

1 **Degenerative Phonology**

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3 **Part 1**

4 **Theory**

5 **Chapter One**

6 **Foundations**

7

8 **1. Many-to-many sound-meaning correspondence**

9 At its most basic level of description, language structure involves a correspondence of sound (with a  
10 *form*) and meaning (with a *function*). Significantly though, no language possesses a one-to-one  
11 correspondence between sound and meaning—between form and function—such that phonetic  
12 elements are uniquely paired with semantic elements. Inevitably—and, as will be presently seen, for  
13 good reason—all languages possess (1) many-to-one correspondences between sound and meaning in  
14 the form of heterophone-maintaining alternations (a ubiquitous occurrence), and (2) one-to-many  
15 correspondences between sound and meaning in the form of homophone-inducing alternations (a  
16 rare occurrence). More specifically, this many-to-many relation between sound and meaning is  
17 *asymmetric*, in the sense that heterophonic alternations always far outnumber homophonic ones.

18 An asymmetric many-to-many sound-meaning correspondence being the *de facto* state of linguistic  
19 affairs, the tasks for the linguist include:

20

21

- 22 (1) Isolating the myriad pressures that interact on linguistic systems such that a one-to-one form-  
23 function correspondence is inevitably stymied,
- 24 (2) Motivating the fact that heterophone-maintaining alternations are rampant while homophone-  
25 inducing alternations are rare,  
26 and, ancillary,
- 27 (3) Determining if the sound components of sound-meaning correspondences are decomposed by  
28 language users into smaller elements that might combine and recombine with each other.

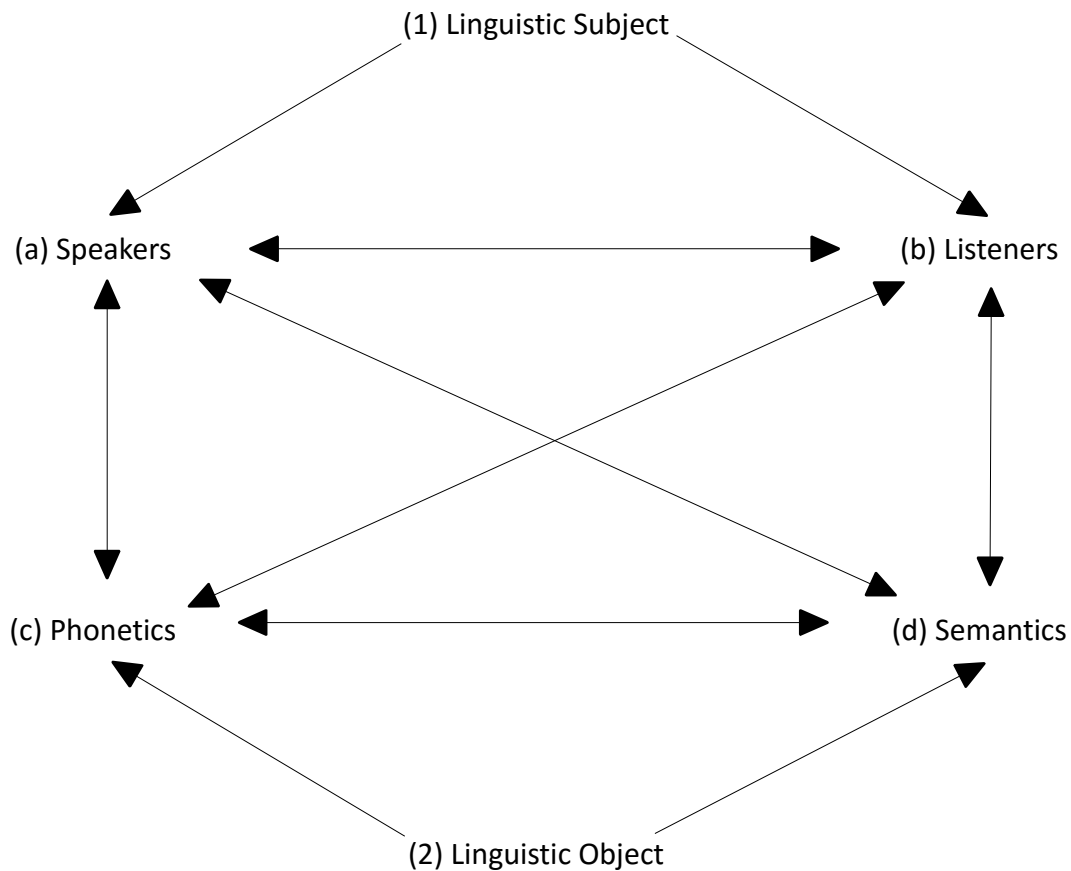
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30 These research goals are pursued herein by investigating the manifold interactions between:

