

# Study on the Negative Adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” in Lingling Dialect and Its Origin: A Case of Language Horizontal Transmission

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**Abstract:** There is a special negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” in Lingling dialect. Although there are some similarities between the “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” and *bu* in grammatical function and syntactic distribution, the use of *bu* has less restrictions. Here the writer shows that the phenomenon of superposition of language elements from different origins appears not only in pronunciation, vocabulary system, but also in grammar system. The writer apply fieldwork, document comparison and other methods to analysis the phonetic and syntactic distribution and function of the “xǎ<sup>44</sup>”. Comparing with those dialects and ethnic minority languages around Lingling and considering the history and relative phenomena of languages, It is suggested that the negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” evolves from the negative word [ŋ] in Mian Language. This case shows that the negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” in Lingling dialect is due to the result of “horizontal transmission”. It tells people, when explaining Chinese dialect phenomenon, it should not be restricted to the dialect itself, better answers may be found in the dialects and languages of those surrounding places.

**Keywords:** Lingling Dialect, Negative Adverb, Mian Language, Language Contact

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## 1. Introduction

Historical strata of dialect refers to the phenomenon that the linguistic element which appears in different period of time or has different origin superposites synchronically in the same dialect. Language has three systems, namely phone, vocabulary and grammar, thereafter, superposition can occur in these three systems. Earlier works on superposition can be found in Wang Futang [23] and Wang Hongjun [22], while most are concerned with historical strata in phonetic level and very few discuss it from the perspective of grammar, see You Rujie [27].

Mandarin Chinese have been frequently contacting with Southern minority languages, thus superposition of language constituents from different places is commonly seen in southern minority languages, and borrowing or permeating of grammatical devices, altering of rules, changing of system and structure can also be observed. In this paper, the writer will try to present the dialect superposition phenomenon of linguistic constituents with different origins, taking negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in Lingling dialect for example.

## 2. The Usage of Negative Adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很)

Lingling is an administrative district of Yongzhou (永州) city in Hunan (湖南) Province, it sits in the upper reaches of Xiang River (湘江) and Xiao River (潇水) which is also the junction of the two rivers. Leng shui’tan (冷水滩) is in the north, Shuangpai (双牌) is in the south, Dong’an (东安) and Quanzhou (全州) of Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region is in the west, and Qiyang (祁阳) is in the east. Xiang Dialects and Xi’nan Mandarin are commonly used in Lingling district, and in some towns the local dialect is spoken, thus the complexity of dialects.

In Lingling dialect, adverbs for negative meanings such as *bu* (不), *mo* (莫), *mei* (没), *mei dei* (没得), *mei you* (没有) all equal to those meanings of “No”, “Not”, “Nothing”, “Not yet” in English. Besides, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) is also a negative adverb. The function of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” is almost the same as of *bu*, people can choose either of them to express negative meanings, while there still exists differences in terms of their syntactic context, in the following contents the usage of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” and *bu* will be

discussed in detail.

### 2.1. The Usage of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” in Lingling Dialect

“xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in Lingling dialect is a negative adverb, and it can appear in the following sentence forms:

A. S+ xǎ<sup>44</sup> (很)+be+..., In this form, the subject can be a pronoun, noun and noun phrase, and “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) preceding *shi* (是), negates the classification, features and possession of something. For example:

- (1) 他 很 是 教 书 的。  
He is not a teacher.
- (2) 他 很 是 张 局 长。  
He is not director Zhang.
- (3) 那 个 女 的 很 是 双 眼 皮。  
That girl does not own double eyelids.
- (4) 那 间 子 房 子 很 是 他 屋 里 家。  
That is not his home.
- (5) 今 天 去 上 街 很 是 好 事。  
Nothing good will happen on the streets today.
- (6) 他 那 天 看 倒 的 是 老 王, 很 是 小 唐。  
The person you ran into last time was Mr Wang, not Mr Tang.

