

Phonetic Structures of Turkish Kabardian¹

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Abstract

This paper reports results of a quantitative phonetic study of Kabardian, a Northwest Caucasian language that is of typological interest from a phonetic standpoint. A number of cross-linguistically rare properties are examined. These features include the phonetic realization of Kabardian's small vowel inventory, which contains only three contrastive vowel qualities (two short vowels and one long vowel), spectral characteristics of the ten voiceless fricatives of Kabardian, as well as the acoustic and aerodynamic characteristics of ejective fricatives, an extremely rare type of segment cross-linguistically. In addition, basic properties of the consonant stop series are explored, including closure duration and voice onset time, in order to test postulated universals linking these properties to place of articulation and laryngeal setting.

1. Introduction

Kabardian is a Northwest Caucasian language spoken by approximately 647,000 people (SIL online Ethnologue, www.sil.org) primarily in Russia and Turkey and also in smaller communities in various countries, including Syria, Lebanon, Jordan, Germany, and the United States. Kabardian belongs to the Circassian branch of the Northwest Caucasian language family, which also includes three other languages: Ubykh, a moribund language of Turkey, and the two very closely related languages/dialects of Abkhaz and Abaza. The Circassian languages are commonly divided into two branches: East Circassian, including Kabardian and closely related Beslenny, and West Circassian, including Adyghe and its associated dialects.

Kabardian dialects can be further divided into three groups (Smeets 1984): West Kabardian, including Kuban and Kuban-Zelenchuk, Central Kabardian, which includes Baksan and Malka, and East Kabardian, comprising the Terek and Mozdok varieties. The Baksan dialect serves as the basis for the literary language arising in the 19th century (Colarusso 1992:3). Most speakers of Kabardian living outside of Russia do not read Kabardian, which has been written using the Cyrillic script since 1937 (Kuipers 1960:9). Nevertheless, Kabardian (along with other Northwest Caucasian languages) has a rich tradition of oral tales, the best known of which are the Nart sagas (Colarusso 2002).

The largest concentration of Kabardian speakers resides in the Kabardino-Balkar republic of Russia. However, a substantial minority of speakers now reside in Turkey after a long struggle between the Northwest Caucasians and the Russians culminated in a mass exodus from Russia in the 19th century. The Ethnologue cites a figure of 202,000 Kabardian speakers in Turkey, though it is quite likely that the actual number of speakers exceeds this figure (John Colarusso, p.c). Smaller groups of Kabardian speakers are scattered throughout various countries, including Syria

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(about 40,000, including speakers of other Circassian languages, as of the early 1960s according to Smeets 1984:53), Jordan (30,000 Circassian language speakers according to Smeets), and the United States.

Most previous descriptions of Kabardian focus on the variety of Kabardian spoken in Russia, in particular, the Baksan dialect upon which the literary standard language is based (Colarusso 1992). The literature on Kabardian is largely published in Russian sources, including several grammars (Yakovlev 1948, Turchaninov and Tsagov 1940, Abitov et al. 1957, Bagov et al. 1970) and dictionaries (Kardanov and Bichoev 1955, Apazhev et al. 1957), although one grammar (Colarusso 1992) and some phonetic and phonological descriptions have been published in other languages, e.g. in English (Catford 1942, 1984, Kuipers 1960) and German (Yakovlev 1930). Quantitative phonetic studies of Kabardian and/or related Northwest Caucasian languages include studies by Henderson (1970), Colarusso (1988, 1992, 1994), Catford (1984), Choi (1991), and Wood (1994).

This paper presents results of a phonetic study of Kabardian as spoken by the diaspora community, focusing in particular on the variety of Kabardian used in Turkey. Despite comprising up to one third of the Kabardian speaking population, Turkish Kabardian has not been systematically described in the literature. This study thus helps to fill a salient lacuna in the literature on Kabardian linguistics, and more specifically, Kabardian phonetics. Moreover, the present work describes a number of phonetic features in Kabardian that are typologically unusual. These properties include the vowel system, which is remarkable in possessing only one to three (depending on the analysis) contrastive vowel qualities, and the fricative inventory, which contains at least nine contrastive places of articulation as well as both ejective and non-ejective voiceless fricatives. Examination of these properties provides insight into the phonetic realization of small vowel inventories and complex consonant systems. In addition, the paper provides a basic description of consonant closure duration and voice onset time for the stop consonants in order to test hypothesized universals linking voicing and place of articulation to these acoustic parameters.

2. Methodology.

This paper is based on analysis of a word list illustrating the principle phonetic properties of Kabardian as spoken by the Kabardian diaspora. Data from ten speakers, 5 female and 5 male, were analyzed. Nine of the ten speakers spent their formative years in Turkey (five of the six still live in Turkey), while the tenth speaker, one of the males, grew up in Jordan and currently lives in the United States. The speech of the speaker from Jordan was found to closely resemble that of the other speakers, except for some minor differences discussed in the section on fricatives (section 3.2). In addition to the ten speakers belonging to the Kabardian diaspora, the speech of a Kabardian residing in Russia but visiting the United States was also considered in order to allow for comparison of the Kabardian spoken outside of Russia with the Russian variety described in the literature.

The word list was recorded in Turkey, except for the speaker from Jordan and one of the speakers from Turkey, whose recordings were made in Southern California. The targeted words were elicited in Turkish for the nine speakers from Turkey and in English for the speaker from Russia and the speaker from Jordan. Data was recorded using a head mounted unidirectional microphone connected to a Sony DAT recorder. Recordings were then converted to .wav files in

preparation for acoustic analysis using Praat (www.praat.org) and MacQuirer (www.sciconrd.com).

Several different analyses were performed in the current study. First, section 3 focuses on the consonants of Kabardian, providing an overview of the consonant inventory, a qualitative description of some of the typologically less common consonants, as well quantitative analysis of stop and fricative consonants. Section 4 examines the vowel system. Finally, section 5 summarizes the results of the current study.

3. Consonants

Speakers in our study were found to possess the 46 consonants depicted in table 1.

Table 1. The consonant phonemes of speakers examined in this paper

	Labial	Denti-alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Palatal	Palatalized Velar	Velar	Uvular	Pharyng.	Laryng.
Stops	p ^h p' b	t ^h t' d			g ^j k ^j '	k ^{wh} k ^w '	q ^h q' q ^{wh} q ^w '		? ? ^w
Affricates		ts ts' dz							
Fricatives	f f' v [w]	s z	ʃ ʃ' ʒ	ç ʝ		x ^w ɣ ^w [g ^w]	χ ɣ χ ^w ɣ ^w	ħ	h
Nasals	m	n							
Laterals		l ɭ ɭ'							
Tap		ɾ							
Glides				j					

The 46 consonants in Kabardian far exceed the modal number of 21 consonants found in Maddieson's (1984) survey of 317 languages. Particularly unusual from a typological perspective is the thirteen-way contrast among voiceless fricatives. Eight distinct places of articulation are represented, one of which (uvular) has a rounding contrast. In addition, there are both lateral and central fricatives produced in the denti-alveolar region as well as a contrast between ejective and non-ejective fricatives at three places of articulation (labiodental, alveolar lateral, and palato-alveolar). Ejective fricatives are very rare cross-linguistically: Maddieson reports them for only 10 of the 317 languages in his survey (Kabardian being one of the surveyed languages). The nature of the fricative contrast is discussed further in section 3.2.

The rounded velar fricative/ɣ^w/ is characteristically produced as a voiced stops [g^w], word-initially. The labiodental fricative /v/ may be realized either as a fricative or as a labio-velar glide [w] depending on context and speaker. In addition, the lateral approximant /l/ often is realized with some frication noise, i.e. as [ɭ], as reported in other works on Kabardian.

The contrast between voiced and voiceless stops is realized as a contrast between voiced and voiceless aspirated stops only intervocalically. Word-initially, the voiced stops are typically realized as voiceless unaspirated, making the contrast one of aspiration in this position. In final position, the voiceless aspirated consonants lack the aspiration, though the voiced consonants are voiced throughout most if not all of their closure. The aspiration associated with the voiceless uvular [q^h] often is realized as a uvular fricative, i.e. [q^χ]. Ejective stops are distinguished from

non-ejective stops by the increased intensity of their burst releases, in addition to differences in voice onset time. Consonant voicing patterns are described further in section 3.

The inventory in table 1 differs from the literary dialect of Russian Kabardian described in published works on Kabardian. Speakers from Turkey have a single set of palato-alveolar fricatives unlike speakers of literary Kabardian from Russia, who have both the palato-alveolars /ʃ, ʒ/ and the alveolopalatals /ç, ç', z/. This difference between Turkish Kabardian and literary Kabardian is discussed further in section 3.2. In addition the palatal fricative /ç/ employed by the speakers examined in this paper corresponds to a more posterior /x/ for certain speakers of Kabardian in Russia (including the speaker from Russia analyzed in this paper). Speakers of Kabardian from Russia generally also have a voiced palato-alveolar affricate /dʒ/ instead of the more conservative (Kuipers 1960:21) voiced palatalized velar stop /gʲ/ consistently employed by the speakers recorded for this project.

3.1. Stop consonants

In order to investigate the phonetic realization of the place and laryngeal contrasts in the plosive series, both closure duration and voice-onset-time were measured for a subset of the recorded data. Data from nine speakers were analyzed for the phase of the study investigating consonants. Measurements were taken from a waveform with the assistance of an accompanying spectrogram using Praat (www.praat.org). Voice-onset time for most stops was measured in two contexts: in word-initial position before a stressed low vowel and in word-medial position between two low vowels, the first of which was stressed. Closure duration was measured for the intervocalic stops. The words containing the target consonants for measurement appear in table 2. The voiceless uvular stop was not produced in intervocalic position by any of the speakers.

Table 2. Words containing the targeted stops for closure duration and voice-onset-time measures

Stop	Initial position		Intervocalic position	
b	'ba:dzɐ	'fly'	'sa:bɐ	'dust'
p ^h	'p ^h a:sɐ	'early'	'na:p ^h ɐ	'face'
p'	'p'a:lɐ	'date, time'	'g ^w a:p'ɐ (səp'ɐ)	'pleasant' ('his bed')
d	'da:mɐ	'wing'	'fa:dɐ	'drink'
t ^h	't ^h a:nɐ	'young bull'	'ja:tɐ	'cream'
t'	't'at'ɐ	'soft'	'jat'ɐ	'dirt'
g ^j	'g ^j a:nɐ	'shirt'	'bza:g ^j ɐ	'evil'
g ^w	'g ^w a:p'ɐ	'pleasant'	not realized as stop	
k ^j '	'k ^j 'a:psɐ	'rope'	no example	
k ^{wh}	'k ^{wh} ɐ	'core'	'si:k ^{wh} ɐ	'my core'
k ^w '	'k ^w 'a:sɐ	'fugitive'	'ma:k ^w 'ɐ	'he goes'
q ^h	'q ^h ɐʔɐ	'please'	'si:q ^h ɐ	'my cemetery'
q'	'q'a:lɐ	'city'	'va:q'ɐ	'shoe'
q ^{wh}	'q ^{wh} a:fɐ	'boat'	'ç'a:q ^{wh} ɐ	'bread'
q ^w '	'q ^w 'a:ʒɐ	'village'	'ʎa:q ^w 'ɐ	'leg'

3.1.2. Closure duration

Closure duration values for intervocalic stops appear in table 3. Results for individual speakers as well as averages across speakers are given. The five female speakers are labelled F1-F5, while the male speakers are labelled M1-M4. Gaps occur where speakers either failed to produce the consonants as expected or altered the context in which the targeted consonant was expected to appear. For example, some speakers produced the word /g^wa:p'ɐ/ 'pleasant' with a voiceless bilabial plosive rather than an ejective. Interestingly, one speaker (M2) realized the uvular ejective /q'/ as an ejective fricative [χ'] rather than a stop (see section 3.2 for further discussion of fricatives).

Overall, voiced stops had slightly shorter closure durations (93 milliseconds on average) than either voiceless aspirated stops (102 milliseconds) or ejective stops (110 milliseconds). An analysis of variance revealed a significant effect of manner on closure duration: $F(2, 182) = 5.808, p=.004$.² However, Scheffe's posthoc tests showed only the difference between voiced and ejective closure durations to be statistically robust, $p=.004$. The greater length of aspirated consonants relative to voiced consonants was most robust in the bilabial series for which 8 of 9 speakers (all except speaker M2) had longer aspirated plosives.

The shorter duration of voiced stops relative to voiceless ones is a common pattern cross-linguistically (Lehiste 1970, Maddieson 1997) and has an aerodynamic basis. The length of a voiced closure is constrained by the requirement that there be a sufficient pressure drop across the glottis to allow vocal fold vibration. This pressure differential cannot be maintained indefinitely because of the occlusion in the vocal tract, which induces a rise in intraoral pressure.

