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Farvi: An Iranian Language in Kavir Desert

Farvi, also known as Farrokhi, is an Iranian language spoken in the village of Farvi in Khur district of Kavir desert in central Iran. It shares features with other languages in Kavir region such as Khuri, Irāji and Garmayi. This paper describes synchronic and historical phonology and the grammar of Farvi based on data collected in Farvi village during April 2019. The study of historical phonology and morphological evidence show that though basically Northwestern, Farvi shares some features with Southwestern Iranian languages so that, like Kurdish and Balochi, it is separated from the other Northwestern Iranian languages. In later changes, Farvi shows some areal features that put it alongside Southeastern languages such as Northern Bashgardi and Balochi.

Keywords: Farvi; Farrokhi; Kavir Desert; Central Languages; Khur; Grammar; Phonology

Introduction

Farvi (locally Farvi/Farvigi) is a variety of Central Iranian languages¹ spoken in Farvi (Persianized Farrokhi), a village in Kavir desert belonging to the Biabanak Rural District, in the Khur and Biabanak County, Isfahan Province, Iran. The village is located some 240 km east of Nāyin and 17 km west of Khur Township, at the geographical location of latitude 33.8423° and longitude 54.9529°. Its population is 3,015, in 668 families at the 2016 census. The main commercial activity in the region is cultivation of palm and grains.

Closely related to Farvi are the languages spoken in Khur and some other villages on the southern border of the central desert (Dasht-e Kavir) such as Khur, Irāj and

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¹I prefer to use “language” for non-official New Iranian languages mostly known as Iranian dialects, instead of the conventional and more common term of “dialect.”

Garma. Farvi and other Khur languages are generally listed as a subgroup of Central Iranian languages,² but historical phonology and some morphological features as presented in this paper show that, despite being basically Northwestern, Farvi shares some features with Southwestern Iranian languages that detach it not only from Central languages but also from other northwestern languages. It also shows further sound changes shared by Kurdish and Balochi which apparently separate them from the rest of the Northwestern languages. In later changes, Farvi shows some areal features that relate it to Northern Bashgardi and Balochi.

Farvi was first commented on in short articles by R. Frye³ and S. Kiā⁴ which only included some Farvi words and sentences. Other data on its lexicon later collected by S. Kiā was provided in a dictionary of sixty-seven Iranian dialects published in Tehran after Kiā's death.⁵ A brief update is provided in Borjjan,⁶ where the article under "Farvi dialect" in the *Encyclopaedia Iranica* contains a short description of the language, but seemingly based on the data previously collected by Kiā and Frye. However, there are some differences between the data collected by the author with those attested in Borjjan's article, which might be due to different references the author used. However, all his data have been examined by the author of the current paper. A more detailed description on Khur languages was given by Borjjan on Khuri.⁷ He gives an outline of some morphological features and then sketches the historical phonology.

The present paper involves a description of phonology and grammar of Farvi, based on the corpus for the current study collected by the author in Farvi during April 2019, with the aim of providing more elaborate description. First attempts at achieving this aim have recently been made by Borjjan. More specifically, this article discusses the phonological and lexical features that Farvi shares with Balochi and Kurdish, and with Southwestern languages to highlight it as a distinct language and distinguish it from central languages. The following language users were consulted: Ahmad Rāji (age fifty-six), Hosein Ra'isi (age thirty-eight), Zeynab Khademi (age fifty-one), Nafise Rāji (age twenty-one), Mohammad Khādemi (age forty-seven), and Ahmad Ra'isi (age twenty-six); all of them are native speakers of Farvi who had been living in Farvi all their lives.

Phonology

Synchronic phonology. The vowel system of Farvi has six short and long vowels /a/, /e/, /o/, /â/, /î/, /û/ and two falling diphthongs: back-falling /ua/ and front-falling /ia/. Yet the quality of vowels may vary in phonetic positions.

²Windfuhr, *Central Dialects*, Classification of the central dialects; Lecoq, "Le dialectes du centre de l'Iran," 314.

³Frye, "Report on a Trip to Iran."

⁴Kiā, "Yāddāšti darbāra-ye guyeš-e Farvigi."

⁵Kiā, *Vāženāma-ye šast-o-haft guyeš-e Irāni*.

⁶Borjjan, "Farvi Dialect."

⁷Borjjan, "The Dialect of Khur."

/a/, a short central vowel corresponding to Pers. /a/: *arg* “saw,” *asse* “bone,” *tag* “bottom, base,” *gazar* “big,” *mazge* “mosque,” *galg* “leaf,” *gīsa* “goat.” There is some variation in articulation of this vowel as [ɛ] and [e], especially in final position: *mehīk* “fish,” *seg/seg* “stone,” *pešt* “back,” *gaččē* “child,” *te* “you,” *fā/fe/fe* “self.” It seems that the final /a/ is generally raised and fronted as [ɛ], but, affected by Persian, the final [ɛ] is switched to [e] in order to coincide with the Persian vowel system. As the second part of the diphthong /ia/, it is also raised as [ɛ]: *bielā* “top, high,” *debiere* “he cuts.” Before /r/, it is centralized as [ə]: *sārā* “house,” *xārā* “spoiled, demolished,” *sāreve* “sneeze.”

/e/ is a short close-mid front unrounded vowel that generally corresponds to Pers. /e/: *emšā* “tonight,” *eškār* “gazelle,” *eštar* “camel,” *berā* “brother,” *kešō* “field” and *pe* “father.” /e/ also coincides with /o/ or /a/ in Persian and most Iranian languages: *mess* “fist,” *derū* “lie” and *je* “woman.” It may also be closed to [i] in the final position: *gešši* “hungry.”

/o/ a short, close-mid back unrounded vowel normally corresponds to /o/ in Persian: *ošnū* “sneeze,” *mošk* “mouse,” *botte* “tree”; but it may also correspond to Pers. /a/ and /ā/: *gormā* “heat,” *kong* “laugh,” *resso* “rope,” *dong* “seed,” *oftā* “sun”; and to Persian /ū/ and /o/: *botte* “tree” (Pers. *būte*) and *pos* “boy” (Pers. *pašar*).

/ā/ is a long open central vowel generally corresponding to Pers. /ā/:⁸ *āyar* “fire,” *fār* “sister,” *nāg* “nose,” *rīvāj* “rhubarb,” *mā* “mother” and *gā* “wind.” It has an allophone as [ā] ([æ:] in IPA) that corresponds to Pers. /ā/ and appears in words that have retained Mlr. *ā*: *gāfe* “sheaf,” *sāv-* “to rub,” *tāve* “pan,” *gā(v)* “cow”⁹ *čerā* “lamp,” *biyāvehon* “they came.”

/ī/ is a long close front vowel corresponding to Pers. /ī/ and /ū/: *tīj* “sharp,” *rīj* “beard,” *kīsg* “haversack,” *zī* “early, quick,” *gīst* “meat,” *rīva* “face,” *kīča* “alley.” In some words, it corresponds to Pers. /a/ and /ā/: *kīm* “few, little” and *gīj* “cotton,” *mīn-* “to stay,” *sīj-* “to build,” *šīm* “dinner.”

/ū/ is a long close back vowel, corresponding to Pers. /ū/: *gūj* “ear,” *dūj* “yesterday,” *lūš* “mud,” *ganū* “wild pistachio”; but in some words with Pers. /ow/: *rūš* “light,” *nū* “new.”

The back-falling diphthong /ua/ historically developed by diphthongization of *ū* and *u* before *h* (cf. below) generally corresponds to Pers. /o/ and /ū/: *duahd* “d,” *suahr* “red,” *muahre* “marble,” *suahd-* “to burn” (but present stem *sūj-*), *kuahnag* “old, worn out” (corresponding to Pers. *kohne* not to Central languages *kana* and the like), *juahn* “stony mortar” (cf. Khuri *john*), *rueje* “fast” and *tuare* “jackal.” This kind of diphthongization is an areal feature and a common phenomenon among some varieties of Northern Bashgardi in the Kerman region, and it seems to be the result of language contact or a common substratum contact.¹⁰

The front-falling diphthong /ia/ that might appear as [iɛ] corresponds with varieties of vowels, but generally with Pers. /ī/: *diar* “late,” *bial* “spade,” *siav* “apple,” *piabrō* “shirt,” *hegiabd-/hegiaj-* “to sift,” *xonokia* “coldness”; but also with /e/

⁸As there is a distinction between *ā* ([ɑ] in IPA and corresponding to Persian conventional *ā*) versus *ā* ([æ:] in IPA which is a long *æ*), I prefer to use *ā* instead of conventional *ā* even for Persian words.

⁹Basically *gā* but with a suffix or enclitic: *gāv*, e.g. *ya gāvī* “a cow.”

¹⁰Cf. Rudbāri (a variety of northern Bashgardi) in southern Kerman: *rieh-/riez-* “to pour” (tr.), *pieš* “before, front,” *sueht-/suez-* “to burn” (tr.), *kueh* “mountain”; see Motallebi, “Rudbāri Dialect,” 35–40.

before /h/: *miahmō* “guest,” *tiabrō* “Tehran,” *giahtar* “better,” *geria* “knot, node”; with /ū/: *riavī* “day,” *raviabd-* “to sell”; with /â/: *riah* “road, path,” *ketiav* “book,” *bielâ* “top, up”; and in one case with /aw/: *kiaj* “shoe” (Central languages *kawš*, Pers. *kafš*).

The consonant system of Farvi is basically similar to that of colloquial Persian with the following exceptions: contrary to Khuri /ž/ in words like *žōnugun* “women,”¹¹ /ž/ is not found in Farvi, and is replaced by /j/: *jenū* “women.” The velar /q/ corresponds to Pers. /q/, appearing as aspirated [q^h] in words with Arabic origin: *q^bevā* “traditional long shirt for men,” *q^bālī* “carpet,” *q^badīmū* “old days,” *čōq^bada* “how much,” but also /q/ may appear as [ɣ] in intervocalic and final postvocalic positions (historically from OIr. intervocalic *k* or *g*): *sīyor* “porcupine” (cf. Balochi *sikun*, Av. *sukurəna-*), *mayas* “fly,” *dūɣ* “yogurt drink.” A notable feature is the retention of the pharyngeal /ħ/ and /ʕ/ in all words of Arabic origin: *sobħat* “talk,” *ħasan* “Hasan” (proper name), *maħmad* “Mohammad” (proper name), *moħazemū* “Mohamad Zamān” (proper name); *sāʕat* “hour, time,” *ʕalī* “Ali” (proper name), *moʕalem* “teacher.”

Some phonological features and processes on other consonants can be noted: final postvocalic *-n* is deleted, and in most cases resulted in nasalization of the former vowel: *je* “woman,” *sije* “needle”; *nū* “bread,” *hezū* “tongue,” *femū* “ourselves,” *tiabrū* “Tehran,” *piabrō* “shirt,” *niabrī* “curse.” When the word is suffixed by an enclitic or inflectional suffix, the final postvocalic *-n* appears: *jenū* “the woman,” *jenū* “women” and *piabrōn-e espī* “white shirt.” The final /rd/ is deleted in past stems when not suffixed: *beka* “he did” vs. *karda bi* “he had done” as in the deletion of *-t* in final post-consonantal position: *algerf* “he picked up,” *befaf* “he slept.” Notable is the use of *-g-* as a hiatus consonant when a word ending in a vowel is suffixed by an enclitic or inflectional suffix: *gačča* “child” > *gaččag-ō* “my child,” *yagīna* “fried egg” > *yagīnag-eī karde* “they have made fried egg,” *fi* “farmland” > *fig-eyū beraviabd* “they sold the farmland,” *hāmela* “pregnant” > *duabd-e hāmelaḡ-ī* “his daughter is pregnant,” *q^bālī* “carpet” > *q^bālīḡ-eī degaft* “they wove carpet,” *riavī* “day” > *riavīḡūn* “days.” The process is also frequently seen in Khuri: *sebi-g-ē* “it is morning.”¹² The common use of *-g-* as intervocalic connector is illustrated by the examples showing that OIr. suffixal *-ka* (Middle Iranian *-g*) has commonly remained as final *-g* in many words like *dāng* “seed,” *āyeng* “mirror” and *tag* “bottom,” but also extended analogically to other words (see also below).

