

**Toward a Eurasian Bestiary:**  
**(I) OTTER in Tibeto-Burman and Mon-Khmer**  
**(II) JACKAL in Sino-Tibetan and Indo-European\***

James A. Matisoff  
University of California  
Berkeley

**PART I: OTTER in Tibeto-Burman and Mon-Khmer**

**I.1 Introduction**

One of the most interesting zoonyms to be found in *Sino-Tibetan: a Conspectus* [henceforth STC] is the word for ‘otter’ (#438, p. 107). On the basis of the following 11 forms, Benedict originally reconstructed this etymon as Proto-Tibeto-Burman [PTB] \***s-ram**, with the initial sibilant analyzed as an instance of the \***s-** “animal prefix”.<sup>1</sup>

Written Tibetan [WT] **sram**, Lepcha **sāryom**, Miri **si-ram**, Nung **səram**, Jingpho [Jg.] **shāram**, Maru **xren**, Phunoi **sam**, Garo **matram**, Dimasa **matham**, Lushai (Mizo) **sa-hram**, Mikir **serim**.

Later, however, he changed his mind, and removed the hyphen from the proto-form (\***sram**), treating the sibilant-plus-liquid combination as a true consonant cluster, with no morpheme boundary intervening. This move was prompted by a reconsideration of Mizo **sa-hram** and Lepcha **sāryom**, both of which look as if they derive from \***sa-sram**.<sup>2</sup>

Yet as Benedict himself realized, this reanalysis does nothing to explain the very strange Written Burmese [WB] word for ‘otter’: **phyam**. In a footnote (STC, n. 302) he offers a non-explanation without much enthusiasm:

“...Burmese has **phyam** ‘otter’, which can be analyzed as a derivative of \***phram** < \***p-sram**, with the **p-** element of undetermined origin.”

This Burmese form certainly “otter” undergo further scrutiny – a theory to account for its mysterious labial onset will be the main focus of the first section of this paper.

To begin with, it seems to me that Benedict’s hypothetical \***p-sram** prototype is overly complex, and is merely an artifact of his concern to justify the “cluster” rather than “prefixed”

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\*A draft of the first part of this paper was composed at the National Museum of Ethnology, Osaka, in July 1988. A somewhat later version of both parts was presented at the École des Hautes Études en Sciences Sociales, Paris (June 1989), and at ICSTLL #22 in Honolulu (Oct. 1989). My thanks to Daniel Bruhn for his skillful inputting and formatting of the present version.

<sup>1</sup> This morphological element, which appears in words for parts of the body as well as in animal names, shows up sporadically throughout Tibeto-Burman [TB], and is obviously derived from the root-morpheme for ‘animal; flesh’ reconstructed as PTB \***sya** (STC #181).

<sup>2</sup> Both the Mizo voiceless sonorant **-hr-** and the Lepcha palatalized **-ry-** may be referred to an original **s + r** sequence. For the peculiar Lepcha development, see Benedict 1943.

interpretation of the **s + r** sequence. If anything, the WB form seems rather to favor Benedict's first idea that the \***s-** was prefixal, and therefore "optional" – the immediate ancestor of **phyam** would then be \***p-yam** < \*\***p-ram**.

In any case, the whole issue of "prefix" vs. "cluster" seems rather artificial in this instance. The sequence **s + r** is relatively hard to pronounce,<sup>3</sup> and it would not be surprising if it could not be unambiguously reconstructed morpheme-internally in the proto-language. Even the Mizo and Lepcha forms are not conclusive evidence for the proto-cluster theory. We can imagine a cyclical scenario: once the troublesome sequence of prefixal \***s-** plus root-initial \***r-** was eliminated (in Mizo via devoicing of the liquid, and in Lepcha by palatalizing it), the way was left open for *reprefixation* by the animal prefix, which has remained quite productive in these two languages:

1<sup>st</sup> prefixation:           PTB \***sya** 'animal' + \***ram** 'otter' > pre-Mizo \***sa-ram** > **hram**;  
 2<sup>nd</sup> prefixation:           Mizo **sa-** 'animal prefix' + **hram** 'otter' > **sa-hram**.<sup>4</sup>

The process whereby a full root-morpheme in a compound word gets reduced to a prefix has been called "prefixization" or the "compounding-prefixation cycle" (Matisoff 1978a:58–72, 2003:153–156). The closeness of bonding between the elements is not susceptible of precise quantification – the process represents an unstable continuum of phono-semantic interdependency.

The other forms presented in STC #438 are even less capable of proving that the word for 'otter' began with an intrinsic cluster. At first glance the Barish forms (Garo **matram**, Dimasa **matham**) look as if they might descend from \***m-sram**, but this is an illusion. According to Weidert (1987:122), the syllable **mat-** is a separate morpheme meaning 'squirrel; animal'.<sup>5</sup>

Most of the other forms in STC #438 are transcribed in the dictionaries from which they were taken with a vowel between the **s-** and the following **-r-**, which underlines the "non-clusterial" nature of the consonant sequence. This vowel is usually schwa (Nung **səram**, Jg. **shāram**, Lepcha **sāryom**<sup>6</sup>), but sometimes it has a non-central quality even though it is still presumably not a fully-stressed segment (Miri **si-ram**, Mikir **serim**).

That leaves three more forms in set #438 that require some comment: WT **sram**, Maru **xren**, and Phunoi **sam**.

Tibetan orthography never bothers to indicate the schwa-vocalism that must have occurred automatically between its numerous prefixes and their following root-initials (e.g. **bži** 'four')

<sup>3</sup> In Indo-European languages this unstable combination is often broken up by an epenthetic stop (compare Sanskrit *sravati* 'flow' with its Russian and English cognates, *ostrov* 'island' and *stream*, respectively).

