

## VOICING DISSIMILATION IN WESTERN BADE

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### 1. Introduction

Bade is a language of the Chadic Family, one of the five branches of the Afroasiatic Phylum, which also includes the Semitic, Cushitic, Berber, and Ancient Egyptian branches (Greenberg 1963). More specifically, Bade is a member of the West Branch of Chadic, the same major branch of the family to which Hausa belongs (see Newman (1977) for the classification of Chadic). Bade is spoken in the northern part of Yobe State, Nigeria, one of the northeastern states of the country. The largest town in the Bade area is Gashua, an important commercial center and the location of the court of the Emir of Bade, one of the paramount traditional rulers of northern Nigeria..

Bade is dialectally fairly diverse. Schuh (1981) defines three major dialect groups: Gashua Bade, a group of dialects spoken in Gashua and surroundings, Southern Bade, spoken to the south and southwest of Gashua, and Western Bade, the largest dialect group, covering all the western part of the Bade-speaking region up to where it meets Hausa. This paper focuses on a variety of Bade from the Western dialect area.

I lived in Gashua, Nigeria and worked on Bade from 1973-75. During this period, I collected data from many speakers from all the dialect areas, but I worked most extensively with MG, a man of about 25 years of age from the town of Amshi, in the Western dialect area. MG and I were able to compile a fairly complete description of all the productive morphological patterns of his dialect. Moreover, he and I visited villages throughout the Western dialect area, where we recorded several hours of narrative, most

of which we transcribed. These recordings revealed numerous morphological and phonological dialect differences, including the voicing dissimilation process described in this paper, but since this process was not part of MG's dialect, I did not systematically document it. In 1982-83, I taught for a year at Ahmadu Bello University in Zaria, Nigeria. While in Zaria, I made the acquaintance of AHF, a student in his early 20's and a native of Madamuwa, a town at the far western edge of the Bade area, where voicing dissimilation is an active process. I collected most of the data on which this paper focuses from AHF while I was at Ahmadu Bello.

## 2. Phonological Sketch

Following are consonant and vowel charts laying out the Bade sound system:

	Bilabial/ Labiodental	Alveolar	Alveopalatal/ Palatal	Velar	Labialized velar	Laryngeal	Labialized laryngeal
Plain stop/ affricate	<b>p b</b>	<b>t d</b>	<b>tʃ dʒ</b>	<b>k g</b>	<b>kʷ gʷ</b>		
Glottalized stop	<b>ɸ</b>	<b>dʼ</b>	<b>dʲ</b>				
Fricative	<b>f v</b>	<b>s z</b>				<b>h ɦ</b>	<b>hʷ</b>
Nasal	<b>m</b>	<b>n</b>	<b>ɲ</b>	<b>(ŋ)</b>			
Lateral fricative		<b>ɬ ɮ</b>					
Lateral approximate		<b>l</b>					
Tap/trill		<b>r</b>					
Glide			<b>j</b>		<b>w</b>		

	Front	Central	Back
High	<b>i i:</b>	<b>ə = [ɨ]</b>	<b>u u:</b>
Mid	<b>eɜ</b>		<b>oɜ</b>
Low		<b>a a:</b>	

Comments on consonants: In cells with two symbols, the one on the left is voiceless, the one on the right is voiced. There are sets of labialized velars and laryngeals separate from their non-labialized counterparts, as shown by pairs such as **sàktú** ‘be stingy’ vs. **sàk<sup>w</sup>tú** ‘prod’, **gáyū** ‘he mounted’ vs. **g<sup>w</sup>àyá:n** ‘acacia tree (sp.)’, **hènú** ‘spend the day’ vs. **/h<sup>w</sup>ènú/** → **[h<sup>w</sup>ùnú]** ‘skin (an animal)’.<sup>1</sup> The glide [w] is in the labialized velar column because all the sounds in this column share the features [+DORSAL, +round]. The velar nasal [ŋ] appears in an intervocalic environment contrastive with other sounds only as a variant of the morpheme meaning “of” as in **dàt̪f̪èŋ àmàt̪ən** ‘hair-of women’ when the “possessor” begins in a vowel or nasal. Elsewhere this morpheme appears as [k] or [g], as in **dàt̪f̪ək t̪əmàk<sup>w</sup>ún** ‘hair-of sheep’, but there is no regular /k, g/ → ŋ phonological rule that would predict the [ŋ] variant of the morpheme.

