

1 On how and why vowel harmony decays

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### 7 **32a.1 Introduction**

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9 Phonetic coarticulation as well as misperception have been linked to the emergence of vowel  
10 harmony (Öhman 1966; Ohala 1994a, b; Przedziecki 2005). This link, however, does not  
11 explain the ways that phonological vowel harmony may change. This subchapter lays out some  
12 observations about how and why vowel harmony patterns may change. Although the focus here  
13 is on decay, the mechanics discussed below also provide plausible pathways for the emergence  
14 of harmony if we assume a symmetrical model of emergence and decay in harmony. A  
15 symmetrical model of change provides a way to understand the various types of restricted  
16 harmony patterns that exist somewhere in between phonetic coarticulation and robust, iterative  
17 harmony without requiring access to historical data. In the absence of historical and textual data,  
18 the analyst may wonder whether the pattern in question is moving toward canonical harmony or  
19 away from it. If symmetry is assumed, the pathways are analagous to an out-and-back hike up a  
20 mountain. In an out-and-back hike, one encounters the same things coming down that were seen  
21 on the way up, as opposed to a loop hike, where the scenery changes throughout the hike.  
22 Throughout this subchapter I lay out some paths down the mountain from harmony back to  
23 phonetics, and where possible, connect these with evidence from the trip up the mountain from  
24 phonetics in the emergence of harmony.

25

### 26 **32a.2 How: The mechanics of change**

27

28 There are at least four pathways along which harmony may change. The first is lexically-specific  
29 change. Anderson (1998) observes that rounding harmony in Old Turkic was lexically  
30 conditioned. We can observe in Turkic a range of behavior, ranging from almost exceptionless  
31 harmony in Kyrgyz, to lexically specific behavior in Chaghatai (Eckmann 1966:33-36;

32 Bodrogligeti 2001:15-16) and modern Uzbek (Jarring 1937; Ibrohimov 1967; Reshetov and  
33 Shoabdurahmonov 1978; Razhabov 1996). In Chaghatai, the historical predecessor of Uzbek,  
34 roughly half of [+high] suffixes underwent harmony, whereas the number of suffixes that  
35 alternate for round is much smaller in most contemporary Uzbek dialects, and notably absent  
36 from the standard written variety. Thus, in one direction harmony may obtain throughout the  
37 lexicon via diffusion, while in the other direction successively fewer affixes are subject to  
38 harmony (see Harrison and Kaun 2003 for a very lexically-restricted pattern in Namangan Tatar).  
39 Another instance of lexically-specific decay is seen in the Kwa language, Avatime. Whereas the  
40 sister languages Tafi and Tutrugbu both exhibit prefix-initiated progressive rounding harmony  
41 (Bobuafor 2013; McCollum and Essegbey to appear), Avatime does not, except the recurrent  
42 prefix alternates for rounding among older speakers (Defina 2016:56).

43         Additionally, harmony may change by augmenting or reducing the domain of application  
44 (see also ch. 4i). In Southern Crimean Tatar, rounding harmony affects all non-initial high  
45 vowels while in the Central dialect, harmony obtains only on the second-syllable. In the Northern  
46 dialect, rounding harmony is completely absent, and in many cases, high rounded vowels in the  
47 initial syllables are optionally unrounded (Kavitskaya 2010). These dialectal differences are  
48 evident in forms like *burun-lu* (Southern), *burun-lu* (Central), and *burun-lu ~ buurun-lu*  
49 (Northern) ‘nose-ADJ’. As another example, both proto-Uralic and proto-Finnic have been  
50 constructed with robust vowel harmony, but harmony is now reduced or absent in some modern  
51 Finnic languages (Janhunen 1982; Binnick 1991). In Southern Veps for instance, frontness  
52 harmony applies to second and optionally to third-syllable vowels only, and in Central and  
53 Northern Veps, harmony is completely lost (Zaiceva 1981). Southern Veps and Central Crimean  
54 Tatar thus constitute intermediate cases between full harmony and no harmony. To my  
55 knowledge, there are no convincing cases of harmony domains whereby  $n$  vowels are  
56 assimilated, unless  $n = 1$ , i.e. non-iterative harmony. If harmony may emerge or decay by  
57 changes by domain of application, and if  $n$ -ary syllable-counting domains are possible, a  
58 language might innovate a four-syllable window for harmony from a prior two-syllable window,  
59 or something similar. The lack of this bounded iterativity (see also ch. 4i.3) suggests that domain  
60 changes in harmony are not incremental, but rather evolve from non-iterative to iterative within  
61 some domain. Similarly, harmony appears to decay from iterative to non-iterative, as in Central  
62 Crimean Tatar, bypassing any intermediate domains between the two.

