UKLO Round 1 2014 Solutions

1. Estonian (5 marks, 20 points)

Assigning points:

- 2 points per correct answer.
- 1 point with one error.
- ignore trivial miscopying e.g. *veerland, uks*

1.1. a. kolmveerand üheksa	b. veerand viis	c. pool kaksteist
d. viis minutit seitse läbi	e. pool üks	
1.2. a 9:25	b. 3:15	c. 2:30 [or 14:30]
d. 11:45	e. 6:35	

Comment

In Estonian, minutes are counted from the preceding hour, but quarters and halves are counted as steps towards the next hour, so that instead of "quarter past the previous hour" (which is what English does), Estonian thinks it is a quarter on the way to the next hour. This also means that instead of half past the hour, Estonian thinks is it is half an hour to the next hour, and quarter to the next hour is simply ¾ on the way to the next hour.

2. Maori (5 marks, 49 points)

Assigning points:

- 2.1: 1 point per correct match (20 points maximum)
- 2.2: 1 point per correct answer (4 points maximum)
- 2.3: 1 point per correct answer (5 points maximum)
- 2.4 (20 points maximum):
  - a. 2 points (1 for "substituting" a 'p' for 'b', and 1 for the 'wh' substitution for 'f')
  - b. 2 points (1 for "substituting" a 'p' and 1 for 'ru' instead of the 'l')
  - c. 2 points (1 for changing 'c' to 'k', and 1 for deleting the 'r')
  - d. 3 points (1 for changing the English consonant cluster 'cl' to 'ku', 1 for changing 'l' to 'r' and 1 for changing 'ck' to k')
  - e. 2 points (1 for changing 'l' to 'r', and 1 for changing 's' to 'hi'
  - f. 2 points (1 for representing the vowel sound of 'ea' with 'ī' and 1 for adding a vowel to the final 't' to make 'ti')
  - g. 2 points (1 for changing 's' to 'hi' [long vowel], 1 for substituting 'l' with 'ri')
  - h. 3 points (1 for simplifying the initial consonant cluster from 'str' to 't plus vowel', 1 for correct vowel to make 'ti', and 1 for ending 'ti')
  - i. 1 point (it is almost the same as "line" given in the data itself for question 2.1)
  - j. 1 point.

2.1.	1. M	2. J	3. C	4. L	5. R	6. F	7. Q	8. A	9. K	10. O
	11. H	12. S	13. D	14. G	15. E	16. T	17. N	18. P	19. I	20. B
2.2. a. secretary	b. princess	c. policeman	d. judge							
2.3. a. Israel	b. Cuba	c. Spain	d. Germany	e. Japan						
2.4. a. pīwhi	b. pūru	c. kata	d. karaka	e. rīhi						
f. mīti	g. hīri	h. tiriti	i. taima	j. wāti						

Comment

2.1. Many of the Maori words “sound” like English words, for example “hama” sounds exactly as it is pronounced in British & New Zealand English (without a final r-sound). Maori does not appear to use “l”, and many languages such as Chinese and Japanese make no distinction between “l” and “r”, so Maori will turn words with an “l” in English into words with “r” instead (as in “terewhono” for telephone). In the case of “terewhono” there appears to be no “f” in Maori, but “wh” suggests a kind of breathy w-sound , which could be an equivalent for the friction of an f-sound..... For more, see appendix ...

3. Mokilese (10 marks, 12 points)

Assigning points:

- 3.1: 1 point each for a, b, and c. (3 points maximum)
- 3.2: 1 point each for correctly identifying each form (3 points), plus
  - -men: 1 point for 'animal' or any alternative that includes people, dogs and turtles - so 'animate being', but not 'mammal' (1 point)
  - -pas, -kij: 2 points; 1 for a partial answer (2 points)
- 3.3: 3 points for correct order; ignore '+'.

