
The Rise and Fall and Revival of the Ibero-Caucasian Hypothesis

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8. *The Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis and the historiography of Abkhazia*

The preceding account of the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis is only part of the story. If, on the one hand, Marr and Čikobava were opposed by proponents of a uniformitarian, methodologically-rigorous and language-centered historical approach, on the other their work came under attack from historians seeking to re-interpret or even redraw the complex scenarios of contact, mixing and layering that both Marr and Čikobava regarded as characteristic of Caucasian ethnohistory. Among the presuppositions underlying criticism from this second camp are post-war Soviet ethnogenesis theory, which favored a simplistic superposition of territory, language, ethnos and nation; and the distinctive variety of 'hermeneutics of suspicion' which flourished in the Soviet intellectual ecosystem, and continues to thrive fifteen years after the break-up of the USSR. This section begins with a detour into medieval Georgian literary and historical studies, during which the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis will fade from view temporarily, to return later on, intertwined with the thread of Soviet and post-Soviet historiographic templates.

40. Klimov attributed the existence of apparently cognate lexemes in Indo-European and Kartvelian to intensive contacts between the two speech communities at various periods (Klimov 1984, 1994).

8.1 *P'avle Ingoroq'va, Giorgi Merčule, and the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta'*

Less than a month after Čikobava's triumphant speech at the 1951 special session of the Academy of Sciences on Stalin's contribution to linguistics, a thick manuscript by the literary historian P'avle Ingoroq'va (1893–1990) was delivered to the printers, although it would not be published until three years later. At first glance, Ingoroq'va's tome purported to be a biography of the 10th-century Georgian ecclesiastic Giorgi Merčule, best known as the author of the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta'.⁴¹ The latter text was written in 951, and Ingoroq'va's *Giorgi Merčule* was intended to commemorate the 1000th anniversary of the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta', a critical edition of which Ingoroq'va published in 1949. It was to have an impact far beyond the disciplinary frontiers of Georgian medieval literary studies, however, and continues to arouse passions over a half-century after its publication. Like Čikobava, Ingoroq'va singled out Marr for criticism in the pages of his book, but his angle of attack was radically different, and the consequences for Georgian historiography were far more problematic. Ingoroq'va's name is commonly invoked in debates over the historical relation between Abkhazia and Georgia, often by partisans of one side or the other who seem not to have read more than a few excerpts from Ingoroq'va's thousand-page monograph. In order to understand how this mid-20th-century biography of a mid-10th-century biographer became the cause and object of heated argument ever since its publication, I will discuss the importance of each of its three layers, as it were: Grigol and his times, the significance of Giorgi Merčule's hagiography of Grigol, and Ingoroq'va's objectives in writing a study of Giorgi.

According to his biographer, Grigol of Xandzta was born in 759 and died at the age of 102 in 861. Although born into a prominent East Georgian noble family, Grigol was drawn to a monastic vocation. Accompanied by three companions, the young Grigol left his home province, then under Arab domination, and traveled southwestward to what is now northeastern Turkey. Grigol explored the sparsely-settled district of K'larjeti, in search of a solitary locale where he could found a monastery. He chose the remote site of Xandzta, where he and his companions built a wooden church and a simple monastic compound. In the course of time Grigol of Xandzta became archimandrite of a coalition of a dozen monasteries in the region, which were founded by him or his disciples. Grigol's monastic career overlapped, and to an extent intersected, the reigns of three rulers who were

41. Full title: "The work and career of the worthy life of our holy and blessed father Grigol the Archimandrite, builder of Xandzta and Shat'berd, and with him the commemoration of many blessed fathers" (*Šromay da moyuac'ebay yirsad cxorebisay c'midisa da ne'arisa mamisa čuenisa grigolis arkimandrit'isay, xanztisa da šat'berdisa aymašenebelisay, da mis tana qsenebay mravaltamamata ne'artay*). The version consulted while writing this paper is that of Abuladze et al. (1963). "Merčule" is not the family name of the author but rather a title loosely translated "specialist in [ecclesiastical] law" or perhaps "theologian" (Ingoroq'va 1954: 17–28).

to play a critical role in the struggle for the liberation of western Transcaucasia from foreign (Arab and Byzantine) hegemony, and the eventual consolidation of the united Georgian kingdom under Bagrat' III in the early 11th century: Leon II (King of Abkhazia 786–798), Ashot' Kuropalates (King of Georgia 800–826) and his son and successor Bagrat' I (826–876). Although inheritor of the Iberian kingdom in eastern Georgia, Ashot' moved his residence to Art'anuji in K'larjeti after a series of defeats by the Arab armies. It was from here that he and his sons launched their long campaign to retake southern and eastern Georgia, and it was in K'larjeti that they took an interest in and contributed financially to Grigol's ecclesiastical work.

Composed ninety years after the death of its subject, the biography of Grigol of Xandzta fell into oblivion until the mid-19th century, when a Georgian scholar came across an 11th-century copy of Giorgi Merçule's text in the library of the Jerusalem Patriarchate. Marr examined the manuscript in 1902 and published a scholarly edition nine years later. Since World War II the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta' has been issued in several critical editions, and, in abridged and annotated form, it has become a prominent component of the Old Georgian literary canon taught in schools.⁴² The popularity of this work cannot be ascribed to its literary merits alone. In a list of key themes laid out for middle-school readers of the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta', K. Danelia included, alongside medieval church history and monastic life, 'the self-government (autocephaly) of the Georgian church, and the cultural and political integrity (*mtlianoba*) of Georgia' (Sarjveladze et al. 1986: 135). With regard to the status of the Orthodox Church in Georgia, Giorgi Merçule described significant moves toward autonomy from the patriarchates of Constantinople and Jerusalem, such as the securing of the right to consecrate holy oils locally rather than import them from Jerusalem. This would culminate in the removal of the Orthodox communities of western Transcaucasia — Lazica, Egrisi and Abkhazia — from subordination to Byzantium and their attachment to the Iberian Catholicosate in Mxeta, just as the latter had earlier become autonomous from Antioch. As for the concept of Georgian national unity, while the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta' certainly accorded important supporting roles to the kings of Iberia and Abkhazia, whose dynastic union in 1010 gave rise to the united Georgian kingdom of which the present-day Republic of Georgia considers itself the successor, it is in the domain of religion that the Georgian nation received its initial definition. In previous centuries, the proper name *Kartli* denoted a territory and feudal state in eastern Georgia, corresponding to the province still known

