DEGLOTTALIZING CONTAMINATION IN A'INGAE HISTORICAL DERIVATIVES

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ABSTRACT I describe and analyze the phonological form and historical trajectory of nominal derivatives in A'ingae (150 639-3: con), an underdocumented Amazonian isolate (Dąbkowski, 2021a). Some words historically derived with otherwise preglottalized nominalizers have no glottalization today. I propose that these "exceptions" are reflexes of originally glottalized words, which underwent semantic shift and lost glottalization due to contamination from the plain (i. e. non-glottalized) majority. The paper thus documents a rare case where non-productive morphological patterns are the innovation, not retention.

1 INTRODUCTION

In this paper, I describe and analyze the phonological form and historical trajectory of nominal derivatives in A'ingae (150 639-3: con), an endangered Amazonian isolate (Dąbkowski, 2021a).

The key pattern I focus on is that some words that were historically derived with otherwise preglottalized nominalizers show no glottalization today.

I propose that these glottalless words are reflexes of originally glottalized words, which underwent semantic shift—in the course of which they were reanalyzed as monomorphemic—and then lost glottalization due to contamination from the plain (i. e. non-glottalized) majority.

The glottalized versions of the nominalizers appear in compositional, productively derived nouns. The glottalless versions appear in frozen derivatives. Since morphological irregularities are often the reflexes of previously productive phonological patterns (e.g. Bybee, 1985; Garrett, 2008; Kiparsky, 2012), this might lead us to think that the glottalized forms are more recent, and the glottalless ones are a retention. I will show that the opposite is true for A'ingae: The non-productive pattern of "exceptionally" glottalless derivatives is the innovative one.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides background on the language and its phonology. Section 3 describes the core patterns of glottalization and its loss in nominal derivatives. Section 4 presents the diachronic analysis. Section 5 considers and rejects an alternative directionality of change. Section 6 concludes.

2 BACKGROUND

A'ingae (or Cofán, Iso 639-3: con) is an Amazonian language isolate spoken by around 1,500 native speakers in the northeastern Ecuadorian province of Sucumbíos and the southern Colombian department of Putumayo (Dabkowski, 2021a).

The A'ingae language is understudied and severely underresourced, with very little support outside of our traditional communities. It is relatively vital in Ecuador and severely endangered in Colombia. Despite the challenges, the A'ingae speakers' attitudes towards their language are exclusively positive and they welcome projects aimed at the preservation of their language and bolstering its status (Dąbkowski, 2021a).



Figure 1: Some of the Indigenous territories (including Cofán) in Colombia and Ecuador (based on Curnow and Liddicoat, 1998)

A'ingae is a highly agglutinating, exclusively suffixing (and encliticizing), predominantly head-marking language, with a flexible, predominantly SOV word order. (But the present paper focuses exclusively on word-level patterns.)

The structure of A'ingae syllables is (C)V(V)(?), i. e. onsets are optional, nuclei are maximally diphthongal, and the glottal stop is the only possible coda. VV diphthongal nuclei are the only heavy nuclei in the language; there are no long monophthongs.

In this paper, I adopt the language's practical orthography (see e. g. Dąbkowski, in prep. Fischer and Hengeveld, 2023; Hengeveld and Fischer, in prep. except for the glottal stop, represented with the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) ?. Postvocalic n and m indicate vowel nasality (and the prenasalization on the following voiced stop); they are not moraic. The high central vowel is written as \hat{u} .

Previous phonetic and phonological work on the language includes Brandt's (2024) and Repetti-Ludlow et al.'s (2019) phonetic studies, Dąbkowski's (2024c) phonological description, Repetti-Ludlow's (2021) analysis on laryngeal co-occurrence restriction, Dąbkowski's (2023, 2024a) synchronic and diachronic perspectives on diphthongs, Bennett et al.'s (2024) and Sanker and AnderBois's (2024) work on nasality, Dąbkowski's (2021b, 2024b,d, t.a.) analyses of stress and glottalization, and Fischer and Hengeveld's (2023) grammar sketch.

All the data were collected by the author with three native speakers from the communities of Sinangoé and Dureno in Sucumbíos, Ecuador, and will be deposited in the California Language Archive (CLA) as Dąbkowski (2020). The scientific names of fauna, flora, and fungi have been drawn from Borman's (1976) dictionary.

3 DESCRIPTION

In this section, I briefly discuss the relevant aspects of the A'ingae phonology of glottalization and stress, and present the core data related to productive and historical nominalization.

3.1 *Phonology of glottalization and stress*

A'ingae glottalization is contrastive in roots (1a-b) and, prominently, functional morphemes (1c-f).¹ Most of the language's glottal contrasts are a consequence of the latter. Stress (marked with the acute accent ´) is culminative and obligatory at the level of the phonological word.