<sup>4</sup> This is analogous to the new English compound *house-husband*. The *hus-* of *husband* is itself a reduced form of *house*, though its morphemic identity has been lost for the average speaker, leaving the way open for a re-compounding with the same element.

<sup>5</sup> In other Barish languages cited by Weidert (*ibid.*), this same morpheme recurs in such a way as to conceal the original root-initial \***r-**: Meche **moṭam** (with the retroflex ṭ reflecting the -t + r- sequence), and Boro **motam?** (where the **r-** has disappeared altogether).

<sup>6</sup> As hypothesized above, the **sā-** in the Lepcha form is actually a reprefixation, since the earlier \***s-** prefix got swallowed up after palatalizing the root-initial. In Mizo, judging from the orthography, the animal morpheme retained its full low central vowel /-a/, so that these animal names are more like *compounds* than like prefix + root combinations (e.g. **sa-khi** 'barking deer', **sa-kor** 'horse', **sa-phu** 'pangolin', **sa-zu** 'rat').

[bəzi], **brgyad** ‘eight’ [brəgyat], etc.). In this respect **sram** is no different from all the other WT animal names that begin with **s-** (e.g. **sbal-pa** ‘frog’, **sdig-pa** ‘scorpion’, **spre** ‘monkey’).

The Maru (Burmish) form is rather different. Like the other Lolo-Burmese [LB] languages, Maru preserves older TB prefixes only sporadically, when the phonological environment is particularly favorable, typically when the following root-initial is a ‘weak’ or ‘preemptible’ resonant (**r- l- y- w-**) or nasal.<sup>7</sup> In this case, the backing of the fricative **\*s** to **x** evidently allowed the **\*/s + r/** sequence to become pronounceable as **/xr/**, presumably in close juncture with no schwa intervening, so that both the prefix and the root-initial survived as separate segments. In other words, even though synchronically Maru **/xr/** may be a cluster, it descends historically from a **\*/prefix + root-initial/** sequence.

The Phunoi (S. Loloish) form **sam** seems to represent a clear case of what I have called *prefix preemption*<sup>8</sup> – the old prefix found itself before a ‘weak’ root-initial consonant and drove it out, so that only the prefix has left a distinct segmental reflex (i.e. the former prefix has evolved into the synchronic root-initial): **\*s-ram > s-[]am > sam**. Other Loloish languages have treated the otter similarly, as in the second syllables of Lahu **yi-šo-lo** and Akha **ui<sup>h</sup>shm<sup>h</sup>**.<sup>9</sup> (An unprefixated PLB form **\*ram** would have developed into Lh. **yo**, not **šo**.)

Already it is clear that the TB languages show extreme variation and unpredictability in the behavior of prefixes before non-stop initials. Before zeroing in on our main concern – an explanation for the labial onset of WB **phyam** – let us quickly list the words for ‘otter’ in about 20 other TB languages that are not cited in STC #438. As we shall see, the treatment accorded to the **\*/s + r/** combination in a given language – i.e. whether the prefix was simply dropped, or retained (with or without a cushioning vowel), or fused into a single segment with the root-initial, or fused with subsequent reprefixation, or substituted for by another prefix, or whether it “preempted” the initial itself – is quite independent of the subgroup of TB to which the particular language belongs.

## I.2 Karenic

The Sgaw Karen form **shyɔ** ‘otter’,<sup>10</sup> with an aspirated sibilant followed by **ɣ** (< **\*r**), is practically the mirror-image of Maru **xren** (above). Both languages succeed in breaking up the undesirable combination **\*/s + r/** by means of backing and fricativization – Maru did it by backing and spirantizing the *prefix* (**\*s- > x-**), while Sgaw did it by backing and spirantizing the *root-initial* (**\*-r > -ɣ**). In both cases new heterorganic (velar-apical or apicovelar) clusters were created – more easily pronounceable in close juncture than a sequence of apical sibilant plus apical liquid.

<sup>7</sup> Cf. e.g. Maru **bit** ‘four’ < PTB **\*b-ləy**.

<sup>8</sup> See Matisoff 1972:275, 1975:166, 1978a:53, 1979:24 & 2003:95, 153. Other well-known examples of this phenomenon include Akha **myòq** ‘lick’ < **\*m-lyak**, Lahu **sī** ‘seven’ < **\*s-nit**, Lh. **nī** ‘penis’ < **\*m-ləy**, etc.

<sup>9</sup> The first syllables of both these forms (Lh. **yi**, Ak. **ui<sup>h</sup>**) mean ‘water’ (cognate to WB **re** < PLB **\*rəy<sup>1</sup>**). Contra my note 304 in STC (p. 108), the third syllable of the Lahu form does *not* mean ‘big’; the Lahu morpheme ‘big’ is under the high-rising tone /ló/, and is a loan < Tai (cf. Si. *lǎŋ*). (Both Lh. **-o** and the Ak. syllabic nasal **-m** are the regular reflexes of PLB **\*-am**.)

<sup>10</sup> This form is cited in the Karenic section of STC, p. 140. According to the data in Jones (1961:132–133), this root occurs only in the Sgaw dialects and Palaychi, but not in Pho or Pa-O.

### I.3 Himalayish and Kaduic

To WT **sram** and Lepcha **săryom** (< \***să-s-ram**) discussed above, we may add 3 forms from TB languages of Nepal: Tamang **chu-rām** (Mazaudon 1993–1994), Limbu **ha:m-ba** (van Driem 1987), and Chepang **karyamʔ-jaʔ** (Weidert 1987). The Tamang form is a compound, with the first syllable **chu** meaning ‘water’,<sup>11</sup> and the second syllable descending from the unprefixing root \***-ram**.