- 31 (1) The linguistic object, embodied as the product of conflicting pressures acting on (a) phonetics  
32 (form), and (b) semantics (function), and
- 33 (2) The linguistic subject, embodied as the product of conflicting pressures acting on (c) speakers,  
34 and (d) listeners (see Fig. 1.1).

35

36



37

38 *Figure. 1.1. Interaction between (1) the linguistic subject ((a) speakers and (b) listeners) and (2) the*  
 39 *linguistic object ((c) phonetics and (d) semantics)*

40

41 Briefly, linguistic structure in general, and *alternation* in particular, is herein argued to have its *indirect*  
 42 origins in the interlocutory act itself, in the successful conveyance—from speakers to listeners—of  
 43 the elements of meaning (morphemes). The variation inherent to speech production, and the  
 44 selectional pressures acting on this variation, culminates in a system that naturally and passively  
 45 serves its communicative function. Morph selection—as embodied in alternation—is thus conditioned  
 46 by the interaction of the pressures acting on the (1) linguistic subject (speakers and listeners), and (2)  
 47 the linguistic object (phonetics and semantics).

48 Consider, for example, one common route to alternation (as we will see, there are others, too): under  
 49 those particular circumstances in which meaning is successfully conveyed to listeners *despite minor*  
 50 *articulatory simplifications* that are intermittently present upon morpheme concatenation—typically  
 51 (though not exclusively), in the form of *assimilation* and/or *reduction*—then these simplified forms  
 52 may be recycled by listeners as they themselves speak, eventually becoming conventionalized.

53 The end-product of these iterated scenarios may be both a simplification of the motor routines put in  
 54 service to recurrent components of the speech code (“words”), their better phonetic separation, and  
 55 concomitantly, their better separability (for listeners): frequently-required semantic content involves  
 56 frequently-produced morpheme groupings (again, “words”), and thus involves frequently-produced  
 57 phonetic content. Exactly due to their frequency and their consequent predictability, those phonetic

58 productions that are somewhat simplified (assimilated, reduced) in particular contexts may yet be  
59 successful in conveying the semantic content intended by speakers. The structural coherence of such  
60 frequently employed morpheme groupings may thus be cued in part by the very assimilatory patterns  
61 that are so prevalent within them: the less-common acoustic transitions that are characteristic of so-  
62 called word boundaries aid listeners as they parse the speech signal into its semantic components.  
63 Words and their phonotactic regularities, then, may passively emerge due exactly to recurrent strings  
64 of morphemes' repetitive use, and their context-dependent phonetic adjustments. The result may be  
65 a regularization of the motor routines put in service to encoding semantic content, and the  
66 concomitant emergence of alternations, as morphemes of different phonetic forms combine and re-  
67 combine with each other.

68 Thus, over the course of their early interlocutory experience, listeners become better-practiced in  
69 deciphering a speech signal that is—and, as a consequence of its evolution, always has been—in a  
70 state that lends itself to just this decipherment. Practiced listeners may thus exploit as parsing aids the  
71 less-common acoustic patterns encountered at word boundaries, and the more-frequent acoustic  
72 patterns (and their accompanying limited inventory of motor routines) encountered word-internally.

73 Such patterns may prevail until listener confusion would set in: if word-internal motor routines would  
74 become too simplified, and hence, inevitably, too similar to each other, the requisite semantic clarity  
75 of the speech signal would become jeopardized, because semantically distinct primitives that are  
76 phonetically distinct in some contexts may become phonetically *non*-distinct in others.