(1) Contrastive glottalization (Dąbkowski, 2024d)

a. chándi b. chá?ndi c. tsá =ma d. tsá =?ma e. sé?je -pa f. séje -?pa

be clear be cold ana =acc ana =frst cure -ss cure -n

As seen above, the presence or absence of glottalization distinguishes between unrelated morphemes. E. g., the frustrative =7ma FRST is preglottalized (1d), while the accusative =7ma ACC is plain (1c). Nonetheless, the preglottalization of certain derivational morphemes appears lexically specific. E. g., the subject nominalizer (to be discussed further in Section 3.2.2) is attested both with the glottal stop (-7 $s\hat{u}$ sN) and without it (-s \hat{u} sN), depending on the word.

This paper focuses on nominal roots and derived nouns. Since A'ingae glottalization is contrastive, nouns may (3) or may not (2) have a glottal stop. A majority of morphologically simple nouns are in the first category (i. e. do not have a glottal stop). Within the morphosyntactic contexts discussed in this paper,² glottalization—if present—always surfaces in the coda of the penult (3).

- (2) Plain nouns
 - a. *píndu* b. *ántian* c. *tsunsína* d. *chanánge* e. *saráru* hawk relative ear lowland paca giant otter
- (3) GLOTTALIZED NOUNS
 - a. thé?thu b. úma?ndu c. bánsa?mu d. anáe?ma e. kukiú?chu tooth macaw balsam hammock mountain cocoa

Within the same morphosyntactic contexts, the assignment of A'ingae stress is phonologically predictable. Specifically, if there is no glottal stop, stress is assigned to the penultimate syllable (2). If a glottal stop is present and the glottalized syllable is heavy (i. e. a diphthong) (3d-e) or word-initial (3a), stress is assigned to the glottalized syllable. Otherwise, stress is assigned to the syllable that precedes it (3b-c). The stress assignment rule is restated in (4). For a detailed break-down and an Optimality Theoretic (McCarthy and Prince, 1993a,b; Prince and Smolensky, 1993) analysis of the A'ingae stress assignment patterns, see Dąbkowski (2024d).

(4) Stress assignment rule (based on Dąbkowski, 2024b,d, t.a.) *If there is a glottal stop:*

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if the glottalized syllable is heavy, i. e. a diphthong (3d-e), or word-initial (3a):
    stress the glottalized syllable;
    otherwise:
    stress the syllable which precedes the glottalized syllable (3b-c);
    otherwise:
    stress the penultimate syllable of the word (2).
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Put more simply, the predominant pattern is that when there is a glottal stop, stress appears two syllables to its left (3b-c), unless the glottalized syllable is a diphthong, in which case it is stressed itself (3d-e).

3.2 Synchronic and diachronic nominalization

"men's place"

A'ingae has a rich set of nominalizing derivational morphemes, including (but not limited to) the regular nominalizer -?pa N (6a), subject nominalizer $-?s\hat{u}$ SN (6b), and negative individual nominalizer -mbi NIN (5a), as well as a variety of classifying suffixes, which characterize the shape, size, or prominent dimension (be it spatial or temporal) of the referent, including the bounded space $-kh\hat{u}$ BND (5b), periodic -ite PRD (5c), large -jiun LRG (5d), angular -?khu ANG (6c), bristly -?si BRS (6d), place -?thi PLC (7a), path -?ki PATH (7b), round -?chu RND (7c), lateral -?fa LAT (7d), and other classifiers.

The A'ingae nominalizing suffixes can derive nouns from both verbal (5a-b, 6) and nominal roots (5c-d, 7).

PLAIN NOMINALIZERS ON VERBAL, AND NOMINAL ROOTS b. katí -khû a. *athé* -*mbi* c. umá -ite d. tavá -jiun peach palm -PRD see -NIN throw-BND cotton -LRG "Feb-Apr season" "blind" "trash can" "silk-cotton tree" GLOTTALIZED NOMINALIZERS ON VERBAL ROOTS c. akhûi -7khu d. akhépa -?si a. shejéchu -?pa b. pánza -?sû fry hunt -sn lever -ANG forget -BRS "fried food" "hunter" "lever" "forgetting plant" (7) GLOTTALIZED NOMINALIZERS ON NOMINAL ROOTS a. tsandié -?thi b. tsámpi -?ki c. kháke -?chu d. *téta* -?fa man -PLC forest -PATH leaf -RND flower -LAT

In the examples above, I categorize the nominalizers as plain (5) or glottalized (6-7). Nonetheless, the presence of the glottal stop is to some degree lexically specific. The present paper focuses on investigating the nature of this variation.

"leaf bundle"

"blooming vine"

"forest trail"

THE KEY PATTERN: There are some apparent derivatives whose meaning does not straightforwardly follow from the meaning of their parts (i. e. it is non-compositional). A subset of those "derivatives" lacks glottalization, even if the nominalizer is otherwise preglottalized in its compositional uses.

