

1 **Shifts in gestural timing as the basis for non-coronal fricative mergers in**
2 **Southwestern Mandarin: acoustic evidence from a dialect island**

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9 **Abstract**

10 Merger between a voiceless labiodental fricative, /f/, and a voiceless velar fricative, /x/, is
11 common across languages, including many dialects of Chinese, particularly varieties of
12 Southwest Mandarin. The sound changes that lead to merger in Southwest Mandarin dialects
13 are bidirectional: in some, /f/ becomes /x/; in others /x/ becomes /f/. We conducted a study of
14 phonetic variation in one such dialect, Zhongjiang Chinese, which has been reported to merge
15 /x/ to /f/ in the environment of /w/. Our results confirm this basic pattern while revealing
16 additional nuances, including a new environment for merger, /_oŋ/, and new phonetic details.
17 In particular, /f/ exhibits a wide range of spectral variation, including tokens with a low
18 frequency spectral peak, characteristic of a velar constriction. We interpret the pattern of
19 spectral variation for /f/ in the Zhongjiang dialect evidence for a secondary velar articulation,
20 /fʲ/. This result sheds new light on bidirectional sound change, as both directions of change,
21 /fʲ/→/xʷ/ and /xʷ/→/fʲ/, can be understood in terms of the same mechanism, shifts in the
22 relative timing of labial and dorsal gestural components of the fricatives.

23 **Keywords**

24 Velar fricatives, secondary articulation, labial-velar merger, sound change, gestural timing,
25 dialect variation

26 **1. Introduction**

27 Merger between a voiceless labiodental fricative, /f/, and a voiceless velar fricative, /x/,
28 henceforth labial-velar merger, is a common sound change, attested in Germanic, Romance,
29 Celtic, Slavic, and Uralic (Hickey 1984) as well as many dialects of Southwest Chinese. In a
30 typological survey of 374 dialects spoken in Hunan, Hubei, Sichuan, and Yunnan provinces,
31 He (2004) reports that 212 dialects have the /f/-/x/ merger. The merger can also be found in
32 Southern Chinese dialects, e.g., Min dialect (Chen & Li 1991), Cantonese (Zhan 2002), Gan
33 dialect (Sun 2007), Hakka dialect in west Guangdong (Li 1999) and the vernacular dialect of
34 north Guangdong (Zhuang 2004).

35
36 Amongst these labial-velar mergers, there are dialects in which /f/ has become /x/ and others
37 in which /x/ has become /f/. That is, the sound change is bidirectional. The focus of research to
38 date on Chinese labial-velar mergers has been largely documentary in nature. The patterns
39 of change, dating back to medieval Chinese, have been recorded in detail by Chinese
40 dialectologists (see references above). In this literature, dialects tend to be characterized
41 categorically, e.g., words are described as being produced with either /f/ or /x/. Less is known
42 about patterns of synchronic phonetic variation and how they could relate to the observed sound
43 changes. The aim of this paper is to establish this relation, considering patterns of synchronic
44 phonetic variation alongside documented patterns of sound change.

45
46 To this end, we provide an examination of phonetic variation in one dialect of Southwest
47 Mandarin (Zhongjiang). Numerous phonetic measurements have been used to characterize
48 variation in fricatives (e.g., Jongman, Wayland, & Wong, 2000; McMurray & Jongman, 2011).
49 Spectral moments have been used commonly, since Forrest et al. (1988), to characterize
50 fricatives within and across languages. In particular, the mean energy of the spectrum, or Center
51 of Gravity (CoG), is often reported (e.g., Gordon, Barthmaier, & Sands, 2002), which makes it
52 a useful measurement for comparing across studies. In their study of English fricatives, Shadle
53 & Mair (1996) also included two additional spectral measures, dynamic amplitude and the
54 slope of a line fit from the maximum frequency to 16.97 kHz. Dynamic amplitude picked up
55 some consistent differences between English fricatives while the slope of the line captured
56 variation in speaker effort. In a study of eight English fricatives, Jongman et al. (2000)
57 investigated the acoustic separability of fricatives, and report that the variance of the spectrum
58 was a particularly robust acoustic cue to place of articulation. Similarly, Shadle & Mair (1996)
59 found that the related measure of spectrum standard deviation to be useful in differentiating
60 English fricatives. Our main analysis in this paper focuses on two spectral measurements:
61 Center of Gravity (CoG) and Spectrum Standard Deviation (SD). To encourage additional
62 analyses, the entire data set, including sound files and textgrids (see methods), has been
63 submitted as a *Data in Brief* article. Although spectral moments are rather coarse descriptions
64 of the spectrum, for the specific case of labial-velar fricatives, the interpretation of CoG and
65 Spectrum Standard Deviation have relatively straight-forward interpretations. The posterior
66 constriction for velar fricatives, /x/, usually ensures a low CoG, due to resonance of the long
67 cavity in front of the constriction, and low SD, due to the relatively sharp spectral peaks. For
68 /f/, the anterior constriction at the lips typically results in a diffuse (flat) spectrum, indexed by

69 high spectrum SD, and high CoG, due to resonance of either a very short cavity in front of the
70 constriction or no detectable front cavity resonance at all. Phonetic variation in these measures,
71 conditioned in part by coarticulatory influences, provides some clues to understanding the
72 diachronic patterns across Chinese dialects more generally.

73

74 One important characteristic of the labial velar merger is that, like many sound changes, it tends
75 to proceed in specific phonological environments. There are three environments in particular
76 that favor merger. Mergers are more likely when the fricative precedes: (1) a labiovelar glide,
77 /_w/; (2) a high back rounded vowel, /_u/; and (3) the VC sequence consisting of a mid-round
78 vowel and velar nasal coda, /_oŋ/. These contexts are not random. They all involve a lip
79 movement and tongue dorsum retraction, albeit with various modes of coordination. To
80 preview our results, we find that the range of acoustic variation in the production of /f/ and /x/
81 across these and other environments suggests that there may be a temporal basis for the labial
82 velar merger. Specifically, we argue that shifts in the relative timing of the constituent gestures
83 of these fricatives lead to the observed sound changes. Tongue dorsum retraction, as required
84 for /w/, /u/, /oŋ/, during the fricative /f/, gives rise to spectral properties that approach /x/.
85 Similarly, lip rounding, as also required for /w/, /u/, /oŋ/, during the fricative /x/, brings the
86 acoustics closer to /f/. Overlap in time between the component gestures of the fricative and
87 other gestures in the local environment has the effect of neutralizing acoustic differences
88 between /f/ and /x/.

89

90 The remainder of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides background on the
91 labial velar merger in Southwest Chinese Dialects. Section 3 describes the methods of four
92 studies on the Zhongjiang dialect. Section 4 reports the results of our phonetic analysis. Section
93 5 discusses synchronic and diachronic issues related to the merger in light of the phonetic
94 results. Section 6 briefly concludes.

