PHONOLOGICAL VARIATION ON TOMUN LANGUAGES IN LAMANDAU, CENTRAL KALIMANTAN

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Abstract: The Tomun language speakers are the community of Lamandau district and parts of the East Kotawaringin in Central Kalimantan. This study aims to determine the language’s status and document its phonological variations. The method used was qualitative, with linguistic data originating from language utterances spoken by the community in Lubuk Hiju, Guci, Delang, and Nanga Bulik Village, in Lamandau Regency, Central Kalimantan Province. Tomun language has seven vowel phonemes /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /ԑ/, /o/, and /ɜ/, three long vowels /iː/, /aː/, and /uː/, eighteen consonants: /b/, /c/, /d/, /g/, /j/, /k/, /p/, /t/, /n/, /r/, /h/, /s/, /ʃ/, /w/, /y/, /v/, and double consonant: /bm/, /tn/, /kn/, /mp/. The Lubuk Hiju village shows a distinctive phonological variation solely used in that area. The phonemes are /ɛ/, /kŋ/, /bm/, /tn/, and /ɜ/. Based on dialectometric calculations, the Tomun language is part of Malayic Dayak with dialect variations, namely the Guci, Bulik, Delang, and Lubuk Hiju dialects.

Keywords: Phonology, Variation, Documentation, Tomun languages, Dialects

INTRODUCTION

Several local languages in Indonesia have experienced a user decline and have become endangered (Herin, 2019). One of them is the local language used by the Dayak ethnic in Central Kalimantan, the Tomun language. Tomun language, one of 23 languages in Central Kalimantan Province, has become threatened (Laboratorium Kebinekaan, 2023). According to Grimes (2002), the main factor for language endangerment is that parents no longer teach their mother tongue to their children and no longer actively use it at home in various other areas of communication. The diminishing scope and number of language domains used in everyday life, especially in the family sphere, hastened the movement towards emergency. The extinction of a language will eliminate the cultural richness of an area. Mu’jizah (2018) stated that language is one of the expressions of cultural elements. Thus, the preservation of local languages is very critical.

Language preservation is an act of maintaining, protecting, and keeping the security of a language from various factors of destruction and extinction. Preservation not only covers the protection of the language but also protects the aspects contained in the language (Harimansyah et al., 2017). Language preservation can be done through language documentation by describing the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and orthographic systems (Harimansyah et al., 2017).

Moseley (2010) categorized six levels of language documentation: (1) Excellent: there is a comprehensive grammar and dictionary, extensive text; constant flow of language material; lots of high-quality annotated audio and video recordings; (2) Good: there is one good grammar and a number of adequate grammar, dictionaries, texts, literature;
sufficient number of high-quality annotated audio and video recordings; (3) Sufficient: there may be adequate or sufficient grammar, dictionaries, and texts, but there isn’t any daily media; audio and video recordings may exist in varying qualities or annotations; (4) Incomplete: there are some grammatical sketches, word lists, texts that are useful for language research, but the coverage is lacking; audio and video recordings are missing, unusable, or not annotated; (5) Insufficient: few grammatical sketches, few word lists, and incomplete text; audio and video recordings are missing, unusable, or not annotated; (6) No documentation: no materials. According to these categories, Tomun language is at level 5 or Insufficient class, with few grammatical sketches, few word lists, and incomplete text.

Soriente dan Inagaki (2012) identified the Tomun language, who cited the results of Hudson’s (1967) and Grimes’s (1995) research; they stated that Tomun belongs to the Malay language group, part of the Malayic Dayak language. It was also discussed by Eberhard, Simons, and Fennig (2022) in Ethnologue: Languages of the World that Tomun or Tamuan are part of Malayic Dayak. Tomun or Tamuan, a non-dialectal language of Malay, is included in the language map issued by the Agency for Language Development and Cultivation. Based on the results of dialectometry calculations, Tomun is a language with a percentage difference of 81%-97% compared to other languages in Central Kalimantan, for example, with Ngaju Dayak language, Banjar language, and Mentaya language (Sugono, 2008).

