

# Bantu harmony locality variation is autosegmental

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# I Introduction

## I.1 Talk summary

- **Topic:** locality problem in long-distance assimilatory processes
  - how do we define what should be visible to a process?
  - how do we define what should participate in a process?
- **Study:** micro-variation in Bantu height harmony
- **Problem:** ternary typology with respect to non-assimilating segments
  - \* popular approaches to harmony locality only predict 2
- **Solution:** Privative Contrastive Hierarchy Theory (Sandstedt 2018, Iosad 2017)
  - ternary contrast in feature specifications
  - combined with simple harmony licensing (Walker 2005)
  - traditional autosegmental spreading
    - ☞ predicts exactly the observed typology

## I.2 Linguistic background

This paper contrasts three closely related languages:

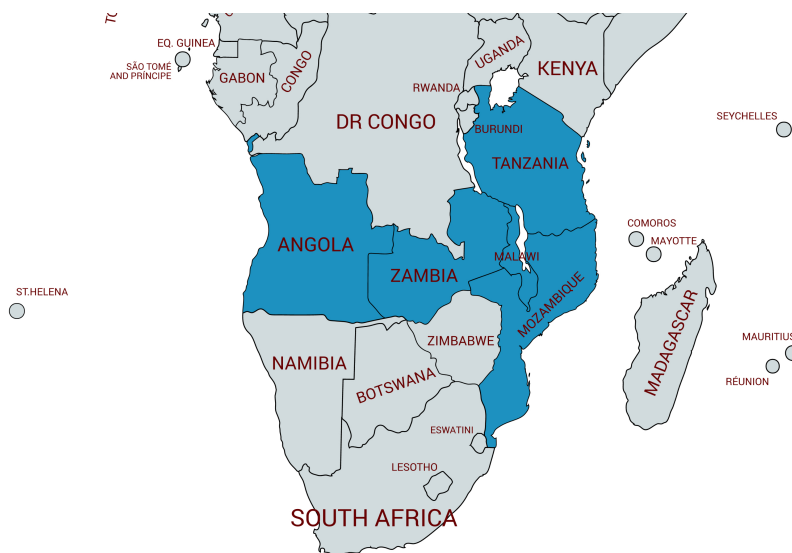
- Chewa (N.31, Chichewa; Downing & Mtenje 2017)
  - spoken in Zambia, Malawi, and Mozambique
- Mbunda (K.15, aka Kimbunda; Gowlett 1970)
  - spoken in Angola and Zambia
- Ndendeule (N.101, aka Kindendeule; Ngonyani 2004)
  - spoken in the Namtumbo district, Ruvuma region of Tanzania

### Phonological similarity

All three languages display similar phonological and morphological patterns

- **Today:** [-eɪ, -il] height harmony and non-assimilating low vowels in (1)

- (1) Mbunda height harmony on APPL.-FV. [-eɪ-a, -il-a]
- |      |                     |             |                    |         |
|------|---------------------|-------------|--------------------|---------|
| HIGH | l <u>u</u> m-il-a   | ‘cultivate’ | t <u>u</u> ng-il-a | ‘build’ |
| MID  | n <u>e</u> n-eɪ-a   | ‘bring’     | o <u>c</u> -eɪ-a   | ‘roast’ |
| LOW  | kwat <u>a</u> -eɪ-a | ‘hold’      |                    |         |



**Figure 1:** Chewa, Mbunda, and Ndendeule geography

## Bantu locality variation

Harmony variation comes in different kinds

- representational, prosodic, metrical, and morphological restrictions
  - harmony applies roughly within the verbal derivational stem
  - prefixes do not harmonise
  - word-final vowels do not harmonise in Chewa

**Today:** representationally generalisable locality exceptions

- e.g. low vowels never harmonise
  - regardless the morphology or position

**Fundamental claim:** phonological variation which is generalisable in terms of representations relates to representational structure

## 1.3 Vowel systems

### 5V and 7V inventories

The vowel inventories of Chewa, Mbunda, and Ndendeule are provided below in (2).

- all three display similar high /i, u/ vs. non-high /e, o/ contrasts and alternations (1)

- Ndendeule displays an additional tongue root contrast as well as tongue root harmony on mid vowels
- for the sake of space, I abstract away from these tongue root contrasts today, but see [Sandstedt \(2018: §2.4\)](#) for a fuller analysis of Ndendeule dual height and tongue root harmony

(2) **Mbunda, Chewa, and Ndendeule 3 and 4 height contrasts**

i	u	i	u	i	u
e	o	e	o	e	o
a		a		ɛ	ɔ
				a	
(a) Mbunda (K.15)	(b) Chewa (N.31)	(c) Ndendeule (N.101)			

Vowel length is generally not contrastive in these languages

- but they may display penultimate lengthening as a reflex of predictable stress placement
  - e.g. Chewa [góon-a] ‘to sleep’ but [gón-éél-á] ‘to sleep on something’ ([Hyman 2009](#), [Downing & Mtenje 2017](#))

Vowel length has no effect on vowel harmony

- for the ease of explication of harmony patterns vowel length is not represented in this paper

## 1.4 Harmony descriptive generalisations

Mbunda, Ndendeule, and Chewa display cognate harmony patterns in (3)

- spreading from root-initial to non-initial syllables
- resulting in high/non-high [i, u] ~ [e, o] alternations on suffixes

## High/non-high harmony patterns

### (3) Non-/high harmony alternations: applicative [-il, -el]

#### a) Mbunda (K.15):

<u>l</u> im-il-a	‘cultivate for’	t <u>u</u> ng-il-a	‘build for’
n <u>e</u> n-el-a	‘bring to’	<u>o</u> c-el-a	‘roast for’

#### b) Ndendeule (N.101):

y <u>i</u> b-il-a	‘steal from/for’	t <u>u</u> l-il-a	‘skin with/for/on’
y <u>e</u> mb-el-a	‘sing for/with’	b <u>o</u> l-el-a	‘teach for/with/at’