95 **2. Background on the /f/-/x/ merger in Southwest Mandarin dialects**

96 2.1 Dialect types

97 Several surveys of Chinese dialects, undertaken in the 1940's and published in large Chinese
98 volumes in the decades that followed (e.g., Chao, 1948; Yang, 1969, 1974, 1984), provide a
99 comprehensive starting point for the study of dialect variation in China. These studies covered
100 hundreds of dialects across China using standardized methods and traced synchronic
101 pronunciation patterns back to medieval Chinese. Before presenting our studies on synchronic
102 phonetic variation within one dialect, we first situate this dialect within the broader
103 Southwestern Chinese sprachbund, as characterized by the seminal dialect surveys. The data
104 described here is based on *The Report of Sichuan Dialects* (Yang 1984), *The Report of Hunan*
105 *Dialects* (Yang 1974), *The Report of Yunnan Dialects* (Yang 1969), and the *The Report of*
106 *Hubei Dialects* (Chao 1948). Of 374 documented dialects of Southwest Mandarin in these
107 studies, 212 are differentiated from Standard Mandarin in patterns of phonological variation
108 between a labiodental fricative, /f/, and a velar fricative /x/ (He 2004). The patterns of variation
109 come in eight types. These are classified in Table 1 with reference to medieval Chinese. The

110 top row lists relevant medieval Chinese proto-phonemes. There are often multiple sources for
111 synchronic phonemes; however, for convenience, we've provided a single label for each proto-
112 category (described below), in the second row of the table. Each row below shows how that
113 proto-category is realized in a synchronically attested dialect type. Examples of each dialect
114 type are given in the first column.

115

116 The table shows that synchronic /f/ derives from a merger of three medieval Chinese categories:
117 /f/, /fʰ/, and /v/. We henceforth refer to these medieval sources of modern /f/ as proto-f, or *f.
118 Synchronic /x/ derives from two categories in medieval Chinese: /x/ and /ɣ/. We describe these
119 as proto-x, or *x. For reference, the first row of the table lists Standard Mandarin Chinese. In
120 this dialect, there is no synchronic merger between /f/ and /x/. Other rows show different types
121 of merger between /f/ and /x/ according to context. The dialects are divided into eight types. In
122 discussing the dialects, we use both Standard Mandarin Chinese and medieval Chinese as
123 points of reference. In the discussion that follows, and throughout the paper, we refer to the
124 medieval Chinese categories with “*” and we place all IPA symbols in slashes, //. To facilitate
125 comparison across language varieties, in addition to providing English glosses for words, we
126 also provide Sino-graphs (Chinese characters).

127

128 In Type I dialects, /f/ and /x/ remain distinct except in the context of the vowel /u/. In this
129 environment, /x/ became /f/. This merger created new homophones. For example, the Standard
130 Mandarin pronunciation of /xu/ 护 ‘protect’ is pronounced as /fu/ in Zhongjiang, which is the
131 same pronunciation as other words, such as 父 ‘father’. In Type II, /xu/ is also pronounced as
132 /fu/, just as in Type I dialects. Additionally, in Type II, /x^w_ / is read as /f_/. Here, we use the
133 underscore “_” to refer to indicate all following environments, except for /u/ and /oŋ/, which
134 are listed in separate columns. Thus, in Type II, a word like /x^wæ̃/ (欢 ‘happiness’) is
135 pronounced as /fæ̃/, which becomes homophonous with 翻 ‘turn over’. /f-/x/ remains distinct
136 in the context of /oŋ/, e.g., /foŋ/ (缝 ‘sew’) differs from /xoŋ/ (红 ‘red’). In Type III dialects,
137 /fu/ is synchronically /xu/; /foŋ/ became /xoŋ/; in all other environments /f/ is synchronically
138 /x^w/, e.g., /fæ̃/ (范 ‘law’) is homophonous with /x^wæ̃/ (幻 ‘fantasy’). In Type IV, /xu/ became
139 /fu/; /xoŋ/ became /foŋ/; and, /x^w_ / became /f_/. In Type V, /xu/ became /fu/ but /f_ / became
140 /x^w_/. In Type VI, /foŋ/ became /xoŋ/, while other contexts maintain the labial-velar fricative
141 distinction. In Type VII, /xu/ became /fu/, while /foŋ/ became /xoŋ/ and /f_ / became /x^w_/. In
142 Type VIII, /fu/ became /xu/ and /foŋ/ became /xoŋ/, while /x^w_ / became /f_ /.

143

144 Notably, this set of dialect types and the mapping to medieval Chinese includes cases of
145 bidirectional mergers. The labiodental fricative, *f, became /x^w/ in some dialects (e.g., Type
146 III, Type V and Type VII); in others, *x^w became /f/ (Type II, Type IV and Type VIII). Type
147 III and Type IV are polar opposites: in Type III, all *f became /x^w/; in Table 4, all *x^w became
148 /f/. The other dialect types show mergers in more restricted environments, e.g, Type VI shows
149 a merger in just one environment: *foŋ became /xoŋ/ but /f/~x^w/ remain distinct otherwise. Of
150 note is that it is always a round back vowel /u/, glide /w/, or /oŋ/ that conditions the merger or
151 exceptions to a general pattern.

Medieval Chinese types	*xu 护 *yu 户	*fu 付 *f ^h u 赴 *vu 父	*foŋ 封 *f ^h oŋ 蜂 *voŋ 缝	*xoŋ 烘 *yoŋ 红	*x ^w ₋ 欢 *y ^w ₋ 幻	*f ₋ 反 *f ^h ₋ 翻 *v ₋ 范	*x ₋ 汉 *y ₋ 汗
Our label for the proto-category	*xu	*fu	*foŋ	*xoŋ	*x ^w ₋	*f ₋	*x ₋
Standard Mandarin	xu	fu	foŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	f ₋	x ₋
Type I	fu	fu	foŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	f ₋	x ₋
Type II (Zhongjiang)	fu	fu	foŋ	xoŋ	f ₋	f ₋	x ₋
Type III	xu	xu	xoŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	x ^w ₋	x ₋
Type IV	fu	fu	foŋ	foŋ	f ₋	f ₋	x ₋
Type V	fu	fu	foŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	x ^w ₋	x ₋
Type VI	xu	fu	xoŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	f ₋	x ₋
Type VII	fu	fu	xoŋ	xoŋ	x ^w ₋	x ^w ₋	x ₋
Type VIII	xu	xu	xoŋ	xoŋ	f ₋	f ₋	x ₋

152 Table 1. /f/-/x/ merger types in Sichuan, Hunan, Hubei and Yunnan provinces. The underscore, “_”, indicates
153 all following environments, except for /u/ and /oŋ/, which are listed in separate columns.

154 2.2 Dialect islands

155 The geographical distribution of the above eight dialects types across four Southwestern
156 provinces of China is shown in the map in Figure 1. Type I occurs mostly in Sichuan province.
157 Of the 374 documented dialects of Southwest provinces, there are 98 Type I dialects spoken in
158 Sichuan, and 33 Type I dialects spoken in Yunnan. In addition to these areas (Sichuan and
159 Yunnan), where the majority of Type I dialects are located, there are sporadic instances of Type
160 I in Hubei Province and Hunan Province as well.

