# THE DISTRIBUTION OF PHONEMES IN AUSTRALIAN ABORIGINAL LANGUAGES

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#### INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to present an analysis of the phonological systems of Australian aboriginal languages. For such an analysis it is necessary to examine the types of phonemes that constitute a phonological system and the contrasting characteristics of the systemic arrangements.

The approach adopted looks at the types of position of articulation arrangements within manner of articulation classes. Of all the possible combinations that are permutable in each class of sounds it is found that only a small number are ever realised. For example, the stop arrangement of /b d g/ is never found, for the only 4-stop position arrangement occurring in Australian languages is /b d d y g/.

The areal distributions of these distributional systems can also be examined, and it should be noted that areal congruence is as equally important as areal diversity, for both can suggest diachronic development and synchronic relations. Appendix 1 contains the areal distributions that correspond to the systemic arrangements, with Map 1 indicating the approximate positions of the languages studied.

# 1.O. CONSONANT PHONEMES

Table 1 is a listing of the consonants that have been recorded in the languages studied; the horizontal arrangement of positions of articulation reflects the preferred emphasis on the active articulator rather than the passive place of articulation (Dixon 1980:20). The vertical arrangement of manners of articulation represents the order of the analysis in the following sections.

TABLE 1: CONSONANT PHONEMES

	Api	ical	Lam	inal	Per	ipheral	L		
	Alveolar	Retroflex	Dental	Palatal	Bilabial		Palato- velar	Glottal	
stops	d	ģ	₫	ďγ	Ь	9	9 j	7	
2ml series stops	t	ţ	ţ	tΥ	р	k			
Prenasalised stops	nď	ùq	nd	n Yd Y	mb	ŋg	njgj		
nasals	n	ņ	Д	n <sup>y</sup>	m	ŋ	rjj		
laterals	1	]	1	lγ					
Prestopped nasals	N	Ņ	Ŋ	Ny	М	Ŋ			
Prestopped laterals	L	Ļ	Ļ	LY					
Prepalatalised	Yd/Yn YN/Y]								
Rhotic release stops prenasals	d <sup>r</sup>	₫ <sup>r</sup>							
Labialised stops	dw	٩w			PM	gw			
prenasals	ndW			nydyw	mbw	ŋgw			
prestopped nasals					MM	Ŋw			
laterals		jw							
Rhotics flap	r								
trill	ř								
Glided rhotics	1	R							
Glides			X	У	w/	W			
Fricatives	s/z		ð	3	β	Y			

The tabular representation given is also indicative of the sound represented by the symbol employed with the following exceptions. The choice of the voiced symbols for the stop series and the voiceless for the second series stops does not necessarily represent the true nature of the distinction in any language. It is a device that reflects a marking phenomenon in Australian linguistics, for it is normal practice for single stop series languages to be represented by either set of symbols; some researchers prefer the voiced, others the voiceless. The voiced symbols are used throughout this analysis for languages with no contrast, voiceless symbols for when a contrast is present. In language names the presence of the voiceless symbol does not necessarily indicate the occurrence of a second stop series, but is rather the preference of the researcher concerned or an idiosyncrasy of mine. Some modifications to language names have been made for ease of orthographic representation.

The use of capital letters to represent phonemes is restricted to prestopping and rhotics, and is an orthographic device representing this phenomenon, discussed in 1.7. and 1.11. below.

It could be argued that those sounds represented by two symbols, like prenasalised stops, prepalatals and labialised consonants could perhaps be better treated as clusters. However, for the purpose of systematic analysis, author preference has been overlooked. Take for example, prenasalised stops. Burera has initial homorganic nasal and stop clusters which are treated as such (Glasgow and Glasgow 1962:10); Alawa is recorded as having prenasalised stops (Sharpe 1972:14). I have treated both languages in the same manner and record them as having prenasalised stops. However, in those languages where a researcher has not marked initial clusters as prenasalised stops I will indicate these by placing the word 'initial' in brackets after the language name.

Note that a question mark in brackets after a language name indicates uncertainty on the part of the researcher or myself. Also, the number and percentage figures that occur after each arrangement indicates the number of languages having this set of phonemes. The percentage is the proportion this group occupies out of the total number of languages sampled.

# 1.1. STOP CONSONANTS

We shall exclude the glottal stop from this section (see 1.2. below) and examine the arrangement patterns of the seven remaining stops. The following five arrangements are found, the distributions are set out below:

b d dy g
b d d (d) dy g; g

# 1.1.1. b d dy g (21 = 15.65%)

Guugu-Yalanji Lenngidigh Mabuiag Gidabal Mulurudji Lama-lama Gureng-gureng Malag-malag Waka-waka Ngarigu Warungu Djaabugay Dyirbal Ngengomeri Wargamay Tiwi Nganjaywana Waalubal Maranunggu Nyangumarda Yidiny

It should be noted that in the single laminal languages, namely 1.1.1. and 1.1.2., some authors prefer to use the dental symbol rather than the palatal. The reason appears to rest in the allophonic alternation of the two. In Tiwi, for example, /dy/ is found preceding /i/, /d/ elsewhere (Osborne 1974:10). Obviously the dental occurs in more environments than the palatal and thus the preferred symbol is the dental. The other languages that have this preference for the dental symbol are Mabuiag, Lama-lama, Lenngidigh, and in 1.1.2., Madi-madi. Preference is given to uniformity and the laminal palatal symbol is used in languages with no laminal contrast. This type of phenomenon supports the diachronic evidence on the development of two laminals from one (Dixon 1970b:92).

The areal distribution of the 4-stop arrangement is found on Map 2, Appendix 1. This type occurs along the east coastal regions of Australia, Cape York and the Daly River region of the Northern Territory. Only one example, Nyangumarda, is found in Western Australia. It appears that the central region is devoid of this type. It should be noted that the areal distribution covers only those languages studied. Therefore the claim of non-appearance is not absolute, but rather a suggestion of the distribution pattern of a certain phenomenon. This caveat applies throughout the study.

# 1.1.2. b d d dy g (29 = 21.64%)

Andagerinja Bard Gugada Alawa Pitjantjatjara Djaru Burera Gugandji Djeebana Pungu-pungu Garadjari Mayali

Pintupi Gunwinggu Mantjiltjara Madi-madi NjungaR Wadaman Mara Rembarnga Walmatjari Maung Wadyiginy Waramunga Ngarinjin Walpiri Wambaya Ngarla Yiwadja

The double apical, single laminal languages are restricted to the western half of the continent. On Map 3 we see that Madi-madi is the only language that occurs east of the eastern Northern Territory-South Australian border.

### 1.1.3. b d $\underline{d}$ dy g (33 = 24.63%)

Aridingidigh Kuku-Thaypan Ngangikurrungurr Awngdim Guugu-Yimidhirr Ngiyamba Umbila Thaayore Ndra?angid Ludigh Umbuygamu Dhurga Brinken Dharawal Wikmunkan Gugu-Badhun Mbabaram Wik-Ep Kunj en Mbeiwum Wikmumin Mbalidjan Yir-Yoront Kurtjar Gog-Nar Mpakwithi Yathaikana Koko-Bera Mbara Yinwum Kuuku-Ya?u Nggod Yuwaalaraay

In Guugu-Yimidhirr John Haviland (personal communication) reports the possibility of retroflex stops and nasals for he found the regular occurrence of initial retroflexes in a few cases. Initial occurrence is quite significant for it is in this position that the retroflex and alveolar distinction can be neutralised, as in the case of some Mara words for example (Busby 1978:3-4).

On Map 5 we find the areal distribution of the double laminal, single apical languages. They are predominantly restricted to the Cape York region, with two cases in the Daly River area: Brinken and Ngangikurrungurr. These are the only two examples west of the eastern north-south Northern Territory-South Australian borders.

#### 1.1.4. b d d d d $^{y}$ g (47 = 35.07%)

Andiljaugwa	Kitja	Nunggubuyu
Andegeribina	Djamindjung	Lardil
Alyawarra	Djabu	Ritharngu
Arabana	Djambarrpuynggu	Warramiri

Aranda Thargari Wangurri Bidyara Dalabon Wagilak Pita-pita Datiway Wanggumara Bailko Diyari Wangganguru Kaitit.i Malyangapa Waluwara Gubabuyngu Murawari Wemba-wemba Kukatj Mandelbingu Yinytyiparnti Galpu Margany Yanhangu Gungabula Murinbata Yandruwandha Kuthant Ngawun Yukulta Kalkatungu Ngaluma Yaraldi Kurama Nanta

Note that Dalabon may not have the dental series. O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin (1966:61) are uncertain of its status, whilst Capell (1962:93) lists them as phonemic. The distribution of this 6-stop arrangement, Map 4, is rather scattered, with only Cape York and the east coast being exempt. Gungabula and Bidyara in central Queensland and Murawari on the Queensland border are the most eastern occurrences, Yaraldi and Wemba-wemba are the most southern.

# 1.1.5. b d d (d) dy gj g (4 = 2.99%)

Djingili Garawa Ngarndji Yanyula

Of these four languages only Yanyula has the full seven stops, the other three lack the dental. We can see on Map 6 that these languages are restricted to a small area west of the southern end of the Gulf of Carpentaria. Djingili and Ngarndji are in the Djingili-Wambayan language family, whilst Yanyula and Garawa do not appear to be related despite their geographical closeness. Of all four, only Yanyula is a prefixing language (Wurm 1972:118-119). It is interesting to note that Gudandji, occurring between the two groups, is a double apical, single laminal language. Wambaya has the same system as Gudandji and occurs south of Djingili.

#### 1.2. GLOTTAL STOP

Capell remarked that the glottal stop is found "almost exclusively in Cape York Peninsula and Arnhem Land" (Capell 1967:91); with the exception of Nanta in Western Australia, this statement holds true. In the Arnhem Land languages the glottal stop may be considered a syllable prosody (Dixon, personal communication), although only a few researchers

have recorded it as such. In only Gunwinggu (Carroll 1976:15) and Rembarnga (McKay 1975b:14) we find this aspect mentioned.

