

Studies in Asian Geolinguistics

V



ILCAA Joint Research Project 2015 - 2017 “Studies in Asian Geolinguistics”

**Research Institute for Languages and Cultures of Asia and Africa
Tokyo University of Foreign Studies**

Studies in Asian Geolinguistics V

— IRON —

Report of ILCAA JOINT RESEARCH PROJECT 2015–2017
“STUDIES IN ASIAN GEOLINGUISTICS”

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“Iron” in Korean

1. Classification of word forms

Modern standard word for “iron” is /sø/ or /swe/. Dialectal variation is not so great. Only one basic form, derived from Middle Korean (MK) /soy/, is used. This word basically means metal in general but among the various kinds of metals, iron is the most typical one and in many cases this word simply means iron. Another Sino-Korean word /c^her/ (MK t^hyer), which specifically means iron, has not been widely used in daily life until modernization began.

As for the cultural aspect of this word, it is generally admitted the people in Korea began to use iron earlier than in Japan, and it was imported to Japan until iron was found and the method of making iron was introduced.

Ogura (1944: 1st vol. 221-222) recorded 16 forms but all contain this common element developed from the MK /soy/. These forms can be classified into three major groups.

Group 1

1a sø, 1b swe, 1c swe, 1d se, 1e se 1f si

Group 2

2a ?sø, 2b ?swe, 2c ?swe, 2d ?se, 2e ?se, 2f ?si

Group 3

3a sø-?kop, 3b swe-?kop, 3c swe-?kət, 3e swe-?kat

Forms in Group 1 are the most basic ones. Their differences concerns how the MK diphthong /oy/ is rendered in each dialect. Sometimes the front rounded vowel [ø] (1a) is said to be the standard variety but in fact the diphthong [we] (1b) is the most popular pronunciation of this word in Seoul. Other varieties concerns about the distinction between /e/ and /ɛ/, loss of the glide [w] and vowel raising.

Forms in Group 2 have a reinforced initial consonant /ʔs/. The vowel shows a couple of varieties that are similar to the cases of group 1.

Forms in Group 3 are made up by adding a suffix, of which the meaning is not clear.

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

The form [sø] is most widespread throughout the Korean peninsula. As to the initial consonant, reinforced varieties are found in Kyōngsang and Cheju dialects. This goes well with the idea that we have many examples of sporadic and historically irregular reinforced initial consonants in these regions.

The forms with a suffix are used only in the coastal areas in Kangwŏn and Kyōngsang dialects.

The unrounded front vowel [ɛ] is mainly used in Kyōngsang and Phōng'an dialects. In the former cases the distinction between [e] and [ɛ] has been lost in many places including Pusan and Taegu, and for such dialects, Ogura (1944) simply uses the symbol [ɛ]. However, as for Phōng'an dialects, the distinction between these two vowels is not lost so that it is difficult to explain the form [swe] (1c) found in these dialects.

Historically, the Mk word /soy/ (H) seems to have been used for a long time. We also have lots of compounds including the word /soy/ in MK texts:

soy-kiris: iron ware

soy-stoj: iron scrap

soy-pup^h: bell (lit. iron drum) etc.

As to the etymology of this words, there have been two theories (cf. Kim Minsu (1997) and Kang (2010)) but neither seems to be persuasive.

By the way, it seems important to realize that there is a homonym /soy/ which means ‘lock/key’ in MK, and this poses an interesting question on the etymology of this word. In modern Korean, only compound forms are used for ‘lock/key’, ‘camwulssoy’ and ‘yelssoy’.

In Matisoff (1992), he observed that “Many Southeast Asian languages have a different word for ‘lock/key’ which does seem to be borrowed from Chinese 鎖 (Mandarin suǒ),”. If we think in the same line as these languages, this word may be a borrowing from Chinese 鎖 (Sino-Korean *sway*). (This possibility was pointed out by Kurabe Keita at the presentation of this paper.)

One problem with this theory is that, although the word for iron *soy* and the Sino-Korean *sway* look similar in the modern language, Sino-Korean reading of this character in MK was *swa* or *sa*. (Ito Chiyuki (2007). However, if we look at the form *swe* found in Phōng'an dialects as stated above, the word for iron and the Sino-Korean reading of the character 鎖 is exactly the same for these dialects, and this fact should be taken into account in explaining the etymology of this word.

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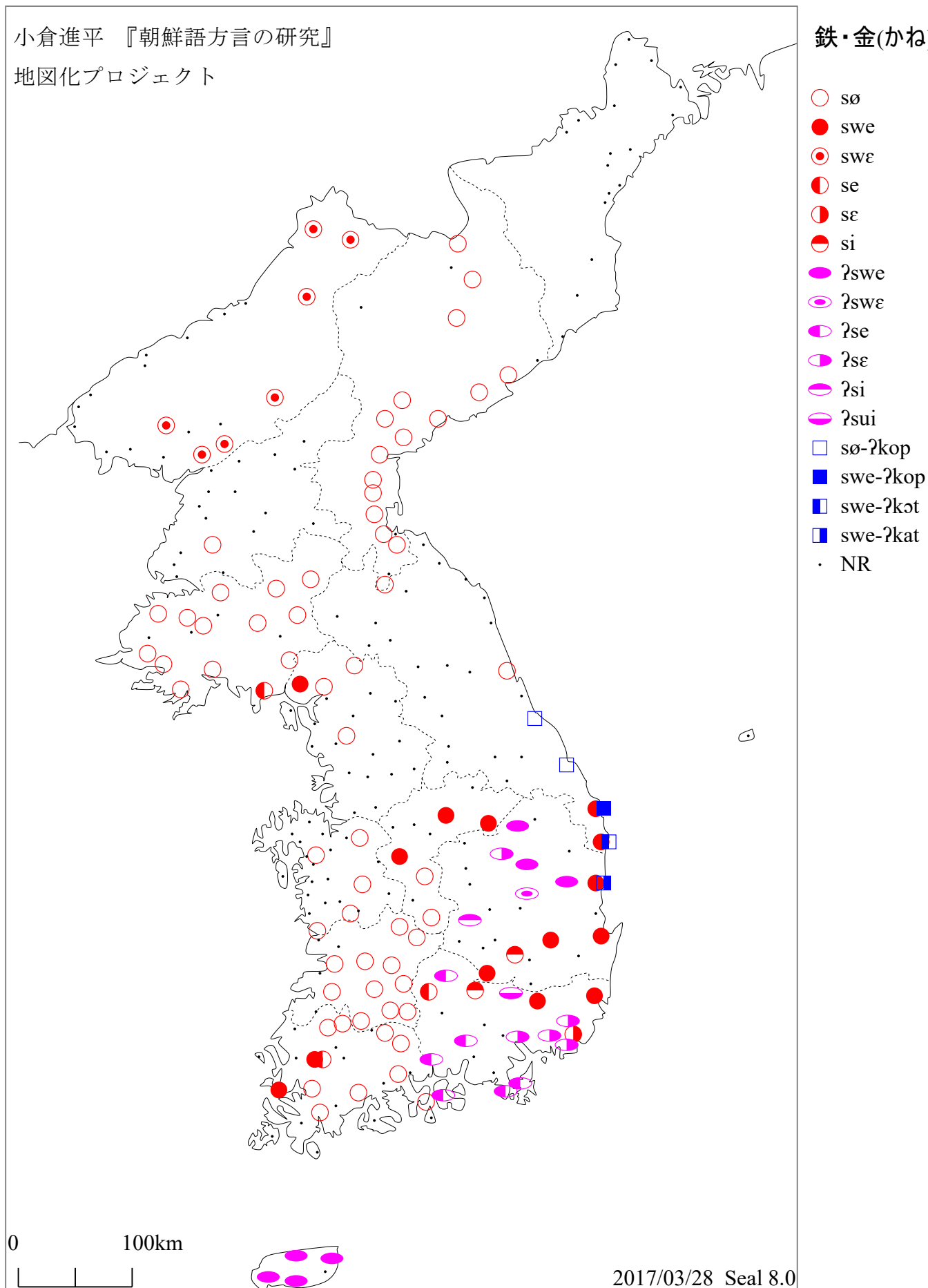
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(Rei Fukui)



“Iron” in Ainu

1. Classification of word forms

In Ainu, the word *káni* for “metal” was borrowed from Japanese *kane* 金 and created with it the words for some kinds of metals. Specially for “iron,” there are the following three types in Hattori (1964: 208):

A. *kani* type:

káni, káne, kani, kaani

B. *X kani* type:

B-1. *yay'an kaani, yayán káni, yayán kani,*
yayán káne

B-2: *sínokane*

B-3: *sirár kani*

C. loan word: *tecí*

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

Around the 9th or 10th century, when Hokkaido was divided into the Okhotsk culture and the Satsumon culture, people were refining iron, which was taken from a trade with Japanese. Although Sakhalin Ainu had the skill of smithery, Hokkaido Ainu lost it because more Japanese iron products were imported, Mamiya (1810) reported.

In Type A, *kani* type, the words for “metal” are applied as the meaning of “iron.” The vowels /e/ and /i/ in the second syllable of *kane* and *kani*, would be influenced by the Tohoku dialects in northeastern mainland Japan. Similarly, there are two forms for “potato,” *imo* and *emo*, in the Ainu dialects and Japanese dialects. Ono (1996: 10) reported /e/ can be changed into /i/ in Japanese Ainu speakers’ Japanese, influenced by the Hokkaido dialects of Japanese, i.e., *koi* < *koe* “voice,” *kairu* < *kaeru* “to go back,” and *omai* < *omae* “you.”

Type B, the *X kani* type, is classified into three subtypes: the B-1 words, i.e. *yayán káni* etc., mean “general metal,” the B-2 word, *sínokani*, means “real metal,” and the B-3 term, *sirár kani*, means “rock metal.” We can also find other metals and metallic tools, compounded with the term *káni* for “metal” (see Table 1).

As we can see in Type C, *tecí*, which is the loan word from Japanese *tetu* 鉄, Japanese *tu* [tsu] was borrowed into Ainu *ci* [tei], since Ainu does not possess the sound [tsu]: i.e., the word for “cabbage,” *káypeci*, was borrowed from *kaibetu* カイベツ in the Hokkaido and Akita dialects of Japanese, and the word

for “New Year,” *sónkaci*, came from *syoogatu* 正月 in Japanese (Tamura 1996: 291, 675).

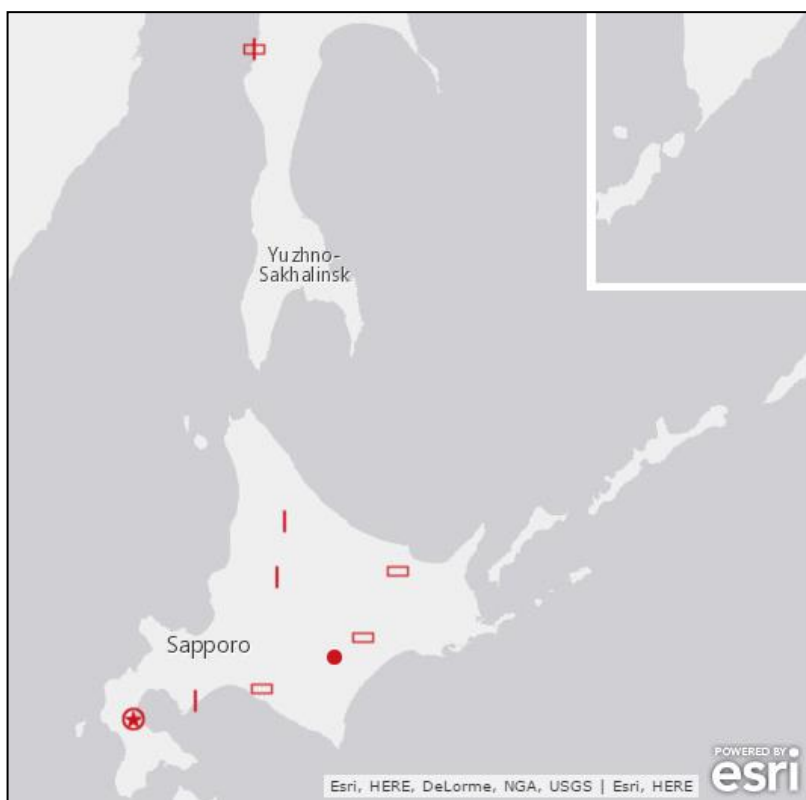
Map 2 shows differences in accent among the dialects. In the most of the dialects, the words for “metal” are accented on the first syllable, i.e., *káni*, *káne*, and *kaani*. The word *kaani* of the Sakhalin dialects would be borrowed from the word *káni* of the Hokkaido dialects, following the correlation between a long vowel *aa* in Sakhalin and a high pitch *á* in Hokkaido.

