Chapter 4

'What's your name?' in Tungusic and beyond

Andreas Hölzl

University of Potsdam

This study investigates questions about personal names, i.e. questions corresponding to *What's your name?* in English. This potentially universal type of question is referred to as the personal name question (PNQ). The study sketches the typological variation found in the PNQ from a cross-linguistic perspective and analyzes the synchronic typology and diachronic development of the PNQ in Tungusic, a small but important language family spoken in Northeast Asia.

Cross-linguistically, two main types of PNQs are attested. Type A is an equational copula sentence (e.g., What is your name?) while Type B contains a speech act verb (e.g., What are you called?). Tungusic shows a tendency for Type A but, because of contact languages such as Mongolian and Russian, also has instances of Type B. One of several other dimensions of variation among the world's languages is the kind of interrogative used in PNQs. Tungusic languages originally used an interrogative meaning 'who' (literally Who is your name?). The use of 'what' in several languages located in the south and of 'how' in many languages in the north can be attributed to influence from Chinese, Russian, and other languages.

Historical accounts of Tungusic are usually restricted to individual items (e.g., *si 'you (sg)' *gärbü 'name', *ŋüi 'who', e.g. Benzing 1956), but rarely are larger expressions reconstructed to Proto-Tungusic. This study shows that the Proto-Tungusic PNQ as one idiom can be plausibly reconstructed as *si(n-i) gärbü-si ŋüi? '2sG(.OBL-GEN) name-2sg.Poss who'. Most deviations in modern languages can be explained by contact with surrounding languages.

Keywords: personal name question, typology, Tungusic, reconstruction, frames, construction grammar

1 Introduction

FAUST: What is thy name? MEPHISTOPHELES: A question small, it seems,

For one whose mind the Word so so much despises; Who, scorning all external gleams, The depths of being only prizes. (Johann Wolfgang von Goethe 2018 [1808])

This study investigates what will be referred to as the *personal name question* (PNQ), i.e. a question about the name of a person, more specifically of an addressee (or second person), such as *What's your name?* in English. Almost every natural language seems to have a conventional way of expressing this question. But despite being a question that occurs in textbooks of many languages, there has been surprisingly little cross-linguistic research on this topic. Even *The Oxford handbook of names and naming* (Hough 2016) only devotes a brief section to this topic (Van Langendonck & Van de Velde 2016: 26). Not many grammatical descriptions mention PNQs and even fewer address it as a topic in its own right. There are some noticeable exceptions, such as Mushin (1995: 8, 19), who noted that Australian languages often employ a personal interrogative meaning 'who' in questions about names. Blust (2013: 509f.) made a similar observation about Austronesian languages. The following examples, therefore, literally mean 'Who is your name?' (see also Hölzl 2014; Gil 2018).¹

- (1) Yankunytjatjara (Pama-Nyungan; Mushin 1995: 19) nyuntu ini **ngana**-nya? 2SG.NOM name who-NOM.NAME
- (2) Ngaju Dayak (Austronesian; Blust 2013: 510) eweh ara-m?
 who name-2sg.poss

Many other languages, such as Aymara spoken in southern Peru or Badaga in India, behave like English and use an interrogative with the meaning 'what' instead.

(3) Muylaq' Aymara (Aymaran; Coler 2014: 402) ¿kuna suti-ni-v-rak(i)-ta-st(i)?
what name-ATT-COP.V-AD-2SIM-Q

¹Throughout the paper, examples without translation can be translated into English as 'What is your name?' or as an answer thereto.

(4) Badaga (Dravidian; Balakrishnan 1999: 214) ninna hesaru e:na? 2sg.gen name what

Some languages, such as Tok Pisin spoken in Papua New Guinea or Wulai Atayal on Taiwan, allow the use of both 'who' and 'what'.

- (5) Tok Pisin (English-based creole; Wurm & Mühlhäusler 1985: 345) husat/wanem nem bilong yu?
 who/what name GEN 2sG
- (6) Wulai Atayal (Austronesian; Huang 1996: 293: 293)

 ima?/nalu? lalu?=su??

 who/what name=2sg.poss

This variation is also addressed in Idiatov (2007: 61–94, passim), who, among other things, investigated "NAME-questions" in a large sample of languages. This kind of question is broadly defined, however, and not restricted to the question about personal names. According to Idiatov (2007: 47), the question is based on "non-prototypical combinations of values" because it combines the features THING, IDENTIFICATION, and PROPER NAME (as an expected answer). Prototypical combinations, on the contrary, are said to be Person, IDENTIFICATION, PROPER NAME for 'who' (e.g., Who are you? I'm Mike.) and THING, CLASSIFICATION, and COMMON NOUN for 'what' (e.g., What is this? This is a book.). Following Idiatov (2007), the fact that some languages like Aymara use 'what' and others, such as Ngaju Dayak, 'who' in questions about names is a result of the non-prototypical combination of these features that allows both choices. An alternative explanation of the variation, among other things based on the ambiguous nature of the concept NAME itself, will be proposed in this study. The use of other interrogatives, such as jak 'how' in Polish (asking about the MANNER), is argued to be an "avoidance strategy" (Idiatov 2007: 61). This is a feature common in, but not restricted to, European languages.

- (7) Polish (Indo-European)

 Jak masz na imię?
 how have.2sg.prs.ind on name
- (8) Manam (Austronesian; Lichtenberk 1983: 406) ará-m báʔara? name-2sg.poss how

For some reason, the focus of previous studies has been on the choice of the interrogative in the PNQ. Apart from Idiatov (2007: 63–67), few studies address morphosyntactic patterns on how questions about names are expressed crosslinguistically. But the PNQ also varies on many other dimensions, including the marking of possession, politeness, the presence or absence of a copula, the valency of the speech act verb and many more. These typological features of the PNQ are addressed in §2.

The underlying theoretical background of this study is loosely based on a general form of Frame Semantics and Construction Grammar, especially as it can be applied to historical and areal phenomena (e.g., Fillmore 1985; Langacker 2008; Hilpert & Östman 2014; Trousdale 2014; Lefebvre 2015; Hölzl 2018b). Construction Grammar is built on the idea that the lexicon and the grammar of a language are not clearly distinct, but form a continuum of constructions of different size and complexity. Crucially, idioms and fixed expressions, including the PNQ, are considered constructions in their own right. Construction Grammar allows for partial analyzability and different levels of schematicity. In English, for instance, What's your name? is not only a conventional expression, but is at the same time analyzable as an instantiation of more abstract constructions, including what's X, where X refers to an open slot. The questions What's this? and What's the problem? are other instantiations of this partially schematic construction.

This study investigates the personal name question in the Tungusic language family, which allows a detailed analysis of the individual constructions involved in the expression of the question. Tungusic is a small language family of up to twenty different languages spoken in Northeast Asia, especially eastern Russia and northern China. Data from all attested Tungusic languages are included in the study. Its internal classification is a matter of dispute, but four different subgroups can unmistakably be identified. Following Janhunen (2012b), these will be referred to as Ewenic, Udegheic, Nanaic, and Jurchenic. According to one view (e.g., Georg 2004; Janhunen 2012b), the former two together form the Northern Tungusic languages while the latter can be referred to as Southern Tungusic (Table 1). The discussion of the Tungusic PNQ in §4 is divided into subsections on each of the four subgroups. Tungusic is an especially rewarding language family for this study due to the relatively high variability of the personal name question, especially in terms of the interrogative used.

Previous diachronic accounts of Tungusic languages usually focused on phonological, morphological, and lexical aspects (e.g., Benzing 1956; Doerfer 1978 among many others), but have rarely addressed larger expressions. However, similar to lexical items, it is possible to identify COGNATE CONSTRUCTIONS in

Branch	Subbranch	Languages	
Northern Tungusic	Ewenic	Arman, Even (Ewen), Evenki (Ewenki), Oroqen, Solon, Negidal,	
	Udegheic/ Orochic	Oroch, Udihe (Udeghe),	
		Kilen*, Kili*, Nanai, Samar, Ulcha, Uilta, Ussuri Nanai,	
	Jurchenic/ Manchuric	Alchuka, Bala, Jurchen A, Jurchen B, Kyakala, written Manchu, spoken Manchu (e.g., Sibe),	

Table 1: Possible classification of the Tungusic languages (e.g., Georg 2004; Janhunen 2012b); *languages with highly mixed affiliation

related languages and, therefore, to reconstruct larger constructions to protolanguages (e.g., Barðdal 2013). A superficial survey of the personal name question in several Romance languages can illustrate this concept.

- (9) a. French Comment t'appelles-tu?
 - b. Italian Come ti chiami?
 - c. Portuguese Como te chamas?
 - d. Romanian Cum te cheamă?
 - e. Spanish ¿Cómo te llamas?

Of the five languages mentioned, all can make use of a similar construction with the same elements, e.g. the interrogative *come* 'how' in initial position, followed by the personal pronoun *ti* '2sg.obl', and an inflected second person singular present indicative form of the verb *chiamare* 'to call' in Italian (see also 27). Only French has a different verb (*appeler*). Apart from phonological differences, there are also differences in the verbal morphology (e.g., an enclitic personal pronoun *tu* in French, see also 19). Nevertheless, the overall similarity suggests that earlier stages of Romance also had a construction out of which the constructions in the individual languages might have developed.² Changes in the Tungusic PNQ construction and how it can be reconstructed to the proto-language will be addressed in §4 and §5.

²A proofreader pointed out that Brazilian Portuguese also has an innovative construction: *Como você se chama?*

This paper has five sections, including this introduction. §2 sketches a typology of the personal name question from a cross-linguistic perspective. §3 introduces the semantic background of the question from a frame semantic point of view. §4 addresses the expression of the question in Tungusic languages. §4.1 discusses the second person forms and the genitive, §4.2 gives an overview of the word for 'name', and §4.3 to §4.6 investigate the PNQ in the four subbranches of Tungusic. The discussion in §5 reconstructs the PNQ to Proto-Tungusic (§5.1) gives some conclusions (§5.2).

2 The personal name question from a cross-linguistic perspective

Personal names are probably a universal or near-universal property of human cultures. An exception could be the Matsigenka in Peru, where "personal names are of little significance" (Johnson 2003: 10). A similar case can be observed in Venezuela, which also illustrates culture-specific functions of personal names:

The Panare, for example, have five personal names for men and seven for women. They are all based on physical characteristics, like 'big eyes', 'cutie', 'big one', 'lopsided one' etc. Individuals are more likely to be referred to by kinship and locality, e.g., grandfather of Camana (a place), child of sister, brother (anyone in one's male peer group), etc. Also, people have different 'names' throughout their lifetime. Before about age three, children are just known as 'baby'. When it looks like they are going to survive, they are given a childhood name. Then when they come of age (ready to marry) they get their adult name. They may also have a Spanish-based name if they are baptised. But none of these 'names' are really used all that much as names in the way Europeans use names. Maybe the Christian names come closest. [...] If you ask a Panare person 'What is your name?' (in Spanish) you would only get their Christian name in response. (Thomas E. Payne, p.c. 2020)

To my knowledge all Tungusic cultures have personal names. As a rule, Russian and Chinese naming practices can also be found among speakers of Tungusic languages today. Culture-specific details, such as the use of derogatory names among the Manchus (Alonso de la Fuente 2012/2014) or the reference to rivers for the self-identification among the Evenki (Lavrillier 2006), seem to play no significant role for the expression of the PNQ among Tungusic languages. A discussion of specific meanings or functions of names goes beyond the scope of the present paper.

The PNQ could also be a universal or near-universal property, but is expressed differently from language to languages. Cross-linguistically, however, only a limited number of different constructional types is attested (e.g., Idiatov 2007: 63–67). This section gives a brief overview of the typological variation attested in the expression of the PNQ emphasizing those aspects that are relevant for the classification of Tungusic (see also Idiatov 2007 and Gil 2018).

The question 'What is your name?' is part of a question-answer sequence, such as in the following well-known Russian dialogue of the explorer Vladimir Arsen'ev with his later friend Dersu Uzala, a member of the Tungusic-speaking Nanai people.

(10) Tebja kak zovut? Sprosil ja neznakomca.

Dersu Uzala, otvečal on.

"What is your name?" I asked the stranger.

"Dersu Uzala," he answered. (Arsen'ev 1921, 2016 [1921]: 18)

More specifically, the sequence consists of a content question with an interrogative, in this case Russian *kak* 'how' (see also 26), that is taken up again in the elliptic answer in the form of a personal name, i.e. *Dersu Uzala*.

Pragmatically speaking, there are, of course, many different ways of achieving the same overall meaning as a PNQ, for instance by using an imperative form of a speech act verb (e.g., Schulze 2007: 254). The following is an example from the Tungusic language Evenki (similar to *State your name!*).

(11) Evenki (Nedjalkov 1997: 148)
si.n-ngi-ve gerbi-ve mi.ne-ve gu:-kel!
2SG.OBL-GEN-ACC name-ACC 1SG.OBL-ACC say-2SG.IMP
'Tell me your name!'

In certain contexts, even the word Name! alone could already be sufficient.

But not only is this much less polite than a question, but cross-linguistically it also is not the usual way of putting the question. Conventionality is key in the investigation of the personal name question. While every language is certainly capable of asking for the name of a person, the universal tentatively proposed here is that almost every language might have a conventional way of expressing it.

In some languages, such as German, there are several different ways of putting the question. As in Evenki, an imperative of a speech act verb can be used in certain contexts, for instance when giving vent to one's impatience.

(12) German

Sag mir (schon) dein-en Name-n! say.IMP.SG 1SG.DAT already 2SG.GEN-M.SG.ACC name-M.SG.ACC 'Tell me your name (already)!'

Given a certain context, it is also possible to jokingly ask whether somebody actually has a name. Because we know that (in our culture) everybody has a name, we draw the conclusion, by means of pragmatic inference and the intention of being informative, that the appropriate answer to the question is the specific name rather than the answer yes.

(13) German

Hast du ein-en Name-n? have.2sg.prs.IND 2sg a-M.sg.ACC name-M.sg.ACC 'Do you have a name?'

However, German has two more conventional ways of expressing the question (14) that in most situations would be preferred to the stylistically marked ones above.

(14) German

- a. Was/Wie ist dein Name? what/how is 2sg.gen.m.sg.nom name.m.sg.nom
- b. Wie heiß-t du? how be.called-2sg.prs.ind 2sg

Conventionality could theoretically be measured by text frequency, but, given that there are no large corpora for Tungusic languages, this method is inapplicable. Most texts that are available to me only contain the question too few times (if at all) to allow any conclusions. The pragmatic approach followed in this study is mostly impressionistic. It is based on the information available in grammar books, dictionaries, some texts, and the information from experts on individual languages.

Cross-linguistically, there are two main ways of expressing this special type of content question that correspond to the two most conventional expressions in German above (14). Consider the following examples from Mandarin and their English translation:

(15) Mandarin (Sino-Tibetan)

- a. [nǐ de míngzi] shì shénme? 2SG ATTR name COP what 'What is your name?'
- b. nĭ jiào [shénme (míngzi)]?2sg call what (name)'What are you called?'

