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Ellen Smith-Dennis. 2020. *A Grammar of Papapana. An Oceanic Language of Bougainville, Papua New Guinea* (Pacific Linguistics 659). Boston–Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. Pp. xxv + 532.[1]

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"4.11. Papapana Materials –
The survey team found none."
(Allen & Hurd [1963]: 31)

Contrary to Paluai, the (only) grammar of which (Schokkin 2020) has been introduced to linguists involved or interested in the first place in general and typological studies in a recent fascicle of *Lingua Posnaniensis* (Majewicz 2020), the glottonym Papapana (simultaneously being the endoethnonym of the speakers of the language it designates as well as the toponym used by them to call the territory they inhabit (SDE, p. 21)) does appear in Asher & Moseley (2007: 108, 135 (map 29)) and in Kamei et al. (1989: 520 and 1993: 55, 694, 968, as パパパナ(亜)語群パパパナ語 150人 *papapanago* of *papapana* (*a*)*gogun* 'Papapana language of Papapana language subgroup'); it is listed also in Yartseva (1982: 84)[2] together with all other glottonyms of the Austronesian languages of Bougainville appearing in Fig. 2.4 ("Genealogical tree for Papapana (based on Ross 2004: 493-4)", p. 36 of SDE, also in Lynch et al. (2002: 884)[3], and in Grimes et al. (1995: 228). Neither Voegelins (even though they do list <Allen and Hurd (1965)> in their list of "References" – see footnote 20 in this review and "Northwestern and Central Solomons Austronesian" 1977: 314-5) nor Meiers (see "Bougainville-Buka Unterzweig", 1979: 344) mention Papapana.

[1] Abbreviated in this text to SDE; S-D stands for the name of the author of the book under scrutiny here.

[2] under the heading "Languages of Bougainville Province" (<Языки провинции Бугенвиль>) as one of 85 entry words for a planned fundamental work (sort of a multi-volume comprehensive encyclopaedia) "Languages of the World" (Языки мира); actualy, it is a 170-page list of glottonyms proposed as entries for the planned, under the auspices of the Soviet Academy of Sciences, enterprise that constitutes the core of Yartseva (1982); "Shortland Islands belonging to the state of Solomon Islands have been included", as the respective footnote informs.

[3] In "Listing of Oceanic languages, by subgroup" but not in the "Index" limited "only to Chapters 1-5 (and also the Preface"; "the reason for this provided" is reasonable as far as "The grammar sketches" are concerned, neglecting the "Listing..." – not necessarily, as we pointed out in the review of Schokkin (2020) mentioned above.

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Papapana, classified as a single ("isolated" in the group) with no dialect differentiation within the group of ten tongues labeled Nehan-North Bougainville, appears to be the smallest independent living language as far as the population of users is concerned, spoken on the second smallest territory considered "their own" by its speakers and situated on the (southern part of northern stretch of) eastern coast (along the "east coast highway"[4]) of Bougainville Island[5], administratively the main island of the Autonomous Region of Bougainville in the Independent State of Papua New Guinea. Geographically, Bougainville is the largest island of the Solomon Islands Archipelago and together with much much smaller Buka Island neighboring at its northernmost tip constitutes a specific functional unity (e.g., the administrative center ~ "temporary regional capital" is the town of Buka, and the main airport of the Region is located also on Buka).

The glottonym was placed on the very detailed linguistic map of the (then) Bougainville District attached to "a report of the Bougainville language survey conducted between 19 February and 4 May, 1963, sponsored by the administration of the Territory"[6] ("Preface", p. 1) authored by Allen and Hurd. "[...] Buka Island was surveyed first, then the main island of Bougainville" (ibid.). "The language names were chosen on the basis of popular usage. [...] The population figures are based on the latest census records available" (ibid., p. 4).

