

2.8. THE NORTH-EASTERN AREAS OF THE TRANS-NEW GUINEA PHYLUM

2.8.1. NORTH-EASTERN TRANS-NEW GUINEA PHYLUM LANGUAGES

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2.8.1.1. INTRODUCTION

The Eastern Section of the North-Eastern Trans-New Guinea Phylum languages is regarded as comprising the Papuan languages of the eastern Finisterre range, the Huon Peninsula, and Umboi Island.¹

Apart from early comparative vocabularies (Zöllner 1890, 1891; Schmidt 1900-1902; Ray 1902; Dempwolff 1905) and a grammatical study of the Kâte (Kai) language (Grube 1895), little was known about these languages until the mid-1920's when Pilhofer (1928, 1929) published extensive word and paradigmatic lists for ten dialects and languages related to the Wemo dialect of Kâte. In 1925 Keysser published a dictionary of Kâte, and Pilhofer (1927a, 1927b) published a grammatical sketch and some conversations in the Kâte language. Pilhofer's extensive grammar appeared in 1933. Probably as a result of the Lutheran Mission's decision to promote Kâte as the lingua franca, the other Papuan languages were neglected except for Ono (Wacke 1931). No further studies of the Huon Peninsula languages appeared until 1967 when the present writer began his studies of these languages (McElhanon 1967a, 1967b, 1970a, 1970b, 1970c, 1970d, 1970e, 1972, 1973, 1974; McElhanon and McElhanon 1970). The author published on Komba (McElhanon 1969), and Fabian, Fabian and Peck (1971) on Nabak.

The languages of the Finisterre range were not studied until the 1960's when Davis began studying the Wantoat language (Davis 1961,

1964a, 1964b, 1969, 1972, 1973). Subsequently, study was commenced in Urii (Webb) and Rawa (Claassen), but the only publication resulting from these studies has been Webb 1974. Comparative studies have progressed no further than a lexicostatistical classification (Claassen and McElhanon 1970) and some grammatical comparisons (McElhanon 1973).

2.8.1.2. CLASSIFICATION

The problems encountered in attempting a lexicostatistical classification of the languages of this eastern section have been discussed elsewhere (McElhanon 1970f). Further implications for the use of lexicostatistics in classifying groups of Papuan languages in general are discussed in McElhanon 1971 and elsewhere in this volume (2.2.3.). Suffice it to say that, in the writer's opinion, lexicostatistics as presently applied to Papua New Guinea basic vocabularies does not yield anything more than very preliminary classifications. Until extensive historical reconstruction is completed, beginning with the individual languages and families, one is well advised to be cautious in accepting more definitive statements about the interrelationships of the Papuan languages.

That there is a large genetic group of Papuan languages has been demonstrated (McElhanon and Voorhoeve 1970; Wurm 1976). The composition of this group and its subgroups, however, is a question which will be debated for years to come. Since McElhanon and Voorhoeve's study was published, the Trans-New Guinea Phylum has been expanded as other groups have been posited as its members. Because of the large number of groups now posited for this phylum, it has become useful to apply taxonomic labels to these subgroups. Therefore, as a matter of convenience only, the Finisterre-Huon group will be referred to as a 'stock' and the immediate subgroups as 'families'. Below the level of 'family', only the terms 'language' and 'dialect' will be used.

The use of these terms does not imply that the present writer regards such groups as having been established. Rather, he takes the view that the phylum has been posited and that the phylum will be confirmed and its subgroupings established only after a rigorous application of the comparative method. The following lexicostatistical classification must be regarded as tentative and preliminary because it is based upon the recognition of cognates by the 'inspection method' (Gudschinsky 1956). The lexicostatistical percentages for the Finisterre and the Huon Peninsula languages respectively are found in Claassen and McElhanon 1970 and McElhanon 1970f.

2.8.1.3. FAMILIES WITHIN THE FINISTERRE-HUON STOCK

Because of the presence of dialect and language chains, the borders of the posited family groupings are not always distinct and therefore the membership is not always discrete. This is especially the case for the Huon Peninsula families. In the following sections the posited families are presented as they are located from east to west. Language names are in bold face capitals and dialect names in bold face type. Village names, which are taken from the 1968 Village Directory are listed according to census divisions. The abbreviations in parentheses are keyed to the map.

2.8.1.3.1. KOVAI LANGUAGE (FAMILY-LEVEL ISOLATE) (KV), pop. 3,150.

The KOVAI language is distantly related to the languages of the Huon Peninsula as evidenced in the pronominal system and the verb morphology. Due to apparent influence by the surrounding Austronesian languages, however, only a few probable cognates have been identified. Siassi Census Division: Aiyau, Arot, Aupwel, Barang, Bukum, Gasam, Gom, Mararamu, Obongai, Omon, Opai, Oropot, and Tarawe.

2.8.1.3.2. EASTERN HUON FAMILY (EH), pop. 23,250.

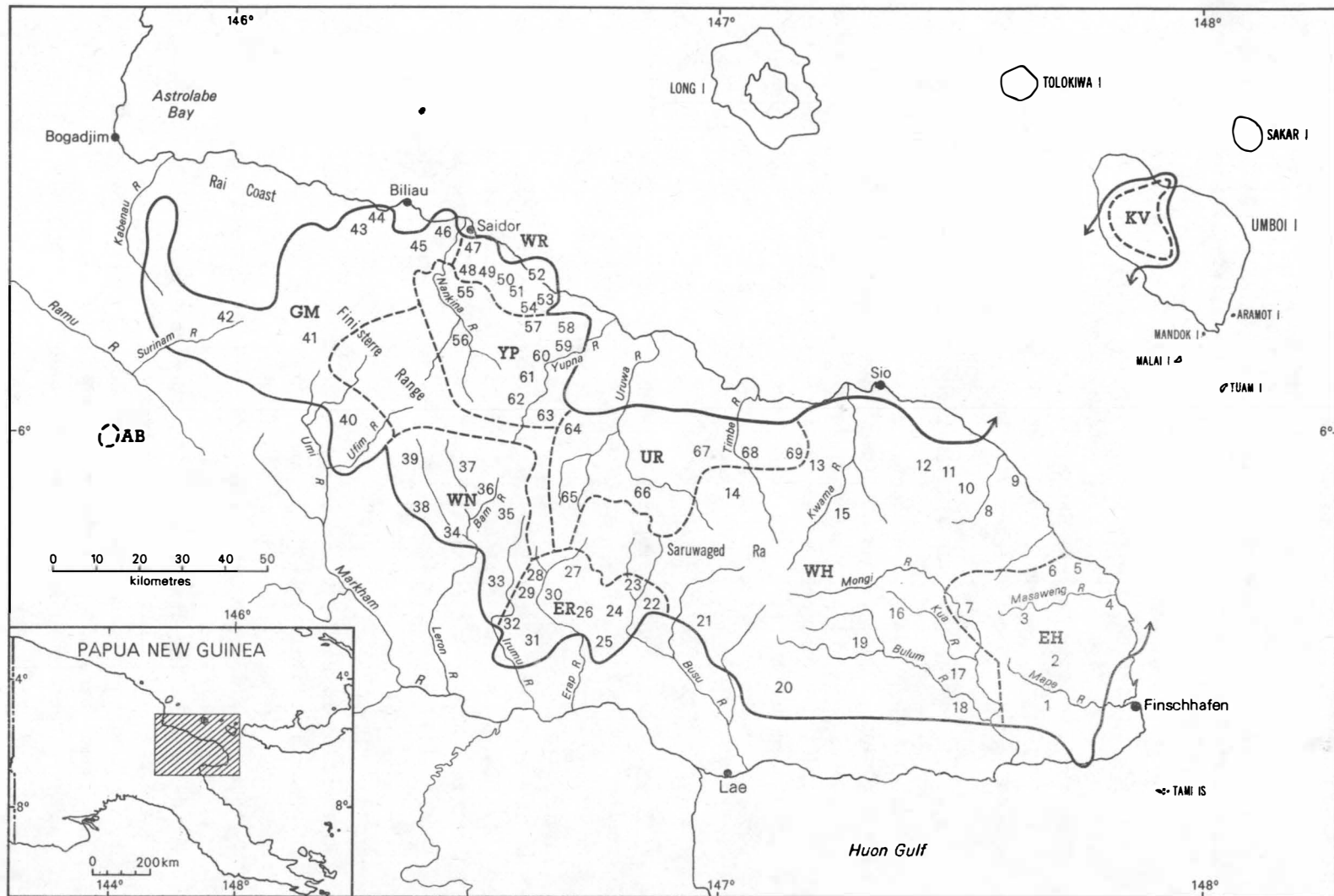
The Eastern Huon Family of languages is located in the south-east corner of the Huon Peninsula. The languages spread from the eastern Mongi basin to the east coast. They stretch as far north as the Tawai River.

The positions of two languages which are provisionally included in this family are indeterminate. These two languages, DEDUA and KUBE, represent mixed languages which share typological features with languages of both Huon Peninsula families.

2.8.1.3.2.1. Kâte (EH-1), pop. 6,130.

The Kâte language, which is spoken in the Kotte Census Division of the Finschhafen hinterland, is one of the better recorded languages of Papua New Guinea (see Grube 1895; Dempwolff 1920; Flierl and Strauss 1976; Keysser 1925; McElhanon 1974; Pilhofer 1927a, 1927b and 1933; Johnson 1972; see also (III) 7.4.5.2.).

