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**THE LINGUISTIC STATUS OF ISOLECTS IN NAGEKEO REGENCY:
A DIALECT GEOGRAPHY ANALYSIS**

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ABSTRACT

This study aims to investigate (1) the forms of isolect differences based on lexical paradigm in various research locations in Nagekeo regency, (2) the grouping of these isolects in Nagekeo regency into dialects and sub dialects, and (3) the forms of phonemic changes phonologically of isolects in Nagekeo regency.

This research was descriptive analysis research. The data were collected through dialect metric method and comprised from three parts dialectology of Nagekeo language.

1. **Mbay language/Riung.** It consists of three dialects: a). Lengkosambi Dialect, b). Nggolonio Dialect, and c). Nggolombay Dialect.
2. **Nagekeo Language.** It covers 22 dialects, 5 sub-dialects, and 3 contrast in speech, as bellow:
 - 1) The midle Nage has one dialect and three sub-dialects, namely Boawae dialect, Rawe sub-dialect, Rowa sub-dialect, and Kelewae sub-dialect.

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- 2) The north-midle Nage has 6 dialects: Munde dialect, Dhawe dialect, Lape dialect, Lambo dialect, Dhereisa dialect, and Rendu dialect.
- 3) The south–midle has 4 dialects and one contrast in speech such as Ndora dialect, Jaduro dialect (Raja,Wudu, Wolowea, Gero), Kelimado dialect, Kotakeo dialect and Ladolima contrast in speech.
- 4) The north-east consists of two dialects and one contrast in speech, that is Wolowae dialect or Toto dialect with Utetoto sub-dialect, Oja dialect with Watumite sub-dialect and Tendarea sub-dialect.
- 5) The boundary region that is located between Nageko and Ngada district has two dialects including Sara dialect-Taka (Sarasedu,Takatunga); Soa dialect (Mengeruda)-Poma (Denatana)
- 6) West Keo has three dialects and one sub dialect that is Lejo dialect with Wolokisa subdialect; Aewoe dialect; and Kotagana dialect.
- 7) The midle Keo has two dialects and one subdialect, namely Kotowuji dialect with Mbaenuamuri sub-dialect; Romba dialect
- 8) The east Keo has one dialect and one contrast in speech like Riti dialect-Woko (Riti-Wokodekororo) with contrast in speech to Riti dialect. It is found that six consonants occur in regular variety as distinctive features of dialect from phonological point of view. They are 1) consonant variations occuring on phonem /b/ \approx /b^h, ^mb/, 2). Consonant variations on /d/ \approx /d^h, ⁿd/, 3). Consonant variations on /d/ \approx /d^h, ⁿd/, 4). Alveolar variation consonant /z/ \approx /r, R, y, ¹y/, 5). Various trill consonants /r/ \approx /R, l, l^h, y, Ø/. and 6). Various lateral consonants /l/ \approx / ¹d, ¹h, d, d^h, ø/.

3 Ende Language. It consists of two dialects; Maukaro dialect and Nangapanda dialect.

Key Words: *Linguistic, Isolects, Dialect, Geography*

1. Introduction

1.1 Background

A scientific and objective research on dialect geography focusing on isolect variations in Nagekeo regency is important for some main reasons such as:

- 1) Isolects used by people of Nagekeo regency are isolects of small local languages which are rarely documented in the forms of scientific research, either micro or macro research.
- 2) Young generation and intellectuals tend to use Indonesian language, and not local languages as their mother tongue or first language, even at family or local culture domain.

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- 3) In connection with the Nusantara Concept and national defense of Indonesian nation, research on small local languages, such as the small languages in Nagekeo regency will bring positive impact to the existence of the Republic of Indonesia as the unitary nation state (cf. Ayatrohaedi, 1985:4-5; Dhani 1991: 3-4) because every elements of the nation, no matter how small they are, are the glue that strengthens the unity and the unitary of the Indonesian nation.
- 4) Isolect variations found in various speech communities in Nagekeo people are the direct representation of cultural properties of Nagekeo people, at the same time are the properties of the Indonesian nation which must be saved from their extinction.
- 5) To understand the people of Nagekeo as part of Indonesian nation, which is diverse, isolect varieties used by the people in Nagekeo regency must be studied and understood well, because through these isolects the life of Nagekeo people can be learned.

Starting from the reasons stated in the above background, the object of this study is The Linguistic Status Of Isolects In Nagekeo Regency: A Dialect Geography Analysis

1.2 Problems of Study

Problems raised in this research are specifically formulated as follows:

- 1) What kind of isolect differences are found based on the paradigm of the lexicon at various observation points in Nagekeo regency?
- 2) How are the grouping of these isolects in Nagekeo regency into dialects and subdialects?
- 3) How are the forms of phonemic changes of isolects in Nagekeo regency?

1.3 Objectives of Study

Based on the problems that have been formulated above, the objectives of the research are as follows:

- 1) To analyze the differences between isolects based on lexical paradigm in various research locations in Nagekeo regency.
- 2) To group the isolects based on lexical paradigm and isoglosic patterns found in various regions in Nagekeo regency.

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- 3) To describe phonemic changes found in those isolects in Nagekeo regency based on phonological paradigm.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Academically, the result of present research can be used as reference by other researchers who do research on Nagekeo language in Nagekeo regency and Ende regency, either microlinguistic or macrolinguistic research. Besides, this research can be used to enrich the facts and information about language variation in dialectology studies in Indonesia.

Furthermore, this research practically can help Nagekeo speech community to recognize and appreciate the characteristics of their dialect and other subdialects in Nagekeo language, so that the speakers can choose and use them according to the domains of use, linguistic or dialect background of the interlocutor, and particular communicative aims. Aside from this, this research can help teachers and students at schools in Nagekeo language area to learn their mother tongue as the language of the culture and help local government in the formation of new villages or new districts by considering linguistic and cultural similarities of the people with the help of dialect or subdialect areas as one of the indication of one regional entity.

2 Review of Literature, Concept and Theory

2.1 Review of Previous Studies

In this research, the review of previous studies is limited to the results of geographical dialect research and social dialect research that are closely relevant to this geographical dialect research on isolect variation in Nagekeo regency, as it is clear in the following description:

- 1) The study of Sasak Language in Lombok in 1951 by A. Teeuw.
- 2) The study of Geographical Dialect of Nagekeo Language (undergraduate thesis) by Petrus Pita in 1984.
- 3) The study of Geographical Dialect of Ngadha Language by Petrus Pita in 1984.

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- 4) The study of Geographical Dialect of Sumba Language by A.A. Putra in 1984.
- 5) The study of Historical Relations of Language Family in Flores by Inyo Fernandez in 1996.

The relevance between related literature and the results of geographical dialect research, social dialect research, and the result of comparative studies of languages in Flores, comprises the following points: 1) Theory Selection, 2) The Use of Data Analysis Method, 3) Selection of Observation Areas, 4) Informant Selection, 5) Formulation of Research Instrument, 6) The Use of Data Collection Method.