77 This is a diachronic source of induced homophony, necessarily limited in prevalence due to the simple  
78 fact that an excess of such forms may interfere with the successful transmission of semantic content:  
79 only *successful* speech propagates. Unsuccessful speech is passively filtered out. The interlocutory  
80 system thus has a built-in homophony-limiting mechanism.

81 The result is a system possessing both one-to-many and many-to-one correspondences between form  
82 and function of a specifically asymmetric character, since heterophonic alternations far exceed in  
83 number homophonic ones. Exactly because of its patterns of use and disuse, the system passively  
84 maintains a structure that facilitates both its function and its mastery.

85 There thus exist usage-based semantically-rooted diachronic pressures both promoting and,  
86 eventually, inhibiting an overall simplification of the phonetic content of the speech code. The product  
87 of these iterated interlocutory tendencies is a linguistic system that naturally settles towards a  
88 semantically unambiguous state, a state whose semantic elements are combined and expressed with  
89 a limited inventory of motor routines, a state in which heterophony is rampant, and homophony is  
90 passively limited.

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## 92 **2. Degeneracy**

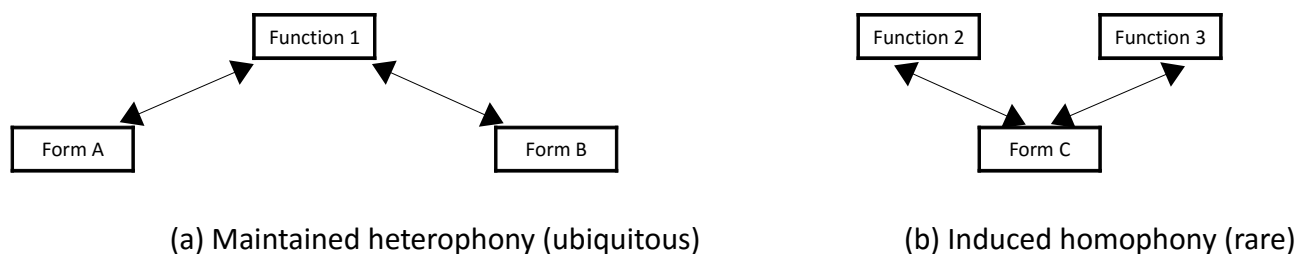
93 Adapting terminology employed to characterize biological and other complex adaptive systems, the  
94 sort of system just outlined evinces both *degeneracy* and *pluripotentiality*. Degeneracy is present in a  
95 system when *single functions are subserved by multiple forms*. Pluripotentiality is present in a system  
96 when *single forms are responsible for multiple functions*. Herein, we conflate these two properties,  
97 subsuming the latter into the former, exploring in preliminary detail the proposed degenerate  
98 character of phonological systems. *Degenerative phonology* is thus both the subject (the theory) and  
99 the object (the data) of our investigation.

100 As with all systems that are degenerate in character, a degenerative phonology possesses elements  
101 that are at once (1) sufficiently impervious to insult such that they remain vital to the proper  
102 functioning of the system as a whole (culminating in the system's *robustness*), (2) sufficiently variable  
103 such that they might adapt to new conditions coming to act on their form (culminating in the system's  
104 *evolvability*), and (3) sufficiently interactive such that they enter into a hierarchical organization  
105 (culminating in the system's *complexity*). Indeed, robustness, evolvability, and complexity, are inherent  
106 properties, hence hallmarks, of any degenerate system (Whitacre 2010).

107 The linguistic system in general, and the morpho-phonological system in particular, is subject to  
108 myriad pressures—some in a state of antagonism, others in harmony—such that a one-to-one  
109 relationship between form and function is inevitably stymied, but stymied *not* as an incidental artifact  
110 of wholly independent pressures on the evolution of the system, but rather, stymied because  
111 *degeneracy is inherent and crucial to the system's functional efficacy*: any complex system that is  
112 subject to evolutionary pressures on its forms and its functions is likely degenerate by its very nature.

