In 1945 Claude LÉVI-Strauss in a separate article published in a journal of linguistic studies examined the applicability of structuralism and its methodology in the field of anthropological studies. Proceeding from the concepts of the structural linguistics developed in the works of Nikolai Troubetzkoy and Roman Jakobson, he outlined and delimited the main research spheres and subjects of linguistic and anthropological structuralism. Both focus on the unconscious infrastructures of the linguistic and social phenomena, on the relations between terms (phonemes and kinship denominations) and on the structure of the existing phonemic and kinship systems. Hence, the “systematic structuralism” as a whole contrasts with the “individualistic” and “atomistic” interpretation applied by the linguists and anthropologists from the older schools (LÉVI-Strauss 1996: 313–314). However, in the scope of anthropology Claude Lévi-Strauss distinguished two kinds of systems – the system of terminology and the system of attitudes. The first one is constituted by the kinship terms, but their functions in the system are unknown. The only obvious element is the system itself. This situation contrasts with the situation in the structural linguistics where the functions of the phonemes are obvious, but the system which they formed remains unclear. The second system stays out of the direct research interest of linguistics. By its nature the system of attitudes is psychological and social – it ensures the group cohesion and equilibrium, but its internal net and the interactions between the various attitudes are incomprehensible (LÉVI-Strauss 1996: 316).

Claude Lévi-Strauss’ article delimited the research fields of the two branches of structuralism – linguistic and anthropological. During the next decades the number of studies in both spheres increased incessantly but their final results and conclusions were rarely compared to each other. For example, Karl Kaser – one of the prominent modern researchers of the Balkans, in a recently published anthropological study on the base of the structural analysis introduced the term “Eurasia Minor” in respect to the Balkans (without Croatia and Slovenia) and Anatolia. His arguments are grounded on the finding that the “traditional kinship relations of the peoples of Eurasia Minor were very similar – in contrast to those of Western and Central Europe, on the one hand, and of the Middle East, on the other hand. Interestingly enough, the characteristics of kinship organizations – segmentation, generational distance, and birth order – as described for the Inner Asian steppe, are not limited to peoples of Turkish or Mongolian descent. We find them in most of the Balkan peoples, too” (Kaser 2008: 10–11).

Actually, the problem of “the little Eurasia” was discussed in the context of the Troubetzkoy’s and Jakobson’s linguistic structuralism 12 years earlier by the Austrian linguist Manfred Trummer. He regarded South Eastern Europe as an intermediary zone between Eurasia and the Mediterranean. According to his thesis a series of
linguistic occurrences in the Balkan languages like the prevailing number of consonants, palatalization (the timbre correlation \(s-s'\)), reducing the role of vowels – reduction of the unstressed vowels and vowel mutation (\(a/e\)) as well as the traces of cases preserved in Romanian, Albanian and Greek allows South Eastern Europe to be included in a vast area whose center is Eurasia (Trummer 1996: 259–260). On the other hand the domination of the verb in the morphological systems connects the region with the Eastern Mediterranean and its verbal type of languages. The author considered the phonetic system as being ethnically determined and the verbal type – as a consequence of cultural intercourse and communication (Trummer 1996: 261).

It is remarkable that both works leaning on the methodology of structuralism, reveal different (kinship and linguistic) aspects of the connections of the Balkan and Anatolian societies with Eurasia. However, from a historical point of view these aspects, in spite of the fact that they are examined by various branches of the humanities, were not phenomena independent and isolated from each other. They must be regarded as synchronic appearances of the ethnical, social and cultural contacts between the two regions. That imposes the necessity for the “traces” of this interaction to be studied in a complex way taking into consideration all sides and manifestations of the influence exerted by the unconscious systems on the nature of the group specifics, relationships and behavior.

The present article deals with a document little known in the Balkan studies – “Êíèãàøçàøíà1 ñå'í ѡåøòðèõø1 çèêîâú,øñëàâ1 íîøáî'ëãàðñê ѡåñêû1 øèøêàðàìàëè (öêîè “ (A book for learning of three languages: Slavic Bulgarian, Greek and Karmanli”) and more precisely with its third Karamanli part. Our aim is to investigate the Eurasian and Balkan features of the Karamanli language and the character of religious terminology and kinship nomenclature (the system of terminology and atti-

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1 The analysis of the language and anthropological data many times leads to opposite conclusions. For instance if we accept the palatalization and existance of case system as Eurasian markers the languages of Western Slav peoples whose family, kinship and gender relations according to anthropologists are based on the German Sippe (Kaser 2008: 39) or even German language itself stay much more closer to the Eurasian typology than Bulgarian. The coincidence between the Eurasian elements in the languages and the social culture on the Balkans also must not be overestimated. The Balkan languages, especially these forming the Balkan language union bear many “Mediterranean” features that categorically prevail over Eurasian. Therefore the language and social developments in the most of cases are diachronic not synchronic and parallel.

2 From linguistic point of view the “Karamanli language” without any doubt belongs to Turkish and can be reckoned as one of its dialectical groups and in certain degree as a Turkish sociolect spoken by a group distinguished from the other Turks by its religious specifics. In the exposition we will use the term Karamanli first because the language used in the period XV–XX century by the Turkophone Christians (called Karamanlies) in Anatolia, Istanbul, Balkans and Crimea was known from the beginning of XIX century with this name and second because in this language a relatively rich religious and laic literature also called Karamanli was created. The term was accepted by turkologists like Dmitriev and Evangelia Balta who regularly used it in their works. At the same time our article is based on the evidences of the trilingual Thessalonica book and therefore the name Karamanli here has mainly textual dimensions.
tudes) from the basis of the information decoded in the text of the book. Indeed its records in a certain degree correspond to “the tyranny of the written word” – a paradigm often criticized by many linguists and anthropologists. However, the trilingual book is among the few available sources that can be used for reconstruction of the vernacular and normative culture of the Balkan Karamanli community – one of the forgotten groups of “Eurasia Minor”.