The initial **h-** of Limbu **ha:m-ba** (the **-ba** comes from a widespread “bulk-providing” noun-suffix in TB – cf. WT **sbal-pa** ‘frog’, **sdig-pa** ‘scorpion’, Section I.1) is apparently a “fusional reflex” of \***sr**. This is a typical development in TB, occurring also e.g. in Loloish:

PTB		PLoloish		
*s-l, *s-y, *s-r	>	*hl, *hy, *hr	>	Lh. h <sup>12</sup>
*ʔ-l, *ʔ-y, *ʔ-r		*ʔl, *ʔy, *ʔr		

Chepang **karyamʔ-jaʔ** has a different prefix altogether than the \***s-** we have encountered up to now. It seems to be the same “velar animal prefix” that has been noted long ago by Tibeto-Burmanists, and surmised to be of Mon-Khmer origin,<sup>13</sup> occurring in such animal names as \***k-la** ‘tiger’, \***k-laŋ** ‘eagle, vulture, bird of prey’, \***k-roŋ** ‘wildcat’, \***k-rak** ‘chicken’, \***k-r-wat** ‘leech’, \***k-r-wak** ‘rat’, \***k-m-raŋ** ‘horse’. Note that these examples also all have liquids after the \***prefix!**

At least three interpretations of this variability in prefix are possible. (a) Either Chepang innovated by substituting a new \***kă-** prefix in place of the older \***să-** prefix; or (b) even at the PTB stage there was prefixal variation with this root, so we should set up the etymon as \***s-ram** × \***k-ram** (equivalently  $\left. \begin{matrix} *s- \\ *k- \end{matrix} \right\} \text{ram}$ ); or else (c) Chepang (like Lepcha and Mizo) has a reprefixed form, deriving from \***k-s-ram**. Perhaps Chepang, like Lepcha, developed secondary palatalization from prefixed **s-**, thus accounting for the **-y-** in **karyamʔ**.<sup>14</sup>) The first interpretation might be called “diachronically paradigmatic” – i.e. it supposes a substitution of one thing by another through time. The second one is “synchronically paradigmatic” – i.e. it assumes the possibility of substitution of one thing by another at the same time. The third interpretation is (diachronically) syntagmatic – i.e. it supposes that both prefixes co-occurred before the same root in a given language, even though the older prefix had been reduced or modified before the younger one was tacked on. Chepang **karyamʔ** < \***kă-s-ram** would then be analogous to Mizo or Lepcha \***să-s-ram**.<sup>15</sup>

<sup>11</sup> Lexosemantically this is the same formation (WATER + OTTER) as Lahu **yi-šo(-lo)** and Akha **ui~shm~** (above, Section I.1), though the Tamang morpheme for ‘water’ reflects a different TB etymon \***tsyu** (cf. WT **č’u**) than PLB \***rəy**<sup>1</sup>. For \***tsyu**, see TBRs #161:229–230.

<sup>12</sup> Exs: PTB \***s-la** ‘god; spirit; beautiful’ > PLB **hla**<sup>3</sup> > Lh. **ha**  
 PLB \***hya**<sup>1</sup> ‘swidden; mountain field’ > Lh. **he**  
 PTB \***b-g-ryat** ‘eight’ > PLB \***ʔrit** > Lh. **hí**

<sup>13</sup> See STC:107 and Matisoff 1969:190–199, 1973:n.37, 2003:138. Smith (1975) discussed this prefix with respect to several MK languages of Vietnam. This prefix is also relevant to the PTB etymon \***s-kywal** discussed in Part II, below.

<sup>14</sup> Not enough is yet known about Chepang historical phonology to be sure. The final glottal stop represents a phonation type (creaky voice) in Weidert’s transcription, and is perhaps itself an evolutionary by-product of the **s-** prefix.

<sup>15</sup> The earnest reader by now also sees analogies with Benedict’s hypothetical pre-WB form \***p-sram**, not so different after all from \***p-s-ram!** But for the source of this **p-** we must wait for the discussion below.

This third interpretation is somewhat reinforced by two forms from Kaduic languages cited in Luce 1986: Gănan **kɔ<sup>1</sup>həm<sup>4</sup>** and Kădu (= Kantū) **ku<sup>2</sup>həm<sup>2</sup>**. Although little is known about the phonological history of the obscure Kaduic (or “Luish” group),<sup>16</sup> it seems likely that the **h** in these two forms (as in Limbu **ha:m-ba**, above) also derives from **\*s-r-**, so that here too we might guess at a prototype like **\*kV-s-ram**.<sup>17</sup>

Luce also gives two interesting forms from dialects of Sak, another Kaduic language spoken in the Chittagong Hills of W. Burma and Bangladesh: Bawtala **p’ă<sup>4</sup>** and Dodem **pē<sup>1</sup>**. These look very much like WB **phyam** (now pronounced **phyã** in the standard Rangoon dialect), and might well turn out to be loans from a Burmese dialect (perhaps Arakanese).

#### I.4 Kamarupan<sup>18</sup>

Weidert [W] and Luce [L] provide words for ‘otter’ in a number of TB languages of Northeast India.

**Abor-Miri-Dafla** (= “North Assam group” or “Tani” [Sun 1993]): Apatani **<sup>1</sup>suu <sup>2</sup>riŋ** (W), Gallong **ˆhoram** (W) (cf. also Miri **si-ram** and Mikir **serim** [STC #438]).

**Barish** (= Bodo-Garo): Chang **lám**,<sup>19</sup> Khamngan **<sup>1</sup>yam**, Meche **moŋam**, Garo **mat-ram**, Boro **motam?** (all W). (STC #438 cites this Garo form, and also Dimasa **matham** [see above, Section I.1].)