Preservation efforts toward the Tomun language have been carried out by Nanang et al. (1992) by documenting the phonology of the Lamandau language from the languages spoken by people in the village of Sei Tuat, Tanjung Beringin, Penopa, and Tapinbini. According to them, the phonological characteristics of the Lamandau language are almost the same as Malay and other Dayak languages in the Kotawaringin area, namely the Arut language and Tamuan or Tomun language. However, they still need to explain the differences or similarities in the phonological characteristics between the languages in this documentation.

Yulianti (2016) conducted a study regarding language variation in the Lamandau area. Based on the results of dialectometric calculations, she found that the Tomun language has three dialect divisions, namely, Guci, Bulik, and Lubuk Hiju dialect. The results of this study could have explained in detail the phonological variations related to the three dialects and were limited to the three observation areas. Therefore, this study will focus on documenting the phonological variations in the Tomun language spoken by the Dayak community in the Lamandau district. The use of the Tomun language spreads over several areas, such as Lubuk Hiju, Guci, Delang, and Nanga Bulik villages.

Based on the previous research on the Tomun language, the present study aims to discover the variations of linguistic units at the phonological level and answer whether the Tomun language is a Malayic Dayak dialect or a language. Therefore, the study identifies the Tomun language in four areas of observation. Phoneme identification can determine the orthographic system in Tomun as a part of the local language preservation. Then, the researcher compared the languages used in the four observation areas with other Malay languages spoken around Lamandau regency to determine the language status as a dialect or a language through the phonological variation because there are two different opinions regarding the status of the Tomun language.

The basic theory used to determine the status of a language is Guiter’s (1973) point of view regarding analysis for determining groups as comparisons between dialects or grouping dialects as languages. An area under study can be grouped into languages, dialects, and sub-dialects if the number of differences in the elements compared reaches the percentage determined as a grouping category (Guiter 1973). According to Chambers dan Trudgill (2004), the phonological element is one of the language elements determining the classification of language variations. In addition, geographical, religious, historical, or sociocultural factors must also be considered when studying dialects as part of a particular language.

This research also used the theory of language documentation. According to Himmelmann (2006), in structural linguistics, language documentation compiles grammar,
dictionaries, and several texts. The relationship between the elements is hierarchical. The order position is grammar, dictionaries, and text. Himmelman (2006) argued that language documentation is a multi-purpose and ageless language record. Multi-purpose means that language documentation includes as many and varied records covering all aspects of the language. In this research, the language aspect to be documented is grammar. Grammar is a set of rules for producing utterances. The grammar description begins with identifying Tomun language phonemes and their variations in the four observation areas.

**METHOD**

The method used in this study is a qualitative descriptive method (Moleong, 2012). It explains the phonological variations and describes the linguistic situation of the people in the Lamandau district at the phonological level. The primary data source of this research is linguistic data from interviews with native speakers from Nanga Bulik, Lubuk Hiju, Guci, and Delang. Meanwhile, the secondary data sources are information about the Lamandau people's sociocultural condition, Lamandau district geographical conditions, and vocabulary lists from two Malay comparison areas, namely Kotawaringin and Kumai.

The data collection method used was direct interviews with informants about a questions list containing 200 basic Swades vocabulary and 200 basic cultural vocabularies consisting of body parts, kinship relations, task words, and adverbs. The informants were native Tomun speakers, men and women aged 20-60 years, and had complete speech organs. Data were documented by recording, transcription, translation, and editing. Linguistic data recording focused on the use of language in daily conversations at home and recorded interviews with respondents who answered a list of questions containing 200 basic Swades vocabularies and 200 basic cultural vocabularies.

The recording results obtained were transcribed. According to Balukh (2009), transcription is a symbolic representation of documented speech events. Transcription can be orthographic, phonemic, and phonetic. For good transcription quality and format, ELAN computer software is used. The transcribed data is translated and grammatically annotated to provide grammatical information by including a gloss of morphemes performed during interlineation.