Historical phonology. Northwestern features. From a historical point of view, Farvi demonstrates sound changes shared by Northwestern languages that make it possible to consider them as Northwestern languages. This means that Farvi shares a set of features with other Northwestern languages such as Balochi, Talyshi and Central languages, which are already seen in Parthian (Prth.), whereas Southwestern Iranian languages such as Persian, Lori, Larestani and Bashgardī show different features that are already seen in Middle Persian (MP). According to Korn,¹³ most

¹¹Borjian, “Dialect of Khur,” 81.

¹²Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 81.

¹³Korn, “Balochi and the Concept,” 56.

features of Northwestern Iranian languages are of a type of “shared archaism,” i.e. these languages retain the developments already shown by Parthian. The most important sound changes in Farvi that will be discussed below show that Farvi belongs to the Northwestern group:¹⁴

1. The development of OIr. *s (from PIE palatal velar *k̑) that has established an isogloss in Iranian languages and separates Old Persian from the other Old Iranian languages in the Old period, and separates Northwestern from Southwestern languages is marked by the change of OIr. *s to Farvi s contrary to h in Southwestern languages: *pas* “goat” (OIr. **pasu-*, Av. *pasu-*, cf. MP *pah*, Prth. *pas* “sheep”); *ruāsg* “fox” (OIr. **raupāsa-*, Skt. *lopāśa-*, Prth. *rōbās*); *kas* “small” (OIr. **kasyah-*, Av. *kasu-*, MP *keb*, Prth. *kasādar* “smaller”); *gīsa* “female goat” (PIr. **watsya-*, cf. Skt. *vatsya-*, and its Southwestern form in MP *wahīg* and Bakhtiari *bīg* “kid”); *tias* “awn” from older *tās* (cf. the sound change of *ā* to *ia* in Farvi, see below) <OIr. **dāsa-*, cf. Talyshi *dos*, Gazi *dāse*, as against Boirahmadi and Laristani *daha*.¹⁵
2. The other established isogloss in Iranian languages is the retention of OIr. *z as z in Northwestern languages but its development to d in Southwestern languages. Farvi joins the Northwestern as marked in just two lexical items: *zoni-/zon-* “to know” (OIr. **zan-*, Av. *zan-*, MP *dān-*, Prth. *zān-*); and *zomā* “bridegroom” (OIr. **zāmātar*, Av. *zāmātar-*, MP *dāmād*, Prth. *zāmād*). Borjian shows that Perside /d/, as in *duj* “yesterday” and *dušaw* “last night,” is an isogloss Farvi shows with Southwestern languages, but *duj* is from OIr. **daušā-* (cf. Av. *daošastara-*, Oss. *dyson*, Skt. *doṣā-*), which does not reflect an OIr. *z.
3. The OIr. initial cluster *hw- changed further to w in Prth;¹⁶ it has changed to f in Farvi, which places Farvi alongside Khuri and Sivandi as the only Iranian languages possessing this feature: *fār* “sister” (OIr. **hwahar-*, Khuri *fār*), *fī* “blood” (OIr. **hwahūni-*, Khuri *fīn*, Sivandi *fīn*), *fārd-/fār-* “to eat” (< OIr. **hwar-*, Sivandi *fārdan*); *fašt-* “to sleep” (OIr. **hwafsta-*, Khuri *fāšton*, Sivandi *fetan*); *fē* “self” (Av. *x^vatō*, Khuri *fā*, Sivandi *fey*). As wx- in Prth. was probably pronounced as devoiced w-, we can take *w- as the starting point of departure that seems far away from the Southwestern change to x(w)-, which reveals a Northwestern development.
4. Old Iranian j changes or remains as j in Farvi: *je* “woman” and *pireje* “old woman” (<OIr. **jani-*, Av. *jaini-*) and *tīj* “sharp” (OIr. **taija-*). A similar sound change is found in the development of OIr. intervocalic ċ to Farvi j:

¹⁴Since many of the words are found passim in references, I will reference using page number only when it seems necessary.

¹⁵Pireyko, *Talyško-Russkij Slovar*, 88; Yazdani, *Sāxtār-e dasturi va vāženāme-ye Gazi*, 386; Taheri, *Guyeš-e Lori Boirahmadi*, 218; and Eqtadari, *Farhang-e Lārestani*, 361. For the etymology and New Eastern Iranian cognates see Steblin-Kamenskiy, *Etimologičeskij Slovar Wakhanskogo yazika*, 165.

¹⁶Mackenzie, “Notes on the Transcription of Pahlavi,” 26, note 29.

rueje “fast” from older **rūj* “day” (OIr. **raučab-* “day,” Av. *raočab-*, MP *rōzag*); *sije* “needle” (OIr. **sūčī-*, Skt. *sūct-*); *novāj* “worship, prayer” (cf. MP *namāz*, Prth. *namāž*) as well as the present stem of the verbs: *sūj-* “to burn,” *sīj-* “to make,” *pej-* “cook, bake,” *gaj-* “to uproot,” *hegياج-* “to sift” and (*he*)*rīj-* “to pour.”

5. The change of PIr. **sw-* to *sp* is found in only one word, *espej* “louse” (<OIr. **spiš-*, Av. *spiš-*), as a Northwestern feature. Though it also found in *espī* “white,” it is not necessarily representative of genuine Northwestern features, because similar sound changes are seen in Middle Persian and other Southwestern languages.
6. Despite Central languages, OIr. *f* has remained before *t*, e.g. *gereft-* “take”, like most Central languages, OIr. **fr* has developed to **r* or **br*: *raviabd-/raveš-* “to sell” (<OIr. **fra-waxša-*), *niabri* “curse” (OIr. **ni-frī-nā-*, Pers. *nefrin*), *kuar* “kid” (OIr. **kafra-*), and in the preverb *he-/* preposition *he* (<OIr. **fra-/frā-*), which is retained in verbs such as *hedā-* “to give,” *hegiabd-* “to sift,” *henvešt-* “to sit,” but not in *tarf* “lactic acid, sour extract of yogurt water” (<OIr. **tafra-*, cf. Prth. *tafr*, Khwarezmian *trf*, Sogd. *trp’r’k*).

Southwestern features. The following sound changes show that Farvi, although basically Northwestern, regularly shows some Southwestern features that put it alongside Kurdish and Balochi and distinguishes it from the other Northwestern Iranian languages by a number of phonological developments known to be specifically Persian. A list of the similar features for Khuri has already been given by Borjjan. He shows that at the Old Iranian stage, most isoglosses reveal that Khuri is a non-Perside language, while in the Middle Iranian period Khuri demonstrates significant isoglosses, which, as it possesses features belonging to both groups, categorizes it between Northwestern and Southwestern languages:¹⁷

1. The sound change of OIr. *γ-* and *wy-* to *j-* in Farvi is also seen in Balochi and Kurdish,¹⁸ which can be considered as a Southwestern feature, connecting Farvi to Balochi and Kurdish as the only Northwestern languages having this feature: *jāriḡ* “husband’s brother’s wife” (OIr. **yāθrika-*, Skt. *yātar-*), *jā* “barely”; *juahn* “stony mortar” (<OIr. **yawa-arna-*, Av. *yāvarəna-*; cf. Meymai *yāna*, Jowshaqani *yaban*, Boirahmadi *jeven*), *jōfū* “threshing-floor” (<OIr. **yawa-hwana-*, cf. Boirahmadi *jəxūn*, Abyanai *yōvīn*);¹⁹ *jā* “alone, separate” (as against the Northwestern form in Jowshaqani *yadā*, Prth. *yud*, Av. *yuta-*). Although *jā* “place” may be affected by Persian, but *jāḡā* “bed” can be a genuine Southwestern form as its Northwestern form is seen in some Central languages such as Jowshaqani *yāḡā* “quilt”; *jobū* “nice, beautiful” (OIr. *yuan-*, Av. *yuan* “young,” cf. its Northwestern form in Southern Tati

¹⁷Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 91–2.

¹⁸Korn, *Toward a Historical Grammar of Balochi*, 104, 135; MacKenzie, “Origin of Kurdish,” 73.

¹⁹Cf. Asatrian, “Iranian Notes III,” 322; on the second part cf. Bakhtiari *āxūn*, Meymai *āhūn*.

yōnagā “bull calf, young cow”²⁰) shows another isogloss with Southwestern languages, but can also be a loanword from Persian. Borjian quotes some other examples in Khuri: *āji* “there,” *juš-* “boil” and *jōvion* “to chew.”²¹

2. Both OIr. **rd* and **rz* appear as *l* in Farvi: *hal-* “to let, to allow” (Khuri *hēl-*, <OIr. **hrza-*, against Northwestern form *harz-*, cf. Prth. *harz-*); *esbelūk* “spleen” (OIr. **sprzan-*, Av. *spərəzan-*, against Jowshaqani *sparza*); preverb *al-* “up” as in *alsat-* “to weigh,” *algereft-* “to pick up” (OIr. **rdwa-*, Av. *ərədwa*, Central languages *ār-*), not corresponding to Central languages *var-* as Borjian has proposed.²² Farvi *bialā* “up” and Khuri *bolō* may be Persian loanwords. Although this feature is shown by only three words, these seem to provide evidence of a Southwestern development in Farvi. Borjian notes Khuri *bēl* “spade” as the reflex of OIr. **rd* in Khuri. Despite being a Southwestern feature, it is not a reflex of OIr. **rd*. Farvi *bial* “spade” and Khuri *bēl* are from older **bayl* <OIr. **badra-* by lenition of *-d-* to *-y-*. However, Central languages *bāla* and *bard* “spade” are from OIr. **barda-*.
3. For the sound change OIr. **θr*, Farvi joins Southwestern languages which have *s* contrary to the *r* or *hr* in Northwestern languages: *pos* “boy, son”; *āves* “pregnant” (OIr. **āpuθra-*, cf. Bashgardi *yōpes*, Bakhtiari *awos*, against Central languages *āvira* and the like); *dāsg* “sickle” <OIr. **dāθra-*, Skt. *dātra-* as against Central languages *dār* and the like (cf. Khuri *pos* “son,” *ōves* “pregnant,” although Khuri *ōsio* may be a Persian loanword).
4. For the sound change of OIr. **dw-* to Northwestern *b-* (contrary to Southwestern *d-*), as a Southwestern isogloss, Farvi and Khuri, like MP and other Southwestern languages, demonstrate the development of **dw-* to *d-*:²³ *de* “other, again” (<OIr. **dwitīa-*; MP *did*, Prth. *bid*); *dar* “door” (<OIr. **dwar-*, Av. *duuar-*, MP *dar*).

Later changes. There are some innovative sound changes that have occurred in Farvi, some of which are shared with Southeastern Iranian languages. The following sound changes can be regarded as specific to Farvi and had not appeared in the Northwestern development period:

1. The initial OIr. **w-* has been changed to *g-* in Farvi, that relates Farvi with Southeastern Iranian languages such as Northern Bashgardi and Balochi. This sound change can be regarded as an areal feature Farvi shares with Southeastern languages: *gā* “wind” (OIr. **wāta-*, Av. *vāta-*), *galg* “leaf” (OIr. **walka-*), *gāyem* “almond” (MP *wādām*); *gazar* “big” (OIr. **wazryka-*), *gad* “bad,” *gar* “beside,” *giss* “twenty” (OIr. **wisati*, Av. *visaiti*), *ganū* “wild pistachio” (OIr. **wanā-*, Av. *vanā-*, Bakhtiari and Boirahmadi *ban* “wild pistachio”);

²⁰Yarshater, *Grammar of Southern Tati Dialects*, 70.