According to the basic accent in the Hokkaido Ainu dialects, a high pitch falls on the second syllable, CVCV́. Also, in the Aomori dialects (Japanese) of northeastern Japan, the word for “metal” has a high pitch on the second syllable, [kan] LH (Hirayama (ed.) 1993: 3376). However, the word accented on the second syllable, *kaní*, would be newer than the others and adopt the basic accent rule in the Hokkaido Ainu dialects. Map 2 shows the local distribution of Type B words. Vovin (1993 :73-74, 98) reconstructs the proto-Ainu form **kaani* HHH “metal,” which comes from the Old Japanese word *kane* HH “metal”; I suggested a long vowel form is not old above. For example, in the Kyoto dialect of Japanese, the accent-less *kane* HH, may be borrowed into Ainu with the high pitch falling on the first syllable, *káni*. The unaccented form of Type C are only distributed in the unaccented dialects of Hokkaido (as seen on Map 2).

Reference	Word	Meaning and source
copper	<i>húrekani</i>	“red metal”
silver	<i>sirókani</i>	< J. <i>sirokane</i> 白金 “white metal”
	<i>tetara kaani</i>	“white metal”
gold	<i>kónkani</i>	< J. <i>kogane</i> 黄金 “yellow metal”
gimlet	<i>ikísakani</i>	“metal for drilling a hole in something”
hammer	<i>kánituci</i>	< J. <i>kanaduci</i> 金槌 “metallic hammer”
gun	<i>hecawé kani</i>	“bursting metal”
	<i>téppo</i>	< J. <i>teppó</i> 鉄砲 “metallic gun”

Table 1. Metals and metallic tools
(Hattori 1964: 208, 122; “J.” means Japanese)

Keywords: metal, accent, loan word



- A. *kani* type □
- B. X *kani* type
 - B-1. "General metal" |
 - B-2. "Real metal" ○
 - B-3. "Rock metal" ★
- C. loan word ●

Map 1. "Iron" in Ainu



- A. Accent on the first syllable
 - A-1. *káni* ▽
 - A-2. *káne* ▽
 - A-3. *kaani* ▽
- B. Accent on the second syllable ↑ *kani*
- C. None + *kani*

Map 2. "Metal" in Ainu

(Mika Fukazawa)

“Iron” in Mongolic and Turkic

The word forms representing “iron” in Mongolic and Turkic are all cognates of the Old Turkic word *temir* except the one used in a Mongolic language called Dagur. Metallurgical technology is considered to have transmitted from the Scythians in western Eurasia to eastern Eurasian peoples. The Turks were known as skilled ironworkers as early as the 6th century when they were subjects of Róurán (柔然).

A) *temir* type

The Turkic forms can be divided into two categories in terms of the tenseness of the initial consonant. The forms are (1) *temir* (Karachay, Kumyk, Kazakh, Karakalpak, Kirghiz, Nogay, Uzbek, Tuvan, Tofalar, Altai), *tāmār* (Khalaj), *tāmīr* (Chuvash), *tēmīr* (Chulym), *timir* (sakha, Dolgan), and *tömür* (Uighur) and (2) *demir* (Turkish, Turkmen, Gagauz, Karaim, Crimean Tatar), *dəmir* (Azeri), *demər* (Sarīg Uighur), and *dimur* (Salar).

The lax variants, which are marked with a diamond sign on the map, are distributed only along the southern periphery.

The Mongolic forms are considered to be a loanword from Turkic. (Činggis Qan was named *Temüjin* “ironsmith” after a Tatar leader.) Modern Mongolic forms are *təmər* (Mongol: Khalkha, Karachin, etc.), *tömör* (Mongol: Ordos, Alxa, etc.), *təmər* (Mongol: Chakhar), *tömür* (Oyirad), *tumər* (Buriad), *temər* (Shera Yughur), *tamər* (Bonan), *tumər* (Monguor), and *teiəmu* (Dongxiang).

B) *kasō* type

Dagur alone has a form of completely different origin, *kasō*, for “iron.” The etymology of the word is unknown. Because the Tachen dialect in Xīnjiāng, which is marked with an arrow symbol in the center of the map, is spoken by the descendants of the Dagur soldiers sent from northeastern China in the 18th century, we can say that only one language in the eastern periphery obtained this form in history.

(Yoshio Saitō)



“Iron” in Mongolic and Turkic

“Iron” in Sinitic

1. Classification of word forms

We classified word forms for “iron” into two types: A *tie* 鐵 and B *tieba* 鐵巴. The latter comprises a root (*tie* 鐵) and a suffix (*ba* 巴). According to the initials of the phonetic forms, A *tie* 鐵 is classified into two types: A-1 [tʰ-] and A-2 [h-]. The former type is classified into four types according to endings:

A *tie* 鐵

A-1 initial [tʰ-]

A-1-1 open: tʰie, tʰiːe, tʰie, tʰiə, tʰia, tʰe, tʰi, tʰa, tʰei, tʰei, tʰai

A-1-2 glottal stop [-ʔ]: tʰieʔ, tʰieʔ, tʰiəʔ, tʰiəʔ, tʰieʔ, tʰiaʔ, tʰiaʔ, tʰiʔ, tʰiʔ, tʰeʔ, tʰaʔ, tʰuʔ

A-1-3 [-t]: tʰiet, tʰiet, tʰyet, tʰit, tʰet, tʰet

A-1-4 [-k]: tʰik, tʰek

A-2 initial [h-]: hi, hieʔ, hiet, hit, het

B *tieba* 鐵巴: tʰie pa, tʰi pa

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

The word forms denoting “iron” in Chinese dialects essentially show a unanimous distribution of A *tie* 鐵. People in a few places use B *tieba* 鐵巴, which collocates always with A *tie* 鐵. However, in some places, *tieba* 鐵巴 is exclusive to mean “a lump of iron.” This suggests that *tieba* 鐵巴 was originally derived from an iron object, and later generalized to mean “iron.”

The phonetic forms of A *tie* 鐵 are consistent with the phonological system of each dialect. The dominant initial consonant is the aspirated voiceless alveolar A-1 [tʰ-]. A-2 [h-] is distributed in Jiangxi and Guangdong provinces. This feature is observed in the Middle Chinese (MC) *tou* 透 initial in areas speaking the Yue dialect *siyi* 四邑 subgroup and is a part of the Gan dialect. A remarkable diversity is observed in the behavior of the endings. The endings of *tie* 鐵 can be classified into four types. Excluding the A-1-1 type, the other three types belong to the *ru* 入 tone. The A-1-1 open type is mainly distributed in Mandarin-speaking areas but with varying tone types. For example, it merged into the *shang* 上 tone in the Beijing 北京 dialect, the *yinping* 陰平 tone in Xi'an 西安, and the *qu* 去 tone in Yinchuan 銀川. This can be attributed to the systematic changes of the phonological system, which occurred recently. In the Xiang dialect, the *tie* 鐵 forms have no coda but retain the *ru* 入 tone independently of the other tone types. A-1-2 glottal stop

[-ʔ] is distributed in areas speaking the Jin, Wu, and Jianghuai Mandarin dialects. A-1-3 [-t] is typically distributed in Guangdong and Guangxi provinces. A-1-4 [-k] shows a scattered distribution in the Yue dialect areas.

Table 1

ending	place	word form
open	Beijing (Mandarin)	tʰie
	Xi'an (Mandarin)	tʰie
	Yinchuan (Mandarin)	tʰie
	Changsha (Xiang)	tʰie
[-ʔ]	Taiyuan (Jin)	tʰiəʔ
	Nantong (Jianghuai)	tʰiʔ
	Suzhou (Wu)	tʰiəʔ
[-t]	Guangzhou (Yue)	tʰit
[-k]	Zengcheng (Yue)	tʰek

The reconstruction of MC for “iron” by Schuessler (2007: 497) is *tʰiet. According to Baxter and Sagart (2014), the Old Chinese (OC) form is *lʰik (OC) > thet (MC) (<http://ocbaxtersagart.lsa.umich.edu/>). Shuowen jiezi 說文解字 defined *tie* 鐵 as “黑金也”(black metal). Wang Li (1982: 469) and Sagart (1999: 200–201) showed the derivation of *tie* 鐵 from the word-family of *(h)l[i]k (black). However, the leading word form for black is *hei* 黑, which is reconstructed as *mʰək (OC) > xok (MC) (Baxter and Sagart 2014). The possibility that *lʰ- and *mʰ- belongs to the same word-family needs to be clarified in future analysis.

Table 2

	OC	meaning
<i>tie</i> 鐵	*lik>det	black horse
<i>dai</i> 黛	*lik-s>dojH	black pigment for the eyebrows
<i>yi</i> 黹	*lik>yik	black

In China, meteoric iron objects were found in the sites of the middle of Shang dynasty (1300BC). As for iron manufacturing, the estimated 1000BC ironware discovered in the Xinjiang district is the earliest evidence presently (Lu 2003: 122). Iron use in China was earlier than the other areas in East Asia, and its use later spread more swiftly than bronze. Sagart (1999: 201) showed that the Chinese loan words in Written Tibetan (*lčags*<hlyak-s) and Tai (Proto-Tai: *hleak (Li 1977: 136)) must have been made very early, that is, before the changes of initials and codas.

Keywords: word-family, loan word

(Fumiki Suzuki, Takashi Ueya, Kenji Yagi)



“iron” in Sinitic

A *tie* 鐵

A-1 initial [tʰ-]

A-1-1 open

- thie
- ① thie:e
- ⊙ thie
- ◐ thie
- ◑ thir
- ⊖ thia
- ⊗ thi
- ⊙ the
- ⊘ tha
- ⊗ thei
- ⊕ thei
- ⊙ thai

A-1-2 [-ʔ]

- △ thieʔ
- △ thieʔ
- ▲ thiaēʔ
- △ thiaʔ
- ▲ thieʔ
- ▲ thiaʔ
- ▲ thiaʔ
- ▲ thiaʔ
- ▲ thiʔ
- ▲ thirʔ
- ▲ theʔ
- ▲ thaʔ
- ▲ thwʔ

A-1-3 [-t]

- Ψ thiet
- Υ thiet
- ⊕ thiyet
- † thit
- Υ thet
- Υ thet

A-1-4 [-k]

- ∧ thik
- ∨ thek

A-2 initial [h-]

- ◆ hi
- ◆ hieʔ
- ◆ hiet
- ◆ hit
- ◆ het

B *tie ba* 鐵巴

- ☆ thie pa
- ☆ thi pa

Iron in Tibeto-Burman

1. Classification of word forms

Our data on 517 languages and dialects, including primary data on many Tibetic languages and dialects, can be abstracted into three major types. Among these Types, A and B are especially widespread in terms of the diversity of branches.¹

