

On the evolution of heterophony: semantic pressures on phonetic forms

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9 **“Neutralization” is a conditioned limitation on the distribution of a**
10 **language’s contrastive values.**

11 Silverman (2012):

12 Neutralizing alternations (rarely) derive homophones

13 *This is a function-negative outcome*

14 Neutralizing alternations (typically) serve as an aid to parsing

15 *This is a function-positive outcome*

16 Today’s goal: to demonstrate these functional consequences of
17 neutralizing alternations, and to suggest that we might employ the
18 heterophony-maintenance proposal as a framework for linguistic inquiry

19 **Martinet (1952):** Languages may tolerate neutralization (sound mergers)
20 up to derived homophony; potentially excessive derived homophony
21 tends to inhibit neutralization

22 **Labov (1994):** “It is not the desire to be understood, but rather the
23 consequence of misunderstanding that influences language change. This
24 mechanism implies a mismatch between producer and interpreter: the
25 type of built-in instability that we would expect to find behind long-term
26 shifts in language behavior”

Semantic misperception (Labov, *pace* Baudouin de Courtenay, Martinet): “If speakers do not consciously or unconsciously adjust their sentences to maximize the transmission of meaning, then we need to find some other mechanism that accounts for the systemic adjustments that maintain informational content” (1994: 585)

Spontaneous phonetic variants that are semantically confusing to listeners are unlikely to be reproduced, hence will never get off the ground as new conventions

The very spoken variants (*chance* variants) that are successfully communicated to listeners are also the very variants (*selected* variants) that are likely to be reproduced as these listeners become speakers

Successful speech propagates; failed speech does not get reproduced

39 **Hypothetical example (Labov 1994):**

The speaker:	The listener:
Intends: dr a p (“drop”)	
Produces: dr æ p (“drop”)	Hears: dr æ p (“drop”)
	Pools: dr æ p (“drop”)

40

The speaker:	The listener:
Intends: bl a k (“block”)	
Produces: bl æ k (“block”)	Hears: bl æ k (“????”)
	Maintains: bl a k (“block”)

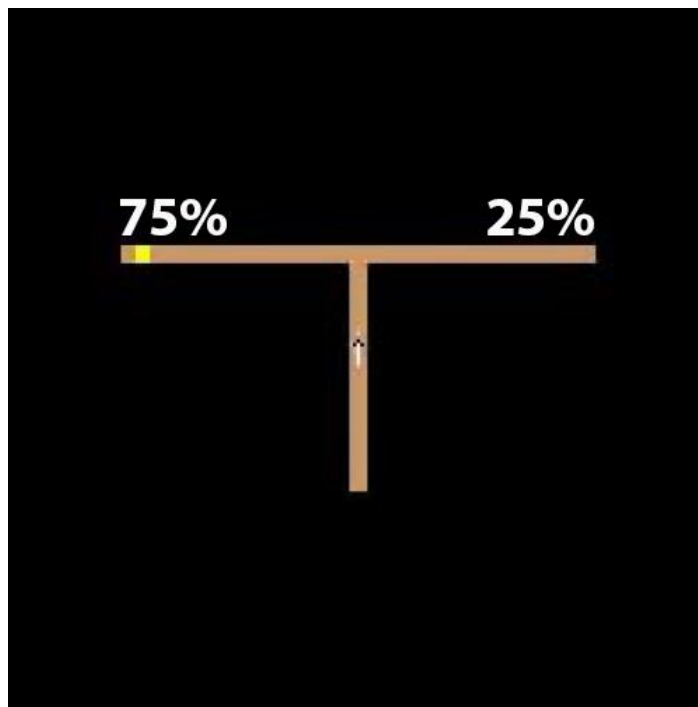
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The mechanisms:

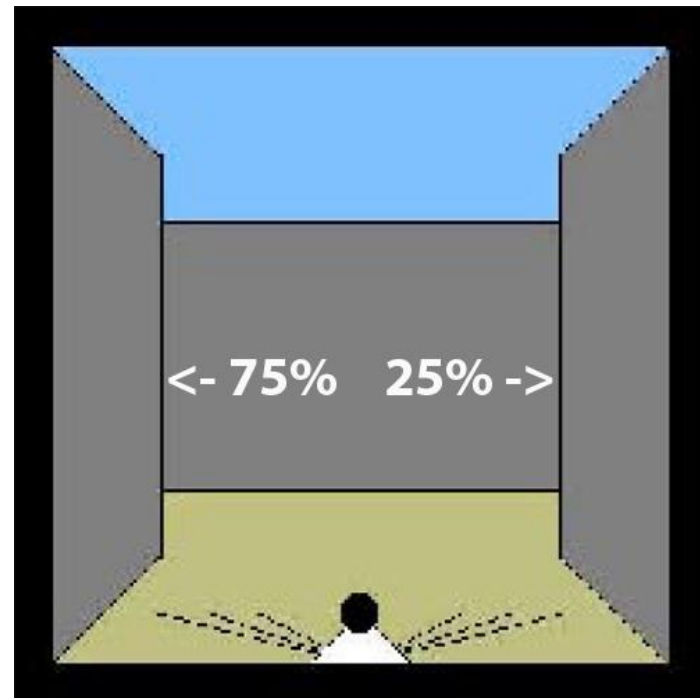
Probability matching:

Animals perform sophisticated statistical analyses as they navigate the world around them, e.g. in foraging, they match their behavior in terms of likelihood of payoff....even in the lab

Environment:



Behavior:



49 Similar statistical calculations underlie aspects of human linguistic
50 behavior, in that the nature and extent of variation in speech is indeed
51 largely matched as listeners become speakers:

52 In phonetics (for example): variable vocalic nasalization: different
53 languages vary in different ways (Clumeck 1976).

54 In morphology (for example): optional use of certain morphemes is
55 probability-matched across speakers (Poplack 1980)

56 In the lab: Exposure to variably present markers in a contrived mini-
57 language is recapitulated in their variable use by subjects (Hudson and
58 Newport 1999)

59 **Variation is conventionalized on a language-specific basis.**

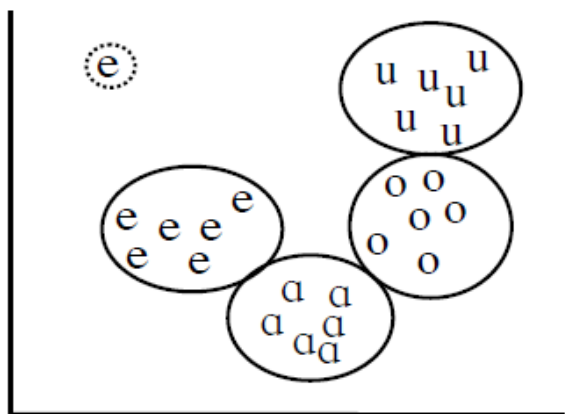
Exemplar theory:

Perceptual categories are defined as the set of all experienced instances of the category, such that variation among tokens actually contributes to the categorical properties themselves.

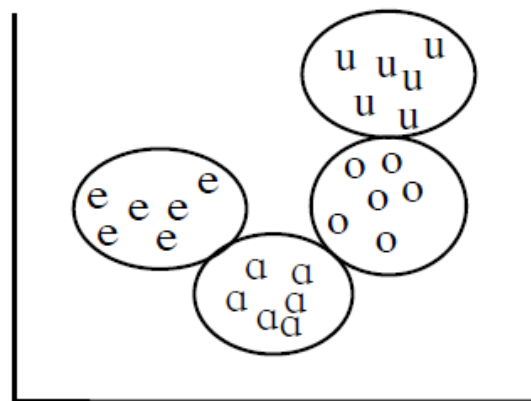
Global (motor) consequences: dispersion

Under certain conditions, probability matching of exemplars promotes category separation and phonetic **stability**:

Vowel production
(a **wild** stray):