²¹Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 92.

²²Borjian, “Farvi Dialect.”

²³Cf. Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 92.

got-/gaš- “to say” (OIr. **waxta-/vaxš-*); *gebeš* “paradise” (OIr. **wahišta-*, Av. *vahišta-*); *giahtar* “better” (MP *wehtar*). Some more examples for Farvi are recorded by Borjian: *garf* “snow,” *gas* “enough,” *gar* “side,” *gāng* “voice, call,” and *gehina* “pretext.” A similar change is seen in Khuri: *gad* “bad,” *gīd* “willow,” *gara* “lamb,” *gabi* “bride” and *gen-* “to see.”²⁴ The same is true for OIr. **wr̥-* that is retained as *go(r)-* contrary to *vā(r)-* or *ve(r)-* in Central languages: *gorde* “kidney” (<OIr. **wr̥dka-*, cf. MP *gurdag*), *gorg* “wolf” (<OIr. **wr̥ka-*, cf. MP *gurg*), *gešši* “hungry” (<OIr. **waršna-*, cf. MP *gursag*, with *š* also showing guna-grade in Northwestern vs. zer-grade in Southwestern that derived from OIr. **wr̥sna-* with OIr. Vocalic *r̥*).

2. The older **w* (genuine or from older *ab* or *af*) after *a* or *ā* is deleted and resulted in compensatory lengthening of *a*: *ā* “water,” *ār* “cloud,” *ārīv* “dignity” (from older **aurū<ābrū*), *jā* “barley,” *gā* “cow,” *šā* “night,” *xā* “sleep,” *lā* “lip,” *sāz* “green,” *q̄^bār* “grave,” *dār* “around, round, cycle” (cf. Pers. *dowr*), *hāda* “seventeen” (<older **hawdah<hafdah*), *tanā* “rope” (cf. Pers. *tanāb*) and *jelā* “front” (Pers. *jelow*); but by joining an enclitic or a suffix, the older **w* appeared or has remains as *v*: *šavū* “nights,” *ya gāvī* “a cow” and *av-e rī āyar beriahd* “he poured water on fire.”
3. Older *h* is generally remained in all positions: *hemī* “still” (<**ham-nūn*), *hezū* “tongue” (from older *ezwān* by the addition of initial *h*-²⁵), *huas-* “to sleep” (OIr. **hufsa-*), *hamā* “we,” *kuahnag* “old, worn-out,” *gebeš* “paradise” and *muahre* “marble.” Initial and preconsonantal **x* is changed to *h* without later deletion of *h*: *hargūj* “rabbit,” *hūj* “ear of grain or palm” (from older **xūš* <OIr. **auša-*), *hormā* “palm, date,” *tahl* “bitter” (OIr. **taxra-*, cf. MP *taxl*), *čahr* “spinning wheel” (<OIr. **čaxra-*), *suahr* “red” (<OIr. **suxra-*, cf. MP *suxr*); *duabd* “daughter” (<**duxt*), *gabhd-* “to uproot” (OIr. **waxta-*, cf. Jowshaqani *vat-/vaj-*), *riahd-* “to pour,” *hegiabd-* “to sift,” *raviabd-* “to sell” (<OIr. **fra-waxta-*), *pahd-* “to cook” (<OIr. **paxta-*), *āsuahd* “ash,” although preconsonantal **x* is deleted in Khuri: *čēr* “spinning wheel,” *sər* “red,” *dōd* “girl, daughter,” *red-* “spill,” *sēd-* “weigh,” *reved-* “sell.”²⁶
4. The OIr. intervocalic **t* which had previously developed to *d* in MP and Prth. has changed to *y* through lenition of the *d*: *āyar* “fire” (OIr. **ātar-*, MP *ādur*); *kaye* “winter cottage” (OIr. *kata-*, Prth. *kadag*); *māya* “female” (OIr. **mātā*, Prth. *mādag*), *diya* “seen” (OIr. *dīta-*), *gāyem* “almond” (OIr. **wātāma-*, MP *wādām*). Final postvocalic *d* (from OIr. intervocalic *t*) is lost: *pe* “father” (OIr. *pitā*, Prth. *pid*), *mā* “mother” (OIr. *mātā*, Prth. *mād*), *zī* “quick(ly)” (<OIr. **zūti-*, Av. *uzūiti-*). The change is also found in Khuri: *māyā* “female,” *čoyor* “veil,” *keyyā* “room,” *moy/mā* “mother,” *pī(o)* “father,” *zī* “early.”²⁷

²⁴Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 93.

²⁵Cf. Paul, “Position of Zazaki,” 170, note 29.

²⁶Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 93.

²⁷Ibid.

5. One of the specific features of Farvi is the sound change of *-š* to *-j* in final post-vocalic position:²⁸ *rīj* “beard,” *mīj* “ewe, sheep,” *kiaj* “shoe,” *gūj* “ear,” *hūj* “ear of grain or palm,” *hargūj* “rabbit,” *espej* “louse” (OIr. **spiš-*), *dūj* “yesterday” (OIr. **daušā-*, Skt. *dośā-*), *pīj* “palm coir, palm fiber” (cf. Pers. *pūšāl*, Bakhtiari *pīš*), *gīj* “cotton” (Pers. *vaš* “unginned cotton”). A similar change is seen in Khuri by vocalization of the final *š*: *duž* “yesterday,” *huž* “bunch,” *riž* “beard,” *miž* “ewe,” *guž* “ear,” *kož-* “to kill,” *kēž* “shoe.”²⁹
6. Old Iranian cluster *st* has changed to *ss* by total assimilation of *t* with *s*, but to *s* in initial position: *sāre* “star” (OIr. **star-*, Av. *star-*), *ssay-/ssīn-* “to buy” (OIr. **stan-*, MP and Prth. *istān-* “to take,” Pers. *sitad-/sitān-*), *asse* “bone” (OIr. **astaka-*, Av. *ast-*), *mess* “fist, two-hand fist” from a Southwestern form **must* (cf. Bakhtiari *most*, Boirahmadi *mos*; OIr. **mušti-*, Av. *mušti.masah-*), *angossar* “ring” from Southwestern form **angust* (cf. Bakhtiari *angost*, Boirahmadi *angōs*; OIr. **angušta-*, Av. *angušta-*). However, Farvi *mess* “fist, two-hand fist,” *angossar* “ring” and Khuri *mes* “fist,” *āngos* “finger” show an isogloss with Southwestern languages.³⁰
7. While the OIr. *au* generally changed to *ū* in Farvi, OIr. *ū* remained in MP and Prth. and later developed as fronted *ü* in Central languages it changed to *ī* in Farvi: *zī* “early, quick(ly)” (<OIr. **zūti-*, Av. *uzūiti-*), *sīje* “needle” (OIr. **sūci-*, Skt. *sūci-*), *fī* “blood” <*fīn* (OIr. **hwahūni-*, cf. Khuri *fin*), *šiv* “husband” (cf. Central languages *šū*); and in some other words with an unetymological origin: *kīče* “alley,” *pīj* “palm coire” (cf. Pers. *pūšāl*), *šī* “bottom, down” (cf. Northern Bashgardi *šue*). In some other examples, Borjjan shows the fronting of Middle Iranian *ō* to Farvi *ī*: *rī* “face,” *mīv* “hair,” *šiv* “husband,” *gišt* “meat” and *rixune* “river.” The same change occurred in post Mir. *ū* created by the loss of postvocalic *h* and compensatory lengthening of *u*: *pīl* “bridge” <**pūl* <*publ*; or *ū* created by rising of *ā* before nasals: *šīm* “dinner, night” <*šūm* <*šām* (cf. *āsmīn*; <*āsmun* <*āsmān*) “sky” recorded by Borjjan.
8. The change of intervocalic *-m-* to *-v-* as a particular characteristic feature of Farvi is seen in some words: *noviang* “salt” (<**nemeng*), *novāj* “prayer,” where the late date of the sound change is shown by forms like *biyāvehon* “they come.” A similar change also occurs in a small number of other west Iranian languages like Bakhtiari (*nevek* “salt,” *havīr* “paste,” *hīve* “firewood,” *dovā* “bridegroom,” *jove* “shirt”), Kurdish (*nāw* “name,” *dūw* “tail,” *hawīr* “paste” and *kawān* “bow”)³¹ and some Northern Balochi varieties (*nawāš* “prayer,” *hāwag* “raw”). Although this change may be explained as independent developments and not an inherited common feature of all these language, in the case of Farvi and Northern Balochi, which are spoken in an area rela-

²⁸Borjjan, “Farvi Dialect.”

²⁹Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 95.

³⁰Ibid., 92.

³¹MacKenzie, “Origin of Kurdish,” 70.

- tively close to each other, it may be an areal common feature in these two languages.
9. The sound change of *ā* to *ī* is found in certain words: *ssīn-* “to buy” (cf. MP *istān-*, Pers. *sitān-*), *kīr-* “to sow” (MP and Prth. *kār-*), *sīj-* “to build, to make” (Prth. *sāž-*), *mīn-* “to stay” (MP and Prth. *mān-*); and in some examples changes from *a* to *ī*: *kīm* “less, lesser” (MP and Prth. *kamb*), *gīj* “cotton” (Pers. *vaš*).
 10. The sound change of intervocalic *-b-* to *-v-* also appears in a great number of Iranian languages, as seen in words like: *tāve* “pan,” *kavā* “kebab” and *ketiav* “book.” It seems that this is a relatively recent, post-Middle Iranian feature which adds to the changes common to other new Iranian languages.
 11. A great vowel change is diphthongization of closed vowels. In Farvi, original long *ū* (from Middle Iranian *ō*) and short *o* before *h* (older *u* before *h*) is diphthongized as *ua*: *ruaje* “fast,” *tuare* “jackal” (cf. MP *tōrag*), *balyuar* “crushed wheat” (cf. Pers. *balyūr*), *suahr* “red,” *duahd* “daughter,” *suahd-* “to burn,” *muahre* “marble,” *nuah* “nine,” *kuahmag* “old, worn out,” *guahres-* “to ask” (<*gohres- <*wi-fras- ?); but also in some other words seemingly from older *a*: *šuaš* “six” (from *šas?*), *gijua* “mold” (cf. *gīj* “cotton”), *puahm* “wide” (cf. Pers. *pahn*), and some other example from Borjian’s data: *fuahm* “understanding” and *kuar* (cf. Khuri *ka:ɾ*) “kid.” In some words, the diphthongization has caused a change in syllable break and the *ua* has developed to *va*: *kolva* “clod, lump” (<*kolū, cf. Pers. *kolūx*), *golvale* (from *golūle*, cf. Pers. *golūle*), *ârvas* “bride” (<*ârūs, cf. Pers. *arūs*), *nârvaz* (<older *nawrūz*) “Nowruz,” *borvahna* “naked” (cf. Pers. *berahne*), *dohvason* “they sleep” (from *de-huas*<*de-hus*). Another diphthongization found in Farvi is the change of older *ī* (from Middle Iranian *ē*) and *e* before *h* (older *i* before *h*) to *ia*: *bial* “spade,” *diar* “late,” *siaiv* “apple” *siar* “full, satisfied,” *pišim* “noon” (MP *pēšēn*, cf. Central languages *pīšim* “noon”), *miah* “nail,” *hegiāj-* “to sift,” *biar-* “to cut”; so is the change in *kiaj* “shoe” (<*kij<*kūj>*kawš, cf. Central languages *kawš*, Pers. *kafš*) and *riavī* “day” (<*riv<*rūj), *giahtar* “better” (MP *wehtar*), *niahrī* “curse” (cf. Pers. *nefrīn*), *siahr* “pool, pond” (cf. Boirahmadi *sēla* “pool, pond”), *diab* “village” (Pers. *deh*), *geria* “knot, node” (Pers. *gereh*), *riahd-* “to pour” (MP *rixt-*), *hegiahd-* “to sift” (MP *wixt-*). Also, in some words the change is found in *ā* to *ia*: *riah* “road, path,” *tias* “awn” (from older **tās*, cf. Central languages *dāse/tāse*), *kiard* “knife” (Pers. *kārd*), *bielā* “top, up,” *haštia* “eighty.”

