

## Class 23

# Models of language change, contact, and variation

12/10/19

- **Reading (required): Campbell Ch. 7, Ch. 12.1 & 12.2 (pp. 298–309)**
  - *Reading (recommended): Campbell Ch. 6 (linguistic classification), rest of Ch. 12, Ch. 16 (long-distance linguistic relationships)*
- **PSet #3 due at noon on Wednesday, Dec 18th**

## 1 The “Tree” model vs. the “Wave” model

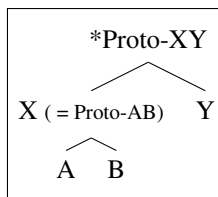
- Our guiding principle throughout the semester has (implicitly) been the *Neogrammarian hypothesis: sound change is regular and exceptionless*.
- But we’ve now started to see that linguistic features can also arise through *borrowing*, sometimes in such a way that regular sound change can become obscured.
- ★ There are two main models of language change and language relatedness that rely respectively on these two different notions of change: the *family tree* model and the *wave* model.

### 1.1 The family tree model

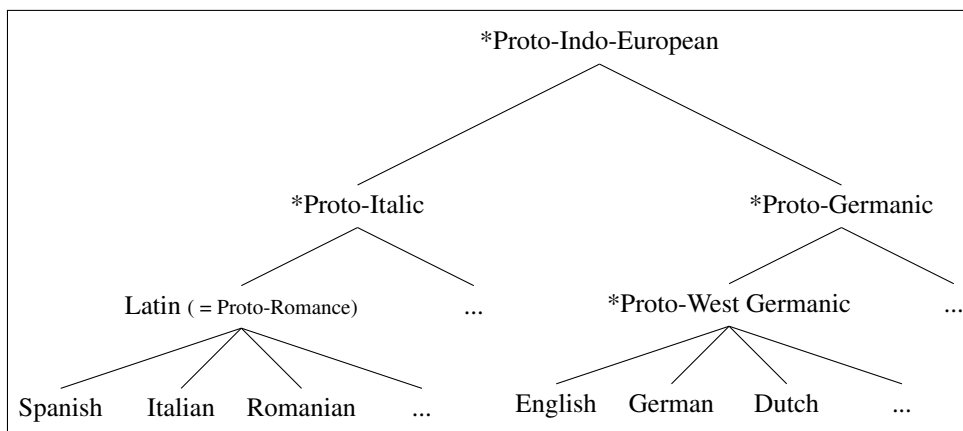
- The family tree model is the one that we’ve (implicitly) used throughout the semester.

(1) Family trees

a. Schematic



b. (Some of) Indo-European



- Each sub-group/branch is defined by one (or more) *shared common innovations* which discretely distinguish(es) that branch from the other related languages.
  - For example, Proto-Germanic underwent *Grimm's Law*, Proto-Italic did not, so the Grimm's Law sound change(s) define a separate branch of Indo-European.
- The tree model is based on Neogrammarian change:
  - In one branch, some change occurs regularly without exception, and that change defines the branch.
- This assumes that languages split off essentially instantaneously, and then go their separate ways.
  - i.e., what was at one point a single unified speech community all of a sudden becomes two (or more) isolated speech communities.
  - We can recover this split in speech communities by observing the first change that affects one community but not the other.
- A number of these assumptions are self-evidently false in their strong forms.
  - In rare instances it may be the case that one group leaves a speech community to go settle far away and there is has subsequent contact with the original community,
    - But usually spread and diversification is much more gradual.
- ★ So the tree model represents an *idealization* of real linguistic situations, but it nonetheless does a very good job of describing the facts (especially at large time scales).

## 1.2 The wave model

- The wave model approaches language relatedness from a very different point of view:
  - (2) **The Wave Model**
    - a. Linguistic changes originate in a specific location at a specific point in time.
    - b. They emanate outward concentrically (like a *wave*) throughout the “speech community”.
    - c. (The strength of a change becomes weaker as it moves farther out from its point of origin.)
- Language diversification thus happens through the piling up of changes in different areas of the speech community.
  - ⇒ Language change is not punctual and not immediately uniform throughout an entire language community.
- Nevertheless, sound change is still *regular* within the linguistic area to which it has spread.
  - ...though things may get fuzzy at the boundaries.
- ★ The wave model approach was inspired by the existence and behavior of *dialects*.

