SOUTHEAST ASIAN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE STUDIES (SALLS)

COMPARATIVE HISTORICAL ANALYSIS OF ALOR LANGUAGES: TOWARD PROTO-ALOR-PANTAR RECONSTRUCTION

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ABSTRACT
This study aims to examine the degree of kinship among the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages spoken in Alor Regency, East Nusa Tenggara Province. The investigation employs a comparative historical linguistic approach and the lexicostatistical method using 200 Swadesh basic vocabulary items. Data were collected through interviews with native speakers and subsequently analyzed to identify cognate vocabulary, calculate the percentage of cognacy, and construct a kinship tree diagram. The findings reveal that the degree of kinship between the Kui and Hamap languages is 18.5%, between Kui and Kamang is 14%, and between Hamap and Kamang is 12%. Based on the lexicostatistical categories, these three languages belong to the same stock, yet exhibit a low degree of kinship. This finding indicates that although the three languages are geographically spoken in neighboring areas, their kinship relations are relatively distant. This study constitutes an initial step toward the reconstruction of a proto-language in Alor Regency and contributes to the classification of the languages in East Nusa Tenggara.

Keywords: Kui Language, Hamap Language, Kamang Language, lexicostatistics, comparative historical linguistics, language kinship, Alor Regency

Introduction

Alor Regency consists of two main islands, namely Alor Island and Pantar Island. These two islands are located in the northern part of Timor Island and constitute one of the regions in East Nusa Tenggara Province with the largest number of languages. According to data from the Summer Institute of Linguistics (SIL) (www.ethnologue.org), there are 19 languages spread across Alor Regency, while the Language Development and Fostering Agency (2013), which conducted a mapping of Indonesian languages, identified 23 languages in this regency.

In recent years, Alor Regency has become a prominent focus of linguistic research (Schapper et al., 2020; Persohn, 2025). This is due to several factors. First, the heterogeneity of languages in Alor Regency, where speakers of highly diverse languages live side by side, separated only by administrative village boundaries. In other words, one village and another adjacent village may speak different languages (not merely dialects), and in some cases, a single village may have speakers of three different local languages. Second, there has been no consensus among linguists, both Indonesian and foreign, regarding the classification of the proto-languages in Alor (Djobo, 2021; de Rozari et al., 2024). Some linguists argue that the languages of Alor belong to the Melanesian family, others claim they belong to the Papuan family, and still others suggest that these languages form a distinct family of their own (Bawa, 2002:48). Recent studies even highlight traces of contact between Alor-Pantar and Austronesian languages, further complicating the

classification (Klamer, 2023; Kaibana et al., 2024). Third, there remains a significant possibility for new discoveries concerning the languages of Alor Regency, as can be inferred from the two preceding factors.

The richness and diversity of languages in Alor still provide a vast "field" for research, particularly in the domain of comparative historical linguistics. In the conclusion of her book, Marian Klamer also stated that the languages of Alor and Pantar overlap slightly with Proto-Austronesian, Proto-Papuan, and Proto-Lamaholot. It is not impossible that these languages originated from Proto-Alor-Pantar, which has not yet been identified (Klamer, 2011:109). This view is reinforced by more recent ethnolinguistic and ethnobotanical studies, which show that Alor languages remain deeply tied to local cultural knowledge systems (Blake, 2024; Moro et al., 2023).

Nevertheless, the languages in Alor Regency must be urgently identified, documented, and studied in greater depth because their speaker populations typically number no more than a few tens of thousands. Among these languages, some are still actively used, while most are categorized as nearly extinct due to the small number of speakers. The Kui and Hamap languages are among those considered vulnerable or endangered according to www.endangeredlanguages.com.

Kui and Hamap are languages widely spoken on mainland Alor (Katubi, 2011). These two languages can be classified as endangered because, although the number of speakers is still relatively large, younger speakers are rarely found. The locations of Kui and Hamap are adjacent to the Klon, Abui, and Kamang languages (Iswanto and Kawanggung, 2021; Zabadi, 2021). Uniquely, speakers of these five languages maintain their linguistic identities independently, so even though they live in close proximity, their languages do not intermingle.

This study focuses on the correspondences found in the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages. These three languages were selected because they represent the major linguistic varieties spoken on mainland Alor and are geographically adjacent, yet their kinship relations have not been systematically examined. In addition, all three languages are considered endangered and play a central role in understanding the internal classification of non-Austronesian languages in Alor. Their inclusion is therefore crucial as a preliminary step toward reconstructing the proto-language of the Alor-Pantar family. This study is a continuation of previous research aimed at determining the kinship among the languages in Alor Regency. In the previous year, research was conducted on Pantar Island using lexical data from the Retta, Kaera, Blagar, and Teiwa languages. The present study is directed at the mainland Alor languages, namely Kui, Hamap, and Kamang, and will later be expanded to include data from the Abui and Klon languages. These studies ultimately converge on a single objective, namely the determination of the proto-language in Alor Regency. Based on this background, the research questions are as follows:

1. To inventory the vocabulary of the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages;
2. To calculate the degree of kinship among the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages;
3. To construct a kinship tree diagram of the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages.

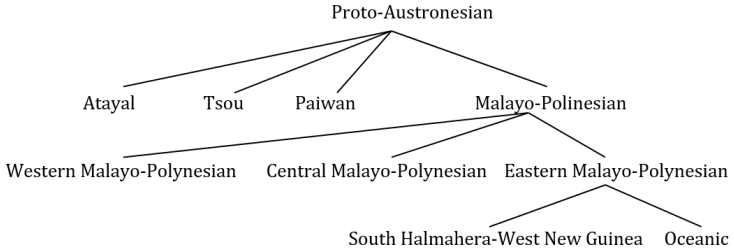
In accordance with these research questions, the objectives of this study are to inventory the vocabulary of the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages, to describe the degree of kinship among them, and to construct a kinship tree diagram of the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages. This study is beneficial in providing a description of the kinship relations of the languages in Alor Regency in particular and of the languages in East Nusa Tenggara more generally. Such kinship relations will later be useful for classifying the language families in East Nusa Tenggara.

