

Where am I?

- HUL242: **Fundamentals of Language Sciences**
- Phonology (**Lecture-2**)
- Thursday, Jan 23th

Review: Phonemes

- **Phonemes** are distinct sounds in a language, and they have a mental representation in the speaker's mind.
- If **minimal pairs** for the two sounds exist, then they are **distinctive/contrastive** in the language – i.e., there are two different underlying **phonemes**.

Review: Minimal pair

- **Minimal pairs:** When two words differ in **exactly one sound.**
- Minimal pairs as entire words.
 - Minimal pair for [p] and [b]

[pæt] ‘pat’

[bæt] ‘bat’

The phonological context: #__æt.

- Minimal pair for [t] and [d]

[rud] ‘rude’

[rut] ‘root’

The phonological context: ru_#.

Note: Near-minimal pair

- Minimal pairs can be entire words. But they **don't have to be**. They can also be smaller phonological contexts.
- A **near**-minimal pair for [b] and [p] *in English* is!

Drab [dræb]

Strap [stræp]

Where the shared phonological context is: ræ__#

Note:

- For near-minimal pairs, it should be established first that the excluded sounds are phonemes.
- It is used when minimal-pair is not found in a language.

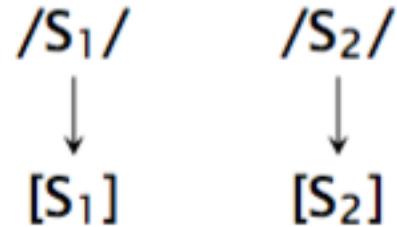
Review: Allophones

- A phonetic difference between two sounds on the surface does not necessarily mean that there are **underlyingly** different phonemes in the language. They could be **allophones**.
- If no minimal pairs exist for the two sounds, the two sounds are in **complementary distribution**, and there is only **one** underlying sound. The two sounds are called **allophones** of the underlying sound.

Review: Diagrammatically

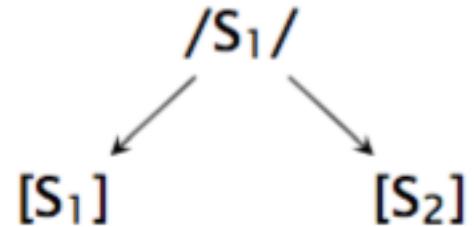
- We have two possible situations when we observe two sounds [S₁] and [S₂] in a language:

Language-A



Minimal pairs exist

Language-B



No minimal pairs exist

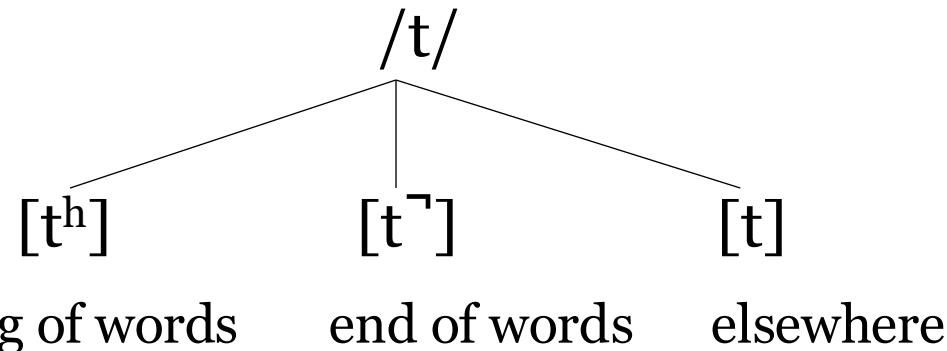
- Notice that words are pronounced in both languages with [S₁] and [S₂] sounds.
- However, only in one of these languages (Language-A) they are phonemes:/S₁/ and /S₂/.