Table 3. Closure duration values (in milliseconds) by speaker for stops in intervocalic position

Speaker	Stop													
	Voiced			Aspirated					Ejective					
	b	d	g ^j	p ^h	t ^h	k ^{wh}	q ^h	q ^{wh}	p'	t'	k ^{w'}	q'	q ^{w'}	
F1	88	107	75	103	101	78	---	94	113	89	92	101	38	
F2	105	138	100	124	121	90	---	111	---	127	103	174	156	
F3	67	87	97	104	83	75	---	88	---	112	80	125	140	
F4	85	116	---	130	128	86	---	119	134	128	89	117	100	
F5	92	108	98	131	118	154	---	158	164	110	126	128	154	
M1	106	91	61	119	93	76	---	---	---	143	99	97	113	
M2	121	86	---	95	111	---	---	73	86	95	69	---	98	
M3	74	76	68	107	70	114	65	---	98	93	73	70	68	
M4	94	97	---	125	101	---	30	73	---	117	110	113	115	
Mean	93	100	82	115	103	95	53	102	116	114	97	116	110	

Aerodynamic factors also predict that more posterior voiced stops should have shorter closure durations than their anterior counterparts, since intraoral air pressure will reach levels at which voicing is no longer possible faster for a more posterior constriction than for a more anterior one. This prediction appears to be robustly confirmed cross-linguistically (see Lehiste 1970, Maddieson 1997). However, the inverse correlation between backness of constriction and

² The statistics reported in this paper were calculated using SPSS version 11.0 (www.spss.com).

length of closure is not consistently seen in the data examined here. Voiced bilabial stops have longer closures than denti-alveolars for only 2 of the 9 speakers, though 5 of the 6 speakers for whom data for the palatalized velar series was available have longer dental than velar closures as predicted.

Differences in closure duration between aspirated and ejective stops showed considerable variation dependent on speaker and place of articulation with the most consistent pattern found in the rounded velar series, where ejective closures were longer for 5 of 7 speakers for whom data on both consonants was available. In the bilabial and rounded uvular series, there was considerable interspeaker variation in the relative length of the aspirated and ejective closure durations. The two speakers for whom the non-rounded uvulars could be compared had longer closures for the ejectives, though this difference was quite small for speaker M3.

3.1.2. Voice onset time

Voice onset time was examined in two environments in order to determine the nature of the three way laryngeal contrast in the plosive series. Of particular interest is the phonetic realization of the voiced series, which has typically been described as voiced, although certain works (Yakovlev 1923:38, Kuipers 1960:19) mention a voiceless unaspirated realization as a variant. Henderson (1970:93) mentions that his consultants sometimes pronounced the /d/ and the /d₃/ (historically equivalent to the palatalized velar /g^j/ produced by speakers in the current study) as voiceless obstruents. In the data we collected, the stops were consistently voiced in intervocalic position and final position but varied considerably from speaker to speaker in their voicing patterns word-initially. Individual voice-onset-time results for the phonemic voiced stops in initial position appear in table 4.

Table 4. Voice-onset-time values (in milliseconds) by speaker for “voiced” stops in initial position

Speaker	Stop			
	b	d	g ^j	g ^w
F1	0	0	---	20
F2	-61	8	-117	-40
F3	13	21	24	---
F4	-11	19	43	30
F5	8	17	28	0
M1	-141	-124	---	-127
M2	-71	-55	-34	0
M3	-78	-63	-89	---
M4	0	-14	-94	---
Mean	-38	-18	-34	-16

The four male speakers produced voiced stops word-initially with the exception of the labialized velar for speaker M1 and the bilabial for speaker M4, both of which were realized as voiceless unaspirated stops. Female speaker F3 realized the stops with slightly positive voice-onset-times word-initially. Speaker F1 initiated voicing exactly at release, while speakers F2 and F4 varied in their voicing patterns depending on place of articulation with bilabials having

negative voice-onset times for both speakers and denti-alveolars being characterized by slightly positive voice-onset-times. The two velars were voiced for speaker F2 but had positive voice-onset-times for speaker F4. Individuals were generally consistent in their pronunciation of a stop produced at a given place of articulation. In the bilabial and palatalized velar series, however, speaker M1 produced one token as a voiceless unaspirated stop and the other as a heavily voiced stop (>80 milliseconds of prevoicing).

Overall, the results suggest that the stops labelled as voiced in table 1 are indeed phonemically voiced but can become phonetically devoiced due to the reduced subglottal pressure characteristic of absolute initial position. This accords with a common cross-linguistic pattern found, for example, in English (Keating 1984). Averaged across speakers, VOT values were shorter for the bilabials than for the other three plosives. However, because of the considerable interspeaker variation, none of the pairwise comparisons between different plosives reached significance according to unpaired t-tests. Furthermore, an analysis of variance did not reveal any reliable effect of place of articulation on VOT values in initial position.

Table 5 summarizes VOT results across places of articulation for the different series of stops in initial and intervocalic position.

Table 5. Voice-onset-time values (in milliseconds) for the three stop series in initial and intervocalic position (averaged across 9 speakers)

	voiced	aspirated	ejective
Initial	-6	62	37
Intervocalic	(-93)	48	28

Voice onset time values for the aspirated and ejective stops were considerably longer than those for the phonemic voiced stops. An analysis of variance for the three series of stops in initial position indicated a significant effect of laryngeal setting on voice onset time: $F(2, 223) = 97.821, p=.000$. VOT values were shortest for the phonemic voiced, but phonetically often unvoiced, stops (-6 milliseconds on average), longest for the voiceless aspirated stops (62 milliseconds) and intermediate in duration for the ejective stops (37 milliseconds). Scheffe's posthoc tests revealed all of the pairwise comparisons to be significant: voiced vs. aspirated, $p=.000$; voiced vs. ejective, $p=.000$; aspirated vs. ejective, $p=.000$. T-tests conducted using balanced places of articulation confirmed the robustness of this result: voiced vs. ejective, $t(1, 146) = 8.837, p=.000$; voiced vs. aspirated, $t(1, 105) = 10.339, p=.000$; aspirated vs. ejective, $t(1, 161) = 5.966, p=.000$. Overall voice-onset-time values were slightly longer in initial position than in intervocalic position for the aspirated series but not for the ejectives.

In medial position, aspirated stops had longer voice onset times than ejectives also (48 milliseconds vs. 28 milliseconds): $t(1, 138) = 4.518, p=.000$. Voice onset time for voiced stops in intervocalic position was not compared to the other two series of plosives, since the voiced stops are typically voiced intervocalically making their voice onset times equivalent to their closure durations. An analysis of variance determined that position had a significant effect on VOT values: $F(1, 301) = 13.556, p=.000$. VOT values were longer in initial position than medial position for both the aspirated and ejective stops: 62 milliseconds vs. 48 milliseconds for the aspirated series and 37 milliseconds vs. 28 milliseconds for the ejectives. Another analysis of variance using places of articulation represented in both positions in both the aspirated and ejective series (i.e. labial, rounded velar, and rounded uvular) produced similar statistical

outcomes. The effect of position on voice onset time would be even greater were it not for the bilabial series, for which initial position was not associated with longer VOT values than intervocalic position in either the aspirated or the ejective series.

VOT values for the aspirated stops were consistent with those found for phonemic aspirated stops in languages in Cho and Ladefoged’s (1999) cross-linguistic study of voice-onset times. The shorter VOT values for the ejectives relative to the aspirated stops in Kabardian is also consistent with the languages in Cho and Ladefoged’s survey that contrast ejective and aspirated stops. VOT values from the present study are similar to those reported for Kabardian in Catford’s (1984) survey of VOT values in Caucasian languages (see also Catford 1977). Catford’s results indicate substantial differences between languages in VOT. In particular, VOT values differ significantly for ejective stops, ranging from a low of 12 milliseconds (averaged across places of articulation) in Abkhaz to a high of 116 milliseconds in Adyghe, both of which are Northwest Caucasian languages like Kabardian.

Individual results for the aspirated and ejective stops in initial position and intervocalic position appear in tables 6 and 7, respectively.

Table 6. Voice-onset-time values (in milliseconds) by speaker for voiceless aspirated and ejective stops in initial position

Speaker	Aspirated					Stop					
	p ^h	t ^h	k ^{wh}	q ^h	q ^{wh}	p ^ʼ	t ^ʼ	k ^{wʼ}	kj ^ʼ	q ^ʼ	q ^{wʼ}
F1	29	---	72	79	111	51	---	41	65	33	19
F2	48	---	72	58	21	---	---	---	114	18	29
F3	37	---	75	84	111	28	---	---	24	34	14
F4	38	---	80	93	87	45	---	29	27	25	93
F5	44	---	87	67	55	93	115	---	102	35	36
M1	53	---	101	74	58	36	38	26	53	20	0
M2	30	---	57	82	77	27	---	---	26	25	0
M3	25	46	70	53	37	16	---	42	55	22	41
M4	23	55	55	45	57	37	---	38	30	16	14
Mean	36	51	75	67	73	42	77	34	55	25	19

Table 7. Voice-onset-time values (in milliseconds) by speaker for voiceless aspirated and ejective stops in intervocalic position

	Aspirated					Ejective				
	p ^h	t ^h	k ^{wh}	q	q ^{wh}	p'	t'	k ^{w'}	q'	q ^{w'}
F1	35	66	75	---	87	53	35	35	21	32
F2	42	37	61	---	81	27	44	36	13	24
F3	55	72	32	---	---	---	27	17	15	18
F4	41	44	22	---	14	62	66	23	---	14
F5	43	65	80	---	30	104	89	8	25	21
M1	43	33	78	---	105	---	40	26	10	0
M2	28	65	37	---	45	10	13	-69	29	---
M3	0	35	110	39	---	17	28	17	37	35
M4	18	41	---	37	36	---	27	41	13	12
Mean	34	46	59	39	57	43	39	25	21	20

It is interesting to note that the ejective release in Kabardian stops is often less salient for the rounded ejectives than for the non-rounded ones. In fact, the rounded ejectives appear to have been replaced by either voiceless unaspirated stops or voiced stops for certain speakers, an observation which is supported by the very short VOT values found for the rounded ejectives for certain speakers. The two male speakers have zero voice onset time values for the rounded uvular series in initial position and speaker M2 produced a voiced rounded velar in intervocalic position. This realization does not jeopardize any phonemic contrasts, since the phonemic voiced rounded velar stop is realized as a fricative or an approximant intervocalically (see section 3). The realization of the phonemic ejective /q^{w'}/ with zero voice onset time for a male speaker is depicted in figure 1 along with its voiceless aspirated counterpart, which has a fricated release. It may be noted that the first two voicing periods after the release of the underlying ejective (on the right) suggest slightly creaky phonation, consistent with the ejective identity of the preceding stop.

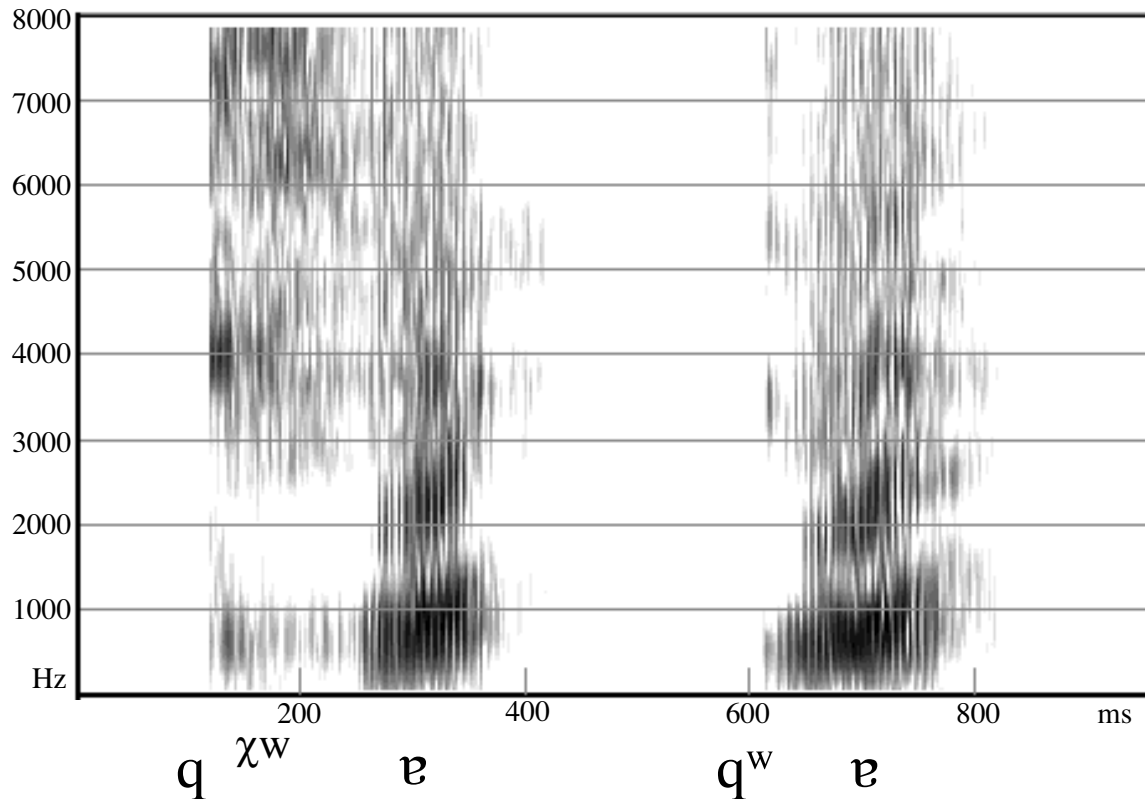


Figure 1. Phonetic realization of the phonemic aspirated uvular stop /q^{wh}/ and the phonemic ejective uvular stop /q^w/ in the words /q^{wh}ə/ ‘pig’ and /q^wə/ ‘son’ as produced by male speaker M1.

