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bу

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$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{PACIFIC LINGUISTICS} \\ \\ \textbf{The Australian National University} \end{array}$

PACIFIC LINGUISTICS is published by the Linguistic Circle of Canberna and consists of four series:

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The editors are indebted to the Australian National University for help in the production of this series.

This publication was made possible by an initial grant from the Hunter Douglas Fund.

National Library of Australia Card number and ISBN 0 85883 020 5

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LEXICOSTATISTICAL STUDY OF THE LANGUAGES OF CHOISEUL	
ISLAND, BRITISH SOLOMON ISLANDS, by A. Capell	1
1. Introduction	1
2. Word Lists	1
3. Analysis of the Lists	15
Map: Languages of Choiseul and Neighbouring Islands - following page 24	;
Notes	25
SOUTHEAST AMBRYM VERB INFLECTION AND MORPHOPHONEMICS,	
by G.J. Parker	27
O. Introduction	27
1. Inflection	28
2. Stem Classes	33
Notes	39
A PATTERN OF MORPHOPHONEMIC ALTERNATION IN NGUNA, NEW	v
HEBRIDES, by A.J. Schütz	41
Notes	46
Bibliography	47
	11
THE PHONETIC NATURE OF FIJIAN CONSONANT CORRESPOND-	
ENCES, by A.J. Schütz	49
O. Introduction	49
1. Comparison	49
Notas	52

LEXICOSTATISTICAL STUDY OF THE LANGUAGES OF CHOISEUL ISLAND, BRITISH SOLOMON ISLANDS¹

A. CAPELL

1. INTRODUCTION

The island of Choiseul forms one of the western sections of the British Solomon Islands Protectorate. Its area is 1000 square miles. Most of these are located more or less peripherally; the island is rugged and mountainous. The map will locate both the island and the dialect groups within it, as well as the neighbouring groups of the New Georgia languages, and the Mono languages of the Shortland Islands. The Choiseul languages have been chosen for this study for a number of reasons:

- (1) they present an obviously related group spoken within clearly defined boundaries;
- (2) they are marked off from the other groups in the British Solomon Islands Protectorate by definite lexical and morphological traits, which serve at once to relate them among themselves and to set them off from others. It is noticeable that the Melanesian languages to which those of Choiseul belong frequently seem to group themselves in terms of dialects related within one island or group of islands close to each other, so that a geographical subgrouping is often the logical one on which larger groupings can be built. At the same time there is some evidence, suggested by casual survey, but as yet untested statistically that the Kia and other languages of western Ysabel may also be related to the Choiseul languages, and for this reason Kia is given in the vocabularies that follow.

2. WORD LISTS

The word lists that follow present the evidence on which the conclusions are based. A hundred-word list has been

used, which follows as closely as possible the list standardised by Swadesh, but departing from it in a few words which have been substituted for others that are either unsuitable in themselves or unavailable.

The languages used are also classed as Melanesian, except <code>Kazűkuru</code>, which is a non-Melanesian language spoken originally within the area of New Georgia now occupied by Hoava. It is no longer in active use but not yet forgotten, and it is hoped that further information will later be forthcoming as to its structure. The remaining vocabularies are based on lists compiled by students at the Methodist Goldie College, Banga Island, New Georgia, except for Kia, which was gathered by the present writer.

The only points of spelling that need to be referred to are:

- (1) the plosives b and d are always prenasalised, except in Kia;
 - (2) g is a velar fricative $/\gamma/$ while
- (3) stress is very frequently ante-penultimate. Any stress that would cause difficulty in interpretation will be marked by an acute accent as in some of the language names above.

In order that the full evidence on which the conclusions are based may be available, the vocabularies have been given in full. Last in the series is given the original Austronesian; the spelling of those words is usually that adopted by Dyen, except that a dot is placed under a retroflex consonant as was done by Dempwolff in his original work. In a few cases it will be noticed that no AN root is given: this means that none has been established for the meanings in question.

SECTION I: DIALECTS OF CHOISEUL

	English	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Stems
1.	all	duŋae	topuna	saporo	duŋa	döŋa(e)	dona	3
2.	ashes	kau valaka	lodu kakasa	ngula	luju?o noho	kau	ruma	4
3.	bad	roka	sakata	sa:ta	sa [?] ata	(sa)roka	sökatönana	2
4.	bark (n)	köpa gazu	kopotona moki	kapoto	kapata	köpae	küpo	1
5.	belly	ma:na	sopona	kuba	sope-	sea-	mamana	4
6.	big	pöu	lavata	lavata	la?abue	püu	tevana	3
7.	bird	roroko riri	paleba kauku	pale bavö- bavökö	rorozo	roroko	roroko	2
8.	bite	lobe	ka:bale	kabale	kabala	lube	lube	2
9.	black	ngiso	poŋo	роло	kueje	poto	pöto	4
10.	blood	madaka	pa:rasa	madaka	madaka	madaka	madaka	2
11.	bone	puda	uri	vörö	puda	puda	pöda	2
12.	breasts	susu	susu	susu	susu	sosu	susu	1 *AN
13.	burn	katu	kamu	vongala	kiua	sebe	söbe	5
14.	cloud	toba	toba	tatono	toaba	toba	kukubaŋü	3
15.	cold	lulumu	lolomu	loeloe	lulumu	lulumu	lulumu	1 NAN
16.	come	me	(lá) ma	(lá)ma	me	me	möe	1 *AN
17.	die	le	le	li	li	le	le	1 NAN
18.	dog	vasi	sika	sökke	be:ki	seki	siki	3
19.	drink	gaki bi	ge besi	sua beoü	ziki bio	üke bi	üke bi	2
20.	dry	kava	kadala	kodala	kava	kava	kaoko	3
21.	ear	talaŋa	ngengele	talana	ngengele	talaŋa	talaŋa	2
22.	earth	lua	pua	ruka	piaha	lua	lua	3
23.	eat	gaki	ŋaŋa	ŋaŋa	ziki	üke	üki	2
24.	egg	ninga	niŋga	lunga	niŋga	nöŋga	nöŋga	2
25.	eye	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	1 *AN

	English	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Stems
26.	fat (n)	vua	bima	sülümana	solo	voa	masa	4
27.	feather	sava	sava	sava	vuvuŋu	sava	sava	2
28.	fire	nako kabu	nako	nako	noho	nako	nako kamu	1
29.	fish	kuata	iŋana	iŋana	piata	koete	koete	3
30.	flesh	zio	manu	vözigo	tazisara	zio	vio	3
31.	fly (vb)	kiri	bauuku	bavökö	riri	reri	riri	3
32.	foot	tetepara zikini	pepetara make	pipilara paŋgava	titiapara nikini	tetepara nikini	tetepara nikini	4
33.	fruit	bölia	ure-na	vöre-na	vure-na	vere-a	ore-na	1
34.	give	make	teke	nango	tini,pate	köna	kima	5
35.	good	nöe	velaka	vilaka	titijoa	sanüi	dikana	5
36.	green	tutu	toto	katakata	tutu	tutu	tutu	2
37.	hair	vuraŋa	uŋguru-na	ula	vuru-ŋe	vöraŋa	önama	3
38.	hand	tetepara körisi	pepetara karisi	pipilara lüma	kürisi	tetepara kürisi	kürisi	2
39.	head	böti	kuzuku	ŋgoŋgo	kujuku	pütu	bütu	3
ŧ0.	hear	vanata	ga:ta	vavaŋoŋoro	gata	ase	ate	3
11.	heart	puŋu	pu:ŋu	pöŋö	puŋu	poŋo	pöŋo	1 NAM
2.	I	ra	era	ara	ra	aro	aro	1
13.	kill	vuivale	vae:vale	vaeködoa	vivele	vüivale	vüevale	2
14.	knee	pupuku zi- kini	tutuŋu make	cöŋecöŋ paŋgana	pupuku nikini	pöpuku nikini	pupuku nikini	2
1 5.	know	vutini	rove	rovea	vesne	utini	utini	2
16.	leaf	vuraŋa gazu	vekoveko	vaŋa	vurune ve	vöraŋa azu	önama azu	3
17.	lie down	bikolo	kekele	longo	kekele	kele	kole	3
18.	liver	mömöni	totone	manava	tutene	kola	mümüni	3
19.	long	ŋava	loda	zaka	ŋo	ŋava	ŋava	3
50.	louse	vutu	utu	gücü	vüc	votu	utu	1 *AN

	English	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Stems
51.	male, man	leke	vale:ke	tamanü	sualeike	leke	leke	2
52.	many	taba	töpu	tomo	taba	taba		2
53.	moon	vokene	inanga	kuka	ziniŋgo	ökene	okene	3
54.	mountain	supu	kúbolo	tagara	kúbolo	supupüu	aupu	3
55.	mouth	jopa	sange	güjü	jope	jupa	zopa	3
56.	name	zitene, ta- razitono	vitovitoŋo	zaŋa	ziteŋe	tariotŋo	itoŋo	2
57.	neck	kukunu	kokoli	korikori	kukunu	kokunu	kukunu	1 NAN
58.	new	vuruŋga	voru	vürü	varunga	varonga	vürüŋga	1
59.	night	kuse	kuse	bono	kuse	kose	kose	2
60.	nose	ziņo	iŋoro	eŋö	ŋiŋiri	zeŋo	iŋo	1 NAN
61.	not	kama	iki	onoko	kesi	köma	kama	4
62.	one	köke	kala	kala	kiki	keke	küki	2
63.	path	zuka	zu:ka	söka	zikanü	zoka	zoka	1 NAN
64.	person	bose	basöe	bosoe	soes	büsi	böse	1 NAN
65.	rain	minga	nare	nare	miŋguru	manga	möŋga	2
66.	red	mesara	mesara	mangale	measara	mesiri	misara	2
67.	root	löŋgötö	labisi	labüoü	röuo	lüngoto	lüngoto	2
68.	rope	suni	tali	talü	suini	suni	suni	2
69.	sand	karakone	kara koni	kara konü	karakuini	karakone	reavana	2
70.	say	pijo	sine	zana	cini	söna	nomeke	4
71.	see	dodoro	mia	meŋa	duduru	mia	mia	3
72.	seed	pöti	paturu	pacü	puc	pütu	pütu	1
73.	sit	tuŋunu	kolo:ku	töŋöcö	cuŋunu	toŋunu	suki	3
74.	skin	köpa	kapoto	kapoto	kapata	küpo	küpo	1
75.	sleep	pamu	ka:muku	kamoko	kamisa	pamu	pamu	2

