7 Serbo-Croat

Wayles Browne

1 Introduction

Serbo-Croat(ian) is one of the languages of Yugoslavia. (Even this statement is disputed; see the end of this section.) It is used in four of the country's six republics: Croatia, Serbia, Montenegro (Crna Gòra/Црна Γòpa) and Bosnia-Hercegovina, and by four of its 'nations' (národi/ народи): the Croat(ian)s (approximately 4.5 million), Serbs (8 million), Montenegrins (600 thousand) and Yugoslav Muslims (2 million). (Republics and nations coincide only in part. Serbia, predominantly inhabited by Serbs, incorporates a multilingual northern province Vojvodina with many Croats, Hungarians, Slovaks, Rumanians and Rusyns, and a southern province Kosovo having an Albanian majority. Croatia is about four-fifths Croats, but much of the remaining fifth comprises Serbs. Montenegro is nearly all Montenegrins. Bosnia-Hercegovina, home of the Serbo-Croat-speaking Muslims, is a mixture of all four nations. Slovenes and Macedonians have their own republics and languages.) Citizens (1.2 million in 1981) who assign themselves to no national group ('Yugoslav' or 'Undecided' on censuses) mostly also speak Serbo-Croat. Yugoslavia has no single official language, but Serbo-Croat often functions for inter-ethnic communication.

Yugoslavia was never a political unit until the break-up of Austria-Hungary following the First World War. The two largest nations went through language standardization separately.

Serbia, after Ottoman Turk invaders defeated its culturally advanced medieval state (the most famous of many battles was at Kosovo Polje, 1389), experienced a period of stagnation. Only the Orthodox Church kept literacy and learning alive. The Church's language and Cyrillic-alphabet orthography (first the Serbian recension of Church Slavonic, later the Russian recension) heavily influenced what secular writing was done in Turkish-ruled Serbia and in Vojvodina, which was under Austria-Hungary from about 1700. The resulting 'Slaveno-Serbian', used for literary purposes from the late 1700s, was less of an amorphous mixture than its critics claimed; nevertheless, it varied from writer to writer and was easily

intelligible only to those schooled in the Church language.

Meanwhile the Croats, linked administratively and by their Catholic religion with European countries to the north and west, cultivated literature in neighbouring languages and in their own. Writers on the Adriatic coast employed Latin and Italian, as well as the local language of Dubrovnik (Štokavian dialect; section 6) and Split (Čakavian dialect); those in northern Croatia used German, Hungarian, Latin and their own local (Kajkavian) varieties. Orthography was mainly Latin, rendering non-Latin sounds by Hungarian or Italian-like graphic conventions. Since Croatia manifests the greatest dialect differentiation of all the Serbo-Croat territory, considerable differences existed between writing done in Zagreb or Varaždin in the north and works emanating from the coast. However, books and manuscripts circulated: thus Belostenec's dictionary (compiled 1670, published 1740) notes words from diverse locations.

Croats also had a Church Slavonic tradition. Coastal and island regions, often rather against the hierarchy's wishes, held Catholic services with Glagolitic-alphabet Slavonic texts, a practice lasting into this century on the island of Krk. Glagolitic (see chapter 2) served secular writings too; special Croatian square inscriptional characters and cursive script developed.

In the early 1800s Vuk Karadžić, a largely self-taught writer and folklorist, encouraged by Slavist and enlightened Austrian official Bartholomäus (Jernej) Kopitar, proposed a reformed Serbian literary language based on Štokavian folk usage without Church Slavonic phonological and morphological features. He advocated (i)jekavian Štokavian with neo-Štokavian shifted accentuation and newer declensions (merging plural dative, instrumental and locative cases); see sections 2 and 6. His 1818 dictionary showed how to write his new Serbian in a modified Cyrillic remedying the over- and under-differentiating Church orthography. Offensive to some were his dropping the *jer* letters (b, b) and his consonant letter j; the last was even called a Latin threat to Orthodoxy. After fifty years of polemics conducted by Karadžić and his disciple Duro Daničić, the newly independent kingdom of Serbia adopted his language and alphabet, though his (i)jekavian reflex of jat' (section 2.1) yielded to ekavian, typical of Eastern Serbo-Croat.

In Zagreb, the cultural centre of Croatia since the late 1700s, the Illyrian Movement sought unity of all South Slavs in the 1820s–1830s, and hence shifted in writing and publishing from local Kajkavian to the more widespread Štokavian. The writer-editor Ljudevit Gaj introduced Latin letters with diacritical marks (\check{c} , \check{s} , \check{z} , from Czech, \acute{c} from Polish) and digraphs (lj, nj, $d\check{z}$, originally also gj or dj for d). Discussion continued throughout the century about which sort of Štokavian to adopt. Several literary figures made a 'Literary Agreement' with Serbian counterparts in 1850 to standardize on Vuk's (i)jekavian Štokavian, but only when Tomo Maretić based a grammar (1899) on a corpus of Vuk's and Daničić's writings did

this become established in Croat practice, eliminating ikavian jat' reflexes and the older differentiated dative, locative and instrumental plural endings. Puristic tendencies led to maintenance or reintroduction of many words from older literature, and to newly coined domestic terms (section 5.2). These terminological differences, some grammatical preferences and virtually exclusive use of Latin orthography lend Croatia's (i)jekavian standard a somewhat different aspect from that of Serbia (ekavian, Cyrillic and Latin alphabets), Montenegro (ijekavian, mostly Cyrillic) and Bosnia-Hercegovina (ijekavian, more Latin than Cyrillic). The name 'Croatian literary language' is favoured for it within Croatia (as in the 1974 Constiliterary language' is favoured for it within Croatia (as in the 1974 Constitution of the Republic of Croatia), and it is often termed a separate language, although this position is equally often rejected in the press and political circles.

[The above was written in 1991. Since then the destructiveness of the war has led to international recognition of Croatia and Bosnia-Hercegovina as independent within their pre-existing boundaries. Serbia and Montenegro have formed a new non-socialist Yugoslavia against which the United Nations has imposed sanctions. Any observer must regret the war damages to civilian and military persons, economic potentials and cultural heritages. The linguist can expect broken contacts to lead to divergence in the language's standards. Mass expulsions and evacuations of refugees will make the dialect landscape much less differentiated and coherent than that shown in map 7.1 (page 383).]

2 Phonology

Segmental phoneme inventory

The five vowels i, e, a, o, u may occur in any position in a word: initial, medial, final. Each can be long or short (see Prosodic phenomena below). In addition, r can act as a vowel (long or short): crn/uph 'black', vrt/ppr 'garden'. 'Vocalic' ('syllabic') r (phonetically [r]) is not specially marked in normal writing. The pronunciation [r] is almost predictable, the rule being $r \to r$ when not next to a vowel (and in a few other exceptional environments).

Reflexes of ĕ, often called jat' (chapter 3, section 2.27) vary geographically, a fact on which one well-known dialect classification is based. Most Eastern Štokavian dialects are ekavian, having e from jat': * $r\check{e}ka > r\acute{e}ka$ 'river', * $v\check{e}ra > v\check{e}ra$ 'faith' (dialect forms are in Latin transcription throughout) except that i usually appears before j: * $nov-\check{e}j-bjb > novij\bar{i}$ 'newer'; this holds for the ekavian standard. Some north-central and coastal dialects, termed ikavian, have consistent i for jat': rika, vira, nòviji. An area in western Serbia has a distinct reflex, closed e (between i and e) (Реметић/ Remetić 1981), as do some settlers in non-Serbo-Croat surroundings.

Other central and southern-coastal Štokavian dialects have a reflex customarily described as ije in long syllables, je in short: rijeka (long), vjera (short); the terms ijekavian and jekavian are both used for such dialects. (They typically have $\check{e} > i$ both before j: $n \hat{o} v i j \bar{i}$ and before o which is an alternant of l: *dělb > dio 'part', but dijel- in the rest of the paradigm.) It is this understanding of the (i)iekayian reflex which has led to the traditional spelling and accentuation marking of the standard Serbo-Croat of Croatia, Montenegro and Bosnia-Hercegovina: vièra/Bjèpa in a short syllable, rijeka/pujeka in a long. It has, however, been demonstrated (Brozović 1973) that the standard language's long-syllable jat' reflex does not really consist of two syllables each with a short vowel. Contrasting alleged Nijèmac/Ниjèмац « *němьсь 'German' with the sequence of short syllables seen in nijèdan/нијèдан «*ni jedьпъ 'not one' shows that ije in 'German' is optionally one or two syllables but in either case begins with a brief i followed by long e [$i\bar{e}$]; thus we here adopt Brozović's rijeka/ рије́ка, Nijémac/Hujéмац. Similarly in examples with falling accent: traditional nijem/ниjeм, Brozović and here nijem/ниjeм [niem] 'mute'.

A further (i)jekavian complication is that the short-syllable reflex is e, not je, after consonant + r when all three sounds are in the same morpheme: *xrěnb > hrền/xpềh 'horseradish'. Compare *reš- > rješávati/ рјеша́вати 'to solve' with no preceding consonant, and raz+rješávati/ раз+рјеша́вати 'to release' with intervening morpheme boundary.

The Čakavian dialects are ekavian, ikavian and ikavian/ekavian (having e before Proto-Slavonic dental consonant + back vowel, i otherwise). Thus from *měra 'a measure', *měriti 'to measure', *lěpo 'beautifully', *dvě 'two' the first type has měra měrit lêpo dvê, the second mìra mìrit lîpo dvî and the last měra mìrit lîpo dvī. Kajkavian dialects show varied vowel systems, usually with ě > [e] or [e].

Of other Proto-Slavonic vowels missing in present-day Serbo-Croat, the front and back nasals (chapter 3, section 2.27) have merged with e and u respectively: *petb > pet/neT 'five', *roka > rúka/pýka 'hand, arm'.

Both jers have developed to a in strong position (see chapter 3, section 2.25): *pьsь > pås/пас 'dog', *sьnь > sån/сан 'sleep, dream'. In most instances jers drop in weak position, yielding $a \sim \emptyset$ alternations: genitives *pьsa > pså/пса, *sъna > snå/сна. Even when weak they develop into a if any of certain obstruent-sonorant clusters would arise: *mьgla > màgla/ма̀гла 'fog'.

Syllabic liquids arose in older Serbo-Croat from merger of liquid-jer and jer-liquid groups in interconsonantal position (without distinction of strong and weak jers): br, br, rb, rb all become r; bl, bl, lb, lb all become l. Thus *pbrv-bjb > *prv-, *tbrg-b > *trg, *grbm-ěti > *grm-, *krbvb > *krv, *vblk-b > *vlk, *sblnbce > *slnce, *slbza > *slza, *glbt-ati > *gltati. Modern Serbo-Croat preserves r, and the standard language (like most dialects) has u from l: prvī/npbū 'first', trg/rpr 'town square', grm(j)eti/

грм(j)ети 'to thunder', krv/крв 'blood', vûk/вук 'wolf', sûnce/сунце 'sun', sûza/суза 'a tear', gûtati/гутати 'to swallow'.

Serbo-Croat shows normal South Slavonic reflexes of other Proto-Slavonic interconsonantal vowel-liquid groups, namely metathesis with vowel lengthening: $er > r\check{e}, or > ra, el > l\check{e}, ol > la$. The \check{e} develops according to the rules for individual dialects. Examples: *u-mer-ti > ijekavian ùmrijēti/у̀мриjēти, ekavian ùmrēti/у̀мрēти 'to die'; *gordb > grād/гра́д 'town'; *melko > ijekavian mlijéko/млијéко, ekavian mléko/мле́ко 'milk'; *molt-iti > mlátiti/мла́тити 'to thresh, beat'.

The consonants of Serbo-Croat are shown in table 7.1.

The symbols used here are those of the Latin-alphabet orthography. They largely correspond to the transcription used among Slavists; note specially $h[x \sim h]$, c[t,s], d[d,z], c[t,c], d[d,z], $n[g] = \tilde{n}$, l[A]. The Latin alphabetical order is a b c č ć d dž đ e f g h i j k l lj m n nj o p r

The Latin alphabetical order is a b c č ć d dž đ e f g h i j k l lj m n nj o p r s š t u v z ž. Each letter with a differentiator follows its counterpart without; the digraphs dž lj nj behave as units (filling one square of a crossword puzzle, for example) and follow d l n respectively. The corresponding Cyrillic letters are a б ц ч ћ д џ ћ е ф г х и ј к л љ м н њ о п р с ш т у в 3 ж. Cyrillic alphabetical order differs somewhat: а б в г д ћ е ж з и ј к л љ м н њ о п р с т ћ у ф х ц ч џ ш.

The only exceptions to one-to-one correspondence between Latin and Cyrillic writing are instances where Latin $d\tilde{z}$ and nj notate a sequence rather than a single sound. This occurs when d is the final consonant of a prefix and \tilde{z} is part of a root, as $nad + \tilde{z}iv(j)eti$ 'to outlive', and when n is

Table	7 1	Serbo-Croat conso	nante
Lauic	/ • I	SCIDU-CIVAL CUISU	пашь

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Dental	Alveo-palatal	Palatal	Velar
Obstruents						
Stops						1.
Voiceless	p		t			k
Voiced	b		d			g
Fricatives						
Voiceless		f	S	š		h
Voiced		v	Z	ž		
Affricates						
Voiceless			С	č	ć	
Voiced			•	dž	đ	
Sonorants				WL.	•	
Nasals			_		ni.	
	m		n		nj	
Liquids						
Laterals			1		lj	
Vibrant			Γ			
Glide					j	

part of an abbreviation or foreign prefix coming before a root with j: kon+jugácija 'conjugation'. Cyrillic spellings are then наджи́в(j)ети. коніугација.

V and f are bilabial fricatives, hence obstruents, although v is less strident than f. However, ν behaves as a sonorant in never undergoing or causing devoicing. Thus there is no assimilation in $\frac{\partial v}{\partial v}$ sheep' and tvôi/TBôi 'vour'.

Prosodic phenomena: accent and vowel length. Some words are proclitic or enclitic, thus having no accented syllable of their own (proclitics: certain conjunctions, most prepositions; enclitics: certain pronoun and verb forms, certain particles; see section 4.1). Apart from these, every word form has one accented syllable (some compound words have one on each element). We say accent, not stress, because pitch and length are involved rather than intensity. Accent can alternate in placement or contour within the paradigm of a word. Accented syllables are termed either rising or falling, and contain a long or a short vowel. Traditional notation in grammars and dictionaries combines these two features, using four accent marks: short falling \ddot{a} , long falling \dot{a} , short rising \dot{a} , long rising \dot{a} . The falling accents occur almost exclusively on first syllables of words, and can occur on monosyllables: gðvōr/гðвōр 'speech', lðš/лош 'bad'; prâvdati/правдати 'to justify', grâd/град 'city'. The rising accents occur on any syllable but the last, hence not on monosyllables: dòlaziti/долазити 'to come', govòriti/говорити 'to speak', veličina/величѝна 'size'; glúmiti/глу́мити 'to act', garáža/гара́жа 'garage', gravitírati/гравити́рати 'to gravitate'.

Long and short vowels are distinguished under accent or in later

Long and snort vowels are distinguished under accent or in later syllables in the word. Thus grâd/грâд 'city', grầd/грâд 'hail'; váljati/ва́љати 'to roll', vàljati/ва̀љати 'to be good'. Post-accentual length is notated ā: gồdīnā/гồдйнā 'years (GEN PL)'; prâvdā/прâвда 'he/she justifies', prâvda/прâвда 'justice'; veličìnē/величѝне 'size (GEN SG)', veličìne/величѝне 'sizes (NOM/ACC PL)'. Many post-accentual lengths are associated with specific suffixes or grammatical forms (as genitive plural of nounc). One One can construct examples with multiple lengths like rázbōjnīštāvā/páзбōjнйштāвā, genitive plural of rázbōjnīštvo/páзбōjнй-штво 'banditry', but few people will pronounce all five vowels long; practically every region shortens post-accentual lengths in some positions (P. Ivić 1958 finds a clear hierarchy of dialectal shortenings).

The names of the accents suggest a pitch change on a given syllable. Pitch does ascend within long rising accented vowels, and drops during long fallings. However, short accented vowels have no such obvious pitch rise or fall. Measurements (Lehiste and Ivić 1986) suggest that the only consistent difference between short accents is the relationship with the following syllable: the syllable after a short rising begins equal to or higher in pitch than the accented syllable itself, then declines, whereas the syllable

after a short falling begins distinctly lower. The same relationship (equal to or higher versus lower) holds in the syllables following long rising and long falling, and is hence the factor common to all accentual distinctions, though regional variations in accent contour have led to disagreements among scholars.

An analysis attributing phonemic value to the pitch of the post-accentual syllable, rather than to the 'rising' accented syllable itself, was first proposed by Masing and elaborated by Browne and McCawley (1965). It rationalizes the distributional limitations: 'rising' cannot occur on final syllables because the next syllable must be there to bear the distinctive high pitch. This pitch can thus be on any of the syllables; if it is on the second, speakers perceive a rising on the first syllable, if on the third, they hear rising on the second, and so forth. Distinctive high pitch on the initial syllable yields falling accent. Why do Serbo-Croat speakers perceive the accent in the place where they do? This syllable undergoes lengthening by a factor of 1.5 (a long vowel, whose length is about 1.5 that of a short vowel, becomes $1.5 \times 1.5 = 2.25$ times the length of an unaccented short vowel), and the extra length gives it auditory prominence (Lehiste and Ivić 1986). The accented syllable is the one which bears ictus in verse and carries most sentence intonations.

Falling accents can 'jump' onto proclitics (prepositions, the negation ne before verbs, sometimes coordinating conjunctions). This is what we expect if the proclitic forms one phonological word with its host word: a falling accent on the initial syllable of brat/opat 'brother' would find itself on a non-initial syllable in the group od brata/og opata 'from the brother', violating the distribution rule for falling accents. In many dialects and the more traditional norm for the standard language, the accentuation rules can apply to the entire group, resulting in accent on the proclitic: od brata/ од брата.

Another type of 'jumping' is seen in dialects and in conservative standard Serbo-Croat with such a host word as grâd/rpâŋ 'city': u grâd/y rpâŋ 'to the city' can yield ù grād/ŷ rpāŋ. The difference between brátand grād- is that the second has no inherent high pitch; a rule, surviving from Proto-Slavonic, provides an accent to the first syllable of any word (or group) which, at that point in the phonological derivation, has no high pitch marked on any of its syllables.

2.2 Morphophonemic alternations inherited from Proto-Slavonic

The first palatalization of velars, which in Proto-Slavonic changed k, g, x to \ddot{c} , \ddot{g} (later \ddot{c}) and \ddot{s} respectively when a front vowel followed, survives in Serbo-Croat as a family of k, g, $h \rightarrow \ddot{c}$, \ddot{c} , \ddot{s} alternations in inflection (before e) and word formation (before j, i, e, movable a and other segments). The conditioning is partly morphological (and lexical), because not every instance of these segments triggers the change. In masculine nouns the

vocative singular ending -e/-e causes it: "učenīk/ўченйк 'pupil' → učenīče/ўченйче, Bôg/Бо́г 'God' → Bòže/Боже, siròmah/сиромах 'poor man' → siròmaše/сирòмаше. The accusative plural ending -e/-e does not: üčenīke/ўченйке, siròmahe/сиромахе, bùbrege/бубреге (from bùbreg/δỳδρετ 'kidney'). The -e-/-e- in verb present tenses invariably causes it: pèći/πὲħμ 'to bake', stem pèk-/πὲκ-, present pèčēm/ пèчēм, but third person plural pèkū/пèку, where there is no -e-/-e-.

Diminutive endings such as -ica/-ица commonly trigger the alternation in question, thus rúka/pýкa 'hand, arm' → diminutive rùčica/pỳчица 'small hand/arm'. But in certain instances a differentiation arises: rùcica/ ручица meaning 'handle' invariably has č, but emotional speech, as of or to a baby, may have unchanged k in diminutive rukica/pykuua 'hand/ arm'. In some instances the alternation has spread to suffixes having no jor front vowel: nòga/hòra 'leg, foot' has augmentative nòž-ūrda/hòx-ypga 'big ugly foot', compare gláva/гла́ва 'head' → glàv-ūrda/гла̀в-урда without i.

Alternation without overt triggering segment characterizes the formation of adjectives with -skī/-скй and its morphophonemic alternants: Amèrika/Амèрика, amèričkī/амèричкй 'American'. In Proto-Slavonic this suffix began with a front vowel. -bsk-; but Serbo-Croat has no vowel here.

The third palatalization of velars (see below) produced c and z from earlier Proto-Slavonic k, g. In Serbo-Croat, almost all c, and those instances of z which arose from the third palatalization, alternate with c and \check{z} respectively. The conditions can be described as 'same as for k, plus others': inherited strîc/crpûu 'father's brother' and borrowed princ/ принц 'prince' have vocative singular striče/стриче and prinče/принче, but they also show alternation before ov/oB and ev/eB of the 'long plural' (section 3.1.2): plural stríčevi/стричеви, prinčevi/принчеви, unlike nouns in k: vûk/вук 'wolf', plural vůkovi/вукови. Similarly knêz/кнêз 'prince', vocative knêže/кнеже, plural kneževi/кнежеви, since this word had Proto-Slavonic g (*kbne3b < *kŭningas); but vôz/bô3 'train, cart', which never underwent the third palatalization, has vocative vôze/Bô3e and plural vózovi/возови.

The second palatalization of velars produced c, z (via 3) and s from Proto-Slavonic k, g and x respectively (chapter 3, section 2.19). Serbo-Croat has three alternations, all of the form k, g, $h \rightarrow c$, z, s before i, but with different conditioning.

First, in verbs with stem-final k, g and one rare verb with h: reci/pehm 'to say', stem rek-/рек-, imperative singular rèci/рèци; рòmoći/пòмоћи 'to help', stem pomòg-/помот-, imperative pomòzi/помози; vr̂ci/вр̂ћи 'to thresh', stem vfh-/врх-, imperative vfsi/врси. Here it is stable but not productive, since no new stems can be added.

Further, in two places in noun morphology. Before -i/-u in masculine

nominative plurals, the alternation is almost exceptionless: йčenīci/ўченйци; agnòstik/агнòстик 'agnostic', agnòstici/агнòстици; bùbrezi/бўбрези; siròmasi/сирòмаси; àlmanah/àлманах 'almanac', àlmanasi/àлманаси. A few recent words escape it, like kòk/кòк 'coccus bacterium', kòki/кòки. It is equally regular before the -ima/-има dative-locative-instrumental plural ending: йčenīcima/ўченйцима, agnòsticima/агнòстицима, bùbrezima/бўбрезима.

In the dative-locative singular of the -a declension, the change is common: rúka/ру́ка, rúci/ру́ци (or rûci/ру́ци); nòga/hòra 'foot, leg', nòzi/hòзи; svrha/сврха 'purpose', svrsi/сврси; but it is restricted by phonological, morphological and lexical factors, whose hierarchy is only partially investigated. Some stem-final consonant clusters disfavour it: māčka/māчка 'cat', māčki/māчки, compare d(j)èvojka/д(j)èвojka 'girl', d(j)èvojci/д(j)èвojци. Personal names and hypocoristics avoid it: Milka/Мйлка, Milki/Мйлки; báka/бáка 'Granny', báki/бáки. This avoidance is stronger than the tendency for words in -ika/-ика to undergo the change: lògika/лòгика 'logic', lògici/лòгици; Afrika/Aфрика, Africi/Aфрици; but číka/чи́ка 'Uncle (addressing an older man)', číki/чи́ки. Of the three consonants, k most readily alternates, then g, with h least susceptible.

The third palatalization of velars (c, z, s from earlier Proto-Slavonic k, g, x) survives as a rare alternation in word formation: knêz/кнêз 'prince' but knèginja/кнèгиња 'princess'. Only in the formation of imperfective verbs from perfectives can a pattern (dating to early South Slavonic) be discerned, as ìzreći/ѝзрећи 'to utter', stem ìz-rek-/ѝз-рек-, imperfective izrícati/изри́цати; рòdići/пòдићи 'to pick up', stem pò-dig-/пò-диг-, imperfective pòdizati/пòдизати; udàhnuti/удàхнути 'to inhale', stem u-dàh-nu-/у-дàх-ну-, imperfective ùdisati/у̀дисати.

Croat developments of tj (from older tj and from kt before front vowel) and dj are *nokt-i-, *medja > nôć/нôħ 'night', mèđa/мèħa 'boundary'. Examples of alternations (passive participles of verbs, masculine singular indefinite): ljúbiti/љу́бити 'to kiss, to love', ljúbljen/љу̂бљен; zašaráfiti/зашара́фити 'to tighten (a screw)', zašàrāfljen/зашара́фљен; nòsiti/нòсити 'to carry', nòšen/нòшен; vrátiti/вра́тити 'to return', vrâćen/вра́ћен; báciti/ба́цити 'to throw', bačen/ба́чен (there are no verbs in -kiti/-кити, -giti/-гити, -hiti/-хити, except for the baby-talk kákiti/ка́кити 'defecate'); hváliti/хва́лити 'to praise', hváljen/хва́љен; izgovòriti/ изговорити 'to pronounce', izgovoren/изговорен; túžiti/тýжити 'to accuse', tûžen/тужен; poništiti/поништити 'to cancel', poništen/ поништен. The inherited jotation yields št and žd from st and zd, but these results now compete with šć, žđ (which come from changing the two consonants separately): iskòristiti/искòристити 'to use', iskòristen/искòриштен and iskòriscen/искòриштен. Šć is the only possibility in adjective comparison: gûst/гу̂ст 'thick', comparative gũscī/гу̀шћй.

The groups sk, zg before front vowel or j (first or second palatalization of velars) and stj, zdj merge, presumably through a stage šć, žđ, to yield št, žd in standard Serbo-Croat (compare the later version of the j alternation,

section 2.3).

Vowel alternations. Proto-Slavonic fronted certain vowels following a palatal consonant (see chapter 3, section 2.25). The fronting led to the existence of parallel sets of nominal endings in morphology. Serbo-Croat eliminated such parallelism in endings in favour of the **fronted** set (as did Slovene); only the o-e change survives as an alternation. Thus neuter odeclension nouns (section 3.1.2) have -o/-o in m(j)esto/м(j)ecto 'place', -e/-e in srce/cpue 'heart' and ùčenje/учење 'teaching, learning'.