Morphosyntax

Noun. Without the distinction of case and gender, morphological categories in nouns include number and definiteness. The plural suffix is *-ū* (from older *-ūn*<*-ān*) for nouns ending in a consonant: *jenū* “women,” *segū* “stones” and *siavū* “apples”; the suffix *-gū* for nouns ending in vowels except *-ā*: *botte* “tree” >*bottegū* “trees,” *čū*

“wood” > *čügū* “woods” and *fī* “farmland” > *fiğū*; and the suffix *-vū* for nouns ending in *-ā*: *pā* “foot” > *pāvū* “feet,” and *hormā* “palm, date” > *hormāvū* “palm, dates.” Borjian refers to *-(g)ūn* as a plural markers in *gačegūn* “children” with no example for *-un* allomorph. *-g-* and *-v-* are hiatus consonants inserted between the final vowel of a noun and the plural marker. For all the three allomorphs of plural markers, if a noun is suffixed by an enclitic, the final *-n* appears after nasalized *ū*; from the historical point of view, the old *-n* has been retained in this position: *gāyemūn-eī bečend* “they picked almonds,” *hormāvūn-am beraviāhdā bī* “we had sold dates” and *fiğūn-ayū beraviāhd* “they sold the farmlands.”

While there is no gender distinction in definition marker, the definite singular noun is marked by the diminutive suffix *-ū* (contrary to *-e* and *-a* in Central languages and similar to *-ū* in Lori varieties and Fars languages). Khuri uses the same suffix *-u* as in *mardu* “the man,” which also serves as diminutive, and occurs with *-ag* as in *sagag-č bedi* “I saw the dog.”³²

1. *posū* *bešo* *befaf*
boy.DEF go.PST.3SG sleep.PST.3SG
“the boy went and slept”
2. *fārū* *be* *kū* *šo*
sister.DEF to where go.PST.3SG
“where did the sister go?”

The definite marker is also used when the noun has deictic adjective, but when the noun is followed by an attribute adjective, the definite marker is deleted:

3. *ō* *posū* *bedī=e*
that boy.DEF see.PST=3SG
“that boy saw him”
4. *mo* *siav-e* *suahr-ō* *degu*³³
I apple-EZAFE red=1SG want.PRS.IND
“I want the red apple”
5. *ō* *gačag-e* *fār-e* *katta* *bī*
that child-of.EZAFE daughter-of.EZAFE big was
“that was the child of the older sister”

³²Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 81.

³³Special construction for this verb is that the present form is also conjugated ergatively like the past form. This is also found in some other Central dialects. Cf. Jarquyai: *yon jinjiyon nūn-os gue* “this woman wants food” (the author’s fieldwork data), Jowshaqani: *vačiun-e man palāu šu=agi* “my children want pilaf” (Borjian, “The Dialect of Jowshaqan,” 108).

As in colloquial Persian, the indefinite marker is *-ī* attached after indefinite singular and plural nouns. For indefinite singular nouns, *ya* “one” as the indefinite article comes before the noun: *ya kočīkī* “a sparrow” and *ya bāyi* “a garden.”

The possessive and attributive Ezafe that is characteristic of Persian and some other Western Iranian languages is not used with the noun ends in a vowel. Possessive complements and attributive adjectives regularly follow the noun that they modify without morphological marking: *sarā te* “your house,” *a māss* “water of yogurt,” *asse pā* “bone of foot,” *sarā katte* “big house.” But after nouns ending in a consonant, Ezafe is frequently used: *fār-e mo* “my sister,” *siav-e suahr* “red apple,” *ya duahd-e kas* “a small girl,” *piahrōn-e espi* “white shirts”; such nouns may appear without the Ezafe too: *bāq^h avū* “their garden,” *ya sâṭat de* “one hour later.” However, Borjian gives the Ezafe marker for nouns ending in both consonants and vowels: *gol-e-suahr* “red rose” and *mā-ye-je* “wife’s mother.” It is made more probable by the fact that Ezafe might not be authentically Farvi, and the influence of Persian on the languages in more recent times has established the Ezafe construction.

Adjective. The attributive adjective follows the noun it describes with or without using the Ezafe marker. The definite marker is deleted where an adjective follows the definite noun it modifies:

6. *seg-e* *espi* *a* *rīv=e* *hene*
 stone-EZAFE white to on=3SG put.IMP.2SG
 “put the white stone on it”

The comparative adjective is formed by the suffix *-tar*, but there is no superlative degree formed morphologically; as in colloquial Persian and other Iranian languages, the standard Persian superlative suffix *-tarīn* is not used in Farvi. The superlative degree is described by a form of the comparative degree combined with the plural noun or indefinite pronoun *hama* “all”:

7. *ī* *sarā* *he* *ō* *sarā* *kattetar=ī*
 this house from that house bigger=is
 “this house is bigger than that house”
8. *amā* *orzūntar=am* *beraviabd*
 we cheaper=1PL sell.PST
 “we sold cheaper”
9. *av* *he* *hama* *kastar* *bī*
 he from all smaller was
 “he was smaller than all others (he was the smallest)”

Table 1. Personal pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1st person	<i>mo(n)</i>	<i>amā</i>
2nd person	<i>tε</i>	<i>šomā</i>
3rd person	<i>av</i>	<i>avū , emū</i>

Pronouns

Personal pronouns. Independent personal pronouns distinguish two numbers (singular and plural) without overlapping in the third person with the deictic pronoun, thus distinguishing near and far deixis in plural third person as shown in Table 1.

The form of *mā* “I” and *amo* “we” recorded by Borjian are not recorded as this author’s material. The third person singular and plural are marked for human animacy, so that Farvi makes a distinction between human vs. inanimate by personal third person vs. demonstrative pronoun respectively: *av* “he/she,” *em* “this” (corresponding to Khuri *ev* “that” and *em* “this” also serving as third singular personal pronoun³⁴), *avū* “they (far),” *emū* “they (near)” respectively vs. *ō* “that, it,” *ānū* “those,” *ī* “this” and *inū* “these.” The following examples show the distinction:

10. *av* *hordā* *dešū*
 she tomorrow go.PRS.IND.3SG
 “he will go tomorrow”
11. *emū* *kū* *dohvasan*
 they where sleep.PRS.IND.3PL
 “where do they sleep”
12. *inūn=atū* *čan* *bessaye*
 these=2PL how much bought.PTCP
 “how much have you paid for these?”

There are six enclitic pronouns beside the independent forms (Table 2).

It seems that the first person form *-ō* (also recorded as *-ā*)³⁵ comes from an older **am* by the deletion of final *-m* and nasalization of the former vowel (cf. Borgian: *-a* (*m*) for first singular enclitic). The original form might have been retained in the frozen form of *fēm* “myself” (see also Khuri *-əm/-ɔ*³⁶). For the third person singular *-e* (cf. Av. *-hē*) and plural *-eī* (also recorded as *-aī* and *-ayū*, cf. Bojian *-ayun*), Farvi has

³⁴Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 82.

³⁵The pronoun is exactly pronounced as a nasalized open *o* ([ɔ̃] in IPA) that may be recorded as *-ā*. I prefer to use *-ō* instead of *-ā*. The same is true for the first singular ending (see below).

³⁶Borjian, “The Dialect of Khur,” 83.

Table 2. Enclitic pronouns

	Singular	Plural
1st person	- <i>ō</i>	- <i>am</i>
2nd person	- <i>d</i>	- <i>tū</i>
3rd person	- <i>e</i>	- <i>eī</i> , -(<i>a</i>) <i>yū</i>

the same forms as Kurdish *-ī* and *-yān* respectively.³⁷ The allomorph *-yū* attested also in reflexive *feyū* “themselves” (see below) is also recorded in the author’s corpus:

13. *čūgūn=ayū* *āyar* *bedā*
 wood.PL=3PL fire give.PST
 “they burned the woods”
14. *sārā=yū* *beraviahda -bī*
 house=3PL sold.PTCP -was
 “they had sold houses”

Enclitic pronouns are used in a variety of oblique functions (possessive, and direct and indirect object and the agent of past transitive verbs in ergative construction): (1) possessive suffix, which is attached directly to the noun, or the phrase that it qualifies (15); (2) direct object (16); (3) indirect objects (17); and (4) agent of a past transitive verb. The enclitic pronoun may be suffixed to a noun, a verb, an adverb, an adjective or a pronoun:

15. *pi=ō* *tū* *sārā* *befāftε -bī*
 father=1SG in house slept.PTCP -was
 “my father had slept at home”
16. *ō* *posū* *bedī=e*
 that boy.DEF see.PST=3SG
 “That boy saw him”
17. *ya* *duahd-e* *kas=e* *ha*
 one daughter-EZAFE young=3SG is
 “there is a young daughter for him (he has a young daughter)”
18. *siav=am* *befārd*
 apple=1PL eat.PST.[3SG]
 “we ate apple”
19. *fētū* *ājeh=atū* *benεhā*
 yourself there=2PL put.PST.
 “you yourself put it there”

³⁷Cf. Mackenzie, “Origin of Kurdish,” 83.

Table 3. Demonstrative pronouns

	Near	Far
Singular	<i>ī</i> “this”	<i>ō/ō~</i> “that”
Plural	<i>īnū</i> “these”	<i>ānū</i> “those”

Demonstrative pronoun. Farvi has a system of two demonstrative pronouns, near and far, as in Table 3.

Without pointing out the plural forms, Borjian refers to *i(a)* and *em* for near demonstratives. The form *i(a)* is not attested in the author data, but *em* is used only for animates (see above). Demonstrative pronouns are not used as third person personal pronouns (examples 20–21). Numbers are not distinguished in demonstrative adjectives; singular demonstratives are also used as deictic adjectives for plural nouns (examples 22–24):

20. *ō* *gen=e* *karde*
that lost=3SG done.PTCP
“he has lost that”
21. *ānūn=ad* *he* *kūje* *bessay*
those=2SG from where buy.PST
“where did you buy those”
22. *īn=e* *ke* *begot*
this=3SG who say.PST
“who said that”
23. *ī* *kiaj* *bar* *te* *kattag=ī*
this shoe for you.2SG big=is
“this shoe is [too] large for you”
24. *he* *ī* *hormāūn* *šerī* *beferan*
from this date.PL sweat eat.IMP.2PL
“please eat these sweet dates”

Interrogative, reflexive and reciprocal. The interrogative pronouns are *ke* “who,” *če* “what,” and *kayakī(g)* “which”. They have the same form for singular and for the plural cases, yet there is a distinction between human vs. inanimate, that is, *ke* vs. *če* respectively:

25. *he* *ke=ad* *hegerefte*
from who=2SG taken.PTCP
“from whom have you taken it?”
26. *čī=at* *bessay*

What=2SG buy.PST.[3SG]
 “what did you buy?”

27. *kaykīg=at degay*
 which=2SG want.PST.IMPF.[3SG]
 “which one did you want?”