42. Notwithstanding the reform of the standard written language in the 19th century, even the earliest Georgian literary works are no more inaccessible to modern readers than, say, Chaucer or *Piers the Plowman* are to contemporary Anglophones.

under that name today. In words that many a Georgian schoolchild can recite from memory, Giorgi Merčule gave *Kartli* a vastly expanded denotation, as ‘the spacious country within which the liturgy is celebrated and all prayers are performed in the Georgian language’ (“kartlad priadi kueq’anay ayiracxebis, romelsa-ca šina kartulita enita žami šeič’irvis da locvay q’oveli ayesrulebis”), except for the Kyrie Eleison, which continued to be sung in Greek (Grig. Xandzt. §44). *Kartli*, and later *Sakartvelo* “the land of the Kartlians”, became the name of a national community — Georgia — that now reached westward to the Black Sea coast.

This type of equation between religious affiliation and an identity one might call ‘ethnic’ is by no means rare, whether in Western Asia or elsewhere, and indeed ‘Kartveli’ continued to be in use among the Georgian population to refer to Orthodox Christians, whatever language they might speak, until the 17th century (Boeder 1994, 1998). It is very important to note that the territory where Georgian was in use as the liturgical language, especially after it replaced Greek in this function in the Abkhaz Kingdom and throughout western Georgia (a process already complete by the time the ‘Life of Grigol of Xandzta’ was composed; Ingoroq’va 1954: 221), comprised both the “Kingdom of the Georgians” (*kartvelta samepo*) ruled by Bagrat’ I and his successors, and the “Kingdom of the Abkhazians” (*apx-azta samepo*) ruled by Leon II and his successors, until both royal houses were united in the person of Bagrat’ III (978–1014), who inherited the Georgian crown through his father and the Abkhazian crown through his mother.

As represented by Marr, as well as the historians Ivane Javaxišvili and Simon Janašia (1900–1947), the western provinces, which were the staging grounds for the consolidation of the Georgian kingdom, had complex histories of their own. In the introduction to his 1911 edition of the ‘Life of Grigol of Xandzta’, Marr characterized the history of K’larjeti as one of shifting linguistic, political and religious affiliations among the local population. The original inhabitants, in Marr’s opinion, were “Tubal-Cain” (Laz-Mingrelian-speaking) tribes, which then were progressively Armenianized as Armenian hegemony extended over the region in the early medieval period. Beginning in the mid-8th century, the population of K’larjeti began taking on Georgian identity, initially due to the incursion of Georgian overlords, then subsequently through adoption of Georgian first as liturgical, then spoken language, a process aided by the Chalcedonian (i.e., Orthodox) religious affiliation of the K’larjetians. According to Marr, even in Giorgi Merčule’s time Armenian remained in use as the mother tongue of a significant portion of the local inhabitants. As for Abkhazia, no one questioned the presence of ethnolinguistically Abkhazian tribes along the eastern Black Sea coast since ancient times, a belief reinforced by references in Pliny the Elder, Arrian and other Greek and Roman sources to tribes whose names contained the roots *Abasg-/Abask-* and *Apsil-/ Absil-* (cf. the modern ethnonyms *Abaza* and *Apsua*, the self-designation

of the Abkhazians).⁴³ Furthermore, Janašia (1940) found what he interpreted as evidence of an Abkhaz-Adyghean substrate both within the borders of modern-day Abkhazia and further south and east in what is now Georgian-speaking territory. Among the toponymic elements of Northwest Caucasian origin identified by Janašia were the suffixes *-ps-/pš-*, meaning “water, river” and *-q’va* “valley”. River names including these elements are found as far south as Guria (*Supsa*) and Ach’aria (*Ačq’va*). The hypothesis that Abkhaz-Adyghean speakers were among the ancient inhabitants of western Georgia received the support of Marr (1930) and Čikobava (1948: 263), and indeed is compatible with the supposition, expressed by Javaxišvili (1960: 401–417) and Kavtaradze (1985), that the remote linguistic ancestors of the Georgians came from further south. Beginning with the reign of Leon II in the late-8th century, the Abkhazian principality, a former vassal state of Byzantium, declared its independence, and embarked on what business writers would call a ‘guppy-swallows-whale’ merger. Beginning with Egrisi and Argveti, the whole of western Georgian was progressively incorporated into an expanded ‘Kingdom of the Abkhazians’ with its new capital in Kutaisi. After Bagrat’ III inherited the thrones of both Abkhazia and (eastern) Georgia, the designation “King of the Abkhazians” was the first-named among the royal titles.⁴⁴ It would seem difficult to deny the involvement of ethnic Abkhazians in this process, even if they became a small minority in the expanded kingdom of which they were the titular nationality. The Abkhaz language was not used in writing at this time, but the epithet given to King Giorgi IV Lasha (reigned 1213–1223), son of Queen Tamar, provides a tantalizing indication of the presence of Abkhaz speakers at the royal court. According the *Kartlis cxovreba*, Lasha ‘is translated ‘enlightener of the world’ in the language of the Apsars [= Abkhazians]’ (“ganmanatlebelad soplisa itargmana apsarta enita”).⁴⁵ If the historical evidence is taken cumulatively and at face value, the postulate that Abkhazian was spoken in at least the northern part of the territory now called Abkhazia for the past two millennia would be the null hypothesis. To argue otherwise would imply that the author has obtained new

43. For the classical references and attempts at identification with modern ethnolinguistic groups, see the *Real-Encyclopädie* entries on the “Abaskoi” (I: 20), “Apsilai” (II: 277) and “Heniochoi” (VIII: 259–279).

