# Wug-testing bilabial palatalisation in isiXhosa passivized verbs

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SAMWOP-3 North-West University, Potchefstroom 26 November 2014

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#### Introduction

• The phenomenon: Xhosa bilabial palatalization • uku-fund-a 'to study, read' • i-ya-fund-a 'it is studying' • i-ya-fund-<u>w</u>-a 'it is being studied' (passive = /-w/) • uku-hlamb-a 'to wash' • i-ya-hlanj-<u>w</u>-a 'it is being washed' (mb  $\rightarrow$  nj)  $\rightarrow$  NOT \*iyahlambwa • /B/ + /-w/  $\rightarrow$  J -w Palatal, not labial + labial  $\rightarrow$  palatal + labial  $\downarrow$  2

#### As palatalization, it's unusual

• Two apparent universals of palatalization: (based on surveys by Bateman 2007, Kochetov 2011)

- 1. If labials palatalize, alveolars and/or velars do too
- 2. If [w] causes palatalization, so does [j] (or [i])
- •...But that's not what we see with isiXhosa passives
- In passive verbs, only bilabials change iyafundwa → \*iyafunjwa
- Only [w] causes palatalization (not [i] or [j]) iyakrobisa → \*iyakrotyisa

#### The puzzle

•How does the pattern we find in Xhosa work?

- •One view: it's a phonological process
- /mb/ → [ndʒ] before [w] (in various formulations)
   (Stahlke 1975, Khumalo 1987, Beckman 1993, Chen & Malambe 1998,
- (Stanike 1975, Khumaio 1987, Beckman 1993, Chen & Malambe 1998, Vondrasek 2001, Naidoo 2002, Bennett 2013/in press)
- An alternative view: it's not really phonology
  It's a historical relic, or is really morphological
  (Louw 1975; Herbert 1977, 1990; Ohala 1978; Van der Spuy 2013; see also O'Bryan 1974, Anderson 1992)
- This talk presents some results from a new experimental study on this issue

# Structure of the talk

- 1. Background from the literature
- 2. About our study: aims and methodology
- 3. Data and results
- 4. Analysis and discussion
- 5. Conclusions and ramifications for future work

# 1. Background and context

#### Labio-pal: some more details (1/2) •The *what*: a constellation of changes $[p'] \rightarrow [tf']$ $p \rightarrow tsh$ [ph] $\rightarrow$ [t[<sup>h</sup>] $ph \rightarrow tsh$ [6] $\rightarrow$ [c'] $b \rightarrow tv$ [bh] $\rightarrow$ [dz] $bh \rightarrow i$ [m] $\rightarrow$ [n] $m \rightarrow ny$ $[^{m}b] \rightarrow [^{n}dz]$ $mb \rightarrow nj$ (Doke 1954) •Related things happen in related lgs, with some slight differences in what changes to what

• Ex: [6] $\rightarrow$ [c'] in Xhosa, vs.  $\rightarrow$ [tʃ'] in Zulu

#### Labio-pal: some more details (2/2)

- The where: found in a few morphological contexts
   Passive /-w/, locative suffix /-ini/, diminutive /-ana/
  - Today I'm only going to talk about passive verbs
- Also evident in historical changes
  Proto-Bantu *mbwa* > Xh. *inja* 'dog'
- FTOLO-Dalitu mowu > XII. inju dog
- Sometimes long-distance
  sebenza 'work' ~ setyenzwa 'be worked'
- The *why*: previous literature gives a few different explanations

## One explanation: phonology

• Doke (1954:39): [emphasis mine -WB]

- 'Palatalization is a phonological process'
- '...palatalization is generally due to the incompatibility of bilabial consonants with the semi-vowel w.'

#### Key points:

- It's a <u>process</u> (implies systematicity; part of the regular rules of the language)
- Due to '<u>incompatibility</u> of bilabials with [w]'
- implies dissimilation; problem is two bilabials together
- Other phonological analyses take other approaches, e.g. assimilation (Khumalo 1987, Naidoo 2002)

## Another account: history (1/2)

 Alternative account: a string of historical changes (Louw 1975; Herbert 1977, 1990; Ohala 1978; Bateman 2010)

 $pjw \rightarrow pjw \rightarrow pfw \rightarrow tfw \rightarrow /tf/$ • Starting point: /-w/ used to have a front glide /j/ • Voicelessness of [p] gets extended, devoices the [j]

- Voiceless glide [j] misperceived as a fricative [ʃ]
- Labial component of [pʃ] is reanalyzed as an accidental effect of the following [w]

•End result: active verb has [p], passive has [tʃ] (similar pathway for other bilabial sounds)

## Another account: history (2/2)

For the historical account, palatalization is NOT necessarily an active part of phonology
Speakers learn active forms with labials, and passive forms with palatals

- They switch out one for the other as needed
- Both good and bad sides to this story:
- Phonological changes involved are weird; but the historical steps are attested in dialect variation
- Doesn't clearly work for words where palatalization happens across other sounds (e.g. sebenza ~ setyenzwa)

#### Recap: two competing hypotheses

- •Phonological hypothesis: Palatalization is part of the phonology of the language
- Speakers learn it as a rule that changes labial consonants into palatal ones
- Morphological hypothesis: Palatalization is in the lexicon, not phonology
- There is no change in the synchronic phonology
- Speakers memorize palatalized verb forms (like suppletive forms, e.g. go/went, swim/swam)