Comments on vowels: The symbol “ə” represents the phonetic vowel [i]. I use the symbol “ə” because all published works on languages of northern Nigeria and all standard orthographies in this region use this symbol. Hence, the “barred-i” just “looks wrong”. An important feature of the vowel system is that short high vowels are in contrast only at the end of a word, as in **kə̀rú** ‘steal (perfective)’ vs. **kə̀rì** ‘steal (subjunctive)’. In the middle of a word, the short high vowels [i, u, ə] are in complementary distribution, with [i] occurring only next to /j/ (**zìjú** ‘wage war’), [u] occurring next to a [+round] consonant (**zùwú** ‘wipe’), and [ə] elsewhere (**zèdú** ‘dig up’).

Tones: Bade is a tone language. Tone plays no role in the phenomena on which this paper focuses, but for completeness, I have marked tone as follows: ` = low tone, ´ = high

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<sup>1</sup> I have no examples of words with a labialized voiced laryngeal [f<sup>w</sup>]. This may be due to the fact that the voiced laryngeal itself is an uncommon sound, and I simply did not run across any words with the labialized counterpart.

tone, ˉ = downstepped high (a tone slightly lower than a previous high but not as low as low tone).

### 3. Voicing Dissimilation

#### 3.1. The distribution of voiced and voiceless obstruents in Bade

This paper will demonstrate that for some varieties of Bade within the Western Bade dialect area, there is an active phonological dissimilation process by which *a voiced obstruent becomes voiceless if the next syllable begins in a voiced obstruent*. For example, the 2<sup>nd</sup> masculine singular subject clitic, which is underlyingly /gə-/ becomes [kə-] when the initial consonant of the verb is a voiced obstruent, as in example (1):

(1) **gá-làgú** ‘you stopped’      **gə-kə́rū** ‘you stole’      **ká-gàfó** ‘you caught’

Examination of the Bade lexicon reveals that only a relatively small number of words have the sequence #[-sonorant, +voice] V(C) [-sonorant, +voice]... . Thus, words such as **dàbí:n** ‘hoe’ and **gùngùnú** ‘grumble’, with voiced obstruents in consecutive syllables, are relatively few in number, whereas other obstruent combinations are common, e.g. **tàbú** ‘push aside’ and **kà:ngə́jā:n** ‘chameleon’ with voiceless obstruent followed by voiced, **də̀psú** ‘height’ and **gàtkàsà** ‘seven’ with voiced obstruent followed by voiceless, and **tàpó** ‘be possible’ and **kàkə̀rú** ‘carry’ with consecutive voiceless obstruents.

A large proportion of words with consecutive voiced obstruents fall into special categories, including those in (2):

(2) Borrowed words	Full root reduplicants	Ideophones
<b>də́bú</b> ‘1000’ < Kanuri	<b>zàrzàrá</b> ‘striped, in stripes’	<b>də́ngʷə́rə́f</b> ‘that’s it!’ (folktale ending)
<b>zà:gú</b> ‘go around’ < Hausa	<b>bò:bón</b> ‘millet balls’	<b>gʷàrkájjà</b> ‘bulging’

There are, however, also words that do not fit into any special category and which, without further information, must simply be considered “exceptions”, a notable one being the name of the language and people itself, **bádēn!**

The restriction against [+voice]...[+voice] sequences applies only to “regular” obstruents. There are no restrictions affecting the distribution of sonorant consonants (nasals, liquids, and glides), and more notably, there are no restrictions affecting the distribution of the glottalized sounds [ɓ, ɗ, ɗʰ], even though they are “voiced”. Thus, the glottalized sounds can freely appear before or after “regular” voiced obstruents, e.g. **ḃə́gā:n** ‘colostrum’, **gàḃé:** ‘one’. This is in line with the fact that glottalized obstruents pattern with sonorants in other ways in Bade as well, e.g. any grouping of “regular” obstruents is acceptable in Bade, but neither obstruent+sonorant nor obstruent+glottalized groups are permitted. Compare **də́psú** ‘hide’ with **zà:pənú** ‘doze off’ (\***zà:pnú**) and **ràpəḃú** ‘boil’ (\***ràpḃú**), where the starred forms would be impossible words in Bade.