Review: Phonemes and allophones

- Whenever you observe that two or more sounds are in complementary distribution, you have a choice about **which one should be the underlying form/phoneme**.
- One choice often makes more sense than the other, allowing you to **formulate a much simpler rule**.
 - The phoneme will generally be the sound that is found in a **wider variety** of environments, i.e. **unrestricted**.
 - The other sounds will then have a much more **restricted, predictable** distribution, which suggests that they emerge via a phonological process.

Review: Phonemes and Allophones

- There are **no minimal pairs** for [t], [t^h] and [t̚]. In other words, these sounds are in **complementary distribution**.



- [t^h] and [t̚] have a restricted or predictable distribution. That is, they are phonetically conditioned. [t] has unrestricted distribution.
 - /t/ the **underlying mental representation**, called **Phoneme**
 - [t^h], [t̚], [t] its **realization** in speech, called **Allophones**

Review: Phonological Analysis

- **Swampy Cree** (an indigenous language spoken in Canada) is a language where [t] and [d] aren't distinct sounds/phonemes.
 1. [kodak] 'goose'
 2. [namwat] 'not at all'
 3. [adim] 'dog'
 4. [tahki] 'often'
 5. [nisto] 'three'
 6. [mide] 'heart'

Distributional chart

[t]	[d]
1.	o_a
2. a:_#	
3.	a_i
4. #_a	
5. s_o	
6.	i_e

- **Generalization:**
 - [d] is found between two vowels.

Phonological rules

The form of phonological rules

- A formal representation of empirical generalizations
- Phonological rules have the following form:

$X \rightarrow Y / Z$ (read: ‘ X becomes Y in context Z ’)

The phonological rules

- Phonological rules are stated with the following notation:

1. $X \rightarrow Y/A_B$ (read: ‘X becomes Y in between A and B’)

2 $X \rightarrow Y/_B$ (read: ‘X becomes Y when followed by B’)

3. $X \rightarrow Y/_B$ (read: ‘X becomes Y when preceded by B’)

4. $X \rightarrow Y/_\#$ (read: ‘X becomes Y at the beginning of words’)

5. $X \rightarrow Y/_\#$ (read: ‘X becomes Y at the ending of words’)

The nature of phonological rules

- Phonological rules can be specific or general:
 - They can refer to **individual** sounds or
 - They can refer to **natural classes** of sounds.

Some examples: General rules

Spit [spit]

Skip [skip]

Stuck [stʌk]

Pit [p^hit]

keep [k^hip]

team [t^him]

○ Generalization:

- Oral voiceless stops are aspirated at the beginnings of words when followed by a vowel.

○ How would you state this in terms of a phonological rule?

$C[+\text{oral}, +\text{stop}, -\text{voice}] \rightarrow C^h[+\text{oral}, +\text{stop}, -\text{voice}]/\#_V$

Some examples: Specific rules

- Phonation in Swampy Cree
 - 1. [kodak] ‘goose’
 - 2. [namwat] ‘not at all’
 - 3. [adim] ‘dog’
 - 4. [tahki] ‘often’
 - 5. [nisto] ‘three’
 - 6. [mide] ‘heart’
- Generalization:
 - [t] becomes [d] between two vowels.
- Phonological rule:
 - $[t] \rightarrow [d] / V - V$

Some examples: Specific rules

- Vowel length in English:

[bæk] [bæ:g]

[mɪs] [mɪ:z]

[nɛt] [nɛ:d]

- Generalization:

➤ Vowels are lengthened before voiced consonants.

- Phonological Rule:

➤ $V \rightarrow V: / _ C [+voice]$

Some examples: Specific rules

- [s] and [t] are not contrastive in Tongan. They are in complementary distribution. Which is the underlying form and why?

[fata]	'shelf'	[sisi]	'grand'
[motu]	'island'	[mosimosi]	'to drizzle'
[motomoto]	'unripe'	[fesi]	'to break'
[movete]	'to come apart'		

Chart

[s]	[t]
#_[i]	[a]_[a]
[i]_[i]	[o]_[u]
[o]_[i]	[o]_[o]
[e]_[i]	[e]_[e]

- [t] occurs around all kinds of vowels, while [s] only occurs before [i].
- So, our phonological rule looks like this:

$$[t] \rightarrow [s] / _ [i].$$

- This is a very simple rule. A rule changing [s] to [t] would be way more complicated because [t] occurs in more contexts than [s].

