Dúlóng 斜龍 Language

1. INTRODUCTION

What is classified as the Dúlóng 斜龍 or Trung [tə̆rùŋ] language by the authorities in China is part of a larger Tibeto-Burman language that also includes what is called the Rawang (Rvwà ng) language of Myanmar by the speakers in Myanmar and → Ānóng ӝThanOrEqualTo the speakers of the variety spoken in Fú gò ng ၅্ county on the Nù  cashier River in Yú nná n Province in China. They have traditionally not had a single designation for themselves as a group, but recognize their mutual affiliation. Within Tibeto-Burman it is part of the Rung branch (LaPolla 2013). Within the language, the dialect split is largely north-south, with the northern Dúlóng varieties being closer to the northern Rawang varieties and less close to the southern Dúlóng varieties and Ānóng, which are closer to the southern Rawang varieties. The Dúlóng speakers mainly live in Gôngshàn Dúlóng and Nù Autonomous County 貢山獨龍族怒族自治縣 in Yūnnán, China, and belong to either what is known as the Dúlóng nationality (pop. 6,930; 2010 census), living on the Dúlóng River, or to one group (≈ 6,000 people) within the Nù nationality living along the upper reaches of the Nù River. We will be using data of the variety spoken in Dízhèngdàng 迪政當, Gôngshàn County, on the northern end of the Dúlóng River. Other sources on Dúlóng, Rawang, and Ānóng are listed at the end of this chapter. See also the Rawang-Dúlóng-Ānóng Language and Culture Website.

2. PHONOLOGY

Dúlóng is quite conservative historically in terms of the initial and final consonants. The vowels less so, and the tones do not correspond with any other language. In Table 1 are a few items to show how little change there has been (Proto-Tibeto-Burman [PTB] forms from Matisofff 2003; see LaPolla 1987 for more Dúlóng correspondences and Low 2014 for a more extensive list of correspondences using Rawang data).

Dúlóng has 24 initial consonants, /p t c k kw ʔ b d ɟ g gw ts tɕ s ɕ x xw z ʑ m n ɲ ŋ ŋw l r w j/, and the initial consonant clusters /pr, br, mr, kr, xr, gr, pl, bl, ml, kl, gl/; of the consonants, only /p, t, ʔ, k, n, m, ŋ, r, l/ occur in coda position. The final nasals often are pronounced as voiceless stops if they are followed by a voiceless segment. Initial /k-/ is pronounced quite back; /r/ is actually /ɹ/ but written as /r/ for convenience; the palatal stops are often pronounced with slight affrication, and the voiceless affricates are often aspirated.

There are seven vowels, /i, ε, ə, ɑ, ɔ, ɯ, u/, and three diphthongs, /ai, ui, u/. The latter only appear in open syllables. A syllable can be cv (bà ‘thin’), cvc (cǎm ‘iron’), cvv (where ‘v’ represents a diphthong; pài ‘large bamboo basket’), ccv (where cc represents one of the consonant clusters listed above; blā ‘picture; drawing’), or ccvc (mlazy ‘dream’).
Dúlóng has two tones: level (usually pronounced as high level or mid level; e.g., dā ‘scarecrow’) and falling (usually pronounced as high falling, e.g., dà ‘gaze fixedly’), but many words have an initial unstressed syllable that is toneless, written here with a breve mark (ə̆), e.g., də̆ʑī ‘a kind of pheasant’, and some grammatical suffixes and clitics are also toneless. Stopped syllables are generally pronounced with a high short tone, and so tone marks are not given on such syllables. There is no regular tone sandhi, but there is a change of falling tone to level tone on verbs as a marker of first person and also when preceded by certain prefixes or followed by certain suffixes; see examples in the next section.

3. Morphosyntax

The morphosyntax also retains some archaic features, such as the causative marking and the *-t transitivizing suffix, but the person marking and certain other features are innovations within the Rung group (see LaPolla 2006a, 2013).

