NOTES ON THE COMPARISON OF TWO LANGUAGES (WITH AND WITHOUT A GENETIC HYPOTHESIS)

By G. B. MILNER

In a suggestive article which appeared some years ago,¹ W. S. Allen, a reviewing the theoretical basis of comparative linguistics, analysing certain its results in the Indo-European field, and stating the reasons which have led I to question the usefulness and the validity of assuming a genetic relations between languages, sets out in the form of postulates the principles in accorda with which comparative studies should in future be conducted. Relationsh he claims, is not of languages but of systems. Relationship, moreover, is no question of either-or but of more-or-less.²

There follows, in the remainder of the article, a number of suggestions posing other lines of investigation for a new type of comparative study, fr from the limitations of traditional comparativism while remaining syste and open to examination within the safeguard of rigorous criteria.

A few years earlier Professor Holmer had made the following statement in article dealing with relationship in the Amerindian field: 'It is essential consider that any two languages commonly regarded as related are not comparate offshoots of a main plant stem. Language is a complex system of far structural unity than either a plant or an animal, a fact which was entidisregarded when the idea of the genetic relationship of languages was propagated.' ³

Similar warnings and reservations on the ground that the methods of tradition comparativism might prove to be less rewarding when they were applied linguistic fields other than the Indo-European had been made at an earlier de Thus Sweet had said even before the first World War: 'In applying the result comparative Aryan grammar to other families of languages, it is evident . . . to we must . . . be ready to widen or modify our methods with the scope of the application.' Professor Gonda, one of our collaborators, has given the reast which have led him to the conclusion that the traditional methods of comparation philology are not readily applicable to, or inherently suitable for, the Mala Polynesian field, in two articles.⁵

Other authorities, however, in the past and down to the present day, h

¹ 'Relationship in comparative linguistics,' TPS, 1953, pp. 52–108.

² ibid., p. 92.

³ Lunds Universitets Arsskrift N.F. Avd. 1, Bd. 45, 4, 1949, p. 10.

⁴ Collected papers of Henry Sweet, arranged by H. C. Wyld, Oxford, 1913, p. 64.

⁵ 'Opmerkingen over de toepassing der comparatieve methode op de indonesische ta voornamelijk in verband met hun woordstructuur,' *BTLV*, 99, 1940, pp. 397 ff. (esp. pp. 399–429–34); 'The comparative method as applied to Indonesian languages,' *Lingua*, 1, 1 pp. 86–101.

held up the methods of Indo-European philology as a model for other fields.1 Dempwolff recognized that Austronesian linguistics must also develop its own specially adapted techniques if the best use was to be made of the kind of material and of the particular conditions prevailing in that field.² Within the last ten years several articles and monographs have appeared, including several by Professor Kähler, which are in the tradition of Dempwolff and may be said to continue his studies.3 They all appear to accept implicitly the validity of the genetic hypothesis of the neo-grammarians.

The purpose of the present paper is not primarily to take up arms and do battle as a protagonist of this or that school of thought. Rather is it inspired by the wish to illustrate the wide discrepancy between the results likely to be obtained by setting out from different premises. For this purpose two languages with which the writer is acquainted at first hand have been selected: Samoan, a representative of the Polynesian group, and Fijian, the exact status of which has long been queried, but which is generally regarded as Melanesian with a strong admixture of Polynesian elements. Both languages have interested comparative philologists since the end of last century.4

PART I: PHONOLOGY

It will be recalled that Dempwolff, in his Vergleichende Lautlehre, set up an inductive reconstruction of Proto-Indonesian (Urindonesisch) which was based on the results of a detailed examination of Javanese, Toba-Batak, and Tagalog. After testing the validity of his reconstruction by examining three other Indonesian languages (Hova, Ngadju-Dayak, and Malay) he was satisfied that his reconstruction was sound and his original hypothesis justified. He next turned his attention to two Melanesian languages (Fijian and Sa'a) and to three Polynesian dialects (as he called them), Tongan, Samoan, and Futuna. He found both in Melanesian

¹ A. Meillet, Linguistique historique et linguistique générale, Vol. 2, Paris, 1936, p. 69; O. Dempwolff, Induktiver Aufbau einer indonesischen Ursprache (IA), Berlin/Hamburg, 1934, pp. 17-20.

² op. cit., p. 23.

³ H. Kähler, 'Untersuchungen zur Morphologie polynesischer Dialekte,' *Afrika und Übersee*, 36, 1951–2, pp. 145–60; 37, 1952–3, pp. 35–48, 119–42; 38, 1953–4, pp. 73–88, 165–86; 39, 1954–5, pp. 129–45; I. Dyen, *The proto-Malayo-Polynesian laryngeals*, Baltimore, 1953; W. Milke, 'Zur inneren Gliederung und geschichen Stellung der ozeanisch-austronesischen Sprachen,' Ztschr. f. Ethn., 83, 1, 1958, pp. 58-62; G. W. Grace, The position of the Polynesian languages within the Austronesian (M.-P.) language family, Baltimore, 1959.