¹ The following glossing abbreviations have been used: 1 = first person, 3 = third person, ACC = accusative, ANA = anaphora, ANG = angular, ATTR = attributive, BND = bounded, BRS = bristly, DIST = distal, FLAT = flat, FRST = frustrative, IDSL = indefinite of selection, INS = instrumental, IPFV = imperfective, IRR = irrealis, LAT = lateral, LOC = locative, LRG = large, N = nominalizer, NIN = negative individual nominalizer, PATH = path, PLA = pluractional, PLC = place, PLS = plural subject, PRD = periodic, RND = round, SG = singular, SN = subject nominalizer, SS = same subject, VPR = viperous.

² Åingae stress and glottalization are subject to complex interactions and morphophonological condoning (Dabkowski, 2021b, 2024b,d, t.a.). The present proposal investigates the domain of (derived) nouns, within which the presence or absence of glottalization can be lexically conditioned—i. e. unpredictable; in a way not discussed in Dabkowski's (2021b, 2024b,d, t.a.) previous work—but the position of glottalization and stress (given the presence or absence of glottalization) are largely predictable (with a few exceptions).

In the rest of the section, I illustrate this key pattern with a few nominalizing suffixes. (A more thorough survey will not be possible due to space limits.)

3.2.1 The bounded space nominalizer -khû bnd

First, for purposes of completeness, I discuss a plain (i. e. non-glottalized) nominalizer: the bounded space classifier $-kh\hat{u}$ BND (8). The bounded space classifier $-kh\hat{u}$ BND derives nouns that designate various types of delimited or otherwise conceptually bounded spaces, including concave or hollowed-out tools (8a), sections or parts of larger or unbounded entities (8b-8d), and fenced, restricted, or otherwise finite areas, including plantation types (8f-8h).

(8) Bounded space classifier -khû bnd

a.	shejechupá -khû	fried food -BND	"frying pan"
b.	ethí -khû	house -BND	"room"
c.	tsáu -khû	house -BND	"henhouse"
d.	singé -khû	fire -BND	"match"
e.	apichú -khû	small pot -BND	"pants"
f.	ambá -khû	уисса -вид	"yucca plantation"
g.	khûmbá -khû	tobacco -BND	"tobacco plantation"
h.	kafé -khû	coffee -BND	"coffee plantation"
i.	má -khû	IDSL -BND	"which room"

Regardless of the specific use, words with the plain (i.e. non-glottalized) bounded space classifier $-kh\hat{u}$ BND are never glottalized (8).

The same pattern holds of other plain nominalizers,³ such as the negative individual nominalizer *-mbi* NIN, periodic classifier *-ite* PRD, or viperous classifier *-si* VPR (which derives nouns denoting dangerous, stinging, biting, and/or snake-like animals).

3.2.2 The subject nominalizer -?sû sn

Now, let's have a look at a nominalizer which illustrates the core pattern: the (typically) preglottalized subject nominalizer $-7s\hat{u}$ sn.⁴ I will group the observed uses of nominalizers as either semantically transparent (9) or semantically opaque (10).

In its transparent uses, this nominalizer derives subject nouns from the corresponding verbs productively, e. g. "to hunt" \rightarrow "a hunter" (9a). In this use, $-3s\hat{u}$ sn always appears with a glottal stop (9).

(i) The attributive -?sû attr

"river devil"

a. ná?en=?sû kukúya river=attr devil b. tsámpi=ni=?sû tsá?u forest=loc=attr house "forest house"

(based on Fischer and Hengeveld, 2023, p. 89)

c. tayúpi=?sû á?i

se long ago=attr person

"people from the past"

(9) Semantically transparent productive derivatives with $-?s\hat{u}$ sn

a.	pánza -7sû	hunt -sn	"hunter"
b.	pûshe -7sû	marry woman -sn	"woman-marrier"
c.	ínjan -?sû	want -sn	"wanter"
d.	atesián -7sû	teach -sn	"teacher," "professor"
e.	bấthu -ʔsû	run -sn	"runner"
f.	jéña -7sû	drive -sn	"chauffeur"

In addition, there are words apparently derived with the same suffix that do not denote subject nouns. Words in this group are not as semantically transparent. For example, $an\acute{a}en?s\^{u}$ means "sleepy," not (only) "one who makes sleep" (10a). The presence of a glottal stop in the semantically opaque category is unpredictable. Depending on the lexical item, we see either $-?s\^{u}$ sn (10a-10e) or $-s\^{u}$ sn (10f-10j).

