# Real and False Archaisms: The Peripheral Mongolic Languages and Reconstruction [PRELIMINARY VERSION - NOT FOR QUOTATION]

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#### 1. Introduction

Although several of the 'peripheral' Mongolic languages are now quite well-known, they are not often used to deepen our knowledge of Common Mongolic, the hypothetical language stage that is the ancestor of all known Mongolic languages. This paper will discuss some of the details of Mongolic historical phonology for which it may be useful to consult the peripheral languages.

In spite of the modest time depth of the reconstructed ancestral Mongolic language, it is of interest in its own right, as it helps to distinguish the original features of Mongolic from later innovations, and unites them in one hypothetical form. A correctly reconstructed Common Mongolic will also enable us to compare it with various neighbouring non-Mongolic language families, primarily Turkic and Tungusic.

The reconstruction of Common Mongolic is usually based on a limited set of languages. In the first place, Written Mongolian spellings have long been believed to accurately reflect an older stage of Mongolic. In the second place, the well-known (and politically important) 'central' Mongolic languages are generally used: Mongolian proper (including Khalkha and Inner-Mongolian), Oirat (including Kalmuck), and Buriat. Middle Mongolian sources in several scripts were consulted to add information on some specific details, such as the initial \*h- sound, and the degree of contraction of vowel sequences. Furthermore, non-Mongolic data were used in support of the resulting reconstructions.

Data from the 'peripheral' Mongolic languages, i.e., those that are not in the abovementioned 'central' group, also found their way into comparative Mongolic studies. Poppe (1955) quoted forms from Dagur, Monguor, and Moghol where possible. In most contexts these languages merely served to illustrate their own 'quirky' developments, and to confirm details that were already suggested by Middle Mongolian, rather than being sources of new knowledge. Materials for Baoan, Dongxiang, and Eastern Yugur were published by Potanin as early as 1893, but the material was quite limited until relatively recently. Since Poppe's time we gained a lot of extra data on Mongolic languages and dialects spoken in China, mainly thanks to Chinese and Soviet publications. It was discovered how different the smaller Mongolic languages are from the central languages, and from one another. The peripheral languages are not a single subgroup of related languages. There are at least three, but probably four independent groupings: Dagur in the Northeast, Moghol in the Southwest in Afghanistan, maybe all but extinct, and the Shirongol languages in Gansù and Qinghai provinces (Shirongol is the collective name for the dialects gathered under the names 'Monguor', Baoan, Kangjia, Dongxiang). Eastern Yugur seems to form a fourth group genetically; similarities between it and the Shirongol languages may be largely due to areal convergence.

The peripheral Mongolic languages deservedly hold two contradictory reputations at the same time. On the one hand they are thought of as archaic languages, preserving several features from early Mongolic which are lost in central Mongolic. On the other hand it is well known that they are strongly influenced by neighbouring languages, which affects the phonology and diminishes the agglutinative character of the morphology, to a degree that makes them appear less Mongolic. The fact that the peripheral languages preserved some old features, while lacking many others that can still be found in the central languages, shows that it is incorrect to view the peripheral languages as generally archaic. However, we are interested in the archaic features of the peripheral languages to improve our understanding of some aspects of Common Mongolic.

When this author started studying the peripheral Mongolic languages, it was in the hope that these lesser known languages would enable us to delve deeper into the history of the Mongolic languages, at least in the field of phonology. All peripheral languages do indeed provide additional information about Common Mongolic not found in the well-known literary Mongolic languages. However, these data do not affect the reconstructed phonological system

as such. No additional Common Mongolic phonemes are necessary to accommodate the data from the peripheral languages. The main value of these peripheral Mongolic data lies in the improvement of the reconstruction of many individual lexemes, and in the confirmation of lexemes or variants that are rare elsewhere.