161

162 Type II is mostly in Hunan Province and occurs as well in some districts and counties in Hubei
163 Province. In Sichuan, there are only six dialects of Type II. These are found in the districts and
164 counties of Zhongjiang, Wusheng, Yongchuan, Lezhi, Suining, and Wuxi.

165

166 Type III dialects are less common. There are just 13 in Southwest China. Eight of them are
167 found in Sichuan province, including in Jingyang and Luojiang counties, which border
168 Zhongjiang. In addition, there are 5 Type III dialects scattered in Hunan Province and Hubei
169 Province.

170

171 Type IV is found only in Tongcheng in Hubei and in Liling and Pingjiang in Hunan.
 172 Type V is found in the middle of Huanan, such as Xiangxiang and Xinhua, and Baojing, which
 173 is located in southwest Hunan.
 174
 175 Type VI has been documented in Qiancheng in Hubei and Ningxiang in Hunan.
 176
 177 Type VII is mainly found at the junction of southwestern Hubei and northwestern Hunan, such
 178 as in Enshi in Hubei and Xinhua in Hunan. Two additional Type VII dialects are Ziyang and
 179 Zizhong, in the midwest region of Sichuan province.
 180
 181 Type VIII is only found in Linxiang, Hunan province.
 182
 183 Besides the 8 types of merger listed in the table, there are some other contexts which are related
 184 to the merger of /f/-/x/; for example, in Hejiang and Nanxi dialects (located in Sichuan), the
 185 tenseness of the high, back vowels influences merger of /f/ and /x/; /xu/ is read as /fu/, but /xʊ/
 186 remains distinct, as /xʊ/. In addition, the voiced labiodental consonant /v/ is involved in the
 187 diachronic sound change in some dialects as well; for example, *xu is read as /fu/, while *yu
 188 is read as /vu/ (He 2004: 73).
 189

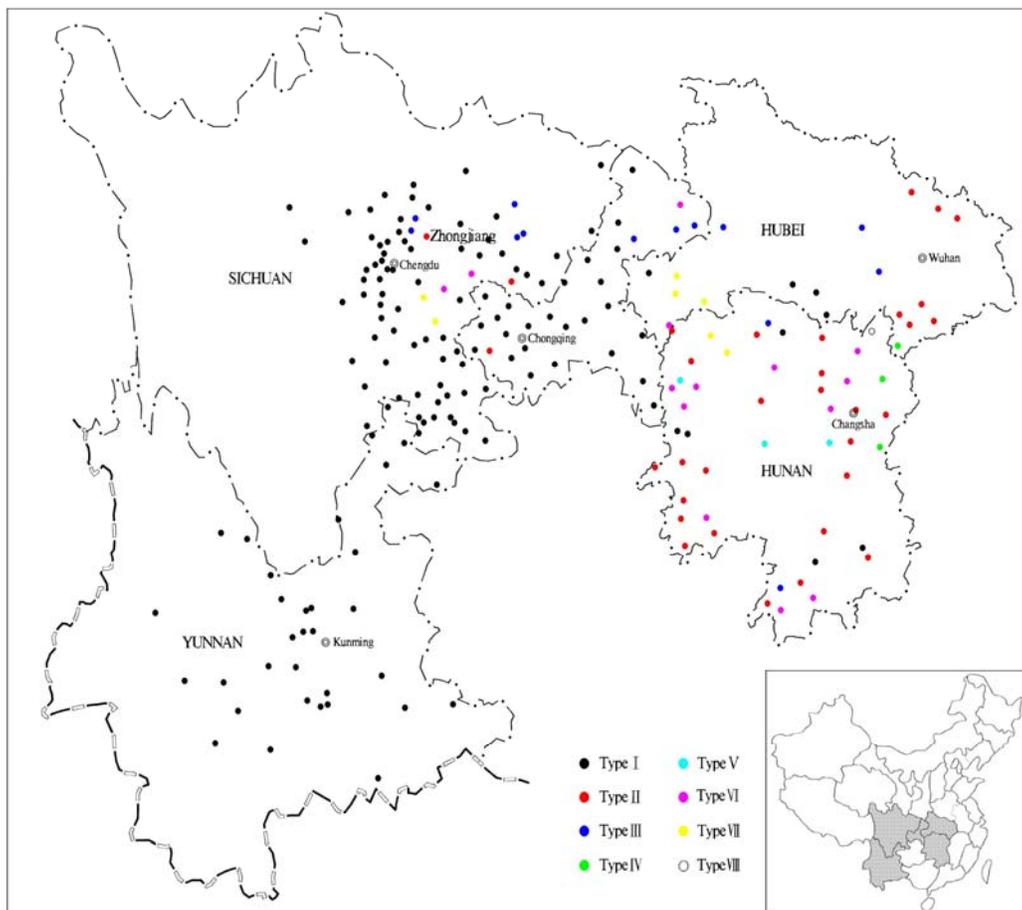


Figure 1. Geographical distribution of /f/-/x/ merger in Southwest four provinces

190
 191

192
193 To summarize, as shown on Figure 1, there are 8 types of labial-velar merger. In the Southwest
194 Mandarin of Yunnan, Sichuan and Hubei provinces, the majority pattern is Type I, while
195 multiple types of merger exist in Hunan and areas of Hubei that are adjacent to Hunan. In
196 addition, there are a few different types of labial-velar merger in hilly areas in the middle
197 Sichuan, which are also distributed in Hunan and Hubei. Zhongjiang is one such dialect. It is a
198 “dialect island” in the sense that it shows a Type II pattern in an otherwise predominantly Type
199 I area.

200
201 Dialect islands, such as Zhongjiang, show the influence of historical migration on
202 contemporary variation. Human migration patterns have played a key role in dispersing dialect
203 types, including dialect islands such as Zhongjiang. Due to periods of war, famine and plague,
204 the population in Sichuan province was dramatically reduced in Ming (1368 to 1644) and Qing
205 (1644 to 1912) dynasties. Communities originally from Hunan, Hubei, and Guangdong
206 provinces were encouraged to move to Sichuan in order to recover production and open up
207 more land for farming. Vast waves of migration, termed “Huguang Fill Sichuan”, spanned 150
208 years (Cao 1997) and contributed to the contemporary variation of dialects in Sichuan. Dialect
209 islands constitute pockets of resistance to areal convergence in favor of dialect continuity over
210 time.

211 **3. Methods**

212 To investigate /x/~f/ variation, we conducted a phonetic analysis of a corpus of ~9,000 tokens;
213 10 speakers (5 female) were recorded producing 10 repetitions each of 90 monosyllabic words
214 beginning with /x/ or /f/.

