

17 *On borrowing from Middle Chinese into Proto Tibetan: a new look at the problem of the relationship between Chinese and Tibetan*¹

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1 Introduction

It is well known that Chinese and Tibetan are genetically related. But it has been asserted by some scholars that an important part of the supposed common vocabulary represents an ancient layer of borrowings from Middle Chinese into Ancient Tibetan. It is important to separate the loanwords from inherited vocabulary in order to evaluate the closeness of the genetic relationship.

The study of borrowings depends on the relationship between the languages in contact. When the languages are not genetically related, borrowing usually concerns whole words, and it is in general relatively simple to sort out loanwords. But when genetically related languages are in contact, with some degree of intercomprehension, or at least a certain awareness of correspondences, and in a hierarchical relationship of prestige, more complex types of influence can occur. These may affect only one segment in a word, one constituent (consonant, vowel or rhyme) in a syllable, or one syllable in a dissyllabic word. Such phenomena have been observed by the author in situations of linguistic contact between Vietnamese and related languages within the Vietic linguistic group (Ferlus 1991, 1995,

¹ The following abbreviations are used:

- MC Middle Chinese (Karlgren's Ancient Chinese): the stage of the *Qie⁴ Yun⁴* reflected in the *Yun⁴ Jing⁴*.
OC Old Chinese (Karlgren's Archaic Chinese): the stage of the rhymes of the *Shi¹ Jing¹*.
WT Written Tibetan.
PT Proto-Tibetan (The stage just before Middle Chinese influence).
PST Proto-Sino-Tibetan (in a restricted sense).
TB Tibeto-Burman.

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2001). Meillet appealed to a phenomenon of this kind, under conditions of bilingualism, to explain the *h* in French *haut* (Germanic *hoch*, Latin *altus*) (Meillet 1936:99–103).

These phenomena will be illustrated here by borrowings, or partial borrowings, from Middle Chinese (MC) into Proto Tibetan (PT), the supposed stage of the language immediately preceding MC influence. The Proto Tibetan forms have been reconstructed by the author for the needs of the present article. This Proto Tibetan could just as well be called pre-Old Tibetan. The result of the Chinese influence is reflected in Old Tibetan and recorded in Written Tibetan (WT). It can be asserted that a part of PT vocabulary remained relatively close to Proto Sino-Tibetan (PST).

2 A theory of monosyllabisation from OC to MC

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to review the author's theory of the phenomenon of monosyllabisation that occurred between OC and MC (Ferlus 1998). This theory is used in the explanation of the influence of MC on Tibetan that follows.

Old Chinese was a disyllabic language, in the sense that while part of the vocabulary was monosyllabic, another part contained disyllabic words, more precisely of the sesquisyllabic type (as defined by Matisoff). This type is still widely represented in many Austroasiatic languages of Southeast Asia. A sesquisyllable is a type of disyllable composed of a main syllable preceded by a presyllable. The main syllable is similar to a monosyllabic word, while the presyllable is a reduced and unstressed syllable in which vocalic oppositions are neutralised. The presyllable can be a morphological prefix or a neutral element without any meaning.

monosyllable: CV(C)
sesquisyllable: C-CV(C)

According to my theory, OC sesquisyllables developed phonetic tenseness (T) while monosyllables developed laxness (L). Then, when sesquisyllabic words became monosyllabic by the loss of the presyllable, the earlier contrast of syllabic type, between C-CV(C) and CV(C), was replaced by the new contrast of tense vs lax (T/L). This phenomenon was associated with a vocalic split, with vowel lowering in T syllables and vowel raising in L syllables. Later, in a second step after these changes, the lenition of medial *-r-* further blurred the situation. This is the stage of MC characterised by the well-known system of four divisions: the T syllables belong to Division I/IV (syllables without medial *-r-* in OC) or to Division II (medial *-r-* in OC), while the L syllables belong to Division III (with or without medial *-r-* in OC), characterised by the famous yod of Karlgren's (1957) reconstructions.