1. Karamanlies – common historical evidences

The Karamanlies are one of the several Turkish speaking Christians groups populating Anatolia and the Balkans in the time of the Oğuz principalities (XIII–XV) and the Ottoman Empire (XV–XX). On the base of their group name, the Karaman principality (ancient Kapadocia and modern South-Western Turkey) is generally assumed to be their initial homeland. In the literature there are two contradictory opinions about their origin. According to the first one, which is mainly shared by Greek researchers, the Karamanlies are believed to be Greek by origin, but due to their separation from the Greek speaking population of the Anatolian coastal regions they have been linguistically absorbed by the Turkish environment. The second thesis, maintained by the Turkish historians, regards the Karamanlies as descendents of the Turkic Oğuz tribes or soldiers who, as a result of conducting their military service in the Byzantine army, accepted Christianity (Clogg 1968: 57; Vryonis 1971: 452; Togan 1981: 209–210). The earliest evidences for the existence of Turkish speaking Orthdoxes in the region of Karaman date back to the 15th century. In the second half of the same century in consequence of the ultimate conquest of the Karaman principality by the Ottomans and sultan Mehmed Fatih’s deportation policy, the Karamanli community was divided into two parts: the first remained in their old settlements while the second, including mainly merchants and artisans, were settled in Istanbul. In the next centuries the Karamanlies were mentioned in the reports and letters of diplomats and travellers who visited the Ottoman capital and Anatolia, and also by some Ottoman writers. According to their data, at the beginning, the Istanbul Karamanlies inhabited a separate quarter near to Yedi Kule and were well placed to the trade in agricultural and textile products. The reports in question also shed light on the character of their family relationships and the social status of the Karamanli woman. The Karamanli community in Anatolia kept its homogeneity and big masses of Karamanlies had been inhabiting the regions of Mersin, Konya, Ermenek, Akşaray, Nigde, Ilıara, Kemerhisar, Eregli, etc. for more than five centuries, until 1922. Most European travelers and missioners testify that the Karamanlies did not know Greek and only their priests could read the liturgy in this language, but in the most of cases even the priests did not understand the text (Clogg 1968: 74–76). This information is confirmed by the memoirs of the Bulgarian adventurer Svetoslav Milarov, who in 1869 took refuge in Marash among the Karamanlies. He notices that the town was populated by Karamanli and Arabian Christians and apart from Greek Arabian was also used in the church of Marash, but the local priest could hardly read from the

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3 In 1922 in accordance with the Lozano agreements the Karamanlies were forced to leave Anatolia and to immigrate into Greece.
Greek and Arabian books (Миларов 1994: 146). In 1892 a periodical of the Bulgarian Literary Society published an article dedicated to the Karamanlies. The author had spent some time among them and obviously was well acquainted with different aspects of their social life and normative culture. He regards the Karamanlies as a part of the West Anatolian Turks ethnically identical to the Middle Age Turkish Muslim population of Asia Minor and with the Gaguzes and Sorguches – Turkophone Christians from the Balkans (Черновеждь 1892: 436–438). Черновеждь describes the Karamanlies as a people consisting of four groups. The first covered the Orthodox Christians who were under the control of the Constantinople patriarchate, used the Greek alphabet in their written culture and learned Greek language in schools. The second group belonged to the Armenian Church, visited Armenian schools and had literature in their vernacular with Armenian letters. In spite of the influence exerted by the religious institutions on them, both groups knew neither Greek nor Armenian well and in their everyday life they spoke only Turkish. What is more, according to the information of the same author, they had no interest in learning Greek or Armenian and preferred to know the official Ottoman and Western languages (Черновеждь 1892: 441). The other two groups were small and had originated from the Armenian Church – they were composed of its former members having accepted Catholicism and Protestantism. Черновеждь asserts that the Karamanlies did not know the linguistic and ethnic principle of self-determination and identified themselves in accordance with the confessional principle introduced by the Ottomans – “Rum millet” (Orthodox), “Ermeni millet” (the subjects of the Armenian Church), “Catholic millet” (Catholics) and “Christian millet” (Protestants). The only non religious denomination that the Karamanlies preferred to use was “Anadolu” (Anatolians) – a derivate from the geographical name Anatolia. They were named Karamanli by the other peoples – Greeks, Bulgarians and Turks (Черновеждь 1892: 439–440). In the 19th century the main occupation of the Karamanlies was stockbreeding and trade. During that period and as a result of certain economical factors many Karamanlies left their home places and settled in the region of Izmir and Istanbul, but their families did not follow them and remained in the Karaman region. Some of the migrants made careers as Ottoman functionaries and clerks of the Constantinople patriarchy (Черновеждь 1892: 452–454).

1 If this information was true, most likely it applied to the trade estate among the Karamanlies.

5 According to Черновеждь the Karamanlies working for the Ottoman government were distinguished with their loyalty: “The Karamanli Christians, irrespective of their creed, have given to the Sublime Porte a big number of deserving servants. Actually the Karamanlies have been and are the most numerous elements among the Christian subjects of the Ottoman state who have occupied and occupy at the present high positions in the administration. However because of their Turkish or Turkified names only these who are familiar with them, know that they are Christians. As Ottoman servants they are more Ottomans than the sultan himself ...”. He also gives information about the activity of some notorious and rich Karamani families exerting a strong influence on the situation in the Constantinople patriarchy and especially underlines the role of the “household Yenidunya” and this of the rich trader Evangel Misailoglu who has published a newspaper “Anatol” in Karamanli language with Greek letters (Черновеждь 1892: 454–455).
Starting from the 15th century a relatively rich literature was created in Karamanli language – manuscripts and printed issues. The total number of books published in Karamanli with Greek letters during the period 1711–1935 was 628 books – 340 with religious and 288 with laic content. 30 of them were issues of the printing house of the Constantinople Patriarchy and 181 of different Protestant churches (Balta 1997–98: 137). The number of the books written with Cyrillic and Armenian letters is unknown.

2. The trilingual book – peculiarities and main problems

The “Book of learning of three languages” was published in 1841 by a Thessalonica printing house founded several years earlier by the Bulgarian monk Theodosius of Sinai (Sinaitski). The pages are divided into three columns – the first comprises the Bulgarian text, the second the Greek and the third the Karamanli. On the top of each column the name of the respective language is given. The separate quires are paginated, but because in the beginning their numbering was confused, we will mark the concrete examples used in the exposition in accordance with the number of their pages and lines. All texts are written with Cyrillic script – Church Slavonic graphic. The Bulgarian and Greek texts are taken from Daniel’s “Αρχη του τετραγλωσσου Αετου” and are transliterated from the Greek alphabet to Cyrillic. The Karamanli text is their translation and therefore appears to be an original contribution of the Cyrillic version. Up to this moment the text has never been a subject of separate study by the Bulgarian linguistic or historiography. It is also mentioned by some of the Russian and Bulgarian researchers of life and activity of Theodosius of Sinai – Drinov and Daniel’s book – Seliščev, Pogorelov and Ničev. According to Drinov the publisher of the book is Theodosius, but its compiler is unclear (Дринов 1911: 489). Pogorelov and Ničev did not pay any attention to this problem, but obviously identified the publisher with the compiler. In their works they also reprinted the first page of the trilingual book together with the Karamanli text but without any comments on it (Погореловъ 1925: 5; Ничев 1977: 17–18). The three authors called its language “Turkish” and put the name “Karamanli” in brackets. Seliščev calls the language “Karamanli” but without additional comments (Селищев 1918: 15).