#### 1.2.1. Arnhem Land Languages

Gunwinggu	Djambarrpuynggu	Warramiri
Galpu	Djabu	Wangurri
Gubabuyngu	Mandelbingu	Wagilak
Datiway	Ritharngu	Yanhangu
Dalabon	Rembarnga	

# 1.2.2. Other Languages

Awngdim	Murinbata	Lenngidigh
Umbuygamu	Maung	Lama-lama
Umbila	Nggod	Wikmunkan
Kuuku-Ya <sup>o</sup> u	Ndra angid	Wik-Ep
Thaayore	Nanta (?)	Yinwum
Mpakwithi	Ludigh	Yir-Yoront
Mayali		

The glottal stop occurs in only one word in Murinbata; /mu?mun/
'water rat' (Walsh 1976:25). Map 7 shows the areal distribution where
we see that the only exception to Capell's observation is Nanta on the
West Australian coast. It is of importance to note that the source of
the Nanta material was O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin (1966:61) and not
the result of an in-depth study. Their material varies in quality. In
Aranda, for instance, there is agreement with other researchers, whilst
in others, like Brinken there are differences. Tryon recorded no retroflexes, no dental except the stop, no vowel length and the possible
occurrence of schwa (Tryon 1974:71) in Brinken in comparison to the
phonemic system given by O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin. In this
instance I have used Tryon's material.

#### 1.3. SECOND SERIES STOPS

In the analysis of languages under study there has been a natural division in double stop phonologies. The first of these was in Arnhem Land, the second was a more geographical diverse group. The same type of division can be found with glottal stop occurrences (see 1.2. above).

For those languages with a specification following, the label indicates the choice of the researcher.

#### 1.3.1. Arnhem Land Languages

These languages appear to have a distinction only in certain environments and under some morphophonemic constraints. In Mayali, the distinction is found intervocalically and after some sonorants (Merlan, personal communication); in Galpu the situation seems to be similar (Wood 1977:28).

Burera Mayali (lenis/fortis) Gubabuyngu (gem./non-gem.) Ngangikurrungurr Galpu Rembarnga (gem./non-gem.) Ritharngu (lenis/fortis) Djambarrpuynggu Diabu Wangurri Djeebana (gem./non-gem.) Warramiri Datiway Wagilak Mandelbingu Yanhangu

Burera is included even though Glasgow and Glasgow (1962) dismiss the second series. Tryon reported them and states that their behaviour is similar to others in this group (Tryon 1974:231). Ngangikurrungurr is reported as having a double stop system on one hand (Courtenay 1976: n.p.), whilst on the other they have been dismissed for morphophonemic reasons (Tryon 1974:231). Tryon also remarked that the same phenomenon occurs in some of his Daly River languages, and these perhaps should be included in this language group. The predictability, however, of the second series of stops is still unclear in some of the languages within this Arnhem Land group.

#### 1.3.2. Other Languages

Umbuygamu (voiced/voiceless)

Kunjen (aspirate/non-aspirate)

Diyari (voiced/voiceless)

Murinbata (voiced/voiceless)

Margany (tense/lax)

Meiwum (voiced/voiceless)

Matuwara (voiced/voiceless)

Matuwara (voiced/voiceless)

Matuwara (voiced/voiceless)

Matuwara (voiced/voiceless)

Matuwara (voiced/voiceless)

Yandruwandha (voiced/voiceless)

In Diyari only two voiced stop phonemes occur, namely the apicals /d/ and /d/ (Austin 1978a:51). In the case of Djamindjung and Murinbata the situation is similar to Ngangikurrungurr in that these two languages lack the dentals /d/ and /n/. Because of this peculiarity, Walsh sets up /t/ as a marginal phoneme in both cases (Walsh 1976:24 and personal communication). In Waramunga, Hale (1959c:1) reports that  $C \rightarrow [+gem] / V \longrightarrow However$ , we do find geminate nasals [+stop]

and laterals in his fieldnotes. It has also been reported that "all consonants except semi-vowels and the flap can be geminated" (Chakravarti 1976:7); thus the phonemic status of this phenomenon is unclear.

Finally, the occurrence of voiceless and voiced stops in Waluwara is in complementary distribution with vowel length (Breen 1971:24). For example, we find /pantu/ 'waist' and /pandu/ 'butt of tree' (Dixon personal communication). I have followed Breen's analysis and specified the distinction as voiced/voiceless as opposed to vowel length.

It will be noticed that the five methods of distinction: (voiced/voiceless), (aspirate/non-aspirate), (tense/lax), (fortis/lenis) and (geminate/non-geminate) are not mutually exclusive. In Galpu, for instance, the distinction was reported to be fortis, voiceless, geminate/lenis, voiced, non-geminate (Wood 1977:28). The areal distribution of the second stop series is found on Map 8.

#### 1.4. PRENASALISED STOPS

As well as the previous comments on prenasalisation above (1.0.), I wish to make the further point that I am not making the claim that in Australian languages the syllable structure is such that in any word the initial consonant position will be filled by a unit phoneme alone. The use of the term prenasalised stop to describe initial clusters of a homorganic nasal and stop is a device to register similarity, thus recording the extent of initial clusters and prenasalised stops.

The occurrence of the word 'initial' in brackets indicates the recording of initial clusters which have not been described as prenasalised stops.

Alyawarra (?)

Alawa

Aridingidigh (initial)

Andegeribina

Burera (initial)

Kalkatungu (initial)

Kaititj (?)

Kuku-Thaypan

Mbabaram (initial)

Mbara

Mara

Mpakwithi

Mbeiwum (initial)

Mbalidjan

Ndra?angid (initial)

Nggod (initial)

Lama-lama

Yanyula (initial)

Yinwum

Both Alyawarra and Kaititj are included in this section because prenasalised stops do occur at the phonetic level. Their analysis at the phonemic level is, however, another problem (Koch, personal communication). In Kalkatungu there is only the recording of three initial

clusters, namely /mb/, /nd/ and /ng/ (Blake 1969:7). It should be noted that Jagst sets up a series of prenasalised stops in Walpiri because of one instance of initial /mb/ (Jagst 1975:21). However on the basis of other data (Dixon, personal communication) and because it is only one instance, a series of prenasalised stops shall not be included.

Map 9 shows the areal diversity of prenasalised stops. We find that Cape York has a large percentage and these languages are known as being some of the Initial Dropping Languages (Sutton 1976:102-124). These languages have the diachronic development of for instance, /bamba/ > /mba/ and thus we find synchronically, the initial homorganic nasal and stop cluster (Dixon 1980:4). Eastern Arnhem Land and Central Australia are the other areas where prenasalised stops are present.

#### 1.5. NASALS

The most powerful generalization opposed by not a single exception, is that the number of linear distinctions made among oral stops in a given language is identical with the number of linear distinctions made among nasals.

(O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966:57)

This complements Ferguson's universal claim that no language has more nasal positions than stop positions (Ferguson 1966:57).

Such a statement is fairly representative of the number of nasals in the majority of Australian languages. There are, however, a small group of languages which do not have a one-to-one correspondence of nasal and stop positions. The first type is found in Djingili and Ngarndji (Cll and 12 on Map 10) where the palato-velar nasal /ŋj/ is not present. It is interesting to note that the other two languages with the equivalent stop arrangement, Garawa and Yanyula, have the corresponding nasal.

The second type of unequal correspondence involves the laminal nasal. In double laminal stop languages the dental nasal is either subphonemic or absent. This is the case in the languages:

Djamindjung Wemba-wenba
Murinbata Awngdim (?)
Ngangikurrungurr Brinken
Gugu-Badhun

[n] elsewhere (Sutton 1973:78). This is the same environment for the laminal stop alternation in Tiwi (see 1.1.1. above).

In the single laminal stop languages we find only two cases where the laminal nasal is absent, Mabuiag and Lama-lama in Cape York. Map 10 shows that the languages where the number of stops is greater than the number of nasals are restricted to Cape York and Arnhem Land; Wemba-wemba on the Murray River is the only exception.

It is important to note that all languages have the same number of apical stops as apical nasals. Peripheral stops and nasals are also in a one-to-one correspondence excepting the palato-velar nasal as specified above. It is in the laminals that we find the cases where the number of nasals and stops can be unequal.

#### 1.6. LATERALS

Two points are worth noting in the discussion of the following position arrangements of laterals found in Australian languages. The first is directed at the type of analysis employed. Lateral position arrangements are discussed in terms of symmetry, where a one-to-one correspondence of laterals with non-peripheral stops is a symmetrical system. The non-symmetrical systems are listed according to stop arrangements. This gives us two sets of figures, discussed in 1.6.6. below.

The second point concerns the types of systems that do not occur. We do not find that the number of laterals is greater than the number of non-peripheral stops in any language. We also find that all languages with two laminal laterals also have two apical laterals. The single laminal lateral, single apical lateral type (1.6.2.) is small in number, suggesting that the laminal laterals are more phonologically complex. In nasals we saw that it was the laminal, or the laminal dental in double laminal stop languages, that may be subphonemic or absent. We may therefore suggest that laminals, especially the dental place of articulation, is more complex in the sense of an implied hierarchy of phonological complexity.

# 1.6.1. | (51 = 38.06%)

Symmetrical: Ø

Non-symmetrical:

Stop type 1 (b d d g)

Gugu-Yalanji Tiwi Wargamay Gidabal Mulurudji Warungu Gureng-gureng Mabuiag Waalubal

	Djaabuga Dyirbal	У				Maranunggu Lenngidigh Lama-lama		Waka-waka Yidiny
Stop	Type 2 Djeebana		d	ġ	dУ	g)		
Stop	Type 3	(ь	d	₫	dУ	g)		
	Awngdim					Kuku-Thaypa	an	Ngiyamba
	Aridingi	digl	h			Thaayore		Ndra?angid
	Umbila					Dhurga		Ludigh
	Guugu-Yi	mid	hir	r		Dharawal		Wikmumin
	Gugu-Bad	lhun				Mbara		Wik-Ep
	Koko-Ber	a				Mpakwithi		Wikmunkan
	Kunjen					Mbalidjan		Yathaikana
	Kurtjar					Mbeiwum		Yinwum
	Gog-Nar					Mbabaram		Yuwaalaraay
	Kuuku-Ya	ı°u				Ngangikurr	ungurr	Nggod
Stop	Type 4	(ь	d	ģ	ф	dγ g)		
	Bidyara					Lardil		
	Gungabul	.a				Wemba-wemba	a	

On Map 11 we see the areal distribution of the single lateral languages restricted to Cape York and the east coast of Australia. The most inland languages are Wemba-wemba and Yuwaalaraay. In Arnhem Land we find the four languages Tiwi, Ngangikurrungurr, Maranunggu and Djeebana.