Old Chinese (OC)		Middle Chinese (MC)	divisions
C-CV(C) (<i>tenseness</i>)	>	CV(C) / T	(<i>vowel lowering</i>) I/IV (-r) or II (+r)
CV(C) (<i>laxness</i>)	>	CV(C) / L	(<i>vowel raising</i>) III (\pm r)

In my system, the symbol [ʰ] is the mark of Division III. It indicates a raising and centralisation of the vowel associated with (what I suspect to be) breathy voice. The symbol [ʰ̣] is the mark of Division II. It indicates the result of the lenition of OC medial *-r-*, probably a kind of velar spirant. Thus Division II is simply an offshoot of Division I (and IV, below); together these three divisions continue the old T category. In L syllables, the softened OC medial *-r-* became obscured by the breathiness of the vowel and was lost; there was no split

analogous to the one that gave rise to Division II. Thus the entire L category is continued intact by Division III. No special mark characterises Division I or IV. Division IV is in complementary distribution with Division I, apparently a device to represent the single MC front diphthong. This theory is summarised in Table 1.

Table 1: Proposed origins of MC divisions

syllable-type	OC medial (Baxter)	MC division
(without medial -r-)		
tense	∅	I/IV / T
lax	-j-	III / L
(with medial -r-)		
tense	-r-	II / T(r)
lax	-rj-	III / L(r)

The examples in Table 2 are taken from Baxter (1992). I have added my own phonetic interpretation between square brackets.

Table 2: Diachronic examples of syllable-types with phonetic interpretation

T/L	div.		Man.	MC	OC
T	I	納	<i>na⁴</i>	nop [nʌp]	*nup [T(C-)nup] 'send in' (695h)
L	III	入	<i>ru⁴</i>	nyip [n ^a ip]	*n-j-up [L-nup] 'enter' (695a)
T	IV	銘	<i>ming²</i>	meng [miɛŋ]	*meng [T(C-)meŋ] 'inscription' (826d)
L	III(>IV)	戍	<i>ming²</i>	mjieng [m ^a jeŋ]	*m-j-eng [L-meŋ] 'name' (826a)
T	I	股	<i>gu³</i>	ku ^X [kɔ [?]]	*ka [?] [T(C-)ka [?]] 'thigh' (51a)
T(r)	II	假	<i>jiā³</i>	kæ ^X [k ^ɹ æ [?]]	*k-r-a [?] [T(C-)kra [?]] 'false, simulate' (33c)
L(r)	III	莒	<i>ju³</i>	kjo ^X [k ^a ʌ [?]]	*k-rj-a [?] [L-kra [?]] 'round basket' (76j)

Before the complete, structural monosyllabisation that affected the whole sesquisyllabic vocabulary, there may have existed a slower process of random monosyllabisation affecting individual words.

3 The mode of borrowing from Middle Chinese into Proto Tibetan

Language A (here MC) is in a dominating position with a genetically related language B (here PT). Language A is regarded as prestigious by speakers of B who, by a kind of affectation, are led to imitate some characteristic sounds of A unknown in B. This results in a phonetic compromise, a segment of an A word being borrowed and substituted for the corresponding segment of the cognate B word. The sounds of MC that did not exist in PT are the segments (rhymes or main syllables) that characterise Division III (i.e. the presumed breathiness marked by [\$]) and Division II (i.e. the spirantised velar sound marked by [fi]).

Speakers of PT tried, unconsciously or not, to imitate these unfamiliar sounds which were felt to carry with them the prestige of the dominating language. But in contrast to the usual process, in which whole words are borrowed, only the the characteristic MC segments of cognate words were borrowed by speakers of PT.

Table 3: Chinese and Tibeto-Burman numerals

	Karlgren 1957	Coblin 1986	Coblin 1986	Coblin 1986	Benedict 1972	Pulleyblank 1991	
	Ar C > An C	PST	OC > MC	TB	TB	EMC	
1	隻 <i>zi</i> ¹	--- > tsiäk	gtyik	tjik > tsjäk	g-tyik	t(y)ik	tciäjk
2	二 <i>er</i> ⁴	niär > nízi-	gnyis	njidh > nízi	gnyis	g-nis	ɲi ^h
3	三 <i>san</i> ¹	səm > sâm	gsum	səm > sâm	g-sum	g-sum	sam
4	四 <i>si</i> ⁴	sɨəd > si-	btyid	sjidh > si-	blyiy	b-liy	sɨ ^h
5	五 <i>wu</i> ³	ngo > nguo:	lngay	ngagx > ngwo:	l-nga	l-ŋa	ŋɔ [?]
6	六 <i>liu</i> ⁴	liök > liuk	dljəkw	ljəkw > ljuk	d-ruk	d-ruk	luwk
7	七 <i>qi</i> ¹	ts'jēt > ts'jēt	shnjis	tshjit > tshjet	s-nis	s-nis	tsh ^{it}
8	八 <i>ba</i> ¹	pwät > pwät	priat	priat > pwät	pryat	b-r-gyat	pəit/pə:t
9	九 <i>jiu</i> ³	kjüg > kjəu:	dkwjəw	kjəgw > kjəu:	d-kuw	d-kuw	kuw [?]
10	十 <i>shi</i> ²	ɕjəp > zjəp	gřip	djəp > zjəp	gip	gip	dzip
100	百 <i>bai</i> ³	päk > pək	pria [?]	prak > pək	prya	r-gya	paɨjk/pə:jk