⁴ cf. H. Kern, *De Fidjitaal vergeleken met hare verwanten in Indonesië en Polynesië*, Amsterdam, 1886; W. Schmidt, 'Über das Verhältniss der melanesischen Sprachen zu den polynesischen und untereinander,' Sb. k. Akad. Wiss. Wien, phil.-hist. Kl., 141, 1899, pp. 1-93; O. Dempwolff, Deduktive Anwendung des Urindonesischen auf austronesische Einzelsprachen (DA), Berlin/Hamburg, 1937.

and Polynesian certain regular correspondences and he considered them to reflexes of the Proto-Indonesian sound system which he had reconstructed. consequently posited a Proto-Melanesian and a Proto-Polynesian sound syst both of which he regarded as being directly descended from Proto-Indones He thus felt himself entitled to call the latter Proto-Austronesian.¹

It is instructive to examine in detail the premises upon which Dempwo work is founded as well as the conclusions drawn from its results. Austrones (or Malayo-Polynesian) languages, he states,² do not have a homogeneous gramatical structure like Semitic or Bantu languages, but they do have a *comvocabulary* (his italics) comprising several hundreds of words. Therefore in monograph he is only incidentally concerned with grammatical corresponder and its scope is restricted to the comparative analysis of words, and primato their sound correspondences.

Having established and confirmed his Proto-Indonesian system, he tinvestigates approximately fifty other Indonesian languages by the same methand he is able to establish in each individual language a few hundred words wheregularly reproduce equivalents of Proto-Indonesian sounds.³

Also by the same method, having identified the Fijian and Sa'a reflexes Proto-Indonesian sounds, he can establish between 300 and 400 words in blanguages in regular correspondence, out of a total of approximately 1,900 words claimed as being of Proto-Indonesian origin. Since, he claims, the proportion common Proto-Indonesian words in modern Indonesian languages is often higher than in Fijian and Sa'a, he is satisfied that it is enough to establis connection in time and space between Fijian, Sa'a, and Proto-Indonesian. Wother Melanesian languages are examined, however, he finds that the number common words may fall to between 100 and 200 words. There is also the consideration that certain features occur in Melanesian and not elsewhere, not a initial nasal clusters which correspond to medial clusters in Indonesian, prenasalization as a vestigial element instead of as an active morpholog process. 5

The low proportion of words ascribable to PI starred forms which he found in many Melanesian languages, together with their irregular treatmen nasal clusters (irregular, that is, from an Indonesian point of view), would, might have expected, have made it necessary to re-examine the assumption present-day Melanesian languages are directly descended from PI and that latter can be equated with Proto-Austronesian. Dempwolff, however, draws conclusion that Melanesian is 'aberrant' from the PI norm. That is to say

¹ IA, p. 24; DA, pp. 193-4.

² IA, p. 13.

³ DA, p. 123.

<sup>ibid., p. 163.
ibid., p. 165.</sup>

became separated from Proto-Indonesian before the latter split up into its various modern representatives.1

The same process of reasoning is applied to Polynesian; i.e., Polynesian 'dialects' may be regarded as a particular branch of Austronesian which enables one to reconstruct a Proto-Polynesian (PPn) sound system.² Moreover, certain similarities in the PPn and Proto-Melanesian (PMn) sound systems make it likely that at one time both groups constituted part of the linguistic stock of a single people.3

Since Dempwolff does not ignore the important divergences between Melanesian and Indonesian, as evidenced by the treatment and distribution of nasal clusters and the relatively low proportion of Indonesian starred forms in many Melanesian languages, it is somewhat strange that he should not have attached more importance to the cases where, as he noted himself, certain Fijian and Samoan sounds cannot be reconciled with his PI hypothesis. It is possible that his purpose might have been better served if, instead of referring each modern Melanesian and Polynesian language directly to PI, he had attempted to reconstruct internally congruent starred systems for both Melanesian and Polynesian. Had he done so, however, it might ultimately have proved very difficult to reconcile PI with a full-scale reconstruction of PMn and PPn. Having set up his PI system, Dempwolff seems at times to be the prisoner of his own creation, particularly when any data, especially in Melanesian, obstinately refuse to conform with the original hypothesis. Perhaps the best illustration of the results of that tendency is found in the treatment of certain consonants in Fijian and Samoan quā reflexes of PI consonants reconstructed by Dempwolff.

It will be recalled that among the consonants of PI he posited four palatal stops which he writes k' g' t' d'. Later he establishes the occurrence, under certain conditions, of an optional (homorganic) nasal accretion (fakultativer nasaler Zuwachs) for each of those consonants (written $\eta k'$, $\eta g'$, nt', nd'), adding a suggestion that the option of a preceding homorganic nasal before medial consonants might originally have been a morphological process (as of course it still is in the case of initial nasal clusters in modern Indonesian), 6 but no longer functioning as such in modern Melanesian.7

In so far as Fijian and Samoan are concerned, the history of those two groups

¹ ibid. cf. Kern, op. cit., pp. 3-4.

² DA, p. 191.

³ ibid., p. 193.

⁴ ibid., p. 124, § 119 a, 5; p. 125, § 121 a; pp. 135-6, § 128 b and c. See also Allen, op. cit.,

⁵ IA, p. 64.