The Soviet turkologist Dmitriev published in 1928 and 1929 a separate study in two consecutive parts concerning the phonetic material of the Karamanli text. He regarded the problem entirely in the context of the Turkish (Ottoman) phonetic system and paid little attention to the Balkanisms contained in the text. His conclusion is that the language presented in the book does not reflect completely the peculiarities of the Anatolian Karamanli but is rather a strange eclectic mix between Anatolian and Balkan Turkish vernaculars (Дмитриев 1928: 427). He applied in the end of his study a full Arabian (Ottoman) transcription of the Cyrillic original of the text.

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1 The term Slavic Bulgarian can be seen only in the title of the book. On the top of the columns is used the name “Bulgarian”.

2 “Αρχη του τετραγλωσσου Αετου” was compiled by Aromanian monk Daniel and printed in 1802. It contains four texts – in Greek, Albanian, Aromanian and Bulgarian. All the texts are written with Greek letters.
Many Yugoslav historians and linguists referred to the book as one of the works of the 19th century "Macedonian" literature but actually all of them repeated the propaganda theses of Haralampie Polenaković who in 1952 tried to present Theodosius of Sinai not as a Bulgarian but as a "Macedonian" cultural and spiritual figure. Polenaković also suggested the hypothesis according to which the translator of the Karamani text was the printer of the book – an assertion that is more than doubtful as we will see below (Поленаковић 1952: 35–39).

A careful comparison of Bulgarian and Greek parts with the Karamani brings forward three important questions. The first one relates to the number of translators and the nature of bilingualism spread on the Balkans and Anatolia in the middle of the 19th century. Some important language differences in the Karamani text give reason to think that the translators were at least two different people. For instance, up to the 42nd page of the book the forms of Bulgarian and Greek conjunctive (da/vo) are expressed by the Turkish optative mood (İstek kipi) but after this page the optative is always replaced by the necessitative mood (Gereklik kipi). There are significant distinctions in the choice of some conjunctions. In the first 12 pages mainly the conjunction em (em/hem “and”) is used as a coordinator and rarely da (da). Subsequently em (em) often is replaced with ve (ve “and”). In the beginning the interrogative pronoun ne (ne “what”), in two sentences (p. 5, line 6 and 12), functions as a subordinating conjunction (“because”) – an occurrence untypical of the rest part of the text. Furthermore, some lexemes appear in two phonetic variants – a fact proving that the translators were more than one and that they spoke or knew different variants of the Karamani.

Several grammatical and lexical mistakes made by the translators shed additional light on the level of their language competence. Despite the fact that some of them are technical, there are also other mistakes that can be defined as structural. The most frequent errors are in the use of the voices. For example, the Bulgarian phrase енцинато “some are eaten” is translated into Karamani as караманаки енцинато “some of them eat” (p. 5, line 5) or и пандаконет ми радеко “and chickens make us happy” as пандаконет ми радеко “chickens are glade” (p. 6, lines 2, 3). In the first case the active voice is used instead of the Turkish passive and in the second instead of the causative. The reason was due most probably to the fact that the translators did not understand the meaning of the Bulgarian or Greek short reflexive and personal pronouns. On that ground we can suppose that they were bearers of asymmetric bilingualism in which mostly the parallel grammatical forms are mutually comprehensible.

In his work Pogorelov took a heed of several passages from Daniel’s Lexicon missing in the Cyrillic Bulgarian and Greek variants of the trilingual book (Протогеров 1925: 6–11). The passages noticed by Protogерov were also missing in the Karamani part. The latter shows that the translators and the Bulgarian compiler used a common source where the passages in question very likely had been damaged. In the Karamani text in the place of one of the partly lost phrases there is a new sentence added obviously by some of the translators (p. 37, lines 22–23).

Pogorelov also examined many modifications in the phonetic structure of the words that were a result of the transliteration or misunderstandings of the Greek letters. Incidentally, these modifications have led to changes in the meaning of the
respective lexemes. Sometimes they affected the Karamanli translation, sometimes not. The Bulgarian sentence from the Daniel’s lexicon: Η κώκα κλάτητα τραπέ “When you lay the table” is transliterated in Cyrillic as Погорлов 1925: 24, lines 225–226. In the Karamanli text the parallel phrase is in accordance with the Daniel’s sentence: ατίηδα μάνες “When you lay the table” (p. 11, lines 8–9). Another similar example is Daniel 873: Ή κώκα τα γω πίεσσ “and when you drink it”, Погорлов 1925: 8). However the trilingual book offers contrary examples: οτ πράτατα “from the beard” (Daniel 838), από τον αδελφό “from the brothers” (p. 37, line 16), καθιλιστάν “from his (her)/your brothers” (p. 37, line 16). The above variants imply that the translators worked with different texts – some of them had already been transliterated into Cyrillic, the others preserved the Greek letters of Daniel’s original or were in Greek.

Dmitriev found the traces of initial Greek transcription in the Karamanli part: wrong substitution of š with χ in many lexemes and use of ɡ instead j in the beginning of three words (Дмитриев 1928: 424–425). On this ground he assumed that the Karamanli text was first written with Greek letters and subsequently, such as the Bulgarian and Greek parts, was transliterated into Cyrillic (Дмитриев 1928: 424–425).

3. Phonetic peculiarities of the Karamanli text

The problems of orthography and phonetic were examined in detail by Dmitriev. Here I will regard only these occurrences that suppose direct typological similarities between the Karamanli and the languages of the Balkan linguistic union.

3.1. Vowels

Wide spread is the appearance of ā (open e) instead a after j and the palatal l: [jāpamesân], [jāsemaż], [jāpelmiš], [jākán], [läzâm], [läkmâr] (lákâm) etc. The alternation a/ā appears in doubled forms like ālma (alma). According to Dmitriev the substitution of a with ā is registered after j and the palatal consonants in the regions of Trabzon and Konya in Anatolia and also in the Macedonian Turkish dialects, especially those spoken in Thessalonica and south from Thessalonica (Дмитриев 1928: 435–436). Actually this phenomenon can be considered as a part of the common for a big number of Romanian and Eastern Bulgarian speeches correlation ‘a (ea) > e’. The vowel mutation