(10) Semantically opaque lexically stored items with -(?) $s\hat{u}$ sn

a.	anáen -7sû	make sleep -sn	"be sleepy"
b.	ajié -7sû ⁵	make vomit -sn	"be nauseous"
c.	tûkhukhuén -?sû	have hiccups -sn	"hiccup"
d.	pûtsa -?sû	be possessed -sn	"aggressive"
e.	akhûi -?sû	row -sn	"stroke"
f.	faengá -sû	level off -sn	"friend"
	faengá -sû pûshé -sû	level off -sn marry woman -sn	"friend" "woman"
g.	-		11101101
g. h.	pûshé -sû	marry woman -sn	"woman"

Some of the opaque derivatives form doublets with the transparent ones. For example, *pûshe* "to marry a woman" can be a productive base for the subject noun *pûshe?sû* "one who marries a woman" (9b); cf. *pushésû* "a woman" (10g). Similarly, *in?jan* "to want" can give rise to *injan?sû* "a wanter" (9c), contrasting with *injánsû* "cautious" (10h).

3.2.3 The round nominalizer -?chu RND

The round nominalizer *-?chu* RND (11-12) derives nouns for objects that are small and/or round, and is often seen in the names of plants (or fungi) or their parts, esp. fruit (11c-11f, 12e-12i). (But it can also be used as a more general nominalizer; 11f-11g.)

There are semantic, morphosyntactic, and phonological reasons (Dąbkowski, in prep.) to treat these two different uses of $-?s\hat{u}$ as two homophonous morphemes: the subject nominalizer $-?s\hat{u}$ sn (9) and the attributive $-?s\hat{u}$ attr (i). Since it is not clear which of the two morphemes is reflected in the semantically opaque derives (or even if two distinct morphemes should be reconstructed at the relevant stage), I gloss all the examples in (10) with $-?s\hat{u}$ sn. The account proposed in Section 4 does not depend on the homophony or polysemy of $-?s\hat{u}$ sn/ATTR.

5 In other contexts, the (historical) base appears as a?jian 'make vomit,' not 'ajie. While the deletion of the base's glottal stop is phonologically predictable (Dąbkowski, 2024b,d, t.a.), the denasalization and vowel quality change seen on the diphthong are not. This suggests that non-analytically listed former derivatives may also undergo sporadic changes (in addition to losing the nominalizer's glottalization).

³ Three potentially exceptional glottalized words seemingly derived with the otherwise plain flat classifier -(?)je flat are discussed in Section A.

⁴ In its productive usage, the formative *-7sû* appears in (at least) two different contexts: on verbs (9) and non-verbal categories, such as DPs (ia), PPs (ib), and adverbs (ic).

The round/small classifier -?chu RND patterns in the same way as $-?s\hat{u}$ sN (9-10). In its semantically transparent uses, the classifier always appears with the glottal stop, -?chu RND (11).

(11) SEMANTICALLY TRANSPARENT PRODUCTIVE DERIVATIVES WITH -?CHU RND

a.	kíni -?chu	tree -rnd	"cane," "(rotten) tree trunk"
b.	kháya -?chu	swim -rnd	"raft," "floating animal/object"
c.	náen -?chu	river -rnd	"river fruit," "river water cupped in leaves"
d.	bấthu -ʔchu	run -rnd	"round footprint," "fruit for running"
e.	tsunsína -?chu	ear -rnd	"eardrum," "mushroom/moss for earaches"
f.	ansánge -7chu	be shy -rnd	"shame," "bullying," "fruit that makes shy"
g.	akhépa -?chu	forget -RND	"tar that is burned to forget"
h.	kháke -?chu	leaf -rnd	"rolled-up ball of leaves"
i.	ápi -?chu	clay pot -RND	"small clay pot"
j.	atséfa -?chu	tail -rnd	"rolled up tip of a tail"

A hallmark of the productive derivatives is that they may denote entities whose existence is only hypothetical (11c-11g), and that one word may be compatible with multiple translations (11a-11f).

I propose that the core semantics of the productive derivatives consists only of the topology specified by the classifier and the meaning of the base. As such, when asked for a free translation, different speakers (or even the same speaker) may build on it in different ways.

E. g., I hypothesize that the core meaning of *náen?chu* can be approximated as "a small and/or round thing associated with a river." This single meaning is compatible with different free translations, such as "river fruit" or "river water cupped in leaves" (11c).

In addition, there are many words with -(?)chu RND, which are more semantically opaque (12). The presence of a glottal stop in the opaque category is unpredictable; we see either -?chu RND (12a-12e) or -chu RND (12f-12j) on a word-by-word basis.