Table 3: (continued)

Baxter 1992	Ferlus 1998	Sagart 1999	Matisoff 1997	WT
OC > MC	OC > MC	OC > MC	PST	
(tjek > tsyek)	Ltek > tɕ ^ə ek	-----	g-t(y)i-k ≈ tya-k	<i>gcig</i> 1
(njits > nyij ^H)	Lnits > n ^ə ij ^h	b ⁿⁱ [jt]-s > nyij ^H	g-ni-s/k	<i>gnyis</i> 2
sum > [sam]	Tksum > [sam]	a ^s -hləm > sam	g-sum	<i>gsum</i> 3
s(p)jij/ts > sij ^H	Lslits > s ^ə ij ^h	b ^s -hli[j]-s > sij ^H	b-liy = b-ləy	<i>bzhi</i> 4
nga [?] > ngu ^X	Tlŋa [?] > ŋɔ [?]	a ^{ŋa} ? > ngu ^X	l-ŋa ≈ b-ŋa	<i>lŋa</i> 5
C-rjuk > ljuwk	Lruk > l ^ə uwk	B ^{Cə} -ruk > ljuwk	d-ruk / d-k-rok	<i>drug</i> 6
thsjit > tshit	Ltsh ^{it} > tsh ^ə it	b ^s -hnit > tshit	s-nis	(<i>bdun</i>) 7
(pret > pət)	Tpret > p ^ɪ ɛt	a ^{pr} [e]t > peat	b-r-gyat ≈ b-g-ryat	<i>brgyad</i> 8
k ^w ju [?] > kjuw ^X	Lk ^w u [?] > k ^ə uw [?]	b ^{ku} ? > kjuw ^X	d-kəw ≈ s-gəw ≈ d-gaw	<i>dgu</i> 9
gjip > dzyip	Lgip > dz ^ə ip	bgip > dzyip	gip ≈ gyap	<i>bcu</i> 10
prak > pæk	Tprak > p ^ɪ æk	-----	b-r-gya ≈ b-g-rya	<i>brgya</i> 100

This process will be illustrated first in the numerals. Table 3 shows the principal reconstructions and interpretations of the set of numerals 'one' to 'ten' and 'hundred': Archaic Chinese and Ancient Chinese (Karlgren 1957), their equivalents Old Chinese and

Middle Chinese (Coblin 1986, Baxter 1992, Ferlus 1998, Sagart 1999), Early Middle Chinese (Pulleyblank 1991), Proto Sino-Tibetan (Coblin 1986, Matisoff 1997), and Tibeto-Burman (Benedict 1972, Coblin 1986).

4 Comparison of Tibetan and Chinese numerals

Table 4 is the reference chart for the following discussion. The reconstructions used here are by the author. For OC and MC they are based on Baxter 1992. For PT and PST they have been elaborated for the needs of the present article.

Table 4: Tibetan numerals

			OC > MC	PT + MC	<i>hypothetic</i>	WT
1	隻	<i>zhi</i> ¹	Ltek > tɕ ^ə ek	k[tek] + tɕ ^ə ek	> ktɕ ^ə ek	<i>gcig</i>
2	二	<i>er</i> ⁴	Lmits > n̥ ^ə ij ^h	k[nits] + n̥ ^ə ij ^h	> kn̥ ^ə ij ^h	<i>gnyis</i>
3	三	<i>san</i> ¹	Tksum > [sam]	ksum	> (<i>unchanged</i>)	<i>gsum</i>
4	四	<i>si</i> ⁴	Lslits > s ^ə ij ^h	p[sits] + s ^ə ij ^h	> ps ^ə ij ^h	<i>bzhi</i>
5	五	<i>wu</i> ³	Tlŋa? > ŋɔ [?]	lŋa	> (<i>unchanged</i>)	<i>lŋa</i>
6	六	<i>liu</i> ⁴	Lruk > l ^ə uwk	truk	> (<i>unchanged</i>)	<i>drug</i>
7	七	<i>qi</i> ¹	Ltshit > tsh ^ə it			<i>(bdun)</i>
8	八	<i>ba</i> ¹	Tpret > p ^ɪ et	pr[et + p] ^ɪ et	> pr ^ɪ et	<i>brgyad</i>
9	九	<i>jiu</i> ³	Lk ^w u? > k ^ə uw [?]	t[ku] + k ^ə uw [?] or tku	> tk ^ə uw [?] > (<i>unchanged</i>)	<i>dgu</i>
10	十	<i>shi</i> ²	Lgip > dz ^ə ip	p[gip] + dz ^ə ip	> dz ^ə i(p)	<i>bcu</i>
100	百	<i>bai</i> ³	Tprak > p ^ɪ æk	pr[ak + p] ^ɪ æk	> pr ^ɪ æk(k)	<i>brgya</i>