* A similar opportunity can be suggested by Daniel 330. Here, the Greek subordinating conjunction εἰδε “if” is written wrongly in Bulgarian: ανω instead ακω. The Bulgarian compiler did not understand the real meaning of the word and replaced it with the adverb ãm “well” (Погорлов 1925: 8). The Karamanli translation ãm “when” by its meaning stays closer to the Greek conjunction than to the Bulgarian adverb. Unfortunately, the language data as a whole are not categorical and it is difficult to decide which language was used as a main source for the Karamanli translation. What is more, there are two other languages included in the Daniel’s lexicon – Aromanian and Albanian. In fact they are not presented in the trilingual book but might have been used for the Karamanli translation.
of a before the palatals is qualified as “very old phenomenon in the Bulgarian language. In the speech on which was based the Cyril and Methodius’ script the mutation of a had already existed. It has been regular after j and more rare after ď, č, ñ” (Иванова-Мирчева/Харалампиев 1999: 71–72). In Romanian ea appears under stress and before hard syllables and e before soft or unstressed syllables (Асенова 2002: 34). Some linguists in virtue of the geographical distribution of the local names dava/deva are inclined to seek the roots of the alternation e/a in the hypothetical Daco-Moesian language – an eventual predecessor of the modern Albanian and substratum of Aromanian and Romanian (Георгиев 1958: 114–115). A similar alternation is evidenced in some Protobulgarian words recorded in the 9th century Proto-Bulgarian and 10th century old Bulgarian epigraphic monuments: кана/кана (Бешевлиев 1979: 224), ηνιαγιαντα/ηνιαγιαντε (Бешевлиев 1979: 62), елек/елен (Бешевлиев 1979: 207). The spread of the vocal mutation ’a/ ea/e goes beyond the borders of the Balkans and contains large areas from North Eastern Europe – it is well known in Polish and partly in different Russian dialects. In this context the assumption that it is closely related to the Eurasian type of phonology marked by strong palatalization of the consonant systems and weakness of the vocalism seems to be reasonable (Trummer 1996: 259).

The reduction of the unstressed vowels is another common feature peculiar to the vocal systems of the languages members of the Balkan Linguistic Union. In fact the Balkans appears to be a periphery of a wider zone of reduction whose center is again Eastern Europe. Most probably the reduction is also due to the above mentioned Eurasian weakness of vocalism. In the frameworks of the Balkan Linguistic Union there are two areas of typological similarities in the scope of reduction. The first is Rumanian-Albanian which is characterized with historical reduction of the Latin loanwords and prototypes and with a weak degree of modern reduction: in northern and some southern Albanian dialects the unstressed ê (ă) disappears; in Romanian most frequent is the reduction of the unstressed e: e > i (Асенова 2002: 31–32). The second area embraces the eastern Bulgarian and the northern Greek dialects marked by a full reduction and disappearance of the unstressed vowels (Асенова 2002: 33). Many Turkish dialects from the eastern part of the Balkan peninsula share the same specifics in respect to reduction and can be assigned to the Bulgarian–Greek zone. In the Karamanli text of the trilingual book there are few examples of reduction. It affects predominantly the vowel o that in non accent position sometimes turns to u: dolu > qSaS (dušu, p. 2, line 1), odun(ara) > SåSå (udunlara, p. 2, line 2), bozadžaklar > båSå (buzadžaklar, p. 3, line 19), böcek > bücek > buek, etc. (see Дмитриев 1928: 449). There are only three examples with reduction of e: иналар, кынкалар, гыйтар (Дмитриев 1928: 441). The existence of reduction of o in the native speech of the region of Karaman (Дмитриев 1928: 450) provides reason for its attribution more to the Turkic (Eurasian) heritage rather than to the Balkan influ-

\[\text{In the text the appearance of e and a in unstressed syllable on the place of i or i is a wide spread occurrence, see Дмитриев 1928: 444–447. That makes the above three examples of reduction doubtful. It is possible they to be a result of orthographic errors not of a real existing reduction of e. This is confirmed by the fact that in other places the word кынкалар is written with е: кынкалар (p. 19, line 10).}\]
ence. The other changes in the vocal system obviously relate the Karamanli text to the specifics of the Macedonian Turkish dialects according to data given by Hazai (Hazai 1960: 506–507):

- Breach of the rules of the vocal harmony. The occurrence affects the plural, different case, tense and mood suffixes and the conjunction da/de: ñwëàð, aîîçëåäûð, ñåêëàðå, øåêëàðû, à9ëìàñüíëå’ðú, à9wðäåðëàðú, õwëàè’äå, âåñëåìåçäà, ôàê1ðàëåðå’, âàðäåð, õîðñüíú, âåðìåçäà, ãþíàõëàðåìåçå’ø etc.

- ü > u: áıò1íú, øåáåðñà, çüíá1øëåðäå, øåêþëåðäå, øåáøìåëåðåø etc.

- Preservation of the old suffix of Görülmeyen geçmiş zaman miş (miş): øüñ1ðåðëåð, øè9ç1ìäåí, øâå1ò1, ø1ò1, øñê1ìëåðäå, øëåðäå, øåð, øêèò1ê, øñåâåðñà, øò1ê1ðìåëåðåø etc.

- Elision of the postvocalic and intervocalic g: only two words preserve the old ãåðø (p. 12, line 5) and ãåðø (p. 29, line 23). The intervocalic g in the second...
word is also preserved in some East Rumelian Turkish dialects from the territory of Bulgaria.

- Disappearing of the initial and intervocalic velar h: it concerns only part of the words containing h (see Дмитриев 1929: 121–222)\(^\text{12}\). This phenomenon is widely spread in many dialects of the Balkan languages including Serbian which is not a member of the Balkan Linguistic Union. In Bulgarian it is dated back to the Middle ages. Most likely the elision of h is rooted in the Vulgar Latin spoken on the Balkans during the Roma rule and afterward.

- Shift $d\ddot{e} > \ddot{e}$: in the text some words have doublet phonetic structures with $d\ddot{e}/\ddot{e}$ alternation: $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{n}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$. Dmitriev notices that similar substitution of $d\ddot{e}$ with $\ddot{e}$ exists in the Turkish speeches from Bosnia and consider it as typical of the Balkan Turkish dialects. He also ascribes the shift $d\ddot{e} > \ddot{e}$ to the Slavic influence on Turkish (Дмитриев 1929: 129). Indeed it has been constantly registered in the Turkish dialects from the Eastern Rhodope Mountains and in the language of Gagauzes.

- Shift $z > s$ in final position: $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$. The change of the final voiced consonants into unvoiced ($z > s$, $d > t$) is well presented in the speech of the Bulgarian Turks and obviously is due to the influence exerted by Bulgarian.

- Depalatalization: in all examples where $u$ shifts into $u$ and $o$ into $o$ the preceding palatals become hard. The same effect is observed in the roots of some other words and in auslaut: $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$. Depalatalization is registered in Eastern Balkan Turkish dialects and can be regarded as an essential moment in the process of their balkanization\(^\text{13}\).

- Assimilation $nl > nn$: $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$. Except in the Eastern Balkans (Хазаи 1964: 61) the assimilation of $l$ is well known in the Anatolian speeches (Дмитриев 1929: 136–137).

- The postposition $ile$ appears under the form $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$ in the form $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$ – a phenomenon typical of the Turkish dialects from the territory of Bulgaria (Хазаи 1964: 61).