Comparative Historical Linguistic Approach

The comparative historical linguistic approach is specifically employed for the analysis of kinship or the classification of languages (Blake, 2024; Usher and Schapper, 2022). According to this theory, related languages that exhibit a higher degree of kinship (a high percentage of cognacy) can be traced back to a common origin as a group of languages that, at a certain historical stage, shared the same ancestral language. Thus, these languages can be placed within the same node in a language family tree. In contrast, their relationship with other languages that show a lower degree of kinship, but still belong to the same stock, allows these groups of languages to be placed in different branches of the same language family.

The following is an example of the classification of languages within the Proto-Austronesian family as proposed by Blust (1981:21 in Ardana, 2011:2).

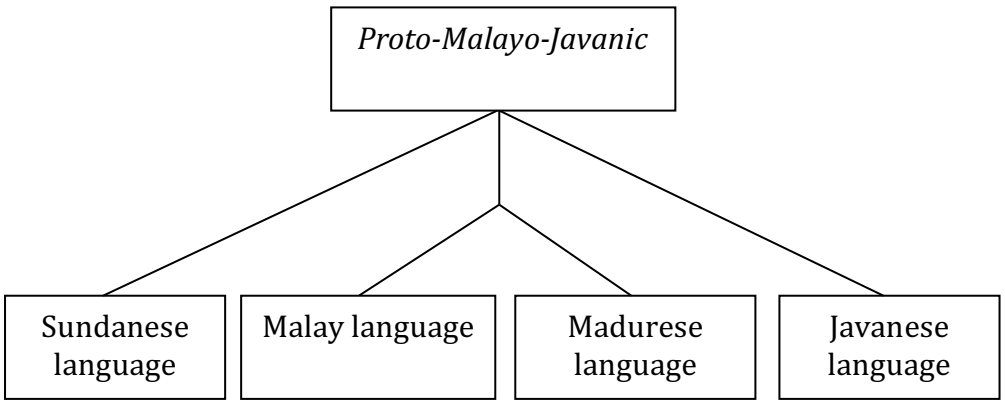
Figure 1. Languages within the Proto-Austronesian Family



Blust divided the Austronesian languages into four major groups, namely Atayal, Tsou, Paiwan, and Malayo-Polynesian. Three of the main groups—Atayal, Tsou, and Paiwan—are found in Formosa. The Western Malayo-Polynesian group consists of all the languages in Western Indonesia (Sulawesi and Sundic languages), the Philippines, Chamorro, Palau, Chami, and Malagasy; the Central Malayo-Polynesian group consists of all the languages of Flores, Timor, Sumba, Eastern Sumbawa (Bima language), Central and Southern Maluku; while the Eastern Malayo-Polynesian group encompasses the languages of the Southern Halmahera and Irian Jaya. The Melanesian, Micronesian, and Polynesian languages are placed into the Oceanic subgroup (Blust, 1981:21 in Ardana, 2011:2).

Wahya (2015:102), referring to the study by Nothofer (1975), stated that Sundanese (BS) is historically one of the Austronesian languages. This language, spoken by the majority of the Sundanese ethnic group in West Java, based on lexicostatistical calculations, is related to Malay (BM), Javanese (BJ), and Madurese (BMd) (Nothofer, 1975:4). The kinship tree below illustrates this view. The proposed proto-language etyma of these four languages have even been reconstructed through Nothofer's study.

Figure 2: *Proto-Malayo-Javanic* Language Family Tree



The kinship tree constructed in this study (see Figure 3) reflects the internal relationships among Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages within Alor Regency. Compared with the previous studies by Weking and Sanubarianto (2015) and Nothofer (1975), which focused on the Retta, Kaera, and Blagar languages in Pantar Island, the present study provides new evidence of linguistic differentiation among mainland Alor languages. While earlier research concentrated on Pantar Island, this study extends the investigation to Alor Island, revealing a distinct pattern of divergence and a lower degree of cognacy among its languages. This finding constitutes a novelty of the present research, as it offers the first lexicostatistical depiction of language kinship specific to Kui, Hamap, and Kamang, thereby complementing previous classifications of the Alor-Pantar family.

Sound Correspondence

Comparative historical linguistic research is closely related to sound laws, which Keraf (1984:49) rephrased as phonemic correspondence or sound equivalence. Segments that correspond to the same gloss, both in form and meaning, across different languages are compared with one another. Furthermore, Keraf stated that once indicators of phonemic correspondence are identified, these indicators must be tested through phonemic recurrence to establish the existing correspondences.

In relation to correspondence, Mahsun (2014:57) explained that correspondence and variation of a rule are associated with linguistic and geographical aspects. It is referred to as correspondence if the change occurs due to specific linguistic environmental conditions.
The correspondence of a rule can be classified into the following four levels:

a. Very perfect correspondence, if the change occurs in all examples linguistically conditioned and with the same geographical distribution.
b. Perfect correspondence, if the change occurs in all linguistically conditioned examples, but with different geographical distributions.
c. Fairly perfect correspondence, if the change occurs in 3–5 examples with the same geographical distribution.
d. Imperfect correspondence, if the change occurs in 3–5 examples with different geographical distributions, or if the change occurs in two examples that share the same geographical distribution.

The regular sound changes (in the form of variations) include: (1) lenition (weakening), (2) epenthesis, (3) apocope, (4) syncope, (5) apheresis, (6) compression (shortening), (7) assimilation, (8) dissimilation, (9) metathesis, and (10) contraction (Mahsun, 2014:58–59).

Lexicostatistics

Lexicostatistics is a technique in language classification that tends to emphasize the statistical examination of words (lexicon), and then seeks to establish groupings based on the percentage of similarities and differences between one language and another (Keraf, 1984:121).

Thus far, the lexicostatistical technique has been regarded as a highly reliable method for identifying sound correspondences across languages. This technique employs a quantitative calculation approach. The degree of similarity between two isolects/languages being compared will determine whether these isolects/languages are closely or distantly related. According to Nothofer (1990), the lexicostatistical technique has several advantages, including: (1) it can quickly determine kinship relations among languages (languages or dialects), (2) it serves as a tool for grouping related languages/dialects whose proto-languages are not too ancient, and (3) it functions as a tool/method of classification that can be applied at the initial stage to establish language classification.

As an example, the degree of linguistic kinship is determined within the following percentage ranges: a degree of kinship of 100–81% indicates dialect relations, 80–36% indicates language relations, 35–12% indicates family relations, 12–4% indicates stock relations, 3–2% indicates microphylum, and 2–0% indicates mesophylum (Crowley, 1987).