	English	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Stems
76.	small	vasiki	suka	kűküsü	porodono	soi	siünade	5
77.	smoke	kanu	kau:ku	püga	konoko	kanu	tua	3
78.	stand	dire	degere	degere	dere	dere	dere	1 NAN
79.	star	sisiriputu	domiri	dűvüsü	sisiriputu	sisiriputu	sisiriputu	3
80.	stone	kokojo	ipaka	ipaka	kokojo	kokojo	kokozo	2
81.	sun	kiku	saŋa	saŋa	dio	ŋada	nada	4
82.	swim	ngavelo	ba:ru	senge	borö	ŋgávelo	arona	4
83.	tail	piputu	kupule	küŋgele	kupele	peputu	kobete	3
84.	that	töni	nae	iatinae	tene	ta	tana	2
85.	this	iati	de	(ia)tene	zete	göti	ie, ite	3
86.	thou	re	aro	ago	gere	re	re	1 *AN
87.	tongue	lome	kalami-na	kalamea	lueleme	luleme	luleme	1 NAN
88.	tooth	kekere	posonge-na	pacö	kekere	sobe	kekere	3
89.	tree	gazu	moki	mó:kesö	ve	azu	azu	3
90.	two	kere	rua	ka-rua	kiki	keri	keri	3
91.	walk	zozo	vakavakile	ngalo	ZO	zo	zo	3
92.	warm, hot	vila	ila	vüraka	zilo	völa	mazaka	3
93.	water	loka	be:si	becü	bic	bi	bi	2
94.	we (incl.)	zita	ita	ita	zita	ita	ita	1 *AN
95.	we (excl.)	rami	remu	ore	keme	rami	rami	1 *AN
96.	what?	ava	ava	ava	ava	öda	ava	2
97.	white	sele	kakasa	kakasa	sele	sele	sele	2
98.	who?	adi	akena	ina	ade	öda	ada	3
99.	woman	ngole	ŋgole	oto sapata	ngwele laba	ngule	böse ŋgole	2
100.	yellow	duru	noba	mangele	duru	duru	duru	3

SECTION II: MONO, NEW GEORGIA AND KIA

	English	Mono	Hoava	Vangunu	Bareke	Duke	Kazúkuru
1.	all	osoŋ	doluru	to: ŋanani	toŋaniŋa	doguru	
2.	ashes	oahu	eba	eba	rada	oro	ibe
3.	bad	paitena	kaleana	siana	siena	hikerena	kalenou
4.	bark (n)	ulili	kaha	kakaputu hai	kaputu	turupe gaye	
5.	belly	tia	tia	tia	tia	hiyapö	lea
6.	big	kanegara	lavatina	lavatana	haina	latana	monanona
7.	bird	maraka	nahoko	maunu	makaku	ropet, aka	kinounoru renu
8.	bite	[?] a [?] ati	gusia	uzu	uzu	rikipo	biratia
9.	black	sivisivi	hupa	sinoko	sinoko	ŋgila	himo
10.	blood	masini	mazuka	cuka	juka	oruŋu	rinati
11.	bone	suma	susuri	zuzuri	zuzuri	humuna	sinori
12.	breast	lulu	nunu	susu	susu	susu	suno
13.	burn	ave	to	zuku	to	toa	pitapona
14.	cloud	tuvetuve	opuŋu	sokoro	sokoro	tobu	hinu
15.	cold	moamoa	ibu	manobu	manobu	ibulu	simu
16.	come	ena	mae	mai	mai	mayi	emo
17.	die	mate	mate	legu	leau	mate	minata
18.	dog	auwau	siki	isi	sie	siki	pilipuo
19.	drink	Oa	napo	bei	bei	beyia	nipo
20.	dry	regerege	hala	hala	hala	pidili	
21.	ear	taŋna	kukele	taliŋi	taliŋi	taliŋi	ninoya
22.	earth	pirani	pepeha	kakapisa	pepesa	melaka	vuvuŋo
23.	eat	aŋ	ŋaniŋani	raraca	ŋaŋau	ŋanagaya	gitagita
24.	egg	erana	vovoto	vovoto	vovoto	vovoto	linoŋo
25.	eye	mata	mata	mata	mata	mata	meta

	English	Mono	Hoava	Vangunu	Bareke	Duke	Kazúkuru
26.	fat (n)	hatutu	poga	dea-	dea-	zaŋayi	
27.	feather	regese	kalu-	seku-	kalu-	vuvuru	ŋgimutu
28.	fire	heli	puga	ikusu	ikusu	ikuhu	hikani
29.	fish	i ⁹ ana	igana	ihana	igana	igana	mesai
30.	flesh	mosu	pasepaso	borabora	borabora	pupusi	sinimai
31.	fly (vb)	loho	tapuru	sarava	sarava	aka	ripoti
32.	foot	toto	malego	sasape nei	nei	nene	neuno
33.	fruit	hua-	vua-	ure-	ure-	noaya-	vutavuta
34.	give	tele	valea	poere	sia	naneya	munoa
35.	good	rekona	koleo	leana	leana	leana	linea
36.	green	malamalae	buma	buma	buma	buma	
37.	hair	to?o	kalu-	seku-	kalu-	vuvuru	ŋginutu
38.	hand	ime	rengu-	lima-	lima-	hehe	vonili
39.	head	patu	batu-	batu-	batu-	batu-	rano
40.	hear	nono	umumana	lemono	lemono	lemono	inogo
41.	heart	nitu-	bulo	bulo	bulo.	bulo	
42.	I	(ma) ha	rao	(e)ra	ra	rayi	rauno
43.	kill	hamate	vamate	valegi	valeau	vamateya	rinomu tamuta
44.	knee	tu:	tumiri malego	tuŋutuŋu nei	tuŋutuŋu nei	tutuŋu ne-	
45.	know	ataeŋ	gilalia	uvuzae	uvazakai	gigileya	rimoti
46.	leaf	loe	sasaeri	roroko	zazairi	susura	piloi
47.	lie down	ео	eko	eko	eko	kole	
48.	liver	ate	kola	kola	kola	kola	tobe
49.	long	rearapa	gele	hele	hele	godoro	
50.	louse	⁹ utu -	gutu	hutu	hutu	gutu	

Englisi	n Mono	Hoava	Vangunu	Bareke	Duke	Kazúkuru
l. male, r	nan poro haolu	makariva	babaere	babaere	rek' maleya	memoni
2. many	tapaina	soku	zoku	zoku	soku	
3. moon	nanaha	koreke	tarube	paleke	reya	retulu
4. mounta:	in olo	tongerana	toa	tongere	ingoyana	
5. mouth	uru	ŋuzu	juŋu	ucu	huro	ŋoŋano
6. name	leana	tatase	gilagila	gilagila	isoŋo	zeponi
7. neck	lua	rua	rua	rua	ruya	niŋgou
B. new	haolu	vaŋguruna	aŋguruna	hanguruna	koregona	
9. night	voi	rodokiko	boŋi	boŋi	boŋi	muni
O. nose	leu	isu	zui	izu	isu	suŋu
l. not	ati	kipu	kala	dai	dakeyi	
c. one	kala	keke	meka	meka	taseya	nasata
3. path	po?a	soana	guana	guana	ripe	ritani
4. person	tion	nikana	maroani	ikana	tinoni	
5. rain	su?a	rereona	sierane	sierane	sone	makuhuni
6. red	masimasini	ziŋara	orava	bula	zimiri	erome
7. root	lamutu	agoro	gaguru	gaguru	rosu	
3. rope	hili	iku	hune	iku	veve	
e. sand	mesala	karikone	keoro	keoro	kar kone	
O. say	areai	pato	kepoto	sana	ŋoŋovere	zino(u)
l. see	roroi	omea	ome	ome	omomegi	sino
2. seed	nitu	kikolo	patu	keki	kiko	
3. sit	auhotu	tuŋu	rosu	tuolo	totu	hatubuo
4. skin	ulili	kaha	kakaputu	kakaputu	tutupa	
5. sleep	suele	puta	musa	musa	puts	pinou
		-				-

	English	Mono	Hoava	Vangunu	Bareke	Duke	Kazúkuru
76.	small	atuai?ina	kisina	kikina	tutuina	hitelena	menilena
77.	smoke	tula	vosusu	rovu	rovu	tula	
78.	stand	tegese	tiva	tiva	tiva	turu	ruto
79.	star	vitovito	kokodala	seru	seru	pipino	
80.	stone	%o%olo	magara	calekoro	jalekoro	haratana	pitoni
81.	sun	healo	gava	hareko	hareko	sepe	
82.	swim	usu	ruasa	tope	pone	ruyasa	
83.	tail	auko	bele	siku	siku	pikutu	
84.	that	ena?a	sani	zani	ia	sana	
85.	this	ea, ean	heni	pia	рi	hoaya	
86.	thou	maito	(e)goe	io	(a)ho	goyi	goino
87.	tongue	meata	mea—	mea	mea	elebe	lepani
88.	tooth	niho	hoŋgi	livo	livo	livo	titio
89.	tree	au	ngato	ngato	ngato	gaye	vudono
90.	two	elu	ka rua	ka rua	ka rua	kori	runaruna
91.	walk	gagana	aso	ene	ene	nibaka	
92.	warm, hot	posala	maŋini	reka	luluŋu	nagovo	ŋinoŋino
93.	water	atele	kumu	sule	kavo	kolo	kiloni
94.	we (incl.)	maita	zita	ita	hita	gita	ngito
95.	we (excl.)	ma:mi	gami	ami	hami	gami	gimo
96.	what?	ahana	sa.	za	na za	sagayi	
97.	white	[?] ana [?] ana [?] a	kekoro	heva	heva	keoro	vine
98.	who?	ale(?a)	(e)se	zei	(e)ze	segayi	
99.	woman	bataha	hiniŋguru	ororeke	ororeke	mangota sasau	kazane
100.	yellow	temotemoli	veava	meava	meava	meava	

SECTION III: SOUTHERN NEW GEORGIA AND YSABEL, WITH AUSTRONESIAN

	English	1	Roviana	Kusage	Marovo	Kia	*AN
1.	all		doduru	doluru	logania	haroharo	
2.	ashes		eba	eba	eba	kofele	abu, dabuk
3.	bad		kaleana	kaleana	aieno	muko	zaqat
.4.	bark (n)		kapu	kaha	korekore	kafuna	u(m) pak
5.	belly		tia	tia -	tia	tia	tiyan
6.	big		nomana	lavati	ngetene	fa	γaya, laba
7.	bird		kurukuru tapuru		oloko	memeha	manuk
8.	bite		garatia	gusia	usua	varigani	ka7at
9.	black		muho	hupa	cinoko	sisibe	qitom
10.	blood		ehara	mazuka	juka	busaka	(dd)ayah
11.	bone		susuri	susuri	susuri	huma	(t)ulan
12.	breast		susu	nunu	navoro	puti	susu
13.	burn		toa	to	to	saliŋga	tunu
14.	cloud		lei	toba	cakoro	toba	$(\gamma_{ambun,avan})$
15.	cold		ibu	ibu	manobu	kapo	dinin
16.	come		pude mae	mae	pata mae	meha	(maγi), datəŋ
17.	die		mate	mate	leŋgu	lami	patay
18.	dog		siki	nere	cie	meusu, kuma	asu
19.	drink		napo	napo	bei	ketuhu	inu
20.	dry		рора	hala	popa	vakaruŋu	kayan, mara
21.	ear		taliŋa	kukele	taliŋi	talina	talina
22.	earth		pepeso	pepeha	puava	kava	tanəh
23.	eat		ganigani	`aniŋani	nono	mahai	ka(ən), kai
24.	egg		vovoto	vovoto	vovoto	kediri	(t)əluy
25.	eye		mata	mata	mata	hiba	mata