According to Allen and Hurd's report, the number of Papapana speakers was 100 (ibid., p. 3)[7] and all of them lived in one village named Teperoi (ibid., 48). No users of other Bougainville languages seem to be reported to live also in Teperoi[8]. They are believed to migrate there from the Shortland Islands, south of Bougainville, about mid-19th century or, as quoted in SDE, 44, "only a few generations ago", in company with

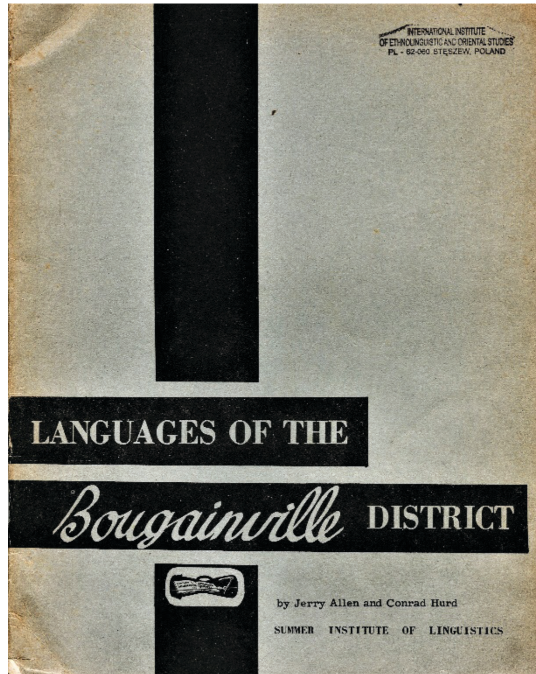
[4] Bougainville Coastal Trunk Road from Kokopau facing Buka across the strait (Buka Passage) to Arawa, formal local administrative center of Bougainville, and further on southwards to Kieta, Aropa Airport, Buin, and Buin-Kangu Hill Road to Kangu Beach and Wharf on the southern coast, or west-, north-, and eastwards via Tonu and Boku to make a circle back to Arawa.

[5] Smaller territory is occupied only by Saposa speakers who live mainly on tiny islands (the largest being Taiof) and atolls west of the western coast of the northernmost part of Bougainville Island on which they only hold (if they still do) a very tiny "beachhead"; their population – up to 1,500 towards the end of the 20th c. – is much stronger than that of Papapana.

[6] i.e., the Australian-administered Territory of Papua and New Guinea (1949-1975).

[7] Smaller figures than 100 have been provided in Allen and Hurd [1963] in the case of Austronesian ethnolects only for "Ratsua Dialect" of Hahon (71), "Petspets Sub-language Dialect of Teop" (48), and "Amun Sub-language of Nagarige (Piva)" (ibid.); the report mentions also Uruava, "a language spoken by only a very few old men at Arawa [being] for all practical purposes a dead language" (ibid., p. 20). No figure smaller than 100 have been provided for any of Papauan ("Non-Austronesian") ethnolects of the "District" (the smallest being 112, 157, 242, 415, 534, 570, 596, 765, 991, 1,003, ...) and Nasioi has emerged as the largest language community with the quoted 10,654 speakers of its nine subclassifications (here the largest being "Nasioi Proper Dialect" (cf. footnote 10) ibid., p. 4;). Conrad Hurd, the coauthor of the 1963 report, and Phyllis Hurd made the Nasioi language one of the first (possibly the first) Bougainville language globally famous as authors of the *Nasioi language course* including Nasioi-English-Nasioi "dictionaries" (Hurd & Hurd 1963, 283 pp.) and their extensive article on Nasioi verbs (Hurd & Hurd 1970).

[8] Google maps show (in red) Teperoi Aid Post with big <H> situated some 1 km south from Teperoi center along the mentioned highway; on still more detailed ("Open street") e-maps the toponym is misspelled as *<Tepeori>.