The Serbo-Croat rule is now: $o \rightarrow e$ after palatal consonants and their descendants (\check{c} , $d\check{z}$, \check{s} , \check{z} , \acute{c} , d, j, lj, nj, c, $\check{s}t$, $\check{z}d$, sometimes r and z). It acts in nominal declensions and in word formation. A morphological limitation is that it scarcely applies in feminine declensions (only in the vocative singular of most nouns suffixed with -ica/-ица, as profesòrica/професòрица, vocative profesòrice/професòрице). Feminine adjectives and feminine pronouns are unaffected. The alternation in -om/-ом endings of the masculine and neuter is widespread, but factors hindering it (section 3.1.2) include vowel dissimilation and foreignness of the noun. The o-e alternation has spread to a new Serbo-Croat morpheme, the ov/oB and ev/eB of masculine noun 'long plurals' (section 3.1.2); thus gràdovi/градови 'cities' but mùževi/мўжеви 'husbands'.

The main vowel-zero alternation in present-day Serbo-Croat is $a \sim \emptyset$. As mentioned in 2.1, the Proto-Slavonic *jer* vowels b, b developed into a or dropped out, depending on position in the word. This leads to a appearing in word forms with zero ending, but not in related forms with a vowel ending. Examples are nominative singular masculine of nouns and

indefinite adjectives, masculine singular *l*-participles of verbs; respectively, trìgovac/тр̀говац 'merchant' and genitive trìgōvca/тр̀говца; tužan/ту́жан 'sad' and feminine tužna/ту́жна; isao/ишао 'went' (from ici/ин) and feminine singular isla/ишла. The a also appears before certain suffixes, as trìgovac/тр̀говац + skī/скй → trìgovackī/тр̀говачкй 'commercial'.

The alternation has been extended to various stem-final consonant

The alternation has been extended to various stem-final consonant clusters (generally containing at least one sonorant) where it had no historical basis. This is termed 'inserted a' or 'secondary jer'. Compare Pètar/Πὲταρ 'Peter', genitive Pètra/Πὲτρα (*Petrъ); dòbar/μὸδαρ 'good', feminine dòbra/μὸδρα (*dobrъ); the masculine l-participle of verbs whose stem ends in an obstruent, as rèkao/pèκao 'said' (from rèkal <*reklъ). Inserted a in nominative singulars is frequent in loan-words: kìlometar/κιληομεταρ, genitive kìlometra/κιληομεταρ; sùbjekat/cỳδjeκατ or sùbjekt/cỳδjeκτ, genitive sùbjekta/cỳδjeκτα.

The Serbo-Croat -ā/-ā genitive plural ending also triggers insertion of a,

The Serbo-Croat -ā/-ā genitive plural ending also triggers insertion of a, 'breaking' a preceding cluster: tr̄govācā/τρ̄τοβāцā, kilometārā/κπλομετāρā, subjekātā/cyojekātā, jutārā/jytāpā from jutro/jytpo 'morning', sestárā/cectápā from sestra/cectpa 'sister'. (Only a few clusters such as st, zd, št, žd, šć. žd, consonant-j are 'unbreakable'; cesta/uecta 'road', genitive plural cestā/uectā, ráskršće/páckpuħe 'crossroads', genitive plural ráskršćā/páckpuħā, sázv(ij)ēžde/cá3β(uj)ēжħe 'constellation', genitive plural sázv(ij)ēždā/cá3β(uj)ēwħā, nár(j)ecje/háp(j)euje 'dialect', genitive plural nár(j)ēcjā/háp(j)ēujā.) The inserted -a- then undergoes the other notable effect of this ending, namely vowel lengthening in the syllable preceding. A hierarchy exists: insertion in genitive plural can occur without insertion in nominative singular, but not the reverse.

2.3 Morphophonemic alternations resulting from changes after Proto-Slavonic

Slavonic
Upon the dropping of jer vowels in weak position, groups of consonant-jer-j (the jer was apparently always front) became consonant-j. Ensuing changes ('new jotation') led to a new set of alternations (it is debatable whether we should seek to collapse the two sets in a description). Points 1, 3 and 5 are as in section 2.2, thus in collective nouns (Proto-Slavonic -bje): gròb/грòб 'grave', gròblje/грòбље 'cemetery'; cv(ij)êt/цв(иj)êt 'flower', cv(ij)êće/цв(иj)êhe 'flowers'; grána/гра́на 'branch', grânje/гра̂ње 'branches' (and verbal nouns like ùčēnje/учēње). S and z remain unchanged, as does j: klâs/кла̂с 'ear of grain', klâsje/кла̂сје 'ears'. The j remains also after č, š, ž from 4 and 6: nòga/нòra 'leg, foot', pòdnōžje/пòднōжje 'base, foundation', and after r: môre/мôpe 'sea, prìmōrje/прѝмōpje 'littoral'. Only after palatals proper (č, đ, lj, nj, j) does j disappear: mèđa/мèħa 'border', rázmeđe/páзмeħe 'division', St, zd yield

only šć, žđ: lîst/лист 'leaf', līšće/лишће 'leaves'; grozd/грозд 'bunch of grapes', grozđe/грожће 'grapes'.

The newest jotation affects a consonant coming before the je reflex of short jat'. In standard jekavian it makes l and n into the corresponding palatals: Proto-Slavonic *lěto, *něga > ljěto 'summer', njěga 'care'; as Cyrillic writing makes clear, no separate j remains: jeto, jeto. (The presence of long or short vowel thus leads to alternation of dental and palatal consonant: Nijémac/Hujémau 'a German', but adjective $njèmačk\bar{l}/hemauk\bar{u}$.) In many dialects this type is more extensive, affecting t, d; in some, also labials and s, z (Brozović and Ivić 1988: 13 and 56-77). Such progressions may be of general-phonetic interest.

Partly inherited from Proto-Slavonic, where consonant clusters like st, zd but not 'sd' 'zt' existed, but greatly extended after the fall of the jers is consonant assimilation in voicing. In any cluster of obstruents, the voiced or voiceless quality of the last member controls that of the others. (Recall that v is not an obstruent in behaviour, section 2.1). This is both a phonotactic phenomenon, in that clusters like 'sd' 'bč' 'šg' are still impossible, and a morphophonemic one, since alternations occur in final consonants of prefixes: s/c in slòžiti/слòжити 'to assemble' but z/3 in zgàziti/згазити 'to trample'; before suffixes, as ùdžbenīk/ўµбенйк 'textbook' from ùčiti/учити 'to teach, learn'; and when a alternates with zero, as rédak/ре́дак 'a line', genitive singular rétka/pétka. Voicing assimilation is almost invariably reflected in writing. Only d keeps its spelling before s and š: grad/град 'city', gradskī/градски 'urban'; štèta/штета 'damage', odšteta/одштета 'compensation'.

Assimilation to a voiceless final member and assimilation to a voiced final member might seem part of the same rule, but they interact differently with 'cluster-breaking' in noun genitive plurals: a consonant devoiced in a cluster regains its voicing (svèska/cвècкa 'notebook', from svézati/све́зати 'to bind', genitive plural svèzākā/свèзāкā), whereas one which has become voiced remains so (prìm(j)edba/прѝм(j)едба 'comment', from prim(ij)étiti/прим(иј)éтити 'to remark', genitive plural prìm(j)edābā/прѝм(j)eдāбā).

Assimilation in palatality affects s and z, which are pronounced and written š, ž before č, dž, ć, đ and lj, nj (though not root-initial lj, nj, nor lj, nj resulting from the newest (jekavian) jotation): ràščistiti/рашчистити 'to clear up', from prefix raz-/раз- and čistiti/чйстити 'to clean'; vòžnja/вòжња 'driving', from vòziti/вòзити 'to drive' and suffix -nja/-ња; but not in razljútiti/разљу́тити 'to anger' from ljût/љу̂т 'angry, sharp', nor in jekavian snjèžan/снèжан 'snowy' (ekavian snèžan/снèжан).

Serbo-Croat spelling, further, shows changes in consonant clusters.

Serbo-Croat spelling, further, shows changes in consonant clusters. Double consonants simplify: beznačajan/безначајан 'insignificant' from bez/без 'without' and značaj/значај 'significance'. Dental stops drop before affricates, as in case forms of otac/отац 'father': genitive oca/оца

(from otca), nominative plural òčevi/òчеви (from otčevi). T and d are also lost between s, z, š, ž and n, l or various other consonants (izraslina/израслина 'a growth' from the verb stem rást/páct – 'grow'; the adjective rådostan/påдостан 'joyful' has feminine rådosna/påдосна, from rådost/påдост 'joy'). They remain at prefix-root boundary: istlačiti/истлачити 'to oppress', from iz-/из- 'out' and tlåčiti/тлачити 'to press'. Such changes, like a-insertion, give Serbo-Croat a high relative frequency of vowels as compared to consonants.

A further vowel-enhancing change is that of the consonant l to o, which occurred when the l was pre-consonantal or word-final. The alternation that results is exceptionless in verb l-participles: masculine singular dåo/дão 'gave', but feminine dála/дáла. In adjectives and nouns it is wide-spread though lexicalized: masculine singular nominative mìo/мйо 'nice', feminine mìla/мйла, but òhol/òхол 'haughty' – òhola/òхола.

If the l-o change yields a sequence oo, this contracts to long \bar{o} : thus the masculine singular l-participle of ubòsti/убости (stem ubòd/убод-) 'to stab' is ùbō/убо.

A-insertion and l-o are linked. If a word-final cluster of consonant-l is split, the l almost always becomes o. Apart from l-participles like rek-l/pek- π → rekao/pekao 'said', there are nouns like misl-/мис π → misao/мисао 'thought' and adjectives like topl-/ τ o π → topao/ τ o π ao 'warm' (topal/ τ o π a π is rare). If a-insertion fails, as it does in a few loanwords, final l becomes syllabic, not changing to o: bicikl/ τ o π u π 0 bicycle'.

3 Morphology

3.1 Nominal morphology

All pronouns, almost all nouns, most adjectives and some numerals decline.

3.1.1 Nominal categories

The grammatical categories shown by declension are number, case, gender and animacy. All these participate in agreement within the noun phrase and outside. Further, adjective forms show definiteness-indefiniteness and comparison.

The numbers are singular and plural. Nouns, adjectives and adjectival pronouns also have a form without case distinction, used accompanying the numerals '2', 'both', '3' and '4' (a remnant of the Proto-Slavonic dual). It has had various names; we cite it as the '234 form' (section 4.10).

There are seven cases: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative, instrumental, locative. Dative and locative have merged; only certain inanimate monosyllabic nouns distinguish them accentually in the singular.

In the plural, nominative and vocative are practically identical, and dative, instrumental and locative are also the same apart from enclitic pronouns which are dative only; hence we write NOM-VOC on one line and DAT-LOC-INST on another in plural paradigms.

Serbo-Croat distinguishes masculine, neuter and feminine genders in singular and plural; the 234 form opposes masculine-neuter to feminine.

Within the masculine singular, the animacy category is important for choosing the accusative of masculine o-stem nouns and of pronouns (apart from personal pronouns; section 3.1.3), adjectives and numerals which agree with masculine nouns of any sort. The rule is: like genitive for animates (můža/му́жа 'husband', làva/ла̀ва 'lion'), like nominative for inanimates (grâd/rpâŋ 'city').

3.1.2 Noun morphology

There are three main declension types. One has -o/-o, -e/-e or zero in the nominative singular and -a/-a in the genitive singular; it arose from Proto-Slavonic o-stems. It includes most masculine and all neuter nouns. A second has nominative singular -a/-a, genitive $-\bar{e}/-\bar{e}$, continuing Proto-Slavonic a-stems. It contains most feminine nouns and small classes of masculines. The third type, from Proto-Slavonic i-stems, ends in zero in nominative singular, $-i/-\mu$ in genitive. It includes all feminines apart from a-stems.

The basic o-stem endings are those of prózor/ π pó3op (table 7.2). Grâd/ π pâ π , like most monosyllables and some disyllables, has the 'long

Table	7.2	Mascu	line	o-stems

	'city'	'husband'	'window'
Singular			
NOM	grâd/гра́д	mûž/мŷж	prózor/про́зор
VOC	gråde/граде	mûžu/мŷжу	prózore/прозоре
ACC	grâd/град	mûža/му̂жа	рго́zог/про́зор
GEN	grâda/града	mûža/му̂жа	рго́zога/про́зора
DAT	grâdu/грâду	mûžu/му̂жу	prózoru/прозору
INST	grådom/градом	mûžem/му̂жем	prózorom/прозором
LOC	grádu/грáду	mûžu/мŷжу	prózoru/про́зору
234	grâda/гра̂да	mûža/мŷжа	prózora/про́зора
Plural NOM-VOC ACC GEN DAT-LOC-INST	grādovi/градови grādove/градове grādōvā/градōва grādovima/ градовима	mùževi/мўжеви mùževe/мўжеве mùžēvā/мўжева mùževima/ мўжевима	prózori/про́зори prózore/про́зоре prózōrā/про́зōрā prózorima/про́зорима

plural', adding ov/oB before plural endings (ev/eB after palatals and c; section 2.2).

Nominative plural -i/-и and dative-locative-instrumental -ima/-има cause consonant alternation (section 2.2). The genitive plural has $-\bar{a}/-\bar{a}$, with an additional $-\bar{a}$ inserted to sep-

The genitive plural has $-\bar{a}/-\bar{a}$, with an additional $-\bar{a}$ inserted to separate most stem-final consonant clusters (section 2.2). A few nouns lacking the long plural take genitive plural $-\bar{i}/-\bar{\mu}$ (often units of measure, as sát- \bar{i}/c át- $\bar{\mu}$ 'hour') or -ij $\bar{\nu}/\mu$ (gòst-ij $\bar{\nu}/\rho$ ct- μ j $\bar{\nu}$ 'guest').

A subtype of Proto-Slavonic o-stems, the jo-stems, had endings preceded by a palatal consonant (originally, by j). The descendant of this subtype is the 'soft stems', exemplified by mūž/муж. These may end in any palatal or alveo-palatal; words in -ar, -ir optionally come here as well. Soft stems take vocative singular -u/-y where others have -e/-e, and they cause o-e as in instrumental singular -em/-em for -om/-om (section 2.2); but -u/-y vocatives and -em/-em instrumentals do not coincide in scope. -u/-y has spread to some nouns in velars: strâh/ctpâx 'fear', vocative strâhu/ctpâxy. Instrumental -em/-em is normal with stems in -c, where vocative has -e/-e and the first-palatalization alternation, as òtac/òtau 'father', vocative òče/òчe. -om/-om tends to be kept in foreign words and names (Kìš-om/Kйш-ом) and in words with e in the preceding syllable: pádež-om/па́деж-ом 'case'. For fuller treatment of Serbo-Croat declension see P. Ivić/П. Ивич (1972), whom we follow closely here.

Proto-Slavonic masculine *i*-stem, *u*-stem and consonant-stem nouns have joined the *o*-stem declension. **Potь* has become pût/πŷτ 'way, road, journey, time(s)', genitive púta/πýτa. None of this word's forms continue *i*-declension endings. **Synъ* is now sîn/cйн 'son', genitive sîna/cйна. **Dьпь*, **kamy* and **korę* yield regular *o*-stems dân/дâн 'day' (genitive dâna/дâна), kằmēn/кằмēн 'stone' and kồr(ij)ēn/кồр(иј)ēн 'root'. Words suffixed with *-an- have -anin/-анин as singular stem: grầđanin/граванин 'city-dweller, citizen', genitive grầđanina/граванина; and -an/-ан as plural stem: grầđāni/гравани, genitive grầđanā/гравана. Words in *-telj- are soft stems without peculiarities: ùčitelj/у̀читељ 'teacher', genitive ùčitelja/у̀читеља, plural ùčitelji/у̀читељи.

The modern locative singular -u/-y comes from the *u*-declension, and

The modern locative singular -u/-y comes from the u-declension, and the ov/oB of the 'long plural' has been generalized from the u-stem plural nominative *-ove and genitive *-ovb.

The neuter endings (table 7.3) differ from the masculine only in the nominative, vocative and accusative. These three cases are always the same, having -o/-o or -e/-e for the singular and -a/-a for the plural.

Words of the type s(j)ème/c(j)ème 'seed' (Proto-Slavonic *n*-stems) have a stem in -men- taking o-stem endings outside the nominative-vocative-accusative singular: genitive s(j)èmena/c(j)èmena.

vocative-accusative singular: genitive s(j)èmena/c(j)èмена.

Neuters like jà(g)nje/jà(г)ње 'lamb' (Proto-Slavonic nt-stems) have a stem in -et- taking o-stem endings in the oblique singular cases, as genitive

Table	7.3	Neuter	o-stems
Lauic	1.5	1460161	U-SICIIIS

	'place'	'heart'	'study'
Singular NOM-VOC-ACC GEN DAT-LOC INST	m(j)ềsto/m(j)ềcTo m(j)ềsta/m(j)ềcTa m(j)ềstu/m(j)ềcTy m(j)ềstom/ m(j)ềcTOM	sřce/ср̀це sřca/ср̀ца sřcu/ср̀цу sřcem/ср̀цем	ùčēnje∕ўчēње ùčēnja∕ўчēња ùčēnju∕ўчēњу ùčēnjem∕ўчēњем
234	m(j)ềsta/м(j)ềста	sřca/срца	ùčēnja/у̀чēња
Plural NOM-VOC-ACC GEN DAT-LOC-INST	m(j)ềsta/м(j)ёста m(j)ёstā/м(j)ёста m(j)ёstima/ м(j)ёстима	sřca/ср̀ца sřcā/ср̀цā sřcima/ср̀цима	ùčēnja/ўчēња ùčēnjā/ўчēњā ùčēnjima/ўчēњима

jà(g)njeta/jà(г)њета. Their plural stems are usually suppletive: jàgānjci/jàгāьци or jàgnjići/jàгьићи masculine plural, or jà(g)njād/jà(г)њāд istem feminine.

Traces of Proto-Slavonic s-stems (the*slovo type) are seen in alternative plural stems for nebo/нebo 'heaven', t(ij)elo/т(иj)ело 'body', čudo/чудо 'miracle': nebesa/неbeca, t(j)elesa/т(j)елеса, čudesa/чудеса.

Many masculine names, derivatives and loan-words resemble neuters in having nominative singular in -o/-o or -e/-e: Mârko/Mâрко 'Mark', Pâvle/Пâвле 'Paul', nestáško/нестáшко 'brat', râdio/рâдио 'radio', finále/финáле 'finale'. The stems are seen in genitive Mârka/Mâрка, Pâvla/Пâвла, nestáška/нестáшка, râdija/рàдиja, finála/финáла. Some names have -et- stems: Mîle/Mine, genitive-accusative Mîleta/Mineta.

Most a-stems are feminine (table 7.4). Words denoting men (as slúga/слу́га, koléga/коле́га 'colleague') and certain animals (gorìla/горѝла 'gorilla') are masculine, but even these can take feminine agreement in the plural, as tê kolége/тê коле́ге 'these colleagues'. Many masculine names (Aleksa/Aлекса) and hypocoristics (Jóca/Jóua 'Joe') are a-stems; other hypocoristics have nominative -o/-o but other cases like a-stems (Ívo/Йво, genitive Ívē/Йвē from Ìvan/Йван 'John').

The old distinction of hard a-stems and soft ja-stems is gone: endings from the soft paradigm have been generalized (genitive $-\bar{e}/-\bar{e}$ is from *-e not *-e; dative-locative -i/- μ from *-e not *-e). Vocative -o/-o has spread from the hard variant; only certain nouns in -ica/- μ take -e/-e (section 2.2).

Non-hypocoristic names have nominative replacing vocative: Màrija/ Màриja! Aleksa/Алекса!

The dative-locative singular ending causes consonant alternation in

Feminine (and masculine) a-stems Table 7.4

	'woman, wife'	'manservant'	'soul'
Singular			
NOM	žèna/жèна	slúga/слу́га	dúša/ду́ша
VOC	žёno/жёно	slûgo/слŷго	dûso/ду̂шо
ACC	žènu/жèну	slúgu/слу́гу	dûšu/ду̂шу
GEN	žènē/жèнē	slúgē/слу́гē	dúšē/ду́шē
DAT-LOC	žèni/жèни	slúzi/слу́зи	dúši/ду́ши
INST	žènōm/жèнōм	slúgōm/слу́гōм	dúšōm/дýшōм
234	žène/жèне	slûge/слŷге	dûše/ду̂ше
Plural			
NOM-ACC	žène/жèне	slûge/слу̂ге	dûše/ду̂ше
voc	žềne, žène/жềне, жèне	slûge/слу̂ге	dûše/ду̂ше
GEN	жене žénā/жéнā	slùgū, slúgā/слу̀гӯ, слу́га̄	dúšā/дýшā
DAT-LOC-INST	žènama/жèнама	slúgama/слу́гама	dúšama/ду́шама

many a-stems (second palatalization of velars, section 2.2).

Nouns with stem-final consonant clusters have lexically conditioned genitive plurals, $-\bar{a}/-\bar{a}$ (with cluster-breaking \bar{a} ; section 2.2) or $-\bar{i}/-\bar{n}$: d(i)èvōjka/д(j)èвōjка 'girl', d(j)èvojākā/д(j)èвоjāкā; mâika/маіка 'mother', majkī/мајкй.

Proto-Slavonic i-nominative nouns now have -a: *rabynji > robinja/

робиња 'slave woman', *sodiji > sùdija/судија 'judge'.

Feminine i-stems (table 7.5) are a closed class except for those with the productive suffixes -ōst/-ōct '-ness', -ād/-āд 'collective noun, especially suppletive plural of neuter -et stem'. The instrumental singular is usually in -ju/-jy (Proto-Slavonic *-ьj ρ), causing 'new jotation' (section 2.3): kồsću/кошћу, ljúbav/љубав 'love' ljúbavlju/љубављу; but some items permit or require -i/-и: ćûd/ħŷд 'mood', ćûdi/ħŷди.

The i-declension continues Proto-Slavonic i-stems. Proto-Slavonic rstems yield mati/мати 'mother', genitive matere/матере (like a-stems except accusative mater/matep, vocative mati/matu) and kcî/khu 'daughter', genitive kćèri/кhèри (like i-stems). More frequent now are a-stems (from diminutives) mâjka/мâjкa, (k)ćérka/(к)ћерка. Proto-Slavonic long *u-stems mostly become a-stems in -va/-ва: *сьгку > crkva/црква 'church', *svekry > svekrva/свекрва 'mother-in-law'; but two are i-stems: *ljuby > ljúbav/љу́бав, *kry > krv/крв 'blood'.

Besides the declension types given, Serbo-Croat has nouns declining as adjectives. Two noteworthy sets are masculine surnames in -skī/-скй, as

Bugàrskī/Бугарски, genitive Bugàrskog(a)/Бугарског(a), and country

Table 7.5 Feminine i-stems

'bone'

Singular		
NOM	kôst/kôct	
VOC	kồsti/кồсти	
ACC	kôst/kôct	
GEN	kồsti/кồсти	
DAT	kồsti/кồсти	
INST	kösti, köšću/кости, кошћу	
LOC	kòsti/кòсти	
234	kồsti/кồсти	
Plural		
NOM-VOC-ACC	kồsti/кồсти	
GEN	kòstī, kòstijū/кòстй, кòстиjў	
DAT-LOC-INST	kòstima/костима	

names in -skā/-скā, like Fràncūskā/Француска 'France', dative-locative Fràncūskōj/Францускōj.

3.1.3 Pronominal morphology

The personal and reflexive pronouns oppose full (accented) and clitic (unaccented; section 4.1) forms in genitive, dative and accusative (table 7.6).

Genitive-accusative syncretism is complete (except njê/hê versus njû/hŷ and the lack of a genitive reflexive clitic). There is much additional variation. Instrumental singulars used without a preposition are frequently mnóme/мнóме, njíme/ни́ме, njóme/но́ме. Oblique singulars may have accent -è- instead of -è-. Si/си is absent in central Štokavian dialects, but found in some Croatian standard codifications. Archaic and literary usage may have accusatives me/me, te/Te, nj/h, se/ce with prepositions, as prèdā se/прèдā ce 'in front of oneself' = pred sèbe/пред сèбе.

Demonstrative, possessive and other pronouns share a set of endings that may be termed pronominal, again with many alternative forms (table 7.7).