#### 2. 'Archaic' Lexicon

In a few cases the peripheral languages preserved lexical items which were lost in the central Mongolic standard languages. However, these words are not actually archaic. They just happened to have been lost in all or most of the central languages. But as such words are typically attested in Middle Mongolian, they do not necessarily reveal anything about Common Mongolic that was not known before. Nonetheless they tend to provide a welcome confirmation of the phonetic shape.

Here follows a small selection of Common Mongolic (CM) words that appear to be absent in Mongolian proper and Kalmuck<sup>1</sup>:

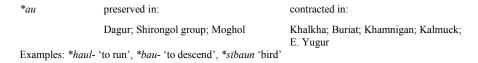
CM	Dagur	E. Yugur	Mangghuer	Moghol	
*čïnaïda		tfini:da	tcinada	tfeno3de	day after
*dangal	daŋga:l		daŋguar		tomorrow clod/bump
*düre-	dur-		durə-	d <del>u</del> ra-	to buy/sell
*haul-	xaul-		xor- (Potanin)	öulu-	to run
*hög-		hog-		идди-	to hit
*hunïn	$x \supset n^j$		xuni		smoke
*najir	nadzir		nadzir (Pot.)		summer
*ünügün	unuk	noyon	nuguər	пыкы	kid goat

### 3. Conservative phonological features

For historical phonology we are interested in any old features the peripheral languages preserve. Below three of these features will be discussed in more detail.

The Shirongol languages provide information on such issues as \*h-, uncontracted diphthongs, preserved vowels of the last syllable, and some consonant clusters. They also contribute to the evidence for the vowel \*i (the back counterpart of \*i).

As a whole, these sounds should not be called archaic either; they are known from other sources. As can be seen below, it is not always the same languages which are the conservative ones. Another list could be drawn up for those features that are more accurately reflected in the central languages, such as vocalism (and general preservation) of the first syllable, vowel lengths from contraction, consonant strength in medial positions, final -n, etc.



<sup>1</sup> Many of these words are also found in Baoan and Dongxiang. \*najir and \*hunin are even found in Buriat. For ease of comparison of the data the peripheral languages are quoted in a broad transcription using IPA characters.

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initial \*h- preserved in: lost in:

Khamnigan; Dagur; E. Yugur; Shirongol Khalkha; Buriat; Kalmuck; Moghol

Examples: \*harban 'ten', \*helegen 'liver', \*hodun 'star'

precons. \*l preserved in: lost in:

Buriat; Khamnigan; Dagur; Shirongol Khalkha; Kalmuck; E. Yugur; Moghol

Examples: \*čaalsun (~ \*čaarsun) 'paper', \*mölsün 'ice', \*sölsün 'gall bladder'

\*qï- sequence (partly) preserved in: changed in:

Moghol; E. Yugur; Baoan, Kangjia and Khalkha; Buriat; Khamnigan; Kalmuck;

Dongxiang Dagur; 'Monguor'

Examples: \*kimusun 'nail', \*kitad 'Chinese'

Even in this small selection of features, focusing on what the peripheral languages contribute, we can see that one or more peripheral languages are in the 'conservative' column, but not always all of them. But even if none of the old features is uniquely preserved by the peripheral languages, these do often provide additional individual lexemes, such as the words with initial \*h- provided by Dagur and the languages in Qīnghǎi and Gānsù.

Retrieving these and other features may be problematic, in that ancient-looking forms may be superficially indistinguishable from secondary developments. Every etymon should be assessed individually. Examples include the following.

Mongghul preserves the diphthong \*au in bau- (\*bau-) 'to descend' and \*eü in səul (\*seül) 'tail', but in Mongghul nau- (\*no-?) 'to hit' and səuldə (\*sölsün) 'gall bladder' the diphthong seems to lack an etymological basis. A similar case from Dagur is saur < \*sur 'thong'. Furthermore there are exceptions to the established rules, e.g. \*aula 'mountain' (Written Mongolian ayula, Dagur aul) is contradicted by ula in Mongghul and Dongxiang.