B. (S)+ xǎ<sup>44</sup>(很)+V, In this structure, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) precedes the verb to negate the action of the subject, which can be omitted when it can be inferred from the context. For example,

- (7) 你 出 去 专 门 很 关 门 的。  
He does not close the door when he is out.
- (8) 吃 烟 和 吃 茶 都 很 准。  
People are not allowed to smoke and drink here.
- (9) 问 咖 半 天 都 很 讲。  
He did not answer my questions.
- (10) (我)很 坐, 回 屋 里 家 去 了。  
I am not gonna sit, cause I am going home.

C. S+xǎ<sup>44</sup>(很)+Verb-Object phrase, In this sentence pattern, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) is to negate the action and subjective intention.

- (11) 他 很 想 吃 饭。  
He does not wanna eat.
- (12) 你 很 找 我 钱 啦?  
Don't you want to give me my change?
- (13) 我 很 到 他 屋 里 家 去。  
I will not go to his place.
- (14) 小 贝 很 敢 惹 那 佬 崽 男 孩。  
Xiaobei dares not to piss that boy off.

When the verb specifies psychological condition, such as *think* and *know*, it can be succeeded by a “subject+predicate” structure. For instance,

- (15) 我 很 想 他 来。  
I do not want him to come.
- (16) 他 那 天 没 在, 很 晓 得 事 情 是 哪 么 样 的。  
He was not there then, so he does not know what the thing is about.

D. S+xǎ<sup>44</sup>(很)+character adjective, In this structure, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) negates the quality of the subject. For instance:

- (17) 你 那 女 崽 很 差 火, 蛮 精 明 的!  
Your daughter is not stupid, instead she is smart.
- (18) 那 当 很 干 净, 溲 水 得 很。  
The place is not clean but very dirty.

- (19) 饭 很 烫, 可 以 吃 了。

The meal is not hot and you can eat now.

- (20) 那 当 很 远, 走 一 下 就 到。

That place is not so far and just a few minutes' walk.

E. “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) and “de” (得) construct the “很得” to specify that something will not or may not happen.

- (21) 他 很 得 去, 懒 死 咖 了。

He is not going to be there, he is too lazy.

- (22) 衣 裳 很 得 干, 天 天 落 雨。

Those clothes are not going to be dry, since it rains everyday.

- (23) 我 很 得 上 街, 这 个 月 钱 用 完 咖 了。

I will not go shopping these days, cause I've ran out of my money.

F. V+ka (咖)+jiu (就)+ xǎ<sup>44</sup> (很)+... In this form of sentence, the content before *jiu* (就) shows a kind of hypothesis, and the content behind show the result. For example,

- (24) 晏 咖 就 很 好 了, 我 们 快 点 咖 仔 走!

Being late is not so good, let's hurry up!

- (25) 剩 咖 就 很 好 吃 了, 多 吃 点。

It will not be as delicious as it now if you leave it over, so you'd better eat more now

G. xǎ<sup>44</sup>(很)+Auxiliary verb+Verb+jiu (就)+... In this form of sentence, the content before *jiu* (就) shows a kind of hypothesis, and the content behind show the result.

- (26) 很 爱 去 就 莫 去。

If you do not want to go, then don't

- (27) 很 想 吃 就 莫 吃。

If you do not want to eat, then don't.

In this structure, the function of *mo* (莫) is different from that of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很), so it can not be replaced by “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很).

H. “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) *shi* (就是)...*jiu shi* (就是)...., In this construction, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) designates option, and it is equivalent to the form of *bu shi* (不是)...*jiu shi* (就是)...in Chinese mandarin. For example:

- (28) 很 是 你 就 是 他, 反 正 跟 我 没 的 关 系。

If it's not you, it's him, I have nothing to do with this.

- (29) 小 张 很 是 汉 族 就 是 瑶 族。

If Xiao Zhang's nationality is not Han, it must be Yao.

In Lingling dialect, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) is often employed to show negative meanings and it can also be replaced by *bu*, and the meaning of the sentence will not be changed.

### 2.2. Comparison of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) with *bu* (不)

Comparing with *bu*, the usage of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) is restricted to some certain syntactic contexts. According to those catalogs in dictionary [14], people can apply *bu* but not “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in the following context.