3.1.	a. jil-	b. pah-	c. lim-
3.2.	-men	- any of: animals, animate (being) (but not: living)	
	-pas	- any of: long, thin, wood, objects, inanimate, 'plant or object made of a plant'	
	-kij	- any of: flat, 'piece of thing', 'amount of something', 'contains the word *of*, e.g. 5 blocks of wood', 'processed natural object'	
3.3.	N	NUMB+	CL

Comment

4.1. a. All the phrases that refer to 3 have the component “jil”
b. All the phrases that refer to 4 have the component “pah”.
c. All the phrases that refer to 5 have the component “lim”.
All these components are numbers.... For more, see appendix ...

4. Running speech (10 marks, 32 points)

Assigning points:
• 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3: 1 point for each form (total = 12) Both exact transcription and utterance number must be included and correct to receive each point. No partial credit. But ignore

- minor inconsistencies in transcription e.g. ɹ sometimes wrongly written (so long as sometimes it's right).
- irrelevant capital letters, e.g. B for b.
- incorrect extra entries (i.e. only count correct entries, don't deduct for incorrect ones).

• 4.4 a-d: 1 point for each form (plus correct utterance number) from the data, plus 2 points for each form on its own (total: 16). No partial credit.
• 4.5: 2 points for each of a and b if exactly correct (total: 4). 1 point if just one word is wrong.

4.1. wʊd	bɹed
4.2. bread: bɹed (13) bɹed (19) bɹeb (13) [Don't accept wrong segmentation, e.g. bɹebb]	
would: wʊg (2) wʊd̪ (3) wʊd (7) wʊg (11) [Don't accept wrong segmentation, e.g. wʊgg]	
4.3. wʌm (5)	wʌn̪ (12)
wʌŋ (14)	
4.4. a. [sekənd] (16) [sekəm] (20)	**on its own:** [sekənd]
b. [mɪŋk] (18) [mɪn] (or [mɪns]) (18)	**on its own:** [mɪnt] or [mɪns]
c. two of: [kɑːŋk] (9) [kɑːn̪] (15) [kɑːm] (17)	**on its own:** [kɑːnt]
d. two of: [əm] (8) [ənd] (18) [n̩] (19)	**on its own:** [ænd] or [and] or [ənd]
4.5. a. bread and butter (or: bread in butter)	
b. I wouldn't care	

Comment
There are two challenges in this set of data: firstly, to identify some unfamiliar symbols, and secondly, to work out how some of the sounds are changing in particular contexts.

On the first, many of the symbols will be the same as the letters we use in normal spelling: it is not unreasonable to guess that, for example, the symbol [k] corresponds to the letter k. It will of course be used whenever this sound occurs, whether it is spelt with a letter k or another letter, such as c: so cake is pronounced [keɪk] ... For more, see appendix ...

Q5. Turkish (15 marks, 23 points)

Assigning points:

- 5.1: 2 points per sentence, 1 if one word is wrong. (total 10)
- 5.2: 1 point for the underlined part, 1 for the rest of the sentence, 1 for 'although' in f. (total 6+6+1 = 13)

5.1. a.	Is your father happy? [or: Your father is happy?]
b.	We say/said “come to our city”. [or: "Come to our city" we say/said.]
c.	My friend wants to be/become a doctor.
d.	Do they like my poor house? [or: They like my poor house? or: Do the poor like my house?]
e.	Are you coming [or: Do you come] from Istanbul? [or: You come/are coming from Istanbul?]
5.2. a.	When I come/came they say/said “hello”. [or: ... "hello" they say/said.]
b.	Is/was your father happy that we came/come/are coming? [or: Does/did your father like us to come?]
c.	They say/said (that) you are poor.
d.	Is the house that/which you bought/are buying big?
e.	The/a city where I am/ was happiest is/was Van. [or: Van is/was the/a city where I am/was happiest]
f.	Although we are/were poor, we are/were happy.