113 Figure 1.2 presents a fairly standard (and, as will be immediately argued, a somewhat incomplete) way  
114 of schematically portraying the many-to-many nature of degenerate systems. For present purposes,  
115 again, *function* refers to elements of meaning (morphemes), and *form* pertains to these elements'  
116 phonetic expression (morphs).

117



118 *Figure 1.2. Many-to-many form-function relationships.*

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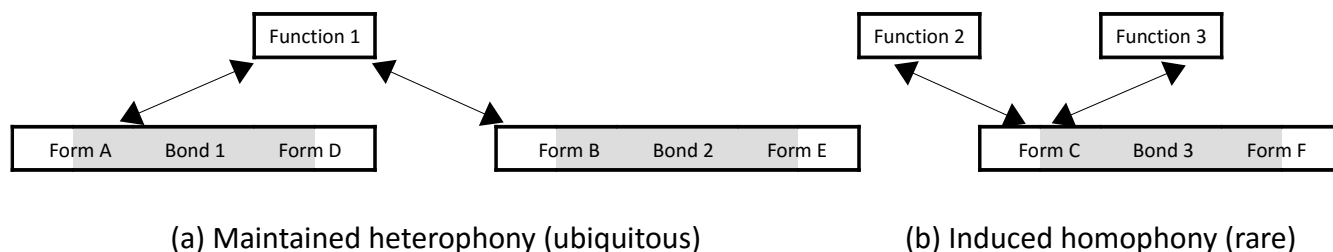
120 In Figure 1.2a, a single morpheme (Function 1) is associated with two morphs (Forms A and B). Forms  
121 A and B are thus heterophonic alternants. In 1.2b, a single morph (Form C, one among more than one  
122 alternant) is associated with multiple morphemes (Functions 2 and 3). Form C is thus a homophone.

123 But despite its apparent straightforwardness, Figure 1.2 does not compellingly convey the degenerate  
124 nature of the system, primarily because the components that are being paired here—Function 1 with  
125 Forms A and B; Functions 2 and 3 with Form B—are considered in the absence of the contexts that  
126 induce the specific characters of their respective form-function relationships. Instead, in order to  
127 understand morph selection, it is vital to consider a larger domain, one that includes relevant  
128 morpheme-external content.

129 So consider the situation portrayed in Figure 1.3. In 1.3a, a morpheme has two alternants, again,  
130 Forms A and B, that acquire their partially distinct phonetic characters as a consequence of the  
131 phonetic properties of the morphemes that follow (here, Forms D and E): the end-spans of A and B  
132 are affected by the beginning-spans of D and E (and the beginning-spans of D and E are affected by  
133 the end-spans of A and B). That is, the non-final spans of the first forms may be determined in whole  
134 by morpheme-internal content, while their final spans are determined in part by (or *bonded* with)  
135 morpheme-external content. This establishes distinct *temporal spans of bonded material* between the

136 potentially stable flanking spans of A and D (Bond 1), and also between the potentially stable flanking  
137 spans of B and E (Bond 2); bonds are shaded. These phonetically distinct bonds thus embody A-B  
138 alternation. The same holds for Form C in 1.3b: as a consequence of Bond 3 (itself a consequence of  
139 Form F's placement), Form C is phonetically non-distinct from a form of some other morpheme.

140  
141



142 *Figure 1.3. Degeneracy in form-function relationships*

143

144 As will be argued, Figure 1.3 highlights the proposal that bonding among morphemes is a crucial  
145 characteristic of the degenerative phonological system, with, as will be seen, major consequences for  
146 both the linguistic object (phonetics and semantics), and the linguistic subject (speakers and listeners).

147 For speakers, the bond embodies a simplification of the motor routines put in service to frequently  
148 used morpheme groupings (words), and further, it increases the speed of information encoding, since  
149 it efficiently organizes the semantic content of distinct morphemes by means of simultaneous  
150 phonetic cueing.