3.1 Nouns and noun phrases

Words can be formed by prefixation, suffixation, or compounding. Noun types include plain nouns, personal pronouns (1sg ə̆gɔ̀, 1dl ə̆jɯ̆ ŋɲī, 1pl ə̆jɯ̆ ŋ; 2sg nà, 2dl nɯ̄ ŋɲī/nə̆jɯ̄ ŋ/nə̆ɲī, 2pl nə̆jɯ̆ ŋ; 3sg àŋ, 3dl ə̀ŋɲī, 3pl ə̀ŋjɯ̆ ŋ), demonstrative pronouns/adjectives (jà ‘this’, ə̆jà ‘that [distal]’, kɔ̄ ‘that [remote]’), and interrogative/indefinite pronouns (tə̄ŋ [mā] ‘what’, ə̆nī ‘who’, kə̄rwā ‘how’, kā [dɔ ̄] ‘where’, təkcà ‘why’, kāpɛ̄ ‘which’). The emphatic pronoun ə̆dɯ̀ can be used to emphasize the agency of the actor. Nouns can be formed from verbs with the nominalizer sā, which is used either to represent a location where an action occurs or the location where a thing that is involved in an action is (e.g., jip sā ‘sleeping place’, gwā sā ‘thing worn > clothing’, kā sā ‘the thing which can be eaten > food’) or to form action nominalizations, as in (19d) below. The noun-forming prefix (NFP) àŋ- ~ ə̆k- can be used with nouns or verbs, e.g., ə̆k-pɯ̀ ‘price’ (< pɯ̀ ‘expensive, valuable’), ə̆ŋ-njɯ̀ ‘seed(s)’ (< niu ‘seed’).

Within the noun phrase there can be a demonstrative, possessor, verbal/phrasal modifier, and a numeral plus classifier or a plural (rī inanimate) or group (ma? human; rā animate or inanimate) marker. The plural marker is only used when needed for clarity and is not used with the numeral plus classifier (see Yang 2011 on the classifiers). A numeral plus classifier can occur either before or after the head. A classifier can be used without a numeral but if so must follow the head and cooccur with a pre-head demonstrative and then has the sense of ‘this/that one’. A noun or pronoun representing a possessor simply precedes the head noun, and does not take any genitive marking (1b), though there is a set of possessive pronominal prefixes (ə̆-/nə̆-/ə̆ŋ-) derived from the free pronouns that are used for kinship and relational terms. Adjectives are stative verbs for which reduplication means intensification or adverbialization, contrasting with reduplication of action verbs, which has a perfective sense, and reduplication of nouns, which has a distributive meaning. Adjectives can precede or follow the noun head, but when they precede, if there is no other modifier (e.g., a demonstrative), the adjective is generally nominalized by the prefix àŋ- (~ ə̆k- (1d)). Adjectives also frequently appear as pre-modifiers in the form of the relative clause construction, e.g., tōi tcī ʂə ʂkām [very hard NOM bamboo] ‘bamboo that

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>PTB</th>
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<th>Gloss</th>
<th>PTB</th>
<th>Dúlóng</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>‘snake’</td>
<td>*bəw</td>
<td>bú</td>
<td>‘sesame’</td>
<td>*s-nam</td>
<td>sənə̄m</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘blow’</td>
<td>*s-mut</td>
<td>mut</td>
<td>‘draw water’</td>
<td>*ka:p</td>
<td>kap</td>
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<tr>
<td>‘roll’</td>
<td>*r-tul</td>
<td>təl</td>
<td>‘wear’</td>
<td>*gwa</td>
<td>guā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘dig’</td>
<td>*s/m-du</td>
<td>dü</td>
<td>‘silver’</td>
<td>*d-ŋul</td>
<td>ŋul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘warm’</td>
<td>*lum</td>
<td>lùm</td>
<td>‘stand’</td>
<td>*g-ryap</td>
<td>rɛp</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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is very hard > very hard bamboo’. Following are some noun phrase examples:

1. a. ɗaŋ ɗn̂i pɑŋ
   book two CLF
   ‘two books’
 b. ɗŋɔ̀ ɗaŋ r̂i
   1sg book PL
   ‘my books’
 c. kɔ tɑi ɗaŋ ɗs̄ùm pɑŋ
   that:remote big book three CLF
   ‘those three big books’
 d. ɗk-sɔ́r ɗaŋ
   NFP-new book
   ‘new book’

3.2 Relational marking

The noun phrase can be followed by the post-position tɛ̆ to mark the referent as agentive, instrumental, or adverbia; by lɛ̆ to mark it as anti-agentive (animate patient, recipient, or benefactive) or allative; by dɔ̆ to mark it as locative or temporal; by xɐʔ for terminative; or by mɑŋ for comitative. There is also a topic marker (nɯ̄) and a noun conjunction particle (ɲi). The agentive marking is not obligatory on transitives or ditransitives, but is often used when there is a specific identifiable patient referent, particularly if the direction of action is inverse (e.g., 3rd person acting on 1st person, as in (2); see also (5)) and/or the action is completed. (See LaPolla 2010a, 2011 on transitivity in Rawang.)