44. The official title of King Davit IV Aghmashenebeli (reigned 1089–1125) was as follows: “King of the Abkhazians, Georgians, Rans, K’axs and Armenians (*mepe apxazta, kartvelta, ranta, kaxta da somexta*), Sharvan-shah and Shah-in-shah and autocratic sovereign of all the East and West”. The Rans and K’axs were inhabitants of two ancient provinces of eastern Georgia.

45. According to the most widely-accepted derivation, *laša* is related to Abkhaz *a-laša* “light” (Charachidzé 1968: 679–680; Chirikba 1998: 44).

evidence, formulated a more elegant hypothesis, or been influenced by factors of a different nature.

Enter P'avle Ingoroq'va. Trained in St. Petersburg in the years preceding the Russian Revolution, Ingoroq'va returned to Georgia, where he was appointed to a position in the Manuscript Section of the Georgian National Museum. In the course of his uncommonly long career — Ingoroq'va died in 1990 at the age of 97 — he published important studies in the fields of medieval and 19th-century Georgian literature, paleography, poetics and hymnography. His scholarly approach to the Georgian literary classics was characterized by extensively-researched explorations into the biographies of the authors of these works, and the times and sociohistorical contexts in which they were composed. Long before the Giorgi Merčule study, Ingoroq'va wrote a lengthy essay on the early-13th century epic poem “The Knight in the Leopard’s Skin” (*Vepxist'q'aosani*). This work has held the status of a national epic for centuries, and the poem’s protagonists are commonly evoked as exemplars of virtues especially prized by the Georgian people, such as fidelity, valor, hospitality and eloquence. Little is known for certain about Shota Rustaveli — literally, Shota of Rustavi — the poem’s self-proclaimed author, and the oldest textual traces of ‘The Knight in the Leopard’s Skin’ are dated well over a century after its presumed composition during the reign of Queen Tamar, around the year 1200.

In 1917, Marr, who at the time was one of the foremost authorities on Old Georgian philology, stirred up a veritable scandal in Georgian intellectual circles when he published his claim that ‘The Knight in the Leopard’s Skin’ was composed no earlier than the 14th-century, by a Muslim Georgian from the southern frontier province of Meskheti (Dzidziguri 1985: 63; Cherchi & Manning 2002). Marr’s assertion was not as outlandish as it might seem: The main characters of ‘The Knight in the Leopard’s Skin’ are depicted as being from Arabia or India, the poem’s author presents the work as a translation from Persian, and specifically Christian references are conspicuously absent from the text. Needless to say, many of Marr’s contemporaries found his identification of Georgia’s greatest literary genius as a Muslim to be shocking and tantamount to blasphemy. Marr’s essay appeared while Ingoroq'va was working on his own contribution to Rustaveli studies, a lengthy study eventually completed in 1922. Ingoroq'va did not attack Marr head-on, referring only once to the “unanticipated and incomprehensible” 1917 essay in a footnote (1963: 73), but his conclusions with regard to Rustaveli’s identity represented a total rejection of Marr’s arguments and a return to the traditional view, with a surprising amount of biographical detail added. Despite the paucity of hard evidence, Ingoroq'va not only placed the author at Queen Tamar’s court, but went so far as to identify him with Shota III of the Hereti branch of the royal house of Bagrat'ion (Ingoroq'va 1963: 82–117), a claim few specialists would deem to

be more than thinly-supported speculation (Baramidze 1958: 32–45; K'ak'abadze 1966: 244–276).

Seen from the perspective of Ingoroq'va's earlier work, *Giorgi Merçule* looked to be cut from familiar cloth. This book abounds in detailed biographical and historical reconstructions that go far beyond the hypotheses most of his colleagues allowed themselves. But if in the earlier work Ingoroq'va insisted on the canonical Georgianness of Rustaveli in rebuttal to the more 'problematic' identity reconstructed by Marr, in his 1954 monograph it was the 'Georgianness' of the territories and populations featured in the 'Life of Grigol of Xandzta' that was in cause, and the gloves were off in his attacks on the writings of the by then long-deceased Marr.

To put it bluntly, Ingoroq'va's project in *Giorgi Merçule* consisted in the erasure of non-Georgians, or those whose Georgianness was perceived as problematic, from the historical record of Abkhazia and southwestern Georgia. To this purpose Ingoroq'va sought to demonstrate that key participants in the story of Georgian unification — the Bagrat'ion royal house, the population of K'larjeti, and the Abkhazians who lent their name to the kingdom that grew to encompass all of western Georgia — were to be identified as canonically "Georgian" all the way back to the dawn of history.