Some examples: Specific rules

- [p] and [b] are not contrastive in Micmac. They are in complementary distribution. So, which is the underlying form?

[pis]	'flea'	[sipsulk]	'to cause trembling'
[sabus]	'pierced'	[tibol]	'it falls'
[talsip]	'when'	[sebai]	'to hunt'
[walpok]	'pool'	[alispei]	'to b e wet'
[ababo]	'thread'	[pabi]	'play'
[kalibu]	'caribou'	[apsem]	'to warm'

Chart

[p]	[b]
#_[i]	[a]_[u]
[i]_#	[a]_[a]
[I]_[o]	[a]_[o]
[i]_[s]	[i]_[u]
[s]_[e]	[i]_[o]
#_[a]	[e]_[a]
[a]_[s]	[a]_[i]

- [b] is restricted. It only shows up between vowels

Rule: $[p] \rightarrow [b] / V_V$

- This is a very simple rule. A rule changing [b] to [p] would be way more complicated because [p] occurs in more contexts than [b].

Phoneme and Allophones: English, Mapudungun, and Bangla

Practice: English [n]

- [n] in English sometimes has a **dental** place of articulation – [ɳ] in IPA:

[no:]	'know'	[tɛɳθ] 'tenth'
[əɳɔj]	'annoy'	[mʌɳθ] 'month'
[ʌɳjən]	'onion'	[pæɳθər] 'panther'
[ɳʌn]	'nun'	[krəsæɳθəməm] 'chrysanthemum'

Some questions:

- Which is the **underlying** phoneme?
[n]: it occurs in many **more environments** than [ɳ].

- Generalization:
Alveolar [n] becomes dental [ɳ] when followed by dental [θ].
- Phonological rule:

$$[n] \rightarrow [ɳ] / _ [\theta]$$

Mapudungun Nasal

- Mapudungun has both alveolar [n] and dental [ɳ].

[məna] ‘a lot’

[kwiла] ‘three’

[məɳta] ‘animal horn’

[məɳa] ‘maternal cousin’

[kwiɳa] ‘tree’

[tun] ‘to grasp’

- A question:

➤ Is the [n ɳ] distinction contrastive in Mapudungun?

Yes. We have a **minimal pair** as [məna] and [məɳa].

English [t] and [d]

- ‘[t] and [d]’ also in English sometimes have a **dental** place of articulation

[ɛ:tθ]	‘eighth’
[wʊdθɪŋk]	‘would think’

- [t] and [t̪], and [d] and [d̪] are also in **complementary distribution** in English.

[t] → [t̪]/_ [θ]

[d] → [d̪]/_ [θ]

Bangla ‘dentals’

- Distribution of [t] and [ʈ] in Bangla

[tan] ‘(vocal) tune’

[sat] ‘seven’

[tan] ‘pull!’

[sat] ‘sixty’

- A question:

➤ Is the [t ʈ] distinction contrastive in Bangla?

Yes. We have **minimal pairs.**

[tan] vs. [tan]

[sat] vs. [sat]

Summing up

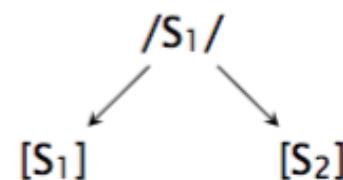
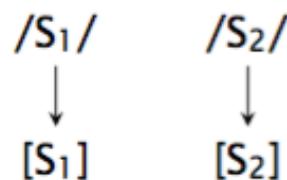
- English [n ɳ], [t ʈ], are [d ɖ], are **not contrastive**:
 - No minimal pairs exist.
 - The appearance of [ɳ], [ʈ], are [ɖ], are **conditioned** by their phonological context (so their appearance is 100% predictable).
- Bangla [t ʈ] and [d ɖ] and Mapudungun [n ɳ] are contrastive:
 - Minimal pairs exist.
 - Whether you see one or the other has nothing to do with the phonological context. Instead, it corresponds to differences in meaning.