In the days immediately preceding European contact, the Kâte people recognized five dialects of their language (Pilhofer 1928, 1929). The Lutheran Mission New Guinea, however, chose to promote a single dialect, Wemo (Wena), in its church and school programmes. As a result, there are few speakers of the other dialects living today. For these



THE FINISTERRE-HUON STOCK

(Key to Map)
FINISTERRE-HUON STOCK

- KV Kovai Language (family-level isolate)
- EH Eastern Huon Family
- | | | |
|---------|-----------|------------|
| 1. Kâte | 3. Dedua | 6. Migabac |
| 2. Mape | 4. Sene | 7. Kube |
| | 5. Momare | |
- WH Western Huon Family
- | | | |
|---------------|-------------|--------------|
| 8. Ono | 13. Selepet | 18. Kosorong |
| 9. Sialum | 14. Timbe | 19. Burum |
| 10. Nomu | 15. Komba | 20. Momolili |
| 11. Kinalakna | 16. Tobo | 21. Nabak |
| 12. Kumukio | 17. Yaknge | |
- ER Erap Family
- | | | |
|------------|---------------|-----------|
| 22. Nuk | 26. Numangang | 30. Nimi |
| 23. Nek | 27. Sauk | 31. Urii |
| 24. Nakama | 28. Gusan | 32. Mamaa |
| 25. Munkip | 29. Finungwa | |
- WN Wantoat Family
- | | | |
|------------|-------------|-----------|
| 33. Irumu | 35. Yagawak | 38. Leron |
| 34. Saseng | 36. Bam | 39. Awara |
| | 37. Wantoat | |
- GM Gusap-Mot Family
- | | | |
|----------|-------------|------------|
| 40. Ufim | 42. Rawa | 45. Ngaing |
| 41. Nahu | 43. Nekgini | 46. Gira |
| | 44. Neko | |
- WR Warup Family
- | | | |
|--------------|-------------|------------|
| 47. Dahating | 50. Morafa | 53. Yagomi |
| 48. Bulgebi | 51. Forak | 54. Asat |
| 49. Gularak | 52. Degenan | |
- YP Yupna Family
- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|-------------|
| 55. Mebu | 58. Domung | 61. Nokopo |
| 56. Nankina | 59. Bonkiman | 62. Kewieng |
| 57. Gabutamon | 60. Wandabong | 63. Isan |
- UR Uruwa Family
- | | | |
|-----------|------------|-------------|
| 64. Som | 66. Yau | 68. Kawangi |
| 65. Sakam | 67. Komutu | 69. Weleki |
- Abaga Language (family-level isolate)

other dialects, the following lists of village names represent the areas in which the other dialects used to be spoken. Villages representing more than one dialect are listed accordingly. The five dialects were:

- (1) Wemo, spoken in Balangko, Fior, Jivevaneng, Katika, Kamaua, Leko, Mararuo (1/2), Masangko, Moreng (1/2), Sisi, and Tareko.
- (2) Wana, spoken in Gurunkor, Kiwisawa, Moreng (1/2) and Tirimara.
- (3) Wamorâ, spoken in Aimolau, Badzuluo, Bolingbongen, Gwinlankor, Kaungko, Kwenliki, Merikeo, Manduo (1/2), Uluor, and Zafilio.
- (4) Parec, spoken in Mararuo (1/2), Manduo (1/2), Sililio, and Sosoninko.
- (5) Mâgobineng (Bamotâ), spoken in Bonga.

Of these five dialects, Parec is extinct, Mâgobineng is limited to one speaker, and Wana and Wamorâ have less than twenty speakers each. Wemo is also now spoken in all of the above villages plus Bonga (formerly Mâgobineng) and Lakona (formerly SENE).

2.8.1.3.2.2. Mape (EH-2), pop. 4,860.

The MAPE language is spoken with considerable dialect variation in the following villages of the Kotte Census Division: Beding, Bokasu, Embengwasung, Fondengko, Gunazaking, Hapahondong, Kangarua, Lanitzera, Magazain, Mawaning, Moikisung, Safifi, Samantiki, Sambiang, Yombong, and Zingko. It is also spoken in the Yabim Census Division: Gauinlabu, Mange and Sokaneng, and in the Hube Census Division: Bongganko. The dialect known as Naga (Pilhofer 1928) is now extinct. The writer has distinguished Eastern and Western Mape dialects. Informants indicate that there are dialects named Nigâc and Fuckac, but various Mape leaders from the coastal villages have not agreed as to the extent of these dialects. More field work is required.

2.8.1.3.2.3. Dedua (EH-3), pop. 4,730.

The DEDUA language has two major dialects. The Southern dialect is more closely related to KÂTE and the Northern dialect to ONO. Moreover, a couple of villages at the watershed of the coastal range show closer relationship to the Yoangen dialect of the KUBE language. As is the case with MAPE, the younger DEDUA speakers freely mix KÂTE vocabulary in their speech. Dedua Census Division: Faseu, Gunabosing,

Hobo, Hompua, Kingfarinau, Lebafu, Masa, Morago, Orarako, Siwea, Yamanzako, Yunzain, Zagahemi, Zongafifi, Zorogo, and Zunzumau.

2.8.1.3.2.4. Sene (EH-4), pop. less than ten.

Kotte Census Division: Lakona.

2.8.1.3.2.5. Momare (EH-5), pop. 370.

Dedua Census Division: Wandokai and Hubegong.

2.8.1.3.2.6. Migabac (EH-6), pop. 1,030.

Dedua Census Division: Northern dialect in Hudewa and Walingai; Southern dialect in Ago, Butenka, and Kapauwa.

2.8.1.3.2.7. Kube (EH-7), pop. 5,800.

Hube Census Division: Kurungtufu dialect (vicinity of Pindiu aerodrome) in Bantamu, Berakwaiyu, Besibong, Bulu, Bwakugu, Gamaheng, Gubu, Kwekwendangu, Kwenzenzeng, Magedzetz, Pafiu, Sananga, Sanseng, Tiren, Ungsesu, and Zenguru; Yoangen dialect (east of Pindiu) in Afong, Gaieng, Homoneng, Koba, Korbau and Silimana.

2.8.1.3.3. WESTERN HUON FAMILY (WH), pop. 59,220.

The fourteen languages of this family spread westward from the Tewai and Mongi rivers to about 147°E longitude near the port of Lae.

2.8.1.3.3.1. Ono (WH-8), pop. 3,000.

Wacke 1931.

There are two dialects of ONO, the Amugen and Ziwe. Kalasa Census Division: Amugen dialect in Bakon, Biungen, Kaunkeo, Keburum, Kip, Kukuya, Nuzen, Soweng, and Wetna; Ziwe dialect in Ga, Gerup, Kanomi, Kanzarua, Karako, Meiawa, Nanda, Ririko, Rua, Sambe, Samep, Tunge, Zakubep, and Zankoa. The dialect border near the villages of Bakon, Soweng, Rua, and Tunge is indistinct. Ono is the prestige language of the Kalasa area and is understood and spoken by most of the Nomu and Sialum men.

2.8.1.3.3.2. Sialum (WH-9), pop. 640.

Kalasa Census Division: Nama, Sialum, and Kwambu.

2.8.1.3.3.3. Nomu (WH-10), pop. 810.

In 1968 informants indicated to the present writer that the Nomu language became extinct about 1900. Data collected at that time revealed ONO roots with NOMU affixation. More recent comments, however, indicate that there may yet be some Nomu speakers alive. Kalasa Census Division: Bwambi, Ezanko, Gitukia, Paukwanga, and Sikikia.

2.8.1.3.3.4. Kinalakna (WH-11), pop. 220.

Kalasa Census Division: Kinalakna.

2.8.1.3.3.5. Kumukio (WH-12), pop. 550.

Kalasa Census Division: Kumukio (Gumukio).

2.8.1.3.3.6. Selepet (WH-13), pop. 6,350.

McElhanon 1967a, 1967b, 1968, 1970a, 1970b, 1970c, 1970d, 1970e, 1972, 1973; McElhanon and McElhanon 1970.

Kalalo and Selepet Census Divisions: Southern dialect in: Belombibi, Honpato, Indum, Karangan, Kulavi, Selepet, and Wekae; Northern dialect in Domut, Hongo, Kabwum, Konimdo, Pendeng, Satop, and Sorong. Three other villages, Kondolop, Nimbako, and Wap, form a subdialect of the Northern dialect.

2.8.1.3.3.7. Timbe (WH-14), pop. 11,510.

Data from the Timbe dialects are limited so that no definitive statements can be made regarding the dialect borders. There appear to be four dialects, but further study may show that the Central and Western dialects may be combined into one. Timbe Census Division: Southern (Upper) dialect in Honziuknan, Laumgei, Mumunggan, Ongganke, Pinang, and Sambangan; Eastern dialect in Boroke, Busian, Derim, Golangke, Tumung, Yandu, and probably other neighbouring villages; Central dialect in Lewamon, Dalugilomon, and neighbouring villages; Western dialect in Etaitno, Imon, Koiyan, and Nandong.

The village of Yakop (formerly Henggune) has been reported by M. Foster (Summer Institute of Linguistics) to be populated by people from a number of dialect areas. The dialectal status of the following villages is still undetermined: Bolimang, Bumbu, Dawot, Gomandat, Gombwato, Hem, Hemang, Kurung, Longmon, Pobung, Songgin, Takop, Timowong, Towat, Wavit, and Yunggu.

2.8.1.3.3.8. Komba (WH-15), pop. 12,350.

Kalalo, Kalasa, Komba, and Selepet Census Divisions: Eastern dialect in Kumbip, Lebangando, Mangam, Melandum, Mula, Puleng, Satkwanga (Satwag), Sambori, and Tauknawe; Central dialect in Gatseng, Geraun, Indagen, Komban, Kopa, Langa, Musep, Saune, Wanam, and Waran, with a subdialect comprising Konge, Lama, Sikam, Umun, and Ununu; Western dialect in Bamurofto, Gumun, Ilaka, Sanon, and Sape; Border dialect in Dengando, Erendengan, Gilang, Tipsit, and Upat.