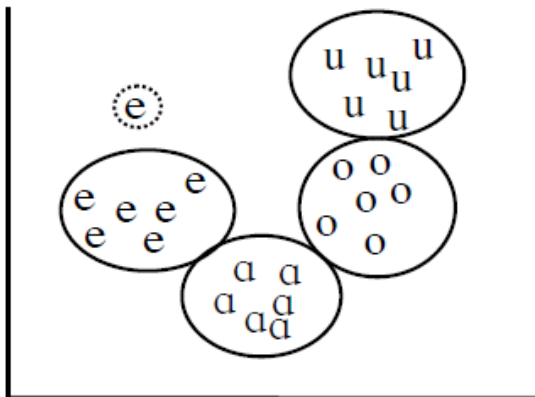


Vowel perception
(token thrown out):

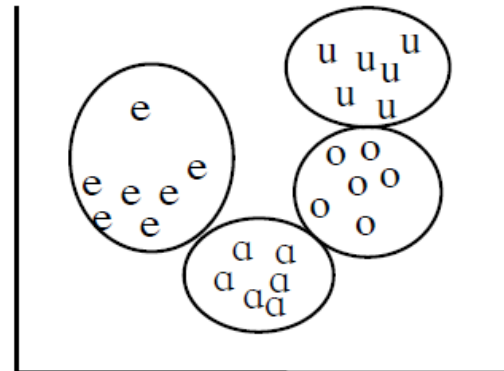


Under different conditions, probability matching promotes category separation and phonetic **change**:

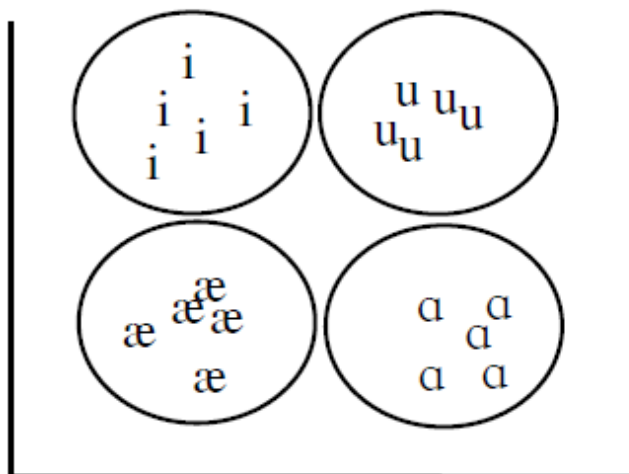
Vowel production
(a **mild** stray):



Vowel perception
(token pooled):



Newly evolved system:



77 **Local (lexical) consequences:**

78 **Neutralization and heterophony maintenance**

79 There seem to exist semantic pressures on phonetic forms such that
80 heterophony is largely maintained

81 Language use involves a built-in homophony-limiting mechanism

82 **Labov (1994):**

83 French: the plural marker -**s** has been lost except when a vowel follows,
84 and thus, for example, the plural article **la** (earlier, **las** in all contexts)
85 sometimes runs the risk of being homophonous with the singular

86 However, the plural is now (usually) signaled by a change in vowel
87 quality: **las** > **le** (and is now non-“pro-drop”)

88 Labov: “[This] show[s] how long-range changes in the French
89 phonological, morphological, and syntactic systems compensated for
90 sound changes, in ways that suggest a causal link”

How it works (a quick summary)

(1) The low level phonetic variation inherent to speech production

(2) The consequences of **lexical semantic ambiguity** and

misunderstanding, when similar words sound the same, and

(3) The tendency for speakers to **reproduce** the variation they perceive (upon successful perception)

“Successful” speech propagates; “failed” speech is passively filtered out of the system

Communicative success or failure affects the trajectory of language structure and change such that it inevitably settles towards a semantically unambiguous state

102 **Martinet (1952): mergers are more likely to proceed when**

- 103 (1) The values in opposition are phonetically similar
- 104 (2) The number of minimal morpheme pairs that the opposition is
105 responsible for is low
- 106 (3) The number of minimal pairs within a correlated opposition is low (or
107 the opposition is uncorrelated)
- 108 (4) The minimal pairs belong to different syntactic categories
- 109 (5) The lexical/token frequency of one or both members of the minimal
110 pairs is low
- 111 (6) The presence of additional morphological markers serves a
112 disambiguating function