'One ~ alone':

PT 'one' *ktek, WT *gcig*.

OC 'alone' (tjek) [Ltek] > MC (tsyek) [tɕ^əek] > *zhi*¹ 隻 (1260c), not cited in

Baxter (1992). The current word for 'one' is *yi*¹ < MC ?jit [ʔ^əit] < OC *?jit [Lʔit].

PST *ktek.

The presyllable k-, reconstructed on the basis of WT *g*-, was lost in pre-OC times by random monosyllabisation. The division III of MC requires the reconstruction of a monosyllable in OC.

As part of the interference of MC forms with PT forms, the main syllable in PT *ktek was replaced by the unfamiliar pronunciation for Tibetan speakers of MC [tɕ^əek]. The combination *k[tek] + tɕ^əek gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form *ktɕ^əek, well represented by WT *gcig*.

'Two':

PT *knits, WT *gnyis*.

OC (*njits) [Lmits] > MC (nyij^h) [n̥^əij^h] > *er*⁴ 二 (564a), not cited in Baxter.

PST *knits.

The presyllable *k-*, reconstructed on the basis of WT *g-*, was lost in pre-OC times by random monosyllabisation. MC division III points to an OC monosyllable. The final *-ts* changed into *-js* > *-j^h* by final cluster simplification (Baxter 1992:568–9).

The main syllable in PT **knits* was replaced by the unfamiliar pronunciation of MC $\eta^{\circ}ij^h$. The combination **k[nits] + \eta^{\circ}ij^h* (with the possibility of a pre-MC form $\eta^{\circ}is$) gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form * $k\eta^{\circ}ij^h$, well represented by WT *gnyis*.

‘Three’:

PT **ksum*, WT *gsum*.

OC **sum* [^T*ksum*] > MC *sam* [*sam*] (irregular rhyme) > *san^l* 三 (648a). The regular MC rhyme is [- λm] (Baxter -*om*).

PST **ksum*.

The pronunciations of MC *sam* as well as any other MC forms in *- λm* (see below), all belonging to the divisions I or II, were not exotic for Tibetan speakers. So no imitation occurred, and WT *gsum* derives directly from PT **ksum* without interference from MC.

The problem raised by the reconstruction of ‘three’ and its word family is a very complex one. It has been treated in detail by Sagart (1999:14F152). A detailed discussion here would lead us too far from the present subject. I will only briefly outline my point of view.

Sagart proposed two forms for ‘three’: OC * $a_s-hl\ddot{m}$ > MC *sam* > *san^l* 三 for the simple graph and OC * $a_s-hl\ddot{m}$ > MC *tshom* > *can^l* 參 for the complex graph (or *da⁴xie³*). First of all, I consider that the rhymes *-um* / *-up* must be reconstructed, and that the changes *-um* > *- \ddot{m}* and *-up* > *- \ddot{p}* occurred after OC times. Aside from the basic form OC ^T*ksum* > *san^l* 三 ‘three’, the word family comprises the MC meaning *o* 驂 (read *can^l*), MC *tshom* [*ts^h λm*] ‘three horses in a team’, and both MC meanings of 參 (read *can^l*): MC *tsho* [*ts^h λm*] ‘three, a triad’ and (read *shen^l*) MC *srim* [$\xi^{\circ}im$] ‘the triad star of Orion’. The character 參 (read *san^l*) is also used even today as a complex graph for ‘three’. It must be noted that MC rhymes in *tshom* [*ts^h λm*] (division I) and in *srim* [$\xi^{\circ}im$] (division III) are regular in respect to the OC rhyme *-um* [-*um*]. For these two words I propose the reconstructions OC **srum* [^T*ksrum*] > MC *tshom* [*ts^h λm*] and OC **srjum* [^L*srum*] > MC *srim* [$\xi^{\circ}im$], which I consider as secondary forms of OC ^T*ksum*. To summarise (with my reconstructions only):

pre-OC *ksum* > OC ^T*ksum* > MC *sam* (irr.) > *san^l* 三 ‘three’.