Type A-1²

ɛam⁵⁵, ʃam, ʃam⁵⁵, sam, ɛam⁵³, ɛəm, shəm, ɛiam⁵³

From WrB sam: ʃan, ʃan, thang, than, thæn

ʃim⁴⁴, sin

ɛom, ʃom⁵⁵, ʃon, somu, su⁴mu

Type A-2

ɛɛ⁴², ʃɛ⁴², ɛɛ¹¹, xe²¹, ɛɪ²¹, xɪ²¹, ɛi², xi¹³, ɛiə²¹

xɔ²¹, ʃhɔ³¹, sɔ⁵⁵, ɛo⁵⁵, xo⁴⁴, so³³, ʃu⁵³, xu³³, ʃu⁵⁵, ʃu⁵³

ɛy⁵⁵, xy⁵⁵, xɪ¹¹, xə⁵⁵, hə²¹

Type A-3

ɛɛ³⁵, ɛɪ⁵⁵, ʃɔ³¹, ʃɔ⁵³, ʃɔ³⁵, ʃɔ⁵⁵

Type B

sya:l, syel, sél, sel, sil, syl

śir, sher, sər

thiir, thiir, thiir, thiɪ, thúa

jən², jan, yan

Type C-1

From WrT lcags: lteak(s), ltjaks, lteək, lteəq, lteeq, lteəχ, hteak, hteəq, hʃaʔ, hteəχ, hteəʃ, htea, hteəʔ, ɛteəq, hɪdza:, dza⁵³

Type C-2

tha²¹, tha⁴⁴, tha⁵⁵, tha¹¹, tha²¹, tha⁴²

These three widespread types have good etyma in Proto-Tibeto-Burman (PTB).³ Type A reflects a PTB etymon *syam ‘iron’, which gave rise to myriad forms

via “feature shuffling” and/or various phonological processes, including: (a) fortition of the initial fricative, e.g. Burmese ʃan; (b) progressive assimilation, e.g. Tshobdun rGyalrong ʃim⁴⁴, Guoke Nusu ɛɛ³⁵, Fumin Alo ɛɛ²¹; (c) regressive assimilation, e.g. Japhug rGyalrong ɛom, Qianxi Guiqiong ʃɔ⁵³, Lancang Lahu ɛo³³; (d) deletion of the final nasal (which sometimes left its trace in the vowel), e.g. Southern Prinmi ɛɪ⁵⁵, Maibeng Guiqiong ʃɔ³¹, Jinuo ɛɛ⁴², Queyu ɛo⁵⁵; (e) retroflexivization, e.g. Longchuan Achang ʃam⁵⁵; (f) debuccalization, e.g. Longlin Yi hə²¹; and (g) diphthongization, e.g. Shuangbo Yi ɛiə²¹. In this paper, we divide Type A into three subtypes based on the degree of erosion of the final nasal, which shows some areal patterns (see Section 2).

Type B reflects a PTB etymon *sya:l ɹ *syi:r ‘iron’, from which various modern forms have arisen via processes such as: (a) progressive assimilation, e.g. Sampang syel; (b) fortition of the fricative, e.g. Falam Lai thiir; (c) deletion of the initial, e.g. Ao jən²; and (d) nasalization of the final liquid, e.g. Nocte jan.

Type C originates from the PTB etymon *l-tsyak ‘iron’, which gave rise to diverse forms via processes such as: (a) devoicing and fricativization of the prefix, e.g. rNgawa Tibetan lteək, Askyirong Tibetan lteaʃ, Rongdag Tibetan hɪdza:; (b) retroflexivization, e.g. sProsnang Tibetan hʃaʔ; (c) progressive assimilation, e.g. Wache Tibetan lteeq; (d) lenition of the final, e.g. Dartsendo Tibetan hteaʔ, Mroha Tibetan lteəχ, Xinchengzi Tibetan dza⁵³; and (e) fortition of the initial affricate, e.g. Pa-O tha²¹. We divide Type C into two subtypes based on the initial consonant, as they are well grounded in terms of both areal and genetic perspectives. Type C-1 mainly represents all modern Tibetic languages and dialects that have their diachronic sources in WrT lcags, while Type C-2 represents Karenic languages that have their sources in PKar *tha²¹. Note further that PTB *l-tsyak is related to Old Chinese *ʃik ‘iron’, which was an early loan into many Southeast Asian languages, e.g. Proto-Tai *hleḷ D, Proto-Palaungic *hleḷ, Proto-Hmongic *luwC, and Proto-Mienic *r̥uək (see Tai-Kadai, Austroasiatic, and Hmong-Mien in this volume).

In addition to the three major types, there are some infrequent roots that carry the meaning ‘iron’, which cannot be traced back to the PTB stage, including:

Type D

teo, teu⁵³, teu⁵³, hteu⁵³

¹ Abbreviations used in this paper are as follows: PBG (Proto-Bodo-Garo), PCN (Proto-Central Naga), PKar (Proto-Karenic), PKC (Proto-Kuki-Chin), PLo (Proto-Loloish), PNN (Proto-Northern Naga), PTa (Proto-Tani), PTB (Proto-Tibeto-Burman), PTk (Proto-Tangkulic), TB (Tibeto-Burman), WrB (Written Burmese), and WrT (Written Tibetan).

² Superscripts on lexical items indicate their tones.

³ Forms of PTB, Old Chinese, Proto-Tai, Proto-Palaungic, Proto-Hmongic, and Proto-Mienic are based on the following sources, respectively: Matisoff (2003), Baxter and Sagart (2014), Li (1977), Sidwell (2010), Ratliff (2010), and Ratliff (2010).

Type E

²p^hai, ²pwe, ²p^he:, phri

Type F

the⁴⁴, the³³, the⁴⁴, tchi⁴⁴, tchi⁵⁵, tchi⁴²

Type G

nā:, nyā, ne

Type H

^hza

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

Primary distribution of Type A, found in TB branches such as Burmish (WrB *sam*), Loloish (PLo *xam¹, Bradley 1979:332), ⁴ Naxi, Nungic, Qiangic, and rGyalrongic, is located throughout Burma, Yunnan, Sichuan, Guizhou, and northern Thailand. Type A, as illustrated above, shows variation in the degree of erosion of the final nasal. The deletion of the final nasal is predominant especially in Loloish and some Qiangic languages located in the eastern parts of the distribution of Type A (Type A-2). The final nasal is retained elsewhere (Type A-1). It is of interest to note that languages that retain the trace of the final nasal as a nasal vowel (Type A-3) appear to be located at the boundaries between Types A-1 and A-2. Note also that Type A shows variation in vowels (such as fronting and backing), as demonstrated in the previous section. Forms with the vowel /a/ are located in peripheral areas, suggesting their oldness, which is confirmed by their reconstructed form, i.e. PTB *syam. The distribution of varieties involving front and back vowels does not appear to exhibit areal patterns.

Type B, found in Kuki-Chin (PKC *thiir, VanBik 2009:132), Central Naga (PCN *jən, Bruhn 2014:414), Tangkhulic (PTk *thir, Mortensen 2012), Northern Naga (PNN *ya:n, French 1983:506), Bodo-Garo (PBG *sur¹, Joseph and Burling 2006:130), Luish (PLu *sel?, Huziwara 2012:54), and Kiranti languages and dialects, is concentrated in western Burma, northeastern India, and eastern Nepal. Type B, as illustrated above, shows variation in its finals. Although more data are needed for confirmation, it

does not seem as though Type B can be reduced to any areal patterns. The fortition of the initial fricative found in some items of Type B (i.e. PTB *s/sy > *th*) is a well-established innovation shared by Kuki-Chin languages in western Burma, northeastern India and eastern Bangladesh (VanBik 2009:16–7).

Type C is found in northern and southern parts of the TB distribution. It is prevalent in Tibetic (WrT *lcags*), Karenic (PKar *tha^{2D}, Luangthongkum 2013), and Tani languages and dialects (PTa *rjok, Sun 1993:391), in which the Tani form is a possible early loan from Tibetan (Sun 1993:297). Among the two major subtypes, Type C-2, which has an alveolar stop, is restricted to Karenic languages in Lower Burma. Type C-1, mostly found in Tibetic languages, shows various kinds of reflexes for the PTB prefix *l-. This prefix is retained in regions where Western Archaic Tibetan is spoken, and in some parts of the Amdo region, but lost in Ü-Tsang. It became ^h- in most parts of the Khams region and many parts of Amdo, and ^ɛ- in some parts of Khams and Amdo.

Type D, which occurs only in sTau dialects, appears to reflect a PTB etymon *syam (Type A), as in other Qiangic languages, but also exhibits the feature of Type C. This may be accounted for in terms of their distribution, in regions where Types A and C converge.

Type E is found in Tamangish (TGTM) languages of Nepal (PTGTM *B^hai, Mazaudon 1994) and in Jinghpaw of northern Burma and western Yunnan. The cognacy of them, however, is unknown.

Type F is only attested in Bai dialects. It appears to be a loan from Chinese, given that Bai is heavily influenced by it. Although the Bai forms show a superficial similarity to Kuki-Chin languages of Type B, unlike in Kuki-Chin, the sound change from PTB *s/sy to Bai *th* is not well established in Bai.

Type G, which is distributed in central Nepal, only appears in Newar dialects in our data.

Type H, which is not shown in our maps, is only found in lCangdzong Tibetan spoken in Jiangzhong (Chamdo) of eastern Tibet. This item, possibly having arisen as a result of a semantic shift, may be related to WrT *zha* (*nye*) ‘lead’.

Keywords: Tibeto-Burman, sound changes, feature shuffling, borrowing

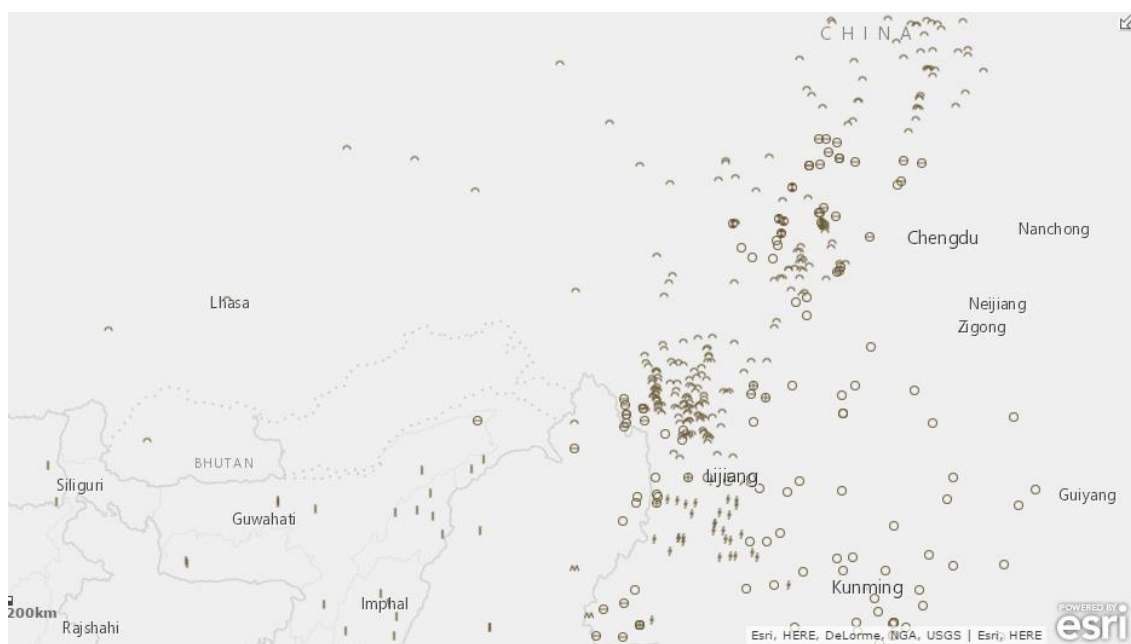
⁴ For reconstructed mesoroots and their references, see STEDT Database (Accessed 11 January 2017). URL: <http://stedt.berkeley.edu/~stedt-cgi/rootcanal.pl>

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Map 1: “Iron” in Tibeto-Burman

