entered the modern language through Russian or other, western languages: администра́ция/administràcija 'administration', секрета́р/ sekretar 'secretary'. (The material here is based on Русинов/Rusinov 1980: 76-94, and works cited there.) A few date from Old and Middle Bulgarian.

Greek lexical material first entered Bulgarian during the Old Bulgarian period, mostly in the areas of religion and civil and military administration: ико́на/ikóna 'icon', деспо̀т/despót. During the Ottoman period, strong Greek political and cultural influence facilitated borrowings not only of literary, but also common, popular lexical material: пиро́н/pirón 'nail', ѐвтин/èvtin 'inexpensive'. During the Bulgarian Renaissance (eighteenth and nineteenth centuries), international vocabulary of Greek origin entered Bulgarian through Russian or other languages: граматтика/gramatika 'grammar', демокра́ция/demokràcija 'democracy'.

French borrowings appear from the beginning of the nineteenth century, first from Russian, later directly from French. They are concentrated in social and political life, military affairs, cooking, dress and the arts: аташè/atašè 'attaché', бюфѐт/bjufèt 'buffet', таксѝ/taksi 'taxi'.

Bulgarian borrowings from Turkish (and through Turkish, Persian and Arabic) were extremely numerous during the time of the Ottoman domination. One of the major features of the history of the modern Bulgarian literary language - particularly after 1878 - was the systematic replacement of Turkish borrowings with Bulgarian neologisms or borrowings from Russian or western European languages. Романски/Romanski (1955-9) now lists only about 2,000 Turkish borrowings, of which about 800 (household items, occupations, items of clothing, foods, plants, animals) are stylistically neutral: чора̇п/čoráp 'sock', ча̇нта/čànta 'purse'. The remainder
are archaic, dialectal, non-standard and/or pejorative, and generally have neutral native synonyms: кюту̀к/kjutủk (from Turkish) versus пъ่н/pắn '(tree) stump' (Лакова/Lakova 1972).

In so far as they do not take into account Russian Church Slavonic forms (often indistinguishable from native Bulgarian forms) or the intermediary role of Russian in the transmission of international terminology, the figures above substantially underestimate the impact of Russian on the Bulgarian lexicon. In early Modern Bulgarian, the influence of Russian was through Church Slavonic. By the end of the eighteenth and beginning of the nineteenth centuries, literary Russian was the predominant foreign lexical influence on Bulgarian, and remained so until recently. Russian and Russian Church Slavonic lexical items are found in virtually every area of Bulgarian vocabulary: вселѐна/vselèna 'universe', вероя́тен/verojàten 'probable', стара́я ce/staràja se '(I) try', обa่че/obàče 'however'.

The source of several important formations is indeterminate: Old/ Middle Bulgarian literary sources and/or early printed Church books from Russia; for example, agent nouns in /-tel/ (учйтел/učitel 'teacher'), abstract nouns in /-ost/ (не்жност/nèžnost 'tenderness'), deverbative nouns in /-ie/ (предложѐние/predložénie 'proposal'), the present active participle (see section 3.2.1).

German borrowings (mostly military and technical) and Italian borrowings (concentrated in art, music, business and food) date from the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

Prior to 1878 English borrowings were extremely limited; their numbers did not increase substantially until after the Second World War. Since then, and especially in the last twenty years, English has become the greatest foreign lexical influence on Bulgarian, and this influence is now far greater than the above figures (based on work more than thirty years old) suggest. The impact of English is particularly strong in technology, tourism, sports, dress, the arts and music and popular culture: транзйстор/tranzistor 'transistor', мотѐл/motèl, джйнси/džínsi 'jeans', тàнк/tànk.

### 5.3 Incorporation of borrowings

Borrowings are generally adapted to the phonological and morphological systems of Bulgarian. Phonological adaptation is limited to eliminating segments not found in the Bulgarian phonemic system or to correcting violations of sequential constraints. For example, geminate consonants are regularly replaced by single phonemes: Russian грамма̇тика/grammàtika becomes Bulgarian грама́тика/gramátika 'grammar'. Front round vowels are replaced by sequences of palatalized or palatal consonants plus back vowels: French bureau gives бюрó/bjurò 'office'. Russian palatalized consonants are eliminated where they do not occur in Bulgarian: Russian пятиле̇тка/pjatilètka /p'it'il'ètka/ gives Bulgarian петилѐтка/petilètka /petilètka/ 'five-year plan'.