\(^{12}\) Dmitriev asserts that “the Karamanli text does not give examples for elision of h in the end of word” (Дмитриев 1929: 122). That is true, but with one important exclusion: the word Аллаh two times is written without the final $h$: $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$ (p. 11, line 17) and $\ddot{c}i\ddot{e}\ddot{a}$ (p. 47, line 10). In the second case the final $h$ in the stream of speech falls among two vowels and probably that is the reason for its disappearing.

\(^{13}\) According to the researchers of the history of Bulgarian language “the most essential further change of the Bulgarian consonant system is the salient tendency toward depalatalization. Its manifestations vary in the separate dialects but they are registered even in the earliest Bulgarian monuments (Иванова-Мирчева/Харалампиев 1999: 82).
4. Changes in the morphological system

4.1. Nouns

4.1.1. The Balkanisms in the case system:
The case system is presented with six Turkish cases – nominative, dative, accusative, locative, ablative and genitive. However, under the influence of the Balkan languages significant changes appear in their functions.

Weakening of the opposition between place (locative) and direction of action (dative). The direction is expressed by both the locative and dative cases.

Locative: 

- nominative: 
  - The case system is presented with six Turkish cases – nominative, dative, accusative, locative, ablative and genitive. However, under the influence of the Balkan languages significant changes appear in their functions.
  - The direction is expressed by both the locative and dative cases.
  - The directional expression is not limited to the locative case alone; it can also be conveyed through the dative case in certain contexts.

Dative:

- The dative case is kept mainly with the verbs gelmek “come”, gitmek “go”, vermek “give”, getirmek “bring”, yakırmak “suit, go well” and in most of the cases after kadar. The lack of differentiation between place and direction of action is one of the oldest phenomena characterizing the Balkan Language Union and appears even in some Serbian dialects from Monte Negro (Acevova 2002: 86–88). Its origin must be sought in the impact exerted by the Balkan Latin vernaculars on the historical development of the Balkan languages but its appearance in the Balkan Turkish dialects is due to their interaction with Bulgarian and Greek.

Disappearing of the third person possessive suffix (s)î from the second noun in the genitive noun constructions sometimes accompanied by change of the places of the two noun components: ZfB, 45 (2009) 1

The possessive constructions with the modal word var “to have” are in nominative: varî chımchÜ tevî “I have many bees” (p. 18, lines 4–5), varî kâdi var “we have two vineyards” (p. 12, lines 18–19, see also the next paragraph).

Sporadic appearance of specific endings (the accusative or possessive suffixes) functioning in capacity of postpositive definite articles: var “the rams, (the) goats, (the) lambs, kid are very good” (p. 4, lines 1–6), var “they have juice” (p. 37, lines 6–7), dövüklü var “the pigs have juice” (p. 37, lines 8–9), dövüklü “the tendons are robust” (p. 37, lines 10–11), kîla kîla “I produce and sell too much honey and wax for a (the) year” (p. 27, line 12). The directional expression is not limited to the locative case alone; it can also be conveyed through the dative case in certain contexts.
culiarity of the Karamanli text has parallels to the Turkish dialects from the territory of Bulgaria where the use of accusative (y)i and the third person possessive (s)i suffixes as postpositive definite article is recorded\textsuperscript{14}. The postpositive definite article is among the most important typological similarities between most of the languages spoken in the vast space of the Balkans and Anatolia. Unfortunately, the specifics of its use in the Turkish dialects from the Balkans are not yet fully studied and at this stage it is difficult to establish a connection with some of the areas of spread of the postpositive definite article: Albanian/Romanian, Bulgarian and Armenian.

4.1.2. Other specifics of the case system
In many situations the accusative coincides with the dative under the impact of the transition i > e and i > a.

4.2. Some adjectives and adverbs are put after the nouns that they characterize, most likely due to Albanian or Arumanian influence:

- çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "mix it with hot water" (water hot, p. 39, lines 2–3),
- çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "when a frozen place (place frozen) be founded" (p. 41, lines 14–15),
- çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "when there is many mud" (mud many – p. 41, lines 18–19),
- çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "I had a bad dream" (dream bad – p. 30, lines 6–7).

4.3. Pronouns
One of the most significant changes in the morphology that can be considered not only as a Balkanization but even as an IndoEuropeanization of the Karamanli, is the transformation of the interrogative pronouns ne "what" and kim "who", nere "where" into relative – that, which, who, where: çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "these who have a mind" (p. 6, lines 11–12), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "and they have not with what to by (literal)/they have nothing to by" (p. 12, lines 8–10), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "who has sons and daughters" (p. 34, lines 1–2), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "these who get married in time" (p. 34, lines 9–11), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "who goes to the water-mill" (p. 35, line 22; p. 36, line 1), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "these from the old men who has a big beard" (p. 40, lines 11–12), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "and women who have big hair" (p. 40, lines 18–20), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "you who has joy (literal)/you who are happy" (p. 43, lines 8–9), çâçüðåøòåðà'ñüíúøñ "where they come in" (p. 9, line 7).

4.4. Usage of ne “what” and niçin “why” as a subordinating conjunctions for reason.

The specific appearance of ne and niçin obviously follows the functions of the Greek loan word “ώστι”/“ότι” in the parallel Bulgarian sentences from the text: πω χάρισε τά

\textsuperscript{14} In the Turkish speeches from the region of Sárëna Sredna gora the accusative suffixes are used in nominative as definite article: Arabayi geldi “The car has come”. In the region of the Eastern Rodhopes the use of the third person possessive suffix prevails: Arabası geldi “The car has come”. The appearance of the accusative suffixes in capacity of postpositive definite articles can be explained with the specifics of the Turkish accusative indicating the introduction and nonintroduction of the direct object: Arabaysı gördüm “I saw the car”/Bir arabası gördüm “I saw a car”.

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4.5. An essential characteristic of the Karamanli text which distinguishes its language from the modern standard Turkish is the widespread usage of the old Turkic adverb "akan" "when". For the first time it is observed in the Mahmud Kashgarı’s dictionary (Древнетюркский словарь 1969: 400) and up to present day it is well known in the Balkan Turkish, Gaguz and Tatar dialects despite its disappearance from the modern Turkish. The preservation of "akan" on the Balkans can be explained with the existing of similar parallel adverbs in the Balkan languages and the limited use of the participle constructions in the Turkish Balkan dialects. In the Karamanli text it coexists along with verbs in Geniş and Gelecek zaman: əčına ашык атам "when you wash your bed" (p. 28, lines 20–21), ашык ашып "when the sun goes down" (p. 23, lines 14–15).