2. ɔ̀ŋ tɛ̆ ɗŋɔ̀ lɛ̆ ɕɯ̄ ŋwət
   3sg agent 1sg recipient flower
   cɛ́ tɔʔ ɲi-mɑŋ
   one CLF N.1-give+1sg
   ‘She gives me a flower.’

3.3 The verb complex

Morphological marking that appears within the verb complex includes direction marking, person marking, inverse marking, reflexive/middle marking, tense/aspect marking, valency changing affixes, and negation.

Transitive verbs can be intransitivized by use of the intransitivizing prefix ɗ- (e.g., tɔ̄l ‘roll’, vt.; ɗtɔ̄l ‘roll’, vi.), or by use of the reflexive/middle marking suffix -cʊ̆. When intransitivized by the prefix ɗ-, if the single direct argument of the derived intransitive is a plural animate argument, then the meaning is generally reciprocal, as in (3a). The particle ma?’ (probably the same morpheme as the human group-marking noun suffix maʔ) can also be used after the verb in conjunction with the prefix to mark reciprocals. Reciprocals can be formed on causativized intransitives as well, and in this case will usually take the reciprocal particle and often an adverbial phrase, kɔ̄lɛ̌ jà-lɛ̌, meaning ‘to each other’ as well, as in (3b).

3. a. nɑ̄n̄i pù-ɗ-sat maʔ cʊ̆
   2DL N.1-INTR-hit RECIPIENT DL
   ‘You two are arguing/fighting (with each other).’
 b. kɔ-lɛ̌
   that:REMOTE-patient
   jà-lɛ̌ sâ-zâ maʔ
   that:DISTAL-patient CAUS-hurt RECIPIENT
   ‘(They) are hurting each other.’

The reflexive/middle marker -cʊ̆ (R/M in the glosses) is used for both true reflexives (4a) and middle voice (4b). The reflexive verb can take a patient noun if the noun is a body part, as in (4b), or something related to the actor, such as something the actor is buying for him/her-self. There are a number of roots that normally take the reflexive/middle suffix, such as ɗɐ̄ ɕɯ̆ ‘laugh’. The two intransitivizers differ in that the prefix does not imply agentivity, whereas the suffix implies agentivity. It is also possible to use both affixes together, giving a stative sense, as in ɗ-jʊ̆n̄-cʊ̆ [INTR-look-R/M] ‘be visible’. (See LaPolla 1995, 1996; LaPolla and Yang 1996, 2005 for more detailed discussion.)

4. a. ǎn̄ ɡə̄jʊ̆n̄-cʊ̆
   3SG hit.with.fist-R/M
   ‘He is hitting himself with his fist.’
 b. ǎn̄ mɑr tʃuʔ-tcʊ̆
   3SG face wash-R/M
   ‘He is washing his face.’

A morphological causative involves either the addition of the causative prefix sâ̄ ~ tɔ̄-, e.g.,
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dat 'broken (of string)', sādat 'to break (string)'; ściuap 'pinched', 'closed up', ŋściuap 'to pinch', 'close up' (see also (3b) and (5)—the latter with tone change, < ji), or by simply lengthening the vowel (and changing to a level tone, if it was originally falling), e.g., ʟɯ́ ł 'warm' (vt.), ʟɯ́ m 'warm' (vi.) (= sā-ʟɯ́ m; I have not found a difference in meaning between the two forms). There is also at least one form that shows a remnant of the PTB *-t transitivizing suffix: ɬŋɯ̀ 'cry' > ɬŋɯ́t 'mourn (cry for) a dead person'.

5. àŋ tē àŋ lē sā-ji
3SG AGT 3SG DAT CAUS-go
‘He made him go.’

An analytical causative/permissive construction is formed using the verb (sā)-ʑɯ̄r, as in ɟī sə̆ʑɯ̄r 'let/make (him) go', with change of a falling tone to a level tone. This form of causation implies less direct causation than the causative prefix. There is only one marker of negation, the verbal prefix mə-, pronounced mā- when the root already has a prefix, e.g., mā-rānā ‘not rest’ (with tone change).