**Kuki-Chin-Naga**: Zemei **<sup>1</sup>he <sup>4</sup>ram**, Rongmei **a-ram**, Angami **<sup>2</sup>khuo <sup>5</sup>rha**, Lotha **<sup>1</sup>de <sup>3</sup>ran**, Ao **<sup>3</sup>ši <sup>1</sup>m** (all W); Khumi (Ahraing dial.) **săham<sup>1</sup>**, (Awa dial.) **tsă xã<sup>4</sup>**, Haka (= Lai) **s’ai<sup>5</sup> hrem<sup>2</sup>**, Womatu **m`ŋram<sup>1</sup>** (all L).<sup>20</sup>

Many of these forms reflect the **\*sV-** prefix: Apatani **<sup>1</sup>suu <sup>2</sup>riŋ**, Ao **<sup>3</sup>ši <sup>1</sup>m** (here the root is reduced to a simple syllabic nasal), Khumi **săham<sup>1</sup>** and **tsă xã<sup>4</sup>**; and maybe also Gallong **ˆhoram** and Zemei **<sup>1</sup>he <sup>4</sup>ram**. Haka **s’ai<sup>5</sup> hrem<sup>2</sup>** (like Mizo **sa-hram** and perhaps the Khumi forms) looks like it has undergone reprefixation, deriving from **\*sV-s-ram**.

Angami **<sup>2</sup>khuo <sup>5</sup>rha** looks very much like the Kaduic forms cited above, Gănan **kɔ<sup>1</sup> hăm<sup>4</sup>** and Kădu **ku<sup>2</sup> hăm<sup>2</sup>**. If these words are not actually compounds, they could also represent prefixed formations, deriving from **\*kV-s-ram**.

The syllabic nasal that begins the Womatu form **m`ŋram<sup>1</sup>** might be a reduction of the same morpheme **mat** ‘squirrel; animal’, that Weidert claims for the Meche, Garo, Boro, and Dimasa forms (see above, Section I.1); yet in the case of Womatu there is a double prefix (< **\*m[at]-s-ram**).

<sup>16</sup> See STC, p. 5.

<sup>17</sup> It is of course also possible that these forms are compounds, and that the initial syllables **kɔ<sup>1</sup>-** and **ku<sup>2</sup>-** have a separate lexical meaning (like ‘water’)! See also the Angami form **<sup>2</sup>khuo <sup>5</sup>rha** cited in below in Section I.4.

<sup>18</sup> I have adopted this neutral geographical term (from *Kāmarūpa*, the old Sanskrit word for the Assam region), as a cover term for the TB languages of NE India, whose precise subgrouping remains uncertain. See GSTC, n. 36. For controversy surrounding this term, see Burling 1999 and my reply (Matisoff 1999).

<sup>19</sup> Weidert classifies Chang as Barish, though other writers have included it in the “Northern Naga” group. See Marrison 1967, French 1983.

<sup>20</sup> Mru **tăklui<sup>2</sup>** looks quite unrelated to our **\*-ram** etymon. It is conceivably cognate to the Jingpho word **məjoi** (Hanson 1906/1954:649) that only occurs coupled with the usual word for ‘otter’ in poetic style (**shăram-măjoi**).

The first element of Lotha <sup>1</sup>de <sup>3</sup>ran remains a mystery.

Finally, Chang lám, Khamngan <sup>1</sup>yam, and Rongmei a-ram are of particular interest, since they show no trace of the \*sV- prefix at all. Either they never had it, or they lost it without trace.

## I.5 Chinese

Before coming around at last to an explanation for WB **phyam**, let us see what we can find on the Chinese side.

The Chinese root-word for ‘otter’ is 獭 (Mand. *tǎ* or *tà*). This is now a bound morpheme in Mandarin, where the name of the fresh-water species of the animal is expressed by a disyllabic compound with the first syllable meaning ‘water’, *shuǐ-tǎ* 水獭.<sup>21</sup>

The initial of the ‘otter’ morpheme in Old Chinese is especially interesting, as can be inferred from the phonetic series to which the character belongs. All the other words in the series are reconstructed with the lateral initial \*l-, and are still pronounced with *l-* in Mandarin:

GSR #272	OC	MC	gloss	Mand.	Mand. tone
a-d	刺 *lât /	lât	‘wicked; slash, cut in two’	là	4
e	賴 *lâd /	lâi	‘gain, get hold of; lean on, depend on, rely on; gain, advantage’	lài	4
f	瀨 *lâd /	lâi	‘shallow water flowing rapidly over sand’	lài	4
g	籟 *lâd /	lâi	‘tube; musical pipe consisting of three reeds; rustling of the wind’	lài	4
h	藜 *lâd / and *lât /	lâi lât	‘artemisia’	là~lài	4

(To these we may add 癩 ‘leprosy’ [Mand. *lài*] [not in #272].)

The only word in this series to have a dental stop in its initial is ‘otter’ itself. In order to account for the same phonetic being used here as for the words in *l-*, Karlgren reconstructs an initial cluster consisting of an aspirated dental stop with lateral release (a sort of lateral affricate):

<sup>21</sup> Lexemically this is exactly parallel to TB compounds like Lahu *yì-šo(-lo)* and Akha *ui~shm̃* (above).

GSR #272	OC	MC	gloss	Mand.	Mand. tone
i	獺 *t'lât	/	t'ât	'otter'	tǎ ~ tà
		and			chǎ
	*t'lat	/	t'at		

This reconstruction agrees so beautifully with the \*s-r onset of PTB \*s-ram that one feels prepared to go to any lengths to demonstrate the cognacy of 獺 to our TB etymon! Schuessler (2009:235) reconstructs \*rhât – also not a bad comparison with PTB \*s-r.

