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TURCOLOGICA 107

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Aynur Abish

Modality in Kazakh  
as Spoken in China

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Herausgegeben von Lars Johanson

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*To my mother!*



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*Beijing, March 8, 2016*

*Aynur Abish*





## Abbreviations

1	first person
2	second person
3	third person
A.CONV	converb in {-A <sup>2</sup> //-y}
A.INTERJEC	interjection <i>a</i>
A.PART	particle <i>a</i>
Ă.PART	particle <i>ă</i>
A.PRES	present tense in {-A <sup>2</sup> //-y}
ABIL	ability
ABL	ablative
ACC	accusative
ACCORDING TO.POSTP	postposition <i>boyinča</i> ‘according to’
ADV	adverb
AFORESAID.FILL	<i>algı/ăgi</i> ‘aforesaid’; used when one cannot find the right word or name
AFTER1.POSTP	postposition <i>keyin</i> ‘after’
AFTER2.POSTP	postposition <i>soŋ</i> ‘after’
AGAINST.POSTP	postposition <i>karşı</i> ‘against, towards, in front of’
AK.PART	particle <i>aķ</i>
ALONG.POSTP	postposition <i>boyı</i> ‘along, since’
AOR	aorist {-A <sup>2</sup> }r}
ARDA.CONV	converb based on the locative of the aorist {-A <sup>2</sup> }r}
AOR.PTCP	aorist participle
APPROX	approximative
ATIN.PAST.INTRAT	past intraterminal in {-A <sup>2</sup> tı <sup>2</sup> n//-ytı <sup>2</sup> n}
ATIN.PTCP	participle in {-A <sup>2</sup> tı <sup>2</sup> n//-ytı <sup>2</sup> n}
AW.INTERJEC	interjection <i>aw</i>
AW.PART	particle <i>aw</i>
AY.INTERJEC	interjection <i>ay</i>
ĂY.INTERJEC	interjection <i>ăy</i>
AYTPAKŞİ.PART	particle <i>aytpakşî</i>
BEFORE.POSTP	postposition <i>burun</i> ‘before’
BOL.COP	the copula <i>bol-</i> ‘to become, be’
FORMER.FILL	filler <i>bayağı</i> ‘former, bygone, long-ago’; used when one cannot find the right word or name
CAUS	causative
COLL	collective
COME OUT.POSTV	<i>çık-</i> ‘to come out’ used as a postverb
COME.POSTV	<i>kel-</i> ‘to come’ used as a postverb
COMP	comparative

COMPLETE.POSTV	<sup>w</sup> <i>orında-</i> ‘to complete’ used as a postverb
CONJ	conjunction
CONV	converb
COP	copula
CREATE.LIGHTV	<i>jas-</i> ‘to create’ used as a light verb
DA.PART	particle in $D^2A^2$
DÄ.PART	particle <i>dä</i> in Uyghur
DAT	dative
DAŦĪ.PART	particle $D^2aŦi$
DE.PART	particle <i>de</i>
DEMEK.PART	particle <i>demek</i>
DEP.PART	particle <i>dep</i>
DER	derivational suffix
DEŠI.PART	particle <i>deši</i>
DESEŦŠI.PART	particle <i>deseŦši</i>
DESEŦİZŠI.PART	particle <i>deseŦizši</i>
DIK.VN	verbal noun in $\{-D^2I^2K^2\}$
DIM	diminutive
DIR	copula $\{-D^2I^4r\}$ in Turkish
DO.LIGHTV	<sup>y</sup> <i>et-</i> ‘to do’ used as a light verb
DU.COP	copula <i>-du</i> in Uyghur
E.COP	defective copula <i>e-</i> ‘to be’
E.COP.INDIR	indirective copula <sup>y</sup> <i>eken</i>
E.INTERJEC	interjection <sup>y</sup> <i>e</i>
EMESPE.PART	particle in <sup>y</sup> <i>emespe</i>
EQUA	equative
FILL	filler, i.e. a semantically empty word that marks a pause or hesitation in speech
FOR.POSTP	postposition <i>üšün</i> ‘for’
GALL.CONV	converb in $\{-G^4A^2L^2I^2\}$
GANDA.CONV	converb based on the locative of the participle in $\{-G^4A^2n\}$
GAN.POSTT	postterminal past in $\{-G^4A^2n\}$
GAN.PTCP	participle in $\{-G^4A^2n\}$
GANDIK.VN	verbal noun in $\{-G^4A^2ndI^2K^2\}$
GANDIKNAN.CONV	converb based on verbal noun in $\{-G^4A^2ndI^2K^2\}$ and ablative
GANŠA.CONV	converb based on derivational suffix $\{-šA^2\}$ of the participle in $\{-G^4A^2n\}$
GEN	genitive
GI	adjectival derivational suffix $\{-G^4I^2\}$
GL.NESS	necessitative in $\{-G^4I^2\}$ in Uyghur
GIR.IMPR	imprecativ mood in $\{-G^4I^2r\}$
GIVE.POSTV	<i>ber-</i> ‘to give’ used as a postverb
GO.POSTV	<i>bar-</i> ‘to go’ used as a postverb
GU.NESS	necessitative in $\{-G^4U^2\}$
GULUK.NESS	necessitative in $\{-G^4U^2IU^2K\}$ in Uyghur
FOY.PART	particle $I^2oy$
HYP	hypothetical/conditional mood $\{-sA^2\}$