A *bu* A (A can be a verb or adjective). In Lingling dialect, people use *bu* instead of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) when there is an overlap form of *A bu A*. For example:

- (30) 你 到 底 去 不 去 的?

Do you want to go or not?

- (31) 锅 子 里 头 还 有 不 有 饭?

Is there any rice in the pot?

- (32) 不 管 明 朝 明 天 落 不 落 雨, 都 要 去。

Whether it's going to rain or not tomorrow, I will go there anyway.

(33) 吃咖 饭 再 去 要 不要得?

Is it OK that we leave after the meal?

B. *bu* can be placed between resultative verb and verb tendency compound which shows a kind of impossibility, the opposite side of the meaning of *de* (得) which shows a kind of possibility. While “xǎ44” (很) does not own this function. For example:

(34) 你 莫 叫, 你 搞 他 不 赢 的!

Don't say aloud, you can not beat him.

(35) 这 点 事 情 你 都 做 不 好 啊?

You can not do well even in this tiny little thing?

(36) 他 讲 什 细 我 晓 不 得。

I have no idea about what he said.

(37) 个 东 西 我 提 得 动, 他 提 不 动。

I can carry this, he can't.

(38) 我 吃 了 那 么 多 了, 吃 不 下 去 了。

I have ate so much and couldn't have more.

C. Fixed formats such as *bu* (不) A *bu* (不) B, *ban* (半) A *bu* (不) B, *bu man* (不蛮)... can only use *bu*, “xǎ44” (很) can not be employed in such format. For instance,

(39) 今 天 的 米 饭 不 软 不 硬, 刚 好。

The rice today is neither soft nor hard, it is just appropriate.

(40) 她 不 胖 不 瘦, 身 材 蛮 好。

She is neither too fat nor too thin, she has got a good shape.

(41) 你 那 个 菜 炒 得 半 生 不 熟 的, 哪 么 吃 嘞?

Your dish is half cooked, how are we gonna eat?

(42) 小 王 今 天 心 情 不 蛮 好, 走 咖 了。

Xiao Wang has not got a good mood today, and he has just left.

D. In idioms such as *bu da bu xiangshi* (不打不相识), *bu de liao* (不得了) and *suan bu ding* (算不定) we can not use “xǎ44” (很). For example:

(43) 算 不 定 明 朝 要 落 雨。

Maybe it will rain tomorrow.

E. *bu* can be applied in imperative sentence, while “xǎ44” (很) can be not. For example:

(44) 不 要 讲 那 些 没 的 用 的, 好 好 做 事!

Don't say things that useless, do your own thing!

(45) 你 不 要 管 他, 最 不 听 话!

Just ignore him, he is a no-man.

In the sentences (44) and (45), *bu yao* (不要) can be replaced by *mo*, but “xǎ44” (很) can not be used in those two sentence above.

What's more, unlike *bu* in mandarin, “xǎ44” (很) in Lingling dialect can not be used alone to answer questions, if so, there should have some other language elements followed. For instance:

(46) 你 去 上 街 吗? 不, 没 什 么 要 买 的。  
(Mandarin)

You wanna go shopping? No, nothing need to buy.

(47) \*你 去 不 去 上 街? 很, 没 得 什 细 买 的。  
(Lingling dialect)

Sentence (47) is wrong because something should be

added after “xǎ44”.

(48) 你 去 不 去 上 街? 很 去, 没 得 什 细 买 的。

You wanna go shopping? I am not going, because I have nothing to buy.

And still, “xǎ44” (很) can not be placed at the end of a sentence like *bu* in mandarin. Here's the example:

(49) 你 今 天 去 上 课 不? (Mandarin)

Will you go to the class today or not?

(50) \*你 今 朝 去 上 课 很?

\*You today attend class not (xǎ44)

Sentence (50) is wrong because “xǎ44” is not appropriate here, but we can change it into:

(51) 你 今 朝 去 不 去 上 课?

Will you go to the class today or not?