The reason why the Bade lexicon disfavors consecutive syllables beginning in voiced obstruents is that Bade now has, or has had a rule that dissimilated a [+voice, -sonorant] consonant to [-voice] when followed by a syllable beginning in a [+voice, -sonorant] consonant. There are at least two types of evidence for such a dissimilation rule. First, in words where the first CV is reduplicated and the C is a voiced obstruent, the onset of the reduplicated syllable is voiceless, as in (3a). Second, words in related languages with consecutive voiced obstruents have [-voice]...[+voice] in Bade, as in (3b)

- |                         |                                    |                                |   |
|-------------------------|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|---|
| (3) a. CV reduplicants: | <b>fà:və́rú</b><br><b>tə́dəmən</b> | ‘go out repeatedly’<br>‘blood’ | < <b>və́rú</b> ‘go out’<br>cf. Bole <b>dòm</b>    |
| b. Comparative:         | <b>sá:və́jín</b><br><b>kádùwán</b> | ‘guinea fowl’<br>‘duiker’      | cf. Hausa <b>zà:bó:</b><br>cf. Hausa <b>gàdá:</b> |

In most of the Western Bade dialect area, dissimilation of voiced obstruents is not now a phonological RULE. For example, in the Amshi variety of Western Bade, when a prefix with an underlying voiced obstruent is added to a root beginning a voiced obstruent, the prefix retains voicing in phonetic structure. Compare the Amshi forms in (1') with those in (1):

(1') **gǎ-làgú** 'you stopped'      **gǎ-kǎrū** 'you stole'      **gǎ-gǎfó** 'you caught'

For such varieties of Western Bade, the lexical restriction against a word beginning in a voiced obstruent when the next syllable begins in a voiced obstruent is best viewed as a static restriction formalized in (4), which simply says, "Disfavor ( ?\*) words that begin in a voiced obstruent when the next syllable begins in a voiced obstruent."

(4) Lexicalized Voicing Dissimilation:      ?\*<sub>[word]</sub>  $\begin{bmatrix} - \text{sonorant} \\ + \text{voice} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \end{bmatrix}$  V(C)  $\begin{bmatrix} - \text{sonorant} \\ + \text{voice} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \end{bmatrix}$  ...

As the next section will show, however, in parts of the Western Bade dialect area, this is not a static restriction, but rather, it is an active phonological rule.

### 3.2. The rule of voicing dissimilation in "Far Western" Bade

At the western edge of the Western Bade area, speakers in a number of villages, have voicing dissimilation as an active rule. I do not know the exact geographical extent of this rule, but recorded narratives collected from the villages of Tagali, Sugum, and Adiya reveal that it is present there, and it is present in the speech of Madamuwa, perhaps the westernmost Bade speaking town, represented in the data below.

Bade has a number of inflectional and derivational prefixes of the form CV where C is underlyingly a voiced obstruent. In Bade as spoken in Madamuwa and other villages mentioned above, when these are prefixes are added to roots whose initial consonant is a

voiced obstruent, the prefix consonant dissimilates to its voiceless counterpart. The voiced counterpart must be underlying since it occurs in any environment EXCEPT before a voiced obstruent. The tables in (5-8) illustrate most of the relevant prefixes.