Comment

The examples in part 1 provide vocabulary and show some basic sentence patterns for Turkish, e.g. the verb usually comes at the end of the sentence, and nouns take endings which show possession (e.g. -im/-um means “my”) and case (e.g. -den/-dan means “from”, -u/i shows a definite object). The sentences in part 2 are similar to those in part 1, requiring the pupil to analyse new forms using the same rules as in part 1. The sentences in part 3 use a gerund-type affix (-diğ-/-duğ-, similar to English “-ing”) so that verbs can take the same suffixes used in parts 1 and 2, but with a metaphorical meaning. The sentences in part 3 translate literally as:

a. At my coming they say “hello”.
b. Is your father happy from our coming?
c. They state your being poor.
d. Is your buying house big?
e. My happiest-being city is Van.

f. uses a linking word (halde) which isn't in the preceding parts; solving this one requires the pupil to guess from the preceding examples and from the context of the sentence that the meaning is something like "In spite of our being poor, we're happy".

5. Kairak (15 marks, 41 points)

Assigning points:

- 7.1,2: 2 points for each completely correct answer; 1 point for almost correct answers with just one error. (total 32)
    - Give benefit of the doubt if IPA symbols are unclear (e.g. ɐ or e?)
- 7.3: 3 points for a completely correct answer; no partial credit (total 9)

6.1. a.	ŋa siqut
b.	anit ŋes
c.	ut monɐk
d.	ŋɐri vɛlɐŋ
e.	ɲi mɐnatɐm
f.	ka mɐn
g.	ŋɐni ron
h.	ya dudɐbɐt
6.2. a.	'they meet'
b.	'the two of you/them [or: you/they both] will show (it)' [or: .... (dual) ...]
c.	'they raised/rose[!] (it)' [or: they pulled (it) up]
d.	'you (pl) spoke out' [or: you all spoke out] [or: .... (plural)]
e.	'They cooked'
f.	'the two of us [or: we both] go inside' [or: .... (dual)]
g.	'you will come'
h.	'we (all) set fire to a bush' [or: We (all) set a bush on fire; not: We both ...; or: ... (past), not: ... (present) or: ... are setting fire ...]
6.3. a.	tsal
b.	ka mu
c.	the two of you/them will feel [or: you/they will both feel. or: you/they both will feel]

Comments

In order to solve the questions, you first need to figure out the general pattern that distinguishes the present, future, and past tenses for each type.

It is always a good strategy to tackle the easiest bits first. Type 3 forms are the most straightforward: the pronouns (*I, you, he*, etc) stay the same, but the initial sound in the verb changes according to tense (*t/r/m* for present/future/past, respectively). With Type 2 forms, the present and future tenses are identical to each other. Only the past tense is distinguished by the form of its pronouns. (Many languages make only a dual tense distinction, such as between past and non-past, or between future and non-future. However, other information in the text usually provides clues as to when in time an event is occurring.)

Type 1 forms are the trickiest because they use a combination of changes to both the pronoun and the verb to distinguish tenses. In present tense, the verb has an initial *t* sound that drops off in non-present tenses. So when you see a verb form like *sup*, without a *t* attached to the preceding pronoun, you know that it can't be in the present tense. (Don't let the *t* at the end of present tense pronouns fool you into thinking it "belongs to" the pronoun. The *t* is really a part of the verb. But for ease of pronunciation, it attaches to the end of the pronoun.) While the verb distinguishes present from non-present tenses, the pronoun distinguishes the past from the non-past

(just like with Type 2 forms). Note, though, that there is no distinction across 3pl non-human or 2pl pronouns.

6. Ilokano (20 marks, 24 points)

Assigning points:

- 7.1 - 3 points each (with one mistake, e.g. stem or affix: 1 point) (total 9)
- 7.2 - 5 points each (with one mistake: 3 points; with two mistakes: 1 point). Mistake = one morpheme wrong or missing (total 15)

7.1. a.	you (pl.) read it [or: you read it]
b.	we (with you) were sweeping it [or: ... it with you]
c.	we (with them) were calling [or: ... calling with them]
7.2. a.	tinaktakawda ida [= t(in)ak+takaw+da ida]
b.	linabaanmi [= l(in)aba+an+mi]
c.	pimmunakayo [= p(imm)una+kayo]

Comments (two alternative analyses, which we hope to reduce shortly!)