The Eastern dialect has double (labio-velar) stop phones [gb, kp] corresponding to the labialized stop phones [gw, kw] of the other dialects. The Border dialect is characterized by the phoneme â having a phonetic norm of [ɔ] rather than the [ʌ] of the other dialects. The villages of the Western and Border dialects lie along a major trade route (see Harding 1967), and their differences from the Central dialect may be accentuated by contact with the Selepet people.

2.8.1.3.3.9. Tobo (WH-16), pop. 2,870.

Hube Census Division (Kua Valley): Avenggu, Korumba, Lalang, Lengbati, Nengit, Podzorong, Siu, and Yapang.

2.8.1.3.3.10. Yaknge (Mindik) (WH-17), pop. 2,080.

Hube Census Division (vicinity of the Mindik aerodrome): Hendeneng, Mindik, Satneng, Suevitne, and Tumnang.

2.8.1.3.3.11. Kosorong (WH-18), pop. 1,460.

Hube Census Division (south of Mindik aerodrome): Ebabang, Hamaronong, Wamuki, and Zalimpa.

2.8.1.3.3.12. Burum (WH-19), pop. 4,190.

The Burum language is spoken in the Hube Census Division (Burum Valley): Aregenang, Bulamarong, Dubi, Koili, Kor, Kotkin, Maran, Nomanene, Numbut, Sanaronong, Selimbeng, Semgeta, Simbeng, Ubaneng, Zanggung, Zengaren, and Zewitzan.

2.8.1.3.3.13. Momolili (Mesem) (WH-20), pop. 1,700.

Naba and Momolili Census Divisions: Billmang, Busung, Kaisia, Kwamu, Melanpipi, Momalili, Numenga, Samanzing, and Zezaging.

2.8.1.3.3.14 Nabak (WH-21), pop. 12,000.

Fabian, Fabian, and Peck 1971.

Naba Census Division: Western dialect in Baidoung, Bambok, Bangdap, Dokaling, Hanobman, Karangadoan, Kiakum, Kwambaleng, Misalambaman, Mogom, Sakalan, Silimbang, Tewep, and Tukwambet; Eastern dialect in Akandang, Ankamap, Awen, Kasanombe, Kisituen, Kwapsanek, Momsalom, Sambue, Seperagamam (Seperagambang), Yalumbang, and Zitari. Each of these dialects has subdialects from the north to the south.

2.8.1.3.4. ERAP FAMILY (ER), pop. 12,920.

This family stretches across the headwaters of the Busip and Erap Rivers and along the lower reaches of the Irumu River. The languages form a chain and share 21-72% of the basic vocabulary list. The four languages around Boana patrol post - Nuk, Nek, Nakama, and Numanggang - form a subgroup of more closely related languages.

2.8.1.3.4.1. Nuk (ER-22), pop. 1,880.

Wain Census Division (east of Boana patrol post): Bawan, Geremen, Gevak, Gumbun, Karau, Misok, Monakaset, and Orin. There are two dialects, Northern and Southern, determined on the basis of lexicostatistics.

2.8.1.3.4.3. Nek (ER-23), pop. 1,440.

Wain Census Division: Eastern dialect in Bandong, Bosagen, and Wampangan; Western dialect in Ganzengan, Guombot, and Kawaren. The former has dz corresponding to s in the latter. The people of Guombot and Wampangan are largely bilingual with NUK.

2.8.1.3.4.3. Nakama (ER-24), pop. 1,020.

Wain Census Division: Southern dialect in Dzensan, Pupuf, and Wasin; Northern dialect in Kwaipunum, Sikeran, and Sokam. The h of the Southern dialect corresponds to the s of the Northern dialect.

2.8.1.3.4.4. Munkip (ER-25), pop. 150.

Erap Census Division: Munkip. Its apparent close relationship with the Numanggang and Nakama languages north of it may be due to contact since Munkip village is located on the main trail leading from the Markham Valley (and the port of Lae) into the hinterland.

2.8.1.3.4.5. Numangang (ER-26)

Erap and Wain Census Divisions: Eastern dialect in Badibo, Baguman, Gain, Kasin, Sadau, and Serabo; Western dialect in Kawalang, Kwarebo, Soana, and Sugu. The Eastern dialect has h which corresponds to the s of the Western dialect.

2.8.1.3.4.6. Sauk (ER-27), pop. 630.

Erap Census Division: Sauk and Kisengam.

2.8.1.3.4.7. Gusan (ER-28), pop. 900.

Erap Census Division: Boiran, Borin, Gom, Gusan, and probably Nandalamen.

2.8.1.3.4.8. Finungwa (ER-29), pop. 470.

Erap Census Division: Finungwa and Gofan.

2.8.1.3.4.9. Nimi (ER-30), pop. 1,580.

Erap Census Division: Doandak, Kapora, Labisap, Lowai, Namen, Nimera, and Yangaran.

2.8.1.3.4.10. Urii (ER-31), pop. 2,400+.

Webb 1974.

Erap and Lei-Wompa Census Divisions: Eastern dialect in Fi, Tinibi, and Torowa; Western dialect in Aroande, Aropak, Bibera, Bunki, Fayang, Fi, Narumonke, Siara, Sintogoro, Sonkubing, Tinibi, and Torowa.

2.8.1.3.4.11. Mamaa (ER-32), pop. 210.

Lei-Wompa Census Division: Mamaa. The people of MAMAA are being assimilated by the people of the FINUNGWA language to the east. As a result, the status of this language is not clear.

2.8.1.3.5. WANTOAT FAMILY (WN), pop. 10,120.

This family of languages stretches from the Leron Valley in the west along the southern slopes of the Finisterre Range to the Irumu Valley in the east. The family is dominated by the Wantoat language which represents more than half of the total number of speakers of languages belonging to it.

2.8.1.3.5.1. Irumu (WN-33), pop. 1,480.

Irumu and Lei-Wompa Census Divisions: Aret, Dagaman, Daku, Dopam, Durak, Garamboin, Gumia, Kawan, Uyangen, and Zueibak.

2.8.1.3.5.2. Saseng (WN-34), pop. undetermined.

Saseng Village, which the writer has not identified in census reports, is located on the west bank of the lower Leron River.

2.8.1.3.5.3. Yagawak (WN-35), pop. 560.

Wantoat Census Division: Walikuya, Sasang, and Kaman.

2.8.1.3.5.4. Bam (WN-36), pop. 1,080.

Wantoat Census Division: Bungan, Donan, Ewok, and Kandumin. This language is part of a chain of languages linking the Wantoat and Irumu families.

2.8.1.3.5.5. Wantoat (Wn-37), pop. 5,050.

Davis 1961, 1964a, 1964b, 1969, 1972, 1973.

Wantoat Census Division: Arawik, Atawagap, Bumbum, Buran, Dawansit, Dorem, Etaut, Gapmarapa, Gapmorbi, Gawan, Gesaut, Ginonga, Gwanganan, Gwailing, Gwambongwak, Gwanbon, Gwapsit, Kesan Kikiapa, Kubung, Kupandu, Mamambam, Matap, Mupiapon, Sangurak, Seengaban, Taput, Tukwadaka, Umbi-Abon, Uyam, Wantoat, Yapaingan, Yiwondaga, and Yotdamuk.

D. Davis (Summer Institute of Linguistics) considers the Wantoat language to have widely divergent dialects and includes the Awara and Leron languages within his expanded Wantoat language. Because the lexicostatistical relationships between these groups range from 60-70%, these groups are tentatively classed as separate languages in this study.

2.8.1.3.5.6. Leron (WN-38), pop. 310.

Wantoat Census Division: Asindan, Gusiparan, and Munbantagan. Davis considers it to be a dialect of Wantoat.

2.8.1.3.5.7. Awara (WN-39), pop. 1,640.

Awara Census Division: Bakodupi, Dabaram, Gainan, Gaitapa, Guningwan, Hikwok, Kanaiik, Matak, Mateiya, Sawin, Suat, Tangwenta, Yanuli, and Yudan.

2.8.1.3.6. GUSAP-MOT FAMILY (GM), pop. 14,420.

This is the westernmost family of the Finisterre-Huon Stock. Except for the Ufim language in the Morobe District, all members are within the Madang District.²

2.8.1.3.6.1. Ufim (GM-40), pop. 520.

Markham Headwaters Census Division: Kapara, Lankuam, Numbugu, and Samura.

2.8.1.3.6.2. Nahu (GM-41), pop. 5,770.

Mot, Naho-Rawa, and Yaganon Census Divisions: Bakokono, Bilong, Budemu, Funyende, Guhungor, Kiambau, Kumbarami, Kumburunku, Kwongo, Lusuang, Matoko, Mauwere, Mungo-Naho, Moro, Muniana, Sarakiri, Sari, Sewe, Sunakai, Wali, Wamunti, Yambara, Yorki, and Yorkia.

2.8.1.3.6.3. Rawa (GM-42), pop. 6,000.

Kabenau, Mot, Naho-Rawa, and Yaganon Census Divisions: Northern dialect in Baubo, Bototo, Dogingo, Guhu, Karakara, Koki, Kubigam, Meibu, Mobap, Ongo, Sakorila, Simididi, Sinange, Sitaba, Wado and Yungendam; Southern dialect in Bangri, Beringei, Boro, Damanti, Goilo, Gomumu, Gonogeia, Gur, Guria, Gurumbu (part), Kikipei, Mororo, Mungo-Rawa, Parimo, Saranga, Senei, Seringo, Tauta, and Wangeto. In addition, six other villages are regarded as constituting a linking dialect between the Nahu and Rawa languages: Bagonda, Basor, Gutu, Koiaku, Kurei, and Ramba.