(5) Second person masculine perfective subject prefix /gə/

<u>Non-dissimilated</u>		<u>Dissimilated</u>	
<b>gə-k<sup>w</sup>tú</b> (< ək <sup>w</sup> tú)	‘you took’	<b>kə-bdú</b> (< əbdú)	‘you asked’
<b>gə-kórū</b>	‘you stole’	<b>kə-vərú</b>	‘you went out’
<b>gə-dəbdú</b>	‘you sold’	<b>kə-dək<sup>w</sup>ú</b>	‘you heard’
<b>gə-làgú</b>	‘you stopped’	<b>kə-gáfó</b>	‘you caught’
<b>gə-nájú</b>	‘you ground’	<b>kə-bà:sú</b>	‘you spoke’

(6) Third person subjunctive prefix /da(a)/<sup>2</sup>

<u>Non-dissimilated</u>		<u>Dissimilated</u>	
<b>dà-k<sup>w</sup>tə́tʃi</b>	‘that he take’	<b>tā-bdətʃi</b>	‘that he ask’
<b>dà-kórətʃi</b>	‘that he steal’	<b>tā-vərətʃi</b>	‘that he go out’
<b>dà-dəbdətʃi</b>	‘that he sell’	<b>tā-dək<sup>w</sup>ətʃi</b>	‘that he hear’
<b>dá:làgətʃi</b>	‘that he stop’	<b>tā-bà:sətʃi</b>	‘that he speak’
<b>dà-nájətʃi</b>	‘that he grind’		

(7) Stative prefix /də/: indicates being in the state implied by the action of the verb

<u>Non-dissimilated</u>		<u>Dissimilated</u>	
<b>də-k<sup>w</sup>tà</b>	‘stolen’	<b>tə-bdà</b>	‘asked’
<b>də-sədà</b>	‘washed’	<b>tə-vədí</b>	‘lying down’
<b>də-tʃəpkàpù</b>	‘squatted’	<b>tə-bàkà</b>	‘burned’
<b>də-dəbdà</b>	‘sold’	<b>tə-g<sup>w</sup>əbá</b>	‘wet’
<b>də-rdijà</b> (< ərdijú)	‘melted’	<b>tə-ɣàmí</b>	‘done’
<b>də-mtà</b> (< m̩tú)	‘dead’	<b>tə-zgətà</b> (< əzgətú)	‘pierced’
<b>də-làgí</b>	‘standing’	<b>tə-rg<sup>w</sup>ədà</b> (< ərg <sup>w</sup> ədú)	‘cooked’

(8) Participle prefix /gə/: makes a participial adjective from a verb root

<u>Non-dissimilated</u>		<u>Dissimilated</u>	
<b>gə-táɬà</b>	‘shattered’	<b>ká-zənàdà</b>	‘withered’
<b>gə-hədà</b>	‘dried’	<b>ká-g<sup>w</sup>àbá</b>	‘moistened’
<b>gə-rdàyà</b>	‘melted’	<b>ká-zgàtá</b>	‘pierced’
<b>gə-náh<sup>w</sup>á</b>	‘filled’	<b>ká-gbàmtá</b> (< əgbàmtú)	‘swollen’

<sup>2</sup> For most verbs, the prefix has a short vowel /da/. For a small number of verbs, the prefix exceptionally has a long vowel /da:/. Subjunctive verbs in this dialect also have a suffix that agrees with the subject. Here the suffix is /tʃi/ for 3rd masculine singular agreement.

Dialects such as that of Amshi have all these prefixes, but they do not alternate. We have seen the 2<sup>nd</sup> masculine singular pronoun in (1'). Other Amshi forms parallel to those above are **dà-kǎrì** 'that he steal' and **dá-bdì** 'that he ask' for the third person subjunctive prefix, **dǎ-làgí** 'standing' and **dǎ-rg<sup>w</sup>ǎdǎ** 'cooked' for the stative prefix, and **gà-náh<sup>w</sup>á** 'filled' and **gá-gbàmtá** 'swollen' for the participial prefix.