Marr's view, mentioned earlier, that the people of K'larjeti at the time of Grigol of Xandzta were Armenian speakers undergoing assimilation to Georgian identity on the basis of religion, was taken by Ingoroq'va to entail that Marr believed that 'the immediate setting of Grigol of Xandzta's activities, the province of K'larjeti, was not autochthonous Georgian land' ("ara iq'o dzireuli kartuli kveq'ana" [Ingoroq'va 1954: 409]). But in fact Marr did not deny the autochthonicity of the K'larjeti Georgians as such, but rather attributed to their ancestors a complex history of language shift and sociopolitical affiliation. Marr also underscored the critical role of religion in local conceptions of identity. For Ingoroq'va, however, hybridization of this kind had no place in the history of the territories that were to constitute the united Georgian kingdom of the 11th and 12th centuries. Marr was not merely mistaken in his interpretation of the evidence; in publishing such a claim Marr, 'it could be said, reached the summit of the distortion of historical truth' ("istoriuli çešmarit'ebis damaxinjebaši, šeidzleba itkvas, ertgvar mc'vervals miayc'ia" [1954: 404]). This is far from an isolated instance of such rhetoric: the terms "false" (*q'albi*), "distorted" (*damaxinjebuli*) and "erroneous" (*mcdari*) occur with disturbing frequency in the pages of *Giorgi Merçule*. The criticisms of Marr's linguistic theories going on at the same time, following Stalin's 1951 *Pravda* article, seem almost moderate by comparison.

A similar issue of hybridity had to be confronted with respect to the house of Bagrat'ion, branches of which ruled in both Georgia and Armenia. Since "many erroneous perspectives" had been expressed about their origins, Ingoroq'va

sought to set the record straight by demonstrating, with the support of onomastic etymologies of dubious quality, that the Armenian as well as Georgian branches of the Bagratids were of Georgian ancestry, descending from the Old Georgian Parnavazian dynasty (see Ingoroq'va 1954: 87–99).

The most controversial assertion made by Ingoroq'va in his 1954 book, judging by the reaction it provoked immediately after it was made known in print, and the debates it continues to set off over a half-century later, is the claim that the Abkhazians of medieval and ancient western Transcaucasia were not the same people as the contemporary Abkhazians, but rather a Georgian tribe speaking a Kartvelian language. In the author's words (p. 116):

The territory of Abkhazia at the time of the foundation of the “Kingdom of the Abkhazians” [Ingoroq'va's scare quotes], that is, in the 8th century, was inhabited by Georgian tribes, and not only then, but throughout ancient history, Antiquity and the Middle Ages. The Abkhazians and other tribes dwelling in Abkhazia (Ab-silians, Misimians, Sanigians) were likewise purely Georgian tribes, of Georgian origin and speaking a Georgian [Kartvelian] dialect.

With this astonishing stroke of historical revisionism, Ingoroq'va resolved the (for him) paradoxical fact that the rulers of the ‘Kingdom of the Abkhazians’, as they incorporated the West Georgian territories, which hitherto had been under the hegemony of the Byzantine Empire, carried out ‘a purely Georgian state policy’ (“c'minda kartuli saxelmc'ipoebrivi polit'ik'is gat'areba” [Ingoroq'va 1954: 117]), including the replacement of Greek by Georgian as the state and liturgical language, followed by the unification of the West Georgian Orthodox dioceses with the Iberian Catholicosate in Mcxeta.

Ingoroq'va's arguments in support of his hypothesis have been picked over time and again by Georgian, Abkhazian and foreign scholars (Ančabadze 1964, 1976; Berdzenišvili 1990; Khoshtaria-Brosset 1997; Melikišvili 1959: 91), and I will not go over this debate here, except with respect to Ingoroq'va's deployment of linguistic arguments. Over forty pages of *Giorgi Merčule* are given over to the etymological analysis of toponyms from Abkhazia and adjacent territories (1954: 148–189). In this section Ingoroq'va took aim at Janašia's 1940 paper on Circassian (Northwest-Caucasian) morphemes in western Transcaucasia, including what is now Georgian-speaking territory. The hydronymic suffix *-ps-/-pš-* is attributed to a Kartvelian source, cognates of which appear in the (possibly onomatopetic) Common Kartvelian root **ps-* “urinate” and the obsolete Georgian lexemes *pša(n)-* “stream, spring” and *pšat'ala* “slush”. The alleged Circassian cognates cited by Janašia are written off as either borrowings from Georgian, or as derived from an ancestral form common to both language groups (Ingoroq'va 1954: 185). In the context of Ingoroq'va's argumentation, the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis was

employed as a device for waving aside evidence that other Caucasian speech communities might have ancient roots within the borders of the medieval Georgian kingdom. I do not know of any explicit reaction by Čikobava to Ingoroq'va's linguistic speculations, but evidence of his opinion can be inferred from Bgažba's (1964) descriptive grammar of an Abkhaz dialect, in which the traditional view of the Northwest-Caucasian origins of Abkhaz toponyms is presented with additional supporting data (1964: 252–269). Čikobava was the *redaktor* of Bgažba 1964, and he along with Ketevan Lomtatidze were singled out by the author for special thanks for their “valuable advice and help in the preparation” of the book for publication (1964: 7).

The appearance of Ingoroq'va (1954) opened a second front in the repudiation of Marrism, but whereas Čikobava and his school retained the broader historiographic approach advocated by Marr and his predecessors as far back as Klaproth, Ingoroq'va's work marked a distinct rupture with respect to the presuppositions underlying the reconstruction of the past. All three scholars — Marr, Čikobava and Ingoroq'va — could be charged with the methodological sin of assuming the correctness of the postulates they set out to prove, and then tailoring or selecting the data to fit. Marr's leading postulates changed throughout his career, mutating from the Semitic-Kartvelian hypothesis through Japhetic to four-element monogenesis and socioeconomic stadialism. Čikobava, like Javaxišvili before him, advocated the genetic unity of all indigenous Caucasian languages, plus a few isolates from the Near East and Mediterranean region, but refused to abandon the family-tree model of West-European historical linguistics, or speculate about genetic or stadial links between Ibero-Caucasian and Indo-European. Marr's linguistics and ethnology could be said to have been informed by Turgot's (1756) dictum that all peoples and all languages are the products of contact and mixture, but taken to an absurd extreme, even as they lacked the methodological caution and self-criticism that Turgot so emphatically advocated. Čikobava's program was closer in spirit to the ‘historicism’ of critics of the Neogrammarians, such as Curtius or Schuchardt, and retained the model of language mixture, although — as with the Ibero-Caucasian family — he did not extend it beyond the Caucasus. Indeed, Čikobava and his colleagues believed that extensive borrowing and structural influence among languages was a distinctive feature of the Caucasus throughout its history (Čikobava 1955, Lomtatidze 1955).