A-1	⊖	ɛam ⁵⁵ , ʃam, ʈan, ʈaŋ, ʃim ⁴⁴ , siŋ, ɛom, ʃom ⁵⁵
A-2	○	ɛe ⁴² , ʃe ⁴² , ɛe ¹¹ , xɔ ²¹ , ʃho ³¹ , so ⁵⁵ , ɛy ⁵⁵ , xy ⁵⁵
A-3	⊕	ɛẽ ³⁵ , ɛĩ ⁵⁵ , ʃã ³¹ , ʃõ ⁵³ , ʃõ ³⁵ , ʃõ ⁵⁵
B	l	sya:l, syel, ʃir, sher, thiir, thiir, jən ² , jan
C-1	ˆ	lteak(s), ltʃaks, ʎeək, ʎeəʔ, ʎtʃəʔ, ʎeəχ
C-2	˘	thaʔ ²¹ , thaʔ ⁴⁴ , thaʔ ⁵⁵ , tha ¹¹ , tha ²¹ , tha ⁴²
D	⊗	teo, teu ⁵³ , teu ⁵³ , ʎteu ⁵³
E	ʌ	²pʰai, ²pwe, ²pʰe:, phri
F	⚡	the ⁴⁴ , the ³³ , the ⁴⁴ , tɛhi ⁴⁴ , tɛhi ⁵⁵ , tɛhi ⁴²
G	□	nã:, nyã, ne



Map 2: “Iron” in Tibeto-Burman (detailed)

A-1	⊖	eam ⁵⁵ , fam, ʔan, ʔan, ʃim ⁴⁴ , siŋ, eom, ʃom ⁵⁵
A-2	○	εε ⁴² , ʃε ⁴² , ee ¹¹ , xv ²¹ , ʃho ³¹ , so ⁵⁵ , ey ⁵⁵ , xy ⁵⁵
A-3	⊕	εẽ ³⁵ , eĩ ⁵⁵ , ʃã ³¹ , ʃõ ⁵³ , ʃõ ³⁵ , ʃõ ⁵⁵
B	l	sya:l, syel, ʃir, sher, thiir, thiir, jən ² , jan
C-1	⤿	lteak(s), lʔaks, lʔæk, hʔeaʔ, hʔɛaʔ, hʔeaɣ
D	⊗	teo, teu ⁵³ , teu ⁵³ , hʔeu ⁵³
E	ʌ	ʔpʰai, ʔpwe, ʔpʰe:, phri
F	⚡	the ⁴⁴ , the ³³ , the ⁴⁴ , tɛhi ⁴⁴ , tɛhi ⁵⁵ , tɛhi ⁴²

“Iron” in Hmong-Mien

1. Classification of word forms

The word for “iron” in Hmong-Mien is considered a loan from Chinese. Although Ratliff (2010) considers that the words in all the Hmong-Mien lects are loans from an Old Chinese word, which is reconstructed as *ʎik (Baxter and Sagart 2014), she divides them into two groups: The Hmongic forms deriving from Proto-Hmongic *hluwC, and the Mienic forms from Proto-Mienic (PM) *hr̥ək. However, there are some comparative evidences to indicate that the word forms of Hmongic and Mienic ultimately derive from a single Proto-Hmong-Mien (PHM) etymon. First, the Proto-Mienic onset consonant should also be reconstructed as a lateral. As indicated in Table 1, a velar plosive reflex in Luoxiang (LX) is observed not only in the case of *hr (as in MEASURE) but also in the case of palatalized lateral *lj (as in PADDY). In addition, we must note that the most important test for a proto-rhotic (*ʀr, *hr, and *r) is the reflex of Daping (DP): a dental affricate /dʒ/ (as in MEASURE). What Daping indicates in IRON is not /dʒ/ but /lj/, which is the regular reflex of the palatalized lateral in Ratliff (2010).

Table 1

	PM	GZ	LX	DP
IRON	*hr-	lje7	gja7	lje7
PADDY	*lj-	li:ŋ2	giŋ2	ljaŋ2
MEASURE	*hr-	la:u1	ga:u1	dʒau1

Thus, the form for “iron” in Proto-Mienic is best reconstructed as having a lateral onset. Turning to rhyme, we find a good correspondence set including the two items IRON and ENTER, the latter of which is an indigenous Hmong-Mien word (see Table 2). As indicated in Table 2, which includes two Hmongic lects, Yanghao (YH) and Jiwei (JW), along with one Mienic lect, Daping, the two items exhibit a perfect correspondence.

Table 2

	PHM	YH	JW	DP
IRON	-	lhə5	lhə5	lje7
ENTER	*bj̥ək	pə6	pə6	pje8

¹ This does not mean that the present author makes a commitment for this particular reconstruction. The point

If we use Ratliff (2010)’s reconstruction of rhyme, we can posit a PHM form as *hlj̥ək.¹ A difference observed between the Hmongic and Mienic forms, in terms of tone, can be explained by later development: Tone 5 in the Hmongic forms and Tone 7 in the Mienic forms are the regular reflexes of PHM Tone D in syllables with a coda *-k.

Although we conclude that all the forms in Hmong-Mien are treated as reflexes of a single etymon, we treat the Tone 5 forms and the Tone 7 forms separately as Type A and Type B in the map of this article, to indicate their different history. The subtypes under each type reflect the presence or absence of a prefix.

A: forms with Tone 5

A1: ʎo5

A2: qo ʎo5

B: forms with Tone 7

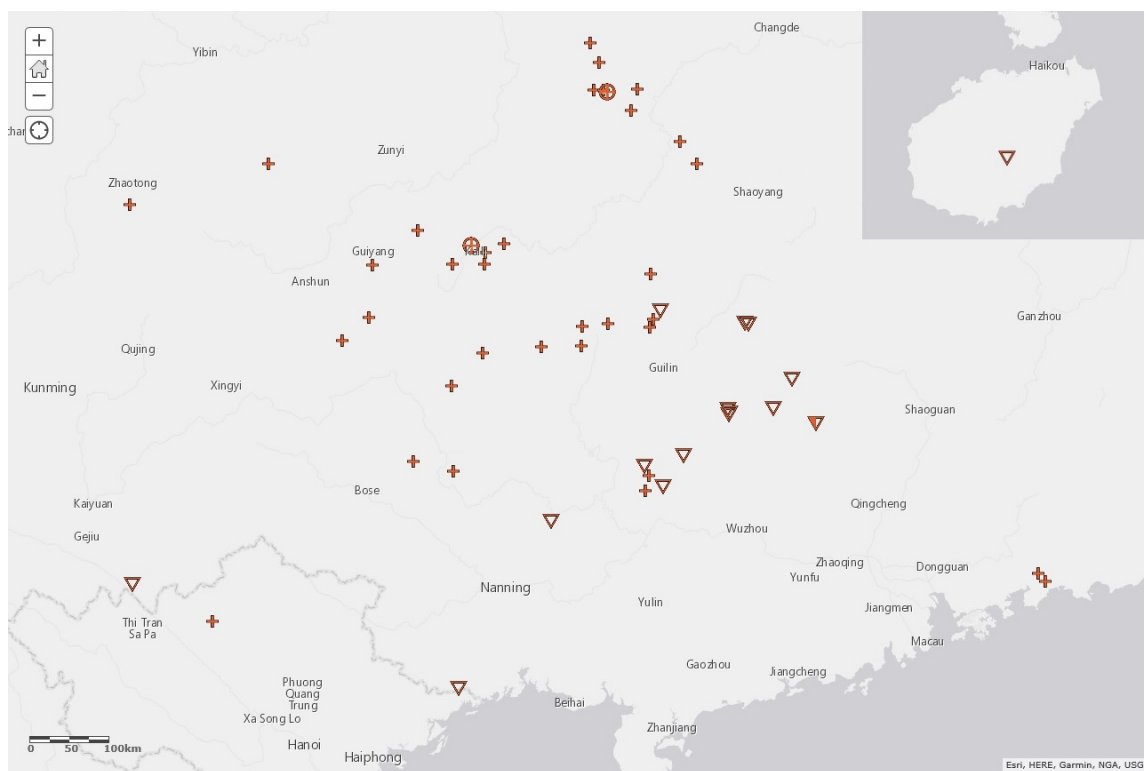
B1: hlje7

B2: a hlje7

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

As all forms for “iron” come from the same origin, and they seem to be quite regular in comparative perspective, we see a uniform distribution in the map of “iron.” We notice that some Hmongic lects in Hunan and Guizhou have qo ʎo5 (A2), a prefixed form, but this may only mean that these lects preserve a more conservative feature, i.e., prefixation, in nominal morphology. If the word was borrowed from Old Chinese, the contact would have occurred in the period of PHM.

here is that a single PHM etymon with a lateral initial should be reconstructed.



"Iron" in Hmong-Mien

A

A-1: ɬo5

A-2: qo ɬo5



B

B-1: hlje7

B-2: a hlje7



Iron: Tai-Kadai

1. Classification of word forms

In this map, word forms are classified into 7 large categories: *lek* type, *khjak* type, *khət* type, *thi:t* type, *va* type, *go:i* type, and *maa* type.

A. *lek* type

A-1 *lek* with higher tone type

lek7, lik7, lək7, luək7, le:k7, lɛ:k7, liak7, lek1, lyak3, la4, lɛ4.

A-2 *lek* with lower tone type

lek2, lek4, lik2, lək6.

B. *khjak* type

khjāk7.

C. *khət* type

khwət7', khɤət7, chit7, ɛət7.

D. *thi:t* type

D-1 *thi:t* type (with aspirated initial)

thi:t9.

D-2 *ti:t* type (with unaspirated initial)

ti:t9, ti:t9', tiət7.

E. *va* type

E-1 *va2* type

va2, wa2.

E-2 *fa2* type

fa2, fa4.

F. *go:i* type

go:i1, ra:i1, xo:i1, huai1, khu:i1, ga:i4, ha:i4, kui1.

G. *maa* type

maa4.

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

The proto Tai form for "iron" is reconstructed as *hleḱ D by Li (1977). This form is preserved in the Central Tai area except for the initial consonant *h, which left its trace as a form of a higher tone (A-1). In Southwestern Tai, its tone changed into the lower series for an unknown reason (A-2).

Sagart (1999: 200-201) pointed out that this proto Tai form is close to the Old Chinese form *^hhlik; hence it was borrowed into Tai as well as other Southeast Asian languages after the manufacturing of iron in this area took place. This occurred not earlier than 700-600 BCE, before the regular change *hl- > th- and *-ik > -it took place prior to the age of Middle Chinese.

B type *khjak* type is seen in Lakkia as khjāk7. Its coda preserves -k, while the onset changed into kh-.

C type *khət* is found among the Kadai languages,

Dong, Sui, Mulao, and Maonan. This sound shape can be considered as an intermediate form, in which the initial changed from *hl- to kh-, while the final consonant experienced the change from *-k to -t. The palatalized forms *chit7* and *ɛət7* can be the trace of the *i*-like vowel which caused palatalization of the initial consonant as well as the final consonant.

D type is obviously the borrowed form from the Yue or Hakka dialects just next to the western border of the Northern Tai area. D-1 *thi:t* type preserves the aspirate initial consonant, while D-2 *ti:t* type lost aspiration, which is the regular sound change among Northern Tai.

All of the types A, B, C, and D above are considered loan forms from Chinese of different chronological strata and areas.

However, it seems that Type E *va* is not related to Chinese. E-1 *va2* preserves voicedness of the initial consonant as the tone 2 denotes. While E-2 *fa2* is a devoiced form, probably due to the later change. This Type F is dominant in the Northern area of Northern Tai, especially in Poai and Northern Zhuang.

The Hlai language in the Hainan Island shows a totally different form, as seen in the F. *go:i* type. The forms in this category basically show similarity. Detailed changing processes for each form should be studied further.

G. *maa* type is found in Saek. As is well known, this language generally shows an archaism. The origin of this sole form rests unknown.

Ni (2010: 170) postulates a possible link between *fa2*, *lek7* in Tai and *besi* in Indonesian. According to him, *fa2* is related to the first syllable *ba-* of the Early Austronesian **bati*, **basih*, **besih*, while *lek7* is related to the second syllable *-sih*.