151 For listeners, the bond thus provides information about *both* morphemes: repeated encounters with  
152 Bonds 1 and 2 quickly come to unambiguously signal Forms A and B's identical semantic content,  
153 while also providing some "look-ahead" information about both the phonetic content of following  
154 Forms D and E, and (especially with high-frequency morpheme groupings) their distinct semantic  
155 content as well. As will be seen, bonding serves these functions (although to a far lesser extent) even  
156 across word boundaries.

157 In the vast majority of instances then, bonding assists in the establishment of *paradigmatic*  
158 relationships among forms (heterophonic alternants' semantic non-distinctness), and in the  
159 establishment of *syntagmatic* relationships among forms (parsing). Far from being a drag on efficiency,  
160 bonding plays a crucial role in the evolution of the interlocutory system: information flow between  
161 speaker and listener is sped, enhanced, and clarified.

162 But now consider Figure 1.3b. Here, Bond 3 participates in the phonetic character of Form C, thus  
163 indeed providing some look-ahead information about both F's phonetic (and often semantic) content,  
164 and yet, the resulting structure actually subserves two functions, as it is homophonous with some  
165 other morpheme or morpheme alternant. Still, genuine ambiguity and hence listener confusion is  
166 unlikely to arise; recall, the system has a built-in mechanism inhibiting the pervasion of semantically  
167 ambiguous linguistic structures.

168 As will be discussed, understanding the crucial role of bonding in a degenerative phonology also  
169 enhances our understanding of stem-modifying, fusional, vowel-harmonic, and other sorts of non-  
170 concatenative morphological patterning. It will further be suggested that it is the evolved recyclability

171 of bonds and their attendant motor regularities that is source of *phonological productivity*.

172 To sum up, the frequent juxtaposition of particular morphemes manifests an symmetric many-to-  
173 many relationship between form and function; a degenerative phonology. Information-rich bonding  
174 content increases the efficiency of semantic *encoding* for speakers, and semantic *decoding* for  
175 listeners. Degeneracy serves to provide cues to both the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic  
176 relationships among linguistic elements, hence enhancing the system's structural and functional  
177 *robustness, evolvability, and complexity*; the hallmarks of any degenerate system.

178

### 179 **3. Non-Compositionality**

180 The recurrent motor routines characteristic of speech (whatever their form may turn out to be) are  
181 not, in and of themselves, linguistic primitives. This is because, quite simply, any particular motor  
182 routine that might be both isolable and recyclable does not typically pair with any particular semantic  
183 function. Thus, although they obviously constrain speech patterns in particular ways in particular  
184 languages, still, the absence of any regularity in form-function pairing between these recurrent motor  
185 phenomena and recurrent semantic phenomena precludes their candidacy as genuine linguistic  
186 primitives. And after all, the functional relevance of any phonetic component of the linguistic system is  
187 established exclusively by its role in maintaining distinctions in *meaning*, not by maintaining  
188 distinctions in sound itself.

189 Instead, it will be argued herein that morphemes themselves (or, rather, their respective inventories of  
190 alternants) are the genuine elements of phonological structure, since it is the morph-morpheme  
191 correspondence that embodies the elemental pairing of form and function, of sound and meaning.  
192 Consequently, just as there is no compelling evidence to support the proposal that recurrent and  
193 recyclable motor routines are componential linguistic primitives, neither is their compelling evidence  
194 that sub-parts of these routines are componential (again, however recurrent and recyclable they are  
195 purported to be), precisely because such proposed structures do not directly participate as  
196 independent players in the degenerate system of form-function relations.