	English	Roviana	Kusage	Marovo	Kia	*AN
26.	fat (n)	dea	dea	dea	mároho	ləmak
27.	feather	kalu	kalu	kalu oloko	kalana na memeha	bulu
28.	fire	nika	puga	ikusu	totoi	apuy
29.	fish	iagana	igana	ihana	namari	ikan
30.	flesh	masa	pasopaso	borabora	vilaha	
31.	fly (vb)	tapuru	tapuru	carava	sire	lembay
32.	foot	nene	nene	cacape mahele	gahe	kaki
33.	fruit	vua	vua	ure	fuana	buwah
34.	give	poni	poni	vala(nia)	vani-	bəγəy
35.	good	leana	koleo	leana	veha	
36.	green	buma	buma	buma	giliona tiana	hizau
37.	hair	kalu	kalu	kalu	kala	buhuk
38.	hand	lima	rengu	lima	kame	lima
39.	head	batu	batu	cavili	pau	qulu
40.	hear	avoso	umana	avoso	momohi	$\mathtt{den}_{\mathtt{p}}$
41.	heart	bulo	korokoŋo	bulo	hihiŋo	zanduŋ
42.	I	(a)rau	rao	ra(ka)	ara	sku
43.	kill	vamatea	vamataea.	valeŋgua	ruzai	pa-matay
44.	knee	tuŋutuŋu nene				(tt)uhud
45.	know	gilania	gilalia	atenia	avohi	taqu, lala
46.	leaf	elelo	sasairi	rokoroko	kamotona	$(dd)_{aun}$
47.	lie down	eko	eko	eko	epu	inəp
48.	liver	bero	kola	kola	kola	(q?)atay
49.	long	gele	gele	hele	sodu	(p)anzaŋ
50.	louse	gutu	gutu	hutu	gutu	kutu

	English	Roviana	Kusage	Marovo	Kia	*AN
51.	male, man	koreo	makariva	babaere	mane	γani, ma-γani
52.	many	soku	soku	soku	tehi	
53.	moon	sidara	koreke	paleke	hihile	bulan
54.	mountain	tongere	tongerana	tongere	tungele	gunuŋ
55.	mouth	ŋuzu	ŋuzu	huju	mana	babah
56.	name	pozapoza	titasa	kila	babaolo	aran
57.	neck	rua	rua	rua	tania	$lihi\gamma$
58.	new	vangura	vangura	hangurumu	foforuna	baqəyu(h)
59.	night	boŋi	bogi	ipu	redu	bəŋi
60.	nose	isu	isu	isu	nehu	iruŋ
61.	not	lopu	kalu	kani	deo	
62.	one	keke, ta sa	tasa	maka	kaike(u)	əsa
63.	path	siraŋa	soana	huana	hanana	zalan
64.	person	tie	nikana	tinoni	tei	tau
65.	rain	ruku	ruku	mugata	nare	quzan
66.	red	ziŋara	ziŋara	oraua	busaka	iγah
67.	root	dadaga	agogona	dadaha	zagara	(v)akal
68.	rope	iku	iku	iku	horo	tali
69.	sand	onone	onone	keoro	garana	ənay, pasir
70.	say	zama	nake	jama	neke	ucap = talk
71.	see	dogoro	omea	omia	finini	kita
72.	seed	kiko	kikolo	patu	subuna	benih, binih
73.	sit	habotu	tuŋu	doku	nohe	dukduk
74.	skin	kapu	kaha	kore	kafu	kulit
75.	sleep	puta	puta	muca	epu ('lie')	tiduγ

	English	Roviana	Kusage	Marovo	Kia	*AN
76.	small	hitekena	kikika	kikina	ite	dikit
77.	smoke	tuŋaha	pogele	rovu	piala	qasu(h)
78.	stand	turu	tiro	tiva	tetu	diγi
79.	star	pinopino	kokodalo	ceru	bakaŋunu	$\dot{b}i(t)uhen$
80.	stone	patu	zalero	jalekoro	ráhira	batu
81.	sun	rimata	gava	ini	taunu	a(n)dau
82.	swim	tunuru	tunuru	ponu	sesele	laŋuy
83.	tail	pikutu	bele	cikunu	seku	$\mathtt{iku}\gamma$
84.	that	isa	sani	ia	iánihi	
85.	this	hie	heni	pia	iahi	
86.	thou	(a)goi	goe	hoi	ago	kau
87.	tongue	mea	mea	mea	lapi	dilaq
88.	tooth	livo	hoŋgi	livo	hiŋa	ipən
89.	tree	huda	ngato	hae	heka	kayu
90.	two	ka rua	ka ru	ka rua	palu	(dawha)
91.	walk	ene	aso	ene	gagahe	laku
92.	warm, hot	manini	manini	reka	daŋava	panas
93.	water	kolo	kuma	idere	kolo	wa(hØ)iγ
94.	we (incl.)	gita	gita	hita	gita	kita
95.	we (excl.)	gami	gami	hami	gai	kami
96.	what?	sa	sa	sa	heve	sps
97.	white	keoro	kekoro	heva	giho	putih
98.	who?	sei	se	sei	hei	sayi
99.	woman	vineki	hina	manemaneke	gase	(ba)binay
100.	yellow	meava	diko	oha	heko	kumiŋ

3, ANALYSIS OF THE LISTS

Obviously many types of analysis of the above lists are both possible and necessary for a full study of the historical problems presented by these languages. The first is the question of the relationships they have among themselves in terms of lexicostatistics.

(a) Lexicostatistics

Preliminary testing of the languages was carried out on the basis of the Swadesh 200-word list as given in Dell Hymes' article "Lexicostatistics So Far" (Current Anthropology No.1, January 1960) with the same necessary modifications. This examination yielded the following percentage relationships between the languages of Choiseul themselves, together with Kia:

	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Kia
Babatana	-	31.3	25.5	60.5	74	60.5	17
Varise		-	55.5	54.5	47	44	11
Vagua			***	28	33	41	12
Ririo				***	63	58	9
Sisingga					-	79	15
Kuboro						-	15

The significance of these figures will be discussed below (p.19). With the Mono language of the Shortland Island the relationships are smaller:

	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Kia
Mono	6	12+2?	12+1?	8	12	11	13

The 12 words Mono-Varise are all AN; of the doubtful words one is clearly not AN (kala, 'one', shown by both languages), and other pair may or may not be cognate: Mono an, Varise nana, 'eat' (AN *ka(a)n(i)). There is apparent cognation between Mono tégese and Varise dégere, 'stand', which is a common Choiseul NAN root. The Mono-Vagua cognates are almost all the same AN words, together with kala 'one' and Mono bataha, Vagua (oto) sapata, 'woman', and the tegese-degere pair. The eight correspondences between Mono and Ririo are mostly the same AN words as appear in the preceding languages, but there is Mono ale, ale?a, Ririo ade,

'who' (NAN). The Mono-Sisingga comparison is also 12% but the content of the agreements is considerably different from the previous lists; the words are still almost all AN, but are a different set, including now 'ashes', 'belly', 'ear', 'head' and 'tree' which have not appeared before. At the same time the NAN forms for 'stand' are still present. Much the same remarks apply to the Mono-Kuboro 11 per cent, almost the same series of roots reappearing, with the same differences from the more westerly Choiseul languages.

In New Georgia there is a group of interrelated languages whose relationship to the Choiseul group is shown in the following:

	Babatana	Varise	Vagua	Ririo	Sisingga	Kuboro	Kia
Roviana	11.5	14	15	14.5	13	13	22
Márovo	10	12.5	12.5	10	13	13.5	17
Kusage	11.5	14	11.5	12	11.5	11	18
${\it Hoava}$	15	18	16	16	19	17	16
Vangunu	18	19	20	15	18	19	14
Bdreke	17	21	23	16	21	19	18
Duke	16	18	16	20	22	21	15

(b) Non-Austronesian Roots in Choiseul

Very little examination of substrata in Melanesia has yet been made. Most attention has, not unnaturally, been given to the tracing of AN roots throughout the area, because this seemed likely to yield the most valuable information on the movements of the Austronesian peoples. Some have even minimised the idea of substrata in the region. The present writer, however, showed (Capell, 1943, 168-198) that when the Austronesian content was abstracted from the confusion of languages in south-eastern Papua, there remained definite traces of a few "regional" languages of pre-MN age. He suggested that in some areas the coming of the Austronesians may even have multiplied the linguistic confusion. The same situation, in lesser degree, reveals itself also in Choiseul, where a number of common NAN roots can be found in the various dialects of the island. In the 100-word list used above, there are 17 such common NAN words - nearly 20%. must be remembered, that although the 100-word list may be truly diagnostic, it is numerically a very small proportion of the vocabulary of any language. Hence a fuller

examination of the vocabularies of the languages would undoubtedly yield a much larger proportion of vocabulary common to all. Furthermore, the question of strata within a vocabulary becomes important in such a situation. There may be agreements on the less common or deep levels. For example: AN *tali, 'rope' (which is represented in Choiseul) becomes usually in Atchin (north-east Malekula) tsali; but there is also tali, a cult term, signifying the rope with which a pig is tied up prior to sacrifice in the Maki rites. This is a deep level agreement, which does not accord with the sound-laws of the language, and such agreements are always likely to occur as more of the vocabularies are examined. The 17 common words then may be far more important than their occurrence in the 100-word list might suggest.