Both examples are directed at a second person and contain an interrogative. Example (15a) is a copula construction that equates 'your name' (the copula subject) with the interrogative (the copula complement, Dixon 2010) while example (15b) contains a speech act verb. These two types of constructions will be referred two as Type A and Type B, respectively.

Both patterns have several subtypes. Type A, for instance, can take at least two different forms in which the interrogative is either used as an argument of its own (your name = what, see 16) or as an attribute of the noun meaning 'name' (you = what name, see 17). These will be referred to as Type A.1 and Type A.2.

- (16) Jammu/Kashmir Burushaski (Burushaski; Munshi 2006: 148)

 [um-e gu-yik] besen dila?

 2sg-gen 2sg.poss-name what be.prs.3sg[ABST]
- (17) Sanjiazi Manchu (Tungusic; Dai 2012: 239) 'çi ['ai 'kəvə]? 2sg what name

Both types of the personal name question refer to a SECOND PERSON. In many languages, this is overtly marked by a personal pronoun (both types), a possessive marker that also encodes person (especially Type A, see 18), or verbal agreement (especially Type B, see 19).

- (18) Nungon (Trans-New Guinea; Sarvasy 2017: 469: 469) gok maa-ya numa?
 2sg name-2sg.poss who
- (19) French (Indo-European)

 Comment t'=appelles=tu?

 how 2sg.obl=call.2sg.prs.ind=2sg

In languages with egophoricity, second person can also be encoded indirectly with the help of the *anticipation rule* (Tournadre & LaPolla 2014: 245). In such languages, an egophoric marker usually refers to a first person, but in questions can also refer to a second person because the perspective of the addressee is taken.

- (20) Karlong Mongghul (Khitano-Mongolic; Faehndrich 2007: 114) tci-ni nara ja:n-i:? 2SG-GEN name what-EGO
- (21) Wutun (Sino-Tibetan; Sandman 2016: 295)

 ni-de minze-li ma sho-yek?

 2SG-ATTR name-LOC what say-EGO

Among Tungusic languages, only Sibe has been claimed to possess some sort of grammaticalized egophoric system (Li 1984), but to my knowledge, this does not include any marking that would be relevant for the PNQ.

Both types of PNQs usually contain an **interrogative**. A potential exception to this generalization is the language Wari' spoken in Brazil that uses demonstratives instead. Jahai appears to make use of a polar question that also lacks an interrogative (see also Gil 2018).

- (22) Wari' (Chapacuran; Everett & Kern 2007: 40)

 cain' cain' ne wixi-um ne?

 that.N.DIST that.N.DIST 3N name-2s REC.PST
- (23) Jahai (Austroasiatic; Schebesta & Blagden 1928: 808, 821)

 ha kenmo' pai?

 Q name you

 Literally: 'Your name?'

For Tungusic, only examples with interrogatives are attested. As seen in the Introduction, the kind of interrogative in the name question also differs from language to language. Cross-linguistically, the two most common categories of interrogatives to be found in this question are THING (*what*, e.g. English) and PERSON (*who*, e.g. Tigre, Pazih), both of which are attested among Tungusic languages.

(24) Tigre (Afroasiatic; Elias 2014: 227)

man tu səmetka?

who COP.3sg.M name.2sg.Poss.M

Literally: 'Who is your name?'

(25) Pazih (Austronesian; Li & Tsuchida 2001: 44, 46) ima langat pai siw?

who name o 2sg.nom

This variation certainly has several causes, only some of which can be addressed here. In most Tungusic languages, the use of a given interrogative can be explained with language contact. But this does not explain why different interrogatives can be used in the first place.

Table 2 sketches what can be assumed to be some prototypical features of the two interrogatives from a cross-linguistic perspective, although there are language-specific boundaries (based on Nau 1999: 148; Croft 2003: 130; Idiatov 2007: 18).

Table 2: Tentative prototypical combinations of features for 'who' and 'what'. What is referred to as "word class" is not identical to Idiatov's (2007) feature "expected answer" that is assumed to be "proper name" for 'who'. Instead, this refers to the word class of the interrogative itself.

	PERSON (who)		THING (what)
referentiality	identification		classification
animacy	human	animate	inanimate
word class	pronoun	proper name	common noun

The frequent use of 'who' in PNOs might be explained by the fact that it is a question about an identification of a specific person (Who are you? I'm Bill.), but not a classification (What is that? That is an airplane.). The two other features are located on well-known typological scales, i.e. pronoun > proper name > common noun and human > animate > inanimate. Perhaps because a PNQ asks about a proper name that is located in the middle of the first of these two scales, 'who' (often an interrogative pronoun) and 'what' (often an interrogative noun) can both be used. Another factor for the variation might be the ambiguous nature of the concept NAME itself. First, some languages, such as Great Andamanese, treat a name as if it was a body part (Abbi 2013: 80). Second, a name can also be metaphorically conceptualized as a THING that can be possessed (e.g., I have a book/name, my book/name). Third, a name can also metonymically stand for the PERSON itself (e.g., I am Mike). The first interpretation might allow both 'who' and 'what' (animate entity), the second favors the use of 'what' (inanimate entity), the last of 'who' (human being). This represents a slight difference with respect to Idiatov's (2007: 47) account that assumes that a name generally is a type of THING.

The use of a Manner (*how*) or other interrogative, such as *come* in Italian or *comment* in French, is less frequent and can possibly be explained with avoidance (Idiatov 2007: 61). This seems to be relatively frequent in southern, central and eastern Europe, but can also be found in other languages (e.g., Gil 2018).

(26) Russian (Indo-European)

**Kak tebja zovut?*

how 2sg.Acc call.3pl.prs.ind

Literally: 'How do they call you?'

(27) Italian (Indo-European)

Come ti chiam-i?

how 2sg.obl call-2sg.prs.ind

Literally: 'How do you call (yourself)?'

As will be shown in §4, many Tungusic languages appear to have calqued the use of a manner interrogative on the basis of Russian, i.e. the European pattern spread towards the East.

An interrogative in both types of PNQs may be FOCUSED. Cross-linguistically, there are different means of focusing an interrogative. A strategy common, for instance, in Japonic languages is the use of a morphosyntactic marker.

(28) Tarama Miyako (Japonic; Aoi 2015: 417)

naa=ju=ba

nuu=ti=ga

iii=ga?

name=Acc=top what=quot=foc say=q

Except for, perhaps, Uilta, this is not attested in the Tungusic PNQs. Another way of focusing the interrogative is through fronting, also called (full) *wh-movement*, as in English. In Northeast Asia, few languages exhibit this syntactic phenomenon. An indication of fronting is the comparison of the PNQ with its answer. If the personal name appears in the same position as the interrogative (i.e., *in situ*), there is no fronting involved.

- (29) English
 - a. What is [your name]?
 - b. [My name] is Anna.
- (30) Mandarin
 - a. [nǐ de míngzi] shì **shénme**? 2SG ATTR name COP what

b. [wŏ de míngzi] shì ānnà.1SG ATTR name COP PN

Northern Tungusic languages are among the very few exceptions with occasional sentence-initial interrogatives in Northeast Asia (Dryer 2013; Hölzl 2018a). Ewenic languages also exhibit other focus positions that are more central for the PNQ. Some Tungusic languages have adopted the European pattern through Russian.

Type A, and sometimes Type B also, contains a DUMMY noun meaning 'name'. Obviously, there is no generalization on what phonological form this noun has cross-linguistically. It is necessary to distinguish between chance resemblance, a common inheritance, and mutual contact. German Name and English name, for instance, are similar due to a common Germanic origin. The similarity to Uralic, e.g. Finnish nimi, can perhaps best be explained by Indo-European influence (e.g., Anthony 2007: 95). In many other cases, similarities between individual words, such as Persian $n\bar{a}m$, Kurux na:me, Japanese namae, or Papuan Malay nama, is probably the result of chance.

(31) Papuan Malay (Austronesian; Kluge 2017: 623) kam pu nama siapa~siapa? 2PL POSS name who~PL 'What are your names?'

In a few languages, the dummy noun can fuse with other elements. For instance, in the Austronesian language Kilivila, the dummy noun *yaga* 'name' (Senft 1986: 420) fused with an interrogative to form the complex stem *amyaga* 'what is the name of' (Senft 1986: 187), which is the basis of the PNQ *amyagam*? that contains a possessive marker -*m* '2sg.poss' (Senft 1986: 52).

Interrogatives are often reinforced with other elements, such as basic nouns, e.g. Italian *che cosa* 'what thing > what' (e.g., Diessel 2003; Hölzl 2018a). Tok Pisin *wanem* 'what' seen in (5) is a contraction of English *what* and *name* (Wurm & Mühlhäusler 1985: 210). This reinforcement suggests that the concept NAME is considered, at least by the speakers of this language, a very basic category equivalent to THING.

Depending on the grammar of the individual languages, the dummy noun can belong to a certain class (e.g., animacy, gender, noun class). For instance, it has male gender in German and in the following construction in the Sepik language Abau. In the South American language Panare, it is marked for inanimateness and invisibility.

Andreas Hölzl

- (32) Abau (Sepik; Lock 2011: 227) hwon-o uru po-ho? 2SG-GEN name O-GL.M
- (33) Panare (Cariban; Payne & Payne 2013: 66) sinka mën a-yiche?
 how INJINVIS 2-name

In Tungusic, there is no such classification of the dummy noun.

Some languages have more than one dummy that can enter the question. In Standard Korean, for instance, there is a distinction between neutral *ilum* and honorific *sengham* (Song 2005: 95).

- (34) Korean (Koreanic; Sohn 1999: 418)
 - a. *ilum i mwe yey-yo?* name NOM what be-POL
 - b. **sengham** i ettehkey toy-sey-yo? name.HON NOM how become-HON-POL Literally: 'How does your name become?'

In this language, the two nouns are part of different constructions. Example (34a) is said to a child or teenager and (34b) is the honorific version. Individual Tungusic languages only have one dummy noun.

An additional distinction in Type A is whether languages make use of an overt COPULA or not. While some languages, such as Sumerian (35), require an overt copula, others, such as Kurux (36) and many Tungusic languages, do not.

- (35) Sumerian (Black 2007: 21)

 aba-m mu-zu?

 what-3sg.cop name-2sg.poss
- (36) Kurux (Dravidian; Kobayashi & Tirkey 2017: 242) ning-hay ender na:me? 2sG-GEN what name

In Type A languages, there is an additional Possessive Relationship, which, depending on the language, can be dependent-marked (e.g., Mongsen Ao, 37), head-marked (e.g., Teiwa, 38), double marked (e.g., Turkish, 39), or unmarked (e.g., Nihali, 40).³

³The PNQ in Mongsen Ao can also be expressed with 'what'.

- (37) Mongsen Ao (Sino-Tibetan; Coupe 2007: 99)
 nə tə-niŋ sə́pá??
 2sg.poss rl-name who
- (38) Teiwa (Trans-New Guinea; Klamer 2010: 239)

 ha-yit amidan?

 2sg.poss-name what
- (39) Turkish (Turkic)

 sen-in ad-in ne?

 2sG-GEN name-2sg.poss what
- (40) Nihali (Nagaraja 2014: 116) ne jumu na:n? 2sg name what

All four types are attested in Tungusic.

In those languages that have Possessive Classification, there is an additional distinction that refers to the class of the word for 'name'. In Mongsen Ao, for example, the "relational prefix" ta- that is seen in (37) is usually found on body parts and kinship terms (Coupe 2007: 84). In Mandarin, mingzi 'name' belongs to the set of nouns that is obligatorily possessed with a genitive marker de. This marker can be absent with kinship terms. A language that makes a distinction into several different possessive classes is Great Andamanese.

(41) Great Andamanese (Abbi 2013: 181, 270) $\eta = er = liu \qquad a = \int yu \qquad bi?$ 2sg=cl2=name cl1=who cop

In this language, the word liu 'name' takes the class 2 possessive marker $\varepsilon r = er = (Abbi 2013: 80, 140, 161)$ that otherwise attaches to "major body parts that pertain to the 'head', 'brain', 'neck', 'face', 'arms', 'thigh', 'calf', 'knee' and 'bones.'" (Abbi 2013: 141). In addition, the personal interrogative has the class 1 possessive marker a- also found on words referring to the mouth and kinship terms, such as mother. As will be shown below, the Tungusic possessive classification marker cannot enter the PNQ.

In Type B constructions, there is variance in the type of SPEECH ACT VERB that is involved. Apart from the language-specific semantics, the most important variation concerns the valency of the verb. In German, *heißen* 'to be called' is an intransitive verb and *nennen* 'to call' is a transitive verb. In Mandarin, *jiào* is an ambitransitive verb that can be either intransitive or transitive (Table 3).

Table 3: Valency of speech act verbs in German and Mandarin. In German, the transitive or causative use of $hei\beta en$ is archaic.

	Intransitive (+ NAME)	Transitive (+ NAME)
German	heißen	-
	-	nennen
Mandarin	jiào	jiào

(42) a. Mandarin (Sino-Tibetan)

wǒ jiào ānnà.

1sg call PN

'I am called Anna.' (intransitive)

b. tā jiào wǒ ānnà.

3sg call 1sg pn

'(S)he calls me Anna.' (transitive)

English requires a passive, a reflexive, or a third person plural dummy agent in order to use the verb to call as an intransitive verb, e.g. he is called Joe, he calls himself Joe, they call him Joe. A reflexive or a passive of a speech act verb are also possible in German.

(43) German (Indo-European)

Wie nenn-st du dich?

how call-2sg.prs.ind 2sg 2sg.refl

Literally: 'How do you call yourself?'4

(44) German (Indo-European)

Wie wirst du genannt?

how get.2sg.prs.ind 2sg called

Literally: 'How are you called?'

An impersonal construction is also attested in other languages with Type B constructions.

(45) Beng (Mande; Paperno 2014: 17)

ouo mi si **po**:

3PL.HAB.AFF 2SG call.L what

Literally: 'What do they call you?'

⁴This is identical to the original of the question in the quotation from Goethe above.

Changing of valency, reflexives or impersonals are not attested in the few cases of Type B constructions in Tungusic.

Politeness is a dimension of variation that plays a larger or smaller role for both types of PNQs depending on the language. In German, there is a two-way politeness distinction that affects the choice of the pronoun and, consequently, the verbal ending. Instead of the usual du 'you (sg)', the polite pronoun Sie 'you (sg.Pol)' is used. Both have suppletive case forms.

- (46) German (Indo-European)

 Wie heiß-en

 Sie?

 how be.called-2sg.prs.ind.pol 2sg.pol
- (47) German (Indo-European)

 Was/Wie ist Ihr Name?

 what/how is 2SG.POL.GEN.SG.M.NOM name.SG.M.NOM

While German makes use of the same two constructions, there are languages that change the whole construction according to the politeness register. Two such languages that had contact with Tungusic languages are Korean (see above) and Mandarin. Mandarin, apart from the other expressions mentioned throughout this section has the following honorific form that is based on a different pattern.