Dialectometry calculation was used for the data analysis, one of the statistical methods for analyzing regional language variations. Dialectometry is a formula used to find how far or how much dialect differences are in the place studied and to compare the data collected from the research place (Mahsun, 1995; Nadra and Reniwati, 2009)). The criteria of informants are people who live in the research area, are aged 20-60 years, and are fluent in its language or dialect.

\[
S \times 100 = d \%.
\]

Based on the formula above, \( S \) is the number of differences between the observation points, \( n \) is the number of compared maps, and \( d \) is the percentage of dialect distance between the observation points. The results were in the percentage distance of linguistic elements between the observation areas and used to determine the relationship between the observation areas with the following criteria (Mahsun 1995):

- **Lexicon differences:**
  - 81% and above: considered as language difference
  - 51-80%: considered as dialect difference
  - 31-50%: considered as subdialect difference
  - 21-30%: considered as speech difference

- **Phonological differences:**
  - Under 20%: considered as no difference
  - 17% and above: considered as language difference
  - 12-16%: considered as dialect difference
  - 8-11%: considered as subdialect difference
  - 4-7%: considered as speech difference
  - 0-3%: considered as no difference

**FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION**

The results of the analysis of phonological variations determine the phonemes and phoneme variations in the Lamandau Regency area. The researcher obtained a description of the variation of vowel and consonant phonemes in the Tomun language (henceforth TL) from the four observation areas in Lamandau Regency.
Lubuk Hiju (henceforth LbH), Delang (henceforth DL), Guci (henceforth Gc), and Nanga Bulik (henceforth NB) Villages.

Vowels

Every language has particular rules regarding the position of phonemes. Some phonemes can occupy all positions, such as at the word’s initial, middle, and end positions. TL vowels can take all initial, middle, or end positions.

TL has seven main vowels phonetically, namely /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /ɛ/, /o/, and /单元/. The cause of vocal diversity is the differences in the location of the tongue, while the division is based on speech, tongue height, and position of the lips. Based on the findings, TL vowels are front vowels /i, e, e/, central vowel /a/, and back vowels /o, u, u/. Based on the height of the tongue, the high vowels are /i, u/, the mid vowels are /e, ɛ, o, ɔ/, and the low vowels are /a, /a/. Based on the rounding of the lips, there are rounded vowels /o, ɔ, u/ and unrounded vowels /a, i, e, ɛ/. Sketchily, the vowel sound classifications are divided into two parts, (1) standard vowel [v] and (2) long vowel [v:]. The classification of TL vowels can be viewed in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowel</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[i]</td>
<td>High front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[i:]</td>
<td>High front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[e]</td>
<td>Mid-front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[e:]</td>
<td>Mid-front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[a]</td>
<td>Low front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[a:]</td>
<td>Low front unrounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[o]</td>
<td>Mid-back rounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ɔ]</td>
<td>Mid-back rounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[u]</td>
<td>High back rounded vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[u:]</td>
<td>High back rounded vowel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. The classification of TL vowels.

Vowel Variations by its Position.

There are several variations of vowels based on their position, such as vowels [a], [o], [e], [u], and [i].

1. Variations of vowels [a] and [o] The vowel [a] in TL is a productive vowel. It is found in the middle and at the end of the word but not in the initial position. Variations [a]~[o] are in the initial position of the syllable after the consonant, as in the gloss ‘hapus,’ [nasa?] to [ŋasok]. Speakers of DL and Gc use the [a] sound, while the [o] sound is in NB.

2. Variation of vowels [e] and [a] The vowel [e] in TL is a productive vowel found in all positions at a word’s initial, middle, and end. Vocal variations [e] and [a] can be seen in the gloss ‘perempuan,’ [betina], and [batino]. Gc speakers speak the vowel [e], while the vowel [a] is by DL speakers.

3. Variations of vowels [u] and [a] In TL, the vowel [u] is the productive vowel found in all positions. The variation [u]~[a] is in the middle position of the syllable after the consonant, as in the gloss ‘kalau,’ from [amun] to [aman]. Speakers in the villages of DL and LbH use the [u] sound. On the other hand, in the village of Gc, the variation [u]~[a] is at the end position of the syllable after the consonant, as in the gloss ‘kamu,’ as [kulo] becomes [kolay]. Speakers in the village of DL use the [u] sound, while the [a] sound is in NB and Gc villages.