Note:

Like Bangla and Mapudungun, English speakers also say [t], [d] and [ɳ]. But they can't use these dental sounds to create new words.

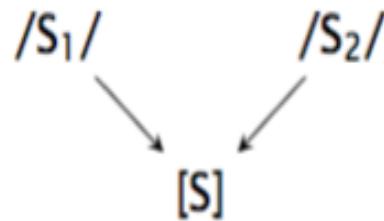
What we have seen so far

- So far, we've seen two kinds of situations:
 - When minimal pairs for two sounds exist in a given language, those sounds are **contrastive** in that language.
 - When no minimal pairs exist, the two sounds are **not contrastive**. Even though they are pronounced differently, they are underlyingly **the same sound!**
- Repeating our two possible situations when we observe two sounds [S₁] and [S₂] in a language:



Neutralization

- Another kind of process ends up **obscuring** underlying distinctions (rather than creating distinctions from the same underlying sound)!
- As a diagram, that would look something like this:



- So, two underlyingly different forms could end up pronounced in **exactly the same way**. This kind of process is called **neutralization**.

Korean

- Consider some data from Korean (the [i] sound is a high central tense vowel).
- Here, we're going to focus on the final positions in words.

[otʃinjətʃət] ‘squid pickle’

[otʃinjətʃən] ‘squid pancake’

[nurinpap] ‘scorched rice’

[nurinpam] ‘scorched chestnut’

[tʃakinpak] ‘small gourd’

[tʃakinpan] ‘small room’

- Stops and nasals with the same place of articulation are contrastive.

A twist

- Now, let's see what happens in larger phrases. What do you notice?

[otʃiŋətʃən nɛmseka] ‘the smell of squid pickle’

[otʃiŋətʃən nɛmseka] ‘the smell of squid pancake’

[nurɪnpam məkəpwanni] ‘Have you tried scorched rice?’

[nurɪnpam məkəpwanni] ‘Have you tried scorched chestnut?’

[tʃakinpaŋ nɛmseka] ‘the smell of a small gourd’

[tʃakinpaŋ nɛmseka] ‘the smell of a small room’

Writing a rule

- Here is the pattern, summed up:

[otʃiŋətʃət]
[otʃiŋətʃən]

[otʃiŋətʃən nɛmseka]
[otʃiŋətʃən nɛmseka]

[nurɪnpap]
[nurɪnpam]

[nurɪnpam mækəpwanni]
[nurɪnpam mækəpwanni]

[tʃakɪnpak]
[tʃakɪnpaŋ]

[tʃakɪnpaŋ nɛmseka]
[tʃakɪnpaŋ nɛmseka]

- [t], [p], and [k] have changed (respectively) to [n], [m], and [ŋ]!

- What is the phonological rule that underlies this pattern?

$$C[+\text{stop} \atop -\text{voice}] \rightarrow C\left[\begin{array}{c} +\text{nasal} \\ +\text{voiced} \end{array}\right] / _ [+\text{nasal}]$$

German

- Consider some German data.

Plural

Bäder ['be:də] 'Baths'

Raube ['kaʊbə] 'robberies'

Infinitive

reden ['re:dən] 'to talk'

sagen ['za:gn] 'to say'

Singular

Bad [ba:t] 'Bath'

Raub [kaʊp] 'robbery'

Imperative

red [re:t] talk!

sag [za:k] say!

- Generalization:

➤ The final voiced consonant becomes voiceless (Devoicing of final consonants).

- Phonological rule:

➤ C[+voiced] → C[-voiced]/_ #

Next Class

- Syllable (read section 4)
- Features (read section 5)
- More on Phonological Processes