For indefinite pronouns there is also a distinction between human vs. inanimate, that is, *komī* “someone” and *čomī* “something” respectively:

28. *tū tiabrū komī=ad ha*
 in Tehran anybody=2SG is
 “do you have anybody (a relative) in Tehran?”

29. *amāh=ayū čomī benagot*
 we=3PL anything say.PST.NEG.[3SG]
 “they did not tell us anything”

The reflexive pronoun *fa/fe* “self” has both emphatic and coreferential functions. It may appear separately (example 30), but normally takes the enclitic pronouns (examples 31–33). When acting as the agent of a past transitive verb, the corresponding enclitic may also be used before verb (examples 34–35):

30. *fē ājeh=e benčā*
 oneself there=3SG put.PST
 “he put it there by himself?”

31. *fēd beraveš*
 yourself.2SG sell.IMP.2SG
 “you sell that yourself”

32. *dass-e fe=ye bebiērd*
 hand-EZAFE oneself=3SG cut.PST.[3SG]
 “he cut his hand”

33. *avū feyūn-ai nagīnan*
 they themselves-3Pl see.NEG.PRS.3PL
 “they do not see themselves”

34. *gačagū feyūn-ai hemessenā*
 child.pl themselves-3Pl drench.PST
 “children drenched themselves”

35. *feyū dezoni=eī*
 themselves know.PST.IMPF=3PL
 “they knew by themselves”

In Farvi, *ham* “each other” is used as a reciprocal pronoun:

36. *ham=eī* *češnâxt*
 each other=3PL know.PST
 “they knew each other”

Prepositions. Case relation may be expressed by prepositions alone. The corpus for the current study contains no example for postpositions and ambipositions. The following prepositions occur in Farvi:

he “from, to” is the most common preposition in Farvi, mainly used to express the ablative and indicates a starting point in the broadest sense of the word (examples 37–38); it is also used in the dative, where it has similar functions to Pers. *be* (example 39), and as a source or object of comparison (example 40):

37. *gorg* *he* *sag=eī* *betarsâ*
 wolf from dog=3PL fear.PST
 “wolf scared of the dog”
38. *īzem=atū* *he* *kū* *biavard*
 firewood=2PL from where bring.PST.[3SG]
 “where did you bring the firewood from?”
39. *he* *man=etū* *dorū* *begote*
 to I=2PL lie said.PTCP
 “you have lied to me”
40. *siav* *he* *gâyem* *giahter=eī*
 apple from almond better=is
 “apple is better than almond”

bar “for” is used in the dative sense (corresponding to the Pers. *barâye*):

41. *bar* *zomâ* *lobâs=eī* *bessay*
 for bridegroom clothes=3PL buy.PST.[3SG]
 “they bought clothes for the bridegroom”
42. *šim=e* *bar* *šiv=e* *bepahd*
 dinner=3SG for husband=3SG cook.PST.[3SG]
 “she cooked dinner for her husband”

de “in,” as a general directional marker, is used to express the locative. It may also indicate motion “towards” or “location at”:

43. *te* *dūj* *de* *kū* *behī*
 you yesterday in where were.2SG

“where were you yesterday?”

44. *gonnam=ayū* *de* *pešt* *degereft*
 wheat=3PL in back take.PST.[3SG]
 “they put a sack of wheat on the back”
45. *piabrō=e* *de* *gar* *kard*
 shirt=3SG in chest do.PST
 “he put on the shirt”

bâ “with, by means of” (corresponding to the Pers. *bâ*) is commonly used in both instrument and accompaniment situations:

46. *mon=eī* *bâ* *feyū* *benanī*
 I=3PL with themselves lead.PST.NEG
 “they did not take me with them”
47. *siav* *bâ* *pūs* *deferehe*
 apple with peel eat.PASS.3SG
 “apple is eaten with its peel”
48. *q^hālīg=eī* *q^hadīmū* *bâ* *pašm* *degaf*
 carpet=3PL Old days by wool weave.PST.IMPF
 “in the old days they wove carpet with wool”

(*v*)*a* “to, toward”: the principal meaning of this preposition is to indicate the direction toward an object; *va* is used before words beginning with vowels:

49. *ya* *kočikī* *a* *rī* *botte* *henvešte*
 one sparrow to on tree sit.PTCP
 “a sparrow has sat on the tree”
50. *av* *degaje* *ve* *amā*
 he arrive.PRS.IND.3SG to we
 “he will arrive at us”
51. *seg-e* *espī* *a* *rīv=e* *hene*
 stone-EZAFE white to above=3SG put.IMP.2SG
 “put the white stone on it”

rī “on, above” originally means “face,” extends semantically to a related position such as “upon, on, above” and indicates the location of something on the surface:

52. *rēvo* *rī* *zamī* *berījehā*
 oil on ground pour.PST.PASS.3SG

“the oil was poured on the ground”

53. *av=e* *rī* *āyar* *beriahd*
 water=3SG on fire pour.PST.[3SG]
 “he poured water on the fire”
54. *he* *rī* *gam* *beparrīhō*
 from above opening jump.PST.3PL
 “they jumped into the water from the opening
 [of the Kanat]”

tū “in”: corresponding to the Persian preposition *tū*, it expresses the meaning of inside:

55. *mo* *emre* *tū* *sarā* *demīnō*
 I today in house stay.PRS.IND.1SG
 “today, I stay at home”

There is no adposition (corresponding to Pers. *rā*) as a marker of direct object in Farvi:

56. *ō* *duahd* *načēšnāsem=e*
 that daughter know.PRS.NEG.1SG=3SG
 “I do not know that girl”
57. *ī* *gīšt=ayū* *alsahd*
 this meat=3PL weigh.PST.[3SG]
 “they weighed this meat”

The preposition *da* and (*v*)*a* are not included in Borjjan’s list of Farvi’s prepositions (though he reported *a* as a preposition covering the lexical domain of Pers. *be* in Khuri, *a ev head* “give [it] to him”³⁸), and he refers to some other examples such as *gar* “by” and *pi* “in front of” not included in the author’s data.

Verb. Stem formation. As in other New West Iranian languages, the conjugation of verbs in Farvi is based on present and past stems of two types: the “irregular” verbs that have past stems ending in /-t/ or /-d/ and with no morphological relation between present and past stems; and “regular” verbs with past stems ending in *-āy*, or *-ī* where the present stem is formed by removing the suffixes.

In irregular verbs, not of secondary formation, the present is derived from the OIr. present stems, and past stem from OIr. past participle in *-ta*. The past stem always ends in a dental stop *-d* after a vowel and a voiced consonant, and *-t* after voiceless consonants. Diachronically, the past stem is not a derivative of the present stem, nor is the present stem formed by removing the suffix of the past stem (Table 4).

³⁸Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 82.

Table 4. Irregular past stems

Past stem	Present stem	
<i>faft-</i>	<i>huas-</i>	“to sleep”
<i>henvešt-</i>	<i>henī-</i>	“to sit”
<i>got-</i>	<i>vaš-</i>	“to say”
<i>gabd-</i>	<i>gaj-</i>	“to uproot”
<i>hegiabd-</i>	<i>hegiāj-</i>	“to sift”
<i>fārd-</i>	<i>fer-</i>	“to eat”
<i>raviabd-</i>	<i>raviaš-</i>	“to sell”
<i>alsabd-</i>	<i>alsanj-</i>	“to weigh”

Table 5. Intransitive regular stems

Noun/adjective	Pres. stem	Past stem	
<i>tāv</i> “twist”	<i>tāv-</i>	<i>tāvāy-</i>	“to twist”
<i>parr</i> “feather”	<i>parr-</i>	<i>parrī-</i>	“to fly”
<i>tars</i> “fear”	<i>tars-</i>	<i>tarsāy-</i>	“to fear”

For some irregular past stems, the older final postvocalic *d-* has been changed to *-y*: *ssay-/ssīn-* “to buy” (<**stad-/stān-*), and for some others it has been deleted: *dī-/gīn-* “to see” (<**dīd-* < OIr. *dīta-*).

In some verbs where the old form of the past stem has been lost, a secondary form has arisen through the addition of *-ī* to the present stem: *davī-/dav-* “to smear” (instead of older **dūd-*, <OIr. **dū-ta-*, cf. Persian *andūd-* “to smear,” *zadūd-* “to polish, clean,” *ālūd-* “to soil”), *algazī-/algaz-* “to jump” (<instead of older **gašt-*, frequently seen in Central as *vašt-*, cf. Pers. *vazīd-*). This can be regarded as an inherited feature Farvi shares with Southwestern languages.

In regular verbs, the past stem is a derivative of the present stem and is formed by adding the suffix *-āy* or *-ī* to the present stem. While *-āy* (cf. Prth. *-ād*) is a past formant in most Northwestern languages, *-ī* is typically Southwestern, and is most frequently found in Southwestern languages. Farvi makes a distinction between transitive and intransitive regular verbs in the formation of past and present stems.

An intransitive regular stem is a denominative verb made freely from nouns and adjectives. The present stem is the noun or adjective that serves as the present stem, and the past stem is formed by the suffix *-āy* or *-ī* added to the present stem (Table 5).

This includes those derived from the present stem of irregular verbs, where the old form of the past stem has been lost, and a secondary form has arisen through the addition of *-āy* or *-ī* to the present stem (Table 6).

Table 6. Intransitive regular stems

Pres. stem	Past stem	
<i>sāv-</i>	<i>sāvây-</i>	“to rub”
<i>algaz-</i>	<i>algazî-</i>	“to jump”
<i>zon-</i>	<i>zonî-</i>	“to know”

Table 7. Transitive regular stems

	Present stem	Past stem	
<i>gaj-</i> “to arrive”	<i>gajen-</i>	<i>gajenây-</i>	“to send”
<i>tāv</i> “curl”	<i>tāven-</i>	<i>tāvenây-</i>	“to curl”
<i>mess</i> “wet”	<i>messen-</i>	<i>messenây-</i>	“to soak”
<i>jūš</i> “boiling”	<i>jūšen-</i>	<i>jūšenây-</i>	“to boil”
<i>gaj-</i> “to arrive”	<i>gajen-</i>	<i>gajenây-</i>	“to send”

The transitive stem is formed by adding the suffix *-en* to intransitive present stems, nouns and adjectives, and the past stem is obtained by adding the suffix *-ây* to the present stem (Table 7).

Passive stem: Farvi also has the passive stem. The present stems are formed by adding the suffix *-eh* to the present stem of a transitive verb and the passive past stem is formed by adding *-ây* to the present passive stem (Table 8; see also below).

Endings. Farvi has two sets of endings: present endings which are attached to the present stems, and past endings which are attached to the forms with the past stems (Table 9).

While the form *-am* comes before enclitic (cf. *deginam-e* “I see him”), *-ō* is used after stems ending in consonants: *beginō* “may I see” and *befāftō* “I slept”; also, *-hō* (with *h-* as hiatus deleter) is used with stems ending in a vowel: *dedehō* “I give” and *bešohō* “I went.” The same variation is found in the data quoted by Borjjan for Khuri: *dezunam*, *bezuniam* “I know, I knew,” *dehosān*, *befāftān* “I sleep, I slept” and *dezunān* “I know.”³⁹ It also applied for the second person singular ending *-ī* or *-hī:čēšnāsī* “you know,” *begotōhī* “I said you (it was said to you by me),” and the third person plural past stem: *befāfton* “they slept” and *bešohon* “they went.” For the second person plural ending, the form *-d* is used with stems ending in vowels and the form *-ad* with stems ending in consonants: *tiyād* “you come” and *deferad* “you eat.” The first person plural is recorded by Borjjan as *-um* (not attested in the author’s data). Set II of the endings (the same as the enclitic personal pronouns) proposed by Borjjan for Khuri are not common in Farvi as

³⁹Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 85.