4. Variations of vowels [i] and [a] The vowel [i] can be found in the final position in TL. The variation [i]~[a] is located at the end of the syllable after the consonant in the gloss ‘sempit,’ as [sunjiki] becomes [sonjka]. NB speakers use the [i] sound, while the [a] sound is used by Gc and DL speakers.

5. Variations of the vowels [o] and [u] In TL, the vowel [o] is productive and found in the middle and end of the words. Variations of [o] and [u] located in the middle position can be seen in the gloss ‘kotor’ in [kotor] and [kotu]. The phoneme [o] is used by Gc, DL, and NB speakers, while speakers in LbH use the phoneme [u].

6. Variations of Vowels [ɛ] and [a] The vowel [ɛ] is TL’s productive vowel in all positions. Although it is less productive than vowel [e], vowel [ɛ] is foundable in some words. The vowel [ɛ] varies with [a], as can be seen in the middle position in the gloss ‘laki-laki,’ where [ɛ] in [Iatlaki] is spoken by speakers in LbH village, and [a] in [Iatlaki] is expressed by DL and NB speakers.

7. Variation of vowels [i] and [a] This variation is found in the final position of the syllable after the gloss consonant ‘sempit,’ as [sunjiki] becomes [sonjka]. Sound [i] is used by NB speakers, while people in Gc and DL villages utter sound [a].
In TL, the vowels [a], [i], and [u] are in the final position with a long vowel sound as in gloss ‘abu,’ [habu:] varies with [habu]. Speakers in LbH village use long vowel sounds.

Consonants

The following TL consonant phonemes are found in the four observation areas. Based on the way of uttering, they are classified into plosive, nasal, trill, fricative, approximant, and lateral sounds. In TL, there are eight plosive sounds [b, c, d, g, j, k, p, t], three nasal sounds [ŋ, m, n], one trill sound [ɾ], two fricative sounds [h, s], three approximant sounds [ɹ̱, w, y], and one lateral sound [l].

Meanwhile, based on the place of articulation, the consonants in TL are bilabial, palatal, alveolar, velar, and glottal. In TL, three bilabial sounds are found [b, m, p], three palatal sounds [c, j, y], seven alveolar sounds [d, l, n, r, s, t, ɹ̱], three velar sounds [g, ŋ, k], and two glottal sounds [h, ʔ]. Based on the vocal cords, TL consonants are categorized into voiced and voiceless consonants; voiced sounds are [b, d, g, ŋ, j, l, m, n, r, ɹ̱], and voiceless sounds are [c, h, k, p, s, t].

All these consonant phonemes can occupy positions at the words’ initial, middle, and end. Consonants /k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, ɹ̱/ are located at the beginning of the word. The consonants /b, d, j, g, h, ɹ̱/ can be found at the beginning and middle of words. The /ɹ̱/ consonant can be found in all positions at the beginning, middle, and end of the word. While consonants /w/ and /ɹ̱/ can only be positioned in the middle, and the /ʔ/ glottal sound can only be placed at the end of the word.

Besides, double consonants are also found, namely the combination of two consonant letters in one word that forms a new sound. It can be seen in Table 3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 3. Double consonants in TL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/bm/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/tn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/kn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mp/, /mb/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ns/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Consonant Variations by its Position.

In the initial position of the word, there are five consonant variations. Variations [ɹ̱]~[ɾ]. Consonant [ɹ̱] varies with [ɾ] at the initial position of the word found in the gloss ‘angin,’ [ʃiʃu:] to [ɾiʃu]. The [ɹ̱] sound is only used by speakers in LbH. Speakers use the sound [ɾ] at the beginning of a word in NB, Dl, and Gc.

In the variation of [d]~[h], the consonant [d] varies with [h] at the initial position of the word, followed by a vowel. The variation is in gloss ‘debu,’ [dəbu] to [həbu]. Speakers in the village of LbH use the [h] sound, while speakers use the [d] sound at the beginning of the word in NB, Dl, and Gc villages.