113 **Six linguistic domains over which heterophone maintenance is observed:**

114

115 **(1) Heterophone maintenance in the lexical domain:** Sound mergers are
116 more likely to proceed unimpeded (to the point of globality) if
117 heterophony is maintained

118 **Wedel, Kaplan, and Jackson (2013):**

119 “[P]honeme pairs undergoing merger [previously distinguished]
120 significantly fewer minimal pairs in the lexicon than unmerged phoneme
121 pairs”

122 Eight languages: Korean, French, German, Dutch, Slovak, Spanish, Hong
123 Kong Cantonese

124 “The more minimal pairs, the less likely merger is”

125 **(2) Heterophone maintenance in the morphological domain:** root
126 homophony is indeed tolerated, but any counter-functional
127 consequences are offset by a concomitant morphological response

128 Chinese

129 Middle Chinese possessed monosyllabic root-final consonants
130 **p' t' k' m n ŋ** (still retained in Cantonese)

131 Mandarin now has only two: **n ŋ**

132 Mandarin possesses a significant amount of root homophony: Cantonese
133 has about 1800 syllable shapes, but Mandarin has only about 1300, with
134 largely equivalent semantic reference (Duanmu 2000)

135 Mandarin—but not Cantonese—co-evolved a huge inventory of two-root
136 compounds, which means that its words are now usually two syllables in
137 length, and so have ample opportunity to maintain distinctness

138 **(3) Heterophone maintenance in the phonological domain:** across-the-
139 board alternations are more likely to enter a language if heterophony is
140 largely maintained

141 **Korean** (Silverman 2010): Neutralizing alternations are rampant in
142 Korean. But out of 35,907 nouns in an online corpus, there are only 42
143 sets of homophones as a consequence of five categorical neutralizing
144 alternations investigated

Alternation	Number of nouns, both lexical and derived (out of 34,803)	homophonic sets	homophonic tokens (out of 1,234,323)
Aplosivization	10,138	15	6,117
Nasal lateralization	1,001	10	1001
Liquid nasalization	695	6	520
Nasal assimilation	7,592	10	732
Coronal assibilant	131	1	14
Cluster reinforcement	4,048	0	0
Totals:	13,258	42	8,384

146 Kaplan (2011) compares actual neutralization patterns to simulated
147 “hypothetical” patterns structurally similar to the actual patterns
148 In most cases, the actual pattern created fewer homophones than the
149 hypothetical ones

150 **“Lenition and Contrast”** (Gurevich 2004)

151 Investigated 230 phonetically conditioned sound changes/alternations,
152 mostly lenitions

153 92% are heterophone-maintaining

154 Gurevich: “This suggests that such processes [lenitions] do not operate
155 independently of functional considerations”

156 **(4) Heterophone maintenance in the phonotactic domain:** neutralizing
 157 alternations that otherwise apply pervasively are blocked from applying
 158 in particular phonotactic contexts, thus avoiding excessive derived
 159 homophony

160 **Hindi** (Silverman 2011)

161 Schwa alternates with zero in would-be **VCəCV** contexts (this is historic
 162 syncope, not epenthesis; Misra 1967)

163	pitʃka	squeezed	pitʃək	squeeze
164	pig^hla	melted	pig^həl	melt
165	dewrani	brother-in-law's wife	dewər	brother-in-law

166 The alternation is absent in **VCCəCV** and **VCəCCV**. Here, the middle **C**
 167 would be perilously susceptible to misperception: the loss of schwa in
 168 these contexts may lead to a percept involving only two—not three—
 169 consonants. **VCCəCV** and **VCəCCV** -> **VCCCV** -> **VCCV**. At this point, the
 170 chances of inducing homophony increase dramatically

171 *By hypothesis, syncope is blocked if it would induce significant homophony*
 172 *(study yet to be undertaken...!)*