### 2.3. The Usage Difference Between “xǎ44” (很) and *bu*

By comparing the usage of the “xǎ44” (很) and *bu*, the writer found the sentences those can not employ “xǎ44” (很) but *bu* are all fix format or idioms from mandarin. Under the influence of mandarin, the usage of “xǎ44” completely gave way to *bu* in Lingling dialect. Although “xǎ44” (很) can appear in other syntactic environment, it has difference between the old generation and the young people. In the same sentence, old men usually use “xǎ44” (很), but the young people are likely to use *bu*. When old speaker find the listener can't understand what he/she says, the speaker will replace “xǎ44” (很) with *bu*.

Although the negative adverb “xǎ44” (很) shares the same pronunciation with the adverb of degree *hen* (很) in Lingling dialect, people will not get confused, since in Lingling dialect, people use adverb of degree *man* (蛮) to indicate a higher degree, employing *si le huo* (死了火) to indicate the highest degree rather than *hen* (很), and usually *hen* (很) appears after *de* (得) serving as a complement. Examples are as follows,

(52) 你 搞 得 蛮 好!

You've done a very good job.

(53) 他 的 手 蛮 灵 巧, 画 起 蛮 好 看。

He has got a skillful hand and he paints so well.

(54) 他 走 起 快 得 很。

He walks very fast.

(55) 他 打 牌 赢 咖 了, 手 气 好 得 很!

He wins the card game, he has got a pretty good luck.

## 3. The Origin of the Negative Adverb “Xǎ44” (很) in Lingling Dialect

In southern dialects, it is quite normal to note that the morpheme meaning no pronounces as a nasal. for example, in Wenzhou (温州), Wu dialect is pronounced as [m] and [ŋ], [m], Xiamen (厦门) dialect is pronounced as [m] and [ŋ]; and Quanzhou (泉州) and Zhangping (漳平) are pronounced as [m]. In Hakka language Zengcheng (增城) Chengxiang (程乡) is written as “唔” which pronounce [m], while Changning is written as “嗯” which pronounce [ŋ]; Meixian (梅县) is written as “唔” which pronunciation is [m]; the written form of Yudu (于都) is “唔” which pronounce as [ŋ]; in the northern part of Guangdong province, Lechang (乐昌) native

dialect is written as “唔” whose pronunciation is [ŋ] or [m]; In the native dialect of southern Hunan, Ningyuan Zhangjia (宁远张家) is pronounced as [ŋ], while Lanshan Xinxu (蓝山新圩) [ŋ], Yizhang Chishi (宜章赤石) [ŋ] and Zixing Xingning (资兴兴宁) and so on. Guiyang Liuhe (桂阳六合) dialect is written as “唔”, whose pronunciation is [ŋ].

Just like the dialects above, it is presumed that the negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in Lingling dialect was pronounced as [\*ŋ] or [\*ŋ]. In Lingling dialect, people can not distinguish front nasal and post nasal, so the pronunciation of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) is marked as a [\*ŋ]. At the same time, a syllable without an initial in literary readings should be added a initial consonant [x] in colloquial readings. There are some examples, people pronounce “网, 惘(uang)” as [xuǎn<sup>53</sup>] in colloquial readings; “窝”[o<sup>44</sup>] is pronounced as [xo<sup>44</sup>]; “碍”[æ<sup>24</sup>] is pronounced as [xæ<sup>24</sup>], and therefore, under the control of the above phonetic rules, the negative adverb “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) whose pronunciation was [\*ŋ] had been changed into [\*xŋ] with a plus [x] and also [\*xən] with a central vowel being added. And thus a final sound is nasalized. The phonological evolution process can be summed up as follows: \*ŋ → \*xŋ → \*x<sup>o</sup>n → \*xən → xǎ.