In case of the so-called 'breaking of \*i' there are similar problems. Dagur nid (\*nidün) 'eye' and fid (\*sidün) 'tooth', kirə: (\*kirüe) 'saw', xila: (\*hilua) 'fly', kidʒa:r (\*kiğaar) 'edge' are conservative forms which lack the breaking found elsewhere (compare Khalkha nüd, süd, etc.); on the other hand fiya:n (\*čagaan) 'white' and dzila: (\*jalaa) 'tassel' are innovations which owe their i to the preceding palatal consonant (cf Khalkha tsaga:n, dzala:). Apart from these two categories, Dagur has numerous 'ordinary' cases which did undergo breaking and thus agree with most other languages, such as far (\*sira) 'yellow', kiand (\*kimda) 'cheap'². Mongghul has similar cases of secondary i such as toiga:n 'white', which fact makes it impossible to determine whether the -i- in words such as Mongghul cira 'yellow' is original or the result of secondary palatalisation. Similar questions arise in other words with changed unstressed vowels, e.g. does Mangghuer muqa 'meat' stem directly from the original form with \*i, CM \*mikan, or from a derived form with broken \*i, i.e., \*makan?

In other cases the various languages disagree amongst each other, or with other evidence such as Middle Mongolian, or non-Mongolic cognates. Did Mongolian *funi*- 'to ride' add a \*h- to this word, or did Dagur <code>onu-</code> lose it? The fact that Middle Mongolian does not have \*h- here does not automatically prove Dagur right. Since there are mechanisms for the development of  $h < \emptyset$ , and loss of \*h- is not unusual in languages that typically preserve it, every case has to be evaluated separately.

Another directionality problem is the following: Dagur *atie*: 'load' can hardly have developed from a form \*afe: (the form we would expect based on \*ačian), but it need not be an 'archaism' either; it may be a borrowing from a neighbouring Tungusic language. The same applies to dilo: 'rein' (CM \*jilua), adiroy 'stallion' (\*ajirga).

<sup>2</sup> Dagur also has unique cases such as *jəul-* (\**ibil-*) 'for milk to flow', *fəur* (\**siberi*) 'foot sweat', which do not feature breaking in the central languages.

Here we will have a closer look at three conservative features, initial \*h-, preconsonantal liquids -l- and -r-, and preconsonantal plosives, and most importantly, at ways of distinguishing old features from secondary developments resulting in similar word shapes.

### 4. Primary and secondary initial \*h-

It has been established that the CM \*h-, which is known from Middle Mongolian sources in various scripts, is also present in Dagur, as well as in the Qīnghǎi-Gānsù area, both in Eastern Yugur and in all of the Shirongol languages. CM \*h- may appear as modern h- or x-, but also as f- or g- or g-, depending on the language and the phonetic environment. In many cases, the Middle Mongolian forms and the modern ones agree. In other cases, the word in question is not attested in Middle Mongolian. In yet others, the modern forms disagree with the Middle Mongolian forms. This usually means that there is a h-, x-, f-, g-, or g- where the Middle Mongolian form has g- (i.e., vocalic onset).

### a) Classic cases of \*h-

There is a good set of unproblematic examples that have h- in Middle Mongolian, as well as in all modern languages that can preserve it. In these examples, h- could not have arisen secondarily. The only point scholars may disagree on is whether this h- necessarily goes back to an earlier \*f- or \*p-.