215 **3.1 Speakers**

216 Zhongjiang is a city in Sichuan province. The center of the city is a densely populated urban
217 area. The outskirts of the city are more rural. The variety of Mandarin spoken in the more rural
218 outskirts of the city is considered to be different from the urban dialect (Cui 1996). For this
219 study, speakers were recruited from the urban areas of Zhongjiang City. Each speaker was born
220 and raised in the urban area of Zhongjiang and spent no more than half a year living outside of
221 Zhongjiang. Younger speakers in Zhongjiang tend to be more influenced by Standard Mandarin.
222 In order to minimize the influence of Mandarin on our characterization of the Zhongjiang
223 dialect, we focused on speakers over 55 years of age. The gender, age, and occupation of our
224 speakers are given in Table 2.

speaker	gender	age	occupation
1	M	61	factory worker
2	F	55	hospital nurse
3	M	62	elementary school teacher
4	F	56	elementary school teacher
5	M	60	factory worker
6	F	60	factory worker
7	F	68	elementary school teacher
8	M	65	elementary school teacher
9	M	61	city hall office worker
10	F	59	businessman

226

Table 2. Gender and age by speaker ID

227 3.2 Materials

228 Materials consisted of a total 90 monosyllabic words beginning with /x/ or /f/. Given that the
 229 merger of /x/ and /f/ is related to different phonetic contexts, especially the labial-velar glide,
 230 /w/, we designed four sub-groups of stimuli to test different aspects of the Zhongjiang pattern.
 231 We describe these subsets as separate studies along with the specific objective of each.

232

233 **Study 1:** minimal pairs from *x and *x^w

234 As a Type II dialect, we expect *x and *x^w in Zhongjiang to be contrastive: /x/-/f/. This is
 235 because *x^w is expected to be /f/. In order to observe whether the change from *x^w to /f/ is as
 236 expected, we chose 4 minimal pairs (8 items), in which we expect the contrast between /x/ and
 237 /f/ to be maintained. For example, /xa45/ ‘laughter’ (Sinograph and Pinyin: 哈, ha55) and /fa45/
 238 ‘flower’(花, hua55¹) are expected to be minimal pairs in Type II dialects. This contrasts with
 239 Standard Mandarin Chinese, in which ‘哈’ and ‘花’ have the same onset consonant: /x/. If our
 240 speakers produce these words as expected, study one will provide minimal pairs offering a
 241 baseline for phonetic differences between /x/ and /f/ outside the conditioning environments for
 242 merger.

243

244

245

¹ Note that Standard Chinese Pinyin uses the same symbol ‘u’ to represent vowel /u/ and glide /w/, e.g., *hu2* /xu35/ ‘lake’ and *hua1* /x^wa55/ ‘flower’.

Sino-graph characters	Mandarin Pinyin	Type II expectation Zhongjiang IPA
哈-花	ha55-hua55	/xa45/-/fa45/
害-坏	hai51-huai51	/xai324/-/fai324/
黑-或	hei55-huo51	/xe31/-/fe31/
还-怀	hai35-huai35	/xai31/-/fai31/

246

Table 3. Contrastive pairs (*x₋*x^w₋) in Zhongjiang Chinese

247 **Study 2:** merger of /f/ and /x^w/

248 In this group, we expect /f/ and /x^w/ to merge to /f/, resulting in non-contrastive pairs. In terms
 249 of phonetic measurements, we expect completely overlapping distributions for /f/ and /x^w/. We
 250 chose 13 pairs (26 items), which are contrastive in standard Mandarin but are expected to have
 251 merged in Zhongjiang. We refer to these as ‘non-contrastive’ pairs; an example is /fei31/ ‘fat’
 252 (肥, fei35) and /fei31/ ‘return’ (回, hui35). The merger in Zhongjiang results from /x^w/ in
 253 Standard Mandarin (‘hu’ in Pinyin) produced as /f/ in Zhongjiang.

Sino-graph characters	Mandarin Pinyin	Type II expectation Zhongjiang IPA
发-华	fa55-hua35	/fa31/
肥-回 肺-会 飞-灰	fei35-hui35 fei51-hui51 fei55-hui55	/fei31/ /fei324/ /fei45/
翻-欢 烦-还 返-缓 饭-换	fan55-huan55 fan35-huan35 fan214-huan214 fan51-huan51	/fǎe45/ /fǎe31/ /fǎe51/ /fǎe324/
分-婚 坟-魂 奋-混	fen55-hun55 fen35-hun35 fen51-hun51	/fɛn45/ /fɛn31/ /fɛn324/
方-慌 房-黄	fang55-huang55 fang35-huang35	/faŋ45/ /faŋ31/

254

Table 4. Non-contrastive pairs (*f₋*x^w₋) in Zhongjiang Chinese

255

256 **Study 3:** contrast continuity, /f/-/x/
 257 The items in this study provide an important control comparison. They consist of words that
 258 were contrastive in medieval Chinese and are still contrastive in both Standard Mandarin and
 259 the Zhongjiang dialect. For example, /fəu51/ ‘deny’ (否, fou214) and /xəu51/ ‘yell’ (吼,
 260 hou214). There are 2 such pairs (4 items) in our wordlist, which are contrastive both in standard
 261 Mandarin and the Zhongjiang dialect.
 262

Sino-graph characters	Mandarin Pinyin	Type II expectation Zhongjiang IPA
浮-猴	fu35-hou35	/fəu31/-/xəu31/
否-吼	fou214-hou214	/fəu51/-/xəu51/

263
 264 Table 5. Contrastive pairs (*f_-*x_) with vowel /əu/ in Zhongjiang Chinese
 265

266 **Study 4:** the /oŋ/ environment
 267 From previous research, we expect the contrast between /foŋ/ and /xoŋ/ to be maintained in
 268 Zhongjiang dialect. However, based on our perceptions in the field, we have noticed some
 269 variations between /f/ and /x/ in the context of final /oŋ/ and this is an environment that is
 270 known to condition variation across dialects. Table 6 included 3 pairs (6 items), which are
 271 expected to be contrastive in both standard Mandarin and Zhongjiang dialect: for example,
 272 /xoŋ31/ ‘red’(红, hong35) and /foŋ31/ ‘sew’(缝, fong35).
 273

Sino-graph characters	Mandarin Pinyin	Type II expectation Zhongjiang IPA
风-轰	fong55-hong55	/xoŋ45/-/foŋ45/
冯-洪	fong35-hong35	/xoŋ31/-/foŋ31/
红-缝	fong35-hong35	/xoŋ31/-/foŋ31/

274
 275 Table 6. Contrastive pairs (*f_-*x_) with final /oŋ/ in Zhongjiang Chinese
 276

277 3.3 Procedure

278 Participants were recorded in a sound-attenuated room at Wucheng hotel in Zhongjiang City.
 279 The data reported in this paper were part of a longer recording session, including spontaneous
 280 speech and other elicitation materials. The list of monosyllables reported here was recorded
 281 immediately after the spontaneous speech portion of the session, in which participants were
 282 asked to talk about their life in Zhongjiang or to introduce some aspect of Zhongjiang life: food,

283 popular local attractions, etc.. Before recording the monosyllables, all participants were given
284 the complete list on paper to look over. They confirmed that they knew all of the words on the
285 list. After this familiarization stage, the target items were displayed one at a time on a computer
286 screen. Participants were asked to read each item when it appeared. The items were pseudo-
287 randomized in one list, which was repeated 10 times over the course of the session. All tokens
288 were recorded in mono channel at 44,100 Hz directly to a Thinkpad T440 laptop using an
289 external Samson C03U microphone.