2.8.1.3.6.4. Nekgini (GM-43), pop. 430.

Mot Census Division: Asang, Reite, Seriang, and Sorang located west of the Mot River. Further study may show that NEKGINI and NEKO are dialects of a single language. Reports from NGAING, NEKO, and NEKGINI informants indicate the presence of a dialect chain linking the three languages.

2.8.1.3.6.5. Neko (GM-44), pop. 320.

Mot Census Division: Damoin, Warai, and Yori located near the Lutheran mission station at Biliau.

2.8.1.3.6.6. Ngaing (GM-45), pop. 1,100.

Mot Census Division: Aiyawa, Amun, Busuka, Gabumi, Maibang, Sibog, Silaling, Sindama, Sor, Suri, and Waibol.

2.8.1.3.6.7. Gira (GM-46), pop. 280.

Mot and Warup Census Divisions: Sisagel, Yaunia, and Yeimas.

2.8.1.3.7. WARUP FAMILY (WR), pop. 3,170.

The Warup Family is located along the Rai coast from Saidor eastward to the Yaut River. Claassen (Claassen and McElhanon 1970) identified ASAT, DEGENAN, and MORAFa, and noted DAHATING, GUIARAK, and MAMGAK (FORAK). To these Z'graggen (1973) has added BULGEBI and YAGOMI.

2.8.1.3.7.1. Dahating (WR-47), pop. 920.

Warup Census Division: Bandit, Fangger, Kakima, Kalalin, Kupdui, Mior, Mulumiang, Nampa-Suang, Somek (1/2), Umboldi, and Wilwilan. Claassen (Claassen and McElhanon 1970) listed this language as an isolate. Z'graggen (1973), however, has included the language in the Warup Family.

2.8.1.3.7.2. Bulgebi (WR-48), pop. 50.

Warup Census Division: Bulgebi.

2.8.1.3.7.3. Guiarak (WR-49), pop. 130.

Warup Census Division: Daban, Guiarak, and Kabumdangin.

2.8.1.3.7.4. Morafa (WR-50), pop. 610.

Warup Census Division: Bagen, Baru, Kasu, Somek (1/2), and Subura.

2.8.1.3.7.5. Forak (WR-51), pop. 160.

Warup Census Division: Mamgak.

2.8.1.3.7.6. Degenan (WR-52), pop. 500.

Warup Census Division: Mur, Sel, and Seure.

2.8.1.3.7.7. Yagomi (WR-53), pop. 140.

Warup Census Division: Yagomi. The people of this village were reported as speaking the ASAT language by Claassen (Claassen and McElhanon 1970).

2.8.1.3.7.8. Asat (WR-54), pop. 660.

Warup Census Division: Delbangat, Faigurup, Kapungapang, Kepoiak, Monara, Talmira, and Watang.

2.8.1.3.8. YUPNA FAMILY (YP), pop. 8,290.

These languages are spoken on the northern slopes of the Finisterre Range near the Madang-Morobe District border. McElhanon (Claassen and McElhanon 1970) identified five languages and noted that there is a great amount of dialectal variation in the Yupna valley. To these five languages Z'graggen (1973) has added four more. A detailed survey is necessary, however, before a definitive statement can be made regarding the number and extent of the Yupna languages. The listing which follows is according to Z'graggen (1973).

2.8.1.3.8.1. Mebu (YP-55), pop. 320.

Mot and Upper Nankina Census Divisions: Aiyawa (1/3), Bagalawa, and Mebu.

2.8.1.3.8.2. Nankina (YP-56), pop. 2,170.

Upper Nankina Census Division: Bambu, Gumbaion, Gwarawon, Nambit, Miok, Tariknan, Tepmawon, and Yauangoba.

2.8.1.3.8.3. Gabutamon (YP-57), pop. 300.

Warup Census Division: Gabutamon.

2.8.1.3.8.4. Domung (YP-58), pop. 630.

Warup Census Division: Ewana, Moam, and Tapen.

2.8.1.3.8.5. Bonkiman (YP-59), pop. 250.

Yupna Census Division: Bonkiman and Yuwong.

2.8.1.3.8.6. Wandabong (YP-60), pop. 530.

Yupna Census Division: Baup, Narawum-Kwembum (1/2), Wandabong, and Windiluk.

2.8.1.3.8.7. Nokopo (YP-61), pop. 1,690.

Upper Nankina Census Division: Gua, Kangulat, Narawum-Kwembum (1/2), Nian, Nokopo, Teptep, and Wasikkop.

2.8.1.3.8.8. Kewieng (YP-62), pop. 940.

Yupna Census Division: Kewieng and Megan.

2.8.1.3.8.9. Isan (YP-63), pop. 1,460.

Uruwa and Yupna Census Divisions: Bungavat, Danatum, Isan, Mek, and Urop.

2.8.1.3.9. URUWA FAMILY (UR), pop. 2,740.

In Claassen and McElhanon (1970:54) the writer stated that the Uruwa Basin contained at least three languages, but that there was the possibility that one of these languages could be regarded as five distinct languages. Recent reports by government field officers confirm the existence of three languages, one of which has a number of divergent dialects and is known by the name YAU.

2.8.1.3.9.1. Som (UR-64), pop. 90.

Uruwa Census Division: Gorgiok.

2.8.1.3.9.2. Sakam (UR-65), pop. 690.

Uruwa Census Division: Sakam (Sugan), Kundem, and Dinabat (Dingat), and one village, Kamdarang, located south of the Saruwaged range in the Erap Census Division.

2.8.1.3.9.3. Yau (UR-66), pop. 1,170.

Uruwa Census Division: Boksawin, Gotet, Kumdauron, Mitmit, Mup, Sapmanga, Sindamon, Worin, and Yawan. Preliminary lexicostatistical percentages indicate that the dialects share between 60-75% of the basic vocabulary.

2.8.1.3.9.4. Komutu (UR-67), pop. 610.

Timbe Census Division: Bonggi, Hamelingan, Komutu, Siang, and Sunde. These people are being assimilated by the more populous Timbe people and their language reflects considerable borrowing from Timbe.

2.8.1.3.9.5. Kawangi (UR-68), pop. 50.

Kawangi village, not noted separately on census reports, is located east of the Lower Timbe River (Timbe Census Division). Assimilation by the Timbe people is in an advanced stage and further field work is necessary to determine the exact status of the language.

2.8.1.3.9.6. Weleki (UR-69), pop. 130.

Kalalo Census Division: Weleki. The people are being assimilated by the Timbe and Selepet peoples, and, as is the case with Kawangi, further field work is necessary.

2.8.1.3.10. ABAGA LANGUAGE (FAMILY-LEVEL ISOLATE) (A8), pop. 150.

The ABAGA language spoken by about 150 or so people in the Henganofi area of the Eastern Highlands District, in the Kamano language area (see 2.7.2.2.3. in this volume) also belongs originally to the Finisterre languages. It was discovered in 1969, and upon assessment by McElhanon and Wurm, the language was found to share between 25% and 30% basic vocabulary cognates with Kamano, most of these displaying purely Kamano forms, and to be structurally quite similar to Kamano, except for some features of its verb morphology. At the same time, McElhanon found that approximately 15% of its basic vocabulary showed obvious links with those of Finisterre languages, predominantly with languages of the Erap, Uruwa and Wantoat Families. McElhanon also identified the non-Kamano verb features mentioned above, as constituting Finisterre characteristics.

It seems therefore that Abaga is originally a Finisterre language whose speakers migrated south into the Kamano area and became subject to strong Kamano linguistic influence. They live in Kamano villages, with the villages of Kose 1, Kose 2 and Kanofi containing the highest number of Abaga speakers. Only about half a dozen very old men are monolingual, all others are bilingual Abaga and Kamano speakers, and Abaga appears to be rapidly receding before Kamano.

The group stretches north-eastwards into the Ramu slopes area (Kanofi village) and other speakers are alleged to be living in the north-east across the Ramu - which also indicates their origin.

Because of the strong Kamano influence, the inclusion of Abaga in a particular Finisterre family is difficult, though it appears to have its closest connections with the Erap and Uruwa Families. It has therefore been assigned the status of an isolate of indeterminate family affiliations within the Finisterre languages.

2.8.1.4. TYPOLOGICAL FEATURES

As in many lexicostatistical classifications which include a significantly large number of languages, there exists among the Finisterre-Huon languages a chaining phenomenon in which lexicostatistical relationships generally decrease as the number of languages separating the two compared languages increases. Thus the languages at

the extremities of the group show very low percentages of relationship. Moreover, the lower percentages of relationship among these languages are in some cases lower than some of the percentages of relationship between these languages and languages of other groups; e.g., the Kovai language isolate has in some cases quite low percentages of shared vocabulary with the languages of the Erap Family, viz., Munkip at 3%.

As mentioned in Claassen and McElhanon (1970:58) the languages of the Rai Coast Stock of the Madang Phylum are generally lexicostatistically related to the languages of the Finisterre group to the extent of 4-8% sharing of basic vocabulary, but they are separated from the latter because of differences in a few lexical items which are quite stable throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages and because of different typological features.

Although the writer has considerable data showing the grammatical features of the twenty-one Huon Peninsula languages, it appears that it will be a number of years before a comparable corpus of data will be collected in the forty-eight Finisterre languages. Therefore, one could not expect detailed grammatical comparisons of the majority of these languages for many years, perhaps decades, to come.

Of the Finisterre languages, however, three languages from separate lexicostatistical families have been studied in detail by members of the Summer Institute of Linguistics: Rawa (Rw.) of the Gusap-Mot Family by O.R. and M.F. Claassen, Wantoat (Wn.) of the Wantoat Family by D.R. and L. Davis, and Urii (Ur.) of the Erap Family by T. and G. Webb. Moreover, the writer has considerable data in the Kewieng language (Kw.) of the Yupna Family. Thus languages from four of the six families in the Finisterre group have been studied in more or less greater detail. Combining these four languages with five others from the Huon Peninsula group plus the Kovai (Kv.) language yields a collection of languages which may be said to be representative of the Finisterre-Huon stock as a whole. The five from the Huon Peninsula group are: Kâte (Kt.), Ono, Selepet (Sl.), Nabak (Nb.) and Kube (Kb.).