63 Changes in the domain of application is also closely connected to increased variability  
 64 and/or gradience in harmony. By variability, I mean optionality, as in the optional assimilation of  
 65 third-syllable vowels in Southern Veps or the optional unrounding of high vowels in Northern  
 66 Crimean Tatar. I use the term gradience specifically to refer to incomplete subphonemic  
 67 assimilation of a target vowel. Recently, backness harmony in Kazakh and Uyghur has been  
 68 shown to be gradient (McCollum 2019a,b). I found that in these languages the backness of words  
 69 like the Kazakh form [qʊs-ʊm-duʊ] ‘winter-POSS.1S-ACC’ diminishes monotonically while front  
 70 vowel words, e.g. [tʲis-ʲm-dʲi] ‘tooth-POSS.1S-ACC’ exhibit no shifts in backness. In these instances  
 71 harmony partially assimilates all targets rather than categorically assimilating some subset of  
 72 targets and leaving the rest unaffected.

73 Finally, harmony may change when the featural conditions for harmony become more or  
 74 less restricted. The common Turkic pattern of rounding harmony involves the assimilation of  
 75 high vowels. However, rounding harmony in some Turkic languages augments the size of the  
 76 featural space controlled by harmony by assimilating some non-high vowels, as well. Compare  
 77 Turkish [tyrk-ler] with no harmony to its equivalent in Kyrgyz [tyrk-tʰɒr] ‘Turk-PL’. If the feature  
 78 space is divided in terms of target height and backness, with an additional dimension for trigger  
 79 height, Turkish rounding harmony operates over only the topmost half of the diagram while  
 80 Yakut exploits a larger portion of the featural space in Table 32a.1 (see also Kaun 1995, 2004;  
 81 ch. 4b). Consider also the pattern in Kachin Khakas, a South Siberian Turkic language, where  
 82 rounding harmony only targets high vowels if the trigger is also high.

83

84 Table 32a.1: A schematic representation of rounding harmony in Turkish, Yakut, and Kyrgyz

Target height	Trigger height	Turkish		Yakut		Kachin Khakas	
		[-bk]	[+bk]	[-bk]	[+bk]	[-bk]	[+bk]
[+hi] target	[+hi] trigger	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	[-hi] trigger	✓	✓	✓	✓		
[-hi] target	[+hi] trigger						
	[-hi] trigger			✓	✓		

85

86 The Yakut and Kachin Khakas patterns schematized in Table 32a.1 demonstrate that changes in  
 87 the operation of harmony may result in the augmentation or reduction of the featural space  
 88 exploited by harmony. In these terms, the most robust type of harmony would subject the entire  
 89 feature space to harmony. As an excellent case study of featural asymmetries and their relevance

90 for language reconstruction and diachrony as it relates to Bantu height harmony, see Hyman  
91 (1999).

92

### 93 **32a.3 Why: The causes of change**

94

95 In the previous section I surveyed some ways in which a harmony pattern may change, but in this  
96 section I attempt to lay out some of the reasons why a pattern may change. This is a  
97 fundamentally more challenging task, and the forces that result in change are numerous. I group  
98 these forces into two categories, external and internal.