3.2. Fricatives

One of the typologically unusual features of Kabardian is its large number of fricatives: 12 voiceless ones in the variety studied here /f, f', s, ʃ, ʃ', ç, x^w, χ, χ^w, h/ (speakers of literary Kabardian in Russia have an additional alveolopalatal series /ç, ç', z/) and 5 voiced ones /v, z, ʒ, ɣ, ɣ^w/, three of which /v, ɣ, ɣ^w/ often have approximant realizations. Two features of the fricative system are of particular interest. First, there are a large number of place contrasts in the voiceless series, including a lateral and two rounded fricatives. Second, three of the voiceless fricatives have contrasting ejective fricatives. Ejective fricatives are exceedingly rare and there is very little phonetic data on their realization cross-linguistically. In section 3.2.1, we examine the spectral attributes of the place and secondary articulation contrasts among the non-ejective voiceless fricatives, while section 3.2.2 explores the acoustic and aerodynamic characteristics of the ejective fricatives.

3.2.1. Spectral characteristics of the voiceless fricatives

The spectral attributes of the voiceless supralaryngeal fricatives were investigated in a set of words containing the fricatives in word-initial position before a low vowel. The words containing the target fricatives are in table 8.

Table 8. Words containing the targeted voiceless fricatives for the spectral measurements

Fricative	Word	Gloss
f	fɑ:ðe	‘drink’
s	sa:bɛ	‘dust’
ɬ	ɬa:q ^w ɛ	‘leg’
ʃ	ʃa:tɛ	‘cream’
ç	çɑ:mɛ	‘foreign’
x ^w	x ^w a:bɛ	‘warm’
χ	χa:ɾzɔnɛ	‘good, useful’
χ ^w	χ ^w a:psɛ	‘envy’
h	hɑ:ðe	‘corpse’

A 512 point window (approximately 23 ms) was centered around the middle of each fricative and an FFT spectrum of this window was calculated using MacQuirer (www.sciconrd.com). Numerical spectra were then averaged together over the two tokens of each fricative appearing in the same environment for a given speaker. Because visual inspection revealed consistency across speakers in the spectral properties characterizing each fricative, the spectra for all speakers of the same gender were averaged together for each fricative with the exception of /ʃ/ and /ç/ for the male speakers. In the case of /ʃ/ and /ç/, three of the male speakers (M1, M3, M4) pattern together with respect to spectral characteristics, while speaker M2 showed different patterns. The averaged spectra appear in Figures 2 (fricatives articulated anterior to the velar region) and Figure 3 (posterior fricatives). Spectra for the female speakers appear on the left and those for the male speaker on the right in each figure.

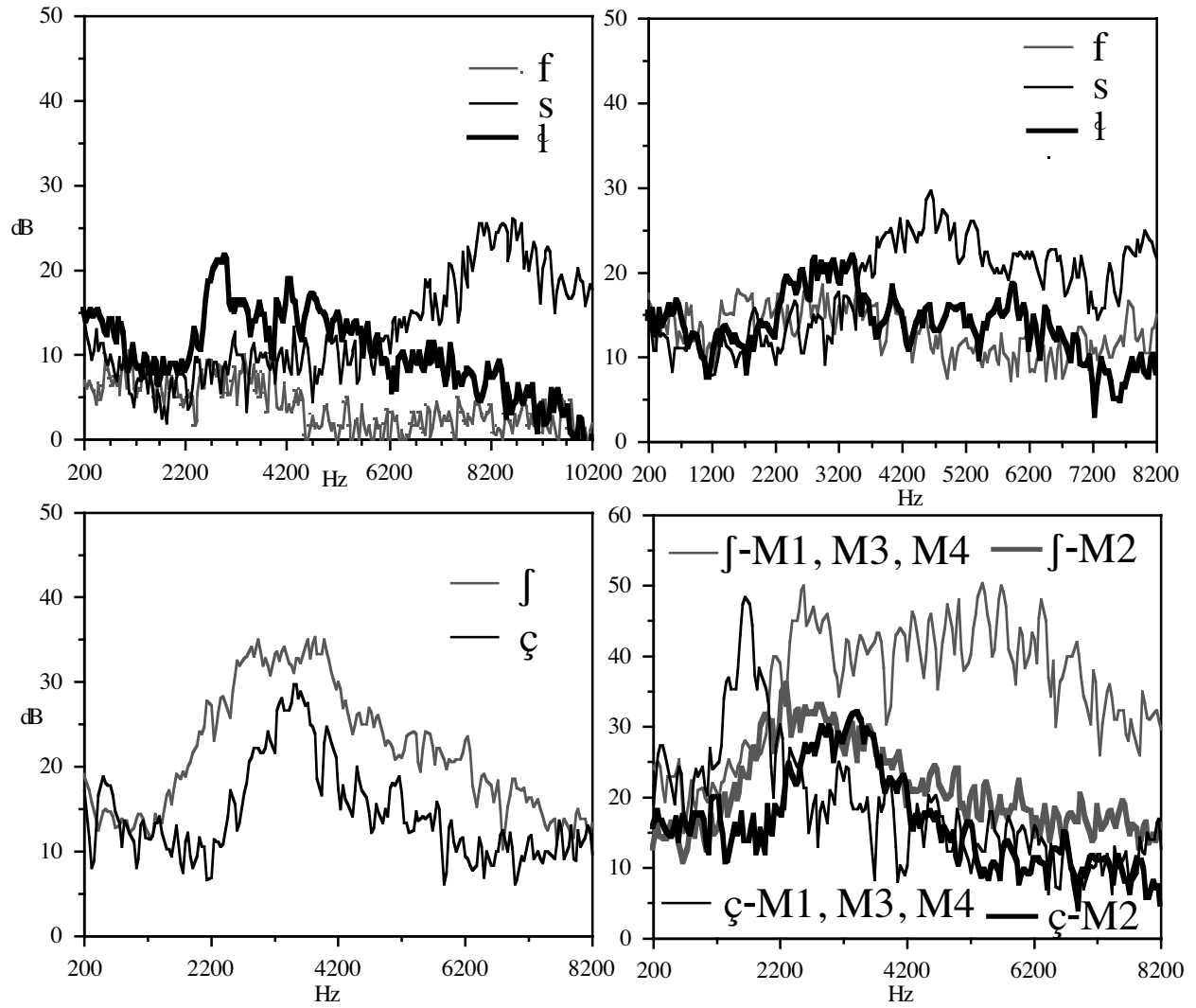


Figure 2. FFT power spectra of labial and coronal fricatives (females on left, males on right)

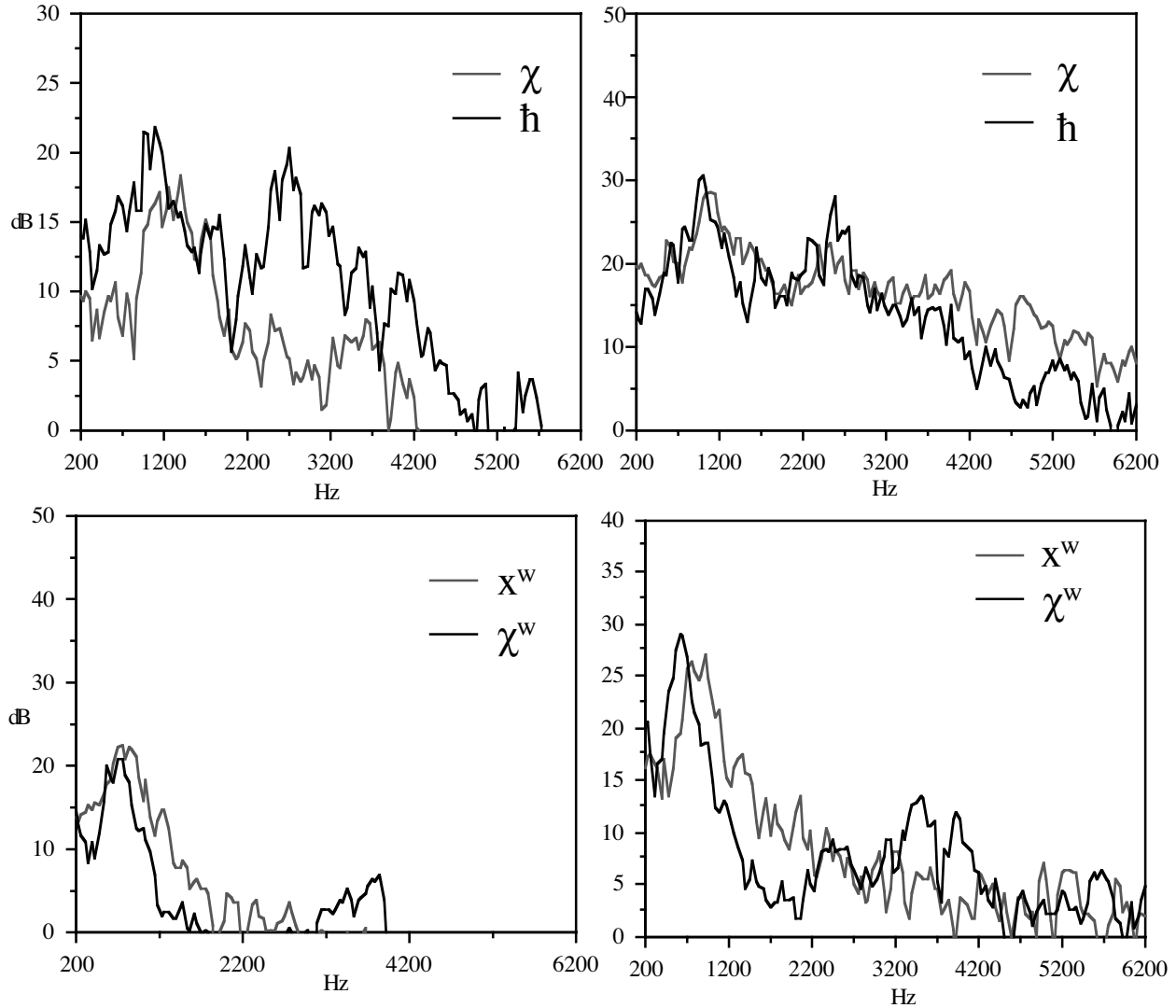


Figure 3. FFT power spectra of posterior fricatives (females on left, males on right)

The spectral characteristics are generally similar for the male and female speakers. The labiodental /f/ has a relatively flat spectrum compared to the other fricatives. Fricatives other than the labiodental have one or more energy peaks that vary in frequency and acuity between the different fricatives. Fricatives produced with more anterior articulations characteristically have their primary spectral peaks at higher frequencies while more posterior fricatives have more energy lower in the frequency domain. This correlation between anteriority of the constriction and frequency of the most intense noise band is attributed to the decreased length of the cavity in front of anterior constrictions.

The noise associated with the denti-alveolar /s/ is weighted toward higher frequencies relative to other fricatives, with the bulk of energy occurring between 3500 and 6000 Hz for the male speakers and between 7000 and 9000 Hz for the female speakers. The lateral fricative's primary concentration of energy is lower than that of /s/ and less intense, occurring between 2000 and 5000Hz. For the female speakers, it is possible to discern two spectral peaks in this range, the first one being more intense and falling between 2000 and 3000Hz and the second one occurring at slightly higher frequencies. These two peaks correspond to a single broader peak

for the male speakers. The palato-alveolar /ʃ/ is characterized for the female speakers by a single spectral peak which is both broader and more intense than those associated with the lateral though they occur at similar frequencies. The male speakers diverge somewhat in their realization of the /ʃ/. All speakers have a relatively narrow peak at roughly 2500 Hz, but one speaker's (M2's) spectrum drops off steadily throughout the higher frequency range, whereas the other speakers have a second broader peak between 5000 and 6500 Hz. The male speakers in the current study also differ greatly in their realization of the palatal fricative. Speaker M2's spectrum is quite similar to that of the female speakers: an energy peak occurs between 2000 and 4000 Hz, slightly higher for the male speaker than for the female speakers. This spectral peak is much narrower than that of the palato-alveolar for the female speakers and is slightly higher in frequency than that of the palato-alveolar for speaker M2. The other speakers' have a palatal fricative with a single very narrow peak centered at approximately 1700Hz. The lower frequency energy characteristic of this sound as produced by speakers other than M2 is consistent with the auditory impression that their palatal fricatives have a more posterior constriction, probably more accurately described as a fronted velar, than that produced by speaker M2. This finding is interesting since the palatal fricative of Turkish Kabardian corresponds to a more posterior velar fricative from some speakers of Kabardian from Russia. It is also interesting to note that speaker M1 spent his formative years in Jordan rather than Turkey unlike the other speakers in the study.