I.COP	defective copula <i>i-</i> ‘to be’ in Turkish and Uyghur
IMP	imperative mood
INDIR	indirective
INF	infinitive
INTERJEC	interjection
INTRAT	intraterminal viewpoint
IP.CONV	converb in $\{-(I^4)p\}$
IP.POSTT	postterminal past in $\{-(I^4)p\}$
JÁ.PART	<i>ja/žá</i> particle
KNOW.POSTV	<i>bil-</i> ‘to know’ used as a postverb
KO.PART	particle <i>ko</i> in Karaim
LEAVE.POSTV	<i>ket-</i> ‘to leave’ used as a postverb
LIE.POSTV	<i>jat-</i> ‘to lie’ used as a postverb
LIGHTV	light verb
LIKE.AFORESAID.FILL	<i>ágindey</i> ‘like aforesaid’; used as a filler when one cannot find the right expression
LOC	locative
LOOK.POSTV	<i>baķ-</i> ‘to look’ used as a postverb in Uyghur
Q.PART	interrogative particle $\{-M^3A^2\}$
MAK.PTCP	participle in $\{-M^3A^2K^2\}$
MAK.VN	verbal noun in $\{-M^3A^2K^2\}$
MAKČI	intentional in $\{-mA^2K^2či\}$ in Uyghur
MAKE.LIGHTV	<i>ķil-</i> ‘to make’ used as a light verb
MAKŠI	intentional in $\{-M^3A^2K^2šI^2\}$
MAKŠI.PTCP	participle in $\{-M^3A^2K^2šI^2\}$
MİŠTIR.PAST	past tense in $\{-mI^4štI^4r\}$ in Turkish
MOVE.POSTV	<i>ķür-</i> ‘to move’ used as a postverb
NEG	negation
NESS	necessitative
NIKI	$\{-N^3iki\}$
NOW.FILL	<i>endi</i> ‘now’ used as a filler
OPT	optative mood
ORD	ordinal number
OY.INTERJEC	interjection <sup>w</sup> <i>oy</i>
OYBAY.INTERJEC	interjection <sup>w</sup> <i>oybay</i>
ÖZL.PART	particle <sup>w</sup> <i>özi</i>
PART	particle
PASS	passive
PAST	past tense
PL	plural
PLACE.POSTV	<i>sal-</i> ‘to place’ used as a postverb
PLUPERF	pluperfect in $\{-mI^4štI^4\}$ in Turkish
POSS	possessive
POSTP	postposition
POSTT	postterminal viewpoint
POSTV	postverb

