Morphophonemic Spelling for Pedagogical and Other Practical Purposes

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In August of every year since 1965, linguists who study the Native languages of British Columbia and adjacent Northwestern States gather to discuss topics and resolve problems common to their field investigations. This gathering has come to be named the International Conference on Salish and Neighboring Languages.

During the Fourth Conference, held at the University of Victoria in 1969, a long and heated discussion arose concerning orthographies for pedagogical materials and other "practical" purposes. It was generally agreed that a common core of identical symbols was both possible and desirable. It was possible because the inventories of consonants and vowels are relatively similar throughout the area in spite of the very large number of languages spoken here belonging to nine different families. It was desirable because many Native people know two and sometimes three or more indigenous languages. The more similar the orthographic conventions among the languages they use, the easier their task in becoming literate in them. It was also noted that there would be a considerable financial savings for everyone if a common font could be designed.

Beyond these two points, however, there was no agreement. Some of the linguists believed that the conventions of English orthography should be adopted as far as possible, augmented by digraphs and diacritics. They felt that because nearly all Native people throughout the region were already literate in English, reading habits learned for English should be utilized for greater ease in learning to read and write in a Native language. These linguists also pointed out that the symbols used by professionals look quite formidable to the layman; and they expressed the fear that Native people would be too intimidated by linguists' strange letters to be willing to try to learn to write. A few even argued (with shocking patronization) that the symbols used by Amerindianists would be too difficult for most Native people to cope with.

Others at this conference disagreed quite strongly with the above opinions. This group maintained that the principle of one sound one symbol was a great advantage whereas digraphs disguised both the regularity of many reduplicative patterns and the canonical shape of roots which in some languages were also formed very regularly. Furthermore, these linguists pointed to the fact that all fluent speakers were very well aware that the Native languages had many sounds quite different from anything heard in English; therefore, it seemed natural to the speakers of these languages to use different looking symbols for writing different
A third objection to devising a writing system which resembled English as much as possible centred around the hope of bringing Native speakers more and more completely into the work of recording and describing their languages. Learning a writing system that adheres closely to linguists' phonemic notations makes available to Native speakers the fast growing bodies of descriptive data being written about their languages. This access would, it was hoped, provide the researcher with a group of literate Native speakers capable of checking the accuracy of his notations and glosses; and perhaps it would lead to other, more extensive collaboration between speaker and linguist.

This debate concerning symbols for Native language alphabets was not resolved at the Fourth Conference; it continued during the next several conferences but gradually expired without consensus. Each linguist went his own way, giving advice to various Native language committees, different from what his colleagues were suggesting. For some languages this difference of opinion has resulted in two (and in some cases even more) competing writing systems. Instead of cooperation in the urgent matter of language preservation and continuance, linguists have on this point sewn discord.

Regrettably, all of the energy in this debate was centred on just this one relatively minor issue — the symbols to be used. Everyone seemed to assume that all words should be and would be written phonemically; but, our experience with Lushootseed and Saanich Salish language programmes showed that phonemic spelling is not always the best orthographic system. While fluent speakers generally preferred phonemic writing, young adults attempting to learn the language of their people were helped most by a partially morphophonemic system which took into consideration the orthographic conventions of their first language — in these cases, English.

In the early 1970's, several Lushootseed language classes were begun both on reservations and in public schools and universities. Some of these classes were for young children to whom writing was not taught, but others were for young adult Natives who had grown up without any knowledge of their ancestral tongue. (Such is the case of most Salish young people today regardless of language area.) Provisional textbooks were prepared in which the words were spelled phonemically.

Not surprisingly, these provisional texts turned out to need improvement. Certain structures which we thought to be clearly explained proved to be difficult for students in all classes. One of these was the s-absolute paradigm which includes within its semantic range forms translatable with English possessives:
The stem in the left column is the root /dab/ (father); on the right it is /sk'uy/ (mother) which is composed of the root -k'uy and a prefix s-. In Lushootseed (as in most other Salish languages) roots of fundamentally nounlike meaning belong to two classes, namely, those that require the s- prefix and those that do not. Only the affixes glossed as our and your (plural) are pronounced the same way in both columns. Each of the other three undergoes an assimilatory change in one or the other column.

However, complement heads such as /dab/ and /sk'uy/ are very often accompanied by clitics which correspond roughly to English articles. These clitics, added to the above paradigms, give the following new forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/dabdi/</th>
<th>my father</th>
<th>/ck'uy/</th>
<th>my mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>?dabad/</td>
<td>your father</td>
<td>?ack'uy/</td>
<td>your mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bad?/³</td>
<td>his father</td>
<td>/sk'uy/</td>
<td>his mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/badkxt/</td>
<td>our father</td>
<td>/sk'uykt/</td>
<td>our mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/badlap/</td>
<td>your (pl) father</td>
<td>/sk'uylap/</td>
<td>your (pl) mother</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, to express a singular possessor in the three persons, first, second, third, the student must remember the following twelve different forms:

1st. da-, c-, tid-, cic-
2nd. ?ad-, ?ac-, tad-, cac-
3rd -s, the fused form bad?, s- ... -s, ci- ... -s.