The four posterior fricatives /x^w, χ, χ^w, ħ/ all display a prominent low frequency spectral peak with one or more other lower intensity peaks at higher frequencies. The prominent low frequency peak occurs at lower frequencies for the two rounded fricatives than for the non-rounded uvular or the pharyngeal fricatives. The lowest frequency peak falls at roughly 1000Hz for the rounded velar and uvular, slightly lower for the uvular than for the velar at least for the male speakers. The lowering effect of rounding on this spectral peak is attributed to the lengthening of the cavity in front of the constriction. Rounding also has the effect of reducing the overall intensity of the fricative noise, particularly at higher frequencies. The rounded velar and rounded uvular are distinguished for the female speakers primarily through a second peak between 3000-4000Hz which is present for the rounded uvular but not for the rounded velar. The presence of at least two energy peaks is a characteristic of both the rounded and non-rounded uvulars for both the male and female speakers. The pharyngeal has two prominent spectral peaks, one at approximately 1200Hz and a second centered at roughly 2700Hz. The lower frequency peak associated with the pharyngeal falls at a frequency between that of the lowest frequency peaks of the rounded and non-rounded uvulars.

The results of the current study correspond fairly closely to findings from other languages (see Colarusso 1984 for spectral attributes of consonants in the Northwest Caucasian languages Ubykh and Bzhedukh) and corroborate predicted relationships between acoustic and articulatory properties of fricatives. The flat spectrum characterizing the labiodental in Kabardian is also found for labiodentals in other languages (see Gordon et al. 2002 for typological discussion). Furthermore, the overall correlation in Kabardian between frontness of the constriction and the frequency at which energy is strongest matches findings from other studies, including Colarusso (1984) and Gordon et al. (2002). Energy is concentrated at the highest frequencies for /s/, followed by /ʃ/, followed by the posterior fricatives. The palatoalveolar fricative in this study shows more energy at lower frequency, however, than certain of the languages analyzed in Gordon et al. (2002), e.g. Chickasaw, Toda, and Western Apache. This acoustic difference coupled with the lowering of the third formant in adjacent vowels might suggest a slightly more

posterior articulation for the Kabardian palatoalveolar fricative coupled with a sizable sublingual cavity.

The double spectral peak associated with the lateral has analogs in other languages examined in Gordon et al.'s study, e.g. Hupa, Montana Salish, Western Apache, and certain speakers of Chickasaw and Toda. Gordon et al. also found that the lowest frequency energy peak in posterior fricatives fell at lower frequencies for rounded fricatives than for their unrounded counterparts in Montana Salish ($/\chi^w/$ vs. $/\chi/$) and Hupa ($/x^w/$ vs. $/x/$), and that uvulars were associated with a second higher frequency spectral peak in Montana Salish. Colarusso's (1984) acoustic study of Kabardian's relatives Ubykh and Bzhedukh indicates that rounding triggers lowering of energy in the frequency domain for both fricatives and stop bursts. The low frequency energy peak and the second higher frequency peak associated with the pharyngeal are also found in spectra for the voiceless pharyngeal fricative in Cairene Arabic (Norlin 1983). (None of the languages in Gordon et al.'s study had pharyngeal fricatives.)

As mentioned earlier, a salient area of divergence between Turkish Kabardian and many speaker of Kabardian from Russia is the neutralization of the literary Kabardian contrast between palato-alveolars and alveopalatals by the speakers analyzed in this paper. For purposes of comparison, figure 4 contains spectrograms illustrating this contrast as produced by a speaker of Kabardian from Russia.

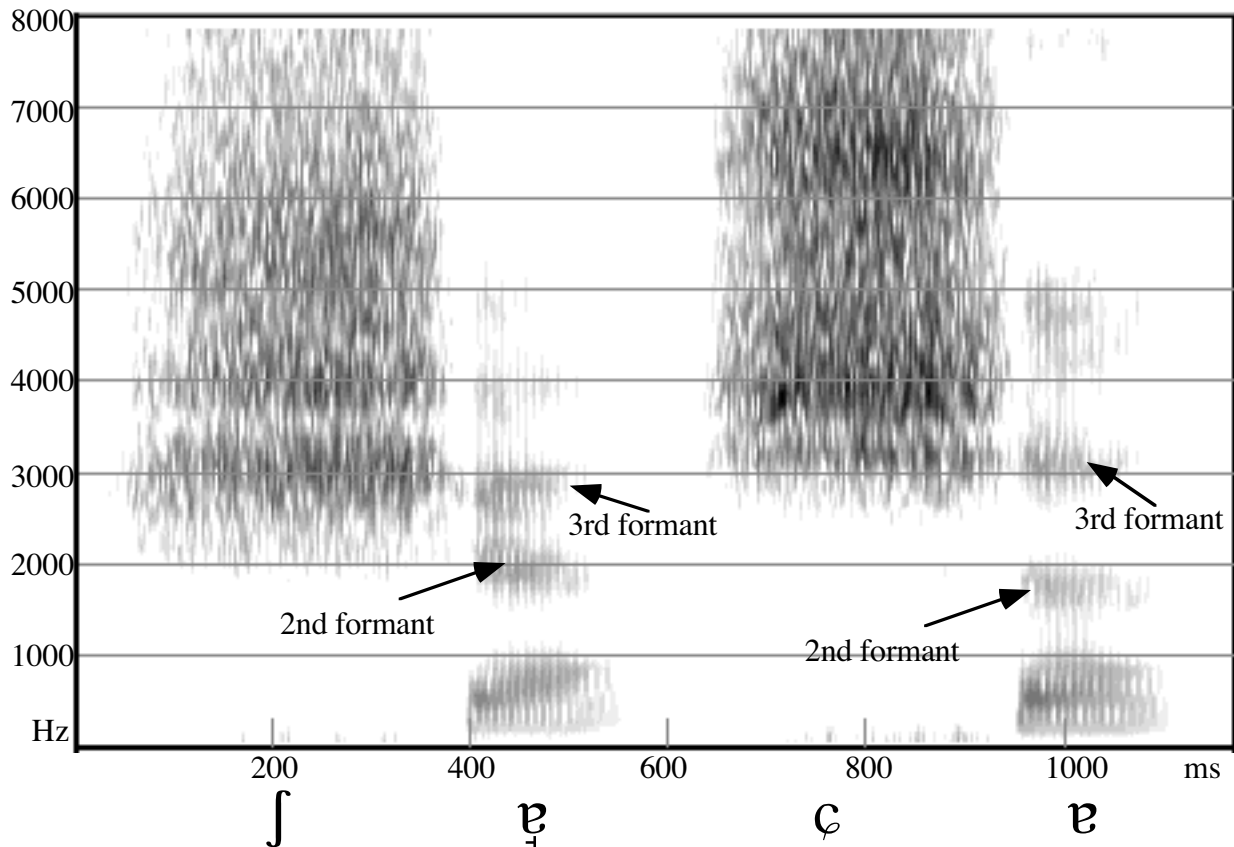


Figure 4. The contrast between palato-alveolar $/j/$ and alveopalatal $/ç/$ in the words $/jɐ/$ 'milk' and $/çɐ/$ 'hundred' as produced by a female Kabardian speaker from Russia.

As figure 4 shows, energy for the palato-alveolar extends lower in the frequency domain (to 2000 Hz) than that associated with the alveolopalatal, whose lower edge of noise is just under 3000Hz. Another interesting aspect of the contrast is the effect that each fricative has on the following vowel. The second formant is higher and the third formant is lower following the palato-alveolar than following the alveolopalatal. The raising of the second formant following the palato-alveolar suggests a higher tongue body position behind the constriction (Recasens 1984, Dart 1991, 1998). The lowering of the third formant might be attributed to a sizable sublingual cavity like that characteristic of retroflex consonants in other languages (Stevens and Blumstein 1975, Jongman et al. 1985, Dart 1991), though these sounds do not auditorily resemble the more clearly retroflex sounds, either apical or subapical, that we have heard in other languages.

Of the speakers recorded in the present study, all but one clearly neutralized the distinction between the palato-alveolar and alveolopalatal fricatives in favor of the palato-alveolars. However, the male speaker (M2) who grew up in Jordan has preserved some vestiges of the distinction. The most salient difference, however, now resides in the vowel immediately following the fricative. The second formant for /ə/ is lower in the vowel following the sound corresponding to the alveopalatal in literary Kabardian, as shown in figure 5. This variation was not observed, though, for the lower central vowel /ɐ/. Furthermore, the third formant is not lower following the palatoalveolar unlike for the speaker of Russian Kabardian discussed earlier. In fact, the third formant is actually slightly higher following the palatoalveolar, indicating that the articulatory basis of the contrast is clearly different between the two speakers.

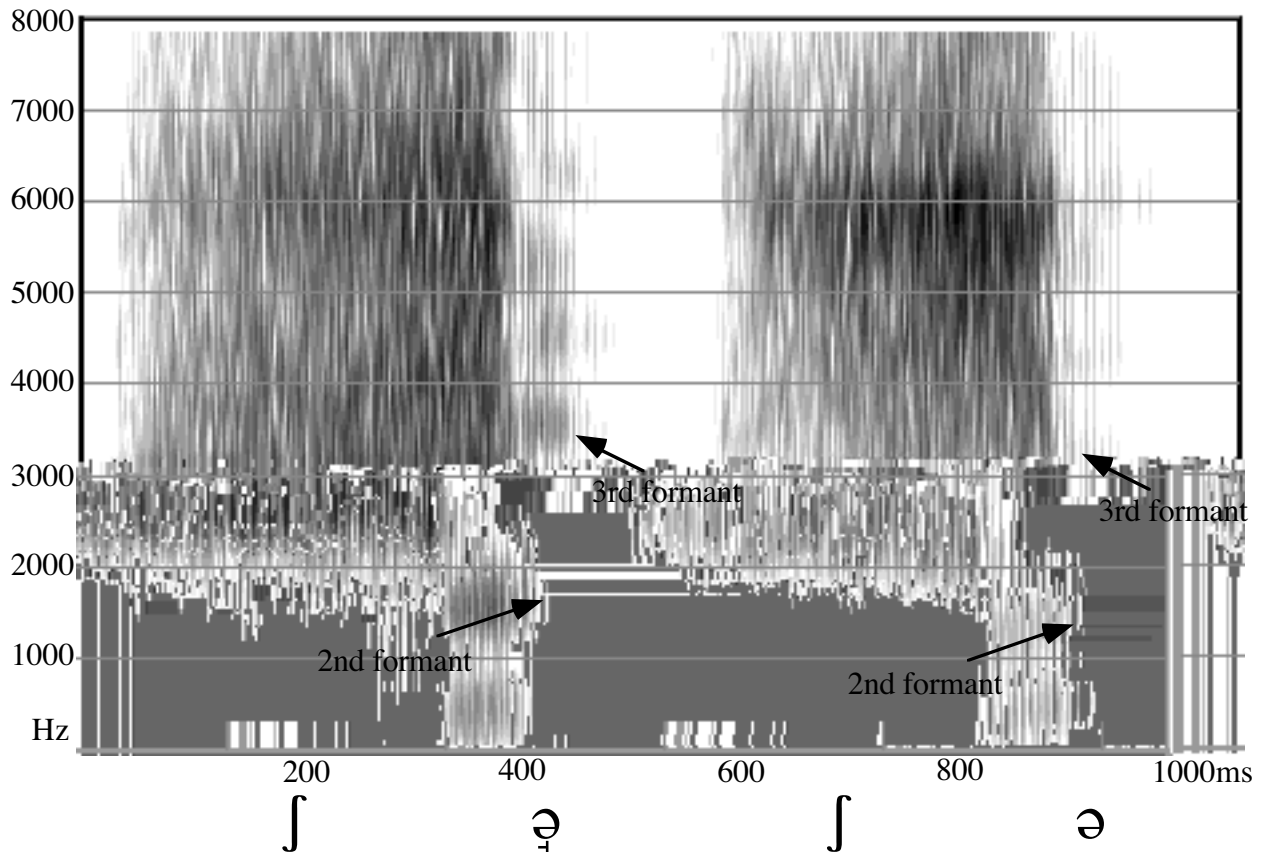


Figure 5. The difference in the backness of /ə/ in /ʃə/ ‘horse’ vs. /ʃə/ ‘three’ (corresponding to /çə/ in literary Kabardian) as produced by a male Kabardian speaker from Jordan.

