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THE GREAT TONE SPLIT AND CENTRAL KAREN

by

William G. Kauffman

Bachelor of Religious Education, Prairie Bible College

1983

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty

of the

University of North Dakota in partial fulfillment of the requirements

for the degree of Master of Arts

Grand Forks, North Dakota

December

1993

This thesis, submitted by William G. Kauffman in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts from the University of North Dakota, has been read by the Faculty Advisory Committee under whom the work has been done and is hereby approved.

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(Chairperson)

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This thesis meets the standards for appearance, conforms to the style and format requirements of the Graduate School of the University of North Dakota, and is hereby approved.

Dean of the Graduate School

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I thank churches and friends for their finances, prayers, and encouragement, and God for strength when I did not feel I could get through another page.

Dedicated to:

Sara Du Phaebu (Thaebuphae)

Kayah leader, linguist, and philanthropist
Whose dedication to the welfare of his people is undisputed

ABSTRACT

This thesis is a comparative reconstruction of the tones and initial consonants of Proto-Central Karen based on the languages Eastern Kayah, Western Kayah, Geba, and Padaung. Other Karen languages are referred to but not studied to the same detail.

The study focuses on the great tone split that affected nearly all the languages of Southeast Asia, including Central Karen. I show that an understanding of the great tone split is crucial if one is to discover the phonological characteristics of Proto-Central Karen syllable-initial consonants.

In agreement with Haudricourt's (1946) analysis of Proto-Karen, I conclude that Proto-Central Karen had three proto-tones and a series of voiceless sonorants, and was affected by a great tone split in which the sets of voiced and voiceless consonants merged and the three proto-tones split. These are different conclusions than those drawn by two other major reconstructions of Proto-Karen, Jones (1961) and Burling (1969).

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Purpose and Contributions

The main purpose of this study is to explain how the great tone split of Southeast Asia affected the initial consonants, vowel phonation and tone of several Central Karen languages. I show that an understanding of this phenomenon is crucial in reconstructing the Proto-Central Karen forms.

Haudricourt (1946) reconstructed Proto-Karen on the basis of only two Southern Karen languages. This study shows that his framework for analysis is also useful in reconstructing Central Karen languages. 1

Matisoff (1969:18) says it is better to get at Proto Tibeto-Burman by first reconstructing the various groups, of which Proto-Karen is one. Applying this concept one step down to a lower level of reconstruction, it would be easier to reconstruct Proto-Karen if the sub-groups within Karen have already been reconstructed. This study is one step toward the reconstruction of the Central Karen group.

Haudricourt showed that in Karen three original "tones" split up in two or three different ways, producing up to nine tones. This can be graphed on what I call a 3x3 grid.

Jones (1961:82) stated, "Before a true Proto-Karen can be arrived at, many other dialects must be included." He specifically mentions Kayah and Padaung. Both of those languages are included in this study, giving future reconstructionists of Proto-Karen more languages on which to base their conclusions.

Solnit (1989) introduces how East and West Kayah and Padaung fit into the tone analysis established by Haudricourt (1946). This study expands on Solnit's work.

This study provides modern data in Geba, confirming Luce's (1959:8) opinion that the voicing and loss of aspiration on initial sonorants in Geba was taking place in that generation of speakers. These new data give us two viewpoints from which to investigate the great tone split in process.

An incidental contribution of this study is its inclusion of data from Padaung, which up to the present has been absent in the majority of presentations on Karen. It also includes forms for Pa-o from Hopple (n.d.), which are valuable for reconstructing Proto-Karen final consonants.

1.2 Demographics

Most Karen people live in the mountains within about one hundred miles of the Thai-Myanmar border. More live in Myanmar (formerly Burma) than in Thailand.

Grimes (1992) lists fifteen Karen languages, with a total population of 3.5 million. The two largest and

southern-most groups are the Sgaw and the Pwo with about 1.25 million speakers each. The Pa-o is the northern-most group, living in Shan State in Myanmar. They number over one half million.

Central Karen

Sandwiched between the Pa-o to the north and the Sgaw and Pwo to the south are about ten smaller Karen languages, totalling less than one half million speakers. It is thus a calling these languages Central Karen. It is thus a geographical designation, referring to the Karen languages spoken in Kayah State of Myanmar and the adjacent areas in Myanmar and Maehongsong Province in Thailand.

In time we may discover that Central Karen is also a linguistic designation. For example, Solnit (1989) notes that most of the Central Karen languages evidence contrastive phonation of the vowels, while the northern and southern languages do not.

It is difficult to know exactly how many languages are in the Central Karen area. One knowledgeable resident of Kayah State was able to list nine language groups. As he gave me the list however, he pointed out that at least some of the groups are divided on the basis of customs rather than language. For example, in his opinion the difference

²Accurate statistics are hard to gather since Kayan State is in a state of civil unrest.

between the Yeinbaw and Padaung is that the women of the latter wear brass rings around their necks.

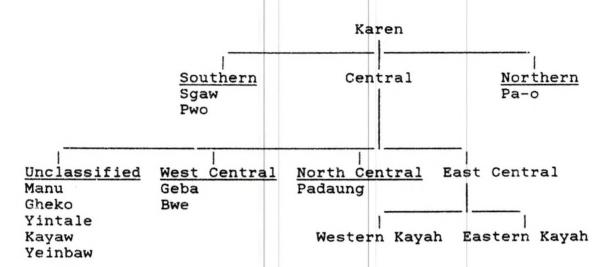
Another difficulty is that most languages have more than one name. There is a Burmese name, perhaps a Thai, Shan or English name, the name the people call themselves, names they are called by surrounding Karen groups, and in some cases a "politically correct" name. In addition, some of the names are actually deictic designations, with meanings like people upstream, or westerner, and so the group with that name is always the next one upstream, or the next one to the west (Solnit 1986).

For the purposes of this study, some of the Central Karen languages can tentatively be divided on the basis of three geographical areas, as in Figure 1.4 This study focuses on languages from each area. I call Geba a West Central Karen language, Padaung a North Central Karen language, and Eastern and Western Kayah East Central Karen languages. These four languages are the largest in number of speakers (Grimes 1992), accounting for eighty-three percent of the total number of Central Karen speakers.

The difficulties encountered in listing Tibeto-Burman languages are detailed in Matisoff (1973a).

⁴See section 1.4 for a discussion of the classification Karen.

Figure 1: The Karen Languages



East Central Karen (Kayah)

The Central Karen language with the most speakers is Kayah (Karenni, Red Karen, Yan Lian, etc). The group numbers 210,000 according to a 1983 estimate (Grimes 1992).

I use the term Kayah because it more specifically refers to the language in question. It is also the term used by several other linguists in former and ongoing research. The Kayah leaders use the term Karenni (literally in Burmese 'Red Karen') as a more general name for all the Karen groups in Kayah State.

Within Kayah itself there is variation, the two major divisions being Eastern and Western Kayah. The Kayah people claim that the Salween River is the dividing line between the two dialects. See the map in Figure 2. The Eastern and Western Kayah consider themselves to be ethnically one, but the degree of intelligibility between the two dialects has

not to my knowledge been tested. At least one Eastern Kayah speaker, when exposed to Western Kayah speakers talking with each other, could not understand them. There seemed to be quite a number of Western Kayah speakers, on the other hand, who could understand Eastern Kayah. This could be due to having contact with Eastern Kayah after moving to Thailand, or perhaps exposure to Eastern-type varieties of Kayah in western Kayah State. 5

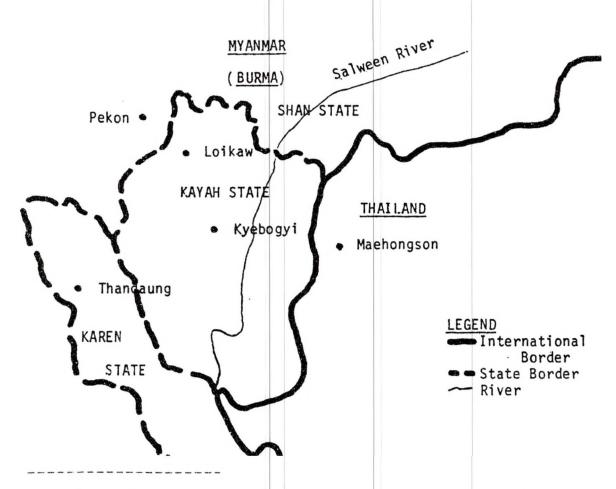


Figure 2: Map of Central Karen Area

⁵Two Eastern-type dialects in western Kayah State are documented by Bennett (1991).

West Central Karen (Geba)

Geba is spoken by about 40,000 people in Northern Karen State to the southwest of Kayah State (Grimes 1992).

I am unsure whether the language area extends into southwestern Kayah State.

North Central Karen (Padaung)

Padaung is spoken by about 41,000 people in northwestern Kayah State and the adjacent town of Phekon in southern Shan State (Grimes 1992). There are also Padaung living to the southwest of Kayah State.

1.3 Data Sources

This study is based to a large extent on word lists gathered personally during two six-month periods in northwestern Thailand under the sponsorship of Payap University and the Summer Institute of Linguistics. 7

The word lists were transcribed and recorded from a standard word list of 406 words for each language. Most of the nouns were elicited and recorded first in isolation,

⁶Padaung people have been featured in National Geographic because many of the women wear a long spiral of brass "rings" around their necks (Keshishian 1979).

⁷I am very thankful to Payap University for their help in securing visas and authorization. I am thankful for J. Fraser Bennett for helpful input which I considered in my revision of my Western Kayah list. For Geba and Padaung I leaned heavily on Bennett's (1992) revision of my list since I had not marked breathiness on my first exposure to the languages. I take responsibility for any mistakes.

then in a frame that included the word, a numeral, and the relevant classifier. If there was any uncertainty about the tone, the frame was altered by inserting a different numeral with a different tone. In this way, any one entry could be juxtaposed with a numeral with low tone, high tone, and mid tone. This facilitated hearing the tone of the word, as well as helping to determine whether the tone changed in different environments. Verbs were elicited in isolation and with a modifier.

The Eastern Kayah dialect of this study is identical to that already described by Solnit (1986), spoken in several villages to the south of Maehongson in Thailand. For the location of the language groups, see Figure 2. Eastern Kayah is the only Central Karen language native to Thailand. If there are discrepancies between my list and Solnit's, I would suspect that it is because he knows the language in detail.

My language teacher, $Ka^5m\varepsilon^2$, was a woman from the village of $Huaj^{4/2}$ Dwe^{-1} , south of the provincial capital town of Maehongson. She was literate in Thai and spoke Shan in addition to Eastern Kayah. She was about thirty-five years old.

Tones throughout superscript numbers, [1] this study are marked with superscript numbers, [1] is the lowest and [5] highest. Two indicate that the tone is falling or rising.

⁹The name of both the province and the provincial capital is Maehongson.

The Western Kayah data in this study is from the dialect spoken in Kyebogyi. According to native residents of the Kyebogyi area, the Kyebogyi dialect is the standard one. It is the dialect used on the radio and in indigenous Western Kayah schools.

I elicited Western Kayah word lists from three different people. The list I use in this study is from $Ph\varepsilon^3bu^3$, who was about thirty years old. He is literate in Burmese and Western Kayah, and can also read some English. He wrote the entire list of words for me in Kayah script. This was a big help, especially since he transcribed breathiness, which I could not always hear. I was able to compare his list with my personal list and check out discrepancies. $Ph\varepsilon^3bu^3$ is one of the men who helped design the computer font for Kayah Script. He is gifted in poetry and musical instruments, and knows some of the "old traditional songs".

My teacher of Geba was a twenty-four year old woman named $P\varepsilon^3ro^5sa^3$. She had recently come to Thailand from a village called $Ke^3s\varepsilon^5plu^{2l}$, in $Lei^3\theta u^3$ township, in the Karen State of Myanmar. The village is located southwest of Kyebogye. Her father died when she was seven years old. She left home at the age of sixteen.

In addition to Geba, she speaks Burmese, Gekho, and some "White Karen". She has no formal education, but

learned to read somewhat by reading the Geba books used in her church.

My Padaung information was provided by Lapi42, a man about forty years old. His wife was also a Padaung speaker. He is a farmer with rice paddy fields in Demoso, northwestern Kayah State. He had been in Thailand about two years. In addition to Padaung, he knew Burmese and was learning Western Kayah.

1.4 Classification of Karen

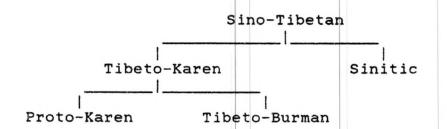
Scholars agree that Karen is a Sino-Tibetan language, but they disagree concerning the genetic relationship of Karen to Tibeto-Burman. Benedict (1972) believes there is insufficient evidence to place Karen in the Tibeto-Burman branch. He places Karen at the same taxonomic level as Tibeto-Burman, both deriving from Tibeto-Karen, as in Figure 3 below. Some scholars take the similarities between Tibeto-Burman and Karen as an indication of Karen's membership in the Tibeto-Burman family. Benedict attributes these similarities to borrowing.

One of the reasons Benedict split Karen off from the Tibet-Burman languages at such a high level is Karen's SVO word order, which is unlike any other Tibeto-Burman language (SOV).

Having said that, Benedict introduced the possibility that Karen may have split off early from the Burmese-Lolo Nungish division of Tibeto-Burman, with its word order

later affected by the Tai languages (also SVO) (Benedict 1972:128-29).

Figure 3: Karen's Relation in Sino-Tibetan According to Benedict



Benedict uses solid comparative principles and should be taken seriously. It was he who in 1942 first connected Thai with Austronesian rather than Chinese as others had done. He based his judgment on finding cognates in the "basic core of the vocabulary" rather than shared cultural vocabulary (Egerod 1972:499).

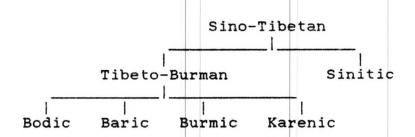
Other scholars, however, disagree with Benedict's conclusions. Weidert argues that the fact that Karen has a different word order does not preclude its inclusion in Tibeto-Burman. 10 Wheatly (1985) shows that it is possible for a language to change its word order in a relatively short time.

Matisoff (1973:12) lists Karenic as one of four major divisions of Tibeto-Burman, along with Bodic, Burmic, and Baric, but notes Benedict's disagreement. See Figure 4.

¹⁰For a fuller discussion see Weidert (1987:330-332).

Solnit (1986) places Karen in the Tibeto-Burman branch of the Sino-Tibetan linguistic stock. The point is that Karen is hard to classify. It differs from any other language group in the area.

Figure 4: Karen's Relation to Sino-Tibetan and Tibeto-Burman According to Matisoff



As yet there seems to have been no attempt to classify the languages within Karen on anything other than geographical grounds (Solnit 1989:1). The divisions of Karen in Figure 1 are thus geographical designations.

1.5 Previous Studies

Haudricourt (1943) reconstructed Proto-Karen on the basis of a comparison of Pwo and Sgaw. His analysis (discussed later) forms the basis for this study.

In 1961 Jones did a major reconstruction in the Karenic group. His data were from six languages and dialects, including Sgaw, Pwo and Pa-o, but no Central Karen languages.

In 1969 Burling reanalyzed Jones's data. Burling felt that, because Jones followed the Theory of Linguistic

Bifurcation, he ended up not being able to posit a protoform for any word that did not have a cognate in each of the six daughter languages, thus leaving many gaps in his final comparison. Of his 859 cognate sets, Jones reconstructs only 195 back to Proto-Karen.

Burling (1969:7) also claimed that Jones's rules were extremely complex. On the positive side, he thought Jones's data (apart from a few suspicious forms) appeared to be very reliable.

Bennett (1989) compares the three analyses and concludes that Haudricourt's (1946) explanation of the tones is the most simple and symmetrical. Solnit (1989) and Bennett (1991) find that his theory adequately accounts for the tones of several Central Karen languages. This present study will expand what Solnit and Bennett have done by applying Haudricourt's theory to several more Central Karen languages.

CHAPTER 2: SYNCHRONIC PHONOLOGICAL INVENTORIES OF THE LANGUAGES IN THIS STUDY

This chapter gives a brief introduction to the phonologies of the four Central Karen languages in this study.

2.1 Eastern Kayah

Of Central Karen languages, Eastern Kayah has the most contact with Thai. Its phonemic inventory shown in Figure 5 has several similarities to Thai not found in the other Central Karen languages in this study. Only Eastern Kayah has the phonemes /ch/ and $/\text{v}/,^{11}$ and a contrastive high falling tone [52], ¹² each of which is similar to Thai. ¹³

The Eastern Kayah phonemic charts in Figure 5 and some of the notes that follow are adapted from

 $^{^{11} \}mbox{This}$ study uses International Phonetic Association symbols, unless otherwise noted. In Karen, [ch] is an aspirated, voiceless, alveo-palatal flat affricate (IPA tch). The similar but unaspirated Karen segment is [c] (IPA tc). The similar but voiced segment in Proto-Central Karen is [dz].

¹² See Chapter Three for the historical development of the [52] tone.

 $^{^{13}}$ I do not claim that /ch/ has been borrowed from Thai. The influence of Thai may have slowed the progress of the *ch > sh sound change which occurred in other Central Karen Languages.

Figure 5: Eastern Kayah Phonemic Inventory

Eastern Kayah Consonant Chart

| | labial | dental | alveo- palatal | retro- flex | velar | glottal |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------|
| voiceless unaspirated | р | t | С | | k | |
| voiceless aspirated | ph | th | ch | | kh | |
| voiced stop | ъ | đ | | | | |
| nasal | m | n | | | ŋ | |
| fricative | | s | | | | h |
| approximant | w | 1 | j | r | | |

Eastern Kayah Vowel Chart

| | Front | Central | Back unrounded | Back rounded |
|-----------|-------|---------|-------------------|-----------------|
| Close | i | | w | u |
| Close mid | е | | (v) | 0 |
| Open mid | ε | 9 | | э |
| Open | | a | | |

Eastern Kayah Diphthongs

ja wi wa

Eastern Kayah Tones

- [5] high level, with glottal stop utterance final
- [52] high falling, with glottal stop utterance final
- [3] mid
- [2] (or [1]) low level. with glottal stop utterance final
- [21] low falling, always ending with glottal constriction

Solnit (1986:14-15). ¹⁴ The phoneme /s/ is a flat spirant. The vowels /e o/ are higher than cardinal position. Both segments off-glide very slightly: $[e^i]$ and $[o^u]$. The close vowels /i u/, on the other hand, are sometimes lower than cardinal position, making them hard for the non-native speaker to distinguish from /e o/. The back unrounded vowels /w v/ are slightly centralized. The vowel /v/ occurs only in a few words, almost always loans from Shan or Thai, and is contrastive only in the high tone.