PRES	present tense
PTCP	participle
PUT.POSTV	<i>koɣ-</i> ‘to put’ used as a postverb
Q	interrogative
RED	reduplication
REF	reflexive stop
REF.PASS	reflexive/passive in $\{-(I^2)n\}$ after a preceding $L^2$
RETURN.POSTV	<i>kaɣt-</i> ‘to return’ used as a postverb
SEE.POSTV	<i>kör-</i> ‘to see’ used as a postverb
SEND.POSTV	<i>jiiber-</i> ‘to send’ used as a postverb
RHET.PART	rhetorical particle <sup>3</sup> <i>eken</i>
SG	singular
ŠI.PART	particle <i>šI<sup>2</sup></i>
SIT.POSTV	<sup>w</sup> <i>oiŋr-</i> ‘to sit’ used as a postverb
STAND.POSTV	<i>tur-</i> ‘to stand’ used as a postverb
STAY.POSTV	<i>kaɫ-</i> ‘to stay’ used as a postverb
SUPER	superlative
TAKE.POSTV	<i>al-</i> ‘to take’ used as a postverb
THAT.FILL	<i>so/sol/ana</i> ‘that’ used as a filler
THIS.FILL	<i>mīna</i> ‘this’ used as a filler
THROW.POSTV	<i>tasta-</i> ‘to throw’ used as a postverb
TOWARD.POSTP	postposition <i>karay</i> ‘toward, towards’
TUR.COP	copula <i>tur</i> ‘to be’
TURMAK.CONJ	conjunction <i>turmak</i> ‘not to mention’
UNTIL.POSTP	postposition <i>deyiŋ</i> ‘until’
UV.VN	verbal noun in $\{-w//-(\emptyset)U^2w\}$
UWDA.INTRAT	intraterminal in $\{-wdA^2//-(\emptyset)U^2wdA^2\}$
UWŠI.PTCP	participle in $\{-wšI^2//-(\emptyset)U^2wšI^2\}$
VN	verbal noun
VOL	voluntative mood
WHAT.FILL	<i>nemene</i> ‘what’ used as a filler
WITH.POSTP	postposition $\{M^3en\}$ or $\{M^3enen\}$ ‘with’
YÁ.INTERJEC	interjection <sup>i</sup> <i>yá</i>
YÁ.PART	particle <sup>i</sup> <i>yá</i>

# Transcriptions and notations

## Transcriptions

The following table presents the transcription system used in this study to render the Turkic (mostly Kazakh) sound types. This system is based on the one employed in Johanson & Csató (2006<sup>2</sup>: 18–19) and later modifications by Johanson.

<i>Turcological transcription</i>	<i>IPA</i>	<i>Description</i>
a	[ɑ]	low back unrounded vowel
á	[a]	low near-front unrounded vowel
ä	[ɛ]	lower-mid front unrounded vowel in Uyghur
ə	[ə]	mid-central unrounded vowel in Uyghur
b	[b]	bilabial weak stop
č	[tʃ]	alveo-palatal strong affricate
d	[d]	prepalatal weak stop
e	[e]	upper-mid front unrounded vowel
f	[f]	labio-dental strong fricative
g	[g]	velar weak stop
h	[h]	glottal voiceless fricative
ı̇	[ɪ]	near-high front unrounded lax vowel
i	[i]	high front unrounded vowel occurring, for example, before [y], e.g. <i>kiy-</i> ‘to wear’
ı̈	[ʊ]	near-high back unrounded lax vowel
ǰ	[dʒ]	alveo-palatal weak affricate
k	[k]	velar strong stop
ƚ	[q]	postvelar strong stop
l	[l]	voiced lateral approximant
ł	[ɭ]	voiced lateral velarized approximant
m	[m]	bilabial nasal
n	[n]	dental/alveolar nasal
ŋ	[ŋ]	postvelar nasal
o	[o]	upper-mid back rounded vowel
ö	[ø]	upper-mid front rounded vowel
p	[p]	bilabial strong stop
r	[r]	dental/alveolar trill
s	[s]	dental/alveolar strong fricative
š	[ʃ]	postalveolar/palatal strong fricative
t	[t]	dental/alveolar strong stop

ɯ	[ɯ]	near-high back rounded lax vowel
ɨ	[ɨ]	near-high front rounded lax vowel
v	[v]	labio-dental weak fricative
w	[w]	bilabial glide
χ	[χ]	postvelar strong fricative
y	[j]	palatal glide
z	[z]	dental/alveolar weak fricative
ʒ	[ʒ]	alveo-palatal weak fricative
ɣ	[ɣ]	postvelar weak fricative

A raised character indicates an extra-short or evanescent segment. This can be a vowel, as in *b<sup>h</sup>r* ‘one’, or a consonant, as in *ʸel* ‘country’.