Table 8. Passive stems

Tran. pres.stem	Pass. pres. stem	Pass. past stem
<i>gîn-</i> “to see”	<i>gîneh-</i>	<i>gînehây-</i>
<i>gaj-</i> “to uproot”	<i>gajeh-</i>	<i>gajehây-</i>
<i>fer-</i> “to eat”	<i>fereh-</i>	<i>ferehây-</i>
<i>kîr-</i> “to sow”	<i>kîreh-</i>	<i>kîrehây-</i>
<i>pej-</i> “to cook”	<i>pejeh-</i>	<i>pejehây-</i>

Table 9. Personal endings

		Present endings	Past endings
Singular	1st	-(<i>h</i>) <i>ō</i> , - <i>am</i>	-(<i>h</i>) <i>ō</i>
	2nd	-(<i>h</i>) <i>ī</i>	-(<i>h</i>) <i>ī</i>
	3rd	- <i>e</i>	- <i>ø</i>
Plural	1st	- <i>īm</i>	- <i>īm</i>
	2nd	-(<i>a</i>) <i>d</i>	-(<i>a</i>) <i>d</i>
	3rd	- <i>an</i>	-(<i>h</i>) <i>on</i>

represented in this author’s data, except for the case of *zon-* “to know” and *gay-* “to want” in the conditional past tense: *agar dezonīa-mun* “if we knew” and *agar degay-ō* “if I wanted.”

Imperative endings are singular -zero and plural -*an*: *henī* “sit!” *seyl ke* “look!,” *beferan* “eat ye!” and *benablan* “do not let!”

Preverbs. The most frequently used preverbs are: *he-* and *al-*; *he-*(OIr. **fra-*, corresponding to *hâ-* in Central and some Northwestern languages) without specified meaning is seen in verbs like *henehâ-/hene-* “to put,” *hegiabd-/hegiay-* “to sift,” *hedâ-/bedeh-* “to give,” *hegereft-/hegîr-* “to take,” *henevêst-/henîv-* “to sit,” *heriahd-/herîj-* “to pour.” It changes to *hî-* with imperfects: *hene* “put!,” *henevêsta-hon* “they have sat here,” *âje-hatû benahâ* “you put there” vs. *elû hînvîm* “here we sit,” *ârd hîgiajan* “they sift flour” and *hînjîne* “they seat.” A similar form in Khuri is pointed out by Borjjan as coalescence of *he-* with the imperfective morpheme *de-*: *heneštîš* “I sat” vs. *hîneštîš* “I would sit”;⁴⁰ *al-* (Av. *aradwa*, corresponding to *âr-* in Central languages) has a basic meaning of “upward, up” and is found in verbs like: *algazî-/algaz-* “to jump,” *alsat-/alsanj-* “to weigh,” *algereft-/algîr-* “to pick up,” *algardî-/algard-* “to return.”

Morphological prefixes. The prefixes used in verbal conjugations are *de-*, *be-*, and negation and prohibitive *na-/nâ-*:

⁴⁰Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 84.

1. The prefix *de-* is also found in the Northern and Northwestern branch of Central languages such as Vafsi, Ashtiani and Khansari,⁴¹ and is also prominent in Northern varieties of Kurdish like Mukri.⁴² As an imperfective marker, it is used in present imperfect and past imperfect. With present verbs, *de-* distinguishes the indicative from the subjunctive: *deferad* “you eat,” *degaje* “he is arriving” vs. *bessîman* “may they buy,” *beravešî* “if you sell”; with past verbs, it distinguishes the past imperfect from the simple, perfect, past pluperfect and past subjunctive: *defafton* “they were sleeping,” *šîm-ad defard* “you were eating dinner” vs. *befafton* “they slept,” *orzûntar-am beraviâhd-e* “we have sold cheaper,” *befafte bî* “he had slept” and *šîm-ayû benafârda bû* “maybe they did not eat dinner.” The prefix *de-* has remained as a frozen form *t-* in some verbs beginning in vowels: *tarze* “is worth” vs. *biarzâ* “was worth”; *îzem-atû he kû biavard?* “where did you find the firewood?” vs. *riavû dešohon îzem-eî tiavard* “they used to go and bring firewood in daytime” and *natiaşenan* “they do not hear.” In the present indicative and imperfect the negation marker *nâ-* replaces the imperfective marker *de-*: *nâgeje* “does not reach” and *nâtarse* “he does not fear.”
2. *be-*: as an aspect marker it often appears to express completion of an event or the perfect aspect. It occurs normally in simple past, perfect and pluperfect: *lobâs-eî bessay* “they bought cloths,” *šîm-ô benafârde* “I have not eaten dinner,” *pi-ô befafte bî* “my father had slept” and *agar begaya bû* “if he has arrived.” The prefix *be-* is also used with the imperative and subjunctive: *beferan* “eat! ye,” *šâyad beraveš-e* “maybe he sells” and *agar siavû befârda ban* “if the apples were eaten.” It is normally dropped in prefixed verbs: *î kâr-am henakard* “we did not do the work”; but contrary to *de-*, it remains with negation marker: *benablan* “do not let” and *benadia bî* “I had not seen.”
3. *na-/nâ-*: as a negation and prohibition marker, it comes before verbs, but contrary to the imperfect marker *de-*, the use of the negative does not preclude that of *be-*: *nâčšnâsam-e* “I do not know,” *mon-eî benanî* “they did not take me,” while in prefixed verbs *nâ-* occurs between the prefix and stem of the verb *î kâr-am henakard* “we did not do the work.” The form *nâ-* is used with imperfect verbs: *nâtarsan* “they don’t fear,” *nâgeje* “it doesn’t reach” (cf. Khuri *na-* vs. *nê-*: *benakarda* “you didn’t do,” *arnalo* “don’t stand!,” *henanivî* “that I do not sit,” *nêkari* “you don’t/won’t do” Borjjan suggests that Khuri *nê-* is formed as a result of coalescing *na-* with the imperfective *de-*).⁴³

⁴¹Windfuhr, “Central Dialects,” verbal morphology; it is from the older **at-* and appears as *ed-* in Ashtiani and Amora’i, e.g. *ed-qîro* “he takes,” *ed-âm* “I say”; as *to-* in Kahaki, e.g. *to-vâje* “he says,” and as *et-* in Khansari, e.g. *et-kuš-ân* “I kill.”

⁴²MacKenzie, *Kurdish Dialect Studies*, I, 87.

⁴³Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khuri,” 84.

Tense, aspect and mood. The basic verb system has a double distinction of tense (present and past), three moods (indicative, imperative and subjunctive) and three aspects (imperfect, perfect and resultative) as follows:

1. Present indicative. The present indicative is marked by prefix *de-* and is used to indicate actions that are usually or always happening:

58. *amā šavū diar dohvasīm*
we night.PL late sleep.PRS.IND.1PL
“we sleep late at night”
59. *mo har rīv av degīnam=e*
I every day he see.PRS.IND.1SG=3SG
“I see him everyday”
60. *riāvīgūn dečenan šavū dohvasan*
day.PL pick.PRS.IND.3PL night.PL sleep.PRS.IND.3PL
“they pick in the day and eat at night”

As there is no specific form for future tense in Farvi, the indicative present is also used to indicate actions in the future:

61. *hordâ riavî tiyô*
tomorrow daytime come.PRS.IND.1SG
“tomorrow in the day I will come”
62. *šomâ emšâ kû dešad*
you.2PL tonight where go.PRS.IND.2PL
“where will you go tonight?”

2. Present subjunctive. The present subjunctive is formed with the prefix *be-*, and in the main clause it is used to express suggestion or exhortation; it is also used in subordinate clauses:

63. *ô piahrôn-e espî bessîni giabtar=î*
that shirt-EZAFE white buy.SBJ.2SG better=is
“it is better to buy that white shirt”
64. *agar beravešî dî nâšâyî bessîni*
if sell.SBJ.2SG anymore can.PRS.NEG.2SG buy.SBJ.2SG
“if you sell, you cannot buy any more”
65. *bešohô ke gaččag=ô begīnam=e*
go.PST.1SG so that child=1SG see.SBJ.1SG=3SG
“I went to see my child”

3. Present progressive. The present indicative is also used to indicate ongoing and uncompleted actions, and the present progressive is generally expressed by the indicative present, but a form for progressive is based on the Persian model in affected speech, which is formed with the present conjugation of *dīr-/der-* “to have” followed by the present indicative of the main verb:

66. *gačagūn* *dīran* *dohvasan*
 child.PL have.3PL sleep.PRS.IND.3PL
 “children are sleeping”
67. *če* *dīrad* *deferad*
 what have.2PL eat.PRS.IND.2PL
 “what are you eating?”
68. *derim* *bāγ* *ā* *dedehīm*
 have.1PL garden water give.PRS.IND.1PL
 “we are irrigating the garden”

4. Imperative. The imperative is only used for the second person, singular and plural, and is formed with the present stem of the verb, the prefix *be-*, plus the personal imperative endings (cf. above), while prefixed verbs do not take the prefix *be-*; in the negative form, the prefix *be-* comes before the prohibitive prefix *na-*:

69. *beše* *ārī* *beniv*
 go.IMP.2SG outside sit.IMP.2SG
 “go and sit outside”
70. *šehīt=i* *av=e* *hedehan*
 thirsty=is water=3SG give.IMP.2PL
 “he is thirsty, give him water”
71. *benablan* *biân*
 let.IMP.NEG.2PL come.SBJ.3PL
 “do not let them come”

5. Simple past. Simple past is the perfective form of the verb system used for the past. It states that an action was performed in the past and is now complete, irrespective of its duration. In Farvi, simple past forms show a distinction between intransitive and transitive alignments. The intransitive is formed from the past stem with the prefix *be-* and past personal endings, while prefixed verbs do not take the prefix *be-*:

72. *dūšā* *diar* *befaftō*
 last night late sleep.PST.1SG
 “I slept late last night”

73. *amā femū ī kâr=am heka*
 we ourselves this act=1PL do.PST
 “we did this work by ourselves”
74. *he šomah=eī čoq^bada hegeref*
 from you.PL=3PL how much take.PST
 “how much did they take from you?”

The transitive verbs are conjugated ergatively and do not generally use personal endings; the agent appears mostly as enclitic pronouns before the verb and attaches to any word other than the verb:

75. *fîg=eyū beraviabd*
 farmland-3PL sell.PST.[3SG]
 “they sold the farmland”
76. *he amah=etū benagot*
 to we=2PL say.PST.NEG.[3SG]
 “you did not say us”

Only with the verbs *zonî-* “to know” and *dâšt-* “to have” (as past progressive marker) does the enclitic agent appear after the verb. This form is also seen in some other Central languages (cf. Jowshaqani: *dard-edun du-sât* “you were making”):⁴⁴

77. *feyū dezonî=eī*
 themselves know.PST.IMP=3PL
 “they knew by themselves”
78. *dâšt=ad šîm=ad defârd*
 have.PST=2PL dinner=2PL eat.PST.[3SG]
 “you were eating dinner”

6. Past imperfect. As the general past imperfective is formed like the present indicative, it may refer to events that were constantly taking place or took place over a definite period of time in the past. It is formed like the simple past, except that it has the prefix *de-* instead of *be-*:

79. *šav-ün rî bün defafton*
 night-PL on roof sleep.PST
 “they used to sleep on the roof”

⁴⁴Borjian, “Dialect of Jowshaqan,” 105.