8.2 *Ingoroq'va's historiographic template*

Ingoroq'va's starting point and leading historiographic presupposition was not so much a methodological postulate as a *template*: an image of the nation as a simple and unnuanced superposition of territory, ethnos and language, with an unbroken existence going back to prehistory. It would appear likely that Ingoroq'va

drew upon some version of late Stalin-era Soviet ethnogenesis theory, applied homogeneously across time and space within the borders of medieval Georgia, like the uniform coloring of national territories on a political map (cf. Gordadzé 2000). The appearance in print of *Giorgi Merčule* provoked heated responses by Abkhaz intellectuals and calls for the book to be withdrawn from circulation. The Communist authorities also stepped in and criticisms were made of Ingoroq'va and some of his supporters among the Georgian intelligentsia (Kholbaia et al. 1999: 19–21). But the effect on Georgian and Abkhazian historiography could not be so easily reversed. With few exceptions, the reconstruction of the ethnic and linguistic composition of ancient and medieval Abkhazia became a politicized topic, an arena in which competing claims for sovereignty over the contemporary Abkhaz ASSR were being played out.

Rebuttals to Ingoroq'va's reconstruction of an Abkhaz-free Abkhazia began to appear in print. Abkhaz historians noted that most of their Georgian colleagues likewise attributed Northwest-Caucasian linguistic affiliation to the ancient *Apsilae* and *Abasgoi* (e.g., Melikišvili 1959: 90). In addition, they argued that other Black-Sea coastal tribes ought to be identified as belonging to the same language group, despite the competing claims of Georgian scholars and the difficulty of establishing convincing etymologies of their ethnonyms. So, for example, Ančabadze (1964: 169–176, 1976: 26–48) and Inal-Ipa (1965: 90) equated the ancient *Sanigai* with the Northwest Caucasian Sadz tribe, rather than the Kartvelian-speaking Zans (Mingrelians) or Svans. In Inal-Ipa's view, the *Apsilae*, *Abasgoi*, *Misimianoi* and *Sanigai* were ancestors of the contemporary Abkhazians (1965: 90–94; cf. Chirikba 1998: 44–47). Most mainstream Georgian historians credited the ethnic Abkhazians with a long-standing presence in the territory, while insisting that they were never the only ethnic community residing in the territory that bears their name. The *Sanigai*, *Misimianoi* and other ancient tribes with etymologically non-transparent ethnonyms were claimed to represent autochthonous Kartvelian-speaking ethnic groups dwelling within the borders of what is now Abkhazia.⁴⁶ At the same time, Ančabadze's (1976) assertion that a distinctly Abkhazian national identity began to consolidate in the feudal period, and that Abkhaz-speakers played a leading role in the Abkhaz kingdom — even though Georgian was the state language and written medium — received sharp criticism from Georgian historians such as Berdzenišvili (1990: 590–591) and Khoshtaria-Brosset (1997: 69–82). In their view, the Abkhazians, like the Mingrelians, Svans and other West-Georgian populations, adopted the high culture and liturgical-literary language of

46. The ethnonym *Sanigai* was claimed by various authors to be cognate with *Zan* (i.e., Mingrelian) or *Svan*; according to Melikišvili (1959: 100), *Misimianoi* represented the Greek rendering of the Svan autoethnonym *mušwæn*.

Kartli (eastern Georgia), accompanied by the evolution of a common Georgian identity, at first among the elite, and later among other segments of the population. Among representatives of the Georgian scholarly establishment, representations of medieval and ancient Abkhazia took on the contours of an idealized image of the Abkhaz ASSR, in which the Abkhazians enjoy the status of titular nationality (but with Georgian neighbors as far back as can be told), and play an active role in the consolidation of the Georgian state of which they are an integral component.

8.3 *Critics and supporters of the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis in the Abkhazian history debate*