The last example illustrates an accommodation characteristic of borrowings from Russian and Russian Church Slavonic: the replacement of Russian morphological components with their Bulgarian counterparts, in this case Bulgarian пѐт/pèt for Russian пя่ть/pjàt' 'five'.

While showing some anomalies (below), borrowings are generally adapted morphologically. Nouns are assigned to one of the major gender classes, generally on the basis of their final segments. Nouns terminating in consonants are masculine (English ketchup - кѐтчъп/kètčăp); those terminating in /a/ are feminine (Rumanian masă - máca/mása 'table'). Nouns terminating in /o e ui/ are neuter if non-personal (French bureau - бюро́/bjuró 'office') or masculine if personal (French attaché - аташѐ/ atašé 'attaché').

Other, more complex types of adaptation also occur. For example, French feminine nouns ending in 'mute $e$ ' are regularly borrowed as feminine nouns in /-a/: allée - алѐя/aléja 'avenue, lane'. Greek and Latin borrowings show complex suffix alterations and shifts among inflectional classes (Първев/Părvev 1979).

The inflectional behaviour of borrowed nouns may be anomalous. A fairly large number of the monosyllabic masculine nouns that take the plural suffix $/-\mathrm{i} /$ (instead of /-ove/) are foreign (see section 3.1.2). Similarly, the velar-dental alternation accompanying the masculine plural marker $/-\mathrm{i}$ / is often absent (sections 2.2, 3.1.2).

Borrowed adjectives are altered in order to agree with the shape of derived native adjectives. This entails little change in already derived Russian adjectives: Russian кольхо́зный/kol'xóznyj - Bulgarian колхо́зен/kolxózen 'collective-farm (м SG)'. Otherwise, a Bulgarian suffix is commonly added to the foreign adjective: English loyal - лоя่лен/ lojàlen.

Borrowed adjectives are generally inflected like native adjectives. However, in the past, many adjectives borrowed from Turkish without the addition of a derivational suffix had a single unchanging form; the few that remain continue to do so (see section 3.1.4). Unmodified, uninflected adjectives from other sources are still possible, particularly in the colloquial language. Many are ephemeral, and even those that survive show syntactic idiosyncrasies (Първев/Părvev 1979: 233f.). For example, гро́ги/grógi (from English groggy) is used only predicatively: тóй е гро́ги/tój e grogi 'he is groggy'.

Borrowed verbs are most commonly assimilated into the third conjugation with the suffix /-ira-/ (of German origin): English train тренйрам/treniram '(I) train'. Most verbs of this type are bi-aspectual (see section 3.2.1). There is a tendency in colloquial Bulgarian to integrate them into the aspectual system by creating aspectual mates for them with perfectivizing prefixes or the imperfectivizing suffix /-va-/ (Граматика/ Gramatika 2: 268).

The third-conjugation suffix /-uva-/ is used to assimilate Russian verbs in /-ovat'/: арестова̀ть/arestovát' - аресту̀вам/arestúvam '(I) arrest (IMPFV and PRFV)'. Many of these verbs are bi-aspectual.

### 5.4 Lexical fields

### 5.4.1 Colour terms

Basic colour terms are given in bold; examples are masculine singular.

| 'white' | бя่л/bjàl |
| :---: | :---: |
| 'black' | че̇рен/čèren |
| 'red' | черве̇н/červèn; also àлен/álen 'scarlet' |
| 'green' | зеле̇н/zelèn |
| 'yellow' | ж'ллт/žălt; also pẏc/rùs 'blond (of hair)' |
| 'blue' | сйн/sin; also лазу́рен/lazùren 'azure, sky-blue (poetic)' and електри́к/elektrik 'electric blue (indeclinable)' |
| 'brown' | кафя่в/kafjàv (‘ кафе̇/kafé 'coffee'); also кестеня่в/ kestenjàv 'auburn, chestnut (of eyes, hair, horses)' (< ке̇стен/késten 'chestnut'), бе̇жов/bèžov 'beige' |
| 'purple' | мо́рав/mórav; also виоле̇тов/violètov 'violet', пуंрпурен/purpuren 'crimson (literary, poetic)' |
| 'pink' | ро́зob/rózov ( < póза/róza 'rose'); also пембя́н/pembjàn ~ пембѐн/pembèn 'hot pink' |
| 'orange' 'grey' | ора̀нжев/orànžev cùb/siv |