80. *riavū dešohon izem=eī tiavard*
 day.PL go.PST.IMPF.3PL firewood=3PL bring.PST.IMPF.3PL
 “they used to go and bring firewood in daytime”

Like other past transitive forms, imperfect in transitive verbs are conjugated ergatively and do not generally use personal endings:

81. *jenū q^bālig=eī degaft tū šabr=eī deraviahd*
 woman.PL carpet=3PL weave.PST.IMPF in town=3PL sell.PST.IMPF
 “women wove a carpet and sold it in the town”
82. *amā bā dāsg derav-am deka*
 we with sickle reaping-1PL do.PST.IMPF
 “we cut wheat with sickles”

7. Present perfect. The present perfect of intransitive verbs are formed with the past participle of the main verb ending in *-a* or *-e* followed by the enclitic copula form of the verb “to be.” The prefix *be-* as the perfect marker also precedes the past participle form, while the use of verbal prefix precludes that of *be-*:

83. *fār-e mo šiv=e benīe*
 sister-EZAFE I husband=3SG gone.PTCP
 “my sister got married (has gone to husband)”
84. *he piašim tā hamī elū henvešta-hon*
 from noon until now here sat.PTCP-3PL
 “from noon until now they have sat here”

The transitive perfect has an ergative form and is formed with the past participle without copula:

85. *he dūšā tā hemī šim-ō benafārde*
 from last night until now dinner-1SG eaten.PTCP.NEG
 “from last night until now I have not eaten dinner”
86. *ō niang-at bedīe*
 that hen-2SG seen.PTCP
 “have you ever seen that hen?”

8. Past perfect. The past perfect of transitive verbs are formed with the past participle of the main verb followed by an inflected past form of “to be.” The prefix *be-* as the perfect marker also precedes the past participle form:

87. *duahd-ū be sārâ pi=e bešia -bī*
 girl-DEF to house father=3SG gone.PTCP -was
 “the girl had gone to her father’s house”
88. *befafta -behīm ke pi-am biyava*
 slept.PTCP -were.1PL that father-1PL come.PST
 “we had slept when our father came”

The transitive pluperfect is conjugated ergatively and consists of the participle of the verb, with the prefix *be-* and the third person singular simple past of “to be” (*bī* “was”); as an enclitic pronoun, the agent comes before the verb:

89. *ī mard=ō tâ hamī benadia -bī*
 this man=1SG until still seen.PTCP.NEG -was
 “I had not seen this man before”
90. *hormâvûn=am beraviabda -bī*
 date.PL=1PL sold.PTCP -was
 “we had sold the dates”

9. Perfect subjunctive. There is a form for past subjunctive that may be affected by the Persian model and is formed with a past participle with the prefix *be-*, plus the subjunctive of *b-* “to be.” It is primarily used to express unreal conditional and unrealizable past wishes:

91. *agar befafta -ban aldegardīm*
 if slept.PTCP -be.SBJ.3PL return.PST.IMPF.1PL
 “if they had slept, we would have returned”
92. *agar begaya -bū fe te be elū*
 if come.PTCP -be.SBJ.3SG himself come.PRS.IND.3SG to here
 “if he had arrived, he would have come here”

Like other forms of past transitive verbs, the transitive past subjunctive is conjugated ergatively:

93. *momkenī šīm-ayū benafârda -bū*
 maybe dinner-3PL eaten.PTCP.NEG -be.SBJ.3SG
 “maybe they have not eaten dinner”

10. Past progressive. The past progressive is formed with the past conjugation of *dâšt-* “to have” followed by the imperfect of the main verb. As there is no genuine

verb for “to have” in Farvi,⁴⁵ it seems that *dâšt-* in Farvi maybe a loanword from Persian and the Persian model of the past progressive is used. The progressive past is used to indicate an uncompleted situation to occur at a period of time in the past. As it appears in the examples, the past of *dâšt-* is conjugated ergatively and the enclitic pronoun as the agent typically attaches after the verb. The patterns used in some other Central languages have been noted by Windfuhr as “raising” a personal affix.⁴⁶

94. *dâšt=atû* *čī=atû* *dessay*
 have.PST=2PL what=2PL bought.PST.IMPF
 “what were you buying?”
95. *dâšt=am* *šīm=am* *defârd* *ke* *šomā* *biavahad*
 had.PST=1PL dinner=1PL eat.PST.IMPF while you.2PL come.PST.2PL
 “we were eating dinner when you came”

Ergative. Like all the Central languages, Farvi has retained a form of the so-called split ergative which shows ergative verb agreement. This indicates that originally the endings of transitive past verbs agreed with the object, not the agent. However, this form of agreement has largely been lost and in past transitive verb forms, instead of a verb ending, the enclitic pronoun and/or noun is placed before the verb as agent. This is used for all verb forms conjugated based on the past stem:

96. *siav=at* *he* *botte* *bečend*
 apple=2SG from tree pick.PST.[3SG]
 “you picked the apple from the tree”
97. *yagīnag=eī* *karde*
 fried egg=3PL made.PTCP
 “they have made fried eggs”
98. *ya* *bâγ-ī=am* *bessaya -bī*
 one orchard-INDF=1PL bought.PTCP -was
 “we had bought an orchard”

Still there are some forms showing that verbs may take an ending which is in agreement with the object:

99. *šomā avū* *bekošt=ayū*
 you they kill.PST=3PL
 “you killed them”

⁴⁵Normally “to have” is expressed by a combination of an enclitic pronoun and the verb “to be,” e.g. *tiabrū komi-ad ba* “do you have someone (a relative) in Tehran” (literally: “is there anyone in Tehran for you”), *ya niangi-am bi* “we had a hen” (literally: “there was a hen for us”).

⁴⁶Windfuhr, “Central Dialects,” ergative.

100. *agar amah=eī bedia -bīm degereft-eī=bīm*
 if we=3PL seen.PTCP -were.1PL capture.PST.IMPF-3PL=1PL
 “if they had seen us, we would have been captured”

The agreement is also shown by zero ending of third person singular when the verb has a singular object used in the sentence:

101. *siav=at he botte bečend*
 apple=2SG from tree pick.PST.[3SG]
 “you picked the apple from the tree”
102. *yaginag=eī karde*
 fried egg=3PL done.PTCP-[3SG]
 “they have made fried eggs”

The agreement has also been recorded in some other Central languages, e.g. Meymayi: *kia da bar-ešun kardī* “they turned you out of the house,” *bī-m bevotī ge abī ūna nāše* “I told you that he couldn’t go there.”⁴⁷ The agential enclitic pronouns are generally suffixed to the direct object, but may attach to the other constituents:

103. *šim=e bar šiv=e bepahd*
 dinner=3SG for husband=3SG cook.PST.[3SG]
 “she cooked dinner for her husband”
104. *gol-ō he ō botte bečend*
 flower-1SG from that tree pick.PST.[3SG]
 “I picked the flower from the tree”
105. *amā he ev-am bessay*
 we from he-1PL buy.PST
 “we bought from him”
106. *fētū ājeh-atū henahâ*
 yourself there-2PL put.PST
 “you yourself put [it] there?”

Passive. Passive is most commonly expressed by a passive stem that is formed by the suffix *-eh* (from Mid. Ir. *-ih-* <OIr. *-ya-*; also found in some Lori languages) to the present stem of a transitive verbs.⁴⁸ The past passive stem is then formed by adding *-ây* to the present passive stem (see also above): *fer-/fârd-* “to eat” > *fereh-/*

⁴⁷Fathi Borujeni, *Guyeš-e Meyma’i*, 109, 111.

⁴⁸Borjian has documented the suffix as *-e* in Khuri, though the form *-eh* can be seen in the past stem: *gōfe-/gōfehâ-* “be woven,” *h* interpreted by him as an epenthesis *-b-*.

ferehâ-y- “to be eaten,” *gîn-/dî-* “to see” > *gîneh-/gînehâ-y-* “to be seen,” *pej-/pahd-* “to cook” > *pejeh-/pejehâ-y-* “to be cooked,” *(he)rîj-/ (he)riahd-* “to pour” > *(he)rîjeh-/ (he)rîjehâ-y-* “to be poured.” The passive is conjugated as an intransitive verb in all tenses, aspects and modes:

107. *av=e degerebe tû kîsg derîjehe*
 water=3SG take.PRS. in haversack pour.PRS.IND.PASS.3SG
 IND.PASS.3SG
 “[the yogurt] water is strained and then it is put in a pouch”
108. *jâ dego pâyîz bekîrebe*
 barley want.PRS.IND.3SG autumn sow.PRS.SBJ.PASS.3SG
 “barley should be sown in autumn”
109. *q^hazâ diar bepejehâ*
 food late cook.PST.PASS.3SG
 “the food was cooked late”
110. *dar hebendehâ*
 door close.PST.PASS.3SG
 “the door was closed”
111. *q^hazâ bepejehâya -bî ke amâ begayîm*
 food cooked.PTCP.PASS -was that we arrive.PST.1PL
 “the food had been cooked when we arrived”

The passive may be formed by means of periphrastic constructions similar to Persian. This kind of passive is formed by the combination of the past participle with the corresponding finite form of the auxiliary verb *bo* “to become”:

112. *bottagû begahda -bohon*
 tree.PL uprooted.PTCP -were.3PL
 “the trees were uprooted”
113. *agar siavû befârda -ban bâz dessînîm*
 if apple.PL eaten.PTCP - are.SBJ.3PL again buy.PRS.IND.1PL
 “if the apples have been eaten, we would buy from the market again”

More Southwestern and Southeastern Isoglosses

As discussed above, Farvi regularly has shared phonological and morphological features with Southwestern, Kurdish and Balochi and in later changes with Southeastern

languages. Consulting the lexicon, we find a number of pieces of lexical evidence showing more isoglosses.

Farvi has these lexical elements in common with Southwestern languages: *mošk* “mouse” (cf. Bakhtiari, Boirahmadi and Bashgardi *mošk* from PIr. **muHs-ka-* with loss of laryngeal without compensatory lengthening, as against *mūš* from PIr. **muHs-* with loss of laryngeal and compensatory lengthening); *sose* “lung” (cf. Bakhtiari and Boirahmadi *sos*, from OIr. **suši-*, the progressive assimilation is only seen in Lori languages); *hezū* “tongue” from OP *hazāna-*; ⁴⁹ *gam* “mouth, opening” (cf. Bakhtiari and Boirahmadi *gam* “nibble”); *pīl* “bridge” (from older *pūl* < **publ*) versus *pard* and the like in some Northwestern languages; *gerī* “weeping” versus *berma* and the like in Central and most Northwestern languages; *ssay-/ssīn-* “to buy” versus *herī-/herīn-* “to buy” and the like in most Northwestern languages. The suffix *-iang* in words like *noviang* “salt,” *galiang* “necklace” and maybe *niang* “hen” is common in Southwestern languages (cf. Bakhtiari *havang* “metal mortar,” *nezeng* “near”). The same applies to the diminutive suffix *-ešk* in words like *miarešk* “ant,” which is also more common in Lori languages (cf. Boirahmadi *marmarūšk* “small salamander,” *parparūšk* “butterfly,” *sēsēyūšk* “a tiny black thing”).⁵⁰

Retention of Middle Iranian final postvocalic *-g* (from OIr. suffixal *-ka*) is a common phenomenon among Southeastern Iranian languages such as Balochi, Northern Bashgardi and Kumzari,⁵¹ probably the result of language contact in the region. In Farvi, OIr. suffixal *-ka* has remained as *-g*: *dong* “seed,” *ruāsg* “fox,” *dāsg* “sickle,” *nāfg* “navel,” *tarāsg* “balance,” *nāg* “nose” (< **nāh-ka*, cf. OP *nāh-*), *tafg* “a kind of bread baked on pan,” *kerg* “fireplace,” *āyeng* “mirror,” *kīsg* “haversack.” These exemplify the common usage in Farvi of *-g-* as intervocalic connector. A similar feature for Khuri is pointed out by Borjjan as an extra velar stop added to the final sonorant, a process he calls “velarization of final consonant.” But there are some problems with the examples for Khuri given by Borjjan. Some words have a suffixal *-ešk*: *čerešk* “chick” (cf. Farvi *čerik*, Central languages *čuri* “chick”), *mērešk* “ant” (cf. Pers. *mur* “ant”); some others seem to have a suffixal *-eng*: *galeng* “necklace” (Pers. *gal* “hanging?”), *nenang* “hen” (< *nana* “mother?”).