4.6. Verbal system

Availability of the third person suffix of the verb "to be" in the present tense. The suffix appears constantly after nouns, adjectives, adverbs and pronouns. The occurrence connects the Karamanli with the Balkan languages forming an area of active use of "to be" and distinguishes it from Turkish where the suffix "dir" disappears.16 Replacement of the infinitive with the first and second person forms of optative and with the third person forms of imperative: "etərəñəyə атама "I am afraid of casting fishing rod" (p. 17, lines 1–2), шаңа гана кызакша гузармал айнымалык "now come to carry away the straw" (p. 33, lines 11–12), буфуйма кызакшы фүнэш "if you want kindle the bakery" (p. 27, lines 19–20), ыңа ашык гөрөө баштап "if the sick man wants to take treatments" (p. 14, lines 19–21). The Turkish (Karamanli) constructions verbal tense + optative (first and second person)/imperative (third person) obviously copy the functions of the Balkan conjunctions əna, tə, sə, əν replacing the infinitive and expressing order or wish in independent sentences (Асе-

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15 In the Tatar dialects from Bulgaria its phonetic form is qašan (Ташева 1978: 57) and in the Turkish dialects it can be met as hatan or akan.
16 In this respect obvious parallels exist between Turkish and Russian where the verb "to be" in present tense disappears entirely.
17 In the Balkan Turkish dialects the difference between the third person forms of imperative and optative has completely disappeared and the imperative forms are used in both positions – as optative and imperative. However, in the Karamanli text the original third person forms of optative are still retained.

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нова 2002: 195). The infinitive is kept mainly in constructions with the postposition için showing some kind of purpose and aim.

The optative and imperative also are used instead infinitive together with the modal word lazım “must”: эки ишерче аждырет кармьы ажырдыгы хасороң ызындап “when man dies he must be put on the straw-mat”. (p. 39, lines 14–16).

The text offers two ways of formation of the future tense: the first is the well known agglutinative way with the suffixes (y)acak/(y)ecek. The second way can be estimated as typical Balkan – with the help of the verb istemek “want”. Two variants of combinations between istemek and the main verb are available: conjugated form of the verb istemek + optative/imperative form of the main verb: инең истереч катысы адам “now I will buy” (p. 14, lines 2–3), ишем ишереч кирик канта “I will go on a boat” (p. 17, lines 5–6), ишемланда тата оңека иштерече уюктаманы па таи фәңларды “and then when it become sweet I will make wet … and the butts” (p. 13, lines 7–12), ишем канал акы кырек геңе ышеречи экайлык пышеми ырангы кирк фәңдә “when it rises in bubbles forty days I will pour out the first wine in one butt” (p. 13, lines 14–17). As an exception the future tense is formed by a combination of the infinitive of the main verb and conjugated form of istemek: иниң итереч “he will wait” (p. 13, line 3).

Specific feature of the language of the Karamanli text is the limited usage of participles and verbal adverbs. The most widespread are the participles of miш (июш). There is only one example of ди’ participles and not a single one of (y)an/(y)en” and тиг/dик’. The number of the verbal adverbs in the text is reduced to a few instances of тигта/dикта and (y)енцә.

The phonetic and morphologic peculiarities of the Karamanli text reveal a language at advanced stage of Balkanization. Predominantly, it affects the morphological and consonant system. At the same time the language of the text bears characteristics of Anatolian, East and West Balkan Turkish speeches. This is to indicate that it was based on city vernaculars uniting dialects of different groups and regions.

5. Religious terminology

The religious terms occupy a significant place in the Karamanli text and form one of the best presented lexical layers. Its specific features give us reason to regard the Karamanli as a separate Turkish sociolect. At the same time the analysis of the available religious terms can shed light on the most obscure and controversial problem in the history of the Karamanli community – its origin and initial relationships with the

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18 In this sentence the verb koymak “put” is used in active voice instead of the passive. About the nature of this type of mistakes see part II.
19 In this sphere interesting parallels can be drawn between Bulgarian and the language of the Karamanli text. In Bulgarian the present active participles disappeared from the language in the end of the Middle ages and were subsequently restored artificially in the standard language (Мирчева, Харалампиев 1999: 157).
20 The structure of the sentences in the text follows literally the structure of the Bulgarian and Greek sentences. That does not allow for any definite conclusions about the syntax of the Karamanli text to be drawn.
different religious and ethnic groups from Anatolia. In comparison with the religious and church vocabulary of the other Orthodox peoples and the abundance of terms indicating their pagan past, the Karamanli text lack any reference whatsoever to pre-existing Turkic polytheistic beliefs. In fact, the main part of the Karamanli religious lexis consisted of typical Islamic terms and notions adapted to Christianity. A considerably small number of terms related to the specific church practices and mass appears to be loanwords from Greek. The fact itself makes the Karamanli case a unique phenomenon in the Orthodox world and implies that the Christianization of the Karamanlies has been realized on Islamic base. This assumption is confirmed by the names of the days of the week which do not distinguish from the common Turkish denominations (including Sunday).

5.1. Terms with Muslim origin

Theonyms: the most frequent theonym is İllâh “Allah”21. It directly corresponds to the theonym Господь “Lord” in the Bulgarian text and underlines the God’s exclusiveness and cosmocracy. The more common term İl “god” is used only one time: “God to forgive your relatives” (p. 11, lines 16–17)22. The sentence is arbitrary translation of the Bulgarian и в ти п ростят д р у ги е т е в и и the Greek διά να σ/ομικρονυ συγ/ομικρονυ ν (Погорлов 1925: 24) – in order your relatives to give you pardon. In this case the word İl obviously is inserted by the translator and probably reveals a Christian influence. However in the scope of the theonyms it remains hypothetical and uncertain23.

Prayers: in the Karamanli text two kinds of prayers are distinguished: regular (намаз) and individual (дуа). Similar delimitation is not registered in the Bulgarian and Greek parts and evidently follows not only terminologically but also typologically the Islamic model24: “On Sunday you must pray”, “On Sunday you must go to namaz” (p. 9, lines 19–21), χά χά

21 In the Greek text the respective term is not Κύριος but Ο Θεός.
22 In this sentence the word Rahmet is used, which in the Islamic tradition is one of the names of God (Merciful). However, here it appears to be part of the verb rahmet eylemek “forgive”.
23 Generally speaking, in the Orthodox literature and mass the word God is used more often than Lord. Both words function as synonyms at least on popular level. In this context the appearance of İl instead Allah may be considered as a Christian feature. At the same time the two words have Islamic (Arabic) origin and it is remarkable that they are not replaced by loan words from Greek or loan translations of the Greek Κύριος.
24 In the Islamic literature dua is described as an “appeal, invocation (addressed to God) either on behalf of another or for oneself or else against someone; hence prayer of invocation, calling either for blessing, or for imprecation and cursing” (The Encyclopedia of Islam, 1983 p. 617). Namaz or Salat in Arabian is a regular ritual prayer carried out in accordance with strong rules and at certain fixed time (The Encyclopaedia of Islam, 1995, p. 925–926). It is interesting that according to Koran Namaz is a prayer originating from the time of the first man and was an obligation also on the first Christians. Perhaps because of that reason delimitation namaz/dua was preserved in Karamanli.