The 17 common NAN roots are:

bark (of tree)	kepa(ta)	path	zuka(n u)
cold	lulumu	person	bose
die	le	rope	suni
fire	nako	seed	patu(ru)
fruit	vere	skin =	bark
heart	puŋu	stand	dégere
neck	korikori, kukunu	stone	kokozo
nose	zino(ro)	tongue water	lume, kalume besi

Before further examination of these is made, it will be noticed that some of the words carry a final syllable in some languages which is absent in others. It might be possible to treat this as a syllable originally present but dropped in some languages. In view of the surrounding non-AN languages (Bilua, Bañata, Kazukuru, etc.) and those of Bougainville there is another possibility. In the languages of Bougainville as well as in Bañata, Bilua, Lavukáleve and Savo, there are various systems of noun classification. It seems possible that the "optional" final syllable in the Choiseul words may be an old class-marker. Although no morphological analysis of Kazúkuru (New Georgia) has yet been made, similar finals recalling Bañata class markers occur there also. In the Choiseul examples there is recurrence of -ru, -ta and -nu/-na, as well as -ro. It is possible that these may represent pre-AN noun classifiers, and so they are best left bracketed as above and not regarded as part of the root.

Do these words occur outside Choiseul? Examination brings out some points of interest. It is highly probable that one of the words is AN: patu(ru) 'seed' = AN*batu, 'stone', but even then there is the suffix, a possible classifier, to take into account. The word would have been an early adoption from the incoming Austronesians - before the original class system of nouns had decayed. It may therefore be left in the list, as an example of "processing" of AN words in Choiseul. The remainder have relatives elsewhere as follows:

bark/skin: kepa-ta, represented in Vangunu, Bareke, Hoava, Kusage, Roviana. Root kapa-ta.

die: Vangunu, Bareke: Root legu.

fire: probably Roviana nika.

nose: Kazukuru sunu looks like the root zino, but stands isolated. The suffix -ro is not explained as yet.

Others are AN.

rope: suni occurs in Vangunu and probably in Mono huli.

stand: degese is Mono tégese; an AN form turu has invaded some of the languages of the area.

stone: ?o?olo = kokozo

water: the root besi, bei occurs in Ysabel, Florida and eastward, and seems to be the only common Choiseul root that does look eastward.

The words for cold, heart, neck, path, person (man) and tongue have no correlatives in the other languages available for examination.

As far as this evidence goes, it would seem that an ancient language common to a large part of Choiseul did exist, and that it had cognates in the vocabularies of the New Georgia languages. The evidence is insufficient to show whether these cognates are genetic or due to contact. There is evidence that all these pre-MN languages had nounclassification, but that is a question which does not belong to the present paper. It will be discussed in another paper on the NAN languages of the area. The question belongs to the field of structure statistics; 3 it serves, incidentally,

to draw attention to the limitations of lexicostatistics, which can never give a sure indication of the status of a language because it cannot take into consideration the morphology of that language. The present point of importance is that apart from the AN element the languages not only of Choiseul but also of New Georgia and possibly western Ysabel show a common pre-MN content, and thus there may well have been a language or a set of related languages within the area. Depth study of the vocabularies is needed to establish the truth or falsehood of this suggestion, and that must also wait for a future occasion.

Irrespective of whether a given root is AN or not, the amounts of variation between the different Choiseul dialects are worth comparing. In passing it may be mentioned that the very use of the term "dialect" rather than "language" again presupposes structure statistical examination. following table shows the number of roots found within the six dialects listed for each word. To illustrate the process involved, when it is stated that four words on the 100-word list show five different stems, it is meant that out of the six languages given for Choiseul, only two have cognate forms for that particular word: 'burn', Sisingga sebe and Kuboro sobe agree, but the other four languages have different words not related to that root or to each other: Babatana katu, Varise kamu, Vagua vangala, Ririo kiua. Similarly, other words show 4, 3, or 2 stems and others only 1 stem among the six dialects. There are 22 single stems, 32 with 2 stems, 32 with 3 stems, 9 with 4 stems, and 4 with 5 stems. This means that absolute agreement between the six dialects is limited to 22% of the 100 words examined. Of these 15 are NAN, with 7 AN loanwords. The NAN words have been listed above and their cognates elsewhere considered. The assignments of the actual words (in their English forms) are as follows:

(see table overleaf)

Single Stems (22)	2 Stems (32)	3 Stems (32)	4 Stems	5 Stems (4)
bark	bad	all	ashes	burn
breasts (AN)	bird	big	belly	give
cold	bite	cloud	black	good
come (AN)	blood	dog	fat	small
die	bare	dry	foot	
eye (AN)	drink	earth	not	
fire	car	fish	say	
fruit	eat	flesh	sun	
heart	egg	fly	swim	
I (AN)	feather	hair		
louse (AN)	green	bread		
neck	hand	hear		
nose	kill	leaf		
path	knee	lie		
person	know	liver		
seed	male	long		
skin	many	moon		
stand	name	mountain		
thou (AN)	night	mouth		
tongue (AN)	one	see		
we	rain	sit		
	\mathtt{red}	smoke		
	root	star		
	rope	tail		
	sand	this		
	sleep	took		
	stone	tree		
	that	two		
	water	walk		
	what	warm		
	woman	who		
	white	yellow		

Within these strata there appear some unusual and unexpected sound changes as between the various languages. In some instances they seem to have affected AN roots also, e.g. 'louse': *AN kutu; Vagua gücü (= γ ücü), but Ririo vüc, Babatana vutu, Sisingga votu, leading to loss of k in Varise, Kuborg utu. The change is k- > γ - > v- and sometimes z- appears in the series: 'we (incl.)', *AN kita >

ita in Varise, Vagua, Sisingga, Kuboro, but zita in Babatana, Ririo.

If this series is acceptable then Ririo ve, 'tree' may belong to AN kayu, along with Babatana yazu, Sisingga, Kuboro azu. The Babatana reflexes of k- seem rather irregular. In the pronouns there is an initial r- where it would not be expected in the Roviana rau, arau, 'I', Babatana, Sisingga, Kuboro rami, 'we (excl.)', Varise remu, as against Ririo keme > AN kami. There is probably a mgrphg=logical cause at work here as well as a phonetic cause, but the further investigation of sound change is still needed.

(c) The AN Content of the Region

Consideration may now be given to the AN content of the languages. This is for certain reasons not easy to determine with complete accuracy. In the following figures a few doubtful cognates have been omitted, but their inclusion would not greatly alter the picture. The figures show the following percentages of AN vocabulary in the 100-word lists:

Choiseul Group		New Georgia	Group
Bambatana	15	Roviana	33
Varise	15	Marovo	23
Vagua	22	Kusage	26
Ririo	13	Hoava	24
Sisingga	15	Vangunu	25
Kuboro	13	Bareke	24
		Duke	22

Each of these two columns clearly forms a group. Kia with 15% seems to link with the Choiseul group. Mono, on the other hand, has 31%, but its tradition is quite different from either. Its phonetics are different, and the roots themselves are often different. The following are worth noting by way of contrast with Choiseul. Certain of them find echoes in the New Georgia Group:

bite: Mono ?a?ati is AN *kayat, which does not appear in any other list.

fly: Mono loho, AN *lambay, is not found elsewhere.

fruit: Mono hua, AN *buwah, occurs in Hoava, Kusage and Roviana hua, but not in Choiseul, which has a local

NAN root. This root, vure, occurs in the New Georgia group in Bareke.

kill: Mono ha-mate 'cause die': AN *pa + matay. The prefix *pa- occurs in various forms in the Choiseul Group but the stem *patay does not. It is found in New Georgia Group in Roviana, Kusage, Hoava, Duke.

know: Mono ataen. This is a verbalisation of the AN *atay 'liver', treated as the seat of intelligence. It occurs in Marovo ate-nia, but not elsewhere. The other root found in New Georgia is AN *kila 'sign', found in Roviana, Kusage, Hoava and Duke, and not uncommonly eastward as far as Fiji. In the context it is present also as Vangunu and Bareke gilagila 'name', Marovo kila-. This latter development is purely local.

root: Mono lamutu is apparently AN *(1)a(m)but, 'be hairy', and is quite unique here.

These facts by themselves make it perfectly certain that the AN element in Mono represents a totally different tradition from that represented in Choiseul. The links with New Georgia are to be regarded as later diffusions from the Bougainville Straits, because phonetically they agree with Mono.

Something more must be said about the phonetic form of the AN element in the Choiseul and New Georgia regions, apart from the words which agree with Mono. In general it is true that AN final consonants are lost in Melanesia. In the central and eastern Solomons this is definitely a fact. In New Georgia such final consonants are very frequently retained. Since in these languages the syllable patterns allowable are V or CV, the CVC type of syllable in AN is not permissible. The difficulty is solved normally in Melanesia by CVC > CV; in New Georgia the pattern is usually CVC > CVCV. A vowel is added which usually harmonises with the vowel preceding the original final consonant. Thus in Roviana:

AN *ma + takut matagutu 'to fear'

*anam onomo 'six'

*ikan igana 'fish'

*bay- (prefix) vari- (prefix)

*ma + nipis manivisi 'thin'

*bayun vayuni 'awaken'

It should be added that this supporting a final AN consonant does not always take place; some are lost. Probably two AN strata are to be seen here, that in which final consonants were still present when the Austronesians reached the area (or they could not have been supported) is to be presumed as the earlier. In the eastern Solomons this supporting never occurs, and the presumption is that the final consonants of the AN stems were already lost when the words reached Florida and points farther east. The above brief list in Florida and Malaita languages appears in the following form:

	Gela	Kwar'ae	Lau	Sa a
fear	matayu	ma?u	mou	me'u
six	ono	ono	ono	ono
fish	$i\gamma$ a	i ⁹ a	i ⁷ a	i?e
reciprocity	vei-	kwai-		hei-
thin		kando		
awaken		fa?aanda		

In Florida (Gela), not only are the two roots for 'thin' and 'awaken' different, but that for 'fear' takes -ni as its transitive suffix: mata- γ u-ni, 'fear someone', showing that by the time the word had reached this area its original final consonant had been so far forgotten that a new one could be brought in; otherwise the t would presumably have been thematically restored. The same holds good in Malaita, where Sa'a has as its transitive form me'ute'i-.

Thus the Choiseul (and New Georgia) languages show an AN content of a different type from that found farther east. This stratum knows the AN final consonant and therefore on anything other than that of C.E. Fox, would be earlier than the stratum or strata represented in the eastern Solomon Islands. Fox has contended that AN actually began in the Solomon Islands and spread east and west. Phonetic facts of the sort just adduced are quite incompatible with such a theory. It is, for instance, not possible to accept his suggestion that in final consonants, accepted by Dempwolff as elements in a CVCVC-type root, are accretions, unless it is to be said that they developed in the Western Solomons. Further examination would be needed to establish the actual occurrences of the various AN roots in different parts of Oceania. This type of work is being carried out in great

detail by Dyen at Yale, but it is, of course, quite impossible to include it in anything less than a book, and that a fair-sized volume.