In the lexicostatistical method, the linguistic data to be calculated for similarity are vocabulary lists. The number of vocabulary items targeted depends on the research objectives. However, in more general correspondence studies, scholars typically use the Swadesh list. This list contains 200 basic universal vocabulary items encompassing pronouns, numerals, lexical items for body parts (and their properties and activities), nature and the surrounding environment, as well as everyday cultural tools.

In applying the lexicostatistical technique, researchers adhere to several assumptions proposed by Keraf (1984:123). He explained that part of a language's vocabulary changes slowly over a long period, while another part changes more rapidly. The vocabulary that tends to be more stable over time includes pronouns, numerals, body-part lexicon and their properties or activities, terms related to nature and the environment, and common everyday tools. Moreover, the rate of change in basic vocabulary is assumed to be constant over time, with an estimated 80.5% of basic words retained every 1,000 years across languages. Based on this principle, the divergence time between two languages can be estimated from their cognate percentage: a high percentage (81–100%) indicates a recent split within 500 years, whereas a low percentage (12–15%) reflects a separation of around 4,500–5,000 years. These assumptions serve as the theoretical foundation for classifying the relationship among the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages in the present study, ensuring that their degrees of kinship are determined through a consistent comparative framework.

Kui Language

The Kui language is spoken by the community residing in Prai Bakul Village, Walakaka District, Alor Regency, East Nusa Tenggara Province (Anggayana et al., 2020). Based on the results of dialectometric calculations, the Kui isolect is considered a language with a percentage difference ranging from 81–100% when compared with surrounding languages, such as Alor and Dulolong. SIL (2006) identifies the Kui language in East Nusa Tenggara under the name Kui language (Lerabaing, Masin-Lak). It is also stated by SIL that this language consists of three dialects, namely the Kui dialect (Lerabaing, Buruga), Kiramang (Kramang), and Batulolong.

Hamap Language

The Hamap language is spoken by the community residing in Moru Village, Alor Barat Daya District, Alor Regency, East Nusa Tenggara Province (Budiono et al., 2022; Ong and Perono, 2024). The speakers of this language live in a coastal area, approximately one kilometer from the beach, with a geographical condition in the form of land. The Hamap-speaking area borders the Abui-speaking area spoken by the community living in the eastern and southern parts of Moru Village, namely Fonatai Village and Morba, Failelang. To the west lies the Jafoo (Kafoa) language-speaking area spoken by the community of Wolwal Barat Village. In the north lies Teluk Mutiara Village, whose community are Abui speakers. The majority of the ethnic group speaking the Hamap language is the Hamap ethnic group. In addition to Hamap speakers living in this village, there are also communities who are speakers of Abui, Kui, and Klon. Based on dialectometric calculations, the Hamap isolect is considered a language with a percentage difference ranging from 81–100% when compared with surrounding languages, such as Kbola and Kamang. SIL (2006) identifies the Hamap language under the same name (Banamtuan, 2021).

Kamang Language

The Kamang language is spoken by the community residing in Waisika Village, Alor Timur District, Alor Regency, East Nusa Tenggara Province (Klamer, 2023). According to the inhabitants, the language is adjacent to the Kula language (Kulatera language) and the Kolana language in the east, the Abui language (Aboa language) in the west, and the Abui and Kiraman languages in the south. Based on dialectometric calculations, the Kamang isolect is considered a language with a percentage difference of 81–100% when compared with the surrounding languages, such as Alor and Deing. SIL (2006) identifies the Kamang language in East Nusa Tenggara under the name Kamang (Woisika, Waisika). It is also stated that this language consists of six dialects, namely Lembur (Limbur, Kawel), Sibo, Kamang, Tiyai, Watang, and Kamang-kamang (Kaiping and Klamer (2022).

Methods

Preliminary research prior to this study had already been conducted by the East Nusa Tenggara Language Office Team. Previously, Weking, Christina T., and Sanubarianto (2015) carried out research on language kinship in Pantar Island. The present study is a continuation of that earlier research. In addition, to deepen the study on language correspondence in Alor Regency, Sanubarianto (2015) also wrote about several correspondence rules of the Retta and Kaera languages. This was further continued by Weking (2016) with research focusing on geological vocabulary in the languages of Pantar Island.

Data Collection Stage

The data collection stage in this study can be divided into several parts, namely:

a. Data Elicitation

Data elicitation employed a questionnaire list to collect data in the form of glosses. The questionnaire used was the Swadesh List revised by Blust, which consists of 200 standard basic words (Mbete, 2002:20). Following the elicitation stage, native speakers of Kui, Hamap, and Kamang were asked to provide lexical equivalents for each gloss on the list, which included items such as *water*, *fire*, *stone*, *eye*, and *hand*. These examples represent the type of basic vocabulary commonly used in comparative linguistic research. The collected data were transcribed phonetically and later used to calculate cognate percentages and degrees of kinship among the three languages.

To ensure accuracy, data were obtained orally through selected informants and recorded for documentation. To obtain reliable linguistic data, it was necessary to consider the requirements for determining informants. According to Mahsun (2005:134–135):

1. Native speakers of the languages under study
2. Male or female
3. Aged between 25–65 years
4. Parents, spouse, or informant themselves must have been born and raised in the research area
5. Rarely or never left the village so that their language remains pure
6. Maximum educational background is basic education
7. Middle social status, not too low and not too high
8. Mastery of their language and a sense of pride toward it
9. Complete speech organs, not missing teeth, and preferably without a mustache
10. Able to speak Indonesian
11. Physically and mentally healthy, with good hearing, and not insane

b. Data Classification

At this stage, the data in the form of glosses that had been collected were recorded and transcribed phonetically on special sheets or data cards, which were very useful for the coding or classification of data in the subsequent stage. An example of such coding is as follows.