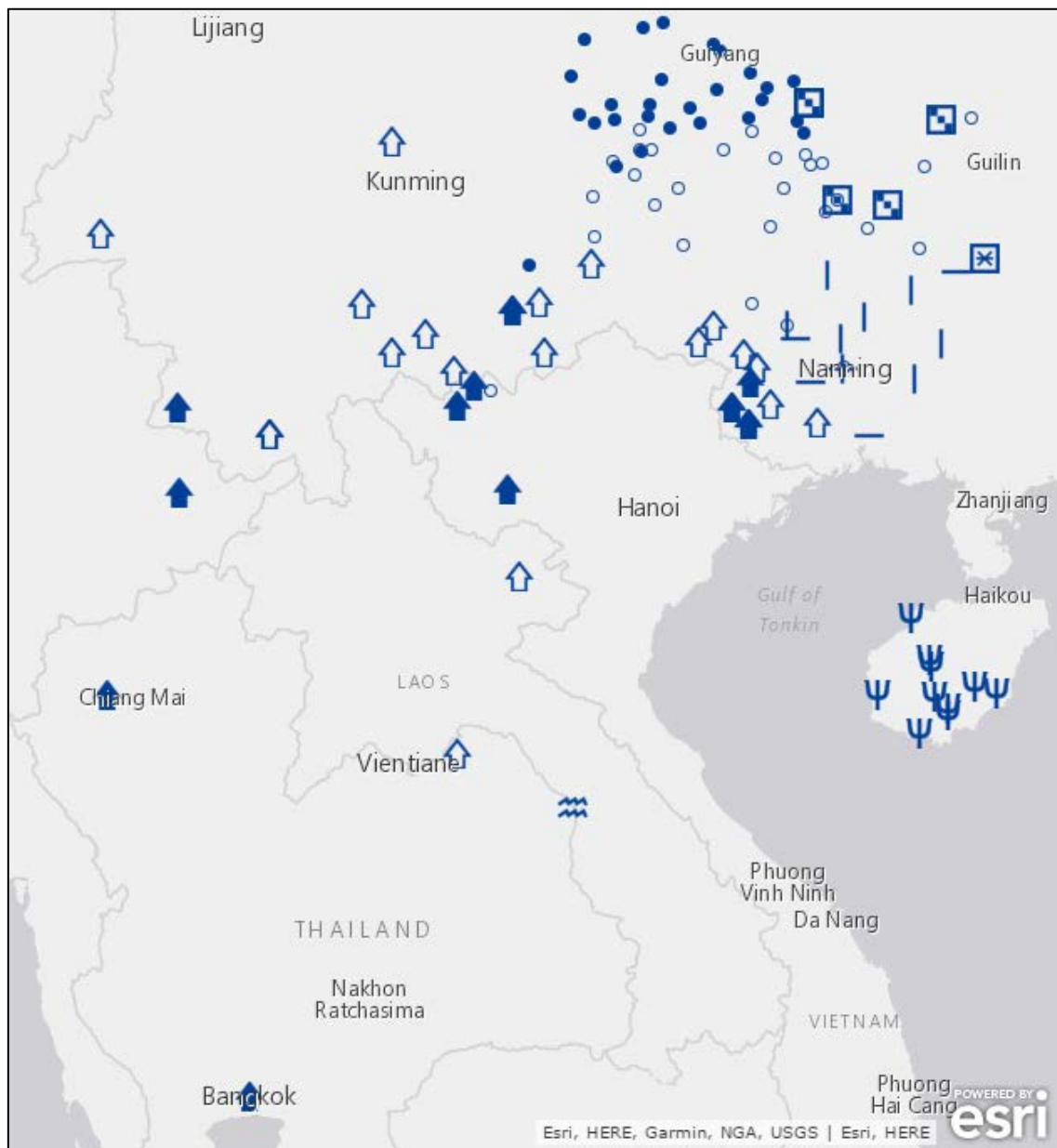
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Keywords: loan words from Chinese, Old Chinese, Middle Chinese, Yue, Hakka, Indonesian, Austronesian, chronological strata

(Mitsuaki ENDO)



- | | | |
|--|-----|-----------------------------|
| | A1 | <i>lek</i> with higher tone |
| | A2 | <i>lek</i> with lower tone |
| | B | <i>khjak</i> |
| | C | <i>khət</i> |
| | D-1 | <i>thi:t</i> |
| | D-2 | <i>ti:t</i> |
| | E-1 | <i>va2</i> |
| | E-2 | <i>fa2</i> |
| | F | <i>go:i</i> |
| | G | <i>maa</i> type |

Iron: Austroasiatic

1. Classification of word forms

In this map, word forms of “iron” are classified as 15 categories as follows:

- A. *bəsi?* type
bəsi? (Aslian)
- B. *ma:m* type
ma:m (Bahnaric: Bahnar, Brao, Tarieng, etc.)
mə:m (Bahnaric: Laven)
- C. *lɔ:s* type
lɔ:s (Bahnaric: Chrau), lɔs (Bahnaric: Sre)
- D. *ta:ʔ* type
ta:ʔ~tə:ʔ (Katuic: Bru, Ngeq, Kui, Souei),
ta:ʔ (Katuic: Katang, Ong, Pacoh)
ta:k (Katuic: Bru, Sô; Mangic: Mang)
tə:k (Bahnaric: Stieng)
daek (Khmeric: Khmer; Pearic)
(Chong of Kompong Som < Khmer)
də:k (Pearic: Chong of Samray, Chong of Western
Pear < Khmer)
də:ʔ (Khmeric: Surin Khmer)
- E. *tami:* type
tami: (Bahnaric: Brao), təmia (Bahnaric: Su')
- F. *nar* type
nar (Khasic: Khasi)
- G. *bərsɔy* type
pəsoa (Monic: Mon)
pəchɔj~kəchɔj (Monic: Nyah Kur)
phcɔj (Bahnaric: Tampuan)
- H. *karaw* types
karaw (Nicobaric: Nancowry)
- I. *hleḱ* type
hleḱ (Khmuic: Mlabri)
hləic (Palaungic: Lawa)
hlaik (Palaungic: Palaung)
lek (Palaungic: En, Tai Loi, Wa [South])
lik (Palaungic: La, Wa)
lhét (Palaungic: Samtau)
- J. *rɣaŋ* type
kaŋáŋ (Palaungic: Hu)
rəŋaŋ (Palaungic: Lamet)
ʔaŋàʔ (Palaungic: U)
- K. *hɾem* type
yīm (Palaungic: K'ala)
rum (Palaungic: Kentung-Wa, Son)
hriam~h'riem~riem²~rhem (Palaungic: Wa)
- L. *si(i)r* type
si: (Bahnaric: Mnong)

mæ^{4'2} θi¹ (Palaungic: Danaw)

hir (Palaungic: Palaung), hir¹ (Palaungic: Rieng)

M. *kahɔ:ŋ* type

kahɔ:ŋ~rəhɔ:ŋ~hɔ:ŋ (Pearic: Chong)

rəhɔ:ŋ (Pearic: Pear)

N. *k-rac* type

N-1. k^hlat⁷ (Vietic: Chút [Ruc], Malieng), k^hac⁷

(Vietic: Muong), lac (Pong), k^hrat⁷ (Tho [Cuoi
Cham])

N-2. ʃat⁷ (Vietic: Viet, Tho [Lang Lo], Chút [Sách])

O. The other types

cndroh (Khmuic: Khmu [Cuang])

cet (Khmuic: Khsing-Mul)

jɔ:ŋ (Khmuic: Phong), dɔ:p (Khmuic: Tai Hat)

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

In general, each branch has its own form and it is quite difficult to find some phonological relationship among them: Aslian: A, Katuic: D, Khasic: F, Khmeric: D, Monic: G, Nicobaric: H, Pearic: M, and Vietic: N. Those branches that have plural forms are: Bahnaric: B, C, D, E, G, L, and Palaungic: I, J, K, L. And each language of Khmuic has its own form.

ta:ʔ type (D), and *k-rac* type (N) present the a-b-a distribution, which could show that the form D is older than the form N. The Proto-Vietic form **k-rac* is likely to be borrowed from the OC **ʃik* 鐵, which is related to Tai-Kadai *khət* type.

It is more obvious that the forms of *hleḱ* type (I) are closely related to the Tai-Kadai *lek* type (Endo 2016), and both of them can be related to the OC **ʃik* (Baxter-Sagart 2014). *ma:m* type (B) is also related to Tai-Kadai *maa* type (Endo 2016).

The distribution of *si(i)r* type (L) is peripheral and closely related to the Tibet Burman **sya:l* ⚭ **syi:r* type (Kurabe 2016).

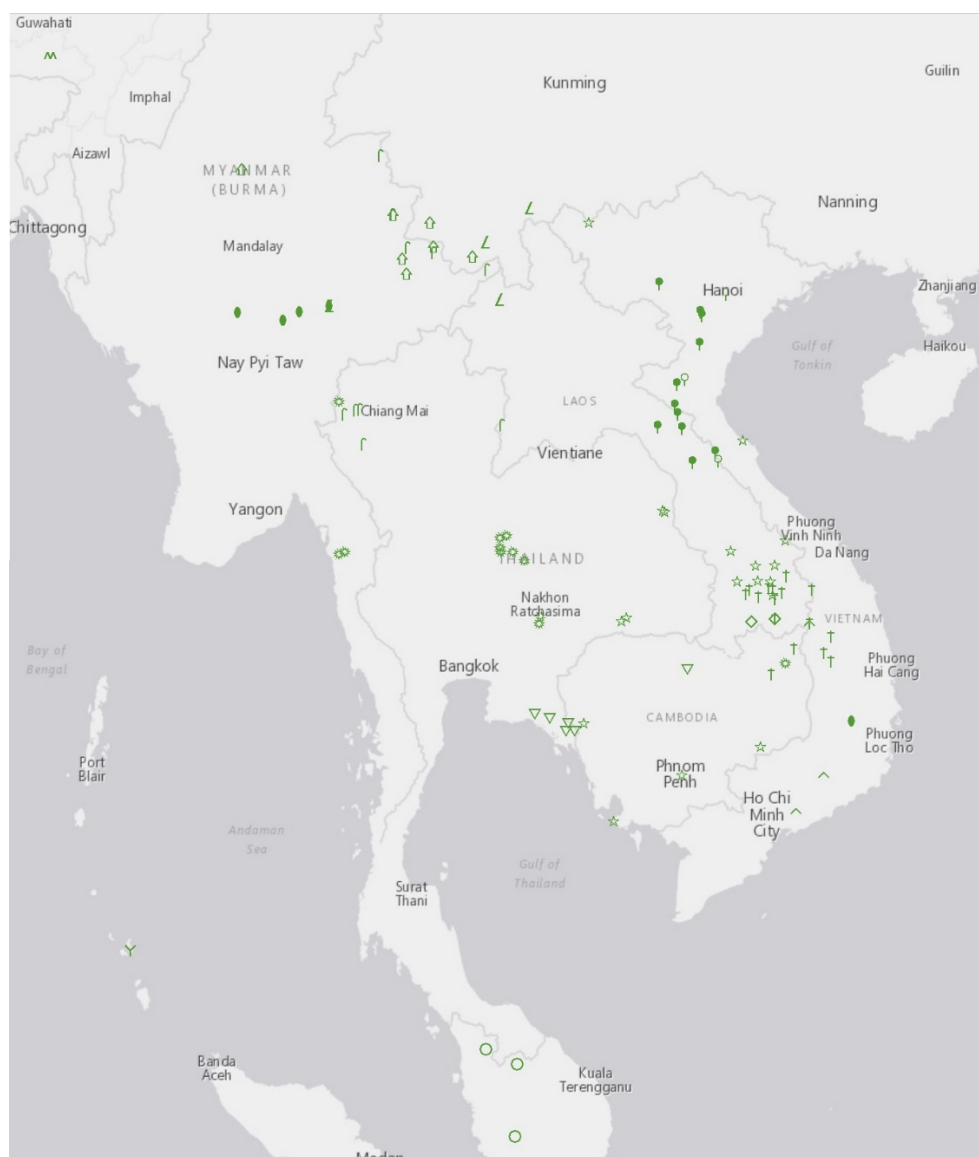
tami: type (E) could be related to the Mongolic and Turkic *temir* type (Saito 2016).