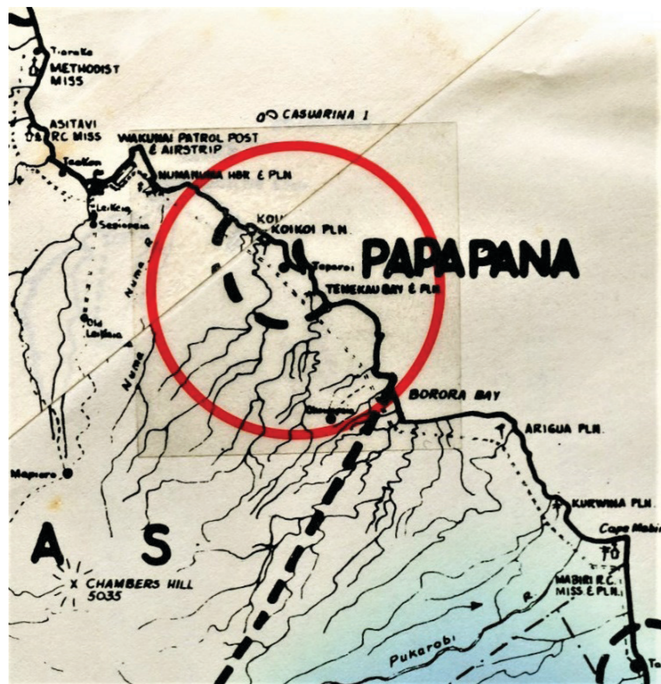


Figure 1. Allen and Hurd [1963], cover, and Papapana territory on the map attached to Allan and Hurd

speakers of another Austronesian (North-West Solomonic) language Torau now living in another small niche to the south of Papapana along the same coast (for details on the migration and matters related see Lanyon-Orgill & Sin 1942 and SDE, 44-53). Allen and Hurd (p. 48) provided information on the number of Torau speakers – 605 – inhabiting three villages and classified (p. 20) both Papapana and Torau as belonging to the same <Torau family>. One learns also that “The Papapana people speak Rotokas, a few can speak Nasioi, and some can understand Teop”[9] (ibid. p. 39).

Listing “Bismarck Archipelago Melanesian languages”, under the heading “Bougainville” (ten items altogether) Lanyon-Orgill & Sin (1942: 92) mentioned “Teperoi, around Numanuma”. S-D treats both terms as exoethnonyms and exoglottonyms for Papapana (“Torau and Teop people call Papapana people *Numanuma*, due to their proximity to the Numanuma plantation” [marked on Google maps], [...] “... grandfather was fluent in the Numanuma language”, and “... the language has also been referred to [...] as *Teperoi* (Lanyon-Orgill and King 1942)” (SDE, 34). She provides also another exonym – *Auta* – “used by Rotokas speakers” of their Papuan language[10] and quotes *Papapa* (ibid. 33-4). Neither Teperoi or Numanuma nor, of course, Papapana appear on the list (p. 10) and on the map (p. 11) of Bougainville languages in Oliver (1949), although one finds the following suggestion in the text, referred to “Tiop”, listed as “Northern Melanesian-type language”: “To this [Tiop] language should probably be referred the so-called “Numa-Numa” language of the early explorers” (p. 10).

Unfortunately, *Teperoi* (as well as *Numanuma*) is mentioned in the 1942 article only once and no other information can be found; as a consequence, Allen and Hurd 1963 survey report has to be treated as a starting point for any comparisons and conclusions. What was striking for this author was the information emerging from the second sentence on the very first page of SDE: “Papapana is spoken by 99 fluent speakers” and no exact not only date but also hour and minute of the day provided. This precise and firm but very risky statement could easily turn into falsity (a “fake news”, to use the “trendy” expression) within a second. Simultaneously, the figure was so close to that obtained by Allen and Hurd and both evidently resulted from counting rather than estimation. The latter provided statistical data with astonishing accuracy to one person[11], so the cited 100

[9] Among the three, only Teop is Austronesian and belongs to the Nehan-North Bougainville subgrouping; the other two are respectively North and South Bougainville Papuan.

[10] Papapana actually is a “language island”, surrounded, except for the sea coast, by an extensive mountainous Rotokas-speaking territory. Auta “reportedly translates as ‘down below’ in Rotokas” (SDE, 33); in Firchow et al. (1973: 10) the equivalent is simply ‘coastal people’. SDE, 34, quotes also other etymological suggestions concerning *Papapana*. The 1942 use of Teperoi as a glottonym probably is among the earliest (if not the earliest) mention(s) of Papapana in academic literature.