It is common in southern dialects that a morpheme which shows negative meanings is read as a nasalized syllable, but not in northern dialects. Shen (2015) shows that the phenomenon of nasalized syllable has something to do with Mian languages. In Mian languages, *bu* is pronounced as [n] or [m], examples from *Basic Vocabularies of Hmong-Mien Languages* [15] are as follows:

不(去) 不(太)好 不然 不必 不要(走)

Mian dialect of Yao (勉瑶语) n n nan n tsei n tsu n lon

Biaomin dialect of Yao (标敏瑶语) m n tan n tɕi tan tɕie --- n nɕŋ

Not go not good otherwise needn't don't go

There are two words in Lakkia language which share the same function as *bu*, one is pronounced as [ŋ], and other is [hwǎi].

In terms of grammatical function, the negative adverbs “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in Lingling dialect is syntactically more restricted than the negative adverb [ŋ] in Mian language (*Da Jiangping* 大江坪). It is manifested that on the following circumstances, “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) instead of *bu* is permitted in Lingling dialect, while in Mian dialect [ŋ] is acceptable.

(56) lei<sup>4</sup> ton<sup>2</sup> tsei<sup>5</sup> tsei<sup>5</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> tsei<sup>5</sup> sai<sup>1</sup> tje<sup>5</sup> ?

李 同志 是 不 是 师傅?

Is comrade Li a master or not?

(57) phu : il ŋ<sup>5</sup> tu<sup>7</sup> dza : u<sup>5</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> tu<sup>7</sup> mwo<sup>7</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> tu<sup>7</sup>

晒 不 得 洗 不 得 挖 不 得

can't be put under the sun can't be washed don't dig

(58) tɕi : m<sup>2</sup> tsɑ : ŋ<sup>6</sup> sou<sup>3</sup> tɕen<sup>3</sup> tau<sup>2</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> tan<sup>1</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> ai<sup>3</sup> ŋ<sup>6</sup> ei<sup>1</sup> mien<sup>2</sup>.

山 上 站 着 个 不 高 不 矮 的 人。

The man who stands on the hill is neither tall nor short.

(59) je<sup>1</sup> ŋ<sup>5</sup> liu<sup>4</sup> tsje<sup>7</sup> tu<sup>7</sup> nen<sup>2</sup> je<sup>1</sup> bwo<sup>1</sup> ha<sup>6</sup> tsei<sup>4</sup> i<sup>1</sup> mwo<sup>4</sup> lɛ<sup>8</sup>.

我 不 仅 认 得 他 我 们 还 是 俩 兄 弟 呢。

I certainly know him, in fact, we are brothers.

(60) ŋ<sup>5</sup> tsun<sup>3</sup> bo<sup>7</sup> mjen<sup>2</sup>!

不 准 打 人!

Don't hit people.

From the above analysis, a conclusion can be drawn that “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) in Lingling dialect is evolved from the negative adverb [ŋ] in Mian Language through a series of phonetic changes. The differences between “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) and *bu* in Lingling dialect tell a truth: When Han people just entered Lingling area, the local minority language had a strong influence on the Chinese. At that time, the direction of the transmission is from minority languages to Chinese. The negative adverb [ŋ] in Mian language and related usage transferred to Chinese. After Lingling dialect formed, north Chinese invaded Lingling area many times, the Mandarin had a great impact on Lingling dialect, and some of the more commonly used format in the Mandarin occupied a dominant position. Some of the fixed format in the Mandarin, such as *bu A bu B* and so on, which affect the Lingling dialect in turn, so the “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很) was replaced by *bu*. And therefore, the overlap of different historical strata was formed.

## 4. Additional Support of Superposition Phenomenon of “xǎ<sup>44</sup>” (很)

### 4.1. Historical and Cultural Background

In ancient times, a great variety of minority people lived in Southern China and they were generally called *man* (蛮) and *Baiyue* (百越) [20]. *Han Shu Dilizhi* (汉书地理志) notes that different varieties of people could be found from Vietan to Shaoxing (绍兴) Zhejiang province. It is shown from historical record that before Han People entered into those places, the agriculture of these minority peoples was well-developed and there amounted a great number of populations.