99

#### 100 **32a.3.1 External factors**

101

102 One commonly encounters the claim that harmony decay is directly related to the influx of loans.  
103 Among external forces undermining harmony, this appears the least convincing. As Harrison et  
104 al. (2002) discusses, even in a language saturated with loans, this is effect is not likely, in and of  
105 itself, to compel decay. Similarly, Binnick (1991) observes that in the majority of cases, loans do  
106 not drastically affect the operation of harmony in Uralic and Turkic, since the final vowel of the  
107 loan controls the realization of following suffixes, just like the native pattern. For instance, after  
108 the Turkish loan [mikrop] ‘microbe’ backness and rounding harmony proceed as usual from the  
109 root-final vowel to following suffixes [mikrop-lar] ‘microbe-PL’ and [mikrob-u] ‘microbe-  
110 POSS.3S’. Thus, it is not likely that loans can dismantle an operative harmony system.

111 In addition, it is often noted that different loans from different time periods are treated  
112 differently. While these differences may reveal grammatical differences between the relevant  
113 time periods, this is more likely indicative of differing social factors. Harrison et al. (2002) notes  
114 that Russian loans adopted in the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries were typically repaired to obey Tuvan  
115 phonotactics whereas more recent loans are not repaired. These differences in loan adaptation  
116 also coincide with significant differences in Russian language policy. Earlier Imperial practice  
117 differs substantially in its practice and the tools at its disposal when compared to later, 20<sup>th</sup>  
118 century Imperial and Soviet practice, whose goal, as observed in Weinreich (1953) was complete  
119 assimilation (see also Dave 1996; 2004; Fierman 1998 for discussion related to Russian  
120 influence on Kazakh).

121           In some cases, decay of vowel harmony has occurred among speakers from a subordinate  
122 group as a result of a dominant contact language. For instance, the Slavic contrast in consonantal  
123 palatalization has affected the harmony patterns in Karaim and Crimean Tatar (Csató 1999;  
124 Nevins and Vaux 2004; Németh 2015; Kavitskaya 2010). In Crimean Tatar, palatalization is  
125 contrastive, whereas similar effects in most related languages are byproducts of vowel harmony,  
126 having no phonological status on their own. This suggests that consonantal features, which were  
127 once derivable from either syllable-level or adjacent vowel effects are now contrastive, as in  
128 Slavic. Taking this a step further, in Karaim, vowel harmony has largely been lost, being  
129 reinterpreted as consonant harmony. Thus, the distinction between front and back has been  
130 transphonologized to a distinction in palatalization and velarization, restructuring the Turkic  
131 pattern.

132           However, in other cases, vowel harmony in the dominant language is affected by  
133 contact with languages from subordinate groups. Dombrowski (2013) argues that vowel  
134 harmony in West Rumelian Turkish was lost due to the influence of subordinate Indo-  
135 European languages in the Balkans. He suggests that the Indo-European grammatical  
136 requirement for vowels to have underlyingly-specified [back] and [round] features  
137 undermined the harmony pattern in West Rumelian Turkish, the regional lingua franca,  
138 producing invariant suffix morphemes. Presumably, the West Rumelian Turkish spoken  
139 by subjugated Balkan populations drove change in the dominant speech community.  
140 Notable, Dombrowski rejects the claim that incremental adoption of loans drove this  
141 change, but rather a more abstract structural preference. Relatedly, Pajusalu (2012)  
142 suggests that prosodic and grammatical structures adopted during contact with  
143 neighboring Germanic languages drove the loss of frontness harmony in Estonian and  
144 Livonian. He speculates that the development of fusional morphology and prosodic  
145 restructuring led to the loss of harmony in these languages.