⁶ cf. R. H. Robins, 'The phonology of the nasalized verbal forms in Sundanese', BSOAS, 15, 1, 1953, pp. 138-45.

⁷ IA, p. 109.

of consonants is assumed to have been as follows (*Deduktive Anwendung*, pp. 1241, 166, 170–90, 192):

Fijian:	ð ↑	<i>s</i>
Proto-Melanesian:	ď′ ↑	nd' ↑
Proto-Indonesian:	k' g' t' d'	ŋk' ŋg' nt' nd'
Proto-Polynesian:	$\overset{\downarrow}{s}$	$\overset{\downarrow}{h}$
Samoan:	↓ <i>S</i>	$\stackrel{\downarrow}{\wp}$

Dempwolff regards Fijian δ and Samoan s as the reflexes of the non-na set of consonants on the grounds that they both occur in the final syllables (a in the third consonant position in words of type CVCV(CV), corresponding the final consonant in Indonesian words of type CVCVC). Fijian δ and Samoa can therefore hardly be regarded as the reflexes of nasal clusters, which do occur in final position in Indonesian (cf. *tanit' with tani\delta a in Fijian and tani in Samoan; Deduktive Anwendung, pp. 137-8 and 181-2).

Unfortunately (and Dempwolff was well aware of it), this arrangement prese almost as many problems as it solves:

As regards Fijian s (Deduktive Anwendung, pp. 137-9):

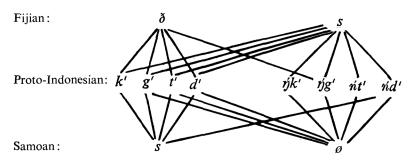
- (a) (i) instead of δ (e.g. savui), and (ii) in addition to δ (e.g. $vusa-vu\delta a$) may be a reflex of t' (§ 128 g, 2);
- (b) (i) instead of δ (e.g. sau, \S 128 g, 3), and (ii) in addition to δ (e.g. musa-u \S 128 g, 2), it may be a reflex of *d';
 - (c) in addition to δ (e.g. vosota-vo δ ota, \S 128 g, 2), it may be a reflex of *g'
 - (d) instead of δ (e.g. vosa, § 128 g, 2), it may be a reflex of *k'.

As regards Samoan \emptyset (ibid., pp. 181–2):

- (a) instead of s (e.g. tai, § 153 d, 2), it may be a reflex of *t';
- (b) instead of s (e.g. moe, ibid.), it may be a reflex of *d';
- (c) instead of s (e.g. fia, ibid.), it may be a reflex of *g'.

Conversely, Fijian ð may be a reflex of an optional nasal cluster (e.g. taði, § 153 d and Austronesisches Wörterverzeichnis, p. 12), and Samoan s may be a re of a nasal cluster (e.g. tusi, § 152 a, 6, and § 153 d, 3).

The diagram given above must therefore be considered as being subject considerable modifications and might be given more realistically, if conveniently, in the following form:



Nevertheless Dempwolff specifically and more than once rejects the desirability of making a revision of his original hypothesis. If a nasal cluster is attested from Fijian alone, that is not considered a sufficient ground for modifying a nonnasalized form in PI, since Fijian clusters are attested initially as well as medially. Conversely, the occurrence of a non-nasalized form in Fijian as the reflex of a nasalized form in PI is insufficient for a revision of the hypothesis.¹ Likewise in Samoan the words which do not conform do not constitute a sufficiently good reason for revising the starred forms of PI.2

We are indebted to an American scholar, Dyen, for a possible solution of the problem which baffled Dempwolff.³ Dyen proposes that in addition to the series k' g' t' d' and $\eta k'$ $\eta g'$ n't' n'd', which he prefers to write c j s z and Nc Nj \tilde{n} s \tilde{n} z, 4 an additional starred phoneme or proto-phoneme Z should be reconstructed with an optional prenasalized counterpart nZ. The reflexes of these starred forms would then be:

	*Z	*nZ
for Fijian:	ð	S
for Samoan:	S	Ø

This enables him to reconstruct *peZem leading to Fijian mode 'sleep' on the one hand and on the other hand *penZem giving Samoan moe 'sleep'. The occurrence of Samoan ala 'path, road' instead of an expected *sala from a starred form *Zalan, however, immediately raises difficulties, as does the Fijian counterpart sala 'path, road' instead of an expected *dala. To resolve the contradiction Dyen suggests in a footnote that in that case Fijian and Samoan must reflect a nasal cluster. For an explanation we are referred to another article, where a somewhat abstruse account may be found of the circumstances in which this apparent anomaly has developed.⁵ The same suggestion also applies to the fact that contrary to Dyen's expectation Fijian s may also be the reflex of *Z.

¹ DA, pp. 135-7, § 128 b, c, and d; p. 182, § 153 d, 3. ² ibid., § 153 d, 2 and 3.

³ 'Proto-Malayo-Polynesian *Z', Language, 27, 4, 1951, pp. 534-40.

⁴ See The Proto-Malayo-Polynesian laryngeals, p. 50.

⁵ Language, 27, p. 536, n. 9, citing Dyen, 'On the history of the Trukese vowels', Language, 25, 4, 1949, pp. 420-36, § 26.3.