pre-OC *krsum* > (metathesis of *-r-*) OC ^T*ksrum* > MC *ts^h λm* 參 ‘three, a triad’ > *can^l*
(also, incidentally, the reading with the meaning ‘take part, visit’), also MC *ts^h λm* 驂
‘three horses in a team’.

pre-OC *krsum* > (loss of *k-* and metathesis of *-r-*) OC ^L*srum* 參 ‘the triad star of
Orion’ > MC $\xi^{\circ}im$ > *shen^l* (also the reading with the meaning ‘ginseng’).

The change of pre-OC *krsum* into OC ^T*ksrum* or ^L*srum* by metathesis of *-r-* from the presyllable to the main syllable is, of course, purely hypothetical. But the phenomenon of metathesis, although refused by some scholars (Handel 2002), can help us to understand the curious instability and the intrusive behaviour of some OC medial *-r-*, and the fact that items with or without this medial can occur in the same phonetic series. The idea of an ancient metathesis of *-r-* is supported by some lexical correspondences between WT and OC. Compare WT *rdul* ‘dust’ with *chen²* 塵 < MC *drin* [$d^{\circ}in$] < OC **drj \ddot{n}* [^L*dr \ddot{n}*] (< pre-OC **dr \ddot{r}*) ‘id.’ (example from Coblin 1986:68).

I propose that the archaic character for 參 previously had the meaning ‘three horses in a team’ because this notion was more familiar than ‘triad of Orion’. The meaning of three horses is expressed by the upper part of the archaic character, which rather clearly shows the three horse’s heads, contra some other scholars who prefer to see three stars in it (why should the three stars be tied on?). The lower part of the character has sometimes been interpreted as the phonetic element, but neither the element *zhen*³ 珍 (OC rhyme -ɳn) nor *shan*¹ 杉 (OC rhyme -am) fits phonetically with *can*¹ 參 (OC rhyme -um). For myself, I prefer to see in the lower part of the archaic character for 參 the image of reins hung with ornaments.

The ancient pronunciation of 參 was used to derive numerous other characters that belong to the phonetic series GSR 647.

‘Four’:

PT *psits, WT *bzhi*.

OC *s(p)jij/ts [Lslits] > MC sij^H (s^əij^h) > *si*⁴ 四 (518a).

PST *plsits ~ *pplits.

The presyllable p- (perhaps a prefix ?), reconstructed on the basis of WT *b-*, was lost in pre-OC times. The medial -l- is justified by occurrences in some Tibeto-Burman languages.

The main syllable in PT psits was replaced by a corrupted form of the unfamiliar pronunciation of MC s^əij^h. The combination *p[sits] + s^əij^h gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form *ps^əij^h, which is rather well represented by WT *bzhi*.

‘Five’:

PT *lŋa, WT *lŋa*.

OC *ŋa? [Tlŋa?] > MC ŋu^X [ŋɔ?] > *wu*³ 五 (58).

PST *lŋa?

Like ‘three’, WT *lŋa* derives directly from PT.

‘Six’:

PT *truk, WT *drug*.

OC *C-rjuk [Lruk] > MC ljuwk [l^auwk] > *liu*⁴ 六 (1032a).

PST *truk ~ t-ruk.

The first element t- was lost during pre-OC times, suggesting that tr- must have been a kind of disjoined cluster. In Proto Thai proper, ‘six’ is reconstructed as *^hrok, the voicelessness being irrefutable proof of the presence of an old presyllabic element. As in the case of ‘three’ and ‘five’, the WT form derives directly from PT.

‘Seven’:

PT *pdun, WT *bdun*.

OC *thsjit [Lts^hhit] > MC tshit [tsh^əit] > *qi*¹ 七 (400a).

Pre-OC (for PST) *snit ~ s^hnit. Note that the rhyme -it(s) exits in knits ‘two’,
plsits ~ pplits ‘four (2+2)’ and snit ~ s^hnit ‘seven (5+2)’.

The Tibetan and Chinese forms are not genetically related.

‘Eight’:

PT *pret, WT *brgyad*.

OC (*pret) [Tpret] > MC (pet) [p^let] > *ba*¹ 八 (281a).

PST *pret.