146           The two cases just mentioned support the potential role of contact-induced  
147 grammatical restructuring in decay, but this kind of abstract restructuring is not limited to  
148 decay scenarios only. Consider a case of grammatical restructuring in the development  
149 of rounding harmony Turkic that may be due to contact (see also Anderson 2005:6). By  
150 and large, the Turkic pattern of rounding harmony involves the assimilation of a high  
151 vowel target after any round vowel, exemplified by Turkish in Table 32a.2. In contrast,

152 the general Mongolic pattern involves the assimilation of non-high vowels after a non-  
 153 high round vowel trigger, which is represented by Khalkha Mongolian in Table 32a.2  
 154 (Svantesson 1985).<sup>1</sup> When these two general genetic patterns are compared with the  
 155 patterns found in Yakut, Shor, Kyrgyz, and Altai, two things are worth noting (Krueger  
 156 1962; Korn 1969; Harrison 1999; see also Kaun 1995). First, the rounding harmony  
 157 patterns found in Central Asian and Siberian Turkic languages are more complex (in a  
 158 descriptive, not computational sense) than other attested rounding harmony patterns.  
 159 Second, this complexity is potentially derivable from the union of the basic Turkic and  
 160 Mongolic patterns. The rules describing Yakut’s harmony are exactly the union of the  
 161 two, and the patterns in Shor, Kyrgyz, and Western Tuvan and can plausibly be construed  
 162 as variations of this union of Turkic and Mongolic harmonies.  
 163 Table 32a.2: A schematic representation of some rounding harmonies in Mongolic and Turkic (~  
 164 indicates that harmony is optional in this context)

Target height	Trigger height	Turkish		Khalkha		Yakut	
		[-bk]	[+bk]	[-ATR]	[+ATR]	[-bk]	[+bk]
[+hi] target	[+hi] trigger	✓	✓			✓	✓
	[-hi] trigger	✓	✓			✓	✓
[-hi] target	[+hi] trigger						
	[-hi] trigger			✓	✓	✓	✓

  

Target height	Trigger height	Shor		Kyrgyz		Altai	
		[-bk]	[+bk]	[-bk]	[+bk]	[-bk]	[+bk]
[+hi] target	[+hi] trigger	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
	[-hi] trigger	✓	~	✓	✓	✓	✓
[-hi] target	[+hi] trigger	✓		✓		✓	~
	[-hi] trigger	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

165

166 **32a.3.2 Internal factors**

167

168 Although external factors may shape the diachronic trajectories of harmony systems, Binnick  
 169 (1991:38) ultimately rejects the primacy of these, arguing instead that “vowel harmony is  
 170 inherently unstable” He further contends, “[w]hile foreign influence may accelerate or even  
 171 trigger certain changes, it does not dictate the nature of sequence of such changes.” One

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<sup>1</sup> One thing to point out is that while Turkic exhibits backness harmony, Mongolic exhibits ATR harmony, although scholars assume a single pattern in the proto-language (Poppe 1960; Vaux 2009).

172 possibility is that harmony is unstable because it relies on a variety of structures and independent  
173 grammatical patterns, including morphology, vowel contrast, and reduction; in the absence of  
174 these, the likelihood of initiating or maintaining a harmony system diminishes.

175         First among internal factors that may contribute to harmony's emergence or  
176 decay, it is clear that harmony is most obvious as a set of morphophonological  
177 alternations, which require the existence of morphology sufficient to display the pattern.  
178 The critical role morphology plays in harmony is manifest in the history of Nilotic  
179 (Andersen 1990). In Nilotic languages that lost agglutinative morphology, evidence for  
180 any active harmony pattern was lost, as in Nuer and Dinka (Remijsen and Gilley 2008).  
181 In Nilotic languages where agglutination was preserved, e.g. Mayak (Andersen 1999),  
182 harmony persists, but in those where suffixation has been replaced by stem-internal  
183 changes, harmony has also been lost.