## Other signs

Brackets of the type ⟨ ⟩ are used for glosses.

Brackets of the type ⋈ are used for standard orthographic forms. Turkish examples are given in standard orthography without brackets.

Hyphens are used to indicate morpheme boundaries.

A hyphen to the right of a form signifies verbal stems.

A hyphen to the left of a form signifies bound elements.

The sign < means ‘has developed from’, and > means ‘has developed into’.

Arrows are used for morphological derivation. Thus ← means ‘is derived from’.

Curly brackets of the type { } are used for morphophonemic transcriptions.

A bracketed initial vowel sign indicates the occurrence of the vowel after consonant-final stems and its absence after vowel-final stems.

A bracketed initial zero sign (∅) indicates that the final vowel of the stem is dropped when the marker is added.

∅ is the sign used for a zero element.

Double slashes // can be used to indicate postconsonantal and postvocalic alternants in one formula.

Language-specific morphemes are given in italics.

The asterisk \* sign is used for an unacceptable form.

In the examples, an X indicates a pronoun that can be rendered as ‘he/she/it’ or ‘that’ or ‘it/him/her/them’ in the English translation.

Syllables bearing high pitch, i.e. accented syllables, are underlined.

## Morphophonemic notations

The following abbreviations are used in notations of morphophonemic suffix alternations in Kazakh, Modern Uyghur and Turkish:

{A <sup>2</sup> }	=	a, e (Uyghur a, ä)
{A <sup>2</sup> //-y}	=	a, e, y
{A <sup>4</sup> }	=	a, e, o, ö (Kirghiz)
{D <sup>2</sup> }	=	d, t
{G <sup>4</sup> }	=	g, γ, k, k̄
{I <sup>2</sup> }	=	i, ĭ
{I <sup>3</sup> }	=	u, ü, i (Uyghur)
{I <sup>4</sup> }	=	i, ĭ, u, ü
{I <sup>4</sup> }	=	i, i, u, ü (Turkish, Kirghiz)
{K <sup>2</sup> }	=	k, k̄
{L <sup>2</sup> }	=	l, l̄
{L <sup>4</sup> }	=	l, l̄, d, t
{M <sup>3</sup> }	=	m, b, p
{N <sup>3</sup> }	=	n, d, t
{U <sup>2</sup> }	=	u, ü
{Γ <sup>2</sup> }	=	γ, k̄

In other cases capitals indicate an alternation which is not further specified.

## Examples

Examples are presented in interlinear form consisting of the source text, a morphological annotation, and a free translation. For the morphological annotation see *Abbreviations*. The language is not specified when the example illustrates Kazakh as spoken or written in China. In other cases the language is specified. The source of the examples is not specified when the data is elicited from native speakers. In other cases, the source is given after the translation.

Examples taken from the recorded texts are numbered in accordance with the text in *Appendix*; thus T1 is Text 1 in *Appendix*. The number of the sentence in the text is given after a slash; thus T1/ 1 means Sentence 1 in Text 1 in *Appendix*. All Kazakh examples are given in a Turcological transcription; see *Transcriptions* above. Uyghur examples are given in standard Turcological transliteration. Examples taken from Turkish are given in the standard orthography. Chinese examples are given in Pinyin script indicating the tone.



# Introduction

## Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate expressions of modality in Kazakh as spoken in China. Since Turkic modal categories are generally less studied than other grammatical issues, a comprehensive study of them seems well justified. No systematic comparison with the Kazakh varieties spoken in Kazakhstan will be made. The delimitation of the topic to Kazakh as spoken in China is motivated by the fact that the author is in a position to use linguistic data collected in the Kazakh-speaking regions of China. It is not assumed here that the Kazakh spoken in these regions today should be regarded as a specific dialect. However, the documentation presented in this book illustrates that certain special innovative developments have taken place and can be explained by the sociolinguistic status of the speakers, many of whom are bi- or trilingual and are influenced by the two dominating contact languages, Chinese and Uyghur. It is hoped that the linguistic data presented here can serve as basis of comparison in forthcoming studies on the development of Kazakh as spoken in China.