The mid central vowel /e/ varies from open-mid as in the vowel of English but, to close-mid as in the vowel and unretroflexed /r/ in British English sir. Solnit (1986) uses the symbol A for this segment. He uses the symbol e for the unstressed, colorless vowel in several affixes. I do not always distinguish between the stressed and unstressed segments in this study, but when I do, I indicate the reduced nature of the /e/ in the affixes by giving them no tone mark.

Eastern Kayah has the diphthongs /wi wa ja/. 15
Phonetically, the approximants in these diphthongs are very similar to the corresponding close vowels.

¹⁴ In endorsing and applying these notes, I take responsibility for any mistakes.

¹⁵ Diphthong is a term used in the phonetic classification of vowel sounds (Crystal 1991:105). In this study I usually use the term for a single phonological unit, sometimes known as a gliding vowel (Crystal 1991:377). In a few cases, in which the context

2.2 Western Kayah

Western Kayah consonants in Figure 6 are similar to Eastern Kayah except that the interdental phoneme /0/replaces /s/, the aspirated spirant /sh/replaces the affricate /ch/, and the voiced flat spirant /z/ is added.

The vowels of Western Kayah in Figure 6 are identical to Eastern Kayah, except that the phonemes /v ə/ are absent and phonation is contrastive. Each of the vowels may occur as breathy or non-breathy. ¹⁶ The segment [ə] occurs predictably in the data in unstressed syllables, or as part of the diphthong /we/.

The diphthong /ja/ is fairly consistently an on-glide. For the others, it is difficult to determine whether these should be interpreted as on-glides, off-glides, or as two vowels of equal rank. The same combination may sound like an on-glide in an utterance final syllable with no glottal stop, or like an off-glide if there is a glottal stop.

Solnit (1989:4) feels that the two components of the diphthongs are about equal in duration and intensity.

should make it obvious, I use the term for an approximant and vowel, that is, two phonemes within the same syllable.

¹⁶Phonation is contrastive following initial sonorants and unaspirated voiceless stops, but not following fricatives, aspirated or voiced stops. The phonetic features of breathiness have not yet been adequately described for Central Karen languages. Solnit (1989) discusses it briefly. Breathy vowels and diphthongs are marked with two subscripted dots.

Figure 6: Western Kayah Phonemic Inventory

Western Kayah Consonant Chart

| | labial | dental | alveo- palatal | retro- flex | velar | glottal |
|--------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------|
| voiceless unaspirated | p | t | С | | k | |
| voiceless aspirated | ph | th | sh | | kh | |
| voiced stop | b | đ | | | | |
| nasal | m | n | | | ŋ | |
| fricative | | ө | z | | | h |
| approximant | W | 1 | j | r | | |

Western Kayah Vowel Chart

| | Front | | Ce | entral | Back unrounde | | Back l rounde | | |
|-----------|-------|---|----|--------|------------------|---|------------------|---|--|
| Close | i | i | | | w | w | u | ų | |
| Close-mid | ę | e | | | | | 0 | Ö | |
| Open-mid | ε | Ę | | | | | Э | Ö | |
| Open | | | а | a | | | | | |

Western Kayah Diphthongs

ie ie ja ja we we uo uo wi wi

Western Kayah Tones

- [5] high, with optional glottal stop utterance final
- [3] mid
- [1] low, with optional glottal stop utterance final

Bryant (1992:6-7) interprets Western Kayah diphthongs as off-glides, but notes that this interpretation is not without some problems.

2.3 Padaung

Padaung consonants shown in Figure 7 are similar to Western Kayah, except that Padaung has contrastive voiceless, labial-velar approximant /m/, but does not have /z/. The phonemic status of glottal stop /?/ is questionable. It may be the contrastive feature distinguishing low tone [1] from low tone [2]. Its status is discussed further in Chapter Four.

Padaung has the fewest number of simple vowels, but a very rich variety of diphthongs. Phonation can occur on all vowels and diphthongs, but I do not know if it is contrastive. Breathy vowels tend to be longer and slightly falling in tone.

Padaung has a limited number of nasal vowels. All [-front -close] vowels and diphthongs may occur as nasal vowels. Only the first vowel of the diphthong needs to follow this condition (all diphthongs occur as nasal except [ei]).

There are some vowels in the data which are not included in Figure 7. The vowels [o õ] are probably allophones of /eu eŭ/, occurring in unstressed syllables or shortened by a glottal stop. There are a few cases where [a ã] likewise seem to be shortened forms of an

Figure 7: Padaung Phonemic Inventory

Padaung Consonants

| 1 | abial | dental | alveo- palatal | retro- flex | velar | glottal |
|--------------------------|-------|--------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------|
| voiceless unaspirated | р | t | С | | k | (?) |
| voiceless aspirated | ph | th | sh | | kh | |
| voiced stop | р | đ | | | | |
| nasal | m | n | | | ŋ | |
| fricative | | ө | | | | h |
| approximant | W M | 1 | j | r | | |

Padaung Vowels and Diphthongs

| | Front | | Се | ntr | al | Bac | ck rounded | Bac | |
|-----------|-------|------|----|-----|----|-----|---------------|-----|----|
| Close | i | | | | | w | | u | |
| Close-mid | ei | | | | | me | əŭ | əu | əŭ |
| Open-mid | ε | | | | | | | ၁ | 5 |
| Open | | ai a | ã | ай | au | aŭ | | | |

Padaung Tones 17

- [42] high, with a falling contour
- [3] mid, optionally closed with a glottal stop
- [2] and [1] low

Thigh falling [42] tone does not always fall when followed by another [42] tone. The low tones [2] and [1] are nearly identical in pitch, the differences being [breathy, slightly rating, longer, and open symmetry versus [non-breathy, level, shorter, and closed syllable]. I have not tested which of those contrastive.

open -> close diphthong, and [1] seems to be a shortened or unstressed pronunciation of /ei/ or /i/.

The following is a preliminary proposal regarding the phonological status of Padaung diphthongs. Many diphthongs start with the approximants /j/, /m/ or /w/, as listed below. Most of these occur only once or twice in the list of 406 words. The fact that they occur in such a variety of combinations, and with so few examples of each, makes me suspect that they are a combination of consonant and vowel. Another evidence for this claim is that [j] and [w] occur in combination with other diphthongs, as in [iam] 69 and [wam] 33. 18 If these were vowels, Padaung would have diphthongs with three vowels, which is not as likely. I list an example from the word list for each:

| [iĕ] 53 [ii] 72 | [Mhi] 282 [Mha] 48 | [wi] 81 / [we] 254 | [ui] 280 |
|----------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------|------------|
| [ið] 312 | [mhã] 194 | [we] 355 | |
| [iəu] 84 | | [uə] 400 | . [|
| [iaŭ] 69 [iã] 350 | | [watt] 33 / [wā] 347 | [uatt] 294 |
| [itt] 182 | | [wa] 176 | |
| [iu] 37, | | [ww] 31 | |
| | | [wo] 96 | |

Several more examples which could perhaps be included as approximant plus vowel combinations, but which I transcribed as close-mid vowels are [ew] 12 and [oe] 328.

 $^{^{18} \}mbox{The approximant /j/}$ is transcribed as a high front vowel [i] in these examples from the word list.

The following diphthongs, on the other hand, occur frequently in the data. I consider these to be single phonemic units. All these end with a close vowel. There are constraints on the allowable combinations of vowels, resulting is a pleasing symmetry:

- 1. The diphthong that starts with a front close-mid vowel must end with the front close vowel [ei].
- 2. Those that start with a back close-mid vowel must end with a back close vowel [əw], [əw], [əw], [əw].
- 3. Those that begin with the open vowel can end with either front or back close vowels, [ai], [aw], [au], [aw].

The only combination missing in the symmetry is [aw], but considering the small sample of data, this is not surprising. 19 The diphthong [5 $\tilde{\mathrm{u}}$] 30 appears to be an exception to the above constraints, but what I have transcribed may in fact be an allophone of $/\mathrm{e}\tilde{\mathrm{u}}$ /.

The nasalization in nasal vowels is quite strong, especially on the second member of a diphthong. The most common nasal diphthong is /at/. It is back, unrounded, very close, and strongly nasalized. At first I thought it was a velar nasal consonant. Bennett later convinced me that

¹⁹ There is another possible reason for this lack of symmetry. The diphthong [aŭ] derives from Proto-Karen [*aŋ] (cf. Pa-o 7, 26, etc.). There may be no historical reason for the existence of [aw].

was not the case, although I do not think the matter has yet been fully tested.

Padaung is one of the few Karen languages to retain any nasal vowels. Padaung has Karen cognates for many of the words which Pa-o lost due to borrowing, so this is a potential key for discovering more about the final stops in Proto-Karen.

Phonation, tone, and glottalization act in concert in Padaung, making it difficult to know a priori which of the features is contrastive. Padaung has three tones: high falling [42], mid [3], and low tones [2] and [1]. Tone [1] is always closed with a glottal stop in utterance final position. Tone [3] can optionally be closed with a glottal stop.

Phonation can occur on the mid [3] and low tone which I have labelled [2]. Breathy vowels are not closed with a glottal stop.

2.4 Geba

The Geba word list is preliminary phonetic data. The consonants, vowels and tones in Figure 9 should be tested to see if they are phonemic.

Geba has no $/\eta/$, but it has the palatal nasal $/\eta/$. It joins Padaung in having the voiceless labial-velar approximant /m/.

All the vowels can occur with breathy phonation. It appears to be phonemic. There are some cases of nasalized

Figure 8: Geba Phonemic Inventory

Geba Consonants

| 1 | abial | dental | alveo- palatal | retro- flex | velar | glottal |
|--------------------------|-------|--------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------|
| voiceless unaspirated | р | t | С | | k | |
| voiceless aspirated | ph | th | ch/sh | | kh | |
| voiced stop | b | đ | | | | |
| nasal | m | n | n | | | |
| fricative | | Ө | z | | | h |
| approximant | w m | 1 | j | r | | |

Geba Vowels

| | F | ront | Ce | entral | Back unrounted | | | ack ounded |
|-----------|---|------|----|--------|-------------------|---|---|---------------|
| Close | i | i | | | W | m | u | u |
| Close-mid | е | (= | υ | Ų | | | 0 | Ö |
| Open-mid | ε | έ | | | | | С | Ö |
| Open | | | a | a | | | | |

Geba Tones

- [5] high
- [3] mid
- [1] low

vowels. They do not correspond to the occurrence of nasal vowels in Padaung. I am unsure if they are contrastive, or can be linked to historical nasal consonants. I have not included them in Figure 8.

There is no occurrence of [a] except in unstressed syllables, so it is not contrastive. Geba is the only language under study to have $/\upsilon/$. It is slightly rounded and centralized, very close to the vowel in English put.

Geba has two frequently occurring tones, mid [3] and high [5], and an infrequent low tone [1] which is discussed in Chapter Three.

CHAPTER 3: PROTO-CENTRAL KAREN TONES AND REFLEXES

In this chapter I explore the origin of phonemic tone in Southeast Asia. I sketch an overview of the great tone split that swept Southeast Asia, multiplying the number of tones. I list the historical sound changes that were involved in creating that great tone split, and detail how it affected Central Karen languages. I argue for the usefulness of Haudricourt's 3x3 grid, while pointing out its limitations. Finally, I diagram the evolution of tone from Proto-Central Karen to each of the modern languages in this study.

3.1 Tonogenesis

No language is spoken as a monotone. Every language has pitch. Phonetic pitch variations can be due to the speaker's attitude, intonation patterns in sentences, stress patterns in words, or the relative tenseness of the larynx at any particular moment. Matisoff (1973:76) has pointed out that laryngeal tenseness is associated with voicelessness, final glottal stop, retracted tongue-root, and high or rising pitch. By contrast, a lax larynx is associated with voicing, final [h], advanced tongue root, and lower or falling pitch. Lahiste (1970:71-73) has shown

that even for a non-tonal language like Serbo-Croatian, the fundamental frequencies of words beginning with voiceless consonants is about 15 Hz higher than words with voiceless consonants.

But what causes phonetic pitches to develop into significant tones? Where did tonal languages come from?

Tonogenesis in Southeast Asia

It seems that there are several factors in Southeast Asia that facilitated the development of tonal languages.

The first of these was that the languages were basically monosyllabic. In such languages, according to Matisoff (1973:77-78), the various parts of the monosyllable are often very tightly interdependent, increasing the likelihood that contrastive functions may shift from one phonological feature of the syllable to another.

The second factor was consonant reduction. Consonants affected the pitch of the word. Subsequently, as initial and final consonants and consonant clusters were reduced or neutralized, the pitch left behind had to carry the contrastive load. According to Matisoff (1973:81), one generalization holds in Sino-Tibetan languages such as Karen: the better preserved the consonantal system, the fewer the vowels and the fewer the tones, and vice versa.

There is also a functional reason why monosyllabic languages are more prone to becoming tonal. A monosyllabic

language typically has no more phonemes than polysyllabic language, and yet it is generally restricted to one syllable in word formation, thus limiting the potential number of words. It must find other ways to increase the number of contrasts. Ancient Tibetan compensated for this by allowing up to five consonants in initial consonant clusters, and two more in the final (Mazaudon 1976:16). There is no indication language was tonal. When orthography that the languages in Southeast Asia made tone contrastive, this served as an efficient way to increase the potential lexical inventory two or three fold.

Tonogenesis in Burmese

Burmese presents a clear example of tonogenesis. The tones in Burmese have developed from the assimilation of features (i.e. pitch) from the final consonant onto the syllable nucleus, after which the final consonant was deleted, and the pitch was phonemicized. Maran (1971) bases his argument on a comparison of Written Burmese, Standard Burmese and a large dialect which he calls Northern Burmese.

Written Burmese has quite a number of final consonants and supposedly represents how Burmese was spoken several hundred years ago. Northern Burmese has a reduced number of final consonants along with redundant

pitch which is completely predictable depending on the final consonant. Standard spoken Burmese has no final consonants and four contrastive tones. Thus Maran (1971) believes that Northern Burmese represents an intermediate historical stage between Written Burmese and Standard spoken Burmese.

Perhaps Burmese is a modern example of how tones originally developed throughout Southeast Asia. The first tones developed from final consonants. This seems to be the stage at which Standard Burmese is now. Subsequently, when tones were well entrenched in the language, initial consonant neutralization caused the number of tones to multiply. This, in fact, is the great tone split that has been documented in many of the other languages throughout Southeast Asia, which I discuss below.

3.2 The Great Tone Split in Southeast Asia

During the present millennium a great tone split has been sweeping across Southeast Asia affecting languages as far west as India's eastern-most state of Assam, all the way east to Vietnam and north into China. Gedney (1985:117) calls this "one of the most drastic and extensive sets of sound changes ever to have occurred anywhere." Mazaudon (1985:202) says "...this split is paralleled in all the languages of the area: Thai,

Chinese, Miao-Yao, and Vietnamese, and is more of an areal feature than a family trait."

Haudricourt (1972:60) defends the claim that language change can take place over a geographical area even among languages of different families. Such languages form a linguistic area, commonly known as sprachbund. He claims that Southeast Asia is a linguistic area, even though the languages belong to three different families. Languages in Southeast Asia were nearly all affected by the great tone split, regardless of how closely those languages were related.

The date of the split in Central Thailand can be narrowed down to the two hundred year period from the midfifteenth to the mid-seventeenth centuries (Gedney 1985:119). It is likely that it took place in many of the other languages prior to this. Brown (1965) details the fact that this split occurred in seven major Thailanguages, as evidenced in seventy-nine modern Thailanguages.

One of the first to record the effects of this phenomenon was Karlgren (1915). Haudricourt (1972:58) cites Karlgren as saying that in certain Chinese dialects the initial voicing contrast was replaced by contrasting tones on the following vowel. Haudricourt goes on to present convincing evidence from dozens of languages across Southeast Asia that a two-way tone split in those

languages arose out of a similar voiced versus voiceless initial consonant contrast. 1

It is not necessary for all of the initial voicing contrasts to be neutralized in order for the split to take place. The Tho dialect of Thai demonstrates the fact that the neutralization of the contrast on the sonorants was sufficient to cause the tone split, even though the voiced stops were not devoiced (Haudricourt 1972:65).

It is interesting to note that in Burmese the split has not yet taken place. Accordingly, Burmese still has a full set of voiceless and voiced sonorants. Perhaps tones are not sufficiently entrenched in Burmese to make the language susceptible to the next step.

The split caused a language with three tones to split into six or nine tones, depending on whether the language split two or three ways. It affected all the Karen languages.

3.3 The Great Tone Split in Central Karen

The great tone split caused a two-way split in some Karen languages, (Haudricourt 1972:62) and a three-way split in others (Mazaudon 1976:11). But not all the scholars who have conducted Karen phonological reconstructive research recognized it.

¹In some languages, the tone split resulted in a three-way split, caused variously by glottalized, aspirated, and voiced consonants (Haudricourt 1972:58).

Previous Work on Tonogenesis and Tonal Evolution in Karen

Jones (1961) reconstructed two tones for Proto-Karen, and three classes of final consonants which combined to create six tones in the modern languages. He noted a cause and effect relationship between change of final stop, change of tone, and loss of aspiration of the initial stop. He built his reconstruction on the premise that the final consonant affected the tone, and the tone in turn affected the initial consonant. Thus, in contrast to the claims of Haudricourt and this study, he felt that the direction of effect between tone and the initial consonant was from right to left.²

For example, one of Jones' rules states, "Aspirated stops became unaspirated in the low tone on loss of final /q/, and also in high tone before $[C_2]$ /-l-/ in items with final /?/." (Jones 1961:102). This may account for the data, but it does not explain the motivation for deaspiration applying to only some of the stops. This claim that the class of aspirated initial consonants split does not seem as likely as Haudricourt's claim that, in fact, a merger took place.

