

UNRAVELING THE RELATIONSHIP AMONG THE KIRATI LANGUAGES

Tara Mani Rai

Central Department of Linguistics, T.U.

tara.raai@cdl.tu.np

This paper explores the relationships among the Kirati languages through lexical comparisons. The analysis, employing the Swadesh 100-word list, shows that Bantawa and Puma as well as Mugali and Phangduwali exhibit the highest lexical similarity, at 52%, while Yakkha and Koïts-Sunuwar have the lowest similarity, at just 1%. In terms of phonetic similarity, Bantawa and Puma also show the greatest resemblance, with a similarity rate of up to 68%, whereas Mugali and Wambule show the least similarity, at 34%. These findings reveal that the lexical similarities and differences among the Kirati languages may reflect their geographical distribution and historicity.

Keywords: Koyee, Khaling, inclusive, exclusive, typological

1. Introduction

The Kirati languages belong to the Tibeto-Burman subfamily within the Sino-Tibetan language family. This classification encompasses languages spoken by communities such as the Rai, Limbu, Koïts-Sunuwar, and Yakkha. Precisely, within the Rai-Kirati subgroup, there are 25 distinct languages, including Bantawa, Chamling, Khaling, Bahing/Bayung, Jero/Jerung, Wambule, Kulung, Thulung, Nachhiring, Dumii, Koyee, Sampang, Tilung, Puma, Dungmali, Lohorong, Yamphu, Mewahang, Sam, Athpare (Athpahariya), Chhintang, Chhiling, Belhare, Phangduwali, and Lungkhim (NSO, 2023). These languages are predominantly spoken in the eastern part of Nepal.

Hodgson (1857) is supposed to be the first study to gather linguistic data on the Kirati languages. It has compiled word lists for 17 distinct Kirati languages, including Bahingya [Bahing/Bayung], and Chourasya [*sic.* Unbule/ Wambule], Thulunggya [*sic.* Thulung], Khaling, Dumii,

Rodong [*sic.* Chamling], Dungmali, Waling (Walahang), Rungchhenbung (clan name of the Bantawa) [latter three are Bantawa], Chhintangya Sangpang [*sic.* Sampang], Nachhereng [*sic.* Nacchiring], Kulungya [*sic.* Kulung], Balali [*sic.* Mewahang], Lohoron [*sic.* Lohorong], Yakkha [Yakkha], and Lambichhong [*sic.* Clanname of Yakkha]. Additionally, it has provided a grammatical description of the Bahing/Bayung language. Subsequently, Grierson (1909) and Shafer (1966) contributed to the classification of Kirati languages based on the work of Hodgson (1857, 1858).

A linguistic survey conducted in Nepal from 2009 to 2017 led by the Central Department of Linguistics at Tribhuvan University and the survey conducted by German Research Foundation (DFG) from 1981 to 1984 have gathered and analyzed data on the Kirati languages (Winter, 1986, 1987; Hanßon, 1991). Only after the 1970s, extensive studies started on the Kirati languages like Thulung (Allen 1975), Bantawa (Rai 1985, Doornenbal 2009), Limbu (Weidert/Subba 1985; van Driem 1987, Dumii (van Driem 1993; Rai (2016), Athpahariya (Ebert 1997a, Neupane 2058 VS), Chamling (Ebert 1997b; Rai 2012), Yamphu (Rutgers 1998), Lahaussais (2002), Belhare (Bickel 2003), Wambule (Opgenort 2004a), Jero/Jerung (Opgenort 2005), Koïts-Koïts-Sunuwar (Rapacha 2005, Boörchers 2008), Kulung (Tolsma 2006), Chhatthare Limbu (Tumbahang 2007), Khaling (Jackques et al. 2012), Chhintang (Rai et al. VS 2067 [2011]), Puma (Sharma 2014), Koyee (Rai 2015), Chhintang (Poudyal 2015), Yakkha (Schackow 2015), Lungkhim (Rai et al. VS. 2078 [2020]).

Numerous publications on the Kirati language have been authored by native scholars, many of

which are written in Nepali. While substantial research exists on some Kirati languages, a few remain underexplored. Typological and structural studies of the Kirati languages include works by Michailovsky (1975), Genetti (1988, 1992), van Driem (1988), Ebert (1991), DeLancey (1992), Bickel et al. (2007), Jacques et al. (2012), van Driem (1993), Ebert (1993), Bickel (1999), Lahaussais (2003), Watters (2008), Allen (1972), Bickel (1997, 2001), Ebert (1999), Jacques and Lahaussais (2014), and Rai (2024).