Another specific aim of this work is to present some previous studies on Kazakh in China that have been published in Chinese or in Kazakh written in Arabic script, and which are not easily accessible for English-speaking readers. Due to the necessary delimitation of the scope of this investigation, less reference will be made to the important studies published in the former Soviet Union and Kazakhstan.

## Problems and methods

The method employed here is empirical, i.e. data-oriented. The modal expressions in Kazakh are analyzed in a functional framework essentially based on the works of Lars Johanson. This author has developed an integrated model for describing modal expressions in Turkic languages; see, for instance Johanson 2009, 2012a, 2012b, 2013, and 2014. His framework defines semantic notions of modality in a functional and typological perspective. This approach has been applied in the present work by asking what devices Kazakh applies in order to express various semantic notions and structuring the presentation of these according to formal categories such as grammaticalized suffixes, particles, and lexical devices. The contribution of the present investigation is to apply this theoretical framework and methodological approach to an in-depth analysis of the Kazakh data.

## Data

The data used in this study include texts recorded by the author in 2010–2012, mostly in the northern regions of Xinjiang (see *Appendix*), as well as written Kazakh texts published in Kazakhstan and China. The written texts represent different genres: fiction, non-fiction, poetry, and texts published on the internet. Moreover, examples have been elicited from native speakers of Kazakh and Uyghur.

## The Kazakh language in China

According to the most recent annual statistics published in *Xinjiang Yearbook* (XJYB 2011), based on the census of 2009, the Kazakh population in the People's Republic of China amounted to 1,514,800, making it the second largest Kazakh population in the world.

Kazakhs in China mainly inhabit Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture (*Ile qazaq aptonomiyalı obıliši*), Mori Kazakh Autonomous County (*Mori qazaq aptonomiyalı awdanı*) and Barkol Kazakh Autonomous County (*Barköl qazaq aptonomiyalı awdanı*) (XJYB 2011: 352). The Kazakh language is spoken in the following areas of Xinjiang:

The Ili, Altay, and Tarbagatay regions, all of which belong to Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture.

Ürümqi City, the Daban City region (in Ürümqi County), and the Tongsan region belonging to Ürümqi City.

Mori Kazakh Autonomous County and the counties Qitay, Jimsar, Manas, and Hutubi, which belong to the Changji Hui Autonomous Prefecture (*Sanji xuyzu aptonomiyalı obıliši*).

Barkol Kazakh Autonomous County of the Hami region (*Qumıl aymağınñ Barköl qazaq aptonomiyalı awdanı*).

Arasan and Jinghe Counties, which belong to the Bortala Mongol Autonomous Prefecture (*Buratala muñyul aptonomiyalı obıliši*), as well as Bortala City.

Outside of Xinjiang in China, Kazakh is spoken in Aksay Kazakh Autonomous County (*Aksay qazaq aptonomiyalı awdanı*) in Gansu Province and in some parts of Qinghai Province as well.

Kazakh is one of the significant minority languages in China,<sup>1</sup> playing an especially important role in the areas where Kazakhs dominate. In the different regions of Ili

1 For more information about the status of Kazakh see Abish & Csató (2011: 276).

Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture, Kazakh serves as a lingua franca (Chinese *tōng-yòng yǔyán*); i.e. it is used as a common language between speakers whose native languages are different, e.g. Uyghur, Chinese, and Xibe. Kazakh is a language of communication among Kazakhs in the other Kazakh autonomous counties. In Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture the organs of the Communist Party and the government use both Kazakh and Chinese as official languages. However, the official documents issued by the authorities to the township level administrations are mostly written in Kazakh. The Congress of the Party in this prefecture employs a translation agency for Kazakh. Public signs including names of places, streets, etc., and official stamps, are both in Kazakh and Chinese. Kazakh is also used in the courts when they deal with a case concerning a Kazakh person (Li 2007: 1673–1674).

Kazakh is a language of education, is an object of research, and it has its own print and broadcast media in China.<sup>2</sup> As for the alphabet, Kazakh in China is written in a script that is based on Arabic.