#### c) Chewa (N.31):

ph <u>i</u> k-il-a	‘cook for’	kh <u>u</u> t-il-a	‘be satisfied with’
ts <u>e</u> k-el-a	‘close for’	k <u>o</u> k-el-a	‘pull out for’

## Labial restrictions on harmony

All three languages display an orthogonal harmony restriction based on vowel backness or rounding

- labial vowel suffixes will only harmonise with other labial vowels (4a)

- /tomb-ul-a/ → [tomb-ol-a]
- /tek-ul-a/ → [tek-ul-a], not \*[tek-ol-a]

### (4) Non-/labial height harmony asymmetries: reversion [-ul, -ol]

#### a) Mbunda (K.15):

z <u>i</u> t-ul-a	‘untie’	k <u>u</u> p-ul-a	‘bail out’
t <u>e</u> k-ul-a	‘draw water’	t <u>o</u> mb-ol-a	‘uproot’
*t <u>e</u> k-ol-a			

#### b) Ndendeule (N.101):

h <u>i</u> b-ul-a	‘unplug’	h <u>u</u> mb-ul-a	‘discover’
hy <u>e</u> k-ul-a	‘uncover’	t <u>o</u> ng-ol-a	‘pick fruit from tree’
*hy <u>e</u> k-ol-a			

#### c) Chewa (N.31):

p <u>i</u> tik-ul-a	‘overturn’	f <u>u</u> nth-ul-a	‘loosen’
ts <u>e</u> k-ul-a	‘open’	w <u>o</u> nj-ol-a	‘spring a trap’
*ts <u>e</u> k-ol-a			

The patterns in (4) are an example of so-called *parasitic harmony*

- harmony for some feature [F] is limited by orthogonal [G] feature specifications

- results in a marked/unmarked asymmetry where labial harmony targets are picky harmony recipients while non-labial segments are not; cf. non-labial, non-picky suffixes in (3)
- for the sake of space, I abstract away from labial contrasts and parasitic harmony asymmetries in this talk, but see Sandstedt (2018: §3.3) for a contrastive hierarchy theoretic treatment of parasitic harmony

**Parasitic harmony insight:** all three languages involve **height harmony via vowel lowering**

☞ in neutral harmony contexts, vowels display failed *lowering*, not failed vowel *raising*

## Low vowel neutrality

Low vowels are invariably non-alternating/non-harmonising in all three languages

- e.g. [sɪkam-a], not \*[sɪkəm-ə] (5a)

### (5) Low vowels are non-participants

a) Mbunda (K.15):

sɪkam-a 'pay a visit'  
jɛndam-a 'bow'

tɯmam-a 'sit'  
ɔkam-a 'become thin'

b) Ndendeule (N.101):

yɪg-an-a 'imitate each other'  
pɛng-an-a 'block each other'

tɯm-an-a 'send each other'  
yɔp-an-a 'ask each other'

c) Chewa (N.31):

chɪngam-il-a 'welcome someone'  
wɛlam-a 'bend'

lɯngam-a 'be righteous'  
pɔlam-a 'stoop'

## Non-participants are harmonically neutral

Bantu /a/ is an example of **neutral segments**

**Neutral segment:** a segment which categorically fails to harmonise; a non-alternating segment

## Low vowel variation

Low /a/ is invariably non-alternating but displays three different patterns in word-medial and root-initial positions (6)

- **active** and **visible** harmonic blocking in Mbunda
- **inactive** but **visible** neutral blocking in Chewa
- **inactive** and **invisible** transparency in Ndendeule

(6) /a/ harmony in/activity and in/visibility across three Bantu languages

a) Mbunda (K.15) harmonic blocking /a/:

kwat-e -	'hold'-APPL.	active	/a...i/	→	[a...e]
tumam-e -	'sit'-APPL.	visible	/u...a...i/	→	[u...a...e]
okam-e -	'become thin'-APPL.	visible	/o...a...i/	→	[o...a...e]

b) Ndendeule (N.101) transparent /a/:

kang-il-	'push'-APPL.	inactive	/a...i/	→	[a...i]
hiya l-il-	'become white'-APPL.	invisible	/i...a...i/	→	[i...a...i]
koβal-e -	'stumble'-APPL.	invisible	/o...a...i/	→	[o...a...e]

c) Chewa (N.31) neutral blocking /a/:

vál-il-	'get dressed'-APPL.	inactive	/a...i/	→	[a...i]
chinga-il-	'welcome someone'-APPL.	visible	/i...a...i/	→	[i...a...i]
polam-il-	'stoop'-APPL.	visible	/o...a...i/	→	[o...a...i]

## Variation in activity and visibility

The behaviour of neutral segments may be summarised along two dimensions

- phonological **activity** and **visibility** as in (7)

(7) Ternary contrast in neutral segments' harmony visibility and activity

	visible	invisible
<b>active</b>	Mbunda (K.15) <i>harmonic blocker</i>	
<b>inactive</b>	Chewa (N.31) <i>neutral blocking</i>	Ndendeule (N.101) <i>transparent segments</i>

The divisions in (7) illustrate two dichotomies

- segments trigger harmony (Mbunda) or they don't (Chewa, Ndendeule)
- segments are transparent to harmony (Ndendeule) or they're not (Mbunda, Chewa)

The greyed out category (active but invisible) is unattested

- e.g. active in trigger positions but invisible in target positions

☞ activity and visibility are not entirely independent

- presumably, if a segment has the harmony feature (evidenced by triggering)
- then it has the structure that harmony targets in target positions
- \* in other words, visibility is a precondition for activity

## 1.5 The problem with harmony neutrality

### The problem: presumed activity = visibility equivalence

The issue is that existing approaches to harmony variation typically do not appreciate the nuanced relationship in (7)

- equating phonological activity and visibility

Specifically, a feature or segment is commonly assumed to be phonologically *active* + *visible*:

- in derivational terms if it is present in the structural or applicational description of some rule (Dresher 2015; Hall & Hall 2016)
  - the rule in (8) refers *both* to visible targets (i.e. /i/) and active triggers (–high vowels)

$$(8) \quad i \rightarrow e / \left[ \begin{array}{c} +\text{syllabic} \\ -\text{high} \end{array} \right] -$$

- in non-derivational frameworks if it is referred to by an ‘active’ constraint (a constraint which is visible in at least some derivation; Kiparsky 2017)

☞ satisfied **both** by active triggers and visible targets

- if visible targets must be active triggers and vice versa:
- no way to be visible but inactive
  - \* ruling out Chewa-style neutral blocking (6)

### The activity–visibility dichotomy across frameworks

The activity–visibility equivalence is formalised in a variety of ways across frameworks

Agreement by Correspondence:

- either included (active/visible) or excluded (inactive/invisible) from the correspondence set (Rose & Walker 2004)

Binary contrastive hierarchy scope asymmetries:

- segments either within (active/visible) or outside (inactive/invisible) the scope of the harmony feature (Dresher 2009)

Featural under/specification:



- specified (active/visible) or underspecified (inactive/invisible) for a harmony feature (Archangeli 1988)

Contrastive relativisation:

- processes may compute all or only contrastive specifications (Nevins 2010; Calabrese 1995, 2005)

### Neutral blocking doesn't fit

Chewa neutral blocking breaks the activity=visibility equivalence

- /a/ fails to trigger harmony: implies inactive/invisible transparency
- /a/ is a visible blocker of harmony: implies active/visible harmonic blocking

### Neutral blocking requires something extra

Neutral blocking = transparency + syllable adjacency

- /a/ is inactive (non-triggering) and invisible (non-target)
  - but harmony cannot skip syllables
  - resulting in what looks like neutral blocking

Neutral blocking = harmonic blocking + trigger–target similarity for [low]

- /a/ is visible (blocking) and active (triggering)
  - but [–low] /i, u/ and [+low] /a/ are too dissimilar
  - therefore /a/ fails to trigger harmony
  - resulting in what looks like neutral blocking

### Problems with composite approaches to neutral blocking

- **ad hoc**
  - little independent motivation
    - \* syllable adjacency and trigger–target similarity are only motivated by the data they're supposed to explain (restatement of the facts)
- **no unified account**
  - only harmonic blocking and transparency
  - neutral blocking is an epiphenomenon of a variety of constraint interactions

- **potentially wrong typological predictions**
    - neutral blocking requires more complex or more specific grammatical machinery
    - nevertheless, the canonical pattern in Bantu
    - all three patterns widely attested
  - **no one size fits all**
    - Old Norwegian height harmony (Sandstedt 2018)
      - \* harmonic blocking /æ, a/ + neutral blocking /ɛ, ɔ/
    - Khalkha or Halh (Mongolian) labial harmony (Svantesson et al. 2008)
      - \* transparent /i/ + neutral blocking /u, ʊ/
- ☞ independent phenomena; neutral blocking not reducible to one solution

## Too restrictive and too permissive

Existing approaches are:

- **Too restrictive:**
  - recurrently ruling out commonly attested sound pattern
  - requiring additional constraints, parameters, etc.
    - \* no unified solution
    - \* ad hoc, weakly motivated
    - \* potentially incorrect typological predictions

☞ risking making our frameworks too permissive

## 2 The Contrastive Hierarchy approach

### 2.1 Representational preliminaries

I present a new approach based on a novel version of Contrastive Hierarchy Theory (CHT; Sandstedt 2018)

- using privative features and feature-nodes (cf. Iosad 2017)

This approach incorporates insights from emergent and substance-free feature theories (Mielke 2008; Blaho 2008; Iosad 2017)

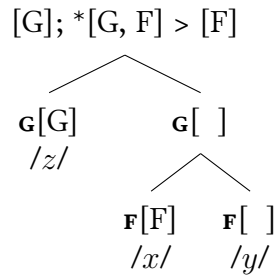
- i.e. features and class organisation do not exist a priori but must be extracted from the data; principally abstract categories independent of articulatory or acoustic substance/reference

**Emergent feature geometry:** The hierarchical organisation of the CHT architecture combined with non-innate, substance-free features produces a kind of emergent feature geometry

- posited by the language learner based on language-particular phonological activity (i.e. contrasts and alternations) and visibility (i.e. locality asymmetries)

## Contrastive hierarchies

Fig. 3 provides an abstract example of a contrastive hierarchy



**Figure 3:** Feature classes and sub-classes in a privative contrastive hierarchy

Contrastive hierarchies are built via the recursive division of an inventory according to a set of features and feature co-occurrence restrictions, as described by [Iosad \(2017: 42\)](#):

The hierarchy is essentially a bootstrapping device, which allows the learner to introduce order into the system of phonological contrasts by breaking the phonological space down into more manageable subinventories.

## 2.2 The Successive Division Algorithm

Contrastive hierarchies are built according to the Successive Division Algorithm (SDA)

- producing  $[F]$  vs. (non- $F$ ) sub-inventories for each feature

A slightly simplified version of the SDA from [Sandstedt \(2018: 42\)](#) is provided in (9).