At first operating somewhat on the margins of the Georgian academic mainstream, but then becoming more visible in the waning years of the USSR and more recently, are attempts to continue Ingoroq'va's project of erasing problematic contributors to Georgian ethnogenesis, but with the support of updated argumentation. In the same work in which he criticized one of the key tenets of the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis, Aleksandre Oniani also took aim at Čikobava's (1948) and Šaradzenidze's (1955) analysis of Svan as a mixed language with Circassian substratal features (Oniani 1989: 264–299), Janašia's (1940) identification of Northwest Caucasian suffixes in western Georgian toponyms (Oniani 1989: 299–309), and Kartvelian morphemes claimed by Čikobava to have been borrowed from a Northwest Caucasian source (Oniani 1989: 309–318). In several respects, the concluding sections of Oniani (1989) read like a supplement to Ingoroq'va (1954). Not only are Ingoroq'va's toponymic analyses cited by Oniani in his critique of Janašia (Oniani 1989: 301–308), but continuity between the two monographs is evident in Oniani's choice of targets (Marr and Janašia, with the addition of Čikobava) and aversion to any hint of 'mixture' in the Kartvelian languages or Georgian toponymy. Oniani also pointed with alarm to the uptake of Čikobava's and Janašia's "mistaken" notions by Abkhaz historians (e.g., Inal-Ipa 1965: 56–57, 95–96, and more recently, Chirikba 1998: 43, Shamba 1998: 55–56). A more recent contribution to the neo-Ingoroq'vist literature is Gamq'relidze's 1991 etymological revisiting of the ethnonyms *Abkhaz-/Apxaz-* and *Abasg-/Abazg-*. Gamq'relidze argues that the latter root is not related to the Northwest Caucasian *Abaza*, but rather was derived from *Apxaz-* by metathesis due to Greek phonotactic constraints (cf. Put'karadze 2005: 138). As for the original reference of *Apxaz-*, "the ethno-cultural state of the Black Sea coast in the first centuries of our era guides us to the possibility of seeing in 'apxaz-'/ 'Abazgians' tribes of precisely a Western Georgian origin, who must have been close relatives of the Svan and Mingrelo-Laz tribes resident in ancient Colchis" (Gamq'relidze 381991b: 242). The derivation of *Abasg-* from *Apxaz-* is not phonologically implausible, but the claim that the group so designated by ancient writers spoke a Kartvelian language is no more warranted than Ingoroq'va's initial attempt. This new effort to reclaim the

ethnonym *Abxaz-/Apxaz-*, and thereby root the Kingdom of the Abkhazians in the ancient Georgian ethnolinguistic domain, is vigorously debated by Hewitt (1991), who apparently was so eager to have a go at Gamq'relidze's article that he took the trouble of publishing his own translation of it.

Both Oniani and Gamq'relidze were prominent critics of the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis, and partisans of the neogrammarian school of historical-comparative linguistics which Čikobava had repudiated. While I certainly do not maintain that a narrower, methodologically restrained approach to language reconstruction has necessary implications for ethnocultural historiography, in the writings of these two researchers the narrowed focus of their linguistic reconstructions, excluding all languages beyond the confines of the Kartvelian language family, parallels a similar exclusivity in their representation of ancient Georgian territory. It is as though their linguistic and national models were not built from the ground up, but rather hewn out of those of Čikobava, Marr and Janašia, then cleansed of extraneous elements.

Whereas the historiographic template favored by Oniani continues that of Ingoroq'va, calqued upon an idealization of the nation-state as a straightforward and unproblematic superposition of territory, language and ethnos, the template one detects in the writings of Zviad Gamsaxurdia and certain of his followers is that of a clan or extended family, with clear distinctions between members and outsiders, the latter cast in the roles of allies, enemies or guests (cf. Gordadze 2001). Gamsaxurdia was an enthusiastic supporter of the Ibero-Caucasian concept in its most exuberant extension. Drawing freely from the writings of Marr, Javaxišvili, Čikobava and other sources, Gamsaxurdia (1939–1993) situated the remote ancestors of the Georgians in a wide-ranging community of peoples descended from the ancient 'Proto-Iberians'. Gamsaxurdia's Iberian family was for the most part coextensive with Marr's Japhetic grouping during his Mediterranean phase; among the speech communities claimed to belong were the Basques, Etruscans, Sumerians, Pelasgians and other ancient Near Eastern peoples (Gamsaxurdia 1990: 8–10). But Gamsaxurdia was neither a linguist nor a historian. As dissident activist and later first president of the independent Georgian Republic, Gamsaxurdia sought to endow his people with a national myth, in which their current geopolitical predicament was set in continuity with events of the remote past. For example, the Trojan War was represented by Gamsaxurdia as a confrontation between the Indo-European Hellenes and the 'proto-Georgian' Trojans (1990: 11), mirroring the oppositional stance of Georgia and the Caucasus to Russia and those western democracies supporting Russian hegemony in the former Soviet territo-

ries.⁴⁷ The other indigenous Caucasian peoples, by contrast, as Ibero-Caucasian speakers, were tantamount to kinfolk, and frequently addressed by Gamsaxurdia in such terms. His letters to the Chechens, Circassians and other North Caucasian peoples, written during his brief presidency in 1991, characteristically began ‘dear sisters and brothers’ (Gamsaxurdia 1994). Messages and speeches addressed to the Abkhazians, among whom a movement to separate from Georgia was already in full swing, contained particularly emphatic appeals to common origins. One such letter began with references to ‘our common Colchian origins, the genetic kinship between our peoples and languages, our common history and common culture’ (1994: 15). In response to a question about Abkhaz-Georgian relations, Gamsaxurdia reminded his listeners of the Ibero-Caucasian affiliation linking the two languages, then continued, ‘but they [the Abkhazians] did not understand that and hence there is this ethnic conflict, even though their origin is truly Ibero-Caucasian. It is truly so. If they would only have the memory, the knowledge of their origins, they would never have stirred up such conflicts with a related people’ (1990: 34–35). Gamsaxurdia’s appeal for unity finds an echo in a recent treatment of Georgian-Abkhazian relations by Khoshtaria-Brosset (1997), who repeatedly invokes the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis as evidence of ancient kinship between the two peoples.⁴⁸

47. In key respects Gamsaxurdia’s imagined Iberians are the ideological twins of the late Marija Gimbutas’ (1921–1994) ‘Old Europeans’, in that both are represented as ancient civilizations with cultures and indeed mind-sets sharply contrastive with those of the Indo-Europeans who eventually conquered most of their former homelands. Gamsaxurdia, for example, drew a distinction between the “clairvoyant” (*natekxilviti*) culture of the ancient Pelasgians and the “reasoning” (*azrovnebiti*) culture of the Greeks (1992: 12). One also notes striking parallels between Gamsaxurdia’s conception of the organic unity of Ibero-Caucasian peoples and the ‘Eurasianism’ of Trubetzkoy and some of his Russian contemporaries (Sériot 1993). Both Gamsaxurdia and Trubetzkoy imagined a deeper unity among neighboring peoples that transcended religion and nationality, in which their respective nations — the Georgians and the Russians — played a leading role. Furthermore, their visions of unity were forged in opposition to the dominant civilizations that shared the Eurasian continent (‘Romano-Germanic’ Europe for Trubetzkoy, both Europe and Russia for Gamsaxurdia). Unlike Trubetzkoy, however, Gamsaxurdia also believed in the genetic and linguistic unity of the Ibero-Caucasians.