2.2. Concept

2.2.1 Isolect

Kridalaksana (1988:82) in his paper entitled “Masalah Metodologi dalam Rekonstruksi Bahasa Melayu Purba”, defines isolect as the form whose status is either language or dialect. Aside from this, Mahsun (1955:11) in his book *Dialektologi Diakronis Sebuah Pengantar*, says that isolect is used as neutral term to indicate dialect and language differences.

2.2.2 Isogloss and Isogloss Sheaf

Isogloss is defined as an imaginary line drawn on a linguistic map (cf. Keraf, 1984: 161, and also Lauder, 1990: 117).

The term isogloss also known as word/lexical border line, is the line that separates two dialects or linguistic environments based on the form or system of the two environments which are different from one another, and which are realized in linguistic map (Ayotroheaedi, 1979:5). So isogloss is an imaginary line, which is drawn on a linguistic map to separate linguistic phenomenon based on different variation.

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2.2.3 Dialect

Atlas Commission on European languages defines dialect as the linguistic systems used by a society that distinguish them from other neighboring societies that use different but closely related systems (Ayatrohaedi, 1979:1)

2.2.4 Variation in Dialectology

Variation is the form of various conditional or non-conditional manifestation of an entity (Kridalaksana, 2001:225). Viewed from geographical dimension, some changes or differences called variations happen based on rules while some others sporadically.

Variation or differences in linguistic elements which are relevant in this research comprises two aspects, they are, lexical variations and phonological variations.

1) Lexical Variation

According to Mashun (1995:54), lexical variation or lexical difference means when lexemes that are used to realize a meaning similar or different derived from one pre-language etymon.

The analysis of lexical differences is done based on the consideration that this field has important role in the grouping of language variations or differences, as claimed by Chambers and Trudgill (1980:46, and cf. Grijns, 1976:10).

2) Phonological Variation

According to Mashun (1995:23) phonological variations or phonological differences are the variations which are related to phonetic differences. The description of variations or differences in linguistic items at phonological level which become the object of analysis in this research focuses on the differences of segmental phonemes.

2.2.5 Types of Analysis

Dialectological analysis carried out in this research is synchronic in nature. This means that the synchronic aspects is based on the phenomena of language use that happen in a

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limited period of time; that is, language elements that are used by the people at present. This is in line with the essence of synchronic dialectology, the branch of linguistics that investigates language variation of various dialects at certain point of time (Kridalaksana, 2000:129, 198; cf. Mahsun, 1994: 13 – 14; cf. Djajasudarma, 1993:7; Nothofer, 1981: 6 – 7; and Dhani, 1991:11).

2.3. Theoretical Basis

The study on Geographical dialects of Nagekeo language was based on two theories, namely:

- (1) The theory of dialectology supported by traditional linguistic theory (hereinafter referred to as traditional dialectology theory)

The basic principle of traditional dialectology theory is that the elements of language variation at the level of the lexicon can not explain the relationship between phonemes change one word with another word, though the words were referring to the same meaning. This is due to the lingual fact that differences phonemes that form the structure of varied lexical word was not the result of phonological and morphological processes (cf. Chambers, 1980: 37 and 174), but because of the power of innovation and different nature of speaker group in certain environments ,

- (2) The theory of dialectology is supported by structural linguistic theory (hereinafter referred to dialectology structural theory).

Weinreich who can be seen as a pioneer of structural dialectology stated that structural dialectology distinguish various types of phonetic changes in accordance with its effect on phonological structure of certain dialects. He said that structural dialectology should pay attention to the structural relationships in every dialect and functions of phonetic elements in the system itself. Furthermore, Weinreich said that the task of structural dialectology is researching language systems in one unified system. That is, the language systems that are part of a larger system of languages can not be seen in

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isolation but must be viewed in one unified system. The unity of a larger system that overcomes the other systems is referred to as diasystem or supersystem, while subordinates smaller systems is called subsystems (Allan and Linn ed., 1986: 22). This subsystem is a dialect of supersystem, while the diasystem can be used as a guide for linguists and the dialektologist to reveal lingual realities of the relationship between the phonological variations (Chambers and Trudgill, 1980: 41).

3. Research Methods

3.1. Research Location

According to Gaston Paris, in the study of geography dialect of Nagekeo language, took 50 villagers from 104 villages, namely:

- 1) Thirty-nine (39) villages of 93 villages in the Nagekeo regency which consisting of
 - a) Thirty-seven (37) Nagekeo-speaking villages and two villages to speak Mbay / Riung;
 - b) Six (6) villages in the regency of Ende consisting of 4 villages speaking Nagekeo and 2 villages speaking Ende language;
 - c) Five (5) villages in Ngada consisting of four villages bordering the East Ngada and 1 village bordering the northern part of Ngada.

3.2 Research Instruments

The research instrument is a list of questions prepared for the study of geography dialect of Nagekeo language containing 1,000 words that are expected to explore lexical and phonological variations. The composition of the list of questions is grouped by meaning field that the informant may provide the answer directly and spontaneously. To that end, a list of questions is prepared on the link in accordance with the meaning of each field.

3.3 Coverage of Question List.

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The list of questions was made to collect data in this study taking the form of a list of the lexicon, taking into account the phonological variations and lexical variations that exist in the various dialects.

3.4 Data Sources and Criteria of the Informant

Source of data in this study is the spoken language used by the community of Nagekeo language.

Selection of informants was based on the following requirements:

- 1) Age considered very appropriate for an informant is mid-late age (40-50 years) because at that age they have mastered the language or dialect, but not to the extent of senility
- 2) The education of informants is drawn from primary school level to higher education.
- 3) The origins of informants must be original from the village or villages in the region of Nagekeo language.
- 3) Informants should master Nagekeo language, especially the dialect of the place of their birth.

3.5 Method of Providing Data

Method of collecting data in this study, consists of:

1) Field Methods

Field method is used by the consideration that researcher can directly pay attention, listen, record, and collect other particulars that are not included in the list of questions or a research instrument but is expected to be able to complete the necessary data.

The application of field method was performed by the following techniques:

- a) Recording Techniques
- b) Direct Question -Record Techniques
- c) Direct inquiry Techniques
- d) Indirect inquiry Techniques

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e) Elicitation Techniques

2) Observation Methods

This method was used to collect data by observing and listening to the use of language, especially spoken language used by native speakers

3.6 Data Analysis Methods

Data analysis method used in this research is the dialectometric method with the following formula.

$$\frac{S \times 100}{n} = d \%$$

The calculation results are used to determine the relationship between the regions of observation based on Seguy sorting as follows:

- 1) 81% upwards: considered different in language
- 2) 51-81%: considered different dialects
- 3) 31-50%: considered the different subdialects
- 4) 21-30%: considered different in speech
- 5) Under 20%: considered no difference.