#### 1.6.2. | 1 | 1 | (9 = 6.72%)

This surprisingly is quite rare, occurring in only the following nine languages:

# Symmetrical:

Stop Type 1 (b d d g)

Malag-malag Nganjaywana Ngarigu Ngengomeri Nyangumarda

# Non-symmetrical:

Stop Type 2 (b d d d g)
Yiwadja

Stop Type 3 (b d d d d) g)
Umbuygamu Brinken Yir-Yoront

There appears to be no areal congruence of this system. Map 12 shows us Nganjaywana in the east for instance and the Daly River languages in the north-west of Arnhem Land.

### 1.6.3. | | 1 | 1 | (30 = 22.39%)

#### Symmetrical:

Stop Type 2 (b d d dy g) Alawa Bard Garadjari Pintupi Andagerinja Gugada Pitjantjatjara Gugandji Djaru Madi-madi Ngarinjin Waramunga Maung Ngarla Walmatjari Mantjiltjara NjungaR Wadaman

Wambaya

# Non-symmetrical:

Mayali

Stop Type 4 (b d d d d d g)

Kitja Murinbata Malyangapa
Djamindjung Margany Nunggubuyu

Stop Type 5 (b d d (d) d g g g)

Garawa Djingili Ngarndji

Areally, we find that there are two cases east of the eastern Northern Territory-South Australian north-south border (Map 13). They are Margany and Madi-madi; the rest of the languages in this lateral arrangement are scattered over the western three-quarters of the continent.

Walpiri

## 1.6.4. 1 ] (26 = 19.14%)

# Symmetrical: Ø Non-symmetrical:

Stop Type 2 (b d d d d) g)

Pungu-pungu Gunwinggu Rembarnga Burera Mara Wadyiginy

# Stop Type 4 (b d d d d g)

Kurama Datiway Gubabuyngu Djabu Dalabon Galpu Kukat.i Djambarrpuynggu Mandelbingu Murawari Kuthant Thargari Wangurri Yinytyiparnti Ngawun Yanhangu Ritharngu Warramiri Wagilak Yukulta

Murawari may have the laminal palatal lateral, the status however, is uncertain (Oates 1976:244). On Map 14 we notice that there is a concentration of languages in eastern Arnhem Land, in the western area the Daly River languages Pungu-pungu and Wadyiginy. In Western Australia we find a few cases, but none are found in the central region of the continent. To the south of the Gulf of Carpentaria we find a few languages, the most inland being Ngawun. The most eastern case appears to be Murawari on the Queensland-New South Wales border.

# 1.6.5. 1 1 1 17 (18 = 13.43%)

#### Symmetrical:

Stop Type 4 (b d d d d y g)

Andegeribina Pita-pita Nanta Aranda Kalkatungu Waluwara Alyawarra Kaititj Wanggumara Arabana Diyari Wangganguru Yaraldi Andiljaugwa Ngaluma Bailko Yandruwandha

Stop Type 5 (b d d (d) d' gj g)
Yanyula

#### Non-symmetrical: Ø

Map 15 shows that the 4-lateral type is found predominantly in central Australia. Yaraldi on the mouth of the Murray River is the most southern language. Yanyula and Andiljaugwa in Arnhem Land and a few cases in Western Australia are the only other cases outside this central region.

#### 1.6.6. Stop and Lateral Distributions

Table 2 shows the percentages of membership to each combination. The zero components (those shown as  $\emptyset$ ) are predictable in most cases for there cannot be a lateral which has no corresponding stop phoneme. Therefore type 1 stop system cannot occur with types 3-5 lateral systems. A type 3 stop system is a single apical and is thus excluded from lateral system types 3-5. Type 5 stop system includes only four languages so we would expect gaps in its lateral series membership. However we find the null set for type 4 stop system and type 2 lateral system. In other words, we find no instances of the stop and lateral combination of:

TABLE 2: PERCENTAGES OF STOP AND LATERAL DISTRIBUTIONS

2.1. Later	al	group by	% of —	in each : cal Σ of			ateral gro
				stop	group		
		1	2	3	4	5	Σ
	1	31.37	1.96	58.83	7.84	ø	100.00
lateral	2	55.56	11.11	33.33	ø	ø	100.00
group	3	ø	70.00	ø	20.00	10.00	100.00
	4	ø	23.08	ø	76.92	ø	100.00
	5	ø	ø	ø	94.44	5.56	100.00
				of each :	stop type		eral group
2.2. Later	·al	group by	% of —	tal Σ of	stops in	e in late	
2.2. Later	al	group by	% of —	tal Σ of		e in late	eral group
2.2. Later	al	group by	% of —	tal Σ of	stops in	e in late	eral group
2.2. Later	al		% of — To	tal Σ of	stops in	e in lato	eral group
		1	% of	tal Σ of later:	stops in	e in late n each s	eral group top group Σ
2.2. Later stop group	1	1 76.19	% of	tal Σ of later: 3	stops in al group 4	e in late n each s 5 ø	eral group top group Σ 100.00
stop	1 2	1 76.19 3.45	% of To-	tal Σ of later: 3 ø 72.41	stops in al group 4 ø 20.69	e in late n each s 5 ø	eral group top group Σ 100.00

It is worth noting the following more common combinations from both tables:

On the other hand, unlikely combinations are as equally relevant, for example:

stop type 2 and lateral type 1 b d d d g s

stop type 4 and lateral type 1 b d d d d d g d g

stop type 4 and lateral type 3 b d d d d g d g

l l l l y

#### 1.7. PRESTOPPING

This section concerns prestopped nasals and laterals. It is felt that in terms of distribution, it is better to regard this phenomenon as prestopping rather than "stops with nasal release" (O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966:59) and laterally released stops. Phonotactically, prestopped nasals for instance have the same distribution as nasals in Kaititj (Koch, personal communication), and sometimes alternate with long nasals in both Kaititj and Alyawarra (Yallop 1977: 12).

Prestopped nasals occur in the following languages:

Arahaa Kaititj
Alyawarra Kunjen Wangganguru

Arabana and Wangganguru lack the retroflex and velar prestopped nasal, the other languages have six except Kunjen with five, for the retroflex is absent in this case.

Prestopped laterals are found in Yandruwandha, Arabana and Wangganguru. Again, the last two do not have a full set of four, the retroflex is absent.

It should be noted that the number of prestopped nasals does not exceed the number of nasals and likewise for laterals. Excepting Kunjen, all the languages have six nasals and four laterals. Yandruwandha is the only language that has prestopped laterals but no prestopped nasals.

Map 16 shows that Kunjen in western Cape York is the only language distant from the rest in the central region of Australia; otherwise this phenomenon is an areal feature.

#### 1.8. PREPALATALISATION

In Andegeribina we find the only case of phonemic prepalatalisation in the data surveyed. This is a device employed to allow for a

morphophonemic two vowel system of a/a: (Breen 1977a:384). Andegeribina is found in Central Australia, C6 on Map 16.

#### 1.9. RHOTIC RELEASE

The rhotic release of apical stops and the alveolar prestopped nasal appears to be a different phenomenon from the prestopping of certain stops before rhotics. In Mpakwithi for instance, rhotic released stops function phonotactically as stops and not as rhotics (Crowley, personal communication).

/dr/ is found in:

Awngdim

Ndra?angid

Yinwum

Yandruwandha

Aridingidigh

Nggod Lenngidigh

Mpakwithi
/nd<sup>r</sup>/ is found in:

Mpakwithi

Ndra?angid

Yinwum

 $/\phi^{r}/$  is found in:

Yandruwandha

Breen regards the rhotic released stops in Yandruwandha as prestopped trills (Breen 1976c:597), presumably on the basis of phonological similarity with prestopped laterals. However, there is no evidence as to the phonotactic function of the rhotic released stops in Yandruwandha, whether or not they function in the same manner as stops or rhotics. It is thus felt that they are best described as rhotic released stops as opposed to prestopped trills for we notice that  $/d^{\Gamma}/$  occurs elsewhere and functions phonotactically as a stop. It is also somewhat discordant to describe  $/d^{\Gamma}/$  as a retroflex prestropped trill as opposed to a rhotic released retroflex stop.

Areal occurrence of the rhotic released stop is in Cape York, with Yandruwandha in Central Australia the only exception; see Map 17.

### 1.10. LABIALISATION

Labialisation is a phonotactic or prosodic device employed to describe the rounding of certain consonants in a manner similar to the phonological constructions of the preceding three sections. The languages and their respective labialised consonants are:

Andiljaugwa: g™ ŋ™

Mbabaram (?):  $g^{u}$  ( $g^{u}$ )  $d^{u}$   $g^{u}$ 

Andegeribina: mbw ggw bw gw mw gw Mw Nw

Tiwi: unknown (Breen 1977b)

Alyawarra: bw dw dw gw nw jw (?)

It is important to note that Alyawarra and the other Arandic languages in this study (Aranda and Kaititj) do have phonetic rounding on some consonants, their status being a matter of morphophonemic arrangement (Koch, personal communication). The Alyawarra data above is taken as being phonemic by its researcher (Turtle 1977:6). Yallop, on the other hand, recorded in Alyawarra the following consonants as being the first member of a cluster where the second was /w/: b, d, g, M, N, m, n, mb, nd, nydy (Yallop 1977:43).

Geographically, on Map 18 we see the Central Australian languages, Mbabaram in Cape York, Andiljaugwa on Groote Island and Tiwi on Melville and Bathurst Islands.

#### 1.11. RHOTICS

In Australian languages four rhotics have been recorded; the flap, trill and two glided rhotics, the retroflex and alveolar. The majority of languages, 80.60%, have two rhotics, the retroflex continuant /R/ and the flap or trill /r/. I prefer to use /R/ and not / $\Gamma$ / (cf. Dixon 1972) for orthographic ease; it does not imply a uvula trill as its IPA value might indicate. IPA / $\Gamma$ / is conventionally not used in describing Australian languages and is reserved here for the alveolar glided rhotic in Murinbata (1.11.5. below). It is of importance to note that / $\Gamma$ / in this case usually has both flap and trill allophones. In those languages where the trill and flap are in phonemic contrast, the flap is marked as / $\Gamma$ / and the trill as / $\Gamma$ /.

In the remaining four types of arrangement we notice that we do not find the flap and trill without the retroflex continuant but do find just a flap or trill without the continuant. We also find only one doubtful case of the continuant rhotic /R/ as the only rhotic present in the phonology of a language. One language contrasts the two glided rhotics with the trill or flap.