### (9) Successive Division Algorithm

- The input (I) to the algorithm is one or more ordered feature and feature co-occurrence restrictions (e.g.  $[F]; *[F, G] > [G]$ )
- If I is found to contain a feature, then it is divided into two (non-empty) sub-inventories: a marked set  $M$ , to which is assigned  $\mathbf{f}[F]$ , and its unmarked complement set  $\bar{M}$ , to which is assigned  $\mathbf{f}[\ ]$ , obeying  $*[F, G]$  co-occurrence restrictions

- c.  $M$  and  $\bar{M}$  are then treated as the input to the algorithm; the process continues until all features are divided

The SDA consists of three important components:

1. features are hierarchically divided into binary-branching feature classes
  - ⇒ hierarchical organisation of features
2. each sub-inventory is associated with an emergent feature-node
  - ⇒ geometric grouping into classes
3. the relative hierarchical ordering of features is cross-linguistically variable
  - ⇒ emergent or cross-linguistically varying phonological classes

## Features vs. feature-nodes

Features and feature-nodes are very similar phonological objects

- they define relationships of *sameness* and *difference*
  - only at different levels

**Feature-nodes** define feature contrastivity

- a feature node  $F$  indicates the existence of a contrast
  - distinguishing the  $[F]$ -contrastive set  $/x\ y/$  from non-contrastive  $/z/$ 
    - \* feature-nodes are emergent; class behaviour is strictly a function of feature scope in the hierarchy
    - \* no class organisation independent of the hierarchy

**Features** differentiate sub-inventories of each feature contrast (e.g.  $/x/$  vs.  $/y/$ )

- the marked (dominant) class is assigned a feature-node  $F$  as well as a privative feature specification  $[F]$ 
  - e.g.  $F[F] /x/$
- the unmarked (recessive) class bears an empty or bare node  $F[ ]$  and is non-specified for the feature
  - e.g.  $F[ ] /y/$

## Phonological visibility $\neq$ activity

This framework formally distinguishes *phonological activity* from *phonological visibility*

### Phonological visibility

- defined by feature scope
  - feature-nodes define locality domains in classic autosegmental phonology fashion (Avery & Rice 1989; Odden 1994)
  - bearing an **F**-node guarantees visibility to [F] processes

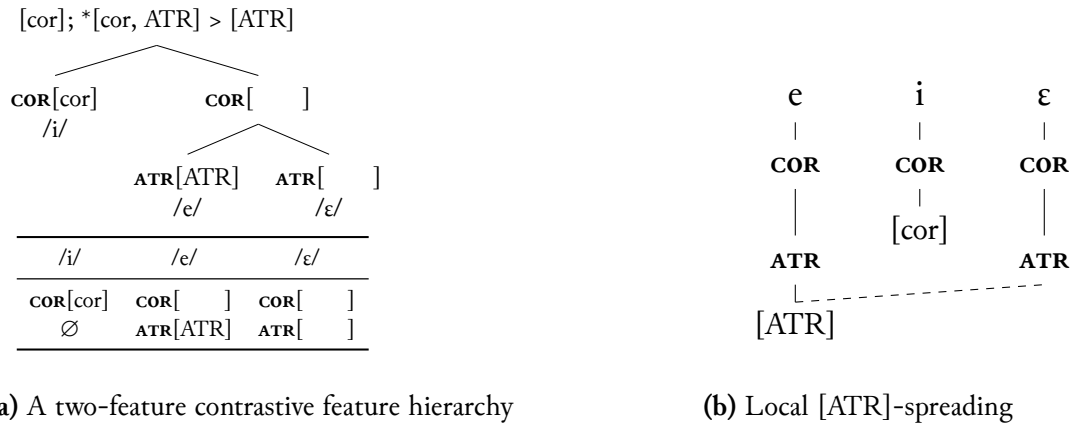
### Phonological activity

- defined by feature specifications
  - [F]-specified segments are active feature donors
  - non-specified segments are not

### Activity and visibility illustrated

Fig. 4 provides a toy example of a contrastive hierarchy and [ATR]-spreading with /i/-transparency

- the order of features and feature-nodes in Fig. 4b is defined by the contrastive hierarchy
- /e ε/ are contrastive for [ATR]
  - **ATR**[ATR] /e/ is a dominant trigger
  - **ATR**[ ] /ε/ is a recessive target
- /i/ is non-contrastively underspecified
  - inactive and invisible to [ATR]-processes



**Figure 4:** Local [ATR]-spreading between contrastively specified triggers and non-specified targets as defined by a hierarchy with ternary  $\text{ATR}[\text{ATR}]$ ,  $\text{ATR}[ ]$ , and  $\emptyset$  featural specifications

## Phonological activity and visibility are not independent

The CH architecture captures the nuanced relationship between phonological activity/visibility

- visibility is a pre-condition for activity
- activity guarantees visibility
- i.e. having [F] implies having **F**
  - ruling out unattested active but invisible neutral segments

## 2.3 Building contrastive hierarchies

### Bantu representational diagnostics

A set of representational diagnostics based on Bantu harmony patterns are outlined in (10)

- based on observed phonological activity in the three languages

(10) **Descriptive generalisations and representational diagnostics**

- a) /e/ displays systematic harmony alternations with /i/ in (3)

☞ /e, i/ must be minimally paired for the harmony feature [F]

- b) Harmony targets are non-open in neutral harmony contexts in (4)

– i.e. [F]-harmony involves active vowel lowering

☞ /e/ is specified [F]; /i/ is contrastively non-specified (non-F)

- c) /a/ vs. /e i/ contrasts; /a/ fails to undergo [F]-harmony in (5)

☞ /a/ must be specified for some orthogonal feature [G] which cannot freely co-occur with [F]

## Formalising the representations

The representational diagnostics in (10ab) imply the contrastive hierarchy in Fig. 5

- i.e. pairing /e, i/ for some lowering/non-raising harmony feature specified on /e/
  - labelled [open] for clarity's sake

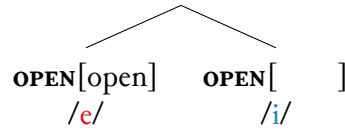


Figure 5: [open] /e/ vs. non-open /i/ contrasts

## Hierarchically organising an asymmetric inventory

The third representational diagnostic in (10c) indicates some inventory asymmetry

- low /a/ is specified for some feature [G] which cannot freely co-occur with [F]
- we will label [G] as [low] for clarity's sake

According to CHT, there are exactly three ways low vowels could be categorised with respect to open/non-open vowel contrasts