Burling (1969) simplified Jones' rules somewhat, but he also did not consider the great tone split as one of

²I have been unable to review Jones' more recent work (1971) to see whether he may have revised any of his earlier theories.

the factors for tonal development in Karen. He proposed six tones for Proto-Karen, and traces the modern tones to those. Like Jones, he felt that tone affected initial consonants. One of his rules states that low tone [\], mid tone [-], and low tone with inherent glottal stop [\]?] caused the initial aspiration to be lost in Palaychi and Sgaw Karen. Regarding this, Mazaudon (1976:8) remarks that, "...it is not clear why a phonetically unmotivated loss of aspiration in a series of tones should occur."

Haudricourt (1946) reconstructed three classes of initial consonants similar to those in Thai: aspirated (high class), voiceless unaspirated (mid class), and voiced (low class). He proposed two proto-tones on syllables not closed by stops, tones *A³ and *B, and one tone on syllables closed with stops, tone *C.⁴ It is on this foundation that the analysis for this study has been built.

Later Haudricourt (1975:341) revised his theory to account for exceptions which do not fit his theory. He did so by proposing a fourth proto-tone. He labels this new

³An asterisk (*) indicates a proto-form or prototone, or a form or tone before the great tone split.

⁴For the sake of simplicity, I am calling it three tones. Haudricourt actually did not claim that the *C closed syllable was in fact a contrastive tone at the Proto-Karen level. Weidert (1987) suggests that these may not have been tones, but different types of syllables which lent themselves to the development of different tones.

tone, *E1.5 This study will suggest why positing a *B1 tone may not be necessary.

Five Sound Changes in The Great Tone Split

All the Central Karen languages in this study split two ways, causing the number of tones to double. The split resulted from a series of historical sound changes listed below. Eastern Kayah is the only language in this study to have completed all five steps. Western Kayah has completed the steps through step four. I think Padaung is in the process of step four, and Geba being more conservative, has just completed step three in this generation.

Steps two and three are not ordered, since they apply to different sets of consonants.

- 1. Initial *voiced consonants caused the following vowel to be pronounced with breathy phonation. For example, *bo3 > bo3, *ma1 > ma1.6
- 2. All *voiced obstruents became voiceless. All voiceless obstruents remained unchanged. Thus the voiced set [b d dz g] merged with the unaspirated voiceless set [p t c k]. The vowels of words 7

For a fuller explanation of the B¹ tone, and why Haudricourt proposed it, see also Mazaudon (1976:13) or Weidert (1987:326-327).

 $^{^{6}\}mathrm{A}$ right wedge (>) indicates a historical sound change.

⁷I use the term word for any syllable.

originally having voiced initial consonants retained their breathy phonation. For example: $*bo^3 > po^3$; $*po^3$ (no change).

3. All *voiceless sonorants [hm hn hn hm hl hj hr] became voiced, merging with the voiced sonorants. 8

The vowels from words with voiced sonorants retained their breathy phonation. The voiceless sonorants which became voiced did not cause the vowels in those words to become breathy because that historical change was no longer operative. For example:

*hlo5 > lo5; lo5 (no change).

As a result of these steps, phonation on the vowel became contrastive because the contrast of the initial consonants was lost. 9 For example: po3 and po3 (from the example in sound change #3 above) are now contrasted on the basis of vowel phonation rather than initial consonant voicing.

- 4. Breathiness on the vowel caused the pitch to lower. For example: $po^3 > po^1$; $1o^5 > 1o^3$.
- 5. Breathiness was lost. For example: $po^1 > po^1$; $lo^3 > lo^3$.

⁸Justification for Proto-Central Karen voiceless sonorants is given in Chapter Four.

⁹I think language is more likely to lose something that has already become redundant. The study follows the common practice among Tibeto-Burman reconstructionists of using h before a consonant to indicate voicelessness.

The fifth sound change completes the tone split. The tones on all words which had *voiced initial consonants ended up being lowered, while the tones of words with *voiceless initial consonants remained unchanged. The following two examples show all of the above sound changes in order:

- 1. *Voiced obstruents: $*bo^5 > bo^5 > po^5 > po^3 > po^3$.

 *Voiceless obstruents: $*po^5 > po^5$.
- 2. *Voiced sonorants: $*lo^5 > lo^5 > lo^3 > lo^3$.

*Voiceless sonorants: *hlo5 > lo5.

The point of the above examples is not what happened to the consonants, since I discuss that in detail in Chapter Four, but to note that initial consonants caused tone [5] to split. The tone on words with *voiced consonants was lowered, while the same original tone on words with *voiceless consonants stayed the same. I will discuss in more detail how all three tones split in each language in the sections below.

Even though at the time of the split lower tone was associated with voiced initials, and higher tone with voiceless initials, there is a final claim to keep in mind when studying the etymology of modern tones. Once the contrast of the initial consonant is lost, the tones are free to evolve (Haudricourt 1972:63).

Haudricourt's 3x3 grid

The 3x3 grid is simply a graph with the variables of tones *A, *B and *C across the top, and three classes of consonants down the side, as in Figure 9. The intersection of the two variables represents a set of words. All words in any Karen language can thus be divided into nine sets. It is crucial to remember that these variables are based on the relevant features of the initial consonant and tone before the great tone split, not in the modern languages.

Figure 9: Haudricourt's 3x3 Grid Applied to Eastern Kayah

| | Tone *A | Tone *B | Tone *C |
|---------------------------|---------|---------|---------|
| High Class *aspirated | [3] | [2] | [5] |
| Mid Class *unaspirated | [3] | [2] | [5] |
| Low Class *voiced | [2] | [21] | [3] |

Each of the nine sets in the graph has a number. This number is the modern tone associated with the two variables. For instance in Figure 9, modern tone [21] has the variables voiced and tone *B. This makes certain claims about the set of words in Eastern Kayah with the modern tone [21], namely, that before the great tone split those words had voiced initial consonants and tone *B.

This is an interesting claim if one considers the fact that *none* of the modern words with tone [21] have voiced initial stops.

Note that all the mid class modern tones are the same as their high class counterparts. This is because both the high and mid classes are unvoiced, and in Central Karen the two-way split was caused only by the voiced versus voiceless contrast; aspiration was irrelevant. 10

Tone Mergers

The 3x3 grid for Eastern Kayah is ambiguous about the etymology of words with modern tone [2]. This ambiguity occurred because tones A3 (tone *A, consonant class 3) and B1 (tone *B, consonant class 1, etc) merged. Tones merged because the tone split produced an unnecessarily large number of tonal contrasts. Some of the tones that were created were similar enough in pitch that the difference was irrelevant. For example, in Eastern Kayah the mid tone (*A) split causing the tone on all *A3 words to become low, [3:] > [2:]. Next, it lost breathiness, making it identical to tone B1 which had not changed [2:] > [2].

The merging process is complicated by the fact that in different languages different tones merged. Even in

¹⁰The above 3x3 grid is necessary for Karen languages which split a different way, such as Pwo, a Southern Karen language (Mazaudon 1976:11). In Pwo A2 merged with A3 instead of with A1 (Haudricourt 1972:81).

the same language, the split and consequent merging of tone seems to have happened in different ways in different villages. For example, there are two villages about fifteen miles apart with nearly identical dialects except for the tone pattern. 11 According to my language teachers, variation of tone is common in Kayah State.

This leaves us not knowing whether Eastern Kayah words with modern tone [2] descended from tone *A with voiced initial consonant, or tone *B with unvoiced initial consonant.

Luce's Cognate Sets

In cases of ambiguity, it becomes very useful to compare words with their cognates in Western Kayah, because in Western Kayah all six sets carry distinctive tone and phonation as shown in Figure 12. The A3 class of words in Western Kayah have breathy vowels with low tone [1:], and the B1 words have low tone, non-breathy vowels [1]. Comparing cognates is facilitated by the work of linguists like Luce.

¹¹The two villages are $Huay^{42}$ $Poon^1$ $?oon^3$, about ten miles northwest of Maehongson which speaks the northern dialect of Eastern Kayah; and $Huay^{42}$ Dwa^3 , a few miles southwest of Maehongson, which speaks the southern dialect of Eastern Kayah.

¹²A colon after the number indicate breathiness. In the transcription of words, breathiness will be indicated by two dots under the vowel.

Luce first published word lists in 1959, and again in 1985. 13 In the more recent work he lists cognates from seven different Karen languages. He organized his data into sets of cognates based on their tones, which ended up roughly corresponding with the nine sets in Haudricourt's 3x3 grid above. For example, Luce's "Tone Pattern III" represent A1 words, indicating that the modern tones derived from *A tone. The modern reflexes for the cognates in "Tone Pattern III" are shown in Figure 10.

The Limitations of Haudricourt's 3x3 Grid

Luce found that tones within cognate sets were predictable. In Figure 10, if a Pwo word has tone [6], its cognate in Sgaw and Western Bwe is predictably tone [1], and tone [6] in Northern Pa-o. 14

Figure 10: Luce's Cognate Sets

| Pattern III | Pwo | Sgaw | W. Bwe | N. Pa-o |
|-------------|-------|-------|--------|---------|
| 'fowl' | shã6 | sho1 | ∫I¹ | chja6 |
| 'to weave' | thai6 | the 1 | the | then6 |

But there were examples of cognates that did not have the predictable tone. In "Tone Pattern V", which shows the

¹³ I regret that to this point I have been unable to review the former lists.

¹⁴ Luce (1985) uses a different tone marking system, which he does not explain.

modern reflexes for B2 words, all the tones were consistent except Sgaw, "which irregularly showed a tone /4/ = *A (aspirate / voiceless) tone" (Weidert 1987:326). So Haudricourt (1975:341) proposed an additional tone category at the Proto-Karen level to handle this inconsistency, making four columns instead of three. This increased the grid to a 3x4. The tone was labeled *B1.

In response to this, Weidert (1987:330) asked an appropriate question: If research in more Karen languages uncovers additional inconsistencies, "...do we have to posit more proto-tones on the Common Karen level?" The inconsistencies that Weidert suspected have come to light from Kayah and Padaung data, as is shown below. But does that mean we must posit more proto-tones? Erroneously thinking that the variables in Haudricourt's 3x3 grid refer to the Proto-Karen stage might lead one to think so.

However, the variables on Haudricourt's 3x3 grid were arrived at by comparing how the great tone split affected various Southeast Asian languages, some of which had an orthography which revealed the stage of the language before the great tone split. In other words, on Haudricourt's 3x3 grid, the changes that took place between the stage represented by the variables and the tone numbers reflecting modern reflexes are the direct results of the great tone split and nothing else. Thus all

we can say about those variables is that they represent the language at the commencement of the great tone split.

In other words, based on a word's modern tone reflex, Haudricourt's 3x3 grid predicts the derivation of that tone and the word's initial consonant. But it can take the derivation back only to the stage at the commencement of the great tone split, not necessarily back to the Proto-Karen stage.

The great tone split did not take place at the Proto-Karen stage. Between the Proto-Karen stage and the great tone split, Karen had presumably split up into several dialects. Language changes had surely taken place already.

This has two implications. First, the variables on the grid are not necessarily features of Proto-Karen. A voiced consonant at the commencement of the great tone split was not necessarily voiced at the Proto-Karen stage. Neither are the tones *A, *B, and *C on the grid necessarily Proto-Karen tones. The variables represent whatever stage the language was at when the great tone split affected it.

Secondly, the nine sets of words that the 3x3 grid defines are not identical in all of the languages. For example, if one can determine that the second syllable of the Western Kayah word kha^3mi^5 'tail' is in the B3 class (*B tone, *voiced initial consonant), that does not necessarily mean that its cognates in other Karen

languages will belong to that same set. In fact, the Padaung cognate, $k a^3 m e i^3$, is also a B3 word. But in Geba the tone indicates that the cognate, $k a^5 m i^3$, belongs to the B1 set, (*B tone, *voiceless initial consonant). The fact that the modern cognate in Luce's Geba, $k a^1 h m i^2$, is voiceless is additional confirmation of this.

Bwe may have lost all its final consonants between the Proto-Karen stage and the commencement of the great tone split. 15 Therefore, it would not have any words that would fit into the *C (stopped syllable) tone classes.

Another factor is that the great tone split did not affect all the languages at the same time. I believe this to be true because language change usually spreads gradually. In fact the tone split took approximately 400 years to spread across Southeast Asia. The split has probably been completed for generations in some languages, while in Geba Karen it appears that the change is not yet complete.

The implication is that, upon finding irregular tones in a correspondence set, an alternative to positing new proto-tones would be that a sound change may have taken place in that language before the great tone split

¹⁵The logic for this claim is as follows: tone *C is by definition the category of words closed by stops. As noted in Figure 14, Bwe modern tones in columns *B and *C are identical. One logical explanation for this merger is that the original contrast between the two categories was neutralized, namely, that final stops in *C were lost.

occurred. Such words would then have different variables, and thus be affected differently.

Another way to express it is that a sound change occurred before the split, which moved words from one class into another in Haudricourt's 3x3 grid.

Despite the caution mentioned above, Haudricourt's 3x3 grid is useful in reconstructing the proto-language, if these limitations are kept in mind.

Phonation in Central Karen

Contrastive phonation in several Central Karen languages further confirms Haudricourt's voicing versus voiceless analysis. 16 In Kayaw and Western Kayah, all the words in the grid's high and mid classes have non-breathy vowels, and all the words in the low originally *voiced class have breathy vowels.

Put another way, contrastive breathy vowels occur only in syllables with modern initial obstruents /p t c k ?/ and sonorants /m n w l j r/. There is no contrastive phonation after initial voiced stops /b d/, the aspirates /ph th sh kh/ or the fricatives /0 h/. As Solnit (1989:3) puts it, "The phonation contrast descends from an old voicing contrast, with the initials of syllables now

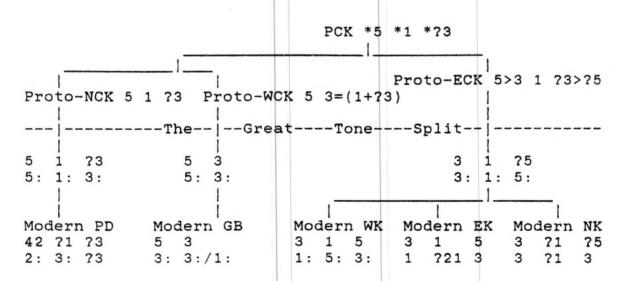
¹⁶ Much of the information in this section come from Solnit (1989).

distinguished by phonation being mergers of former pairs contrasting for voice."

3.4 Proto-Central Karen Tone

Figure 11 shows the evolution of tone from Proto-Central Karen (PCK) to the modern reflexes in the following languages: Padaung (PD), Geba (GB), Western Kayah (WK), Eastern Kayah (EK), and a Northern dialect of Eastern Kayah which I call Northeastern Kayah (NK). The languages divide on the highest level with Proto-North Central Karen (NCK) and Proto-West Central Karen (WCK) on the left, and Proto-East Central Karen (ECK) on the right.

Figure 11: Diagram of Proto-Central Karen Tone Evolution



The numbers represent the tone values of tones A, B, and C respectively. The following sections treat the processes involved in each language.

Merger of High and Mid Class tones

In the Central Karen languages, tones of the high (*aspirated) and mid (*unaspirated) classes are identical. 17 The top row of numbers in the modern languages above represent the tones of that merged set (A1/A2, B1/B2, C1/C2). The bottom row of tone numbers (A3, B3, C3) is for the low class (*voiced) series. This abbreviated layout of Haudricourt's grid is also used by Solnit (1989) and Bennett (1991). 18

The Tone Numbers

In Central Karen before the great tone split, there were two tones. These could be represented by any two numbers. I chose [5] for high, and [1] for low, to facilitate comparison with the tone numbers used for the modern languages. The pitch associated with the codas that gave rise to tone *C was probably not yet phonemic, but I sometimes refer to it as a tone for the sake of discussion. The fact that tone *C syllables ended with stops was probably enough to distinguish them from the open syllables. I give tone *C the pitch value of [3] to

¹⁷ Aspiration was not a factor in the tone split for Central Karen languages.

¹⁸ If comparing their work, my *C tone compares to what they sometimes label *D tone.

show that it was somewhere in the mid range between the [5] and [1] tones.

Proto-Kayah's Innovative Tone Shift

In modern Padaung and Geba, tone A is high and tone C is mid, whereas in Kayah it is the other way around. How did these tones "switch place"? Figure 11 illustrates how they developed from a common Proto-Central Karen tonal system.

Before the great tone split, an innovation took place in Proto-East Central Kayah in which tone *C was raised to a higher pitch [75], ending up phonetically higher than the high tone *A, [5]. 19 We noted above (in section 3.1) that a high pitch is a natural phenomenon in syllables with final stops. In Proto-North and West Central Karen the raising did not take place.

When tone *C became phonemic, each language had to readjust internally to determine which tones would fill the high, mid and low tonemes. This was decided by comparing the relative pitches of tones A, B and C.

In comparing tone *A to tone *C in Proto-East Central Karen, tone C was higher due to the innovative raising it had undergone earlier. So tone *C became the high tone,

¹⁹Bennett (1991:12) also raises the possibility that this "switch" of A and C tone values occurred before the great tone split, but he does not develop it in that paper.

and tone *A became mid. In Proto-West and North Central Karen, in which tone *C had not been raised, tone *C was lower than tone *A, so tone *A became high tone and tone *C became mid. In all the languages tone *B was lower than tone *A or *C, so it remained low. This analysis is both simple and plausible.

3.5 Tone Evolution from Proto-Central Karen to Modern Reflexes

This section details the evolution of tone in the three Central Karen language groups.

Figure 12 shows the modern tone correspondences for three of the Kayah languages included in this study.

When the great split occurred, the contrast of initial consonant voicing was transferred from the consonant to the vowel in the form of breathiness. Consequently, the voiced series tones were lowered in most modern languages. Compare the tones of the three modern languages in Figure 12.