## 2 Dialectology and the wave model

### 2.1 Basic terminology and concepts

- We have terms for talking about these kinds of changes and the areas in which they apply:
  - (3) a. **Isogloss:** A line on a map which represents the geographical boundary of a regional linguistic variant.
    - (by extension) also the variant feature itself
  - b. **Isogloss bundle:** Several isoglosses whose extent coincides at (approximately) the same geographical boundary.
- Within the wave model (and dialectology generally), isogloss bundles define a speech variety (similar to *linguistic changes* in the tree model). We can talk about speech varieties using the following terms:

- (4) **Lect:** A neutral term for *any linguistic variety*, whether defined by its geographical distribution or by its use by people from different social classes, castes, ages, genders, etc.  
 → *dialect* (**geographical**), *sociolect* (social group), *idiolect* (individual), etc.

★ **Diversified *dialects* are the precursor to distinct *languages*.**

- We use the criterion of “mutual intelligibility” to determine the relationship between different (dia)lects:
  - (5) **Mutual intelligibility:** When speakers of different dialects can understand one another.
    - If two (related) dialects **are mutually intelligible**, then they are classified as **dialects of the same language**.
    - If two (related) dialects **are not mutually intelligible**, then they are classified as **(dialects of) distinct languages**.
  - (6) **Language:** A set of dialects which are mutually intelligible amongst themselves, but not mutually intelligible with any other speech variety.
- The characterization of a speech variety as a “language” vs. a “dialect” in common usage (sometimes adopted by linguists, sometimes not) often has nothing to do with its linguistic characterization:
  - (7) “A language is a dialect which as an army and a navy” (Max Weinreich).
    - Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish are mutually intelligible, but they are classified as *different languages*, because they belong to different countries.
      - Similar situations exist among, e.g., {Bosnian, Serbian, and Croatian}, and {Hindi and Urdu}, with much more charged political underpinnings.
    - The main speech varieties in China (e.g. Mandarin and Cantonese) are referred to as *dialects*, despite the fact that they are not mutually intelligible, because it support the idea of national unity and such.

## 2.2 Dialect continua

- But the situation is, in reality, even more complicated:
    - (8) **Dialect continuum:** Geographically contiguous dialects where each neighboring dialect is mutually intelligible, but the dialects at either end are not.
      - This situation exists among, e.g., the Romance languages ranging from Italy into Portugal, and the Germanic languages ranging from eastern Germany into the Netherlands.
      - (See [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dialect\\_continuum](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Dialect_continuum) for many more examples.)
- ⇒ The existence of *dialect continua* follows from the wave model of sound change and relatedness.
- Isoglosses don’t necessarily always line up in a bundle.
  - They may overlap only partially, or they may have originated in the same area but spread to different extents.

- Here's a schematic illustration:

(9) Dialect continuum (François 2014:169)

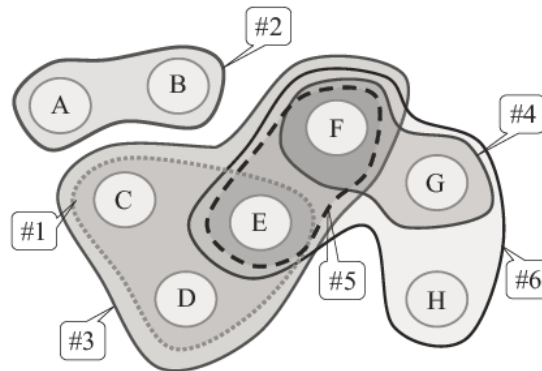


Figure 6.3 Intersecting isoglosses in a dialect continuum or a linkage

- Different innovations are shared between different dialects:
  - #1 applies to C, D, & E
  - #2 (and only #2) applies to A & B
  - #3 applies to C, D, E, & F
  - #4 applies to F & G
  - #5 applies E & F
  - #6 applies to E, F, G, & H
- ★ Since innovations spread locally, each adjacent dialect is likely to be more similar to its immediate neighbors than to dialects that are further away.
  - Though this may not always be the case, if the central dialects are massively innovative and the peripheral dialects are more conservative (compare A/B with H).
- Consider also dialects F & G:
  - Some innovations make them *more similar* — #4 and #6 (because they apply to both dialects)
    - This is referred to as “**convergence**”.
  - But other innovations make them *less similar* — #3 and #5 (because they apply to only one of the two)
    - This is referred to as “**divergence**”.
- ★ This shows that languages/dialects can both *converge* and *diverge* from another (essentially) simultaneously.
- If this is the full extent of the changes that have applied among these various dialects, they will probably all still be mutually intelligible.
- But if many more continue to pile up, affecting some but not others, this will eventually lead to mutual *unintelligibility*, resulting in distinct languages rather than dialects of the same language.