The nuclear vowel (OC \*-â- / PTB \*-a-) is also a perfect fit. However, there is a big problem with the syllable-final consonant: the Chinese word ended in a dental stop -t (cf. Cantonese *shuí-ch'aât*<sup>22</sup> and Sino-Japanese *datsu*<sup>23</sup>), while the TB root ends in -m. The difficulty is twofold: the stop vs. nasal discrepancy, and the dental vs. labial point of articulation:

PTB	*s-r	a	m
OC	*t'-l	â	t

Yet neither of these problems seems insuperable. There must have been something variable about the OC final in any case – this is a series where Karlgren reconstructs \*-d ~ \*-t variation, implying that the pre-OC final was more sonorant-like than stop-like. Furthermore, another character in the same phonetic series (that does not appear in GSR) definitely has a reading with a nasal final: 懶 (sometimes written 嬾) 'lazy' (Cant. *lǎan*, Mand. *lǎn*).<sup>24</sup>

We should also note that all the words in this series reconstructed with OC \*-d are under the 去声 (Mand. Tone 4). According to the well-known theory of Haudricourt (1954), subsequently adopted by many other scholars, the 去声 had its origin in an \*-s suffix. Perhaps then we should reconstruct 'otter' at the PST level as

### \*s-ram-s.

We could then explain the Chinese shift from final labial to dental in terms of assimilation to the suffix: PST \*s-ram-s > pre-Old Chinese \*t'lans or \*hrans.<sup>25, 26</sup> Killing two birds with the same “-s tone”, we could go on to assume that the pre-Archaic final cluster \*-ns was 'hardened' into a -t, probably via epenthesis of the homorganic stop with subsequent loss of the sibilant:

\*t'lans > \*t'lan's > \*t'lâts > OC \*t'lât

<sup>22</sup> See Cowles 1965, p. 941.

<sup>23</sup> Similar stopped finals for GSR #272a 'wicked' and #272f 'shallow water' are attested by the Sino-Japanese readings *ratsu*. The other characters in #272 are pronounced *rai* in Sino-Japanese.

<sup>24</sup> I believe this is a graphic elaboration of the same word as GSR #272a-d 刺 'wicked', since 懶 has an alternate Mand. reading *lài* with this very meaning. Laziness and wickedness are related notions. Cf. the old jingle about the proper number of hours one should sleep at night: “Nature requires five, Custom gives seven, Laziness takes nine, And Wickedness eleven.” Note the double reading *rai* ~ *ran* 'lazy' in Sino-Japanese.

<sup>25</sup> A similar suggestion was made in VSTB (Matisoff 1978a:117) with respect to the Chinese word 肺 (Mand. *fèi*) 'lung', reconstructed by Karlgren as OC \*p'iwăd (GSR #501g), so that it could be brought into relationship with my TB reconstruction \*p-wap ≈ \*s-wap.

<sup>26</sup> The hesitation between tones 3 and 4 in the modern Mandarin form may be another indication of some complication in syllable-final position.

If this line of reasoning holds water, this etymon would be a striking instance of the preservation of the sibilant animal-prefix in Chinese.

## I.6 Mon-Khmer

By now the suspense concerning WB **phyam** must be nearly unbearable.

The idea of a possible Mon-Khmer [MK] origin for this mysterious labial initial first occurred to me while Gérard Diffloth and I were idly browsing through his masterly *Proto-Waic*<sup>27</sup> one day in 1987. Diffloth's P<sub>Waic</sub> reconstruction for 'otter' is \***phi?**, but it turns out that this is only one tendril of a general MK root attested in at least 10 branches of the family. In April 1988, Diffloth kindly supplied me with all of the following forms:<sup>28</sup>

*Khmer*: **bhee**

*Pearic*: Chong **phee**

*Katuic*: Bru **p̄h̄ē**; Pacoh **pihəy**, **pisay**

*Bahnaric*: Bahnar **ph̄ey**; Brao **phay**; Rongao **ph̄ēi**; Hrê **bəhe**; Cua **phai**; Chrau **phii**

*Monic*: \***ph̄ē?**; Nyah Kur \***ph̄ē?**

*Aslian*: Semelai **bəhe?**

*Viet-Muong*: Vietnamese **rái**; Thavưng **psə:ɜ**

*Khasi*: **kəsi?**

*Khmu*: **ve?**

*Palaungic*: \***phee?**; P<sub>Waic</sub> \***phi?**; Angkuic **psi?**

Shorto (2006:#260) reconstructs Proto-MK \***bhe?**, and cites forms from several Chamic (Austronesian) languages that have borrowed this word from MK (e.g. Cham **phây**, Jarai **pəhəi**, Rōglai **bəhəy**).

It therefore seems highly likely that WB **phyam** is a reduction of a two-syllable prototype like \***bhe?-ram**, with its first syllable borrowed from MK and tacked onto the native TB second syllable. This phenomenon of "prefixization", already mentioned above (Section I.1) with respect to the reduction of \***sya** 'animal' to the "animal prefix **s-**", has demonstrably occurred in a number of other former compounds, including:

'ant' WB **pərwak** < \***bəw** 'insect' + \***-rwak** 'ant' (HPTB:154)

'lungs' Mizo **tsywap** < \***tsəy** 'lung' + \***-wap** 'spongy' (VSTB:115)

'son-in-law' WB **səmak** < \***za** 'son' + \***mak** 'son-in-law' (HPTB:154)

As a sort of postscript, it is interesting to observe that a similar reductional process has occurred in the Latin word *lutra* 'otter' (> e.g. French *loutre*, Italian *lontra*), where the initial *l-* does not descend from the IE root \***wed-** ≈ \***wod-** ≈ \***ud-** 'water', but perhaps represents a fusion of the demonstrative *ille* which developed into the Vulgar Latin definite article.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>27</sup> LTBA 5.2:1–182.