Tone C3 is the only tone which lowered in all three dialects: [5:] > [3:]. This indicates that this sound change presumably occurred before the three dialects split apart. Assuming that mid tone [3] is the most neutral, least marked tone, it seems likely that naturalness may have been an added motivation for this tone to lower before the others.

At this stage Northeastern Kayah lost breathiness. and its tone evolution ended, resulting in its three modern tones.

Figure 12: Tones in East-Central Karen (Kayah)

| Proto-East Central | Karen be | efore the | great ton | e split |
|--------------------|----------|-----------|------------|---------|
| | Tone | *A Tone | *B Tone | *C |
| | 3 . | 1 | ?5 | |
| | | | | |
| Proto-East Central | Karen a | fter the | great tone | split |
| | Tone ! | A Tone | B Tone | C |
| *Non-voiced | 3 | 1 | ?5 | |
| *Voiced | 3: | 1: | 5: | |
| | | | | |
| Northeastern Kayah | | | | |
| *Non-voiced | 3 | ?1 | ?5 | |
| *Voiced | 3 | ?1 | 3 | |
| | | | | |
| Eastern Kayah | | | - | |
| *Non-voiced | 3 | 1 | 5 | |
| *Voiced | 1 | 721 | 3 | |
| | | | | |
| Western Kayah | | | | |
| *Non-voiced | 3 | 1 | 5 | |
| *Voiced | 1: | 5: | 3: | |
| | | | | |

In Western and Eastern Kayah the process continued. The A3 tone became low: [3:] > [1:] in both dialects. Lowering the B3 tone, [1:], was problematic because it was already low. Eastern Kayah made it a low falling tone, ending with glottal constriction: [?21]. 20 In Western

²⁰A more accurate transcription of the low tones in Eastern Kayah would be [1] and [1-0], if it is possible to have a zero tone, since the low falling seems to drop to the very bottom of the voice range. In these comparisons I use [1] and [21] for the low tones for ease in comparing to the other dialects, and in keeping with Solnit's and Bennett's notation. On my word lists, however, I used [2]

Kayah, rather than becoming lower, it was raised to the only remaining empty tone slot, namely, high: [5:].

Finally, Eastern Kayah lost breathiness, and very recently added a high falling tone [52]. The [52] tone developed when the final syllable of certain restricted constructions was lost, and its low tone merged with the high tone of the preceding syllable. For example, $ku^3khi^5o^1$ 'corn' in Northeastern Kayah represents the historically more conservative form. In Eastern Kayah the final vowel was dropped, but its low tone remained, resulting in the form $ku^2khi^52.21$

Tone Evolution from Proto-North Central Karen to Modern Reflexes

This section looks at the evolution of tone in several Karen languages which did not participate in Proto-East Central Karen's innovative raising of tone *C to [5]. In all these languages, modern tone A1 is higher than C1.

Kayaw appears to be very conservative. As the tones in Figure 13 suggest, Kayaw's tone system has not changed for low tone and [21] for low falling to show the relative pitch of the two to each other.

 $^{^{21}}$ At present the [52] tone is relatively rare. It occurs in only five words in the list of four hundred words in the appendix. A minimal pair between the high and the high falling tone is: i^2tho^5 'to row (a boat)'; i^2tho^{52} "knife". As noted in Chapter Two, Thai has a similar falling tone.

since the great tone split.²² The *voiced class of consonants produced breathiness, but not significant tone lowering.²³ This evidence implies that at least for these languages "the initial laryngeal contrast transfers to the rhyme as phonation, and that pitch is only affected later (Solnit 1989:9)."

Figure 13: Tones in North Central Karen Languages

| Proto-North Central | Karen | before the | great to | ne split |
|---------------------|-------|------------|------------|----------|
| | Tone | *A Tone | *B Tone | *C |
| | 5 | 1 | ?3 | |
| Proto-North Central | Karen | after the | great tone | e split |
| | Tone | A Tone | B Tone | C |
| *Non-voiced | 5 | 1 | . ?3 | |
| *Voiced | 5: | 1: | ?3: | |
| Kayaw (Solnit 1989) | | | | |
| *Non-voiced | 55 | 11 | 33 | |
| *Voiced | 55: | 11: | 33: | |
| Padaung | | | | |
| Non-voiced | 42 | 71 | 73 | |
| *Voiced | 2: | 3: | 73 | |

As in the three Kayah dialects, Padaung's high breathy tone A3 was lowered. But unlike Kayah, it was

²²Although his tonal evolution is different, Solnit (1989) was the first to suggest that Kayaw represented a more conservative Karen tonal system.

²³Solnit reports that the mid tone on breathy syllables is slightly lower in pitch than the mid tone on non-breathy syllables, but he does not mark the difference (1989:2).

lowered all the way to low tone: $[5:] > [2:] \cdot ^{24}$ The tone B3 breathy tone could not be lowered, since it was already low. So, similar to Western Kayah, it raised to the next higher available slot: [1:] > [3:]. I do not know the motivation for this, unless it is tone dissimilation. Padaung's tone C3 lost breathiness without lowering.

Tone Evolution from Proto-West Central Karen to Modern Reflexes

In West Central Karen the final stops were lost before the great tone split, causing tones *B and *C to merge, as illustrated in Figure 14. This is reflected in the modern languages of Geba and Bwe.

Figure 14: Modern Geba and Bwe Tone

| Geba | Tone A | Tone B/C | |
|----------------------|--------|----------|--|
| *Non-voiced | 5 | 3 | |
| *Voiced | 3: | 3/1: | |
| Bwe (Henderson 1979) | | | |
| *Non-voiced | 5 | 3 | |
| *Voiced | 3 | 1 | |

In Geba about twenty percent of the B3/C3 (hereafter called B3) words are low breathy [1:] tone with the remainder being mid breathy [3:] tone. There is no

²⁴The low tones [2] and [1] are nearly identical in pitch, the differences being [breathy, slightly falling, longer, and open syllable] versus [non-breathy, level, shorter, and closed syllable].

apparent conditioning environment causing this. It is possible that, since Geba has just lost its voiceless sonorants in this generation, the resultant tone split has not yet stabilized. This supports the claim in section 3.3 that breathiness precedes tone lowering. The comparison with Ewe below seems to confirm this.

The Geba A3 tone, on the other hand, has already lowered and is fairly consistent.

Geba modern tones may represent an earlier stage of Bwe. In Bwe, as described in Henderson (1979), there are three phonetic tones. High tone occurs with *non-voiced initials (A1 above). Mid tone can occur with *voiced or *voiceless initials (A3 merged with B1). Low tone always occurs with *voiced initial (B3) words. The evolution from a Geba type tone system to Bwe involves two steps: First, B3 becomes low tone. Second, breathiness is lost, making the distinction between A3 tone and B1 tone irrelevant.

Losing breathiness seems to be quite natural. It has already been lost in Eastern Kayah, and there is some evidence that it is becoming less distinct in Western Kayah. For example, Bennett commented (personal communication) that marking breathiness is the most common spelling error of newly literate Western Kayah students. These facts would seem to indicate that breathiness is a waning phenomenon associated with the early stages of the great tone split, but easily lost.

Bennett (1991) documents an exceptional case. It is a Kayah dialect spoken by the single village of Do3sho1pia5 in a location surrounded by predominantly Western Kayah speakers. The vowels of this dialect are more like those of Eastern Kayah than those of Western Kayah. The tones on the other hand, in Figure 15, resemble neither Eastern or Western Kayah, but are like those of the North Central and East Central Karen languages such as Padaung and Geba. That is, tones A and C are opposite of what one would expect for a dialect of Kayah, an East Central Karen language. 25

Figure 15: Tone Pattern for Do3sho1pia5

| Do3sho1pia5 (Bennett | 1991 |) | | | | |
|----------------------|------|---|------|---|------|---|
| | Tone | A | Tone | В | Tone | C |
| *Non-voiced | 55 | | 11 | | 31 | |
| *Voiced | 33: | | 21: | | 11: | |

I suggest that this dialect originated when Karen from other areas immigrated into this village. For decades, if not centuries, the Central Karen area has been an area of movement. Kayah and Bwe fought the Paku Karen, (Luce 1959). Slave takers must have traveled through the area to capture Pa-o slaves to the North (Luce 1985a:28).

²⁵Do³sho¹pia⁵ is the name of a village speaking an aberrant dialect of Western Kayah. Grouping it with Padaung and Kayaw raises historical questions which I am unable to answer at this point in our knowledge.

Kayah State has been in a state of civi! unrest for most of the past half-century.

After moving into the area, these immigrants married with the local residents. Cross-language marriages are not uncommon among the Karen. One of my Kayah teachers was married to a Sgaw. My Geba teacher was married to a Padaung man and her sister to a Gekho.

More study needs to be done to determine more precisely which languages influenced this unusual dialect.

CHAPTER 4: PROTO-CENTRAL KAREN CONSONANTS AND REFLEXES

Chapter Three focused on the tonal sound changes associated with the great tone split. This chapter studies the sound changes that occurred to the initial consonants in Central Karen.

4.1 Initial Consonant Reduction

Nearly all the languages of Southeast Asia had one or more series of consonants with non-default laryngeal features (Haudricourt 1972:76). The glottalized stops and voiceless, aspirated sonorants in Proto-Central Karen are two such examples. It is common for regular sound changes to make a segment less marked. The great tone split was fueled in part by this natural tendency for language to move away from markedness.

4.2 Proto-Central Karen Consonants

Haudricourt (1946) proposed a set of *voiceless sonorants for Proto-Karen similar to those I have proposed for Proto-Central Karen in Figure 16. These later merged with the *voiced series. Jones (1961) and Burling (1969) did not. This chapter is based on Haudricourt's analysis, applied to Central Karen.

Figure 16: Proto-Central Karen Consonant Chart

| | labial | dental | alveo- palatal | retro- flex | velar | glottal |
|-------------------------|--------|--------|-------------------|----------------|-------|---------|
| voiceless unaspirate | d *p | *t | *c | | *k | *? |
| voiceless aspirated | *ph | *th | *ch | | *kh | |
| voiced | *b | *d | *d3 | 6 | *g | |
| implosives | *6 | *ď | | | | |
| voiceless nasal | *hm | *hn | | | *hŋ | |
| nasal | * m | *n | | | *ŋ | |
| voiceless fricative | | *s | | | | *h |
| voiceless approximan | t *hm | *hl | *hj | *hr | | |
| voiced approximan | t *w | *1 | * j | *r | | |

The data for this chapter are drawn from my word lists from each of the three divisions of Central Karen. West Central Karen will be represented by Geba (GB), East Central Karen by East Kayah (EK) and West Kayah (WK), and North Central Karen by Padaung (PD). I will include Pa-o (PA) for comparison, since it is the only language with final stops. The Pa-o entries come from three sources: Luce (1985), Jones (1961) and Hopple (n.d.).26

²⁶See the alphabetical listing in the appendix to find the source for any particular Pa-o word. The three Pa-o sources used different transcriptions for tone and

I also include cross references to Luce's (1985) Bwe (BL) and Geba (GL) data, and occasionally to Bennett's (1992) Geba (GJ) data to provide evidence for *implosives and *voiceless sonorants respectively. 27

Only the relevant word of an expression, or relevant syllable of a cognate will be shown. 28 For a listing of the complete words, see the word lists in the Appendix.

4.3 Consonant Classes

One result of the great tone split was that in most languages voiced and voiceless sets of initial consonants merged together, resulting in different tones on the syllable. In order to determine the voicedness of the initial consonant before the great tone split it is therefore imperative to compare the modern tone with Haudricourt's 3x3 grid. The variables of the grid indicate the voicedness of the consonant before the great tone split.

back unrounded vowels, both of which I changed to be consistent with my lists.

 $^{^{27}}$ Luce (1985) uses a different tone marking system, which I did not change for Bwe (BL) and Geba (GL).

²⁸Henderson (1979) warns against using only a syllable of a word because of the value of seeing syllables in context to check for possible affects of tone sandhi. I tried to use truly monosyllabic words to avoid this problem as much as possible. I invite the reader to investigate the full words and expressions in the appendix to see if tone restraints may be a factor. There are examples in Padaung, for example, of the same apparent proto-word showing up in two different modern expressions with two different tones.

As discussed, however, in Chapter Three, the etymology of words with modern low tone [2] in Eastern Kayah is ambiguous. Tone mergers in other Central Karen languages resulted in additional ambiguities. The etymology of these words can be determined by comparing them with unambiguous cognates in other Karen languages, especially Western Kayah. The Figures 17 and 18 included below are a helpful tool for doing that. 29 The expected tone values for these patterns come directly from the 3x3 grids in section 3.5 of this study.

For example, in Figure 17 the expected tones for A1 cognates are as follows: EK [3], WK [3], GB [5], PD [42]. Any set of cognates that have these tones are without doubt A1 words. The example given for evidence of *ph below is EK phi3, WK phi3, GB phje45, PD phei42, PA pla1, 'rice husk'. The tones in the example match the expected tone values, except that GB is [45] instead of [5]. This discrepancy is probably because the Geba data is written phonetically.

If any of the words seriously departed from the expected tone values, an explanation would need to be found for the inconsistency, as is done for voiceless nasals below.

²⁹Figures 17 and 18 are similar to Luce's "tone pattern" charts introduced earlier, but include the Karen languages studied here.

Additional evidence for proto-segments can be found in more conservative languages in the family. For many of the proto-consonants I am positing below, I was able to compare seven Central Karen languages, plus some of their dialects. 30

Figure 17: High/Mid Class Tone Values of Cognate Sets

| Expect | ted modern t | one values | for *vo | iceless | consonants |
|------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------|-------------------|-------------------|----------------------|
| Luce | Haudri- court | EK | WK | GB | PD |
| VI VI VIII | Tone *A1 Tone *B1 Tone *C1 | [3] [2] [5] | [3] [1] [5] | [5] [3] [3] | [42] [71] [73] |

The tone patterns cannot be used to check *voiceless aspirated versus *voiceless unaspirated because, as noted above, in Central Karen aspiration was not a factor in the tone changes that occurred at the great tone split.

4.3.1 High Class Consonants

The *aspirated consonants were one of the most stable sets of consonants. Figure 17 gives tone values for high and mid class cognates. The first column indicates the corresponding number from Luce's tone patterns for cross-referencing with other Karen languages. The second column gives the consonant class according to Haudricourt's 3x3

Many thanks to Bennett for sharing his data (Bennett 1992), which included four additional languages.

grid. The expected tone values for tone *A1, *B1 and *C1 are given, (since aspirated consonants fall in all three categories).

Voiceless Aspirated Stops

*ph EK phi3, WK phi3, GB phje45, PD phei42, PA pla1,
'rice husk' (70), (A1). See also 39, 44, 174, 213,
306, 342, 287a.

In the four languages of this study, *ph has not changed since Proto-Central Karen.

*th EK the⁵, WK thja⁵, GB tho³, PD thau?³, PA tho⁵, 'pig' (85), (C1). See also 19, 23, 32, 196, 386, 272, 216, 384.

There has been no historical change in *th. In Geba, /th/ is realized as [ch] or [sh] (perhaps slow speech versus fast speech) before close-front vowels (see 23). This rule may also apply optionally to front close-mid vowels (see 15).

*ch EK cha³, WK shie³, GB shi⁵, PD fhi⁴², PA chja¹,
'chicken' (99), (A1). See also 375, 168, 331, 4,
264, 318, 200, 305, 96, 374, 279, 91, 237

WK, GB and PD have undergone deaffrication, while retaining aspiration /sh/. 31 This explains the origin of

 $^{^{31}}$ The characteristics of the aspirated fricative were tested by J. Fraser Bennett and myself on an SIL Speech Analysis System (Cecil Box). It is composed of a period of

aspirated spirants in these languages. Before close vowels, /sh/ is pronounced [[]h] (see 168).32

*kh EK khi3, WK khi3, GB khi5, PD khei42, PA ke3 'tiger' (73) (A1). See also 75, 133, 376, 313, 153 301, 236, 214, 1a, 189, 169, 185, 12, 370.

In consonant clusters, *kh was reduced to k in Kayah (see 185).

Fricatives

*0 EK si⁵, WK $\theta \varepsilon^5$, GB θ a³, PD sa³, PA sha²⁵, 'heart'

(141), (C1). See also 202, 269, 61, 78, 45. 62, 71,

368, 141, 239, 252, 266, 110, 324, 79, 378.

In Western Kayah and Geba, *0 did not change. In Geba free variation between [0] and [t] is possible before front-close vowels (compare 202 and 269). In Western Kayah /0/is occasionally realized as [s] (compare 110 and 324).

In Eastern Kayah and Padaung, *0 became dental point of articulation, becoming modern /s/ (a flat fricative).

In Padaung there is free variation between [s] and [0] preceding non-front vowels, compare 78 and 45.

*h EK ho3, WK xwa3, GB he5, PD hw42, PA hwn1, 'hear'

(222), (A1). See also 321, 186, 26, 28, 16, 65, 377.

friction followed by an approximately equal period of aspiration before the following vowel is voiced.

³²This is not obvious in the transcription of Western Kayah because this segment is written phonemically.

The *h has not changed. In Western Kayah, /h/ is realized as [x] before the high back vowel $/\pi/$, 222 and 321. This allophonic occurrence of [x] is not evidence for *x in Proto-Central Karen. 33

Jones (1962:100) proposed *x and *y for Proto-Karen. There is no trace in the modern languages that this contrast ever existed in Proto-Central Karen. Namely, there are no syllables with the initial consonant [h] or [x], with breathy vowels. If *y had existed in Central Karen, modern WK breathy vowels would reflect that.

Voiceless Oral Sonorants

Voicelessness is a marked feature on oral sonorants.

The oral sonorants in the Central Karen languages are losing the marked series, but at different rates in different languages.

The voiceless lateral *hl became voiced in all the languages. Geba has just begun voicing *hl in this generation. (Compare Geba of this generation (GB) with Luce's Geba of the last generation (GL) below).

The segments *hj and *hr became voiced in all the languages except Geba. In Eastern and Western Kayah *hm became voiced.