It is worth noting that there are no prefixes in Western Bade with underlying VOICELESS obstruents, i.e. all obstruent initial prefixes alternate as in (5-8) or have invariant voiced obstruents, depending on speech variety.<sup>3</sup> This seems not to be an accidental gap in the shape of Western Bade prefixes. While, at present, we cannot be sure of what the original consonants of all these prefixes were, we do have evidence for two of them. For the 2<sup>nd</sup> masculine singular subject prefix, the original form was \***kV**. Even in the Gashua dialect of Bade, it is **kV**, e.g. Gashua Bade **kǎ kǎlū** 'you stole', and in virtually all more distantly related languages, it is **kV**, e.g. Hausa **ká: já:** 'you drank (it)', Bole **ká sá:-wò:-yí** 'you drank (it)'. On the other hand, the 3<sup>rd</sup> person subjunctive prefix must have originally been \***dV**, as it is in Miya, e.g. **dǎ bǎsaw** 'that he wash'.

My hypothesis is that at an early period of Western Bade, prefixes with original voiced obstruents alternated because of the dissimilation rule, whereas prefixes with original voiceless obstruents did not alternate. Speakers got used to making the alternation and extended it to prefixes where it "should not" have applied, with the result that all prefixes beginning in obstruents alternated, with the voiced version being interpreted as the underlying (= "elsewhere") form. At a later period, dissimilation for many speakers became inactive as a RULE, showing up just a condition on the shape of

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<sup>3</sup> The only other productive prefix in Bade is a /**ma**/ agentive/instrument, e.g. **mábàrá:n** 'hunter' (< **bàrú** 'hunt'). Sonorant consonants do not show any alternation.

words in the lexicon, as formulated in (4). Without an active rule, alternation of morphemes no longer made any phonological sense, so speakers like those of Amshi made the underlying form, with a voiced obstruent, identical to the surface form in all cases.

In (3), we saw that CV reduplicants generally show the effects of voicing dissimilation. In the area where dissimilation is an active rule, producing forms such as those in the right hand column below (all data in (9) from Madamuwa):

(9) <u>No dissimilation</u>	<u>Dissimilated</u>
<b>sà:səḏú</b> < <b>səḏú</b> ‘wash repeatedly’	<b>fà:vəṛú</b> < <b>vəṛú</b> ‘go out repeatedly’
<b>nà:ŋh<sup>w</sup>ú</b> < <b>ŋh<sup>w</sup>ú</b> ‘fill repeatedly’	<b>k<sup>w</sup>a:g<sup>w</sup>əḑú</b> < <b>g<sup>w</sup>əḑú</b> ‘repeatedly moisten’
<b>màmtú</b> < <b>mṭú</b> ‘many die’	<b>pàbdú</b> < <b>əbdú</b> ‘ask repeatedly’

Two further features relevant to dissimilation emerge from Madamuwa reduplication. First, one consonant verb roots do NOT undergo dissimilation. For example, **tó** ‘eat’, with a voiceless obstruent, has the expected reduplicated form, **tətó** ‘eat many’, but **dó** ‘shoot’ and **vó** ‘remove’, with voiced obstruents reduplicate as **vəvó** ‘shoot many’ and **dəḑó** ‘repeatedly remove’ respectively, not **\*fəvó** and **\*təḑó**. Recall from (2) that one category of words where dissimilation has generally not applied are those with “root reduplication”. Let us think of CV reduplication, exemplified in (9), as a type of PREFIXATION, different from root reduplication, which, in effect, doubles the whole word. In the case of one-consonant verbs, CV reduplication is, in effect, also ROOT reduplication, i.e. doubling the word. We might thus represent a reduplicant like ‘go out repeatedly’ as /**và:-vəru**/, where the hyphen represents a boundary separating a prefix and

a root, whereas we might represent ‘shoot many’ as /və#vo/, where “#” represents a boundary between roots.<sup>4</sup>

A second feature of reduplication relevant to dissimilation emerges from reduplicants like **kàràrmú** ‘chop repeatedly’ < **kàrmú** and **èrgwàg<sup>w</sup>đú** ‘cook many portions’ < **èrg<sup>w</sup>đú**. In verbs with three consonants, the reduplicated part (underlined in the examples) is based on the SECOND consonant. Note that in the word ‘cook many portions’, the first **g<sup>w</sup>** does NOT dissimilate to [k<sup>w</sup>] even though the next consonant is a voiced obstruent. In fact, dissimilation seems not to have affected word internal sequences in general.