173 But when **VCCCV**-creating syncope would *not* jeopardize the medial
 174 **C** (usually of the form *nasal - homorganic stop - sonorant*), it is variably
 175 observed (the stops do not possess oral values distinct from their
 176 preceding nasals):

177	kadəmbri ~ kadəmbəri	a novel, name for a girl
178	puṇḍrik ~ puṇḍərik	white lotus
179	məṇḍzri ~ məṇḍzəri	tiny cluster of flowers, name for a girl

180 **(5) Heterophone maintenance in the morpho-syntactic domain:**
 181 neutralizing alternations are blocked in those morphological paradigms
 182 where semantic ambiguity would otherwise result

183 **Trigrad Bulgarian** (Mondon 2009):

184 **o** lowers to **a** under stresslessness (a neutralizing alternation); consider
 185 the plural:

186 'rog “horn” - 'rog-ave “horns” - rag-a've-te “the horns”

187 Inflectional suffix **-a**:

188 'klob-a “ball of thread” 'rebr-a “rib”

189 But notice the *absence* of unstressed suffix lowering in a large group of
 190 neuter nouns:

191 'zorn-o “grain, seed” (not 'zorn-a)

192 'petal-o “horseshoe” (not 'petal-a)

193 If **-a** were employed here, the singular forms would be rendered
194 homophonous with their plural counterparts, since the nominative plural
195 marker is *always* **-a** in neuter nouns:

196 'zɔrn-**o** (sg.) - 'zɔrn-**a** (pl.)

197 'petal-**o** (sg.) - 'petal-**a** (pl.)

198 Mondon: “to prevent singular – plural homophony, vowel reduction does
199 not apply to these forms”

200 **Banoni** (Lincoln 1976, Mondon 2009, Blevins and Wedel 2009)

201 A lexical vowel length distinction has evolved from deletion of a
202 consonant between identical vowels:

203 **vom** “turtle” - **voim** “new”

204 This length contrast is now being lost

205 However, possessed nouns are marked *solely* by vowel length, and are
206 resisting the length merger

207 **tama** “father” - **tamai** “my father”

208 **kasi** “brother” - **kasii** “my brother”

209 Lincoln: “Banoni speakers tend to shorten long vowels, except when
210 necessary for disambiguation”

211 **Yucunany Mixtepec Mixtec** (Paster 2010)

212 Suppletive allomorphy in the clitic pronoun system maintains
213 heterophony

214 1s (/possessive) is ʼ with non-ʼ -final stems:

215	námá	“soap”	nâmâ	“my soap”
216	vílú	“cat	vîlû	“my cat”
217	sì'î	“leg”	sî'î	“my leg”

218 But it's **yù** with ʼ -final stems

219	sòkò	“shoulder”	sòkò yù	“my shoulder”
220	tūtù	“paper”	tūtù yù	“my paper”
221	chá'à	“short”	chá'à yù	“I am short”

222 Paster: “The majority of L-final stems that are understood...to be 1sg
223 forms will have the **yù** allomorph rather than the floating L”

224 Many examples considered by Gessner and Hansson (2004) Blevins
225 (2004) and Blevins and Wedel (2009)

226 Gessner and Hansson (2004) on “anti-homophony” syncope blocking in
227 **Dakelh (Carrier)**

228 Blevins (2004) on “anti-homophony”-“anti-gemination” syncope blocking,
229 mostly in **Afro-Asiatic (Arabic dialects, Tiberian and Modern Hebrew,**
230 **East Cushitic)**: “[S]yncope between identical consonants appears to be
231 blocked just in case its output would give rise to neutralization of a
232 *paradigmatic* opposition”

233 Blevins and Wedel (2009) on “inhibited sound change” in **Classical Greek,**
234 **Estonian and Livonian, and Yurok**

235 **(6) Heterophone maintenance in the pragmatic domain:** neutralizing
 236 alternations that otherwise apply pervasively are blocked “on line”, due to
 237 situation-specific semantic factors

238 **Catalan** (Charles-Luce 1993):