- outside the scope of open contrasts (Fig. 6a)
- within the scope of open contrasts (Fig. 6ab)
  - co-occurring with [open] (Fig. 6c)
  - not co-occurring with [open] (Fig. 6b)

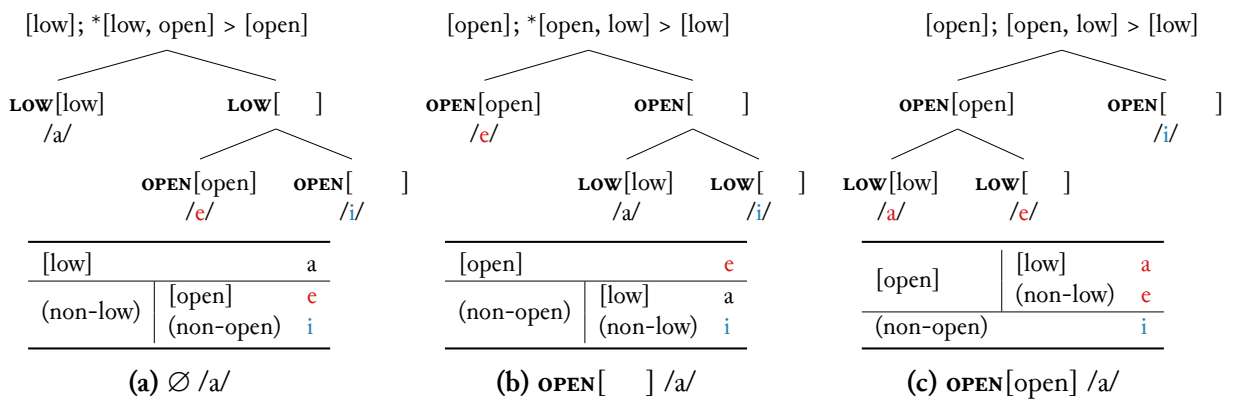


Figure 6: Ternary OPEN[open], OPEN[ ], and Ø/a/-specifications in three privative contrastive feature hierarchies

The representations in Fig. 6 reflect the logical range of ways in which any asymmetric set of three things can be hierarchically organised while maintaining the harmonic pairing between /e, i/ for [open]

We may logically divide the set into one of the following:

- Fig. 6a:
  - 1) low /a/ vs. non-low /e i/
  - 2) mid /e/ vs. high /i/
- Fig. 6b:
  - 1) mid /e/ vs. non-mid /a i/
  - 2) low /a/ vs. high /i/
- Fig. 6c:
  - 1) non-high /a e/ vs. high /i/
  - 2) low /a/ vs. mid /e/

## Representational equivalence

The representations in Fig. 6 are very similar, assuming the same features and varying only in scope and feature co-occurrence restrictions

- Fig. 6a and Fig. 6b differ only with respect to hierarchical scope
  - [low] > [open] in Fig. 6a
  - [open] > [low] in Fig. 6b
- Fig. 6b and Fig. 6c differ only with respect to feature co-occurrence
  - \*[open, low] (prohibited co-occurrence) in Fig. 6b
  - [open, low] (obligatory co-occurrence) in Fig. 6c<sup>1</sup>

---

<sup>1</sup>Obligatory feature co-occurrence may be interpreted as a form of licensing (cf. Iosad 2017: §4.2.5; Walker 2005, 2011), as defined in (i) below. According to these approaches, the relationship between [open] and [low] features is uni-directional; [low] must co-occur with [open] but not necessarily the other way around. For example, the inventory in Fig. 6c includes [open, low] /a/, [open] /e/, but no non-open \*[low] /ə/. As with prohibited \*[open, low] co-occurrence restrictions, obligatory [open, low] co-occurrence prohibits /a/ from undergoing harmony alternations (i.e. /a, \*ə/), consistent with the representational diagnostics in (10).

(i) LICENSE([low], [open]): '[low] must be associated with [open]'.



## 2.4 Harmony grammar

### Harmony as feature licensing

The basic insights of Bantu height harmony can be captured by the simple licensing principle in (11)

- adapted from Walker (2005) – inspired by Nevins (2010)

- (11) LICENSE(NON-INITIAL-V-**OPEN**, [open]):  
‘Non-initial vowels which are contrastive for [open] should be associated with [open]’

The licensing principle in (11) specifies:

1. what positions harmonise
2. for what feature

LICENSE(NON-INITIAL-V-**OPEN**, [open]) motivates [open]-spreading from initial to non-initial syllables in all three languages

☞ the languages differ only with respect to their featural organisation

### Contrastive hierarchy limitations

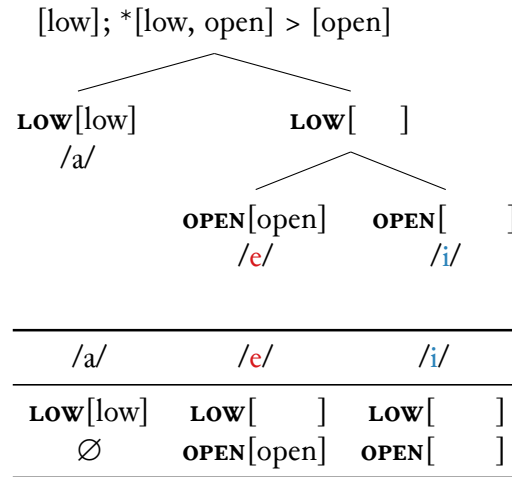
The licensing principle in (11) is limited by the representations in the contrastive hierarchy

**Representational restrictions on outputs:** the contrastive hierarchy represents limitations on permissible phonological *outputs* at the relevant stratum

### Example harmony derivations

An illustration of the harmony licensing principle in action in Ndendeule is provided below in (12)

- based on the representations in Fig. 6a or Fig. 7 where [low] is categorised outside of [open]-contrasts (the Ndendeule transparent type)
- note that the feature specifications and order of feature nodes in (12) are defined by the specifications and order of featural divisions in Fig. 7