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The lexeme yortu (holiday: “Let’s not drink much wine during the holidays” (p. 14, lines 15–17). The usage of the word yortu is a repercussion of the Turkish-Islamic notion dividing holidays into two kinds: bayram (Muslim holiday) and yortu (Christian holiday).

The Muslim term peygamber “profit” in the text means saint: “I will take also olives, lentil, gram and beans (in order) to have a food in the days of fast” (p. 14, lines 9–14). In the modern Turkish perhiz means diet but in the Ottoman it bore a meaning different from the modern: “Strong abstention from things forbidden by religion” (Ozön 1955: 689). Hence perhiz by its meaning nuances differed from the other Turkish word for fast oruç that can be described as contemporary abstention and prohibition. At the same time there are considerable differences between the requirements and practices of the Christian and Muslim fast. The introduction of perhiz as well as of the above mentioned peygamber shows that the transformation of the Muslim terms into Christian in the Karamanli was not mechanical and spontaneous but was rather due to conscious selection.

Sadaka “alms” – one of the typical Muslim social terms. Initially, in the early Islamic epoch it was a name of the tax zekât imposed on the Muslims (Altay 1983: 497). Later on the word acquired a new content “something given to the poor for the sake of God” (Ozön 1955: 725). With the same meaning it appears in the Karamanli text: “(To) give alms to the poor as much as you can” (p. 11, lines 4–7).

Other words taken from the common Muslim terminological fund without any changes in their literal sense and functions are günâh “sin”, cennet “paradise” (heaven), af “forgiveness” (of): “Our sins to be forgiven and to gain the paradise amen” (p. 47, lines 14–18).

According to the information of Černovež the Anatolian Karamanlies knew and used the word aziz “saint” (Černovež 1892: 442). In fact, in Turkish there are two words for saint evliya and aziz. The first one is closely related to the Sufi brotherhoods and is widespread in the Turkish dialects on the Balkans.
5.2. Common Turkish-Christian terms

In Turkish, except the Muslim, there are terms for designation of some typical Christian institutions and holidays. By its origin they are Greek, Arabian and Persian loanwords. One part of them appears in the Karamanli text: *papaz* “priest” (*papa*), *kilise* “church” (*kaneh*), *Paskale* “Eastern” (*Paskala*), *keşiş* “monk” (*keçec*).

5.3. Karamanli-Christian terms

All of them have Greek origin and mostly refer to the liturgical practices.

*λειτουργία* “liturgy” – a round leavened bread prepared by wheaten flour (Communion bread). One part of the bread is utilized in Eucharist, the rest is given to the worshippers: *κατραγκάνε* παλατέ *λειτουργία* “(to) bring a liturgy (Communion bread) to the priest” (p. 20, lines 7–9). On principle the official church term is “prosfora”. The same is preferred in the Bulgarian and the Greek text. However, in the Karamanli it is substituted by its popular name (liturgy). This stylistic discrepancy can be attributed to the influence exerted by the folk Christianity on the Balkans upon the Karamanli community and its language.

*ἄγια ἄρτοι* – small pieces of the Communion bread (prosfora) given to the worshippers.

*ἄγιον* – the central part of the Communion bread dedicated to Jesus Christ. It is called also Agnus Dei and it is marked by the inscription ΙΣ ΧΣ ΝΙΚΑ (Jesus Christ Victory): *ἀγγελον* ἄγια ἄρτοι *ἄγιον* “(to) take andidoron and ipsom” (p. 20, lines 12–14).

*καθισμα* “nun”: It is interesting that in Turkish there are two lexemes for Christian monk and nun taken from Arabian: *rahip/rahib* “monk” and *rahibe* “nun”. However in the Karamanli text the words for monk and nun have different origin: the first, *keşiş*, is a Persian loan word while the second has a Greek origin. This paradox indicates that in the beginning the ancestors of the Karamanlies were introduced to Christianity in the regions where monkhood was not widespread phenomenon among women.

5.4. Original Karamanli terms

Two lexemes in the text can be considered as an original Karamanli “contribution” to the Orthodox social and religious terminology:

*yuvar* – a composite verb which consisted of two components: the word *yurt*, the traditional tent of the Turkic nomads, and auxiliary *etmek*. Similar verb is unknown in Turkish language and its meaning can be reconstructed as “serve” or

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26 Černovězd notices that the Karamanlies in Anatolia used the Turkish word for priest *karabai* (literally black head) and the word despot for bishop (Černovězd 1892: 444). He also adds that “only the Karamanlies who have learned several Greek or Armenian words, sometimes use for the church terms temple, church and saint the distorted Greek words *ajos* and *eklisa* instead agios and eklisia as well as the distorted Armenian words surf and ehehtsi instead surp and egehetsi. The rest say in Turkish *azis* (saint) and *cami*, cemaat …” (mosque) (Černovězd 1892: 442). The Karamanli name of Jerusalem was also typical Muslim: *Kudusisherif*. 

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“officiate” on the base of the data of the Bulgarian and Greek part: αρνητιζομαι ἐστὶν ἐκκυβάντων ἐν οἴκῳ ἑαυτία “when you serve (officiate) it is good to keep fast one week” (p. 10, lines 20–23).

Οθωμανοί “Ottomans” – a confessional name of Muslims used by Karamanlies. It corresponds to the Bulgarian “тъмници” (Turks/Muslims) and the Greek “αγαρνήτες“: αυτά Οθωμανοί δίνον “green (broadcloth) is for the Ottomans/Muslims” (p. 44, lines 7–8). This evidence is confirmed by Černovežd. According to him the Karamanlies called all Turks professing Islam Ottomans. They used the confessional name Muslims as well as the more common memleketli or vilayetti “fellow-countryman” only in respect to the Muslim population of the former Karaman beylik27 (Černovežd 1892: 439). The term Ottomans bears obvious traces of one initial clan and political (non religious) division between the separate Oguz tribes and principalities in Anatolia dating back to the 13th–14th century. At the same time it is a testimony that the roots of the Karamanlies must be sought in the Karaman beylik. The Muslim features of their religious terminology most likely are due to their close interaction and contacts with the Muslim population of the Karaman principality and even to their possible belonging to this population before their acceptance of the Orthodox Christianity28.