### 5.4.2 Body parts

| 'head' | главà/glavà |
| :---: | :---: |
| 'eye' | OKó/okó (anomalous plural: 3.1.2) |
| 'nose' | нòc/nós |
| 'ear' | yxó/uxó (anomalous plural: 3.1.2) |
| 'mouth' | устà/ustà; note related 'lip' устна/ùstna |
| 'hair' | ко́съм/kósăm 'single hair'; коса่/kosà 'head of hair' |
| 'neck' | вра̇т/vràt, шйя/šija |
| 'arm, hand' | ръкà/răkà (anomalous plural: 3.1.2); also дла́н/dlán 'palm' |
| 'finger' | прḃct/prắst |
| 'leg, foot' | кра́к/kràk (anomalous plural крака̀/krakà: 3.1.2); also '(sole of) foot' стъпа́ло/stăpàlo, ходйло/xodilo |
| 'toe' | прь்ст/prắst (with на крака่/na krakà 'of the foot' to distinguish 'toe' from 'finger') |
| 'chest' | гърдй /gărdi (plural of гръ́д/grằd 'breast' ( F )') and гръ́ден ко́ш/grằden kóš (literally 'breast basket') |
| 'heart' | сърце̇/särcè |


| 5.4.3 Kinship | terms |
| :---: | :---: |
| other' | ма่йка/màjka, and for one's own mother мàma/ |
| ther' | баща่/baštà, and for one's own father та̇тко/tatko |
| 'sister' | сестрà/sestrà; also ка̇ка/kà |
| rother' | бра̇т/bràt (anomalous plural бра̇тя/bràtja); also ба̇тко/ bátko 'older brother' |
| unt' | лѐля/lèlja 'sister of father or mother', ву́йна/vùjna 'wife of mother's brother', стрйна/strina 'wife of father's brother'; also dialectal тѐтка/tètka 'sister of mother' |
| 'uncle' | чи่чо/с̌ičo 'brother of father' and ву̀йчо/vújčo 'brother of mother'; also dialectal cвáко/sváko, тетѝн/tetin, лелйн/lelin 'husband of mother's sister'. Лѐля/lèlja 'aunt' and чиччо/čičo 'uncle' are used when the more precise relationship is unknown and also to address adults in general. |
| 'niece' | пле̇менница/plèmennica; also dialectal сестринйца/ sestrinica 'daughter of sister' and брата́ница/bratánica 'daughter of brother' |
| 'nephew' | пле̇менник/plèmennik; also dialectal сѐстриник/ sestrinik 'son of sister' and брата́нец/bratánec 'son of brother' |
| 'cousin' | female братовчѐдка/bratovčèdka and male брадовчѐд/bratovčèd |
| 'grandmother' | ба́ба/bàba; also used to address elderly women |
| 'grandfather' | дя่до/djàdo; also used to address elderly men |
| 'wife' | женà/ženà (also 'woman'), съпру̀га/săprùga ('spouse-F') |
| 'husband' | мъ่ж/mắž (also 'man'; anomalous plural: 3.1.2), съпру̀г/săprùg ('spouse-м') |
| 'daughter' <br> 'son' | дъщеря̀/dǎšterjà (anomalous vocative: 3.1.2) сйн/sin |

## 6 Dialects

Bulgarian dialects are usually divided into west and east with respect to the development of late Proto-Slavonic * ě jat'. West of a line running northsouth between A and B on map 5.1, *ě became /e/: 'big' M SG/golèm/, PL /golèmi/, 'milk' /mlèko/, 'milkman' /mlekár/. East of the line, stressed *ě in some (if not all) environments either becomes /á/ (as in the literary language; see section 2.3) or retains what may have been one of its late Proto-Slavonic vocalizations, / $/ \stackrel{a}{a} /$; unstressed /e/ (reduced phonetically to [i], see below) is general: /gol'ám gol'èm'i ml'áko ml'ekàr/ (Стойков/ Stojkov 1968: 54-5 for details).