(48) Mandarin (Sino-Tibetan)

nín guì xìng?

2sg. HON honorable surname

In Koreanic languages, apart from the use of a different construction seen above, there is also a distinction in the question marker.

- (49) Soviet Korean (Koreanic; King 1987: 253, 269, slightly adjusted)
 - a. *irimi misi-ge-ja?* name what-thing-Q.PLAIN
 - b. *irimi misi-ge-mdu?* name what-thing-Q.POL

Politeness could also have led to some exceptions from the proposed universal that all languages have a conventionalized way of expressing the PNQ. Jiaomuzu Gyalrong in China, for instance, tends "to avoid direct address", including questions about names. However, even in this language it is possible to ask a PNQ in a polite way:

(50) Jiaomuzu Gyalrong (Sino-Tibetan; Prins 2017: 343)
 nənɨo thi tə-rpu-n ko?
 2sg what 2-be.called-2sg ANX
 'Please, do tell me what is your name?'

Overall, Tungusic languages have few grammaticalized expressions for politeness.⁵

3 The personal name frame

The semantic side of a construction, like that of a lexical item, can be represented by what is often referred to as a frame (e.g., Fillmore 1985). This section introduces the *personal name frame* (PNF) that could be the basis for the personal name question. This frame can be illustrated with dialogues from the Tungusic language Sibe.

- (51) Sibe (Jin 1993: 3)
 - a. tsunfu/Chunfu:

ci χodz=na?2sG good=Q'How are you?

- b. nənə-m mi.n-j bəji-v bəji-d əmdan taqə-vi-ki. first-cvb.ipfv 1sg.obl-gen self-acc self-dat once know-caus-des 'First, let me introduce myself.'
- c. *mi.n-b tşunfu şi-m.*1SG.OBL-ACC PN say-IPFV
 'My name is Chunfu.'
- d. tsanmin/Changming:

ci.n-b taqə-m mutu-xuŋ bi ursun bailə-m.
2SG.OBL-ACC know-CVB.IPFV can-PTCP.PFV 1SG very rejoice-IPFV 'I am very happy to meet you.'

e. *mi.n-j* gəvə-v tşaŋmiŋ şɨ-m.
1SG.OBL-GEN name-ACC PN say-IPFV
'My name is Changming.'

⁵While some Koreanic question markers that show politeness disctinctions were possibly borrowed by the Jurchenic branch of Tungusic (Hölzl 2018a: 213), their exact function in Jurchenic still remains unclear.

While this brief dialogue does not contain the personal name question, it is arguably located in a very similar type of situation. While the direct question about the name is avoided by Chunfu, Changming, by means of pragmatic inference, draws the conclusion that, given Chunfu's introduction, it is appropriate to say one's own name in response. In a similar albeit more direct way, one can add a truncated question at the end of one's own introduction:

```
(52) Sibe (Jin Ning 1993: 3)

mi.n-j gəvə-v sarasu şɨ-m. çi ni?

1sg.obl-gen name-ACC pn say-ipfv 2sg Q

'My name is Sarasu. What's yours?'
```

As another example consider the following dialogue:

(53) Sibe (Jin 1993: 4)

a. dzalusan/Zhalushan:

```
ci mi.n-d amdan taqə-və-Ø!
2SG 1SG.OBL-DAT once know-CAUS-IMP
'Would you introduce me to him please?'
```

b. bəkdəsu/Bekdesu:

```
bi so.n-j dzu nanə-v əmdan taqə-vi-ki.
1sg 2pl.obl-gen two person-ACC once know-caus-des
'Allow me to introduce you.'
```

c. ər əmkən=ni goçina si-m [...] this one=3sg.poss pn say-ipfv 'This is Gosinga.'

In this case, the situation involves not two, but three persons. Apart from the two people making the acquaintance (Zhalusan and Gosinga), there is a third mediating person (Bekdesu).

All three situations above are based on the common background knowledge that everybody has a name. The same is obviously true for the personal name question. But this is only part of the larger personal name frame that contains several subevents and roles tentatively listed in Table 4.6

⁶The list presented in Table 4 is probably not exhaustive and the individual subevents could be slightly different depending on the cultural background. For instance, in some societies names can also be removed from a person (e.g., Moutu 2013: 147). Apart from giving, a name can evolve through a process known as onymization (Van Langendonck & Van de Velde 2016: 33). Future studies will have to revise the personal name frame accordingly.

Table 4: The personal name frame and its subparts. The dummy noun meaning 'name' is not listed, but is optionally present in all subevents (based on Hölzl 2014)

	Subevents	Roles
1	GIVING A NAME	NAMEE, NAME, NAMER
2	HAVING A NAME	POSSESSOR, NAME
3	ACQUAINTING	
3a	2 persons: ASKING, TELLING	ASKER, ADDRESSEE, NAME
3b	3 persons: INTRODUCING	INTRODUCER, PERSON A,
		PERSON B, NAMES
4	KNOWING A NAME	KNOWER, KNOWN, NAME
	(common ground)	
5	CALLING BY NAME	CALLER, CALLED, NAME

First, most people do not usually chose their names on their own, but are given the name by somebody else, such as their parents. In this case, there are three different roles, the person giving the name (NAMER), the personal name given (NAME), and the person being named (NAMEE). There are culture- and language-specific conventions and examples for each of these subevents. In this case, this could be a baptism, the acceptance of a new name during a religious initiation, or the change of one's own name in court.

Second, everybody has or owns a name. Here the roles are the person having the name (Possessor), and the name (NAME). Cross-linguistically, this frame is usually expressed with possessive relationships, e.g. *her name* (attributive possession), *she has a beautiful name* (predicative possession). But because a name is not a concrete and tangible object, these expressions are based on an underlying conceptual metaphor that IDEAS ARE OBJECTS (Lakoff & Johnson 1999: 124f.). This can also be seen in other expressions, e.g. *my plan* or *to have a plan*.⁷ A culture-specific case can be found among the Iatmul in Papua New Guinea who "believe that there is a mystical connection between a name and its bearer" (Moutu 2013: 147).

Third, there are at least two subevents for making the acquaintance of a person that correspond to the two dialogues from Sibe above. These include either

⁷In addition, the conceptual metonymies that the NAME STANDS FOR A PERSON and that the FACE STANDS FOR A PERSON are often combined with this, e.g. in a passport. For instance, when looking at a photo of a person's face it is possible to say *This is Sam*.

two persons (three roles: Asker, Addressee, Name) or three persons (four roles: Introducer, Person A, Person B, Names).

Fourth, after giving a name or after having made the acquaintance of a person, one has the knowledge of that person's name. This subevent has three roles, the person knowing the name (knower), the person whose name is known (known), and the name (name). Knowing other people's names is part of the common ground. Forgetting somebody's name can lead to severe social awkwardness. Depending on the society, a certain amount of control can for instance be associated with knowing a person's name.

Fifth, when knowing a person's name, one (the CALLER) can refer to that person (CALLED) by his or her name (NAME), either in a direct address (vocative) or in the third person. The name theoretically identifies the exact individual. Depending on the type of naming in a given culture, namesakes can lead to more or less problems (see Moutu 2013: 145ff. for an extreme example). Conversely, one person can have several different names. In certain cases, uttering a specific name can be a taboo.

The PNQ is part of the acquainting subevent, more specifically subevent 3a, but is based on several aspects of the personal name frame. Questions of Type A combine 3a with subevent 2 (HAVING A NAME), and Type B with subevent 5 (CALLING BY NAME). There is a mapping of the roles of the two combined subevents (Table 5). In addition to the roles, the three subevents also contain semantic relations not specified above that can be indicated as ASK (a type of question), CALL (a form of speech act), and HAVE (a possessive relationship), respectively.

Table 5: Combinations of subevents and roles in the two main PNQ types

Туре	Subevent 1	Subevent 2	Combined Roles/Relations
Type A	ACQUAINTING (2 persons)	HAVING A NAME	ASKER = \emptyset , ADDRESSEE = POSSESSOR NAME = NAME ASK + HAVE
Туре В	ACQUAINTING (2 persons)	CALLING BY NAME	ASK + HAVE ASKER = CALLER ADDRESSEE = CALLED NAME = NAME ASK + CALL

Using Langacker's (2008: 66) terminology, one could say that different PNQs highlight or *profile* different aspects of the underlying frame that functions as a base. For instance, even though Type B does not necessarily refer to subevent 2 (HAVING A NAME), a speaker must still be aware of it in order to ask the question in the first place.

4 'What's your name?' in Tungusic

The question 'What is your name?' has been recorded for the majority of the Tungusic languages and in a considerable number of dialects. To the best of my knowledge, the PNQ is not documented in Arman, Bala, Lalin/Jing Manchu, the two Jurchen varieties, and Kili (Kur-Urmi Nanai). However, for all these languages, similar constructions or at least individual words, such as 'name' are attested. Only for Chinese Kyakala there is no information on the PNQ at all.

As expected, Tungusic languages show a certain amount of variation in how they express the question. Nevertheless, all constructions exhibit a cognate of the Tungusic word for 'name'. This word functions as some kind of *anchor* around which all PNQs are built. One example with the optional Mongolic word apart, no other word for 'name' is attested in these constructions. This lexical item is addressed in §4.2.

4.1 Second person pronoun and genitive

All Tungusic languages preserve cognates of Proto-Tungusic *si 'you (sg)' (e.g., Benzing 1956: 109). There are some well-known phonological changes, such as s > c before i in some Jurchenic varieties, or s > h in some Even dialects. The PERSONAL PRONOUN can often be absent and is less central for the personal name question. Apart from Jurchenic, Tungusic languages also employ a grammaticalized version of this personal pronoun as possessive marker as in the following example from Ulcha (54) (see Ikegami 1985 for details):

```
(54) Ulcha (Angina 1993: 3) 
 si(∂) g∂lbu-si nguj? 
 2sg name-2sg.poss who
```

In Proto-Tungusic, the personal pronoun *si has an oblique form *si.n-, for example for the genitive *si.n-i. The presence of the -n- in oblique forms is a phenomenon found throughout the pronominal system of Tungusic and neighbouring languages, such as Mongolic. The genitive is retained, for example, in written

Manchu si.n-i '2SG.OBL-GEN' and suwe.n-i '2PL.OBL-GEN'. In some languages the genitive -i changed to -u in the plural pronouns due to a progressive vowel assimilation, e.g. Uilta si.n-i 'your (sG)', but su.n-u 'your (PL)' (Tsumagari 2009b: 7). In a few languages, for example in Even (hi.n) and Bala (ci.n), the oblique form was retained in genitive function, although the genitive itself was lost. In several other languages, such as Udihe, the genitive was functionally lost, but still functions as a stem for the possessive forms, e.g. $si.n-i-\eta i$ 'yours (sG)', $su.\tilde{n}-u-\eta u$ 'yours (PL)' (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 336). In some languages, possessive forms of this sort developed a meaning similar to a genitive (e.g., 11), which led to a probably erroneous reconstruction of the genitive in Benzing (1956: 79).

4.2 The Tungusic word for 'name'

Traditionally, the Tungusic word for 'name' is reconstructed as $*g\ddot{a}rb\ddot{u}$ (Benzing 1956: 49). While this reconstruction is reasonably robust, it is slightly misleading as the reconstructed $*\ddot{a}$ must actually have been pronounced as schwa [ə], as in the majority of the modern languages. Janhunen (1991: 40), perhaps based on Khamnigan Evenki $g \partial r b \ddot{u}$, reconstructs Tungusic $*g \partial r b \ddot{u}$ with a long vowel in the second syllable. While a long vowel can also be found in other Evenki dialects, for example Sakhalin Evenki $g \partial r b \ddot{u}$ (Bulatova & Cotrozzi 2004) or Nercha Evenki $g \partial r b \ddot{u}$ (Khabtagaeva 2022 [this volume]), this seems to be an innovation rather than a retention. Cognates of $*g \ddot{a} r b \ddot{u}$ 'name' are collected, among others, in Schmidt (1923a,b, 1928a,b), Benzing (1956: 49), Cincius (1975/77: 180f.), Lie (1978: 143), Kazama (2003: 68), Doerfer & Knüppel (2004: 336), or Chaoke (2014c: 300f.).

The earliest recordings of Tungusic are in Jurchen, which is a cover term for at least two different varieties that, for lack of better terms and in analogy to similar cases such as Tocharian, can be called Jurchen A (*gebu 革卜, Kiyose 1977) and Jurchen B (*gebu 革不, Kane 1989). The word recorded for these two varieties of Jurchen are identical to written Manchu gebu, which is attested from the 17th century onward (e.g., Norman 2013). Apart from Jurchen and Manchu, some of the oldest records of the word for 'name' have been made for Evenki and Even. For instance, at the beginning of the 18th century Witsen (1705: 654) mentioned Evenki gerbisch 'your name', which can be analyzed as gerbi-f 'name-2sg.poss'. Pallas (1786, 1789: 169) listed gorbi/горби for Evenki dialects and gerbi-n"/гербинъ for Even. A form garbi-n was recorded in 1808 by Koshewin (von Klaproth 1817: 224). To mention but some more examples, the word has been recorded as gärbî or garbi-n in 1810 by Spassky (Castrén 1856: 107, 128). Schiefner already correctly equated Evenki gärbî with Manchu gebu (see Castrén 1856: x). Two of the earliest recordings of the word in Nanai (specifically the Ussuri dialect) in the 19th

century are *gerbi*/герби or *gerbu*/гербу (Brylkin["] 1861) and *gorbi-ni* (Venukoff 1862; Alonso de la Fuente 2011: 20). The Nanai form *ģerbú* listed in the dictionary by Grube (1900) was also collected around the middle of the 19th century. For many other languages, data are only available from the 20th century onward.