The phonological rule above is an adequate explanation for the occurrence of [x]. A similar rule showing the typical effect of vowels on consonants in Karen is that the approximant [j] is raised to the fricative [j] before close vowels.

- *hm $EK \ Ve^2$, $WK \ Ve^1$, $GB \ ho^3$, $PD \ Mha?^1$, $PA \ Va^5$, 'bamboo' (48), (B1). See also 282.
- *hl $EK le^3$, $WK le^3$, $GB le^5$, $PD la^4$, $PA la^1$, $GL hle^1$, 'moon' (3), (A1). See also 43, 14, 249, 235, 371, 25, 270.

Padaung does not fit the expected tone patterns for 25 and 270.

- *hj EK $j\varepsilon^5$, WK za^5 , GB $\int ho^3$, PD $jo?^2$, PA $jo?^5$, GL hjo^2 , 'swollen' (379), (C1). See also 161, 390, 257. The [?2] instead of [?3] tone on the Padaung entry was probably a transcription mistake.
- *hr EK rw3, WK rw3, GB ho5, PD [waw42, PA ron1, 'silver' (33), (B3). See also 333.

Voiceless Aspirated Nasals

The voiceless aspirated nasals comprise a very small percentage of the forms, but evidence for these protosegments cannot simply be dismissed. This evidence, together with the voiceless oral sonorants, forms a symmetry which argues for their existence at the protostage of the language. The fact that this set of words is small indicates that by the time of the great tone split, many of the nasals had already become voiced, as shown below.

*hm EK mə³, WK mie³, GB mi⁵, PD mei⁴, PA mɛt³, GL hmi¹
'sleep' V (261) (A1). See also 177, 140, 166, 212,
45a, 170.

The examples above follow the tone patterns with adequate consistency. However, the additional examples 37, 90, and 233 are problematic. In Geba the tones consistently match the high class patterns, evidence for *hm, and in fact the modern forms of GL and GJ are voiceless. But in Eastern and Western Kayah and Padaung the tone patterns resemble the corresponding low class values, as one would expect for *m.

A possible explanation is that the voiceless nasals had already begun merging with the voiced nasals before the great tone split in Kayah and Padaung. For the tone split to have an effect, the split in the tone must precede neutralization of the voicing contrast between the high and low class initial consonants. In these examples, the neutralization apparently occurred first. When the tone split occurred later, these words were already voiced (in the three languages mentioned), so they underwent the associated sound changes along with other voiced segments. In Geba they were still voiceless, so they were treated as high class segments, and were given high class tones.

Realizing that changes occurred between the Proto-Central Karen Stage and the great tone split relieves us from postulating more proto-tones for Proto-Central Karen to account for the exceptions.

*hn EK no^2 , WK nwe^1 , GB nu^5 , PD new^2 , PA num^5 , GL hnu^1 'sniff' (223) (B1). See also 270.

Neither example 223 or 270 follows the normal tone patterns completely. However, there is insufficient data to establish an alternate pattern. Number 270 follows the C1 tone pattern for the first three languages and the A1 tone for Padaung. I cannot explain that, unless there is another influence on the tone.

*hŋ $EK \eta e^3$, $WK \eta e^3$, $GB he^3 4$, $PD \eta a \dot{u}^2$, $PA na^5$, 'know' (252) (A1). See also 226, 273.

None of the three examples of *hn follow the tone patterns for either high or low class consonants. However, this makes sense if in some languages these nasals were voiced before the great tone split, similar to *hm above.

Specifically, 252 follows the A1 pattern, except for Padaung, which matches the A3 tone. Therefore in Padaung the segment was voiced prior to the great tone split. Both 226 and 273 were voiced in Eastern and Western Kayah and probably Padaung before the tone split.

All the examples match the high class tone values for Geba, indicating that in Geba they were still voiceless. Geba eventually dropped off the nasal, retaining only the [h] in the modern language. In the case of 273, I am not

sure why the Geba form moved to the dental point of articulation.

4.3.2 Mid Class Consonants

In the tone patterns, mid class (unaspirated, voiceless) consonants merged with high class (aspirated), so Figure 17 can still be used for checking these tone patterns. Glottalized (implosive) consonants are included in this set.

Voiceless Unaspirated Stops

- *p EK pwi², WK pwi¹, GB pi¹, PD pwhi², PA pwi¹, 'bird nest' (94) (B1). See also 25, 27, 88, 404.
- In 94, Geba's breathiness and consequent lower tone is probably due to the lingering aspiration from the deleted wh. The Padaung cognate provides evidence for this.

(A1). See also 402, 393, 273, 64, 403, 405, 406.

- *t EK to3, WK to3, PD tuə42, PD təw3 'correct' (400)
- There are only rare cases of modern /t/ in monosyllabic words. It is often associated with absence of stress. The most common occurrence of *t in Western Kayah is in the unstressed prefix ta- found in almost ten percent of the Kayah words elicited. For example, EK ta^2 $7a^3$, WK ta $7a^5$, GB θe^3 $7e^5$, PD ei^4 , PA en^1 , 'ginger' (64). That same prefix does not generally occur as a cognate in the other languages in this study, thus it is perhaps not good

evidence for *t. This segment also occurs perhaps as a suffix in several question words (see 403, 405 and 406 listed above).

Although the distribution of the modern /t/ is limited, it is not completely predictable. I do not see how to eliminate *t at this point.

In 393 and 273 the phoneme is realized as [d] in some languages, [t] in others, perhaps marginally voiced and somewhat in free variation. Their tones indicate that these words derived from a voiceless (*t) or glottalized (*d) segment. I favor using these two examples to support the voiceless ancestor, *t, because the reflexes are weakly and inconsistently voiced. The reflexes of glottalized *d are fully voiced, and consistently represented as /d/ in all the languages in this study.

- *c EK co³ WK co³, GB co⁵, PD cow⁴, PA cyn¹, 'tie' V

 (289) (A1). See also 356, 280, 381, 286, 241, 274.
- *k EK ko5, WK ko5, GJ ku3, PD ko3 'full' (stomach) (230)
 (C1). See also 158, 337, 36, 63, 66, 112, 146, 148,
 202, 282.

Most of the examples of /k/ are two or three syllable words or expressions. In many cases Geba is cognate with the syllable or syllables of the word or expression which does not include the /k/.

*? (no examples)

There is no evidence of Proto-Central Karen glottal stop in syllable initial position. There are two rules concerning glottal stop in the modern languages. First, it is predictably inserted before any syllable not beginning with a consonant. This is especially noticeable when it is inserted before the second or third syllable of a word, as in 27, 61, and 67.

The only exception to this insertion rule is in the case of particles. Solnit (1986:15-16) reports for Eastern Kayah that for particles starting with a vowel, "the clitic nature of particles finds phonetic expression in their being fused to the preceding morpheme." He gives the following minimal pair to illustrate: The morpheme [u^5] is the classifier for books. The particle [u^5] is a diminutive suffix. When the classifier is used in a phrase, a glottal stop is inserted: $k \neq j \in 2$ li^3 $2u^5$ 'Kayah book'. By contrast, when the particle is used, no glottal stop is inserted: li^3 li^3 li^4 'the Red Karen' (full self-designation of the Kayah) (Solnit 1986).

Glottal stops are also associated with certain tones. Glottal constriction always accompanies the [52] tone in Eastern Kayah. It is associated with that tore and is thus predictable. There is another potential analysis for this. If one were to say that the [2] and [21] tones were allophones of the same tone, the difference in

pronunciation being caused by the presence or absence of a non-predictable glottal stop, then the glottal stop would be contrastive. One fact that raises doubt about this analysis is that non-predictive glottal stop only occurs with low tone. In either case, it does not argue for Proto-Central Karen glottal stop, because our theory of tone evolution claims that the [21] tone derives from tone *B. Only tone *C syllables were closed with stops.

The Padaung data is different. I would argue that the glottal stop on modern *tone C syllables is evidence for Proto-Central Karen glottal stop in syllable final position. The fact that it occurs on both high and low class syllables in the *C tone category is evidence that this glottal stop did not originate from the great tone split. Furthermore, it is on mid tone syllables. All of the tone-related glottal stops in our data occur on high or low tone syllables. The *C tone syllables were by definition closed by stops. The modern glottal stops are the reflexes of those Proto-Central Karen glottal stops.

The fact that these glottal stops can be deleted in modern speech shows that the process of reduction is continuing unabated. It does not argue against Proto-Central Karen glottal stop in syllable final position. One final argument is that Pa-o Karen still has final stops in *C tone syllables. The glottal stops in North and East

Central Karen at the time of the great tone split were remnants of those consonants.

Finally, I claim that, if there had been no glottal stops in Central Karen at the time of the great tone split, the *B and *C tone categories would have merged. (I discussed this above for Proto-West Central Karen).

Implosives

- *6 EK be², WK bja¹, GB ba³, PD batt², PA batt⁵, BL 6a²

 'bamboo shoot' (49) (B1). See also 68, 220, 347, 363,
 366, 196, 65, 346, 354, 204, 53, 86.
- *d EK di², WK di¹, GB di³, PD dei², PA de⁵, BL di²,

 'frog' (106) (B1). See also 106, 140, 98, 78, 95,

 183, 69, 258, 339.

Bwe is the only modern Central Karen language with implosive consonants. The modern reflexes in all the other central Karen languages are solidly /b d/.

Implosives segments were not changed by the first two sound changes listed below. The vowels associated with these segments are not breathy, even though the modern consonants are voiced. Also, the modern reflexes are not voiceless, even though all voiced obstuents became voiceless. This is evidence that the sound changes involving these processes must be ordered as follows:

(Note #1 and #2 are from section 3.)

- Vowels became breathy after voiced consonants.
 (For example: bo > bo)
- 2, All voiced obstruents became voiceless. (For example: bo > po)
- 3. Glottalized consonants lost their glottalization. (For example (60 > bo).

If change three had happened before change one, breathy vowels would be associated with all modern voiced obstruents, but they do not occur with any of them.

If change three had happened before change two, there would be no voiced obstruents in the modern languages, but there are.

4.3.3 Low Class Consonants

Low class consonants were voiced. The *voiced consonants passed phonation on to the following vowel. The great tone split occurred when these segments were devoiced, merging them with the set of unvoiced consonants. The result was that the phonation on the following vowel was the only remaining contrast for syllables that had previously been distinguished by the presence or absence of voicing on the initial consonant.

The voiced oral sonorants and nasals were not affected by the great tone split. However, they still passed phonation on to the vowels.

The only modern language in this study to have retained the phonation contrast in all three tone categories is Western Kayah.

Figure 18 is a useful reference for checking the tones of the following cognates against what is expected for low class segments.

Figure 18: Low Class Tone Values of Cognate Sets

| Expected modern tone values for *voiced consonants | | | | | |
|--|----------------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|
| Luce | Haudri- court | EK | WK | GB | PD |
| I VII | Tone *A3 Tone *B3 Tone *C3 | [2] [21] [3] | [1:] [5:] [3:] | [3:] [3:/1:] [3:/1:] | [2:] [3:] [73] |

Voiced Stops

*b EK po², WK po¹, GB phu³, PD paw², PA phvn³ 'cooking pot' (205) (A3). See also 86, 180, 205, 309, 257, 171, 117, 111, 144, 317.

In Geba *b > ph unless there was an initial consonant cluster. In Luce's (1985) Geba and Bwe (GL, BL) the *voiced stops were still voiced. See *d, number 101 and *g, number 382 below. In my Geba (GB) list, elicited one generation later, they are voiceless.

*d EK te3, WK t ε^3 , GB ta3, PD ta32, PA tha71, BL da3, GL da2 'fish' N (101). See also 52, 72, 265, 283.

*d\$ EK co²¹, WK co⁵, GB cwe³, PD co³, 'spoon' (209) (B3).
See also 7, 195, 197, 204, 367.

The evidences for *d3 is that in several modern languages /c/ is followed by a breathy vowel, and the examples usually have the expected tone values. This indicates that the initial consonant was originally voiced, even though no modern instances of [d3] are found in Central Karen.

In Geba and Padaung the stop component of *dz has been deleted unless the initial was a consonant cluster. There are some inconsistencies in the tones for these words. Only about half have the expected tone values. I do not know what is causing this.

*g EK ku²¹, WK kuh⁵, GB ku³, PD kau³, PA kho⁴², BL go²,
GL go², 'hot' (382) (B3). See also 108, 7, 62, 129,
165, 278

Voiced Oral Sonorants

W EK ve², WK ve¹, GB wa³, PD wa², PA v^{}a³ 'husband' (176) (A3). See also 179, 353.

In both Kayah dialects, labial-dental friction was added to the features of *w in syllable initial position.

- *1 EK li², WK li¹, GB li³, PD lei², 'red' (364) (A3). See also 369, 382a, 190, 362, 29, 36a.
- *j $EK jo^{21}$, $WK zwe^5$, $GB ju^3$, $PD ju^3$, $PA ju^2$, rat (80) (B3). See also 97, 11, 76, 358, 332, 351.

It can be argued that all the modern languages retain /j/ as an underlying form. Eastern Kayah is the only language with the surface form [j] in all environments. In the other three languages, the segment is changed in syllable initial position as follows:

- In Geba /j/ optionally has the allophones [z] or
 [i] before close vowels.
- 2. In Padaung /j/ is a fricative [j] before all but open vowels.
- 3. Western Kayah /j/ is [z] in all syllable initial environments.

There are two words in Western Kayah where [j] occurs syllable initially. First, je (360), is part of a diphthong. Second, jo^3 (103) was not affected because it is the reflex of a consonant cluster, cf. EK jwa^3 . The proof that neither of these two examples descends from *j is that neither of the vowels are breathy.

*r EK ri²¹, WK ri⁵, GB we³, PD rei³, PA re² 'rattan' (51) (B3). See also 42, 102.

In Geba *r has merged with *w. There are few examples of /r/ in word initial position.

Voiced Nasals

*m EK mɔ²¹, WK mɔ², GB mu³, PD məw³², PA mw²² 'sun' (2)

(A1). See also 12, 14, 15, 37, 47, 52, 173, 182, 217,

233, 263, 310.

The proto-form *m was retained in all the modern languages.

*n EK ne²¹, WK ne⁵, GB ne³, PD na³, PA na⁴² 'buffalo' (88) (B3). See also 171b, 277, 89, 121, 268.

There are various degrees of palatalization of /n/ before close vowels in the languages under study.

*ŋ $EK \eta \varepsilon^3$, $WK \eta \alpha^3$, $GB \varkappa \varepsilon^3$, $PD \eta \alpha i^3$, $PA \eta at^5$ 'five' (326) (C3). See also 244.

In Eastern Kayah and Padaung, /ŋ/ is realized as [ŋ] before a high front vowel or glide, (244, 84). In Western Kayah, it has the allophone [ŋ] before all non-back vowels. In Geba, *ŋ lost its nasality, and became an alveo-palatal fricative: [ʒ].

Two sets of cognates with initial nasal consonants are puzzling. Both of them pattern as *voiceless, high class reflexes. One would therefore expect to find the voiceless nasal in GL and GJ as in all the other examples, as deriving from *hm and *hn. But instead the modern forms are voiced. Examples:

'sky' (1/1a) (C1) EK m o 5, WK m o 5, GB m o 3, PD m o 2, GL m o 2.
'sit' (271) (A1) $EK n \varepsilon 3$, WK n j a 3, GB n a 5, PD n a u 4 2, GJ n a 4 5.

The most likely explanation for this seems to be that Central Karen still had some glottalized nasals at the time of the great tone split. Glottalized consonants are

mid class, and pattern with the high class tones. Therefore, the change that took place mirrored that which occurred with *6 and *d, resulting in reflexes that are voiced and associated vowels that are non-breathy.

However, I resist positing a third series of protonasals simply on the basis of these two examples. It does remain a possibility to be explored.

Haudricourt (1972) reconstructs glottalized and/or voiceless nasals for several languages in Southeast Asia, and documents a Miao dialect which still has all three.

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY

As a result of pitch differences caused by laryngeal features of the final consonants, Southeast Asian languages came to have tone. Subsequently, a sweeping tone split caused the number of tones to multiply. The split began as the transfer of laryngeal features from initial voiced consonants to the following vowel, resulting in contrastive phonation. This contrastive phonation subsequently became contrastive pitch, (i.e. tone).

In Central Karen the three original tones split two ways, resulting in six contrasts. Karen reconstructionists who failed to recognize this split could not account adequately for the modern tones.

The tone split was concomitant with the neutralization of the contrast between voiced and voiceless initial consonants. Tone came to distinguish words that had previously been distinguished by the voicing contrast of the initial consonants.

The five sound changes connected with the great tone split are not complete in all Central Karen languages. The voiceless sonorants of Padaung and Geba are becoming voiced. Western Kayah is losing breathiness on the vowels.

Finally, glottalized consonants became voiced, filling the vacuum in the sound system caused by voiced consonants becoming voiceless, and resulting in Central Karen's modern voiced obstruents.

Languages which have undergone all the sound changes connected with the tone split continue to change in new ways. East Kayah's falling tone has become contrastive, and will become more pervasive. Only time will tell what new changes will take place.

APPENDIX I: KAREN WORD LISTS

Notes on Transcription

- 1. All syllables are separated by a space. Two vowels not separated by a space indicates a diphthong. No conjecture is made concerning word breaks.
- Parenthesis () usually indicate an optional part of a word or expression. Parenthesis in the gloss may also enclose additional clarifying information.
- 3. Entries separated by commas are synonyms, or words from different sources or speakers.
- 4. Words or letters separated by back slash are optional or unsure pronunciations, for example shu/w.
- 5. Luce did not explain his tone marking system for BL and GL. I left them in their original form.
- 6. For Pa-o, I use [1 3 5] to mark Jones's (1961) low, mid, and high tones respectively, and [42] for his circumflex tone. I use [w] for Hopple's (n.d.) barred-u and Jones's [y]. I use [v] for Hopple's barred-e, and Jones's barred-u. For the source of the Pa-o entries, see the English Glossary, directly following the word list.