Subsequently, the variation of [d]~[n], consonant [d] is found to vary with [n] at the initial position of the word. The variation is also found in the gloss ‘dengan’ [dəgar] to [nəgar]. Speakers in the village of NB use the [n] sound, while speakers use the [d] sound at the beginning of the word in LbH, Gc, and DI villages.

For the variation of [g]~[k], the consonant [g] varies with [k] at the initial position of the word found in the gloss ‘gali’ [ɡalj] to [kalj]. Speakers in the village of Gc use the [g] sound, and other villages use the [k] sound.

Lastly, the variation of [p]~[m], consonant [p] varies with [m] at the initial position of the word found in the gloss ‘pikir,’ [piʃiɾ] to [mɪʃiɾ]. Speakers in the village of Gc use the [m] sound, while speakers use the consonant [p] in the villages of DI, LbH, and NB.

In the middle position of the vocals, there are eleven consonant variations. Variation of [ɹ̱]~[ɾ], the [ɹ̱] sound varies with [ɾ] in the middle of the word between vowels. One of these variations is found in the gloss ‘bulu,’ [buɾu] to [buɾu]. Speakers in LbH village regularly use the [ɹ̱] sound between vowels.

The variation of [n]~[ʃ], the [n] nasal sound in the first syllable after the vowel, varies with a null sound. The variation is in the gloss ‘asap,’ [asap] to [ansap]. The [n] sound after the vowel in the first syllable, followed by a consonant, is used by speakers in the village of DI. The sound is not found in LbH, NB, and Gc village speakers.

Furthermore, the variation of [m]~[ʃ], the [m] nasal sound in the first syllable after the vowel, varies with a null sound. The variation is found in gloss ‘dekat,’ [dəpiʃa] to [dəpiʃa].
Speakers use the [m] sound after the vowel in the first syllable in the LbH, NB, and Gc villages. However, it does not appear in DI, as they do not use the [m] sound between vowels. Yet, a similar variation is also found in the gloss ‘lima,’ [lima] becomes [lima].

Next, a variation of [b]~[∅], [b] sound is positioned in the second syllable after [m] nasal sound before the vowel varies with null. The variation is found in gloss ‘apung’ from [timul] to [timbul], and gloss ‘hutan,’ [imut] becomes [imbu]. The [b] sound in the second syllable after the [m] nasal sound, followed by a vowel, is used by speakers in LbH, Gc, and DI villages. The sound is not found in speakers of NB.

In addition, for the [d]~[∅] variation, the [d] sound is in the second syllable after the [n] nasal sound, but before the vowel varies with null. The variation in the ‘pendek,’ as [pandaʔ] becomes [pana]. The [d] sound in the second syllable after the [n] nasal sound, followed by a vowel, is used by speakers in Gc, DI, and NB villages. The sound is not found in speakers in LbH village.

Variation of [ŋ]~[s], the [n] sound in the first syllable varies with [s] between vowels. The variation is in the gloss ‘napas’ from [osah] to [osah]. Speakers of Gc use the [s] sound variation.

Also, the [r]~[y] variation, [r] sound varies with [y] in the middle position between vowels. The variation in the gloss ‘diri,’ [diri] becomes [diyi]. Speakers in the NB village use the [y] sound between the vowels. The same sound variation in the gloss ‘orang’ [urakŋ] turns to [uyakŋ]. Speakers in the village of DI use the [y] sound.

Moreover, the variation of [ŋ]~[y], the [ŋ] sound varies with [y] in the middle position between vowels. The variation is in the gloss ‘id’ from [iŋo] to [iyo]. The [ŋ] sound variation is used by speakers in Gc village and [y] by speakers in DI village.

In [h]~[p] variation, [h] sound varies with [p] in the second syllable position between vowels. The variation is in the gloss ‘jahit’ from [jahi] to [japit]. Speakers in LbH village use the variation of the [p] sound.

For the variation of [m]~[y], the [m] sound varies with [y] in the middle position between vowels. The variation is in the gloss ‘kami’ from [kami] to [kayi]. Speakers in the village of Gc use variation [y].