[11] E. g. 10,654 speakers of Nasioi in 112 villages, including 6,116 speakers of Nasioi Proper in 65 villages, with equally exact numbers provided for each village (e.g. Arawa 134, Topina i Pidia 101 each, Mogontoro 227, Nasioi 98, Unabato 99, Kuka 18, etc.), Pakia-Sieronji Dialect with 242 speakers in two villages (Pakia 164, Sieronji 78), Orami Dialect with 1,512 speakers in 11 villages (including e.g. Kokorei 200, Daru 94, Guava 199, etc.), etc.; 3520 Rotokas speakers in 31 villages, including 1,640 speakers of Rotokas Proper in 15 villages (including Sisivi 190, Sirioipaia 194, Leikaia 68, etc.), 765 speakers of Pipipaia Dialect in four villages (respectively 264, 190, 162, 149 speakers), 1,003 speakers of Aita Dialect (all listed), and 112 speakers of Atsilima sub-language with 112 speakers in one village (Atsilima); 605 Torau speakers in three villag-

speakers of Papapana limited to one village only cannot be treated as approximation. Other and more recent sources at hand inform about 150 Papapana speakers in 1977 (cf. e.g. *Ethnologue* 9 1978: 380; Sakiyama 1989: 520; Grimes et al. 1995: 228; Tryon 2005: 37; Asher & Moseley 2007: 108; all apparently quoting from, or basing on, the same source) and 120 speakers in 2000 (cf. e.g. *Ethnologue* 16 2009: 632).

But S-D did meticulously count Papapana speakers and dated the counting and returns to the problem of their number 37 pages later where one reads (SDE, 38-9): "In May 2013, the total number of fluent, first language (L1) Papapana speakers with full productive ability was 106, there were fifty-five second language (L2) or semi-speakers with partial productive ability, and there were around 136 people who could understand Papapana but not speak it and could thus be considered passive bilinguals". The footnote for this fragment (ibid.) clarifies the number 99 mentioned above: "Since May 2013, the number of fluent speakers has decreased by at least seven due to the death of speakers" but in Smith (2016: 523) one already reads of "Papapana, a highly endangered language [...] spoken by 104 fluent speakers"). A little earlier the reader also learned that "The Papapana speech community originat[ing] in the village of Teperoi [...] in 2011-2018 [...] was also located in five other villages north and south of Teperoi" – a very important information not only in the entire (however small) "bulk" of literature on, mentioning, or only incidentally touching Papapana but for all involved, dealing with, or studying situations and prospects of small ("lesser-used") languages, cultures, collective identities, problems of endangerment, loss, extinction, revitalization, local policies and priorities, language planning, social engineering, etc., etc. S-D counted both totals and splits (categories: "villages", "elsewhere", "productive abilities"): for Teperoi, for example, which "had the highest proportion of L1/fluent speakers" (SDE, 40), the entire population was established at 224, the number of fluent speakers at 47 (21%), semi-speakers at 17 (8%), and passive bilinguals at 45 (20%). The other five villages are much smaller, so in one case even three fluent speakers, four semi-speakers, and seven passive bilinguals make 66% of the entire population of ... 21. Maximally, up to 59% of the total population of all six villages turn out to be persons with different/some degree of Papapana language abilities. All such and similar data have been skillfully tabularized and plotted (SDE, 39-41).

Of interest here may be the category "elsewhere": e.g., there were 17 fluent speakers, 9 semi-speakers, and 19 passive bilinguals "elsewhere in Bougainville", one fluent speaker in Port Moresby and one in Australia, one semi-speaker in Australia, and ten passive bilinguals outside Bougainville. S-D mentions also the existence of a few non-Papapana fluent and semi- speakers as well as passive bilinguals (SDE, 39).