Ancient *Baiyue* Nationality once lived in Hunan (湖南) province, and some scholars have already discussed and proved this. Fu Juyou [7] believes “湖南古代的大部分地区尤其是湘南地区, 是经过越文化的一支——杨越文化, 再向楚文化发展的( Most parts of Hunan in ancient times especially its southern parts evolved from one bunch of culture—Yangyue Culture to the culture of Chu”. There is a sentence in *Biographies of Southern People in The History of the Later Han Dynasty* (后汉书南蛮列传) which is “吴起相悼王, 南并蛮越, 遂有洞庭、苍梧( A general named Wu Qi merged those southern places as a united one, and then we got places named Dongting (洞庭) and Cangwu (苍梧)). Cangwu (苍梧) is place situated in the area of Ningyuan (宁远) which not too far from Lingling. Lots of historical materials have proved that ancestors of Miao and Yao people once lived in Lingling. In ancient books which recorded the rebellion of Hunan people, Lingling ethnic groups, Guiyang (桂阳) ethnic groups, Changsha (长沙) ethnic groups and Panhu (盘瓠) ethnic groups are frequently mentioned. Although the land scope of Lingling in ancient times is much wider than it is today, the southern part of Hunan is definitely the core area. Those three minorities “Miao (苗)”, “Yao (瑶)” and “She (畲)” evolve from the minority group of Panhu (盘瓠).

As people of different language coexist and interact in the same place for a long time, the languages will

unavoidably influence and interplay each other. Based on a study of the distribution of glotal stop in Southern dialects, Chen Zhongmin [3] proposes that it is the remains of the ancient Baiyue Languages. Deng Xiaohua [5] noticed that of the 68 characteristic words in Cantonese (the Hakka dialect), about two thirds have resemblance to the Miao and Yao dialects in phonetic form. Therefore he thinks that the Cantonese is the fruit of the deep interaction among Zhuang-Dong language, Hmong-Mien Languages and Northern Mandarin Chinese, instead of the development of the southward movement of Chinese in the central China. Some important phonetic similarities can be observed after comparing phonetic systems of Wu dialect, Xiang dialect, Cantonese and Zhuang language. And obviously these similarities are absolutely not evolved in parallel, they are the result of language interactions [19].

Similarly, in the south of Hunan province, including Lingling district, as the minority live here for a long term, Mandarin Chinese is sure to be affected by the local dialects, that language strata of different origins exist in dialects is surly natural.

#### 4.2. Evidence for Language Contacts

Language is the most important communicative tool for

	Lingling dialect 零陵话	Yao 标敏瑶语	Hmong 川滇黔苗语	Bouyei 布依语	Maonan 毛难语	Mulam 仡佬语
Frog (蛙)	ma kuai	ma kuai	qua	tu kwe	kwai	kwai

It is obvious that *frog* (蛙) in Lingling dialect sounds completely the same with that in Mian language and similar to the root of the morpheme in other languages. In Lingling dialect, words which mean places are written as *dang* (当) which pronounced as [tān], *Zhe li* (here) is pronounced as [tʃi tān] (这当), and *na li* (there) is pronounced as [na tān] (那当). And still this *dang* (当) is pronounced as [tɔːŋ] in Mian language, and [la tɔ] in Mian language of Biaomin. People call *fruit* [po po], for instance, mulberry is called *sang ye po po*, the fruit of the fir tree (枞树果) is called *zong shu po po*, while in Mian and Yao language, the fruit is called [pjou], [po po] and [pjou] share similar meanings and ways of pronouncing.

Lexical borrowing usually occurs at the primary stage of a language contact. When the state of bilingual lasts, these two languages would make influences on each other in a more deeper way, and thus the phenomenon of lexical borrowing would appear in pronunciation, phonetic system, syntax and morphologic elements and so on [25].

The vowel systems of Wu dialect and Xiang dialect are different from that of other major dialects but similar to Miao language, because the vowel height of these two can be divided into four levels while mandarin can be divided into three levels [20]. The vowel systems of Lingling dialect and Mian language are alike.