CM	Dagur	E. Yugur	Mongghul	Dongxiang	
*harban	xarəb	harwan	haran	haroŋ	ten
*halagan	xaləy	halaʁan	xalga	haŋga	palm of the hand
*hodun	xəd	hədən	fo:di	hoduŋ	star
*hulaan	xula:n	ła:n	fula:n	xulaŋ	red
*hüle-	xul-	hele-	fule:-	fəilie-	to remain

## b) Secondary h- due to following strong consonant

As demonstrated by Svantesson (2005: 208) some of the h's found in the Shirongol languages and Eastern Yugur (and sounds derived from it) are not indicative of the presence of CM \*h-, but rather secondary developments which are predictably triggered by certain phonetic environments. In words like those listed below, whose second syllable started with a strong consonant (one of the strong obstruents \*k, \*t, or the voiceless fricative \*t, word-initial t-may appear in one or more of the Qīnghǎi-Gānsù languages<sup>3</sup>. As Rybatzki (2003:373) notes, this is one of the features uniting Eastern Yugur with the Shirongol languages.

Since this phenomenon did not affect Dagur, the latter agrees with the Middle Mongolian forms without h-.

CM	Dagur	E. Yugur	Mongghul	Dongxiang	
*eükün	$\partial u \gamma^w$	ükün	fo:ge	fuguŋ	fat
*ükü-	uy <sup>w</sup> -	hkü-	fgu-	fugu-	to die
*urtu	ərt	hurtu	şdur	fudu	long
*alku-	alku-	alqi-	halgu-	hanku-	to step

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> In most languages where this development took place, the strong obstruents that triggered the appearance of *h*- tend to change into their weak counterparts.

### c) Ambiguous forms in Eastern Yugur and Shirongol

The realisation that some h's are not ancient but triggered by the phonetic environment casts doubt on many cases of modern h- which were hitherto considered to be completely convincing evidence in support of Middle Mongolian and the resulting CM reconstruction. The following words do have initial h- in Middle Mongolian.

CM	Dagur	E. Yugur	Mangghuer	Dongxiang	
*hiče-	xitf-	htfe-	edze-	şidzə-	to be shy
*hüker	xukur	hkor	xuguər	fugie	ox
*huïtan/ *hïutan	x <sup>j</sup> aut	ütan	xuitaŋ	uitaŋ	narrow
*hüsün	xus	hsün	sdzu ~ fdzu	usuŋ	hair

The first two examples seem to unanimously confirm the h- found in Middle Mongolian. As expected, the Dagur forms agree. However, the apparent reflexes of \*h- in the Qīnghǎi-Gānsù languages do not really support the CM \*h-, since these words have a second syllable starting with a strong consonant. This means that, if the original forms had been  $*i\check{ce}$ -, \*iiker, etc., they could have resulted in exactly the same modern forms. That is, these modern forms are to be considered 'neutral' as to the presence of \*h-.

The fact that proven Middle Mongolian h- was lost in some modern languages is even more problematic.

## d) Does Middle Mongolian outweigh modern evidence?

In some words peripheral languages feature an \*h- not found in Middle Mongolian, but as these words lack the word structure that is known to trigger the appearance of secondary h-, we cannot explain them like the cases mentioned under b) above. Some examples:

CM	Dagur	E. Yugur	Mongghul	Dongxiang	
?*hunu-	эпи-	hənə-	funi-	unu-	to ride
?*hinie-	xinə:-d- <sup>4</sup>	hni:-	sine-	çiniə-	to laugh
?*humba-	xumpa:-	mba-	xumba-	(f)unba-	to swim

Here the question is, are there further triggers for secondary h- waiting to be discovered, or can secondary h- appear for no reason at all? Cases such as the verb 'to laugh' raise the question how many modern languages must have h- before we start doubting the Middle Mongolian form<sup>5</sup>. The presence of \*h- in this word seems to be adequately supported by Dagur, Eastern Yugur and the Shirongol languages, even if the Middle Mongolian forms lack the h-.