4. Result of Study

4.1 Calculation of Vocabulary Distance Based on the Dialectometric method and Isolects Status Grouping as language, dialect, and Subdialect

4.1.1 Mbay / Riung Language and Its Dialects

Determination of the highest percentage as a language was based on the point of observations dialectometry contained in TP 5 in the village of Nggolombay and TP 7

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Village of Olaia by 85%. Through confirmation approach with patterns of isogloss of the whole field of meaning, it was found that the TP 5 was in the same single pattern with TP 1 and 2 of the area unit of Mbay / Riung so the isolects status in the area unit is defined as the language of Mbay / Riung

The existence of Mbay / Riung language was supported by a isogloss sheaf uniting TP 1,2,5 into one whole region, namely Mbay / Riung language , as shown in the map of isogloss file supported by three dialects, namely:

- (1) Lengkosambi Dialect 67% contained between TP 1 in the village of Lengkosambi with TP 35 in the village of Sarasedu.
- (2) Nggolonio Dialect 69% contained between TP 2 in the village of Nggolonio with TP 4 in the village of Dhawe.
- (3) Nggolombay Dialect by 66% contained between TP 5 in the village of Nggolombay with TP 6 in the village of Lape.

4.1.2 Nagekeo Language and Its Dialects

Negekeo language used at OP 3, 4, 6 -9, 11, 12, 15 – 20, 22 – 34, 37 – 50 and bordering areas of Ngada regency at OP 13, 14, 35, 36 comprise the following dialects:

- (1) Boawae Dialect (63%) between OP 1 in Lengkosambi village and OP 27 in Natange village, which comprises the following subdialects:
 - a) Rawe Subdialect (44%) between OP 14 and in Mengeruda village with OP 25 in Nagerawe village.
 - b) Rowa Subdialect (42%) between OP 21 in Kerirea village and OP 26 in Rowa village; and
 - c) Kelewae Subdialect (343%) between OP 8 in Tendambepa village and OP 34 in Kelewae village.
- (2) Dhawe Dialect (69%) between OP 4 in Dhawe village and OP 2 in Nggolonio village.

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- (3) Munde Dialect (58%) between OP 3 Tedamude village and OP 2 Nggolonio.
- (4) Lape-Ia Dialect (66%) between OP 6 Lape village and OP 5 Nggolombay village.
- (5) Lambo Dialect (63%) between OP 12 Labolewa village and OP 5 Nggolombay village.
- (6) Dhereisa Dialect (61%) between OP 15 Dhereisa village and OP 5 Nggolombay village.
- (7) Rendu Dialect (63%) between OP15 Renduwawo village with OP 1 in Lengkosambi village.
- (8) Ndora Dialect (61%) between OP 22 Bidoa village and OP 5 Nggolombay village.
- (9) Jaduro Dialect (Raja, Wudu, Gero) (63%) between OP 23 Raja village and OP 28 Wolopogo village. Jaduro dialect comprising subdialects Gero (42%), between OP 24 in Gerodhere village and OP 14 in Mengeruda village.
- (10) Kelimado Dialect (60%) between OP 29 kelimado village and OP 5 in Nggolombay village.
- (11) Kotakeo Dialect (64%) between OP 31 Kotakeo village and OP 5 in Nggolombay village.
- (12) Wolowae Dialect or Toto Dialect (65%) between OP 11 in Natatoto village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village. This dialect comprises Utetoto subdialect (32%) between OP 17 in Utetoto village and OP 21 in Kerirea village.
- (13) Oja Dialect (63%) between OP 19 in Tendambepa village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village. This dialect comprises the following subdialects:
 - a) Watumite Subdialect (33%) between OP 18 in Watumite village and OP 21 in Kerirea village.
 - b) Tendarea Subdialect (35%) between OP 20 in Tendarea village and OP 10 in Kebiringga village.

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- (14) Lejo Dialect (65%) between OP 32 in Selalejo village and OP 38 in Wuliwalo village. This dialect comprises Wolokisa subdialect (34%) between OP 37 in Wolokisa village and OP 8 in Tendambepa village.
- (15) Aeweo Dialect (66%) between OP 46 in Aeweo village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village.
- (16) Kotagana Dialect (65%) between OP 47 in Kotagana village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village.
- (17) Wajo Dialect (65%) between OP 50 in Udiworowatu village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village and between OP 40 in Wajo village and OP 5 in Nggolombay village.
- (18) Romba Dialect (66%) between OP 45 in Witurombaua village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village.
- (19) Riti – Woko Dialect (65%) between OP 42 in Wokodekororo village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village
- (20) Sara – Taka Dialect (Sarasedu – Takatunga) (67%) between OP 35 in Sarasedu village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village. Sara – Taka dialect is spoken by people in bordering areas of Nagekeo regency and Ngada Regency
- (21) Soa Dialect (65%) between OP 14 in Mengeruda village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village. Soa dialect is spoken by people in bordering areas of Nagekeo regency and Ngada regency.
- (22) Poma Dialect (62%) between OP 14 in Denatana village and OP 1 in Lengkosambi village.

4.1.3 Ende Language and Its Dialects

Quantitatively, the determination of the highest percentage as the language based on the point of observations dialectometry is not found in this study. This is caused by the mutual influence between Nagekeo and Ende languages in the border area whose

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relationship is expressed through the triangle of observation points.. Determination Ende language as a language of its own that is different from the language of Nagekeo was found through isogloss pattern, namely pattern B. The pattern B is a line that unites isogloss TP 10 in the village of the Kebirangga, Maukaro District of Ende regency with TP 21 in the village of Kerirea, the District of Nangapanda, Ende regency into one unified region, namely the area of Ende Language.

Ende language in this study was supported by two dialects, namely:

- (1) Nangpanda Dialect (38%) between TP 21 in the village of Kerirea and TP 22 in the village of Bidoa.
- (2) Maukaro Dialect (37%) between TP 8 in the village of Tenda Kinde and TP 10 in the village of Kebirangga.

4.2 Phonological Description

Through minimal pair technique, it is found out that:

- 1) There are 6 (six) vowels in Nagekeo language: a, i, u, e, ə, o
- 2) Nagekeo language has 21 (twenty-one) consonants: p, b, ɸ, f, t, d, ɖ, n, l, r, c, j, h, s, z, k, g, ɟ, ŋ, ?.
- 3) There are 2 (two) semi vowels in Nagekeo language: w and y

4.3 Phonemic Variation in Geography Dialect Dimension

Segmental phonemes variations in Nagekeo language are divided into two types: the rule-governed (regular) variation and sporadic variation.

4.3.1 Rule-Governed (Regular) Variation

Segmental phoneme variation is said to be rule-governed if the realization of phonemic variation in the form of allophones takes place for different glosses at the same observation point (OP). Variations of segmental sounds in the form of allophones in various isolects in

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Nagekeo regency becomes the characteristics and distinguishing marks of dialects/subdialects because the variations are used consistently and repetitively in various glosses at one particular area.