## Education in Kazakh

### *Before and after 1935*

Before 1935, there were no public schools in the Kazakh-speaking regions. Education outside the family was provided by Islamic religious institutions. The first Islamic school was established in Xinjiang in 1870, according to R. Fang (2009: 228). Kazakh boys went to the mosque to study religion and to learn Persian, Arabic, and Chaghatay, the Turkic literary language of Central Asia.

After 1935, the religious institutions changed their function and became public schools. Especially after the foundation of the People's Republic of China in 1949, the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region implemented the Communist Party's ethnic policy and introduced education in the minority languages (XJUAR 2009: 432; see also Zhou 2003: 36–59). According to the statistical data provided in XJUAR (2009: 433–434), in 2004 there were 971 secondary and high schools and 3329 elementary schools, at which education was conducted in the six major minority languages: Uyghur, Kazakh, Mongol, Kirghiz, Xibe, and Russian. At 787 schools, including elementary, secondary, and high schools, education was bilingual (XJUAR 2009: 433–434). In 1991, there were 588 Kazakh elementary schools, with 138,973 students, 89 secondary schools, with 31,880 students, and 42 high schools, with 16,067 students, in total in Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture.

### *Bilingual instruction*

In 1964, several experimental classes (Chinese *shíyàn bān*) were started at some secondary schools in Xinjiang (X. Fang 2009: 59). In these classes, all subjects were taught in Chinese, except for Kazakh literature. From 1966 to 1976, due to the

2 For more information on the history and culture of the Kazakhs in China see Benson & Svanberg (1988, 1998), and Light (1993).

turmoil of the Cultural Revolution, Kazakh schools were closed. Minority education in Xinjiang began to be restored and developed after 1976. At Kazakh schools, Chinese language instruction started first from the third grade, later from the first grade in elementary schools. Until the end of 2004, at Kazakh elementary, secondary, and high schools the main subjects were taught in Kazakh. The teaching materials were translated from Chinese. In 2005, bilingual or alternatively monolingual Chinese instruction for Kazakh children started from the first grade (Abish & Csató 2011: 277). Bilingual education was expanded to 100% of the preschools in the year 2011 throughout Xinjiang.

#### *Education at the universities*

Courses at Chinese universities are taught mainly in Chinese. Thus Kazakh students who are educated in Kazakh schools, must take one or two years of preparatory courses (Chinese *yùkē*) after enrollment at a university outside Xinjiang. The aim of these courses is to improve the students' competence in Chinese before they start to study their major subject. Certain subjects are given in Uyghur at the universities in Xinjiang.

#### *Code-copying varieties of Kazakh*

As a result of the bilingual and Chinese-monolingual education of Kazakh children, a high-copying variety of the language has developed among the young Kazakh generations.<sup>3</sup> Although this is a natural process, it meets with many negative attitudes among the Kazakh people; see also Csató (1998) for similar negative attitudes in the Karaim community.<sup>4</sup> These attitudes and the high-copying variety spoken in Ürümqi have been studied in a paper by Abish & Csató (2011). The following conclusions were drawn:

Languages do not die of copying, as Johanson (2002a) has pointed out, but they might change significantly as a result of it. More important in language maintenance is the attitude towards language use. As in urban multicultural settings Kazakh is used in a restricted domain, the speakers can develop less favorable attitudes to the use of this language. This can in the future lead to more and more speakers shifting to the dominant languages. Sociolinguistic studies of language attitudes can shed more light on this issue. The documentation of the language use as it is today is an important and urgent task. Kazakh is not an endangered language at present but increasing bilingualism will surely lead to many contact-induced changes. Moreover, as the conditions for the development of Kazakh varieties are different in the various regions in Xinjiang, increasing divergence may be observed in the future (Bradley 2005).