7. rain (verb)

```
1. sky (lower)
EK mo5 le3
WK mo<sup>5</sup> 1\varepsilon^3,
PD mo2 la3
1a. sky (upper)
WE mos bhul
GB mo3 khu1
PA mo5 kham42 ko1
2. sun
EK to2 mo21
WK te mo5
GB lu3 mu3
PD mam32
PA mul42
3. moon
EK le3
WK 1e^3
GB le5
GI, hle1
PD la42
PA la1
4. star
EK che2
WK she1
GB she3
PD sha?1
PA cha5
5. cloud
EK 55 1021
WK o5 lwe5
GB te3 to3 bu3
PD le2 ?eu42
PA te3 bo42, wm5
    mist
6.
EK the3 ?u3
WK thie3 ?o3, thie3 te
     shi5
GB te3 shi3 thi5
PD pe2 sw3 fhw42
```

```
EK ke5 cw2
WK ke5 cw1
GB ME3 la1
PD kati3 shwe?3
PA kham42 lok1, shen1
    rainbow
8.
EK the3 lo21 bo2 7052
WK thie3 la1 mp5 sha5
GB lu1 ta1 pa5
PD prawi ?au3 fhw42
    lightning
EK cha<sup>2</sup> lε<sup>2</sup>
WK shie1 lja1, ka1 te she3
GB le5 wa1 li1
PD klaŭ² me³ laŭ²
10. thunder
EK mo5 khro3
WK mp5 krp3
GB le5 la3 phla3
GL hla1
PD klaw2 me3 ja3
PA khryn5
11. shadow/photo
EK je21 jo2
WK za5 zo1
GB ke3 le1
PD a3 j52
PA jon5, ru1
12. night
EK mo21 khi5
WK mp5 khi5
GB te1 chi5
PD mew3 khw2
PA mw<sup>1</sup> khi?<sup>5</sup>
13. day
EK mo21 se3 kle3
WK mo5 she3 kle3
GB lu3 mu3 shi5
PD mew3 sha42/cha42
PA mw1 ja1
```

14. morning
EK mo21 li3
WK mo5 li3
GB lu3 mu3 wo3
PL mad le142

15. noon

EK mo21 tho2

WK mo5 thw(e)1

GB mu3 she3

PD mew3 thi2

16. yesterday EK pa³ he⁵ nw² WK pa³ he⁵ nu¹ GB mu⁵ he³ PD la⁴ mw⁴² ha² ha³

17. tomorrow
EK pa³ ro²
WK shie⁵ pa⁵ ro³
GB mo¹ pe³
PD meu³ ceu² me² reu²

18. year EK na² WK na¹ BL ɗe² GB de³ PD nei?¹ PA nen⁵

19. east EK si⁵ the² WK ci⁵ the¹ GB lu³ mu³ tha³ PD be² tha¹

20. west EK si⁵ no³ WK ci⁵ nwə³ GB lu³ mu³ la¹ PD phə² nə²

21. north
EK si⁵ the²
WK ci⁵ thja¹
GJ su³ tə se³
PD phə² tho⁴²

22. south

EK si⁵ le²

WK ci⁵ lja¹

GJ su³ to thwe³

PD pho² lã²

23. water
EK the 3
WK thie 3
GB chi 5
PD chw 4 2
PA thi 1

24. river
WK thie³ klo³
GB chi⁵ lo¹
PD chw⁴² lau?³

24a. stream WK lja³ klo¹ GJ lo¹ pho³

25. sea WK pa 3 le 3 GB pe 3 le 3 PA pa 5 le 4 2/lai 4 2

26. soil EK he² WK he¹ GB lü¹ ha³ PD hã² khlo?³ PA ham⁵

27. mud EK pa² ?a⁵ WK pa¹ ?a⁵ GB ha³ pe³ ?e³ PD hã² phe³ ?e¹ 4² PA phe?¹

28. dust EK he² mw² WK he¹ mw¹ GB hã³ phi⁵ mu³ PD hã² phəw?¹ PA ham⁵ phun⁵

```
29 stone
EK 1521
WK lp5
GB lu1
PD lau3
PA lon42
30. sand
EK he2 so3
WK he<sup>1</sup> 803
GB lu1 0i5 mi3
PD hã2 sõŭ42
31. lime
EK thwi5
WK thwi5
GB thu3
PD thww?3
32. gold
EK the3
WK the3
GB the5
PD thi42
33. silver
EK rw3
WK rw3
GB ho5
PD įwaŭ42
PA ron1
34. iron (metal)
EK to2 the5
WK to5 the5
GB thã3 la3
PD tha?1
35. mountain
EK cho2
WK sho1
GB khp3 lp43
PD shăŭ?1
36. cave
EK la21 ku3
WK la5 ku3
GB hã3 pul
PD shau1 ku42
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WK lja5
GJ le21
PA lai42
37. forest
EK mi2 kle3
WK mi¹ kle3
GB mi3 le1 kle3
GJ hme5 le1 kle3
PD miu<sup>2</sup> ka<sup>42</sup>
PA te3 khra5 phu1
38. tree
EK so2
WK 801
GB eo3
PD 0ew1
PA nen5
39. branch
EK phε3
WK phja3
GB pha5
PD phati42
PA pan42
40. bark of tree
EK pha5
WK pha5
GB phe5
PD phe?3
41. thorn
EK sp2 che5
WK sul shja5
GB ea3 ei5
GJ te3 shu3
PD 00m1 fhu?1
42. root
EK so2 rwi2
WK 801 rwi5
GB 003 kha3 wi3
PD 00m1 qui?3
PA rwi42, hru42
```

36a. rice paddy field

50. mushroom

43. leaf EK le² WK le1 GB le4 GL hle2 PD 1a?1 PA 1a5 44. flower EK pho3 WK pho3 GB pho5 PD phau42 45. fruit EK se2 WK OE1 GB ⊖ε3 PD 0ew1 45a. to be ripe WK mi3 GJ hmi5 PA min1 46. seed EK plo2 WK plo1 GB phlo3 PD phlau?1 47. grass WK mil 9el GB mi³ 48. bamboo EK ve² WK VE1 GB ho3 PD wha?1 PA va5 49. bamboo shoot EK be2 WK bja1 BL 6a2(11) GB ba3 PD bam?1

PA ban5

EK khrw2 WK krw1 GB cu3 PD rwã2 PA shun3 51. rattan EK ri21 WK ri5 GB we3 PD Tei3 PA re2 52. kapok EK to2/twi2 mo21 WK to1 mo5 GB cwi3 mu1 PD tui3 maw?2 53. sugar cane EK di3 kle3 bo3 WK di3 klja3 bo3 GB da3 khle4 mu3 PD die4 khlai4 bəŭ42 54. betal nut EK mu⁵ se² WK me5 0e1 BL 0u1 6u2... GB kwa3 015 PD məŭ¹ sa?¹ PA plu42..., mak1 muk42 56. liquor EK the3 i5 phre21 WK thie3 si5 pre5 GB 0i5 ra3 PD si3 Jw?1 57. banana EK di³ klwi⁵ se² WK di3 klwi5 0e1 PD khlui42 sa?1 58. papaya EK di3 klwi5 he3 se2 WK di3 klwi5 he3 8c1 PD khlui42 khei1 sa?1

59. mango EK te² khe⁵ se² WK tə khja⁵ θ e¹ GP θ o⁵ kho³ θ e³ PD khau² sa²

60. jackfruit EK mu⁵ le⁵ se² WK mp⁵ lja³ Θ e¹ GB ma³ na³ Θ e³ PD phe² la $\dot{\mathbf{m}}$ ¹ sa²

61. coconut
EK mi⁵ ?u² se²
WK ma⁵ ?u¹ $\theta \epsilon$ ¹
GB o⁵ di⁵
PD phe³ ?eu³ sa?¹
PA mak⁵ uin¹ hra⁵

62. eggplant EK $k\epsilon^5$ se² WK kja^5 $\theta\epsilon^1$ GB ka^3 du^5 $\theta\epsilon^3$ PD $ka\tilde{w}^2$ sa²

63. peanut EK ku⁵ bi³ su⁵ se² WK ko⁵ bi³ 9u⁵ GJ mje³ be³⁴ PD bei⁴² haw² kaw⁴²

64. ginger EK ta² ?a³ WK tə ?a³ GB Θe³ ?e⁵ PD ei⁴² PA eŋ¹

65. garlic EK bo² ho⁵ bu³ WK pho³ ho⁵ bu³ GB c ε ⁵ to³ bo⁵ PD bə² həu³ bu⁴²

66. red pepper EK se³ he⁵ WK 00 hja⁵ PD so⁴ hai?³ 67. corn

NK ku³ khi⁵ o¹

EK ku² khi⁵²

WK ku¹ khe⁵

GB θε³ khwε²

PD ke³ khi?³

68. rice, unhusked EK bo⁵ ?e²
WK bwe⁵ ?e¹
BL 6u²
GB bu³
PD bew?³
PA bw¹

69. rice, cooked
EK di³
WK di³
GB di⁵
PD diam⁴²
PA den¹, den¹ min⁵

70. rice husk
EK phi³
WK phi³ 00⁵
GB tho³ phje⁵
PD phei⁴²
PA pla¹

71. salt EK i⁵ se² WK i¹ θ ε¹ GB di⁵ θ ε³ PD cr¹ sa?¹ PA ta sha¹

72. animals (lit., animal wild, animal domestic)