Hemong language (湘西腊乙坪苗语) Lingling dialect (零陵方言) Mian language (大江坪勉语).

human being. In history, since Han People in northern China immigrated to the places where southern minority people lived, communication of peoples had been unavoidable. The Mandarin Chinese and local dialect would form into a bilingual community during the process of communication. “After the formation of the bilingual society, varieties of complex relations between language A and B appeared. If language B has authority in politics, economy and culture, then the number of people who speak language B would increase, and on the contrary, the number of people who speak language A would decrease, and language A is gradually changed and replaced by language B which has most of its own features and some of A’s features” [20].

In language contact, vocabulary is the most dynamic part in language system. Two languages, at the primary phrase of language contact, will absorb vocabulary from each other to enrich itself. In Lingling dialect, there exists some words from minority languages, for example, the *frog* (蛙) is pronounced as *ma kuai* or *kuai* in Lingling dialect or dialects around Lingling, this pronunciation is similar to that of in Hmong-mien language. Let’s compare those different pronunciations of *frog* in different minority languages (the tone is omitted):

i		ɯ,u	i,y		ɯ,u	i		u
e	ə	o	e	ə	o	e	ə	o
ɛ		ɔ	ɛ			ɛ		
a	ɑ				a			a

In Lingling dialect, there exists a phenomenon that MC initial *bang* (帮) is pronounced as zero initial and *duan* (端)、*ding* (定) are pronounced as [l] nowadays, for instance in Lingling Youtingxu (邮亭圩) dialect, 牌[uai<sup>33</sup>], 稗[uai<sup>24</sup>], 皮[uei<sup>33</sup>], 枇[uei<sup>33</sup>], 被[ui<sup>33</sup>], 备[uei<sup>24</sup>], 队[luei<sup>24</sup>], 弟[li<sup>24</sup>], 题[li<sup>33</sup>], 代[lai<sup>24</sup>], 台[lai<sup>33</sup>]. Similar phenomenon happen in Lan Jiaosahn (岚角山) dialect with words such as 婆[vu<sup>11</sup>], 排牌[va<sup>33</sup>], 旁[vo<sup>11</sup>], 刨[vo<sup>35</sup>], 背诵[ve<sup>35</sup>], 蛋[lo<sup>53</sup>] etc. What’s more, in places not far away from Lingling such as Jiangyong (江永), Jianghua (江华) and Diaoxian (道县), the MC initial-groups of *duan* (端) are often pronounced as [l], Chen Zhongmin (1989, 1995) considers the phenomenon as the change result of the implosives and the residuum of ancient Baiyue languages

After a long and deep contact of language A and B, the phenomenon of borrowing and permeation of grammar structure between these two languages is inevitable. The grammar structure of language B keeps certain features of Language A.

Mandarin Chinese and Hmong-Mien Languages have different syntactic structure of the noun phrase. In Chinese noun phrase, the attributive noun modifier appears in front of the head-noun; while in Hmong-Mien Languages, the head

presents in front of the attribute. In Lingling dialect, influenced by Hmong-Mien Languages, “head+attribute”

pattern specifies the animal genders, observe the following examples:

炯奈语(Jiongnai)	牛 公	猪 母	鸡 公	狗 母
勉语(Mien Language)	ŋ <sup>33</sup> kei <sup>33</sup>	mpei <sup>35</sup> mai <sup>43</sup>	kai <sup>44</sup> kɔŋ <sup>35</sup>	kla <sup>53</sup> mai <sup>43</sup>
零陵话(Lingling Dialect)	ŋ <sup>31</sup> kɔŋ <sup>33</sup>	twə <sup>35</sup> kau <sup>35</sup>	tɕi <sup>33</sup> kɔŋ <sup>33</sup>	klu <sup>35</sup> kau <sup>35</sup>
	niəu <sup>22</sup> ku <sup>53</sup>	tʃy <sup>22</sup> bo <sup>44</sup>	tʃi <sup>44</sup> kɔŋ <sup>35</sup>	kəu <sup>53</sup> bo <sup>44</sup>
	cattle male	pig female	chicken male	dog female
	ox	sow	cock	bitch

This structure is also reflected in some names of places around Lingling, such as 鸡婆塘 (Jipotang), 鸭婆水 (Yaposhui), 羊公滩 (Yanggongtan) and so on.