The close and distant demonstratives $\delta v\bar{a}j/\delta B\bar{a}j$ 'this', $\delta n\bar{a}j/\delta H\bar{a}j$ 'that' decline like $t\hat{a}j/Taj$. The 'movable vowels' (a), (e), (u) tend somewhat to appear in phrase-final position, otherwise not: o $t\delta me/o$ $T\delta me$ 'about that', o $t\delta m$ $ps\tilde{u}/o$ $T\delta m$ $Tc\tilde{y}$ 'about that dog'. Nåš/HåIII and våš/BäIII 'your (PL)' are 'soft' stems, typified by o-e in masculine and neuter endings. Also soft are $m\tilde{o}j/m\tilde{o}j$ 'my', $tv\tilde{o}j/TB\tilde{o}j$ 'your (SG)', $sv\tilde{o}j/CB\tilde{o}j$ (reflexive possessive: section 4.8) and $k\tilde{o}j\tilde{l}/k\tilde{o}j\tilde{l}$ (stem $k\tilde{o}j-/k\tilde{o}j-)$ 'which'. These, additionally, may contract oje to \tilde{o} , yielding five possibilities for

Table 7.6 Personal and reflexive pronouns

	1	2	3 masculine	3 neuter	3 feminine
Singular					
NOM	jâ/jâ	tî/ти̂	ôn/ôн	òno/òно	òna/òна
ACC	mène/мèне	tèbe/тèбе	njèga/њèга	njèga/њèга	njû/њŷ
Enclitic	те/ме	te/Te	да/га	ga/га	je/je, ju/jy
GEN	mène/мèне	tèbe/тèбe	njèga/њèга	njèga/њèга	njê/њê
Enclitic	те/ме	te/Te	ga/ra	ga/ra	je/je
DAT	mèni/мèни	tèbi/тèби	njèmu/њèму	njèmu/њèму	njôj/њôj
Enclitic	mi/ми	ti/ти	mu/му	mu/му	jôj/jôj
INST	mnôm/мнôм	tồbōm/тồбōм	njîm/њи̂м	njîm/њи̂м	njôm/њôм
LOC	mèni/мèни	tèbi/тèби	пјѐти/њѐму	пјѐти/њѐму	njôj/њôj
Plural					
NOM	mî/ми̂	vî/вй	òni/òни	òna/òна	òne/òне
ACC-GEN	nâs/Hâc	vâs/Bâc	njîn/њи̂х	njîh/њи̂х	njîh/њи̂х
Enclitic	nas/Hac	vas/Bac	iȟ/их	iȟ/их	iĥ/их
DAT	па̀та/на̀ма	vāma/ва̀ма	njîma/њѝма	njima/њѝма	пјіта/њима
Enclitic	пат/нам	vam/вам	im/им	im/им	im/им
INST-LOC	па̀та/на̀ма	vàma/ва̀ма	njima/њѝма	пјіта/њима	njima/њѝма
	Reflexive				
Singular/plural	,				
NOM	_				
ACC	sèbe/cèбe				
Enclitic	se/ce				
GEN	sèbe/cèбe				
DAT	sèbi/сèби				
Enclitic	(si/cи)				
INST	sõbōm/cõбōм				
LOC	sèbi/сèби				

Table 7.7 Demonstrative and possessive pronouns

	'this, that' Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Singular			
NOM	tâj/тâj	tô/τô	tâ/тâ
ACC	NOM or GEN	tô/тô	tû/τŷ
GEN	tồg(a)/тồг(a)	tồg(a)/тồг(a)	tê/тê
DAT-LOC	tồm(e, u)/	tồm(e, u)/	tôj/тôj
	то̀м(е, у)	то̀м(е, у)	
INST	tîm, tíme/	tîm, tíme/	tôm/тôм
	тим, тиме	тим, тиме	
234	tâ/тâ	tâ/тâ	tê/ T ê
Plural			
NOM	tî/ти̂	tâ/тâ	tê/τê
ACC	tê/τê	tâ/тâ	tê/τê
GEN	tîh/ти̂х	tîh/ти̂х	tîh/ти̂х
DAT-LOC-INST	tîm, tîma/	tîm, tîma/	tîm, tîma/
	ти́м, тѝма	ти́м, тѝма	тим, тима
	'our(s)'		
Singular	()		
NOM	nãš/на̀ш	nãše/на̀ше	näša/на̀ша
ACC	NOM or GEN	nãše/наше	näšu/на̀шу
GEN	näšeg(a)/	näšeg(a)/	näšē/на̀шḗ
	на̀ше́г(а)	на̀ше́г(a)	
DAT-LOC	nầšem(u)/	nầšem(ù)/	nãšōj/на̀шōj
	на̀шем(у́)	на̀шем̀(у́)	•
INST	กลิรัเฑ/หลิ้шиืм	nàšīm/หลิ้шหิм	näšōm/на̀шōм
234	näša/на̀ша	näša/на̀ша	näše/наше
Plural			
NOM	näši/на̀ши	näša/на̀ша	nãše/на̀ше
ACC	näše/наше	nãša/на̀ша	näše/наше
GEN	näšīh/на̀ших	nãšīh/на̀ши́х	nãšīh/на̀ши́х
DAT-LOC-INST	näšīm(a)/	näšīm(a)/	näšīm(a)/нäшйм(a)
	нашим(а)	нашим(а)	()

masculine and neuter dative-locative singular: mòjem/мòjeм, mòjemu/мòjeмy, môm/мôм, môme/мôмe, mômu/мôмy. The third-person possessives njègov/нèгов 'his, its', njên/нèн or njézin/не́зин 'her', njìhov/найхов 'their' are treated under short-form adjectives (section 3.1.4).

The pronoun *sb has been lost. *Vbsb 'all' has undergone consonant metathesis vs > sv but still behaves as a soft stem (table 7.8).

Svo/cBo for neuter singular sve/cBe is non-standard but frequent in modifier position.

The interrogative pronouns have stems k-/k-, č-/4- with singular

Table 7.8 Declension of sav/cab 'all'

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Singular			
NOM ACC GEN DAT-LOC INST	sãv/cãв NOM or GEN svèga/свèга svèmu/свèму svîm/сви́м	svề/свё svề/свё svèga/свèга svèmu/свèму svîm/свйм	svã/свã svũ/свÿ svê/све̂ svôj/свôj svôm/свôм
234	svã/свã	svã/svã	svề/свё
Plural NOM ACC GEN DAT-LOC-INST	svì/свѝ svè/свè svìh/свйх, svìjū/свѝjў svìm/свѝм, svìma/свѝма	svā/сва svā/сва svīh/свйх, svìjū/свѝjӯ svīm/свйм, svìma/свѝма	svè/свè svè/свè svìh/свйх, svìjū/свѝjў svìm/свѝм, svìma/свѝма

pronominal endings (table 7.9). The Croat standard codifies the older forms $tk\ddot{o}$, $\breve{s}t\ddot{o}$. Other interrogatives are part of a larger pattern of demonstrative roots and classifying suffixes, thus $k\ddot{a}kav/\kappa\ddot{a}\kappa aB$ 'of what sort', ovakav/obakab 'of this sort'.

Table 7.9 Declension of 'who' and 'what'

	'who' masculine	'what' neuter
NOM	(t)kὂ/(τ)κὂ	štồ, štầ/штồ, штầ
ACC	kờga/κờra	štồ, štầ/штồ, штầ
GEN	kòga/kòra	čèga/чèга
DAT-LOC	kòmu, kòme/кòму, кòме	čèmu/чèму
INST	kîm, kíme/ки̂м, ки́ме	čîm, číme/чи̂м, чи́ме

Interrogatives add prefixes or suffixes to give indefinites: ne(t)ko/He(T)ko 'someone', nesto/Heuto 'something', nekakav/Hekakab 'of some sort'. I-/μ- means 'any' (negative polarity; section 4.6), ni-/μμ- 'no', koje-/koje- 'one and another' (as kojesta/kojeuta 'various things; nonsense'), sva-/cba- (sve-/cbe-, svu-/cby-) 'every' (sva(t)ko/cba(t)ko 'everyone', svugd(j)e/cbyrg(j)e ('everywhere'). Bílo/било..., ma/ма..., ... god/ròд mean '... ever' (thus bílo gd(j)e/било гд(j)e, ma gd(j)e/ма гд(j)e or gd(j)e god/гд(j)e ròд 'wherever'). The ne-/he- type may be used both with and without existence presuppositions:

Nèšto se dogòdilo!/Нёшто се догодило! 'Something has happened!' Äko se nëšto dògodī, rèci mi!/Äко се нёшто дòгодӣ, рèци ми! 'If anything happens, tell me!'

In the second usage bare interrogatives also occur: Ako se štò dògodī/ Ако се што догоди ...

3.1.4 Adjectival morphology

Serbo-Croat preserves the distinction of long- and short-form adjectives (table 7.10). The citation form of an adjective is the nominative singular masculine short form (long form if short is lacking).

The long endings are those of the pronominal declension, but with length on the first vowel and with nominative masculine singular -ī/-π. The short endings differ in the forms italicized in table 7.10 and in the shortness of single-vowel endings (nòvo/hòbo versus long nòvo/hòbō). Nòv/hòb and some other adjectives distinguish short-long accentually as well (though much inter-speaker variation exists). Short genitives and dative-locatives like nòva/hòba, nòvu/hòby are most widespread in the Croat standard. The short genitive ending -a/-a is especially frequent in the qualifying genitive: čòv(j)ek dòbra srca/чòb(j)ek дòбра срца 'a man of good heart'.

Soft stems differ from hard only in nominative-accusative neuter singular long lðšē/ло̀шē, short lðše/ло̀ше 'bad', masculine-neuter genitive lðšēg(a)/ло̀шēг(a), dative-locative lðšēm(u)/ло̀шēм(y).

Short and long contrast semantically in modifier position: nov grâd/hob rpâg 'a new city', novī grâd/hobū rpâg 'the new city'. Since Vuk Karadžić they have been explained as answering the questions kàkav/κàκαβ? 'of what sort?' and kojī/κojū? 'which one?' respectively. Set-phrases regularly have long forms; thus b(ij)êlī luk/b(uj)ênū nyk 'white onion' means 'garlic'. Predicate position requires short forms (section 4.3): ovāj grâd je nov/obāj rpâg je hob 'this city is new'.

Possessive adjectives (sections 3.3.2, 4.9), including njègov/њèгов 'his, its', njên, njézin/њèн, њéзин 'her', njîhov/њйхов 'their', have only short endings: Màrijin grâd/Màријин град 'Marija's city', njên grâd/њèн град 'her city', Ìvanov grâd/Йванов град 'Ivan's city'. The same is true for the demonstrative-interrogatives in -àkav/àкав, suiting their meaning. Adjectives having exclusively long forms include mālī/мали 'small', l(ij)evī/л(иј)еви, dèsnī/дèснй 'left, right', ordinal numerals like drugī/други 'second, other' and most adjectives derived from nouns, adverbs and verbs (section 3.3.2).

Participles have short and long forms: pozvān/позван, pozvānī/позванй 'called; called upon'. The present adverb and the *l*-participle of verbs can be adjectivalized, and then take long forms: idūćī/ніўћй 'coming, next', mínulī/минулй 'bygone', palī/палй 'fallen'.

Comparatives and superlatives (the comparative prefixed with naj-/Haj-

Table 7.10 Long and short adjective declension

'new' long	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine	
Singular				
NOM	nồvī/нồвй	nồvō/нồвō	nồvã/нồвã	
ACC	NOM or GEN	nồvō/нồвō	nồvū/нồвў	
GEN	nồvōg(a)/ нồвōг(a)	nồvōg(a)/ нồвōг(a)	nồvē/но̀вē	
DAT-LOC	nòvōm(e, u)/ новом(e, y)	nòvōm(e, u)/ нòвōм(e, y)	nòvōj/нòвōj	
INST	nồvīm/нови́м	nồvīm/нови́м	nồvōm/нồвōм	
234	nồvā/нồвā	nồvā/нồвā	nồvē/новē	
Plural				
NOM	nồvī/нồвй	nồvā/но̀вā	nồvē/но̀вē	
ACC	nồvē/но̀вē	nồvā/но̀вā	nồvē/нồвē	
GEN	nồvīh/нồвйх	nồvīh/нồвйх	nồvīh/нồвйх	
DAT-LOC-INST	nồvīm(a)/ нồв й м(a)	nồvīm(a)/ нồвйм(a)	növīm(a)/нови́м(a)	
'new' short				
Singular				
NOM	növ/нов	nòvo/нòво	nòva/нòва	
ACC	NOM or GEN	nòvo/нòво	nòvu/нòву	
GEN	nòvōg(a)/ нòвōг(a),	nòvōg(a)/ нòвōг(a),	nòvē/нòвē	
	nòva/нòва	nòva/нòва		
DAT-LOC	nòvōm(e, u)/ нòвōм(e, y),	nòvōm(e, u)/ нòвōм(e, y),	nòvōj/нòвōj	
INST	<i>nòvu/нòву</i> nòvīm/нòвӣм	<i>nòvu/нòву</i> nòvīm/нòвӣм	nòvōm/нòвōм	
234	nòva/нòва	nòva/нòва	nòve/нòве	
Plural				
<i>Flurul</i> NOM	nòvi/нòви	nòva/нòва	nòve/нòве	
ACC	nòve/Hòbe	nòva/нòва	nòve/hòbe	
ACC GEN	nove/ нове nòvīh/нòвйх	nova/ нова nòvīh/нòвйх	nove/ нове nòvīh/нòвйх	
GEN DAT-LOC-INST				
DAI-LUC-INSI	nòvīm(a)/ нòвйм(a)	nòvīm(a)/ нòвйм(a)	nòvīm(a)/нòвйм(a)	
	повим(а)	повим(а)		

yields the superlative) decline precisely like soft-stem long adjectives. Most are formed by adding -ij-ī/-иj-й to adjective stems: lòš/лòш 'bad', lòšijī/лòшиjй (lòšijē/лòшиjē, lòšijā/лòшиjā ...) 'worse'; múdar/мýдар 'wise', mùdrijī/мўдриjй; pòzvān/позван 'called upon', pozvànijī/позваниjй; plemenit/племенит 'noble', plemenitjī/племенитиjй. A smaller set add bare endings with old jotation (section 2.3). These are mostly (1) monosyllables containing long vowel: gûst/rýcт 'thick', gůšć-ī/rÿшħ-й; skûp/скŷп 'expensive', skůplj-ī/скŷпљ-й; (2) disyllables which lose the second

syllable: šìrok/шѝрок 'wide', šìr-ī/шйр-й; slàdak/сладак 'sweet', slàđ-ī/слађ-й. Three adjectives have š/ш comparatives: lak/лак 'light, easy', lakšī/лакшй; mek/мек 'soft', mekšī/мекшй; l(ij)ep/л(иj)en 'beautiful', l(j)epšī/лепшй (љепшй). Suppletive comparatives are dobar/добар 'good', böljī/бољй; lòš/лош or reav/рђав or zao/заo (stem zl/зл-) 'bad', gòrī/горй 'worse'; velik/велик 'large', vecī/венй; malī/малй or malen/мален, manjī/манй; dug/дуг 'long', dužī/дужй or duljī/дуъй. See section 5.3 for periphrastic comparison of indeclinables.

Derived adverbs take -o/-o or -e/-e like neuter nominative-accusative

Derived adverbs take -o/-o or -e/-e like neuter nominative-accusative singular short adjectives: novo/ново 'newly', lose/лоше 'badly', mudro/мудро 'wisely'. The accent may differ from the neuter. Their comparatives are formed like those of adjectives: losije/лошије, mudrije/мудрије, lakse/лакше 'more easily'. However, adverbs from adjectives in -skī/-скӣ (-škī/-шкӣ, -čkī/-чкӣ) end in short -i/-и: ljudski/льудски 'humanly', gřčki/грчки 'in Greek fashion/language'.

3.1.5 Numeral morphology

The cardinal numeral '1' is declined in all genders in singular and (for pluralia tantum) plural. Its nominative masculine singular is jèdan/jèдан and its stem for the remaining forms jèdn/jèдн-; endings are those of tāj/тāj (section 3.1.3), but final vowels are short.

'2, both, 3, 4' can be declined (table 7.11). Oblique case forms are rare (and show much accentual and other variation), particularly for '3, 4' and all masculine-neuter forms. Most commonly, the nominative forms are used undeclined (section 4.10).

Higher numerals up to '99' are indeclinable. Stô/стô '100' is indeclinable; there is also stôtina/стôтина, which behaves as a feminine noun, but mostly appears as a fixed accusative stôtinu/стôтину. '1,000' shows the

Table 7	7.11	Declension	of '2.	both.	3.	4'
I abic	• 4 4	D CCICII3IOII	U1 29	VVIII		•

	'2' Masculine-neuter	Feminine	'3'
NOM-ACC-VOC	dvâ/двâ	dvije, dvê/двије, две	trî/три̂
GEN	dvàjū/двàjў	dvìjū, dvéjū/двѝjў, две́jў	trìjū/трѝjӯ
DAT-LOC-INST	dváma/двáма 'both'	dv(j)èma/дв(j)èма	trìma/трѝма '4'
	botti		4
NOM-ACC-VOC GEN	ồba/ồбa obáju/oбájy	ðb(j)e/ðб(j)e obíjū, obéjū/оби́jӯ, oбéj⊽	čètiri/чèтири četirìjū/четирѝjў
DAT-LOC-INST	ob(j)èma/oб(j)èма	ob(j)èma/oб(j)èма	čètirma/чèтирма

same behaviour, both tisuća/тисућа (Croat standard) and hiljada/хильада. For further numerical forms see section 4.10.

3.2 Verbal morphology

3.2.1 Categories expressed

Serbo-Croat finite forms agree with subjects in person and number. Compound tenses containing the *l*-participle also express gender and the 234 form.

The simple tenses are present, aorist and imperfect. The present-tense markers are -m/-m for first person singular (only two verbs maintain -u/-y < *\rho, namely hòću, ću/xòħy, ħy 'I will' and mògu/mòry 'I can'); second person singular -š/-ui; and third person singular -Ø; first person plural -mo/-mo; second person plural -te/-te; -Ø for third person plural following a changed stem vowel -u-/-y- or -e-/-e-. Although aorist and, particularly, imperfect are not found in all dialects, the literary standards retain them as optional past tenses. Their meanings are much discussed. Briefly, the aorist, formed mostly from perfective verbs, serves to narrate events and express surprising perceived events; the imperfect, (almost) exclusively from imperfectives, describes background situations. Both can be supplanted by the perfect.

The compound tenses are as follows:

1 Future: auxiliary clitic ću/hy or full form hòću/xòhy (section 4.1 and below), with (imperfective or perfective) infinitive or (especially Eastern) da/ πa_2 + present clause (section 4.5).

Slavko će vìd(j)eti Màriju./Славко ће вид(j)ети Марију. Slavko će da vìdī Màriju./Славко ће да види Марију. 'Slavko will see Marija.'

If the infinitive precedes the clitic, the final -ti/-ти of the infinitive is lost and the spelling is vidjet ću 'I will see' (Croat standard), vid(j)eću/вйд(j)ећу (elsewhere). Infinitives in -ći/-ћи preserve this marker: dóći ću/до́ћи ћу 'I will come'.

2 Perfect: auxiliary clitic sam/cam or full form jèsam/jècam, with *l*-participle of the verb. This is the all-purpose past tense.

Mî smo vîd(j)eli Màriju./Ми смо вйд(j)ели Мàрију. 'We saw (have seen) Marija.' Jèsmo li vîd(j)eli Màriju?/Jèсмо ли вйд(j)ели Мàрију? 'Have we seen (Did we see) Marija?'

3 *Pluperfect*: perfect or (rarely) imperfect of 'to be' as auxiliary, with *l*-participle.

Mī smo bíli vìd(j)eli Màriju./Мӣ смо би́ли вѝд(j)ели Ма̀рију. Mī bìjāsmo (bèjāsmo) vìd(j)eli Màriju./Ми бѝjāсмо (бѐjāсмо) вѝд(j)ели Màрију. 'We had seen Marija.'

4 Future II: auxiliary bùdēm/будēм (extra present of 'to be'; table 7.16 below) with l-participle.

Kầd (ầko) bùdēmo govòrili s Màrijōm, svề će bìti jầsno./Kầд (ầко) бӱдēмо говорили с Мариjōм, свё ће бити jầсно.
'When (if) we speak with Marija (in the future), everything will be clear.'

The future II is usually from imperfectives, since a perfective present tense is usable in kad/kag or ako/ako clauses for future time: kad (ako) náđemo Mariju/kag (ako) нађемо Марију ... 'When/if we find Marija (in the future) ...'.

5 The conditionals: see under moods below.

Aspect affects a lexical item's whole paradigm; a verb is either perfective (парізаті/написати 'to write' and all its forms) or imperfective (pisati/писати 'to write' with its forms). However, many verbs are bi-aspectual, including some of the commonest: ìći/ѝћи 'to go', bìti/бѝти 'to be', razùm(j)eti/разум(j)ети 'to understand', kázati/кáзати 'to say', vìd(j)eti/вѝд(j)ети 'to see', čùti/чу̀ти 'to hear', rúčati/ру́чати 'to have lunch'.

Most non-prefixed verbs are imperfective. Prefixing a verb yields a perfective: písati/пи́сати imperfective 'to write' → napísati/напи́сати perfective 'to write', písati/пи́сати → upísati/упи́сати perfective 'to write in, register'. The first example keeps its lexical meaning; but there is no prefix which invariably perfectivizes without changing lexical meaning. A suffix yielding perfectives is -nuti/-нути, added mostly to imperfective -ati/-ати verbs: gúrati/гу́рати 'to push', gùrnuti/гу̂рнути 'to push once'.

Perfective (especially prefixed perfective) verbs can be imperfectivized by adding suffixes, commonly -ati/-ати, -ívati/-ивати (present -ujēm/ -yjēм) and -ávati/-áвати (-āvām/-āвāм). Consonant-stem verbs with -e-/-e- themes usually take -ati/-ати with present in -ām/-āм: is-trés-ti/истрес-ти imperfective istrés-ati/истрес-ати, 'to shake out'. ìstrēsām/истрēcāм. Velar stems, however, prefer -ati/-ати with thirdpalatalization reflex of the velar and -jēm/-jēм present: ìzreći/йзрећи (stem ìz-rek-/из-рек-) 'to express', imperfective izríc-ati/изриц-ати with present ìzrīčēm/изрячём. An additional mark of imperfectivizing consonant stems is stem-internal -i-/-и- or other vowel change, as pòčēti/ почети, počnem/почнем 'to begin', imperfective počinjati/почињати pòčiniēm/почињём; ùmr(ij)ēti/умр(иj)ēти ùmrēm/умрём 'to die', imperfective ùmirati/умирати ùmirēm/умирēм.

-iti/-ити verbs imperfectivize with -ati/-ати (-ām/-āм) (causing internal o-a alternation: otvòriti/отвòрити 'to open', otvárati/отва́рати), or with the more productive -ivati/-и́вати or -ávati/-а́вати. All three generally cause old jotation (section 2.2): òs(j)etiti/òc(j)етити 'to feel', òs(j)ecati/òc(j)eħати; izgraditi/изгра́дити 'to construct', izgradivati/изграђи́вати; rầniti/ра̀нити 'to wound', ranjávati/рања́вати. Verb types in -ati/-ати imperfectivize with -ivati/и́вати or -ávati/-а́вати, mostly without jotation: iskázati/иска́зати 'to state', iskazívati/иска́зи́вати; izòrati/изòрати 'to plough up', izorávati/изopа́вати.

The remaining verb types (-nuti/-нути, -(j)eti/-(j)eти) may use any of a number of methods of imperfectivization. A very few -ovati/-овати and -evati/-евати verbs imperfectivize, taking -ívati/-и́вати (present optionally in -īvām/-и́вам): daròvati/дарòвати 'to donate', imperfective darívati/дари́вати dàrīvām/дàрӣвам or dàrujēm/дàруjēм.

There are also suppletive pairs: dóci/доћи perfective, dòlaziti/долазити imperfective 'to come'.

The present of a perfective verb does not mean future, except in 'when/ if' clauses; it forms an 'infinitive substitute' with da/μa₂ (section 4.5), and in main clauses it expresses 'typical action' if something in the context indicates generalization, as često/често 'often':

Stvåri čėsto ìspadnū (perfective present) drugàčije nègo što očèkujēmo./ Ствари често ѝспадну (perfective present) другачије него што очекујемо. 'Things often turn out different from what we expect.'

Verbs of motion lack determinate—indeterminate distinctions, thus ìći/ ѝћи – hòditi/хòдити are not a pair. The first means 'to go (in one or several directions, on foot or by vehicle)', the second 'to walk'. In several instances the old determinate stem appears only prefixed, with the indeterminate stem serving to imperfectivize it, as nòsiti/нòсити imperfective 'to carry', dòn(ij)eti/дòн(иj)ēти, stem donès-/донèс- perfective 'to bring' → donòsiti/донòсити imperfective. Certain motion verbs derive explicit multidirectionals: nósati/нòсати 'to carry about'. A few verbs make iteratives: vìd(j)eti/вѝд(j)ети → víðati/ви́ђати 'to see now and then'.

Moods, besides indicative, include imperative (section 4.2), with second person singular and plural (-te/-те) and first person plural (-mo/-мо) forms: Rèci/рèци! Rècite/рèците! Rècimo/рèцимо! 'Say!'; and the conditional, made with auxiliary bih/бих 'would' (section 4.1) and *l*-participle:

Kầd biste me pítali, rềkao bih/Kầд бисте ме питали, рềкао бих. 'If you (plural) asked me, I would tell.'

The conditional is used in both clauses of hypothetical if-then sentences.

The same form can express past if-then relations, but a past conditional is also possible with the l-participle of 'to be':

Kād biste me bíli pítali, bìo bih rèkao./Kад бисте ме били питали, био бих рекао.

'If you had asked me, I would have told.'

An alternative to kầd bih/kầд бих 'if' in the protasis is dầ/дầ with indicative tense:

dà me pitāte/да ме питате 'if you asked me (now)' dà ste me pitali/да сте ме питали 'if you had asked me'

A further use of the conditional is in purpose clauses, alternative to da/ga₂:

Pîšēm da Vas pîtām/пйшём да Вас пйтам ...
'I write to ask you ...'
Pîšēm da bih Vas pítao/пйшём да бих Вас питао ...
'I write in order to ask you ...'

Active and passive voice are distinguished. The passive (section 4.5) consists of a passive participle and a tense of 'to be' as auxiliary:

Knjīga je nàpīsana./Књйга је нàпйсана. 'The book has been written.' Knjīga je bíla nàpīsana./Књйга је била нàпйсана. 'The book was written.' Knjīga će bīti nàpīsana./Књйга ће бйти нàпйсана. 'The book will be written.'

The clitic se/ce indicating unspecified human subject can be used to form a quasi-passive (always without agent-phrase):

Knjīga se pîšē./Књйга се пишē. 'The book (NOM) is being written.'

Some Western dialects and recent Croatian codifications can keep the underlying object in the accusative ('impersonal passive'): knjigu se pišē/кыйгу се пишē.

The non-finite forms (for uses see section 4.5) are infinitive (na)písati/(на)пи́сати 'to write'; passive participle pisan, парīsan/пи̂сан, на̀пӣсан 'written'; verbal noun písānje/пи́са́ње 'writing (of ...)'; two verbal adverbs ('gerunds'), present pîsūći/пишӯћи and past napísāvši/напи́са̄вши; and the *l*-participle (table 7.12), used in compound tenses (perfect, pluperfect, future II) and conditionals.