Figure 5 also suggests a slight difference in the spectral characteristics of the fricative itself. While the frequency range characterized by noise is quite similar for the two fricatives, the postalveolar on the left has noticeably more energy at lower frequencies in a band just above 2000Hz. Figure 6 contains spectra of the two types of palato-alveolars (the original palato-alveolar and the one corresponding to an alveolopalatal in literary Kabardian). Spectra are averaged over four tokens of each fricative in a low vowel context in the following words (two tokens from each word): /ʃv/ ‘milk’, /ʃa:tə/ ‘cream’, /çv/ ‘hundred’, /ça:bə/ ‘soft’.

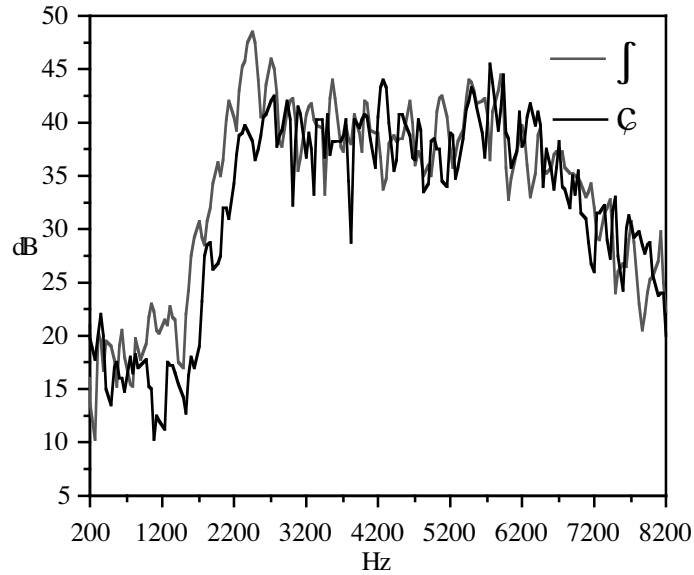


Figure 6. FFT power spectra of the two “palato-alveolar” fricatives (one corresponding to an alveolopalatal fricative in literary Kabardian) as produced by a male speaker from Jordan

As figure 6 shows, the spectra for two fricatives overlap nearly completely in their distribution of noise, the biggest difference between the lesser intensity of the low frequency peak at about 2500Hz for the fricative corresponding to the Russian Kabardian alveolopalatal. This difference essentially mirrors that seen in the spectrogram in figure 5. We are unable to say for certain how robust this difference between the two fricatives is, though it is consistent with the weighting toward higher frequency energy characteristic of the alveolopalatal in figure 4 as produced by the speaker from Russia.

3.2.2. Centers of gravity for the fricatives

Centers of gravity were also computed over the frequency range 0-10kHz for the non-laryngeal fricatives in order to determine the gross weighting of noise for each fricative. The center of gravity for each fricative was calculated by multiplying each frequency value in the numerical spectrum by its corresponding intensity value and then dividing the sum of these products by the sum of all the intensity values of the spectrum (Forrest et al. 1988, Zsiga 1993, Jongman et al. 2000, Gordon et al. 2002). Results are shown graphically in figure 7 and then separated by speaker in table 9. Note that the value in the palatal column for speaker M2 appears in parentheses since this speaker produces a more retracted velar fricative.

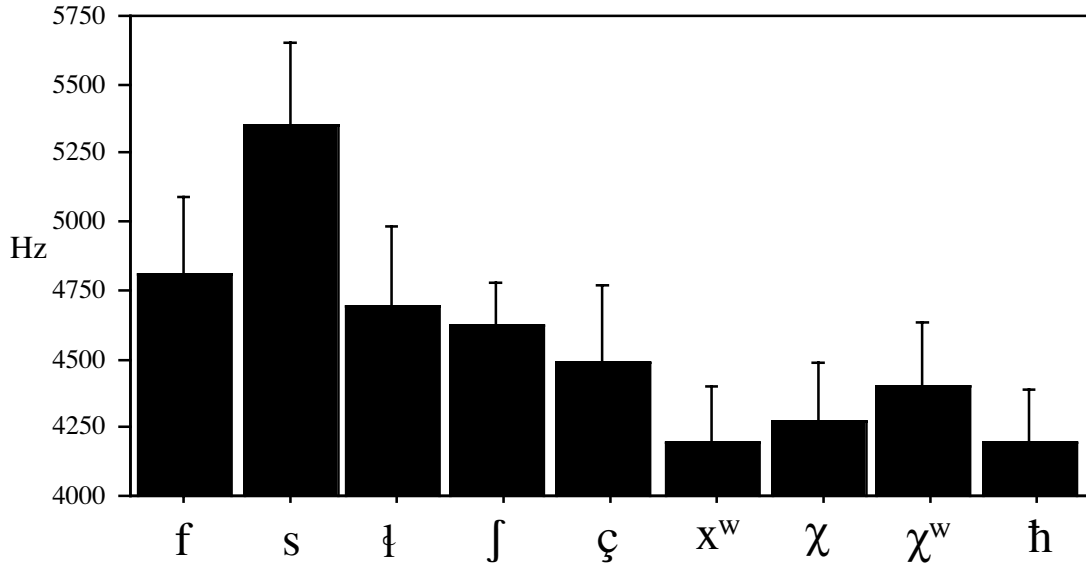


Figure 7. Centers of gravity for Kabardian fricatives (averaged over 9 speakers)

Table 9. Centers of gravity for Kabardian fricatives (individual speakers)

	f	s	t̪	ʃ	ʧ	xʷ	χ	χʷ	h
F1	4458	4776	4458	4502	4460	4173	4125	4647	4215
F2	4639	5362	4639	4636	4270	3990	4214	4327	4325
F3	4635	5465	4635	4756	4871	3916	4246	4138	4337
F4	5104	5738	5104	4762	4578	4270	4152	4302	4058
F5	4850	5725	4850	4437	4966	4187	4246	4517	4071
M1	5062	5155	4384	4578	4482	4355	4201	4308	4363
M2	4996	5517	4670	4846	(4022)	4402	4678	4693	3968
M3	4496	5180	4830	4756	4506	4121	4250	4594	4068
M4	4985	5286	4616	4437	4396	4319	4337	4025	4331
Mean	4802	5349	4691	4619	4484	4193	4272	4395	4193

An analysis of variance indicated that fricative location affected center of gravity values: $F(1, 151) = 39.399, p=.000$. The center of gravity measure differentiated many of the fricatives. Among the two more robust findings were that the denti-alveolar /s/ has the highest center of gravity, which the posterior fricatives /xʷ, χ, χʷ, h/ have the lowest values for center of gravity. These patterns follow findings of other studies investigating different languages (see Gordon et al. 2002). Many pairs of fricatives were distinguished in Scheffe's posthoc tests, as shown in table 10, which contains check marks for all pairwise comparisons showing significance levels of $p<.01$ or better. The denti-alveolar /s/ was distinguished from all other fricatives, while the labiodental was distinguished from the four posterior fricatives /xʷ, χ, χʷ, h/. Three of the four posterior fricatives, all except the rounded uvular, were also differentiated from the remaining two most anterior fricatives /ʃ, t̪/. None of the four posterior fricatives were distinguished from each other and the palatal fricative was only reliably different from /s/. The male speaker from Jordan who potentially distinguished between palatoalveolar and alveolopalatal fricatives did not use certain of gravity to differentiate the two. The palatoalveolar had an average center of

gravity of 5270Hz, while the (potential) alveolopalatal had a nearly identical mean center of gravity of 5333Hz, a non-significant difference.

Table 10. Summary of posthoc comparisons of centers of gravity (averaged over 9 speakers)

	f	s	ʃ	ʒ	ç	x ^w	χ	χ ^w	h
f		√	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	√	√	√	√
s			√	√	√	√	√	√	√
ʃ				n.s.	n.s.	√	√	n.s.	√
ʒ					n.s.	√	√	n.s.	√
ç						n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
x ^w							n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
χ								n.s.	n.s.
χ ^w									n.s.
h									

3.2.2. Ejective fricatives

The ejective fricatives of Kabardian are distinguished in several ways from their non-ejective counterparts depending on the fricative, the speaker, and the context in which the fricative occurs. Typically, the ejectives are characterized by relatively short phases of fricative noise compared to their voiceless counterparts. Maddieson et al. (2001) make a similar finding in their study of ejective fricatives in Tlingit, suggesting that the shorter duration of the ejective fricatives is due to the relatively small volume of air available between the glottal and supralaryngeal constrictions comprising ejective fricatives.

In addition, there is often a gap between the release of the constriction and the start of voicing in a following voiced sound, parallel to the positive VOT times found for ejective stop consonants. This positive VOT lag is most apparent in the palato-alveolar and lateral ejective fricatives and can be seen by comparing the palato-alveolar ejective in figure 8 with its non-ejective counterpart in figure 9, both of which were produced by a female speaker (F1). The shorter duration of the ejective is also apparent by comparing the fricatives in the two figures. It may also be noted in these spectra that the noise associated with the fricative dips well below 2000Hz parallel to retroflex fricatives in other languages (e.g. Colarusso 1984 on Ubykh, Dart 1991 on O’odham, Svantesson 1986 on Mandarin Chinese, Shalev et al. 1994 and Gordon et al. 2002 on Toda).

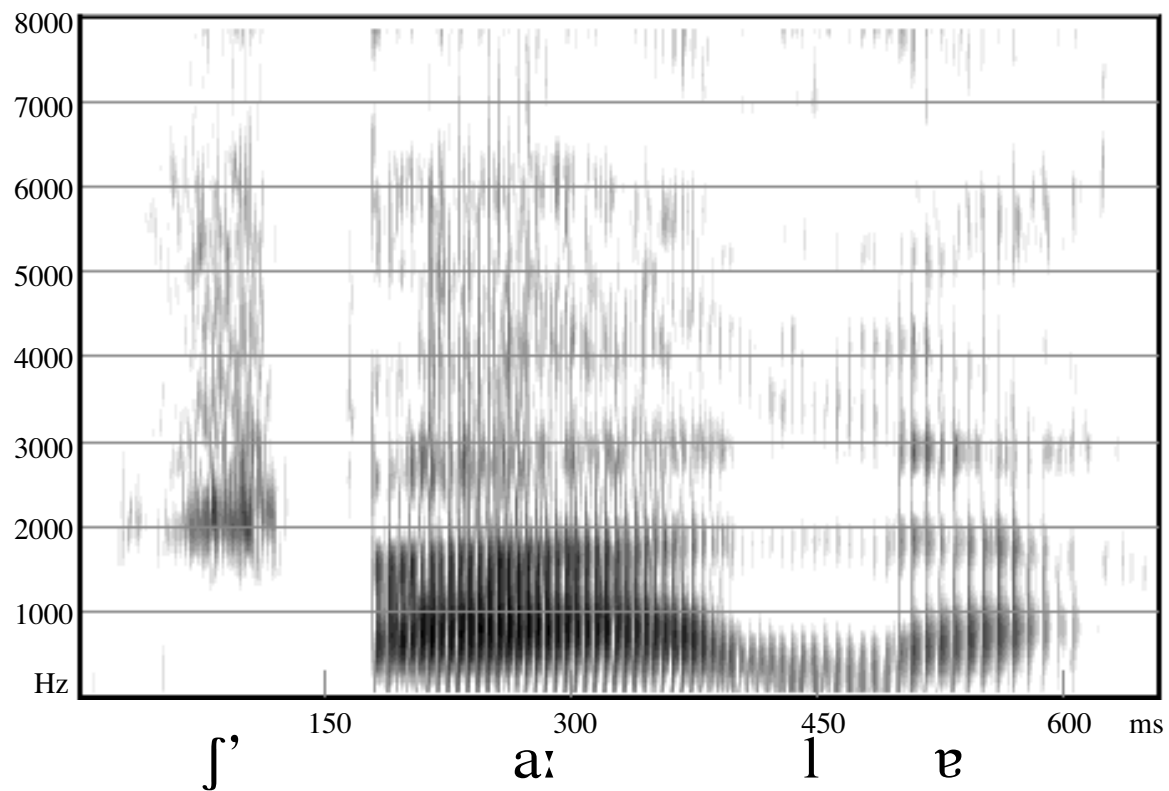


Figure 8. The palato-alveolar ejective fricative /ʃ' / in the word /ʃ' a:lə/ 'young' as produced by speaker F1.