The word order typology shows that SVO structure which has an adjective and adverb which shows degrees is “adj+ D adv” and so as the structure in Hmong-Mien Languages and most of those Dong-Tai languages, While in Mandarin Chinese the degree adverb precedes the adjective and Lingling dialect generally abides by this order, but the Adj+Dadv cases can still be found. Here are some examples: instead of saying “很好”, people will say “好很” (“很好”, “很” is an adverb which shows degree, “好” is an adjective); people will say “冷很” instead of “很冷”. What’s more, adverbial modifiers which show degrees and means are placed after core verbs in Lingling dialect. For example, “你走先” is more often used than “你先走” and “我走后” is more often employed than “我后走” (“走” is a core verb which means “go”, “先” and “后” are two adverbial modifiers which show time). And things are the same in languages such as Mian language, Bunu, Laka, Dong and so on. Someone [18] considers it as a residuum of word order typology of Baiyue language.

a complement should be placed after the object in a sentence which has both object and complement after its verb. Lingling dialect is same with Mian language and Ging language, Examples are as follows:

(61) 零陵话: 我 搞 他 不 赢。

I can’t win him.

In this sentence, “搞” is the verb, “他” is the object and “不赢” is the complement.

(62) Mien Language: ŋ<sup>42</sup> te<sup>13</sup> li<sup>13</sup> mɾ<sup>44</sup> lɾ<sup>33</sup>

(勉瑶语) 找 他 不 到。

Can’t find him.

In sentence (65), “找” is the verb, “他” is the object and “不到” is the complement)

(63) Gin language: viu<sup>5</sup> kan<sup>2</sup> kəi<sup>1</sup> suəŋ<sup>5</sup>

(京语) 攀 树枝 下。

Put down the brunch.

In Lingling dialect, the word order of the double object construction is determined by the meaning of the verb: when the verb means *obtain or gain*, the direct object follows the indirect object; when the verb means *give*, the direct object precedes the indirect object, which is consistent with Mian language in most cases, with a few exceptions. For instance:

(64) 零陵话: 老 娘 今 朝 给 咖 五 百 块 钱 我。

My mom gave me 500 Yuan today.

(65) 勉瑶语: fun<sup>2</sup> sɛ : ŋ<sup>1</sup> pun<sup>1</sup> pwan<sup>3</sup> sou<sup>1</sup> ho<sup>8</sup> sɛ : ŋ<sup>1</sup>。

老师 给 本 书 学生。

The teacher gives the student a book.

(66) 毛难语: man<sup>2</sup> ʔna : k<sup>7</sup> lɛ<sup>1</sup> hɛ<sup>2</sup>。

他 给 书 我。

He gives me the book.

The above cases in Lingling dialect are similar to those in Southern minority languages while different from those in Mandarin Chinese. It is therefore concluded that Lingling dialect is greatly influenced by Southern minority languages lexically, phonetically and syntactically.

## 5. Conclusion

Influenced by historical comparative linguistics, it is commonly proposed by researchers of Chinese language that Chinese dialects are divisions of ancient Chinese, and the differences between dialects are caused by their different development speed. Just affected by the idea of vertical transmission, researchers tend to search for the internal causes rather than the external causes when probing into dialects phenomenon.

Some researchers pointed out that the idea of vertical transmission is not adequate and the formation of dialects is closely related to non-Mandarin Chinese [1, 17, 19]. The development of Han people involves the integration of Han people and Minority people. In this process, languages are mutually influenced. We believe that when Mandarin Chinese was introduced to different regions and then it contacted with the local dialect, gradually Chinese dialects appeared, thus the result of horizontal transmission with the formation mechanism of imperfect language transformation. Therefore, it is enlightened that comparing with focusing on the derivation of the dialect itself, it is more adequate for researchers to explain Chinese dialects from the perspective of language contact and to analyze the causes of a linguistic item in terms of the interaction between languages.

This paper demonstrates that it is undeniable that Mandarin Chinese is influenced by Southern Minority dialects. Superstition appears not only phonetically but also syntactically.

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