EK te² mi² te² do³
WK te¹ mi¹ te¹ do³
GB te³ pho³ te³ we³
PD ta¹ mii¹ ta¹ ləw?³

73. tiger
EK pp3 khi3
WK phwe3 khi3
GB khi5
PD khei42
PA ke3

```
74. bear
                                  81. dog
EK the3
                                  EK thwi2
WK the3
                                  WK thwil
GB the5
                                  GB thwi3
PD thaw42
                                  PD thwi?1
                                  PA thwi5
75. deer
WK to khie3
                                  82. bark (verb)
GB khu5
                                  EK 22
PD khjo?3
                                  WK ol
PA khjo?3
                                  GB o3
                                  PD u?1
76. monkey
                                  PA u5
EK jo3
WK Zp3
                                  83. bite (verb)
                                  EK a21
GB 3u3
PD jo?3
                                  WK a1
PA jo?1
                                  GB e1
                                  PD ei?1
                                  PA en5
77. gibbon (lit., monkey
     black)
                                  84. cat
EK jo3 lo2
WK zp3 lp1
                                  EK thwa5
GB zu3 015
                                  WK thwo5
PD jo3 lau2
                                  GB mi3 jo3
                                  PD nieu42, nieu42
78. rabbit
EK dε3 se2
                                  85. pig
                                  EK the5
WK da³ θε¹
BL pe^2 de^2
                                  WK thja5
                                  GB tho3
GB de45 θε3
PD dai42 sa?1
                                  PD thau?3
                                  PA tho5
79. porcupine
EK sw2
                                  86. cow
WK sw1
                                  EK pu21
GB Ou3
                                  WK puh5
                                  GB po3
PD sõ?1
PA shun5
                                  PD pau3
                                  PA pho42
80. rat
EK jo21 khro5
                                  87. milk (lit., breast
WK zwe5 kry5
                                       water)
GB ju³
                                  EK i2 nu5 the3
PD ju3 khroa42
                                  WK nwe5 thie3
PA ju<sup>2</sup>
                                  GB nu3 chi5
                                  PD nu1 fhw42
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95. wing, feather

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88. buffalo
EK pe5 ne21
WK pal ne5
GB pe3 ne3
PD me na3
PA pa?5 na42
89. horn (of buffalo)
EK no2
WK no1
GB nu<sup>3</sup>
PD ke neu21
PA non3
90. tail
EK ku5 mi21
WK kha3 mi5
GB kas mi3
GL ka1 hmi2
PD ke3 mei3
PA me42
91. elephant
EK te2 che3
WK to shja3
GB ka3 sha5
PD shaw42
PA chan1
92. elephant tusk
EK ple3
WK plja3
GB plo3
PD mai?3
93. bird
EK thu² u5
WK thuh¹
GB tho5
PD thau!
PA v a 42, va 42
94. bird nest
EK pwi2
WK pwi1
GB pi1
PD pwhi2
PA pwi1
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EK da5
WK da5
BL de2
GB de3
PD de3 kai2
PA de?5
96. down feather, whisker
EK chw2
WK shw1
GB sho3
PD Jhwo?1
PA chon5
97. fly (verb)
EK jo2
WK zwe1
GB Mi3
PD jew2
98. egg
EK de2
WK die!
BL di2
GB di3
PA di1
99. chicken
EK cha3
WK shie3
GB shi5
PD [hi42
PA chja1
100. duck (noun)
EK ta2 sa5
WK tə 0a5
GB u3 pe3
PD pe32, be32
101. fish (noun)
EK te3
WK te3
GB ta3
PD ta32
PA tha? 1
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102. snake EK ru²¹ WK ru⁵ GB wu³ PD Įeu³² PA ru²

103. lizard (species found indoors)
EK jwa3 hi2

WK jo³ hi¹ GB de⁵ li³ PD plai?³

104. turtle EK kli⁵ WK kli⁵ GB khli³ PD khlu⁷ PA kle⁷

105. crocodile EK te² je²¹ WK te ze⁵ GB te⁴ me³ PD jam³²

106. frog EK di² WK di¹ BL di² GB di¹ PD dei² PA de⁵

107. insect EK pho³ WK pho³ GB phu³ ba⁵ PD mw⁴ pw⁴²

108. spider
EK pho³ ke²¹
WK phwe³ kja⁵
GB ku³ ka³
PD kaŭ³
PA kuŋ⁵ kau⁴²

109. spider web EK co²¹ WK co⁵ GB the⁵ PD lu²

110. louse EK so² WK 0w0¹ GB 00³ PD 0i?¹ PA sw⁵

111. termite EK phu⁵ wa⁵ WK pu⁵ wo³ GB po³ ?o⁵ PD phə² ?o⁴²

112. cockroach NK lo¹ ki⁵ u¹ EK lo² ki⁵² WK lo¹ ki⁵ GB kho⁵ bi³ PD to² kei⁴²

113. snail

NK klu¹ de³ hi⁵ o¹

EK klu² de⁵ hi⁵

WK klu¹ da³ hi⁵

GB co³ mi⁵

PD khlau?¹

PA nwi⁵

114. mosquito EK pho³ chi⁵ WK pho³ shi⁵ GJ pə so³ thi⁴⁵ PD pw² tei² jăŭ²

115. bee EK ti² ni³ WK te ni³ GB ki¹ ni¹ PD nei⁴ 116. beetle, green EK pho3 so3 WK pho3 0we3 GB phu3 ba5 klo3 PD pw2 mw3 sw42 PA pi?5 thu3

117. butterfly EK ku⁵ pe²¹ WK pi³ pja⁵ GB ko³ no³ phi⁵ PD mu⁴ paw³² PA cam⁴² phen³

118. scorpion EK de³ me² WK da⁵ me¹ GB do¹ ti¹ PD klau² ma² tha² di?³

119. head EK ku² klo⁵ WK khu¹ klo⁵ GB ku³ PD ke³ klo?³ PA kho⁵ (top)

120. face EK pe⁵ se² WK me¹ θe¹ PD mu⁴ phlau?¹

121. brain EK ku² klo⁵ no³ WK khu¹ klo⁵ no³ GB i⁵ nu³ PD ke³ no?³ PA ka nok⁵/no?⁵

122. hair EK ko⁵ lo² WK khu¹ lwe¹ GB khu³ lu⁴ PD ke³ lu²

123. forehead EK ma² the⁵ WK ma³ the⁵ GB mi³ tha³ PD mu⁴ tha¹ khau?¹ 124. eyebrow
EK ma³ ko³
WK ma³ kwə³
GB mɛ³ ri³ sho³
PD mu⁴ rau² ∫hŏ?¹

125. eye

EK pe⁵ se² plo²

WK me¹ θe¹ plo¹

GB ka³ du⁵ phlo³

PD mu⁴ sa¹ phleu?¹

PA me?¹

126. eyelid EK pe⁵ se² plo² pha⁵ WK me¹ θe¹ pha⁵ GB ka³ du⁵ phe³ PD mu⁴ sa¹ phleu¹ phe?³

129. ear EK ke^5 le^2 ko^2 WK kha^3 le^1 kwe^5 GB ni^3 kw^3 PD le^2 ku/u^4^2 PA na^5 , ne^5 la^5

130. mouth EK ku⁵ ?u² WK kha³ ?u¹ PD kau³ ku⁴²

131. tongue EK pli² WK pli¹ GB ple³ PD plei²¹ PA phre³

132. saliva (lit., tongue water)
EK pli² the³

WK pli¹ thie³ GB pe³ chi⁵ PD plei² shw⁴²

133. tooth
EK ku(h)² khe³
WK ku¹ khie³
GB 00⁵
PD se² khw⁴
PA te² na¹

134. gums
EK ku² khə³ pja⁵
WK ku¹ khie³ plie⁵
PD sə² khw⁴ bli?³
135. chin

EK khe²
WK khe¹
GB khe³ kli³
PD ke² ∫hw?¹

136. beard (lit., chin hair)

EK khe² chw²

WK khɛ¹ shw¹

GB chi³ sho³

PD kha¹ ∫hõ?¹

137. shave (verb)
EK klw²
WK i¹ klw¹
GB kwa³
PD kui²

138. back (noun) EK ne²¹ WK na⁵ GB ku³ khlo⁵ PD nã³ dei⁴²

139. abdomen EK ho⁵ WK ho⁵ GB phu³ PD phu⁴² PA ho⁷⁵

140. navel
EK di³ bo³
WK di³ bo³
BL di¹
GB di³ mo⁵
GJ de³ hmo⁵
PD dei⁴ bŏ⁴
PA pa de¹

141. heart
EK si⁵
WK 0c⁵
GB 0a³
PD sa³
PA sha?⁵
142. lungs

142. lungs EK su² WK Ou¹ GB OO⁵ Oa³ PD sou?¹

143. liver EK so² WK ewe¹ GB ea³ bu³ PD sew?¹

144. intestines EK phra³ WK pra³ GB pwi¹ PD pre³² PA phre?¹

145. hand EK ku⁵ khu² WK tə khu¹ GB cu³ khɔ³ lɛ³ PD cı¹ khəu?¹

146. elbow EK cu⁵ ma³ ke³ WK to ma³ kja³ GB cu³ li³ mi³ PD cr¹ dei¹ kaŭ⁴²

147. armpit EK pla³ le³ WK pla³ le³ GB pli⁵ li³ PD di³ la²

148. palm EK ku⁵ ja³ ku³ WK tə khu³ ku³ GB cu³ ?i⁵ ta³ PD ci¹ ja¹ kəu⁴² 149. finger EK ko2 no3 WK ke no3 GB cu3 mu3 PD ci¹ mew³ 150. finger nail EK ku5 mə21 WK ke no3 bal GB cu3 mu3 pi PD cil mũ1 151. buttocks EK ku² pja5 WK kha3 plie5 GB ka3 tho5 PD ka4 km?1 152. leg EK khe2 WK khja1 GB ka3 kho3 PD hãi dei42 153. thigh NK khe1 da3 (inner thigh) EK khe5 ka2 WK kha3 kie1 BL kha² ɗu² GB kha3 du3 PD hãi dui PA ki⁵, tji⁵ 154. knee EK khe2 ma3 WK kha¹ ma³ GB kha3 le3 mi3 PD hã¹ lei?3 155. calf (of leg) EK khe5 do2 plo2 WK kha3 dwa1 plo1 GB kha3 de5 0e3 PD hãi phu4 phlau?i 156. shin EK khe5 khi2 WK kha3 khi1 GJ kha³ kho khwi³ PD na4 kãŭ42

157. foot EK khe5 le2 / ku5 le1 WK kha3 dwa1 GB kha3 kho3 le3 PD ka3 khou1 la?1 158. heel EK khe5 no2 ke3 WK kha3 nwa! kja3 GB sha3 she5 du3 ka5 PD ka3 dei1 kaŭ42 159. bone EK khrwi5 WK krwi5 GB khwi3 PD rmi?2/shwi1 PA chut5 160. rib EK ro3 khrwi5 WK ro3 krwi5 GB Ku3 khwi3 PD 103 rmi?2 PA re?1, khrwt1 161. flesh EK ja2 WK zie1 GB he³ PD ja?1 PA ja5 162. fat, oil (noun) EK su⁵ WK Ous GB ju3 pho5 Shi3 163. skin EK pha5 WK pha5 GB phe³ PD phe32 PA phe?5 164. blood EK swi2 WK Owi1 GB Owi ? PD swi?1 PA shwi5

165. sweat 171b. you (singular) EK ku2 sa3 WK ne1 WK ku⁵ 0a³ GJ n∈3 GB chwi5 tha3 PA na3 PD ko3 sei42 172. father 166. pus EK phe3 EK mi3 WK phe3 WK mi3 GB pa4 GB mi5 PD pha42 GL hmi1 PA pha! PD kwhi1, whi1 PA min1 173. mother EK mo21 167. excrement WK mwa5 EK 121 GB mo3 WK i1 PD mew3 GB il PA my42 PD ei?1 PA el 174. child EK phu⁵ 168. urine WK phu⁵ EK i5 che2 GB phi⁵ se⁵ pho³ WK i¹ shie¹ PD pho?3 GB Shi3 PA pho! PD 001 Jhw?1 PA chi5 175. son-in-law EK me3 phre2 khu3 WK me3 pre1 khu3 169. man GB cha3 ma3 EK phre2 khu3 WK pre1 khu3 PD mã3 phre2 kheu42 GB mi³ kho⁵ PD pra2 khau42 176. husband PA kho1 EK ve² WK VE1 170. woman GB wa3 EK phre2 mo2 WK pre1 mo1 PD wa21 PA va3, vwa3 GB mi³ mu⁵ PD pra2 mo?2 177. wife PA 105 mun5 EK me3 WK me3 GB me⁵ 171. person EK phre2 (classifier for PD ma42 PA ma1 person) WK prg1 GB pja1 178. widow PD pra2 EK phre2 mo2 ?o2 khre5 WK prei moi ?oi krja5 PA phra3 GB mo3 sho5 ma3 PD pra2 mo2 shai?3

186. house

179, elder sibling EK me21 WK vja5 GB me1 PD kwe3 PA Ve42 180. younger sibling EK po21 WK pwa5 GB pi3 kc5 0e5 de3 DD bn3 PA phu42 181. friend EK kho3 be5 swa5 WK kho3 ba5 0wo5 GB 003 PD no1 1em?3 182. name EK mi2, mui3 WK mwi1 GB mi3 PD miw2 PA mjin3 183. village EK do3 WK do3 BL do1 GB du5 GL do1 PD deu42 PA don1 184. road, path EK kle5 WK klja5 GB kle3 PD khlai?3 PA klai¹ (location) 185. boat EK so2 kle3 WK 851 klie3 GB khli⁵ PD to khlm42 PA phri1

EK hi2 WK hi1 GB fi3 GJ hi3 PD @itt?1 187. door EK ka2 da3 du2 WK ka da3 GB kha3 kle3 PD ka daw42 188. window EK ka2 da3 hu5 WK ke da3 phu5 GB kha3 kle3 phu3 PD ke daw42 pho?2 189. roof EK khu² WK khu1 GB khu3 PD khau?1 190. space under house EK dle3 WK 163 GB 1c3 PD la3 191. wall (of house) EK do5 WK do5 GJ to3 PD do?2 192. mat EK le21 de3 WK le5 de3 GJ khlo3 PD nw3 da42 193. pillow EK mwa5 WK mwo5 PD mwã2

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194. blanket
EK i<sup>2</sup> ke<sup>3</sup>
WK hi5 ke3
GB Mi5 ja3
PD mha42
PA hom1
195. clothing
EK he2 ca2
WK hiel cal
PD mu4 cai21
196. weave (cloth)
EK bo5 the5
WK bo5 the5
GB bu3 the3
PD bi3 tha?3
PA tha5
197. dye, soak (cloth)
EK ce2
WK ce1
GB tru3 la3
PD cu2 shw42
199. trousers
EK he2 khe2 pha3 la3
WK hie¹ khja¹ thu³
PD nu² ləu³ bã142/bai42
200. sew
EK che5
WK i1 she5
GB sha3
PD sha3 mha42
PA cha?5
201. needle
EK the5
WK the5
GB na5 de3
GJ hna5 de3
PD c11 tu3
PA te?1 tha?5
202. comb (noun)
EK ku<sup>5</sup> sə<sup>2</sup>
WK ko5 0ie1
GB ti5
PD ka3 Ow1
PA pa shi5
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203. ring (for finger)
EK to2 plo5
WK ta plwo5
204. paper
EK ce2 ba2
WK cg1 ba1
GB se5 ku3
PD si4 bei?1
205. cooking/rice pot
EK di3 po2
WK di3 po1
GB ku3 phu3
PD dia4 paw2
PA phyn3
206. ladle
EK the3 e5 dw2
WK thie3 dwa1
PD [hw4 ne4 dew2
209. spoon
EK di<sup>3</sup> co<sup>21</sup> (lit., rice
     spoon)
WK di3 co5
GB cwe3
PD co3
210. plate
EK di3 be3 lo21 (lit.,
    rice plate)
WK di3 be3 lp5
GB la! pa!
PD dia42 ba42
211. firewood
EK khru21
WK kru1
GB ho3
PD cau?1
PA so5
212. fire
EK mi2
WK mi1
GB mi5
GL hmi2, mi2
PD měl?1
PA me<sup>5</sup>
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213. ashes
EK ku⁵ phe²
WK kɔ⁵ phe¹
GB phe³ ∫he⁵
PD pha⁷
PA pha³

214. smoke EK kho² WK khwə¹ GB khu³ PD khu² PA khu⁵

215. candle EK te² re⁵ bo³ WK tə re⁵ bo³ PD phei¹ jõ³ těĩ?¹

216. drum EK tho³ WK tho³ GB tho⁵ PD theu⁴² PA thon¹

217. gong EK mo² WK mo¹ GB mo³ PD paŭ² PA mon⁵

218. crossbow EK kle² WK klie¹ GB fhi³ PD fhw?¹ PA khri⁵

219. arrow EK ple²¹ WK ple⁵ GB pli³ PD pla³² PA pla¹ 220. spear (noun) EK te2 be3 WK ta bja3 BL Gal Gal GB Ga3 ba5 PD batt42 PA ban1 221. knife EK i2 tho52 WK di1 tho5 GB da3 PD do42 222. hear EK ni21 ho3 WK ni5 xwə3 GB 0i3 he5 PD na3 hw42 PA hun 1 223. sniff EK no2 vi2 WK nwa! 0ja3 GB le3 nu5 GL hnu 1 PD něm² ?wi?¹ PA num5 224. see EK me5 the2 WK mja5 thie1 GB ca3 PD u2 shw?1

225. wink (verb) EK bo² kle⁵ WK bo¹ kle⁵ GB bi³ co³ PD bei¹ khw?¹

226. weep EK no²¹ WK nwe⁵ GB ha³ PD new³² PA ny⁴²

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227. eat
                                   234. vomit (verb)
EK e2
                                   EK phre5
WK e1
                                   WK prja5
GB a3
                                   GB po5
PD att1/att?1
                                   PD prau32
PA am1
                                   PA phro?5, phrok5
228. swallow (in) (verb)
                                   235. spit (verb)
EK ju² klu³ (no³)
                                   EK thu2 pla5
                                   WK thu1 pla5
WK zu5 klu3
                                   GB thui3 pe3 chi5
GB sho5 ni3
PD to klu4 (na3)
                                   PD cil thwi42
                                   236. cough (verb)
229. hungry
EK si5 ?e2 di3
                                   EK tw2 khw5
WK 065 e1 di3
                                   WK to khu5
                                   GB @u5 khu3
GB 0a3 wi3
PD sal 7aml dia42
                                   PD se4 khu?3
                                   237. sneeze (verb)
230. full (stomach)
EK ko5
                                   EK te2 che5
                                   WK ke shja5
WK ko5
                                   GB ko5 she5
GJ ku3
                                   PD ka1 shai?3
PD kp3 hw42
                                   238, yawn (verb)
231. thirsty (lit., desire
                                   EK ta2 kha3
     drink water)
                                   WK to kha3
EK si5 703 the3
                                   GB la3 ta3
WK \theta \epsilon^5 o<sup>3</sup> thje<sup>3</sup>
                                   PD se4 hai42
GB 0a3 7o5 chi5
PD sa3 ?o4 fhw42
                                   239, breathe
                                   EK se5
232. drink (verb)
                                   WK 0e5
EK 03
                                   GB ⊕e3
WK o3
                                   PD sa4
GB o5
                                   PA shal
PD o4
PA ok5, ?wa?5
                                   240. whistle
                                   EK i<sup>5</sup> vi<sup>3</sup>
233. to be drunk
EK mw2
                                   WK 0wi5
WK o3 mw1
                                   GB Mi3
GB o5 mu3
                                   PD Mhi?2/ hui
                                   PA hyu1
GL 0e3 hmu2
PD məti2 si?3
PA mun3
                                    241. suck
                                    EK CW15
                                   WK cwi5
                                    GB 303 705
                                    PD cwi?3
                                    PA tyup1
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242. lick 251. think EK ja21 WK i¹ lie¹ GB li3 ?a3 PD li1?1/ li3?1 244. laugh EK na3 WK ne3 GB 3E3 PD na32 PA na?1 245. speak EK i5 be2 WK he5 be1 PD ni2 fhwi42 246. tell EK de5 cho2 WK he⁵ sho¹ (dv⁵ na³) GB do3 PD tai3 ba?1 247. shout EK e5 tho3 WK €5 tho3 PD ka3 248. answer (verb) EK i5 be2 chw2 WK he5 sho1 ka1 khie3 shw1 PD ni4 fhwi4 jw3 249. lie, fib (verb) EK le2 ho3 WK la1 ho3 GB ple5 PD lau?1 PA len1 250. sing EK i5 ro3 WK he5 ro3, 8a5 wi3 GB ta3 pol PD se4 pi3 kla%?1 PA na3 do?5 ta3

EK te² ne² WK to ne1 GB ku1 mu1 PD n14 sm?3 252. know EK si⁵ ne³ WK θε⁵ ne³ GB 0i3 he5 PD sei4 nam2 PA she¹ na5 253. forget EK cho3 ta2 pa2 WK sho3 te pa1 GB sho3 to5 pho3 ng3 PD se4 pei2 254. choose EK la² phja⁵, mε⁵ phja⁵ WK nwo5 phie5 GB le3 phi3 PD jwe3 phi?2 255. love, want (verb) EK si⁵ jw²1 WK 0c5 zw5 GB be3 lo3 PD $\Theta \epsilon^1$ ju?3 256. hate (verb) EK si5 to2 kho3, si5 the1 WK 0c5 the1 GB te3 we3 ce3 no3 PD n31 cm4 ?o?1 257. wait (verb) EK 021 po21 PD of pi?3 PA on1 pa42 257a. wait (a request) NK jwa3 WK 01 2W03 GB o3 sho5

258. count EK dε5 WK dja5 GB do3 PD dau3 PA do1 259. afraid EK si5 i2 che3 WK $\theta\epsilon^5$ i¹ she³ GB si³ sa⁵ PD sa2 rau?2 260. angry EK si5 plo2 du2 WK 0e5 plo1 du1 GB $\Theta \epsilon^3$ the3 PD sa42 thã2 dau2 261. sleep (verb) EK o2 me3 ta2 pa2 WK o¹ mie3 GB sho3 mi5 GL sho2 hmi1 PD of mei4 khlu42 PA met3 ben3; ben5 (lie) 262. snore EK o2 me3 se5 phra2 WK of mie3 0c5 praf GB sho3 mi5 0e3 ho3 PD mei42 sa?1 263. dream (verb) EK me21 WK mja5 GB ma3 GL hma2 PD mei42 mati3 PA man42 264 EK che3 WK she3 GB she5 PD sha42

265. medicine EK te3 khuh2 WK te1 khu1 GB ti3 Mi3 PD cw1 sw?1 266. itch (verb) EK ke2 se5 WK ka 0e5 GB ea3 PD ke4 sa?1 267. scratch (verb) EK ku5 va21 WK kp5 pra1 GB wa3 PD bau2 268. shiver EK te2 ne3 WK te na3 GB ka3 na3 PD ke2 nau?1 269. die EK sa3 WK @ie3 GB 015 PD sw42 PA shi1 270, ghost EK lo3 ne5 WK lwe3 ne5 GB te3 shi3 te3 ne3 PD le2 naŭ42 pho?1 PA lu3 271. sit EK o2 ne3 WK ol nja3 GB sha3 na5 PD hau42 ?o?1 PA on5 lan5 272. stand EK ko5 tho2 WK ke tho! GB we3 tho3 PD se4 thew?1 PA on1 then42