S-D's *Grammar*, "mostly based on data" she had collected between June 2011 (to March 2012) and (March to) May 2013 (p. 4)[12], is "the first comprehensive grammar of Papapana, and [...] the first full reference grammar of any Oceanic language of Northern

es (Rorovana 394, Tarara 111, and Vito 100 (*sic!*); or, to conclude this exemplification, 751 Saposa in nine villages.

[12] Working on her *Grammar*, S-D paid a three-week visit to Bougainville and Papapana villages in April 2018 (on the visit and its results see SDE, 21-3).

Bougainville, with *numerous typologically significant features*" (p. 2, *italics* afm.; actually, the reasons for selecting both SDE and Schokkin 2020 for presentation in this journal were the same or very similar). It "initially arises from [S-D's] doctoral project" (1) resulting in her PhD dissertation (Smith 2015, available online) in which the said data have been presented but the "book is [...] a substantial development of the grammatical description, which was the main focus of [her] thesis" (1).

The core of Smith (2015) from which SDE "arose" has been elegantly organized into three "parts" with Roman numbers: "Part I Context" (1-35, organized in turn in "1. Introduction" (1-18) and "2 Language Background"), "Part II A Grammar of Papapana" (35-308), and "Part III Language Contact" (309-384), and that organization turned out to be better thought-out and functionally optimal in confrontation with SDE. Here, the core is organized in ten "chapters", and opens with "Chapter 1 Introduction", i.e., with a confusion of genres and functions. The function of an "introduction" in a model academic publication is exactly the same as such its components as "List of figures" (p. xix in SDE), "List of tables" (xxi-xxii), "Abbreviations" (xxiii), "Glossing conventions" (xxv), "References" (509-19), appendices (521-5), "Index" 527-32", and even "Contents" (ix-xviii) and "Acknowledgements" (vii-viii), i.e., components of the infrastructure the role of which is to maximally facilitate the use (and thus usefulness) of an academic book in the case when a potential user wants to consult or check anything needed, to make the book maximally user-friendly[13]. In this reviewer's opinion, this structural solution adopted in SDE is definitely inferior – and it is a pity because actually all the guidance elements are present in the volume.

The "Introduction" "chapter" (1-31) serves extensive information on "fieldwork and methodology" (4-23): locations, informants and their habitat with such details as their recruitment, relations, consent, and even payment (!), data collecting, recording, and processing (as well as where and how they can be accessible!), participating observation info – a case study and a ready instruction for any inexperienced linguist (also anthropologist, ethnologist, adventurer) dreaming of or planning research ventures among peoples, cultures, locations still to be properly studied and described); its second (actually, fourth) part is devoted to "book organization and typological overview" and thus well exemplifies the confusion between elements of infrastructure (*technicalities*) and material pertaining to the content (a tiny two-sentence section 1.4.1. from this point of view is a curiosity: the first sentence informs about what preceded it, while the second one quotes a longish caption/title of "Chapter 2" (cf. below) followed by a list of subjects to appear in its consecutive sections); the "typological overview" component consists of sections devoted to "phonology" (23-4), "word classes" (24-5), "nouns, noun phrases, noun class, number and possession" (26-7), "verbs and the verb complex" (28-9), "clause types and structures" (29-31), and "complex sentences" (31).

[13] Authors as well as editors and publishers of academic books tend to forget that their products are not detective stories to be read from desk to desk: to find out a needed piece of information (or its absence) in such a book, especially when it happens to be a bulky volume, must be a matter of no more than three to five minutes! Technical introduction or preface (however one calls it), is as important as an introductory chapter pertaining to the content but, logistically, it is advisable neither to merge, confuse or identify them, nor to neglect any of them.