6. Kinship nomenclature

In comparison with the religious terms the information about the kinship nomenclature is more fragmentary and partial. Indeed in the trilingual book there can be found important records concerning the family relationships on the Balkans in the beginning of the 19th century29, but because of the fact that the Karamanli text appears to be a translation from other languages, the records in question can not be

27 On the other hand the Muslims from the Karaman region called the Karamanlies Christians or with the same common term – memleketli and vilayetti. The Christians from the other regions were marked with other appellation – reya. It is interesting that in the speech of both groups (Christians and Muslims from Karaman) the names Türk and especially Yuruk bore extreme pejorative and negative meaning (Černovežd 1892: 439). The latter can be interpreted as a repercussion of the well known from the history of the Middle Age Anatolia sharp confrontation between the Seljuk state and its settled population and the Turkmen nomads coming from Central Asia in 13th century. In this case the appearance of the Karamanlies can be connected with the first wave of Turkic Oghuz tribes from the second half of 11th century.

28 That is confirmed by the anthroponymes given in the Černovežd’s article. They can be divided into three groups: people’s, Bible and Church names. The first group bears obvious Turkish character: Arslan/Aslan, Altin, Gül, Bülbül, Horoz, Temir, Murad. The Bible names follow the Islamic-Arabian pronunciation: Musa, Yakub, Melek, Daud, Elias, Yusuf, Zakar. The church names are from Armenian origin: Ovanes, Istepan, Kirkor, Keork, Potos, Nikos (Černovežd 1892: 439–440). One of the names given in the article Allahverdi seems to be a loan translation from the Turkic Tanrıverdi. Wide spreading of Turkish people’s name among the Christian population of Asia Minor is registered in many Ottoman documents from 16–18th century (Benedikova 1998: 115–120).

29 More precisely they refer to the Arumanians from the territory of modern southern Albania.
attributed to the Karamanlies. That imposes an analysis concentrated entirely on the character of the available kinship terminology.

6.1. Anthropological and gender terminology

In the text the Turkish lexeme for man (male and female) insan is relatively rarely used: “everything that arose is for man” (p. 2, lines 20–21), “I went to the market and saw many people” (p. 13, lines 20–23).

“man”: the word appears regularly as an equivalent of the Bulgarian човек and the Greek άνθρωπος: “the ill man” (p. 14, line 19), “the clever man” (p. 25, line 9) etc.

“wife”: in the text the word appears with its more archaic meaning – as wife and woman. The lack of differentiation between the two social roles and their lexical unification in one word argues for society where matrimony had an inevitable character especially for women.

“child”: the word preserves its main meaning “child”.

6.2. Terms for blood relationships

In the text there are two terms for relatives: the common Turkish аkrabalар и babalar. The first has originated from an Arabian lexeme meaning proximity (Nişanyan 2007, s. akraba). The second is related to baba – father and literally means “fathers”. However the difference between both terms is not only etymological but also concerns their social functions: the status of relatives marked by means of akrabalар is put on the same footing with this of the neighbors while the usage of babalar shows a bigger degree of closeness and commitment: “when you lay the table invite your relatives (akrabalar) and neighbors (and) send warm food to ills (and) God (will) forgive your relatives (babalar)” (p. 11, lines 8–17). On the base of etymology and the degrees of closeness can be supposed that the both terms marked two different groups of relatives – babalar referred to the patrilineal group and akrabalar to the rest.

The word таifa тайфа is the most problematic in the kinship terminology. It has varied meanings in the official Ottoman: group, tribe, crew (Özon 1955; 810). Etymologically it comes from the Arabic таifa – “those/these around” (Nişanyan 2007, s. тайфа). In the text it appears to be the Karamanli translation of the Bulgarian малят “household”, a kinship structure spread among the big landowners or well-to-do representatives of the city environment and economy. Hence тайфа has differed.

31 The word appears in the combination аашк таифа (p. 40, line 4) meaning widow.
32 In the Bulgarian and Greek text only one word for relatives is used.
33 The word is wide spread and well known in the Balkan Turkish dialects as well as in different Bulgarian sociolects where it means a youth team, band, political clique.
from oha “the Turkish nomadic clan” and hane/aile “the Turkish nuclear family”. Most probably it has related to the rich patrilocal Karamanli trade families.

The meaning of the other available terms from the text – evlât “boy, son”33, house “girl, daughter”, karâm “brother” stays close to or entirely corresponds to their meaning in the standard Turkish: ënlê evlâlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê “this who has son and daughter let’s marry them in time” (p. 34, lines 1–4)34.

6.3. Kinship terms by marriage

This group of terms is best presented from the kinship terminology and as whole follows without any significant changes the model of the standard Turkish. The only considerable difference appears in the pair kânyata “husband’s and wife’s father” – kânyana “husband’s mother and wife’s mother”35. In the text kânyana is replaced with another term – kodi bânda “grand, senior mother”. A similar term valide-i muazzam “grand, senior mother” has existed in the harems of the Ottoman notables. Therefore, the appearance of kodi bânda can be regarded as a result of influence that was exerted by the Muslim polygamy on the kinship relationships of the Karamanlies. Another argument in favor of this assumption is the fact that the pair kânyata – kodi valide point out the relation established by the act of marriage between the families of the husband and wife: kânyata/kânyana ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê ënlê “father-in-law and mother-in-law more like their son-in-law than their son but they prefer (their) daughter to (their) daughter-in-law” (p. 32, lines 3–11). In contrast to the term for mother-in-law the terms for marriage ñnâlên, and betrothed ñnâlê (male)/ñnâlê (female) are taken from the popular vocabulary.

The kinship terminology enlisted in the Karamanli text of the trilingual book bears heterogeneous character. From sociolinguistic point of view it covers elements of three different layers – Turkish with pre-Islamic Turkic roots, Turkish-Islamic with popular origin and Turkish-Islamic referring to the high social strata. Two of the available terms, babalar and taifa, can be united in a separate “Karamanli” group. The mixed nature of the terms reveals a group affected by various socio-cultural influences and being in process of gradual urbanization. As a result of this process some of the Eurasian features of the kinship relations seem to be changed. For instance, the opposition babalar/akrabalar implies that the traditional patrilineal principle, in spite of its obvious domination, “cohabited” with other, most probably bilateral forms of kinship relations. However, the same opposition proves the avail-

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33 In Turkish and its dialects the main meaning of evlât is child, descendent.
34 Černovež pays attention to the curious fact that the Anatolian Karamanlies utilized the words aga, dayi, kodža and amudža as appellatives instead the Greek kir, kirios and Armenian baron (černovež 1892: 441). The latter can be considered as a proof that in the second half of the 19th century the opposition between the functions of the mother’s brother (dayi) and father’s brother (amudža) was already shaken.
35 The terms kânyata/kânyapeda and kânyana/kânyenvalde are composed from two words: kâny relating to the Mongolian qadum “relationship by marriage” (nişan 2007, s. kâny) and the words ata/peder “father”, ana/valide “mother”.

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ability of genealogical distance – one of the important markers of the Eurasian kinship organization (Kaser 2008: 39). Therefore in comparison with the linguistic system the kinship in the conditions of the traditional society proves itself as more conservative and steady.

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