239 “[T]he perception and production of spoken words is affected
 240 differentially by the presence and absence of higher levels of linguistic
 241 information and...the degree of precision of articulation is inversely
 242 proportional to the presence of semantic information”

243 Final devoicing is more likely to be nearly-neutralized (as opposed to
 244 completely neutralized) in pragmatic contexts that would otherwise be
 245 semantically ambiguous

246	rik	“rich”	riġ	“I laugh, pres. ind.”
247	duk	“duke”	duġ	“I carry, pres. ind.”
248	fat	“fate”	faɖ	“tasteless, masc.”
249	sɛk	“dry, masc”	sɛġ	“I set down, pres. ind.”
250	sɛt	“seven”	sɛɖ	“thirst”

251 In semantically unambiguous contexts, devoicing was usually complete:
252 complete neutralization was tolerated when it nonetheless resulted in a
253 semantically unambiguous speech signal

254 In semantically ambiguous contexts, devoicing was often incomplete:
255 complete neutralization was observed less often if it would have resulted
256 in a semantically ambiguous speech signal

257 **English** (Gahl 2008)

258 Frequency-of-word-usage inversely correlates with word duration:
259 “homophones” (either lexical or derived) are produced with different
260 durations, depending largely on their frequency-of-use: “thyme” is longer
261 than “time”

262 **Related phenomenon #1: neighborhood density effects**

263 **English** (Wright 2004): in dense lexical neighborhoods, vowels may be
264 hyperarticulated, presumably to ensure semantic clarity

265 **English** (Munson and Solomon 2004): Dense neighborhood words are
266 hyper-articulated and frequent words are hypo-articulated

267 **Related phenomenon #2: the non-coarticulatory origins of language-**
268 **specific patterns of coarticulation**

269 Language-particular patterns of coarticulation may (at least in part) be
270 attributable to language-particular system of contrastive values, hence
271 semantic distinctions

272 Öhman (1966): In **Swedish** and **English VCV** contexts, trans-consonantal
273 vowel coarticulation is greater than in **Russian**, in which the consonants
274 may be contrastively palatalized

275 Coarticulation may be curtailed in systems where lexical contrasts might
276 otherwise be jeopardized

277 Manuel and Krakow (1984), Manuel (1990, 1999): In **CVC** contexts, five-
278 vowel systems like **Shona** and **Swahili** may display more vowel
279 coarticulation than in a language like **English**

280 “Because the vowel inventories of Shona and Swahili are small, they can
281 presumably tolerate larger ranges of production without running the risk of
282 encroaching on each other’s distinctive spaces”

283 See also Clumeck 1976, Beddor, Krakow, and Goldstein 1986, Recasens
284 1987, Recasens, Pallarès and Fontdevila 1998, Beddor and Krakow 1999,
285 Beddor, Harnsberger and Lindemann 2002)

286 **Coarticulation may be conventionalized on a language-specific basis in**
287 **ways that bear the clear mark of lexical semantic pressure; language-**
288 **particular patterns of coarticulation may have *semantic* origins**

289 **So-called “low-level” or “phonetic” effects may in fact be the result of**
290 **deep, systemic, historical pressures many times removed from the**
291 **physical systems that proximally underlie speech**

292 **Neutralization and parsing**

293 Recall:

294 Neutralization is only function-negative to the extent that it increases
295 homophony

296 In most cases, neutralization increases lexical semantic clarity by
297 clarifying cues to morpheme and especially word boundaries

298 **Cement** (Kruszewski 1883):

299 Due to the constant repetition of speech motor routines—and the
300 especially frequent repetition of word-internal speech motor routines—
301 morphemes within words come to phonetically “accommodate”
302 (assimilate) to one another. Word-internal assimilations tend to result in
303 suspension of contrast within some lexical domain, the functional
304 consequences of which may serve as an aid in parsing: the less-frequent
305 phonetic patterns across word-boundaries are thus set in high phonetic
306 relief against the suspended background

307 **Boundary signals** (Trubetzkoy 1939):

308 “In addition to the phonological means serving to distinguish individual
309 units of meaning (sememes), each language has a number of means that
310 effect the delimitation of such individual units of meaning...[E]ach
311 language possesses specific, phonological means that signal the presence
312 or absence of a sentence, word, or morpheme boundary at a specific
313 point in the sound continuum”

314 “Positive” boundary signals cue the presence of a boundary

315 “Negative” boundary signals cue the absence of a boundary, etc.