#### 1.11.1. R r (continuant, trill/flap) (108 = 80.60%)

Aridingidigh	Bard	Gugada
Awngdim	Pitjantjatjara	Koko-Bera
Andagerinja	Brinken	Gunwinggu
Alawa	Kaititj	Guugu-Yalanji
Andiljaugwa	Galpu	Kitja
Alyawarra	Garadjari	Djamindjung

Λranda Kurama Djeebana Dvirbal Andegeribina Gudandji Arabana Kalkatungu Djabu Umbila Kunjen Djaabugay Umbuygamu Djambarrpuynggu Gungabula Burera Gugu-Bad hun Djingili Pungu-pungu Gubabuyngu Djaru Pintupi Guugu-Yimidhirr Thaayore Bidyara Garawa Tiwi Bailko Kuku-Thaypan Datiway Mbabaram Ngarinjin Wadaman Mandelbingu Warungu Ngawun Maranunggu Ngangikurrungurr Waluwara Mbara NyungaR Wemba-wemba Mbeiwum Nyangumarda Wargamay Mantjiltjara Ndra?angid Walmatjari Mayali Nanta Waramunga Mara Nunggubuyu Wambaya Maung Lenngidigh Wikmumin Mpakwithi Yathaikana Lardil Murawari Rembarnga Yanhangu Malag-malag Ritharngu Yir-Yoront Margany Wadyiginy Yukulta Ngarndji Wangganguru Yaraldi Warramiri Yinwum Ngarla Nganjaywana Wangurri Yiwadja Ngengomeri Wagilak Yanyula Wikmunkan Yidiny Nggod Ngiyamba Waka-waka Yinytyiparnti Mulurudji Wik-Ep Yuwaalaraay

Both Murawari (Oates 1976:244) and Yiwadja (O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966:62 and Capell 1962:129) may have the three rhotic system of /R r  $\mathring{r}$ /.

# 1.11.2. r (trill/flap) (11 = 8.21%)

Gureng-gureng	Dhurga	Ngarigu
Gidabal	Madi-madi	Ludigh
Kuuku-Ya <sup>9</sup> u	Mabuiag	Waalubal
Dharawal	Mbalidjan	

Map 19 shows that the areal distribution of this system is restricted to the east coast of Australia. The most western language appears to be Madi-madi.

#### 1.11.3. R r ř (continuant, flap, trill) (13 = 9.70%)

Pita-pita	Dalabon	Lama-lama
Gog-Nar	Diyari	Walpiri
Kurtjar	Malyangapa	Wanggumara
Kuthant	Ngaluma	Yandruwandha
Kukatj		

A fairly widespread areal distribution is found (Map 20) with Lamalama in Cape York the most eastern language. Otherwise, predominance in the Gulf region and northern South Australia account for most, with Ngaluma the most western language in this survey.

#### 1.11.4. R (continuant) (1 = 0.75%)

The single glided rhotic is found in one language, Thargari in Western Australia (see Map 21). It has been recorded that [r] is an allophone of /t/, for Klokeid lists /r/ with the stops in his phonemic arrangement and states: "/r/ has voiced flap and trill allophones which are in free variation in most environments with the voiceless stop allophones, and are in fact more frequently occurring" (Klokeid 1969:3). Austin (personal communication) has suggested that there may be two phonemes /t/ and /r/, but he is unsure of their status.

Due to this being the only example of a language with a retroflex glided rhotic and since the researchers seem to disagree, the status and validity of this rhotic system is in doubt.

# 1.11.5. r R J (trill/flap, retroflex and alveolar continuants) (1 = 0.75%)

On Map 20 we notice that the only language with this system, Murinbata, is located in the Port Keats region of the Northern Territory. We may be tempted to dismiss this system on the grounds that it occurs in only one language but it should be noted that its occurrence is well documented (Walsh 1976). In fact, even the language name contains the alveolar glided rhotic, "muJinypata" (Walsh 1976). The neighbouring languages, Djamindjung and Ngangikurrungurr, which share many common features such as stop and nasal distributions, do not have these three rhotics. They have the more frequent system of two rhotics, /R/ and /r/.

#### 1.12. GLIDES

Nearly all languages have two glides /w/ and /y/ (129 = 96.27%), with some languages having three.

#### 1.12.1. y y w (2 = 1.49%)

The extra glide is an interdental, occurring in only two languages in Western Australia, Kurama and Yinytyiparnti (Map 22), of which not much detail is available. It has been suggested that the diachronic development of /y/ has been: /1/ > /t/ and /t/ > /y/ (Wordick, personal communication). This glide is apparently produced with the sides of the tongue against the cheek, the tongue is held flat and the tip is under the bottom teeth (Wordick, personal communication).

# 1.12.2. w $\ddot{w}$ y (3 = 2.24%)

Unrounded /w/, transcribed /w/ (IPA / $\omega$ /) occurs in Kaititj, Wik-Ep and Waluwara (see Map 22). In Kaititj it has developed from the velar fricative, and in some instances is produced with some friction or allophonically alternates with the velar fricative (Koch, personal communication).

#### 1.13. FRICATIVES

Fricatives are found in Arnhem Land, Cape York and Central Australia. Map 23 shows the areal distribution and we note that Thargari in Western Australia is the only language outside this area.

I have attempted to standardise symbols employed by various researchers. There is no need, for instance, to distinguish voiced and voiceless fricatives in any languages except Mabuiag. To use symbols denoting such a difference may be phonetically accurate but phonemically irrelevant. The voiced symbols will be used in the same manner as was employed in the stop analysis (see 1.1.). We find the following types:

1.13.1.  $\gamma$  (6 = 21.43% of languages with fricatives, = 4.48% of the total number of languages)

Aranda Kuthant Maung (?)
Alyawarra Tiwi Yiwadja (?)

1.13.2.  $\gamma$  ð  $\beta$  (14 = 50.00% of languages with fricatives, = 10.45% of the total number of languages)

Aridingidigh Kuku-Thaypan Ludigh Awngdim Mbeiwum Lenngidigh Umbuygamu Mbalidjan Yinwum Kunjen Nggod Yathaikana

Kurtjar Ndra°angid

1.13.3.  $\gamma$   $\beta$  (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the total number of languages)

Gog-Nar

1.13.4. ŏ (2 = 7.14% of languages with fricatives, = 1.49% of the total number of languages)

Thargari

Mbara (?)

1.13.5. z  $\beta$  (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the total number of languages)

Ngengomeri (?)

1.13.6. s z (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the
 total number of languages)

Mabuiag, which is the only language in this survey with a voiced/voiceless distinction in fricatives.

1.13.7.  $\gamma$  z  $\beta$  (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the total number of languages)

Lama-lama

1.13.8. z  $\beta$  (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the total number of languages)

Ngangikurrungurr

1.13.9.  $\gamma$  3 8  $\beta$  (1 = 3.57% of languages with fricatives, = 0.75% of the total number of languages)

Mpakwithi, which has the largest number of fricatives in any one language.

In general, fricatives are uncommon phonemes, found in only 28 languages (20.90%) in this study. The absence or relative scarcity of fricatives is a major Australian areal characteristic.

#### 2.0. VOWEL PHONEMES

TABLE	3 :	VOWEL	PHONEMES

	Front		Central		Back
	-rnd	+rnd	-rnd	+rnd	+rnd
close	i	ü	÷	u	u
half-close	е	ö		ə	o
half-open		æ			э
open				a	

Diphthongs: ua, +a(:), ui, ai, ia(:)

Nasalised vowels: 7, e, a, a

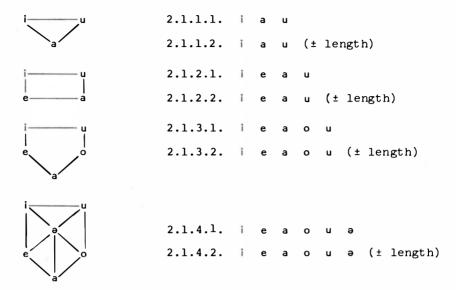
Length is distinct for the following vowels.

The bracketed forms are of uncertain status

The vowel phonemes of Australian aboriginal languages, found in Table 3, have the same characteristics of the distribution that was found for consonants. Both vowels and consonants in the majority of languages fit into a small set of distributional combinations, with just a small number of aberrant languages. For example, the vowel system /i a u/ is found in 53.73% of all languages, irrespective of a length distinction. We can divide the vowel arrangements into three major types in order to examine their distributions:

- 2.1. Symmetrical systems, where there is symmetry both in the structure of the vowel diagram and in the presence and absence of a length distinction.
- 2.2. Semi-symmetrical systems, where there is some form of symmetry or similarity present.
- 2.3. Ungrouped systems; this being a collection of languages which do not fit into the above two types. It should be noted that vowel systems falling into this group are of the more aberrant types, where one system is usually unique to one language. The exception is the system /i u a a:/ which has three members.

#### 2.1. SYMMETRICAL SYSTEMS



# 2.1.1. i a u

Map 24 shows the distribution of the vowel system /i a u/ without regard for the length distinction. There appears to be no areal congruency.

# 2.1.1.1. i a u (23 = 17.16%)

Pita-Pita	Dyirbal	Waļuwara
Bidyara	Tiwi	Wambaya
Garawa	Diyari	Warungu
Gugu-Badhun	Mara	Wanggumara
Kunjen	Ngawun	Yanyula
Gungabula	Nganjaywana	Yaraldi
Guugu-Yalanji	Ngarla	Yandruwandha
Garadiari	Wikmumin	

In Waluwara a length distinction is not recorded because of its complementary distribution with the occurrence of a second series of stops (see 1.3.2.).

# 2.1.1.2. i a u ( $\pm$ length) (49 = 36.75%)

Alyawarra	Djeebana	Ngarigu
Aranda	Djabu	Nyangumarda
Arabana	Djingili	Nanta

Andagerinja Djambarrpuynggu Ritharngu Umbila Djaabugay Waramunga Pitjantjatjara Thargari Walmatjari Bailko Dharawal Wargamay Pintupi Dhurga Wagilak Guugu-Yimidhirr Datiway Wangurri Kuuku-Ya<sup>2</sup>u Murawari Warramiri Gubabuyngu Mulurudji Wangganguru Kurama Mantjiltjara Walpiri Kalkatungu Malyangapa Yukulta Gugada Margany Yanhangu Galpu Mandelbingu Yidiny Kukat.i Ngiyamba Yuwaalaraay Ngaluma

Both Bailko and Mulurudji (O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966:85 and 67) may not have a length distinction. Similarly, Waramunga (Hale 1959c: n.p.; Chakravarti 1967:6; Capell 1953:298) may not distinguish length at the phonemic level. In Kukatj, a schwa may be present (Breen 1976c:154); whilst in Ritharngu (Heath 1978:34) and Yidiny (Dixon 1977:2-3) length occurs, for the former, on the first syllable only; and for the latter, it is only found on non-initial syllables.