2.8.1.4.1. PHONOLOGY

Table A presents a tabulation of the phonemes which have been tentatively identified in each of the ten representative languages.³ A question mark indicates that the phonemic status of that phone is in doubt.

Note that all of the languages indicate a contrast between voiceless stops and voiced (often prenasalized) stops at the labial, alveolar and velar positions. Only Rawa has a contrastive series of

voiced prenasalized stops in distinction to voiced stops. All of the languages except Rawa (which has open syllables) have final unreleased variants of the voiceless stops (except the labio-velar stop). The labio-velar series of stops include both labialized velar variants, [kʷ] and [gʷ] and double (labio-velar) stops, [kp] and [gb]. This series has not been established in Kovai although a few phonetic labialized velar stops have been observed.

All of the languages evidence nasals at the labial, alveolar and velar points of articulation but only Wantoat has a labialized velar nasal [ŋʷ].

There are two series of fricatives, flat and grooved. The former includes w, f, ɣ, and h, whereas the latter includes the s and z. The z includes a voiced affricate variant dz and may also include ts as a variant.

A six vowel pattern predominates although the number of languages with a five vowel pattern is not insignificant. Vowel length is not a common feature and consonant length is even less common.

The syllable structure is quite simple throughout the representative languages. In all the languages, apparently any consonant may commence a syllable, although there is a usual restriction that r does not occur word initially (except in Kovai). Syllables are commonly closed by p, t, k, m, n, or ŋ (except in Rawa with only open syllables), and occasionally l (Kewieng and Kovai), z or s (Kovai).

Each language has its peculiarities regarding which consonants may occur contiguously at syllable boundaries within the word. Syllable nuclei are either simple or complex in that they may manifest single vowels or vowel clusters. Where vocoid or vowel clusters do occur there are usually restrictions on their sequence.

2.8.1.4.2. NOUN PHRASE STRUCTURE

There are certain features of the Noun Phrase structure which are found throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages here compared. A basic General Noun Phrase formula which incorporates only those tagmemes shared by these languages may be posited as follows: †Possession †Attributive †Head †Qualifier †Numeral †Demonstrative. Generally none of these tagmemes is obligatory. The regular personal pronoun substitute for a portion of the phrase, which in Selepet includes only the Possession, Attributive and Head tagmemes, but which in Wantoat includes the whole noun phrase.

The Possession tagmeme is expounded by a Possession Axis-relator Phrase. The axis of this phrase may be expounded by a variety of

TABLE A: PHONEMES

	p	t	k	kp	b	d	g	gb	m	n	ŋ	w	f	y	s	z	h	l	r	i	e	â	o	u	
Kt.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ono	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Sl.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Kb.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Nb.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Ur.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Wn.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Kw.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Rw.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Kv.	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

In addition Wantoat has ŋw and æ; Rawa has mb, nd, ŋg and the voiced stop phonemes have voiced variants in the northern dialect which correspond to voiceless unaspirated variants in the southern dialect; Kube and Nabak evidence probable phonemically lengthened consonants; Kâte and Kewieng evidence phonemically lengthened vowels as also do Wantoat and Urii, but not in the full series; Kewieng has a possible phonemically distinct ts.

construction types or word classes, and the relator is expounded by a clitic. Examples from the Selepet language are: (1) a clause as in *mukan ariop-gât senŋe âlâlâ* (*yesterday, he went-of, things*) *the things of the one who went yesterday*; (2) a noun as in *biolipyeŋa-gât opon* (*their brothers-in-law-of, men's house*) *the men's house of their brothers-in-law*; (3) a regular personal pronoun as in *nâ-gât emet* (*me-of, house*) *my house*; and (4) an emphatic pronoun expounding the Possession tagmeme as in *nine emet* *my own house*.

The attributive tagmeme is usually expounded by a limited noun phrase, names or adjectival forms. Examples from Selepet are: *lok yâhâp kutyetŋe* (*man, two, their names*) *the names of the two men*; *Andaria âwâŋe* (*Andaria, his father*) *Andaria's father*; and *kânŋ den* (*false, words*) *misrepresentations*.

The Head tagmeme is usually expounded by a wide variety of nominal forms.

The Qualifier tagmeme is expounded by a variety of adjectival forms. When this tagmeme is repeated there is a preferred semantic ordering of adjectives. Most frequently this ordering is: sex, colour, age, quality, shape, size, and quantity.

The Numeral tagmeme is expounded by numerals or adjectival forms indicating quantity, and the Demonstrative tagmeme is expounded by the demonstrative pronouns.

2.8.1.4.3. WORD FORMATION

The following processes of word formation have been observed to occur in most of the languages. Examples are from Selepet.

Intransitive verbs are derived by a verbalizer suffix which is apparently cognate for all the languages compared here. The root *kârik strong* plus *-e* yields *kârihe to become strong*.

Transitive verbs are derived by addition of bound object markers which function as transitive verbalizers. The root *kâlâp fire* plus *-ku him* yields *kâlâpku to arouse him*.

Intransitive verbs are derived by the addition of the verb peripheral suffixes. In these cases the root usually occurs with a different syntactic function as well: *giriŋ-ban I laughed* from *giriŋ laughter*.

Adjectives are derived by an adjectivizer suffix which is apparently cognate in all languages compared, and significantly, for each of the languages it is either identical or nearly identical in the particular language with the nominal possessive marker indicating third person singular. Thus *bâle-ŋe (bad, adjectivizer) bad* and *sen-ŋe (eye, his) his eye*.

Nouns are frequently derived by reduplication from a verbal form: *ise-ise weeping* from *ise- to weep*.

Adverbs are derived by reduplication with or without heterophonic reduplication (i.e., a reduplication of the total word but with a vowel and/or consonant shift): *lohot lohot weakly* from *lohot weak* and *hâtik mitik in a crosswise manner* from *hâtik- to cross over*.

2.8.1.4.4. NOUNS

There are two subclasses of nouns found throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages. The first subclass includes body parts and kinship terms and occurs with obligatory possession-marking suffixes. The second subclass includes other nouns and the possession-marking suffixes are optional. In most of the Huon Peninsula languages the first subclass of nouns has the structure +nucleus +number +possession with the morphemes occurring in the number tagmeme indicating singular, dual and plural.

The morphemes indicating dual are related to the numeral two and are cognate in many of these languages. The languages of the

Finisterre subgroup and the Koval language apparently do not indicate number in this manner although the Rawa language has a plural marker occurring between the nucleus and the possession-marking suffixes. A vowel shift in the possession-marking suffix indicates singular or plural number in Urii.

Examples from Selepet are: *ata-Ø-ne (el.br.-sg.-my) my elder brother*, *ata-yâhât-ne (el.br.-du.-my) my two elder brothers*, and *ata-lip-ne (el.br.-pl.-my) my elder brothers*. The numeral *two* is *yâhâp*.

2.8.1.4.5. REGULAR PERSONAL PRONOUNS

The regular personal pronouns (Table B) show strong stability, and cognate forms occur throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages. The submorphemic formatives (see Pike 1963) making up the pronoun person-number composites are significant in their stability. An analysis of the pronoun composite yields the structure +person +number +number, in which the person formative is manifested by a consonant, the first number formative by a vowel, and the second number formative by a consonant. This formula holds for Selepet, Nabak, Urii, Kewieng and Wantoat.

TABLE B: REGULAR PERSONAL PRONOUNS

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Sl.	nâ	gâ	yâk	net	yet	yâkyet	nen	yen	yâkyen
Nb.	nâ	gâ	ek	net	it	ekget	nen	in	ekgen
Ono	na	ge	eŋe	ŋere	ŋire	ere	ŋene	ŋine	eŋe
Kb.	ni	gi	i	niri	iri	iri	nini	ini	ini
Kt.	no	go	e	nâhe	ŋohe	yahe	nâŋe	ŋoŋe	yage
Ur.	na	ga	adi	indi	sidi	adi	indi	sidi	adi
Kw.	nâk	gâk	uŋun	nit	dzil	dzil	nin	dzi	dzi
Wn.	nâ	gâ	an	nit	git	git	nin	gin	gin
Rw.	no	ke	ŋu	nâre	yari	eraga	nâre	ye	garo
Kv.	non	gok	i	it	ŋot	yot	in	ŋon	yon

For proto-Finisterre-Huon (PFH) the field structure and proto-formatives may be posited as in Table C.

TABLE C: REGULAR PERSONAL PRONOUN FORMATIVES

		sg.		non-sg. du.			non-sg. pl.	
		(*a)	(*k)	(*i)	(*t)	(*i)	(*n)	
1st per.	(*n)	n	a k	n	i t	n	i n	
2nd per.	(*ŋg)	ŋg	a k	ŋg	i t	ŋg	i n	
3rd per.	(*y)	y	a k	y	i t	y	i n	

For the PFH forms as given above, the vowel *a indicating 'singular' represents a back vowel as opposed to a front vowel (represented by *i) indicating 'non-singular' number. At an earlier stage the vowels may have been identical but a shift to a front vowel occurred in the 'dual' and 'plural' number. The *k formative indicating 'singular' has been generally lost in the 'first' and 'second' person forms in all the Huon Peninsula languages and remains in the 'third' person form in only a few languages. The formative *t indicating 'dual' is found throughout most of the languages as either t or as one of its possible morphophonemic variants. Thus in Kube, Ono and Rawa, the addition of a final vowel necessitates a change from t to r. In Urii of the Erap family of languages the *t is represented by either nd or d, the latter reflecting a loss of prenasalization. In Kewieng and a couple of the Uruwa languages the final t has occasionally weakened to a final l, often accompanied by slight friction. The formative *n indicating 'plural' is found in all those languages which distinguish 'dual' and 'plural'. In Urii and most of the other languages of the Erap family the plural forms are absent and their function has been taken on by the dual forms. Note in Kâte that the 'dual' is indicated by h and the 'plural' by ŋ. One might suppose that in the development of the Kâte language a vowel was added to a final glottal stop which represented a neutralization of the contrast between syllable-final p, t and k (see McElhanon 1970:228).