This lexicostatistic study of Choiseul, so far as it has gone, shows a clearly defined area with its own peculiarities. It is an area that apparently possessed a fairly uniform NAN language at one time, marked with a characteristic phonetic structure, and a characteristic morphology also would come to light if the study were continued into the field of structure statistics. The phonetic structure is not unlike that of the NAN languages still found in British Solomon Islands Protectorate - Bilua, and Bañata especially, and may point to an underlying unity of language now lost beyond recovery. The lexicostatistic study shows an AN element which is often the same as that found farther east in the Solomon Islands, but preserved in a phonetically much more archaic form, and therefore probably earlier. Choiseul and New Georgia (together with western Ysabel, if the material had been included) were moulded by this earlier type of AN; Mono and the Bougainville Straits show another different AN contact both in content and in the phonetic forms. It would be necessary to extend the study to the MN languages of Bougainville to make the real extent of this archaic stratum clear. At the same time, this contact was not so deep or extensive as the later one which has produced the languages of the Eastern Solomons, where a much higher AN content is to be found. At least something of a seemingly complex history comes to light in this brief survey, which now requires extending to much wider stretches of vocabulary and to the whole grammatical structure of these languages.



NOTES

- 1. Paper read at the Canberra 1964 Meeting of the Australian and New Zealand Association for the Advancement of Science (ANZAAS).
- 2. The only material available at present is found in an article published by J.H.L. Waterhouse in Man vol.XXXI (1931), No.133, with notes by S.H. Ray.
- 3. A. Capell, "The techniques of structure statistics", Oceania, 33:1-11.

SOUTHEAST AMBRYM VERB INFLECTION AND MORPHOPHONEMICS¹

G.J. PARKER

- 0. Introduction
- 1. Inflection
 - 1.1. Inflectional Categories
 - 1. 2. Affix Alternations
 - 1.3. Summary of Prefix Combinations
- 2. Stem Classes and Alternations
 - 2.1. Stems Inflected for Aorist
 - 2.2. Vowel Loss in Reduplicated Stems
 - 2.3. Non-Systematic Irregularities.

O. INTRODUCTION

Southeast Ambrym is a Melanesian language of the northern New Hebrides spoken by approximately 1500 persons. Most of these speakers reside on Ambrym, in the villages of edupæhakul, edupoal, asei, samueo, pæmmel, ulei, toax, penapo, mat, utas, sahuot, barias, pehosanat, sai, Bethel, moru, taviax (Taviak), and baue. Another approximately 180 speakers have resided since 1951 in the village of mat (Maat), Efate, six miles northwest of Vila. The principal informants during the period of field work underlying this study were Mr Percy David of the British Police, Vila, and Miss Lehi Lucy of the Presbyterian Mission Hospital, Iririki. Both are originally from mat, Ambrym.

Southeast Ambrym has never been studied previously beyond the collection of short vocabulary lists and verb paradigms. Its closest relative is Paama, and it is this language that was used by missionaries on southeastern Ambrym. The language of northern Ambrym, described in an unpublished study by Paton, ³ appears to be very distinct, and according

to Capell is more closely related to the languages of Pentecost. 4 No data are available for the dialect(s) of southwestern Ambrym.

1. INFLECTION

The major syntactically defined verb classes are transitive, intransitive, and equational. Various subclasses of these are defined below on the basis of restrictions on co-occurrence with affixes and of morphologically determined stem and affix alternations. The regular verb stem is one which shows no morphophonemic alternations. With very few exceptions the verb stem is a free form, with the basic allomorph occurring as second person singular imperative and, for certain stem classes, as third person singular Aorist, e.g. pat 'to sleep'; pat 'sleep!', pat 'he sleeps'.

The analysis presented below must be considered tentative in some respects since it is based on a relatively small corpus. The stems described are drawn from a total lexicon of approximately 750 items.

1.1. Inflectional Categories

Five position classes of prefixes and two of suffixes are described in this section. Although the suffixes occur only as phrase-level constituents, the sets of allomorphs in one class (60) define subclasses of transitive stems. The affix position classes are summarised in Table 1.

- 1.11. Class 10 Movement includes a single member 11 ha-which indicates that the action is realised in some place other than where it is spoken of, or that some distance must be covered prior to the realisation of the action. This prefix occurs optionally, and immediately precedes a prefix of Class 20 (or, in the case of unmarked third person singular, a prefix of Class 40 or 50, or the stem), e.g. hamupat 'you (pl.) go sleep', halatipat 'they (3 or 4) will go sleep'. ha— is identified with the stem ha Vint 'to go'.
- 1.12. Class 20 Actor Reference includes the prefixes: 21 nA- first person singular, 22 O- second person singular, 23 mi- third person singular, 24 rA- first person non-

singular inclusive, 25 mA- first person non-singular exclusive, 26 mu = second person non-singular, and 27 lAthird person non-singular. These prefixes are mutually exclusive and obligatory. 23 mi-, however, occurs only with certain stems and only immediately preceding the stem ± 51 AORIST. Three stem classes are defined by the (non-)occurrence of mi-: those which always carry mi-, those which never carry mi-, and those which optionally carry mi-. first two of these classes are of roughly equal size; the third has very few members. These class memberships are not separately listed in this paper, but stems of the class which always carries mi- are marked with an asterisk in the listings for other classes (in 1.25., 2.1., 2.2.). Examples of Class 20 prefixes and unmarked third person singular (P3 sg.) are: napat 'I sleep'; opat 'you sleep'; pat 'he (she, it) sleeps', misa 'he is bad', gil or migil 'he digs'; rapat 'we (pl. incl.) sleep'; mapat 'we (pl. excl.) sleep'; mupat 'you (pl.) sleep'; lapat 'they (pl.) sleep'.

- 1.13. Class 30 Number includes two prefixes 31 LU- Dual and 32 TEL- Paucal (three or four) which occur only with an immediately preceding non-singular prefix of Class 20. The absence of a Class 30 prefix implies plural (five or more; exemplified in 1.12.), e.g. rupat 'we (2, incl.) sleep', malopat 'we (2, excl.) are about to sleep'; mutapat 'you (3, 4) sleep', latipat 'they (3, 4) will sleep'.
- 1.14. Class 40 Aspect/Tense includes three prefixes 410-Potential, 42 tE-Past, and 43 I-Future. 410-occurs only immediately following a prefix of Class 30 and preceding a stem ± 51 AORIST, e.g. ralopat 'we (2, incl.) are about to sleep', mutopat 'you (3, 4) are about to sleep'. 42 tE- and 43 I-precede only the negative prefixes 55 and 56, e.g. natepat 'I slept', tepat 'he slept', lutepat 'they (2) slept'; nipat 'I'll sleep', ipat 'he'll sleep', ripat 'we (pl. incl.) will sleep'.

1.15. Class 50 Aorist/Subjunctive/Negative

- 1.15.1. The (non-)occurrence of 51 AORIST defines two stem classes, and the class of stems (all irregular) inflectable for Aorist is in turn divided into three succlasses defined by the allomorphs of 51. The members of these classes are listed in 2.1., e.g. nabas 'I hit', bas 'he hits', mubas 'you (pl.) hit'; migur 'he holds'; del 'he accompanies'.
- 1.15.2. All verbs distinguish Subjunctive from Aorist in

P3 sg. by the occurrence of 52 va-, e.g. xi bit vapat 'he wants to sleep'; xi misaxaras vahasi 'he is unable to hit him'. A small class of irregular stems, included within the class inflectable for Aorist, also distinguishes Subjunctive in P1 sg. with 53 m- and in P2 sg. and all plural persons V with 54 V-, e.g. nabit namasi 'I want to hit him'; obit ovasi 'you want to hit him', rabit ravasi 'we (pl. incl.) him', labit lavasi 'they (pl.) want to hit him'.

Subjunctive forms have been observed only in embedded clauses which function as objects of the verbs bovon 'to forget', hit 'to want to', ha 'to go', kil 'to know (how to)', saxaras 'to be unable to', and saxpis 'to try'.

- 1.15.3. 55 naa- follows the tense prefixes 42 tE- and 43 I-; 56 taa- follows the person and number prefixes of Classes 20 and 30. naa- and taa- contrast in P2 sg. and P3 sg., where 43 I- shows a zero allomorph, e.g. nataapatti 'I don't sleep', taapatti 'he doesn't sleep'; ninaapatti 'I won't sleep', naapatti 'he won't sleep', natnaapatti 'I didn't sleep', tenaapatti 'he didn't sleep'.
- 1.16. Class 60 Object Reference includes three suffixes 61 -nou Pl. sg., 62 -Vx P2 sg., and 63 -NI P3 sg., which occur with transitive stems as alternatives to object phrases, e.g. obasnou 'you hit me'; nabasux 'I hit you'; basi 'he hits him' (cf. bas moletin ax 'he hits this man'). The members of four transitive subclasses defined by the allomorphs of 62 -Vx and 63 -NI are listed in 1.25.
- 1.17. Class 70 Negation includes one suffix 71 -ti which occurs as the final morpheme of a phrase whose verb is inflected with 55 naa- or 56 taa-. Examples are seen in 1.15.3.

1.2. Affix Alternations

1.21. 21 $nA-\rightarrow n-$ before 43 I-; elsewhere $\rightarrow na-$ alternating freely with næ-, e.g. nipat 'I'll sleep'; napat, næpat 'I sleep'.

22 O- + 43 I- \rightarrow u-, except before 55 naa-, elsewhere O- \rightarrow o-, e.g. upat 'you'll sleep'; opat 'you sleep'.

24 rA- \rightarrow r- before 31 LU- (when this in turn is followed by 42 tE-, 51 AORIST, 56 taa-, or the stem) or 43 I-; elsewhere \rightarrow ra- alternating freely with ræ-, e.g. rupat 'we (2,

incl.) sleep', ripat 'we (pl. incl.) will sleep'; rapat, ræpat 'we (pl. incl.) sleep'.

25 mA- \rightarrow ma- alternating freely with mæ-: mapat, mæpat 'we (pl. excl.) sleep'.

27 lA- \rightarrow l- before 31 LU- (when this in turn is followed by 42 tE-, 51 AORIST, 56 taa-, or the stem) or 43 I-; \rightarrow lebefore 56 taa- and before a sequence of either 32 TEL- or 42 tE- with 55 naa-; elsewhere \rightarrow la- alternating freely with læ-, e.g. lupat 'they (2) sleep', lutnaapat 'they (2) didn't sleep', lipat 'they (pl.) will sleep'; letaapatti 'they (pl.) don't sleep', letnaapatti 'they (3, 4) won't sleep'; latapat, lætapat 'they (3, 4) sleep'.