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Keywords: iron, Austroasiatic

(Masaaki Shimizu)



- | | | | | | |
|-----------------------|---|-------------------------------|-----------------------|---|------------------------------|
| A. <i>bəsi?</i> type | ○ | bəsi? (Aslian) | J. <i>ɾɿŋ</i> type | ⌒ | kaŋáŋ / ɾəŋŋ / ʔaŋáŋ |
| B. <i>ma:m</i> type | † | ma:m / mə:m | K. <i>hrem</i> type | ⬆ | yĩm / rum / |
| C. <i>lɔ:s</i> type | ^ | lɔ:s / lɔs | | | hriam~h'riem~rièm²~rhem |
| D. <i>ta:ʔ</i> type | ☆ | ta:ʔ~tə:ʔ / ta:k / tɛ:k / | L. <i>si(i)r</i> type | ● | si: / mə⁴'² θi¹ / hir / hir¹ |
| | | daek / dɛ:k / dɛ:ʔ | M. <i>kahɔ:ŋ</i> type | ▽ | kahɔ:ŋ~rəhɔ:ŋ~hɔ:ŋ / |
| E. <i>tami:</i> type | ◇ | tami: / təmia | | | rəhɔ:ŋ |
| F. <i>nar</i> type | ⌘ | nar | N. <i>k-rac</i> type | | |
| G. <i>bərsəy</i> type | ⊗ | pəsoa / pəchɿj~kəchɿj / | O-1. | ● | kʰlat⁷ / kʰac⁷ / kʰrat⁷ |
| | | phcɔj | O-2. | ♀ | ʂat⁷ |
| H. <i>karaw</i> types | γ | karaw | O. The other type | | |
| I. <i>hle</i> k type | ┘ | hle:k / hləic / hlaik / lek / | | | |
| | | lik / lhét | | | |

Iron: Semitic languages

1. Classification of word forms

The word forms of “iron” are classified as follows.

A. *parzillu* type

parzillu, parzālā, parzlā, prizlā, firzn
brōl, brzl, barzel

B. *hadi:d* type

hadi:d, hdi:d, hadid, hādīd, hādājīd, hatūta, ladiid,
hadīd, lhdiid, lhōiō

C. *brāt* type

brāt, bārāt

D. *haši:n* type

hašin, haššin, hāshin, xaši:n,

E. *w-zz-l* type

wəz:āl, uz:āl, uz:al, z:el,

F. *benipe, penipe*

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

A. *parzillu* type

parzillu type is distributed in the Mesopotamia and Syria area: *barzel* in Hebrew (בַּרְזֵל), *parzālā* in Modern Mandaic, *prizlā* in Urmi, the Neo-Aramaic dialect spoken in north western Iran.

The earliest use of this word is *parzillu* in Akkadian (𒍪𒍪𒍪𒍪, mostly written with the Sumerian signs 𒍪𒍪 AN-BAR ‘iron’) in a fragment of a tablet of the first dynasty of Susa (Valério & Yakubovich 2010). And then *b-r-ō-l* in Ugaritic (𐎁𐎗𐎕𐎗𐎕), *b-r-z-l* in Phoenician (𐤁𐤓𐤕𐤌), *parzlā* in Syriac (ܦܪܙܠܐ). *f-r-z-n* (𐩣𐩣𐩣𐩣) in Sabaeen, an epigraphic South Arabian. In Arabic *firzil* (فِرْزِيل) is ‘fetter’.

These forms were borrowed from non-Semitic, probably Anatolian languages such as Hittite or Luvian as a result of the large-scale Assyrian trade (Forbes 2010).

B. *w-zz-l* type

w-zz-l type is Berber forms. *wəz:āl* in Ghadamsi (western Libya), *z:el* in Nefusa (northern Libya), *uz:al* in Wargla (central Algeria) and Kabyle (northern Algeria), *uz:āl* in Ayt Seghrouchen (eastern Morocco).

Some Berber languages use also *hadi:d* type.

C. *hadi:d* type

hadi:d (حَدِيد) in Classical Arabic, Damascus, Cairo, Baghdad, UAE, Yemen, Bukhara (Uzbekistan); *hdi:d* in Tunis, Morocco. *hadid* [hadi:d] in Maltese. *ladid* and *hadid* ‘hard iron, steel’ in Ki-Nubi (Kenya, Uganda).

The consonantal root *h-d-d* originally has meaning of ‘sharp’ (*ha:dd* حاد in Arabic, *had* חָדַד in Hebrew). *hadi:d* is the Arabic word and is not borrowed, because morphologically the meaning of *hadi:d* is ‘be sharpen’ and this form is not shared with other Semitic languages.

South Arabian languages borrow from Arabic *hadi:d*: *hādīd* in Jibbali (Oman), *hādājīd* in Mehri (Yemen). But Soqotri form is identical with Ethiopic.

Berber languages also use the *hadi:d* type borrowed from Arabic with the Arabic definite article *l* along with the Berber word: *lhdiid* in Wargla and Ayt Seghrouchen, *lhōiō* in Sanhaya (northern Morocco).

D. *haši:n* type

haši:n type is distributed in Ethiopic and Soqotri (South Arabian in Yemen). *xaši:n* (ጸሕን) in Ge’ez (the ancient Ethiopic), *haššin* in Tigrinya (Eritrea), *hašin* in Tigre (Eritrea), *hāshin* in Soqotri (a South Arabian language in Yemen).

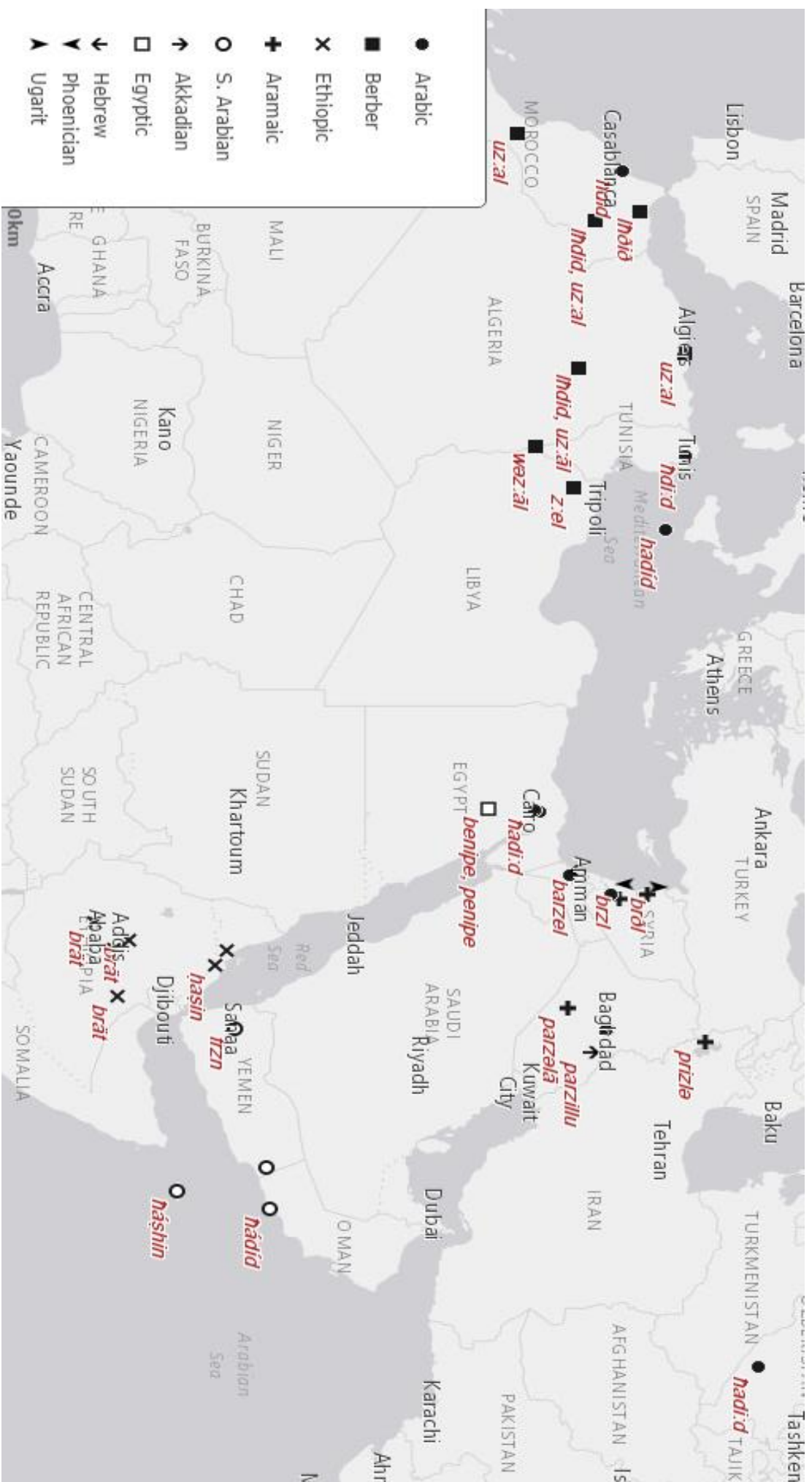
E. *brāt* type

brāt type is distributed in Ethiopic except the ancient Ethiopic Ge’ez. *brāt* (ብራት) in Amhara, Chaha and Harari. In Tigrinya *bārāt* also is used along with *haššin*.

F. *benipe, penipe*

benipe (ΒΕΝΙΠΕ), *penipe* (ΠΕΝΙΠΕ) in Coptic.

(Youichi Nagato)



Wind and Iron in Nivkh

1. Classification of word forms

‘Wind’ is *la* in all dialects. No other forms are reported.

The Nivkh word for ‘iron’ is [viŋ] or [wat]. Some literature list *molok*, *malak*, *malako* (e.g. Savel’eva and Taksami 1965), which are from the Russian word *moloko* молоко ‘milk’. This is also the form that our Nivkh consultants give when they are asked to translate молоко [məɫəˈko], though it should be noted that the primary stress shifts to the first syllable [ˈmalak], following the default trochaic stress pattern in Nivkh.

In this paper we have decided to use ‘breast (bust, mother’s milk)’ instead since it exhibits broader variety among words that are semantically close to milk.

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

There are six forms for ‘breast’. We classify them into two types.

	Type A	Place & Source
1.	viŋ	Kal’ma (Savel’eva and Taksami 1965)
2.		
3.		

	Type B	Place & Source
4.	wat	Poronaisk (Yamaguchi and Izutsu 2004)
5.	vat	Tygmec (Tangiku, Tanzina and Nitkuk 2008)
6.	wat	Agnevo? Kreinovich
7.	wat	Poronaisk (Austerlitz 1984)

Type A is presumably related to the verb *momo-* ‘to suck’ or/and to *mot-* ‘to kiss’. The final *-k* is a nominalizer. Related words are *mos* ‘soother’ (*-s*: nominalizer) and *moŋ soX* ‘mother’s milk’ (Savel’eva and Taksami 1970). The vocalic correspondence o:i is unheard of, but the consonantism (m-ŋ-k) provides evidence for *moŋk* and *miŋk* being related forms.

Type B has either *miz-* or *miN-* as roots. It remains to be seen whether these forms are associable to the verb ‘to suck’, since this verb is *momo-* in these dialects as well. If that could be the case, the transparency with *momo-* should have been lost at some time in the course of history.