Rule-governed segmental phonemes variations in various isolects in Negekeo regency, which are regarded significant as the determining characteristics of regional dialect/subdialect, are only found in consonant variation, while vowel variations are sporadic.

The results of research showed that there are 6 (six) consonants that underwent rule-governed (regular) variation, as described below:

4.3.1.1 Rule-Governed (Regular) Variation of Consonant /b/ ≈ [b], [b^h], [m^b]

The identification of allophonic variation of [b], [b^h], and [m^b] is done based on the use of these allophonic variants at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language and Ende language.

a) Nagekeo language Area

(1) Allophone [b] bilabial ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:

- (a) North Central-Nage Area at Munde Dialect, which is found at OP 3, Dhawe dialect at OP 4, Lape-Ia dialect at OP 6, 7, Lambo dialect at OP 12, Dhereisa dialect at OP 15, Rendu dialect at OP 16.
- (b) South Central-Nage at Ndore dialect OP 22, 30, Jaduro Dialect at OP 23, 24, 28, Kotakeo dialect at OP 31, 41, 44.
- (c) Central Nage Area was found in Boawae dialect at OP 25, 26, 27, 34.
- (d) West Keo Area was found in Lejo dialect at OP 32, 33, 37, 38; Aewoe dialect at OP 46, Kotagana dialect at OP 47; Sara-Taka dialect at OP 35, 36; and Soa- Poa dialect at OP 13, 14.

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(2) Allophone [b^h] (aspirated) ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in North –East Nage Area, found in Toto dialect or Wolowae Dialect at OP 8, 11, 17; and Oja dialect at OP 18.

(3) Allophone [m^b] (prenasal) ≈ the characteristic of use in:

(a) Central Keo Area at Kotowuji dialect at OP 39, 40, 48, 49, 50; and Romba dialect at OP 45.

(b) East Keo Area, found in Riti-Woko dialect at OP 43.

(c) North- East Nage Area, found in Oja dialect at OP 9, 19, 20.

(4) Allophone [b^h] (aspirated) and Allophone [m^b] (prenasal) are known and used in North East Nage Area in the area of Toto dialect or Wolowae dialect at OP 17 in Utetoto village because this village was formerly situated at transitional area of Ende language area, that used allophone [m^b] (prenasal).

b) Mbay Language Area

Prenasal bilabial consonant [m^b] ≈ the characteristic of use of:

(1) Lengkosambi dialect at OP 1.

(2) Nggolonio dialect at OP 2

(3) Nggolombay dialect at OP 5.

c) Ende Language Area

Allophone [m^b] prenasal ≈ becomes the characteristics of use of:

(1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.

(2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

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4. 3.1.2 Rule-Governed (Regular) Variation of Consonant /d/ ≈ [d], [ˠd]

The identification of variation of allophones [d] and [ˠd] is done based on the use of allophonic variation at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language, and Ende language, respectively.

1) Nagekeo Language Area

a) Allophone [d] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in the following areas:

(1) North Central Nage, found in Munde dialect at OP 3, Dhawe dialect at OP 4; Lape-Ia dialect at OP 6, 7; Lambo dialect at OP 12; Dhereisa dialect at OP 15; Rendu dialect at OP 16.

(2) South Central Nage, found in Ndora dialect at OP 22, 30; Jaduro dialect at OP 23, 24, 28; Boawae dialect OP 25 – 27, 34; Kelimado dialect at OP 29, 13, 14; Kotakeo at OP 31; Sara-Taka at OP 35 – 36.

(3) West Keo Area, found in Lejo dialect at OP 37, 38; Aewoe dialect at OP 46; Kotagana dialect at OP 47.

b) Allophone [ˠd] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in the following areas:

(1) North East Nage, found in Toto dialect or Wolowae dialect at OP 8, 9, 11, 17; Oja dialect at OP 18, 19, 20.

(2) Central Nage Area, found in Kotowuji dialect at OP 39, 40, 48 – 50.

(3) East Keo Area, found in Riti – woko dialect at OP 42, 43.

(4) West keo Area, found in Lejo dialect at OP 32, 33; Aewoe dialect at OP 46; and Kotagana dialect at OP 47.

c) Allophones [d] and [ˠd] are used together in West Keo area in North Ladolima dialect at OP 41, Ladolima dialect area at OP 44, Witurombaua dialect area at OP 45, Aewoe dialect area at OP 46 and Kotagana at OP 47, because these areas are situated at the borders of Central Keo area.

2) Mbay Language Area

Allophone [ˠd] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in the following areas:

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- (1) Lengkosambi dialect at OP 1
 - (2) Nggolobio dialect at OP 2.
 - (3) Nggolombay dialect at OP 5.
- 3) Ende Language Area
- Allophone [ʰd] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in the following areas:
- (1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.
 - (2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

4.3.1.3 Rule-governed (regular) variation of Consonant /g/ ≈ Allophones [g], [ʰg]

The identification of the variants of allophones [g] and [ʰg] is carried out based on the use of allophonic variants at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language and Ende language.

- 1) Nagekeo Language Area
 - a) Variant of Allophone [g] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:
 - (1) North Central Nage Area, found in Munde dialect at OP 3; Dhawe dialect at OP 4; Lape-Ia dialect at OP 6, 7; Lambo dialect at OP 12; Dhereisa dialect at OP 15; Rendu dialect at OP 16.
 - (2) South Central Nage Area, found in Ndora dialect at OP 22, 30; Jaduro dialect at OP 23, 24, 28; Kelimado dialect at OP 29; Kotakeo dialect at OP 31, 41, 44; Boawae dialect at OP 25, 26, 27, 34; Sara – Taka dialect at OP 35, 36; Soa – Poma dialect at OP 13, 14.
 - (3) West Keo Area, found in Lejo dialect at OP 32, 33, 37, 38; Aeweo dialect at OP 46.
 - (4) Toto Dialect area or Wolowae at OP 8, 9, 11; Oja dialect at OP 17, 18.
 - b) Variant of Allophone [ʰg] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:
 - (1) North East Nage Area, found in toto dialect or Wolowae dialect at OP 9, 17; Oja dialect at OP 19, 20.

Accreditation:--

(2) Central Keo Area, found in Kotowuji dialect at OP 40, 45, 48 – 50; Romba dialect at OP 45.

c) Variant of Allophone [g] and [ᵑg] are used together in North East Nage Area, which is found in Toto dialect area or Wolowae dialect at OP 17 in Utetoto village because this village is situated in transitional area of Ende Language area, which uses allophone [ᵑg].

2) Mbay Language Area

Allophone [ᵑg] becomes the characteristic of use in (1) Lengkosambi dialect found at OP 1, (2) Nggolonio dialect at OP 2, (3) Nggolombay dialect at OP 5

3) Ende Language Area

Allophone [ᵑg] ≈ becomes the characteristic of us in:

(1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.