Table 1. Example of Gloss Classification Tabulation (Mbete, 2002:24)

No	Bali	Sasak	Sumbawa	Example Word
1	/batu/ (A)	/batu/ (A)	/batu/ (A)	'batu'
2	/don/ (A)	/daun/ (A)	/din/ (A)	'daun'
3	/ikuh/ (A)	/elon/ (B)	/elon/ (B)	'ekor'
4	/pasih/ (A)	/sagara/ (B)	/lit/ (C)	'laut'

As illustrated, for the word *batu* (stone) (1), the three languages exhibit similarity in form, thus marked with (A). The symbol (A) is applied to all data that demonstrate similarity and resemblance, taking into account the regularity of sound correspondences. Such sound regularity is evident in /don/ in Balinese, which corresponds to /daun/ and /din/. This systematic correspondence is also coded as (A). Furthermore, as in example number 3, when there are two or more glosses that correspond while others differ, those that correspond are coded as (B), whereas those that do not are coded as (A). For glosses that have been aligned but show no correspondence at all, code (C) is used (Mbete, 2002:26).

After following the coding system illustrated above, the same procedure was applied to the lexical data from the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages. Each gloss was compared across the three languages to identify similarities and differences in sound and meaning. Items showing regular sound correspondences—such as *batu* (stone), *mata* (eye), and *api* (fire)—were classified under the same code (A), indicating a shared cognate set. Glosses showing partial similarity were coded as (B), while those without correspondence were labeled (C). This classification made it possible to organize the data systematically before computing cognate percentages and establishing kinship degrees among the three languages.

Data Analysis Stage

The cognate words collected through the 200 or 100 Swadesh wordlist are calculated for their percentage of similarity using the following formula:

$$\frac{\text{Number of corresponding vocabularies}}{\text{Number of vocabularies in the questionnaire list}} \times 100\%$$

To calculate the percentage of cognacy between languages, at least 174 words must be obtained from the 200-item Swadesh wordlist. After the percentage of similarity is obtained, it is further examined through lexicostatistics. The theoretical basis of lexicostatistical study is that (1) a portion of core basic vocabulary is resistant to change when compared to other sets of basic vocabulary, and (2) the rate of retention (stability) as well as the erosion of core basic vocabulary every one thousand years remains constant across all languages. The percentage of cognacy between languages is then tabulated using the tabulation model proposed by Crowley (1983:153–156).

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A
X       B
X       X       C
X       X       X       D
X       X       X       X       E

Description A—E   : languages under study
                  X    : percentage of cognacy
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Through this tabulation process, the languages will be grouped into smaller subgroups by examining the percentage of cognacy.

Degree of Language Relatedness

The classification of kinship degrees in this study follows Keraf's (1984:125) criteria for determining levels of language relationship, as presented in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Levels of Language Relationship

Language Level	**Percentage of Kinship Words**
Language	81 and above
Family	37-80
Stock	12-36
Mikrofilum	4-11
Mesofilum	1-3
Makrofilum	1 and below

These categories serve as the reference for interpreting the percentage of cognate similarities obtained from the lexicostatistical computation. After determining the percentage of lexical correspondences among Kui, Hamap, and Kamang, the results are matched with the classification levels shown in Table 6 to identify their degree of relatedness.

Stage of Data Presentation

The data that have undergone the analytical process will be selected for presentation in the discussion chapter. Not all data will be presented in that chapter, but only those that truly support and represent language relatedness in terms of primary–secondary correspondences, cognate data, and phrase-level relationships. The presentation of data takes the form of Crowley's tabulation, as exemplified above, extending to the level of language subgroups. Subsequently, based on this tabulation, a diagram will be constructed to illustrate the relationships among the languages under investigation.

Result

In this discussion, a conceptual explanation will be provided regarding the lexicostatistical method, with an emphasis on clarifying the procedures (techniques) employed in its application. These include collecting basic vocabulary of related languages; identifying and calculating which pairs constitute cognates; and linking the calculation results, expressed as percentages of relatedness, with the categories of genetic relationship. Subsequently, a tabulation is constructed for the classification of glosses in the Retta, Kaera, and Blagar languages. The coding and classification of the data can be observed in the following table.

Table 3. Tabulation of Gloss Classification Using Swadesh Vocabulary

No	**Gloss**	**Kui**	**Hamap**	**Kamang**
1	Ash	/aruy/ (C)	/demaŋ/ (C)	/kini:/ (C)
2	Water	/er/ (C)	/se/ (C)	/ila/ (C)
3	Root	/ir/ (C)	/aliaŋ/ (C)	/ili:/ (C)
4	Flow (to)	/taweil/ (C)	/hauid/ (C)	_ (C)
5	Child	/ol/ (C)	/ai/ (C)	/dum/ (C)
6	Wind	/segəl/ (C)	/hamoy/ (C)	/sumui/ (C)
7	Dog	/ku:r/ (B)	/beyl/ (C)	/kui/ (B)
8	What	/naŋal le/ (C)	/nab/ (C)	/mina:u/ (C)

9	Fire	/ar/ (C)	/avail/ (C)	/ati/ (C)
10	Float (to)	/təbel/ (C)	/ted/ (C)	_ (C)
11	Smoke	/bonok/ (B)	/bano/ (B)	/puna/ (C)
12	Cloud	/tabes/ (C)	/taveiŋ/ (C)	/wale/ (C)
13	Father	/nama/ (B)	/nimay/ (B)	/nepa/ (C)
14	How	/tawan gamani/	/maŋ tatain/	/to:n/
15	Good	/noka/ (B)	/no/ (B)	/kaŋ/ (B)
16	Burn (to)	/gey/ (C)	/daŋ/ (C)	/ati pil/ (C)
17	Return (to)	/gwari/ (C)	/adine/ (C)	/miaki:/ (C)
18	Many	/abaya/ (C)	/tovaŋ/ (C)	/adu/ (C)
19	Lie down	/ta/ (B)	/tar/ (B)	/di:/ (C)
20	New	/saba?/ (C)	/habar/ (C)	/bu:ka/ (C)
21	Wet	/rik/ (C)	/mari/ (C)	/paraŋ/ (C)
22	Stone	/wor/ (B)	/voy/ (B)	/woy/ (B)
23	Several	/renren/ (C)	/dedeyn/ (C)	_ (C)
24	Split (to)	/keiŋ/ (C)	/adil/ (C)	/karey/ (C)
25	True / Correct	/dup/ (C)	/abur/ (C)	/kaŋ/ (C)
26	Swollen	/bati/ (C)	/hobe?/ (C)	/fasi/ (C)
27	Seed	/ani/ (C)	/vin/ (C)	_ (C)
28	Heavy	/sawora/ (C)	/tarove/ (C)	/su:/ (C)
29	Swim (to)	/tai/ (C)	/aroŋ/ (C)	/say/(C)
30	Give (to)	/gei/ (C)	/en/ (B)	/n/ (B)
31	Walk (to)	/lala ki/ (C)	/lamə/ (C)	/ge:i/ (C)
32	Big	/bata/ (B)	/matə/ (C)	/ba:i/ (B)
33	When	/yan te/ (C)	/denve/ (C)	_ (C)
34	Animal	/magil/ (C)	/binaŋta/ (C)	/isey/ (C)
35	Star	/ibra/ (B)	/ibiŋ/ (B)	/atoiba:y/ (C)
36	Fruit	/up/ (B)	/pir/ (C)	/uh/ (B)
37	Moon	/ur/ (B)	/u:l/ (B)	/wuy/ (C)
38	Feather	/nabota/ (C)	/beiŋ/ (C)	/labuta/ (C)
39	Flower	/buŋan/ (B)	/buŋ/ (B)	/kik/ (C)
40	Kill (to)	/gabarain/ (C)	/amine/ (C)	/pa:n/ (C)