"Chapter 2 Language background and sociolinguistic context" (32-67) is very informative and very attractively describes the Papapana territory locating it transparently on a series of three more and more detailed maps ("Papapana in Papua New Guinea", "Bougainville", and "Papapana villages") and explains the glottonym (32-5), positions the described tongue in the genealogical classification of Austronesian ("genealogical tree" list with consecutive indentations, 36) and Northwest Solomonic languages (map, 37, and "genetic tree" chart, 38), introduces "Papapana speakers" (their statistics exemplified above), their history with focus on the linguistic situation on Bougainville – with a list of ethnolects in use there and their updated statistics (43)[14], and a transparent linguistic map (44) quoted – until the 21st century) (38-53); recommended here are two final subchapters: "2.5 Papapana language use 2011-2018" (sections like "Home" (54), "Intermarriage and intergenertational transmission" (55-7), "Multilingualism..." (57-8, with tabularized statistics), "Intergenerational transmission patterns" (58-60, again illustrated with detailed statistics), "Work and administration" (60-1), "Education" (61-4), "Religion, social events and media" (64-5)), and "2.6 Papapana's ethnolinguistic vitality" (65-7). If one compares the 1963 number of speakers – 100 in Allen and Hurd, with the 2013 number – 106 in SDE, cf. above, one could conclude that the language maintenance is astonishingly stable in the community, and the only danger signal is the loss of 6.6% (7 out of 106) of speakers within a relatively short period; S-D observes, however, that "Papapana is now spoken by less than 20% of the total population of the community, intergenerational transmission has almost ceased, and Tok Pisin is the dominant language of all domains (though Papapana may be used among Papapana speakers in these domains and is used to a limited degree in elementary school). [...] Papapana is endangered because there has been considerable language shift to Tok Pisin", and that it concerns also other parts, and consequently languages on the entire territory of Papua New Guinea; in this context she quotes Dobrin (2005: 42): "language shift to Tok Pisin is now proceeding in many communities at an alarming pace" (SDE, 65). In S-D's opinion, "Papapana is [...] likely to disappear within this century" (ibid.). "Tok Pisin has gained prestige and usefulness and so it has been added to [Papapana speakers'] multilingual repertoire, but Papapana has lost prestige and usefulness and is therefore being abandoned" (67). This kind of information is too often neglected or insufficiently dosed in such works, therefore it is much appreciated here. This chapter (as well as other portions of the book presented here) becomes thus a must reading for specialists in language policies and planning – the Papapana, Bougainville and Papua New Guinea are for them areas and cases to really learn from.

Chapters 3-10 (68-507) constitute the *Grammar*. Chapter 3 (68-98) covers segmental phonology (68-82), "Orthography" (82-5)[15], "Phonotactics" (85-7), including sections on syllable and phonological word structure, "(monosyllabic, disyllabic, and multiple)

[14] The languages with the largest population of speakers being Buin (26,500; 8,613 in Allen and Hurd) and Nasioi (20,000) among eight Papuan tongues, and Halia (25,000; 9,886 in Allen and Hurd) and Nehan (Nissan, 6,500; 2,203 in Allen and Hurd) among 16 Austronesian tongues (Uruava, cf. footnote 7, with 0 speakers, included).

[15] A "generally phonemic" orthography "was developed" in 2004 at a SIL workshop but "has not been standardized and few speakers are literate in Papapana" and among them "there is a considerable variation in

Reduplication" (87-92, cf. below on Smith 2016), and "Stress" (92-8). Chapters 4 ("Nouns and noun phrase structure", 99-153, here sections on demonstratives and adjectives included) and 5 ("Noun class, number and possession", 154-227, with sections on articles (176-92), numerals (192-203), and quantifying (218-27)) cover the "nominal" grammar. Chapters 6 ("Verbs and the verb complex", 228-313, including sections on verb serialization (282-93), directional verbs (293-303), and verbal complex adverbs (303-13)) and 7 ("Tense[16], aspect, mode and negation", 314-55, with a short section on imperative and hortative (346-8)) constitute the "verbal" (part of) grammar. Chapter 8 discusses "Obliques, adjuncts and clause-level phrases" (356-90; *i.a.* issues like adposition phrases and deictic locationals, etc.). Final chapters 9 ("Clause types and structures", 391-440) and 10 ("Complex sentences", 441-507) cover Papapana syntax, although plenty of information pertaining to syntax is dispersed throughout the text of chapters 4-8, actually even 3-8)[17]. What follows and closes the volume are "References" (509-19), "Appendix 1 Pronominal paradigms" (tables with "independent pronouns", "direct possessor suffixes" and "indirect possessor proclitics", "subject-indexing proclitics", "object-indexing enclitics", and "postverbal subject-indexing enclitics", 521-2), "Appendix 2 25 demonstrative scenes" (pictures used as a tool to collect information on demonstratives, related to respective sections of Chapter 4), and "Index" (527-32).