Based on the facts presented in this section of the paper, we can now formulate the voicing dissimilation rule of “Far Western” Bade as follows:

$$(10) \text{ Voicing Dissimilation: } \begin{bmatrix} - \text{sonorant} \\ + \text{voice} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow [-\text{voice}] / [\text{word} \text{ \_\_\_\_ } \text{V(C)(-)} \begin{bmatrix} - \text{sonorant} \\ + \text{voice} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \end{bmatrix} \dots]$$

i.e. “a non-glottalized voiced obstruent becomes voiceless if it is the onset of the first syllable of a word and the next syllable begins in a voiced obstruent.” An affix boundary (represented by “-”) may intervene between the consonants.

#### 4. Voicing Assimilation and the Interaction of Assimilation and Dissimilation

Like many of the world’s languages, Bade requires that obstruents agree in voiced with neighboring obstruents. Thus, we have **bàksó**: ‘evil’ and **tâgdán** ‘money’, but no \***bakzo**, \***tagta:n**, etc. In monomorphemic words such as these, voicing agreement is a static condition on clusters, but words such as those in (11) show that we can formulate

<sup>4</sup> This very differentiation of boundary types was used by Chomsky and Halle (1968) to differentiate, for example, the link between the prefix *un-* and a root, as in *unprofitable*, where assimilation of the *-n-* to the consonant is optional, and the prefix *in-* and a root, as in *impossible*, where assimilation is obligatory. To mark a WORD boundary, they used a doubled pound sign, ##.

voicing agreement as the rule in (12), which assimilates an obstruent to the voicing feature of a FOLLOWING obstruent:

- (11) **d̥záb̥d̥zàpá** ‘very small’ < **d̥zápà** (underlying /p/ assimilates to following /d̥z/)   
**gèrbàptú** ‘leap up’ < /gèr-bà-b-tú/ (underlying /b/ assimilates to following /t/)

- (12) Voicing Assimilation: 
$$\left[ \begin{array}{l} - \text{sonorant} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \end{array} \right] \rightarrow [\alpha \text{ voice}] / \text{---} \left[ \begin{array}{l} - \text{sonorant} \\ - \text{constr\_gl} \\ \alpha \text{ voice} \end{array} \right]$$

Since Voicing Dissimilation (10) and Voicing Assimilation (12) have opposite affects on obstruents, alternations such as those in (13) can arise:

- (13) **kàdú** ‘snap in two’ (intransitive)    **ègdú** ‘snap in two, pluck’ (transitive)   
**sègón** ‘knowledge’                            **èzgó** ‘know’

Since the underlined sounds in (13) are all in positions of neutralization, it is impossible to select an unequivocal underlying form. Comparative evidence from other languages might tell us what the original sound was, but Bade speakers do not have the history of Chadic languages stored in their brains. What seems most likely is that “what you see is what you get”. That is, Bade speakers may associate such word pairs semantically, but phonologically there is probably not a unique underlying form for each root. Only speakers of Bade can tell us!

## 5. Conclusion

We have seen that Bade, a Chadic language of northern Nigeria, has a co-occurrence restriction that disfavors voiced obstruents as onsets to consecutive syllables. This restriction arose through a process that dissimilated the first of consecutive voiced obstruents to voicelessness. For most Bade dialects, this is no longer an active process, but for certain varieties in the far western edge of the Bade area, it remains active and plays out in alternations of certain prefixes. For all Bade dialects, there is a rule that

ASSIMILATES an obstruent to the voicing feature of an immediately following obstruent. For some roots, the interplay of DISSIMILATION and ASSIMILATION creates alternates, but because both rules are neutralizing, there is no way, in principle, to select a unique underlying input form.

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