3 This variety of the language is illustrated in Text 9 of *Appendix*.

4 This is illustrated by Text 5 in *Appendix*.

## Research on Kazakh in China

Academic research on Kazakh is carried out at several institutions in China: Xinjiang Academy of Social Sciences (Kazakh *Şinjʷañ qoyamdıq Ʒılımdar ákedemiyası*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng shèhuì kēxuéyuàn*), Minzu University of China (Kazakh *ʷOrtalıq ulttar Ʒıversiteti*, Chinese *Zhōngyāng mínzú dàxué*), Xinjiang University (Kazakh *Şinjʷañ Ʒıversiteti*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng dàxué*), The Working Committee of Minorities' Language and Writing of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region (Kazakh *Şinjʷañ tıl jazuw komiteti*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng wéiwú'ér zìzhìqū mínzú yǔyán wénzì gōngzuò wéiyuánhui*), The Working Committee of Minorities' Language and Writing of Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture (Kazakh *İle tıl jazuw komiteti*, Chinese *Yīlí hāsàkè zìzhìzhōu mínzú yǔyán wénzì gōngzuò wéiyuánhui*), and Ili Normal University (Kazakh *İle pedagogika şöwäni*, Chinese *Yīlí shīfān xuéyuàn*). We here provide some information about these institutions.

### *Xinjiang Academy of Social Sciences, Ürümqi*

Research on Kazakh is carried out at the Institute of Languages of the Xinjiang Academy of Social Sciences. The Institute of Languages was founded in 1978. Since then, the institute has published numerous linguistic and historical books, and a variety of dictionaries in Chinese, Uyghur, and Kazakh. The journal *Xinjiang Social Science* (Kazakh *Şinjʷañ qoyamdıq Ʒılımi*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng shèhuì kēxué*) is published quarterly by the Academy, which also organizes national and regional academic conferences and symposiums. Scholars from Kazakhstan regularly visit the Academy.

### *Minzu University of China, Beijing*

The Department of Kazakh Language and Literature at Minzu University of China is a relatively young department. The study of Kazakh was introduced there by Professor Geng Shimin and some other scholars in 1953. In 1971, a Section of Kazakh Language and Literature was established.<sup>5</sup> The section was headed by Professor Geng Shimin (1971–1989), Professor Li Zengxiang (1989–1995), and Professor Erkin Awgali (1995–2004). In April 15, 2004, the Section of Kazakh Language and Literature was made into a separate department. From the beginning the head of the new department has been Professor Zhang Dingjing.

5 From 1994 to 1996, it was called Department of Turkic Languages and Literatures (Kazakh *Türük tektes ulttar tıl-ádebıyetı fakulteti*, Chinese *Tūjué yǔyán wénxué xī*). From 1996 to 2000 its name was Department of Uyghur, Kazakh, Kirghiz Languages and Cultures (Kazakh *Uyğur-қазақ-қырғыз тіл-мәдениеті факультеті*, Chinese *Wéi hā kē yǔyán wénhuà xī*). From 2000 to 2001, the name was changed to Department of Turkic Languages and Cultures (Kazakh *Türük tektes ulttar tıl-мәдениеті факультеті*, Chinese *Tūjué yǔyán wénhuà xī*). From 2001 to 2004, it was renamed Department of Uyghur, Kazakh, Kirghiz Languages and Literatures (Kazakh *Uyğur-қазақ-қырғыз тіл-ádebıyetı факультеті*, Chinese *Wéi hā kē yǔyán wénxué xī*) (DEKLL 2013).

Over the past 60 years, 47 faculty members have worked in the fields of Kazakh language and literature at Minzu University of China. At present there are 11 faculty members with 189 undergraduates, 20 MA students and nine PhD students enrolled at the department. Moreover, the department has held workshops and international conferences, and published five volumes containing the proceedings of these academic meetings. Since 2006, the department has had close cooperation with academic institutions and universities in Kazakhstan, and with other foreign universities, for instance Uppsala University.

### *The Working Committees of Minorities' Language and Writing*

The Working Committee of Minorities' Language and Writing of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region was founded in 1960. This committee is responsible for the standardization of the minority languages of Xinjiang including Kazakh. The committee is also responsible for creating new Kazakh words. The Working Committee of Minorities' Language and Writing in Ili Kazakh Autonomous Prefecture was established earlier, already in 1950. The main task of this committee is to coordinate the language use between Uyghur and Kazakh in the prefecture.

### **Publications in Kazakh**

There are three publishing houses which publish Kazakh books, CDs, and DVDs in China: The Ethnic Publishing House (Kazakh *Ułttar baspası*, Chinese *Minzú chūbǎn shè*) in Beijing, Xinjiang People's Publishing House (Kazakh *Şinj'añ xalıq baspası*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng rénmin chūbǎn shè*) in Ürümqi, and Ili People's Publishing House (Kazakh *İle xalıq baspası*, Chinese *Yīlǐ rénmin chūbǎn shè*) in Kuytun.