The rhyme *-et* in PT *pret* was replaced by the unfamiliar pronunciation of the segment $-^{\text{I}}\text{et}$ of MC $p^{\text{I}}\text{et}$. The combination $*\text{pr}[\text{et} + p]^{\text{I}}\text{et}$ gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form $*\text{pr}^{\text{I}}\text{et}$, rather well represented by WT *brgyad*. The segment *-gyad* is the result of the interpretation of $-^{\text{I}}\text{et}$ in the phonetic system of Tibetan. Some scholars have interpreted *-g-* as an epenthetic element, but it must be remarked that epenthesis normally occurs at the junction of two syllables; it did not occur in the Tibetan word for ‘eight’.

‘Nine’:

PT $*\text{tku}$, WT *dgu*.

OC $*\text{k}^{\text{w}}\text{ju}?$ [$\text{Lk}^{\text{w}}\text{u}?$ ~ $\text{Lku}?$] > MC kjuw^{X} [$\text{k}^{\text{a}}\text{uw}?$] > *jiu*³ 九 (992a). Baxter’s reconstruction of a labiovelar before a high rounded vowel is surprising, in spite of his solid argument, so I will propose an alternate form $\text{Lku}?$.

PST $*\text{tku}?$ ~ $*\text{tku}$.

At first sight, WT *dgu* appears to derive directly from PT $*\text{tku}$, but the voiced velar *-g-* does not fit perfectly with PST and could be a result of the laxness of the MC form. If so, the combination $*\text{t}[\text{ku}] + \text{k}^{\text{a}}\text{uw}?$ gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form $*\text{tk}^{\text{a}}\text{uw}?$ represented by WT *dgu*.

‘Ten’:

PT $*\text{pgip}$ (?), WT *bcu*.

OC $*\text{g}^{\text{I}}\text{ip}$ [Lgip] > MC dzyip [$\text{dz}^{\text{a}}\text{ip}$] > *shi*² 十 (686a)

PST $*\text{pgip}$.

The presyllable *p-* (perhaps a prefix ?) is reconstructed on the basis of WT *b-* assuming that these forms are related. I suppose that the combination $*\text{p}[\text{gip}] + \text{dz}^{\text{a}}\text{ip}$ gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form $*\text{pdz}^{\text{a}}\text{ip}$. Could the WT rhyme *-cu* represent MC $\text{dz}^{\text{a}}\text{ip}$ after the loss of final *-p*? I must confess that I am not sure.

‘Hundred’:

PT $*\text{prak}$, WT *brgya*.

OC $*\text{prak}$ [Tprak] > MC pæk [$\text{p}^{\text{I}}\text{æk}$] > *bai*³ 百 (781a).

PST $*\text{prak}$.

The demonstration for ‘hundred’ is parallel to that for ‘eight’. The combination $*\text{pr}[\text{ak} + p]^{\text{I}}\text{æk}$ gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form $*\text{pr}^{\text{I}}\text{æk} > \text{pr}^{\text{I}}\text{æ}$, rather well represented by WT *brgya*. The loss of final *-k* is unexplained but not unprecedented.

Among the eleven comparisons between Tibetan and Chinese numerals, nine can be considered as good correspondences. The words for ‘seven’ are not cognate, and the correspondence for ‘ten’ is not absolutely sure. In the correspondences for ‘three’, ‘five’ and ‘six’, the WT forms derive directly from PT without MC interference. They must be considered as pure inherited correspondences. In the correspondences for ‘one’, ‘two’, ‘four’, ‘nine’ (possibly) and ‘ten’ (if related), the MC monosyllable replaced the main syllable in the PT form; in the case of ‘eight’ and ‘hundred’ the segment replaced was the rhyme. These are what could be called corrupted (or modified) inherited correspondences, in which the Tibetan word is the result of a compromise between an inherited form and a borrowed segment while the Chinese term remains unchanged. These modified correspondences fall between pure inherited correspondences and full borrowing.

5 Additional examples

In this section, further examples are presented to illustrate both corrupted and regular correspondences between Tibetan and Chinese. They are taken from Coblin (1986) and Gong (1995). OC and MC forms are between square brackets; PT and PST forms are the author's. OC and MC forms follow the system of Baxter (1992); when not attested they are placed between brackets. We begin with examples where the inherited correspondence has been perturbed by direct influence.

'Weary, exhausted':

PT *bral, WT 'fatigue, weariness' *o-brgyal*, 'to faint' *brgyal*.

OC (*brjaj) [bral > ^Lbraj] > MC (bje) [b^əe] > *pi*² 疲 (25d), also *pi*² 罷 (26a).