1.22. 31 LU- $\rightarrow \emptyset$ after 25 mA- and 26 mu-, and \rightarrow u- after 24 rA- and 27 lA-, when followed by 42 tE-, 51 AORIST, 56 taa-, or the stem; \rightarrow 1- after all non-singular person prefixes when followed by 41 O-, 43 I-, or 55 naa-, e.g. mapat 'we (2, excl.) sleep'; lutepat 'they (2) slept'; mulipat 'you (2) will sleep'.

32 TEL- \rightarrow ta- alternating freely with t- before 51 **AORIST** or the stem; \rightarrow t- before 41 O- or 43 I-; \rightarrow $\not D$ before 42 tE- or 56 taa-, e.g. ratapat, ratpat 'we (3, 4, incl.) sleep'; mutipat 'you (3, 4) will sleep'; latepat 'they (3, 4) slept'.

1.23. 41 O- \rightarrow o- alternating freely with \emptyset : malopat, malpat 'we (2, excl.) are about to sleep'.

42 tE- \rightarrow te- word-initially (P3 sg.); \rightarrow te- alternating freely with t- after prefixes of Classes 20 and 30 and immediately before the stem; \rightarrow t- after prefixes of Classes 20 and 30 and before 55 naa-, e.g. tepat 'he slept'; natepat, natpat 'I slept'; natnaapatti 'I didn't sleep'.

43 I- + 22 O- \rightarrow u- except before 55 naa-; I- \rightarrow before 55 naa- in all persons except P1 sg., P1 pl. incl., and P3 pl., and after 25 mA- and 26 mu- in affirmative forms; elsewhere \rightarrow i-, e.g. onaapatti 'you won't sleep', mupat 'you (pl.) will sleep'; ipat 'he'll sleep'.

1.24. 51 AORIST \rightarrow b-, g-, or d- depending on stem class. See the examples in 1.15.1., and class membership in 2.1.

54 V- \rightarrow m- with one stem hei 'to weave'; otherwise \rightarrow v-, e.g. obit omei 'you want to weave'; obit ovasi 'you want to hit him'.

1.25. 62 -Vx \rightarrow -ux, -ox, -ax, or -nux, and 63 -NI \rightarrow -i, -e, -a, or -ni, depending on stem class as follows:

Vtr1, with -ux, -i: has 'hit, kill', hil (or *hil) 'dig', hulut 'peel', *hur 'hold, grasp, pick up, bear (a child)', *husil 'follow', *hustil 'hide in wait for', *kamuet 'find', *karpis 'taste', *kas 'wash', *kes 'call', *lanves 'look for', *laxat 'watch', *læh 'carry in the hand', lehit 'leave, abandon', *lih 'plant', *lin 'put', mal 'uproot', mæmæs !thank!, muten !rub!, *nenem !think, remember', *nas 'chew, bite', 'pelpas 'step on', pispis 'teach, show', porat 'lift', pus 'see', rat 'take out, up, off, away', saxpis 'try', *seson 'hide', *sis 'ask for', talxat 'catch', 'tas 'peel, skin', tatil 'wait for (person acting)', tavul 'break (long things)', telpas 'tear', *til 'sew', tilen 'spill', tin 'burn', titil 'wait for (thing acting)', *tivin 'push', *tupas 'break (round things), tuxoh 'touch', varxat "tie", voxxol "enclose", vul (see tavul), Xalen (*Xalen) 'burn up', Xan (*Xan) 'burn', Xat 'catch (disease acting on person)', xum 'squeeze'.

Vtr2, with -ox, -e: *kakal 'scratch', *kutaxol 'cover', *lon 'hear', ran 'empty', sar 'tie up, hang up', *sikkuexol 'plug', van 'conceive', var 'tie', xal 'buy'.

Vtr3, with -ax, -a: *kil 'know', *lan 'open (container, book)', tel 'accompany'.

Vtr4, with -nux, -ni: mu 'drink', pos 'sell', *sa 'give', *sei 'insert', *so 'put', Xa 'eat', xoXOles 'exchange'.

1.3. The co-occurrence restrictions and morphophonemic rules described above, as they involve the prefixes of Classes 20 through 50, yield the combinations presented in Table 2. Throughout the table free alternations are represented by (1) /a/ in the case of /a/ \sim /æ/, (2) /o e a/ when these \sim \emptyset .

Column I shows the minimal prefix combinations which immediately precede the stem, 51 AORIST, or a Subjunctive prefix (53, 54). Column II adds 41 O- Potential. Stems of the class not inflectable for 51, 53, 54 show a specific subjunctive form only in P3 sg. (with 52 va-), and a specific imperative form only for P2 sg. (unmarked). The potential forms occur as obligatory dual and paucal counterparts

of the subjunctive form although, unlike subjunctive forms, the potential also occur in independent clauses. Examples with pat 'sleep': napat 'I sleep', opat 'you sleep', pat 'he sleeps', rupat 'we (2, incl.) sleep'; ralopat 'we (2, incl.) are about to sleep'; nabit napat 'I want to sleep', obit opat 'you want to sleep', bit vapat 'he wants to sleep', rubit ralopat 'we (2, incl.) want to sleep'; pat 'sleep!', ralopat 'let's (we 2 incl.) sleep!'. Stems of the class inflectable for all Class 50 categories distinguish Aorist from Subjunctive in all persons, and distinguish Potential from both Aorist and Subjunctive. They also show specific imperative forms for all plural persons as well as P2 sg. Examples with has 'hit': nabas 'I hit', obas 'you hit', bas 'he hits', rubas 'we (2, incl.) hit', rabas 'we (pl.) hit'; ralobas 'we (2, incl.) are about to hit'; nabit namas 'I want to hit', obit ovas 'you want to hit', bit vahas 'he wants to hit', rubit ralohas 'we (2, incl.) want to hit', rabit ravas 'we (pl.) want to hit'; has 'hit!', ralohas 'let's (we 2 incl.) hit!', rahas 'let's we (pl.) hit!'.

The remaining columns show the addition of Tense and Negative prefixes.

2. STEM CLASSES

2.1. Stems Inflected for Aorist

The stems which may be inflected for Aorist show one of the initial consonants /v h x t/ in the case form, and this consonant is automatically lost when 51, 53, or 54 is prefixed.

This stem class consists of various subclasses defined by the following criteria:

- (1) The three allomorphs of 51 AORIST define stem classes.
- (2) The subjunctive prefixes 53 and 54 occur only with a subclass of the stems inflectable for Aorist.
- (3) 54 V- has the allomorph m- in P2 sg. with a single stem.
- (4) The occurrence of 55 naa- or 56 taa- determines a stem-initial consonant alternation $/h/\rightarrow/v/$ or $/h/\rightarrow/x/$ with certain stems.
- (5) One small stem class shows a basic $\#/x/ \rightarrow \emptyset$ in all environments except following 55 naa- or 56 taa-.

The relationships between the classes thus defined are shown in Table 3, and the stems involved are listed below in terms of the class combination types represented by the rows of the table.

Type 1: vai 'fight', van 'conceive', vanos 'breathe', var 'be blind', var 'tie', varxat 'tie', vas 'launder', vo 'rot', vohon 'close (int.)', vor 'be sweet', voxxol 'enclose', vul 'break (long things)', vulii 'count, read', vuol 'be tired', vurvur 'be ulcerated', vus 'finish', vut 'be dull'.

Type 2: vue 'be dry'.

Type 3: ha 'go (int.)', has 'hit, kill', he 'be', he 'go (tr.)', hei 'want, love', hiles 'turn', hisuu 'meet', hit 'want to; say', hiteni 'say', hol 'dance', hos 'be good', hulut 'peel', hut 'jump', huue 'open (tr.)'.

Type 4: hei 'weave'.

Type 5: huii 'blow'.

Type 6: hil (*hil) 'dig (tr.)', 9 *hur 'hold, grasp, pick up', *hus 'hide (tr.)', *husil 'follow', *hustil 'hide in wait'.

Type 7: hui 'scrape'.

Type 8: xa 'fly', *xa 'say', xal 'buy', xei and xeihex 'be hard, difficult, strong', xo 'be from', xoni 'be similar to', xoXOles 'exchange', *xul 'swim', xum 'squeeze'.

Type g: Xa 'eat', Xalen (*Xalen) 'burn up', Xan (*Xan) 'burn', Xat 'catch (disease acting on person)'.

Type 10: ta 'be, continue', tale 'warm oneself', talxat 'catch', tamo 'wait a long time', tana 'stay', tas 'skin, peel', tatil 'wait for (person acting)', tavul 'break (long things)', tax 'be here', taxau 'burn (int.)', te 'be in, on, at', tei 'chop', tel 'accompany', telpas 'tear', *tev 'happen', ti 'be, continue', tihii 'slice', *til 'sew (tr.)', tilen 'spill', tilomun 'return', tin 'burn (tr.)', tiomu 'hurry', *tis 'write', titil 'wait for (thing acting)', *tivin 'push', totan 'sit', totax 'stay here', *tupas 'break (round things)', tuxoh 'touch'.

2.2. Vowel Loss in Reduplicated Stems

The irregular verbs of a large class show a free allomorph (basic) with two identical initial CV syllables and a bound allomorph in which the first vowel is lost, e.g.

mæmæsnou 'he thanks me', nammæsi 'I thank him'. In the case of those stems which add 23 mi- in P3 sg. and which do not normally have a human actor, the basic allomorph occurs very rarely (as imperative).

Only two stems are recorded which show the canonical form in question but lack the syllable reduction; these are *kakau 'walk' (cf. *kau 'go to the garden'), and *sisi 'whistle (of the wind)'. A single stem *sItal 'penetrate, emerge' shows the reduction in non-identical syllables.

The stems which show the alternation #CVCV... -- -CCV... are: *kakal 'scratch', *kakan 'steal', *kakas 'be sweetened', *kakat 'be pepper-hot', *kokon 'smell good', *kokora 'crow', mæmæas 'be green, blue', mæmæl 'be tired', mæmæs 'thank', mæmæse 'be clean', memees 'urinate', memer 'be wet', memerou 'be soft', momotii 'be smooth', mumuli 'be round', mumun 'drink' (apparently synonymous with mu), mumuu 'be dirty', *nenem 'think, remember', papan 'whistle', pipili 'be red' (apparently synonymous with pili), pipin 'suffice, be enough', *rerei 'knock', sasal 'float', seseh 'best (of the heart)', *tetev 'swell, be swollen', *titil 'sew (int.)', *titin 'be hot'.