41	Hunt (to)	/gapater/ (C)	/oyr/ (B)	/o/ (B)
42	Bad	/nokona/ (C)	/sah/ (C)	/boko/ (C)
43	Bird	/adol/ (C)	/hyf/ (C)	/atoy/ (C)
44	Rotten	/gamuni/ (C)	/bonek/ (C)	/tama?si/ (C)
45	Worm	/ipela/ (B)	/ip/ (B)	/asiŋkuay/ (C)
46	Kiss (to)	/gemuni/ (C)	/amuniŋ/ (C)	/masela/ (C)
47	Wash (to)	/utoli/ (C)	/nalam/ (C)	/sire/ (C)
48	Meat	/pusiŋ/ (C)	/mahil/ (C)	/isey ma:/ (C)
49	And	_ (C)	/meid/ (C)	/ahaku:l/ (C)
50	Lake	_ (C)	/par bolaŋ/ (C)	_ (C)
51	Blood	/wə/ (B)	/vi?/ (C)	/we:/ (B)
52	Come (to)	/namarani/ (C)	/ma/ (B)	/me/ (B)
53	Leaf	/dat/ (C)	/beih/ (C)	/arita/ (C)
54	Dust	/tabon/ (C)	/maru/ (C)	/kini:/ (C)
55	Near	tapata/ (C)	/navaŋ/ (C)	/gel/ (C)
56	With	/ŋeli/ (C)	_ (C)	/neŋ/ (C)
57	Hear (to)	/magi/ (B)	/lepaŋ/ (C)	/may/ (B)
58	Inside	/umre/ (C)	/omi/ (B)	/mi/ (B)
59	Where	/te goma lela/ (C)	/taromi/ (C)	_ (C)
60	Here	/wa lel/ (C)	/ho omi/ (C)	/ak mi/ (C)
61	There	/oma lel/ (C)	/ho pomi/ (C)	/aŋ mi/ (C)
62	At / On	_(C)	_ (C)	_ (C)
63	Cold	/palata/ (C)	/maab/ (C)	/fa:tey/ (C)
64	Self (reflexive)	/nasan/ (C)	/tuh/ (C)	/latsi/ (C)
65	Push (to)	/gadom/ (C)	/adudu/ (C)	/so:ran/ (C)
66	Two	/aruku/(C)	/alo/ (C)	/ok/ (C)
67	Sit (to)	/misa/ (B)	/mi/ (B)	/nih/ (C)
68	Tail	/gor/ (C)	/olpay/ (C)	/wuy/ (C)
69	Four	/usa/ (B)	/ut/ (B)	/biat/ (C)
70	You (singular)	/ai/ (B)	/er/ (C)	/a/ (B)
71	Dig (to)	/teri/ (B)	/aruŋ/ (C)	/te:/ (B)
72	Salt	/ser/ (C)	/ahi/ (B)	/asi:/ (B)

73	Scratch (to)	/kabir/ (C)	/tu/ (C)	/faki:/ (C)
74	Fat	/tama/ (C)	/ma un/ (C)	/bulaka/ (C)
75	Tooth	/tewəs/ (C)	/aveiŋ/ (C)	/weh/ (C)
76	Bite (to)	/gis/ (C)	/eh/ (A)	/eh/ (A)
77	Rub (to)	/lusi/ (C)	/havo/ (C)	_ (C)
78	Mountain	/dol/ (B)	/doy/ (B)	/buk/ (C)
79	Hit (to)	/to ay/ (C)	/etan/ (C)	_ (C)
80	Erase (to)	/ulus/ (C)	/luh/ (C)	_ (C)
81	Heart	/demur/ (C)	/alol/ (C)	/kiŋ/ (C)
82	Nose	/gemin/ (C)	/amiŋ/ (C)	/lpaŋ/ (C)
83	Live (to)	/ona noka/ (C)	/biraŋ/ (C)	/ŋ kaŋ/ (C)
84	Green	/blag/ (C)	/lif/ (C)	_ (C)
85	Suck (to)	/dup/ (B)	/dum/ (B)	_ (C)
86	Black	/anoka/ (C)	/la an/ (C)	/da?kata/ (C)
87	Count (to)	/galik/ (C)	/ta an/ (C)	_ (C)
88	Rain	/anor/ (C)	/noy/ (C)	/ai:/ (C)
89	Forest	/kup/ (C)	/ahiŋ/ (C)	/atakay/ (C)
90	He / She / It	/gai/ (B)	/ser/ (C)	/gal/ (B)
91	Mother	/na/ (C)	/nivay/ (C)	/nou/ (C)
92	Fish	/eb/ (B)	/ab/ (B)	/api/ (C)
93	Tie (to)	/payt/ (B)	/pet/ (B)	/apuy/ (C)
94	This	/ogo/ (C)	/ho?o/ (C)	/apa/ (C)
95	Wife	/ na mey/ (C)	/no ob/ (C)	/male/ (C)
96	That	/omo/ (C)	/hepo/ (C)	/aŋ/ (C)
97	Sew (to)	/serot/ (B)	/harot/ (B)	/kafuh/ (C)
98	Walk (to)	/lalaky/ (C)	/lame/ (C)	/ge:y/ (C)
99	Heart (organ)	/gabalkubalay/ (C)	/damur/ (C)	/bukamaŋ/ (C)
100	Fall (to)	/muksey/ (C)	_ (C)	/kawaila/ (C)
101	Far	/daŋan/ (C)	/lɜt/ (C)	/letey/ (C)
102	Fog	/təbu/ (C)	/upap/ (C)	/safu:/ (C)
103	Foot	/tuk/ (C)	/ne?va/ (C)	/wa/ (C)
104	If	_ (C)	_ (C)	/daŋ/ (C)