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Dempwolff had explained these inconsistencies by assuming that the difference reflexes, sometimes found within the same language, sometimes found by co paring one language with another, were evidence of the former existence of pro doublets (Nebenformen).1 Dyen, however, rejects that assumption on theoreti grounds.² One may question the usefulness of reconstructing yet another stars phoneme', bearing in mind the already rather unwieldy structure posited: PI by Dempwolff³ and even allowing for the fact that, as Allen has pointed o one is dealing with 'systems set up by linguists for the description of language structures, and not anything inherent in the language as such'. 4 Moreover, posit two starred forms with the same proto-phoneme, one with a nasal clus and one without, does not tax the imagination unduly in the case of words wh might originally have denoted 'road' or 'sleep' or 'rain'. It is perhaps less e to accept the possibility that there were once two forms of the word for 'nin (Fijian diwa, Samoan iva) or of the word for 'who?' (Fijian dei, Samoan and that but for the optional nasal element they were identical.⁵ Similar difficul arise in the case of words for plants, which tend to be grammatically even be flexible.6

Reading over the materials used by Dempwolff and Dyen, one is struck, fi by the fact that the languages on the evidence of which elaborate reconstruction are made were originally chosen for comparative purposes almost solely as a res of the 'accident' that they were better attested than their neighbours, i.e. t more comprehensive dictionaries and grammars were in existence for cert languages than for others which might have served as a basis for the comparis and on the basis of which different results might have been arrived at. Second it is mainly by the process of culling isolated words from dictionaries and comparing word against word that results have been achieved. Modern pho logical studies, such as that published for Fijian by Scott, have been neglect where they existed, and the comparison of phonological systems as opposed that of single items has hardly begun. Thirdly, reconstructions often seem have been made without taking into account other 'accidents', such as cult contacts or 'acculturation', and other considerations of a synchronic charac the importance of which increases in inverse ratio to the proportion of vocabulary which in each language may be said to be common Austrones that is, relevant to the purpose of the comparative inquiry.

¹ cf. DA, § 153 d, and Austronesisches Wörterverzeichnis (AW), Berlin/Hamburg, 1 p. 157, *t'ulih; p. 158, *tulup, etc.

² Language, 27, p. 536, and p. 540, § 24.

³ DA, p. 7.

⁴ TPS, 1953, p. 90.

 ⁵ cf. DA, p. 106, § 112 b; AW, p. 155; DA, p. 144, § 132 b; AW, p. 147.
 ⁶ cf. AW, p. 45, *d'aγaηaν ' turmeric ' (Fijian ∂ago, Samoan ago); p. 46, *d'alataŋ ' ne (Fijian salato, Samoan salato ' tree-nettle, Laportea sp.').

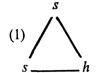
⁷ N. C. Scott, 'A study in the phonetics of Fijian', BSOAS, 12, 3-4, 1948, pp. 737-52.

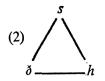
Thus, the peoples who inhabit the geographical area of Fiji, Tonga, and Samoa have for many centuries had external contacts (both of a peaceful and warlike character) which have had a profound effect on the mythology, material culture, and social organization of all three island groups. It would be anomalous if those cross-currents had had no effect on the languages and dialects of the area. For instance, it is in a sense 'accidental' that Fijian should have a reflex s for Dempwolff's *d' in *d' alan 'path, road' instead of an expected δ in certain words such as sala 'path, road'. To discover that, however, one may need to look at each language from a synchronic point of view.

For what is known to comparative philologists as Fijian is in fact a lingua franca which has developed from a single dialect (Bauan) and which has still not entirely displaced other dialects. It can therefore give only a partial picture of the whole Fijian complex. In some of the dialects of Western Viti Levu, for instance, some of the words which unexpectedly reflect Dempwolff's non-nasal set with an s are found with a 'regular' δ (as Kern predicted might be the case). Thus Western $\delta \bar{a}$ levu 'path, road', $\delta u \delta u$ 'milk', and $\delta i \delta i$ 'snail' instead of Bauan sala, su δu , and $\delta i \delta i$ respectively.¹ That is to say, it may well be Bauan which is 'aberrant' for purely local or accidental reasons.

Let us suppose, on the other hand, that we abandon the genetic hypothesis, and instead of trying to reconcile the distribution of spirants in Fijian and Samoan with the reconstructed forms of PI, look at those two languages, with the addition of Tongan, as languages which have, at some stage in their history, been in contact. Given that assumption, we can endeavour to see if, to use Holmer's expression, 'the conglomeration of phonetical, morphological and syntactic elements constituting a language should perhaps with greater advantage be classed with regard to relative age than to provenance.' ²

The following correspondences can be established. In each case the Samoan member is at the apex of the triangle, the Fijian at the left, and the Tongan at the right:









- e.g. (1) Fijian sele 'knife', Samoan sele, Tongan hele; Fijian suasua 'wet', Samoan sus \bar{u} , Tongan $h\bar{u}h\bar{u}$; Fijian salato 'tree-nettle (Laportea sp.)', Samoan salato, not recorded from Tongan.
- (2) Fijian ðala 'be wrong', Samoan sala, Tongan hala; Fijian maða 'be dry, empty', Samoan masa, Tongan maha.