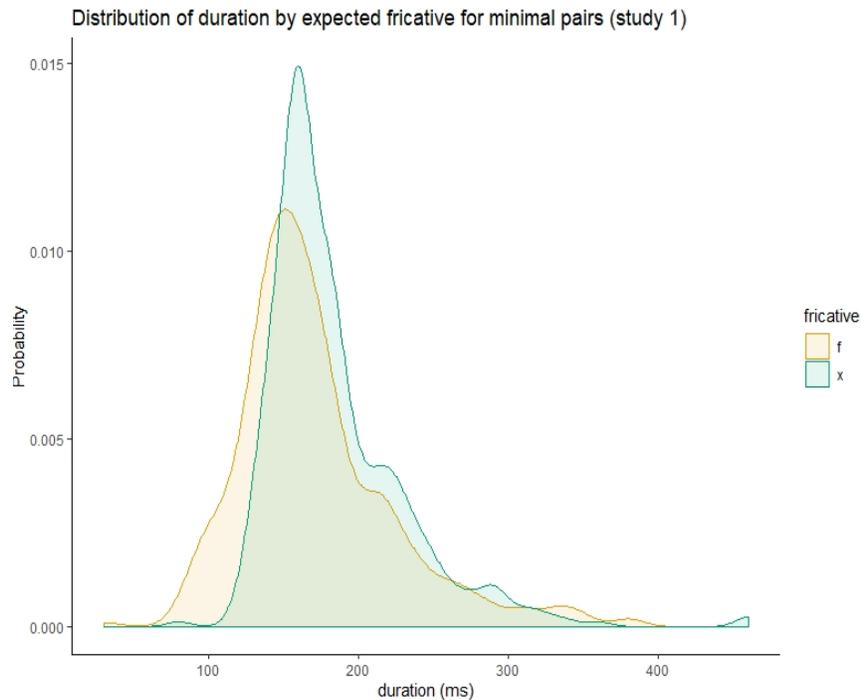
290
291 Segment boundaries were determined by forced alignment, using the Montreal Forced Aligner.
292 We created two sets of segment boundaries, one based on the pre-trained Standard Mandarin
293 aligner and another based on a Zhongjiang-specific aligner, trained on our recordings. To
294 evaluate the forced alignment, we hand-segmented 100 tokens from one speaker and assessed
295 correlations between the hand-segmented and force-aligned tokens both for segment duration
296 and also for the dependent measures of interest for the study (see below). The Zhongjiang-
297 specific aligner showed higher correlations with the hand-measured set than the Standard
298 Mandarin aligner, so we proceeded by using the Zhongjiang-specific aligner throughout. A
299 total of 9 tokens (0.1%) were excluded due to alignment failure.

300
301 Spectral measurements were extracted using Praat (Boersma & Weenick, 2016), with reference
302 to the segment boundaries from forced alignment. We extracted measurements at five different
303 timestamps in the target fricatives, the first 20 ms of the fricative, the second 20 ms of the
304 fricative, the middle 20 ms of the fricative, the penultimate 20 ms time window and the final
305 20 ms of the fricative. Our main analysis focuses on spectrum Centre of Gravity (CoG) and
306 spectrum Standard Deviation (SD). These measurements are known to be sensitive to the
307 frequency range of the analysis (e.g., Shadle & Mair, 1996). Since our recordings are studio-
308 quality, we opted to use the maximal frequency range at our disposal, basing our analyses on
309 the Nyquist frequency: 22,500 Hz. We discarded extreme outliers, defined as tokens that were
310 greater than three standard deviations from the mean CoG and/or spectrum SD. This resulted
311 in the loss of 46 tokens or 0.5% of the data. Although we report average differences in spectral
312 Center of Gravity across fricatives at each of the five timestamps, in the studies described above
313 we focus on measurements taken only at the middle 20 msec interval of the fricatives, where
314 the greatest average difference across fricatives was observed.

315 **4. Results**

316 For starters, we report the duration of the fricatives. Figure 2 shows a kernel density plot of
317 contrastive pairs, i.e., tokens expected on the basis of past characterizations of Zhongjiang to
318 be produced distinctly as /x/ and /f/. The figure collapses across the Study 1 words produced
319 by all 10 speakers. The distributions overlap heavily, an observation which also extends to each
320 of the 10 speakers individually and to the words in other studies. In short, /x/ and /f/ show vary
321 similar durations in this corpus. The distribution for /x/ is slightly more peaky. /f/ tokens are
322 slightly more probable at short durations. To investigate whether this difference is statistically
323 significant, we fit two nested linear mixed effects models to the duration data using the lme4
324 package (Bates et al 2019) in R (version 3.9.2). The baseline model contained only random

325 effects: a random intercept for speaker and a random intercept for item. To this baseline, we
326 added fricative as a fixed factor. A likelihood ratio test showed that the model including
327 fricative did not significantly improve over the baseline model ($\chi^2 = 2.70, p > 0.1$) indicating
328 that, when random effects are factored in, the difference in duration across fricatives is not
329 significant.
330



331
332 Figure 2. Distribution of segment duration by expected fricative: /f/-/x/
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334 Before discussing the measurements of CoG and spectrum SD for each of the four studies, we
335 first exemplify the range of spectral variation observed in the data and how that variation
336 corresponds to our measurements. The fricative spectra shown in the figures below were
337 extracted using the middle 20 milliseconds of each fricative. They show the average power of
338 the fricative during this time range across the frequency range from 0 to 22,500 Hz. The power
339 is expressed in dB relative to the reference value of 0.00002 Pa.
340