(12) Semantically opaque lexically stored items with -(?) chu RND

a.	dûsû -?chu	conceive -RND	"egg"
b.	tsûtha -?chu	bone -rnd	"knee" (not just any "small/round bone")
c.	sấmbi -ʔchu	stupid -rnd	"wart"
d.	kanukhué -7chu	? -rnd	"chonduro (medicinal herb for treating fever)"
e.	kukiú -?chu	? -rnd	"mountain cocoa (Herrania sp.)"
f.	tetá -chu	flower -rnd	"fruit" (not just any "small/round flower")
g.	bumbú -chu	pambil -rnd	"pambil (<i>Iriartea sp.</i>) fruit"
0	bumbú -chu tûinfá -chu	pambil -RND chambira -RND	"pambil (<i>Iriartea sp.</i>) fruit" "chambira (<i>Astrocarum</i>) fruit"
h.		1	

A hallmark of the opaque derivatives is that their meanings are more specific than (or very different from) the semantics of the sum of their parts. For example, $ts\hat{u}tha?chu$ is specifically "a knee," not just any small round bone (12b). The meaning of $s\hat{u}mbi?chu$ is "a wart," very distantly related to $s\hat{u}mbi$ "stupid" (12c). Again, the word for "handicraft beads" ($a\tilde{u}un\hat{u}chu$) appears to be derived from the word for "a siren" ($a\tilde{u}uu$) (12i).

Additionally, there are some words that appear to be historically derived from bases that are no longer attested (12d-12e). This is consistent with the claim that the opaque derivatives are lexically stored.

3.2.4 The angular nominalizer -?khu ANG

The angular classifier -7khu ANG (13-14) derives nouns denoting objects of various angular, pointy, or irregular shapes, including man-made objects, animals, plants, and sticks.

Again, the same pattern repeats—in its productive uses, the angular -7khu ANG always appears with the glottal stop (13a-13l). The derivatives may denote novel concepts and be given fanciful free translations.

(13) SEMANTICALLY TRANSPARENT PRODUCTIVE DERIVATIVES WITH -7KHU ANG

a.	théthu -7khu	tooth -ang	"tree shell for soothing toothaches"
b.	akhépa -7khu	forget -ang	"plant that soothes psychological discomfort"
c.	dấsû -7khu	conceive -ANG	"vine that helps conceive very quickly"
d.	kháya -7khu	swim -ang	"stick for crossing a river (by swimming)"
e.	téta -?khu	flower -ang	"tree harvested for flower germination"
f.	ansánge -?khu	be shy -ang	$\hbox{``cane/vine/stick that causes embarrassment''}\\$
g.	bấthu -7khu	run -ang	"stick/lever for running/jumping higher"
h.	tsákhû -7khu	water -ang	"high water-content guadua"
i.	náen -7khu	river -ang	"tree that gives the power to control a river"
j.	tsấtha -7khu	bone -ang	"plant medicine that alleviates bone pain"
k.	chhára -7khu	bright -ang	"stick with a lot of light reflection"
1.	shávu -7khu	canoe -ang	"unique tree for canoe-making"

In the non-transparent uses, where the nominalizer appears on words with specific meanings that cannot be reduced to the combination of the base and the suffix, the presence of the glottal stop is lexically specific; depending on the word, we get either -?khu ang (14a-14f) or -khu ang (14g-14l).

(14) Semantically opaque lexically stored items with -(?) khu and

a.	án -?khu	eat -ang	"hook"
b.	ángi -?khu	? -ANG	"flu"
c.	chấ -ʔkhu	unripe - Ang	"nude"
d.	avûja -?khu	rejoice -ang	"cross (stick of adoration)"
e.	bathi -thián -7khu	release -PLA -ANG	"arrow"

f.	dishá -sha -7khu	hatch -PLA -ANG	"chóchapa (stinging ant)"
g.	fathú -khu	? -ang	"rock"
h.	zenzé -khu	motley -ang	"pintadillo (striped catfish)"
i.	kitsûi -khu	pinch -ANG	"nail"
j.	sinsin -thú -khu	louse -? -ang	"comb"
k.	aná -khu	sleep -ang	"chonta palm (Socraetea sp.)"
1.	ufí -khu	sift -ang	"sieve"

3.2.5 The lateral nominalizer -?fa LAT

Finally, let's consider the lateral classifier -?fa LAT. The classifier -?fa LAT (15-16) derives nouns that designate the sides of an object, objects with a prominent lateral dimension, and generally elongated things, including strings, lines, and vines.

As before, in its transparent productive uses, which may receive a variety of free translations that build on the meaning of the base and the core meaning of the classifier, the lateral -7fa LAT always appears with the glottal stop (15a-15l).

(15) Semantically transparent productive derivatives with -?FA LAT

a.	afáse -?fa	criticize -LAT	"critical paragraph," "string for criticizing"
b.	kháya -?fa	swim -LAT	"rope to hold on to in a torrential river"
c.	khuthákhu -ʔfa	mountain -LAT	"side of a mountain," "rock," "summit"
d.	nujánkhu -ʔfa	thorn -LAT	"mountain full of thorns," "vine full of thorns"
e.	sankhúpa -?fa	wing -LAT	"the «arm» of a wing," "long plumage"
f.	kháke -?fa	leaf -LAT	"belts for leaves," "long algae-like leaf"
g.	kíni -ʔfa	tree -LAT	"tree root," "very thin tree"
h.	séje -?fa	cure -LAT	"medicinal vine," "medical apprenticeship"
i.	kánjin -?fa	track -LAT	"mountain range," "observatory," "vine"
j.	tevaén -?fa	write -lat	"pencil," "tree where you can write"
k.	téta -ʔfa	flower -LAT	"flowery mountain range," "blooming vine"
1.	tsákhû -?fa	water -LAT	"water hose," "vine with water"

In the non-productive uses, the presence of the glottal stop is not predictable. In some words, the classifier appears with the glottal stop, -2fa LAT (16a-16f), and in others—without it, -fa LAT (16g-16l).