197

### 198 **4. Preliminary exemplification**

199 Consider the examples of Spanish nasal assimilation in Table 1.1 (adapted from Nathan 2008).

200

201	form:	function:
202	<b>ũn-õmbre</b>	"a man"
203	<b>ũm-beso</b>	"a kiss"
204	<b>ũŋ-faktor</b>	"a factor"
205	<b>ũŋ-gato</b>	"a cat"

206

207 *Table 1.1. Spanish nasal assimilation exemplified.*

208

209 Based on the preliminary discussion that precedes, it should be clear that the symbol-by-symbol  
210 rendering of the sound-and-meaning pattern in Table 1.1 conveys neither the true nature of the form-

211 function relations here, nor the degenerate character of the system in which these patterns are  
212 embedded. The transcriptional changes to the indefinite article suggest that when one morpheme  
213 comes to abut (though, counter-factually, not bond with) another, there is a phonetic switch-out of  
214 sub-morphemic content (here, the nasal), but the sequenced morphs themselves remain otherwise  
215 unchanged, readily distinct from one another, and readily separable from one another. The presence  
216 of the so-called “morpheme boundary” symbol (“-”) hammers home this flawed characterization, thus  
217 nailing shut the possibility of conveying the degenerate alternative.

218 Herein then, the International Phonetic Alphabet is augmented by a simple system of underscoring  
219 and overscoring, in a preliminary attempt to graphically suggest the truer-to-nature form of morpho-  
220 phonological bonding: The first typographically-sequenced morph is underscored, the second  
221 overscored. Underscoring and overscoring highlight (rather roughly) the distinct morphs as their  
222 phonetic content is distributed in the speech stream. Components of the structure that embody the  
223 bond thus possess both underscoring *and* overscoring, as in table 1.2. (When morphs appear  
224 embedded in context, the en dash is *not* intended to represent a so-called “morpheme boundary”.  
225 Rather, it is intended as a *variable*, suggesting that there is additional phonetic material beyond the  
226 typographic frontier that, although it varies as a consequence of context, is nonetheless crucial to the  
227 phonetic character of the morph(s) with which it is affiliated.

228

229	form:	function:
230	<u>ũ</u> n- <u>õ</u> mbre	“a man”
231	<u>ũ</u> m- <u>b</u> eso	“a kiss”
232	<u>ũ</u> ŋ- <u>f</u> aktor	“a factor”
233	<u>ũ</u> ŋ- <u>g</u> ato	“a cat”

234

235 *Table 1.2. Spanish nasal assimilation exemplified with morpheme affiliation indicating by under- and*  
236 *overscoring.*

237

238 The overscoring in Table 1.3 properly indicates that the virtual entirety of the morpho-phonological  
239 complex (the word) contributes phonetic cues to the root. Consider ũm-beso. Clearly, the assimilated  
240 nasal conveys information about the following functional element (the root)—*it is part of the root, as*  
241 *much as it is a part of the affix*—informing listeners that this root is labial-initial, and thus serving to  
242 narrow listeners’ lexical search. Nasal assimilation is tolerated here because homophony is rarely if  
243 ever induced, and thus even these articulatorily simplified variants may yet be successful in conveying  
244 listeners’ intended meaning.

245 But also, vowels that flank consonantal spans are mutually influential, and, necessarily, also affect (and  
246 are affected by) the spectral properties of the intervening consonantism itself (Öhman 1966). The so-  
247 transcribed ũ thus actually bears the phonetic mark of the nasal-stop-vowel span, since the onset  
248 transitions as the lips close for m-b are influenced by the offset transitions as the lips open again into  
249 e. Again, the virtual entirety of the affix is bonded with the root, thus possessing some phonetic “look-  
250 ahead” information about the semantic element that is to follow.

251

252 So, when bonding with another root, as in, say, ũŋ-gato, this same affix contains modified phonetic  
253 properties as influenced by the different phonetic shape of the root. Thus, here too, due to bonding,  
254 the affix conveys “look-ahead” information about the form (and oftentimes the function) of the root  
255 itself. In short—and typographically misleadingly—the ũ of ũm-beso is both phonetically distinct from,  
256 and may serve to convey partially-distinct semantic content of, the ũ of ũŋ-gato.