A benefactive construction can be formed using either the verb sə̆nə̀ŋ ‘help’ or the benefactive auxiliary ɔ̌ after the main verb (again with changed tone on main verb; see LaPolla and Yáng 2007 for the origin of the benefactive auxiliary and morphological vowel length distinctions):

6. a. àŋ sūn ɡō tē ɬ rī sə̆nə̀ŋ
3SG wood 1SG AGT carry help+1SG
‘I carry wood for him.’ (lit. ‘I help carry his wood.’)
b. ɡō tē àŋ sūn ɬ rī ɬŋ
1SG AGT 3SG wood carry BEN+1SG
‘I carry wood for him.’

Although the verb in Dúlóng inflects for person in a hierarchical pattern, only speech-act participants are marked, with first person marked for person and number, and second person marked only for number. The form of the first person singular marking depends on the final consonant of the root: if there is no final consonant, then -ŋ is added; if the final consonant is -ɬ then it becomes -k; if there is some other final with falling tone, then there is a change to level tone. First and second person dual take the dual marker -cū. First person plural involves a change from short vowel to long vowel, second person plural takes the plural marker -jīuŋ. In either person, when the root takes a suffix or is changed to a long vowel, the root, if it has a falling tone, changes to level tone. Where the root vowel is -ə- and there is a -p or -t final, the vowel changes to -a- for all but first person singular. In the case of two human interactants, person marking can be of either one, but usually when the agentive marking is used, the person marking is of the first person. Aside from this, the n.1 (non-first person actor) prefix (na- ~ pa- ~ ji-) marks situations where a speech-act participant is mentioned, but the speaker is not the actor (contrast (7a)–(7b)). When the root appears with a consonant-initial prefix, the n.1 prefix is simply marked by a change of the vowel of the other prefix to -ε, as in (12b), below.

7. a. ɡō tē àŋ lē rūŋ (< rī)
1SG AGT 3SG DAT carry+1SG
‘I carried him.’
b. àŋ tē ɡō lē pā-rūŋ
3SG AGT 1SG DAT N.1-carry+1SG
‘He carried me.’

The verbs for ‘come’ and ‘go’ have grammaticalized into direction markers, as in bɔʔ-ji ‘return-go’ and bɔʔ-rā ‘return-come’ ‘come back’. The forms ɟī (< ji ‘to go’) and ɬūŋ (< ɬuŋ ‘to ascend’) are used for recent past actions, with an evidential distinction: the use of ɬūŋ after the verb implies the speaker did not see the action (8a)–(8a′), whereas the use of ɟī implies the speaker did see the action (8b)–(8b′). A guess is marked by adding mēl after ɬūŋ. For a strong assertion, mɯ̄ is added after ɟī. For an action completed some time ago, possibly years ago, bûn is used in place of ɟī or ɬūŋ. Inchoatives take the particle pàg after the verb or the adverb tāsā before the verb.

8. a. àŋ tē ɬàī ɬūŋ
3SG AGT eat PAST/EVID
‘He has just eaten.’ (didn’t see him eat)
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a'. àŋ jì lūŋ
3SG go PAST/EVID
‘He just left.’ (didn’t see him leave)
b. àŋ tē kāi jì
3SG AGT eat PAST/EVID
‘He ate.’ (saw him eat)
b'. àŋ jì ām jì
3SG DIR PAST/EVID
‘He just left.’ (possibly still can see him)

With first person actors the adverb zūr ‘already’ can be used to mark a completed action, rather than using jì or lūŋ, as in (9a). In asking someone about their past actions, lūŋ is used (9b).

9. a. ə ̆gɔ̀ ɟɯ ̄ ŋ zūr
1sg go+1sg already
‘I went (and came back) already.’
b. nà jà-jì lūŋ ā
2SG 1st-go ASP QUES
‘Did you go?’

There is also a hearsay particle tciwā, which appears most frequently in traditional narrative texts.

10. tɕāpăɹ tɕāpăɹ nɯ ̄  də ̆gī kā
long.ago long.ago top dog words
gɯʔ sɔ̄ tɕìwă
say know.how HEARSAY
‘(It is said) long ago dogs knew how to talk.’

3.4 Word order and clause types

Word order in the clause is most often verb final, while the NPs are ordered with the more topical elements being earlier in the clause; the immediate preverbal position is the unmarked focus position. Adverbial elements usually appear in preverbal position (11a), but they can follow the verb (11b), with some difference in meaning. Some adverbs always follow the verb, such as mə̆tɔ̄l in (13), below, while others always precede the verb, e.g., lēlā in lēlā mrōn ‘very long/tall’. Preverbal adverbial phrases that are not reduced adjectives or adverbs usually take the adverb marker wā (derived from wā ‘say/do’) or sometimes gù (11c). A resultative complement also comes before the main verb, marked by the terminative postposition xreʔ ‘until’ (11d).