PST *bral.

It seems here that the influence extends only to the vowel of the PT form: *br[a]l + [b]^əe gave rise to the hypothesised intermediate form *br^əal, represented by WT *brgyal*.

'Dwell, establish':

PT *bdoks, WT 'to sit, dwell' *bzhugs-pa*.

OC (*djo?) [^Ldo?] > MC *dzyu*^X [dz^əu[?]] > *shu*⁴ 樹 (127j).

PST *bdoks.

It seems that the segment -do- of PT *bdoks was corrupted by the MC form according to the formula *b[do]ks + dz^əuh, the result being represented by WT *bzhugs*.

'To flow, flowing':

PT *run, WT *rgyun*.

OC (*wrjɿn) [^Lwrɿn] > MC (hwin) [ɣw^əin] > *yun*² 云 (see GSR 460 and 227).

The character 云 given by Coblin (1986) is not attested in Karlgren (1957),

Pulleyblank (1991), or Baxter (1992).

PST *(C)rɿ/un (vowel reconstruction uncertain).

The rime of PT *run was influenced by the rime of MC: r[un] + [ɣw]^əin, obviously at a stage earlier than MC proper, before the OC medial -r- merged into the breathiness of the division III lax syllable. See 'eight', OC (*pret) [Tpret] > MC (pet) [p^ɿet] > *ba*¹ 八, WT *brgyad*. In any case the segment -gyun of WT cannot be an inherited form. This correspondance shows what Bodman (1980) called 'primary yod', considered today as indicating an acquired correspondence.

'Center, middle':

PT *gruŋ, WT 'middle, midst' *gzhung*.

OC (*k-ljuŋ) [^Ltruŋ] > MC (trjuwŋ) [t^əuwŋ] > *zhong*¹ 中 (1007a).

PST *kruŋ/truŋ.

The segment -ruŋ of PT *gruŋ was replaced by MC [t^əuwŋ] according to the formula *g[ruŋ] + [t^əuwŋ] with an approximative phonetic adjustment, the result being represented by WT *gzhuang*.

'Loyal, sincere':

PT *gruŋ, WT 'to attend to, sincere' *gzhung*.

OC (*[^Ltruŋ] > ^Lluŋ] > MC [t^əuwŋ] > *zhong*¹ 忠 (1007k).

The OC and MC forms are set up on the model of *zhong*¹ 忠 (1007a).

PST *kruŋ/truŋ.

The process is the same as for 'center, middle'.

'Salt, salty':

PT *ram, WT *rgyam-tshwa*.

OC (*(C)-rjam) [(C)ram > Lram] > MC (yem) [j^əem] > *yan*² 鹽 (609n).

The MC initial is irregular; according to the basic phonetic -ram of GSR 609, the regular initial would be l-.

PST *(C)ram.

The rime of PT ram was replaced by an earlier form of MC: r[am] + j^əem, the result being reinterpreted by WT *rgyam*. For the interpretation of OC -r- by WT -gy- see 'eight' and 'hundred' above, 'weary, exhausted' and 'to blow'.

'To see':

PT *mk^hen, WT *mkhyen-pa*.

OC *kens [Tkens] > MC ken^H [kien^h] > *jian*⁴ 見 (241a). The MC vowel -iē- is characteristic of division IV.

PST *(C)ken. A presyllable must be reconstructed to explain divisions I/IV.

The rime of PT *mk^hen was replaced by the rime -iēn of the MC form according to the formula *mk^h[en] + [k]iēn[s], the result being represented by WT *mkhyen*.

'Imitate, conform to':

PT *sbaŋ, WT 'to learn, study, exercise' *sbyong(s), sbyang(s)*.

OC 'imitate' *pjang? [Lpaŋ?] > MC pjang^X [p^əaŋ?] > *fang*³ 放 (740i); also OC 'method, norm' *pjang [Lpaŋ] > MC pjang [p^əaŋ] > *fang*¹ 放 (740a).

PST *spaŋ.

The rime of PT *sbaŋ was replaced by the rime of the MC form: *sb[aŋ] + [p]^əaŋ, the result being represented by WT *sbyong/sbyang*.

'Taste':

PT *snep (?), WT *snyab-pa*.

OC (*snep > *thep) [snep > Tthep] > MC (thep) [thiēp] > *tie*¹ 帖 (618p). The MC vowel -iē- is characteristic of division IV.

PST *snep.

Coblin (1986) proposed OC hniap > MC thiep and reconstructed PST sniap, in fact on the basis of the WT form.