2.3. Non-Systematic Irregularities

- 2.31. ha Vint 'to go' and he Vtr 'to go' are unique in that their subjunctive forms occur in independent clauses. ha has a special allomorph -æ in the Aorist. Examples: nabe vila 'I go to Vila', name vila 'I am about to go to Vila'; bæ 'he goes', vaha 'he is about to go'.
- 2.32. ammei 'to come' shows alternative irregular P3 sg. Aorist forms bemei and mei, and has an allomorph -mmei with person and number prefixes: ammei 'come!', nammei 'I come', immei 'he'll come'.
- 2.33. taga 'to stay' and te 'to be in, on, at' show allomorphs -tiga and -ti respectively in all non-singular persons: madi vila 'we (pl. excl.) are in Vila'; ladiga 'they (pl.) stay'.
- 2.34. baVAn 'to walk' and boVOn 'to forget' show the respective allomorphs: free bavan, bovon; bound -ban, -bon, e.g. naban 'I walk', bavan 'he walks', iban 'he will walk';

63

-NI P3 sg.

eox bovon 'I forget', em taabonniti 'you don't forget it'. 10 bovon also shows an irregular subjunctive form vonbon.

- 2.35. xoXoles 'to exchange' is inflected for Aorist (Type 8) and shows an allomorph with reduplication when no Class 20 prefix occurs; thus: nagoles 'I exchange', goxoles 'he exchanges', ixoles 'he will exchange'.
- 2.36. *sItal 'to emerge, penetrate' has a bound allomorph -stal: mistal 'he emerges'.

TABLE 1

10	Movement	20 Actor Reference	30 Number
11	ha-	21 nA- P1 sg. 22 O P2 sg. 23 mi- P3 sg. 24 rA- P1 non-sg. incl. 25 mA- P1 non-sg. excl. 26 mu- P2 non-sg. 27 lA- P3 non-sg.	31 LU- Dual 32 TEL- Paucal
40	Aspect/Tense	50 Aorist/Subjunctive	/Negative
41	O- Potential	51 AORIST	
	tE- Past I- Future	52 va- P3 sg. Subj. 53 m- P1 sg. Subj. 54 V- P2 sg. and P1-	3 non-sg. Subj.
		55 naa - Past and Futur 56 taa - Aorist Neg.	re Neg.
60	Object Reference	70 Negatin	νe
	-nou P1 sgVx P2 sg.	71 -ti	

TABLE 2

	PRONOUNS	I: ±2	0±30	II:	±20±	30+41	III:	±20±30+42
I	inou	na-					nate	_
You	xoux	0-					ote-	-7.
Не	хi		or un				te	- 4
We incl.				,				
2	ralu	ru-		rale) —		rute	_
3, 4	ratel	rata-	-	rate	o -		rate	_
pl.	xir	ra-					rate	
We excl.								
2	xamel	ma-		mal	0-		mate	_
3, 4	xametel	mata-	70	mate			mate	
pl.	xamem	ma-					mate	_
You								
2	xamil	mu-		mul	0-		mute	_
3, 4	xamitel	muta-	_	mut			mute	
pl.	xamim	mu-					mute	
They		1- 1						
They 2	xalu	lu-		lal	0-		lute	_
3, 4	xatel	lata-	_	lat			late	
pl.	xir	la-					late	_
ρ								
	IV: ±20±3	0+43	V: ±2	0 ±30	+56	VI: ±2	20 ±30 +	42+55
I	ni-		natae	ı—		natna	9 –	
You	u-		otaa-			otnaa		
He	i-		taa-			tenaa-	-	
We incl.								
2	rali-		rutas	i —		rutna	a-	
3, 4	rati-		ratas	ı—		ratna		
pl.	ri-		ratas	ı—		ratna	a-	
We excl.								
2	mali-		matas			matna		
3, 4	mati-		matas			matna		
pl.	ma-		matas	i —		matna	a-	
							Contin	ued overleaf.

TABLE 2 - continued from p.37

IV: ±20±30+43 V: ±20±30+56 VI: ±20±30+42+55

You			
2	muli-	mutaa-	mutnaa-
3, 4	muti-	mutaa-	mutnaa-
pl.	mu-	mutaa-	mutnaa-
They			
2	lali-	lutaa-	lutnaa-
3, 4	lati-	letaa-	letnaa-
pl.	li-	letaa-	letnaa-
		WII. 100 170 147	166

VII: ±20 ±30 +43 +55

I	ninaa-	You	
Ygu	onaa-	2	mulnaa-
Не	naa-	3, 4	mutnaa-
We incl.		pl.	munaa-
2 3, 4 pl.	ralnaa- ratnaa- rinaa-	They 2	lalnaa- letnaa-
We excl.	malnaa-	3, 4 pl.	linaa-
3, 4	matnaa-		
pl.	manaa-		

TABLE 3

	AORIST	BASIC #C	NEGATIVE	SUB	JUNCTIV	E (53, 54)
1	b-	v	(v)			
2	b-	v	(v)	m—	v-	
3	b-	h	v	m-	v-	
4	b-	$-\mathbf{h}$	v	m-	v-, ≈m-	- in P2 sg.
5	b-	h	(h)	m-	v-	
6	9-	h	(h)	m-	v-	
7	9-	h	x	m-	v-	
8	9-	x	(x)			
9	9-	Ø	x	m-	v-	
10	d –	t	(t)			

NOTES

1. The field work on which this study is based was carried out in June and July 1967, and was supported in part by a University of Hawaii Individual Research Grant.

The segmental phonemes of Southeast Ambrym are: voiceless stops /p t k/, voiced (prenasalised) stops /b d g/, spirants /v s x h/, nasals /m n η /, lateral /l/, tap or trill /r/; vowels /i e æ u o a/. /v/ is bilabial or bilabio-dental, with voiceless allophones in word-final position. It alternates freely with /p/ word-finally. /x/ is a post-velar spirant or a uvular trill; voiced allophones are far more frequent than voiceless ones in syllable-initial position. but only voiceless allophones occur syllable-finally. /x/ alternates freely with /k/ word-finally. The high vowels /i u/ have both syllabic and non-syllabic allophones. /u/ is non-syllabic [w]: (1) when (a) word-initial or immediately preceded by a labial, velar, or laryngeal consonant, and (b) immediately followed by /e/ or /i/; and (2) when immediately preceded by a back vowel /u o a/. /i/ is nonsyllabic [y] when immediately preceded by any vowel. Geminate vowel clusters are phonetically long.

- 2. This information is from personal communication with Mr Robert Tonkinson. Village names are written phonemically, with the exception of the underlined forms.
- 3. W.F. Paton, Language and Life of Ambrym, University of Sydney dissertation, 1956; South Pacific Commission Microfilm 79. I have not been able to consult this work.
- 4. A. Capell, A Linguistic Survey of the South-Western Pacific, Noumea, 1962, pp.214-215. SE Ambrym speakers claim to understand nothing of the northern language, and can use only Pidgin in contact situations. A sketch of a North Ambrym dialect is included in S.H. Ray, A Comparative Study of the Melanesian Island Languages, Cambridge, 1926, pp.333-

- 347, and a comparison of this data with my own clearly supports the contention that SE Ambrym and North Ambrym should be considered separate languages rather than dialects of a single language.
- 5. There is an intransitive subclass of *stative* stems which are never inflected. For the purpose of this paper, "verb" is used in a sense that excludes the stative class.
- 6. All examples are in phonemic transcription. "k" and "p" are never written word-finally, though /k p/ do occur there as free alternants of /x v/ respectively.
- 7. The obvious complementation between potential and subjunctive forms, as well as the semantic similarity involved, suggests an alternative analysis in which 41, 52, 53, 54 are combined as allomorphs of a single morpheme. The data is inconclusive as regards this question, though the informants accepted "subjunctive" forms (52, 53, 54) in independent clauses only for the stems ha Vint 'to go' and he Vtr''to go' (see 2.31.). It should also be noted here that forms showing both 41 and 51 are very few in the data, and must be checked.
- 8. Stems not inflectable for Aorist show initial /b k l m n η p r s t/. Initial /b t/ are rare: buring 'to be thick'; tæong 'to listen', tamea 'to wake up'. A unique stem with an initial vowel is ammei 'to come' (2.32.).
- 9. The transitive-intransitive distinction correlates with the presence-absence of 51 in the pairs: (1) *til Vtr 'sew', *titil Vint 'sew'; (2) tin Vtr 'burn', *titin Vint 'be hot'; (3) hil (*hil) Vtr 'dig', kil (*kil) Vint 'dig'. Thus: dini 'he burns it', mittin 'it is hot'; (mi)gili 'he digs it', (mi)kil 'he digs'.
- 10. bovo η belongs to a small class of stems which occur only with the dependent noun e as subject; thus no Class 20 and 30 prefixes may occur in the verb.

CORRIGENDA

At the time this article was written it was not known that a second summer of field work would be possible. The continued research has revealed several serious errors in the original analysis, and the following corrections must be made.

Page 29, line 4ff. The occurrence of 23 mi- is phonologically determined as follows: it never precedes labial consonants, is optional before /d/ and /g/, and is obligatory before all other consonants.

Page 29, sect. 1.14ff. The suspicion expressed in note 7 (see page 33) turned out to be justified. Prefixes 41, 52, 53, 54 must be combined into a single morpheme, Subjunctive, represented by a zero allomorph in P1 sg., P2 sg., and all plural persons of regular verbs and of irregular verbs of types 1, 8, and 10. Class 40 is then relabelled as simply "Tense".

Page 29, sect. 1.15. A new class 50 prefix, na- 'might', has been found. Co-occurring prefixes of other classes have the same shapes as before naa- in Table 2 VII; thus nina-, ona-, na-, ralna-, ratna-, rina-,

Page 31, last paragraph. The P2 sg. Subjunctive of hei 'weave' is ovei, not omei; thus criterion (3) of sect. 2.1. must be deleted, as well as irregular verb type 4 of Table 3.

Page 32, sect. 1.25. In addition to the allomorphs listed, 62 -Vx has the allomorph -x with stems with final $/\alpha$, and 63 -NI has a zero allomorph with stems ending in $/\alpha$ / or /i/.

Page 33, sect. 2.1., line 2. For "case" read "base".

Page 35, first complete paragraph. The stems glossed as 'walk', and 'whistle (of the wind)' have been rephonemicized as kaakau and siisi respectively. Valid examples of the

phenomenon in question are: mæmæi 'yawn', leleni 'have a premonition of', tata 'cut repeatedly'.

Page 37, Table 2. In pronoun column, for xamel, xametel, xamem, respectively, read xamæl, xamætel, xamæm. The P3 plural pronoun should read xil, not xir. In column IV the We excl. pl. form should read mu-, not ma-. A second P2 plural pronoun, xami, has been found, which contrasts with xamim in that the latter refers to a group of definite size. This contrast is not reflected in the verb prefixes.