Other cases of \*h- are based on Dagur only, but are nevertheless convincing, e.g. the reconstruction of \*hönkeri- 'to tumble' relies on the Dagur form xunkir-, as the initials of Mangghuer xangərə- and Dongxiang hongiəri- could be explained as secondary developments. Words with unstable Middle Mongolian forms may also find confirmation in Dagur. In case of Middle Mongolian etke- ~ hetke- 'to cut', the h-variant is supported by Dagur xərk- 'id' (Eastern Yugur hətge- could be secondary). Even if the word is not attested

 $<sup>^4</sup>$  This form of the Dagur verb seems to be due to the homophonous deverbal noun *xino:d.* 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Svantesson (2005:208) notices this set of words, but seems to trust Middle Mongolian rather than the modern languages, and reconstructs the ancestral forms without \*h-.

in Middle Mongolian at all, confirmation of the \*h- by both Dagur and the Qīnghǎi-Gānsù languages suffices to establish its realness. However, when four Shirongol languages suggest \*h-, they should be counted as only one 'vote' in favour of a CM reconstruction with \*h-.

There is no simple method to obtain correct CM reconstruction forms. Every word has to be evaluated individually. Any language can yield unique information; there are no languages that are *a priori* reliable or unreliable. As to the Middle Mongolian sources, it is worth remembering they are neither uniform nor infallible. Loss of established h- is documented, as are unetymological h's, the latter notably in sources in Arabic script.

## 5. Primary and secondary preconsonantal liquids

In a small number of words some languages preserve a preconsonantal *-r-* or *-l-* which was lost in others, mostly preceding the suffix *-sUn*. In view of the small number of words displaying this correspondence, and the amount of similarly-structured words that do not, this phenomenon should be viewed as a bundle of isoglosses rather than a sound law with general validity. The preconsonantal liquids in these words were recorded in Middle Mongolian, and preserved today by Buriat, Khamnigan, and the Shirongol group.

The following should be kept in mind. Firstly, the group under discussion is far outnumbered by words that retain their preconsonantal liquids in all Mongolic subgroups. This applies to words like \*alčai- 'to spread the legs', \*burčag 'pea', etc., and even to most words with the ending -sUn. The following selection preserve their -r- before -sUn in all of central Mongolic: \*čiirsün 'mat' (Khalkha ½i:rs), \*küursun 'nit' (Khalkha xiurs), \*gaursun 'feather shaft' (Dörbed go:rt), \*mö(g)ersün 'cartilage' (Dörbed moxo:rt), \*nugursun 'spinal marrow' (Khalkha nugars ~ nugas).

Secondly, there are also stems which appear with the ending -l in some dialects, and -sUn in others, such as \* $baital \sim *baitasun$  'mare', \* $gutul \sim *gutusun$  'boot', and \* $hargal \sim *hargasun$  'dung'. These apparently represent morphological alternations between the two endings. However, in view of the existence of words like Middle Mongolian  $\ddot{o}re$  ' $els\ddot{u}n$  'half of a pair' and sile ' $\ddot{u}ls\ddot{u}n$  'lynx', which lost their -l- in modern languages, forms like \*gutusun 'boot' may actually go back to \*gutulsun, etc. (which is what Poppe (1955:32) reconstructs here).

# a) Classic cases<sup>7</sup>

In the following words, l/r is documented in Middle Mongolian, and preserved in Buriat (including Bargu), Khamnigan, and the Shirongol languages. They are absent from central Mongolic and Eastern Yugur.

CM	'Old' Bargu	Dagur	Mangghuer	Baoan	Dongxiang	
*čaalsun/ *čaarsun	sa:ro:	tfa:s	tşarsi/-dzi			paper
*mölsün	mul <sup>j</sup> u:	məis	mersi	melsoŋ	mansuŋ	ice
*sölsün/	xilu:	<i>fulf</i>	<i>cuarsi</i>	selsuŋ	єіәnsuŋ	gall bladder

In \*sölsün 'gall bladder' the liquid is preserved in most languages. Dagur, however, did not preserve a liquid in 'paper' and 'ice'. The same applies to Dörbed, which has *tult* 'gall bladder' but *fa:t* 'paper' and *myt* 'ice'.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Several modern languages, e.g. Buriat, support the presence of the cluster *-rs-* in spite of LM spelling *mögeresün*.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> A fourth example would be the less widespread \*jīlsun 'glue', Middle Mongolian jīlsun, Baoan dzilson, as opposed to Kalmuck zusn.