# 2.1.2. i e a u

Map 25 shows the areal distribution of this system. It appears that there are no cases in Central and Western Australia. We find cases in Cape York and the east coast, Madi-madi in the south and a few instances in western Arnhem Land.

#### 2.1.2.1. i e a u (8 = 5.97%)

Alawa Madi-madi Ndra°angid Djamindjung Ngangikurrungurr Yinwum

Murinbata Ngengomeri

In Djamindjung, the status of /e/ is uncertain (Walsh, personal communication).

### 2.1.2.2. $i e a u (\pm length) (5 = 3.73%)$

Gidabal Lardil Waalubal Gureng-gureng Yathaikana

In the case of Waalubal, Crowley remarks that the length of the vowel /e/ is predictable by rule (Crowley 1978:6-21). However, for symmetry

and for areal congruence, an /e:/ is included as part of the phoneme inventory.

#### 2.1.3. i e a o u

Map 26 shows the sporadic occurrences of this vowel arrangement. One example is found in the south-west, NgungaR; but none are found south of the Queensland-New South Wales border.

#### 2.1.3.1. i e a o u (7 = 5.22%)

Burera Mayali Wadaman Gunwinggu Ngarinjin Yiwadja NjungaR

Burera is reported as having word stress like English 'import/im'port (Glasgow and Glasgow 1962:2 and Glasgow 1966:n.p.). This is the only language where stress is reported at the phonemic level.

# 2.1.3.2. i e a o u ( $\pm$ length) (5 = 3.73%)

Thaayore Maung Waka-waka Mbara Wikmunkan

#### 2.1.4. i e a o u ə

The six vowel system has a restricted areal distribtuion (Map 27). Cases are found in Cape York and Arnhem Land, with Wemba-wemba being the only language outside this area.

# 2.1.4.1. i e a o u ə (5 = 3.73%)

Koko-Bera Rembarnga Wemba-wemba Lama-lama Yir-Yoront

Note that vowel length in Wemba-wemba is possibly predictable by rule (Hercus 1969:28).

# 2.1.4.2. i e a o u ə ( $\pm$ length) (2 = 1.49%)

Dalabon

Mabuiag

In the case of Mabuiag, vowel length does not occur on schwa (Klokeid 1971:19).

#### 2.2. SEMI-SYMMETRICAL SYSTEMS

Map 28 shows the position of the /i a o u/ vowel system: both languages are in Western Australia. The distribution of /i e a u e/ can be found on Map 29, an area restricted to the Daly River region and only one case in Cape York, Awngdim.

It is of interest to note that there are more cases of /i e a u/ than of /i a o u/; disregarding length and schwa. Nineteen cases are found of the former and only two of the latter in this survey. The following is a list of vowel systems and their language members:

- i a u (± length) o (1 = 0.75%)
  Bard
- i a u (± length) o: (1 = 0.75%)
   Yinytyiparnti
- ieauə (6 = 4.48%)

Awngdim Pungu-pungu Maranunggu Brinken Malag-malag Wadyiginy

The status of schwa in Brinken is uncertain (Tryon 1974:71).

i e a u + (1 = 0.75%)

Andiljaugwa

The occurrence of  $/ \div /$  has only been suggested in one source, namely Dixon (personal communication).

i e a o u a ö (1 = 0.75%) Gog-Nar

 $i \ a \ a \ u \ (2 = 1.49\%)$ 

Note that it appears that /a/ is not a notational variant of /e/, for the former is apparently common in Northern Paman languages (Hale 1976a:7-40).

Ludigh Mbalidjan

i æ a o u (1 = 0.75%)
Lenngidigh

### 2.3. UNGROUPED SYSTEMS

i u a a: (3 = 2.27%)

Ngarndji Nunggubuyu Djaru

```
i + u a a: (1 = 0.75%)
    Kitja
```

i e a o u 
$$\div$$
  $\bullet$  (± length) (?) (1 = 0.75%)

Mbabaram

This language, like Kuku-Thaypan in the next arrangement, can be seen as symmetrical on a vowel diagram.

i e æ a ɔ o u 
$$\div$$
 (?) (1 = 0.75%)  
Kuku-Thaypan

i e a o u 
$$\ddot{u}$$
  $\ddot{o}$  ( $\dot{+}$ ) ( $\dot{u}$ ) ( $\dot{\pm}$  length) (?) (1 = 0.75%) Wik-Ep

i 
$$\ddot{o}$$
 u a  $\dotplus$ a ia ( $\pm$  length)  $\dotplus$  (1 = 0.75%)

Note that diphthongs may be notational variants of Vowel + Glide or Glide + Vowel. However the notations used by the researchers have been followed here.

Kuthant

Finally, the largest vowel system, Mpakwithi

i(:) ĩ ü u(:)

e(:) ē (ö) o

æ(:) ã

a(:) ã

#### 2.4. RESIDUE AREAL DISTRIBUTIONS

#### 2.4.1. Vowel Systems

Map 30 provides us with the occurrence of all languages which have not yet been geographically positioned, excepting the two vowel systems in Kaititj and Andegeribina. They include all of 2.3. and 2.2. except /i e a u e/ and /i a o u/, the former being found on Map 29, the latter on Map 28. It is of interest to note that these languages are restricted to the northern quarter of the continent, with Cape York having the greatest density.

Map 31 indicates the occurrences of diphthongs, nasalised vowels and the two vowel systems.

#### 2.4.2. Length Distinction

The distinction between long and short vowels is evenly distributed across the whole continent, easily verified by an examination of Maps 32 and 33. Length is found to be distinctive in 73 cases which is 54.48% of the total number of 134 languages in this study.

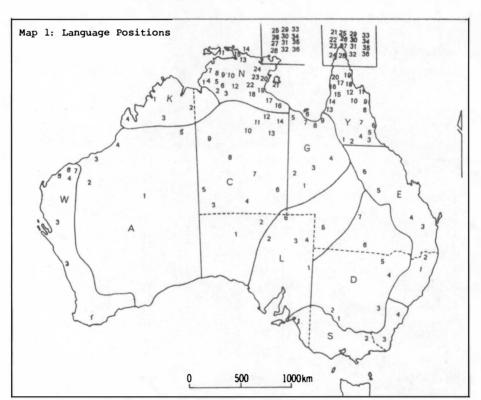
#### 3.O. CONCLUSION

Certain regularities in the distribution of phonemes are noticeable from this analysis of the phonological systems of Australian aboriginal languages. For instance, every system studied has at least four positions of articulation for stops and nasals, where there is usually a one-to-one correspondence of positions of articulation between these two manners of production. Every language has at least one lateral, one rhotic, although the norm is two, and usually two glides. Vowel systems are dominated by /i a u/, but other systems are not so uncommon.

In the analysis of areal distributions it was noticed that the eastern Northern Territory-South Australian north-south border plays an important role in the distributions of the stop system /b d d d  $^{\prime}$  g/ (1.1.2.) and the lateral system /l !  $^{\prime}$  l (1.6.3.). The Cape York region and the east coast of the continent are predominant in the distribution of stop systems 1.1.1. (/b d d  $^{\prime}$  g/), 1.1.3. (/b d d  $^{\prime}$  g/); the single

lateral system /1/ (1.6.1.); and the occurrence of the single rhotic r/(1.11.2.).

Cape York and Arnhem Land are significant areas in a number of distributions. The former has a large concentration of rhotic release stops (1.9.), fricatives (1.13.) and ungrouped vowels (Map 30). The latter is important in the distribution of the second stop series (1.3.), the lateral type /1 !/ (1.6.4.); whilst both have a high incidence of the glottal stop.

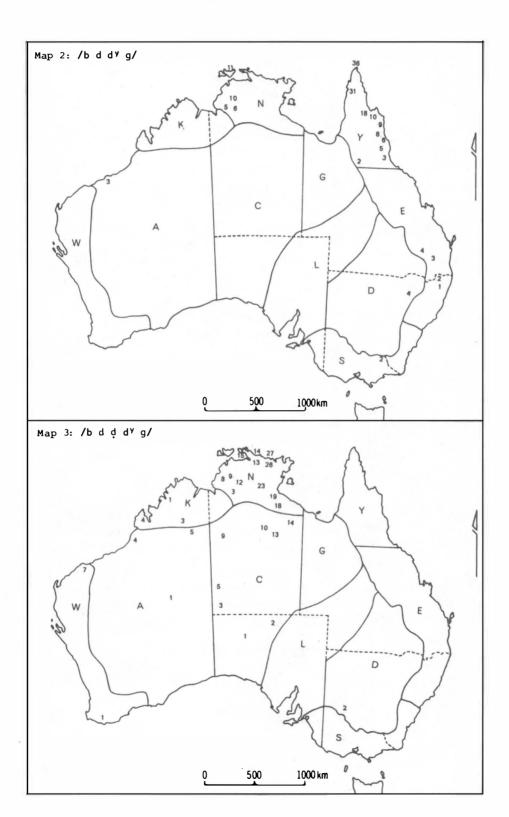


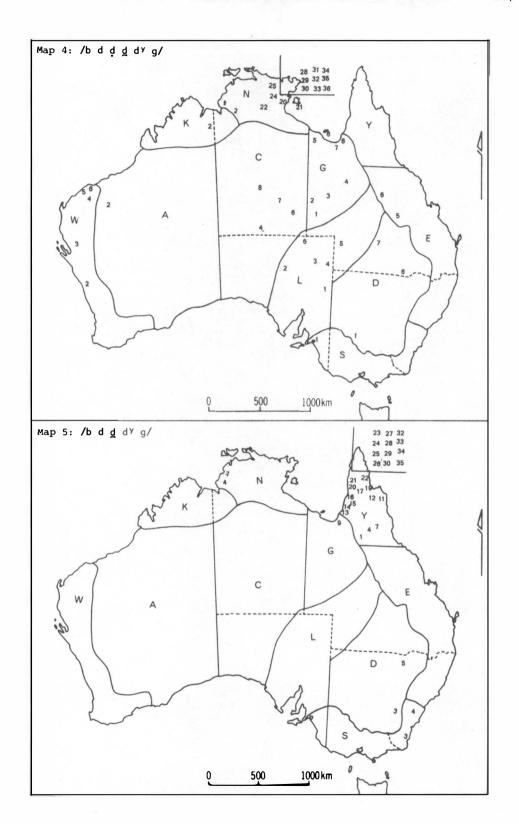
APPENDIX 1
Areal Distribution of Phonemic Systems