¹ cf. Kern, op. cit., p. 13; AW, p. 46, *d'alan; p. 155, *t'it'ik¹; p. 158, *t'ut'u.
² Lunds Universitets Årsskrift N.F. Avd. 1, Bd. 45, 4, p. 11.

- (3) Fijian sala 'path, road ', Samoan ala, Tongan hala ; Fijian savu 'wat fall ', Samoan āfu, Tongan hafu.
- (4) Fijian *ðiwa* 'nine', Samoan *iva*, Tongan *hiva*; Fijian *moðe* 'sleej Samoan *moe*, Tongan *mohe*.

The existence of the four tripartite correspondences set out above need perhanot present any insuperable difficulties and can be accounted for relatively simple if instead of starting from a genetic hypothesis we regard all three languages having been in contact and if we concern ourselves only with certain circular scribed features or sub-systems, abstracted from the total mass of each langual and of different age or origin or provenance.

Granted that we accept Fijian as Melanesian, and the other two languages Polynesian (on any one of a number of possible linguistic grounds such as fact that Fijian possesses voiced stops whereas Samoan and Tongan do not the correspondences between Samoan and Tongan can be considered first. Af looking at a number of Polynesian consonant systems (on the basis of, admitted incomplete and, sometimes, obsolete information) one is inclined to agree (subj to the possible appearance of fresh information) with the view taken in a fair recent analysis of the problem that 'the most complex and archaic languaghonemically is Tongan' and that 'the order of increasing sparseness of for is then Tongan, Samoan and the East'.²

Let us say, then, that the present-day languages spoken in Samoa and Ton were at one time in contact (without considering exactly where or when) and the of the two it is Tongan which exhibits the more archaic features. One could the point to the absence of those features in Samoan, together with the close corspondences in the remainder of the two consonant systems, as evidence of the contact between the two languages.

If, however, we put the consonant system of Samoan side by side with the of Fijian, we then no longer find close correspondence, but over a limited secone can see a correlation between the two which is not shared with Tonganotably Fijian s—Samoan s, Fijian δ —Samoan s. This would seem to constitute evidence of contact between Fijian and Samoan. The question whether Tong participated in that contact also, although no longer appearing to do so becautof its own subsequent history, will be considered presently.

Thirdly, certain correlations can be established for Fijian and Tongan on namely Fijian s—Tongan h, and Fijian δ —Tongan h, giving evidence of cont between Fijian and Tongan.

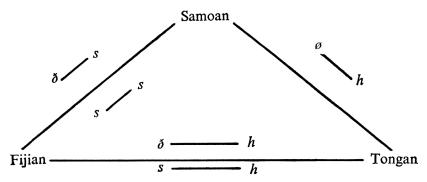
One can, on the basis of that knowledge, posit contact between Fijian a Samoan at a different level from that already established, i.e. through the 'mediu of Tongan, namely Fijian δ —Samoan \emptyset and Fijian s—Samoan \emptyset .

S. H. Elbert, 'Internal relationship of Polynesian languages and dialects', SWJA, 1953, p. 163, and cf. table on p. 154.
 ibid., p. 164.

The opposite assumption, namely that Tongan was in contact with Fijian through the medium of Samoan, could be argued on the strength of Fijian s—Tongan h (via Samoan; e.g. sele—hele 'knife'), but contradicted by the necessity of assuming also Fijian s—Tongan h (via Samoan \emptyset ; e.g. sala—hala 'path, road') and Fijian δ —Tongan h (via Samoan θ ; e.g. $mo\delta e$ —mohe 'sleep').

One may therefore posit the following correspondences as being due to

'immediate contact':



Consequently one can contrast Fijian δ —Samoan s, and Fijian s—Samoan s, which represent 'immediate' or at any rate a more immediate contact, with Fijian s—Samoan ø, and Fijian ŏ—Samoan ø, which represent 'mediate', that is to say a less direct, contact.

The evidence which has been made available so far for Rotuman 1 does not seem to contradict and appears to support the present hypothesis. The Rotuman equivalent of both Fijian δ and s is in all cases s. Thus:

- (i) Fijian suðu 'breast', Rotuman susu, Tongan huhu, Samoan susu;
- (ii) Fijian *òala* 'miss, wrong', Rotuman *sara*, Tongan *hala*, Samoan *sala*;
 (iii) Fijian *sala* 'path, road', Rotuman *sala*, Tongan *hala*, Samoan *ala*;
- (iv) Fijian mode 'sleep', Rotuman mose, Tongan mohe, Samoan moe.

Certain deductions can therefore be made:

On the basis of (i) and (ii) above one may assume immediate contact between Rotuman and Fijian on the one hand and Rotuman and Samoan on the other.

On the basis of (iii) and (iv) above one may assume immediate contact between Rotuman and Fijian on the one hand and Rotuman and Tongan on the other, Rotuman representing an intermediate stage (through which Tongan may have passed) at which δ and s had coalesced into s but antedating the shift to h which took place in Tongan.

It is perhaps worth noting that those correspondences can also be illustrated from words which are attested for Fijian and Rotuman only (e.g.