316 **Prosodies** (Firth 1948):

317 *Prosodies* are those elements of the speech stream that impart
318 syntagmatic information

319 A prosody may consist of a segment-sized element, a sub-segment-
320 sized element, or a supra-segment-sized element

321 **Danish** stød (“glottal stop”): “The Danish glottal stop...occurs chiefly with
322 sounds said to be originally long, and in final position only in stressed
323 syllables. If the word in question loses its stress for rhythmical or other
324 reasons, it also loses the glottal stop. It is therefore best considered
325 prosodically as a feature of syllable structure and word formation.”

326 **Transitional probabilities** (Saffran et al. 1996):

327 The statistically rare sound sequences found at word boundaries serve to
328 cue these boundaries

329 The necessary flipside to this finding is that statistically more prevalent
330 sound sequences—those involving contrast suspension within some
331 domain—may function as “negative boundary signals”

332 frequency of pair **xy**

333 frequency of **x**

334 If this ratio is high, the presence of **x** is a good predictor of a following **y**;
335 such sequences might thus serve as negative boundary signals

336 If this ratio is low, then the sequence **xy** may serve as a positive
337 boundary signal

338 The functional role of transitional probabilities in terms of signaling
339 boundaries is a purely statistical calculation over physical objects
340 (speech tokens)

341 Unlike real language use, there is no role for lexical semantic feedback
342 in such analyses

343 In real-world contexts the utility of transitional probabilities cannot be
344 accurately gauged, since any statistical calculations engaged in by
345 language learners is necessarily accompanied by lexical semantic
346 feedback

347 In sum, the ubiquitous interaction of **phonetic** and **semantic** pressures
348 influence:

349 **Phonetic dispersion of motor routines**

350 **Heterophony maintenance**

351 **Boundary signals**

352 **Labov (1994):** “It is not the desire to be understood, but rather the
353 consequence of misunderstanding that influences language change. This
354 mechanism implies a mismatch between producer and interpreter: the
355 type of built-in instability that we would expect to find behind long-term
356 shifts in language behavior”

357 **Labov (1994):** “We should not be embarrassed if we find that systematic
358 readjustments in...language are governed by the same cognitive faculty
359 that governs the social behavior of [lower animals]...We are products of
360 evolving history, not only our own but that of the animal kingdom as a
361 whole, and our efforts to understand language will be informed by an
362 understanding of this continuity with other populations of socially
363 oriented animals”

364 The predictions of the heterophony-maintenance proposal are crystal
365 clear: if we can find a language in which communicative success has
366 become genuinely eroded as a consequence of phonetically-based
367 semantic ambiguity, the proposal would be shown incorrect

368 The incontestable fact that we will never find such a language means that
369 we can table heterophony-maintenance as a topic of controversy, and
370 get on with the business of using it as a framework for linguistic inquiry

371 Our job now is to employ post-hoc analyses of our acquired data with the
372 goal of isolating and motivating the myriad functional pressures that
373 might act on its structure

Neutralization

Daniel Silverman

KEY TOPICS IN PHONOLOGY

CAMBRIDGE

Questions:

“If sound change is triggered by local lexical pressures, why do systems come to respond globally in terms of the motor routines they deploy?”