48. Consistent with their insistence on the organic unity of the Ibero-Caucasian peoples and languages is the stance of certain followers of Gamsaxurdia with respect to Mingrelian and Svan, which they classify as dialects rather than languages (Put’karadze 2001, 2002, 2003; Gvanceladze 2004). Since the speakers of these two Kartvelian languages identify themselves, and are identified, as Georgians at both official and informal levels, the designation of Mingrelian and Svan as separate languages is deemed a potential source of division within the very heart of the family. Attempts by the tsarist authorities to create a Mingrelian literary and even liturgical language, written in Cyrillic rather than Georgian script, reinforce the belief that a similar divide-and-

9. *The Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis today*

In his introduction to Gamq'relidze & Mač'avariani, C'ereteli (1965: 048–049) characterized Ibero-Caucasian as 'more a matter of faith than of knowledge; and however strong that faith might be, it cannot by mere force change the position on [genetic] relatedness'. Writing forty years later, Hewitt regarded the hypothesis as all but extinct: "Hardly any one today would claim the Kartvelian (South Caucasian) family to be genetically related to the North Caucasian languages" (2005: 140). As far as the linguistic community is concerned, Hewitt's assessment seems accurate. Except for a cluster of disciples of Čikobava and/or Gamsaxurdia who continue to invoke the concept of Ibero-Caucasian (Gvanceladze 2004; Put'karadze 2005; several contributors to K'varacxelia & Šengelia 1998), and non-specialists who group the Caucasian languages together merely because they have no demonstrated affiliation with better-known language families, support for the genetic unity of the three groups of indigenous Caucasian languages has all but evaporated among linguists who work on these languages. The failure of the Tbilisi Ibero-Caucasianists to win widespread academic support for their proposal can be attributed, in large measure, to the absence of convincing evidence, especially in the form of sound correspondences or strong etymologies, and the lack of strong rebuttals to the arguments of sceptics. The inability of Čikobava to engage effectively with the work of such leading Kartvelologists as Klimov, Deeters, Gamq'relidze, Mač'avariani, and their supporters, led to a loss of credibility in the eyes of the scholarly community. Finally, all it took was a simple (and simplistic) critique by Oniani to bring the house of cards tumbling down, just as the Soviet Union itself was coming to an end.

In other historical disciplines, a significant split appeared between Georgian and Abkhazian scholars with respect to the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis in the years following the publication of Ingoroq'va's book. Whereas Georgian historians (Berdzenišvili 1990, Melikišvili 1959: 94), archaeologists (Džaparidze 1989: 384–7) and ethnologists (Čit'iaia 1946, 1975) continued to assume the primordial unity of the indigenous Caucasian languages — and therefore peoples — in their writings on Georgian ethnogenesis, among Abkhazian scholars and those who share their position, Čikobava's hypothesis has for the most part met with skepticism (Ančabadze 1976: 17–18) or outright rejection (Voronov 1994; Chirikba 1998: 38). The insistent and repeated references to Ibero-Caucasian unity by Gamsaxurdia, Khoshtaria-Brosset and others in polemical works concerning the status of Abkhazia in the Georgian Republic doubtless fostered the impression that the Georgians would remain the senior partners in such an alliance.

conquer policy lurks behind more recent affirmations of Mingrelian and Svan linguistic distinctiveness (Gvanceladze et al. 2001; Japaridze et al. 2005).

Mirroring the almost exclusively Georgian support for the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis is the prominent role of Russians among the formulators and supporters of the North Caucasian language family. First proposed by Trubetzkoy, then elaborated by Nikolaev and Starostin, the proposal that Abkhaz-Adyghean and Nax-Daghestanian have a common ancestor, which they do not share with Kartvelian, has won wide support among the (largely Russian) community of long-range comparativists who advocated the Nostratic hypothesis. The existence of distinct North Caucasian and Kartvelian language (and ethnic) families is likewise presupposed in the recent encyclopedia of the ethnicities of the Russian Federation edited by Tiškov (1994: 24–37). If, on the one hand, “the idea of shared Ibero-Caucasian languages and Georgia’s tribal-cum-cultural identity with selected autochthonous Caucasian nations” nourishes the political vision of a common front of both North and South Caucasian peoples against the geopolitical programs of Russia and/or the West (Jones 2004: 93; cf Law 1998: 177–179), the North Caucasian hypothesis draws a linguistic frontier running along the new international border separating the Russian Federation from the Republic of Georgia. One is reminded of Vogt’s (1942: 244) remark, made in his initial, positive evaluation of Javaxišvili’s Ibero-Caucasian proposal, that “[the Russian authorities] regardait souvent avec soupçon les savants du pays dont les études embrassaient le Caucase entier, craignant qu’ils ne favorisent par là la création d’une conscience nationale unie des peuples divisés du Caucase et une résistance plus efficace à la politique de russification”.