¹ C. M. Churchward, Rotuman grammar and dictionary, Sydney, 1940, pp. 159-66 et passim.

Fijian yaða 'name', Rotuman asa) or for Rotuman and Tongan (with Samos only (e.g. Rotuman siŋoa 'namesake', Tongan hiŋoa 'name', Samoan iŋoa is Rotuman soŋe 'famine', Tongan hoŋe, Samoan oŋe).

The following diagrams retain the essential features of the tripartite series immediate and mediate correspondences already set out, while also taking in account the evidence of Rotuman:

	Fijian	Rotuman	Samoan		Fijian	Rotuman	Samoan
(i)	s		S	(iii)	$\int z$		ø 1
	}-	$\longrightarrow s <$	Tongan		}-	→ s <u></u>	
(ii)	ð		\searrow_h	(iv)	ð		h' Ton

Such an analysis would enable one to account for the existence of doub in Samoan without positing proto-doublets as Dempwolff did or additional prophonemes as proposed by Dyen. Thus:

Fijian	Samoan
saku 'sword-fish (of various kinds)'	a'u' fish (Strongylura sp.) with long sno sa'u- as in sa'ulā and sa'ulele' sword-f and saw-fish'
suli 'banana or taro sucker'	uli 'small corm of a taro sucker' suli 'banana sucker'
ðoka ' pierce, spear '	o'a 'husk a coconut' so'a 'spike, transfix'
ðola ' live ' (Western dialects)	ola 'live' sola 'escape (with one's life)'
ðuru ' enter, go through '	ulu 'go in, enter' sulu 'put in, insert'

A number of other doublets exist in Samoan for which no Fijian equival can be found. The method of approach suggested above does not, of courule out the possibility of mediate and immediate contact between Samoan other languages. The case of δola , found in a number of Western dialects of but not in standard Fijian (Bauan), and corresponding to Samoan ola and s is a possible indication that both Tongan and Samoan may have in their twocabulary other evidence of having been in contact with languages regarded Melanesian. Among other Samoan synonyms and part-homonyms are following: aga and saga 'face', ao and sao 'collect, assemble' (cf. ao 'daylig and aso 'day', mentioned by both Dempwolff¹ and Dyen²), i'u 'end; tai

¹ AW, p. 11, *'a(n)dav and p. 60, *ha(n)g'av. ² Language, 27, pp. 539–40, § 20–1.

a fish' and si'u 'tip; tail of a land animal', ati and sati 'attacked by insects', ui and usi 'dark' and 'greenish blue' respectively, said of plants and animals.

As our synchronic knowledge of each language increases, both qualitatively and quantitatively, it will be possible to pursue other lines of investigation, notably to establish whether there is evidence that the same sound shifts have occurred independently in a number of different areas. In the article referred to earlier on, Holmer takes the almost paradoxical but tenable view that in a sense all languages are mixed languages and all words loanwords. One of the most strongly held beliefs of the late J. R. Firth was that languages were polysystemic and not monosystemic. It cannot be doubted that there is a need for a wider application and a special adaptation to individual problems of new techniques, described some years ago by Miss Henderson, for the identification of loanwords.

PART II: MORPHOLOGY AND SYNTAX

Among the suggestions made in Allen's paper referred to in the preamble of this article is a reference to the desirability of trying to relate systems of pronouns, 'the terms of which would be identified by their function in indicating such contextual features as relative status of speaker and hearer, inclusion and exclusion of the hearer or a third person, and so on.' ³

In a recent article one of our French collaborators, M. Haudricourt, has already put this suggestion into effect and compared *inter alia* the pronominal systems of Fijian and Samoan, with particular reference to the interesting problem of a *case vide* in Fijian which is occupied in Samoan.⁴ I am referring to the problem which arises when two grammatical categories appear to conflict with common sense, as for instance when on the one hand there is a distinction between singular and plural, and on the other between inclusion as opposed to exclusion of the person addressed.

One would have expected on grounds of 'common sense' the latter distinction to be 'neutralized' in the singular. In point of fact Fijian has one form only but Samoan has two. It is interesting to note that Allen, being at that stage of the argument no longer concerned with the need to establish genetic identity, does not even require a necessary phonemic identification of the pronominal forms, and declares himself satisfied with symbols such as x and y. An attempt has accordingly been made to represent two of the pronominal subsystems (one in Fijian and the other in Samoan) by means of symbols, with a value established

 ¹ cf. A.-G. Haudricourt, 'Variations parallèles en mélanésien', BSLP, 47, 1951, pp. 152–3.
 ² E. J. A. Henderson, 'The phonology of loanwords in some South-East Asian languages', TPS, 1951, pp. 131–58.

³ TPS, 1953, p. 99.

⁴ 'La première personne inclusive du singulier en Polynésie,' *BSLP*, 54, 1959, pp. 130–5. ⁵ loc. cit.

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by contextual situation, and abstracting two grammatical categories only, pers and number. The justification for equating two systems which might be said have been arbitrarily abstracted from two different grammatical complexes who discussed presently.