The addition of the vowel, however, may not have yielded the original morphophonemic variants; thus final glottal stop was replaced by h rather than by r and final ŋ remained ŋ. An alternative hypothesis, however, might be to consider the final t and k (before neutralization occurred) as reflexes of a single proto-form (see McElhanon and Voorhoeve 1970:27, 53 for t and k as reflexes of *C). Note that in a few languages, e.g., Kewieng and Rawa, the formative *n indicating 'plural' was lost in the second and third person forms.

The formative *n indicating 'first person' is found throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages, although in a few languages, e.g., Nabak, Kube, Urii and Koval, it is lost in the dual and plural forms. In the

Ono dual and plural forms the formative is identical to the second person formative η and it may be theorized that the distinction between first and second person was lost in the consonantal formatives because the distinction was present in the vowel formatives e (first and third person) and i (second person).

The second person formative $*\eta g$ has a variety of reflexes. In the second person singular form of most of the languages it is $(\eta)g$ with the prenasalization absent in some languages or subphonemic in others. In the dual and plural forms the reflex η , representing the velar prenasalization of the proto forms, is found in a number of the Huon Peninsula languages (e.g., Nabak (only in third person forms), Ono and Kâte) and in Kovai. The reflexes z in Kewieng, s in Urii and y in most other languages may reflect a process of palatalization of the g after the vowel change from a back vowel to a front vowel took place (see McElhanon and Voorhoeve 1970:65).

2.8.1.4.6. POSSESSIVE SUFFIXES

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TABLE D: NOMINAL POSSESSIVE SUFFIXES

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Sl.	ne	ge	ηe	net ηe	yet ηe	yet ηe	nenge	ye ηe	ye ηe
Nb.	n	di	$\eta a\eta$	(η)it	(η)it	(η)it	n ^a	(η)in	(η)in
Ono	ne	ηone	ine	se	$\eta itne$	etne	dze	ηine	ene
Kb.	na	ga	a	nira	gira	gira	nina	gina	gina
Kt.	nane	ge	tikne/ ne	nâhek	$\eta ekik$	yekik	nâhek	$\eta \eta ik$	ye ηik
Ur.	na	ga	ni	ni	sic	sic	ni	sic	sic
Kw.	no	go	ηi	nit	dzil	dzil	nin	dzi	dzi
Wn. ^b	na	ga	$\eta â$	nit	sâ	nâ	nin	sâ	nâ
Rw.	ne	ge	ηo	nare	yari	yari	nane	ye	ye
Kv. I	in	ok	on	uwit	u ηot	uwot	uwin	u ηon	uwon
Kv. II	no η	go η	o η	to η	neto η	yoto η	in $\eta o\eta$	$\eta eno\eta$	yo $\eta o\eta$

^an represents a reduction or contraction of nin.

^ballomorphic forms observed for all Wantoat suffixes in Table D.

The nominal possessive suffixes show striking similarities throughout. For each language compared here, with the exception of the third person singular form, all forms are either identical to or similar to the regular personal pronoun forms. The third person singular form is always identical to or similar to the adjectivizer suffix.

The Selepet possessive suffixes probably represent a fusion of the noun with a following adjective which was derived from the regular personal pronoun suffixed by the adjectivizer (McElhanon 1972:64). These fossilized adjectivizers are evident in the possessive suffixes for Selepet, Ono, Kube and Koval (II). As with the regular personal pronouns, cognate forms are found throughout the languages. The Koval series I forms evidence considerable vowel harmony with the preceding stem/root vowels.

2.8.1.4.7. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

The demonstrative pronouns are quite stable throughout the languages of the Finisterre-Huon group. These demonstratives denote five positions relative to the speaker and hearer: *this* (near the speaker), *that* (near the hearer), *that over there* (removed from both speaker and hearer), *that up there* (removed from both speaker and hearer), and *that down there* (removed from both speaker and hearer). The demonstratives are given in Table E.

TABLE E: DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

	<i>what</i>	<i>this</i>	<i>that</i>	<i>there</i>	<i>up</i>	<i>down</i>	<i>which</i>
Sl.	wuân	yu	ya	eda [enda]	ewa	eba [emba]	woSA/ woDA
Nb.	kureki	pi	ke	inda	gwa	ba	DE
Ono	ono(ka)	i	ye	eri	we(ti)	gbe(ti)	DI
Kb.	nemak	yo(mi)	i(mi)	eri(mi)			DI
Kt.	wemo	zi	i	okni	faik	yuwik	weNI
Ur.	naasit	i/ya	u/wa	do			inDE
Kw.	ni	o	ya	asto	kwe	mok-(?)	ZI
Wn.	dâsi	a	u	ato	e	amu	
Rw.	nda	ŋa	ŋu	ande	awe	ame	
Kv.	muk	ye	ya/i	dri			awon

The form which is most stable is that for *that over there* which is cognate in all the languages. Second in stability is the form meaning *which* with a common element (in capitals in Table E) occurring in most languages. This element occurs compounded with another element *wc* in Selepet, and apparent cognates of *wo* occur in Kâte and Koval. Note that the forms meaning *this* and *that* are often involved in semantic shifts; the form meaning *this* in one language will have a cognate form meaning *that* in another language and vice versa. Moreover, some languages evidence a vowel difference which in Selepet reflects nearness

or remoteness but which in the other languages may not have any distinction.

2.8.1.4.8. VERBS

Throughout the languages of the Finisterre-Huon group the verb structure may be described by positing a verb nucleus as opposed to a verb periphery. The nucleus manifests either a transitive verb stem or an intransitive verb root/stem.⁴ The transitive verb stem consists of a root plus an object-marking affix. Most intransitive verbs thus far observed are roots although intransitive verb stems are not totally absent; e.g., in Selepet, intransitive verbs may be derived from roots by the suffixation of *-e* as in *lohole- to become weak* from *lohot weak*.

Verbs may generally be divided into two structural subclasses, independent and dependent. The independent verbs manifest a number of tenses and/or modes, and the independent verb periphery manifesting these tenses and/or modes may be divided into two subtypes on the basis of linear order of suffixal tagmemes, one subtype involving the imperative mode. The dependent verb periphery may also be divided into two subtypes on the basis of linear order of suffixal tagmemes, heteropersonal and homopersonal.

Generally speaking there are two distinctive subtypes of independent verb peripheries. There is some variation among the languages as to which tenses and/or modes fall within each periphery. For all the languages, however, the imperative mode with or without other modes or tenses occurs in one periphery and the past and present (indicative) tenses occur in a second periphery.

Table F presents the verbal suffixes indicating the imperative mode. The vowels in these forms apparently indicate mode. The consonant formatives indicating number are highly stable in the first person forms.

Note that singular number is marked by a labial stop or fricative. Dual is generally marked by an alveolar obstruent and plural generally by an alveolar nasal. Except for Kâte and Koval these formatives are syllable initial. Koval is one of the most divergent of these languages and in these morphemes the consonant and vowel has metathesized. Kâte represents an aberrant subgroup of languages, and the structure of the first person dual and plural forms appears to be based by analogy upon the structure of the second and third person, dual and plural forms. Most of these languages have complex person-number composites in the second and third person, dual and plural. The analysis of

these forms must await the collection of more data in those languages which are represented only by basic vocabulary lists, and ultimately it must await an application of the comparative method and reconstruction.

TABLE F: NUMBER FORMATIVES IN FIRST PERSON FORMS

	singular	dual	plural
Selepet	-be	-de	-ne
Nabak	-bi	-di	-ne
Ono	-be	-te	-ŋem
Kube	-ba	-zi	-ni
Kâte	-pe	-nak	-naŋ
Urii	-wak	-dam	-nam
Kewieng	-wo	-do	-no
Wantoat	-pa	-ta	-na
Rawa	-we	-re	-ye
Kovai	-ip	-et	-en

The second type of periphery is quite regular throughout all the languages compared and usually includes two past tenses or one past tense and one present tense. The structure is ±benefactive +mode +tense +person-number. The distinguishing features of this periphery are that the order of the tagmemes is generally fixed and that the mode tagmeme is distinct from the tense tagmeme and is manifested by 'habitulative mode' morphemes which may be shown to be derived from verb compounding. Generally there is little difficulty in identifying the constituent morphemes of this subtype of verb periphery.

The habitulative mode (hab.) morphemes of these languages may be shown to be related to the verbs meaning *to do* or *to live* and to have a historical basis in verb compounding. In the historical development of these forms fusion has taken place so that some of the current habitulative mode morphemes in some of the languages bear only slight resemblance to the original verb forms from which they developed. Examples from the various languages supporting the conclusion that the habitulative mode suffix was derived through verb compounding follow:

- (1) KOVAI as in *ge-me* (hab.-*he spoke*) *he used to speak* and *ga-gap* (hab.-*I will go*) *I will always go*; compare *gi to live*.
- (2) KÂTE as in *ra-e-kak* (*to go-hab.-he* (present tense)) *he always goes*; compare *e-kak* *he does it*; and *ra-yu-yek* (*to go-hab.-he* (past tense)) *he used to go*; compare *yu-yek* *he lived*.