Gamq’relidze (1971) once compared Čikobava to Georg Curtius (1820–1885), drawing upon the regrettably common stereotype of Curtius as a cranky reactionary unable to grasp the significance of the Neogrammarians’ methodological innovations. The comparison might in fact be more apt than Gamq’relidze realized. Curtius, one of the leading Hellenists of his day and an important contributor to mid-19th-century historical linguistics, may well have been on the wrong side of the debate over Sanskrit vocalism, but his criticism of the Neogrammarians reflected the humanist, philological orientation of many linguists of his generation, who saw in the doctrine of the exceptionless sound-law an instrument too rigid and inflexible to accommodate the historical and social complexities of language change. Čikobava expressed similar criticisms, but in the background was the concern, voiced earlier by Marr and Javaxišvili, that a narrow, exclusivist focus on a single language family, such as Indo-European, could readily be coupled with national or civilizational bias.

Despite these warnings, both supporters and opponents of the Ibero-Caucasian concept were drawn into the historiographic paradigm shift that Ingoroq’va’s book catalysed, or at least brought out into plain view. The debates involving Marr, Javaxišvili and Čikobava and their disciples were principally centered on issues relating to the process of reconstructing the past, even if the unity of the Cauca-

sian languages took on the character of preordained dogma, rather than falsifiable hypothesis, in the research practice of many Caucasologists. In the wake of *Giorgi Merčule*, the endpoint of historical reconstruction, the representation of a cultural or linguistic state of affairs in the past, came to the foreground as doublet of an idealized sociopolitical state of affairs in the future.⁴⁹

Indo-European and Caucasian linguistics both emerged as domains of scientific inquiry in the late 18th century, but whereas the former was from the beginning almost exclusively practiced by scholars of Indo-European background, it was not until the mid-19th century that native speakers of Caucasian languages started to participate as researchers as well as informants. At the turn of the 20th century, Georgian scholars, led by Cagareli and Marr, rose to dominance in Kartvelology, and in subsequent decades native North Caucasian and Abkhazian researchers took up the work begun by Schiefner, Uslar and Dirr. The Soviet policy of indigenization of academic institutions certainly accelerated the process, but the Caucasian takeover of Caucasology was well underway in the late Tsarist period. For all intents and purposes, the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis is a product of this latter, indigenous-dominated phase.

Compared to the more than 200 years that Indo-European studies has been the affair of Indo-European-speaking scholars investigating one facet or another of their own family history, Caucasian studies has only had a century in which to experience the consequences of institutional research into the deep past of what is represented as the researcher's own ethnolinguistic community. The longer history of scholarship-abetted ethnocentrism in the Indo-European domain can doubtless help us to understand aspects of the present-day Georgian-Abkhaz *Historikerstreit*, but the lesson it teaches does not inspire unmitigated optimism (Tuite 2003). Even today, the leading Indo-European studies journal in the US is published by the extreme-right activist Roger Pearson, and the French Indo-Europeanist Jean Haudry is closely associated with the Front National. Perhaps the main factor which maintains the intellectual respectability of Indo-European studies — despite the Pearsons and Haudrys lurking behind the curtains — is the tradition of agonistic debate and hypercriticism. As long as each Gobineau finds an August Friedrich Pott (1856; cf. Tuite 2006), and, in the case of Caucasology, each Marr is confronted by a Čikobava, each Čikobava by a Mač'avariani, and so on, there is hope that the field will come out from the long shadow cast by the template-driven nationalist historiography of P'avle Ingoroq'va.

49. I draw upon George Orwell here, albeit without his lapidary succinctness.

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SUMMARY

The hypothesis that the three indigenous Caucasian language stocks (Abkhaz-Adyghean, Nakh-Daghestanian, and Kartvelian) are genetically related has little support at the present day among linguists specializing in these languages. Nonetheless, the so-called 'Ibero-Caucasian' hypothesis had strong institutional backing in Soviet Caucasology, especially in Georgia, and continues to be invoked in certain contemporary discourses of a political and identitarian nature. In this paper the history of the Ibero-Caucasian hypothesis will be presented against the background of research into the autochthonous languages of the North and South Caucasus, and also in connection with the historiographic debate over the relation of Abkhazia to Georgia.

RÉSUMÉ

L'hypothèse que les trois groupes de langues autochtones du Caucase (abkhaz-adyghéen, nakh-daghestanais, et kartvèle) soient génétiquement apparentés jouit à l'heure actuelle de très peu d'appui de la part des spécialistes des langues en question. Toutefois, l'hypothèse dite 'ibéro-caucasienne' avait autrefois presque le statut de dogme auprès des caucasologues en URSS, surtout en Géorgie, et au présent, elle refait surface dans des discours de nature politique et identitaire. L'histoire de l'hypothèse ibéro-caucasienne sera présentée dans le contexte des recherches sur les langues autochtones du Caucase du nord et du sud, et également par rapport au débat historiographique autour de la relation de l'Abkhazie à la Géorgie.

ZUSAMMENFASSUNG

Heutzutage findet die Hypothese, derzufolge die drei kaukasischen Sprachgruppen (das Abchasisch-Adygheanische, das Nach-Daghestanische und das Kartwelische) miteinander verwandt seien, wenig Unterstützung seitens der Spezialisten dieser Sprachen. Dennoch erhält die so genannte 'ibero-kaukasische' Hypothese, die in der sowjetischen Kaukasologie, besonders in Georgien, starke institutionelle Unterstützung erhalten hatte, in gewissen politischen und identitäts-bezogenen Diskursen weiterhin Zuspruch. Im vorliegenden Aufsatz wird die Geschichte dieser ibero-kaukasischen Hypothese vor dem Hintergrund der Erforschung der autochthonischen Sprachen des Nord- und Südkaukasus nachgezeichnet, auch im Zusammenhang mit der historiographischen Diskussion bezüglich des Verhältnisses zwischen Abchasien und Georgien.