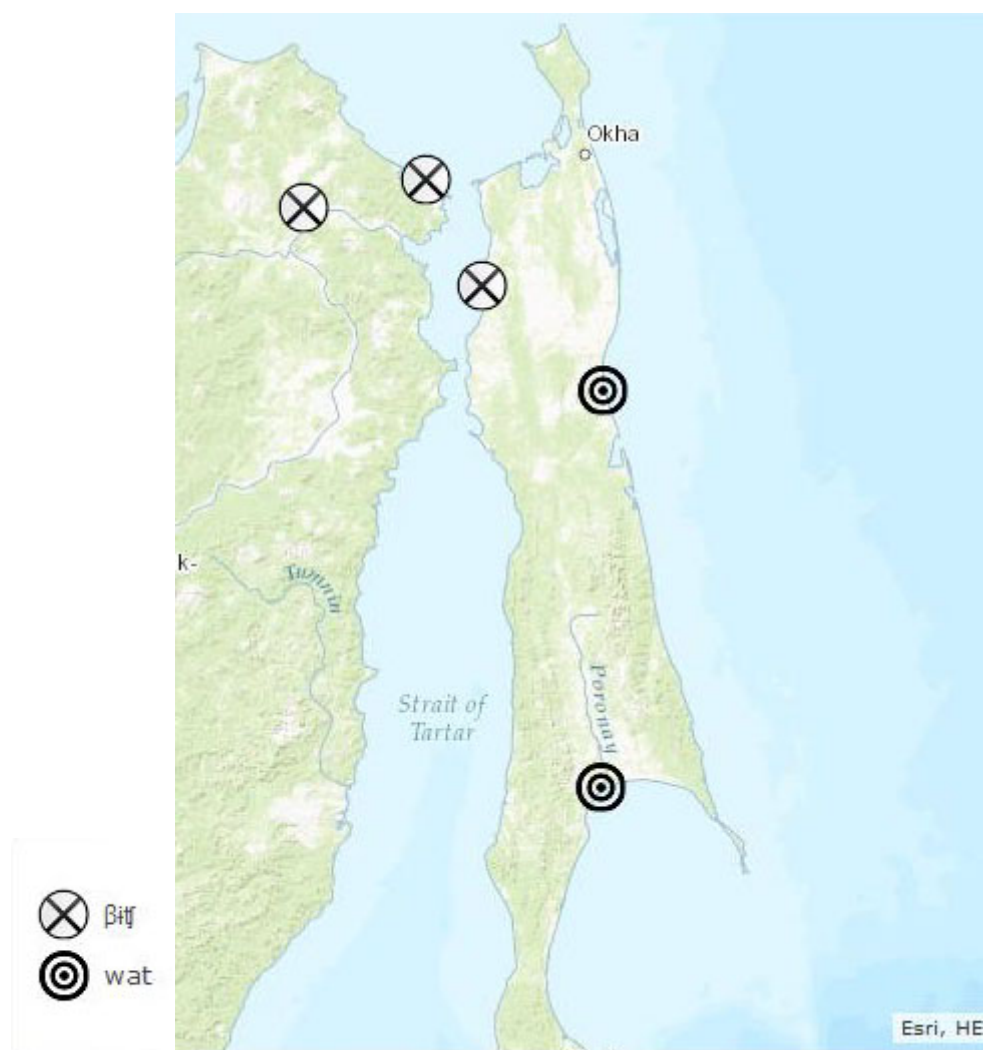
The geographic distribution of Type A and B follows the classic taxonomy of Nivkh dialects which dates back to Shternberg (1900) and Kreinovich (1934): the Amur dialect, spoken in the lower reaches of the Amur River and the west coast of northern Sakhalin, and the Sakhalin dialect spoken on the rest of Sakhalin.¹ The geographic distribution of Type A and B forms agrees with this taxonomy: Type A – the Amur dialect and Type B – the Sakhalin dialect.

Among the forms in Type A, *miŋk* (Ten’gi) resembles the forms in Type B the most. This is expected since in our investigation Ten’gi is the only Amur dialect speaking spot located on Sakhalin. Thus *miŋk* could be an intermediary form between a proto-type A form *moŋ* and a proto-type B form *miXX*. This could be investigated by comparing similar parallels between an intermediary form in Ten’gi and those forms reported in other dialects.

Keywords: Nivkh, iron, Amur dialect, Sakhalin dialect

(Hidetoshi Shiraishi)

¹ Kreinovich (1934) reported the number of speakers to be 3,200 for the Amur dialect and 850 for Sakhalin.



‘iron’ in Nivkh

Iron: South Asia (IE (Aryan, Iranian, Nuristani), Dravidian, Andamanese, Nihali, Burushaski)

1. Classification of word forms

There are four major categories of word forms – *lōhá*, *cīmara*, *áyas*, and *irumpu* – and two minor categories.

A. *lōhá*: *lōhá*, *lōhā*, *lohā*, *lōha*, *loho*, *lohu*, *luhā*, *lōh*, *loh*, *luwā*, *lōu*, *lō*, *lo*, *no*; [+*upaskara*]: *lokhāḍ*, *lokhaṇḍo*, *lonkāḍ*; [*lauhabhāṇḍa*]: *loḍhū*

B. *cīmara*: *čimar*, *čimar*, *čimárr*, *čimār*, *čimer*, *čimbar*, *čhimá*, *čimu*, *čhumár*, *čumár*, *čümár*, *čumur*, *čimár*, *čimā*, *čimə*, *tsamuru*, *zime*, *sēwar*

C. *áyas*: *ayas*, *āhan*, *āhin*, *ahyn*, *ahan*, *ohan*, *āsin*, *āsín*, *yīšn*, *ya*, *da*; ?[+*upaskara*]: *ōspāna*; [+*kāṇḍa*]: *yākaḍa*, *yakaḍapojja*, *dagaṇḍu*

D. *irumpu*: *irumpu*, *irimpu*, *irimbī*, *inupu*, *inumu*, *inum*, *ib*

E. *rao*: *remo*, *lé e*, *reōṭy*, *rāō tul*

F. *karbin*: *karba*, *kabbiṇa*, *kabīn*

G. *pon*: *poṇ*, *pannā*

H. others: *šēšitar*, *phalam*, *ayil*, *kacci*, *tāūl bód da*, *póht-da*

2. Geographical distribution and interpretation

The lexical forms representing the word ‘iron’ can be classified into A) *lōhá* type, B) *cīmara*, C) *áyas*, D) *irumpu*, E) *rao*, F) *karbin*, G) *poṇ*, and H) others.

The distribution of ‘iron’ words is quite simple. On the one hand, most of Indo-European, Burushaski, and Nihali employ the types A, B, or C. On the other hand, Dravidian languages employ D, F, and G types. Type E is for Andamanese.

The most major type is *lohá* (with ● symbols). This type is derived from Sanskrit *lōhá* लोह ‘reddish metal (iron ~ copper)’. Forms of this type are used by Indo-Aryan and Nihali languages, exclusive of the Dardic group, a subgroup of Northwestern Aryan. Historically, the form *lōhá* in Sanskrit, *lōha* in Prakrit, and now, for example, *lōha* ලෝහ in Oriya, has not changed. Some languages use forms derived from Sanskrit *lōhōpaskara* लोहोपस्कर ‘tool made of *lōhá*’. This kind of compound form can be found in type C

áyas later, too. Another original form is *lauhabhāṇḍa* लौहभाण्ड ‘*lōhá* pot, *lōhá* mortar’, and its meaning, such as ‘iron tools’, has surely become vaguer over time.

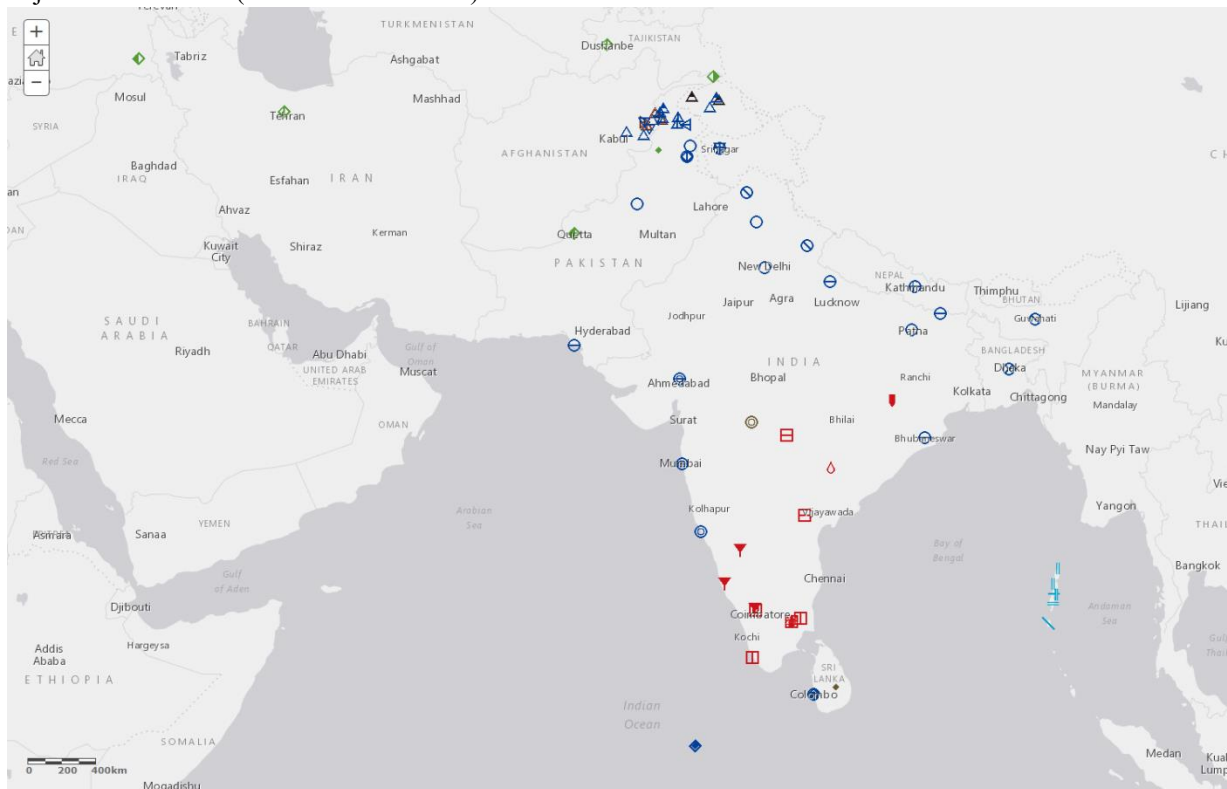
The *cīmara* type (with ▲ symbols) appears in Aryan, Nuristan, and Burushaski languages, which are concentrated in the area of Himalaya, Karakorum, and Hindukush mountain ranges (see Map 2). The original Sanskrit form *cīmara* चीमर might mean ‘copper’, for example in *cīmarakāra* चीमरकार ‘coppersmith’ in Saṁghāṭa-sūtra in Gilgit, but its Chinese version is described as *t’ie* 鐵 ‘iron’ (Turner 1966: 828). Interestingly, this type is distributed between most *lōhá* forms of Aryan and the *áyas* forms of Iranian, but neither any Iranian language nor any Aryan language south of Swat and Kohistan employ a form of this type. Moreover, the sample Sanskrit record is found out in Gilgit, Shina speaking area, and the recent distribution is still just around the place.

The third major type *áyas* (with ◆ symbols) can be seen in all Iranian, southernmost Aryan (Sinhala and Dhivehi), and Vedda languages. The forms originate in Sanskrit *áyas* अयस् ‘metal’. Historically, this form has changed, on the Aryan hand into *ayō* in Pali and then *aya* in Prakrit, while on the Iranian hand into *ayanh* in Avestan and then *āsin* or *āhen* اسن in Pahlavi. Some forms come from the Sanskrit compounds *áyasupaskara* अयसुपस्कर ‘tool made of *áyas*’, perhaps, or *áyaskāṇḍa* अयस्काण्ड ‘a quantity of *áyas*’, surely.