(2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

Accreditation:--

4.3.1.4 Rule-governed (regular) variation of Consonant /z/ ≈ Allophones [z], [r], [R], [s]. [y]

The identification of variants of allophones [z], [r], [R], [s]. [y] is carried out based on the use of allophonic variants at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language and Ende language.

1) Nagekeo Language Area

a) Allophonic variant of [z] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in

(1) North Central Nage Area, found in Munde dialect at OP 3; Dhawe dialect at OP 4; Lape – Ia dialect at op 6, 7; Lambo dialect at OP OP 12; Dhereisa dialect at OP 15; Rendu dialect at OP 16.

(2) North East Nage Area, found in Toto dialect or Woloae dialect at OP 11, 17 and Oja dialect at OP 20.

(3) South Central Nage Area, found in Ndora dialect at OP 22, 30; Jaduro dialect at OP 23, 24, 28; Kelimado at OP 29.

(4) Central Nage Area, found in Boawae dialect at OP 25 – 27.

(5) Bordering Areas between Naekeo regency and Ngada regency, found in Sara – Taka dialect at OP 35.

b) Allophonic variant of [r] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in

(1) Central Nage Area, found in Boawae dialect at OP 34.

(2) Bordering Areas between Naekeo regency and Ngada regency, found in Sara – Taka dialect at OP 36.

(3) West Keo Area, found in Lejo dialect at OP 32, 33, 37, 38; Aewoe dialect at OP 46.

(4) Central Keo Area, found in Kotowuji dialect at OP 39, 40, 48 – 50; Romba dialect at OP 45.

(5) East Keo Area. Found in Riti – Woko dialect at OP 42, 43.

(6) North East Nage Area, found in Watu Mita dialect at OP 18.

Accreditation:--

- c) Allophonic variant of [z,r] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in Wolowae dialect at OP 8.
- d) Allophonic variant of [y] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in
 - (1) North East Nage Area, found in Toto dialect or Woloae dialect at OP 19.
 - (2) South Central Nage, found in Kotakeo dialect at OP 31, 41, 44.
- 2) Mbay Language Area
 - Allophonic variants of [s] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:
 - (a) Lengkosambi dialect at OP 1
 - (b) Nggolonio dialect at OP 2.
 - (c) Nggolombay dialect at OP 5
- 3) Ende Language Area
 - Allophonic variant of [R] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:
 - (1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.
 - (2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

4.3.1.5 Rule-governed (regular) variation of Consonant /r/ ≈ Allophones [r], [R], [l], [l^h], [h], [y], [Ø]

The identification of allophonic variants of [r], [R], [l], [l^h], [h], [y], [Ø] is carried out based on the use of variants of these allophones at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language and Ende language.

- a) Nagekeo Language Area
 - 1) Allophone [r] ≈ becomes the characteristic in North Central Nage Area in:
 - (a) Dhawe dialect at OP 4,
 - (b) Dhereiss dialect at OP 15
 - (c) Rendu dialect at OP 16
 - 2)) Allophone [R] uvular ≈ becomes the characteristic in Lambo dialect at OP 12

Accreditation:--

3) Allophone [l] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:

(a) North East Nage Area, found in Utetoto subdialect at OP 17 and Tendarea subdialect at OP 20.

(b) West Keo Area found in Lejo dialect at OP 32 and Kotagana dialect at 47

(c) Central Keo Area found in Kotowuji at OP 39, 40, 48 – 50; and Romba dialect at OP 45.

(d) East Keo dialect found in Riti – Woko dialect at OP 42, 43.

4) Allophone [l^h] (aspirated) b ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in Central North Nage Lape – Ia dialect at OP 6, 7.

5) Allophone [h] becomes the characteristic of use in:

(1) North Nage Area, Munde Subdialect at OP 3.

(2) Central Nage Area, Boawae dialect at OP 25 – 27.

6) Allophone [y] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in North East Nage area, Toto dialect of Wolowae dialect at OP 8, 9, 11; Oja dialect at OP 19; and Watumite subdialect at OP 18.

7) Zero Allophone [Ø] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in Central South Nage area Dora dialect at OP 22, 30; Jaduro dialect at OP 23, 24, 28; Kelimado dialect at OP 29; Kotakeo dialect at OP 31; and Ladolima dialect at OP 41, 44

3) Ende Language Area

Allophonic variant of [R] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:

(1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.

(2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

4.3.1.6 Rule-governed (regular) variation of Consonant /l/ ≈ Allophones [l], [d], [l^h], [r^z], [Ø]

Accreditation:--

The identification of allophone [l]] \approx [l], [d], [l̥], [r̥z], [Ø] is carried out based on the use of variants of these allophones at various observation points in Nagekeo language, Mbay language and Ende language.

1) Nagekeo Language Area

a) Allophone [l]] \approx becomes the characteristic of use in:

- (1) Central Nage Area, found in Boawae dialect at OP 25 – 27, 34.
- (2) South Central Nage Area, found in Ndora dialect at OP 22, 30; Jaduro dialect at OP 23, 24, 28; Kelimado at OP 29; Kelimado dialect at OP 29; Kotakeo dialect at OP 31; Ladolima at OP 41, 44.
- (3) North Central Nage Area, found in Munde dialect at OP 3; Dhawe dialect at OP 4; Lape – Ia dialect at op 6, 7; Lambo dialect at OP OP 12; Dhereisa dialect at OP 15; Rendu dialect at OP 16.
- (4) West Keo Area found in Lejo dialect at OP 32,33,37; and Aewoe dialect at OP 46.
- (5) Bordering Areas between Naekeo regency and Ngada regency, found in Sara – Taka dialect at OP 35.

b) Allophone [d]] \approx becomes the characteristic of use in:

- (1) North Central Nage Area, found in Lambo dialect at OP 12.
- (2) North East Nage Area, found in Toto dialect or Woloae dialect at OP 8, 11, 17 and Oja dialect at OP 19; and Tendarea subdialect at OP 20.
- (3) South Central Nage Area, found in Ndora dialect at OP 22.
- (4) West Keo Area found in Lejo dialect at OP 38; Kotagana dialect at OP 47.
- (5) Central Keo Area found in Kotowuji at OP 39, 40, 48 – 50; and Romba dialect at OP 45.
- (6) East Keo dialect found in Riti – Woko dialect at OP 42, 43.

c) Allophone [l̥]] \approx becomes the characteristic of use in North east Nage Area in Watumite subdialect at OP 18.

Accreditation:--

d) Allophone [Ø]] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in dialect area in the borders between Nagekeo regency and Ngada regency, found in Sara- Take dialect at OP 36.

2) Mbay Language Area

Allophonic variants of [l]] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:

(d) Lengkosambi dialect at OP 1

(e) Nggolonio dialect at OP 2.

(f) Nggolombay dialect at OP 5

3) Ende Language Area

Allophonic variant of [ʰz] ≈ becomes the characteristic of use in:

(1) Maukaro dialect at OP 10.

(2) Nangapanda dialect OP 21.