**Figure 7:** Ndendeule height contrasts with non-contrastively underspecified non-open /a/

(I2) Ndendeule height harmony as privative [open]-spreading



(a) High harmony as [open] non-spreading

(b) Non-high harmony as [open] spreading

According to the licensing principle in (11)

- non-initial vowels which have an **OPEN** node will copy [open] from local [open]-specified vowels where possible
  - resulting in harmonic spreading in [yemb-e] ‘sing for/with’
  - but no harmony in [yib-il] ‘steal from/for’

## 2.5 Harmony generalisations

The CHT approach provides a unified account of all three neutral harmony types

- harmony is implemented in exactly the same way in each language
- the variation in /a/-activity/visibility are predictable by-products of varying [open]/[low] hierarchical organisation outlined in Fig. 6

## 2.5.1 Ndendeule transparency

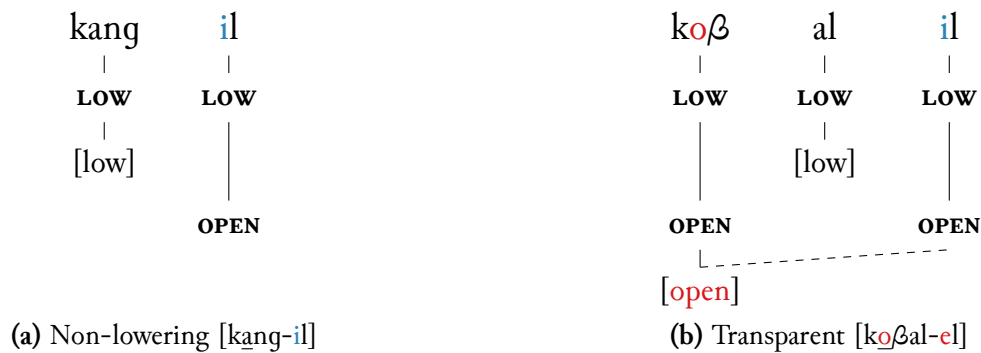
According to the Ndendeule contrastive hierarchy in Fig. 7

- [low] /a/ is non-contrastively underspecified for [open]; lacking any [open]-specification or **OPEN**-node

☞ ergo both *inactive* and *invisible* to [open]-harmony

### Ndendeule transparency via underspecification

(I<sub>3</sub>) Ndendeule /a/-inactivity/invisibility via underspecification



## 2.5.2 Chewa neutral blocking

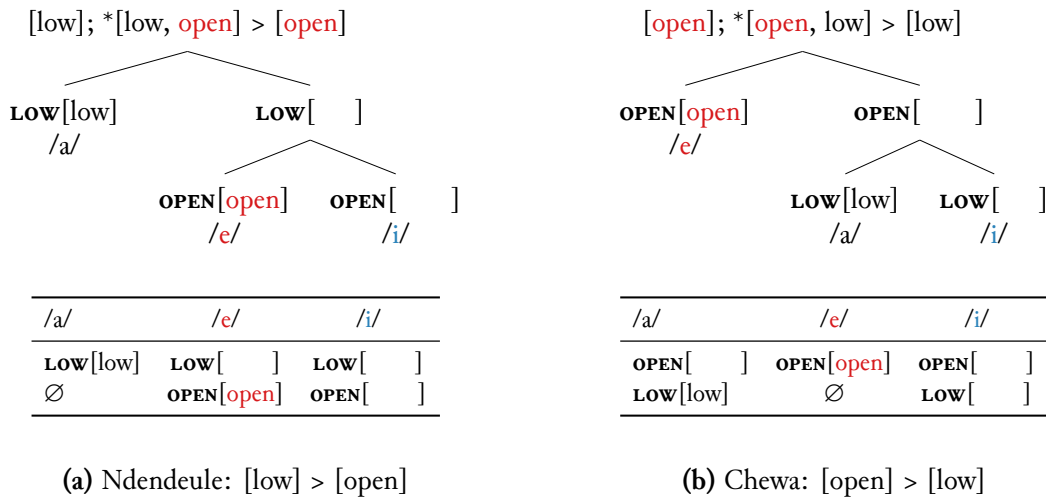
### Ndendeule vs. Chewa vowel classes

Comparing the contrastive feature hierarchies for Ndendeule and Chewa in Fig. 10

- speakers of both languages assume the exact same phonological primitives
  - a) [open]; b) [low]; and \*[open, low]
- they differ only with respect to the featural ranking
  - ☞ [open] has broader scope in Chewa but narrower scope in Ndendeule

This has important implications for the *visibility* of [low]-specified segments

- crucially, [low] /a/ is contrastively non-specified for [open] in Chewa; bearing an **OPEN**-node but no [open]-specification
  - ☞ ergo *inactive* **but** *visible* to [open]-harmony



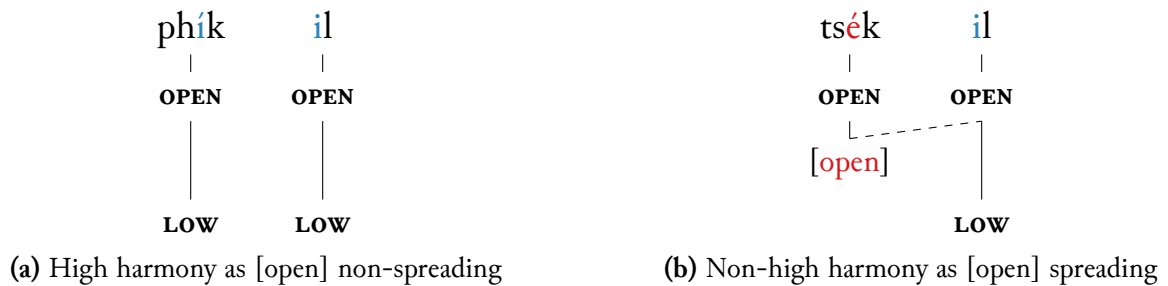
**Figure 10:** Ndendeule and Chewa contrastive feature hierarchies