The reconstructed \ddot{u} in $\ddot{g}arb\ddot{u}$ 'name' underwent a regular sound change to i in Northern Tungusic languages (Ewenic and Udegheic) and to u in Southern Tungusic (Nanaic and Jurchenic), e.g. Orogen gərbi, Oroch gəbbi, but Nanai gərbu, Manchu *gebu*. The same sound change can be seen in the interrogative *nüi 'who', e.g. Orogen nii, Oroch n'ii, but Nanai ui (Uilta nui), Manchu we (see also Hölzl 2018a: 314). Only Even (gərbə), Arman (gerbu, gurbu), and one recording of Orogen or Solon (gerbu in Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 1) might represent special cases in Northern Tungusic. However, other recordings of Orogen and Solon as well as the Even form gerbi-recorded by Pallas (1786, 1789: 169) contain the expected i (cf. also Arman nii and Even ni(i) 'who'). Apart from that, there have been several language-specific developments. The r has been, probably regularly, lost in Jurchenic (e.g., Lalin/Jing Manchu gəbu) and changed to l in several languages around the lower Amur, including Uilta (gəlbu), Ulcha (gəlbu), and Lower Negidal (gölbi [gəlbi], Schmidt 1923a: 18, gilbi with additional regressive vowel assimilation, Khasanova & Pevnov 2003: 7). The l is already attested in data collected at the beginning of the 20th century, i.e. Uilta gylbó-ni/gylbú(-ni), Ulcha gýlbu in Piłsudski (Majewicz 2011: 258, 817) and Ulcha gölbu [gəlbu] in Schmidt (1923b: 251). The consonant cluster *rb, possibly via *lb, developed into a cluster db in Upper Negidal (gədbi, Natalia Aralova p.c. 2019), gb in Bikin Udihe (gegbi), and into the geminate bb in Oroch (gabbi). Huihe Solon gabbi also has a geminate, but other Solon dialects preserve the consonant cluster -rb-, e.g. Ongkor Solon gerbi (Aalto 1977: 63). These are mostly regular changes with parallels, for example, in the cluster *lb as in Proto-Tungusic *dolba 'night', e.g. Manchu dobo-(ri), Bikin Udihe dogbo, Oroch dobbo etc. (Benzing 1956: 46; Kazama 2003: 50; Doerfer & Knüppel 2004: 234).8 In a few recordings, an epenthetic vowel seems to have been inserted (either by the speakers themselves or the researchers) to avoid the consonant cluster (e.g., Orogen or Solon geribé in Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 1, Uilta geribu in Nakanome 1928: 52). The consonant cluster as such is preserved in several Ewenic (e.g., Evenki gərbi) and Nanaic languages (e.g., Samar görbu [gərbu], Schmidt 1923a). In Jurchenic, the final vowel was sometimes lost and the b underwent regular intervocalic spirantization in several Manchu dialects

 $^{^8}$ Some languages show a slightly different pattern for *lb . For instance, one subgroup of Jurchenic preserved a reflex of the l, i.e. Bala dolobo (Mu 1987: 17), Jurchen A 多羅斡 [duo luo wo] (Kiyose 1977: 101), etc.

Some languages, in addition to the autochthonous reflex of $*g\ddot{a}rb\ddot{u}$, have borrowed the Manchu word, but with a special semantics (e.g., Benzing 1956: 18, 49; Alonso de la Fuente 2011: 27; Khabtagaeva 2022 [this volume], Table 6). This led to doublets, such as Udihe gegbi 'name' vs. gebu 'honor' (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001). The latter word must represent a borrowing because an intervocalic b is otherwise only retained in Jurchenic (e.g., Benzing 1956: 34).

Language	Name	Source
Kili	gəbu	Sunik 1958: 170
Nanai	gəbu	Benzing 1956: 18
Oroch	gəbu	Avrorin & Lebedeva 1978: 175
Udihe	gebu	Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 930
Ulcha	gəbu	Benzing 1956: 18
Ussuri Nanai	gəbə	Sem 1976: 150

Table 6: Manchu gebu 'name' in other Tungusic languages

The Manchu borrowing in other Tungusic languages usually has a slightly different meaning, such as 'honor', which makes it less important for the purposes of this study. A similar doublet can be found, for instance, in Kili (Kur-Urmi Nanai), i.e. *gərbi* 'name' (Sunik 1958: 116) vs. *gəbu* 'honor, authority, respect' (Sunik 1958: 170). But in this case, both forms are a borrowing from another language. Apart from Kili, also Bala, Kilen, and Ussuri Nanai must have borrowed

the word for 'name' from a Northern Tungusic and more exactly an Ewenic language. For Bala, this was misinterpreted by Mu (1988: 17) as an autochthonous development. But clearly, the words are from a form similar or identical to Evenki (see Table 7). If these were not borrowings, in all four languages the final vowel should be an u as in Manchu gebu or Nanai garbu. Brylkin" (1861: 12) recorded both gerbi (borrowed) and gerbu (autochthonous) among the Ussuri Nanai.

Language	Name	Source
Bala	gərbi	Mu 1987: 14
Kilen	gerbi	Dong 2016: 337
	gərbi	An 1986: 96
Kili	gərbi	Kazama 2003: 68
	gərbi	Sunik 1958: 116
Ussuri Nanai	gərb'i	Sem 1976: 150
	gorbi-ni	Venukoff 1862
	gerbi	Brylkin" 1861: 12

Table 7: The Ewenic word for 'name' (e.g., Evenki $g \partial r b i$) in Southern Tungusic

In many languages, *gärbü is the basis for the derivation of verbs, e.g. Manchu gebu-le-'to name, to call by name', Uilta gəlbullee-'to give a name to', Udihe gegbi-si-'to call', Evenki gerbi-te-'to be named' etc., but these are not often encountered in the personal name question.

Among Tungusic languages, only Jurchenic has a gender-like distinction. Even in Jurchenic, this is restricted to a few nouns that show an ablaut phenomenon, e.g. Manchu *haha* 'man', *hehe* 'woman'. The Manchu word *gebu* 'name' does not belong to this set of nouns.

All branches of Tungusic except for Jurchenic have a limited system of possessive classification, making use of what is usually referred to as alienable possessive marker, e.g. Udihe $-\eta i$, Uilta $-\eta u$ etc. For instance, the noun dili 'head' in Udihe can be used with and without $-\eta i$ (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 135). The word for 'name' does not belong to the set of nouns that can be marked with the suffix, i.e. it is probably not conceptualized as alienable.

⁹Additionally, the *r* would perhaps have to be absent in the Bala form as in Manchu *gebu*, although Bala is more conservative than Manchu in this particular feature, e.g. Bala *bardi*-, Manchu *banji*- 'to live', Bala *dɔrdi*-, Manchu *donji*- 'to hear' (Mu 1987, slightly corrected).

4.3 Ewenic

The question is known from all Ewenic languages, with the exception of Arman. Almost all Ewenic examples below are copula sentences (Type A). In Even, two different patterns are attested, but both contain the same interrogative meaning 'who'. Consider the following two question-answer sequences:

- (55) Eastern Even (Beryozovka; Kim 2011: 189, corrected)
 - a. *hi ŋi gərbə-s?*2sg who name-2sg.poss
 - b. *mi.n gərbə-w garpok*. 1sg.obl.gen name-1sg.poss pn
- (56) Lamunkhin Even (Natalia Aralova p.c. 2019)
 - a. *hi gərbə-s pi:?* 2sg name-2sg.poss who
 - b. *bi gərbə-w taisiya*.

 1sg name-1sg.poss pn

In both examples, the question makes use of the nominative form of the personal pronoun. In Lamunkhin Even, not even the answer exhibits the genitive. Notably, only the interrogative, but not the personal name of the answer can stand before the word for 'name'. Because the person is already marked on the head noun, the personal pronoun can be absent in Even and, as will be seen, in several other Tungusic languages.

Given the overall similarity of Arman to Even, the question might have been very similar as well. The individual elements of the Even examples above have the following form in Arman: \$\si\$ '2SG', \$nii\$ 'who', \$gerbu\$, \$gurbu\$ 'name, title etc.', \$-s/-SI/-čI '-2sg.poss' (Doerfer & Knüppel 2013: 28, 133, 138, 228, 302f., transcription slightly changed). Consequently, the question might have been something like *\si\$ nii gerbu-s? or *\si\$ gerbu-s nii? (constructed). However, only the following example with a verb derived from \$gerbu\$ is attested in the material available to me:

(57) Arman (Doerfer & Knüppel 2013: 30, transcription slightly changed) teemii teek gerbuutte kamčidalal'ji. therefore now call.nfut[3pl] pn

'Therefore, they now call themselves Kamchadals.'

The same possibility of the interrogative to precede or follow the word for 'name' as in Even is also observed in Evenki. The following example from the Sakhalin dialect has the interrogative after the word for 'name' (the same can be found in Konstantinova 1964: 41). As early as the 19th century an example with a preposed interrogative has been recorded.

- (58) Sakhalin Evenki (Bulatova & Cotrozzi 2004: 58)
 gərbī-s ŋī?
 name-2sg.poss who
- (59) Viljuj Evenki (Maak" 1859: xviii; Schiefner 1878: 144)

 ni gärbi-s?

 who name-2sg.poss

The absence of the personal pronoun (si in Maak" 1859: xix, $s\bar{\imath}$ in Bulatova & Cotrozzi 2004: 58) is also attested in Even.

- (60) Even (Idiatov 2007: 307)

 gerbe-s ni?

 name-2sg.poss who
- (61) Even (Benzing 1955: 176) $\eta \bar{\iota}$ gárba-s? who name-2sg.poss

This can also be observed in other Evenki recordings, such as the following example from the Eastern dialect:

- (62) Eastern Evenki (Makarova 1999: 16)
 - a. *ni*: gərbi:-s? who name-2sg.poss
 - b. *bi: gərbi:-v* ando. 1sg name-1sg.poss pN

Similar to Even above, the interrogative stands in a focus position before the dummy noun while the personal name in the answer follows. Seemingly, the same asymmetry of the question and the answer has also been recorded for Aoluguva Evenki in China. ¹⁰

¹⁰The analysis by Hasibate'er (2016: 278) is *cini*, i.e. *ci.n-i* '2sg.obl-gen', which leads to an example without interrogative, which is unlikely.

- (63) Aoluguya Evenki (Hasibate'er 2016: 278)
 - a. *ci ni gərbi-ci?*2sg who name-2sg.poss
 - b. *bi gərbi-w məre*.

 1sg name-1sg.poss pn

By comparing Even and Evenki dialects with the close relative Oroqen in China, a very similar pattern with the interrogative in second position can sometimes be observed.

- (64) Evenki (Boldyrev 2000: 134) si **ŋi** gərbi-s? 2sg who name-2sg.poss
- (65) Oroqen (Chaoke 2014a: 8) shi ni gerbi-shi?
 2sg who name-2sg.poss

This suggests a relatively high age of this phenomenon among Ewenic languages. All examples given so far contain a cognate of the Tungusic interrogative *ŋüi 'who'. The same interrogative can also be found in the personal name question of some Udegheic and Nanaic varieties, but not in Jurchenic. Apart from Even and Evenki, many Ewenic languages also employ different interrogatives. In most Solon dialects, *ŋüi has been replaced by a selective interrogative meaning 'which (one)' that is also found in the personal name question.

(66) Huihe Solon (Tsumagari 2009a: 15) si.n-ii gebbi-si aawu? 2SG.OBL-GEN name-2SG.POSS who

This latter construction has an exact parallel in the following Dagur example, although the use of the nominative *ši:* 'you (sG)' is also possible.

(67) Tacheng Dagur (Khitano-Mongolic; Yu et al. 2008: 173)

šin nər-šin anja?

2SG.OBL.GEN name-2SG.POSS who

Both Solon and Dagur have an innovative personal interrogative that replaced Tungusic $*\eta\ddot{u}i$ 'who' and Mongolic *ken 'who', respectively. This innovation in Solon appears to have later spread to Oroqen. This interrogative is already attested in the recordings by Ivanovskiy from the end of the 19th century that are usually taken to represent Solon (e.g., Lie 1978).

(68) Butkha Solon (Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 1)¹¹ geribé **agó**? name who

Unlike Huihe Solon, however, no geminate can be found in the word *geribé* 'name'. In fact, Ivanovskiy mentions three additional expressions, all of which appear to be closer to Orogen than Solon:

- (69) "Manegir" (Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 1)
 - a. *ší.n-i* gerbu **ní**? 2SG.OBL-GEN name who
 - b. *ni gerbu bí-či?* who name COP-?PRS
 - c. **jému** gerbi-čí? which name-poss

Notably, two of the examples still have a cognate of * $\eta\ddot{u}i$ 'who' that shows the same syntactic behavior as in Even and Evenki. Alternatively, $ner\acute{e}$ 'name' is said to be used in (69a), which is the Mongolic word (see examples 20, 67, 73, 119, 125).

Examples (69a) and (69b) are also similar to Even and Evenki, although they appear to lack a possessive marker. The second example is one of the few examples among Tungusic languages that has an overt copula in a Type A construction. A copula is also present in a more recent example from Oroqen that shares the absence of the possessive marker as well as the interrogative of the last example (69c) from Ivanovskiy.

(70) Xunke Oroqen (Zhang, Yanchang, Li Bing, et al. 1989: 141) ¢i: jEma gərbi bi-çi-ni?

2sg which name COP-PRS-3sg

Phonological differences apart, the following two Oroqen sentences are identical to (69c) (see also 106 from Kilen). Some Ewenic languages, such as Oroqen, use the comitative or possessive suffix instead of the second person possessive marker. These are sometimes difficult to differentiate.

(71) Gankui Oroqen (Sa 1981: 51)¹²
yam gerbi-qi?
which name-poss

¹¹What is tentatively transcribed as -g- here remains partly unclear.

¹²The <q> in this transcription is based on the Chinese Pinyin system, where it stands for [tç^h].

```
(72) Shengli Oroqen (Han & Meng 1993: 303)

jeema kərpi-tf`i?

which name-poss
```

Ivanovskiy (1982 [1894]: 3) mentions two Dagur examples, one of which contains a selective interrogative that might have influenced the choice and position of the interrogative in Oroqen, although the two are probably not etymologically related.

```
(73) Dagur (Khitano-Mongolic; Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 3) si jamár neré?
2sg which name
```

The same interrogative as in Oroqen is also found in an example from Negidal, albeit in a different syntactic position. This is not the same variation as observed for $\eta\ddot{u}i$ 'who', however, because this selective interrogative has an attributive function if preceding the dummy noun. In other words, we are dealing with a Type A.1 construction in Negidal (74), but with a Type A.2 construction in Oroqen (69c, 70, 71, 72).

```
(74) Lower Negidal (Kazama 2002: 80) sii gilbi-si eema?
2sg.poss which
```

Oroqen and Evenki dialects in China also make use of a THING interrogative, potentially influenced by languages such as Manchu or Chinese. The following two examples likewise are instances of Type A.1 (75) and Type A.2 (76), respectively:

```
(75) Khamnigan Evenki (Tsumagari 1992: 96) ar-nii gərbii ikun? this-GEN name what 'What is the name of this?'
```

(76) Khamnigan Evenki (Chaoke & Kajia 2016: 9) su ikon gərbi-tsi wee?

2PL what name-poss co

The use of the interrogative *ikun* in (75) might be due to the fact that it does not refer to the name of a person.

One Solon dialect employs *oni* 'how', which might be due to Russian influence (see 26). Given that this interrogative cannot be used attributively, the example contains fronting as in other Ewenic languages.

(77) Arong Solon (Chaoke & Kalina 2017: 17)

fi oni gəbbi-fe?

2sg how name-Poss

The use of Manner interrogatives is more common in Udegheic and Nanaic but can also be observed in one recording of Negidal. In the following examples, the interrogative *o:n* either stands in the unexpected sentence-initial position even before the personal pronoun or in the same position as the proper name in the answer.