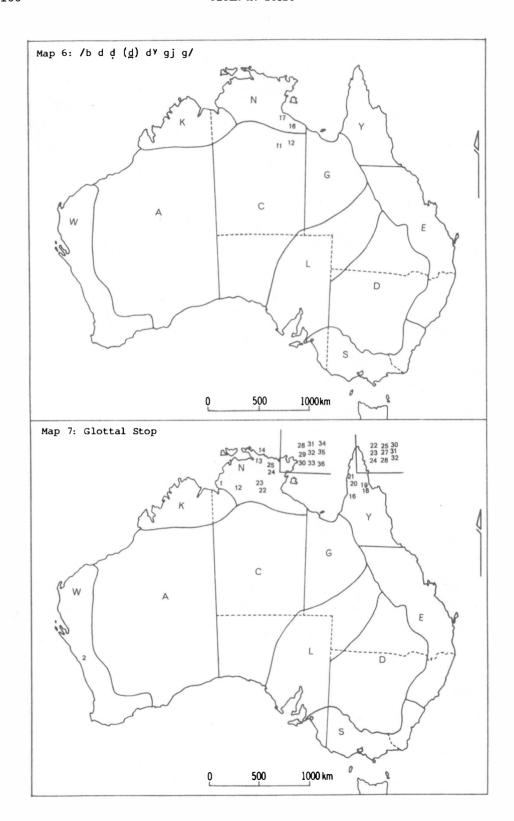
Map 1 above gives the approximate locations of the languages studied. I have used the same area coding as the A.I.A.S. Tribal Bibliography. The languages and their respective numbers are as follows. Note that this numbering system is the same throughout the areal distribution maps of Appendix 1.

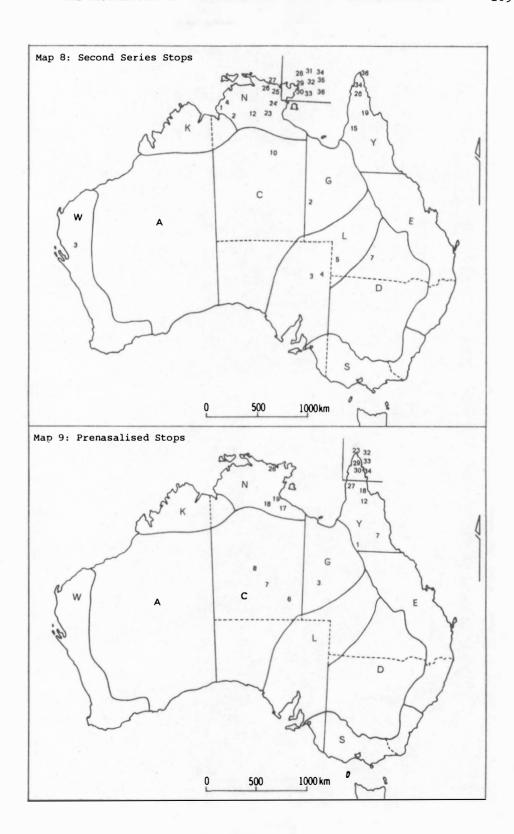
ARE	A S					
1	Yaraldi	3	Dhurga	4	Dharawal	
2	Ngarigu					
ARE	A D					
1	Wemba-wemba	4	Nganjaywana	6	Murawari	
2	Madi-madi	5	Yuwaalaraay	7	Margany	
3	Ngiyamba					
ARE	A E					
1	Waalubal	3	Waka-waka	5	Gungabula	
2	Gidabal	4	Gureng-gureng	6	Bidyara	
ARE	ΑΥ					
1	Mbara	13	Gog-Nar	25	Ludigh	
2	Warungu	14	Koko-Bera	26	Wikmumin	
3	Wargamay	15	Kunjen	27	Ndra?angid	
4	Gugu-Badhun	16	Yir-Yoront	28	Awngdim	
5	Dyirbal	17	Thaayore	29	Aridingidigh	
6	Yidiny	18	Lama-lama	30	Nggod	
7	Mbaba.ram	19	Umbuygamu	31	Lenngidigh	
8	Djaabugay	20	Wikmunkan	32	Mpakwithi	
9	Guugu-Yalanji	21	Wik-Ep	33	Mbalidjan	
10	Mulurudji	22	Umbila	34	Mbeiwum	
11	Guugu-Yimidhirr	23	Yinwum	35	Yathaikana	
12	Kuku-Thaypan	24	Kuuku-Ya <sup>o</sup> u	26	Mabuiag	
ARE	A L					
1	Malyangapa	3	Diyari	5	Wanggumara	
2	Arabana	4	Yandruwandha	6	Wangganguru	
AREA K						
1	Ngarinjin	3	Djaru	4	Bard	
2	Kitja					

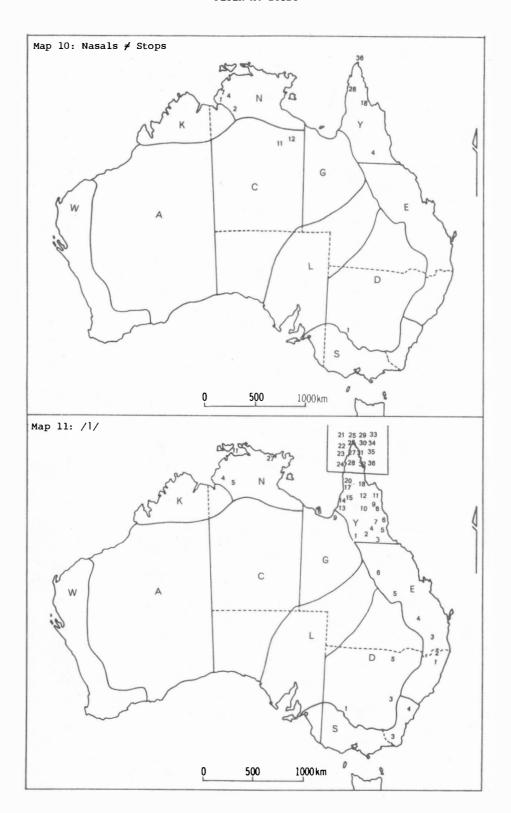
ARE	EA N				
1	Murinbata	13	Gunwinggu	25	Ritharngu
2	Djamindjung	14	Maung	26	Burera
3	Waḍaman	15	Yiwadja	27	Djeebana
4	Ngangikurrungurr	16	Garawa	28	Yanhangu
5	Maranunggu	17	Yanyula	29	Djambarrpuynggu
6	Ngengomeri	18	Alawa	30	Gubabuyngu
7	Brinken	19	Mara	31	Wangurri
8	Wadyiginy	20	Nunggubuyu	32	Warramiri
9	Pungu-pungu	21	Andiljaugwa	33	Djabu
10	Malag-malag	22	Dalabon	34	Galpu
11	Tiwi	23	Rembarnga	35	Datiway
12	Mayali	24	Wagilak	36	Mandelbingu
	A A				
1	Mantjiltjara	3	Nyangumarda	5	Walmatjari
2	Bailko	4	Garadjari		
	A C				
1	Gugada	6	Andegeribina	11	Djingili
2	Andagerinja	7	Alyawarra	12	Ngarndji
3	Pitjantjatjara	8	Kaititj	13	Wambaya
4	Aranda	9	Walpiri	14	Gudandji
5	Pintupi	10	Waramunga		
ARE	A G				
1	Pita-pita	4	Ngawun	7	Kukatj
2	Waļuwara	5	Yukulta	8	Kuthant
3	Kalkatungu	6	Lardil	9	Kurtjar
ARE	A W				
1	NjungaR	4	Yinytyiparnti	6	Ngaļuma
2	Nanta	5	Kurama	7	Ngarla
3	Thargari				