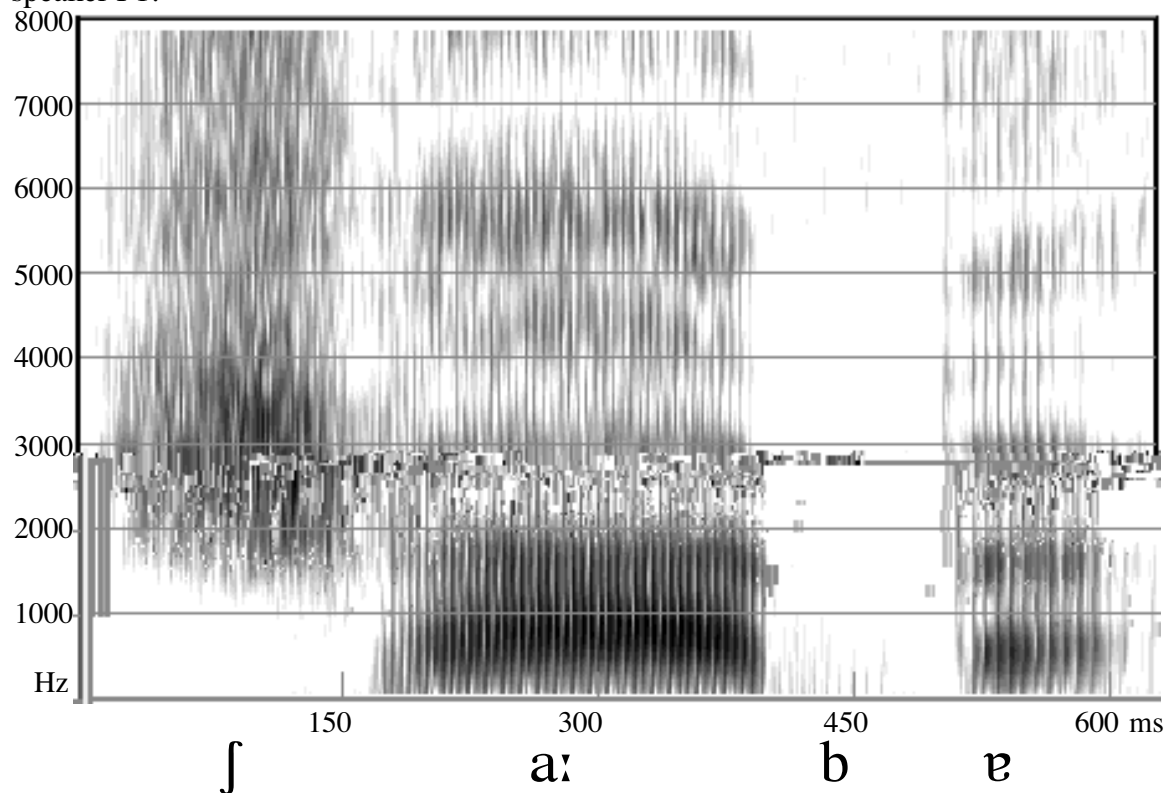


Figure 9. The palato-alveolar voiceless fricative /ʃ / in the word /ʃ a:bə/ 'soft' as produced by speaker F1.

In order to quantify the shorter constriction durations characteristic of the ejective fricatives, measurements were taken of the duration of the fricative phase of both the plain voiceless and the ejective fricatives using Praat. For each speaker, pairs of ejective and non-ejective fricatives occurring in identical immediate environments were compared. The words targeted for examination appear in table 11.

Table 11. Words containing the targeted plain voiceless and ejective fricatives for the constriction duration measurements

Fricative	Plain voiceless		Ejective	
Labiodental	ha:fʋ	‘rubber’	ma:f’ʋ	‘fire’
	fəz	‘woman’	f’ə	‘good’
Lateral	ɬ	‘blood’	ɬ’ə	‘man’
	fa:ɬ	‘hoof’	ma:ɬ’ʋ	‘It is dying’
Palato-alveolar	ʃa:bʋ	‘soft’	ʃ’a:lʋ	‘young’
	ma:ʃʋ	‘tongs’	ma:ʃ’ʋ	‘few, small amount’

Across speakers, the ejective fricatives were found to have significantly shorter frication duration (130 milliseconds averaged over speakers) than their non-ejective counterparts (191 milliseconds) according to an unpaired t-test: $t(1, 150) = 6.411, p = .000$. Results for individual speakers appear in table 12.

Table 12. Fricative duration (in milliseconds) by speaker for plain voiceless and ejective fricatives.

Speaker	Fricative					
	f	f’	ʃ	ʃ’	ɬ	ɬ’
F1	141	111	161	152	215	106
F2	208	177	195	106	209	129
F3	175	166	170	92	204	138
F4	----	----	154	142	213	166
F5	232	75	202	108	203	102
M1	162	137	176	101	312	181
M2	----	----	138	113	121	107
M3	----	----	169	106	126	125
M4	----	----	208	136	296	206
Mean	172	134	178	120	203	136

As table 12 shows, the ejective fricative is shorter than its non-ejective counterparts for individual speakers in virtually all cases (with exception of the lateral fricative for speaker M3), though this difference is fairly small in certain cases, e.g. for the labiodentals for speaker F3 and the palato-alveolar pair for speaker F4.

Another distinguishing characteristic of the ejectives is their reduced intensity relative to their plain voiceless counterparts. This difference was quantified by measuring the intensity of the frication noise relative to the immediately following vowel in order to control for token-to-

token fluctuations in overall speaking level. Comparisons were only made for fricative pairs occurring in identical environments, i.e. both occurring before the same vowel in the same position (intervocally or word-initially). An unpaired t-test pooled over all the data indicated that ejective fricatives were significantly less intense relative to the following vowel (fricative intensity minus vowel intensity = 16.61dB) than non-ejective fricatives (fricative intensity minus vowel intensity = 12.25dB): $t(1, 80) = 3.205, p = .002$. Results for individual speakers appear in table 13, where the larger difference in intensity between the fricative and the following vowel (which always has greater intensity than both ejective and non-ejective fricatives) means that the fricative has less intensity.

Table 13. Relative fricative intensity in decibels (following vowel minus fricative) by speaker for plain voiceless and ejective fricatives.

Speaker	Fricative					
	f	f'	ʃ	ʃ'	ʈ	ʈ'
F1	-8.89	-12.89	-12.19	-17.57	-10.03	-9.95
F2	----	----	-14.72	-26.02	-15.23	-17.72
F3	-12.37	-20.37	-4.54	-9.04	-11.38	-9.09
F4	----	----	-15.78	-24.29	-12.29	-17.57
F5	----	----	-9.23	-15.01	-20.25	-28.72
M1	----	----	-8.93	-18.86	-16.73	-17.42
M2	----	----	-13.51	-19.60	-6.02	-6.44
M3	----	----	-17.22	-22.74	-7.54	-4.21
M4	----	----	-12.90	-18.44	-21.49	-23.10
Mean	-10.63	-16.63	-11.46	-17.76	-13.44	-15.25

In virtually all cases, the difference in intensity between the vowel and the targeted fricative is greater for the ejectives, the only exceptions being for the lateral pair for speakers F1, F3, M2 and M4.

Palatography data collected from one of the female speakers suggests that the ejective fricatives are produced with a narrower constriction than their non-ejective counterparts. Figure 10 shows palatograms depicting contact patterns for a representative token of the non-ejective palato-alveolar fricative (on top) in the word /ʃɐ/ 'hundred' and two tokens of the ejective (on bottom) palato-alveolar fricative in the word /ʃ'ɐ/ 'new'.



/ʃ/ in /ʃɐ/ 'hundred'



/ʃʼ/ in /ʃʼɐ/ 'new' (token 1)



/ʃʼ/ in /ʃʼɐ/ 'new' (token 2)

Figure 10. Palatograms of the non-ejective (top) and ejective (bottom) palatoalveolar fricatives in the words /ʃɐ/ 'hundred' and /ʃʼɐ/ 'new' as produced by a female speaker (F5).

The non-ejective fricative has a much smaller area of contact along the sides of the palate and a much wide opening in the anterior portion of the mouth relative to both exemplars of the ejective fricative. Both the ejective and the non-ejective have asymmetrical contact patterns with greater contact on the right side of the mouth (the left side of the figure). Interestingly, the two tokens of the ejective differ in their contact patterns. The palatogram on the right has a narrow channel through which air can escape just behind the alveolar ridge while the one on the left lacks this opening, indicating the presence of a complete closure prior to the fricative phase. This closure and, more generally, the increased narrowing of the constriction for the ejective fricative in both tokens have the effect of increasing the pressure behind the occlusion while reducing the airflow through the constriction and thus the amount of noise generated. In addition, the glottal constriction associated with the ejective fricative could potentially further

reduce the airflow through the constriction in the oral cavity, thereby lessening the noise of the fricative.

The introduction of a closure before an ejective fricative is even more common for the lateral ejective, an observation previously reported by Kuipers (1960:46) and apparent in a spectrogram contained in Henderson (1970:97). A prestopped realization of the lateral ejective is shown in figure 11 as produced by speaker F3. The glottal constriction associated with the ejective fricative is also evident in this figure: the beginning of the following vowel is produced with creaky voicing, as evidenced by the irregularly spaced glottal pulses (at about 150-175 milliseconds) before modal voicing is initiated.

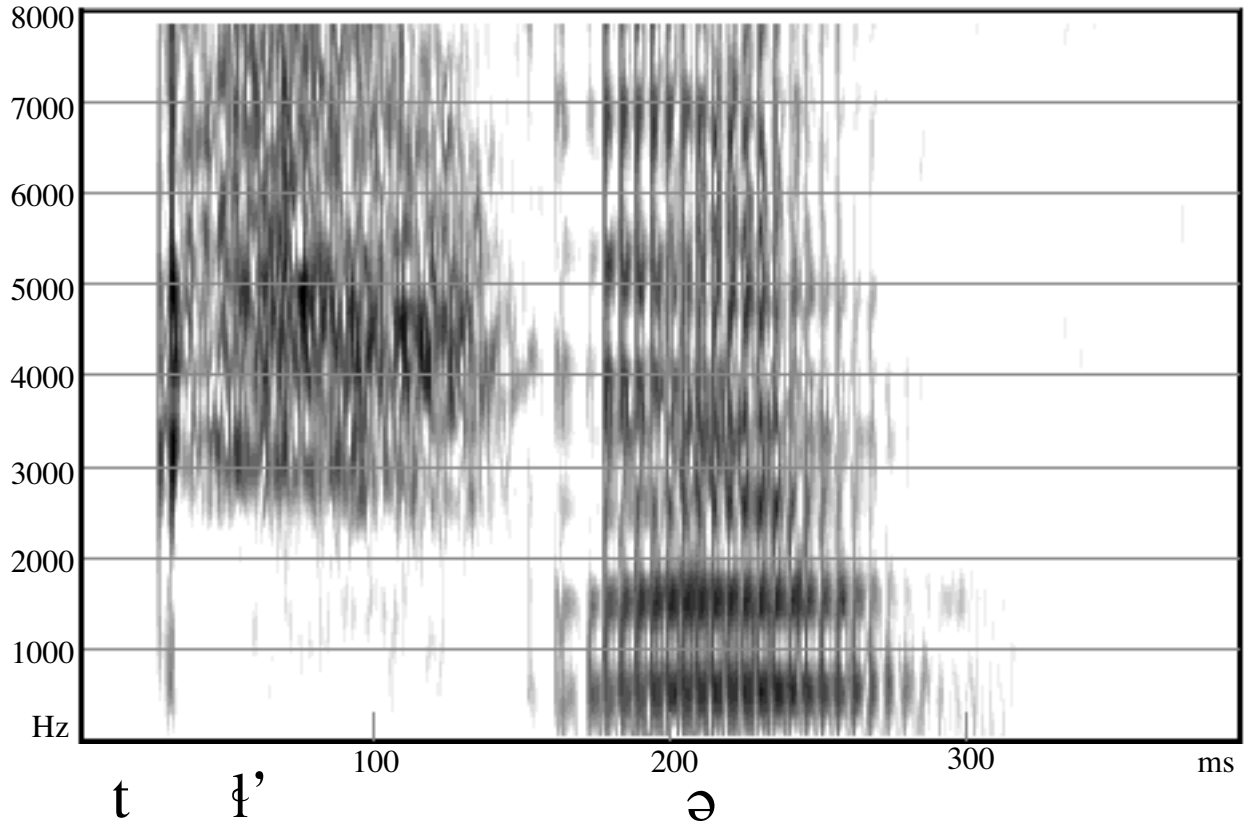


Figure 11. A prestopped realization of the lateral ejective fricative in the word /t'ə/ [t'ə] 'man' as produced by speaker F3.

Another distinguishing characteristic of many realizations of the ejective fricatives, particularly the lateral ejective, is a scraping or pulsing sound during the constriction. This property is also reported for the ejective fricatives in Tlingit described by Maddieson et al. (2001). This realization of ejective fricatives in Kabardian can be seen in the spectrogram in figure 12, which shows the lateral ejective in final position in the word /çəməɬ'/ 'foreigner' as produced by speaker M1. The scraping sound is manifested in the spectrogram as dark vertical striations during the fricative. This ejective also has a brief closure phase prior to the fricative constriction. Maddieson et al. (2001) suggest that the scraping sound is attributed to the narrowing of the constriction associated with ejective fricatives relative to their non-ejective counterparts. This tighter constriction potentially leads to intermittent complete obstructions of the vocal tract by

either the articulators themselves or by saliva trapped between the articulators. The narrowing of the constriction could also explain the reduced intensity of the ejective fricatives, since the volume of air passing through the narrowed fricative channel would be lessened. For the sake of comparison, a non-ejective lateral fricative produced by the same speaker is illustrated in figure 13.