- (78) Upper Negidal (Natalia Aralova p.c. 2019)
 - a. **o**:**n** si gədbi-s? how 2sG name-2sG.poss
 - b. si gədbi-s o:n? 2sg name-2sg.poss how
 - c. *bi* gədbi-β **Antonina** 1sg name-1sg.poss pN

The sentence-initial position of the interrogative in front of the pronoun, which is otherwise unattested in the PNQ in Tungusic, is clearly due to Russian influence and is a typical European feature (Dryer 2013).

Oroqen and Solon have been more strongly influenced by Mongolic languages than most other Ewenic language. In both languages, there is an alternative Type B construction that is often found in answers to the personal name question. The Type A.2 construction, as in Jurchenic, lacks the genitive in Oroqen.

- (79) Nanmu Oroqen (Chaoke 2007: 140, corrected)
 - a. *fi* **ikon** gərbi-tfe? 2sg what name-poss
 - b. *mi.ŋi* gərbi-wi **tumbutfə** gunən.
 1sg.obl.gen name-1sg.poss pn say.3sg
- (80) Solon (Chaoke et al. 2014: 8)
 - a. *shi.n-i gebbi-shi awu?* 2sg.obl-gen name-2sg.poss who
 - b. *mi.n-i* gebbi-wi ... gunөŋ. 1SG.OBL-GEN name-1SG.POSS (PN) say.3SG

This construction appears to be impossible in the PNQ with the transitive verb *gun*- 'to say' in Evenki and other Ewenic languages. Another Type B construction, although calqued from Russian, is found in Negidal. Similar to the Arman example above, the verb is derived from the word *gadbi* 'name'.

```
    (81) Upper Negidal (Natalia Aralova p.c. 2019)
    mi.nə-βə gədbittçə Ton'a
    1SG.OBL-ACC call.NFUT[3PL] PN
```

Ivanovskiy (1982 [1894]) recorded an answer without a speech act verb.

```
(82) "Manegir" (Ivanovskiy 1982 [1894]: 1)

mi.n-i gerbú ...

1SG.OBL-GEN name (PN)
```

Although ellipsis cannot be ruled out, this might be additional evidence that the Type B construction is a recent innovation in these languages.

4.4 Udegheic

For both Oroch and Udihe several different expressions have been recorded. Except for the following Type B example, Udegheic makes use of copula sentences. Example (83a) from Udihe seems to be entirely based on Russian while the answer (83b) is similar to Ewenic languages and represents the original Tungusic construction.

- (83) Udihe (Tsumagari 2011: 81, 85)
 - a. si.n-awa ono gegbi-si-ti? 2SG.OBL-ACC how name-v-3PL
 - b. *bii gegbi-i Tausima*.

 1sg name-1sg.poss pn

Some of the oldest examples for Udegheic have been recorded around 1900 by Brailovski. Schmidt corrected the sentences, but misinterpreted n 'who' in (84) as a possessive marker. It is an interrogative that derives from n "n instead.

(84) Oroch (Bochi river; Schmidt 1928a: 20, from Brailovski, corrected) si gabi ņi?
2sg name who

- (85) ? Udihe (Samarga river; Schmidt 1928a, from Brailovski, corrected)si gabi jav?2sg name what
- (86) Udihe (Nakhtu river; Schmidt 1928a, from Brailovski, corrected)si gagbi jau?2sg name what

It is unclear whether the last example (86) might contain a fused second person possessive marker -(h)i (< *-si) as in the following modern examples from the Khor and Bikin dialects (see also Perekhvalskaya 2022 [this volume], on intervocalic s and its reflexes in Udegheic):

- (87) Khor Udihe (Elena Perekhvalskaya, p.c. 2019) si gəgbi-**hi j'əu**?
 2sg name-2sg.poss what
- (88) Bikin Udihe (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 804) si gegbi-i j'eu?
 2sg name-2sg.poss what

The use of a personal interrogative (Udihe ni(i), Oroch n'ii) seems to be much more restricted than in Ewenic and Nanaic. Apart from $j'\partial_-u$ 'what' (ja-v) and ja-u in Brailovski), which is cognate with Oroqen i-kon, and Khamnigan Evenki i-kun or i-kon above, Udihe can also employ ono ($<^*oni$) 'how' in the same construction.

(89) Udihe (Tsumagari 2006: 6) sii gegbi-i ono?
2sg name-2sg.poss how

Oroch also uses a cognate of this interrogative. In the following example, there is an additional overt copula that is not usually found in the Udihe examples (see §4.5 on Nanaic). As in Ewenic, the personal pronoun can be absent.

(90) Oroch (Avrorin & Lebedeva 1978: 175)

gəbbi-si ōn'i bi?

name-2sg.poss how cop

While Oroch also has a construction without a copula, according to one author a different interrogative meaning 'how' can be employed.

(91) Oroch (Lopatin 1957, corrected) si gabы-si yavanká/yanká? 2sg name-2sg.poss how

In sum, the Udegheic PNQ shows a strong tendency for Type A and more specifically Type A.1. As opposed to Ewenic, Type A.2 is not attested and one Type B construction in Udihe can be plausibly explained by Russian influence. Apart from this example, fronting of the interrogative is absent in the Udegheic PNQ.

4.5 Nanaic

Brylkin" (1861) very early recorded the following question among the Ussuri Nanai:

(92) Ussuri Nanai (Brylkin" 1861: 21)¹³
gerbi-si xamaca?
name-2sg.poss which

This interrogative (χ amača 'which (one)' in Sem 1976: 62) is not attested in any other Tungusic PNQ. The question appears to be otherwise unattested for Kili¹⁴ and Ussuri Nanai. But for both languages similar constructions have been recorded.

(93) Kili (Sunik 1958: 116, 122, shortened)

asi-ni gərbi-ni

woman-3sg.poss name-3sg.poss

'the name of his wife'

This example from Kili also suggests that a Type A construction might have been used. A PNQ in the third person is attested for Ussuri Nanai.

(94) Ussuri Nanai (Sem 1976: 38)
s'i am'ı-s'ı gərb'i-n'i **χαι** χala-n'i **χαι**?
2sg father-2sg.poss name-3sg.poss what clan-3sg.poss what 'What's your father's name and what's his surname?'

A similar case, but with a personal interrogative borrowed from Northern Tungusic can be found in Kilen.

¹³The Russian translation was *kak" nazyvaetsja?* 'How is (it) called?'

¹⁴For convenience, Kili and Kilen are discussed in this subsection, but they exhibit many features from other Tungusic languages.

(95) Kilen (Dong 2016: 49, slightly modified)¹⁵

xi hale ni, gerbi ni?

2sg clan who name who

According to Schmidt (1928b: 241), northern Nanai (Samar) has similar questions without a possessive marker, but in the reverse order, perhaps based on Manchu influence. The questions about the clan name in all three languages probably represent cultural influence from Manchu and seem to contain the loanword hala 'clan'. 16

- (96) Samar (Schmidt 1928b: 241)
 - a. *xai* $\bar{g}\ddot{o}rbu$? what name
 - b. *xai xala?* what clan

The personal name question in Ussuri Nanai might have been *s'i gərb'i-s'i xar? (constructed) as in the following Nanai example. In Nanai, however, both xaj 'what' and uj 'who' can be employed (Ussuri Nanai ui):

(97) Nanai (Avrorin 1959: 274) si gərbu-si xaj/uj? 2sg name-2sg.poss what/who

The latter example has an exact equivalence in Ulcha.

(98) Ulcha (Schmidt 1923b: 235) si gölbu-si **uji**? 2sg name-2sg.poss who

Nanai has several different possibilities of expressing the question. Apart from the construction above, there is one influenced by Russian making use of a MANNER interrogative.

(99) Nanai (Ko & Yurn 2011: 151) swə gərbu-su xo:ni bi? 2PL name-2PL.POSS how COP 'What is your (SG.POL) name?'

 $^{^{15}}$ <x> stands for [c].

¹⁶Ewenic languages of Manchuria also have similar expressions, e.g. Oroqen *shi ikun kal?* 'What is your surname?' (Chaoke 2014a: 9).

An almost identical example with a copula is found in Ulcha.

```
(100) Ulcha (Angina 1993: 3)
si.n gəlbu-si xon bi-ni?
2SG.OBL.GEN name-2SG.POSS how COP-3SG
```

In answers, Nanai has more or less the same construction as in Ewenic and Udegheic with the personal name following the word for 'name':

```
(101) Nanai (Ko & Yurn 2011: 151) 
mi gərbu-i tanja.
1sG name-1sG.Poss PN
'My name is Tanja.'
```

Uilta is special among Nanaic languages in showing a regular content question marker that is unattested in the rest of Tungusic and might be a Nivkh borrowing (Hölzl 2018a: 39, 302–305).

- (102) Uilta (Nakanome 1928: 52; Ikegami 1997: 67)
 - a. sî.n-i geribu-si **hai=ga**? 2SG.OBL-GEN name-2SG.POSS what=CQ
 - b. si.n-i gəlbu-si **xai=gaa**? 2SG.OBL-GEN name-2SG.POSS what=CQ

In another recording, an example from Uilta uses a personal interrogative. This suggests that the same synchronic variation as in Nanai might be present. The genitive is obligatory in the southern dialect but absent in the northern (Patryk Czerwinski, p.c. 2020).

```
(103) Uilta (Ozolinja 2001: 72)

si gəlbu-si ŋui=yə?

2sg name-2sg.poss who=co
```

But all three examples share the special question marker =KA(A) that is only attested in Uilta. This question marker is also found in the following example that contains the interrogative *xooni* 'how' (cognate of Solon *oni*, Negidal *o:n*, Udihe *ono*, Oroch $\bar{o}n$ 'i, Nanai xo:ni, and Ulcha xon above).

```
(104) Uilta (Patryk Czerwinski, p.c. 2019) 

xooni=ka naa gəlbu-ni?
how=cQ INTERJ name-3sg.poss
'But what's its name?'
```

As in Negidal, the sentence-initial position of the interrogative is probably based on Russian.

In Kilen, another special case in Nanaic, one example has been recorded that differs in its interrogative from all the other Tungusic languages. Semantically, however, yanemi is a Manner interrogative and might have been directly or indirectly influenced by Russian. The stem ya-'what, which' is cognate with Oroqen i(-kon), Udihe j'a(-u) etc. The combination of the dummy noun with the speech act verb also suggests some Chinese influence.

```
(105) Kilen (Dong 2016: 37)<sup>17</sup>

xn gerbi-xi ya-ne-mi hudarewye?

2SG.OBL.GEN name-2SG.POSS what-v-cvb.ipfv call
```

Another Kilen example has an equivalent in Oroqen (§4.3). In fact, not only the dummy noun *gerbi*, but also the interrogative *yama* is from Ewenic.

```
(106) Kilen (Chaoke 2014b: 8)
shi yama gerbi-shi?
2sg which name-2sg.poss
```

Nanaic, like Ewenic and Udegheic, has a tendency for Type A.1. Isolated Type A.2 constructions in Samar and Kilen are most likely based on Jurchenic or Ewenic influence. Similar to Ewenic, the genitive is only occasionally attested in the PNQ. Fronting is almost entirely absent and based on the Russian pattern.

4.6 Jurchenic

Although the person is not marked on the head noun, the personal pronoun can also be absent in Jurchenic languages. According to one source, Manchu can make use of a personal interrogative we 'who'.

```
(107) Manchu (Avrorin 2000: 113)

si.n-i gebu ?we?

2SG.OBL-GEN name who
```

However, this appears to be a mistake, perhaps based on the author's knowledge of Nanai, as all other sources invariably give the interrogative ai 'what' instead. This interrogative is cognate with the Nanaic form encountered above, e.g. Uilta xai. In Sibe, an optional question marker can attach at the end of the PNQ.

¹⁷ xn with initial [c-] goes back to si.n-i.

```
(108) Sibe (Sameng et al. 2010: 447)<sup>18</sup>
xi.n-\check{i} gev ai=ye?

2SG.OBL-GEN name what=0
```

Apart from the universal use of this interrogative, Manchu dialects seemingly show the same variation as the Ewenic languages. The interrogative can precede or follow the noun, the personal pronoun can be absent, and it can take a genitive if the interrogative is postposed. But Jurchenic has a tendency for preposed interrogatives.

- (109) Yibuqi Manchu (Zhao 1989: 127) ɛi kowə? what name
- (110) Aihui Manchu (Wang 2005: 208) $ci \quad \varepsilon \quad gavo?$ 2sG what name
- (111) Sanjiazi Manchu (Enhebatu 1995: 39) ci ai gu:bu?

 2sg what name

Furthermore, these are Type A.2 constructions in which the interrogative stands attributively to the dummy noun. There is no fronting as in Ewenic.

Manchu in Yanbian close to the North Korean border is only preserved in some isolated words and expressions among which there is the following:¹⁹

```
(112) Yanbian Manchu (Zhao 2000: 19) 
ai hala (keci)? 
what surname ? 
'What's your surname (clan name)?'
```

While the same expression *ai hala* is also attested in classical Manchu (e.g., Hauer 2007: 217), the *Qingwen Qimeng*, one of the most influential descriptions of Manchu, also contains the following example with reversed word order:

 $^{^{18}}$ In this example, <x> also stands for [¢].

¹⁹The meaning of *keci* is not clear. It could theoretically correspond to Manchu *se-ci* 'say-CVB.COND', but this is problematic on phonological grounds. It could also corresponds to Manchu *o-ci* 'become-CVB.COND', which can be a topic marker. Alchuka is known to have an occasional initial *k*- in this word, i.e. (*k*)*ɔ*- (Mu 1986). A connection to Mongolian *g*(*e*)- 'to say' is unlikely.

```
(113) Manchu (Wuge & Cheng 1730: vol. 2; Wylie 1855: 82)

hala ai?

surname what
```

According to the same source, questions about personal names have the same structure with the interrogative following the noun.

```
(114) Manchu (Wuge & Cheng 1730: vol. 2; Wylie 1855: 82) gebu ai?
name what
```

According to Veronika Zikmundová (p.c., 2019), this postposed position of the interrogative is impossible in spoken Sibe. As seen above, it is also not very common in other Manchu dialects.

One special example that contains two copies of the word for 'name' (written Manchu *gebu*) is attested for Sanjiazi Manchu.

```
(115) Sanjiazi Manchu (Enhebatu 1995: 39)

cin gu:bu [ai gu:bu]?

2SG.OBL.GEN name what name
```

In a similar example from Sibe that is strongly influenced by the written language, the noun *nalma* 'person' (written Manchu *niyalma*) can occur twice. In this case, 'what name' seems to function as an attribute to 'person'.

```
(116) Sibe (Kałużyński 1977: 23)

ere nalma [ai gebu nalma]?

this person what name person

'What is this person's name?'
```

The sentence thus literally means 'A what-named person is this person?'