4.3.2 Irregular Variation (Sporadic Variation)

It is also important to describe the sporadic variations appropriately in order to know the facts about the varieties of a language and kinds of variations that have enrich the language geographically. Sporadic variation is the sound that appear sporadically. From linguistic point of view, sound variation that occurs sporadically happens not because of certain linguistic environment (Saussure, 1988:25; cf. Mahsun, 1995:33) and therefore data related to sound changes in the form of sporadic variation is limited to one or two examples.

1) Assimilation

Assimilation is phonemic variation or correspondence (vowel or consonant) to become more like each other. There are three types of assimilation:

a) Progressive Assimilation

Progressive assimilation is variation or correspondence of phonemes (vowel or consonant) to become the same or similar to the sound that precedes it. Thus, the segmental that is on the right influences the one on the left side. Variation or correspondence of the phoneme that happens here is the variation of phoneme /u/ that is

Accreditation:--

on the right undergoes assimilation or adjustment with vowel /i/ which is on the left side, so that it results in vowel /i-i/, as in the following finding:

turn (*putar*)

kilu 6, 13, 27 ≈ *kili* 35

b) Regressive Assimilation

Regressive assimilation is variation or correspondence of phonemes (vowel or consonant) to become the same or similar to the sound that follows it. In this phenomenon fluid consonant lateral /l/ that is on the left side undergoes assimilation process to become like thrill /r/ that is on the right side, so that it results in fluid consonant thrill /r-r/, as in the following finding.

(1) Saliva (map 48)

?*ae lura*: 6, 7, 15, 16, 44 ≈ ?*ae rura*: 3,13,14,25, 26; *wae rura*: 35, 36.

(2) Crest (map 148)

lari manu: 4, 6, 7, 13, 15, 16 ≈ *rari manu*

c) Reciprocal Assimilation

Reciprocal assimilation is the correspondence of two successive phonemes, that result in a new phoneme which is different from the two original phonemes (Kridalaksana, 2001: 19). Thus, there is a merger of two neighboring segmental phonemes to become one new segmental. This assimilation is two ways because the two segmental phonemes influence one another, as can be seen in the following examples:

rua butu:19,32,33,34, 46,47, 38, 46, 47, 48; *rua bhUtu*: 17, 18;

rua mbutu:20,39,40,42, 43,45,49,50; *Rua mbutu*:10,21 ≈ *ro bbutu*: 8.

2) Syllabic Structure Process

Syllabic structure process in Nagekeo language found in this research is in the form of addition of consonants at the initial position (prothesis), as seen in the following:

Accreditation:--

a) Variation in the Form of Addition of Consonant

(1) Variation in the form of addition of stop velar consonant /k/ at the beginning of a word that starts with vowel /i/, as seen in the following

unlock (unlocking bottle cover) (map 901)

ōilu :29 ≈ *kilu*: 6, 13, 27.

(2) Variation in the form of addition of stop velar implosive consonant /d̥/ at the beginning of a word that starts with vowel /a/, as seen in the following.

foot (map 87)

ʔaʔi: 3, 4, 6--13, 15--32, 39, 40, 41, 43--45, 47--50 ≈ *gaʔi*: 42.

(3) Variation in the form of addition of nasal velar consonant /ŋ/ at the beginning of a word that starts with vowel /i/, as seen in the following.

nose (map 80)

ʔi.zu: 6, 7, 8, 12, 15--17, 20, 22--24, 26--30 ≈ *ŋi.zu*: 14, 35.

b) Variation in the Form of Addition of Semivowel

(1) Variation in the Form of Addition of Semivowel /w/ and /y/ at the initial position of a word that starts with vowel /a/, as seen in the following.

foot (map 87)

ʔaʔi: 3, 4, 6--13, 15--32, 39, 40, 41, 43--45, 47--50 ≈ *waʔi*: 14, 35 dan *yaʔi*: 37, 38, 46.

(2) Variation of stop bilabial consonant /b/ and /f/ becomes semivowel /w/.

(a) Variation of bilabial consonant /b/ becomes semivowel /w/

pork (fat part of pork) (map 87)

bozo: 15, 23, 24, 27, 28 ≈ *wozo*: 29

(b) Variation of fricative consonant /f/ becomes semivowel /w/

Eat (mangoes) with front teeth (map 843)

fagi: 3,6,7,12,15,16,23--25,27,28; *fagi*: 8,11,18 ≈ *wagi*: 4, 22

(c) Variation of velar plosive consonant /g/ becomes semivowel /y/

Accreditation:--

knead (map 903)

gəme: 3,4,8,13,15,22,24,25,27,30, 31, 37, 41, 46, 48 ≈ yəme: 18

3) Segmental Omission

Variation in the form of omission velar implosive consonant /g/ between vowels /e/ and /a/, as seen in the following.

demolished (demolished house by the crash of car) (map 745)

bega: 4, 6, 7, 12, 15, 16, 22--38, 40, 41, 43, 46, 47 ≈ bea: 14; ^mbea: 39

4) Metathesis

Metathesis is the change of place of phonemes in a word (Kridalaksana:2001: 136). Metathesis that happens here is in the form of:

- a) Change of place of consonants, that is, the consonant in the first syllable of the word moves to the second syllable.
- b) The consonant in the second syllable moves to the first syllable of the word.

Metathesis variation comprises:

- 1) Metathesis of consonant /g – l/ becomes /l – g/. Data metathesis /g – l/ ≈ /l – g/ found in Nagekeo language is:

Turn around (peta 827)

gili ge.o: 31, 32, 37, 46; ≈ *li.gi leo*: 44

- 2) Metathesis of consonant /m – s/ becomes /s – m/. Data metathesis /m – s/ ≈ /s – m/ found in Nagekeo language is

suck (suck at a hose) (peta 819)

sə.mo: 33, 37, 42 ≈ *mə.so*: 4, 13

- 3) Metathesis of consonant /s – l/ becomes /l – s/. Data metathesis /s – l/ ≈ /l – s/, found in Nagekeo language is

Accreditation:--

Cutting branches of a tree (peta 858)

solu: 42 ≈ *losi*: 17

5) Segmental Vowel Variation

Variation of segmental vowels comprises:

- (1) Variation in form of the fronting of back rounded vowel /o/ becoming front unrounded vowel /e/, as seen in the following.

swollen (map 248)

bowo: 23, 26, 27, 29, 34, 35, 37, 42; *bowo* ≈ *bewe*: 33, 38, 46, 47

- (2) Variation in the form of the fronting of back rounded vowel /u/ becoming front unrounded vowel /i/, as seen in the following.

unlock (unlocking bottle cover) (map 901)

kilu: 6, 13, 27 ≈ *kili*: 35

6) Segmental Consonant Variation

Consonant variation based on manner of articulation is related to the constriction of certain voice tract, be it total block or constriction more than manner of articulation. Thus, it is based on the manner in which the air passes out from the lungs.