### Chewa height harmony

Harmony applies in exactly the same way in Chewa as in Ndendeule

- only the order of  $[low]/[open]$  contrasts is reversed (I4)

#### (I4) Chewa height harmony via $[open]$ -spreading



### Neutral blocking via contrastive non-specification

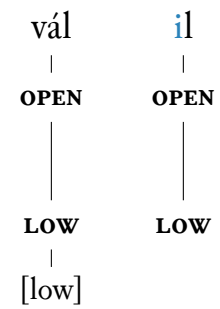
In (I5a) we observe how contrastive non-specification makes /a/ an *inactive* non-trigger

- but being contrastive for **OPEN** predicts that /a/ nevertheless should be visible to  $[open]$ -spreading
- however, spreading  $[open]$  to /a/ would produce an illicit  $*[open, low]$ -co-occurrence (see Fig. 10b)

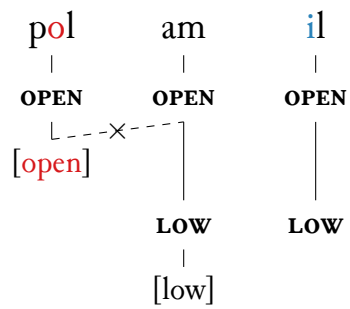
☞ harmony fails to apply, resulting in neutral blocking

- ✓ neutral blocking is derived just as straightforwardly as transparency

(15) Chewa /a/-inactivity but visibility



(a) Inactive [vái-il]



(b) Neutrally blocked: [pólam-il]

## 2.5.3 Mbunda harmonic blocking

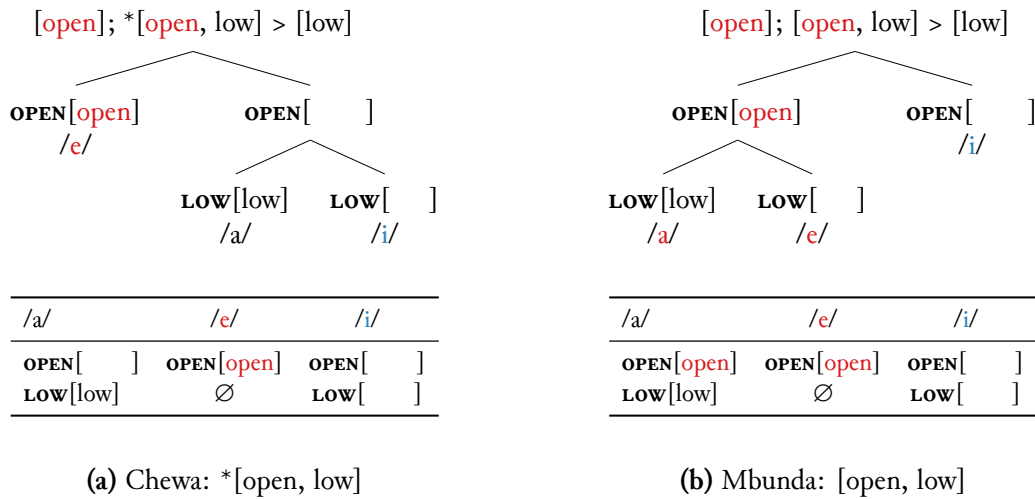
### Chewa vs. Mbunda vowel classes

Comparing the contrastive feature hierarchies for Chewa and Mbunda in Fig. 13

- speakers of both languages assume the exact same features and feature ordering
  - i.e. [open] > [low]
- they differ only with respect to the featural co-occurrence restrictions
  - ☞ [open] is prohibited from co-occurring with [low] in Chewa
  - ☞ [low] is required to co-occur with [open] in Mbunda

This has important implications for the *activity* of [low]-specified segments

- crucially, [low] /a/ is contrastively specified for [open] in Mbunda; thereby bearing an **OPEN**-node and [open]-specification
  - ☞ ergo both *active* **and** *visible* to [open]-harmony



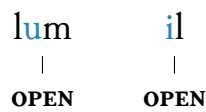
**Figure 13:** Chewa and Mbunda contrastive feature hierarchies

### Mbunda height harmony

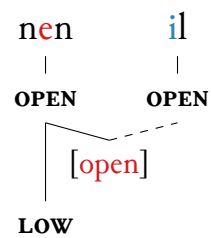
Harmony applies in exactly the same way in Mbunda as in Chewa

- only the co-occurrence restriction on  $[\text{open}, \text{low}]$  differs

#### (16) Mbunda height harmony via $[\text{open}]$ -spreading



(a) High harmony as  $[\text{open}]$  non-spreading

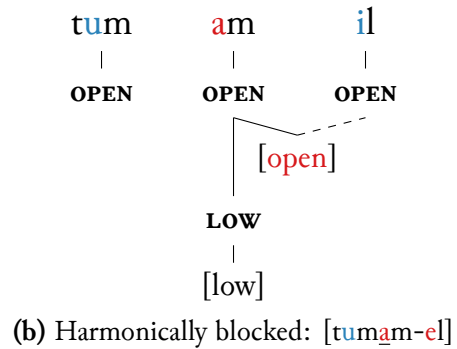
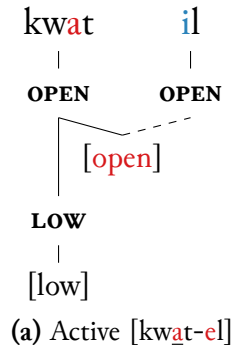


(b) Non-high harmony as  $[\text{open}]$  spreading

Being contrastively specified for the harmony feature

- $\text{OPEN}[\text{open}]$  /a/ triggers harmony lowering regardless its position
  - ✗ resulting in harmonic blocking in (17)
    - ✓ harmonic blocking is derived just as straightforwardly as neutral blocking and transparency