A major difference of Jurchenic with respect to most other Tungusic languages is the widespread use of questions of Type B. An occasional affricatization of *s* (Manchu *se*- 'to say') seen in the following Sibe example is also attested in other Jurchenic varieties (see also Chaoke 2014e: 8).

```
(117) Sibe (Chaoke 2006: 206)

şi.n-i gəvə-v ai dzi-m?

2SG.OBL-GEN name-ACC what say-IPFV
```

In the following parallel from written Manchu the optional accusative has been added.

```
(118) Manchu (He 2009: 21)

si.n-i gebu(-be) ai se-mbi?

2SG.OBL-GEN name(-ACC) what say-IPFV
```

Vovin (2006: 259) argues that Manchu se- is a Koreanic loanword. Admittedly, se-is unattested outside of Jurchenic and has all the hallmarks of being a borrowing. But Manchu se- has almost exactly the same range of functions as Mongolian g(e)- 'to say' (Janhunen 2012a: 283–285). On phonological grounds it cannot be a direct borrowing from Mongolian, but the underlying construction in the PNQ is almost identical to the one in Jurchenic. Consider the following answer to a PNQ.

```
(119) Mongolian (Janhunen 2012a: 283)

mi.n-ii ner-iig delger+maa ge-deg.

1SG.OBL-GEN name-ACC PN say-PTCP.HAB

'My name is Delgerma.'
```

This parallel with the same word order and the same functional elements suggests that the Jurchenic PNQ has been calqued from Mongolian, but the similarities of the verbs go beyond this construction.

In both languages, this intransitive (+ NAME) speech act verb here has a lexical function but is otherwise frequently used in grammatical functions, for example as a quotative. Depending on how the quotative is embedded into the sentence, it can have different forms that have parallels in both languages. For example, Mongolian *ge-deg* 'say-PTCP.HAB', functionally corresponds to Manchu *se-re* 'say-PTCP.IPFV' and can function as an attribute to a following noun or can take case markers. Mongolian *g-e.j* 'say-CVB.IPFV' functionally corresponds to Manchu *se-me* 'say-CVB.IPFV' and is used adverbially (e.g., Janhunen 2012a: 283). While these parallels cannot rule out a potential Koreanic origin of the Jurchenic verb, they nevertheless illustrate a much more intimate connection with Mongolic.

For instance, *se*-does not have the function of a speech act verb, but that of a quotative in the following example that contains the main verb $h\bar{u}la$ - 'to call'.

```
(120) Manchu (Schluessel 2014)

[si.n-i gebu-be ai] se.me hūla-mbi?

2SG.OBL-GEN name-ACC what QUOT call-IPFV
```

In the following construction, the same verb is used, but without quotative.

```
(121) Sanjiazi Manchu (Kim et al. 2008: 161) 
si aj gəwu xola-m?
2sg what name call-IPFV
```

In the former sentence, the entire part *sini gebu-be ai* is embedded by means of the quotative *se.me*. In the latter example, the question is not embedded. This example is most likely based on the Chinese construction (e.g., 15b) but it also resembles the Solon and Oroqen answers in §4.3.

While the PNQ is unknown in Bala, the words ci 'you (sg)', cin 'your (sg)', garbi 'name', and perhaps a(i)- 'what' are all attested (Mu 1987: 14, 25, 31). As seen above, the word garbi is of Northern Tungusic origin and must have been transmitted through a form of southern Nanai, such as Kilen.

The sentence is not attested in Alchuka and Lalin/Jing Manchu either. However, a similar construction in the third person has the following form:

- (122) Alchuka (Mu 1986: 14) tʻə.rə-i ?əəwə intʻuki. that-GEN name PN 'His name is Yentugi.'
- (123) Lalin Manchu (Aixinjueluo 1987: 14)

 te.re-i gebu yintuhi.

 that-GEN name PN

 'His name is Yentugi.'

As seen before, the dummy noun was also recorded as g
u b u for Alchuka. The cognate of written Manchu ai 'what' has the form (k)ai or ei in Alchuka and ai in Lalin/Jing Manchu. Written Manchu si 'you (sG)' and sin-i 'your (sG)' correspond to Alchuka ci/cin-i and Lalin/Jing Manchu si/sin-i. Written Manchu se- 'to say' has the form ts 'u- in Alchuka and u- in Lalin/Jing Manchu (Mu 1986; Aixinjueluo 1987).

The earliest recordings of Tungusic are in Jurchen, but to the best of my knowledge the sentence is not attested in these materials either. In Jurchen B, the second person pronoun is attested as *ši 失, the genitive as *-i 亦, and the word 'name' as *gebu 革不 (Kane 1989: 270, 272, 356). In Jurchen A, the second person pronoun apparently is not attested, but the equivalences of Manchu *min-i* 'my' and *gebu* 'name' have the forms **min-i* 密你 and **gebu* 革卜, respectively (Kiyose 1977: 138, 140, 145). It is likely that a comparable range of different constructions as in modern varieties of Manchu might have been present in these languages.

Jurchenic has several examples of all three types of constructions, Type A.1, Type A.2, and Type B. As seen above, Tungusic has otherwise few cases of A.2 and even fewer of Type B. Jurchenic is also the only subbranch of Tungusic that does not use the personal interrogative in the PNQ. The speech act verb *se*-found in Type B constructions is also unattested in other Tungusic languages. Jurchenic

lost head-marked possession and has extended the scope of the genitive to elements other than the speech act participants. All of these features can best be explained by an unusually strong impact from other languages, such as Khitano-Mongolic and perhaps Koreanic (e.g., Vovin 2006), rather than with an early branching of Jurchenic (e.g., Kazama 2003). As has been shown, the Jurchenic Type B construction is clearly a calque from Mongolian.

5 Discussion

5.1 The (re)construction in Proto-Tungusic

A personal name question must have already existed in Proto-Tungusic. The only element that all Tungusic languages without exception have in common in the PNQ is a cognate of the word *gärbü 'name'. The second person pronoun *si, which also functions as a possessive marker *-si in languages outside of Jurchenic, can be absent in some constructions, but is also attested in all Tungusic languages. The genitive form can be reconstructed as *si.n-i.

The interrogative is the element of the question that exhibits the most variation. However, apart from Jurchenic, all three other subbranches of Tungusic have at least some examples with a cognate of the interrogative *ŋüi 'who'. No other interrogative has such as wide distribution in the PNQs of Tungusic. Instances of *Kooni 'how' are also found in Ewenic, Udegheic, and Nanaic, but this widespread usage can be more plausibly explained with Russian influence all over the northern half of the Tungusic-speaking areas. The use of Tungusic *Kai²¹¹ in both Nanaic (e.g., Uilta xai) and Jurchenic (e.g., Manchu ai) could indicate that this is a Southern Tungusic innovation, although it is much more pervasive in Jurchenic than in Nanaic and likely due to language contact. Other interrogatives, such as *ja- 'which', can only be found in very few languages (e.g., Oroqen i(-kon), Udihe j'e(-u)).

The use of 'who' in the North and of 'what' in the South is part of a general areal division between languages around Siberia and Mongolia on the one hand and the surrounding languages (e.g., parts of Europe, China, Japan) on the other (e.g., Idiatov 2007; Gil 2018). Proto-Tungusic most likely was part of an area with 'who' and due to contact with Chinese and other languages changed its typological profile in the South. The increasing use of 'how' in the North is based on the Russian construction that represents a pattern found in many European languages.

²⁰Given the uncertainty of the initial, the abstract label *K - is used in this reconstruction (e.g., Hölzl to appear).

Table 8: Overview of the interrogatives used in the Tungusic PNQs, including dialects and historical data mentioned in the discussion

Language	*ŋüi 'who'	*Kai 'what'	*ja- 'which'	*Kooni 'how'	other
Arman	?	?	?	?	?
Even	+	_	_	_	_
Evenki	+	_	+	_	_
Oroqen	+	_	+	_	which (one)
Solon	_	_	_	+	which (one)
Negidal	?	_	_	+	which (one)
Oroch	+	_	?+	+	how
Udihe	_	_	+	+	_
Kilen	+	?	?	?	how, which (one)
Kili	?	?	?	?	?
Nanai	+	+	_	+	_
Samar	?	+	?	?	?
Ulcha	+	_	_	+	_
Uilta	+	+	_	+	_
U. Nanai	_	+	_	_	which (one)
Alchuka	?	?	?	?	?
Bala	?	?	?	?	?
Jurchen A	?	?	?	?	?
Jurchen B	?	?	?	?	?
Kyakala	?	?	?	?	?
sp. Manchu	_	+	_	_	_
sp. Sibe	_	+	_	_	_
w. Manchu	?-	+	_	-	_

The reconstruction of the Proto-Tungusic PNQ depends on the internal classification of Tungusic. If Jurchenic is considered the oldest branch of the language family (e.g., Kazama 2003), the presence of a second person possessive marker could well be a later innovation in the non-Jurchenic branch. But Jurchenic preserves some traces of the personal markers that must have been present earlier. For instance, Doerfer (1978: 7) observed that ordinal numerals in some Tungusic languages are ultimately derived from what appears to be a third person plural possessive marker (Table 9). The possessive form is preserved, for example, in Udihe, e.g. *neŋu-ti* 'their younger sibling' (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 107). In Udihe, a case marker can occasionally precede the ordinal marker, which might be a relic of its origin as a possessive marker, e.g. *nada* 'seven', *nadā-ma-ti* 'seventh (ACC) (Nikolaeva & Tolskaya 2001: 424). The syllable *ti that is still recorded as such in Alchuka regularly changed to ci in Manchu (e.g., *nadan*, *nada-ci*).

Table 9: Ordinal markers in Alchuka (Mu 1986), and Manchu, Kilen
(Zhang, Yanchang, Zhang Xi, et al. 1989), and Udihe (Nikolaeva & Tol-
skaya 2001)

Language	three	third	-3PL.POSS
Alchuka	ila(-n)	ila- tʻi	-
Manchu	ila-n	ila- ci	
Kilen	ila-n	ila-n- tin	-ti
Udihe	ila	ile-n- ti	-ti

This strongly speaks in favor of head-marking (e.g., head-marked possession) being present in Proto-Tungusic.

Given the presence of Type A constructions throughout the entire language family, Proto-Tungusic must have been of the same type (Table 10). Type B is restricted to few examples, most of which can be found in Jurchenic. For instance, as seen before, the typical Jurchenic question containing a speech act verb (Manchu *se*-) is clearly calqued from the Mongolian pattern (§4.6). Apart from the use of a personal interrogative, the construction is almost a perfect match.

²¹Sibe *śin* goes back to *si.n-i* '2sg.obl-gen'. Jurchenic also has sentence-final content question marking that is, however, not usually attested in the PNQs.

```
(125) Mongolian (elicited in May 2019)

či.n-ii ner-iig xen ge-deg=ve?

2SG.OBL-GEN name-ACC who say-PTCP.HAB=CO
```

Content question marking as in this Mongolian example is a feature absent from most Tungusic languages (Hölzl 2018a: 286–312). In those languages that have this feature, such as Jurchenic languages, Khamnigan Evenki, or Uilta, this is clearly an innovation. Consequently, Proto-Tungusic most likely did not have content question marking either. All Type B constructions can plausibly be explained with language contact.

In conclusion, the most likely reconstruction for the proto-Tungusic personal name question is perhaps the following Type A, more specifically Type A.1, construction with an optional pronoun and an optional genitive.²²

```
(126) Proto-Tungusic

*(si(n-i)) gärbü-si ŋüi?

2sg.obl-gen name-2sg.poss who
```

All four subbranches of Tungusic have direct descendants of this construction, such as the following from Even (with optional pronoun hi '2sg', hin '2sg.obl(.gen)') and Manchu.

- (127) Even (Doerfer et al. 1980: 304, modified transcription)

 gerbe-s

 name-2sg.poss who
- (128) Manchu (Haenisch 1961: 73) si.n-i gebu ai? 2SG.OBL-GEN name what

Some languages, such as Manchu, have introduced a new interrogative into the construction, replacing the original $^*\eta\ddot{u}i$. Jurchenic has generally lost the possessive marker * -si, at the same time generalizing the genitive.

One can suspect that the Tungusic construction above was based on a more schematic construction that has the following form, X being a pronoun, Y a possessive ending, and Z a proper name or the interrogative $*\eta\ddot{u}i$: *(X(n-i)) $g\ddot{a}rb\ddot{u}$ -Y Z. The genitive might have been restricted to first and second person pronouns. Only Jurchenic has third person pronouns that can take a genitive (singular i.n-i, plural ce.n-i in Manchu) and it remains an open question whether this represents

²²Very similar constructions to this one reconstructed to Tungusic can be found in some surrounding languages. These cannot be addressed here for reasons of space (see, e.g., 39).

Table 10: The type of PNQs in Tungusic languages

Language	Type A (copula)	Type B (speech act verb)
Arman	?	?
Even	+	_
Evenki	+	_
Oroqen	+	_
Solon	+	_
Negidal	+	-
Oroch	+	-
Udihe	+	+
Kilen	+	+
Kili	?+	?
Nanai	+	_
Samar	+	_
Ulcha	+	_
Uilta	+	_
U. Nanai	+	_
Alchuka	?+	?
Bala	?	?
Jurchen A	?	?
Jurchen B	?	?
Kyakala	?	?
sp. Manchu	+	+
sp. Sibe	+	+
w. Manchu	+	+

a Proto-Tungusic pattern that was replaced everywhere else or is also an innovation in Jurchenic (e.g., Zikmundová 2022 [this volume]). The use of the genitive on elements other than the pronouns is probably a Jurchenic innovation that later spread to a few other Tungusic languages.

```
(129) Manchu (Aixinjueluo 1987: 14)

te.re-i gebu yentugi.

that-GEN name PN
```

Another instantiation of the schematic construction can be observed in the following answer from Even.

```
(130) Even (Doerfer et al. 1980: 304)

mi.n gerbe-w Anna.

1sg.obl(.gen) name-1sg.poss pn
```

The preposed interrogative as in the following Aoluguya Evenki example (Type A.1) appears to be restricted to Ewenic (found in Even, Evenki, Oroqen, and Solon in §4.3).

```
(131) Aoluguya Evenki (Chaoke & Sirenbatu 2016: 1) 

fi [ni] gərbi-tfi
2sg who name-poss
```

This also illustrates another innovation in parts of Ewenic, which is the use of the comitative or possessive suffix $(g \partial r b i - t f i$ 'with/having a name'), replacing the second person possessive marker in the PNQ $(g \partial r b i - f i$ 'your name', Chaoke & Sirenbatu 2016: 5).

Seemingly similar expressions in Jurchenic (see 17 and §4.6) cannot be based on the same construction because the interrogative (Manchu ai) functions as an attribute to the dummy noun (Manchu gebu) (Type A.2).

```
(132) Manchu (Sanjiazi; Chaoke 2014d: 8)

shi [ayi gewe]?

2sg what name
```

The personal interrogative in Evenki cannot, however, stand attributively to a noun (Nedjalkov 1997: 215). The interrogative, therefore, must be interpreted as an argument of its own that stands in some sort of focus position that is specific to Ewenic. In Evenki, interrogatives often are sentence-initial, but there is another construction: "Much more rarely, they appear in the second position after the subject or the object of the question in cases when these components are stressed." (Nedjalkov 1997: 7f.) This must be considered an early innovation of Ewenic languages.