A PATTERN OF MORPHOPHONEMIC ALTERNATION IN NGUNA, NEW HEBRIDES¹

A.J. SCHÜTZ

In a 1927 publication, ² Dempwolff discussed the morphophonemic alternation of certain initial consonants in the dialects of Epi, stating that these were the only dialects in which the alternation was still an active process. His unawareness of a very similar process in Nguna and some closely related languages ³ can be traced to some curious omissions in S.H. Ray's grammatical sketches of Nguna.

Ray's first work on Nguna appeared in 1887, the year he began his study of Melanesian languages. 4 In it he noted that "the letter changes so common in Sesake and Faté [Efate] occur also in Nguna. k changes to q[n], p to v, q [a bilabial implosive, later written as p] to w, r to t, ..."5. Since Ray's data were restricted to a translation of Matthew and Mark, it is unlikely that he had enough information to produce a paradigm showing clearly the pattern of the alternation. This might also explain a similar omission in his work on Epi (Baki dialect), which appeared in 1889. It wasn't until 1893 that the alternation was more fully described. Again for the Baki dialect, "modification of initial consonant" was noted as one of the markers for tense. In a verb paradigm listed, forms with mb- were used in the "indefinite" tense; those with v- for future tense. 6 Through chance, the alternation does not show in the Efate (which dialect is not stated) paradigm; if forms without the future particle wo had been elicited, the alternate consonants would have been used, and later Dempwolff would have been able to see that this phenomenon was not limited to Epi. In spite of the abundance of material in Nguna that was made available in the intervening years, and the notes and corrections provided by the field missionaries Milne and Michelesen, in 1926. Ray still found it

possible to say of the Nguna consonant alternation, "The changes appear to have no grammatical signification." It wasn't until over twenty years later that someone wrote a description of the environments for the two classes of consonants. The Reverend Graham Miller listed the pairs in the following order: 8

Primary	Secondary
р	v
p̃	w
9	k
t	r

He gave the environments for the secondary forms:

- 1. Directly after any of three morphemes: pa, used for imperative, conditional, and incomplete action; ga, non-past and subjunctive; and pe, conditional.
 - 2. As the first consonant of any adjective form.
- 3. As the first consonant of the base in reduplicated forms.
 - 4. In passive constructions.

For the material it covers, this description is adequate. But the listing of environments is not exhaustive; there are other cases in which the so-called secondary form is used.

It finally becomes apparent that the description would be simplified by using the other form for the base. The newly-designated secondary form now occurs under the following conditions:

1. Directly after all of the set of pronoun-verbal markers.

Base	Secondary form
vano	e pano 'he goes'
warua	eu parua 'they're big'
kani	a ganikani 'I eat'
rogo	ku togo 'you hear'

2. Within this construction, any tense or aspect marker can be inserted between the verbal marker and the verb,

except those three morphemes listed above - pa, ga and pe, which require the base form.

pa vano 'go (imperative)'
a ga vano 'I'm going'
e pe vano 'if he goes'

So far this seems like a problem merely in economy of description. But when viewed in the light of some other phenomena in the Austronesian languages of Oceania, it provides information that may ultimately help clarify one of the more puzzling problems of the comparative linguistics of this area.

There are many Proto-Austronesian etyma for which the cognate forms in some cases reflect in initial position a simple Proto-Austronesian obstruent, while in others they reflect a cluster of that obstruent preceded by its homorganic nasal. Sometimes this results in doublets in the same language, such as Fijian rua 'two' and nrua 'twins'. This phenomenon is unexplained, but is clearly of considerable interest to the reconstruction of the history of the languages involved, and may be of particular interest to problems of subgrouping.

It has been hypothesised, for example in Dyen's 1949 and Grace's 1959 works, that the simple obstruent and the nasal cluster derive from different members of some sort of paradigm that existed at an earlier period of history. However, no systematic distinctions in either meaning or function between forms of the two types have been noted in the better-studied languages of Oceania. Nguna is unusual in that the pattern of morphophonemic alternation just described is an example of a system of paradigmatic relations of the general sort hypothesised. That is, the set of consonants occurring as the base form can be considered as the reflex of the simple obstruent, and the set occurring in the other positions as the reflex of the nasal cluster.

As for the phonetic shapes of the present reflexes, in the course of development, the sets of consonants in some languages have been considerably reduced. This has often taken the form of loss of nasalisation in the complex set, and spirantisation of the non-nasalised set, so that no segmentation is possible. This has happened to an extent in Nguna, but some of the related languages still show pairs like t - nd and v - mb. 9

Although the shape of this hypothetical morpheme is difficult to determine, its function may be better guessed at from the Nguna data than from previous information. Its primary function seems to have been verbal, possibly marking some grammatical function exclusive of the general nature of the exceptions mentioned before: imperative, incomplete, subjunctive, non-past, and conditional.

A clearer knowledge of these alternations in Nguna has simplified one complexity in the comparison of the consonant systems of Nguna and Fijian. It first appeared that Nguna initial /p/ corresponds to both /v/ and /b/ in Fijian. For example:

Nguna	Fijia	Fijian			
pano	vano	lgo'			
piisa	vica	'how many'			
peepe	bebe	'butterfly'			
pati	bati	'tooth'			

But by using /v/ as the base form for those Nguna words that do permit alternation, the correspondence is restated as /v/ to /v/. This also seems to hold for those words that do not permit an alternation: Nguna vonu and Fijian vonu 'turtle'. Nguna initial /p/ with no alternation corresponds to Fijian /b/, as in the examples above.

However, the medial occurrences of the nasal clusters have never been explained satisfactorily. This problem exists in Nguna, with a seemingly unique complication. The members of each pair, alternating in initial position, are in partial complementary phonological distribution medially. For example, for the pair /p,v/, the former often occurs after doubled yowels:

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loopu 'bamboo'
noopa 'cabbage'
laapa 'many'
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/v/ usually occurs in other positions:

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nanova 'yesterday'
nasava 'what'
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An even more complex problem is presented by the major allophones of /t/, [t] and [d]. Although the members of this pair contrast in closely-related Tongoa and have been written separately since the orthography was established, there are no examples of contrast in Nguna. Even though the lines have been blurred by the influence of the writing system, there is a pattern of complementary phonological distribution and free variation that accounts for all instances of [t] and [d] except those that fit the morphophonemic pattern described above. Obviously, this poses some theoretical problems for those who hesitate to describe allophonic variation by using morphological criteria.

NOTES

1. An earlier version of this paper was read at the winter, 1966, meeting of the Linguistic Society of America. The field research in the summer of 1966 was supported by a grant from the University of Hawaii Research Council; that in the following summer by a grant from the National Science Foundation.

The historical part of the paper is based on suggestions from George $W.\ Grace.$

- 2. Capell 1962:217. I have not seen the original article.
- 3. Some more distantly related languages have a much more complicated system of morphophonemic alternation. See Gary J. Parker's discussion of Ambrym.
- 4. Ray 1926: vii.
- 5. Ray 1897:409.
- 6. Ray 1889:104.
- 7. Ray 1926:196.
- 8. Miller 1948 (?). No pagination.
- 9. Tongoa has retained the prenasalised consonants.

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THE PHONETIC NATURE OF FIJIAN CONSONANT CORRESPONDENCES

A.J. SCHÜTZ

O. INTRODUCTION

This article was suggested by a discussion in Paul L. Garvin's Language Data Processing Seminar, held at Indiana University in 1964. The writer had begun to devise a programme for computer recognition of cognates among Fijian dialects. But the large number of borrowings, usually unrecognisable from phonemic shape alone but demonstrable from limited historical records, led to the replacing of "cognate" by "phonetically similar form". The method of viewing the data then, was changed from diachronic to synchronic; and for the time being, the genetic hypothesis was laid aside.

The purpose of this method of comparison is to determine the degree of relationship (relative similarity of forms) by comparison and measurement. Its ultimate utility might be similar to that of a contrastive analysis of two unrelated languages: to provide a basis for second-dialect teaching material, or for the measurement of degree of mutual intelligibility.

1. COMPARISON

For the computer project, it was found that a modified distinctive feature approach revealed certain phonetic patterns among the correspondences. All the contrasts within the consonant systems can be accounted for by listing the following components. It should be noticed that although position and manner are obligatory, co-feature is an optional category: none, one, or both of the co-features may be present.

Position	Manne r	Co-feature
labial	stop	nasalisation
dental	spirant	labialisation
alveolar	nasal	
velar	trill	
glottal	lateral	
	glide	

It is possible to use the overall pattern of consonants for the various dialects as a base that will allow a description of the correspondences in terms of differences among the components.

						-
р		t	k	kw	?	
mb		nd	η_{g}	ngw sw		
		S	x	ϵ^{W}	h	
β	ð					
m		n	ŋ	\mathfrak{p}^{w}		
		r				
		$n_{\mathbf{r}}$				
		-1				
w		y.				

The types of correspondences that exist, excluding those exemplified by [t]: $[t]^3$ are:

1. Position

2. Manner

a. stop: spirant
$$[p]: [\beta], [k]: [x]$$

3. Co-feature

a. non-nasalised: nasalised [r]
$$[n]$$
, [t]: $[n]$, [k]: $[n]$ g]

Shifts involving labialisation, applying only to the velar position, are the only kind operating on all the members of a component group. Thus, there are no systems with labialisation of only one velar consonant. But each system with a set of labialised velars has a contrasting set of non-labialised velars.

The non-nasalised - nasalised correspondence for stops operates either at one position (alveolar) or two (alveolar and velar), but never at three. There are sporadic examples of $[^mb]:[p]$, but not extensive enough to seem significant. 4

Except for the occasional $[p]:[\beta]$ correspondence, the only stop:spirant correspondence is at the velar position. A [t]:spirant correspondence is at the velar position. A [t]:spirant shift is unlikely since both the dental and alveolar positions in the spirant manner are filled.

NOTES

- 1. The project, "A Program for the Determination of Lexical Similarity", was part of the Linguistic Institute's Language Data Processing Seminar. A project report, by the present writer and Jerome Wenker, appears in Computation in Linguistics: A Case Book, edited by Paul L. Garvin and Bernard Spolsky, Indiana University Press, 1966.
- 2. C.F. Hockett's comments on this type of problem: "In the case of dialects of a single language, the sorting out of cognates from loans or accidental resemblances is exceedingly difficult. And when we remember that a group of related dialects need by no means be descendants of an earlier more homogeneous form of speech, we see that the logical basis for the contrast between cognates and loans is lacking..." A Course in Modern Linguistics, Macmillan, 1958, pp.486,7.
- 3. For the sake of consistency, square brackets have been used throughout.
- 4. The programme, however, did recognise this pair as "phonetically similar", since the relationship between the members is the same as that between [d] and [t]. "Significant" here is based on the writer's impressions. Nowhere could he find statistical criteria for determining which sound correspondences are regular and which are irregular.