The sound change of OIr. **x-* > Farvi *k-* in words like *kong* “laugh” and *nāko* “nail” is also shared by Balochi (cf. *kandag* “laugh,” *nākun* “nail”), which shows another agreement between Farvi and Balochi; similar examples are found in Khuri: *kerus* “rooster,” *kuruj* “rabbit,” *kohnion* “to laugh,” *nokon/nākon* “fingernail.”⁵² Some

⁴⁹Paul, “Position of Zazaki,” 170, note 29. Paul believes that Khuri *hezūn* is from older **ezwān-* and initial *h-* seems to be prothetic not etymological. As there is no similar example for addition of initial *h-* in Farvi, I think *hezūn* is more probably from OP *hazāna-*.

⁵⁰Taheri, *Guyeš-e Lori Boirahmadi*, 151.

⁵¹See Korn, *Toward a Historical Grammar*, 163; Skjærvø, “Baškardi”; Skjærvø, “Languages of Southern Iran,” 365. Cf. Balochi *pārig* “last year,” *pablūg* “ribs,” *bandik* “thread”; Northern Bashgardi *bābhūg* “arm,” *nuēg* “new,” *sāg* “shadow”; Kumzari *starg* “star,” *hāymay* “firewood.”

⁵²Borjjan, “The Dialect of Khur,” 95.

other lexical isoglosses like *pe māz* “onion,” *gīsa* “female goat,” *giahnīj* “coriander,” *čeriķ* “chick,” *gaš-* “to say” (cf. Balochi *pīmāz*, *gwask/gēs*, *genič*, *čōriġ*, *gwaš-* respectively) show more agreement with Balochi.

Conclusion

The fact that some of the Southwestern features have been taken over by Farvi (and also by Balochi and Kurdish) shows that Farvi, Balochi and Kurdish have been influenced by Persian since Old Iranian times. In contrast to Kurdish and Balochi, Farvi with more Southwestern features shows more contact with Persian or Southwestern languages in Old and Middle Iranian times.

On the position of Farvi among Western Iranian languages, looking at historical phonology and some morphological and lexical features shows that Farvi, though basically Northwestern, shares a set of old isoglosses with Southwestern languages that place Farvi beside Kurdish and Balochi as a transitional language among Western Iranian languages. These agreements also give some idea of a common origin of Farvi with Balochi and Kurdish, where all of the three languages have apparently separated from the rest of the Northwestern languages earlier than other languages. In later changes, Farvi also shares some areal features that relate it with Southeastern Iranian languages such as Northern Bashgardi and Balochi. These isoglosses could therefore be regarded as less old than the Northwestern and Southwestern features discussed above. The lexicon of Farvi contains many old lexemes not attested in other Iranian languages, and in later changes show many sound changes that are unique among New Western Iranian languages.

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Appendix A

More Farvi words not attested in the text:

ajia "glaire," *appāy-/appā-* "to stand," *arzā-/arz-* "to be worth," *avesk* "sleeve," *āvard-/āvar-* "to bring," *bard-/bar-* "to carry," *biard-/biar-* "to cut," *čend-/čen-* "to pick," *čerik* "chicken," *čēšnāxt-/čēšnās-* "to recognize, to know," *dand* "wasp," *duabd-/dūš-* "to milk," *ezo* "such, this way," *fele* "foremilk," *gaft-/gāf-* "to weave," *galiang* "necklace," *ganvaš* "blossom of wild pistachio," *gare* "lamb," *gay-/gaj-* "to arrive, to come," *gay-/gū-* "to want," *gālī* "wart," *gārī-/gār-* "to rain," *gāzī* "game," *geriv-/gerv-* "to weep," *geriabd-/gerij-* "to flee," *giard-/gīr-* "to pass," *giüz* "walnut," *gorvang* "cotton boll," *haftia* "seventy," *henjond-/henjīn-* "to seat," *hejar* "fig," *hešt-/hal-* "to let," *jīng* "caraway," *kerg* "tandoor, oven," *kond-/kon-* "to throw," *koss-/kot-* "to pound," *kotre* "pup," *kowčīz* "ladle," *kuahr* "kid, young goat," *lūš* "mud," *mard-/mer-* "to die," *maske* "butter," *mazge* "mosque," *messehāy-/messeh-* "to get wet," *mīv* "hair," *mog* "date palm," *mōjū* "bitter wild almond," *momojū* "lizard," *mond-/mīn-* "to stay," *mua* "height, hill," *našg* "beak, neb," *nāzūg* "cat," *ošnū* "sneeze," *pālve* "jacket or trouser pocket," *pabd-/pej-* "to cook," *parg* "niche," *paz* "algae," *pesgarū* "swallow," *pešnū* "forehead," *piarehī* "two days ago," *pīn* "dried whey," *pīšg* "date kernel," *ravo* "oil," *ruahd-/rū-* "to sweep," *rūs* "bark of wild almond using for dyeing," *sa* "three," *šīlam* "turnip," *sisk* "beetle," *šī* "bottom," *suak* "bucket," *škass-/škeb-* "to break," *šo-/šū-* "to go," *tafg* "a kind of bread," *tarrū* "wet, moist," *tohorū* "cuckoo," *vasīng* "the flour of unripe barley," *xā* "soil," *zerū* "knee," *zog* "abdomen."

Appendix B, s

Sample text

1. *deguō bar šomā čan marâsem-e farvī degašō. marâsem-e xaš-kardō: ī marâsem jašn-e šorū-e kešt-e pâizag-ī vo doyyem-e Mordad tū kešū anjām degere ba čabošia vo fondon-e q^bōrū. gavar-e abâlī īn-ī ke vaqtī sâḏat xaš dekarān, kamar gormâ deškehe vo ā siā vo zard debū, yānī ā xonok debū. bānī-e xaš kardō degu xaš-dass buyī, be estelâh-e mahaligū dass-e suak buyī. pīstar nūnī ke estefâdag-eī dekada tū ī marâsem, nūn mohalī bâ revan-e xaš bia-g-ī. amâ hemī nūn nūnvāyī-a bâ mīvagūn-e tāvessūnī ke ziyâdтар hendūnag-ī.*

2. *ziâdтар-e hâzerū tū ī marâsem tū ā-yahdō vo toxmkâria komak dekeran. ī marâsem âyīnīg-ī bâ fondon-e q^bōrūn o čabošia hamrah-ī. afrâd-e kemnī doguan ke bānī-e ī marâsem beban. ī marâsem maxsūs-e keštan-e jā vo gonnām-ī. čomūn-e de mesl-e šilam hō dekīran.*

3. *marâsem-e de ke rasm biag-ī, marâsem-e nūn-e bibihūr biag-ī ke šav-e gist o haftom meh ruaja anjām degerefte. mardam mōtaq^bed bia-hō ke ī bibihūr be nūn-e mardam barakat dedebe vo tū šā gist o haft meh ruaja tanīr sārāvūn tū sobahī garm gūj dedâšte. mōtaq^bed bia-hō bibihūr te vo be ī tanīr sar dekote vo bâ assây âyar-e tanīrūn garm gūj dedīre, be nūn-e ī tanīrūn barakat hedehe. sabab-e zī jenū tū ī tanīrūn nūn-eī depahde beyn dūssūn o hamsâyagūn taqsīm-eī dekarde. ya zarrag-eī hō bar feyū gūj dedâšte. alāve he ī hō mōtaq^bed bia-hō tanīrūnī ke tū ī šā garm nahon, he barakat-e ī bibihūr be diar hon. ī kār tū rī-e âxar sâl hō tū bāzī jâgūn-e mantaq^be-ye biābūnak biag-ī. yānī rī gist o nohem-e esfand hō anjām degerfte.*

4. *âš-e pešt-e pâ: bazīd-ī komī bešia hame âšūn o dalīl-e pahdon-e ō barrasia kō vo bešmare. har kīča vo har mohalla ya âš depeje. tū mohallag-ī amâ hō hamīn-ī. amâ hō nāzonīm ke râbete-ye âš bâ xodahafezia če-ī. amâ tū har marâsemī ke boguam ajâge kerīm yâ har komī bogue he jām amâ xodâhâfezia kō be safar sū, âxar har barnâmag-am bâ âš-ī. hamī ke doguam be miahmūnūn begašīm ke de dešâd zahmat miahmū biō he rī kual amâ algerad, âš depejīm o ezō jām-amū parâkende debū.*

5. *yakī he vaqtūn-e de ke amâ âš depejīm âxer-e meh ruajag-ī. hamī ke meh ruaje âxer debū vo amâ bād a ya mah miahmūn-e xodâ biō dogvam jām-am parâkenda kerīm o ī miahmūnagia tark karīm âš depejīm, âš-e pešt-e pâ-ye meh ruaje. har mazge vo sārāyī jenū tū meh ruaje bar q^bōrū fondō dār ham jām debia- hon. rī zīd-e ruaje ke ī mah ajâ debū âš depejan har komī ya čomī tiavo vo harkī dogve te âš hegere. yâ hamō je eyfo yâ zarfī tiavo be sārâ debo. be omīd-e ī ke be ruaje-ye sâl de begajan, eyferan.*

1. I want to talk about some Farvi customs. The custom of delight-doing. This custom is the feast of autumnal farming celebrated in farmlands at the second half of Mordad (August) with chanting and reading the Quran. The belief of the local inhabitants is that when they do delight, the waistline of heat is broken (heat begin to reduce) and water becomes black and yellow. The celebrant of delight-doing should be *good-handed*. According to the local people, his hand should be light (easing the tasks). Formerly, the bread that they have used in this custom has

been a local type with domestic delicious oil, but now it is the bakery bread with some summer fruits which is mostly watermelon.

2. Most of the participants in this custom help [the celebrant] in irrigating and sowing. This custom is ritual and is accompanied by chanting and reading of Quran. There are just a few men who want to be the celebrant of this custom. This custom is related to barley and wheat sowing. Some other things like turnip they also sow.

3. The other custom that has been customary has been Bibihur that was celebrated on the 27th of Ramadan month. The people believe that this Bibihur gives abundance to the bread of people's clay oven, and keep warm the oven of houses on the 27th of Ramadan. They believe that Bibihur comes and visits and keeps warm the fire of oven with her cane, and gives abundance to the bread of ovens. In the early morning, women baked in these ovens and apportioned the bread among their friends and neighbors. A little bit they kept for themselves. Furthermore, they believed that the ovens that are not warm in this night are removed away from the abundance of Bibihur. It has also been practiced in the last day of year in some locations in Biabanak region. It means that it was also celebrated on 29th of Esfand (19 March).

4. The sending of the pottage of Ramadan: it is unlikely that someone can consider and enumerate all the pottage and the reason for cooking it. In each alley and quarter [of Farvi], a kind of pottage is cooked, which holds in our quarter too. The relationship between pottage and farewell is yet unknown. When someone wants to bid farewell or to travel, a pottage is cooked at the end of a ceremony. When we want to say our guest that you can take off our shoulders the difficulty of guest inviting, we cook pottage, and this way we disrupt our party.

5. The other time that we cook pottage is the end of Ramadan. When Ramadan ends, and after one month to be the guest of God, we want to disrupt our party and leave the party, we cook a pottage: the send-off pottage of Ramadan. In the feast of Ramadan when the month ends, they cook pottage. Everybody brings something and anyone is welcome to take the pottage. They eat there or bring a dish and take it home to eat in the hope that they arrive at the Ramadan feast of the next year and eat again.