The historical comparative studies, especially those focusing on lexical comparisons, have often yielded limited results. Of these, Opgenort (2005) identified fourteen lexical isoglosses across thirteen Kiranti languages, including Jero, Wambule, Bahing, Sunwar, Hayu, Khaling, Dumi, Thulung, Chamling, Bantawa, Kulung, Yamphu, and Limbu. In his subsequent study, Opgenort (2011) introduced twelve new lexical isoglosses, showing notable divergence from the 2005 findings. However, these additions were not strictly based on the Swadesh 100 wordlists. In contrast, this paper aims to explore the similarities and differences among the Kirati languages based on the Swadesh 100 wordlists.

2. Research methodology

The methods employed the Swadesh 100-word lists for lexical comparison. Initially, standardized Swadesh 100-word lists were gathered from various Kirati languages, including Jero/Jerung, Wambule, Thulung, Bahing/Bayung, Koits-Sunuwar, Sampang, Kulung, Nachhiring, Khaling, Koyee, Dumi, Tilung, Yakthung/Limbu, Yamphu, Lohorung, Mewahang, Lungkhim, Chmaling, Dungmali, Puma, Bantawa, Yakkha, Phangduwali, Mugali, Belhare, Aathpahare, Chhintang, and Chhiling.

These lists were compiled from the native speakers ensuring a diverse representation of gender, age, and literacy levels, and were validated by additional speakers from the same areas. The compiled wordlists were then entered into WordSurv (Wimbish, 1989), a tool used to assess the genetic relationships between

languages. The data from WordSurv was exported as XML files and analyzed using Cog, a software that facilitates the comparison of languages through lexicostatistics and comparative linguistic techniques, automating much of the wordlist comparison process¹. Secondary sources were also entertained during the study².

3. Findings and discussion

In this section, Swadesh 100-word lists from the Kirati languages are compared and analyzed using Cog, a recently developed software program for lexical and phonetic comparison.

In fact, the computer software Cog facilitates the researchers to compare and analyze wordlists from different language varieties using an elicitation approach. Using this program the researcher can quickly make sense of the data and then refine the wordlists and more settings, improving the comparison results and the understanding of the varieties at each step.

At first, the lexical similarity in percentage among the different Kirati language or the speech communities are presented and then shown phonetic similarities, namely Jero/Jerung, Wambule, Thulung, Bahing/Bayung, Koits-Sunuwar, Sampang, Kulung, Nachhiring, Khaling, Koyee, Dumi, Tilung, Yakthung/Limbu, Yamphu, Lohorung, Mewahang, Lungkhim, Chmaling, Dungmali, Puma, Bantawa, Yakkha, Phangduwali, Mugali, Belhare, Aathpahare, Chhintang, and Chhiling.

¹ The 60% cut-off point is commonly used as a benchmark for evaluating lexical similarity (Regmi 2013:63). However, this percentage should not be considered an inflexible standard. Speech varieties exhibiting lexical similarity below 60% are generally categorized as separate languages. In contrast, languages or dialects with a lexical similarity of 60% or more should be further assessed for intelligibility using the Recorded Text Test (RTT). Furthermore, the attitudes and perceptions of the speakers are also crucial factors to consider.

² The secondary data employed in this study is derived from (Kirat Rai Language and literature council (2062BS).

Table 1: *Lexical comparison among the Kirati groups*

As shown in Table 1, the highest degree of similarity, at 52%, is observed between Bantawa and Puma, as well as Mugaali and Phangduwali. In contrast, the lowest degree of similarity, at only 1%, is found between Yakkha and Koits-Sunuwar.

Other notable similarities exceeding 40% include those between Nacchiring and Kulung (50%), Athapahare and Belhare (46%), Chhiling and Chhintang (45%), Bahing/Bayung and Koits-Sunuwar (44%), Belhare and Phangduwali (43%), Athapahare and Chhintang (43%), Nacchiring and Sampang (41%), Bantawa and Lungkhim (40%), Dungmali and Phangduwali (40%), Lohorung and Yamphu (40%), and Koyee and Dum (40%). Conversely, the lowest similarity rates, ranging from 12% to 10%, are observed between languages such as Athapahare and Chhintang (3%) with Jero/Jerung, as well as among Chhintang, Chhiling, Mugaali, and Phangduwali, which each share 3% similarity with Phangduwali. Chamling, Yamphu, and

Lungkhim exhibit a 4% similarity with Wambule, while Athapahare, Belhare, and Lohorung share a 4% similarity with Koits-Sunuwar. Notably, these similarity ranges reflect the geographical distribution of the Rai-Kirati linguistic groups from west to east. It is evident that languages such as Jero/Jerong and Wambule from the Okhaldhung district, and Chhintang, Chhiling, Athapahare, Belhare, Mugaali, and Phangduwali from Dhankuta, do not share close cognates, likely due to their geographical distance.