Table 7.12 L-participle

	Masculine	Neuter	Feminine
Singular	(na)písao/(на)пи́сао	(na)písalo/ (на)пи́сало	(na)písala/(на)пи́сала
234 Plural	(na)písala/(на)пи́сала (na)písali/(на)пи́сали		as plural (na)písale/(на)пи́сале

3.2.2 Conjugation

One can classify Slavonic verbs by the formants of their present stems, by their infinitive(-aorist) stems or by the relationship between the two (constructing Jakobsonian underlying stems). This treatment is based on present stems: themes in -e-/-e-, in -ne-/-He-, in -je-/-je-, in -i-/-H-. Within each, we show infinitive stem shapes.

Themes in -e-/-e-. The largest subtype has infinitive stem in consonant. Our example (table 7.13) is trés-/Tpéc- 'to shake', since *nes- has become irregular and occurs only prefixed.

Do-nès-/до-нèc- 'bring' has corresponding forms from the present stem: donèsēm/донècēм. Its infinitive-stem forms are dò-n(ij)ē-ti/дò-н(иj)ē-ти, dònio/дòнио (dòneo/дòнео) dòn(ij)ēla/дòн(иj)ēла, donèsoh/донècox, dònese/дòнесе or dòn(ij)ēh/дòн(иj)ēx, dòn(ij)ē/дòн(иj)ē, donèsen/донèceн or dòn(ij)ēt/дòн(иj)ēт, dòn(ij)ēvši/дòн(иj)ēвши.

T and d stems: do-vèd-ēm/до-вèд-ēм 'lead in', infinitive dòvesti/дòвести, dòveo/дòвео, dòvela/дòвела (tl, dl become l). Ìd-ēm/йд-ēм 'go' has infinitive ìći/йћи, l-participle ìšao/йшао ìšla/йшла, ìdoh/йдох. Prefixed forms have d (*id): nádēm/нáħēм 'find', infinitive náći/нáħи, nàšao/нàшао nàšla/нàшла, nádoh/нáħох nâde/наħe, nâden/наħeн, nàšāvši/нàшāвши. *Cbt- is lost ('to read' is citati/чйтати citām/чйтам, of the -a-je-/-a-je- type). *Jad- is lost ('to ride' is jähati/jäxати, jäšēm/jäшēм).

P and b stems: grèb-ēm/грèб-ēм 'scratch', grèpsti/грèпсти, grèbao/грèбао, grèbla/грèбла. ($\check{Z}iv$ - 'to live' now has the shape žív(j)eti/жи́в(j)ети, žívīm/жи́вӣм.)

K and g stems: rèk-/pèк- 'say' has present rèčēm/pèчēм, rèčēš/pèчēш ... rèkū/pèκӯ or, like other perfective consonant stems, joins the ne/не type: rèk-n-ēm/pèк-н-ēм, rèk-n-ēš/pèк-н-ēш ... rèk-n-ū/pèк-н-ӯ. The imperative is rèci/pèци. Infinitive rèci/pèħи, aorist rèkoh/pèкох rèče/pèче, l-participle rèkao/pèкao, rèkla/pèкла, participle rèčen/pèчен. One rare verb, 'to thresh', is an h-stem: vŕšēm/вршēм, vŕšēš/вршēш ... vŕhū/вр́хӯ, vŕci/врћи or vr(ii)éci/вр(иі)éћи, vŕhoh/

Table 7.13 Conjugation of an -e/e- verb

Singular

Plural

Forms made from present stem

Present

 1
 trésēm/трécēм
 trésēmo/трécēмо

 2
 trésēš/трécēш
 trésēte/трécēтe

 3
 trésē/трécē
 trésū/трécÿ

Present adverb trésūći/тресући

Imperative trési/трéси

Imperfect

 1
 trésijāh/трéсиjāx
 trésijāsmo/трéсиjāсмо

 2
 trésijāše/трéсиjāшe
 trésijāste/трéсиjāсте

 3
 trésijāše/трéсиjāшe
 trésijāhu/трéсиjāxy

Forms made from infinitive stem Infinitive trésti/трéсти

Aorist

1trésoh/трéсохtrésosmo/трéсосмо2trêse/трêсеtrésoste/трéсосте3trêse/трêсеtrésoše/трéсоше

L-participle masculine singular trêsao/трêсао, feminine singular trésla/трéсла (further see table 7.12).

Passive participle trésen/трéсен

Past adverb (po)trésāvši/(по)трéсāвши

вр́хох, vr̂še/вр̂ше, vr̂hao/вр̂хао vr̂hla/вр́хла, vr̂šen/вр̂шен. (Vr̂šiti/вр̂шити, vr̂šīm/вр̂шим 'to perform; thresh' is much more frequent.)

N and m stems have infinitive stem in $-\bar{e}$ -: pò-čn-ēm/пò-чн-ем 'to begin', pòčeti/пòчети, participle pòčet/пòчет. Stàn-ēm/стан-ем 'to stand, step, stop' has stàti/стати, stàh/стах, stà/ста, stào/стао stàla/стала.

R stems: ù-mr-ēm/ỳ-мр-ēм 'die', ùmr(ij)ēti/умр(иј)ēти, *l*-participle ùmro/умро ùmr̄la/умр̄ла.

A few -ra- stems have infinitive -a- alongside present -e-, like ber-em/бер-ем 'pluck', brati/брати; also zòv-em/зòв-ем 'call', zvati/звати. (*Sъsa- 'suck' is now sisati/сисати, sisem/сишем ог sisam/сисам.)

Themes in -ne-/-не-. These have infinitive stem in -nu-/-ну-, usually identifiable as a suffix. An example is dign-ēm/дйгн-ēм 'raise' (< *dvig-), imperative digni/дйгни, infinitive dignuti/дйгнути, dignuh/дйгнух, dignu/дйгну, dignuo/дйгнуо dignula/дйгнула, dignut/дйгнут, dignūvši/дйгнувши. This, like many consonant -nu-/-ну- verbs, has alternative forms lacking -nu-/-ну-: dici/дйћи (infinitive like stems in k,

g), dīgoh/дйгох, dīže/дйже, dīgao/дйгао, dīgla/дйгла, dīgāvši/дйгавши. No alternatives exist for -nu-/-ну- preceded by vowel: minēm/мйнём 'pass', mínuti/минути, mínuh/минух, minū/мину, mínuo/минуо, mínula/минула, mínūvši/минувши. The few imperfective verbs can make an imperfect: tòn-ēm/тòн-ēм 'sink', tònuti/тòнути, tònjāh/тòњāх.

Themes in -je-/-je-. The -j- appears on the surface (after a vowel: table 7.14) or causes old jotation (after a consonant: section 2.2). Imperative -i/- μ is dropped after surface -j.

Like čů-ti/чў-ти čů-jēm/чў-jēм 'to hear' are krì-ti/крй-ти, krì-jēm/крй-jēм (< *kryti) 'to hide', bì-ti/бй-ти, bì-jēm/бй-jēм 'to beat' and others. Passive participles take -t/-т, -ven/-вен ог -jen/-jeн: krît/крйт ог s-krìven/с-крѝвен, bìjen/бѝјен. ('To sing' is now p(j)èva-ti/п(j)èва-ти p(j)èvām/п(j)èвāм.) Тwo -je-/-je- present verbs involve metathesis in the infinitive stem: klà-ti/кла-ти (< *kol-ti) köljēm/кољем 'to slaughter', ml(j)è-ti/мљè-ти ог млè-ти (< *mel-ti) mèljēm/мèлем 'to grind'. (*Bor- is now bòriti se/бòрити се, bòrīm se/бòрйм се 'to struggle'.)

The largest subset (Matešić 1965–7 shows over 5,000 items) of vowelje-/-je- presents are those with a/a. Thanks to the contraction of -aje- into -ā-, their present tenses, for instance the rarely used verb d(j)èla-ti/д(j)èла-ти 'to act', go d(j)èlām/д(j)èлāм d(j)èlāš/д(j)èлāш d(j)èlā/д(j)èлā, but third person plural d(j)èlajū/д(j)èлаjӯ.

A similar but tiny type is ùm(j)eti/уm(j)eти 'to know how to', present stem *umě-je- > ekavian contracted ùmēm/умём, ùmēš/умёш ... ùmejū/

Table 7.14 Conjugation of a -je-/-je- verb

Forms made from present stem
Present čůjēm/чўjēм (like trésēm/тре́сēм)
Present adverb čůjūći/чўjўћи
Imperative čůj/чŷj
Imperfect čůjāh/чўjāx (like trésijāh/тре́сиjāx)

Forms made from infinitive stem Infinitive čůti/чути Aorist

Singular Plural

1 čũh/чỹx čũsmo/чўсмо
2 čũ/чỹ čũste/чўсте
3 čũ/чў čũše/чўше
L-participle čũo/чўo, čũla/чўла (as table 7.12)
Passive participle čù-v-en/чў-в-ен

Past adverb čůvši/чŷвши

ўмејў, ijekavian ùmijēm/умијём, ùmijēš/умијёш ... ùmijū/умијў; the imperative is ùmēj/умēj, ùmīj/умйј. L-participles are ekavian ùmeo/умео, ùmela/умела, ijekavian ùmio/умио, ùmjela/умјела.

Consonant -je-/-je- presents all have -a- in the infinitive stem, which is lost in the present. Consonants undergo jotation: infinitive káz-a-ti/кáз-а-ти 'to say', present *kaz-je-m → kâžēm/кâжēм. The accent change, wide-spread in this subtype, lends credence to a description with synchronic truncation of the a. The type may be termed productive, to the extent that the suffix -isa-/-иса- used for adapting loan verbs (section 5.3) has present -išē-/-ишē-. Vowel alternations between infinitive and present have been lost (*pьsa- yields písati/пи́сати, píšēm/пишēм 'to write'; *jьma- has become ùzimati/у̀зимати, ùzimām/у̀зимам or ùzimljēm/у̀зимъēм 'to take', the imperfective of ùzēti/у̀зēти, ъ́zmēm/у̇змēм). However, one new alternation has arisen: *sьla- is now sla-ti/сла-ти, šaljēm/шаъēм 'to send'.

Presents from -va-/-ва- infinitives, however, almost never show jotation; rather, there is alternation with -ujē-/-yjē-. Some 1,000 infinitive stems in -ova-ti/-ова-ти like daròva-ti/дарòва-ти 'to donate' and a dozen in -eva-ti/-ева-ти like mačèvati se/мачèвати се 'to fence' have presents dàrujēm/дàруjēм, -ujēš/-yjēш ... -ujū/-yjÿ. Almost 2,000 derived imperfectives in -íva-ti/-и́ва-ти, a Serbo-Croat innovation, also have -ujē-/-yjē-: kazívati/кази́вати, kàzujēm/кàзуjēм ... -ujū/-yjÿ 'to tell'. Serbo-Croat has regularized *-ьvati verbs into -ùvati/-у̀вати with the same alternation: pljùvati/пъу̀вати, pljùjēm/пъӱјēм ... pljùjū/пъӱјÿ 'to spit'.

A similar alternation -áva-/-áва- \sim -ājē-/-ājē- (without contraction to -ā-) occurs in dávati/да́вати imperfective 'to give', dâjem/дâjēм ... dâju/дâjÿ; similarly poznávati/позна́вати 'to be acquainted with' and other imperfectives of prefixed forms of znati/знати 'to know'.

Stems like sījati/сйјати, ekavian sējati/сёјати 'to sow' have presents without double *jj*; ijekavian sījēm/сйјём ... sījū/сйјў, ekavian sējēm/сёјем ... sējū/сёјў.

Themes in -i-/-и-. The infinitives may have -i-ti/-и-ти: mòliti/мòлити 'to ask, pray' (table 7.15), -(j)e-ti/-(j)e-ти: vìd(j)eti/вйд(j)ети 'to see' or (after a palatal) -a-ti/-а-ти: dìžati/држати 'to hold'. The first subtype is large (over 6,000) and productive. The other two are smaller, a few hundred stems, even though Serbo-Croat has shifted the de-adjectival type *zelen-ĕ-ti, *zelen-ĕ-je- here: zelèn(j)eti/зелèнети ог зелèњети, zelènīm/зелèнйм 'to turn green'.

The -(j)e/-(j)e and palatal -a/-a subtypes have imperfects vìđāh/вйђах, dìžāh/држах, aorists vìd(j)eh/вйд(j)ex, dìžah/држах, l-participles ijekavian vìdio/вйдио, vìdjela/вйдјела, ekavian vìdeo/вйдео, vìdela/вйдела, dìžao/држао, dìžāla/држала, passive participles

Table 7.15 Conjugation of an -i-/-и- verb

Singular

Plural

Forms made from present stem

Present

 1
 mồlīm/мὂлӣм
 mồlīmo/мὂлӣмо

 2
 mồlīš/мὂлӣш
 mồlīte/мὂлӣте

 3
 mồlī/мὂлӣ
 mồlē/мὂлē

Present adverb mölēći/молёћи

Imperative mòli/моли

Imperfect möljāh/мољах (like trésijāh/тресиjāx)

Forms made from infinitive stem

Infinitive mòliti/молити

Aorist

 1
 mòlih/мòлих
 mòlismo/мòлисмо

 2
 mòlī/мòлй
 mòliste/мòлисте

 3
 mòlī/мòлй
 mòliše/мòлише

L-participle mòlio/молио, mòlila/молила

Passive participle mölj-en/мољ-ен Past adverb (za)molīvši/(за)моливши

vìđen/вѝђен, dìžān/др̀жāн, past adverbs vìd(j)ēvši/вѝд(j)ēвши, dìžāvši/др̀жāвши. The spread of old jotation (like $d \rightarrow d$: section 2.2) to imperfects and passive participles of the -(j)e/-(j)e subtype is a Serbo-Croat innovation.

Hòditi/хòдити 'to walk' is like mòliti/мòлити: hòdīm/хòдйм ... hòdē/хòдē, imperfect hòdāh/хòђāх, participle pòhoden/пòхођен 'visited'. * Vel-ĕ- is defective, found only in the present: vèlīm/вèлйм ... vèlē/вèлē 'say'. * Slyša- has become an -ā- present: slìšati/слѝшати, slìšām/слѝшам 'to quiz'. 'To sleep' is now spávati/спа́вати, spåvām/спа́вам, but prefixed zàspati/за̀спати 'to fall asleep' has the -i-/-и-present zàspīm/за̀спа́м.

Athematic presents. Apart from bīti/бйти 'to be', none remain in Serbo-Croat.

'To be' is noteworthy for having an extra present tense (table 7.16). Jèsam/jècam, clitic sam/cam is imperfective, whereas bùdēm/будēm is perfective and imperfective: it can denote 'typical action', but otherwise occurs only in kåd/кåд or åko/åко clauses, da/дa2 clauses and as an auxiliary for the future II. The imperative is bùdi/буди, the present adverb bùdūći/будући, from the 'extra' stem. The imperfect is ijekavian bìjāh/бѝjāx or bjèh/бjèx, ekavian bèjāh/бèjāx, bèh/бèx. Other forms are regular from the stem bí-/би-.

'To eat' is a regular -e-/-e- present, jèdēm/jèдēм, infinitive jèsti/jèсти.

Table 7.16 Presents of biti/бит	Table	7.16	Presents	of	bîti	/бѝти
---------------------------------	-------	------	----------	----	------	-------

	Full	Clitic	Negated	'Extra'
Sir	ıgular			
1	jèsam/jèсам	sam/cam	nísam/ни́сам	bùdēm/бу̀дēм
2	jèsi/jèси	si/си	nísi/ни́си	bùdēš/бӱдēш
3	jềst(e)/jềcт(e)	je/je	nìje/нѝje	bùdē/бӱдē
Pli	ıral			
1	jèsmo/jèсмо	smo/смо	nísmo/ни́смо	bùdēmo/будēмо
2	jèste/jèсте	ste/cre	níste/ни́сте	bùdēte/будёте
3	jèsu/jècy	su/cy	nísu/ни́су	bầdū/бӱдÿ

"To give' is a regular -je-/-je- present, dåti/дåти, dâm/дâм ... dåjū/дåjÿ, though an alternative present exists with -d-e-/-д-e-: dádēm/дáдēм, -ēš/-ēш ... dádū/дáдў. Similarly regular but with parallel -d-e-/-д-e- present forms are: znåti/знати 'to know (persons or information)' znam/знам ... znàjū/знаjÿ or znádēm/зна́дём ... znádū/зна́дў, ìmati/ймати 'to have' ìmām/ймам ... ìmajū/ймаjÿ or imádēm/има́дём ... imádū/има́дў (but negated present nêmām/немам ... némajū/немаjў). * Věděti, * věmь 'know' is lost.

A verb with suppletive stems is 'want, will'. The infinitive is ht(j)èti/ $x\tau(j)$ è $\tau\mu$, with matching aorist and l-participle (ijekavian htio/ $x\tau$ io, htjèla/ $x\tau$ jè τ a). The presents are as in table 7.17; considerable accentual variation exists in practice.

Table 7.17 Presents of ht(j)èti/хт(j)èти

	Full	Clitic	Negated
Singular			-
1	hòću/xòħy	ću/ħy	néću/не́ћу
2	hồćeš/xồћеш	ćeš/ћеш	nêćeš/нећеш
3	hồće/xồħe	će/ħe	nêće/неће
Plural			
1	hồćemo/xồћемо	сето/ћемо	nêćemo/нећемо
2	hồćete/хоћете	ćete/ћете	nêćete/нећете
3	hòćē/xòħē	ćē/ħē	néćē/нéћē

3.3 Derivational morphology

The most thorough treatment, including productivity information, is Babić (1986), relied on throughout this chapter.

3.3.1 Major patterns of noun derivation

These are suffixal; there is also compounding and prefixation. Character-

istic for Serbo-Croat are zero-suffixed nouns from verb roots: nápad/ напад 'attack' (nàpasti/нàпасти, nàpad-n-ēm/нàпад-н-ēм 'to attack'). The verbal noun in -(ē)nje/-(ē)ње, -će/-ħe is highly productive from imperfective verbs in the meaning of an action. As a concrete act or product it is derived from some perfectives (and a few imperfectives) and has accent -ánje/-áње, -énje/-éње, -Ýće/-Ýħe: izdánje/изда́ње 'edition' (versus izdávānje/изда́ва̀ње from imperfective, 'publishing'). Further typical deverbal nouns are in -(é)tak/-(é)так (a ~ Ø alternation): počétak/поче́ так 'beginning' (росеті/почети 'to begin'), -nja/-ња: šétnja/ше́тња 'stroll' from šétati (se)/ше́тати (се) 'to stroll' and -āj/-āj: dògađāj/дòraħāj 'event' from dogáđati se/догађати се 'to occur'.

In de-adjectival abstracts, -ōst/-ōcт '-ness' is most productive: naívnōst/наи́внōст 'naïveté'. -oća/-oħa partly replaces -ota/-ота: pun-òća/пун-òħa 'fullness'.

Abstracts of many sorts and sources are made with -stvo/-ство: sús(j)ed-stvo/cýc(j)ед-ство 'neighbour-hood', piján-stvo/пиjáн-ство 'drunken-ness', zakon-o-dáv-stvo/закон-о-дав-ство 'law-giving, legislation' (zákon/закон 'law').

Productive person noun suffixes are -lac/-лац and -telj/-тељ, which compete somewhat: slùšalac/слушалац, slùšatelj/слушатељ 'listener'; further, -āč/-āч and -ār/-āp, both particularly from -ati/-ати verbs: predàvāč/предавач 'lecturer', vlàdār/владар 'ruler' (predávati/предавати 'to lecture', vládati/владати 'to rule'). Foreign -ik normally becomes -ičār/-ичāр: krìtičār/крѝтичāр. -ār/-āp, -ist(a)/-ист(a), -āš/-āш and -ac/-aц are frequent denominals: zlàtār/зла̀тāр 'goldsmith' (zlâto/зла̀то 'gold'), flàut-ist(a)/фла̀ут-ист(a), folklòrāš/фолклòрāш 'folkdancer', tekstílac/тексти́лац 'textile worker'. The Turkish suffix -džija/-џија is somewhat productive: tramvàjdžija/трамва̀јџија 'tramdriver'.

Inhabitant name suffixes include -(j)anin/-(j)анин, -čanin/-чанин, both of which lose -in/-ин in the plural (see page 320), -ac/-ац: Kanàda/Канàда, Kanàđanin/Канàђанин; Ljubljàna/Љубљàна, Ljubljánčanin/Љубља́нчанин; Îndija/Йндија, Indíjac/Инди́јац. A few names have Turkish -lija/-лија: Saràjlija/Сарајлија 'Sarajevo resident'.

Turkish -lija/-лија: Sarajlija/Сарајлија 'Sarajevo resident'.

Feminine formation is typically with -ica/-ица: učitèlj-ica/учитèль-ица 'teacher'; šèf/шèф 'chief', šèfica/шèфица. -ka/-ка occurs bound to particular suffixes: vlàdārka/владāрка, Ljubljánčānka/Љубља́нча̄нка. -inja/-иња attaches to velars: bòg-inja/бòг-иња 'goddess', Ùzbek-inja/Узбек-иња; and -kinja/-киња often to final t: kandìdāt-kinja/кандѝдат-киња 'candidate', feministkinja/феминѝсткиња 'feminist'.

Diminutives of masculine o-stems take -ić/-ић or -čić/-чић: brôd/брод 'ship', bròdić/бродић; sin/син 'son', sìnčić/синчић. Feminines in -a/-a get -ica/-ица: vòda/вòда, vòdica/вòдица. Neuters take -ce/-це or various extended versions: písmo/писмо 'letter', pisámce/писамце;

gřlo/грло 'throat', gřl-ašce/грл-ашце. Masculines and feminines add neuter -če/-че (stem -čet/-чет-) in the meaning 'young ...': čòbanin/чòбанин 'shepherd', čòbānče/чòбāнче 'shepherd boy'; gūska/гуска 'goose', gūšče/гушче 'gosling'. Hypocoristics shorten names to (consonant-) vowel-consonant and add -o/-o, -e/-e or -a/-a: Ívo/Йво or Íve/Йве from Ìvan/Йван, Mára/Ма́ра, Máre/Ма́ре or Mája/Ма́ра from Ма̀тіја/Ма̀рија. Augmentatives take -ina/-ина and extensions: bròd-ina/брод-ина 'big boat', sob-ètina/соб-èтина 'big room'.

First members of compounds can be nouns (often with object inter-

First members of compounds can be nouns (often with object interpretation), adjectives or combining forms: brod-o-grádnja/брод-о-гра́дња 'ship-building = building of ships', nov-o-grádnja/нов-о-гра́дња 'new construction', vèle-mājstor/вèле-мājстор 'grand master'.

3.3.2 Major patterns of adjective derivation

These involve suffixation. Descriptive adjectives can be predicated and compared. They distinguish long and short declension, and their citation form is short, as míran/ми́ран 'peaceful'. Relational adjectives do not distinguish long/short. Their citation form is long (mìrōvnī/мѝрōвнӣ 'peace ...') except for certain possessives (-ov/-ов, -ev/-ев, -in/-ин). Relational adjectives are often replaceable by modifying phrases: mìrōvnī ц̀govōr/мѝрōвнӣ ўговōр or ц̀govōr o míru/ўговōр o ми́ру 'treaty of peace'.

The most widespread descriptive adjective suffix is -an/-ан ($a \sim \emptyset$ alternation: sections 2.1 and 2.2), as in míran/ми́ран above, with variants -en/-eh, -ven/-вен. Clearly deverbal is prīvlačan/привлачан 'attractive' from privláčiti/привла́чити 'to attract'. Other descriptive suffixes have more specific semantics, as -(lj)iv/-(љ)ив '-able, given to ...': plākati/пла̀кати 'to cry', plàčljiv/пла̀чљив 'tearful'. Compounds are formed with -an/-ah or (particularly with body-part nouns in second place) without suffix: kratk-ò-trāj-an/кратк-ò-трāj-ан 'short-lasting', kratk-ò-rep/кратк-ò-pen 'short-tailed'.

The most general relational-adjective suffix is -nī/-нй, with extended forms -enī/-енй, -anī/-анй, -ovnī/-овнй and others: drúštvo/друштво 'society', drùštvenī sèktor/друштвенй сèктор 'the public sector'. A deverbal example is prodúžiti/продужити 'to extend': pròdužnī gàjtan/продужнй гајтан 'extension cord'; a dephrasal is star-o-záv(j)et-nī/стар-о-зáв(j)ет-нй 'Old Testament' from starī/старй 'old', záv(j)et/зáв(j)ет 'testament'.

-Skī/-скй, its allomorphs (s/c, z/3 + skī/скй = -skī/-скй, š/ш, ž/ж, h/x, g/r + skī/скй = -škī/-шкй, с/ц, č/ч, k/к + skī/скй = čkī/-чкй, ć/ħ + skī/скй = -ćkī/-ħкй) and extended forms (-ačkī/-ачкй, -inskī/-инскй, -ovskī/-овскй ...) form ethnic and geographical adjectives: Amèrika/Amèрика, amèričkī/амèричкй; and are also the relational suffix for most personal nouns: stùdentskī žìvot/сту̀дентскй жѝвот

'student life'. The -skī/-скū set encroaches onto the general relational territory of -nī/-нū, being predictable on stems in -ij/-иj, -ija/-иja, -ika/-ика, -n/-н, -ar/-ap and other finals: filozòfija/филозòфиja, filòzofskī/филозофскū; bètōn/бèтōн 'concrete', bètōnskī/бèтōнскū.

-ика, -n/-н, -ar/-ap and other finals: filozofija/филозофија, filozofski/филозофскй; bètōn/бèтōн 'concrete', bètōnskī/бèтōнскй.

Animal names typically take -jī/-jū (-ijī/-иjū): mìš/мйш 'mouse', mìšjī/мйшjū (mìšjā rùpa/мйшjā pỳпа 'mousehole'). There is overlap with other types: d(j)èca/д(j)èца 'children' has d(j)èčjī/д(j)èчjū; orangùtan/орангутан, orangùtanskī/орангутански 'orangutan'.

Possessive adjectives from nouns referring to definite singular possessors

Possessive adjectives from nouns referring to definite singular possessors (section 4.9) take -ov/-ов for o-stem nouns, -ev/-ев for soft o-stems and -in/-ин for a-stems: stùdentov/студентов 'student's', mūžev/мужев 'husband's', žènin/жèнин 'wife's', Tèslin/Тèслин 'Tesla's'. Nouns in -v take -ljev/-љев: Jàkov/Jàков 'Jacob', Jàkovljev/Jàковљев.