# Our experiment: overall design

- The two hypotheses make different predictions about how speakers will treat unfamiliar words
- If palatalization is part of phonology, then speakers will apply the change in new words
- If palatalization is just a trend in the lexicon, speakers will *NOT* apply the change in new words

• A 'wug test' should tease them apart

THIS IS A WUG

## Method: stimuli

40 nonce verb roots, all with CVC structure
Vowels were all either /a/ or /o/
Last consonant {mb, m, nj, ny}

40 real verbs, used as fillersStimuli shown to speakers on a laptop, in randomized order

•Participants saw 3 real verb examples in the instructions, and did 9 practice items first

## Method: task and presentation

#### iyafamba → iya\_\_\_\_wa

•Task: fill in the blank

- Stimuli were presented in a morphological frame typical of active verbs (in Xhosa orthography)
- Speakers asked to read the active form, and then to make a passive form of the verb
- •Participants were instructed that some words might be unfamiliar, and that they should take their best guess at what sounds most natural

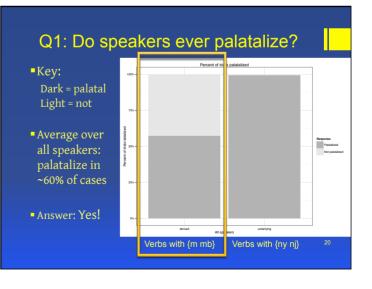
# Method: participants

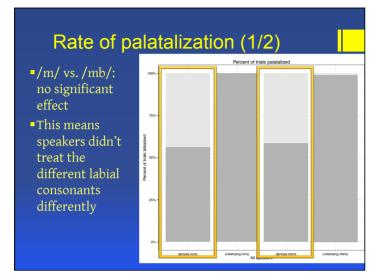
- •10 native speakers of isiXhosa
- 5 male, 5 female; Age range 21–42 (mean =26)
- •9 from Eastern Cape, 1 from Gauteng (but with family in Eastern Cape)
- All 10 identified Xhosa as the language they spoke the most at home
- •None reported medical issues related to speech or hearing
- Participants also did 2 other experiments in the same session (order of tasks was counterbalanced)

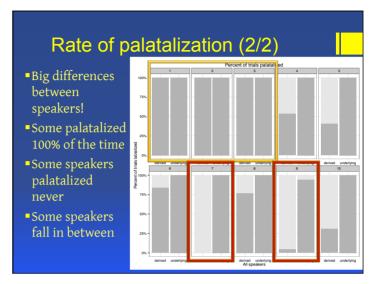
# Method: data handling

- •Speakers were recorded using a 'head'-mounted microphone, in the sound laboratory of the Rhodes University linguistics department
- Responses were coded for:
- whether the target consonant was palatal
- Morphology added to the verb (usually -w)
- Statistical analysis excluded forms with reading errors, and those that didn't have the suffix [-w]









#### Q2: Long-distance palatalization

Some speakers added the suffix /-is/ into passive forms; this separates the [-w] from the root iyakhoma → iya wa 'iyakhonyiswa'
Q2: is palatalization also productive in these long-distance cases?
Speaker 4 palatalized ~50% of time overall
14 labial forms had something added before /-w/
7 of those had palatalization, 7 did not
~50% palatalization rate in long-distance cases
Tentative answer: yes?

# 4. Interpretation and discussion

# Which hypothesis is right?

- The phonological hypothesis predicts speakers WILL apply palatalization to nonce words
  Speakers 1, 2, 3 bear this out: 100% palatalization
  Speakers 6 & 8 are close too: ≥70% palatalization
- The lexical hypothesis predicts that speakers will NOT apply palatalization to nonce words
  Speaker 7 bears this out: 0% palatalization of labials
  Speakers 9 & 10 are similar: ≤30% palatalization

# What's it mean?

- For some speakers, palatalization is phonological
   Nonce words are unfamiliar: speakers couldn't have memorized palatalized forms for them
  - So, speakers who palatalize nonce words must be applying a general phonological rule
- •For other speakers, palatalization is lexical
- 'Non-palatalizing' speakers DID still palatalize in at least some of the real-word practice and filler items
- So, they DO use palatalization (to at least some extent); but apparently only in words that they know
- This fits with palatalized forms being lexically stored

5. Summary and conclusions

#### Summary

- We've wug-tested labial palatalizationIt's productive for some speakers, not for others
- This suggests that it's a genuine phonological pattern for some speakers, but not for others
- The different accounts of palatalization proposed in previous work are both right for some speakers, but not for all of them

#### **Broader implications**

- A single linguistic pattern can be learned/analyzed very differently by different speakers
  - ...even speakers from the same speech community!
    This suggests that experiments of this sort should avoid pooling data across speakers
- Xhosa labial palatalization is typologically unusual ...but this ISN'T because it's non-phonological
  It's genuinely phonological for at least some speakers
- This means that even 'phonetically unnatural' patterns can be learned as real phonology

# Plans for future work

- 'Q3': When labials get palatalized, do they end up exactly like underlying palatal consonants?
- 'Q4': are there phonetic differences between the two groups of speakers?
- •We're working on these in our data right now
- More future plans: (tentative)
- Repeat the experiment in other dialect areas
- Other tasks: forced choice, and rating
- Test L2 speakers, see if they pattern like L1s
- Test palatalization in other contexts (loc, dim)



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