## b) Secondary preconsonantal liquids in Qīnghăi-Gānsù languages?

In the Qīnghǎi-Gānsù languages there are many words that contain unexpected (as viewed from central Mongolic) preconsonantal r/l. Some of these can be eliminated as secondary developments, but others may be relics from an earlier language stage.

## 1) Analogy

By definition, cases of analogy have an individual character, as they depend on the assumption that the speakers at one point associated or confused two already similar lexemes, thus enabling mutual phonetic influence. One such example is Nantoq Baoan *jirsoŋ* 'nine', showing an *-r-* not present in the usual CM reconstruction \*yesün, which is in agreement with all other languages. If we assume that the Baoan form was influenced by \*yeren 'ninety', we do not need to correct the CM form. However, the fact that all Baoan dialects replaced \*yeren with an analytical form \*yesün harban 'nine tens', increases the likelihood that Baoan *jirsoŋ* is the only survival of an earlier form \*yersün rather than a case of analogy (cf Janhunen 2003:9, Rybatzki 2003:384).

The -r- in Mongghul konordzo 'sweat' (cf CM \*kölesün) is perhaps due to the related verb konoro- (\*köler-) 'to sweat'. A similar analogy may underlie Mongghul ko:rdzo 'foam', although Mongghul in this case lacks the the related verb \*köer- (cf Khalkha xööröx). On the other hand, the Mongghul form is parallelled by Ordos kö:rs, Dörbed xo:rt (Khalkha xöös)<sup>9</sup>, which suggests that there existed early variants \*köersün ~ \*köesün.

Mongghul xairdzə 'rib', although suggestive of \*kabisun, may actually owe its -r- to \*kabirga 'id', which is apparently derived from the same root. Here as well, we may view the Mongghul form as evidence for the existence of an earlier form \*kabirsun which just accidentally lost its -r- elsewhere.

## 2) Metathesis

The consonants -r- and -l- are especially susceptible to metathesis in Mongolic. As a consequence, the liquids disappear from their preconsonantal position without actually being elided from the word. In these cases adaptation of the CM reconstruction is not required. Examples include Eastern Yugur nurususun < \*nugursun 'spinal marrow', Donggou Mongghul go:rdzo <\*örgeesün 'thorn', Mangghuer kuərməgə < \*kömerge 'trunk', Mangghuer merge < \*örmege 'coarse overcoat', Mongghul fudur < \*hutur < \*urtu 'short'. As can be seen from these examples, the -r- can move in either direction within the word.

### 3) 'Echo' consonants

Echo consonants may be considered as cases of distant assimilation. Examples are: \*teberi-, \*kulagana, \*mö(n)gersün, \*suburga.

Mangghuer	Mongghul	E Yugur	Buriat	
tierber-	te:rə-	tewer-	teberi-	to embrace
qorgorna	xanagla	xunaglaG	χulgana	mouse
merguərsi	mungərsə		mengeerhen	cartilage
suərbuərga	suburga		[subarga]	tower

<sup>8</sup> The initial fricative in Mongghul  $s d = r \cdot s d = r$  (nine' may only be a result of vowel devoicing before s, rather than confirming the preconsonantal r here.

A similarly structured word, but with different distribution of the -r-, is \*höesün 'pus', which lacks the -r- in Baoan-Dongxiang hosun, but has it in Khalkha öörs. Dagur xwə:s 'foam; pus', also without -r-, may well represent both \*köesün and \*höesün (although Enkhbat 1984:135 connects both meanings with the former).