<sup>28</sup> He jotted them down from memory on a scrap of paper during dinner at a conference in Pittsburgh.

<sup>29</sup> See Matisoff 1994:52–53.



## PART II: JACKAL in Sino-Tibetan and Indo-European

### II.1 Introduction

The English word *jackal*<sup>30</sup> derives ultimately from Sanskrit *śṛgāla-*, via a tortuous history: < French *chacal* < Turkish *chacāl* < Persian *shaghāl* < Middle Indic *shagāl* < Sanskrit *śṛgāla-*. This word is found only in Indo-Aryan,<sup>31</sup> and nowhere else in Indo-European, so that specialists agree that it is a loan from some non-IE source.

I would like to claim that an excellent candidate for this non-IE source is a PTB root reconstructible as *\*s-k-ywal* ‘wild dog / jackal / dhole / wolf’.<sup>32</sup>

### II.2 Loloish

The Loloish languages have inherited the latter part of the PTB etymon, pointing to a Proto-Lolo-Burmese form *\*wan*<sup>1</sup> (the superscript numeral refers to the PLB *\*tone*):

Lahu *vè* ‘dhole’ (*Cuon javanicus*); Akha *xhà-jé* (Hansson), *k’a\_yeh*<sup>~</sup> (Lewis 1986:248) ‘dhole/Asian wild dog’ (*Cuon alpinus*);<sup>33</sup> Jino *ø*<sup>4</sup> 豺狗 ‘jackal’ (Gai Xingzhi 1986:67).

The Burmese word for *jackal* is a curious compound, WB *wam-pu’-lwe*, literally “flute-bear” (*wak-wam* ‘bear’, *pu’-lwe* ‘flute’), perhaps because of the plaintive sound it makes at night.

If the second syllable of Bisu *həŋ-tšón* is cognate to the other forms, it might point to a prototype with a velar-plus-y cluster that became an affricate: *\*kywan* > *tšón*. It is more likely that the second syllable is cognate, and not the first, since the regular Bisu reflex of PLB Tone *\*1* is the high tone / ‘ /.

The first syllable of the Akha form is not part of the root, but rather the celebrated “velar animal prefix” (see Section I.3) that occurs frequently with animal names in Akha, e.g. *k’a\_dze*<sup>~</sup> ‘hawk’, *k’a\_gu*<sup>~</sup> ‘pigeon’, *k’a\_hm*<sup>~</sup> ‘Asiatic black bear’, *k’a\_ja*<sup>~</sup> ‘sharp-tailed munia’, *k’a\_la*<sup>~</sup> ‘tiger’, *k’a\_pa*<sup>~</sup> ‘frog’, *k’a\_tseh*<sup>^</sup> ‘sambar deer’, *k’a\_zui*<sup>~</sup> ‘leopard’, etc. (Lewis 1986:243–248). Thus the Akha word for ‘dhole’ may be derived from a prototype like *\*k-wan*.

The PTB rhyme *\*-al* has either disappeared without trace in Lolo-Burmese (e.g. ‘frog’ PTB *\*s-bal* > PLB *\*ʔba*<sup>2</sup>), or else merged with *\*-an*, as in this case.

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<sup>30</sup> The OED (1971:1497) remarks that “the English word was formerly (as still in some dialects) stressed on the second syllable; the current form, and the obsolete *jack-call*, show association with the proper name *Jack*, and names of animals containing it.” We might add that the animal’s propensity for howling at night may have encouraged an association with the verb *call*.

<sup>31</sup> Medieval and modern Indo-Aryan forms include Prakrit *si(g)āla-*, Kashmiri *śāl*, Nepali *siyāl*, Bengali *siyāl*, Assamese *xiyāl*. In recent times several TB languages of India and the Himalayas have reborrowed this word from Indo-Aryan. These *back-loans* include Limbu *syəʔl* (< Nepali), Kanauri *shyáles* ~ *shyálí* (prob. < Kashmir), Mizo *shihal* (< Assamese), and Mikir *hijai* (prob. also < Assamese).

<sup>32</sup> This reconstruction is somewhat elaborated from the form *\*kywal* presented in Matisoff 1985:#17 and 2003 (HPTB:261, 407, 423, 449). The reasons for reconstruction of final *\*-l* and prefixal *\*s-* will be gradually justified below.

<sup>33</sup> Lewis remarks that this word is used to translate ‘wolf’ in the Bible.

### II.3 Jingpho

A key form for our PTB reconstruction is Jingpho **chyăhkyawn** ‘a fox, wolf or wild dog’ (Hanson 1906/1954:96), **chyahkyon** [tʃä<sup>33</sup>khyon<sup>33</sup>] 狼 ‘wolf’ (Dai Qingxia et al. 1983:82), **čăkhyōn** (HPTB:407).

PTB final **\*-r** and **\*-l** both regularly become **-n** in Jingpho, e.g. ‘star’ PTB **\*s-kar** > WT **skar-ma**, Jg. **šəgān**; ‘body hair’ PTB **\*s-mul** > Mizo **hmul**, Jg. **mūn** (HPTB:386).