11. a. mādō ūbrə-brə jì
car/truck fast-REDUP go
‘The car is going quickly.’
b. mādō jì ūbrə
car/truck go fast
‘The car goes (can go) quickly.’
c. nit-būm mā-gōl gū ūmrā
mind-many NEG-need ADV field
wà ː lè jì tciwā
work ALLATIVE go HEARSAY
‘(The parents) could go to work the field without having to worry (about the child).’
d. ʔpē ʔmē’ guʔ sō xreʔ ā
daddy mummy say able.to ADV do jì tciwā
go HEARSAY
‘(It) did this until (the baby) could say “mummy and daddy”.’

Declarative clauses are unmarked; imperatives are marked by the prefix pā- (pronounced pā- when the verb already has a prefix): pā-kōi ‘Eat!’ The prohibitive takes the normal negative, but the verb is followed by ːl ‘have’: mē-kōi ːl [NEG+N.1-eat have] ‘Don’t eat (it)!’ An indirect directive is marked by the prefix laʔ-, which is followed by the negative particle for indirect prohibitives: laʔ- mō- wā ‘Don’t let him do (it).’ For the hortative the verb gōl ‘want’ is used: kī gōl ‘Let’s eat!’ (with tone change). Yes-no questions generally take the postverbal question particles (pū) ā (12a). Another type of polarity question is formed by juxtaposing positive and negative choices, as in (12b). Wh-questions have the interrogative pronoun in the immediate preverbal focus position, and do not require a final particle (12c).

12. a. nàjūŋ jì-kāi jūŋ (gū) gū
2PL N.1-eat PLURAL NOM taro ē ā
COP QUES
‘Is what you(pl) eat taros?’
b. jī-kōi mē-kōi
N.1-eat NEG+N.1-eat
‘Do you want to eat or not?’
c. jā sārā ānī gū ē
this thing who NOM COP
‘Whose is this thing?’
In the comparative construction the word order is Topic-Standard-Marker-Verb/Adjective, where the marker is mə̆də̀m ‘above’ plus the locative marker. The verb/adjective can be in the plain form or reduplicated and followed by an adverb meaning ‘very much’ that is used only in the comparative construction.

13. ə ̆gɔ̀ nà mə̆də̀m dɔ ̌ mrə̀ŋ (mrə̀ŋ 1sg 2sg above LOC long/tall REDUP mə̆tɔ̄l) very.much
   ‘I am (much) taller than you.’

Unlike in many Tibeto-Burman languages (see LaPolla 1994) there is only one verb of possession/existence, and the possessive construction patterns as a simple transitive clause; the possessor does not take any relational marking:

14. ə̆jɯ̀ ŋ cɛ̄ tɔ̄ sɯ̄ l ɟɔʔ lămbrɔʔ ə̀l 1pl one ten clf friend have/exist
   ‘We have ten friends.’

A cleft construction can be used for narrow focus on a particular NP, either in questions (15a) or statements (15b):

15. a. àŋ ji gû́ ě 3sg go NOM
    ‘Did he go?’
    COP+QUES
    (lit. ‘Is he the one who went?’)

b. pûŋ cû́ ŋ tɛ̄ sət gê (<gû̆-ɛ̄) Pung Cin AGT hit NOM+COP
   ‘It was Cin who hit Pung.’

Clefts can also be used with the sense of a deontic modal:

16. ə̆gɔ̀ sə̆ləp-cû́ sà gê 1sg teach-R/M NOM NOM+COP
   ‘I ought to study.’

There are several clause-final subordinating particles: bê ‘if/when’, mə̆nə̆ŋ ‘because/when’ (<‘follow’), sə̆nə̆ŋ ‘because of (in order to)’. Some of the nominal postpositions are also used as clausal subordinators, e.g., lê (allative/dative) for purpose clauses (kàĩ lê ji ‘go to eat’; see also (11c)). Complement clauses that are not quotes do not require a nominalizer or complementizer (17a)–(17b), but those that are quotes take the complementizer wâ (< wâ ‘say’) (17c).