### 2.3 Focal areas, relic areas, dialect borrowing, and lexical diffusion

- We have terms to talk about the areas where innovations *originate* and where they *fail to spread to*:
  - (10) a. **Focal area:** The location from which innovations spread outwards (usually a zone of high “prestige”).
  - b. **Relic area (residual area):** An area (usually small) which preserves older forms that have not undergone the innovations that the surrounding areas have.
    - These are often regions of difficult access for cultural, political or geographical reasons, and thus resistant to the spread of prestige variants from elsewhere.

- Consider an example from West Yorkshire English (Campbell 2013:189):
  - Old English had the voiceless velar fricative /x/.
  - Standard English lost this sound already in the Middle English period:
    - Usually through deletion + compensatory lengthening
    - Occasionally by changing to /f/
- (11) a. OE  $Vx > ME V: / \_C$  [OE /lixt/ > ME /li:t/ > NE /lait/ 'light']  
 b. OE  $x > ME f$  [OE /trɔx/ > NE /trɔf/ 'trough']

- However, in the West Yorkshire dialect of English, we can still find a few words with a velar fricative:

- (12) a. West Yorkshire [trɔx] 'trough'  
 b. West Yorkshire [lɪçt] (← /lixt/) 'light' [ /x/ → [ç] / \_frontV ]

→ West Yorkshire is a relatively remote area (i.e. *relic area*), and it appears that the innovations regarding /x/ never fully penetrated the local dialect.

- Nevertheless, for native speakers of this dialect, most words actually do show the expected developments of /x/.
  - It's only a few isolated words that have resisted the change.
- Probably the best way to understand this is that speakers of this dialect were generally *bi-dialectal*, i.e. native speakers of the local dialect *and* speakers of (or at least familiar with) the standard dialect.
  - Over time, even though the local dialect never adopted the *sound change* per se, the dialect *borrowed* the pronunciations of many of these words from the standard dialect.

- ★ This is referred to as “**dialect borrowing**”, where selected features from another mutually intelligible dialect are adopted sporadically.
  - This contrasts with a situation where the innovation itself spreads in full to the dialect.

⇒ Cases with extensive dialect borrowing have led to the misconception of “**lexical diffusion**”.

- *Lexical diffusion* refers to the idea that sound changes spread from word to word within the lexicon, rather than applying wholesale without exception.
- Almost all claimed cases of lexical diffusion have been debunked.
  - Many have been shown to really just be dialect borrowing (like the West Yorkshire case)
  - Most of the other cases have been reanalyzed as fully regular sound changes by refining the conditioning environment for the change.

## 2.4 American isoglosses

- Bert Vaux has conducted a large scale study of various American dialect features.
  - Here's a write up of some of his results: [http://www.choicesmagazine.org/UserFiles/file/article\\_115.pdf](http://www.choicesmagazine.org/UserFiles/file/article_115.pdf)
  - You can take the test and compare your results here: <https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2014/upshot/dialect-quiz-map.html>
- Josh Katz (NC State) created heat maps (Katz 2016).
- I pulled out a bunch of these maps (via this article: <https://www.businessinsider.com/american-english-dialects-maps-2018-1>) into a powerpoint...

### 3 *Sprachbunds* (linguistic areas)

- Our discussion about wave-like innovations has thus far focused on the diffusion of these innovations within dialects of the same language.
- However, shared innovations (or general *convergence*) can develop also between neighboring speech varieties that are *unrelated* (or distantly related).
- ★ In some parts of the world, big groups of neighboring unrelated languages that are in close contact all *converge* on the same linguistic features. This is called a “**sprachbund**” (linguistic area).

#### 3.1 The Balkan Sprachbund

- The most well-known current sprachbund is the Balkan sprachbund.
  - Greek, Albanian, Serbo-Croatian, Bulgarian, Macedonian and Romanian (and to a lesser extent Turkish and Romani) now share a huge number of features in common despite not being closely related genetically.
  - Here’s a list of some of the shared features (Campbell 2013:300):