341 We begin with the velar fricative /x/. Figure 3 shows three examples from the corpus. The
342 distribution of energy in these tokens has a long right tail with a peak at low frequency. Since
343 most of the energy is concentrated in the lower frequencies, these tokens are characterized by
344 a low CoG and a low standard deviation. This is expected for fricatives with a posterior
345 constriction in the vocal tract. Aperiodic energy generated at the posterior constriction will
346 resonate in the portion of the oral cavity in front of the turbulent energy source. The longer the
347 cavity in front of the constriction, the lower resonant frequency. Peaks in the spectra for /x/
348 in the range of 500-1,000 Hz are consistent with resonance in front of a velar constriction in the
349 vocal tract.
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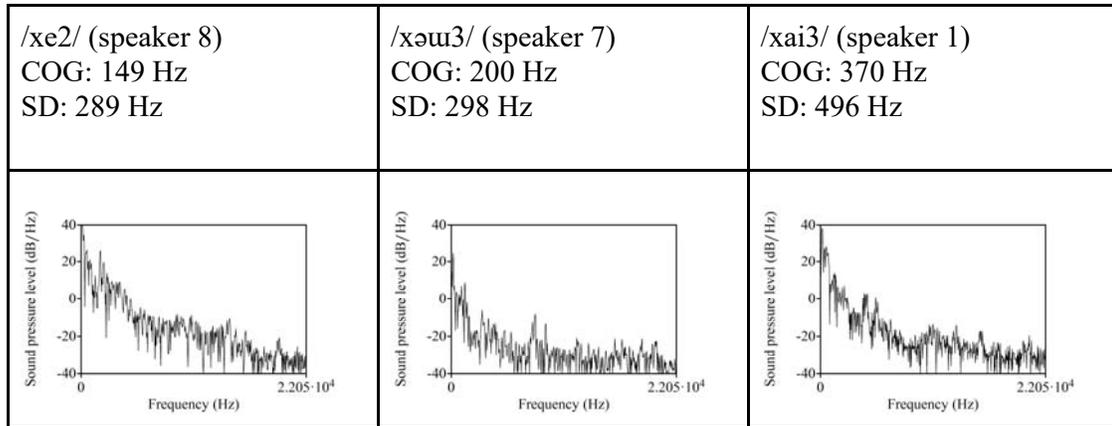


Figure 3. Spectra of /x/tokens

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355 Figure 4 shows spectra for tokens of /f/ in the corpus with typical CoG values. Compared to
 356 /x/, these tokens do not have the same degree of low frequency energy. The decrease in energy
 357 with higher frequencies is more gradual. Energy remains closer to the reference level 0dB at
 358 higher frequencies in the /f/ spectrum than in the /x/ spectrum. These two characteristics are
 359 reflected in the first two spectral moments: /f/ (Figure 4) has a substantially higher CoG and
 360 spectrum SD than /x/ (Figure 3).

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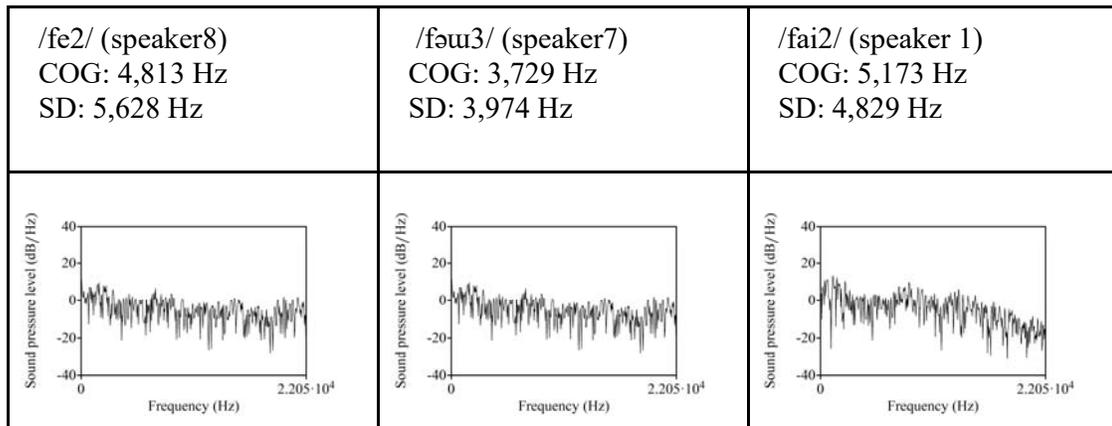


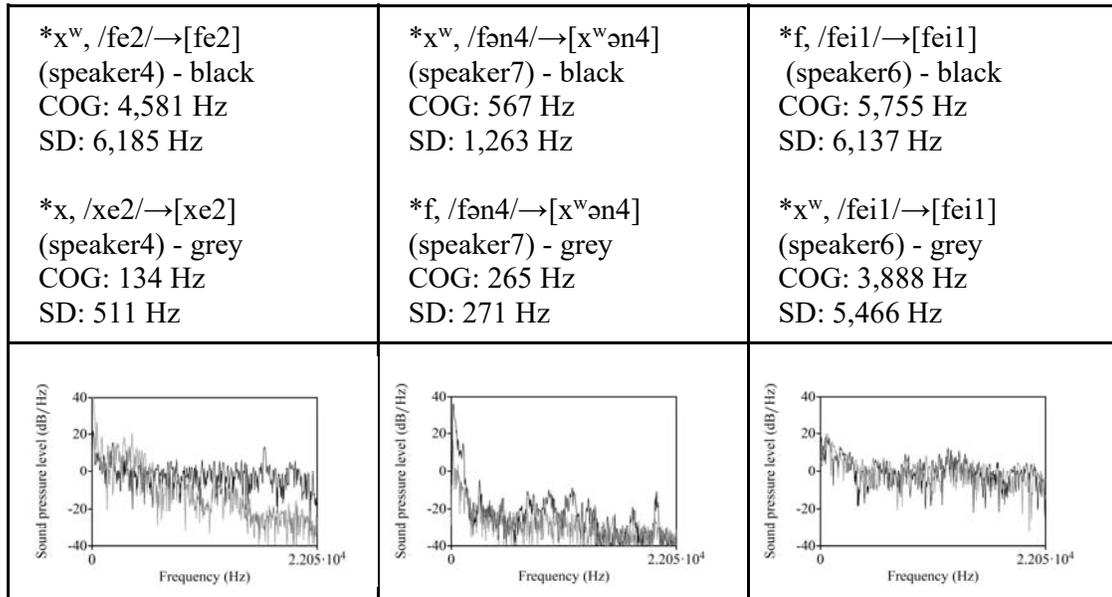
Figure 4. Spectra of /f/ tokens

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364 The tokens in Figure 3 all sound unambiguously like /x/ to the authors and the tokens in Figure
 365 4 sound unambiguously like /f/. However, there are numerous tokens in the corpus that straddle
 366 these perceptual boundaries. Figure 5 provides three direct comparisons of /x/ and /f/ tokens.
 367 The first panel overlays the spectra of tokens of /x/ and /f/ that sound distinct. The spectrum
 368 for /x/, shown in grey, is more peaky than for /f/, shown in black, and the /f/ spectrum maintains
 369 energy at higher frequencies. The second panel overlays two tokens that both sound to the
 370 authors like /x/, even though they are historically distinct fricatives and synchronically distinct
 371 in other dialects of Chinese (including standard Mandarin). The third panel overlays spectra of
 372 fricatives that both sound like /f/ to the authors. These tokens both have a relatively flat energy
 373 profile (diffuse spectrum) particularly at frequencies above 5,000 Hz. This spectral profile

374 yields a high CoG and high spectrum SD for both tokens, even though one of them is
 375 historically derived from /x^w/.
 376



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 378 Figure 5. Spectral comparison of /f/ (black) and /x/ (grey) tokens
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380 Our brief exemplification of the spectra above serves in part to motivate our choice of using
 381 CoG and Spectrum SD to phonetically characterize the Zhongjiang fricatives. These two
 382 spectral measures offer only a very sparse characterization of the spectrum, but we have found
 383 that by and large the differences observed in these numbers correspond with our subjective
 384 impressions of the auditory classifications of the sounds.