While not coinciding exactly with the jat' boundary, other important isoglosses generally reinforce the east-west division:

1 Late Proto-Slavonic *a after alveo-palatal consonants (including $j$ ) gives * $\check{e}$ in the east, but /a/ in the west (as in the literary language): 'frog' east FSG /žàba/ - PL /žèb'i/ versus west /žába/ - /žábi/.
2 Strong reduction of unstressed /a/ to [ă], /o/ to [U], /e/ to [ 1 ] is typical in the east, especially north-east; in the west it is lacking altogether or limited to /a/ > [ă] (as in the literary language; see section 2.1).

3 Late Proto-Slavonic * $\varphi$ and ${ }^{*} \mathrm{~b}$ give /ă/ in the east (as in the literary language; section 2.1); in the west both /ă/ and /a/ are common.
4 East Bulgarian commonly has palatalized labial and dental consonants before front vowels and at the ends of words (where they contrast with non-palatalized consonants): /z'èt'/ 'son-in-law'. In the west only $/ l^{\prime} \mathrm{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{d}^{\prime} /$ are common, with $/ \mathrm{l}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}^{\prime} \mathrm{d}^{\prime} /$ often replaced by $/ \mathrm{j}^{\prime} \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\prime} /$; otherwise consonants are non-palatalized (as in the literary language; section 2.1).
5 Proto-Slavonic * $t j$ and ${ }^{*} d j$ are /št/ and /žd/ in the east (the literary treatment; section 2.1); besides these also $/ \check{c} \check{3} /, / \mathrm{k}^{\prime} \mathrm{g}^{\prime} /$, and $/$ šč ž / in the west.
6 Word-internal alternations of /ră ~ ăr/, /lă ~ ăl/ (see section 2.3) are characteristic of eastern dialects; in the west one finds syllabic liquids, non-alternating sequences of vowel-liquid or liquid-vowel, or in the case of $/ \mathrm{l} /$, replacement by /à/ or $/ \mathbf{u} /$.
7 In the east present-tense verb forms are as in the literary language (see section 3.2). In the west, palatalization is often lost in the first person singular and third-person plural: /xodă/ '(I) go'. Alternatively, the first person singular may be formed with /-m/: /xodim/. In the west $/-\mathrm{me} /$ commonly marks the first person plural in all conjugations: /xódime/ '(we) go'.
8 The imperfect past active participle (see section 3.2.1) is typically eastern. Clearly, a number of these features bring western dialects closer to Serbo-Croat and Macedonian.

The most archaic Bulgarian dialects are found in south-eastern Bulgaria, in the Rhodope mountains. Important features (Стойков/Stojkov 1968: 87-91) include: /gol'ầm' $\mathbf{i}$ /, /žăba/;
 palatalized labials and dentals before the reflexes of ${ }^{*} \ell$ and $b:{ }^{*} \varphi-$ /rằka/ 'hand, arm', ${ }^{*}$ b - /dằš/ 'rain', * $\varepsilon-/ m$ 'ằso/ 'meat', ${ }^{*}$ b /l'àsno/ 'easily';
3 'triple' definite article: unmarked /-t-/, /-s-/ for proximity to the speaker, /-n-/ for distance from the speaker (compare Macedonian); numerous case vestiges in nouns, adjectives and definite articles.

Map 5.1 Bulgarian dialects


Source: Стойков/Stojkov 1968: 63

This dialect picture is largely historical, reflecting the speech of informants at least 50-60 years of age when the data of the major dialectological works of the past $30-40$ years were collected (Стойков/Stojkov 1964-81). With the passing of this generation, the spread of literacy, the growth of the mass media and the rapid urbanization of the last twenty years, the older picture has given way to a much different one mixing traditional features and the standard language.

The geographical extent of Bulgarian dialects is controversial. On the level of local dialects there is no sharp boundary between the speech of western Bulgaria and that of eastern Serbia, former Yugoslav Macedonia and areas of Greece and Turkey contiguous to Bulgaria in which Slavonic dialects are still spoken. The official Bulgarian position, with respect to dialects and earlier historical periods, has been that eastern Serbian dialects, all Macedonian dialects in former Yugoslavia and Slavonic dialects in Turkey and Greece are dialects of Bulgarian.

## Acknowledgement

I wish to acknowledge the many suggestions, stylistic and substantive, of Borjana Velčeva and Linda Scatton. Special thanks are due to Vladimir Filipov, my Bulgarian-language consultant, whose assistance went far beyond that of a native informant.

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