105	We (inclusive)	/nay/ /pay/ (C)	/ni/ (A)	/ni/ (A)
106	You (plural)	/ay/ (C)	/li/ (C)	/al/ (C)
107	Right (side)	/nukal/ (C)	/tane/ (C)	_ (C)
108	Because	_ (C)	_ (C)	_ (C)
109	Say (to)	/lakari/ /busari/ (C)	/teyn/ (C)	_ (C)
110	Small	/kədin/ (B)	/ka?i/ (C)	/kidiŋ/ (B)
111	Fight (to)	/təburin/ (B)	/taburaŋ/ (B)	/ta:ka/ (C)
112	Head	/potur/ (C)	/vutu/ (C)	/filiŋ/ (C)
113	Dry	/takati/ (B)	/ta?at/ (B)	/auka/ (C)
114	Left (side)	/ikil/ (C)	/veiŋ/ (C)	/ela/ (C)
115	Dirty	/makan/ (C)	/kanu?/ (C)	/tini/ (C)
116	Nail	/kusin/(B)	/ohiŋ/(C)	/kuisiŋ/ (B)
117	Skin	/gakul/ (C)	/u^{w}il/ (C)	/bak/ (C)
118	Yellow	/bagura/ (C)	/ba?oil/ (C)	/lua:/ (C)
119	Louse	/kun/ (C)	/o^{w}in/ (C)	/bini/ (C)
120	Other	/abaŋan/ (C)	_ (C)	/pia:/ (C)
121	Sky	/laŋit/ (C)	/buraŋ/ (C)	/deliŋ/ (C)
122	Sea	/tan/ (A)	/tan/ (A)	/tama/ (B)
123	Wide	/aka/ (C)	/beraŋ/ (C)	/sileisiŋ/ (C)
124	Neck	/wot/ (C)	/va paro/ (C)	/mang/ (C)
125	Man (male)	/nen/ (C)	/lote/ (C)	/lami/ (C)
126	Throw (to)	/gori/ (C)	/ot/ (C)	/mota/ (C)
127	Slippery	/dula/ (B)	/dul/ (B)	/tulaka/ (C)
128	Tongue	/liber/ (C)	/rebuŋ/ (C)	/ke:y/ (C)
129	See (to)	/gau^{w}i/ (C)	/edun/ (C)	/ilay/ (C)
130	Five	/yesan/ (C)	/ivehiŋ/ (C)	/iwesiŋ/ (C)
131	Spit	/poran/ (C)	/mari?/ (C)	_ (C)
132	Straight	/dub/ (C)	/abu/ (C)	/sol/ (C)
133	Knee	/luktu/ (C)	/vaur/ (C)	/subu/ (C)
134	Play (to)	/mamoli/ (C)	/haur/ (C)	/kolkolda/ (C)
135	Eat (to)	/mənam/ (C)	/ade/ (C)	/ah/ (C)
136	Night	/pənen/ (C)	/dil u/ (C)	/finiŋ wa:y/ (C)

137	Eye	/en/ (C)	/vair/ (C)	/ŋ/ (C)
138	Sun	/ber/ (C)	/vet/ (C)	/wati/ (C)
139	Die (to)	/mini/ (B)	/min/ (B)	/akiŋ met/ (C)
140	Red	/abaŋ/ (C)	/viv/ (C)	/bika/ (C)
141	They	/jay/ (C)	_ (C)	/ga/ (C)
142	Drink (to)	/nay/ (B)	/na/ (B)	/ne/ (B)
143	Mouth	/gowa/ (B)	/nat/ (C)	/wa:/ (B)
144	Vomit (to)	/kari/ (C)	/u^{w}it/ (C)	/iwey/ (C)
145	Name	/naney/ (B)	/nane/ (B)	/ney/ (B)
146	Breath	/kinmas/ (C)	/?a?eŋ/ (C)	/akiŋ/ (C)
147	Sing (to)	/dar/ (B)	/dal/ (B)	_ (C)
148	Person	/anino?/ (C)	/name/ (C)	/alma/ (C)
149	Hot / Warm	/senama/ (C)	/bune/ (C)	/beba/ (C)
150	Long	/neban/ (C)	/lay/ (C)	/lapaŋ/ (C)
151	Sand	/alat/ (C)	/vet/ (C)	/sinay/ (C)
152	Hold (to)	/puna/ (C)	/opoin/ (C)	/atinta/ (C)
153	Short	/tuku/ (C)	/to?aŋ/ (C)	/maruk/ (C)
154	Squeeze (to)	/ares/ (C)	/diŋ/ (C)	/asuy/ (C)
155	Woman	/mey/ (C)	/op/ (C)	/male/ (C)
156	Belly / Stomach	/betər/ (C)	/tu?/ (C)	/pay/ (C)
157	Think (to)	_ (C)	/tanut/ (C)	/suk pak/ (C)
158	Tree	/atei/ (B)	/te?/ (B)	/boŋ/ (C)
159	Cut (to)	/ruti/ (C)	/tato?/ (C)	/batat/ (C)
160	Back	/tey mot/ (B)	/mot/ (B)	_ (C)
161	Navel	/buk/ (B)	/puhe?/ (C)	/bu/ (B)
162	White	/dela/ (C)	/avɜr/ (C)	/bila/ (C)
163	Hair	/tekal/ (C)	/lavu/ (C)	/kul/ (C)
164	Grass	/bloka/ (C)	/bana/ (C)	/sak/ (C)
165	One	/nuku/ (B)	/nu?/ (B)	/nok/ (B)
166	I / Me	/na/ (A)	/na/ (A)	/nal/ (B)
167	Wing	/bakar/ (C)	/vitaŋ/ (C)	/pa?ta/ (C)
168	Few / A little	/kabita/ (C)	/apit/ (C)	/kabe:y/ (C)