5.2 Conclusion: Construction and frame

This study has investigated a potentially universal property of human language, the personal name question (PNQ, 'What's your name?'). While the focus was on Tungusic languages, several typological dimensions of variation were discussed from a global perspective. Cross-lingusitically, there are two main types of PNQs that contain an equational copula (Type A) and a speech act verb (Type B), respectively. Tungusic languages show a tendency for Type A, although the Jurchenic subbranch due to language contact also has many instances of Type B. On the basis of the PNQ in the individual Tungusic languages, the PNQ in Proto-Tungusic has been reconstructed as an instance of Type A. This reconstruction lacks a copula but contains a personal interrogative * $\eta\ddot{u}i$ 'who', an optional personal pronoun *si 'you (sG)' (oblique *si.n-) with optional genitive *-i, and a dummy noun * $g\ddot{a}rb\ddot{u}$ 'name' that functions as a host for head-marked possessive affixes. The basis for the apparent split between head-marking on the one hand and double marking on the other remains unclear for now.

Generally, personal name questions can be said to be semantically based on what has been called the personal name frame (§3) that has several subevents, each with its individual roles. The Tungusic Type A construction highlights or profiles the subevents of HAVING A NAME and ACQUAINTING. The whole expression is the result of a complex interaction of the individual frames and constructions (Figure 1).

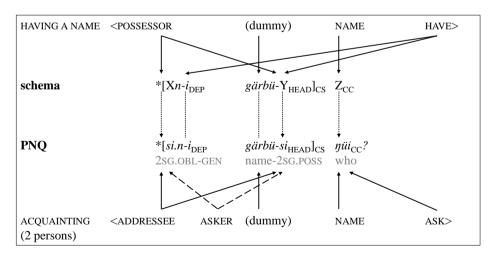


Figure 1: The interaction of frames and constructions in the Proto-Tungusic PNQ (figure created by the author)

In the schematic construction, X is an open slot for a pronoun, Y for a possessive ending corresponding to X, and Z for a proper name or the interrogative *nüi. CS and CC stand for copula subject and copula complement, respectively (Dixon 2010). The dummy noun *gärbü 'name' is head and the personal pronoun *si 'you (sg)' is the dependent. Dotted lines indicate that a given element is identical in the schematic and in the specific construction, e.g. the genitive remains *-i. Dotted arrows show the filling of an open slot with a certain element, e.g. of X with the pronoun *si 'you (sg)'. Arrows from the frames to the constructions indicate the place of realization of roles and relations. In some cases, multiple realization is possible, e.g. of the possessor as both the personal pronoun and possessive affix. Finally, dashed arrows are used for roles and relations that are only indirectly coded in the construction. In this example, the role of the person asking is only indirectly represented by the second person elements. The interrogative force of the question, here tentatively indicated with the semantic relation ASK, has no overt morphosyntactic expression but is indirectly encoded in the interrogative and perhaps a special intonation contour that is difficult to reconstruct given the scarcity of data from modern languages.

Abbreviations

PNQ stands for *personal name question* and PNF for *personal name frame*. Abbreviations follow the general convention. Special grammatical abbreviations include:

ABST	abstract, non-concrete (cf.	GL	general topic (Lock 2011)
	Munshi 2006)	L	low tone form (Paperno 2014)
ANX	anxiousness (Prins 2017)	SIM	simple (unmarked) tense (Coler
CQ	content question marker		2014)

Acknowledgements

This paper is dedicated to the memory of Prof. Wolfgang Schulze (1953–2020). I want to thank Veronika Zikmundová, Patryk Czerwinski, Elena Perekhvalskaya, Natalia Aralova, and Tom Payne for their valuable comments on Sibe, Uilta, Udihe, Negidal, and Panare, respectively.

References

- Aalto, Pentti. 1977. G. J. Ramstedts Onkor-Solonisches Wörterverzeichnis. *Rocznik Orientalistyczny* 39. 55–84.
- Abbi, Anvita. 2013. A grammar of the Great Andamanese language: An ethnolinguistic study (Brill's Studies in South and Southwest Asian Languages). Leiden: Brill.
- Aixinjueluo, Yingsheng. 1987. Tantan manyu de jingyu. *Manyu yanjiu* 1. 2–15, 73. Alonso de la Fuente, José Andrés. 2011. Venjukov's [1858] 1862/1868 Nanai materials. *Journal de la Société Finno-Ougrienne* 93. 11–35.
- Alonso de la Fuente, José Andrés. 2012/2014. Some thoughts on Onomastica Manjurica: Strange or amusing names in Manchu. *Faventia* 34/36. 293–301.
- An, Jun. 1986. Hezheyu jianzhi. Beijing: Minzu chubanshe.
- Angina, S. V. 1993. Russko-ul'čskij razgovornik. Bogorodskoe.
- Anthony, David W. 2007. The horse, the wheel and language. How Bronze-Age riders from the Eurasian Steppe shaped the modern world. Princeton: Princeton University Press.
- Aoi, Hayato. 2015. Tarama Miyako grammar. In Heinrich Patrick, Shinsho Miyara & Michinori Shimoji (eds.), *Handbook of the Ryukyuan languages. History, structure, and use* (Handbooks of Japanese Language and Linguistics 11), 405–421. Berlin: de Gruyter Mouton.
- Arsen'ev, Vladimir K. 1921. *Po ussurijskomu kraju*. Vladivostok: Tipografija "Èxo". https://ru.wikisource.org/.
- Arsen'ev, Vladimir K. 2016 [1921]. Across the Ussuri Kray: Travels in the Sikhote-Alin mountains. Indiana: Indiana University Press.
- Avrorin, Valentin A. 1959. *Grammatika nanajskogo jazyka*, vol. 1. Leningrad: Izdatel'stvo Akademii Nauk SSSR.
- Avrorin, Valentin A. 2000. *Grammatika man'čžurskogo pis'mennogo jazyka*. Saint Petersburg: Nauka.
- Avrorin, Valentin A. & Elena P. Lebedeva. 1978. *Oročskie teksty i slovar*'. Leningrad: Nauka.
- Balakrishnan, R. 1999. *Badaga: A Dravidian language*. Annamalai: Annamalai University.
- Barðdal, Jóhanna. 2013. Construction-based historical-comparative reconstruction. In Thomas Hoffmann & Graeme Trousdale (eds.), *Oxford handbook of Construction Grammar*, 438–457. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Benzing, Johannes. 1955. *Lamutische Grammatik* (Akademie der Wissenschaften der Literatur. Veröffentlichungen der orientalischen Kommission 6). Wiesbaden: Steiner.

- Benzing, Johannes. 1956. *Die tungusischen Sprachen: Versuch einer vergleichenden Grammatik* (Akademie der Wissenschaften und der Literatur. Abhandlungen der Geistes- und Sozialwissenschaftlichen Klasse 11). Mainz: Akademie der Wissenschaften und der Literatur.
- Black, Jeremy A. 2007. Sumerian. In J. Nicholas Postgate (ed.), *Languages of Iraq, ancient and modern*, 4–30. Cambridge: British School of Archaeology in Iraq.
- Blust, Robert A. 2013. *The Austronesian languages*. 2nd edn. Canberra: Research School of Pacific & Asian Studies, Australian National University.
- Boldyrev, Boris V. 2000. *Èvenkijsko-russkij slovar*'. 2 vols. Novosibirsk: Izdatel'stvo so ran filial "Geo".
- Brylkin", A. 1861. Zaměčanija o svojstvax" jazyka xodzenov" i xodzenskij slovar'. In R. Maak" (ed.), *Putešestvie po dolině rěki usuri*, vol. 1, 204–225. Saint Petersburg: V. Bezobrazova.
- Bulatova, Nadezhda & Stefano Cotrozzi. 2004. *Ewenkische Erzählungen aus der Insel Sachalin*. Bonn: Verlag für Kultur und Wissenschaft.
- Castrén, M. Alexander. 1856. *Grundzüge einer tungusischen Sprachlehre nebst kurzem Wörterverzeichniss.* St Petersburg: Buchdruckerei der kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2006. Xiandai xiboyu kouyu yanjiu. Beijing: Renmin chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2007. Nanmu elunchunyu yanjiu. Beijing: Minzu chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2014a. *Elunchunyu 366 ju huihuaju*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2014b. *Hezheyu 366 ju huihuaju*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2014c. *Mantonggusi yuzu yuyan cihui bijiao*. Beijing: Zhongguo shehui kexue chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2014d. *Manyu 366 ju huihuaju*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. 2014e. *Xiboyu 366 ju huihuaju*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. & Kajia. 2016. *Tonggusi ewenkeyu huihua*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O., Kajia, Aliya & Tami'er. 2014. *Ewenkeyu 366 ju huihuaju*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. & Kalina. 2017. *Arong ewenkeyu*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.
- Chaoke, D. O. & Sirenbatu. 2016. *Aoluguya ewenkeyu huihua*. Beijing: Shehui kexue wenxian chubanshe.

- Cincius, Vera I. 1975/77. Sravnitel'nyj slovar' tunguso-man'čžurskix jazykov. materialy k etimologičeskomu slovarju. 2 vols. Leningrad: Nauka.
- Coler, Matt. 2014. A grammar of Muylaq' Aymara: Aymara as spoken in Southern Peru. Leiden: Brill.
- Coupe, Alexander Robertson. 2007. *A grammar of Mongsen Ao* (Mouton Grammar Library 39). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Croft, William. 2003. *Typology and universals*. 2nd edn. (Cambridge Textbooks in Linguistics). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Dai, Guangyu. 2012. *Sanjiazi manyu yuyin yanjiu*. Beijing: Beijing daxue chubanshe.
- Diessel, Holger. 2003. The relationship between demonstratives and interrogatives. *Studies in Language* 27(3). 635–655.
- Dixon, Robert M. W. 2010. *Basic linguistic theory, vol. 1.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Doerfer, Gerhard. 1978. Classification problems of Tungus. In Gerhard Doerfer & Michael Weiers (eds.), *Tungusica, vol.1: Beiträge zur nordasiatischen Kulturgeschichte*, 1–26. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Doerfer, Gerhard, Wolfram Hesche & Hartwig Scheinhardt. 1980. *Lamutisches Wörterbuch*. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Doerfer, Gerhard & Michael Knüppel. 2004. Etymologisch-ethnologisches Wörterbuch tungusischer Dialekte (vornehmlich der Mandschurei). Hildesheim: Olms. 932.
- Doerfer, Gerhard & Michael Knüppel. 2013. *Armanisches Wörterbuch*. Nordhausen: Verlag Traugott Bautz.
- Dong, Xingye. 2016. *Hezheyu*. Harbin: Heilongjiang renmin chubanshe.
- Dryer, Matthew S. 2013. Position of interrogative phrases in content questions. In Matthew S. Dryer & Martin Haspelmath (eds.), *The world atlas of language structures online*. Leipzig: Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology. http://wals.info/chapter/93.
- Elias, David. 2014. *The Tigre language of Ginda*, *Eritrea* (Studies in Semitic Languages and Linguistics). Leiden: Brill.
- Enhebatu, Merden. 1995. *Manyu kouyu yanjiu*. Hohot: Neimonggu daxue chubanshe.
- Everett, D. L. & B. Kern. 2007. *Wari': The Pacaas Novos language of western Brazil* (Descriptive Grammars). London: Routledge.
- Faehndrich, Burgel R. M. 2007. Sketch grammar of the Karlong variety of Mongghul, and dialectal survey of Mongghul. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i. (Doctoral dissertation).

- Fillmore, Charles. 1985. Frames and the semantics of understanding. *Quaderni di Semantica* 6(2). 222–254.
- Georg, Stefan. 2004. Unreclassifying Tungusic. In Carsten Naeher (ed.), *Proceedings of the First International Conference on Manchu-Tungus studies*, vol. 2 (Tunguso Sibirica 9), 45–57. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Gil, David. 2018. *Who is your name?* Abstract for The Twenty-Second International Symposium on Malay/Indonesian linguistics (ISMIL 22), 2018.05.11-12, Los Angeles.
- Grube, Wilhelm. 1900. Goldisch-deutsches Wörterverzeichnis mit vergleichender Berücksichtigung der übrigen tungusischen Dialekte (Reisen und Forschungen im Amur-Lande 3(2.1)). Sankt Petersburg: Bei den Commissionaren der Kaiserlichen Akademie der Wissenschaften.
- Haenisch, Erich. 1961. *Mandschu-Grammatik mit Lesestücken und 23 Texttafeln*. Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie.
- Han, Youfeng & Shuxian Meng. 1993. *Elunchun hanyu duizhao duben*. Beijing: Zhongyang minzuyuan chubanshe.
- Hasibate'er. 2016. Aoluguya fangyan yanjiu. Beijing: Minzu chubanshe.
- Hauer, Erich. 2007. *Handwörterbuch der Mandschusprache*. 2nd edn. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- He, Rongwei. 2009. Manyu 365 ju. Shenyang: Liaoning minzu chubanshe.
- Hilpert, Martin & Jan-Ola Östman. 2014. Reflections on constructions across grammars. *Constructions and Frames* 6(2). 137–142.
- Hölzl, Andreas. 2014. "What's your name?" in Tungusic. Paper presented at The 8th International Conference on Construction Grammar, 2014.09.03-06, Osnabrück.
- Hölzl, Andreas. 2018a. *A typology of questions in Northeast Asia and beyond: An ecological perspective* (Studies in Diversity Linguistics 20). Berlin: Language Science Press.
- Hölzl, Andreas. 2018b. Constructionalization areas: The case of negation in Manchu. In Evie Coussé, Peter Andersson & Joel Olofsson (eds.), *Grammaticalization meets construction grammar* (Constructional Approaches to Language 21). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Hölzl, Andreas. 2018c. Udi, Udihe, and the language(s) of the Kyakala. *International Journal of Diachronic Linguistics and Linguistic Reconstruction* 15. 111–146.
- Hölzl, Andreas. to appear. The complexification of Tungusic interrogative systems. In Dankmar W. Enke, Larry M. Hyman, Johanna Nichols, Guido Seiler & Thilo Weber (eds.), *Language change for the worse* (Studies in Diversity Linguistics). Berlin: Language Science Press.