The Jingpho vowel **-o-**, like Written Tibetan **-o-**, frequently reflects PTB **\*-wa-** (a sequence which is preserved as such in Written Burmese), e.g.:

	<i>PTB</i>	<i>WT</i>	<i>Jg.</i>	<i>WB</i>
‘be free/loose’ (v.i.)	<b>*g-lwat</b>	<b>glod-pa</b>	<b>lòt</b>	<b>lwat</b> ≈ <b>kywat</b>
‘free/release’ (v.t.)	<b>*s-lwat</b>	<b>hlod-pa</b>	<b>šəlòt</b>	<b>hlwat</b> ≈ <b>khywat</b>

Hanson (94, 221) characterizes the prefix **chyă-** /čə-/ as “a preformative, mostly used in the formation of (abstract or) verbal nouns, where the transitive form of the verb takes **jă-** or **shă-**”. As an example he gives **htùm** ‘be ended’, **jăthùm** ‘bring to a close’, **chyăhtùm** ‘an end’ (tone marks added). There is, however, no verb “**hkyawn**” in the language. The causative prefixes **jă-** and **shă-** are also irrelevant in this case.<sup>34</sup>

I conclude that in this case, Jg. **chyă-** /čə-/ is a reflex of the TB animal prefix **\*s-**, ultimately derived from the independent noun **\*sya** ‘flesh/game animal/animal’ (see Section I.1 above). The Jingpho form for ‘wild dog’ thus justifies the reconstruction **\*s-kywal**.

### II.4 Northern Naga **\*C-khyual**

More evidence for the so far hardly proven final **\*-l** in our reconstruction is provided by Proto-Northern Naga, as reconstructed in W. T. French (1983II:580), on the basis of six languages: Moshang, Yogli, Nocte, Wancho, Konyak, Phom, and Chang.<sup>35</sup>

These languages do not preserve final consonants very well, but French has managed to figure out their reflexes of the voiced apical codas **\*-n**, **\*-r**, and **\*-l**:<sup>36</sup>

<i>PNN</i>	<i>Moshang</i>	<i>Yogli</i>	<i>Nocte</i>	<i>Wancho</i>	<i>Chang</i>	<i>Konyak</i>	<i>Phom</i>
<b>*-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>
<b>*-r</b>	<b>-r</b>	<b>-l</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-∅</b>	<b>-∅</b>
<b>*-l</b>	<b>-l</b>	<b>-l</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-n</b>	<b>-∅</b>	<b>-∅</b>	<b>-∅</b>

<sup>34</sup> The distribution of these quite productive prefixes is phonologically determined: **jă-** occurs before verb roots with initial sibilants or affricates, while **shă-** appears elsewhere. This morpheme is easily seen to be a reflex of the well-attested PTB causative prefix **\*s-**.

<sup>35</sup> These languages, sometimes referred to as the “Konyak” group, have long been grouped with Bodo-Garo and Jingpho, in what the *Linguistic Survey of India* referred to as *Bodo-Naga-Kachin* (Grierson & Konow 1903–1928, Vol. III, Part 2), an idea resurrected by R. Burling (1983) under the name of the *Sal* languages. In any case these “Northern Naga” languages do not seem particularly closely related to the many other languages called “Naga”.

<sup>36</sup> The following chart is based on the data presented in prose in W.T. French, Vol. I:347.

Unfortunately no forms meaning ‘wild dog’ are available from Moshang or Yogli, which preserve final liquids as such. In fact all French had to go on were forms from the following four languages: Wancho **šan**; Konyak **šo**; Phom **šo**; Chang **šo** ‘wolf’ ≈ **šuo** ‘wild dog’. However this data is already sufficient (zeroes in Chang, Konyak, and Phom) to rule out **\*-n** and **\*-r**, leaving only **\*-l** as a possibility. This reconstruction has apparently been strongly reinforced by a Nishing (Tani group) cognate **yal** ‘renard’ (Jacquesson 1998:102).<sup>37</sup>

The proto-rhyme of this etymon does not seem to have been simply **\*-al** or **\*-a:l**, which would have given Konyak **-e**, Phom **-a**, and Chang **-a** (French I:392, 403). However, the back rounded vowel in Konyak, Phom, and Chang **šo**, as well as the medial **-u-** in the Chang allofam **šuo** ‘wild dog’ makes it plausible to reconstruct the rhyme with a labial element, **\*-ual** (French I:426).

There are no initial consonant clusters in modern N. Naga languages, leading French (I:187) to admit that “in this area we are particularly dependent upon external evidence as a guide to the shape of the reconstructed elements”. PNN **\*khy-** is reconstructed when Yogli, Moshang, and Nocte have **kh-**, Wancho and Chang have **k-**, and Konyak has **š-** (194), while the former presence of a now lost prefix before this initial, symbolized by “C-”, led to Phom, Wancho, and Chang **š-** (195), as in the set for ‘wild dog’, thus leading French to reconstruct initial **\*C-khy-**, giving us PNN **\*C-khyual**.<sup>38</sup> It is reasonable to guess that this proto-prefix was actually the “animal prefix” **\*s-**.

The word for ‘jackal’ in the Central Chin language Mizo (Lushai) is **kâwl-ui** (**ui** ‘dog’ < PTB **\*k<sup>w</sup>əy**), but the first syllable, phonemically /kɔɔl/, has nothing to do with our etymon **\*s-k-ywal**, since **kâwl** means ‘the Burmese; a Burman’, and the literal meaning of the compound is “Burmese dog” (Lorrain 1940:235). No doubt the jackal is so called as a contemptuous way of referring to its perceived undesirable qualities.