280. pull

273. kneel EK de5 nm2 WK da5 nu3 GB tu3 nu5 la3 GL to hnu5 la3 PD thu3 kwe3 nwe?3/noe?3 274. walk EK cwa5 WK cwe5 GB he3 PD tau2 PA thon1 275. crawl EK hu5 no2 cwa5 WK pm5 no1 cme5 GB po3 co3 ko3 PD kog2 teu2 276. come EK he2 ? WK hja3 GB le ba3 PD lai2 277. enter EK no3 WK nwa3 GB le3 PD ne3 keu42 PA nv1, lon1 278. return EK ka² WK ka3 GB ki³ ba³ ke³ PD shail da4 dau42 PA sen! 279. push EK che2 WK shja1 GB sha3 PD shawi lo1

EK cwi2 WK cwi1 GB cwi3 PD cui¹ lo¹ PA thy?5 281. kick EK te² pe³ WK ta pe3 PD te pa?3 282. throw EK vi5 ke3 WK vi3 kja3 GB Me5 PD mhi4/hui4 kai42 PA wan5, vot5 283. fall EK ta3 WK lə tạ3 GB la3 de3 PD le² tai?³ PA lan3, thet1 284. swim EK te2 je21 the3 WK to ze5 thie3 GB wa1 chi5 PD kwaŭ3 shw42 285. float EK lo2 WK 101 GB la3 pli3 PD le2 jeu2 PA a3 phu3 286. sink EK ta3 cw5 WK ta3 cw5 GB la3 201 PD le1 prew?1 287. flow EK thwi5 WK thwi5 GB chi5 lp1 la1 PD thwi?3

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287a. take (to pass from
      one to another?)
WK phie5
GJ phi3
PD phei<sup>1</sup> (give)
PA phe<sup>5</sup> (give)
288. give
EK de5
WK die5
GB i3
289. tie
EK co3
WK co3
GB co5
PD caw42
PA cyn1
290. wipe, scrub
EK thw5
WK thw5
GB tho5
PD thew?3
292. wash
EK su<sup>5</sup> pli<sup>3</sup>
WK shi3 pli3
GB su5 sa3 ba5
PD c/shett42
293. launder
EK i5 cho2
WK i1 shwa1
GB shi<sup>5</sup> po<sup>1</sup> te<sup>1</sup>
PD [hu?1 (latt42)
294. bathe
EK i<sup>5</sup> lo<sup>2</sup> the<sup>3</sup>
WK i¹ lwə5 thie
GB u5 sa3 chi5
PD wat2 fhu42/fhu42?
295. hit
EK mw3
WK mw3
GB tho3
PD pau2, tei3
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297. cut (hair)
EK ci2
WK il cil
GB di3
PD 1171 tu42
298. stab
EK chw5
WK shw3
GB phlo5
PD shai?3 pau2
299. grind, stir
EK te<sup>2</sup> ri<sup>3</sup>, nu<sup>5</sup>
WK to ri3
GB pil rel
PD 004 fhm?3 pau2
300. plant (verb)
EK cho5
WK i 1 sho 5
GB sho3
PD sho?1
301. dig
EK khw²
WK i¹ khw¹
GB khu3
PD kho?1
302. bury (a corpse)
EK plw3
WK i1 plw3
BL 6u1 la1
GB bu5 la5
PD bw42 (bw3?)
PA bim1
303. winnow (rice)
EK i2 khre5
WK i! kre5
GB Me3 ba5
PD ki4 khlai3?
304. dry (verb)
EK lu3
WK luh3
GB lo Me5
GL hlo!
PD lu4 Shei42
PA 101
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305. pound (rice)
EK i2 cha5
WK il sha5
GB to3
PD tăŭ3
PA thon5
306. cook, boil
EK pho3
WK i1 pho3
GB pha5
PD phãu42
308. burn (transitive
     verb)
EK chw5
WK i¹ shw5
GB k€3
PD cu<sup>3</sup>
309. extinguish
EK me2 pi3
WK me1 pi3
GB me3 la3 pi3
PD mei<sup>1</sup> pw?<sup>3</sup>
310. do, cause, make,
EK me2
WK me 1
GB me³
PD ma2
PA ma3
311. play
EK ko5 no21
WK la1 vo3
GB ka3 ja3
PD klaw?1
312. dance (verb)
EK le3 phre21
WK pal na5
GB pja3 sa3
PD liã3 (klaŭ?1)
313, shoot
EK khe5
WK khe5
GB khe3
PD kha?3
PA kha?5
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314. hunt
EK he3 o2 le3 khe5 te2 mi2
WK hja3 lo3 khe5 te1 mi1,
     hja3 o1 le3 khe5 te1
     mi1
GB he3 khe3 a3 te1
PD lai1 lei4 kha2 ta1 mif1
315. kill
EK me2 se3
WK me1 0ie3
GB me3 0i5
PD ma2 sw42
PA ma3 si1
316. fight, argue
EK kja<sup>5</sup> lu<sup>3</sup>
WK klie<sup>5</sup> lu<sup>3</sup>
PD le1 thei3 ju3
317. buy
EK i5 phri2
WK i1 pri1
GB pwi3
PD a1 prei2
PA phre3
318. sell
EK i5 che3
WK i1 she3
GB she5
PD ă1 sha42
PA tja1
319. exchange
EK bu2 le2 lu3
WK ph/thu1 lja1 lu3
GB ba5 kle3
PD lei laii ju?3
320. pay
EK pla5; ca21 e21 (Shan)
WK el el
GB i3 ke3
PD å1 kha?3
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321. steal EK e² ho² WK e¹ xwe¹ GB i⁵ hu³ PD a¹ hu² PA ta khun³

322. one person EK te² phre² WK te pre¹ GB te³ pwe³ PD la² pra²

323. two EK ne³ WK nie³ PD nw⁴ PA ni¹

324. three EK so³ WK swa³ GB 0o⁵ PD 0w⁴ PA shom¹

325. four EK lwi³ WK lwi³ GB lwi³ PD lui³ PA lit⁵

326. five EK ne³ WK na³ GB ze³ PD nai³ PA nat⁵

328. seven WK nwc⁵ PD noc⁴

331. ten EK che⁵ WK shie⁵ GB fhi³ PD fhw⁴² PA chi¹ 332. hundred EK je² WK ze¹ GB je³ PD ja¹ PA arya³

333. thousand EK ri⁵ WK ri⁵ PD rei?³ PA te?¹ ren¹

334. many (persons) EK 02 ro21 WK 01 ro5 GB 03 ke5 PD 01 ?a?3 PA a1

335. all EK 103 pli3 WK 103 pli3 GB 703 ?63 PD 103 1842

336. some EK te² he² WK te¹ he¹ GB to³ co³ PD la² hã²

337. few EK pi² ti⁵ (cf. 340) WK tə ki¹ GB ɔ³ ∫hi³ GJ ti⁴ ki³ PD lə¹ ki⁷

339. big EK du(h)² WK duh¹ BL do² GB du³ PD deu² PA tan⁴² na⁵

340. small EK pi2 ti5 WK pa ti5 GB shi3 phu3 PD pho?3 (ti?3) 341. long EK thu3 WK thuh3 GB tho5 PD thou42 PA tho! 342. short (length) EK pho2 WK phwa1 GB pi⁵ phu³ PD phaw?1 343. tall EK the2 lo3 WK thja1 le5 GB tha3 ji3 PD thã1 lw42 344. short (height) EK le2 jw21 WK ta rw5 GB bo3 la3 PD lai phem? 1 (cf. 342) 345. thick WK dwa3 GB ti4 PD dw42 PA dwn1 346. thin EK bw3 MK pm3 GB pu5 PD bi42 PA be3 347. fat, plump EK bw2 WK bw1 BL 602 GB bo3 PD bwa?1 PA plen5

348. skinny EK khre3 WK krja3 GB che3 we1 PD cai?3 349, wide, broad EK 1e21 WK 1ja5 PD lai?3 350. narrow NK i3 pi5 o1 EK i pi51 WK 11 GB i3 nu5 pho3 PD iã?1 351. deep EK jε3 WK za3 GB jo1 PD cau?3 PA jo?1 352. shallow EK tw2 lw21 WK ta lu5 GB la3 da3 PD phju42 353. round ? EK tw² βw² WK ta vw1 GB du3 lu5 (we1) PD ti4 lau42 PA kal du3 354. full EK ba3 WK ba3 GB pi5 PD boc42 PA bwe1 355. rightside EK thwa5 WK thwo5 GB thwe3 PD thwe?3 PA thwe1

356. leftside EK ci2 WK ci1 GB ci3 PD cei?1 PA tje5, cje5 357. straight EK co5 WK co5 re ne5 GB ta3 na3 PD cew3 coa?1 358. far EK ja2 WK zie1 GB 3 713 PD ji2 PA na3 (Old Mon = jirney) 359. near EK phw2 WK phw1 BL 602 GB o3 bo3 PD pham? 1 PA bo?5 360. this EK ə3 WK je3 GB bi5 ju1 PD ba4 ?w42 361. that EK na2 WK nwe 1 GB do5 ba3 di3 nu3 PD taw4 do42 362. black EK lo2 WK lo1 PD lau2 PA sin3

363. white EK bu3 WK bu(h)3 BL 601 9a1 GB bo5 PD bu42 PA bwa1 364. red EK li2 WK li1 GB li3 PD lei2 PA tə?5 nja5 365. green EK so3 WK swa3 PD sw42 366, yellow EK bε3 WK bja3 GB ba5 PD batt42 PA ban3 367. dirty EK 15 ?ε21 WK ra1 cja5 PD ci4 phu?3 368. new EK se3 WK 8E3 GB ⊕€5 PD si42 PA sha! 369. old EK la2 WK lie1 GB li3 la3 PD lw2 PA li3

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370. dark
                                   378, rotten
EK khi5
                                   EK so3
WK khi5
                                  WK 853
GB khi3
                                   GB ⊕m5
PD khm?3
                                   PD saw42
PA khe?5
                                   PA sen3
371. bright
                                   379. swollen
EK li3
                                   EK je5
                                   WK za5
WK li3
GB 115
                                   GB Jho3
                                   GL hjo2
PD kha42 (Shai2 raŭ?1)
                                   PD jo?2
                                   PA 1075
372. same
EK se51 lu3
WK 0ja5 lu3
                                   380. dry (adjective)
GB la3 lp3
                                   EK khra3
PD cwe3/coe3 jw?2
                                   WK kra3
                                   GB Me5
                                   PD Shei42
373. different
EK ko2 dw2
                                   PA shen!
WK kho1 dw1
PD kho3 jw?2
                                   381. wet
                                   EK co2
                                   WK co1
374. sweet
                                   GB OUS
EK chw3
WK shw3
                                   PD co?1
                                   PA tjau<sup>5</sup>
PD shw42
                                   382. hot
375. sour
                                   EK ku21
EK cha2
                                   WK kuh5
WK shie1
                                   GB ku<sup>3</sup>
GB Shi3
                                   PD keu3
PD [hi?1
                                   PA kho42 lja42
PA chja5
376. bitter
                                   382a. warm
                                   WK le1
EK khe2
                                   GJ l∈3
WK khe1
                                   PA lom3, kho42 lja42 (hot)
GB khe3
PD kha?1
                                   383. cold
PA kha!
                                   EK ke ro
                                   WK rol
377. spicy hot
EK he5
WK hja5
                                   383a, cool
                                   EK de2 ca5
GB he3
                                   WK klu1
PD hai?3
                                   GB cu3 (cold)
PA hat5
                                   PD khu42
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384. sharp EK the³ WK thja³ GB tha⁵ PD thaŭ⁴² PA cja¹

385. blunt EK dw³ WK dw³

386. heavy EK tho² WK thwe¹ GB thu³ PD thew?¹ PA thw⁵

387. hard EK phre³ WK prie³ GB sha³ PD shăŭ?²

388. smooth EK kla² WK kla¹

388b. easy WK zu GJ fho⁴ PA jo¹

388c. loose WK tə klja GJ khla⁵

389. fast EK phre³ WK prja³ GB plã³ PD phra¹

390. slow EK jo³ WK zo³ PD jeu⁴². juɛ⁴² 391. strong EK chwa² WK shwo¹ PD khro?³

392. faint EK $1\varepsilon^2$ $d\varepsilon^5$ WK $1\varepsilon^1$ dja^5 GB $1a^3$ ta^3 (tired) PD sa^1 tem^3 (tired)

393. tired EK si⁵ phra⁵ WK θε⁵ pra⁵ PD phli?³ (faint)

394. blind EK pe⁵ se² khi⁵ WK mc¹ θ c¹ khi⁵ PD mo⁴ sa¹ khw?³

395. deaf EK ku⁵ le² ko² o³ WK kha³ le¹ ko¹ ?o³ GB ni¹ ku¹ te³ ?u⁵ PD la¹ ku⁴ ?eu⁴²

396. bald
EK ku² klɔ⁵ la²¹
WK khu¹ klɔ⁵ dɛ³
BL da² gla³
GB mi³ pɔ³ tə kla³
GL da gla²
PD ka³ klɔ² klã?¹

397. naked EK o² kla²¹ klo² WK o¹ kha³ klo¹ PD o¹ cw¹ kwã⁴²

398. good EK $r \varepsilon^5$ WK $r j a^5$ GB ε^3 PD $r a u ?^2$

399. bad EK re^5 to² WK rja^5 to¹ GB te³ no³ PD cm⁴ rau² 400. correct EK to³ e⁵ WK to³ ho⁵ GB be³ PD tue⁴² hi⁴² 401. wrong EK sw⁵ WK ew⁵ PD lau² hi⁴²

English Glossary to Karen Word List

T stands for Thailand Word List and is the numbering system used throughout this thesis.

The other letters pertain only to the source of the Pa-o entries. All Pa-o entries coded with an L are from charts F through J in Luce (1985). Entries from chart E of Luce (1985) are coded LE. The H indicates that the Pa-o entry is from Hopple (n.d.), and the J stands for Jones (1961).

abdomen T139, L293 afraid T259 all T335 angry T260 animals T72 answer (verb) T248 argue, fight T316 armpit T147 arrow T219, L47 ashes T213, J363 back (noun) T138 bad T399 bald T396 bamboo T48, L71 bamboo shoot T49, LE48 banana T57 bark (verb) T82, J325 bark of tree T40 bathe T294 bear T74 beard (chin hair) T136 bee T115 beetle green T116, H72 betal nut T54, LE30, H179 big T339, H225 bird T93, L94 bird nest T94, J609 bite (verb) T83, J76 bitter T376, L66 black T362, J608

blanket T194, J694 blind T394 blood T164, L85 blunt T385 boat T185, L24 body hair T96, L114 bone T159, L61 brain T121, L121, J189 branch T39, H37 breathe T239, L60 bright T371 buffalo T88, J22 burn (transitive verb) T308 bury (a corpse) T302, L151 butterfly T117, J470 buttocks T151 buy T317, L8 calf (of leg) T155 candle T215 cat T84 cave T36 chicken T99, LE21 child T174, J242 chin T135 choose T254 clothing T195 cloud T5, L107, H2 cockroach T112 coconut T61, H42

cold T383 comb (noun) T202, L83 come T276 cook, boil T306 cooking pot T205 cool T383a corn T67 correct T400 cough (verb) T236, L287 count T258, H122 cow T86, J501 crawl T275 crocodile T105 crossbow T218, L77 cut (hair) T297 dance (verb) T312 dark T370, L274 day T13, H11 deaf T395 deep T351, L263 deer T75, L12 die T269, L32 different T373 dig T301 dirty T367 dog T81, L79 door T187 down feather T96, L114 dream (verb) T263, L56 drink (verb) T232, L146, H116 drum T216, J342 (to be) drunk T233, L15 dry (adjective) T380, L167 dry (verb) T304, J198 duck (noun) T100 dust T28, H24 dye, soak T197 ear T129, J21 east T19 easy T388b, J173 eat T227, L239 egg T98, L80 eggplant T62 elbow T146 elder sibling T179, L183 elephant T91, L37 elephant tusk T92 enter T277, L260 exchange T319 excrement T167, LE43 extinguish T309

eye T125, L120 eyebrow T124 eyelid T126 face T120 fall T283, L137, H140 far T358, LE6 fast T389 fat, oil (noun) T162 fat T347, L113 father T172, L46 feather T95, J219 few T337 fight, argue T316 finger T149 fingernail T150 fire T212, L86 firewood T211, H183 fish (noun) T101, L70 five T326, L51 flesh T161, L212 float T285, H135 flow T287 flower T44 fly (verb) T97 foot T157 forehead T123 forest T37, H29 forget T253 four T325, L48 friend T181 frog T106, L221 fruit T45 full (stomach) T230 full T354, L11 garlic T65 ghost T270, J318 gibbon T77 ginger T64, L20 give T288 gold T32 gong T217, J603 good T398 grass T47 green T365 grind, stir T299 gums T134 hair T122 hand T145 hard T387 hate (verb) T256 head T119, L93 hear T222, L170

heart T141, L271 heavy T386, J370 heel T158 hit T295 horn (buffalo) T89, L140 hot T382, L188 house T186 hundred T332, L3 hungry T229 hunt T314 husband T176, L4 insect T107 intestines T144, J180 iron, needle T34, J84 itch (verb) T266 jackfruit T60, J514 kapok T52 kick T281 kill T315, H207 knee T154 kneel T273 knife T221 know T252, L87 ladle T206 laugh (verb) T244, J798 launder T293 leaf T43, LE38 leftside T356, L219, H261 leg T152 lick (verb) T242 lie, fib (verb) T249, J615 lightning T9 lime T31 liquor T56, LE60 liver T143 lizard indoor T103 long T341, L162 loose T388c louse T110, J48 love, want (verb) T255. lungs T142 man T169, L154 mango T59 many T334, L197 mat T192 medicine T265 milk (noun) T87 mist T6 monkey T76, L126 moon T3, L18 morning T14 mosquito T114

mother T173, L55 mountain T35, H27 mouth T130 mud T27, J669 mushroom T50, L139 naked T397 name T182, L14 narrow T350 navel T140, L19 near T359, L290 needle T201, J84 new T368, L39 night T12, H10 noon T15 north T21 old T369, J119 one T322 painful T264 palm T148 papaya T58 paper T204 pay T320 peanut T63 person T171, L131 photo T11, J634, J659 pig T85, L129 pillow T193 plant (verb) T300 plate T210 play (verb) T311 porcupine T79, L230 pound (rice) T305, J4 pull T280, J214 pus T166, L62 push T279 rabbit T78 rain (verb) T7, H7, J764 rainbow T8 rat T80, L54 rattan T51, L49 red T364, J473 red pepper T66 return T278, J604 rib T160, L258, J181 rice husk T70, L34 rice paddy field T36a, J675 rice, cooked T69, H175, J326 rice, unhusked T68, LE36 right side T355, L160 ring T203

ripe T45a, J225 river T24 road, path T184, J394 roof T189 root T42, L180, H33 rotten T378, H243 round T353, H230 saliva T132 salt T71. L73 same T372 sand T30, H22 scorpion T118 scratch (verb) T267 sea T25, H19, J64 see T224 seed T46 sell T318, L155 seven T328 sew T200, L264 shadow T11, J634, J659 shallow T352 sharp T384, H247 shave (verb) T137 shin T156 shiver T268 shoot at T313, L122 short (height) T344 short (length) T342 shout (verb) T247 silver T33, LE7 sing T250, H197 sink T286 sit T271, J260 skin T163, L125 skinny T348 sky (lower), T1 sky (upper), Tla, H1 sleep (verb) T261, L158, H125 slow T390. small T340 smoke T214, L92 smooth T388 snail T113, J508 snake T102, L52 sneeze (verb) T237 sniff T223, L42 snore T262 soil T26, L235 some T336 son-in-law T175 sour T375, L105

south T22 space under house T190 speak T245 spear (noun) T220, L147 spicy hot T377, J523 spider T108, H69 spider web T109 spit (verb) T235 spoon T209 stab T298 stand T272, H127 star T4, L207 steal T321, L89 stone T29, J15 straight T357 stream T24a strong T391 suck T241, H111 sugar cane T53 sun T2, L186 swallow (in) (verb) T228 sweat T165 sweet T374 swim T284 swollen T379, L305 tail T90, L50 take T287a, J205 tall T343 tell T246 ten T331, L28 termite T111 that T361 thick T345, H232 thigh T153, L213 thin T346, J137 think T251 thirsty T231 this T360 thorn T41 thousand T333, J360 three T324, L43 throw T282, H139, J679 thunder T10, L166 tie (verb) T289, J133 tiger T73, H62 tired T393 tomorrow T17 tongue T131, L9 tooth T133, J521 tree T38, L103 trousers T199 turtle T104, L124

two T323, L30 urine T168, L78 village T183, LE14 vomit (verb) T234, L301, H118 wait (request) T257a, wait (verb) T257, J565 walk T274, J290 wall T191 warm T382a, J121 wash (verb) T292, L177 water T23, J161 weak T392 weave T196, L69 weep T226, L98 west T20 wet T381, L95 whisker T96, L114 whistle (verb) T240, L231 white T363, L17 wide, broad T349 widow T178 wife T177, J193 window T188 wing T95, J219 wink (verb) T225 winnow (rice) T303 wipe, scrub T290 woman T170, H156 work (verb) T310, L132 wrong T401 yawn (verb) T238 year T18, J60 yellow T366, J139 yesterday T16 younger sib. T180, L184

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