(17) Mbunda /a/-activity and visibility

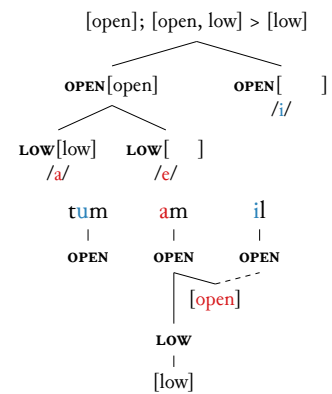
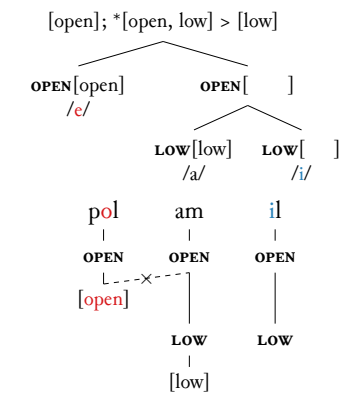
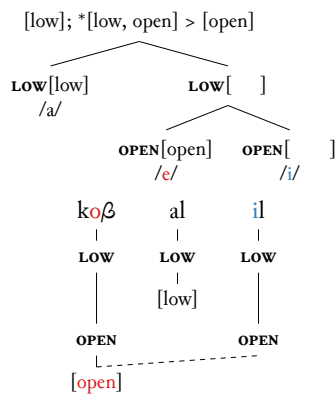


## 2.5.4 Neutral harmony summary

The predicted alternative categorisations of asymmetric contrasts predicted by the CH architecture with the simple licensing principle in (11)

- produces exactly the typology of harmony and neutral patterns observed in (3–6)
  - summarised in (18)
    - ✓ transparency via non-contrastive underspecification
    - ✓ neutral blocking via contrastive non-specification
    - ✓ harmonic blocking via contrastive specification

(18) Summary /a/-neutrality patterns



### 3 Conclusions

1. Harmony languages display a ternary distinction with respect to neutral segments
  - transparency (e.g. Ndendeule, N.101)
  - harmonic blocking (e.g. Mbunda, K.15)
  - neutral blocking (e.g. Chewa, N.31)
2. CHT which incorporates privative features and feature-nodes
  - predicts three ways to categorise asymmetric contrasts while maintaining a harmonic pairing
  - produces different class shapes and ternary feature specifications
    - contrastive specification (e.g. **OPEN**[open] /a/ in Mbunda)
    - contrastive non-specification (e.g. **OPEN**[ ] /a/ in Chewa)
    - non-contrastive underspecification (e.g.  $\emptyset$  /a/ in Ndendeule)
3. A simple feature licensing procedure applied to the representations predicted by CHT
  - produces exactly the observed typology of harmony and neutral patterns
    - nothing more and nothing less

#### Good explanatory mileage

The CHT approach:

- provides the first fully unified account of harmony neutrality across harmony systems
  - harmony as an operation is grammatically identical
  - ☞ representationally generalisable harmony locality variation is simply an emergent effect of the logically alternative ways in which feature classes can be hierarchically organised
- explains the cross-linguistic correlation between asymmetric inventory shape and harmony neutrality (Kiparsky & Pajusalu 2006)
  - ☞ the feature co-occurrence restrictions that define the inventory asymmetry are ultimately also responsible for the harmony neutrality

#### Predicted harmony typology

A schema of the predicted CHT harmony typology for a feature [F] is provided in Fig. 17

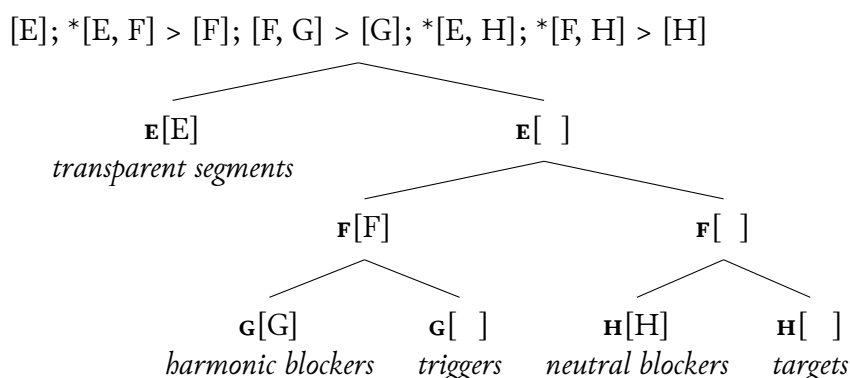
According to the CHT approach:

- neutral blocking vowels are simply regular visible harmony targets



- except that they are specified for some feature [H] which is *prohibited* from co-occurring with [F], barring [H] ~ [F, H] harmony alternations
- harmonic blocking vowels are simply regular active harmony triggers
  - except that they are specified for some feature [G] which is *required* to co-occur with [F], barring [G] ~ [F, G] harmony alternations

**Figure 17:** Harmony typology according to contrastive feature hierarchies



The typology in Fig. 17 illustrates the one-to-one relationship between specific representations and specific phonological behaviour types

- providing both the language-learner and the phonologist with an explicit harmony methodology
- highlighting the role phonological representations play in phonological patterning

## Concluding remarks

From this comparative study, we may conclude:

1. Surface locality variation in harmony processes illustrates a nuanced relationship between phonological activity and visibility
  - ☞ another example of surface ternarity in phonology
2. The intersection of phonological activity and visibility reveals hierarchical asymmetries
  - ☞ reflects the hierarchical organisation of feature classes
3. The content and shape of phonological classes is cross-linguistically varying
  - ☞ emergent features and feature classes

A version of CHT which incorporates emergent features and feature-nodes and which assumes cross-linguistically varying feature scope provides a minimalistic, constrained, and highly predictive framework which captures each of these insights

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