(16) Semantically opaque lexically stored items with -(?) FA LAT

a.	shú -ʔfa	vagina -LAT	"penis"
b.	áya -?fa	spirit -lat	"mouth"
c.	ú -?fa	? -LAT	"vine," "string"
d.	átse -?fa	hummingbird -LAT	"tail"
e.	kánkhe -?fa	village -LAT	"year"

f.	tsáin -?fa	?-LAT	"root"
g.	khá -fa	else -lat	"other side"
h.	inzá -fa	bitter -LAT	"vine for tying down houses"
i.	pûi -fa	both -LAT	"on both sides"
j.	kuejé -fa	sun -LAT	"sun ray"
k.	tûin -fa	?-LAT	"chambira (Astrocarum)"
1.	ûtû -fa	rib -lat	"shore"

THE MAIN GENERALIZATION: Compositional nominalizations (i. e. those whose meanings are transparent and which may be given different free translations) which were derived with preglottalized suffixes always show glottalization (9, 11, 13, 15).

Non-compositional derivatives (with specific meanings often only remotely related to the meanings of the nominalizer and/or the base) may be plain or glottalized on a word-by-word basis (10, 12, 14, 16).

4 ANALYSIS

I propose that the nominalizers referred to as glottalized in (6-7) and discussed throughout Section 3 were originally glottalized in all words.

Now, all of the exceptionally plain nouns are semantically opaque. This means that at a certain point, their meanings underwent a semantic shift.⁶ (In many cases, the shift seems to involve narrowing.) After the shift, the speakers have stopped relating the word to its former constituent parts; rather, the word has now been reanalyzed as monomorphemic.

Most of the A'ingae morphologically simple nouns do not have glottal stops (2). At the same time, the presence of glottalization suggests morphological composition (3). Consequently, the association between phonological form and morphological structure puts pressure on the newly lexicalized nouns to level with the non-glottalized majority. The proposed trajectory is exemplified in (17).

(17) Proposed trajectory in A'ingae

OLDER	NEWER	
a. *ínjan?sû →	injánsû	"cautious," "gruff"
b. *añúnu?chu →	añunúchu	"handicraft beads"
c. *zénze?khu →	zenzékhu	"pintadillo (striped catfish)"
d. *ínza?fa →	inzáfa	"vine for tying down houses"

This A'ingae development can be analogized to a similar trajectory in English where words with less frequent accentual patterns tend to regularize to antepenultimate stress over time (18).

Alternatively, the meanings of the derivatives may be older, with the productive uses of a nominalizer having the newer meaning. What matters for the proposal is that in either case, the semantics of the productive derivations and the memorized words diverge.

(18) Prosodic contamination in English (Bauer, 1994, pp. 96–103; Minkova, 2017, p. 74)

OLDER NEWER

a. $n ómenclature \rightarrow noménclature$ b. $molybdénum \rightarrow molýbdenum$ c. $son órous \rightarrow sónorous$ d. $f órmidable \rightarrow form ídable$

4.1 Phonetic support

Moreover, the A'ingae contamination is further aided by contexts where phonetic cues indicating the presence of glottalization are reduced.

For example, the A'ingae glottal stops can be realized as creakiness and are not always reflected in rapid speech (Repetti-Ludlow et al., 2019). Additionally, prase-final creakiness (Repetti-Ludlow et al., 2019) can further obscure the presence of phonemic glottalization. As such, we may expect that hypocorrection also contributes to the loss of glottalization in words reanalyzed as monomorphemic.

Recall that there is a close link between glottalization and stress. In words without glottalization, stress is assigned to the penult (2; 19a). In words with a glottal stop, stress is often assigned to the syllable that precedes the glottalized one (3; 19b). As such, stress can then be used as a cue to the presence of underlying glottalization even if the realization of the glottal stop is weakened, possibly to the point of complete deletion (19c).