385
 386 The spectra reported above are based on the 20 msec window at the midpoint of the fricatives.
 387 We found that, on average, this is where the greatest difference between contrastive fricatives
 388 was found. Figure 6 illustrates the average difference in CoG between contrastive /x/-/f/ pairs
 389 from study 1 (Table 2). These are based on words that form minimal pairs in contemporary
 390 Zhongjiang Mandarin (Study 1 and Study 3 items). The figure shows that there is already a
 391 CoG difference in the first 20 msec of the /f/ and /x/ fricatives, i.e., at *t1*. This difference
 392 increases in the next 20ms window, *t2*, and peaks at the midpoint of the fricative, *t3*. The
 393 difference narrows substantially in the next 20 msec window, *t4*, and is lost altogether in the
 394 last 20 msec window, *t5*. Since we will be discussing cases of fricative merger, we focus on
 395 the midpoint of the fricatives, as this is the time window that shows the largest average
 396 difference between fricatives.

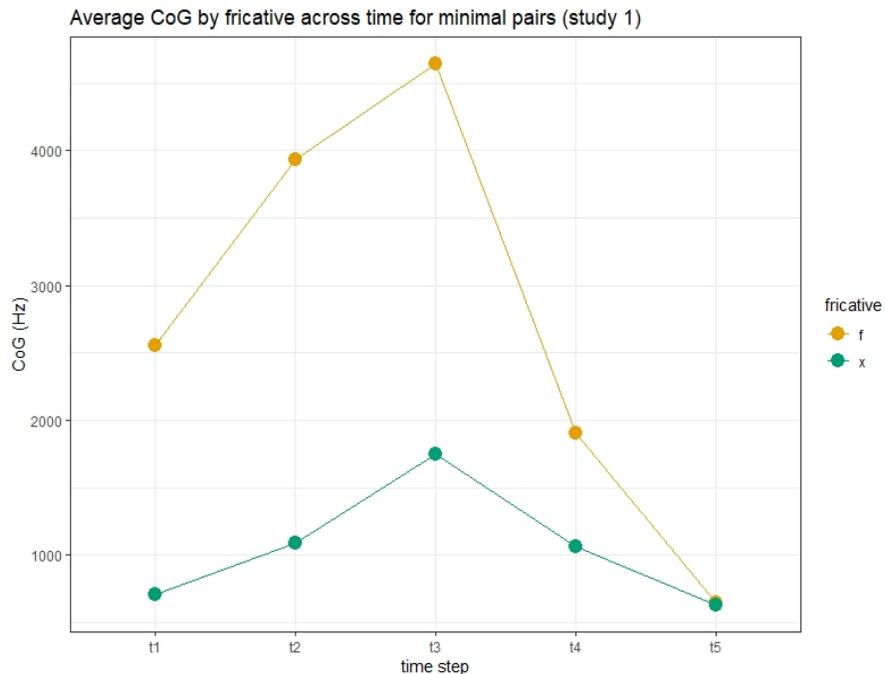


Figure 6. The average CoG between contrastive /x/-/f/ pairs

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We now turn to a spectral analysis for each subset of the data, comprising four studies.

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402 **Study 1:** minimal pairs from *x and *x^w

403 The purpose of study 1 was to establish phonetic differences between /x/ and /f/. For this
404 purpose, we selected four sets of words that we expect to form minimal pairs in contemporary
405 Zhongjiang. A key assumption underlying our selection of these words as minimal pairs is that
406 Zhongjiang is a Type II dialect (see Table I), as has been claimed in the literature. As a Type
407 II dialect, *x^w has become /f/. The minimal pairs in this study contrast *x~*x^w, which are
408 synchronically /x/~f/. For example, /xa45/ ‘laughter’ (Sinograph and Pinyin: 哈哈, ha55) and
409 /fa45/ ‘flower’ (花, hua55).

410

411 Figure 7 shows the CoG and SD measurements for Study 1 words, minimal pairs contrasting
412 /x/~f/. As expected, the /x/ words consistently show low CoG and low SD. Many tokens of /f/
413 are also as expected, showing high CoG and high SD. However, there is variation in the /f/
414 category. Some tokens of /f/ are closer to the /x/ category and some overlap with /x/
415 substantially. One speaker, S2, does not show a clear contrast between /x/ and /f/, producing /f/
416 tokens as /x/. Another speaker, S7, shows substantial overlap between /x/ and /f/. Speakers S1,
417 S3, S4, S6, S8, show a smaller number of /f/ tokens that overlap phonetically with /x/. The
418 remaining speakers, S5, S9, S10, show clearer separation between the fricatives in this minimal
419 pair context.

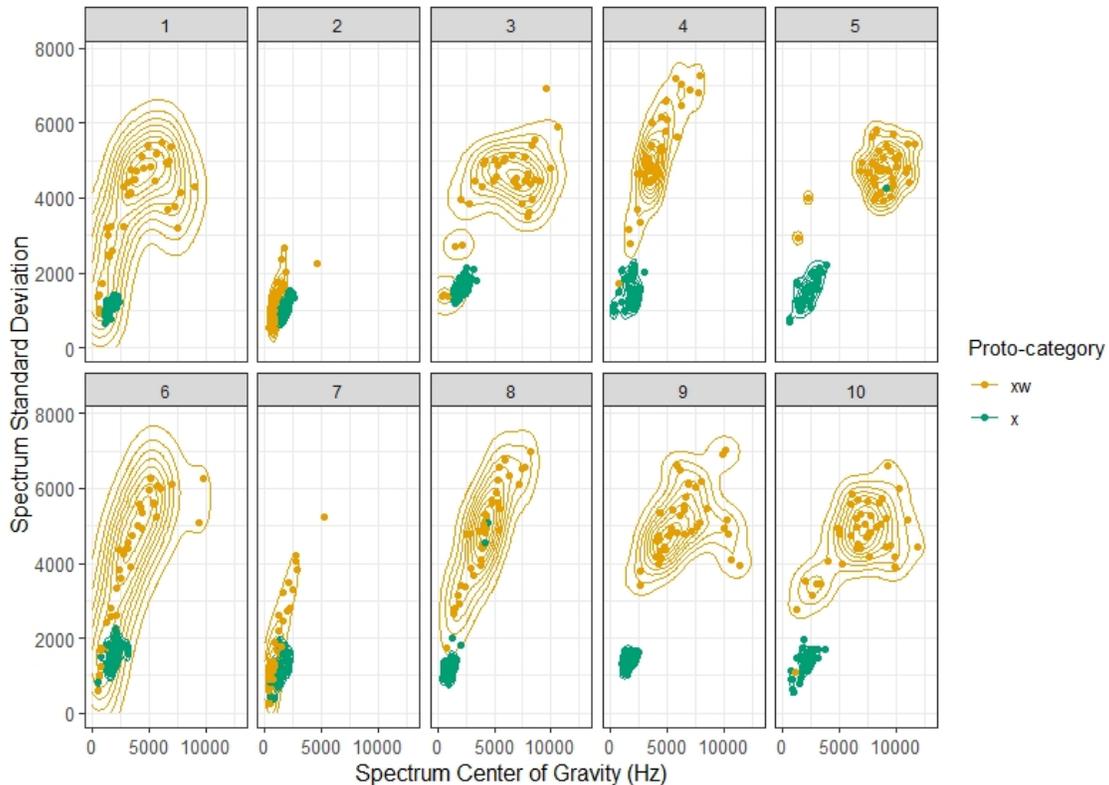


Figure 7.Center of Gravity and Spectrum Standard Deviation of contrastive pairs (*x_-*x^w_)