169	Narrow	/tadukan/ (C)	/kapuh/ (C)	/katina/ (C)
170	All / Every	/aganuku/ (C)	/barpi/ (C)	/kuma/ (C)
171	Daytime	/ri/ (C)	/lel/ (C)	/wati boko/ (C)
172	Who	/mune/ (C)	/ano/ (C)	/ma: ŋ/ (C)
173	Husband	/nen/ (C)	/no lote/ (C)	/lami/ (C)
174	River	/er mol/ (B)	/mol/ (B)	/ili ma?taŋ/ (C)
175	Know (to)	/gogotaka/ (C)	/ahul/ (C)	/kaŋ/ (C)
176	Year	/tun/ (A)	/tun/ (A)	/tuŋ/ (B)
177	Sharp	/magaŋ/ (C)	/bilaŋ/ (C)	/bisiŋ/ (C)
178	Afraid	/mena/ (C)	/baruit/ (C)	/bie:/ (C)
179	Rope	/sel/ (C)	/he?/ (C)	/kape/ (C)
180	Earth / Soil	/plak/ (C)	/va?ai/ (C)	/aruŋ/ (C)
181	Hand	/tan/ (C)	/taŋ/ (A)	/taŋ/ (A)
182	Pull (to)	/gebiki/ (C)	/bariŋ/ (C)	/ileh/ (C)
183	Thick	/təpas/ (B)	/tapan/ (B)	/kusa/ (C)
184	Ear	/wel/ (B)	/vel/ (B)	/wai/ (B)
185	Egg	/seru/ (C)	/do?/ (C)	/wa:/ (C)
186	Fly (to)	/liri/ (B)	/lil/ (B)	/lila/ (B)
187	Laugh (to)	/yeri/ (C)	/asar/ (C)	/maŋ wo/ (C)
188	Breast	/su/ (C)	/o?am/ (C)	/ami/ (C)
189	Not / No	/naŋa/ (B)	/eya?e/ (C)	/na:/ (B)
190	Sleep (to)	/mop/ (C)	/tar/ (B)	/ta:/ (B)
191	Three	/siwa/ (C)	/tov/ (C)	/su/ (C)
192	Stab (to)	/tapay/ (C)	/te?/ (C)	_(C)
193	Thin	/bol/ (C)	/te?iŋ/ (C)	/manih/ (C)
194	Blow (to)	/gemus/ (C)	/apu/ (C)	/subau/ (C)
195	Stick / Staff	/dukur/ (C)	/dop/ (C)	/te:kaŋ/ (C)
196	Old	/kakalet/ (C)	/tumo?/ (C)	/sa:k/ (C)
197	Bone	/tarupa/ (B)	/tarop/ (B)	/sel/ (C)
198	Blunt	/topi/ (C)	/pol/(C)	/bul/ (C)
199	Snake	/mon/ (A)	/mon/ (A)	/kume/ (C)
200	Intestine	/is/ (C)	_ (C)	/ka:puŋ/ (C)

Table 3 displays the Swadesh basic vocabulary data obtained from Kui, Hamap, and Kamang. The table shows systematic phonetic correspondences across the three languages. Words marked with code (A) indicate complete similarity in both form and meaning and thus belong to the same cognate set. Code (B) designates partial similarity or regular sound variation, while code (C) represents non-cognate items with no apparent correspondence. From the 200 lexical items compared, a limited number share identical forms (A), whereas most exhibit partial or complete divergence (B and C), reflecting the gradual sound shifts among the three languages. These tabulated data serve as the foundation for computing cognate percentages and determining the degrees of genetic relationship, which are analyzed quantitatively in the following section.

Cognate Vocabulary of Kui and Hamap Languages

After conducting the coding and classification as described above, the next step is to determine and calculate which pairs constitute cognate words between the Kui and Hamap languages, as follows.

Table 4. Cognate Vocabulary of Kui and Hamap Languages

No	Gloss	Kui	Hamap
1	Smoke	/bonok/	/bano/
2	Father	/nama/	/nimay/
3	Good	/noka/	/no/
4	Lie down	/ta/	/tar/
5	Stone	/wor/	/voy/
6	Big	/bata/	/matə/
7	Star	/ibra/	/ibiŋ/
8	Moon	/ur/	/u:l/
9	Flower	/buŋan/	/buŋ/
10	Worm	/ipela/	/ip/
11	Kiss (to)	/gemuni/	/amuniŋ/
12	Sit (to)	/misa/	/mi/
13	Four	/usa/	/ut/
14	Mountain	/dol/	/doy/
15	Erase (to)	/ulus/	/luh/
16	Suck (to)	/dup/	/dum/
17	Rain	/anor/	/noy/
18	Fish	/eb/	/ab/
19	Tie (to)	/payt/	/pet/
20	This	/ogo/	/ho?o/
21	Sew (to)	/serot/	/harot/
22	Fight (to)	/təburin/	/taburaŋ/

23	Sea	/tan/	/tan/
24	Slippery	/dula/	/dul/
25	Die (to)	/mini/	/min/
26	Drink (to)	/nay/	/na/
27	One	/nuku/	/nu?/
28	I / Me	/na/	/na/
29	Few / A little	/kabita/	/apit/
30	River	/er mol/	/mol/
31	Year	/tun/	/tun/
32	Hand	/tan/	/taŋ/
33	Thick	/təpas/	/tapan/
34	Ear	/wel/	/vel/
35	Fly (to)	/liri/	/lil/
36	Bone	/tarupa/	/tarop/
37	Snake	/mon/	/mon/

.
From the compilation of vocabularies between Kui and Hamap, 56 cognate glosses were identified, calculated as follows.

$$\frac{\text{Number of corresponding vocabularies}}{\text{Number of vocabularies in the questionnaire list}} \times 100\%$$

Alternatively, if expressed more concisely in a sentence:

$$\frac{37}{100} \times 100\% = 18{,}5\%$$

Thus, the degree of relatedness between the Kui and Hamap languages is 28%.

Vocabularies of the Kui and Kamang Languages that are Cognates

The next step is to identify and calculate the vocabulary pairs that are cognates between the Kui and Kamang languages.