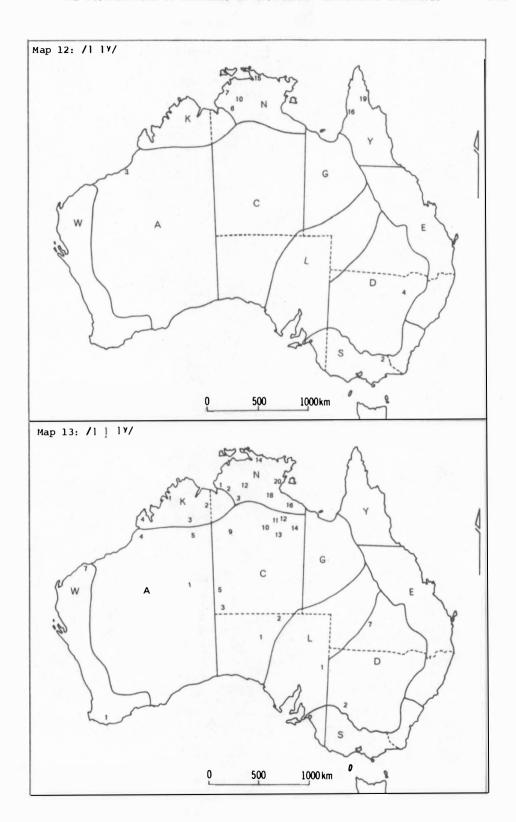


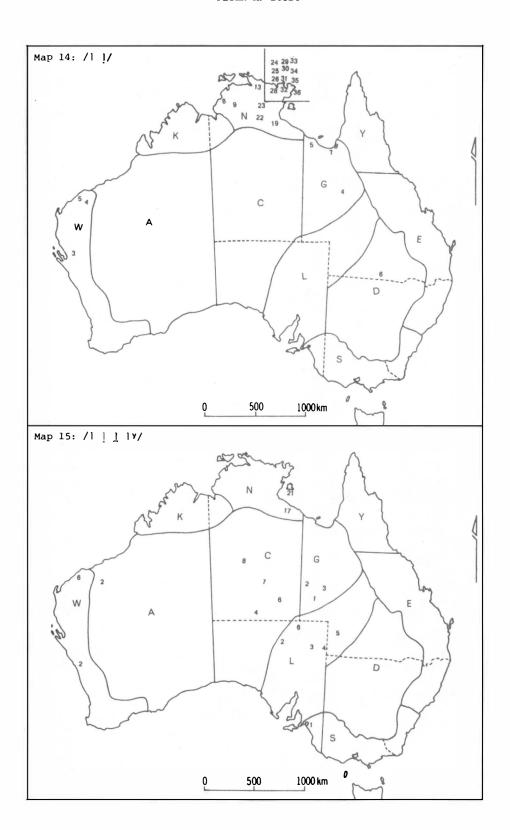


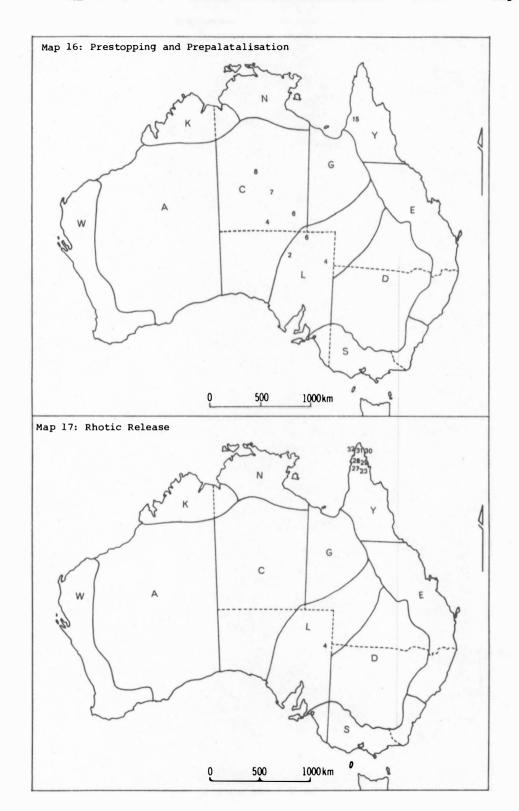


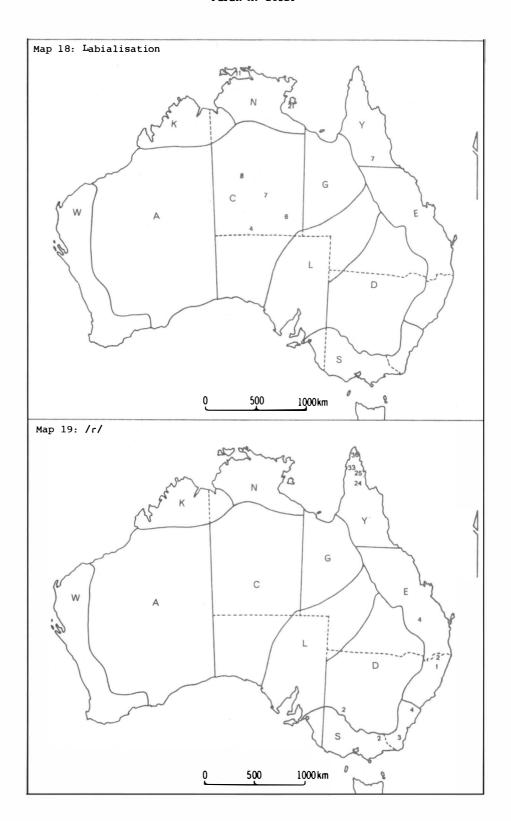


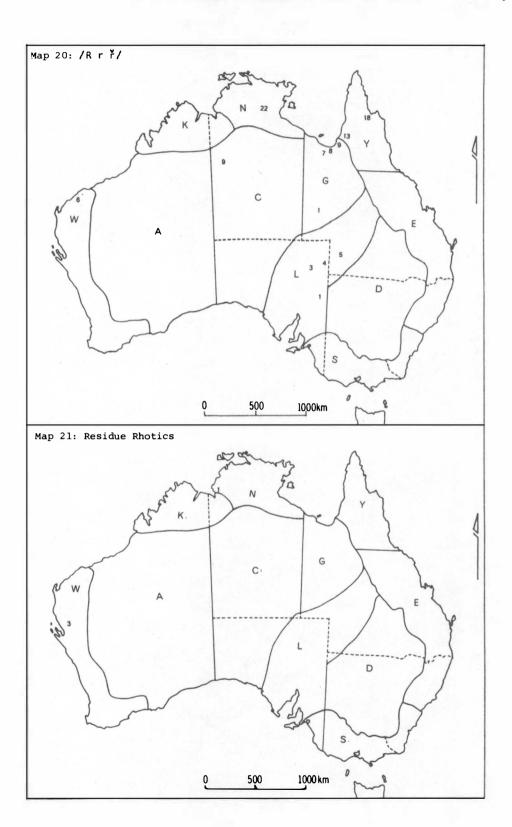


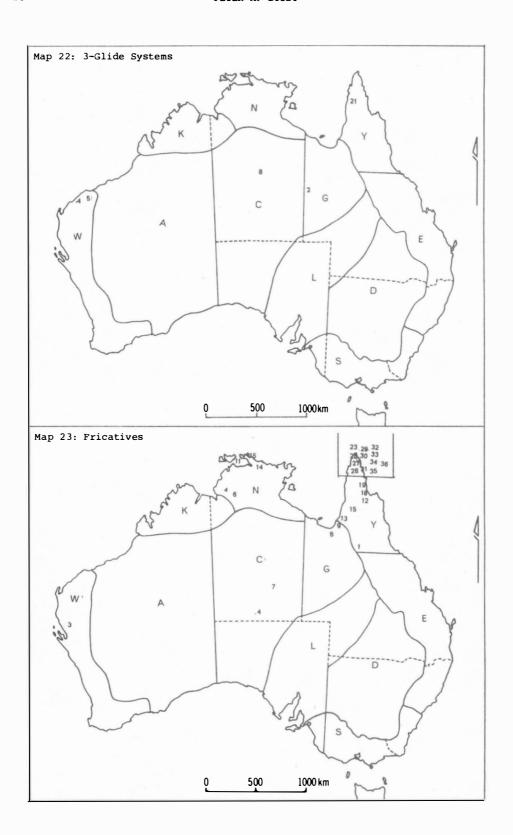


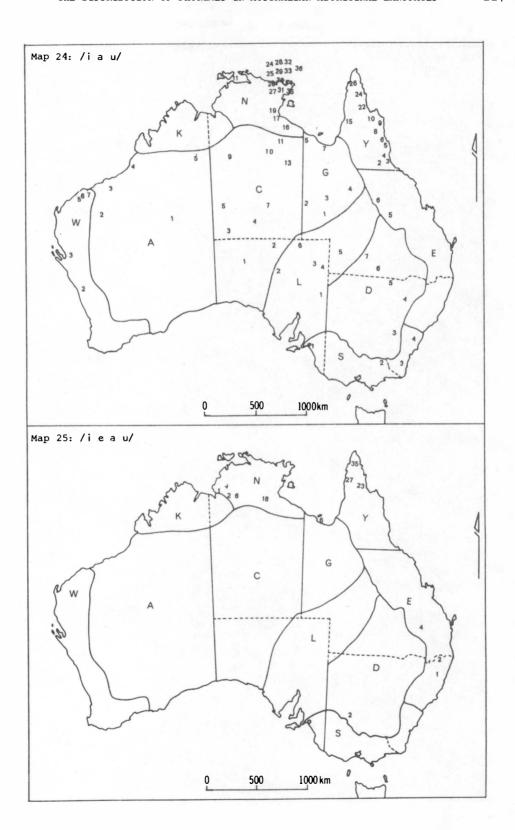


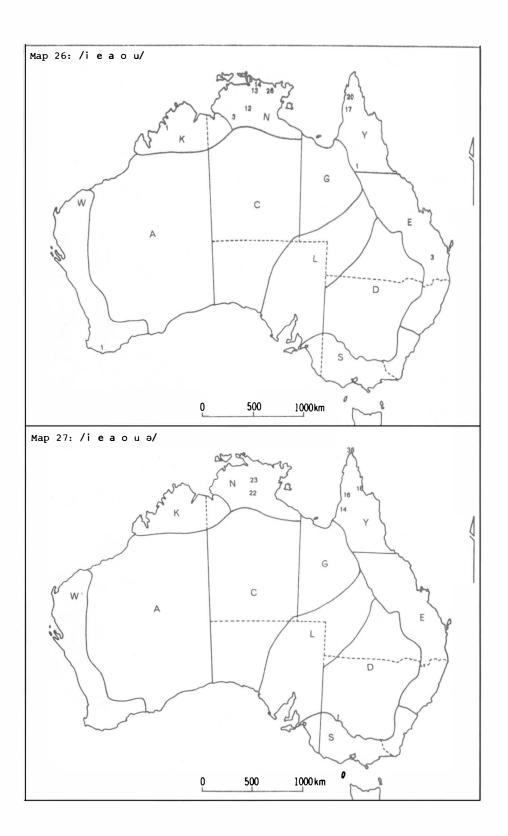


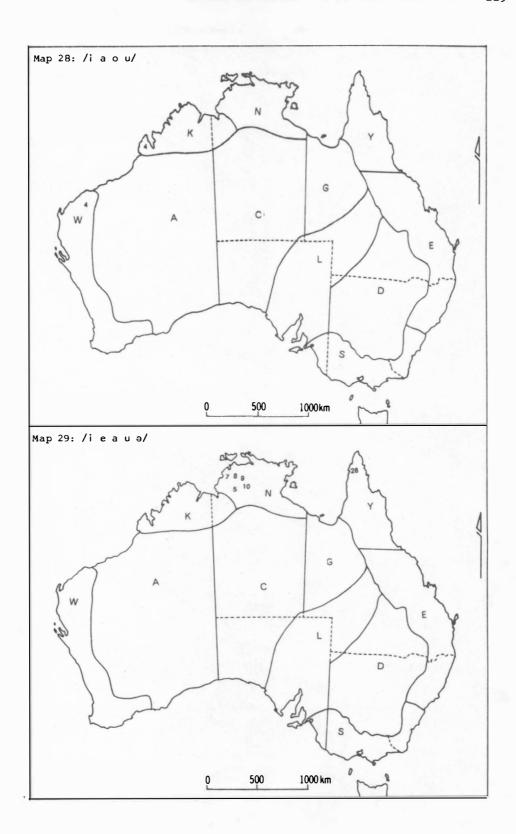


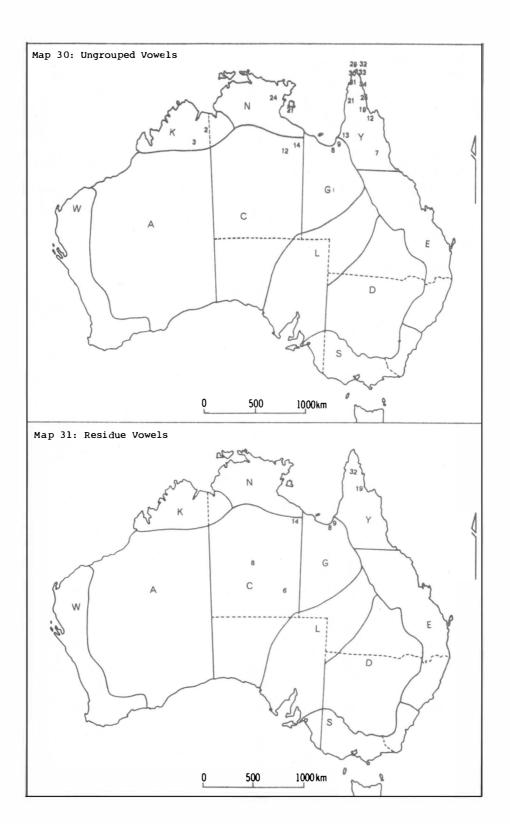


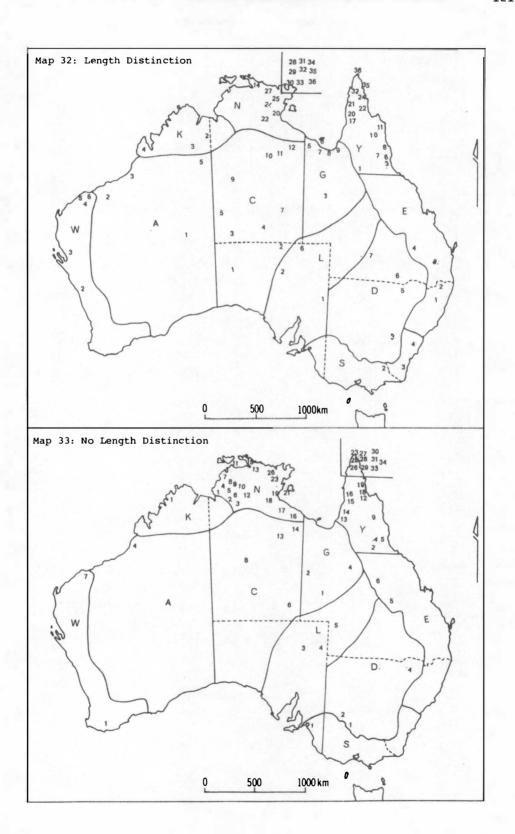












#### APPENDIX 2

# Language References

Order: a, u, b/p, g/k, dy/dj, dh/th, d/t, m, ng, ny/nj, n, l, r, w, y. The number after each language name indicates the A.I.A.S. area number.

Andiljaugwa (N151)
Dixon, R.M.W. Personal communication
Stoker 1976

Alyawarra (C14) Breen 1967 Koch, H. Personal communication Turtle 1977

Alawa (N92) Sharpe 1972

Yallop 1977

Aridingidigh (Y35) Hale 1959-60, 1976a

Andagirinja (C5) Brown 1977

Andageribina (C12) Breen 1967, 1977a

Aranda (C8)
Capell 1967
Koch, H. Personal communication

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966 Strehlow 1944

Arabana (L13) Hale 1959a Hercus 1972 O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Awngdim (Y39.1) Hale 1976a

Umbila (Y45) Harris and O'Grady 1976

Umbuygamu (Y55) Sommer 1976

Pitjantjatjara (C6) Glass and Hackett 1970 University of Adelaide 1969

Burera (N82) Dixon, R.M.W. Personal communication Glasgow 1966 Glasgow and Glasgow 1962 Tryon 1974 Pita-pita (G6)

Blake and Breen 1971

Brinken (N7)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin

Tryon 1974

Pungu-pungu (N11)

Tryon 1974

Bidyara (E37) Breen 1973

Bard (K15) Metcalfe 1975

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Pintupi (Cl0)

Hansen and Hansen 1969

Huttar 1976

Bailko (A55)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Kaititj (Cl3)

Koch, H. Personal communication, 1974-

Kuuku-Ya<sup>2</sup>u (Y22)

Rigsby 1972 Thompson 1976

Kurtjar (G33) Black 1980 Keen 1968

Gunwinggu (N65) Carroll 1976 Oates 1964 Kuthant (G31) Black 1980

Gudandji (C26) Aguas 1968

Kurama (W36) O'Grady 1966

Wordick, F. Personal communication

Garadjari (A64) Capell 1962

Gureng-gureng (E32)

Brasch 1975

Gidabal (E14)

Geytenbeek and Geytenbeek 1971

Gugada (C3) Platt 1972

Kitja (K20)

Taylor and Taylor 1971

Kuuku-Thaypan (Y71)

Rigsby 1976

Koko-Bera (Y85)

Black and Alpher n.d.

Kalkatungu (G13)

Blake 1969

Guugu-Yimidhirr (Y82)

Haviland, J. Personal communication

Zwaan, de 1969

Gugu-Badhun (Y128)

Sutton 1973

Garawa (N155)

Furby 1974

Huttar and Kirton 1978

Gungabula (E35)

Breen 1973

Galpu (N139)

Wood 1977

Gubabuyngu (N112.1)

Dixon, R.M.W. Personal communi-

cation

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin

1966

Gugu-Yalanji (Y99)

Oates, Oates et al. 1964

Wurm 1972

Kukatj (G28)

Black 1975

Breen 1976a

Kunjen (Y83)

Dixon 1970a

Sommer 1972

Gor-Nar (Y91)

Breen 1976b

Djamindjung (N18)

Walsh, M.J. Personal communi-

cation

Djaru (K12)

Tsunoda 1978

Djaabugay (Y106)

Hale 1976b

Dyirbal (Y123)

Dixon 1972

Djambarrpuynggu (N115)

Henley, J. Personal communication,

1978a

Djeebana (N74)

McKay 1975a

Djabu (N145)

Henley, J. Personal communication,

1978b

Djingili (C22)

Chadwick 1975

Hale 1960a