Finally, the variation of [c]~[n], the [c] sound varies with [n] in the middle position in the second syllable between vowels. The variation in the ‘kecil,’ [koci] turns to [konil]. Speakers in LbH and NB villages use the [c] sound variation.

In the final position, there are six variations of consonant sounds. In the variation of [l]~[r], the [l] postalveolar approximant sound varies with [r] alveolar trill at the end of the word. This variation in the gloss ‘akar’ from [akar] becomes [akaɾ]. The [l] postalveolar approximant sound is only used by speakers in LbH village. The [r] sound at the end of a word is used by speakers of NB, DI, and Gc villages.

Then in the variation of [n]~[kŋ], the [n] nasal velar sound at the end of the word varies with the [k] velar plosive sound followed by the [ŋ] velar nasal sound. This sound variation is found in almost all words ending in [ŋ], for example, the gloss ‘baring,’ as [gurin] to [garikŋ]. Speakers in LbH village use the [kŋ] sound variation.

In the [k]~[ʔ] variation, the [k] velar plosive sound at the end of the word varies with the [ʔ] glottal plosive sound. This sound variation is found in the gloss ‘bengkak’ from [boŋkak] becomes [boŋkaʔ]. Gc and DI speakers use the glottal sound variation at the end of the word.

Variation of [n] and [tn], the [n] alveolar nasal sound at the end of the word varies with the [t] alveolar plosive sound followed by the [n] alveolar nasal sound. This sound variation is found in almost all words ending in [n], such as in the gloss ‘jalan,’ [jalan] turns to [jalatn]. The [tn] sound variation is used by speakers in LbH and DI villages.

Furthermore, in the [m] and [bm] variations, the [m] bilabial nasal sound at the end of the word varies with the [b] bilabial plosive sound followed by the [m] bilabial nasal sound. This sound variation is found in almost all words ending in [m], such as in the gloss ‘dalam’ [dalam] becomes [dalabm]. The [bm] sound variation at the end of the word is used in LbH and DI villages.

Lastly, the variation of [t]~[l], the [t] alveolar plosive sound varies with the [l] alveolar lateral sound at the end of the word. This sound variation is in the gloss ‘kecil,’ from [koci] to [koci]. The [l] alveolar lateral variation at the end of the word is used by
speakers in the village of Gc, and the [t] sound is used in the Dl village.

**Dialectometry Calculation Results.**

Looking back at the status of the language used by the indigenous people in Lamandau district, the researcher compared the languages used in the four observation areas, namely the villages of Lubuk Hiju (LbH), Delang (Dl), Guci (Gc), and Nanga Bulik (NB), to other languages in the surrounding area categorized as Dayak Malay, namely the Malay language used in the Kotawaringin (Kw) and Kumai (Km) areas. It is based on dialectometry calculation of 200 lexical maps taken from 200 vocabularies from the Swadesh list, which were compared in phonological and lexical maps of the language in the area of observation. The obtained results are presented in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observational area</th>
<th>Percentage of dialect distance</th>
<th>Isolect status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>LbH—Gc</td>
<td>71,5%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LbH—Dl</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LbH—NB</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LbH—Km</td>
<td>55,5%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LbH—Kw</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gc—Dl</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gc—NB</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gc—Km</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gc—Kw</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dl—NB</td>
<td>67%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dl—Km</td>
<td>53,5%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dl—Kw</td>
<td>65,5%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB—Km</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NB—Kw</td>
<td>70,5%</td>
<td>dialect difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Km—Kw</td>
<td>65,5%</td>
<td>difference</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the table, TL spoken by the natives in the Lamandau district is a dialect of the Dayak Malay language spoken in the surrounding area.

Based on the dialectometry calculation results that have been carried out. There are seven vowels in TL, namely /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /e/, /o/, and /o/, and three variations of long vowels. This long vowel variation is also found in other languages in Kalimantan, for example, in the Dayak Benuaq language in West Kutai and the Uud Danum language in Serawai District. It has five variations of long vowels, namely /v/, /e/, /u:/, /o:/, /a:/ (Masfufah 2018; Ngawan, Hanye, dan Simanjuntak 2013). The distinct difference is that in TL, there are no long vowels /e/ and /o/, but there is a vowel /e/ varying with /e/.