Analysis A

Ilokano verb forms are divided into three groups:

- intransitive (with no direct object): *-imm-* is added in the root, after the first consonant. The subject is denoted by *-ta* ('we (with you)'), *-kami* ('we (with them)'), *-kayo* ('you (pl.)) or *-da* ('they);
- transitive (with a direct object), translated with past simple: *-in-*, is added at the same place in the root. Verbs with "sanitary" semantics (cleaning, washing, etc) get the *–an* suffix, the subject is denoted with *-ta* ('we (with you)'), *-mi* ('we (with them)) , *-yo* ('you (pl.)') or *-da* ('they'), 3rd person singular of the object is implied, and 3rd person plural is denoted by *ida*;
- transitive, translated with past progressive: the same as with the previous group, but before inserting *-in-*, the first consonant-vowel-consonant is duplicated: (e.g. from *gat·ing* 'buy' we get *gat·gat·ing*, and then *g{in}at·gat·ing*).

Analysis B

Ilokano verb forms are divided into four groups by two contrasts:

- transitive versus intransitive (i.e. with/without an object: it/them)
    - a transitive verb means '... it' by default; this chages to '... them' if *ida* is added.
    - intransitive verbs have a 'progressive' meaning (translated by 'were Ving', e.g. 'they were shopping'), but transitives normally have a non-progressive meaning (e.g. 'you called them'), though they can be made progressive by special morphology (see table).
- ordinary versus 'sanitary' (cleaning, washing, etc).

All verbs:

- have a similar structure: <Infix> + Base (+ Suffix1) + Suffix2
    - where <Infix> is located after the first consonant of Root.
    - Suffix1 is normally absent.
- have a basic root which is usually the same as the Base (so Base = Root), but may have its first syllable (consonant+vowel+consonant) duplicated (so Base = Root*2).
- indicate their subject in Suffix2: *ta* = we (with you), *mi* = we (with them), *yo* = you (pl), *da* = they.

<table>
<tr><td></td><td colspan="2">transitive</td><td colspan="2">intransitive</td></tr>
<tr><td>ordinary</td><td rowspan="2">Infix = in
Base = Root*2 (for progressive meaning)</td><td></td><td rowspan="2">Infix = imm</td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>sanitary</td><td>Suffix1 = an</td><td>Suffix1 = ka</td></tr>
</table>

Question 2. Maori

2.1. Many of the Maori words "sound" like English words, for example "hama" sounds exactly as it is pronounced in British & New Zealand English (without a final r-sound). Maori does not appear to use "l", and many languages such as Chinese and Japanese make no distinction between "l" and "r", so Maori will turn words with an "l" in English into words with "r" instead (as in "terewhono" for telephone). In the case of "terewhono" there appears to be no "f" in Maori, but "wh" suggests a kind of breathy w-sound , which could be an equivalent for the friction of an f-sound.
Looking at the Maori words, there are no consonants ever used together, so English loan words with consonant clusters are reduced to a single consonant, as in "wana" for "swan". The Maori words also all end in a vowel sound, which strengthens the hypothesis that Maori does not do consonant clusters / end words in a consonant sound. To avoid consonant clusters, vowels may be added, these vowels will be similar to the ones already there, so "ink" becomes "iniki".The "ch"- sound is also a bit like a consonant cluster (sounding like a blend between t and s) and so "cheese" becomes "tīhi" , highlighting that "s" in English words, takes on the shape of "h" in Maori (also a friction sound).
Finally, there is no "b" in Maori. But "p" and "b" are effectively the same sound, the only difference being the use of vocal cords in producing the "b" sound – so it is safe to assume that Maori will substitute English "b" with a "p" instead as in "putu" for "boot".
2.2. Having worked out the patterns in 2.1, you can see that " hekeretari" is very similar to secretary, especially as we know we are looking for professions. Following the rule that consonants must be separated by vowels and that "h" is substituting for a sharp s-sound, we can see that b is "princess", and substituting the "r" in "pirihimana" for "l" , and the "hi" for a shar "s-sound" and dropping the final vowel gives something that is very close to the English "policeman". As in 2.1 we saw that "jar" is "tiā", so "tiati" gives us "judge" (the j and dg represent the same sound).
2.3. a. Following the same thinking as before gives us "Israel".
b. Likewise for "Cuba".
c. Likewise for Spain (like "Swan" in 2.1 the initial s is dropped in the consonant cluster).
d. As in "tiati"/"judge" (in 2.2) Tiamani starts with the same sound, so it must be Germany.
e. And as before, the same sound is used represented here, so the country must be "Japan" (as the sound of both the initial consonants is the same, despite English using the G or J to represent it).
2.4. Having worked out the "rules" in the previous questions, we can work out how these English words would appear in Maori:
a. beef – b =p / ee = ī / f = wh and a final vowel the same as the other vowel, gives us "pīwhi".
b. bull – b = p / u = ū / ll =l = r followed by a vowel of the same quality as the other vowel in the word gives us "pūru".
c. cart – c = k / and bearing in mind that the r is not really pronounced in New Zealand, gives us "kata".
d. clock – c = k, l=r, remembering to put a vowel between the two initial consonants, ck = k and a final vowel. The o-cound in clock is represented by an "a" in Maori (see "swan").