- (13) a. A central vowel /i/ (or /ə/) (not present in Greek or Macedonian).
- b. Syncretism of dative and genitive (dative and genitive cases have merged in form and function); e.g., Romanian *fetei* can mean either ‘to (the) girl’ (DAT) or ‘(the) girl’s’ (GEN) [cf. *fată* ‘girl’ (NOM)]
- |    |                                 |     |                      |
|----|---------------------------------|-----|----------------------|
| i. | <i>am data o carte fetei</i>    | ii. | <i>frate fetei</i>   |
|    | ‘I gave the letter to the girl’ |     | ‘the girl’s brother’ |
- c. Postposed articles (not in Greek); for example, Bulgarian
- |    |            |     |               |
|----|------------|-----|---------------|
| i. | <i>məʒ</i> | ii. | <i>məʒ-ət</i> |
|    | ‘man’      |     | ‘the man’     |
- d. Periphrastic future — futures signaled by an auxiliary verb corresponding to ‘want’ or ‘have’ (not in Bulgarian or Macedonian); e.g. Romanian
- |    |   |     |  |
|----|---|-----|--|
| i. | <i>voi fuma</i>                           | ii. | <i>am a cînta</i>                          |
|    | ‘I will smoke’ (literally ‘I want smoke’) |     | ‘I will sing’ (literally ‘I have to sing’) |
- e. Periphrastic perfect (with an auxiliary verb corresponding to ‘have’).
- f. Absence of infinitives (instead, the languages have constructions such as ‘I want that I go’ for ‘I want to go’); e.g., ‘give me something to drink’ has the form corresponding to ‘give me that I drink’, as in:
- |    |                      |     |                       |      |                   |     |                      |
|----|----------------------|-----|-----------------------|------|-------------------|-----|----------------------|
| i. | Romanian             | ii. | Bulgarian             | iii. | Tosk Albanian     | iv. | Greek                |
|    | <i>dă-mi să beau</i> |     | <i>daj mi da pija</i> |      | <i>a-më të pi</i> |     | <i>dós mu na pjó</i> |
- g. Use of a personal pronoun copy of animate objects so that the object is doubly marked:
- |     |          |            |                         |
|-----|----------|------------|-------------------------|
| i.  | Romanian | <i>i-</i>  | <i>am scris lui Ion</i> |
|     | lit.     | to.him- I  | wrote him John          |
|     |          |            | ‘I wrote to John’       |
| ii. | Greek    | <i>ton</i> | <i>vlépo ton jáni</i>   |
|     | lit.     | him.ACC I  | see the/him.ACC John    |
|     |          |            | ‘I see John’            |

- All of these features originated in one language or another, and *spread/diffused* into the other languages of the area.
  - These can thus be referred to as “**areal**” features, i.e. typical properties of languages of that geographical area.
    - (This term can be used whether the area is thought of as a true sprachbund or not.)
- ★ There are many more known sprachbunds in the world (see Campbell for more examples), including South Asia, Mesoamerica, the Baltic, Ethiopia, and the Pacific Northwest.

### 3.2 Using language contact to diagnose genetic relationship

- Areal features are bad clues for determining genetic relationships.
  - Especially in sprachbund situations, areal features are just as / more likely to represent borrowing than true language-internal innovations.
    - Therefore, it’s multiple related languages could end up displaying the same innovations without representing a “shared” innovation.
- Consider the following sound correspondences from the Nootkan languages, which are part of the Pacific Northwest sprachbund:

- (14) Sound correspondences in Nootkan (Campbell 2013:307)  
 [“ C ’ ” = *glottalized* C, ʔ = voiced pharyngeal fricative, h = voiceless pharyngeal fricative, χ = voiceless uvular fricative, q = voiceless uvular stop]

TABLE 12.1: Nootkan sound correspondences

	<i>Makah</i>	<i>Nitinat</i>	<i>Nootka</i>	<i>Proto-Nootkan</i>
(1)	b	b	m	*m
(2)	bʔ	bʔ	m̥	*m̥
(3)	d	d	n	*n
(4)	dʔ	dʔ	n̥	*n̥
(5)	qʔ	ʕ	ʕ	*qʔ
(6)	qʔ <sup>w</sup>	ʕ	ʕ	*qʔ <sup>w</sup>
(7)	χ <sup>w</sup>	χ <sup>w</sup>	ħ	*χ <sup>w</sup>
(8)	χ	χ	ħ	*χ

- Many of the languages of the Pacific Northwest sprachbund **lack nasal consonants**.
- ★ With that in mind, *how should we subgroup Makah, Nitinat, and Nootka?*

## References

- Campbell, Lyle. 2013. *Historical Linguistics: An Introduction*. 3rd edn. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- François, Alexandre. 2014. Trees, Waves and Linkages: Models of Language Diversification. In Claire Bowerman & Bethwyn Evans (eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Historical Linguistics*, 161–189. London & New York: Routledge.
- Katz, Josh. 2016. *Speaking American: How Y’all, Youse, and You Guys Talk: A Visual Guide*. Boston/New York: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.