All this variety, however, disguises the underlying simplicity of the system. Several simple assimilation patterns account for the apparent complexity. (1) In the onset of a syllable, both /t/ plus /s/ and /d/ plus /s/ result in /c/ while (2) in the coda /d/ plus /s/ becomes /d'/. (3) The vowel sequence /i/ plus /a/ is reduced to /a/ otherwise (4) unstressed /a/ becomes /a/. Finally, (5) an epenthetic /a/ separates two contiguous voiced stops which would otherwise occur in the same syllable as in /dabad/ from (dabad).

The textbooks were revised and a morphophonemic spelling system adopted which revealed the basic simplicity of these (and other) constructions and at the same time took advantage of the students' English writing habits already well instilled. In other words, with only one exception, no special pronunciation rules had to be taught in order for students to automatically pronounce correctly the appropriate phonological sequences from the more abstract writing.

Below is the revised spelling of the s-absolute (possessive) paradigm.
The numbers following forms refer to the morphophonemic rules listed above which derive the correct pronunciation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dbad</td>
<td>ti dbad</td>
<td>my father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adbad</td>
<td>t(i) adbad</td>
<td>your father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bads</td>
<td>ti bads</td>
<td>his father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>badlap</td>
<td>ti badlap</td>
<td>your (pl) father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dskuy</td>
<td>tsi dskuy</td>
<td>my mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adskuy</td>
<td>tsi adskuy</td>
<td>your mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skuy</td>
<td>tsi skuy</td>
<td>his mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skuyet</td>
<td>tsi skuyet</td>
<td>our mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skuylap</td>
<td>tsi skuylap</td>
<td>your (pl) mother</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this orthography each of the singular affixes is always written the same way in spite of the twelve distinct pronunciations listed above: d - first person, ad - second person, and s third person. Yet to correctly realize the twelve pronunciations, the student need only be told to omit letters in parentheses. All other transitions from writing to talking are automatic and more or less unconscious for young adults who are literate native speakers of English. Thus, the sequence d plus s in the coda is rendered as /d/ just as in English words without specific instruction to do so from the teacher. Students intuitively pronounce d plus s and d plus a as /c/ (1). Compare English pronunciation of testee fly and cats. Confronted with an initial sequence of d plus b everyone automatically adds an epenthetic /a/ (5). From the habits of English students also render unstressed a as /a/ (4). Finally, they automatically begin all syllables with /7/ which are spelled with an initial vowel. This practice too follows English habits; in Lushootseed, however, /7/ is phonemic.

Such judicious use of morphophonemic spelling can be very helpful in language instruction. In particular, the use of parentheses has proved useful in languages where sound changes have bequeathed a string of morphemes all having the same shape. The Straits Salish dialect, Saanich, provides a good example of the phenomenon.

Saanich has three prefixes all of which are realized as /s/ at times. This can prove confusing to a student, particularly when the stem to which one or another of these prefixes is added itself begins with /s/. The three can be conveniently labelled as follows:

1. derivational (s-). Some roots automatically require this element although its significance has long since been lost.
2. syntactic (s-). This morpheme is required in certain types of negations. It is bound to the negated predicates whether these be a single word or a whole phrase. (It also occurs in other types of syntactic constructions.)
3. the stative prefix {as-} is realized as /s/ when sentence initial (among other places).

In the word seaman angle adze is the root -seaman, a member of the class which always requires the s- prefix. In contrast is maay? basket which does not take this prefix.

In negative constructions, however, both words begin with s-:

/ʔawa s+mãyʔ/  (ʔawa s+maayʔ)  It is not a basket.

/ʔawa s+seaman/  (ʔawa s+s+seaman)  It is not an angle adze.

Complete assimilation has left only one /s-/ in the second sentence.

One might introduce the parentheses convention here writing ʔawa (s)seaman; but it is probably simpler to maintain phonemic spelling and tell the student that ʔawa requires the following word to have an s- prefix if it does not already have one.

With the addition of (s-) stative to the lessons, however, the use of parentheses is a definite help to the language learner. The following four sentences have among them four allomorphs of {as-}, namely, /s/ in (a), /ʔ/ in (b), /as-/ in (c), and /ʔʔ-/ in (d):

(a) /snawʔat ʔa tʰa maayʔ?  (ʔawa s+naʔawaʔat ʔa tʰa maayʔ?)

It is in the basket.

(b) /siʔaqʔa tʰa latemʔ  (ʔawa s+iʔaqʔa tʰa latem)

It is under the table.

(c) /ʔawa sosnawʔat ʔa tʰa maayʔ?  (ʔawa s+s+naʔawaʔat ʔa tʰa maayʔ?)