Thargari (W21)

Austin, P. Personal communication

Klokeid 1969

Dharawal (S59)

Eades 1976

Dhurga (S53)

Eades 1976

Thaayore (Y69)

Hall 1968

Dalabon (N76)

Capell 1962

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Tiwi (N20)

Breen 1977b

Osborne 1974

Datiway (N116.F)

Schebeck 1967

Diyari (L17)

Austin 1977, 1978a

Trefry 1974

Mbara (Y131) Sutton 1976

Maung (N64) Capell 1962

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin

Madi-madi (D8) Hercus 1969

Maranunggu (N13) Tryon 1970

Mulurudji (Y97)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Malag-malag (N22)

Birk 1975

Malyangapa (L8) Austin 1978b

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Mantjiltjara (A51.1)

Marsh 1969

Murinbata (N3) Walsh 1972-, 1976

Mpakwithi (Y20) Crowley 1975a, 1981

Mara (N112) Busby 1978 Hale 1959b

Mayali (N44) Merlan 1976 Muruwari (D32) Oates 1976

Mandelbingu (N116.0)

Schebeck 1967

Mabuiag (Y1-4) Klokeid 1971

Mbabaram (Y115)

Dixon, R.M.W. Personal communication

Mbeiwum (Y41) Hale 1976a

Mbalidjan (Y25) Hale 1976a

Margany (D42) Breen 1981

Nganjaywana (D24) Crowley 1976

Nggod (Y36) Hale 1976a

Ngawun (G17) Breen 1972-

Ngarndji (C22.1) Chadwick 1971

Ngarigu (S46) Hercus 1969

Ngaluma (W38)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Ngarla (W40)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Ngengomeri (N17) Tryon 1974

Ngiyamba (D10.1) Donaldson 1977

Ngarinjin (K18) Coate and Oates 1970

Ngangikurrungurr (N8) Courtenay 1976

NjungaR (W1-2) Douglas 1976

Nyangumarda (A61) Hoard and O'Grady 1976 O'Grady 1964

Nanta (W14)
O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin
1966

Nunggubuyu (N128) Hughes and Healey 1971 Hughes and Leeding 1971a,b

Ndra<sup>2</sup>angid (Y39) Hale 1976

Lenngidigh (Y26) Hale 1976a

Ludigh (Y12) Hale 1976a

Lardil (G38) Klokeid 1976

Lama-lama (Y58) Laycock 1969 Ritharngu (N104) Heath 1978

Rembarnga (N73) McKay 1975b

Wangganguru (L27) Hercus 1972

Wanggumara (L25) Breen 1974

Wangurri (N134) Schebeck 1967

Wagilak (N106) Schebeck 1967

Warramiri (N131) Schebeck 1967

Wadyiginy (N6) Tryon 1974

Wikmumin (Y43)

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin 1966

Wambaya (C19) Campbell 1976

Walmatjari (A66) Hudson and Richards 1969

Wargamay (Y134) Dixon 1981

Waramunga (C18) Capell 1953 Chakravarti 1967 Hale 1959c

Wurm 1972

Wikmunkan (Y57)

Hale 1959d

Sayers 1964, 1976

Wik-Ep (Y52)

Hale 1960b

Wemba-wemba (D1)

Hercus 1969

Wadaman (N35)

Merlan 1976

Waalubal (E12.1)

Crowley 1978

Waka-waka (E28)

Wurm 1976

Walpiri (C15)

Capell 1962

Jagst 1975

Waluwara (G10)

Breen 1971

Warungu (Y133)

Tsunoda 1974

Yanyula

Hale 1959e

Huttar and Kirton 1978

Kirton 1967

Yandruwandha (L18)

Breen 1967-, 1976c

Yathaikana (Y8)

Crowley, T. Personal communication,

1975b

Yukulta (G34)

Keen 1970, 1972

Yinytyiparnti (W37)

0'Grady 1966

Wordick, F. Personal communication

Yuwaalaraay (D23)

Williams 1976

Yiwadja (N39)

Capell 1962

O'Grady, Voegelin and Voegelin

1966

Yir-Yoront (Y72)

Alpher 1976

Black and Alpher n.d.

Yinwum (Y29)

Hale 1976a

Yidiny (Yll7)

Dixon 1977

Yanhangu (N99.1)

Schebeck 1967

Yaraldi (S8)

McDonald 1977

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