Table 5. Vocabularies of the Kui and Kamang Languages that are Cognates

No	Gloss	Kui	Kamang
1	Dog	/ku:r/	/kui/
2	Father	/nama/	/nepa/

3	Stone	/wor/	/woy/
4	Big	/bata/	/ba:i/
5	Fruit	/up/	/uh/
6	Blood	/wə/	/we:/
7	Hear (to)	/magi/	/may/
8	You (singular)	/ai/	/a/
9	Dig (to)	/teri/	/te:/
10	He / She / It	/gai/	/gal/
11	Mother	/na/	/nou/
12	We (inclusive)	/nay/ /pay/	/ni/
13	You (plural)	/ay/	/al/
14	Small	/kədin/	/kidiŋ/
15	Nail	/kusin/	/kuisiŋ/
16	Sea	/tan/	/tama/
17	Slippery	/dula/	/tulaka/
18	Drink (to)	/nay/	/ne/
19	Mouth	/gowa/	/wa:/
20	Name	/naney/	/ney/
21	Navel	/buk/	/bu/
22	White	/dela/	/bila/
23	One	/nuku/	/nok/
24	I / Me	/na/	/nal/
25	Year	/tun/	/tuŋ/
26	Hand	/tan/	/taŋ/
27	Ear	/wel/	/wai/
28	Not / No	/naŋa/	/na:/

From the collection of vocabularies between the Kui and Kamang languages, 28 cognate glosses were identified, with the calculation as follows.

$$\frac{\text{Number of corresponding vocabularies}}{\text{Number of vocabularies in the questionnaire list}} \times 100\%$$

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$$\frac{28}{200} \times 100\% = 14\%$$

Thus, the degree of relatedness between the Kui and Kamang languages is 14%.

Vocabularies of the Hamap and Kamang Languages that are Cognates

The next step is to identify and calculate the vocabulary pairs that are cognates between the Hamap and Kamang languages.

Table 6. Vocabularies of the Hamap and Kamang Languages that are Cognates

No	Gloss	Hamap	Kamang
1	Stone	/voy/	/woy/
2	Give (to)	/en/	/n/
3	Hunt (to)	/oyr/	/o/
4	Come (to)	/ma/	/me/
5	Inside	/omi/	/mi/
6	Here	/ho omi/	/ak mi/
7	There	/ho pomi/	/aŋ mi/
8	Sit (to)	/mi/	/mih/
9	Salt	/ahi/	/asi/
10	Bite (to)	/eh/	/eh/
11	Rain	/noy/	/ay/
12	Fish	/ap/	/api/
13	We (inclusive)	/ni/	/ni/
14	Sea	/tan/	/tama/
15	Throw (to)	/ot/	/mota/
16	Five	/ivehiŋ/	/iwesiŋ/
17	Drink (to)	/na/	/ne/
18	Name	/nane/	/ney/
19	One	/nu?/	/no?/
20	I / Me	/na/	/nal/
21	Year	/tun/	/tuŋ/
22	Hand	/taŋ/	/taŋ/
23	Fly (to)	/lil/	/lila/

24	Sleep (to)	/tar/	/ta:/

From the collection of vocabularies between the Kui and Kamang languages, 28 cognate glosses were identified, with the calculation as follows.

$$\frac{\text{Number of corresponding vocabularies}}{\text{Number of vocabularies in the questionnaire list}} \times 100\%$$

$$\frac{24}{200} \times 100\% = 12\%$$

Thus, the degree of relatedness between the Kamang and Hamap languages is 12%.

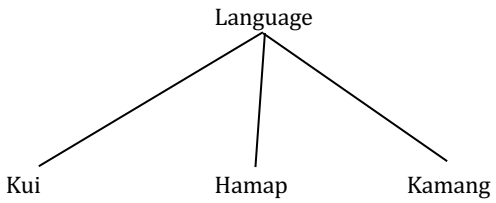
The Degree of Relatedness among Kui, Hamap, and Kamang Languages

Based on the results of the degree of language relatedness that has been identified, the relationship among the Kui language (KUL), the Hamap language (HL), and the Kamang language (KML), and on the basis of the lexicostatistical calculation of 200 basic Swadesh vocabulary items, the following results were obtained.

KUL
18,5 HL
14 12 KML

Note:
KUL = Kui language
HL = Hamap language
KML = Kamang language

From the lexicostatistical calculation above, it is evident that the degree of relatedness between the Kui language and the Hamap language is 18.5%, between Kui and Kamang is 14%, and between Hamap and Kamang is 12%. These results suggest that the three languages belong to the same stock and are independent languages, not dialects or creoles. Nevertheless, it can be further observed that the degree of relatedness among the three languages is very small. Further research is required to substantiate this finding. This situation is particularly unique given that the speakers of these three languages are geographically adjacent. When illustrated in the form of a tree diagram, the three languages are classified within the same language stock.
For greater clarity, the tree diagram is presented below.



Conclusion

The languages of Alor Regency constitute a highly intriguing object of study due to the numerous aspects that can be explored, one of which is their degree of relatedness. The linguistic heterogeneity in Alor is remarkably high, yet the degree of relatedness among these languages is notably low. Despite the geographical proximity of their speakers, such proximity does not necessarily imply linguistic relatedness. This fact is reaffirmed in the present study, *"The Degree of Relatedness among Kui, Hamap, and Kamang Languages in Alor Regency."* The findings indicate that these three languages demonstrate a low degree of relatedness, thereby classifying them within the same stock. The Kui language shares a degree of relatedness of 18.5% with Hamap, 14% with Kamang, and Hamap shares 12% with Kamang. These figures reveal that Kui is more closely related to Hamap than to Kamang. Among the three, the closest relatedness is between Kui and Hamap, whereas the most distant relatedness is between Hamap and Kamang.

In addition to confirming the low degree of kinship among the Kui, Hamap, and Kamang languages, this study presents new findings that refine the understanding of their cognate relationships. The comparative analysis identifies a limited set of shared cognate forms that are systematically distributed across the three languages, revealing consistent phonetic correspondences that suggest an ancient common source. These cognates, though few, provide valuable lexical evidence for the reconstruction of a proto-language within the Alor-Pantar family. Therefore, the findings of this study not only quantify the degree of linguistic divergence but also contribute new empirical data to the ongoing efforts in proto-Alor-Pantar reconstruction.

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