Plant names of all declensions favour -ov/-ов: lipa/лйпа 'linden', lipov čàj/лйпов чàj 'linden tea'.

Adverbs of place and time form adjectives with -njī/-ьй, -šnjī/-шьй, -ašnjī/-ашьй: jùtro/jỳтро 'morning', jùtārnjī/jỳтāрьй; jùčē(r)/jỳчē(p) 'yesterday', jučerašnjī/jyчèрашьй.

Relationals from verbs (or from verbal nouns) can be in -acī/-aħū: pìsacī stô(l)/пѝсаћӣ стô(л) 'writing table' from písati/пи́сати 'to write' or písānje/пи́сање 'writing'.

3.3.3 Major patterns of verb derivation

These are suffixation and prefixation. Suffixes forming verbs from nouns include -ati/-ати (present -ām/-āм), -iti/-ити, -írati/-йрати (bi-aspectual, from foreign bases), -ovati/-овати (alternant -evati/-евати: domestic and foreign, often bi-aspectual): kârtati se/кâртати се 'to play cards, gamble with cards', bòjiti/бòјити 'to paint, colour with paint/dye (bòja/бòja)', torpedírati/торпедирати 'to torpedo', gostòvati/гостòвати 'to be a guest', mačèvati se/мачèвати се 'to fence, fight with swords (mãč/мãч)'.

More rarely, denominals arise by prefixation-suffixation: po-latín-iti/по-лати́н-ити 'to Latinize', obèšumiti/обèшумити 'to deforest' (o-bez-šum-iti/о-без-шум-ити, šuma/шума 'forest').

Sum-Iti/O-0e3-Шум-ити, sūma/Шума Torest).

Verbs from (descriptive) adjectives mean (1) 'to become ...', (2) 'to make something ...'. Of productive suffixes, -(j)eti/-(j)etu (present -īm/-йм, section 3.2.2) has only the first meaning: gládn(j)eti/гла́днети от гла́дњети 'to become hungry (gládan/гла́дан)'. -iti/-ити yields both transitive kìseliti/кѝселити 'to make sour (kìseo/кѝсео)', with intransitive kìseliti se/кѝселити се 'to become sour', and intransitive ćòraviti/hòравити 'to become blind (còrav/hòpab)'. -ati/-ати (present -ām/-āм), with both meanings, often attaches to comparatives: jàčati/jàчати '(1) to become stronger; (2) to strengthen something' from jàčī/jàчй 'stronger' (jàk/jâk 'strong'). Prefixation-suffixation is widespread:

o-sposòb-iti/o-спосòб-ити 'to make something/someone capable' from spòsoban/спòсобан 'capable', o-bes-hrábr-iti/o-бес-храбр-ити 'to discourage' from hrábar/храбар 'brave'.

Verbs are made from verbs by prefixation, suffixation or use of the 'reflexive' particle se/ce. Se/ce can intransitivize a verb, as držati/држати 'to hold', držati se/држати се with genitive 'to hold to'; dropping a basic verb's se/ce can transitivize it, as priblížiti se/приближити се 'to come nearer', priblížiti/приближити 'to bring nearer'.

Prefixation yields a perfective verb which may or may not coincide semantically or syntactically with the input verb (section 3.2.1). U-/y- may represent old *u- 'away', as uklòniti/уклонити 'to eliminate', but usually means 'in', as u(j)-erati/v(j)-erati 'to drive in'.

Apart from aspect changes, suffixation of verbs may also yield iteratives (section 3.2.1) and diminutives, for which the suffixes mostly involve k/к, с/ц and r/p: gur-kati/ryp-кати 'to push a little': p(j)ev-uckati/п(j)евуцкати 'to hum' from p(j)evati/п(j)eвати 'to sing'; šet-karati/шет-карати 'to stroll a little (somewhat pejorative)' from šétati/шетати.

Verb compounds are scanty; compare kriv-o-tvòr-iti/крив-о-твòрити 'to counterfeit'.

4 Syntax

4.1 Element order in declarative sentences

Element order is determined largely by topic-comment structure. The topic in unmarked order precedes the comment. The simplest situation, a frequent one, is subject = topic, verb + object = comment. If subject and object are both known to the participants in conversation and the verb has unsurprising meaning, the order is SVO.

Slavko vìdī Ölgu./Славко вйди Öлгу. 'Slavko sees Olga.'

If arguments and predicate are all new in the discourse, the order is again SVO.

Jèdan stùdent vồdī pìtomu óvcu./Jèдан сту̀дент водй пѝтому о́вцу. 'A student is leading a tame sheep.'

An element can be made the information focus by placing it sentencefinally:

Slavko Ölgu *prèzirē.*/Славко Öлгу прèзирē. 'Slavko despises Olga.' Focused subjects, such as answers to questions, can be final as well.

Q: (T)kồ dònosī šûnku?/(T)кồ дòносй шŷнку?

'Who is bringing the ham?'

A: Šûnku dònosī Slavko./Шунку доносй Славко. 'Slavko is bringing the ham.'

Serbo-Croat has a constraint against separating post-verbal subjects from verbs, so we would not normally find ?dònosī šûnku Slavko/ доносй шунку Славко. A topicalized element is put first, as 'Olga' in the second sentence:

Slâvko vìdī Ölgu. Ölgu vìdīmo i mî./Славко вйдй Олгу. Олгу вйдймо и ми. 'Slavko sees Olga. We too see Olga.'

Certain lexical elements (like nèšto/нèшто 'something', tô/тô 'this, that', čòv(j)ek/чòв(j)eк in the meaning 'one') have inherent low prominence (contributions to Filipović 1975: 97-104), and are sentence-final only under emphasis. They normally display SOV order:

?Slavko vidī nešto. Slavko nešto vidī. (or: Slavko vidī nešto.)/ ?Славко вйди нёшто. Славко нёшто вйди. (or: Славко вйди нёшто.) 'Slavko sees something.'

Departures from topic-comment order yield special effects, such as extra emphasis on a preposed comment:

vini Slavko./ВЙПЙ Славко. 'Slavko DOES see.'

Adverbs modifying a verb tend to precede it, whereas adverbials of other sorts follow:

Slavko jasno vidī Ölgu./Славко jacho вйдй Öлгу. 'Slavko sees Olga clearly.' Slavko vidī Ölgu kroz dim./Славко вйдй Олгу кроз дйм. 'Slavko sees Olga through the smoke.'

Without an object, unmarked order of subject and verb is still SV:

Slavko spava./Славко спава. 'Slavko is sleeping.'

However, subjects are frequently put after the verb. One grammaticalized instance is the existential or presentative, announcing the existence or availability of the subject. Here the order is optional time or place frameverb-subject:

Na stòlu lèžī knjīga./На столу лежи књига. 'On the table lies (is) a book.'

A suppletive present tense of 'to be' for existentials is `mā/mmā 'there is' (negative nēmā/нēма 'there is not'). It and other tenses of biti/бити with a genitive (singular or plural) subject mean 'there is/are some ..., there isn't/aren't any ...':

U frižidéru ìmā šūnkē (måslīnā)./У фрижидеру йма шунке (маслина). 'In the refrigerator there is some ham (there are some olives).'

Some speakers use ima/ma with nominative singular subjects, while others (particularly in the Croat standard) require je/je:

Na stòlu ìmā (or: je) knjīga./На столу ѝмā (or je) књйга. 'On the table there is a book.'

Clitic-placement rules operate within a simple sentence. Almost all Serbo-Croat clitics have corresponding full forms (though se/ce in most uses, those not meaning '... self', has none). Clitic and full personal pronouns were given in table 7.6, of verb forms in tables 7.16 and 7.17. Serbo-Croat clitics are enclitic, forming an accentual group with a preceding word. Clitics display fixed order in a group (contributions to Filipović 1975: 105-34):

- I li/ли.
- II Auxiliary verbs and present of 'to be' (but not third person singular je/je):

bih, bi, bismo, biste, bi/бих, би, би, бисмо, бисте, би '(I, you, he/she/it, we, you, they) would'

ću, ćeš, će, ćemo, ćete, ćē/ħy, ћеш, ће, ћемо, ћете, ћē '(I, you, he/she/it, we, you, they) will'

sam, si, ____, smo, ste, su/caм, си, ____, смо, сте, су '(I) have/did, (I) am' and so forth

- III Dative pronouns:
 - mi, ti, mu, joj, nam, vam, im/ми, ти, му, joj, нам, вам, им '(to) me, you, him/it, her, us, you, them'
- IV Accusative/genitive pronouns: me, te, ga, je, nas, vas, ih/Me, τe, Γa, je, Hac, Bac, ux 'me, you, him/ it, her, us, you, them'
- V se/ce, reflexive pronoun and particle.
- VI je/je, third person singular auxiliary and present of 'to be'. Se + je/ce + je usually becomes just se/ce; je/je occasionally drops after me/me and te/re as well. Je + je/je + je is replaced by ju je/jy je. Examples:

Slāvko će je vìd(j)eti./Славко ће је вйд(j)ети. 'Slavko will see her.'
Slavko ga se (je) bòjao./Славко га се (je) бòjao. 'Slavko feared it.'
Ölga mu ju je dála./Олга му ју је дáла. 'Olga gave her to him.'
Vìdī li je Slavko?/Вйдй ли је Славко? 'Does Slavko see her?'

The clitic group comes in second position in the simple sentence: after the first constituent, or after the first word of the first constituent.

(Mòja sèstra) će dóći u ùtorak./(Mòja сèстра) ће доћи у ўторак. Mòja će sèstra dóći u ùtorak./Mòja ће сèстра до́ћи у ўторак. 'My sister will come on Tuesday.'

If the first constituent is comparatively long, as mòja mlàđa sèstra/мòja мла̀ђа сèстра 'my younger sister', one can 'exclude it from the count', placing clitics after the (first word of the) next constituent:

Mòja mlàđā sèstra dóći će u ùtorak./Мòja млађа сèстра доћи ће у уторак.

If the sentence begins with a clause introducer, clitics necessarily come immediately afterward, with no exclusions from the count:

... da će mòja mlàđā sèstra dóći u ùtorak./... да ће мòja мла̀ђа сèстра до́ћи у у̀торак.

... that my younger sister will come on Tuesday.'

Clause introducers are subordinating conjunctions like da/дa 'that', relative or interrogative words and coordinating conjunctions (but i/u 'and', a/a 'and, but' do not count).

Ordering of elements within noun phrases is generally fixed (contributions to Filipović 1975: 87-96). Elements before the noun are totalizers ('all', 'every'), demonstratives, possessives, numerals and adjectives, in the order given:

svìh òvīh mòjīh dèsēt crvenīh rúžā/свйх овйх мојйх дèсēт црвенйх ружа '(Literally, 'all these my ten red roses.') All these ten red roses of mine.'

Any of these might follow the noun in poetic or expressive style: thus, rúža mòja/pýжa mòja might be a term of endearment. Postposing a numeral does not express approximation.

Elements normally appearing after the noun are genitives, prepositional phrases, relative clauses and complement clauses, in the order given.

knjīga Läva Tölstoja u l(ij)épom ùvezu/књйга Лава Толстоја у л(иј)е́пом увезу 'a book of (= by) Leo Tolstoy in a nice binding'

uv(j)erénje nàprednīh ljúdī da je zèmlja òkrūgla/ув(j)epéње нàпреднйх љу́дй да je зèмља òкрӯгла

'the belief of progressive people that the world is round'

uv(j)erénje kòjē su ljūdi izražávali da je zèmlja òkrūgla/ув(j)epéње кòjē су љŷди изража́вали да је зèмља òкрўгла

'the belief which people expressed that the world is round'

Adjectives and participles with complements usually follow nouns:

knjīga žúta od stārosti/књйга жу́та од старости 'a book yellow with age'

But they can precede if their own complements precede them: od stårosti žúta knjiga/од старости жута књига.

4.2 Non-declarative sentence types: interrogatives and imperatives

Yes—no questions are sometimes marked by intonation. A characteristic contour involves a drop before and during the accented syllable of the focused word, followed by high pitch on the remainder of the word (the 'reverse pattern': Lehiste and Ivić 1986: chapter 3; see also contributions to Filipović 1975: 172–9):

Sla vko vidī Ölgu?/Сла вко вйдй Олгу? 'Does Slavko see Olga?'

If no word is especially focused, the reverse pattern goes on the main verb:

Slâvko vî ^dī Ölgu?/Слâвко вй ^{Дй} Öлгу? 'Does Slavko see Olga?'

More frequent yes-no question markers are clitic li/ли and sentence-initial dầ li/дầ ли. The finite verb (auxiliary if there is one, otherwise the main verb) precedes li/ли immediately and is thus sentence initial:

Vìdī li Slavko Ölgu?/вйдй ли Славко Олгу?

A clitic finite verb is replaced in li/ли questions by its non-clitic (full) form:

Hồće li Slavko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/Хо̂ће ли Сла̂вко вид(j)ети О́лгу? 'Will Slavko see Olga?'

Dầ li/дầ ли, which may be regarded as the full form of li/ли, does not constrain the order of the remaining elements. The example above would be: dầ li će Slávko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/дầ ли ће Славко вйд(j)ети Олгу?

Affirmative answers to yes-no questions of all types can be da/дa 'yes', repetition of the finite verb (in full form) or both:

Q: Slâvko v_l^dī Ölgu? Vldī li Slâvko Ölgu? Dầ li Slâvko vldī Ölgu?/Славко вй Öлгу? Види ли Славко Öлгу? Да ли Славко види Öлгу?

A: Dã./Дã. or Vìdī./Вйдй. or Dã, vìdī./Дã, вйдй. 'Yes. He does. Yes, he does.'

Q: Hồče li Slâvko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/Хо̂ће ли Славко вид(j)ети О́лгу? Dầ li će Slâvko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/Да ли ће Славко вид(j)ети О́лгу?

A: Dã./Дã. or Hôće./Xôħe. or Dã, hôće./Дã, xôħe.
 'Yes. He will. Yes, he will.'

Negative answers are given with ne/He 'no', and/or repetition of the negated finite verb (recall that paired clitic/full-form verbs have a single negated form; sections 3.2.1 and 4.6):

Q: Slávko vị dī Ölgu? Vìdī li Slávko Ölgu? Dà li Slávko vìdī Ölgu?/Славко вій Öлгу? Віді ли Славко Öлгу? Да ли Славко відій Öлгу?

A: Nê./Hè. or Nè vidī./Hè видй. or Nè, nè vidī./Hè, нè видй. 'No. He doesn't. No, he doesn't.'

Q: Hồće li Slâvko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/Xồħe ли Славко вйд(j)ети Öлгу? Dầ li će Slâvko vìd(j)eti Ölgu?/Да ли ће Славко вйд(j)ети Öлгу?

A: Nề./Hề. or Nêce./Hệne. or Nề, nêce./Hề, nệne.

Yes-no questions can be formulated negatively by negating the verb.

Slâvko nè vidī Ölgu?/Сла̂вко не видй Öлгу? Ne vidī li Slâvko Ölgu?/Не видй ли Сла̂вко Öлгу? 'Doesn't Slavko see Olga?'

Answers to such negative questions are

Ne, ne vidī./He, не види. 'No, he doesn't.'

or

da, vìdī/дa, вйдй (probably not merely da/дa).

Similar to English 'tag questions', zâr nề?/зâр нề? or jề li?/jề ли? can make yes-no questions from positive or negative statements:

Slavko vìdī Ölgu, zar nè?/Славко вйдй Öлгу, зар нè? 'Slavko sees Olga, doesn't he?'

Alternative questions contain ili/или 'or' between two or more elements in what is otherwise a yes-no question:

Vì̀dī li Slavko Ölgu ili Dóru?/Вйдй ли Славко Олгу или Дору? 'Does Slavko see Olga or Dora?'

An answer can be:

Nè vidī Ölgu nego Dóru./Нè видй Öлгу него До́ру. 'He doesn't see Olga but (rather) Dora.'

or simply: Dóru/Дору.

wh questions are made with interrogatives such as $(t)k\delta/(T)k\delta$ 'who', čijī/чйjй 'whose', zåšto/зашто 'why'. Such words front – come in first position in the sentence – and can be preceded only by coordinating conjunctions and prepositions:

Kòga vìdī Màrija? Kòga Màrija vìdī?/Kòra вйдй Мàриja? Kòra Màриja вйдй? 'Whom does Marija see?' S kim Màrija râdī?/С ким Мàриja радй? 'With whom does Marija work?'

A WH word (with preposition if any) counts as a sentence-introducer: clitics follow it immediately.

Kòga je Màrija vìd(j)ela?/Kòra je Màриja вйд(j)ела? 'Whom did Marija see?'
S kim ga je vìd(j)ela?/С ким га je вйд(j)ела? 'With whom did she see him?'

Fronting can separate a WH word from the rest of its phrase:

Köliko Slavko ìmā növācā?/Колико Славко има новаца? 'How much has Slavko money? (How much money has Slavko?)'

WH words can be conjoined. The resulting WH group fronts:

Kòga i gd(j)ề Màrija vìdī?/Kòra и гд(j)ề Мàрија вйдй? 'Whom and where does Marija see? (Whom does Marija see and where does she see him?)'

If there are clitics, their best position is after the first WH word:

Kòga je i gd(j)ề Màrija vìd(j)ela?/Kòra je и гд(j)ề Màриja вйд(j)ела? 'Whom did Marija see and where did she see him?'

They may also be after the group: kòga i gd(j)ề je Màrija vìd(j)ela?/кòга и гд(j)ề je Màpuja вйд(j)ела?

'Multiple' questions can be formed with non-conjoined WH words. In general all are fronted. Clitics are best placed after the first WH word, suggesting it differs in syntactic position from the others (Browne 1976):

(T)kồ je gd(j)ề kòga vìdio (vìdeo)?/(T)кồ je гд(j)ề кòга вйдио (вйдео)? 'Who saw whom where?'

The order of WH words is not fixed; one can also ask, for instance: gd(j)e je

(t)kồ kòga vìdio (vìdeo)?/гд(j)ề je (т)кồ кòга вйдио (вйдео)?

All types of direct questions, apart from the intonational yes-no type and the 'tags', can also function as indirect questions, as in the position of object to a predicate:

Nè znām dầ li Slâvko vìdī Ölgu (vìdī li Slâvko Ölgu)./Нè знāм дầ ли Славко вйдй Олгу (вйдй ли Славко Олгу).

'I don't know whether Slavko sees Olga.'

Nísam sìgūran (t)kồ gd(j)ề kòga vìdī. ЙНи́сам сѝгуран (т)ко̀ гд(j)ề кòга вѝди.

'I am not sure who sees whom where.'

If a question is to be object of a preposition, a form of the pronoun tô/Tô 'it' in the required case is intercalated:

Govòrili smo *o tồme* dầ li Slâvko vìdī Ölgu./Говорили смо *о томе* да ли Славко вйдй Олгу.

'We spoke about it whether Slavko sees Olga.'

In some instances the preposition and pronoun are omissible:

Pítānje (o töme) dầ li Slâvko vầdī Ölgu jồš nìje r(ij)êšeno./Пи́тāње (о томе) дầ ли Славко види Олгу jồш није р(иј)êшено.

'The question (about it) whether Slavko sees Olga is not yet resolved.'

Commands are given in the imperative:

Ùzmi (plural or formal: Ùzmite) krůšku!/Узми (plural or formal: Узмите) крушку!

'Take a pear!'

A second-person subject may be omitted or (less commonly) expressed:

Ùzmi tî krùšku!/Узми тй крушку! 'You take a pear!'

Negative imperatives require imperfective aspect:

Ne ùzimāj krùšku!/He узимај крушку! 'Don't take a pear.'

except for some verbs of involuntary psychological action:

Ne zabòravi!/He забòрави! 'Don't forget (perfective)!'

Another, more polite, negative command is with nèmōj/нèмōj (1 PL nèmōjmo/нèмōjмo 'let's not'; 2 PL nèmōjte/нèмōjте) plus infinitive (either aspect):

Nèmōj ùzimati krùške!/Нèмōj узимати крушке!

'Don't take (imperfective) pears.'

Nèmōj ùzēti krůšku!/Нèмōj узēти крушку!

'Don't take (perfective) a pear.'

Da/дa₂ with present clauses can replace the infinitive, especially in the East: nèmōj da ùzimāš (da ùzmēš) krùšku/нèмōj да у̀зимāш (да у̀змēш) крушку! Da/дa₂ clauses can also contain a verb not in the second person, as long as its subject is under the control or influence of the person addressed:

Nèmōj da se tô drugī pût dògodī!/Нèмōj да се тô друп пут дòгоди! Literally, 'Don't that this happens again! (Don't let this happen again!)'

Commands to be performed by another person are given as da/дa₂-present or neka/нeka-present clauses:

Da Slâvko (ne) ùzimā krùške./Да Славко (не) узима крушке. Nēka Slavko (ne) ùzimā krùške./Нёка Славко (не) узима крушке. 'Let (may) Slavko (not) take pears.'

Reported commands are formulated as da/ga₂-present clauses, in the third person occasionally as nèka/Hèka-present:

Rèkla je da ùzmēm (ùzmēš) krūšku./Рèкла je да узмēм (узмēш) крушку.

'She said I (you) should take a pear.'

Rèkla je da (or nèka) Slâvko ùzmē krůšku./Рèкла je да (or нèка) Славко узмё крушку.

'She said Slavko should take a pear.'

4.3 Copular sentences

The main copula is biti/бити 'to be', used with noun phrase, adjective phrase and adverbial phrase predicates:

Màrija je mòja sèstra./Марија је моја сèстра.

'Marija is my sister.'

Màrija je vr(ij)édna kao pčèla./Марија је вр(иј)éдна као пчèла.

'Marija is hard-working as a bee.'

Màrija je dòbro./Марија је добро.

'Marija is well.'

Kòncert je u ъsam./Концерт је у ъсам.

'The concert is at eight o'clock.'

In the genitive predicate construction, a noun mentions a property of the subject and an adjective specifies that property:

Šèšīr je odgovárajūćē veličìnē./Шèшйр je одгова́раjўћē величинē.

'The hat is (of) the right size.'

The normal case for noun phrase and adjective phrase copular predicates is nominative. The instrumental on these is archaic or literary, never obligatory:

Màrija je učitèljica (učitèljicōm)./Марија је учитèљица (учитèљицōм). 'Marija is a teacher NOM (a teacher INST).'

Even if the sentence contains a subject in another case, the predicate is nominative:

Lầko je Màriji bìti vr(ij)édna./Лако je Màрији бити вр(иј)éдна. 'It is easy for Marija (DAT) to be hard-working (NOM).'

If the subject is unexpressed, the copular predicate adjective is nominative masculine singular for arbitrary human referents, otherwise nominative neuter singular.

Vážno je bìti vr(ij)édan./Ва́жно је бѝти вр(иј)е́дан. 'It is important (for anyone) to be hard-working (NOM M).'

Bîti/бити and other copulas take only short-form adjectives as predicate:

Màrtin je vr(ij)édan./Мартин je вр(иj)éдан. 'Martin is hard-working (SHORT).'

But some adjectives lacking a short form (section 3.1.4) can use their long form:

Màrtin je mālī./Мартин је малй.

'Martin is small.'

Ìvan je najmanjī./Йван je најмањй.

'Ivan is the smallest.'

A zero copula is found only in proverbs, titles and other compressed styles:

Obećánje – lúdōm radovanje./Обећање – лу́дом радовање. 'A promise (is) joy for a fool. (Don't trust promises.)' (Proverb)

Bîti/бити has frequentative bívati/бивати 'be from time to time; become; happen':

Màrija je bívala (je pồčēla bívati) sve vrèdnijā./Марија је бивала (је почела бивати) све вреднија.

'Marija was becoming (began to be) more and more hard-working.'

A specialized copula for adverbials of place is nàlaziti se/нàлазити се, perfective náći se/нáћи се 'be located, be'.

Škòla se nàlazī dalèko od sèla./Шкòла се нàлазй далèко од сèла. 'The school is located far from the village.'

Östati/òстати, imperfective òstajati/òстаjати 'to remain; to be left, find oneself', taking various predicate types, can mean a continuing state or a changed state:

Vláda je òstala upōrna, ali studenti òstajū na tígu./Вла́да je òстала упорна, али студенти òстаjў на тр́гу. 'The government remained firm, but the students are staying in the square.'

Pòstati/пòстати, imperfective pòstajati/пòстаjати 'to become' takes noun or adjective predicates, both of which can be nominative or instrumental without clear meaning distinctions:

Màrija je pòstala učitèljica (učitèljicōm)./Марија је постала учитељица (учитељицом).

'Marija became a teacher NOM (a teacher INST).'

Situácija pòstajē òzbīljna (òzbīljnom)./Ситуација постаје озбиљна (озбиљном).

'The situation is becoming serious NOM (serious INST).'

4.4 Coordination and comitativity

Two or more syntactic constituents can be joined by a conjunction to form a constituent of the same type. I/u 'and' joins nouns and noun phrases:

Îvan i njègova žèna rādē./Йван и њèгова жèна радē. 'Ivan and his wife are working.'

adjectives and adjective phrases:

Tô je plồdan i dòbro pồznāt slìkār./Tô je плодан и добро познат сликар. 'He is a productive and well-known painter.'

verbs and verb phrases:

Žívī i stvārā u Ljubljàni./Жи́вӣ и ствара у Љубља̀ни. 'He/she lives and works in Ljubljana.'

as well as entire clauses:

Zầuzēt sam i ne mògu vìšē slùšati./Зầузёт сам и не мòгу вйшё слушати. 'I am busy and I cannot listen any more.'

I/и appears before the last conjunct:

Ìvan, Màrija i Àna/Ѝван, Мàриja и Àна 'Ivan, Marija and Ana'

or can be repeated before all conjuncts after the first:

Ìvan i Màrija i Àna/Йван и Марија и Ана 'Ivan and Marija and Ana'

or before all, including the first:

I Ìvan i Màrija .../И Йван и Марија ... 'Both Ivan and Marija ...'

'And' taking scope over items grouped by i/u is te/Te or kao i/kao u:

Ìvan i Màrija, te (or: kao i) Jòsip i Àna/Йван и Мàриja, те (or: као и) Jòсип и Àна 'Ivan and Marija, and also (as well as) Josip and Ana'

Pa/πa is 'and' for temporal succession: 'and then'.