- (3) KUBE as in ke-an-zak (*to go-hab.-he (past tense)*) *he always goes*; compare an-zak *he lives*.
- (4) ONO as in ari-mai-ke (*to go-hab.-he (past tense)*) *he always goes*; compare ma-ke *he did it*.
- (5) SELEPET as in ari-m-ap (*to go-hab.-he (past tense)*) *he always goes*; compare m-ap *he lives*.
- (6) NABAK as in ma-met-zin (*to live-to go-he (present tense)*) *he always goes*; ma-ko-tap-mayan (*to live-to come-to be situated-he (past tense)*) *he used to come*; and ma-we-ma-be (*to live-to sleep-to live-he (future tense)*) *he will always sleep*.
- (7) KEWIENG as in k \wedge - \wedge -zak (*to go-hab.-he (past tense)*) *he always goes*; compare \wedge -zak *he did it*.
- (8) RAWA as in âroro-ârâ-te (*going-hab.-he (present tense)*) *he always goes*; compare ârâ-te *he lives*.
- (9) URUI as in fa-ar-rik (*to go-hab.-I (present tense)*) *I always go*; the morpheme -ar cannot be identified with an Urii verb, but it is apparently cognate with Rawa ârâ-.

All of the languages of the Finisterre-Huon Stock evidence two subtypes of dependent verb periphery, namely, homopersonal (same actor as that of the following verb) and heteropersonal (different actor from that of the following verb). For detailed comments on this subject see McElhanon 1973.

2.8.1.4.9. DESIDERATIVE VERB CONSTRUCTIONS

The concepts of desire, intent, purpose and inception of action are often not formally distinguished in some of the languages of the Finisterre-Huon Stock. Thus a single utterance in a vernacular may be rendered equally well by the English glosses *I am about to*, *I want to*, *I intend to*, or *I purpose to*. There are a number of different constructions which are used to indicate these concepts, and when a language has more than one construction type usually one of the types has a much higher frequency of occurrence. This section of the study only concerns the most common constructions which are purported to indicate *desire*. These construction types are:

- (1) (verb root/stem in the imperative mode) + *to say* (dependent homopersonal form) + *to do*. This construction is by far the most common although there are minor variations particularly with regard to the occurrence of concord.

- (2) (noun derived by verb root/stem reduplication + benefactive clitic + the verbs *to do* or *to exist*, *be* with the benefactive suffixes and a third person singular subject marker.

Examples from the languages compared follow:

- (1) KÂTE as in ra-pe mu-râ e-nare-kak (*go-I* (imperative), *say-ing, do-to me-it* (past tense)) *I want to go*; and ra-k mu-râ e-gare-kak (*go-you* (imperative), *say-ing, do-to you-it* (past tense)) *you want to go*.
- (2) KUBE as in ke-ma-nze wan-zua (*go-ing-say, do-I* (past tense)) *I want to go*; and ke-ma-nze wan-zak (*go-ing-say, do-he* (past tense)) *he wants to go*.
- (3) ONO as in ari rara-ane simin-nan-maike (*go, speaking-for, agreeable-to me-it* (past tense)) *I want to go*; and ari rara-ane simin-gan-maike (*go, speaking-for, agreeable-to you-it* (past tense)) *you want to go*.
- (4) SELEPET as in ari-we sâ-m o-an (*go-I* (imperative), *say-ing, do-I* (past tense)) *I want to go*; and ari-re sâ-m o-ait (*go-we* (du., imperative) *say-ing, do-we* (du., past tense) *we* (du.) *want to go*.
- (5) NABAK; in the following examples the morpheme -sât is apparently cognate with the Selepet verb sâ *to say*: met-sât nâ-ya (*go-sât, think-I* (past tense)) *I want to go*; and met-sât nâ-nak (*go-sât, think-you* (past tense)) *You want to go*.
- (6) KEWIENG as in kok-do nandi-zat (*go-for, think-I* (present tense)) *I want to go*; and kok-do nandi-zal (*go-for, think-you* (present tense)) *you want to go*.
- (7) RAWA as in yure-we e-ro âmbu-te (*kill them-I* (imperative mode), *say-ing, came-he* (past tense)) *he came intending to kill them*; and yure-we e-ro âmbu-tero (*kill them-I* (imperative mode), *say-ing, came-we* (du., past tense)) *we* (du.) *came intending to kill them*.
- (8) WANTOAT; in the following example the vowel *i* is analyzed as a transition vowel by Davis (1964:164), but it may be an allomorph of the verb *si to exist*: ku-na-ge i-niŋ (*go-we* (imperative/intentive)-*for, exist-they* (future tense)) *they will want to go*.
- (9) URII as in guu gagaap-gat niŋ to-ŋa ta-rik (*you, seeing you-for, thus, say-ing, do-I* (present tense)) *I am here wanting to see you*.

2.8.1.4.10 BOUND OBJECT AND BENEFACTIVE MARKERS

These markers include the object-marking affixes which occur as part of the transitive verb stem and the benefactive-marking suffixes which occur in the benefactive tagmeme immediately following the verb stem.

A comparison of these markers clearly shows the genetic relationship of the representative languages, although it is necessary to compare whole paradigms in order to recognize the relationship. Most of the languages evidence bound object markers, and all the transitive verb roots of these languages may be divided into subclasses on the basis of their occurrence with a particular set of allomorphs of the object marker. For example, in Selepet there are three paradigms of object marker allomorphs. The first person singular allomorphs are -nek (subclass one), -nihi (subclass two) and -noho (subclass three) (see McElhanon 1972:38-40 for a detailed treatment of these). Examples of subclass one verb roots are: *gâi-nek-sap* (*cut-me-he* (past tense)) *he cut me*, *me-nek-sap* (*hold-me-he* (past tense)) *he held me* and *kat-nek-sap* (*put-me-he* (past tense)) *he dismissed me*. Examples of subclass two verb roots are: *mewale-nihi-ap* (*defraud-me-he* (past tense)) *he defrauded me*, *mabot-nihi-ap* (*await-me-he* (past tense)) *he awaited me*, and *pene-nihi-ap* (*join-me-he* (past tense)) *he joined me*. Examples of subclass three verb roots are: *tân-noho-ap* (*bone-me-he* (past tense)) *he helped me*, *kâlâp-noho-ap* (*fire-me-he* (past tense)) *he aroused me*, and *kâdât-noho-ap* (*back-me-he* (past tense)) *he turned his back on me*.

In some of the languages these object marker allomorphs are mainly suffixal (e.g., Selepet) while in others they are mainly prefixal (e.g., Wantoat). In a number of languages neither the suffixal nor the prefixal forms appear to predominate (e.g., Nabak). In general the Huon Peninsula languages show a predominance of suffixal forms while the Finisterre languages show a predominance of prefixal forms.

In many of the languages one or more of the verb subclasses contain a verb root morpheme represented by zero and these roots are distinguished by the object marker allomorph. Thus, in Selepet the relevant forms are \emptyset -nek-sap (*see-me-he* (past tense)) *he saw me*, \emptyset -nihi-ap (*give/bite-me-he* (past tense)) *he gave it to me* or *it bit me*, and \emptyset -noho-ap (*hit-me-he* (past tense)) *he hit me*. This phenomenon is most developed in the Huon Peninsula group, particularly in the Ono language. In the Finisterre group, the phenomenon has importance in the diachronic study. Various synchronic studies (e.g., Wantoat by Davis

(1964a), Urii by Webb (1967) and Rawa by the Claassens (1968)) have not noted the possible occurrence of any verb root zero morpheme.

For most of these languages a basic number of verb roots are usually found to represent all of the allomorphic subclasses of the object markers. These verb roots are those meaning *to hit/kill*, *to give*, and *to see*. In some synchronic studies (Davis 1964a; the Claassens 1968; and Webb 1967) these verb roots are described as being the lone members of individual verb classes while in others (Pilhofer 1927a, 1933; Wacke 1931) they are described as object verbs. As would be expected there is a great diversity among the languages regarding the number of allomorphic subclasses of the object markers, ranging from a single class in Wantoat to fourteen subclasses in Ono (see Wacke 1931:174-7).

A comparison of these allomorphic subclasses of one language with the verb roots of another language yields evidence for forming a hypothesis explaining this diversity in the number of allomorphic subclasses of the object markers found in the various languages. It has been noted that for many of these languages it is useful to posit a zero morpheme for one verb root with each allomorphic subclass.

A comparison of the various allomorphic subclasses with the verb roots for *to bite* (Table G) and *to see* (Table H) reveals that the forms are intricately related and that these relationships extend throughout the Finisterre-Huon languages and perhaps into other groups as well (see McElhanon and Voorhoeve 1970:94-7). A definitive statement will therefore have to await further study.