Historically unexpected r's occur in many Mangghuer names of young animals. In qoargoar 'lamb' and burur 'calf' the final -r was added, whereas the first was original, so that they may also belong in the echo consonant group. Mangghuer dzudzugar 'piglet' could be a metathesis of CM \*fuljaga. However, none of these explanations apply to nuguar 'kid goat' and dagar 'foal'. Maybe we must also consider the possibility that the Chinese ending er ( $\Box$ ) influenced this set of words.

## 4) Triggered by voiceless vowel and/or h?

In a number of words non-etymological liquids seem to be triggered by h-, (which may itself be secondary, as in the second and third examples)<sup>10</sup>. This phenomenon is found in Eastern Yugur as well as its Turkic neighbour Western Yugur.

E Yugur	Mongghul	MMo.	Buriat	
hərtfi:sən	edzo:si	hičesün	üšööhen	tree
łdeye- ~ həteye <b>-</b>		itege-	etige-	to believe
łgur ~ hgur		učir	ušar	reason

## c) Additional words with original preconsonantal liquids?

When none of the above can be used to 'explain away' preconsonantal -r-, we must consider the possibility that it actually stems from early Mongolic. However, for want of non-Mongolic cognates, this cannot be confirmed for the Mangghuer words below.

Mangghuer	Mongghul	Dagur	Buriat	
arsag-	sdzaga-	xasə:-	[asuu-]	to ask
şersi	ee:si	sə:s	šeehen	pee

Other cases occur in Baoan, but are not confirmed in Mangghuer or elsewhere:

Ganhetan Baoan	Kangjia	Mongghul	Buriat	
bartï		padə	bata	strong
murtuŋ	murtun	mo:də	modon	tree

Although in the above cases the additional consonant is only supported by one or two languages, we cannot dismiss it as obviously secondary. Relics from older stages can in principle survive in any branch. It may be necessary to amend the subgroup form, or even the Common Mongolic reconstruction to include the *-r-*. \*harsag-/\*harsau- 'to ask', etc.

In the following case the unexpected Mangguer and Baoan forms may reflect an older \*jagalsun or \*jalgasun, in which case one of the modern forms is due to metathesis. Again the problem is the lack of confirmation elsewhere; the absence of -l-/-r- in Mongghul is especially unexpected.

Mangghuer	Ñantoq Baoan	Dagur	Buriat	
dzagarsi	dzalgasoŋ	dzaus	zagahan	fish

 $<sup>^{10}</sup>$  Also the h- in the first E. Yugur example may be due to the following strong consonant, so it does not necessarily support Middle Mongolian  $hi\check{c}es\ddot{u}n$ .

In the following stem the veracity of the preconsonantal -r- is supported by its Turkic cognate \*art-. Mangghuer suggests that the CM reconstruction of the verb should be \*arči-.

Mangghuer	Mongghul	E. Yugur	Dagur	Buriat	
artci-	edza:- (sic) <sup>11</sup>	atfə-	at <sup>i</sup> -	aša-	to load
artea	edza:	htfa:n	at <sup>i</sup> e:	ašaan	load

The external confirmation makes this one of the more convincing cases. Moreover, none of the known origins of secondary -r/l- as listed above applies here.

## 6. Primary and secondary preconsonantal plosives

Mangghuer, marginally supported by other dialects, seems to preserve a number of preconsonantal consonants that may be seen as evidence for an original preconsonantal \*-bor \*-g-.

As to established cases of \*-b- in preconsonantal position, these are usually preserved in Mongghul (as -b- or assimilated to the following consonant) and in Baoan (also as -b-). In Mangghuer it tends to change into  $-g^{-12}$ , and merge with original \*-g-. In Dongxiang both \*-b- and \*-g- have been lost at the end of the syllable.