Speech consists of motor activities that are repeated and routinized; that is, speech involves *motor routines*

When semantic pressures come to passively act on these motor routines, the consequent repetition of the altered pattern may activate change, acting as *attractor states*, (see also Schuchardt (/Bybee))

These changes may generalize exactly because they don't induce semantic confusion in the rest of the lexicon

Lexical semantic pressures may trigger systemic motor changes

Mergers may be avoided *not* to optimize the system as a whole (Liljencrants and Lindblom 1972, Flemming 1995, de Boer 2001). Rather, the system's inevitable success is a passive consequence of locally-triggered changes in language use

390 **“Wait a minute. In Southern French global merger was tolerated, and**
391 **individual words responded, but don’t you propose that mergers should**
392 **be blocked under such circumstances?**

393 No. A few well-placed potential homophones should not be expected to
394 hold back a merger, especially since languages may respond just as this
395 French dialect did

396 Predictive value is not lost: these issues are subject to empirical
397 verification

398 **“If language are structured so as to avoid semantic ambiguity (in the**
399 **form of heterophone maintenance, among other pressures), then why**
400 **should systems ever put themselves at risk, only to “seek out” a**
401 **response that countervails the ensuing threat?”**

402 Language is *not* inexorably destined towards any particular end-state,
403 functionally efficacious or otherwise

404 Just as in the evolution of species, there is a plethora of pressures, some
405 working in harmony, others in a state of antagonism, that are all subject
406 to any number of contingent factors

407 There may be a slow-going diachronic tendency towards a lack of
408 acoustic clarity among neighboring speech motor routines, resulting in
409 coarticulation that, left unchecked, might further evolve toward a
410 genuinely assimilatory state, oftentimes resulting in neutralization and, in
411 the limiting case, homophony

412 But along with such slow-going phonetic pressures on language structure,
413 there are also slow-going semantic pressures: any passive phonetic
414 pressures towards acoustic indistinctness among lexical forms will
415 ultimately encounter a counter-pressure that inhibits undue decreases in
416 semantic indistinctness

417 These pressures are “end-state-blind”: one pressure will not be inhibited
418 because it “knows” that it might someday culminate in a counter-
419 functional linguistic state

420 It is consequence of language *use* that languages settle towards a
421 semantically unambiguous state

422

423 **“If Heterophone maintenance really is a driving (though passive)**
424 **pressure on language structure and language change, then why don’t**
425 **we see evidence of its power all over the place?”**

426 Heterophone maintenance is not an *active* pressure for which there is an
427 abundance of overt evidence

428 Heterophone maintenance is a *passive* result of the pressures that
429 inherently act upon interlocutionary events

430 The very fact that language is not chock full of homophones provides
431 evidence—however indirect—that heterophone maintenance is indeed a
432 genuine pressure passively acting on language structure and language
433 change

434 **“Regarding ‘pragmatic pressures’ in particular, are you proposing that**
435 **linguistic change is teleological?”**

436 No: in situations where a completely neutralized token might result in
437 confusing homophony, speakers dip into their pool of “clear speech
438 tokens” encountered in comparable situations

439 As a mere by-product of their randomly sampling the tokens in this pool,
440 the probability is high that this token is merely nearly-neutralized, as
441 opposed to completely-neutralized

442 Speakers are not striving to make the speech signal clearer for the
443 listener “on the fly”. Rather, clear speech signals are a passive
444 consequence of speakers’ matching their own speech patterns to those in
445 their linguistic experience

446 Variable behaviors in lower animals may be characterized comparably

447 Gyger & Marler (1988) observed the natural food-calling behavior of
448 males in a free-ranging situation

449 When a male found food and called, females approached in 53-86% of
450 cases, depending on the food

451 When males called in the absence of food (i.e., dishonestly), females only
452 approached 29% of the time

453 Males were more likely to call honestly when females were nearby, and
454 to call dishonestly when females were far away

455 Do the males intend to deceive? No. *Context-dependent variable*
456 *behaviors may be inherited*

457 **“What about King’s (1967) work addressing Martinet’s Functional Load**
458 **proposals?”**

459 King’s definition of the term “functional load” possesses two
460 components:

- 461 (1) “The global text frequencies of the two phonemes involved,” and
462 (2) “The degree to which [the two phonemes] contrast in all possible
463 environments, where environment means, roughly speaking, one
464 phoneme to the left and right.”

465 Neither of these contexts targets Martinet’s crucial “minimal pair”
466 criterion.

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