(19) Stress as a cue for glottalization

	SPEAKER'S TARGET	SPEAKER'S PRODUCTION	HEARER'S INTERPRETATION
a.	$[\sigma'\sigma\sigma] \rightsquigarrow$ (no underlying ?)	$\llbracket \sigma' \sigma \sigma \rrbracket \rightsquigarrow $ (no ? produced)	$[\sigma'\sigma\sigma]$ (no ? inferred)
b.	$['\sigma\sigma?\sigma] \rightsquigarrow$ (underlying ?)	[ˈσσʔσ] → (ʔ produced)	[ˈσσʔσ] (ʔ registered)
c.	$['\sigma\sigma?\sigma] \rightsquigarrow$ (underlying ?)	[ˈσσσ] → (no? produced)	[ˈσσʔσ] <u>(ʔ inferred based on stress)</u>

Stress is phonetically reflected in longer duration and a higher F0 (Repetti-Ludlow et al., 2019). Nonetheless, the cues for word-level stress can be phonetically obscured in connected speech.

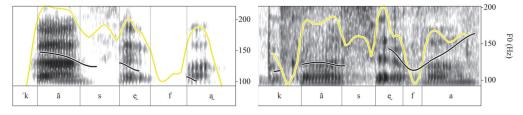


Figure 2: A careful (left) and a rapid (right) realization of kánse-?fa 'live-PLS'

E. g., compare a careful realization of k'anse-?fa' (ive-pls' (on the left), where the first syllable has the highest pitch, greatest intensity, and longest duration, with a natural realization of the same word (on the right), where the phonetic cues for stress are much less unambiguous (Figure 2).

4.2 Example trajectory

As an illustration, consider the example of <code>añunúchu</code> "handicraft beads" (12i). According to the proposed trajectory, the word started as *añúnu?chu (lit. "siren fruit"), derived productively by suffixing <code>añúnu</code> 'siren' with -?chu RND. At a certain point, the word came to denote a type of "handicraft beads;" speakers memorized it as one unit, no longer relating it to either <code>añúnu</code> 'siren' or -?chu RND.

The noun * $a\tilde{n}unu$?chu had various phonetic implementations, including ones where the position of stress is not easily recoverable, and where the glottal stop is obscured by phrase-final creak * $\|a\tilde{n}unu$? $chu\|$ or unrealized * $\|a\tilde{n}unuchu\|$.

Now, when a listener hypocorrects weak glottalization and/or understated stress, they may interpret the word as plain (i.e. non-glottalized) and paroxytone, arriving at the present-day añunúchu "handicraft beads."

Note that stress and glottalization are tightly linked. According to the rule in (4), * $a\tilde{n}unu$?chu and $a\tilde{n}unu$ chu are both well-formed, but the hypothetical * $a\tilde{n}unu$?chu and * $a\tilde{n}unu$ chu are not. As a consequence, a reinterpretation of either phonetic cue (stress or glottalization) forces the reinterpretation of the other.

4.3 Captured facts

The proposed trajectory derives two important aspects of the data set. First, the presence of glottal stops in the semantically opaque category is unpredictable, because the variation is not a result of a regular sound change. Rather, it is a consequence of lexically-specific prosodic contamination, which may or may not take place after the derived noun loses a transparent semantic connection with its component parts.

Second, the productively formed words are always glottalized (if derived with a preglottalized nominalizer). For example, even though <code>kháke?chu</code> "rolled-up ball of leaves" (11h) may be realized as *<code>[khake?chu]</code>, *<code>[khakechu]</code>, etc., it is not a lexically stored entry. As a consequence, every time the word <code>kháke?chu</code> is processed or produced, it is actively computed as <code>kháke</code> 'leaf' suffixed with -<code>?chu</code> RND. Simply put, <code>kháke?chu</code> remains glottalized because it synchronically contains the glottalized morpheme -<code>?chu</code> RND.

5 REJECTED ALTERNATIVE

The opposite trajectory hypothesis (where plain forms show archaic retentions, e. g. *- $s\hat{u}$, *-chu, ... > - $rs\hat{u}$, -rchu, ...) could say that glottal stops were, at a certain point, inserted before certain nominalizers. Under this proposal, the opaque plain derivatives are the conservative ones.

⁷ However, there are rare exceptions, e.g. tenkhén?chu "common fly."

However, this alternative chronology faces two major problems. First, there is no obvious phonetic motivation for glottal stop insertion. Even if phonetically ambiguous contexts were taken as a precondition for hypercorrection, there is no evidence that (a large number of) morphologically simple nouns were ever glottalized in the language. As such, innovative glottalization would be unlikely to arise due to contamination from other glottalized nouns.

Second, this alternative pathway does not explain why only certain certain suffixes underwent glottalization. Even within the set of nominal classifiers, glottalized suffixes (6-7) contrast with plain ones, such as the bounded space $-kh\hat{u}$ BND, periodic -ite PRD, or large -jiun LRG. The hypothetical insertion of glottalization would not be predictably conditioned by any morphosyntactic or semantic factors. As such, I consider the alternative hypothesis to be untenable.

6 DISCUSSION

In conclusion, I have argued that the exceptionally glottalless derivatives in A'ingae are a result of morphological contamination. Once a derived word becomes memorized as monomorphemic, it may lose its glottalization due to the pressure for it to conform to a general pattern—which is that morphologically simple nouns lack glottal stops.