That all grammatical classifications, interpretations, descriptions, elucidations, and conclusions have been exemplified with, and supported by, abundant language material is obvious. Together with numerous tables (78), diagrams (32), maps (5), and photos of the people and their environment mentioned in the text – housing and schooling (10, three archival „circa 1931" included)[18], the final product makes S-D's 2020 work a model record of a so-far unrecorded and not described language seriously endangered.

The book under concern here is, to use again its author's wording, "the first comprehensive grammar of Papapana, and the first full reference grammar of any Oceanic language of Northern Bougainville" (SDE, 2). S-D enumerated only three pieces of "previous research and documentation" (ibid., 3), one of them being Allen and Hurd [1963], and the remaining two – a 200-item "preliminary draft dictionary" (*Northwest*

orthographic choices" (cf. p. 82). S-D mentions (p. 22) a "draft dictionary, pedagogical readers and vocabulary books" she had made herself.

[16] In Papapana it "always relates the event [spoken about] to the time of the speech event and therefore [...] is *absolute*, and never relative" (314), as e.g. in Japanese, to mention but one example (one optional contrast between <antecedent> and <non-antecedent>, the speech event being only one of possible events to relate event(s) spoken about to).

[17] Subdivisions of chapters mentioned in this paragraph are examples only, intuitively and subjectively selected with the most probable needs and interests of typologists and other linguists from outside the field of Austronesian linguistics in mind.

[18] The classification of "figures" and "tables" here slightly differs from the lists with such labels on pp. xix-xxii. Photos of informants and their habitat definitely help in making the relations between them and users of the book more intimate and involving (providing names only hardly diminish their anonymity). We complained a little about e.g. the lack of more detailed maps and more information on fieldwork conditions on location in Schokkin (2020) and that the reduction of contextual information in relation to the PhD dissertation from which Schokkin (2020) originated (the case similar to SDE) went too far (Majewicz 2020: 128-30); in this respect, reading SDE turned out to be more satisfying.