- Hölzl, Andreas & Yadi Hölzl. 2019. A wedding ceremony of the Kyakala in China: Language and ritual. *International Journal of Diachronic Linguistics and Linguistic Reconstruction* 16. 87–144.
- Hough, Carole (ed.). 2016. *The Oxford handbook of names and naming*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Huang, Lillian M. 1996. Interrogative constructions in Mayrinax Atayal. *Bulletin of National Taiwan Normal University* 41. 263–296.
- Idiatov, Dmitry. 2007. *A typology of non-selective interrogative pronominals.* Antwerp: Universiteit Antwerpen. (Doctoral dissertation).
- Ikegami, Jirō. 1985. The category of person in Tungus: Its representation in the indicative forms of verbs. *Gengō Kenkyū* 88. 86–96.
- Ikegami, Jirō. 1997. *Uirutago jiten*. Sapporo: Hokkaidō University Press.
- Ivanovskiy, A. O. 1982 [1894]. *Mandjurica I. Specimens of the Solon and Dagur languages* (Debter, Deb-Ther, Debtelin: Materials for Central Asiatic and Altaic Studies 2). Budapest: Akadémiai Kiadó.
- Janhunen, Juha. 1991. *Material on Manchurian Khamnigan Evenki* (Castrenianumin toimitteia 40). Helsinki: University of Helsinki.
- Janhunen, Juha. 2012a. *Mongolian* (Oriental and African Language Library 19). Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Janhunen, Juha. 2012b. The expansion of Tungusic as an ethnic and linguistic process. In Andrej Malchukov & Lindsay Whaley (eds.), *Recent advances in Tungusic linguistics* (Turcologica 89), 5–16. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Jin, Ning. 1993. Sibe English conversations. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Johnson, Allen. 2003. *Families of the forest: The Matsigenka Indians of the Peruvian Amazon*. Berkeley: University of California Press.
- Kałużyński, Stanisław. 1977. Die Sprache des mandschurischen Stammes Sibe aus der Gegend von Kuldscha, vol. 1. Warsaw: Państwowe Wydawnictwo Naukowe.
- Kane, Daniel. 1989. *The Sino-Jurchen vocabulary of the Bureau of Interpreters*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Kazama, Shinjirō. 2002. *Negidarugo tekisuto to bunpō gaisetsu* (Publications on Tungus Languages and Cultures 19). Kyōto: Nakanishi.
- Kazama, Shinjirō. 2003. *Basic vocabulary (A) of Tungusic languages* (Endangered Languages of the Pacific Rim A2-037). Kyōto: Nakanishi.
- Khabtagaeva, Bayarma. 2022. On some shared and distinguishing features of Nercha and Khamnigan Ewenki dialects. In Andreas Hölzl & Thomas E. Payne (eds.), *Tungusic languages: Past and present*, 149–197. Berlin: Language Science Press. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7053367.
- Khasanova, Marina & Alexander M. Pevnov. 2003. *Myths and tales of the Negidals* (ELPR Publication Series A2-024). Osaka: Nakanishi.

- Kim, Juwon. 2011. A grammar of Ewen. Seoul: Seoul National University Press.
- Kim, Juwon, Dongho Ko, D. O. Chaoke, Youfeng Han, Lianyu Piao & Boris V. Boldyrev. 2008. *Materials of spoken Manchu*. Seoul: Seoul National University Press.
- King, J. R. P. 1987. An introduction to Soviet Korean. *Language Research* 23(2). 233–271.
- Kiyose, Gisaburo N. 1977. A study of the Jurchen language and script: Reconstruction and decipherment. Kyōto: Shōwado.
- Klamer, Marian. 2010. *A grammar of Teiwa* (Mouton Grammar Library 49). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kluge, Angela. 2017. A grammar of Papuan Malay. Berlin: Language Science Press.
- Ko, Dongho & Gyudong Yurn. 2011. *A description of Najkhin Nanai* (Altaic Languages Series 7). Seoul: Seoul National University Press.
- Kobayashi, Masato & Bablu Tirkey. 2017. *The Kurux language: Grammar, texts, and lexicon* (Brill's Studies in South and Southwest Asian Languages 8). Leiden: Brill.
- Konstantinova, Olga A. 1964. *Èvenkijskij jazyk: fonetika i morfologija*. Moskau: Nauka.
- Lakoff, George & Mark Johnson. 1999. *Philosophy in the flesh. The embodied mind and its challenges to Western thought.* New York: Basic Books.
- Langacker, Ronald W. 2008. *Cognitive grammar: A basic introduction*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Lavrillier, Alexandra. 2006. S'orienter avec les rivières chez les Évenks du Sud-Est sibérien. Un système d'orientation spatial, identitaire et rituel. *Études mongoles et sibériennes, centrasiatiques et tibétaines* 36/37. 95–138.
- Lefebvre, Claire. 2015. *Relabeling in language genesis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Li, Paul Jen-kuei & Shigeru Tsuchida. 2001. *Pazih dictionary* (Language and Linguistics Monograph Series A2). Taipei: Institute of Linguistics, Academia Sinica.
- Li, Shulan. 1984. Xiboyu dongci chenshushi de qinzhi kouqi he fei qinzhi kouqi. *Minzu yuwen* 6. 26–32.
- Lichtenberk, Frantisek. 1983. *A grammar of Manam* (Oceanic Linguistics Special Publication 18). Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Lie, Hiu. 1978. Solonisches Material aus dem Huin-gol. In Gerhard Doerfer & Michael Weiers (eds.), *Tungusica*, vol. 1: Beiträge zur nordasiatischen Kulturgeschichte, 126–78. Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz.
- Lock, Arnold. 2011. Abau grammar. Ukarumpa: SIL-PNG Academic Publications.

- Lopatin, Ivan A. 1957. Material on the Orochee language. *Micro-Bibliotheca Anthropos* 26. 1–110.
- Maak", R. 1859. Putešestvie na Amur". Saint Petersburg: K. Wulf.
- Majewicz, Alfred F. (ed.). 2011. The collected works of Bronisław Piłsudski, vol 4: Materials for the study of Tungusic languages and folklore. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Makarova, K. I. 1999. Èvenkijsko-russkij razgovornik: Načinajuščim izučat' èvenkijskij jazyk (na vostočnom dialekte). Yakutsk: Bičik.
- Moutu, Andrew. 2013. Names are thicker than blood: Kinship and ownership amongst the Iatmul. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mu, Yejun. 1986. Alechuka manyu de shuci yu gezhuci. *Manyu yanjiu* 1986(1). 2–17.
- Mu, Yejun. 1987. Balayu. Manyu yanjiu 1987(2). 2-31, 128.
- Mu, Yejun. 1988. Lun balayu de yuyin bianhua. *Manyu yanjiu* 6. 1–26.
- Munshi, Sadaf. 2006. Jammu and Kashmir Burushaski: Language, language contact and change. Ann Arbor: UMI. (Doctoral dissertation).
- Mushin, Ilana. 1995. Epistememes in Australian languages. *Australian Journal of Linguistics* 15(1). 1–31.
- Nagaraja, K. S. 2014. *The Nihali language: Grammar, texts, vocabulary.* Mysore: Central Institute of Indian Languages.
- Nakanome, Akira. 1928. *Grammatik der Orokko-Sprache*. Osaka: The Osaka Asiatic Society.
- Nau, Nicole. 1999. Was schlägt der Kasus? Zu Paradigmen und Formengebrauch von Interrogativpronomen. *Sprachtypologie und Universalienforschung* 2. 130–150.
- Nedjalkov, Igor. 1997. Evenki (Descriptive Grammars). London: Routledge.
- Nikolaeva, Irina & Maria Tolskaya. 2001. *A grammar of Udihe* (Mouton Grammar Library 22). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Norman, Jerry. 2013. *A comprehensive Manchu-English dictionary*. Cambridge: Harvard University Asia Center.
- Ozolinja, L. V. 2001. Oroksko-russkij slovar'. Novosibirsk: Izdatel'stvo So Ran.
- Pallas, Peter Simon. 1786, 1789. *Linguarum totius orbis vocabularia comparativa*, vol. 1. Saint Petersburg: Typis Iohannis Caroli Schnoor.
- Paperno, Denis. 2014. Grammatical sketch of Beng. Mandenkan 51. 1-130.
- Payne, Thomas E. & Doris L. Payne. 2013. *A typological grammar of Panare: A Cariban language of Venezuela* (Brill's Studies in the Indigenous Languages of the Americas). Leiden: Brill.

- Perekhvalskaya, Elena. 2022. From consonant to tone: Laryngealized and pharyngealized vowels in Udihe. In Andreas Hölzl & Thomas E. Payne (eds.), *Tungusic languages: Past and present*, 227–262. Berlin: Language Science Press. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo.7053371.
- Prins, Maria Clazina. 2017. A grammar of rGyalrong, Jiǎomùzú (Kyom-kyo) dialects: A web of relations. Leiden: Brill.
- Sa, Xirong. 1981. Jianming hanyu elunchunyu duizhao duben. Beijing: Minzu chunbanshe.
- Sameng, Yierhanzhi, Guo Xiangyang & Xie Wei. 2010. *Xiboyu tonglun*. Ürümqi: Xinjiang renmin chubanshe.
- Sandman, Erika. 2016. *A grammar of Wutun*. Helsinki: University of Helsinki. (Doctoral dissertation).
- Sarvasy, Hannah. 2017. A grammar of Nungon: a Papuan language of Northeast New Guinea. Leiden: Brill.
- Schebesta, Pater P. & C. O. Blagden. 1928. Grammatical sketch of the Jahai dialect, spoken by a Negrito tribe of Ulu Perak and Ulu Kelantan, Malay Peninsula. *Bulletin of the School of Oriental Studies, University of London* 4(4). 803–826.
- Schiefner, Anton. 1878. Alexander Czekanowski's tungusisches Wörterverzeichnis. *Bulletin de l'Academie imperiale des sciences de St.-Petersbourg* 24. 89–146.
- Schluessel, Eric. 2014. *Two encounters on the riverbank*. Manchu Studies Group. http://www.manchustudiesgroup.org/2014/04/23/two-encounters-on-the-riverbank/ (Accessed 2019-05-06.)
- Schmidt, Peter. 1923a. The language of the Negidals. *Acta Universitatis Latviensis* 5. 3–38.
- Schmidt, Peter. 1923b. The language of the Olchas. *Acta Universitatis Latviensis* 8. 229–288.
- Schmidt, Peter. 1928a. The language of the Oroches. *Acta Universitatis Latviensis* 17. 17–62.
- Schmidt, Peter. 1928b. The language of the Samagirs. *Acta Universitatis Latviensis* 19, 219–49.
- Schulze, Wolfgang. 2007. Communication or memory mismatch: Towards a cognitive typology of questions. In Günter Radden, Klaus-Michael Köpcke, Thomas Berg & Peter Siemund (eds.), *Aspects of meaning construction*, 247–264. Amsterdam: Benjamins.
- Sem, Lidija I. 1976. *Očerki dialektov nanajskogo jazyka: Bikinskij (ussurijskij) dialekt.* Leningrad: Nauka.
- Senft, Gunter. 1986. *Kilivila: The language of the Trobriand islanders* (Mouton Grammar Library 3). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

- Sohn, Ho-Min. 1999. *The Korean language* (Cambridge Language Surveys). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Song, Jae Jung. 2005. *The Korean language. Structure, use and context.* London: Routledge.
- Sunik, Orest. 1958. Kur-urmijskij dialekt. Leningrad: Nauka.
- Tournadre, Nicolas & Randy LaPolla. 2014. Towards a new approach to evidentiality. Issues and directions for research. *Linguistics of the Tibeto-Burman area* 37(2). 240–263.
- Trousdale, Graeme. 2014. On the relationship between grammaticalization and constructionalization. *Folia Linguistica* 48(2). 557–578.
- Tsumagari, Toshirō. 1992. A basic vocabulary of Khamnigan and Oluguya Ewenki in northern Inner Mongolia. *Bulletin of the Institute for the Study of North Eurasian Cultures* 21. 83–103.
- Tsumagari, Toshirō. 2009a. A sketch of Solon grammar. *Journal of the Center for Northern Humanities* 2. 1–21.
- Tsumagari, Toshirō. 2009b. Grammatical outline of Uilta (revised). *Journal of the Graduate School of Letters* 4. 1–21.
- Tsumagari, Toshirō. 2011. An Udihe folktale text: "Solomo and Tausima". *Hoppō jinbun kenkyū* 4. 75–93.
- Tsumagari, Toshirō et al. 2006. *Udehe-go no tebikiki*. Sapporo: Hokkaidō daigaku bungaku kenkyūka.
- Van Langendonck, Willy & Mark Van de Velde. 2016. Names and grammar. In Carole Hough (ed.), *The Oxford handbook of names and naming*, 17–39. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Venukoff, M. 1862. Vokabular der Golde-Sprache. *Petermanns geographische Mittheilungen* 8. 109.
- von Klaproth, Julius. 1817. Mandshuisch. In Johann C. Adelung (ed.), *Mithridates oder allgemeine Sprachenkunde mit dem Vater Unser als Sprachprobe in bey nahe fünf hundert Sprachen und Mundarten*, vol. 4, 194–224. Berlin: In der Vossischen Buchhandlung.
- von Goethe, Johann Wolfgang. 2018 [1808]. *Faust.* (Translation.) Minneapolis: Avenue Editions.
- Vovin, Alexander. 2006. Why Manchu and Jurchen look so non-Tungusic? In Alessandra Pozzi, Juha Janhunen & Michael Weiers (eds.), *Tumen jalafun jecen akū. Manchu studies in honour of Giovanni Stary*, 255–266. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.
- Wang, Qingfeng. 2005. Manyu yanjiu. Beijing: Minzu chubanshe.
- Witsen, Nicolaas. 1705. Noord en Oost Tartarye. Amsterdam: François Halma.

- Wuge, Shouping & Mingyuan Cheng. 1730. Manju nikan hergen-i cing wen ki meng bithe. Manhan zi qingwen qimeng. 4 vols.
- Wurm, Stephen A. & Peter Mühlhäusler. 1985. *Handbook of Tok Pisin (New Guinea Pidgin)*. Stefan A. Wurm & Peter M.ühlhäusler (eds.) (Pacific Linguistics: Series C 70). Canberra: The Australian National University.
- Wylie, Alexander. 1855. Translation of the Ts'ing wan k'e mung, a Chinese grammar of the Manchu Tartar language; with introductory notes on Manchu literature. Shanghai: London Mission Press.
- Yu, Wonsoo, Kwon Jae-il, Choi Moon-Jeong, Shin Yong-kwon, Bayarmend Borjigin & Luvsandorj[iin] Bold. 2008. *A study of the Tacheng dialect of the Dagur language* (Altaic Languages Series 2). Seoul: Seoul National University Press.
- Zhang, Yanchang, Li Bing & Zhang Xi. 1989. *The Qroqen language*. Jilin: Jilin daxue chubanshe.
- Zhang, Yanchang, Zhang Xi & Dai Shuyan. 1989. *The Hezhen language*. Jilin: Jilin daxue chubanshe.
- Zhao, Jie. 1989. Xiandai manyu yanjiu. Beijing: Minzu chubanshe.
- Zhao, Jie. 2000. Yanbian manyu duoshi. Minzu yuwen 3. 18-24.
- Zikmundová, Veronika. 2013. Spoken Sibe: Morphology of the inflected parts of speech. Prague: Karolinum.
- Zikmundová, Veronika. 2022. Historical language contact between Sibe and Khorchin. In Andreas Hölzl & Thomas E. Payne (eds.), *Tungusic languages: Past and present*, 295–329. Berlin: Language Science Press. DOI: 10.5281/zenodo. 7053375.