TABLE G: *to bite*

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Sl.	nihî	gihî	ihî	nitki	yitki	yitki	ningî	yingî	yingî
Nb.	ni	gi	i	nndi	itdi	itdi	ndi	indi	indi
Ono	nîrot	gîrot	ki	ŋetot	ŋitot	etot	ŋedot	ŋidot	edot
Kb.	ni	gi	ki	niri	iri	iri	nini	ini	ini
Kt.	kiknu	kikgu	ki	kik-nâfo	kik-ŋofa	kik-yofa	kik-nâpo	kik-ŋopa	kik-yopa
Ur.	ni	gi	si	indi	sidi	idi	indi	sidi	idi
Kw.			inzi	(other forms were not elicited satisfactorily)					
Wn.	nasi	gasi	isi	nisi	dasi	yesi	nisi	dasi	yesi
Rw.	nâki	gâki	ki	yâki	yâki	yâki	yâki	yâki	yâki
Kv.	ilne	ilge	ile	ilte	il- ŋete	il- yete	il- inye	il- ŋene	il- yene

TABLE H: *to see*

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Sl.	nek	gek	ek	nelek	yelek	yelek	nenek	yek	yek
Nb.	nik	gik	ek	nndik	itdik	itdik	ndik	indik	indik
Ono	nan	gan	ka	ŋot	ŋut	ot	ŋon	ŋun	on
Kb.	nɪn	gɪn	kən	nirii	irii	irii	ninii	inii	inii
Kt.	hone- nu	hone- gu	hone- ∅	hone- nâfo	hone- ŋofa	hone- yofa	hone- nâpo	hone- ŋopa	hone- yopa
Ur.	naab	gaab	ka	niib	saab	yaab	niib	saab	yaab
Kw.	namda	gamda	ko	nimda	damda	damda	nimda	damda	damda
Wn.	nadu	gadu	ka	nidu	dadu	ka	nidu	dadu	ka
Rw.	neyâ	geyâ	keno	yeyâ	yeyâ	yeyâ	yeyâ	yeyâ	yeyâ
Kv.	amal- ne	amal- ge	ane	amal- te	amal- ŋete	amal- yete	amal- inye	amal- ŋene	amal- yene

Note, however, that a comparison of the various bound object marker allomorphs reveals two significant features. Firstly, for many of the languages the bound object marker allomorphs which occur with a zero verb root show cognate forms throughout many of the object marker paradigms. Compare, for example, the object marker allomorphs occurring with the verb *to bite* (Table G) in Selepet, Nabak, Kube and Urii. Secondly, and equally significant, is the fact that the third person singular object marker in one or more languages is often cognate with the verb root morphemes in other languages. Note that the third person singular form in Ono and Kube is *ki* and that this form is the same as the root morpheme in Rawa and Kâte. It is important to note that the Kâte bound object markers occurring with *ki* are suffixes but in Rawa they are prefixes. This should caution anyone in using prefixal or suffixal object markers as a heavily weighted typologically contrastive feature. Moreover, both suffixal and prefixal forms are occasionally found in the same language. It is premature to state whether or not the proto-form of *ki* represents the root for *to bite* in the Finisterre-Huon languages. One hypothesis is that the verb *to bite* as well as many other verbs were represented in the proto-language by zero morphemes. These zero morpheme verb roots were then distinguished by the allomorphic subclasses of the bound object marker. In the historical development of these languages the third person singular allomorph of the object marker of the proto-language became the verb root in later stages of development, and to this verb root were affixed the object marker allomorphs of another subclass. By this process the number of allomorphic subclasses of the object marker

were reduced in the daughter languages. In support of this hypothesis a number of observations may be given.

The allomorphs of the third person singular object marker of the Ono language are often apparently cognate with the verb root morphemes of other languages. This may indicate that the Ono language with its fourteen allomorphic subclasses of the object marker preserves more archaic forms than most other languages. It has already been noted that both Rawa and Kâte have a verb root *ki to bite* which is apparently cognate with the third person singular allomorph *ki* of the object marker in Ono.

Furthermore, note that for the verb *to see* (Table H) the third person singular forms in Selepet, Nabak, Ono, Urii, Kewieng, and Wantoat are recognizable as apparent cognates. The Selepet and Nabak forms evidence a metathesis of vowel and consonant when compared with the Ono form.⁵

In the development of the Ono and Selepet languages from their putative proto-language, a large number of the allomorphic subclasses of the object markers were preserved in Ono, but lost in Selepet. Table I presents the allomorphic subclasses for the Ono verbs *to hold*, *to burn*, *to copulate with someone*, and *to shoot*. The Ono third person singular object marker (in capitals) for each of these verbs is cognate with the respective verb root in Selepet (also in capitals).

It seems likely that in the development of Selepet the third person singular object markers of the proto-language became the verb roots in Selepet, and by this process the number of allomorphic subclasses were reduced in Selepet.

TABLE I: ONO AND SELEPET OBJECT MARKERS

	<i>to hold</i>		<i>to burn</i>	
	ONO	SELEPET	ONO	SELEPET
1s	neu-	me-nek-	nae-	se-nek-
2s	geu-	me-gek-	gae-	se-gek-
3s	MA-	ME-ŋ-	DZE-	SE-ŋ-
1d	ŋepu-	me-nelek-	ŋeso-	se-nelek-
2d	ŋipu-	me-yelek-	ŋiso-	se-yelek-
3d	epu-	me-yelek-	eso-	se-yelek-
1p	ŋebu-	me-nenek-	ŋedzo-	se-nenek-
2p	ŋibu-	me-yek-	ŋidzo-	se-yek-
3p	ebu-	me-yek-	edzo-	se-yek-

(continued on next page)

	<i>to copulate</i>		<i>to shoot</i>	
	ONO	SELEPET	ONO	SELEPET
1s	neit-	het-nek-	nato-	yerâ-nek-
2s	geit-	het-gek-	gato-	yerâ-gek-
3s	GIT-	HET-Ø-	YATO-	YERÂ-Ø-
1d	ηekit-	het-nelek-	ηekotat-	yerâ-nelek-
2d	ηikit-	het-yelek-	ηikotat-	yerâ-yelek-
3d	ekit-	het-yelek-	ekotat-	yerâ-yelek-
1p	ηegit-	het-nenek-	negotat-	yerâ-nenek-
2p	nigit-	het-yek-	nigotat-	yerâ-yek-
3p	egit-	het-yek-	egotat-	yerâ-yek-

Another significant feature of bound object marker morphology which should be noted is the similarity between the object marker allomorphs occurring with the verb *to give someone* and the benefactive markers (Table J). Because of this similarity and because the benefactive tagmeme immediately follows the verb root in all languages thus far studied, one may posit that the benefactive markers have their origin in a verbal compound which involved the verb *to give someone* as the second element of the compound. It is also significant that the phenomenon of a third person singular object marker allomorph being cognate with verb roots in other languages has not been observed with the verb *to give someone*. This may be due to the fact that some sort of stability resulted from the presence of the nearly identical forms of the benefactive markers. The object marker allomorphs of the verbs *to hit*, *to see*, and others did not have this added factor leading to stability.

TABLE J: *to give* with benefactive markers underneath

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Sl.	nihî	gihî	wag	nitki	yitki	yitki	ningi	yingi	yingi
	nihî	gihî	wagi	nitki	yitki	yitki	ningi	yingi	yingi
Nb.	na	ga	sa	nnda	itda	itda	nda	inda	inda
	(benefactive markers identical)								
Ono	nin	gin	man	ηepon	ηipon	epon	ηebon	ηibon	ebon
	(benefactive markers identical)								
Kb.	nim	gim	mi	niri-	iripi	iripi	nini-	inipi	inipi
				pi			pi		
	(benefactive markers identical)								
Kt.	nare	gare	râkne	nâkte	ηakte	yakte	nâre	ηare	yare
	nare	gare	kne	nâkte	ηakte	yakte	nâre	ηare	yare
Ur.	naam	gaam	am	niim	saam	im	niim	saam	in
	naa	gaa	ηa	niim	saam	yam	niim	saam	yam

(continued on next page)

	1s	2s	3s	1d	2d	3d	1p	2p	3p
Kw.	nami	gami	ami	nimi	dami	yomi	nimi	dami	yomi
	(benefactive markers identical)								
Wn.	namu	gamu	imu	nimu	damu	yemu	nimu	damu	yemu
	ŋamu	gamu	ŋamu	nimu	damu	yamu	nimu	damu	yamu
Rw.	nunâ	gunâ	inâ	yunâ	yunâ	yunâ	yunâ	yunâ	yunâ
	(benefactive markers identical)								
Kv.	tane	tage	tatine	taite	ta-	ta-	ta-	ta-	ta-
					nete	yate	inye	ŋane	yane
	(Benefactive markers could not be elicited satisfactorily.)								

2.8.1.5. CONCLUSION

The foregoing serve to demonstrate the apparent genetic relationships of the languages of the Finisterre-Huon group. The structural and morphological similarities are of such a character that one may suppose that they generally preclude borrowing. Moreover, the data yield evidence for one to hypothesize that the morphology of proto-Finisterre-Huon was considerably simpler than that of any of the present daughter languages. It is probable that the nominal possessive-marking suffixes represent a later development from postposed adjective stems derived from pronoun roots by the suffixation of an adjectivizer. Furthermore, the verbal suffixes indicating benefaction, habitual mode, desiderative mode and intentive mode are probably a result of the compounding of verb roots, or they represent phrasal compounds. Any verbal prefixes indicating negation or causation also are the result of probable compounding. One may hypothesize therefore that the morphology of the verb periphery of proto-Finisterre-Huon consisted of simply suffixes indicating person, number and tense/mode.

N O T E S

1. Field work in the Huon Peninsula and the Finisterre ranges was carried out during 1964-1967 and 1968-1969 while the writer was under the auspices of the Australian National University and the Summer Institute of Linguistics.
2. Research in the languages of the Gusap-Mot and Warup families was carried out by O.R. Claassen of the Summer Institute of Linguistics. Claassen was killed in April 1972, and the details of these languages have been determined from his unpublished field notes.
3. Because time was not available for a detailed phonemic analysis of Kewieng, Kovai and Kube, the examples from these languages are given in a near phonemic orthography. This is particularly true of the mid and low central vowels. The writer's tentative analysis of the Nabak consonantal phonemes presented in this paper was done in 1968 and differs from a tentative analysis by the Fabians (1971). The symbol â represents a vowel phoneme with a phonetic norm of [ɔ].
4. Longacre's (1964:101-102) distinction between root and stem is here followed; viz., stems represent a class of syntagmemes having internal structure, but roots have no internal structure and therefore are not syntagmemes.
5. Another apparently related series is found in Kâte, Kube, Rawa, and Kovai. The root in Kâte is *hone* and apparently cognate forms are found in the third person singular forms in Kube (*kən*), Rawa (*keno*, vowel metathesis), and Kovai (*ane*).

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