According to statistics from 2010, Xinjiang has 12 publishing houses, including 10 book publishers, and two audio and video publishing houses. In Xinjiang 1153 persons work in the publishing sector, including 726 professional and technical workers. They publish 127 newspapers, including 52 in ethnic languages, and 207 journals, of which 113 are in ethnic languages (XJYB 2011: 335). 11 Kazakh newspapers are regularly published. The best known of these are: "Xinjiang Daily" (Kazakh *Şinj'añ gǎzetı*, Chinese *Xīnjiāng rìbào*), "Altay Daily" (Kazakh *Altay gǎzetı*, Chinese *Ālètài rìbào*), "Tacheng News" (Kazakh *Tarbayatay gǎzetı*, Chinese *Tǎchéng rìbào*). The number of Kazakh journals is 27. The best known are: "Ili River" (Kazakh *İle "özenı*, Chinese *Yīlǐ hé*), "Tarbagatay" (Kazakh *Tarbayatay*, Chinese *Tǎchéng*), "Heritage" (Kazakh *Mura*, Chinese *Yīchǎn*), "Altay Spring Scenery" (Kazakh *Altay ayası*, Chinese *Ālètài chūnguāng*), "Dawn" (Kazakh *Şuyula*, Chinese *Shúguāng*).

The academic journals published in Kazakh include:

*Til jáne awdarma* [Language and Translation]<sup>6</sup> (Chinese *Yǔyán yǔ fānyì*).<sup>7</sup>

6 The English translations of the journals' names are the ones printed on the journals.

7 This is a high-quality periodical published in Xinjiang. It is sponsored by The Working Com-

*Šinj'an qoyamdiq yilimi* [Xinjiang Social Science] (Chinese *Xīnjiāng shèhuì kēxué*).

*Šinj'an qoyamdiq yilimdar minbesi* [Tribune of Social Sciences in Xinjiang] (Chinese *xīnjiāng shèkē lùntán*).

*Šinj'an universiteti yilimi jurnali: filosofiya-qoyamdiq yilimdar* [Journal of Xinjiang University. Philosophy, Humanities & Social Science] (Chinese *Xīnjiāng dàxué xuébào: shèhuì kēxué*).

*Ile pedagogika šiweyüwani yilimi jurnali* [Journal of Ili Normal University] (Chinese *Yīlǐ shīfàn xuéyuàn xuébào*).

Articles about the language, history, and culture of Kazakh written in Chinese appear in some Chinese academic journals, for instance:

*Yīlǐ shīfàn xuéyuàn xuébào* [Journal of Xinjiang Normal University].

*Zhōngyāng mínzú dàxué xuébào: Zhéxué shèhuì kēxué bǎn* [Journal of The Central University of Nationalities<sup>8</sup> Humane and Social Sciences Edition].

*Shìjiè mínzú* [World Ethno-National Studies].

*Xībēi mínzú yánjiū* [N.W. Journal of Ethnology].

*Zhōngguó mínzú jiàoyù* [Minority education].

*Xībēi mínzú dàxué xuébào* [Journal of Northwest University for Nationalities].

*Mínzú yǔwén* [Minority Languages of China].

Scholarly publications about Kazakh written in Chinese are published by different Chinese publishers. The most important of these are *Zhōngyāng mínzú dàxué chūbǎn shè* [Chinese Minzu University Press], and *Mínzú chūbǎn shè* [The Ethnic Publishing House].

## Broadcasting in Kazakh as spoken in China

### Television

The Xinjiang television station was founded in October 1970, in Ürümqi. Broadcasting in Kazakh was established in 1993 as a shared-time program together with the Chinese and Uyghur languages. At present, there are fifteen TV channels at the station, of which three TV channels (XJTV3 XJTV8 and XJTV12) broadcast in Ka-

mittee of Minority Language and Writing of the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region and the Xinjiang Translators' Association and is published in five ethnic languages, namely Chinese, Uyghur, Kazakh, Mongol, and Kirghiz.

8 This is the former name of Minzu University of China.