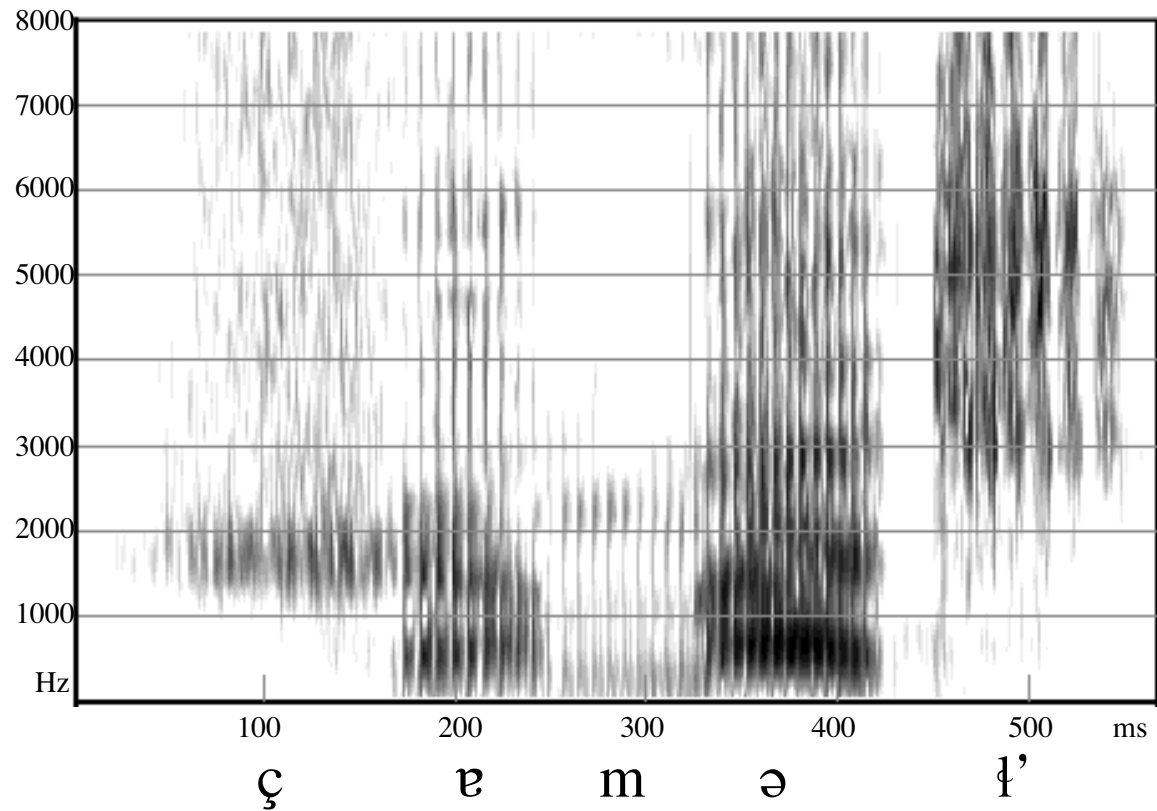


Figure 12. A pre-stopped lateral ejective fricative produced with scraping in the word /çəmətʰ/ ‘foreign man’ as produced by speaker M1.

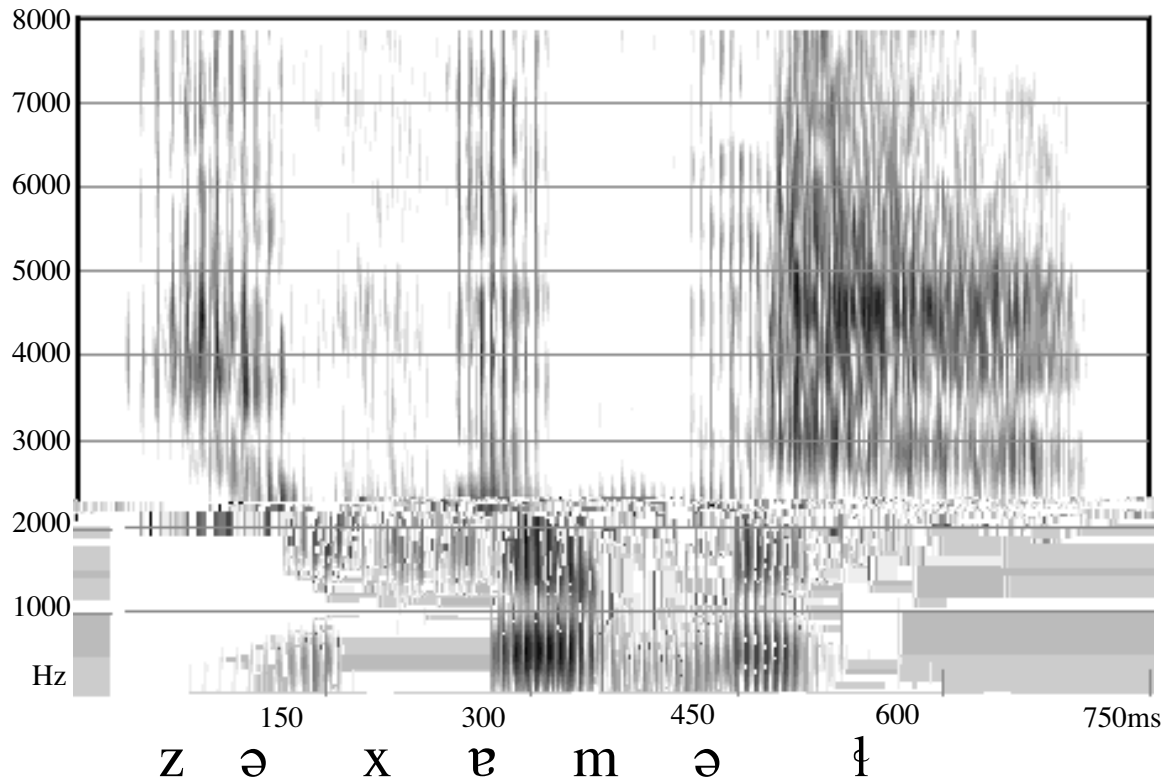


Figure 13. A voiceless lateral fricative in final position in the word /zəçəmɨ/ ‘someone who is inept, unlucky’ as produced by speaker M1.

Aerodynamic data was collected for the ejective and non-ejective fricative pairs from one of the female speakers (F5). Data was collected using the MacQuirer hardware, which allows for collection of both pressure and flow data using a mask worn over the mouth. Intraoral pressure is monitored using a small plastic tube that is inserted in the mouth behind the constriction. Intraoral pressure data is potentially useful in distinguishing the ejective and non-ejective fricatives, since the raising of the glottis during the constriction for an ejective should trigger a sharp rise in air pressure behind the constriction. Maddieson et al. (2001) found that the ejective fricatives in Tlingit are associated with much higher intraoral air pressure than their corresponding non-ejectives. In our data, the ejective fricatives also had considerably higher intraoral pressure than the non-ejective fricatives. In fact, the pressure during the ejectives was typically so great that it produced clipping in the pressure traces.

Figure 14 shows intraoral air pressure along with airflow through the mouth and the audio signal for the non-ejective /f/ and ejective /fʼ/ in the words /fəz/ ‘woman’ and /fʼə/ ‘good’. The gain was set very low in order to avoid clipping during the ejective; a consequence of this was that the pressure for the non-ejective is negligible in the figure. Figure 14 also shows that the ejective and non-ejective have different transoral airflow profiles. Airflow reaches a peak near the middle of the non-ejective and only slightly declines at release. In the case of the ejective, however, pressure abruptly rises during the labiodental constriction reaching a peak at the release as the air compressed behind the constriction is rapidly released.

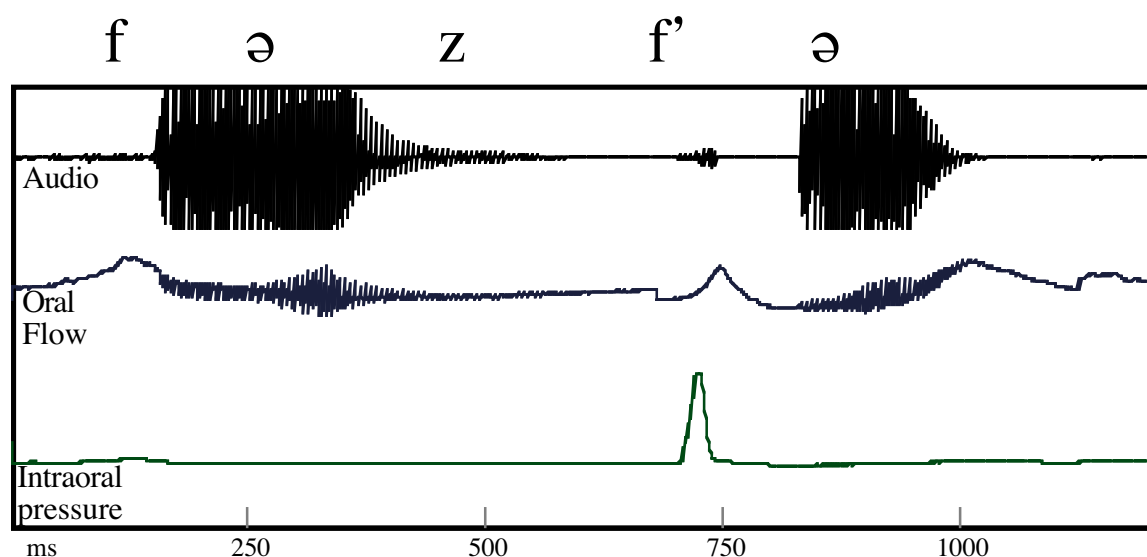


Figure 14. Waveform and oral flow and intraoral pressure traces for the non-ejective fricative in the word /fəz/ ‘woman’ and the ejective fricative in the word /f'ə/ ‘good’ as produced by speaker F5.

4. Vowels.

Kabardian possesses a so-called “vertical vowel system” in which only vowel height and not backness is contrastive.³ Accounts differ on the number of vowel phonemes in the language with most sources assuming two short central vowels /ə, ɐ/ as well as a third central but lower vowel /a/ that has either been regarded as a third short vowel (Catford 1984) or as a long vowel (Choi 1991, Wood 1994). Duration measurements by Choi (1991) suggest that the lowest vowel is indeed a long vowel, since it is nearly twice as long as the next lowest vowel quality /ɐ/. In fact, the duration of /a/ was found by Choi to exceed that of the surface long vowels resulting from underlying vowel plus glide sequences (see below).

Many instances of the long low vowel occur in morphophonemic alternation with the slightly higher short vowel /ɐ/, a fact which has led Colarusso (1992) to posit only two underlying vowels and derive the long /a:/ by rule. However, as Colarusso points out, there are some instances in which the occurrence of the long /a:/ is not predictable. A more radical approach is adopted by Kuipers (1960), who argues that the occurrence of not only /a:/ but also the higher central vowel /ə/ is also predictable. Although this vowel is predictably inserted in certain contexts (see Kuipers for discussion), there are instances in which it is not, as argued by Catford (1984) and Colarusso (1992). For this reason, we will adopt the maximally conservative approach and assume two phonemic short vowels /ə, ɐ/ and one phonemic long vowel /a:/

On the surface, there are many additional vowel qualities triggered by surrounding consonants. For example, rounded allophones occur next to rounded consonants and retracted allophones occur next to velar and uvular consonants (see Catford 1984, Choi 1991, and Wood

³ Other languages reported to contain vertical vowel systems are Marshallese (Choi 1991; see discussion below), the Ndu languages of Papua New Guinea (Laycock 1965), among others mentioned by Choi (1991:5).

1994 for phonetic data on these allophones). In addition, long vowels occur on the surface when a short vowel combines with a following glide. Thus, the sequence /ɐw/ yields [o:] on the surface, the sequence /ɛj/ yields [e:], the sequence /əw/ produces [u:] and the sequence /əj/ produces [i:].

In order to examine the phonetic realization of the vowel contrasts in Kabardian, formant structure was examined for the two underlying short vowels and the five long vowels (conservatively one underlying and four derived through vowel plus glide combinations). Data were examined for 10 speakers (five female and five male speakers). The frequencies of the first three formants were measured in Praat with a 25 millisecond window centered in the middle of the vowel. Values were extracted using the get formant function in Praat and results were visually checked against a wideband spectrogram. All vowels were stressed and appeared in a denti-alveolar context. The words containing the target vowels appear in table 14.