Unless intelligibility testing is conducted using methods such as the Rapid Language Testing (RTT), lexical comparison alone with a 100 wordlists may not conclusively determine whether these are distinct languages or dialects. However, lexical comparison remains a crucial component in assessing whether a linguistic variety should be classified as a separate language or a dialect.

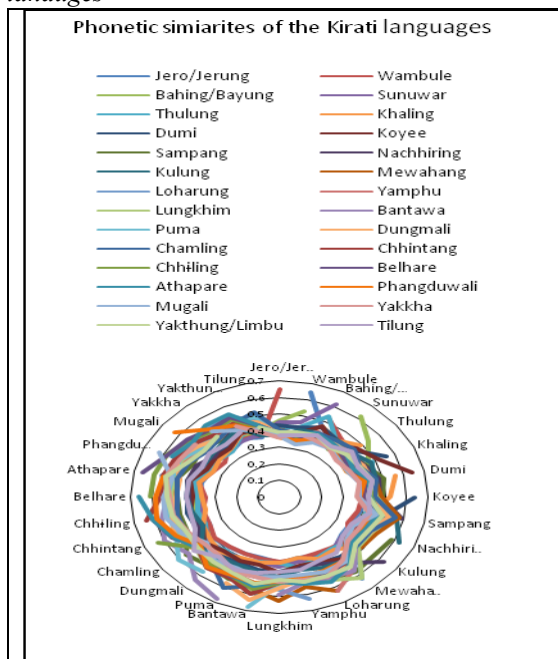
Table 2: *Phonetic similarity among the Kirati languages*

Unlike lexical similarity, phonetic similarity is not determined by slight variations in spelling or phonological patterns. Instead, phonetic similarity

reveals a higher degree of similarity in comparisons than lexical similarity does. As shown in Table 2, the Kirati languages exhibit a notable phonetic similarity.

Table 2 shows the phonetic similarity among Kirat languages based on 100 wordlists. The highest similarity, up to 68%, is observed between Bantawa and Puma, while the lowest is 34% between Muagali and Wambule. Other notable similarities of 60% and above include Athapahare and Belhare (67%), Muagali and Phangduwali (66%), Wambule and Jero/Jerung (65%), Chhiling and Chhintang (65%), Bantawa and Dungmali (64%), Koyee and Dumii (64%), Nacchiring and Kulung (63%), Koits-Sunuwar and Bahing/Bayung (62%), Phangduwali and Belhare (61%), Chamling and Puma (61%), Chhiling and Aathpahariya (61%), and Bantawa and Chhintang (60%).

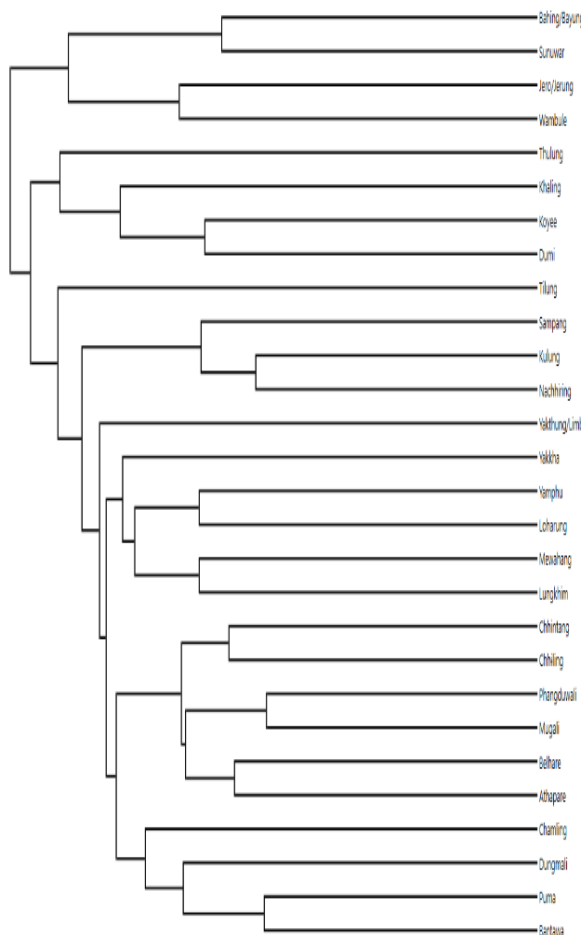
Figure 1:Phonetic similarity among the Kirati lanauages