The rime of the supposed PT snep was replaced by the rime -iēp of the MC form according to the formula *sn[ep] + [th]iēp, with palatalisation of the nasal, the result being represented by WT *snyab*. This case is similar to that of *mkhyen* 'to see'.

By way of contrast, we present below some correspondences involving OC medial -r- in which the two languages have evolved independently without interference (as in the cases of 'three', 'five' and 'six'). These are considered to be inherited correspondences, to be compared with the corrupted correspondences above.

'Add, apply':

PT *pkral, WT 'to impose, to appoint to' *bkral*.

OC (*kral >) *kraj [kral > Tkraj] > MC kæ [k^læ] > *jia*¹ 加 (15a).

PST *pkral.

‘Bear, rear’:

PT *srel, WT ‘bring up, rear’ *srel*.

OC (*srel >) *srjen [*srel > ^Tsren] > MC sren [s¹ɛn] > *chan*³ 產 (194a).

PST *srel

‘Busy, employed at’:

PT *brel, WT *brel*.

OC (*brels) [^Tbrels] > MC (bɛn^H) [b¹ɛn^h] > *ban*⁴ 辦 (219f).

PST *brel*.

‘Hard, strong’:

PT *kraŋ, WT ‘hard’ *khraŋ*.

OC ‘strong’ *kraŋ? [^Tkraŋ?] > kæng^X [k¹æŋ?] > *geng*³ 梗 (745e).

PST *kraŋ

‘Shell, armor’:

PT *krap, WT ‘shield, coat of mail’ *khraḅ*.

OC *krap [^Tkrap] > MC kæp [k¹æp] > *ja*³ 甲 (629a).

PST *krap

‘Weep’:

PT *krap, WT ‘a weeper’ *khraḅ-khraḅ*.

OC *krjɿp [^Lkrɿp] > MC khip [k^ɔip] > *qi*⁴ 泣 (694h).

PST *krap

6 Conclusion

We observe that the Tibetan language shows a two widely differing types of phonetic developments from PST and PT: one is straightforward and can be considered as regular while the other can be regarded as abnormal.

The regular changes, where the rimes are well preserved, can be represented by examples such as ‘three’ (*ksum > *gsum*), ‘add, apply’ (*pkral > *bkral*) and ‘weep’ (*krap > *khraḅ*), showing clear correspondences with OC. Other examples are: ‘five’ (*lŋa > *lŋa*), ‘six’ (*truk > *drug*), ‘nine’ (*tku > *dgu*), ‘bear’ (*srel > *srel*), ‘busy’ (*brel > *brel*), ‘hard’ (*kraŋ > *khraŋ*) and ‘armor’ (*krap > *khraḅ*). However, some of these may be pure borrowings of the whole words from MC into PT.

The abnormal changes, in which the rimes have been corrupted, can be represented by such examples as ‘eight’ (*pret > *brgyad*), ‘weary, exhausted’ (*bral > *brgyal*) and ‘salt’ (*ram > *rgyam*), showing irregular correspondences with OC. Other examples are: ‘one’ (*ktek > *gcig*), ‘two’ (*knits > *gnyis*), ‘four’ (*psits > *bzhi*), ‘dwell’ (*bdoks > *bzhugs*), ‘to flow’ (*run > *rgyun*), ‘center’ (*gruŋ > *gzhung*), ‘loyal’ (*gruŋ > *gzhung*), ‘salt’ (*ram > *rgyam*), ‘to see’ (*mkhen > *mkhyen*), ‘imitate’ (*sbaŋ > *sbyong*) and ‘taste’ (*snep > *snyab*). It is precisely to explain such correspondences that the author has proposed the borrowing of segments from Middle Chinese forms into Proto Tibetan as detailed above.

This mode of borrowing proposed, in which only a part of the word (main syllable or rhyme) is affected, is the consequence of a particular situation. The two languages in contact are genetically related, with a certain degree of intercomprehension and in a hierarchical relation of prestige. The Chinese language of MC times, being in a dominating position,

was regarded as prestigious by speakers of Tibetan, who were led to imitate, by a kind of affectation, the characteristic features of Divisions II and III which were unknown in Tibetan.

Consideration has been limited here to a restricted domain, mostly the numerals, which behave in general as a group, but the analysis could be extended with profit to most of the Tibetan vocabulary. I propose to call this special process of borrowing 'hypercorrection by affected imitation'. Such layers of borrowing have never been clearly identified in historical comparative studies.

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