Îli/йли 'either, or', ni/ни 'neither, nor' have the same distribution as i/и. A/a 'and (on the other hand)' for instances of contrast, joins predicates or clauses and is usually not repeated:

Ròmān je dèbeo, a zanìmljiv./Рòмāн je дèбео, а занѝмљив. 'The novel is thick, and (yet) interesting.'

A/a 'and' is combinable with i/и 'also, too':

Îvan pùtujē, a i Màrija pùtujē./Йван путуjē, а и Марија путуjē. 'Ivan is travelling, and Marija is travelling too.'

Stronger contrasts are shown by ali/anu 'but', which also appears just once in a series.

Ìvan pùtujē, ali Màrija òstajē kòd kućē./Йван путуjē, али Марија остајё код куће.

'Ivan is travelling, but Marija is staying home.'

An element of a negative statement is corrected by the conjunction nego/hero or vec/beh and a following statement:

Ne pùtujē Màrija, nềgo (vềć) Ìvan./Не путује Мàриja, нёго (вёћ) Йван. 'Marija isn't travelling; rather, Ivan is.'

Agreement with conjoined structures has been studied extensively by Corbett (1983 and other works); briefly summarized, modifiers within a conjoined noun phrase agree with the nearest noun:

Njên òtac i mâjka su dòšli./Њен òтац и мâjka су дòшли. 'Her (M SG) father and mother have come (M PL).'

whereas predicates, relative pronouns and anaphoric pronouns are plural and follow gender-resolution rules (neuter plural if all conjuncts are neuter plural, feminine plural – but occasionally masculine plural – if all are feminine, otherwise masculine plural):

Njêna sèstra i mâjka su dòšle./Њена сèстра и мајка су дòшле. 'Her sister and mother have come (F PL).' Njêno d(ij)éte i tèle su dòšli./Њено д(иј)éте и тèле су дòшли. 'Her child (N SG) and calf (N SG) have come (M PL).'

Agreement with the nearest conjunct is also observed, particularly in predicates preceding their subjects.

The comitative construction, 'mother with son' or 'we with son' in the sense 'mother and son', 'I and my son', is unknown. Examples like

Mâjka sa sînom šêtā./Mâjka са сином шетā. 'Mother with son strolls.'

have only the nominative constituent as syntactic and semantic subject.

4.5 Subordination

Major types of subordinate clauses are complement (Browne 1987) and relative clauses.

Verbs and other predicates can lexically permit or require various types of complement clause as subjects or as one of their objects. Nouns, adjectives and prepositions can select a clause as object (= complement). Some examples will be given, followed by a classification of complement clause types.

Verb with [subject]:

Iz tồga proizlazī [da je bìtka izgubljena]./Из тога произлази [да је битка изгубљена].

'From this (it) follows [that the battle is lost].'

Verb with [object]:

Znâm [da je bìtka ìzgubljena]./Знâм [да је битка изгубљена]. 'I know [that the battle is lost].'

Noun with [complement]:

Stìžū v(ij) ēsti [da je bìtka ìzgubljena]./Стйжў в(иј) ести [да је бйтка ѝзгубљена].

'Are-arriving reports [that the battle is lost].'

When a verb, adjective, preposition or noun requires a particular case or preposition + case on its complement, the intercalated to/тo strategy is used. Ráditi se/ра́дити се 'to be a question/matter of' needs o/o with locative, as in Râdī se o vlāsti/Ра̂ди се о вла̂сти 'it is a question of power', and its complement clause behaves accordingly:

Râdī se o tồme [da li je bìtka ìzgubljena ili ne]./Рâди се о томе [да ли је битка изгубљена или не].
'It is a question of [whether the battle is lost or not].'

The chief types of complement clause are those introduced by $da/\pi a_1$, by $da/\pi a_2$, by to/m and by question words (section 4.2). The two $to/m a_1$ take different verb tenses within their clauses. A $to/m a_1$ clause, as a reported statement, can contain any tense usable in a declarative main clause: any past tense, the future but not the $to/m a_1$ compound tense (section 3.2.1) and the present but normally only from an imperfective verb.

Znām [da je Màrija napísala knjīgu]./Знам [да је Марија написала књигу].

'I know [that Marija has written a book].'

Cuo sam [da Màrija pîšē knjîgu]./ Чуо сам [да Марија пише књигу].

'I heard [that Marija is writing a book].'

Da/дa₂ with the present of imperfective or perfective verbs expresses hypothetical, unrealized actions – like the infinitive or subjunctive of other languages. It has been termed the infinitive substitute.

Žèlīm [da Màrija pîšē]./Жèлйм [да Мàриjа пи̂шē].

'I want that Marija write-imperfective (I want her to write).'

Žèlīm [da Màrija nàpīšē knjîgu]./Желим [да Марија напише књигу].

'I want Marija to write-perfective a book.'

 $Da/дa_2$ represents imperatives in indirect discourse (section 4.2). Ambiguities can arise between the two da/дa.

Rèkli su da Màrija pîšē./Рèкли су да Мàриjа пишē.

Da/да₁: 'They said that Marija is writing.'

Da/да₂: 'They told Marija to write.'

Što/IIITO + statement clauses are factive, usually subordinated to items expressing an emotional reaction:

Rådujēmo se [što smo vas ponovo vid(j)eli]./Радујемо се [што смо вас поново вид(j)ели].

'We are glad [that we have seen you again].'

The infinitive can be used in many of the same positions as the clause types above. It sometimes occurs as subject:

Žív(j)eti znâčī ráditi./Жи́в(j)ети зна̂чи ра́дити. 'To live means to work.'

Here the two infinitives have their own understood subject which is unspecified but human.

The most frequent use of the infinitive is as complement to a verb.

Màrija žèlī písati./Марија жèлй писати. 'Marija wants to write.'

In almost all such instances the understood subject of the infinitive must be the same as the subject of the main verb. If it is identical to the main verb's object, or different from both, a da/ π a₂ complement is used instead.

Màrija žèlī da Ìvan pīšē./Мàриja жèлй да Ѝван пи̂шē. 'Marija wants Ivan to write.'

Outside the Croat standard, da/ π a₂ clauses are frequent even when the same-subject condition holds:

Màrija žèlī da pìšē./Мàрија жèлй да пишē. 'Marija wants to write.'

See discussion of the future tense ($c\acute{u}/\hbar y + infinitive$ or $da/\pi a_2$) in section 3.2.1 and of $n\`{e}m\ddot{o}j/H\`{e}m\ddot{o}j + infinitive$ or $da/\pi a_2$ in section 4.2.

Further means of subordination are two verbal adverbs, one verbal noun and a participle. The present adverb (from imperfectives) expresses an action simultaneous with that of the main verb. The past adverb (from perfectives), if preceding the main verb, states a prior action, otherwise the sequence of actions is indeterminate (M. Ivić 1983: 155–76). Both background one action vis-a-vis the other, and express accompanying circumstance, manner, means, cause or condition. Normally, the understood subject of a verbal adverb is identical with the subject of the main verb:

Ön se vràćā s pòsla p(j)ëvajūći./Он се врана с посла п(j)ёвајўни. 'He returns from work singing' (he is singing).

The verbal noun in -(e)nje/-(e)њe, -će/-ћe from imperfective verbs participates in complement structures:

Màrija je pồčēla s písānjem knjìgē./Màpuja je пồчēла с писањем књѝгē. 'Marija has begun with (started) the writing of the book.'

where its subject is the same as that of the main verb. It is also used in nominalizations with either the subject or the object expressed by a genitive:

Písānje stùdenātā je zanìmljivo./Пи́сāње сту̀денāтā je занѝмљиво. 'The students' writing is interesting.' Písānje knjìgē je bílo téško./Пи́сање књѝгē je би́ло те́шко. 'The writing of the book was difficult.'

Subject and object can cooccur if the subject is expressed as a possessive adjective:

Màrijino písānje knjìgē/Màријино писање књйге 'Marija's writing of the book'

or with the infrequent passive-agent phrase od stránē/од стра́нē and genitive:

(?)písānje knjìgē od stránē Màrijē/пи́сāње књѝгē од стрáнē Màриjē 'the writing of the book by Marija'

The verbal noun neutralizes the distinction of verbs with se/ce and verbs without: růšēnje kůćē/pỳшēње кўћē can be from růšiti/pỳшити, as in

Màrija rùšī kùću./Màриja рушй кућу. 'Marija destroys the house.'

and from růšiti se/рушити се:

Kùća se rùšī./Kỳħa се руши. 'The house falls-down.'

The only participle is the 'passive' one with endings -(e)n/-(e)H, -t/-T. It is made primarily from perfective verbs, also from some imperfectives. It forms a passive construction:

Kùća je srùšena./Kỳħa je срушена. 'The house has been destroyed.'

An inanimate agent in a passive is expressed with the instrumental. An animate one is preferably omitted, but may be expressed with od/og 'from' or od stránē/og стрáнē 'from the side of' plus genitive:

Kůća je srůšena v(j)ềtrom./Кућа је срушена в(j)ётром.

'The house has been destroyed by the wind.'

(?) Kồća je srồšena od (od stránē) neprijatelja./Kỳħa je срушена од (од стра́не) непријатеља.

'The house has been destroyed by the enemy.'

The participle can be in attributive position:

srůšenā kůća/срўшена кўћа 'the destroyed house' kůća srůšena v(j)ềtrom, v(j)ềtrom srůšena kůća/кўћа срўшена в(j)ётром, в(j)ётром срўшена кўћа 'the house destroyed by the wind' (section 4.1)

Relative clauses, unlike complements, can be attached to any noun phrase. In Serbo-Croat the head of the antecedent phrase determines the relativizers used. If the head is a noun or personal pronoun, the main relativizer is $k \delta j \bar{l} / \kappa \delta j \bar{n}$ 'which', which agrees with its antecedent in gender and number and takes case endings (section 3.1.4) according to function in the subordinate clause.

čòv(j)ek kòjeg vìdīm/чòв(j)ек кòjeг війдім 'man which-ACC (= whom) I-see' čòv(j)ek s kòjīm sam rádio/чòв(j)ек с кòjім сам ра́дио 'man with which-INST I-have worked'

As we see, the relativizer is fronted; as a sentence introducer, clitics (sam/cam) follow it directly. An alternative relativizing strategy introduces the clause with an invariable word što/што 'that': the item agreeing with the antecedent in gender and number is a personal pronoun (in modern usage, always an enclitic, hence not the object of a preposition):

čòv(j)ek što ga vi̇̀dīm/чòв(j)ек што га вйдйм 'man that him I-see (man whom I see)'

If the antecedent's head is an interrogative, indefinite or demonstrative pronoun in the singular (expressed or dropped), the relativizer is (t)k\delta/(\tau)k\delta 'who' or declinable \text{sto}, \text{sta}/\text{wtd}, \text{wta} 'what' depending on the human/non-human distinction (Browne 1986: 112-19):

nềšto što vìdīm/нѐшто што вйдйм
'something what I see (that I see)'
nềšto o čèmu gòvorīm/нёшто о чѐму говорйм
'something about what-LOC (about which) I speak'
svå(t)ko kòga vìdīm/свå(т)ко ко̀га вйдйм
'everyone whom I see'

Relative clauses also have (overt or dropped) time adverbials and place phrases as antecedents. A Serbo-Croat speciality is relative clauses on quality- and quantity-expression antecedents (Browne 1986: 102-7):

trî kònja, kồliko ìmā i džokéjā/трй кòња, колико има и цокéjā

'three horses, how-many there-are also of-jockeys (three horses, which is how many jockeys there are too)'

interesäntan ròmān, kakav je 'Rat i mîr'/интересантан роман, какав је 'Pat и мир'

'interesting novel, what-sort is 'War and Peace' (an interesting novel, which is the sort 'War and Peace' is)'

In Serbo-Croat constraints on extracting elements from subordinate clauses are not clear-cut in many instances. Examples exist with either subject or object of a subordinate clause fronted to the beginning of the upper clause in relativization and in questioning. Here '____' shows the 'starting position' of the relativized element:

cov(j)ek koji mislim da vas je vidio (video)/ чов(j)ek који мислим да вас j	je
вйдио (вйдео)	•
'the man who I think that saw you'	
čòv(j)ek kòjeg mislim da ste vid(j)eli/чòв(j)ек кòjeг мйслим да сте вйд(j)ели
the man whom I think that you saw'	•
	јели

Judgments are difficult because two alternative constructions are preferred. One is the za/3a-topic strategy: the main clause contains a verb of saying or thinking, the preposition za/3a 'for' + accusative and a noun phrase which recurs (in any syntactic role whatever) in the subordinate clause.

Za Ìvana gòvorē da ga svì pòštujū./За Йвана говорē да га свій поштујў. 'For (about) Ivan, they say that him, everybody respects.'

(Za/3a is not the usual preposition 'about', which is o/o + locative.) This strategy yields a relative clause in which the antecedent is followed by za kojeg/3a kojer 'for whom, for which' and a lower clause without extraction:

čòv(j)ek za kòjeg mìslīm da ste ga vìd(j)eli/чòв(j)ек за кòjeг мислим да сте га вид(j)ели

'the man for (about) whom I think that you saw him'

čòv(j)ek za kòjeg míslīm da vas je vidio (video)/чòв(j)ек за кòjeг міслим да вас је видио (видео)

'the man for (about) whom I think that he saw you.'

The same strategy is available for questions. Beside

(T)kồ mìslīte da me je zam(ij)énio?/(T)kồ міслите да ме је зам(иј)éнио? 'Who do you think that _____ replaced me?'

we can have:

Za kòga mìslīte da me je zam(ij)énio?/За кòга місляте да ме је зам(иј)éнио? 'For (about) whom do you think that he replaced me?'

Another strategy formulates each clause as a separate question, with štö/штъ, štā/штъ 'what' as object of the main verb:

Štồ mìslīte, (t)kồ me je zam(ij)énio?/Што мислите, (т)ко ме је зам(иј)éнио? 'What do you think – who replaced me?'

4.6 Negation

Sentence negation is expressed with ne/He on the finite verb (the auxiliary, if there is one):

Slavko *nè vidī* Ölgu./Славко *нè видй* Öлгу.

'Slavko does not see Olga.'
Slavko *nėće* vid(j)eti Ölgu./Славко *не́ће* вйд(j)ети Öлгу.
'Slavko will-not see Olga.'

Constituent negation is rare, and usually requires explicit statement of the correct alternative.

Slavko vidī ne Ölgu nego Màriju./Славко вйдй не Öлгу него Màриjy. 'Slavko sees not Olga but Marija.'

Even then, the normal formulation is as with sentence negation:

Slavko nè vidī Ölgu (nego Màriju)./Славко нè видй Öлгу (него Màрију). 'Slavko doesn't see Olga (but Marija).'

One can also negate sentences with the negative conjunction niti/нити 'neither, nor':

Nîti Slavko vìdī Ölgu, nîti Ìvan vìdī Màriju./Нйти Славко вйдй Öлгу, нйти Йван вйдй Марију.
'Neither does Slavko see Olga, nor does Ivan see Marija.'

There is a negative-polarity phenomenon and, separate from it, a sort of negative agreement. A sentence negated with preposed niti/Hutu can contain indefinite forms made from interrogative pronouns and adverbs by prefixing i-/u-: i(t)ko/h(t)ko 'anyone', igd(j)e/hrg(j)e 'anywhere' and the like. (The same items occur in questions, conditional sentences and

second members of comparatives.) A positive sentence could not contain these:

Nîti je Slâvko vìdī, nîti ì(t)ko ìšta znâ ò njōj./Нйти је Славко вйд $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$, нйти $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ (т)ко йшта зна ò њ $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ j.

'Neither does Slavko see her, nor does anyone know anything about her.'

In sentences containing ne/He on the verb, i-/и- indefinites add initial n-/H- to become negative forms: nì(t)ko/нѝ(т)ко 'nobody', nìgd(j)e/нѝгд(j)e 'nowhere' and so forth. So does the conjunction and particle i/и 'and; also, even': ni/ни 'neither, nor; not ... either, not even'. Several such items can appear together:

Nî(t)ko nìgd(j)e nè vidī nìkoga./Нй(т)ко нйгд(j)e нè видй нйкога. 'Nobody nowhere not sees nobody (Nobody sees anybody anywhere).'

Unlike the i-/и- set, ni-/ни- words can appear in isolation:

Nîšta./Ништа.

'Nothing.' (Or 'Oh, that's all right.')

Prepositions other than bez/без 'without' split i/и and ni/ни from the rest of the word:

ì s kīm, nì s kīm; ì u čemu, nì u čemu/й с ким, нй с ким; й у чему, нй у чему 'with anybody, with nobody; in anything, in nothing'

although non-normative usage also has s nìkīm, u nìčemu/c никим, у ничему.

Infinitive complements are occasionally negated:

Nísam mồgao ne misliti na tô./Нисам мотао не мислити на тô. 'I couldn't not think of it (I couldn't avoid thinking of it).'

but usually a special conjunction a da₂ ne/a да₂ не is used: Nísam mồgao a da nè mislīm na tô./Ни́сам мо̀гао a да нè мислим на тô. a da₁ ne/a да₁ не expresses absence of concomitant action:

Ùšla je à da me nìje pòzdravila./Ушла је à да ме нѝје поздравила. 'She entered without greeting me.'

When a verb is negated, its accusative object may appear in the genitive. In present-day Serbo-Croat such genitive objects are archaic and elevated in style except in fixed phrases and in two further circumstances: as object of némati/немати (ne + imati/не + имати) 'not to have' and when negation is strengthened by ni/ни, nijèdan/ниjèдан, nikakav/никакав 'not even, not a single, no' (Lj. Popović in Станојчић/Stanojčić et al. 1989: 219). Examples from Менац/Менас (1978):

Fixed phrases:

òbraćati pážnju – ne òbraćati pážnju *or* pážnjē/òбраћати па́жњу – не òбраћати па́жњу *or* па́жње.

'to pay attention (ACC) - not to pay attention (ACC or GEN)'

Némati/немати:

Tàda se s(j)ètio da nêmā revolvéra./Тàда се с(j)èтио да нêма револвéра. 'Then he remembered that he didn't have a pistol (GEN).'

Negation strengthened:

ìgrati ùlogu – ne ìgrati ùlogu – ne ìgrati nìkakvē ùlogē/н̀грати ўлогу – не н̀грати ўлогу – не н̀грати нн̀каквё ўлогё 'to play a role (ACC) – not to play a role (ACC) – to play no role whatever (GEN)'

The subject in negated sentences remains nominative, even in existential sentences (section 4.1):

Ne pòstojī r(j)ešénje./Не постојй р(j)еше́ње. 'Not exists solution (NOM) (there is no solution).'

Only ne biti/не бити 'not to be' (present nema/нema) takes genitive subject:

U sồbi nêma Màrijē./У соби нема Màриjē. 'Marija (GEN) is not in the room.'

4.7 Anaphora and pronouns

The simplest device for referring again to a noun phrase is a personal pronoun agreeing in gender and number: ôn/ôh 'he' for masculine gender, ôna/ôha 'she' for feminine, ôno/ôho 'it' for neuter, each with its plural. Such a pronoun is available for any antecedent noun phrase headed by a lexical noun, with the limitation that clitic forms (section 3.1.3) are favoured and full forms disfavoured for inanimate antecedents:

čòv(j)ek ... Nè znām ga. Njèga nè znām./чòв(j)ек ... Нè знāм га. Њèга нè знāм.

'man ... I don't know him. Him I don't know.'

grād ... Nè znām ga. ?Njèga nè znām./град ... Нè знам га. ?Њèга нè знам.

'city ... I don't know it. It I don't know.'

The personal pronoun agrees with the antecedent, but incompletely. Antecedents can be either +animate or -animate, a distinction vital for choosing the accusative singular ending in the masculine o-declension and adjective/pronominal declension:

grâd [-animate]: Vìdīm grâd òsāmljen./град [-animate]: Вйдйм град òcāмљен. 'city: I see a city (ACC) alone (ACC).'

čòv(j)ek [+animate]: Vîdīm čòv(j)ek-a òsāmljen-ōg./чòв(j)ек [+animate]: Вйдйм чòв(j)ек-а òсāмљен-ōг.

'man: I see a man (ACC) alone (ACC).'

Yet the personal pronoun has the feature [+animate] whether referring to grād/град or to čòv(j)ek/чòв(j)ek, as we see from its own shape and that of its modifier:

gråd ... Vìdīm ga òsāmljen-ōg./град ... Вйдйм га òсāмљен-ōг.
'city ... I see it alone.'
čòv(j)ek ... Vìdīm ga òsāmljen-ōg./чòв(j)ек ... Вйдйм га òсāмљен-ōг.
'man .. I see him alone.'

A Serbo-Croat personal pronoun can show identity of sense without identity of reference, in instances like:

A: 'Nêmām àuto.' B: 'Zāšto ga nè kūpīš?'/ A: 'Héмāм àyто.' В: 'Зашто га нè купиш?'

A: 'I haven't a car.' B: 'Why don't you buy one (literally it)?'

If the head of a noun phrase is not a noun but a demonstrative, interrogative or indefinite pronoun of neuter gender, or a clause or infinitive, it cannot antecede a personal pronoun (Browne 1986: 29). The neuter demonstrative tô/Tô appears instead.

Övö je za tèbe. Zadìži tô!/Òвō je за тèбе. Задржи тô! 'This is for you. Keep it (literally that).'

Màrija vòlī plésati. Ì jā tô vòlīm./Марија воли плесати. Й jā то волим. 'Marija likes to-dance. I too like it (literally that).'

Apart from this anaphoric function, demonstratives have situational and textual uses. The three demonstratives òvāj/òвāj, tâj/тâj, ònāj/òнāj refer respectively to things near the speaker ('this'), near the hearer ('this, that') and further from both ('that over there'). Ònāj/òнāj is also for recalling something from a previous situation. Tâj/тâj is for things already under discussion, òvāj/òвāj for things about to be mentioned and ònāj/òнāj for items to be made precise by a relative clause: tâ knjīga/тâ кнъйга 'the book we've been talking about', òvā knjīga/òвā кнъйга 'this book (which I now turn to)' and ònā knjīga kòjā dòbijē någradu na kòngresu/òнā кнъйга кòjā дòбиjē награду на кòнгресу 'the book that gets a prize at the congress'. Òvāj/òвāj also serves to show a change in topical noun:

Îvan je razgovárao s Pètrom, a òvāj s Màrijōm./Йван је разгова́рао с Пётром, а òвāj с Мàриjōм.

'Ivan talked with Petar, and he (Petar) with Marija.'

Where two items have recently been mentioned, δvāj/òβāj refers to the later and δnāj/òHāj to the earlier. Another equivalent to 'the former, the latter' is

pr̂vī ròmān ... drugī ròmān/први рòмāн ... друки рòмāн 'the first novel ... the second novel'

All these discourse devices function beyond the clause as well as within it. The personal pronoun is most frequently found outside the clause of its antecedent, since if the same entity is repeated within a clause, usually one of the references is in subject position and causes the other(s) to reflexivize (section 4.8).

Serbo-Croat is described as a pro-drop language, one in which a personal pronoun need not be used in subject position. Indeed, many clauses appear with no expressed subject; agreement markers on the verb enable recovery of the person, number and (if there is an *l*-participle in the verb form) gender.

Čìtāmo./Читамо.

'We are reading.' (-mo/-мо, hence first person plural)

Mîslila si./Мйслила си.

'You (FSG) thought.' (si/c μ , hence second person singular; -l-a/- π -a, hence feminine)

In discourse, several criteria affect the (non-)use of subject pronouns. An individual being introduced as a topic is first mentioned as a full noun phrase or a first- or second-person pronoun. Thereafter subject pronouns referring to this topic may be omitted:

Mārko je dànas zàkasnio na rúčak. Ìmao je pùno pòsla u grádu./Марко је данас закаснио на ручак. Ймао је пуно посла у граду.

'Marko today came-late for dinner. (He) had a-lot-of work in town.'

But an overt subject pronoun need not change topics or introduce a non-coreferential subject. A frequent pattern is for the pronoun to be used on second mention, omitted thereafter:

Mârko je dànas zàkasnio na rúčak. Ón je ìmao půno pòsla u grádu. Zàtīm je zabòravio kljůč od àuta i mórao se vrátiti p(j)ềšicē./Марко је данас закаснио на ручак. Он је ѝмао пуно посла у гра́ду. Затим је заборавио кључ од аута и мо́рао се вра́тити п(j)ёшицē.

'Marko today came-late for dinner. He had a-lot-of work in town. Then (he) forgot the key to the car and (he) had to-return on-foot.'

Subject are omitted when the referent does not figure in the narration:

Znāš, Mārko je dànas zàkasnio na rúčak. Mīslīm da je ìmao pūno pòsla u grádu./ Знаш, Марко је дàнас зàкаснио на ручак. Мйслим да је ѝмао пуно посла у граду.

'(Y') know, Marko today came-late for dinner. (I) think he had a-lot-of work in

town.'

They are included when rhematic or contrasted:

Rúčak sam sprémio jâ./Ручак сам спремио jâ.

'Dinner prepared I (I'm the one who prepared dinner).'

Mârko je dànas zàkasnio, ali jâ nísam./ Mâрко је данас закаснио, али jâ нисам.

'Marko today came late, but I didn't.'

Their use can also indicate emphasis on the sentence as a whole:

Mârko? Jâ njèga znâm!/Mâрко? Jâ њèга знам! 'Marko? Certainly I know him.'

Use of pronoun subjects within complex sentences is more grammaticalized. The subject in a complement clause is dropped when it is obligatorily identical with an argument in the main clause. Thus 'have an intention to ...' requires identity of subjects:

Slavko ìmā nám(j)eru da vìdī Ölgu./Славко йма нам(j)еру да вйдй Öлгу. 'Slavko has an intention that (he) see Olga.'

Without obligatory identity, as in 'be certain that ...', the pronoun will still be dropped unless a contrast exists:

Slavko je sigūran da vidī Ölgu./Славко је сигуран да види Олгу.

'Slavko is certain that (he) sees Olga.'