Morphological exceptions are usually vestiges of previously productive patterns (e. g. Bybee, 1985; Garrett, 2008; Kiparsky, 2012). I demonstrate that, however, the A'ingae exceptionally plain derivatives are innovative and do not conform to this generalization.

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A APPARENT COUNTEREVIDENCE: THE FLAT NOMINALIZER -JE FLAT

Finally, I discuss some apparent counterexamples to the proposed trajectory involving the flat classifier *-je* FLAT. The flat classifier *-je* FLAT (20-21) derives nouns that designate flat objects, including paper, and names of different types of leaves.

In its transparent productive uses, which can be given novel free translations, the nominalizer is never preglottalized, -je FLAT (20a-20i).

(20) SEMANTICALLY TRANSPARENT PRODUCTIVE DERIVATIVES WITH -JE FLAT

a.	kundá -je	let know -flat	"(written) notice"
b.	fûndûi -je	sweep -flat	"fan," "sth thin for sweeping or winnowing"
c.	faengáen -jen ⁸	level -flat	"flat thing for leveling"
d.	maphan -jen	wash clothes -FLAT	"washboard"
e.	tsûtsû -je	trample -FLAT	"leaves that are used to make you agile"
f.	giyáen -jen	clear -FLAT	"toilet paper," "sheet for cleansing the body"
g.	pikhú -je	cover -FLAT	"cover," "leaf for covering"
h.	informá -jen	inform -FLAT	"(written) notice"
i.	kundasé -je	tell -flat	"story (written on paper)"

In a majority of lexicalized uses (mostly names for specific plant species and leaves), the nominalizer also appears without the glottal stop, -*je* FLAT (21a-21f). However, there are three words, where the nominalizer appears to have a glottal stop, -*ʔje* FLAT (21g-21i).

(21) SEMANTICALLY OPAQUE LEXICALLY STORED ITEMS WITH -(?) JE FLAT

a.	sapú -je	toad -FLAT	"conambo palm leaf"
b.	siyafá -je	? -FLAT	"broadleaf plantain"

⁸ After nasal vowels, the flat classifier surfaces as -(?)jen flat. This process of regular progressive nasalization (Dąbkowski, 2024c; Sanker and AnderBois, 2024) does not interact with glottalization and is orthogonal to the question of glottal stop retention.

c.	tsatsafá -je	? -FLAT	"palm variety"
d.	chhaufá -je	? -FLAT	"cane variety (leaves used for tea)"
e.	sin -khá -je	black -? -FLAT	"century plant (Agave americana)"
f.	kufá -je	? -flat	"macaw leaf (Geonoma macrostachys)"
g.	teváen -?jen	write -flat	"notebook," "book," "paper"
1.			
n.	undíkhû -7je	don -flat	"garment," "cushma"

The account outlined in Section 4 proposes that derivatives formed with preglottalized suffixes may lose glottalization after lexicalization. It does not predict that words formed with plain (i. e. non-glottal) nominalizers (such as -je FLAT) would gain glottalization. As such, the three words which appear to have a preglottalized -?je FLAT seen in (21g-21i) appear puzzling. I suggest two speculative explanations of their trajectory.

A.1 Possibility 1: Contamination twice

The first possibility is that the flat nominalizer should be reconstructed as preglottalized *-?je FLAT. Over time, most of the nouns derived with *-?je FLAT lost glottalization via the mechanism described in Section 4. Eventually, the preponderance of glottalless lexicalized forms influenced the form of the productive morpheme, yielding the contemporary plain -je FLAT.

A.2 Possibility 2: Imperfective origin of -?je

Alternatively, it is possible that the three nouns (21g-21i) show a reflex not of the flat classifier -*je* FLAT, but rather of the imperfective verbal suffix -*?je* IPFV.

There are two facts that speak in favor of this reconstruction. First, the morphological bases of the three derivatives in (21g-21i) are all verbs. The imperfective suffix -?je IPFV can attach only to verbs (Dąbkowski, in prep. 2024d)—unlike nominalizing classifiers, which can attach to both nouns and verbs (5-7).

Second, while the imperfective -7je IPFV does not by itself generally yield deverbal nominalizations, there are bridging contexts that allow for the reanalysis of an imperfective verb as a noun. For example, the instrumental case marker $=i7kh\hat{u}$ INS can attach to both verbs (22a) and nouns (22b).

(22) Context for a potential reanalysis

- a. Instrumental -1?khû ins attached to an imprefective verb tíse teváen-?je-in?khû =ngi semá-ña 3sg write-ipfv-ins =1 work-irr "I will work while he is still writing." (2024-12-24(1) jxm)
- b. Instrumental =17khû ins attached to a homophonous noun

 tise teváen?je=in?khû =ngi semá-ña

 3sg notebook=ins =1 work-irr

 "I will work with his notebook." (2024-12-24(1) jxm)