It is not in the basket.

(d) /ʔawa soslʔaqʔa tʰa latemʔ  (ʔawa s+s+siʔaqʔa ʔa tʰa latem)

It is not under the table.

The use of parentheses again provides an easy means of showing the student both the pronunciation and the underlying pattern at the same time.

(a) (a)snawʔat ʔa(t)14 tʰa maayʔ.

(b) (as)siʔaqʔa ʔa(t) tʰa latem.

(c) ʔawa sosnawʔat ʔa(t) tʰa maayʔ.

(d) ʔawa sa(s)siʔaqʔa ʔa(t) tʰa latem.

In both Lushootseed and Saanich these particular morphophonemic spellings were originally introduced to help language learners. Fluent speakers of both languages (all of whom were over sixty) found a phonemic system of writing more natural. In Lushootseed, however, the elders who learned to write well felt the morphophonemic system to be the standard because the textbooks were, for most of them, the first published forms of Lushootseed they had seen. Therefore, they assigned more prestige to the morphophonemic spelling and chose to learn it. Among Saanich elders, on the other hand, the morphophonemic system was never accepted. The only elder who grasped the reasoning behind it was employed as a language teacher and he referred to it somewhat condescendingly as training wheels for the young folks.
Our experiences with pedagogical materials for the Wakashan language called Nitinaht corroborated these opinions. Again fluent adult speakers preferred phonemic spelling, while young adults attempting to acquire Nitinaht as a second language were greatly helped by a partially morphophonemic spelling.

In addition to pedagogical ends a morphophonemic spelling has another advantage. It often can serve several dialects of a particular language, whereas a purely phonemic system either has a more limited readership or forces speakers of other speech communities to read in a dialect that is not their own. This wider use is particularly important where there are few speakers and these are divided among several dialects. A unified writing system enables them to pool their resources for printing their materials.

While the selection of symbols is a necessary consideration, it is only one of several important factors that ought to be carefully thought out. Two of these have been discussed here: (1) For whom is the writing system intended? (2) How should words be spelled? In British Columbia these two fundamental questions have very often been overlooked. It is hoped that those involved with planning orthographies in the future will give these considerations the attention they ought to have.

Notes
1. Syllabaries were never considered because most languages in this region permit long consonant clusters. A sequence of five consonants in one syllable is not unusual. Some language such as the Salish Bella Coola and the Wakashan Oowekyala have many whole words utterly devoid of vowels.
2. I know of four systems being used to write Halkomelem Salish — three of them competing on one reserve!
3. /ḏ/ represents a voiced alveolar affricate, the voiced counterpart to /ʃ/. The gloss his is to be understood to include her, their, and its here and throughout this paper.
4. On this derivational level (s-) no longer carries any semantic weight. Although meaningless here, the same (historical) element occurs inflectionally and syntactically with an aspectual significance difficult to explain concisely in English. The same statements pertain to the cognate form in Saanich, (s-), discussed below.
5. That is, nouns. However in Lushootseed, Saanich, and many other Salish languages roots are not inherently nominal or verbal; therefore, many Salishanists prefer to avoid the terms noun and verb and the concepts typically associated with them in European languages.
6. Literally, the my father, etc.


8. Space to represent word divisions was introduced to separate the clitics from head words. Constructions such as /ti hāʔ dbād/ (ti hāʔ dbād), my good father prove the validity of this word boundary because hāʔ good is a free form which along with others of its class occurs between the clitics and the prefixes of the head words. Students have experienced no difficulty in remembering to pronounce the sequence of clitic plus prefix as a single syllable.

9. The analysis of /c/ into (t) plus (s) is based upon a more complete inventory of these article-like particles than is included in this discussion. Two more will suffice to show the reasoning. Beside /ti/ and /ci/, which are definite, are /k’i/ and /k’si/ indicating a remote or vague complement. These and all other particles belonging to this class have /s/ when modifying a word with female referent; therefore, it is assumed that /c/ is here a portmanteau representing (t) plus (s).

10. As mentioned above, this orthography was prepared for Native people who do not speak their ancestral language. However, elders fluent in Lushootseed also found the system easy to use.

In fact, several people in their sixties taught themselves to read and write it by using the textbooks which had been intended only for language instruction. (Note, however, the contrary reaction of Saanich elders to morphophonemic spelling mentioned below.)

11. The number following this and subsequent sentences refers to the morphophonemic statements listed above, pages 9, 10.

12. The letter sequence d + s is so pronounced only when in the onset of a syllable. (Some students, of course, need practice in order to pronounce /c/ in a syllable onset, but that is a different type of problem.)

13. Compare the identical phenomenon in Lushootseed mentioned above in connection with the word for mother, namely sk̕u?y.

14. The symbol t̄ stands for a voiced dental slit affricate. The /t/ of the preceding particle is lost before /t̄/. Here, too, parentheses have been introduced to show the underlying regularity.

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