Let x, then, represent the person(s) addressed, y the person(s) referred and z the speaker(s). Let 1 represent the singular and 2 the dual. Let 3 represent the plural, 3a being the trial, that is, a plural appropriate for three or a sm number of people, and 3b being an unlimited plural. The following could the used to represent the two sub-systems:

Fijian			Samoan				
x 1	y 1	zy1	Ø	x 1	y 1	zy1	zx1
x2	y2	zy2	zx2	x 2	y2	zy2	zx2
x3a	y3a	zy3a	zx3a	x 3	y3	zy3	zx3
x3b	y3b	zy3b	zx3b				

If one has postulated a genetic relationship, one will presumably be concern with the history of the divergences of two systems such as these from an origin to be reconstructed. Haudricourt, for instance, takes the view that Samoan lost category 3b with the exception of the exponent for zx3b, which survives it vestigial form as zx1. As he points out, discrepancies such as may be for between the Fijian and Samoan systems illustrated above can be brought in greater clarity by considerations of a synchronic as well as of a diachronic nature. One might add that as an illustration of that point in Fijian, it is not only 'contextual' number which determines the choice between categories 2, 3a, and but the status of the speaker(s) relative to that of the person(s) addressed referred to.

In Samoan, where the linguistic expression of the relative status of spea and hearer (or person referred to) is to be found mainly at the lexical level (i.e the existence of an elaborate system of terms of respect), that consideration appoints to forms zyl and zxl, and to a lesser extent to forms xl and x2. That is say, one can elevate a person whom one addresses (a) by using an x2 form, 'y two,' or (b) achieve the same effect by 'lowering' oneself, i.e. by using a form which has a connotation of self-disparagement together with an appeal sympathy or pity (i.e. 'I in common with you', 'I who have a claim on you interest, affection, or sympathy' as opposed to 'I alone' (zyl) and 'you' at together' (zx2)).

One can see therefore that, bearing in mind these considerations, the t systems are in fact in closer agreement than would appear if one was concern merely with finding evidence of phonemic identity, or, failing that, with a oneone agreement for person and number. In other words, where the two systems

¹ BSLP, 54, pp. 134–5.

differ one can, instead of positing a 'starred system', ascribe those differences to considerations of a synchronic order which have an effect on the equilibrium of each system.

Perhaps an even more suitable problem for comparison (without the prerequisite of a genetic hypothesis) is that provided by the existence of four nominal classes in the Fijian pronominal system and two in the Samoan. There is no obvious and immediate similarity between the two, either from the point of view of a search for phonemic identity or from their distribution and what one might call the notional and sociological correlation of those classes.

Thus, while in Fijian classes 1–4 are associated respectively with people and things in general; food and appurtenances; drink; parts of a whole, such as parts of a plant, parts of the body, terms of kinship, in Samoan classes 1 and 2 are associated with people, objects, and activities over which the speaker (or person addressed or person referred to) respectively does or does not exercise control. Thus in Fijian:

Class 1 na nomu wanga your boat

Class 2 na kemu uvi your yam (to eat) Class 3 na memu tī your tea (to drink)

Class 4 *na linamu* your arm

and in Samoan:

Class 1 'o lau lāuŋa your speech Class 2 'o lou nu'u your village.¹

To compare a four-term system with a two-term system would, prima facie, appear to be a somewhat questionable undertaking. Moreover, the notional and semantic categories one can establish, with greater or lesser exactitude, may seem to be of very limited usefulness, and furthermore applicable only to the language for which they have been devised. Thus terms of kinship (class 4 in Fijian) are in Samoan divided between classes 1 and 2. Having 'justified' their membership of class 4 in Fijian on the grounds that they can be considered to be 'parts of a whole', one would then have to account for the fact that in Samoan they are subject to the dichotomy between control and lack of control. For instance, one might even have to argue that the word $\bar{a}v\bar{a}$ 'wife' (class 1) implies control exercised by a husband over his wife, while the word to'alua 'spouse' (class 2), when used by or apropos of a husband, implies lack of control over his wife. Similarly many words of class 1 in Fijian have semantic or lexical equivalents which are distributed between classes 1 and 2 in Samoan.

Yet in a special grammatical sense classes 1 and 2 in Fijian and classes 1 and 2 in Samoan correspond exactly. In addition to the nominal particles which occur

¹ cf. Churchward, A Samoan grammar, 2nd ed., Melbourne, 1951, pp. 46–9; Milner, Fijian grammar, Suva, 1956, pp. 64–5, 71–2.

in some of the pronominal systems of Fijian and Samoan, there exist also 'genit particles which have the same distribution. Thus in Fijian:

na nona waŋga	his boat	or	na wanga nei Tui	Tui's boat
na kena madrai	his bread		na madrai kei Tui	Tui's bread
na mena tī	his tea		na tī mei Tui	Tui's tea
na liŋana	his hand		na liŋa i Tui	Tui's hand

The same feature is found in Samoan:

'o lana lāuŋa his speech or 'o le lāuŋa a Pai Pai's speech 'o lona nu'u his village 'o le nu'u o Pai Pai's village

It is possible for a given word to belong to more than one category accord to the relationship of the two terms of each phrase:

Fijian	Samoan	English
na nona itaba	'o lana ata	his photograph (i.e. taken by him or belong
		to him)
na kena itaba	'o lona ata	his photograph (i.e. the photograph of him,
		likeness)
na nomu itukutuku	'o lau tala	your story (i.e. the story you have told)
na kemu itukutuku	'o lou tala	your story (i.e. the story about you) 1

This correlation between classes 1 and 2 in Fijian and Samoan is of importa in the analysis of certain features of the verbal systems of the two languages

As will be recalled, both in Fijian and Samoan certain words of type CV and CVCVCV (or other patterns which may be subsumed under the same forms may in certain circumstances be followed by monosyllabic or disyllabic suff generally of the pattern CV or CVCV (also CVV in the case of Samoan). The consonants of these suffixes have been of particular interest to compara philologists, who wanted to establish whether or not those consonants could regarded as the reflexes of Proto-Indonesian final consonants.²

In Fijian the final vowel may be either -a or -i. -a denotes active transition between a (usually) verbal form and its object when the object is 'commonthus:

au nanuma na koro I remember the village

-i denotes, inter alia, (i) active transitivity between a (usually) verbal form its object when the object is 'proper'. Thus:

au nanumi koya I remember him

(ii) passive transitivity between a verbal form and its subject :

e nanumi na koro the village is remembered e nanumi ko kova he is remembered

See also Churchward, *Tongan grammar*, London, 1953, pp. 78–81; J. E. Buse, 'Raroto personal pronouns: form and distribution', *BSOAS*, 23, 1, 1960, pp. 130–2.
 Kern, op. cit., chap. 5, pp. 63–102; *DA*, p. 133, § 127 a, 6.

An important reservation in the use of the word 'passive' is that no 'agent' can be expressed. It is a characteristic of Fijian that one can nominalize a great number of verbal forms by substituting for the verbal pronoun a nominal pronoun of the corresponding person and number. It is here that one can observe a kind of concordance between, on the one hand, class 1 nominal pronouns and active forms (in -a), and on the other hand class 2 nominal pronouns and passive forms (in -i). Thus:

na noqu nanuma na koro my remembering the village na kena nanumi na koro the 'being remembered' (i.e. the remembrance, the memory) of the village.

In Samoan, however, where there is also a system of verbal suffixes and where it is also possible to nominalize verbal forms, efforts to establish a concordance between suffixes and nominal pronouns as in Fijian have not been successful, much of the evidence being apparently conflicting. The central difficulty would seem to be whether the CVV suffixes of Samoan can be described as active or passive.

The question whether those two terms are applicable to, and meaningful for, Malayo-Polynesian languages is of course a very complex one. After giving rise to a prolonged controversy among Dutch scholars at the end of last century, it was re-examined in considerable detail by Professor Gonda.¹ Many persistent illusions and misconceptions were then removed. A similar controversy apropos of Samoan and Polynesian in general developed in 1928 in Australasia.² Some of the chief protagonists were evidently unaware that what was essentially the same problem had already been discussed at length apropos of Indonesian languages.

A re-examination of this problem in so far as it affects Samoan would fall outside the limits of the present study. The present writer has made some progress towards a solution, and has discussed it elsewhere.³ It would seem that a comparative approach to syntax, freed from the preoccupations that stem from a desire to account for differences by reference to a common origin, would throw a good deal of light on the grammatical problems of each language. Even if in the last resort each syntactical problem proves to be soluble mainly by reference to a synchronic set of relations, the comparison of integrated systems of morphology and syntax (as opposed to the comparison of separate morphemes linked

¹ 'Een onbevredigend behandeld punt in de maleise grammatika', *BTLV*, 97, 1938, pp. 515–41; 'Over indonesische werkwoordsvormen', *BTLV*, 105, 1949, pp. 334–79, 381–421.

² Churchward, 'On the origin of the Polynesian passive', *JPS*, 37, 1928, pp. 300–5; H. W. Williams, 'A new Samoan grammar' (review), *JPS*, 36, 1927, pp. 194–7; id., 'Some observations on Polynesian verbs', *JPS*, 37, pp. 306–17; A. Lafeber, 'The grammatical value of constructions with *e* in the Polynesian dialects compared with similar cases in Indonesia', *JPS*, 37, pp. 403–25.

³ G. B. Milner, 'Active, Passive or Perfective in Samoan: A Fresh Appraisal of the Problem', *JPS*, 71, 1962, pp. 151-61.

by a sometimes tenuous phonemic identity symbolized by starred morphen may also be rewarding.

It would, for instance, be possible to devise a grammatical framework reference within which both the Fijian and the Samoan verbal systems might studied synchronically. For that purpose some of the transformation technic which have been suggested recently by Chomsky ¹ could be adapted to the proble outlined above. One could, for instance, study the effect of substituting a property one of the two members in a Samoan transitive or intransitive constructs. One could also study the different syntactical relations which result from possibility, where it arises, of using a pronoun before a verbal form (with without a suffix), after the verbal form, or both before and after, as well as limitations to which those transformations are subject. It is probable that independent analysis of the verbal system in both Fijian and Samoan is necess before the two suffixation processes can be studied as a whole and before understanding of one may be said to throw the other into better perspective.

¹ N. Chomsky, Syntactic structures, 's-Gravenhage, 1957.