257 To be clear, whenever the indefinite article appears with roots of different shapes, it inevitably  
258 engages in a phonetically and semantically informative alternation that encompasses a significant  
259 majority of its temporal span: the bond here encompasses almost the entirety of the article, but also  
260 encompasses a non-trivial temporal span of a following root. The root, meanwhile is affected well into  
261 its initial vowel, thus reinforcing the phonetic properties of the article itself. Recurrent experience with  
262 ũm, ũŋ, ũn, and ũŋ quickly inform learners that their phonetic differences are semantically inert with  
263 respect to the article, but are semantically active with respect to the following morpheme, thus  
264 providing information about both the paradigmatic and the syntagmatic properties of the speech  
265 stream. It is a consequence of their *frequency of use* that bonds emerge, and thus those less-  
266 frequently employed phonetic routines at so-called word boundaries evolve weaker bonds, and so, by  
267 dint of their rarity, their more perspicuous phonetic discontinuities come to serve as parsing aids,  
268 cueing to listeners that a new morphological complex (a new word) has begun.

269 Referring to the Spanish morphological system as *concatenative* in nature—one that is qualitatively  
270 different from so-called non-concatenative systems of various sorts—may thus be revealed to  
271 exemplify a specious distinction. Rather, the different word-formation systems found in the world’s  
272 languages are perhaps better seen as residing somewhere on a sliding scale, with different languages  
273 evolving towards different degrees of bonding, but not differing from one another in a genuinely  
274 qualitative way.

275

## 276 **Summary**

277 It may be a jarring realization, that morphs are not self-contained phonetic entities, but rather, in an  
278 organic-like way, they spread, they merge, they interact, and they overlap with the phonetic content  
279 of other morphs, and thus the speech stream simultaneously encodes information about multiple  
280 semantic entities. But to the extent that the linguistic system is degenerate in character, this organicity  
281 should not be surprising at all. Indeed, the morpho-phonological system may bear a remarkable  
282 likeness to organic systems of growth and development not by coincidence, but because the deep  
283 pressures and principles that affect its structure are qualitatively non-distinct from those that affect  
284 any and all complex adaptive systems.

285 Still, there is nothing particularly novel about this approach to morpho-phonological structure:

- 286 (1) It acknowledges that phonological systems are put in service to encoding (and, largely,  
287 ensuring) distinctions in meaning, just as any and all phonemic/segmental approaches do.
- 288 (2) It acknowledges that alternations have consequences not only for phonological structure, but  
289 for the encoding of meaning as well, just as any phonological theory that draws a distinction  
290 between so-called allophonic (necessarily heterophone-maintaining), and neutralizing  
291 (potentially homophone-inducing) alternations.
- 292 (3) It acknowledges that juncture phenomena are not merely worthy of observation, but are  
293 linguistically relevant, just as virtually all theories have always done.



294 Where degenerative phonology departs from other approaches is in its proposed *locus of explanation*  
295 for the phonological patterning that all scholars of linguistic sound structure investigate. As will be  
296 argued, a degenerative phonological analysis operates under the assumption that the linguistic system  
297 is qualitatively non-distinct from other complex adaptive systems in terms of its organizing principles,  
298 and thus requires no special, domain-specific theoretic machinery for its operation.

299 Regarding the remainder of Part One (“Theory”), Chapter Two (“Background”) briefly discusses the  
300 history of the concept of degeneracy. Chapter Three (“Origins”) considers the possible pre-linguistic  
301 origins of the degenerate system, proposing that the pressures and principles responsible for its  
302 phylogenetic emergence are also responsible for its maintenance . Chapter Four (“Bonding”),  
303 considers the sources and functions of assimilation, lenition, and other sorts of boundary-blurring,  
304 bond-creating phenomena, and briefly considers their relevance to parsing. Finally, Chapter Five  
305 (“Morphology”), explores how degeneracy may manifest itself in a variety of ways, as concatenative,  
306 partially-concatenative, and non-concatenative morphological systems.

307 Regarding Part Two (“Data”), in Chapters Six (“Heterophony”), a number of case studies are  
308 considered that apply the conclusions of Part One. Chapter Seven (“Homophony”) considers linguistic  
309 data supporting the claim that induced homophony is inevitably limited in its prevalence. Finally, in  
310 Chapter Eight (“Contrast”), a case will be made for the non-compositionality of morphemes, that is,  
311 for the phonological unanalyzability of morpheme-internal content.