Mongghul	Mangghuer	Ñantoq Baoan	Dongxiang	CM	
labdzi / lasdzi	legtci	labteoŋ	latşəŋ	*nabčïn	leaf
tebdzi / tesdzi	tegdzi	dobtci	tədzi	*tobčï	button

Mangghuer features a preconsonantal -g- in several words that do not not contain \*-b- or \*-gelsewhere in Mongolic, including the following:

Mongghul	Mangghuer	Ñantoq Baoan	Dongxiang	CM	
teasə	tşagsi/ tşagdzi	dzabsoŋ (Xiazhuang)	dzaŋsuŋ/ dzasuŋ	*časun	snow
jasə	jegtsi/ jegsi	jasoŋ	jasuŋ	*yasun	bone
xuludzə	qulegsi	Golson	Gulasuŋ	*kulusun	bamboo
sadzə-	segdzi-	[sar-]	sdzi-	*saču-	to scatter
xadoŋ	qəGdəŋ	ħdoŋ	qïduŋ	*kataun	hard

The antiquity of these unexpected consonants is uncertain. In some words, e.g. jegsi 'bone', the preconsonantal consonant is documented by several authors, and already present in Potanin's time. Other words are also documented without it in several sources, e.g. qulegsi is contradicted by most other Mangghuer sources, which have qulusi (these 'normal' variants have been omitted from the above lists).

In the case of tsagsi 'snow', there seems to supportive evidence in Baoan and Dongxiang. A Shirongol form \*čabsun, as hinted at by one dialect of Baoan could also be the

describes it as a weak stop. In many words Mangghuer -g- seems to be disappearing, e.g. puda- 'to fit', no(g)to 'halter', so(g)do- 'to become drunk', no(:)tei- 'to pass' from \*bagta-, \*nogta, \*sogta-, \*nögči-.

<sup>11</sup> The Mongghul verb was influenced by the deverbal noun  $\epsilon dza$ : < \* $a(r)\ddot{c}\ddot{v}an$ . <sup>12</sup> In Čenggeltei's (1988) data this may appear with the voiced fricative pronunciation [ $\nu$ ]. Slater

origin of the Mangghuer form. However, all this does not allow us to reconstruct preconsonantal \*b beyond Proto Shirongol. The early existence of this preconsonantal labial could only be established if it were confirmed elsewhere.

It is unclear whether the -*g*- in these words could be a byproduct of the devoicing caused by following \**s* or \**č*. Typically such byproducts come in the shape of vowel devoicing or secondary aspiration of unaspirated consonants. It may be relevant that in the Mangghuer words featuring -*g*-, the preceding consonant is either already aspirated, or can not be aspirated.

If it appears unlikely that only Mangghuer would preserve a number of preconsonantal consonants lost elsewhere, it has to be kept in mind that preconsonantal \*-b- and \*-g- are known to occasionally disappear. The loss of preconsonantal \*-g- is found in some common suffixes, notably the directional -gsi (as in Mangghuer meşi < \*ölmegsi 'forward') and the 'nomen perfecti' -gsAn, as well as in some stems, e.g. \*ügtee- 'to weed'. Loss of preconsonantal \*-b- has apparently occurred in \*ačara- < \*abčira- 'to bring', from a collocation \*ab-ču ire- 'to take and come'.

#### 7. In conclusion

At first sight it looks unlikely that the peripheral languages could make a substantial contribution to Common Mongolic. However, increased knowledge about internal developments in the peripheral languages will help us recognise secondary developments and separate them from actual old features. After secondary explanations have been carefully excluded, the unfamiliar word shapes in the peripheral languages will yield data that improve our understanding of the ancestral Mongolic language.

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Dongxiang *dzaŋsuŋ* 'snow' may stem from earlier \*čamsuŋ < \*čabsuŋ, comparable to Dongxiang *daŋsuŋ* 'salt', likely from an irregular \*damsuŋ < \*dabsuŋ (originally CM \*dabusun). Dongxiang -ŋ may stem from \*ŋ, \*n, but also \*m or \*l, e.g. Dongxiang saŋ 'comb' < \*sam; koŋ 'foot' < \*köl.

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