Next, the *irumpu* type (with ■ symbols) is used in Dravidian languages, except for western ones. Western languages of the Dravidian family use forms of the *karbin* type. It is suggestive that the Tamil *karbin* form is analytic: *karum poṇ* கரும் பொன். The *poṇ* part can be detected in the minor *poṇ* type, which has another candidate, *panna*, from Kurux. This type comes from Proto-Dravidian, something like **poṇ* ‘gold’. It indicates that the *karbin* type has been derived from Proto-Dravidian expressions composed like *karum poṇ* ‘black gold’, and the *irumpu* type is also possibly of the ancient form **cirum poṇ* ‘dark gold’ or the like (cf. Tamil *iru* இரு ‘black’, Kolami *ciruj* ‘very dark’, and Malayalam *iravu* ഇറവു ‘night’).

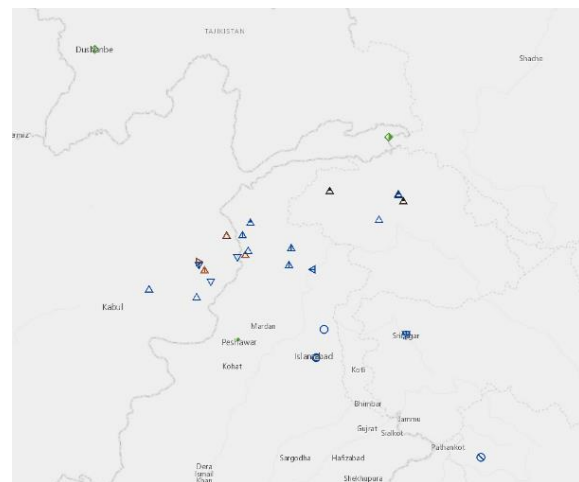
Rao is a minor type in Andamanese. The word *reō* of *reōṭy* in Great Andamanese originally meant ‘iron’ and *ṭy* meant ‘sharp’. *Tul* in Áka Cháriár and Áka Kédé may be from the same origin as *ṭy*, and the morpheme looks like the initial part of *tāūl bód da* in Áka Bía-da. While the latter part is similar to *póht-da* in Áka

Bójihiáb. (YOSHIOKA Noboru)



Map 1. 'Iron' in South Asia

Aryan	Iranian	Dravidian
○ lohā	◇ ahan	□ irumpu
○ lōhā	◇ ohan	□ irimpu
○ lōha	◇ ahyn	□ irimbī
○ lōh	◇ āhin	□ inupu
○ loh	◇ āsín	□ inumu
○ lohu	◇ āsín	□ inum
○ loho	◇ yišn	□ ib
○ luhā	◇ ōspéna	▽ karum poṇ
○ luwā		▽ karba
○ lōu		▽ kabbiṇa
○ lō		▽ kabin
○ lō		▽ poṇ
○ lo		▽ pannā
○ no		▽ kacci
○ lokhād		▽ ayil
○ lonkād		
○ loḍhū		
△ čimar		
△ čimār		
△ čimer		
△ čimbar		
△ čimu		
△ čumār		
△ čumur		
▽ čimār		
▽ čimā		
▽ čime		
▽ tsamuru		
▽ sēwar		
◇ ayas		
◇ āhan		
◇ ya		
◇ da		
◇ yākaḍa		
◇ dagaṇḍu		
☆ šēšitar		
└ phalam		



Map 2. cīmara type

Notes on the Word Form for ‘Iron’ with a Voiced Initial in Tibetic Languages of the Eastern Tibetosphere

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Abstract

This article attempts to explain an existence of a word form ‘iron’ of Tibetic languages with a voiced initial which is likely to correspond to Written Tibetan (WrT) *lcags* ‘iron’. This form is just attested in some linguistic areas within Gannan Prefecture, and a part of the dialects have also a voiced initial for the words like *lce* ‘tongue’ and *bcu* ‘ten’. Therefore, the form of ‘iron’ with a voiced initial is also one of the series of exceptions of voicing, and no need to look for another etymon in WrT is assumed.

1 Introduction

This article provides a detailed explanation regarding the word form ‘iron’ of Tibetic languages with a voiced initial, which still corresponds to *lcags* in Written Tibetan (WrT). It examines the case of Tibetic languages spoken in the eastern Tibetosphere, which Kurabe et al. (this volume) did not describe in detail due to their focus on the whole of the Tibeto-Burman linguistic area. The geographical scope of the eastern Tibetosphere follows the definition of Suzuki (2015).

The data used to create the linguistics maps at the end of this article only includes first-hand materials collected by the author from 2003 to 2016. Because of this, as well as because of time constraints on the part of the author, the data points are not equally distributed within this area, and the points on the map only reflect the current research situation. The present map contains 235 points.

The linguistic maps reflect so-called ‘regiolects’, i.e. dialects with regional differences. Sociolects, which certainly exist in the given area, are not dealt with in this article.

2 Word forms of ‘iron’ in Tibetic languages

In most Tibetic languages, the word form for ‘iron’ corresponds to WrT *lcags*, with many phonetic realisations, such as [ʰtɕaʔ], [ʰtɕaʔ], [ʰcɕaʔ], [ʰtɕəq], [ʰtɕəχ], and so on.¹ WrT distinguishes *khro* ‘pig iron’ from *lcags*, and I did not obtain any data which shows a form corresponding to *khro* employed as ‘iron’. Hence, it is not necessary to classify word forms depending on etyma. However, there are some dialects which employ a phonetic form of a voiced initial. They are following:

Rongthag: /ʰdza:/
sDedgudgon: /ʰdza:/

These dialects are distributed in Thewo County, Gannan Prefecture, Gansu Province, and they belong to Thewo-smad Tibetan. We should note that similar cases are found in one previous work: Yang (1995) provides a word form for ‘iron’ in five dialects from Gannan Prefecture, among which Liping-Jiuyanzhai and Xinchengzi-Yebei have a voiced initial, as /dza⁵³/ and /dza⁵³/ respectively.

Therefore I will classify in this article the word forms for ‘iron’ into two large groups for the map: C-type is a straightforward sound correspondence with *lcags*, and J-type is an irregular form. In addition, there is one dialect which employ a form corresponding to *lcags* with a suffix, as in /tɕa: rə/ (C+-type).

¹ A suprasegmental description is uniformly omitted except for citations.

Furthermore, only the lCanggrong dialect spoken in sMarkhams use another root /^hza/, which seems to be related to the first syllable of WrT *zha nye* ‘lead’, which is classified here as Z-type. A semantic change might have occurred, or, possibly, it is a mere misunderstanding when the fieldwork. It is less interesting to provide a map without much information regarding the lexical difference, however, we should note that not all the word forms display a lexical variation in Tibetic languages.

3 Potential explanation

A voiced initial is certainly an exceptional sound if it corresponds to *lc* initial in WrT. Then, how do we understand the existence of examples with a voiced initial for the word ‘iron’? Does it have another WrT etymon? I propose a possibility of an exceptional phonetic correspondence of WrT *c* with a preradical of the general word of WrT for ‘iron’ *lcags* because there are two more words with this type of exception attested in the same or other dialects surrounding Thewo-smad. The two words are WrT *lce* ‘tongue’ and WrT *bcu* (*tham pa*) ‘ten’. Exceptional sound correspondences are following:

Word forms for ‘tongue’

gZari: /^hdza/
 Braggamnang: /^hdza:/
 mBrirdzi: /^hdza:/
 Khaba: /^htca:/
 sDedgudgon: /^htca/

Word forms for ‘ten’

gZari: /^hdza: mba/
 Braggamnang: /^hdza: mba/
 mBrirdzi: /^hdzu t^ha: mba/
 Khaba: /^htɕu t^ha: mba/

Note that these sound correspondences are also considered as an exception. They merely mean that there are other examples that show a change of voicing of a WrT initial *c* with a preradical letter. As for the word form for ‘tongue’, it is also claimed that the form with a voiced initial corresponds to WrT *ljags*, a honorific word for ‘tongue’, however, seeing the examples provided in this article, we can consider another possibility, especially, the rhyme of gZari and Khaba does not suggest a relation to WrT *-ags*.

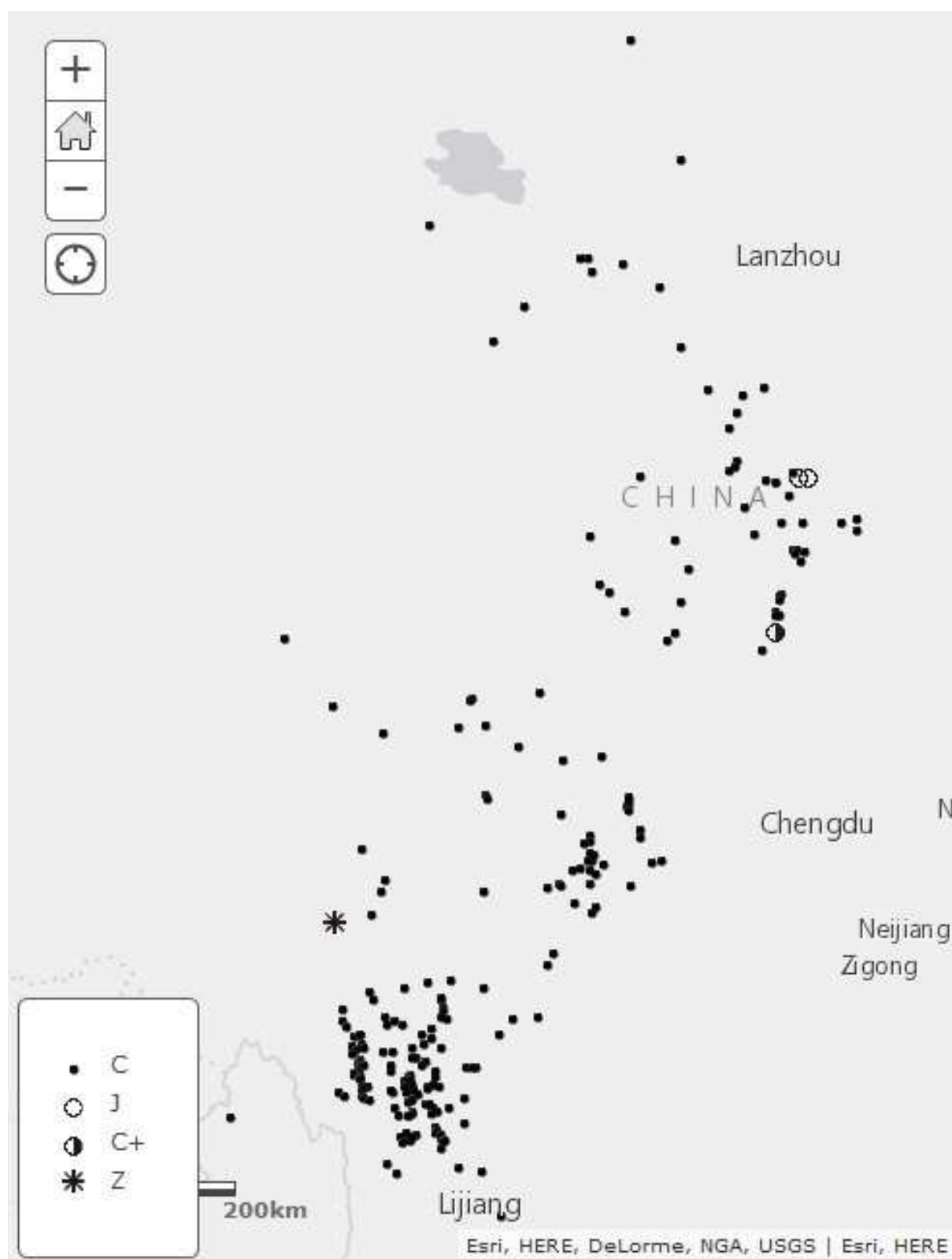
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Map



Legend ↑

Map 1: Overall distribution of word forms for 'iron'.

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