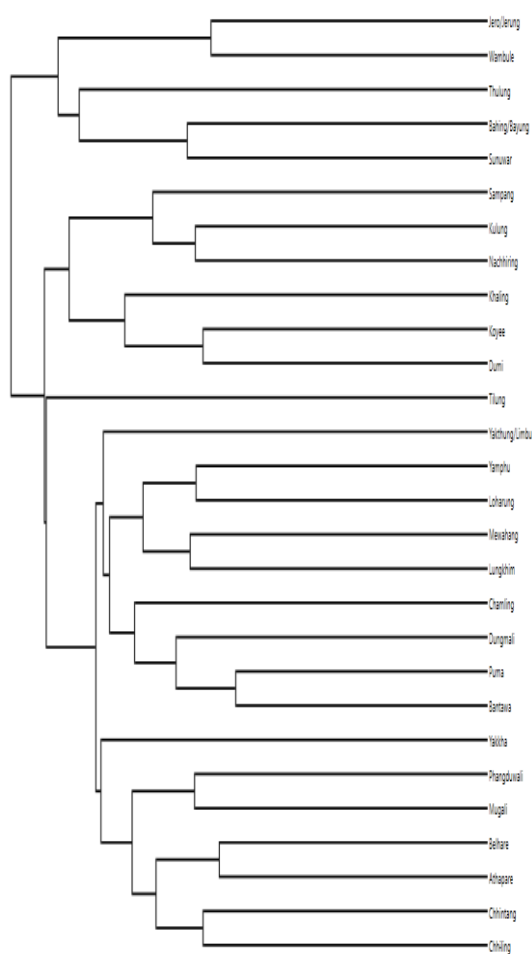


The lexicostatistical analysis of Kirati languages is represented through a hierarchical graph, which depicts the genetic relationships between various

language varieties based on their lexicostatistical similarities. To map these relationships, two primary methods are used: UPGMA (Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic Mean) and neighbor-joining. The UPGMA method constructs a rooted tree from a pairwise similarity matrix by iteratively merging the closest clusters into a single, higher-level cluster. Dendrogram 1 displays a hierarchical graph that visualizes this rooted tree structure.

Dendrogram 1:Lexical similarity matrix



Dendrogram 2: *Phonetic similarity matrix*

Dendrograms(1) and (2) illustrate the relationships among the Kirati languages, including Jero/Jerung, Wambule, Thulung, Bahing/Bayung, Koits-Sunuwar, Sampang, Kulung, Nachhiring, Khaling, Koyee, Dumi, Tilung, Yakhung/Limbu, Yamphu, Lohorung, Mewahang, Lungkhim, Chmaling, Dungmali, Puma, Bantawa, Yakkha, Phangduwali, Mugali, Belhare, Aathpahare, Chhintang, and Chhiling. The dendrogram reveals that many of these languages form pairs, such as Jero/Jerung with Wambule, Bahing/Bayung with Koits-Sunuwar, Nachhiring with Kulung, Koyee with Dumi, Yamphu with Lohorung, Mewahang with

Lungkhim, Puma with Bantawa, Phangduwali with Mugali, Belhare with Aathpahare, and Chhintang with Chhiling. Conversely, while some languages share cognates with others, these relationships do not consistently form identifiable pairs.

4. Conclusion

The analysis of lexical similarity among the Kirati languages revealed that Bantawa and Puma as well as Mugali and Phangduwali exhibit the highest lexical similarity at 52%, whereas Yakkha and Koits-Sunuwar show the lowest similarity, at just 1%.

In terms of phonetic similarity, based on 100-word lists, Bantawa and Puma have the highest similarity, reaching 68%, while Mugali and Wambule show the lowest similarity at 34%. The dendrogram illustrating the relationships among Kirat languages, including Jero/Jerung, Wambule, Thulung, Bahing/Bayung, Koits-Sunuwar, Sampang, Kulung, Nachhiring, Khaling, Koyee, Dumi, Tilung, Yakhung/Limbu, Yamphu, Lohorung, Mewahang, Lungkhim, Chmaling, Dungmali, Puma, Bantawa, Yakkha, Phangduwali, Mugali, Belhare, Aathpahare, Chhintang, and Chhiling, demonstrates several notable pairings. For example, Jero/Jerung pairs with Wambule, Bahing/Bayung with Koits-Sunuwar, and Nachhiring with Kulung. However, while some languages share common cognates, these relationships do not always form clear and consistent pairs.

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