## II.5 Tibetan and Chinese

The Written Tibetan word **wa** ‘fox’ is quite unusual, since it is practically the only word in the language with initial **w-**. Jäschke (1881/1958:470) attributes its strange pronunciation to onomatopoeia (“the name corresponding to the sound of barking”).<sup>39</sup> However, Benedict reconstructs the word as PTB **\*gwa**, pointing out that an Amdo dialect in Gansu has the form **gaa** ‘fox’, and that closely related Himalayish languages have similar forms: Chamba Lahuli **gǘa**, Bunan **goa-nu** ~ **gwa-nu**.<sup>40</sup> Benedict goes on to compare the Tibetan form with Chinese 狐 (OC **\*g<sup>w</sup>o** [GSR #41i], Mand. **hú**) ‘fox’ (STC:166, 186), since it shows the regular development of PST **\*-a** > OC **\*-o** after velar initials.<sup>41</sup>

<sup>37</sup> Nishing evidently dropped (or never acquired) the velar component of the initial, in a way very reminiscent of Loloish (above, Section II.2), perhaps indicating that our etymon should be reconstructed as **\*s-k-ywal**, with both the **\*s-** and **\*k-** animal prefixes. Of course it is also quite possible that this Nishing form is a backloan from an Indo-Aryan source. (See note 31.)

<sup>38</sup> The reflexes of PNN **\*sy-** and **\*C-sy-** (e.g. Phom **-Ø** and Chang **s-**) are quite different from those of the velar clusters (I:229).

<sup>39</sup> Jäschke (*loc. cit.*) remarks that “the fox is the riding-beast of the goblins; whenever his barking is heard, it is in consequence of his receiving lashes from his rider”. The specific meaning ‘jackal’ is conveyed by the compound **wa-spyaŋ** (glossed “jackall”). The compound for ‘wolf’ is **spyaŋ-ki**, where the second element is doubtless a variant of **khyi** ‘dog’; cf. also the Western Tibetan form **k<sup>w</sup>i-čǎn** ‘jackal’, lit. “dog-wolf” (Jäschke:332–333).

<sup>40</sup> STC: n.111, p. 34. The Amdo form is cited from Przhevalski 1880.

<sup>41</sup> See also HPTB:167, 173.

It is at least possible that PST/PTB \*gwa ‘fox’ has some sort of allofamic relationship with our etymon \*s-k-ywal ‘wild dog’.

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We conclude that the most likely explanation of the Sanskrit word for ‘jackal’ is that it is an ancient borrowing from some Tibeto-Burman language, transmitted from the TB area via an unknown route. Perhaps it is time to add JACKAL to our list of Eurasian animalian *Wanderwörter*, along with HORSE and BEE/HONEY.

One final thought: Recent research has demonstrated that the dog was first domesticated some 11,000 to 14,000 years ago in Southern China, where dogs still show greater genetic diversity than anywhere else.<sup>42</sup> Might it not be possible that PIE \*kwon ‘dog’ is an ancient loanword from Sino-Tibetan? On the Tibeto-Burman side we not only have \*s-k-ywal ‘jackal’, but also \*kwəy ‘dog’. On the Chinese side, I have already tried to group 犬 ‘dog’ (Mand. *quǎn*; OC \*k’iwən [GSR #479a-d], \*khwîn [Schuessler 2007:437]) and 狗 ‘dog’ (Mand. *gǒu*; OC \*ku [GSR #108d], \*kəu [Schuessler 2007:257]), in a word-family reconstructed as \*k<sup>w</sup>əy-n.<sup>43</sup> Yet \*s-k-ywal also seems particularly close to OC \*k’iwən or \*khwîn, and I am now tempted to believe that all these ST forms are interrelated, constituting a word-family \*k<sup>w</sup>əy-n ≈ \*s-k-ywal, and that the PIE etymon was borrowed from some allofamic variant of this ST word-family in prehistoric times.

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<sup>42</sup> See the article “In taming dogs, humans may have sought a meal” in the New York Times, Sept. 8, 2009, p. D1.

<sup>43</sup> See HPTB:448.

## Abbreviations

<b>A ≈ B</b>	A and B are co-allofams; A and B are members of the same word-family	<b>MK</b>	Mon-Khmer
<b>Ak.</b>	Akha	<b>OC</b>	Old Chinese
<b>BSLP</b>	<i>Bulletin de la Société de Linguistique de Paris</i> (Paris)	<b>OED</b>	Oxford English Dictionary
<b>Cant.</b>	Cantonese	<b>OPWSTBL</b>	Occasional Papers of the Wolfenden Society on Tibeto-Burman Linguistics
<b>CISTL</b>	Kitamura et al. 1994	<b>P</b>	Proto-
<b>GSR</b>	Karlgren 1957	<b>PIE</b>	Proto-Indo-European
<b>GSTC</b>	Matisoff 1985	<b>PLB</b>	Proto-Lolo-Burmese
<b>HPTB</b>	Matisoff 2003	<b>PMK</b>	Proto-Mon-Khmer
<b>IA</b>	Indo-Aryan	<b>PNN</b>	Proto-Northern-Naga
<b>ICSTLL</b>	International Conference on Sino-Tibetan Languages and Linguistics	<b>PST</b>	Proto-Sino-Tibetan
<b>IE</b>	Indo-European	<b>PTB</b>	Proto-Tibeto-Burman
<b>Jg.</b>	Jingpho (= Kachin)	<b>Si.</b>	Siamese
<b>L</b>	Luce 1986	<b>SiL</b>	<i>Studies in Linguistics</i> (Berkeley)
<b>LB</b>	Lolo-Burmese	<b>ST</b>	Sino-Tibetan
<b>Lh.</b>	Lahu	<b>STC</b>	Benedict 1972
<b>LTBA</b>	<i>Linguistics of the Tibeto-Burman Area</i> (Berkeley; Chico, CA; Melbourne)	<b>TB</b>	Tibeto-Burman
<b>Mand.</b>	Mandarin Chinese	<b>UCPL</b>	University of California Publications in Linguistics
<b>MC</b>	Middle Chinese	<b>VSTB</b>	Matisoff 1978a
		<b>W</b>	Weidert 1987
		<b>WB</b>	Written Burmese
		<b>WT</b>	Written Tibetan

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