- 1) Variation of stop palatal voiceless consonant /c/:

- a) Stop voiceless consonant /c/ becoming lateral voiced consonant /l/.

small (map 677)

coʔo: 12, 15--18, 22--24, 27--34, 46, 50 ≈ *loʔo*: 8, 11, 19, 20, 22

- b) Stop palatal voiceless consonant /c/ becoming velar voiced consonant /g/.

small (map 677)

coʔo: 12, 15--18, 22--24, 27--34, 46, 50 ≈ *goʔo*: 42, 43, 45, 46, 48--50

- c) Stop palatal consonant voiceless consonant /c/ becoming velar voiced consonant /s/.

small (map 677)

coʔo: 12, 15--18, 22--24, 27--34, 46 ≈ *soʔo*: 4, 29, 33, 34, 36--41, 44, 47.

Accreditation:--

2) Variation of nasal dental consonant /n/:

- (a) Variation of nasal dental /n/ becomes dental stop /d/ accompanied by variation of consonant/g/ becoming consonant /k/ at second syllable of the word.

nod (map 929)

nugu: 3, 4, 6--8, 11--13, 15--17, 22--38,41,42,44, 46, 47 ≈ *duku*: 14

- (b) Variation of nasal dental /n/ becomes stop palatal /j/, as seen in the following.

nod (map 929)

nugu: 3, 4, 6--8, 11--13, 15--17, 22--38, 41, 42, 44, 46, 47 ≈ *juku*: 43

- (c) Variation of nasal dental /n/ becomes stop labial /p/, as seen in the following.

nod (map 929)

nugu: 3,4,6--8,11--13,15--18,22--38,41,42,44,46, 47; *nu^hgu*: 9,

19, 20, 39, 40, 45, 48, 50 ≈ *pəgu*: 49

3) Variation of bilabial nasal voiced consonant /m/:

- (a) Variation of bilabial nasal consonant /m/ becomes stop bilabial plosive voiced /b/, accompanied by variation of stop velar explosive /g/ becoming stop velar implosive /g̃/ at second syllable of the word, as seen in the following.

naked (map 737)

moga : 11, 49, 50 ≈ *boḡa*:12, 22, 30

- (b) Variation of bilabial nasal voiced /m/ becomes dental stop voiced /d/, accompanied by repetition with variation of consonant /d/ becoming /r/ at second syllable of second word, as in the following.

naked (map 737)

moga: 11, 49, 50 ≈ *doga –roga*: 41

- (c) Variation of bilabial nasal voiced /m/ becomes stop palatal /j/ at first and second syllable of the word, as seen in the following.

knead (map 903)

ḡame: 3,4, 8,13,15,22, 24,25,27,30, 31,37, 41,46, 48 ≈ *ḡaje*: 9,17,19, 20,40, 48--50;

Accreditation:--

gəjo: 21, 45

- 4) Variation of stop velar voiceless /k/ of the second syllable of the word becomes stop velar voiced, as seen in the following.

butt (map 864)

puku: 3,4,6,7,11,12--16,23, 25, 27,31, 36--38 ≈ *pugu*: 46,47; *pəgu*: 39, 43, 44, 48, 49;
pagu: 17,20.

Variation of stop dental consonant /d/ comprises:

- a) Variation of dental consonant /d/ becoming bilabial consonant /p/

butt (map 864)

dəgu: 6,8,9,15,18,19,22,24,28--30,34,35,40,41 ≈ *pəgu*: 39,43,44,48,49

- b) Variation of dental consonant /d/ becoming dental consonant /t/

butt (map 864)

dəgu: 6, 8, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 24, 28--30, 34, 35, 40, 41; ≈ *təgu*: 26 .

- 5) Variation of fluid consonant /r/, becomes velar implosive consonant /ɣ/, as seen in the following data.

crow (map 481)

ra: 3, 12, 16; *ʔana ra*: 15, 44 ≈ *ɣa*: 18; *tura*; *ɣa*: 11

- 6) Variation of velar consonant /k/, comprises:

- (a) Variation of velar consonant /k/ becoming larynx fluid consonant /h/

unlock (unlocking bottle cover) (map 901)

kilu: 6, 13, 27; *kili*: 35; *kidu*: 50; *kiu*: 36, 39, 43 ≈ *hidu*: 40

- (b) Variation of velar consonant /k/ becoming bilabial consonant /b/.

fall (map 674)

^mboka: 9, 10, 19--21, 50; *^{b^h}oka*: 8 ≈ *boba*: 4, 6, 15, 16, 23, 24, 26, 28, 32, 33, 36, 37, 41, 44, 46, 47; *^mboba*: 43

- (c) Variation of velar consonant /k/ becoming bilabial implosive consonant /ɓ/.

swallow (map 916)

Accreditation:--

kəlo:4,15,16; kəo:36 ≈ bəlo:31,32,35,41,44; bədo: 39,40,43,45,47-- 50.

- (d) Variation of stop velar consonant /k/ becomes stop velar consonant /e/ as seen in the following.

thorn (map 387)

kalo: 20,32,39,40,42,43,45,46,48--50; karo: 14,17,21,35,36, 44, 46;

kayo: 8,9,18,19,33,37,38,46 ≈ garo: 3,4,6,7,12,13,25; gayo:

11; gaøo: 22,30

- (e) Variation of velar explosive voiceless consonant /k/ becomes velar implosive voiced consonant /g/

knead (map 903)

kəje: 39, 43, 49 ≈ gəse: 6, 7, 26, 36, 38, 47; gəce: 12, 16, 23, 28, 29, 32--34, 46;

gəje: 9, 17, 19, 20, 40, 48, 50; gəjo: 45

- (f) Variation of velar consonant /k/ becomes thrill fluid consonant /r/ putar unlock (unlocking bottle cover) (map 901)

kilu: 6, 13, 27; kili: 35; kidu: 50; kiu: 36, 39, 43 ≈ 10 ridu: 8.

- 8) Variation of velar implosive consonant /g/ becomes velar explosive voiceless consonant /k/.

unlock (unlocking bottle cover) (map 901)

gīlu:7,15,16,18, 28,31,32,44 ≈ kilu:6,13,27; kili:35; kidu: 50; kiøw: 36,39, 43.

- 9) The change of stop bilabial implosive consonant /b/ becomes stop bilabial explosive consonant /b/.

Marrow (map 368)

bi.lu: 3, 4, 6, 7, 13--16, 23--35, 37, 38, 41, 44, 46; bi.du: 8, 11, 12, 22, 39,

47, 49; biu: 36 ≈ bi.du: 40.

- 10) Variation of lateral fluid consonant /l/ becomes velar consonant /k/

A tool in traditional weaving activity (map 999)

Accreditation:--

logo: 3, 4, 6, 7, 14--16, 23--28, 31, 33--35, 46 ≈ *kogo*: 22, 30, 32, 36, 41, 44;
ko^ogo: 9, 39, 40, 42, 43, 45, 48, 49.