Table 14. Words containing the vowels targeted for formant analysis

Vowel	Word	Gloss
ə	psə	‘water’
ɐ	psɐ	‘life’
a:	psa:ɬɐ	‘word’
i:	dari:	‘fabric type’
u:	bzu:	‘fish’
e:	səse:s	‘mine’
o:	psɔ:rij	‘all, whole’

The first two formants were plotted against each other for all the speakers using the PlotFormants software developed by Peter Ladefoged at UCLA. Results were then combined for the female speakers and appear in figure 15. The same is done for the male speakers in figure 16. In both figures, both the x-axis (corresponding to the 2nd formant) and the y-axis (corresponding to the 1st formant) are scaled non-linearly on a Bark scale (Zwicker and Feldtkeller 1967) to correspond more closely to the frequency domain in the auditory dimension. Ellipses indicate two standard deviations from the mean. Results for individual speakers follow in table 15.

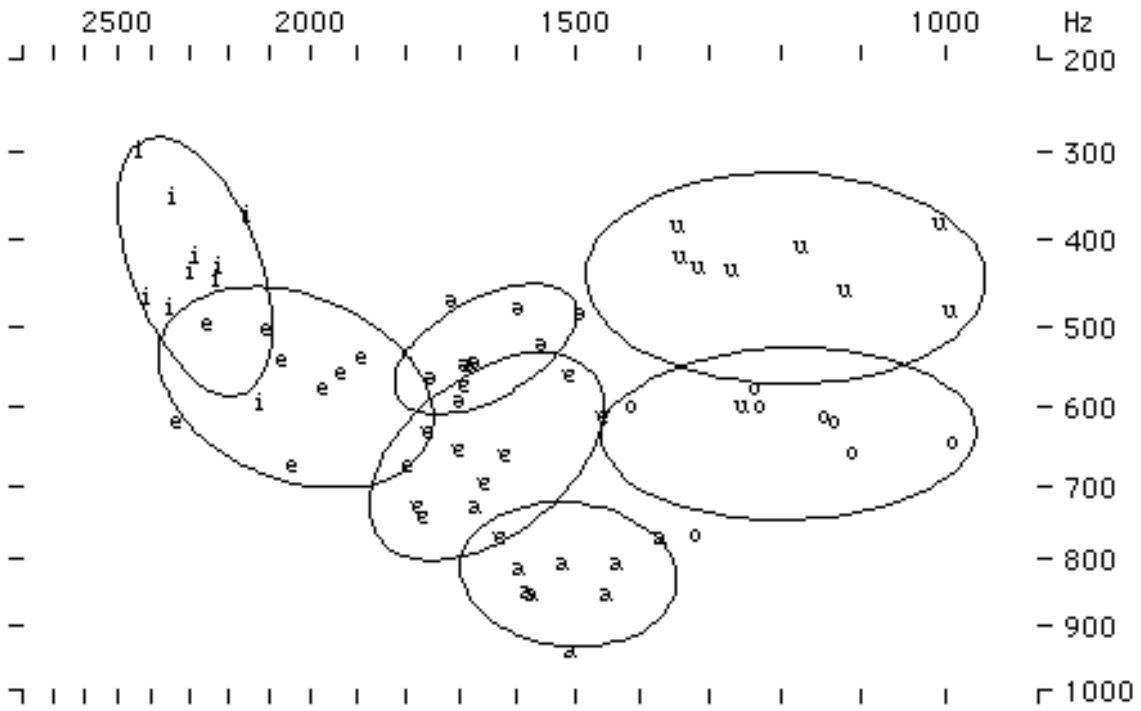


Figure 15. Plots of the first two formants for the five female speakers

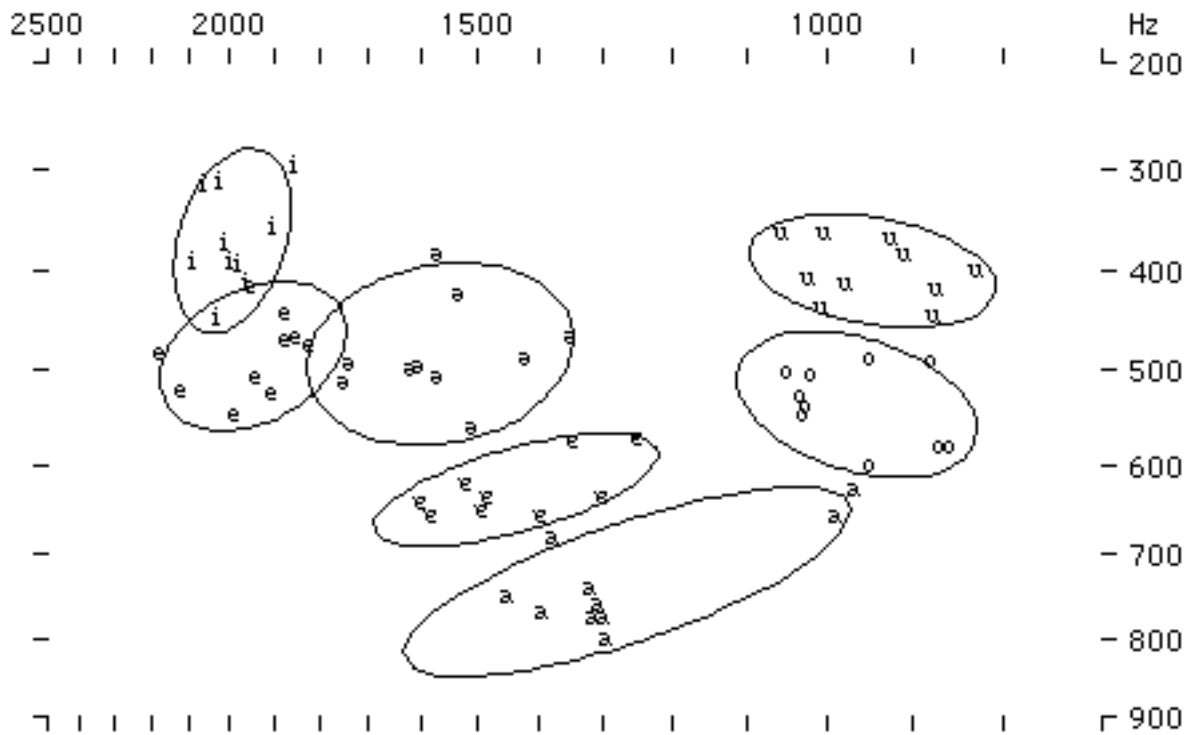


Figure 16. Plots of the first two formants for the two male speakers

Table 15. Formant values for individual speakers

Speak F1	F1	F2	F3	Speak F2	F1	F2	F3	Speak F3	F1	F2	F3
ə	513	1640	3081	ə	531	1711	2868	ə	503	1528	2668
ɐ	586	1481	3008	ɐ	681	1765	3016	ɐ	614	1696	2885
a:	813	1557	2960	a:	853	1512	2863	a:	791	1627	2756
i:	402	2188	2980	i:	474	2385	3069	i:	521	2175	3141
u:	432	1002	2632	u:	422	1220	2786	u:	516	1284	2841
e:	521	1997	2854	e:	558	2290	2965	e:	540	2067	3090
o:	628	1069	2733	o:	683	1365	2600	o:	657	1109	2568
Speak F4	F1	F2	F3	Speak F5	F1	F2	F3	Female Means	F1	F2	F3
ə	544	1677	2314	ə	556	1727	2818	ə	527	1654	2798
ɐ	757	1696	2959	ɐ	680	1634	2805	ɐ	663	1654	2935
a:	873	1470	2756	a:	791	1402	2583	a:	824	1514	2784
i:	327	2394	3118	i:	429	2289	3014	i:	430	2286	3064
u:	458	1120	2498	u:	401	1342	2526	u:	444	1201	2674
e:	674	1921	2769	e:	567	1956	2780	e:	575	2043	2869
o:	619	1134	2539	o:	586	1232	2380	o:	634	1197	2567
Speak M1	F1	F2	F3	Speak M2	F1	F2	F3	Speak M3	F1	F2	F3
ə	529	1562	2360	ə	477	1389	2447	ə	503	1600	2343
ɐ	636	1504	2548	ɐ	573	1297	2454	ɐ	647	1347	2487
a:	729	1338	2230	a:	642	980	2152	a:	745	1384	2326
i:	316	2048	2584	i:	419	2066	3000	i:	401	1983	2729
u:	405	900	2403	u:	409	958	1957	u:	410	1001	2247
e:	506	1920	2765	e:	428	1912	2316	e:	503	2150	2489
o:	569	988	1891	o:	542	959	2170	o:	537	1029	2260
Speak M4	F1	F2	F3	Speak M5	F1	F2	F3	Male Means	F1	F2	F3
ə	502	1748	2717	ə	404	1555	2518	ə	483	1571	2477
ɐ	637	1482	2555	ɐ	650	1591	2589	ɐ	627	1440	2523
a:	788	1305	2787	a:	765	1351	2240	a:	734	1271	2347
i:	365	1962	2871	i:	346	1920	2718	i:	369	1996	2780
u:	409	850	2117	u:	362	1028	2221	u:	399	947	2189
e:	516	1922	2723	e:	472	1847	2221	e:	485	1950	2503
o:	535	870	2235	o:	495	984	1945	o:	535	966	2100

The formant plots for both the female and male speakers show a fairly well differentiated vowel space. The two short vowels sit on top of each other in the center of the vowel space with some overlap between the two vowels in the case of the female speakers' plot. For the female speakers, mean values for the first and second formant for /ə/ were 527 and 1654 and for /ɐ/ were 663 and 1654. For the male speakers, mean values for the first and second formant for /ə/ were 483Hz and 1571Hz and for /ɐ/ were 627Hz and 1440Hz. The slightly higher second

formant values for the higher short central vowel suggest a slightly advanced tongue position relative to its lower short counterpart. The two back long vowels are differentiated primarily in the first formant dimension, corresponding to height, while the two front long vowels differ in both the first formant and second formant values, suggesting both a height and backness difference. The long low vowel is generally also a central vowel, although one of the male speakers (M1) produced a more retracted variant of this vowel than the other male speakers.

The formant values for the two short vowels in the present study are similar to those reported in Wood (1994) and compatible with the transcription of the two vowels as /ə/ and /ɐ/. However, Catford (1984) and Choi's (1991) studies show slightly lower first formant values for these vowels (between 300-400 Hz for /ə/ and roughly 500 Hz for /ɐ/), suggesting a higher tongue body position for these vowels; hence their transcription of /ə/ and /ɐ/ as /i/ and /ə/, respectively. Results for the low vowels are more comparable across studies.

It is possible that the difference between Wood's results and those reported by Catford and Choi may be related to a dialect difference between speakers in the studies. Wood's work is based on a male speaker of the Kuban dialect of Russian Kabardian, whereas Choi and Catford's results are based on speakers of the Terek dialect of Russian Kabardian.

It is instructive to compare the results for Kabardian with phonetic data from another language possessing a vertical vowel system, Marshallese, an Austronesian language whose vowel system has been studied by Choi (1992). Marshallese is similar to Kabardian in possessing three underlying vowel qualities differing in height whose surface realization is dependent on consonantal context. In the case of Marshallese, all consonants can be analyzed as velarized, palatalized, or labialized. Velarization triggers back allophones in adjacent vowels, palatalization induces front allophones and labialization is associated with rounded allophones. Marshallese differs from Kabardian in having contrastive vowel length for all three vowel qualities; the distinction between the two lowest vowels in Marshallese is thus primarily qualitative unlike in Kabardian, where the difference is also one of duration.

Averaged across contexts, Choi found that the high vowel pooled over two male and two female speakers had a mean first formant value slightly less than 400 Hz (p. 38), while the first formant for the mid vowel had a mean value of roughly 500 Hz. The mean for the first formant of the low vowel was slightly greater than 600 Hz. The Marshallese vowel space for the three phonemic vowels is thus shifted upward relative to the Kabardian space, though the range of first formant values covered by the three vowel qualities is similar in the two languages. The Marshallese data thus correspond relatively closely to those reported by Catford (1984) and Choi (1991) in their studies of Kabardian. The difference between the results of the present paper and those of the other Kabardian studies and the Marshallese study indicate that there is cross-linguistic variation in the height of vowels comprising vertical vowel systems. While Catford's and Choi's results suggest a more dispersed set of vowels containing one high, one mid and one low vowel, the Marshallese and the present data both display smaller differences in tongue height between the highest and lowest vowels with the Marshallese vowel space being shifted upward relative to the Kabardian data examined in the present study.

5. Conclusions

This paper has explored several phonetic characteristics of Kabardian as spoken by speakers outside of Russia. The principal results are as follows. The stops previously classified either as voiced or as voiceless unaspirated were found to be voiced intervocally and word-finally, but

often voiceless in initial position. Voice onset time and closure duration values were shortest for this series of stops. Voice onset time was longer for the voiceless aspirated stops than for the ejectives. The twelve voiceless fricatives were distinguished by differences in the frequency distribution of their noise. The ejective fricatives were shorter and less intense than their non-ejective counterparts and were also characterized by higher intraoral pressure. Finally, formant measurements confirmed that the two phonemic short vowels are phonetically central vowels contrasting only in height and not backness.

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