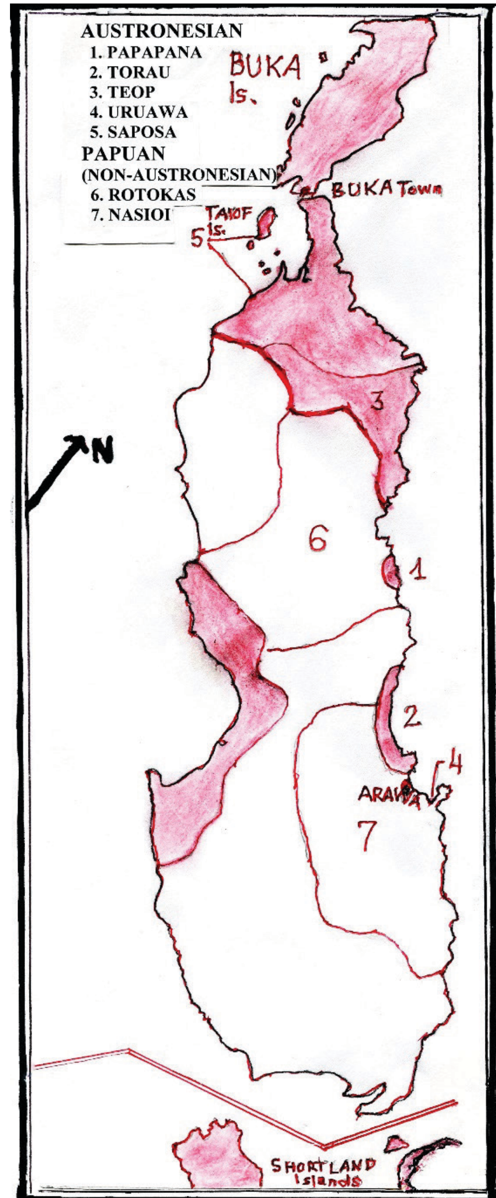


Figure 2. Freehand sketch map locating territories on which selected languages mentioned in this text are (or were) spoken on Bougainville Island; areas in red mark Austronesian languages (1. Papapana [cf. the disproportional smallness of the area in relation to the entire island territory], 2. Torau, 3. Teof, 4. Uruava, 5. Saposa), areas in white are Papuan (non-Austronesian; indicated are 6. Rotokas and 7. Nasioi). For orientation, the location of Arawa and Buka towns is also indicated. Apart from Bougainville (main island) and Buka (top), Taiof Island is identified (to the right of number 5) and fragments of Shortland Islands (northern part of Shortland Island on the left, and Ovau Island and northern part-peninsula (with Aroaro Point) of Fauro Island; the red line between Bougainville and Shortland Islands marks the state border between the Independent State of Papua New Guinea and Solomon Islands (Tryon 2005: 32; cf. Asher and Moseley 2007: 135; *Ethnologue* [16]2009: 874; SDE, 44)

Solomonic Papapana dictionary (Version 2.1)) and “six hours of primary data collected [...] from two speakers [...] in 2006”, both referred to as Palmer 2007(a-b) and available online. “No grammar studies exist” (SDE, 3). In the meantime, however, two such studies appeared, *both by S-D*: e-available Smith (2015) (mentioned in this text above) and an extensive article on multiple reduplication (2016), “describ[ing] the functions and *typologically unusual forms* of reduplication in Papapana” (ibid., p. 523 – italics A.F.M.).

“There are only three published reference grammars of Northwest Solomonic languages, all spoken in the Solomon Islands: Kokota [...], Hoava [...] and Ughele” (SDE, 3).

S-D points also to “five of the grammar sketches [... of] Northwest Solomonic languages” introducing Taiof, Banoni, Sisiqa, Kokota, and Roviana published in Lynch et al. (2002) (respectively: 426-39, 440-55, 456-66, 498-524, and 467-97). Thus, one cannot disagree with S-D’s own opinion that her “grammar therefore fills an important gap in terms of specific grammatical descriptions of North Bougainville languages, makes a significant contribution to the field of Oceanic linguistics and [...] comparative [...] *typological* research (SDE, 4, *italics* afm.). S-D refers (p. 2) to the opinion in Lynch et al. (2002: 21) that in the case of “the Oceanic languages in Melanesia, “less than 10% of them can be called well described. This area must obviously be the focus for research over the coming decades”. SDE is actually the first long step forward here, the cornerstone, and simultaneously perhaps the first milestone.

As SDE as well as numerous other studies confirm and warn, however, the existence of more than half of the world’s languages and their subclassifications is endangered to a varying degree, many face inevitable extinction in the near and very near future, communities of linguists have to mobilize and speed up research aiming at results similar to these obtained and offered by Ellen Smith-Dennis and mentioned here Dineke Schokkin. The “less than 10%” estimation is valid globally, too.

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[19] It was published with neither the year nor the place of publication indicated and the dates quoted in the third paragraph of this review appear to be the only ones in the publication (at least such is the case of the original copy in the hands of this author); therefore, 1963 is probably frequently provided as the publication year; some users, however, referring to evidently the same material, date it <1965>. In varying texts listing the report in their bibliographical or reference lists, Port Moresby or Ukarumpa are indicated as place of publication and <Department of Information and Extension Services> is in some cases provided as publisher. At times, <January 1, 1963> (i.e, a date *preceding* the very survey) is provided in bibliographical descriptions as the date of publication, and <Jerry Allen> as the only report compiler (cf. e.g. Voegelin & Voegelin 1977: 359; SDE, 509; various e-resources incidentally spotted).

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