e. lease – l = r, ea = long ī sound, sharp s = hi.
f. meat – m = m, ea = ī, and ti instead of jsta a t.
g. seal – s = h, ea = long ī sound, l – r plus a vowel added.
h. street – drop the initial s, put a vowel between the t and r, ee = long ī, and adding a vowel at the end that's similar to the vowels in the rest of the word –i.
i. time – t = t, i = ai and adding a vowel at the end after the m.
j. watch – w = w, a = a, t = t , but the sound represented by English –ch is not used in Maori (see match in 2.1.).

Question 3. Mokilese

4.1. a. All the phrases that refer to 3 have the component “jil”
b. All the phrases that refer to 4 have the component “pah”.
c. All the phrases that refer to 5 have the component “lim”.
All these components are numbers.
4.2. All the words referring to living animals (dog, man, child, turtle) have the component “men” in them, so this must refer to living animal; all the words referring to flat objects (bread, blocks of land) have “kij”, which must refer to flat inanimate objects. On closer inspection both the bread and land are smaller parcels (slices and blocks respectively) of larger things, so we might also guess that the noun classifier “kij” refers to flat inanimate objects that can be divided into smaller parts; but we have no evidence that that divisibility is crucial. Finally, the remaining words chopsticks , trees and reeds all have the component “pas”, which must refer to objects that are round / cylinder-like in shape (tree-trunks, reeds, and chopsticks all have this basic shape); once again, we might guess that these things must be inanimate, but we have no evidence.
All these components are classifiers.
4.3. Looking at how the phrases are made up in Mokilese, e.g. “doahk jilmen”, we see that the noun “doahk” comes first in the row describing “dogs”, this is followed by the number e.g. “jil” and this is followed by the classifier, e.g. “men”.

Q4. Running Speech:

There are two challenges in this set of data: firstly, to identify some unfamiliar symbols, and secondly, to work out how some of the sounds are changing in particular contexts.

On the first, many of the symbols will be the same as the letters we use in normal spelling:
it is not unreasonable to guess that, for example, the symbol **k** corresponds to the letter *k*. It will of course be used whenever this sound occurs, whether it is spelt with a letter *k* or another letter, such as *c*: so *cake* is pronounced [keɪk].

There are, however, a number of unfamiliar symbols: for example, **ŋ**, which denotes a sound similar to **n** but produced with the back of the tongue against the soft palate. It is the consonant which is produced before the [k] in *think*: compare it to the [n] at the end of the word *thin*.

There are a number of symbols used in the data which involve diacritics below the main symbol. So the small 'bridge' under **d** in number 3 (**d̪**) indicates the sound is a dental sound: it is produced with the tongue touching the back of the teeth, which is a little further forward than it is normally produced.

We could add more symbols to give a more detailed description of the pronounciation, but the symbols are kept to a minimum here.