17. a. ə̆gɔ̀ âŋ ɔ̀ ji nít 1sg 3sg return go remember
    ‘I remember that he went back.’

b. âŋ ji bê ə̆gɔ̀ kû́ jûŋ 3sg go if 1sg also go+1sg dû̄ ě might COP
   ‘If he comes, I might go.’

c. âŋ “ə̆gɔ̀ mə̆ zĭ mə̆lî́ lu-jî” wâ 3sg 1sg must have.to-go guî? comp say
   ‘He says: “I must go.”’

The linking of actions or attributes that occur at the same time is done with a serial verb construction, with the linker zîn optionally appearing between the two verbs:

18. a. mə̆nʑū wà ə̆gɔ̀ zàŋ-cû́ song do LNK enter-R/M
    ‘He entered singing.’

b. mrə̄ŋ zîn pə̆ɕɯ̄ ŋ gû́ ə̆ 3sg go if 1sg also go+1sg long LNK blue/green NOM cloth
   ‘long blue cloth’

Relative clauses appear before the head noun, and are generally nominalized by the particle gû́. Some lexicalized expressions involving relative clauses do not manifest a nominalizer, e.g., mə̆nʑū wà ə̆tsə̀ŋ [song do person] ‘professional singer’. Relativization can be of the patient (19a), the agent (19b), the recipient (19c), or just about any role. In some cases, the noun head can be omitted (19d). There are no relative pronouns in Dûlông. (See LaPolla 2008a, 2008b on nominalization and relativization in Rawang.)

19. a. âŋ tɛ̄ làŋ gû́ cû̂ wət 3sg AGT bring NOM flower
    ‘the flower(s) he brought’

b. cû̂ wət làŋ gû́ ə̆tsə̀ŋ flower bring NOM person
   ‘the person who brought the flower(s)’
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Dungan Language

Dungan is the official name of the language variety used by the Chinese-speaking Muslims (Hui 回) who migrated into the Russian Empire from Gānsù, Shānxi, and Xīnjiāng in the second half of the 19th century (Jusurov 1961; Dungan personal names here and below are transliterated according to their spelling in Russian; all other words are given in the Latinized variant of the Dungan script and, in the case of clear etymology, also in Chinese).

At present, the Dungans live mostly in Kyrgyzstan and Kazakhstan, with a small number in Uzbekistan with a total population of more than 110,000 (Jusupov 2001). Most of them (96.7%, data available for Kyrgyzstan) preserve their native language (Lin 2010:334) and speak the Gansw (Gānsù) and the Şanşi (Shānxi, Tohma, Tokmak, Tokmok) dialects, the former being the basis of the literary language. The origin of the word 'Dungan' (dōnggān 東干) is unclear (Sušanlo 1967:32–21, Hái 2005). After the Qing government had gained control over Xinjiang in the second half of the 18th century, the ethnonym was applied by the local population to Hūi immigrants from Inner China. In this meaning, it became known in the Russian Empire and was sometimes used there to refer to any Hūi living in China. In the Soviet Union, the Dungans were officially recognized in 1924 as one of the national minorities using a distinct language. In Russian, they call themselves 'Dungan', but in their own language they are xwjzw (huīhū 回回), xwjmin (huǐmǐn 回民), lwjzw (lǎohuíhuí 老回回), or z̧wn-jan z̧wn (zhòngyuán rén 中原人) 'the people of the Central Plain', who speak z̧wn-jan x̄ua (zhòngyuán huà 中原話) or xwjzw j̄yían (huīzú yùyán 回族語言). In the post-Soviet period, the Dungans sometimes use the term 'xwjzw (huīzú 回族) of Central Asia' even in publications in Russian.

Both the Gansw and the Şanşi dialect show the features characteristic of the Zhōngyuán Mandarin area. The most important is a two-way split of the Middle Chinese entering tone (rūshēng 入聲), which merged into modern yǐnpíng 阴平 in syllables with voiceless and sonorant initial consonants and into yǎngpíng 陽平 in syllables with voiced initials. The presence of four nasal finals of the "a" series instead of Standard Mandarin's eight identifies the Dungan dialects as originating from a comparatively small region covering southern Gānsù and western Guānzhōng 車中 in Shānxi within the Zhōngyuán Mandarin area. (These same dialects were also brought to Xinjiang starting from the 18th century.) There are also some minor varieties of Dungan, such as jəga, that show a merger of tones yǎngpíng and shǎng 上 of the Lán-Yín 蘭銀 Mandarin type (Zavyalova 1978).

Randy Lapolla