11) Variation of bilabial explosive consonant /b/ becomes bilabial implosive consonant /ɓ/,
variation of bilabial consonant /b/ becoming bilabial implosive /ɓ/.

(a) float (map 742)

bawa: 3, 6, 7, 11--13, 15, 16, 25, 27, 33, 34, 36, 37, 39--41, 44, 46, 47 ≈ *ɓawa*:
4, 14, 17, 26, 29, 35.

(b) lean on (map 906)

beʔi: 3, 6, 7, 12, 13, 15, 16, 22, 25, 28, 30--34, 36--38, 41, 44, 46, 47 ≈ *ɓeʔi*: 4, 14,
17, 26, 29, 35.

12) Variation of velar explosive consonant /g/ becomes velar implosive /ɠ/

Roll over (map 813)

gola: 4, 22, 23, 25, 27, 29, 30, 34, 41; *goda*: 8, 11, 12; *goa*: 36; ≈ *ɠola*: 15, 16;
ɠole: 26.

13) The change of alveolar consonant /z/

a) The change of alveolar consonant /z/ becomes dental implosive /ɗ/.

rice (map 355)

zea pa.re: 3,4,16; *zea pae*: 22,24,25; *zea mama*: 13; *zea nika* : 15,
23, 27, 28, 29, 41; *bu) zea*: 8; *zea ka*: 6, 7, 12; *ka zea*: 18; *ʔetu zea*: 39 ≈ *ɗea*: 14,
35, 36.

b) The change of apico-palatal /z/ becomes apico-alveolar /s/

odor of stale (map 985)

wau bazu: 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14--16, 22--24, 28, 30; *wau b^hazu*: 8, 17,
18; *wau ^mbazu*: 20 ≈ *wau ^mbasu*: 39.

14) The change of dental consonant /t/ becomes alveolar /s/

Pick up (map 821)

tabu: 12, 13, 15, 16, 23, 24, 28, 38, 41, 44, 46, 47; *ta^mbu*: 39, 40, 42, 43, 45, 48--50 ≈

Accreditation:--

sabu: 3, 4, 7, 14, 22, 25, 29; *sab^hu*: 11; *sa^mbu*: 19.

15) Variation of dental consonant /d/ becomes bilabial consonant /p/

butt (map 864)

dəgu : 4,6,7, 12, 15, 16 ≈ *pəgu*: 39, 43, 44, 48, 49; *pagu*: 17, 20; *pugu*: 46, 47.

16) Variation of palatal voiced /j/ comprises:

a) Variation of palatal voiced /j/ becomes fricative alveolar voiceless /z/

(1) horse (map 500)

jara: 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19, 20, 21, 25, 26, 32, 50; *jaya*: 11; *ja*: 22--
 24,27--31 ≈ *zara*: 14.

(2) wild banana (map 422)

buju: 3,6,7,13,15,16,22--29,31,32,38,39,41,44,45 ≈ *buzu*: 14.

17) The change of fricative alveolar voiceless/voiced consonant /z/ becomes stop palatal consonant /j/.

Odor of stale (map 985)

wau bazu: 3, 4, 7, 11, 12, 14--16, 22--24, 28, 30; *wau b^hazu*: 8, 17, 18; *wau ^mbazu*: 20
 ≈ *wau baju*: 26, 27, 29, 33, 34, 36--38, 46.

4.4 Language Peculiarities

In terms of lexicon, there are two unique linguistic phenomena in Mbay/Riung language compared to Nagekeo and Ende languages found in this research:

(1) Basic Numeral

Basic numerals used in Mbay/Riung language is 10 (ten), while Nagekeo and Ende language has 5 (five) basic numbers, as seen in the following table:

No	Numeral	Mbay/Riung Language	Nagekeo Language	Ende Language

Accreditation:--

1	one	<i>(s,c)a</i>	<i>ʔasa</i>	<i>ʔasa</i>
2	two	<i>sua</i>	<i>z(r,d)ua</i>	<i>Rua</i>
3	three	<i>təlu</i>	<i>tə (l,d)u</i>	<i>tə^rzu</i>
4	four	<i>pat</i>	<i>wutu</i>	<i>wutu</i>
5	five	<i>lima</i>	<i>l(d, ^ld)ima</i>	<i>^rzima</i>
6	six	<i>nen(ng)</i>	<i>(l, d)ima ʔasa</i>	<i>^rzima ʔasa</i>
7	seven	<i>Pitu</i>	<i>(l,d, ^ld)ima</i> <i>(z r,d) ua</i>	<i>^rzima Rua</i>
8	eight	<i>walu</i>	<i>(z r) ua butu</i>	<i>Rua ^mbutu</i>
9	nine	<i>(s,c)iwa</i>	<i>ta(ə)ra ʔasa</i>	<i>taRa ʔasa</i>
10	ten	<i>Sa bulu</i>	<i>sa ^mbulu</i>	<i>s(c)a pulu</i>
11	eleven	<i>s(c)apulu s(c)a</i>	<i>sa (b, ^mb) ulu sa</i> <i>ʔasa</i>	<i>a ^mbu^rzu sa</i> <i>ʔasa</i>
12	twelve	<i>s(c)apulu sua</i>	<i>sa (b, ^mb)ulu əsa</i> <i>(z,r,d)ua</i>	<i>a ^mbu^rzu ʔasa</i> <i>Rua</i>

(2) Vocalic and Non-vocalic Types

Words used in Nagekeo language are vocalic in nature, which means, words used in both languages are open in nature, or the ending is always a vowel, whereas the words in Mbay/Riung language are non-vocalic, which means, some words used in this language are open or end in vowels and others are closed or end in consonants, as in the following table:

No.	Gloss	Mbay/Riung Language	Negekeo Language
1	feather	<i>laⁿdo manuk: 1,2,5</i>	<i>lado manu :</i> <i>15,16,24,26</i> <i>weʔo manu: 3,4,6-</i>

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			13,17-34,36-41,43-50
2	pineapple	<i>pala waⁿdaŋ</i> : 1,2,5	<i>pala wada</i> : 3,4,6,7, 11,13,25
3	inform	<i>toⁿdaŋ</i> : 1,2,5	<i>toda</i> :3,4,6,7,12, 14-16,23,25, 28-30
4	green pea	<i>ru^mbet</i> :1,2,5	<i>rube</i> : 3,4, 13-16,25,26
5	(soil) salt	<i>pasek</i> : 1,2,5	<i>pazo</i> :3,4,6,7, 11-16,18,22-30, 35,38, 39,41
6	Stick/cane	<i>doar</i> :1,2,5	<i>doa</i> : 3, 4, 6,7, 15,16

4.5 The Findings of the Consonant Correspondence Theory in the Language of Nagekeo

There are two Consonant Correspondence Theory in Nagekeo language, namely :

1) Obstruent Correspondence Theory

"In articulation obstruent always corresponds to prenasal consonant

2) Continuant Consonant Correspondence Theory

"Continuant Consonant corresponds to the type of more diverse continuant but still retains its place of articulation.

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