The second aspect to the question is to work out the changes which occur to some of the words. The changes focussed on in this data are examples of the assimilation of the place of articulation: the exact position of the tongue in the mouth when producing a sound. They affect a [t] [d] or [n], and occur when these consonants are at the end of a word in anticipation of the following sound.

So the word *would* is pronounced with a final [d] in, for example, utterance 6; but this might change to a [g] if the following word begins either with a [g] (as in utterance 2: *would go*), or with a [k] (as in 11 *would come*). They have changed from an alveolar place of articulation (where the tongue touches the ridge behind the teeth) to a velar place of articulation (where the tongue touches the soft palate further back in the mouth). Or a [d] might change to a [b] before an [m], for example (as in *good morning* in utterance 4), or to a [d̪] before [θ] (*would think* in 3).

This affects sequences of these consonants also. So in number 9 the [nt] sequence at the end of *can't* has changed to a [ŋk] sequence because of the [g] at the start of *go*.

Students are not asked for an explanation but they might start to see a pattern. This will help in identifying the more difficult forms in 4.4 and identifying the utterances in 4.5.

These are more difficult because they involve other changes which happen in running speech. One of these is the frequent omission of a consonant in a sequence of consonants. So in 18 the [t] of *mints* is omitted, and in 15 the [t] in *can't think* has been omitted. This doesn't have to happen: so in 9 (*can't go*) it is still there, although it shows up as a [k].

Another change that often happens is that a vowel may be omitted. So in the utterance 19 (*bread and toast*), the vowel of the word *and* has been omitted (as well as the [d]). In such cases, a sequence of consonants is formed, and both may assimilate their place of articulation to a following consonant, as in question 4.5.a: *bread and butter* [brebm̩bʌtə]. (Assimilation in consonant sequences including a nasal can be different in other contexts, but this is not explored in the current set of data)

It is very important to remember when considering all these examples that there is a lot of variation in speech. So these changes may occur on one occasion and may not on another. But they are much more common than often thought, since both speakers and listeners are usually unaware that they are making these changes. They happen a lot in fairly formal speaking contexts as well as conversational speech. They are rule-governed, as described above: they apply to particular sounds in particular contexts: they are not just random changes.

Normal orthographic versions of the utterances:

1.	[hiseggʊdiːvnɪŋtuːmi]	He said "Good evening" to me.
2.	[aɪwʊggəʊ]	I would go.
3.	[aɪwʊd̪θɪŋksəʊ]	I would think so.
4.	[ɪtwəzəgʊbmɔːnɪŋtəgəʊ]	It was a good morning to go.
5.	[aɪsɔːwʌmbaɪk]	I saw one bike.
6.	[aɪwʊdəvθɔːtsəʊ]	I would have thought so.
7.	[aɪwʊdn̩tel]	I wouldn't tell.
8.	[aɪlʌvkeɪkəmbɹed]	I love cake and bread.
9.	[aɪkɑːŋkgəʊ]	I can't go.
10.	[ɔːlgʊd̪θɪŋzkʌmtuənend]	All good things come to an end.
11.	[ɪtwʊgkʌmtuənend]	It would come to an end.
12.	[hihədwʌn̪θɔːtəʊnli]	He had one thought only.
13.	[aɪpʊt̪ðəbɹedɪn̪ðəbɹebbɪn]	I put the bread in the breadbin.
14.	[hisɔːwʌŋkɑːðeə]	He saw one car there.
15.	[aɪkɑːn̪θɪŋkwaɪ]	I can't think why.
16.	[ðəsekəndaɪsɔːðəmðeə]	The second I saw them there….
17.	[aɪkɑːmbaɪkeɪkðeə]	I can't buy cake there.
18.	[aɪlʌvmɪŋkkeɪkəndekstɹəstɹɒŋmɪns]	I love mint cake and extra strong mints.
19.	[aɪlʌvbɹedn̩təʊst]	I love bread and toast.
20.	[hisɔːðəsekəmbaɪk]	He saw the second bike.