Slâvko je sìgūran da \hat{on} vídī Ölgu a da je jâ nè vidīm./Славко je сѝгуран да \hat{oh} вѝдӣ Öлгу а да je jâ нè видӣм.

'Slavko is certain that he sees Olga and that I do not see her.'

A different phenomenon, involving omission of subjects as well as other elements, is short answers consisting only of finite verb (section 4.2).

4.8 Reflexives and reciprocals

Repeated reference within a given domain is shown by the reflexive pronoun sèbe/cèбe. Like personal pronouns, sèbe/cèбe has full and clitic forms (section 3.1.3). It does not vary for person, gender or number:

Slavko gòvorī o sèbi. Mî gòvorīmo o sèbi./Славко говорй о себи. Ми говоримо о себи.

'Slavko talks about himself. We talk about ourselves.'

but words modifying it show these features:

Slavko gòvorī o sèbi sámom. Mî gòvorīmo o sèbi sámima./Славко говорй о себи самом. Ми говоримо о себи самима. 'Slavko talks about himself alone (M SG). We talk about ourselves alone (PL).'

The domain within which sèbe/cèбe occurs is the clause. Its antecedent is the subject of the clause. The modifier sâm/câm permits objects as antecedents:

Jâ ću vas prepùstiti sèbi sámim./Jâ ћу вас препустити сèби самим. 'I will leave you, to yourselves, alone.'

The domain can also be a noun phrase if it contains a possessor interpretable as a subject. Mihaljević (1990: 151) discusses verbal nouns. A possessive is antecedent to sèbe/cèбe:

njègovo zaljubljívanje u sèbe/њèгово заљубљи́вање у сèбе 'his $_1$ infatuation with himself $_1$ '

So is an unexpressed subject, whether arbitrary in reference or controlled by a noun phrase in the clause:

zaljubljívanje u sèbe/заљубљивање у сèбе

'one's, infatuation with oneself,'

Ona se ográdila od zaljubljívanja u sèbe./Она се оградила од заљубљивања у сèбе.

'She₁ disavowed (her₁) infatuation with herself₁.'

Reflexivization in Serbo-Croat does not extend into adjectival or participial constructions:

Îvan je vŕšio pòv(j)erenū mu dúžnōst (not: pòv(j)erenū sèbi)./Иван је вр́шио пòв(j)ерену му ду́жност (not пòв(j)ерену сèби).

'Ivan, performed entrusted to-him, duty.'

Se/ce, the reflexive clitic, has many other uses: providing unspecified human subject constructions, making verbs intransitive, being a component of certain lexical items. The unspecified human subject can antecede reflexives:

U Amèrici se mnồgo gòvorī o sèbi./У Амèрици се мнồго говори о сèби. 'In America (one₁) speaks much about oneself₁.'

The reflexive possessive is svôj/cBôj. Its antecedent, as with sèbe/cèбe, can be the subject of a clause or noun phrase.

Slāvko gòvorī o svòjem kònju./Славко говорй о својем коњу. 'Slavko₁ talks about his₁ horse.' òdnos imenicē prema svom glágolu/однос йменице према свом гла́голу 'relation of a noun₁ toward its₁ verb.'

If the subject of a clause is third person, svôj/cвôj is normally obligatory; within noun phrases there is variation between it and the third-person possessives njègov/њèгов 'his, its', njên, njézin/њêн, њéзин 'her', njìhov/њѝхов 'their'.

Exceptions to subject antecedency like

Pòstavi svề na svòje m(j)ềsto!/Пòстави свё на свòjе м(j)ёсто! 'Put everything, in its, place!'

are treated by Mihaljević (1990: 152ff.). The key factor is universal quantification of the non-subject antecedent. One could not have nešto/нешто 'something' or knjigu/книйгу 'a book' in its stead.

Alternatives to svôj/cBôj for first- or second-person reference are the possessive pronouns môj/Môj 'my', nãš/Hầi 'our', tvôj/TBôj, vãš/Bầi 'your'. The choice depends partly on empathy, svôj/cBôj suggesting distance between the speaker and the possessed noun's referent. The teacher in

Jā sam zāhvālan svôm ùčitelju./Jā сам захвалан свом учитељу. 'I am grateful to self's teacher.'

is one that I had, just as every student has some teacher.

Jâ sam zāhvālan môm ùčitelju./Jâ сам захвалан мôм учитељу. 'I am grateful to my teacher.'

speaks about a concrete teacher with his own name and personal qualities. Reciprocity is marked by a compound pronoun jèdan drùgōg/jèдан дру̀го̄г 'one another'. Both parts inflect for gender, number and case:

Ölga i Màrija vìdē jèdna drùgū./Олга и Марија вйдē јèдна дру̀гӯ. 'Olga and Marija see one (F NOM SG) another (F ACC SG).'

Prepositions go before the second member:

Gòvorīmo jèdan o drùgōm./Говорӣмо jèдан о дрӱгōм. 'We speak one about another (about each other).'

Unlike other pronouns, mixed-gender subjects take neuter singular jèdno drùgō/jèдно друrō:

Slavko i Ölga vidē jèdno drugō./Славко и Öлга видē jèдно другō. 'Slavko and Olga see one another.'

The form of jèdan/jèдан has been nominative, agreeing with the clause subject, in these examples; it can also be genitive to go with the subject of a noun phrase. A newspaper story about the benefits resulting

... äko se òtvorīmo jèdni prema drugīma/... ако се отворимо jèдни према другима

'... if we-open-up one (NOM PL) to another (DAT PL)'

is headlined

Kồrīst od otvárānja jèdnih prema drugīma/Köpūст од отварања јèдних према другима. (Политика 28 April 1989) 'Benefit from opening-up of-one (GEN PL) to another (DAT PL).'

Reciprocals, like reflexives, can occur in an infinitive phrase, but only where coreferential with the understood subject of the infinitive:

Slāvko i Ölga žèlē vid(j)eti jèdno drugō./Славко и Олга жèлē вид(j)ети jèдно другō.
'Slavko and Olga wish to see one another.'

Jèdan drugog/jèдан другог with certain accusative-taking verbs (apparently lexically conditioned) is replaceable by se/ce, the clitic reflexive.

Oni bijū (volē, vidē) jedan drugog./Они бијў (воле, виде) jeдан дрўгог. → Oni se bijū (volē, vidē)/Они се бијў (воле, виде).
'They beat (love, see) one another.'

4.9 Possession

Possession can be expressed by a verb, a possessor constituent in a sentence or a possessor within a noun phrase. The normal verb used in a predication is imati/ймати 'to have' (or pòs(j)edovati/пòc(j)едовати 'to possess'). The subject is the possessor, and the accusative object is the possessed item:

Màrija ìmā knjīgu./Марија йма књйгу. 'Marija has a book.' Màrija ìmā sèstru./Марија йма сèстру. 'Marija has a sister.'

Prìpadati/прѝпадати 'to belong to' has the possessed item as nominative subject and the possessor as dative:

Kùća prìpadā Màriji./Kỳħа прѝпада Мàрији. 'The house belongs to Marija.'

With imati/imati the use of genitive instead of accusative to express partitivity ('some') of plural or mass-noun objects is widespread, though otherwise the partitive genitive is restricted to perfective verbs:

Ìmām vòdē./Ймāм вòдē. 'I have some water (GEN).'

Compare:

Ìmām võdu./Ймам воду. 'I have the water (ACC).'

The preposition u/y with genitive '(1) at the house of, *chez*, among; (2) in the possession of' is now rare. The first meaning is usually rendered as kod/kog with genitive. The second meaning can form possessive sentences with the possessed as subject and a verb 'to be':

U lầži su krầtke nồge./У лажи су кратке но̀ге.
'A lie has short legs. (The truth eventually comes out.)' (proverb)
U Mîlicē (su) duge trepavice./У Милице (су) ду̀ге трепавице.
'Milica has long eyelashes'. (folk poetry)

An u/y possessor phrase also occasionally appears in a sentence complete without it:

Ona je jedînica (u mâjkē)./Она је јединица (у мајке). 'She is the only daughter (her mother has).'

Dative constituents, particularly clitic pronouns, frequently express possessors.

Òtac mi je ùmro pròšlē gòdinē./Òтац ми je ўмро прòшлē ròдинē. 'Father to-me (my father) died last year.' (Mihailović 1971: 74) Slāvku je òtac ùmro./Славку је òтац ўмро. 'Slavko-DAT father died.'

Kučanda (1985: 38) classifies nouns permitting dative possessors: 'parts of the body, kinship terms ... clothes, things the referent of the dative uses or possesses, nouns expressing part—whole relationship'. As his example shows:

Ràzbio mi je vázu./Разбио ми je вазу. 'He has broken my vase.' this range goes beyond the traditional inalienably possessed nouns. The item with which the possessor phrase is interpreted is commonly a subject or direct object, but can have other functions:

Pồstār mu se pojávio na vrátima./Поштар му се појавио на вратима. 'The postman to-him appeared at door (at his door).'

The possessive dative can mark point of view (empathy): the event is told as if seen by the house owner. The transition to the dative of experiencer is gradual (the 'vase' sentence could be taken as 'He broke the vase "on" me, to my disadvantage').

In the above examples dative clitics, though associated with a noun phrase, occupy their usual position within the sentence. Such clitics can also appear within the possessed phrase.

Pozòvi Mârka i [sèstru mu]/Позòви Мâрка и [сèстру му]. (now usually: i njègovu sèstru/и њèгову сèстру).
'Invite Marko and his sister.'

A possessor can be expressed as a genitive on the possessed phrase:

knjîge Mârka Márkovića/књѝге Мâрка Мáрковића 'books Marko-GEN Marković-GEN (Marko Marković's books)'

Genitive possessors are in almost complete complementary distribution with possessive adjectives in -ov/-ob, -ev/-eb, -in/-ин. If a possessor is definite, singular, human (or animal) and expressed by one word, it forms an adjective:

Mārkove knjīge, Márkovićeve knjīge/Mаркове књйге, Марковићеве књйге 'Marko's books, Marković's books' māčkin rēp/мачкин реп 'the cat's tail'

Compare:

rêp mầčkē/pêп мачке
'the tail of a cat' (possessor not definite)
knjîga stùdenātā/књйга студената
'the book of the students' (not singular)
ime rúžē/йме ру́шё
'the name of the rose' (not human/animal)
rêp mòjē mačkē/pêп мòjē мачкё
'the tail of my cat' (two words)

A departure from adjective/genitive complementarity occurs in instances like:

kîp prèds(j)ednīka/ки̂п прèдс(j)едника 'a statue of the president'

where a definite possessor is known only by reputation or professional role (M. Ivić 1986).

The possessive adjective should be distinguished from adjectives showing various relationships, including possession, but not requiring singularity or definiteness of the underlying noun:

Stùdentskī život je l(ij)ēр./Студентски живот је л(иј)êп. 'Student life is nice.' (song title)

paraphrasable as život stùdenātā/живот студенāтā 'the life of students' and not stùdentov život/студентов живот 'the life of the student'.

Finally possessors can be omitted, if identical with another constituent in the sentence (Mihailović 1971: 75-7). One cannot have a possessive môj/môj 'my' in

Otac mi je umro./Отац ми je умро. 'My father died "on me".'

because it repeats the dative; nor in

Nòga me bòlī./Hòra ме бòлй. 'My leg hurts me.'

because it repeats the accusative object me/Me.

4.10 Quantification

Noun phrases can contain quantifiers telling the number of items expressed by a count noun or the amount of substance expressed by a mass noun. Two syntactic structures exist: adjectival (agreeing) and governmental (the quantifier imposes a form on the noun). In adjectival quantification, the noun bears the case of the noun phrase as a whole; the quantifier agrees with it in case, number and gender, as is usual for adjectives.

brojnē ùčesnīke/бројнē учеснике 'numerous participants' (accusative masculine plural)

The numeral jèdan/jèдан 'one' appears in the adjectival pattern:

jèdan ùčesnīk/jèдан ўчеснйк
'one participant' (nominative masculine singular)
jèdne nòvine/jèдне новине
'one newspaper' (nominative plural feminine on a plurale tantum)

Likewise adjectival in agreement are a set of numerals used with *pluralia* tantum heads: dvðjī/двðjй '2', trðjī/трðjй '3', up to '10':

dvöjē növine/двöjē новине 'two newspapers'

The usual numerals '2' to '4', as in governmental quantification, impose a specific form on the noun and other agreeing words, the 234 (paucal) form (sections 3.1.1-3.1.3); however, elements of agreeing quantification are seen in the fact that dvâ/двâ '2', òba/òбa 'both' are used with masculine and neuter nouns, dvije (dvê)/двйје (две) and òb(j)e/òб(j)e with feminine nouns.

dvå dòbra stùdenta/два дòбра студента 'two good-234 students-234'.

The 234 form does not distinguish case. It can be used as nominative subject or predicate, accusative object, object of any preposition (whatever case the preposition governs) and genitive possessor:

Trî stùdenta su òdsutna./Трй студента су одсутна.

'Three students are absent.'

Pòzvali smo ồba stùdenta./Позвали смо оба студента.

'We invited both students.'

Stànujēm s čètiri stùdenta./Станујём с четири студента.

'I live with four students.' (s/c otherwise demands instrumental)

Nè znām náslov tê trî knjîge./Нè знāм наслов тê три књиге.

'I don't know the title of those three books.' (for genitive possessor)

It fills the role of an oblique case governed by a verb less successfully:

?S(j)ềćām se tâ čètiri stùdenta./С(j)ềћам се та чèтири студента.

'I remember those four students.' (the verb demands genitive)

??Dajēm poklon ta cetiri stùdenta./Дajēм поклон та четири студента.

'I give a gift to those four students.' (indirect object needs dative)

The (rare) morphological oblique-case forms of these numerals (section 3.1.5), when used, accompany the desired case of head nouns according to the agreeing pattern.

The largest group of quantifiers governs genitive on the noun being quantified. These fall into two types. One has the shape of a noun or noun phrase (veĉina/већина 'the majority of, most'; ĉitav niz/чйтав низ 'a whole series of, a number of') and is declinable. It bears the case of the entire noun phrase. External attributive and predicative agreement is made with it rather than with the genitive complement.

Vềlikā većina stùdenātā je stīgla./Вёлика већина студената је стигла. 'Great-NOM SG majority-NOM SG of students-GEN PL has arrived-SG.'

Internal attributive agreement, that is, modifiers of the 'students', will, however, be genitive:

većina dobrih studenātā/већина добрих студената 'the majority of the good-GEN PL students-GEN PL'

The other type of genitive-governing quantifier is indeclinable. Besides items shaped like adverbs: mnogo/мнoro 'much, many', puno/nyho 'a lot of', malo/мало 'few, little; some, a few', it includes numerals from '5' up. Predicate agreement with it is usually the 'default' neuter singular, here -0/-0:

Mnogo vode je proliveno./Много воде је проливено.

'Much water-GEN is spilt.'

Mnögo stùdenātā je stiglo./Много студената је стигло.

'Many students-GEN has arrived.'

Some indeclinable quantifiers have the shape of accusative nouns:

Stötinu stùdenātā je stīglo./Стотину студенāтā je стигло.

'One hundred students ...'

Similarly, tisuću/тйсућу, hiljadu/хильаду '1,000', masu/macy 'a mass of'.

External modifiers of the quantifier-cum-genitive are themselves genitive:

Svìh tîh dèsēt stùdenātā je stìglo./Свих тих дёсēт студенāтā je стигло.

'All-GEN PL these-GEN PL ten students has arrived.'

Pròšlo je dồbrīh pêt sátī./Прошло је добрих пет сати.

'Passed has good-GEN PL five hours-GEN PL (a good five hours passed).'

Like 234 forms, indeclinable quantifiers with genitive are usable in environments requiring various cases:

Stànujēm s masu studenata./Стануjēм с масу студената.

'I live with a lot of students.' (the preposition s/c calls for instrumental)

Nè znām náslov tíh dèsēt knjigā./Нè знāм наслов тих дёсēт књигā.

'I don't know the title of those ten books.' (genitive possessor)

S(j)ềćām se tîn pêt stùdenātā./С(j)ềћāм се тих пёт студената.

'I remember those five students.' (verb requires genitive)
??Dājēm pöklon òvīh četrdèsēt stùdenātā./Даjēм поклон овях четрдèсēт студената.

'I give a gift to these forty students.' (dative indirect object)

Numerals can be compounded, as trî hìljade (tîsuće) pêtstō dvádesēt sèdam/трй хйљаде (тйсуће) пётстō два́десēт сèдам '3527'. The last word decides the construction used, so dvádesēt jèdan/два́десēт jèдaн '21' has adjectival agreement between jèdan/jèдан and a singular head noun, pedèsēt dva/педèсēт два '52' demands 234 forms, whereas '3527' has genitive plural throughout the phrase and default neuter predicative agreement, like sèdam/сèдам '7'.

The 'collective' numerals dvoje/двоje, troje/троje, četvero (četvoro)/четверо (четворо), petero (petoro)/петеро (петоро), ... up to '9', are of the second genitive-taking type. (Grammars cite oblique case forms, but in practice they appear indeclinable.) They are used with mixed-sex groups of people and obligatorily with d(j)eca/д(j)eua 'children':

```
tröje d(j)ècē/троje д(j)èцē
'three children'
tröje stùdenātā/троje студенāтā; trī stùdenta/три студента
'three students (mixed sexes); three students (not necessarily mixed sexes)'
```

Another set of 'collectives' are numerals in -ica/-ица: dvòjica/двòјица, tròjica/трòјица, četvòrica/четвòрица, petòrica/петòрица (to '9') and nekolicìna/неколицѝна 'a few'. These signify groups of men, are feminine singular nouns in declension and behave like veĉina/већѝна within the noun phrase:

```
svà petòrica dòbrīh stùdenātā/сва петòрица дòбрйх стỳденāтā 
'all-F NOM SG five good-GEN PL students-GEN PL'
```

Predicate agreement with -ica/-ица phrases is plural on verbs; participles may take -a/-a or the semantically natural masculine plural -i/-и.

Genitive personal pronoun heads nas/hac 'us', vas/bac 'you', njîh/ьйх 'them' combine with numerals above '1':

```
nâs dvòjica/нас двòjица, nas dvòje/нас двòje, nas dvìje (dvê)/нас двйје (двê) 'we two' (male-male, male-female, female-female) njih nekolicìna/них неколицина, njih nèkoliko/них нёколико 'several men', 'several of them (mixed or female)'
```

5 Lexis

5.1 General composition of the word-stock

Fed by varied dialects, contacts (section 5.2) and more than one standard, the Serbo-Croat vocabulary is large. Academic dictionaries run to many volumes (JAZU 1880-1976, 1-23; CAHY/SANU 1959-, 1-14+; MC-MX/MS-MH 1967-76, 1-6). Unfortunately, we possess no full ety-

mological dictionary. Skok (1971-4), though abundant in rare and dialectal words, has many lacunae.

Statistical analyses of the vocabulary are also lacking. Word-origin figures might be computed for a dictionary or for running text. We have counted high-frequency vocabulary. Among the first hundred words of a lemmatized frequency count (Lukić 1983) of schoolchildren's writings in Serbia, one is foreign: škôla/шκοπα 'school' (Italian from Greek). Two are nursery words of indeterminate origin (māma/māma 'mummy', tāta/τὰτα 'daddy'); ninety-seven are inherited from Proto-Slavonic. The next hundred include two Church Slavonicisms: príčati/πράчατα 'to tell' from pritъča 'parable' and vàzdūh/βàʒŋŷx 'air' from νъzduxъ; and a non-Slavonic item: sôba/côбa 'a room' (Turkish or Hungarian). In the top 500 lexemes, five (1.0 per cent) are from Church Slavonic, six or seven (1.2-1.4 per cent) have proximate sources in Turkish (one each originated in Persian, Arabic and Greek). Đâk/ħâk 'pupil' and lìvada/πὰβαβα 'meadow' are Greek, māj/māj 'May' and mìnūt/μὰμŷτ 'a minute' Latin. French provides autóbus/ayτόбyc and partìzān/παρτὰзāh, English pārk/πὰρκ, Hungarian lòpta/πὸπτα 'ball' and German pūška/πỳшκα 'gun' (originally Ancient Greek). Some origins are less certain; príroda/πράρομα may be Czech or Church Slavonic. Our sample also contains škòlskī/шκὸπκӣ, derived from škòla/шκὸπα, and ìzlēt/йзπēτ 'excursion' and izglédati/изгле́дати 'to appear', calques from German Ausflug, aussehen.

P. Ivić (Brozović and Ivić 1988: 43–4) enumerates words native in origin but restricted to South Slavonic or to Serbo-Croat. Of the first, our sample contains grána/гра́на 'branch', šůma/шу̀ма 'forest', kůća/кућа 'house', gồdina/го̀дина meaning 'year'; the second group includes jềr/jềp 'for (conjunction)' < *ježe, pròl(j)eće/пролеће (прољеће) 'spring', ráditi/ра́дити 'to work, do', rād/ра́д 'labour, work', kìša/киша 'rain', báciti/ба́цити 'to throw', trážiti/тра́жити 'to search for', dògađāj/до̀гађа́ј 'event'. Doživljāj/до̀живља́ј 'an experience', a later coinage, is shared with Slovene. Some unexpected meanings have developed within Serbo-Croat: among our 500, we find vòl(j)eti/во̀лети (во̀льети) 'to love', older 'to prefer'; jâk/jâk 'strong' (Proto-Slavonic *jakъ 'what kind of'), pòsao/пòcao, genitive pòsla/пòсла 'work, task' (*posъlъ 'person who is sent'); čúvati/чу́вати 'keep' from the root *čuj- 'to perceive' seen in čùti/чу̀ти 'to hear'; vrlo/вр̀ло 'very' from 'virtuously'.

5.2 Patterns of borrowing

The best sketch is Brozović and Ivić (1988), followed closely here.

Greek loans attest the medieval Serbian state's Byzantine contacts. Some, as pàtos/патос 'floor', still characterize the Serbian standard; others like mirīs/мирис 'smell' occur in all variants. Many religious terms entered Serbian Orthodox terminology through Church Slavonic: idol/

ѝдол 'idol', ìguman/ѝгуман 'abbot'.

Orthodox religious and abstract vocabulary, if not Greek, is Church Slavonic, often calqued from Greek: prórok/про́рок 'prophet' translating Greek prophétēs, ùčenīk/ўченйк 'disciple', later 'pupil', sáv(ij)ēst/са́в(иј)ēct 'conscience', svèštenīk/свештенйк 'priest'. As Ivić (Brozović and Ivić 1988: 44) observes, Croat vocabulary (presented here in Latinica) shares some of these religious Grecisms and Slavonicisms (idol, prórok, üčenīk), thanks to the Glagolitic writers' wide use of Church Slavonic, and also has many Latinisms (brevijār 'breviary') and domestic coinages (svèćenīk 'priest'). Òpat 'abbot', a Latin borrowing from Greek, probably came through Old Bavarian (German).

Romance words have been entering since medieval times, mostly near the coast. Some are Dalmatian Romance (dùpīn/дỳпйн 'dolphin'), many Italian (especially Venetian: sìgūran/сйгўран 'sure').

Hungarian loans have entered Kajkavian, and some have spread further: kîp/кип 'statue', vároš/ва́рош 'town'. Similarly with Germanisms: kühinja/кухиња 'kitchen', škoda/шкода 'damage'.

Turkish influences on Serbo-Croat begin in the fourteenth century. Some words still mark Muslim milieus, as sèvdāh/сèвдāх 'melancholy, love', sòkāk/сòкāк 'alley', whereas others join the general vocabulary: bàš/бàш 'precisely', džèzva/цèзва 'Turkish coffee pot', ćòrsokāk/hòpcokāk 'blind alley'. Škaljić's (1966) dictionary attests 8,742 Turkisms, many originally Arabic or Persian.

Turkisms and a later layer of Germanisms associated with the Hapsburg monarchy have frequently provoked searches for domestic replacements. Such purism, traditional among Croats, often generates stylistic distinctions: the loan (Turkish badàvā/бадàвā 'for free', German šnìcla/шницла 'cutlet', paradājz/парадāj3 'tomato', the last with exceptional placement of falling accent) is colloquial and its replacement (bèsplatno/бèсплатно, òdrezak/òдрезак, rājčica/раjчица based on rāj/раj 'paradise') literary.

The nineteenth-century Illyrian movement Croatianized many words from Czech, which had had several decades of experience in finding equivalents for German and general European items: okólnōst 'circumstance', náslov 'title', prégled 'survey' (from Czech přehled by 'undoing' Czech palatalization of *r and spirantization of *g). Some then spread to Serbia: Околност, наслов, претлед.

Numerous Greco-Latin words enter during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries: literatúra/литерату́ра, interesantan/интересантан, etimològija/етимолòгиja, pòēzija/пòēзиja. All occur in French, German or other languages; we can speak of a common European 'pool' which various languages tapped. Native-based substitutes for these were sought, sometimes successfully: knjižévnōst/књиже́внōст for 'literature', p(j)èsnīštvo/п(j)èснӣштво for 'poetry'. Other proposals failed:

korenoslovlje/коренословље for 'etymology'. Frequently substitutes are accepted in the Croat standard while internationalisms prevail elsewhere: brzojāv, telegram/телеграм; zemljopīs, geografija/географија.
English loan-words earlier trickled in through German or French, occa-

English loan-words earlier trickled in through German or French, occasionally Russian. Since the Second World War contacts with Britain and America make English the leading source of loans. Filipović (1990) analyses the adaptation of over 5,500 items. Words with Greco-Latin elements behave as members of the European pool: prohibition > prohibícija/прохибиција, infrastructure > infrastruktúra/инфраструкту́ра. Other words take forms that accord with English spelling or pronunciation, in either event presenting consonant or vowel combinations untypical for Serbo-Croat: pacemaker > pejsmèjker/пејсмèjkep (also written pace-maker), flower power > flower power / flàuer pàuer / флауер пауер.

5.3 Incorporation of borrowings

Almost every borrowed noun declines in Serbo-Croat. Only nouns which end in sounds other than a and denote women remain indeclinable: Dolores/Долорес (name), lédi/ле́ди 'lady' (our exposition follows P. Ivič/П. Ивич 1972 closely). Nouns in final -a join the a-declension and become feminine: korída/кори́да 'corrida', with stem as seen in genitive koríd-ē/кори́д-ē; Atlanta/Атланта, Atlant-ē/Атлант-ē (city). But -a nouns denoting human males or (sometimes) animals are a-declension masculines: Kaunda/Kayhda (surname), gorìla/горѝла 'gorilla'.