In addition, there are 19 consonants in TL. Some consonants only appear in the middle of words, such as the consonants /w, y/. Some consonants vary with a double consonant /th/ /kh/ in the final position. The same double consonant sounds are also found in other Dayak languages, such as the Dayak Tunjung language in West Kutai and Mahakam upstream, as well as in the Dayak Menterap Kabut language along the Sekadau river (Bety 2021; Winarno, Susilo, dan Simanjuntak 2013).

One typical consonant sound found in TL is the alveolar trill consonant /r/, which appears in TL speakers in NB, Gc, and Dl and varies with the alveolar approximant /l/, which appears at the beginning, middle, and end of words. It is also found in TL speakers in Lubuk Hiju village. Similar differences in [r] sounds are also found in the comparison between the Dayak Iban and Remun languages in Sarawak. Based on the results of the two languages comparison conducted by Shin, Gedat, and Mis (2019), the status of the two languages can be distinguished by comparing these phonemes. The velar fricative /ɣ/ sound in Remun and the trill alveolar /r/ sound in Iban. These sounds also appear at the words’ initial, middle, and end.

According to dialectometry calculation, TL and Malayic Dayak have different dialects comparing the language used by speakers in the four observation areas in Lamandau Regency with the Malay language used by speakers in other adjacent areas shows that. This language status corroborates the previous research results on the Malayic Dayak language in Central Kalimantan, which is spoken in the Katingan, Kotawaringin, Lamandau, and Sukamara areas (Eberhard et al., 2022).
Differences in research results related to TL as a dialect or language can occur due to differences in calculation methods or comparisons with other languages. Soriente and Inagaki (2012) grouped TL into the Malay language family because the position of speakers is in the coastal area of the island of Borneo. Malay speakers are spread from the coastal areas of Kalimantan (except the northeastern part) and the inland areas between the Kapuas Hilir and the Schwaner mountains at relatively lower elevations. Eberhard et al. (2023) grouped TL into the Malayic Dayak language group, which spread across the Central Kalimantan region in the West and East Kotawaringin district, Lamandau, and Sukamara. Based on Eberhard et al. (2023) calculations, the TL has a lexical similarity of 66% compared to Malay. However, in the language map issued by the Agency for Language Development and Cultivation, the TL is classified as a language by comparing the TL and the Ngaju Dayak language, with differences of 97%. Geographically, the Dayak Ngaju language belongs to the language group in the southern inland, south of the Schwaner mountains, middle and upper Seruyan, Sampit, Katingan, Kahayan, and Kapuas rivers (Eberhard et al., 2023; Soriente and Inagaki, 2012). The geographical location between speakers far apart and different language families makes the comparison result in language differences.

CONCLUSION

The researcher can conclude two points in the Tomun language based on the results and discussion. First, there are seven vowel phonemes /a/, /i/, /u/, /e/, /e/, /o/, and /ɔ/ and three long vowels /i:/, /a:/, and /u:/.

Second, in the Tomun language, the researcher can complete the orthographic system in the Tomun language. Based on the distribution of phoneme variations in the four observation areas, LBH village shows distinctive variations solely used in that area. These phoneme variations occur due to the geographical location of LBH village, which is inland and has the furthest distance from the center of the Lamandau district. Differences in language differences can occur because the geographical location of LBH village, which is inland and has the furthest distance from the center of the Lamandau district. This geographical location resulted in a lack of contact between LBH speakers and other tribes around the Lamandau area. Socially, in the relationship between Tomun language speakers in LBH and speakers from other observation areas, other groups can still understand phoneme variations merely used at LBH. The use of these phonemes becomes their identities.

This research is limited to describing the Tomun language's phonological variations and distribution in the four observation areas in the Lamandau district. Further research on morphological forms and syntactic systems in Tomun still needs to be carried out to complete the grammatical system in Tomun as the initial
stage of documenting the Dayak Tomun language in Central Kalimantan. Therefore, it is better for future researchers to identify the morphological forms and syntactic systems in the Tomun language.

REFERENCES