184         In addition, vowel mergers may erode the harmony system. If the development  
185 and decay of harmony are construed as the expansion and diminution of the featural  
186 space subject to harmony, then mergers provide a clear case of decay due to the reduced  
187 featural space that alternates for harmony. For instance, the vowels /i i u u/ have merged  
188 to /i u/ in Agoi, an Upper Cross language of Nigeria (Yul-Ifode 2003). Harmony used to  
189 operate over vowels of all heights but now, as a result of the loss of the ATR contrast  
190 among high vowels, ATR harmony now operates on non-high vowels only. Similar  
191 mergers are noted in other languages, reducing the number of vowels subject to harmony  
192 (see Stewart 1971 for discussion related to Kwa).

193         Language-internal disharmony is another force that may disrupt or erode the  
194 larger harmony system. Disharmony may exist either as the simple co-occurrence of  
195 vowels from distinct harmony sets or as the contextual neutralization of harmonic  
196 contrasts. This sort of contextual neutralization is typically a byproduct of consonant-  
197 vowel interactions, and may produce either the basic disharmony, as in the Kyrgyz case  
198 described by Wurm (1949:101), e.g. /dʒu:ju:ma/ [dʒi:ɾma] 'twenty.' In Kyrgyz, the  
199 presence of the palatal glide fronts the two flanking /u/ vowels to [i], yielding a  
200 disharmonic surface form. However, consonantal effects can also introduce opacity into  
201 the system. In Tofa (Harrison and Anderson 2008), /ɑ/ is fronted to [e] around palatal  
202 consonants, and yet the underlying rather than surface backness of the root still spreads,

203 e.g. /ɲɑʃtA/ [ɲeʃtɑ] ‘tree-LOC’. A similar allophony-related opacity is found in Crimean  
204 Tatar, where speakers typically back /ø y/ to [o u] before the lateral, and yet spread  
205 [-back] throughout the word, e.g. /øɫ-mAK/ [olmek] \*[olmaq] ‘die-INF’. Contextual  
206 neutralization may also occur due toumlauting or other vowel-to-vowel interactions. In  
207 Uyghur, the low vowels are raised and fronted preceding /i/, e.g. /ɑɫ-ip/ [elip] ‘take-CVB’.  
208 In Uyghur, the underlying backness of the root vowel spreads despiteumlaut, yielding  
209 opaque forms like /ɑɫ-in-mAK/ [elinmaq] \*[elinmek] ‘take-PASS-INF’ (Nadzhip 1971;  
210 Lindblad 1990; Hahn 1991; cf. McCollum 2019c on the status of /i/ in Uyghur).

211 Finally, Binnick (1991:45-47) argues that reduction obscures harmonic  
212 alternations, and thus contributes to the erosion of harmony. In languages with initial  
213 stress, like Mongolian, the reduction of non-initial vowels to a very central, schwa-like  
214 quality conceals the propagation of the harmonic feature. Also, in languages with final  
215 stress, like Kazakh, the reduction of the initial syllable may mask the backness of the  
216 trigger, which is recoverable from the backness of following vowels, as in /tʊs-tA/ [ts.tɑ]  
217 ‘side-LOC’ and /tʊs-tA/ [ts.ti̯e] ‘dream-LOC’.

218 In sum, a variety of language-internal factors appear to play important roles in the  
219 development and decay of harmony systems. As such, cases of decay cannot simply be  
220 attributed to external factors without further examination of language-internal forces that  
221 have likely influenced the trajectory of the harmony system.

222

#### 223 **32a.4 Conclusion**

224

225 In conclusion, extant evidence supports the role of a wide range of factors on the  
226 development and decay of vowel harmony systems. Both language-internal and external  
227 factors may promote or undermine the existence of harmony, which is realized at the  
228 lexical, morphological, and phonological levels of the grammar. Although the exact  
229 causes for development and decay may be difficult to tease apart, the mechanisms of  
230 change are clearer. In decay, general patterns may become lexically-specific, the domain  
231 of harmony may be reduced, harmony may become optional or gradient in its effect, and  
232 harmony may dictate the realization of a smaller portion of the feature space. More  
233 generally, the claim that the emergence and decay of harmony exploit the same pathways

234 offers testable predictions for particular languages as well as a broader theory of  
235 diachronic vowel harmony.

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