Nouns in final consonant, -o or -e join the masculine o-declension.

Nouns in final consonant, -o or -e join the masculine o-declension. Their -o or -e acts as an ending, not part of the stem: kùplung/куплунг 'automobile clutch' (German), genitive kùplung-а/куплунг-а; àuto/àyто 'car', àut-a/àyт-a; finále/фина́ле 'finale', finál-a/фина́л-а. Nouns in final -i, -u or any long vowel include these segments in their stem: tábu/та́бу 'taboo', tábu-a/та́бу-a; bìfē/бѝфē 'bar, snack bar', bifè-a/бифè-a; Màrā/Màpā 'Marat (French revolutionary)', Marà-a/Mapà-a. J is intercalated between -i/-и, -ī/-й and endings: hðbi/хðби 'hobby', hðbi-j-a/хðби-j-a; žìrī/жѝрй 'jury', žirì-j-a/жирѝ-j-a.

Sub-regularities characterize nouns of particular origins. Turkish forms in -i/ü/ı/u become a-declension nouns in -ija/-иja, masculine for human males, otherwise feminine: sanatlı > zanàtlija/занатлија (M) 'craftsman', köprü > ćùprija/ħŷприја (F) 'bridge'. Europeanisms containing Latin -tio (English -tion) take the form -cija/-ција, a-declension (F): ambīcija/амбиција, degradácija/деграда́ција.

Adjectives usually add a Serbo-Croat adjectival suffix: àbdomināl-nī/àбдоминāл-нй, nostalgic > nostalgič-an/носталгич-ан, or replace foreign suffixes with native ones: atomic > àtōm-skī/àтōм-скй. The resulting forms decline, and are compared if semantically justified: nostalgìčnijī/носталгѝчнијй, najnostalgìčnijī/наjносталгѝчнијй 'more, most nostalgic'. Some foreign adjectives however get no suffix, remaining

indeclinable: bềž hàljina/бềж ха̀љина 'a beige dress', njìhova ìgra je fêr/ нихова йгра je фер 'their playing is sportsmanlike'. They compare periphrastically, if at all: vìšē fer/више фер 'fairer', najvišē fer/највише фер 'fairest'.

Over 2,000 foreign verbs (Matešić 1965–7) add suffixes -íra-ti/-и́ра-ти, -ova-ti/-ова-ти ог -isa-ti/-иса-ти (present stems -ira-/-ира-, -uj-e-/-уj-e-, -iš-e-/-иш-е-): erodírati/ероди́рати 'to erode', paràlizovati/пара̀лизовати 'to paralyse', elimìnisati/елимѝнисати 'to eliminate'. Doublets exist, with -irati favoured in the Croat standard (paralizirati, eliminirati). Almost all such verbs are bi-aspectual; but pairs with prefixed perfectives appear: provocírati/провоци́рати, is-/ис- 'to provoke', komentírati/коменти́рати, pro-/про- 'to comment (on)'.

Loan verbs can also receive -a-ti-/-a-ти (present -a-/-a-) and rarely -nu-ti/-ну-ти (present -ne-/-не-) without intervening suffix (Filipović 1990): stàrtati/стàртати 'to start (a race)' perfective; bildati/билдати 'to engage in body-building' imperfective; blefnuti/блефнути 'to bluff' perfective. Prefixed perfectives can be formed: mìksati/мѝксати 'to mix' imperfective, izmìksati/измѝксати perfective.

5.4 Lexical fields

5.4.1 Colour terms

1 white

These are adjectives, cited here in masculine singular nominative, with feminines added where necessary to show the stem.

ijekavski bijel/бијел, ekavski beo/бео, béla/бела

_		njema remi enjem enjem, enner en ere, ere, erem erem
2	black	cřn/цр̂н (but note cr̂nō vínō/цр̂нō ви́нō 'red wine')
3	red	crven/црвен, also rumen/румен 'ruddy, as of face (poetic)'
4	green	zèlen/зèлен
5	yellow	žût/жŷт
6	blue	plâv/плâв 'blue, also blond (of hair)', also mòdar/модар, mòdra/модра 'blue, dark blue (frequently poetic)'
7	brown	smeđ/смeh, braon (braun)/браон (браун) indeclinable, mrk/мрк 'dark brown, dark'
8	purple	ljùbičast/љубичаст 'violet'
9	pink	růžičast/ружичаст, róza/роза indeclinable
10	orange	nàrānčast, nàrāndžast/нàрāнчаст, нàрāнџаст
11	grey	sîv/си̂в; s(ij)êd/c(иj)êд 'grey (of hair)'

The main entries under 1-6 and 11 are clearly basic (Berlin and Kay 1969: 6), being monolexemic, combinable with many objects, salient and not included under other terms. All occurred over a hundred times in V. Lukić's (1983) 1.5 million words. The choice of basic term for 'brown' is

less obvious: mřk/мрк has frequency 85 (some of which must have meant 'dark, gloomy'), směď/смěħ 42 and brãon/брãон 32, but brãon/брãон is probably least limited in combinability. Ljübičast/љубичаст, růžičast/ружичаст and nàrānčast/нàрāнџаст, though derived from flowers and fruits (ljübi(či)ca/љуби(чи)ца 'a violet', rúža/ружа 'a rose', nàrānča/нàрāнча, nàrāndža/нàрāнџа 'an orange'), have no serious competition in the senses of colours 8 to 10. Ljübičast/љубичаст and růžičast/ружичаст are well established, occurring 21 and 20 times in Lukić. Nàrānčast/нàрāнџаст is strikingly infrequent (6), appearing only after the fourth year of school. Even for adults its low perceived salience makes its basicness doubtful.

5.4.2 Body parts

Genitive singulars are given where needed; irregular plurals are also cited.

head gláva/гла́ва eye ðko/ðко

eyes ðči/ду feminine i-declension, genitive дсіjū/ду nose nôs/нос, plural nosovi (nosevi)/носови (носеви)

ear who/yxo; Serbian standard also wvo/yBo

ears ùši/уши feminine i-declension, genitive ùšijū/ушиjу

mouth ústa/ýcTa neuter plurale tantum

hair kòsa/кòca (all the hair on the head); dlaka/длака 'a

hair; hair(s) growing on the body'

neck vrât/врат, also šija/шйја

arm/hand rúka/ру́ка

hand šāka/шака (considered part of rúka/pýкa; also 'fist') finger prst/прст, plural prsti/прсти, genitive prstī (prstijū)/

прсти (прстију); prst na rúci/прст на руци

thumb pålac/палац, pálca/палца

leg/foot nòga/нòга

foot stòpalo/стòпало (considered part of nòga/нòга)

toe prst/прст, prst na nòzi/прст на нòзи, nòžnī prst/

ножни прст

big toe pålac (na nòzi)/палац (на нòзи), nòžnī pålac/нòжнū

палац

chest přsa/прса neuter plural (also 'breast'); grûdi/гру́ди

feminine i-declension plural (also 'breast'), singular rare

heart srce/cpце

5.4.3 Kinship terms

mother mājka/маjка, māti/мати (see section 3.1.2) father òtac/òтац, genitive òca/òца, plural òčevi/òчеви

sèstra/cèctpa. Can include 'female cousin', but sister ròđenā/рòђенā ('born') sèstra/сèстра is only 'sister'. brat/opar, plural braca/opaha (declined as feminine brother singular a-declension; attributive agreement accordingly; neuter plural predicative agreement). Can include 'male cousin', but ròđenī brat/pòħeнй брат is only 'brother'. tètka/тèтка 'father's sister, mother's sister'; aunt strîna/стрина 'father's brother's wife'; ûjna/vjна 'mother's brother's wife' stric/стриц, plural stríčevi/стричеви 'father's uncle brother': ùjāk/ỳjāκ 'mother's brother'; tétak/тéтак, genitive tétka/тéтка, or téča/тéча 'husband of tetka/Tetka' nećakinja/нећакиња, nèćaka/нèћака, also sestrična/ niece сестрична 'sister's daughter'; sinòvica/синовица, bratič(i)na/братич(и)на, nećakinja/нећакиња 'brother's daughter' nèćāk/нèћāк, also sèstrić/сèстрић 'sister's son'; nephew bratić/братић, sinóvac/синовац. něćak/Hěhak 'brother's son' sèstra/cècтра; ròdaka/pòђака, rodakinja/рођакиња cousin (female) 'relative': sèstra od tètke/cèстра од тèтке 'daughter of one's tètka/тèтка': sèstra od stríca/сèстра од стрица 'daughter of one's stric/стриц'; sèstra od ùjāka/cèстра од уjāка 'daughter of one's ùjāk/ÿjāκ' brat/σpaτ; rođak/pohaκ 'relative'; cousin (male) brat od tetke/брат од тетке 'son of one's tetka/ тетка': brat od strica/брат од стрица 'son of one's stric/ стриц'; brat od ujaka/брат од vjaka 'son of one's ujak/vjak' (Speakers disagree about subclassifications of nieces, nephews and cousins.) grandmother bàba/δàбa, báka/бáκa (diminutive, but frequent) d(j)ed/д(j)eд, ekavski also deda/дела grandfather wife žèna/жèна (also 'woman'); sùpruga/cỳпруга ('spouse') husband mûž/мŷж (not usually 'man'); sùprug/cỳпруг ('spouse')

daughter son

(k)ćérka/(κ)ħépκa, kćî/κħû (section 3.1.2) sin/cûh.

6 Dialects

Serbo-Croat speakers, conscious of dialect divisions, identify themselves as kájkavci/κάjκαβμα, čákavci/μάκαβμα or štókavci/шτόκαβμα and according to their reflex of *jat'* (section 2.1) as ékavci/έκαβμα, (i)jékavci/(μ)jéκαβμα or íkavci/μκαβμα. The main divisions, Kajkavian, Čakavian and Štokavian, are named after their words for 'what': kāj < *kъjь (dialect forms use Latin transcription), čã < *čь and štô or štã < *čь-to (a in štã is of later development). The Torlak (Prizren-Timok) group, sometimes termed transitional to Macedonian and Bulgarian (P. Ivić 1958), is generally, as here, included in Štokavian (Brozović and Ivić 1988). The *jat'* reflex is important for subdividing the three groups. The most recent survey, with detailed maps, is in Brozović and Ivić 1988; P. Ivić (1981) phonologically describes seventy-seven localities with historical summaries.

Kajkavian is spoken in north-west Croatia (see map 7.1). Features shared with adjacent Slovene, besides kaj, include reflexes \check{c} , j from Proto-Slavonic tj, dj: $no\check{c}$ 'night', meja 'boundary' (in some places $med\check{z}a$) and devoicing of final obstruents: grat from grad 'town'. Final and preconsonantal l remains: bil 'was', Štokavian bio. Most vowel systems have more than five members and long-short contrasts. The reflex of *e and *e is often low: sælo < *selo 'village', zæt < *zetb 'brother-in-law', unlike that of jat' as in $leto < *l\check{e}to$ 'year', which is often joined by strong *b/*b: pes < pbsb 'dog'. *l or *o or both may give closed o as in *vlkb > vok 'wolf', $*mo\check{z}b > mo\check{s}$ 'man'.

In morphology, nouns preserve old distinctions in the plural cases: nominative masculine gradi, feminine $\check{z}ene$; genitive gradof, $\check{z}en$; dative gradom, $\check{z}enam$; instrumental gradi, $\check{z}enami$; locative gradeh, $\check{z}enah$. Genitive plural $-\bar{a}$ and the Štokavian -ov-/-ev- long plural are lacking. The vocative is lost. Verbs have lost aorist and imperfect. The future, as in Slovene, consists of an auxiliary from * $b\rho d\rho$ plus l-participle: $bom\ delal$ (feminine delala) 'I'll work'.

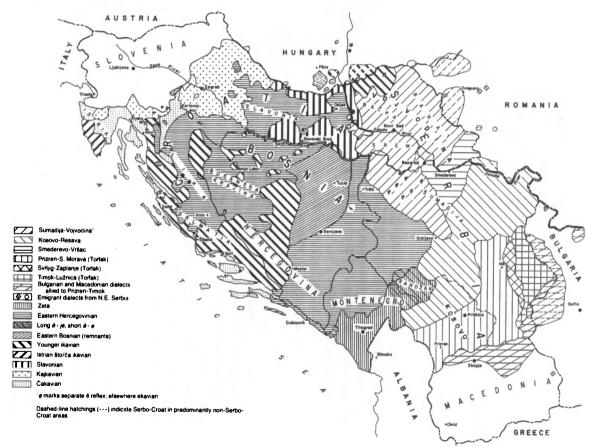
Bases for subclassification are vocalism and accentuation. Kajkavian dialects started from a system with a single accent on short vowels but falling-rising (circumflex-neoacute) contrasts on longs. The dialects then undergo shifts and neutralizations (Brozović and Ivić 1988).

Kajkavian was a medium of literature until the Illyrian movement. Poets

Kajkavian was a medium of literature until the Illyrian movement. Poets and songwriters continue using it to good effect. The Zagreb city substandard is a koinéized Kajkavian (five vowels, no length and accent contrasts).

Čakavian occurs on the north and central Croatian coast, Istria and the Adriatic islands. An island area south-west of Karlovac is separated from

Map 7.1 Serbo-Croat Dialects



the coast by later Štokavian settlements. The Burgenland Croats in eastern Austria speak Čakavian and use a Čakavian-based written form.

Defining characteristics include interrogative ča, genitive česa (some localities lose $\check{c}a$, but maintain compounds like $za\check{c} < *za \check{c}b$). For Proto-Slavonic tj Čakavian has a variety of \acute{c} transcribed [t'], for dj it has j: not', meja. In sporadic lexemes *e, which otherwise becomes e, yields a after palatal: *językz, *počęti > jazik (often metathesized: zajik) 'tongue', počati to begin'. The auxiliary for the conditional is bin, bis ... from Proto-Slavonic *bimb, whereas Serbo-Croat generally has its auxiliary from *byxb. Plural noun endings are mainly the old ones as in Kajkavian. The vocative is lost. Aorist and imperfect are mostly lost. The future has auxiliary verb ću and infinitive, as in Štokavian.

Vowel systems mostly have five short vowels and five long; diphthongizations and rounding of long a are frequent. Section 2.1 treats jat' reflexes. Word-final *l* may drop, remain or yield -a, but does not change to -o; bi, bil, bija.

A later feature, final m changing to n in endings: govorim > govorin 'I speak', nogom > nogon 'foot (INST SG)', covers coastal Čakavian and Stokavian areas. Root-final m is unaffected: dim 'smoke'. Many localities are 'cakavian', merging č and c, š and s, z and ž. Many coastal dialects change lj to j: jubav 'love'.

Čakavian dialects go back to either of two accentual systems, each having a single accent on short vowels and distinguishing rising neoacute from falling (neo)circumflex on longs. But the sources of the neoacute and neocircumflex are different. There was a rich Renaissance literature in Čakavian. Lyric poetry is still composed; popular song festivals flourish.

Štokavian, the most widespread group, covers Serbia, Bosnia-Hercegovina, Montenegro and much of Croatia. Since the 1400s refugees from Turkish rule have carried it north and west, into earlier Kajkavian and Čakavian territory. The pre-migration landscape presumably had smooth transitions to Čakavian and Kajkavian, but the present map shows abrupt boundaries and islands of older phenomena amid large homogeneous areas.

Features covering most or all of Štokavian include (closely following Brozović and Ivić 1988): interrogative što or šta, the long plural in ov/ev, preservation of the aorist, final l becoming o, the change of jd to d (*do-jbdešb > dođeš 'you come') and the new ending $-\bar{a}$ for o-declension and adeclension genitive plurals. Most of the area has št, žd for older šć, žđ (section 2.2), but some 'šćakavian' western dialects preserve šć, žđ. Shared with part of Kajkavian is the change of *dj to an affricate đ (Kajkavian dž), opposed to Čakavian j. Shared with part of Čakavian are the changes $\check{c}r > cr(\check{c}rn > crn \text{ 'black'}), vb/vb > u$ before consonant (prefix and preposition u 'in', udovica < *vbdova 'widow') and metathesis vs-> sv- in the root 'all'. Two 'neo-Štokavian' innovations characterizing central Štokavian, as

against the periphery, are neutralization of plural oblique cases (dative-instrumental-locative have endings -ima, -ama borrowed from the dual) and new (shifted) accentuation. The 'oldest' Štokavian systems resembled Čakavian, with one accent on short vowels (õko, sestrā, glāvā, also bāba from Proto-Slavonic acute) but two, rising and falling, distinguished on longs (rising sūša 'drought', falling mēso 'meat'). A newer system neutralizes the long accents: sūša, mēso. Finally, the neo-Štokavian accent shift creates new rising accents on the syllable preceding non-initial accents: sestrā > sèstra with new short rising, glāvā > gláva with new rising on a long. The jat' reflex splits Štokavian dialects into ekavian, (i)jekavian and

The jat' reflex splits Stokavian dialects into ekavian, (i)jekavian and ikavian. Combining these notions with central/peripheral distinctions permits the establishing of subdialects.

Eastern Hercegovinian, (i)jekavian with new accents and neutralized plurals, is the most widespread type, carried far from its home by migrations. As Karadžić's native dialect, it formed the basis for standard Serbo-Croat.

The Šumadija-Vojvodina type, as its name implies, occupies Serbia's northern province and part of central Serbia south-west of Beograd. It is ekavian (the standard of Serbia inherits ekavism from this type), except for part of Sumadija with [e] (section 2.1). Its accents are new, its plural endings largely new. Unaccented syllables show a tendency to shorten long vowels which becomes stronger in east and south Serbia.

Younger Ikavian, lying between Eastern Hercegovinian and Čakavian, has mostly new accentuation and mostly neutralized plural cases. Parts of the area are šćakavian and share other features with Čakavian.

The Zeta-Lovéen (Zeta-South Sandžak) group occupies southern Montenegro and adjoining areas of Serbia. The accent neutralizes the oldest distinction on long vowels, but is largely unshifted. The plural syncretizes dative and insrumental, but joins locative with genitive. Jat' reflexes are mostly (i)jekavian, with the short version, je, causing extensive changes in preceding consonants. Some areas have ϑ or \ddot{a} for strong $*_{\mathcal{D}}/_{\mathcal{D}}$.

East and north of it is the Kosovo-Resava type. Accents and plurals resemble Zeta-Lovćen. *Jat'* development is consistently ekavian, without *i* reflexes before *j* (section 2.1). Lengths in post-accentual syllables shorten. Between Kosovo-Resava and Šumadija-Vojvodina lies the Smederevo-

Between Kosovo-Resava and Šumadija-Vojvodina lies the Smederevo-Vršac ekavian type. The accent is partly (and optionally) shifted. Plural case neutralization agrees with Šumadija-Vojvodina.

The Slavonian dialect in north-eastern Croatia shows a mixture of jat' reflexes. Plural cases neutralize only partially. Many localities preserve old place of accent and old rising and falling. The neo-Štokavian long rising is encroaching on Slavonian, yielding three long-vowel accent contours; Lehiste and Ivić (1986) provide measurements.

Eastern Bosnian, jekavian and šćakavian, has partly old accentuation with traces of falling-rising distinctions, but influence of neo-Štokavian-

speaking migrants has been heavy. Plural cases neutralize.

South of Kosovo-Resava is Prizren-Timok. Ekavski, with unshifted accent position but neutralized length contrasts, these dialects have sixvowel systems, showing \mathfrak{d} for strong $\mathfrak{T}_b/\mathfrak{d}$. Final l becomes a or remains: bija, bil. Of all Serbo-Croat dialects these are most affected by linguistic Balkanisms: apart from the vocative, the case system shrinks to nominative and a generalized oblique, sometimes with a separate dative. However, the aorist and imperfect tenses are vigorous. Clitic doubling of objects is widespread, as are postposed demonstratives used as definite articles; both are features shared with Macedonian.

References

- Babić, Stjepan (1986) Tvorba riječi u hrvatskom književnom jeziku: Nacrt za gramatiku, Zagreb: Jugoslavenska akademija znanosti i umjetnosti, Globus.
- Berlin, Brent and Paul Kay (1969) Basic Color Terms: their Universality and Evolution, Berkeley and Los Angeles: University of California Press.
- Browne, Wayles (1976) 'Two Wh-fronting rules in Serbo-Croatian', *Južnoslovenski* filolog 32: 196-204.
- ——— (1986) Relative Clauses in Serbo-Croatian in Comparison with English (The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian-English Contrastive Project, New Studies 4), Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.
- (1987) 'Classification of subordinate clauses in a grammar of Serbo-Croatian for foreign users', The Zagreb English-Serbo-Croatian Contrastive Project, Contrastive Analysis of English and Serbo-Croatian 3: 165-91, Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.
- Browne, Wayles and James D. McCawley (1965) 'Srpskohrvatski akcenat', Zbornik za filologiju i lingvistiku 8: 147-51, reprinted as 'Serbo-Croatian accent' in E.C. Fudge (ed.) (1973), Phonology: Selected Readings, Harmondsworth: Penguin, 330-5.
- Brozović, Dalibor (1973) 'O ortoepskoj vrijednosti dugoga i produženog ijekavskog jata', *Jezik* 20: 65-74, 106-18, 142-9.
- Brozović, Dalibor and Pavle Ivić (1988) Jezik srpskohrvatski/hrvatskosrpski, hrvatski ili srpski. Izvadak iz II izdanja Enciklopedije Jugoslavije, Zagreb: Jugoslavenski leksikografski zavod.
- Corbett, Greville G. (1983) Hierarchies, Targets and Controllers: Agreement Patterns in Slavic, London: Croom Helm.
- Filipović, Rudolf (ed.) (1975) The Zagreb English-Serbo-Croatian Contrastive Project, Contrastive Analysis of English and Serbo-Croatian, vol. 1, Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.
- (1990) Anglicizmi u hrvatskom ili srpskom jeziku: porijeklo razvoj značenje, Zagreb: JAZU, Školska knjiga.
- Ivić, Milka (1983) Lingvistički ogledi, Belgrade: Prosveta.
- —— (1986) 'On referential strategies: genitivization vs. adjectivization in Serbo-Croatian', *Linguistische Arbeitsberichte* (Leipzig) 54/5: 23-7.
- Ivić, Pavle (1958) Die serbokroatischen Dialekte: ihre Struktur und Entwicklung, vol. 1: Allgemeines und die štokavische Dialektgruppe, The Hague: Mouton.
- —— (ed.) (1981) Fonološki opisi srpskohrvatskih/hrvatskosrpskih, slovenačkih i makedonskih govora obuhvaćenih opšteslovenskim lingvističkim atlasom = Akademija nauka i umjetnosti Bosne i Hercegovine, Posebna izdanja, knjiga LV,

Odjeljenje društvenih nauka, knjiga 9, Sarajevo: ANUBIH.

JAZU (Jugoslavenska akademija znanosti i umjetnosti) (1880-1976) Rječnik hrvatskoga ili srpskoga jezika 1-23, Zagreb: JAZU.

Kučanda, Dubravko (1985) 'Some thoughts on the dative of possession', Zbornik Pedagoškog fakulteta (humanističke i društvene znanosti) 1: 37-54, Osijek.

Lehiste, Ilse and Pavle Ivić (1986) Word and Sentence Prosody in Serbocroatian. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Lukić, Vera (1983) Dečji frekvencijski rečnik, Belgrade: Prosveta.

Matešić, Josip (1965-7) Rückläufiges Wörterbuch des Serbokroatischen (Lieferung 1-4 = Osteuropastudien der Hochschulen des Landes Hessen, V, Giessener Beiträge zur Slavistik, 1) Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz.

Mihailović, Ljiljana (1971) 'Additional notes on noun phrases in the function of subject in English and Serbo-Croatian', The Yugoslav Serbo-Croatian-English

Contrastive Project, Reports 4: 73-84, Zagreb: Institute of Linguistics.

Mihaljević, Milan (1990) 'Upotreba povratnoposvojne zamjenice svoj u hrvatskom ili srpskom jeziku', in Georg Holzer (ed.), Croatica, Slavica, Indoeuropaea (Wiener slavistisches Jahrbuch, Ergänzungsband VIII), 145-56, Vienna: Österreichische Akademie der Wissenschaften, Institut für Slavistik der Universität

Mrazović, Pavica, and Zora Vukadinović (1990) Gramatika srpskohrvatskog jezika za strance, Sremski Karlovci/Novi Sad: Izdavačka knjižara Zorana Stojanovića/ Dobra vest.

Skok, Petar (1971-4) Etimologijski rječnik hrvatskoga ili srpskoga jezika 4 vols, Zagreb: Jugoslavenska akademija znanosti i umjetnosti.

Škaljić, Abdulah (1966) Turcizmi u srpskohrvatskom jeziku, Sarajevo: Svjetlost.

Ивич, П. (1972) «Система падежных окончаний существительных в сербохорватском литературном языке», Русское и славянское языкознание, Москва: Наука, 106-21. = Ивић, П. (1990) «Систем падежних наставака именица у српскохрватском књижевном језику», О језику некадашњем и садашњем, Београд: БИГС-Јединство, 286-309.

Менац, Антица (1978) Падеж прямого дополнения с отрицанием в современном русском и хорватскосербском языках, Petojezični kontrastivni projekt, Hrvatskosrpsko-ruske kontrastivne studije 1, Zagreb: Zavod za

lingvistiku.

МС-МХ (Матица Српска, Матица Хрватска) (1967–76) Речник

српскохрватскога књижевног језика 1-6, Нови Сад-Загреб.

Реметић, Слободан (1981) «О незамењеном јату и икавизмима у говорима северозападне Србије», Српски дијалектолошки зборник 27, Београд: Српска академија наука и уметности, Институт за српскохрватски језик.

САНУ (Српска академија наука и уметности) (1959-) Речник српскохрватског књижевног и народног језика 1-14 (as of 1990), Београд.

Станојчић, Живојин, Љубомир Поповић и Стеван Мицић (1989) Савремени српскохрватски језик и култура изражавања, Београд: Завод за уџбенике и наставна средства.