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The results of study 1 indicate that, even in minimal pair contexts, the majority of the speakers in this sample show some phonetic overlap between /x/ and /f/.

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Study 2: merger of /f/ and /x^w/

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Study 2 features 13 pairs of words that we expected, on the basis of the characterization of Zhongjiang as a Type II dialect, to be fully merged. These are pairs of words that historically derive from a contrast between *f and *x^w. In Zhongjiang, *x^w is reported to have changed to /f/. This change produced homophones from minimal pairs. For example, 肥 ‘fat’ (Pinyin fei35)

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and 回 ‘return’ (hui35) were phonetically distinct in medieval Chinese and are synchronically distinct in other Chinese dialects (including Standard Mandarin), but are expected to be homophonous in Zhongjiang. Figure 8 shows that, as expected, most speakers show a merger for these words. Moreover, the range of phonetic values for these words corresponds on a speaker-by-speaker basis to the range of values observed for /f/ in minimal pairs (Study 1, Figure 7). The one exception to this pattern is S2. S2 produces a contrast between these pairs that is in the direction of what would be expected for Standard Mandarin; however, S2’s production of the *f→/f/ category shows a range of phonetic variation for /f/ that is common amongst Zhongjiang speakers. That is, there is a range of values extending from high CoG and high SD down to low CoG and low SD. In other words, S2 maintains a pattern of contrast across words that is similar to Standard Mandarin using a /f/ that is phonetically like the Zhongjiang dialect.

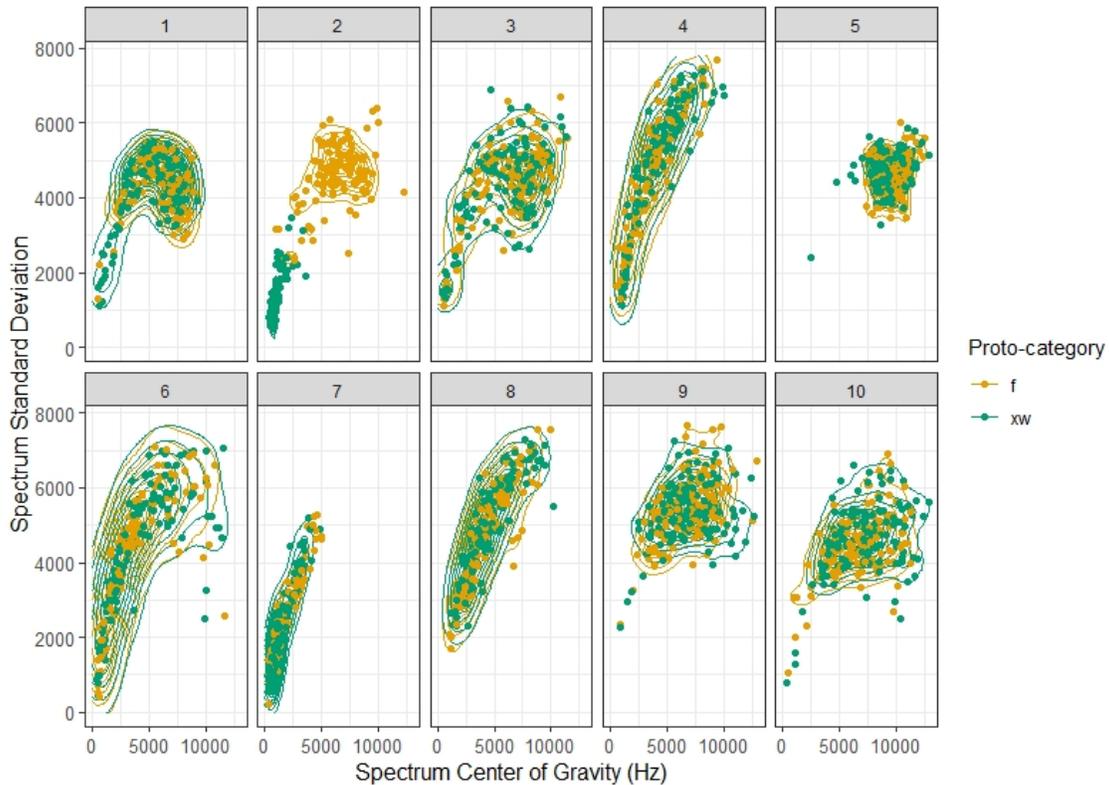


Figure 8. Center of Gravity and Spectrum Standard Deviation of non-contrastive pairs (*f₋*x^w)

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To summarize, the results of study 2 show that most speakers (9/10) produce *x^w as /f/, resulting in an increase of homophonic pairs in Zhongjiang relative to Standard Mandarin. The majority pattern verifies Zhongjiang a Type II dialect, as claimed in past work.

450 **Study 3:** contrast continuity, /f/-/x/

451 Study 3 provides an important control case for interpreting the results of study 1 and study 2.
452 The items in study 3 consist of pairs that are predicted to be distinct in both the Zhongjiang
453 dialect and Standard Mandarin. The mergers (study 2) and contrasts (study 1) in the first two
454 studies are specific to Zhongjiang (and other Type II dialects), but the words in Study 3
455 represent contrasts more broadly. This is because there is no labial glide involved in the contrast.
456 Both pairs of words in Study 3 were contrastive in medieval Chinese and remain contrastive
457 synchronically. This comparison is a useful control case because it allows us to investigate
458 whether the range of variation found for /f/ persists even in contexts that have been stable over
459 time.

460

461 Figure 9 reports the results for Study 3. All speakers maintain a distinction between /f/ and /x/
462 for these words, although the categories overlap slightly for some speakers. All speakers show
463 a range of phonetic variation for /f/ that is comparable to studies 1 and 2. We conclude that the
464 variation found for /f/ in studies 1 and 2 cannot be attributed only to a historical or synchronic
465 connection to the labial glide. Study 3 shows that even /f/ in the environment of /əu/ shows a
466 wide range of variation.

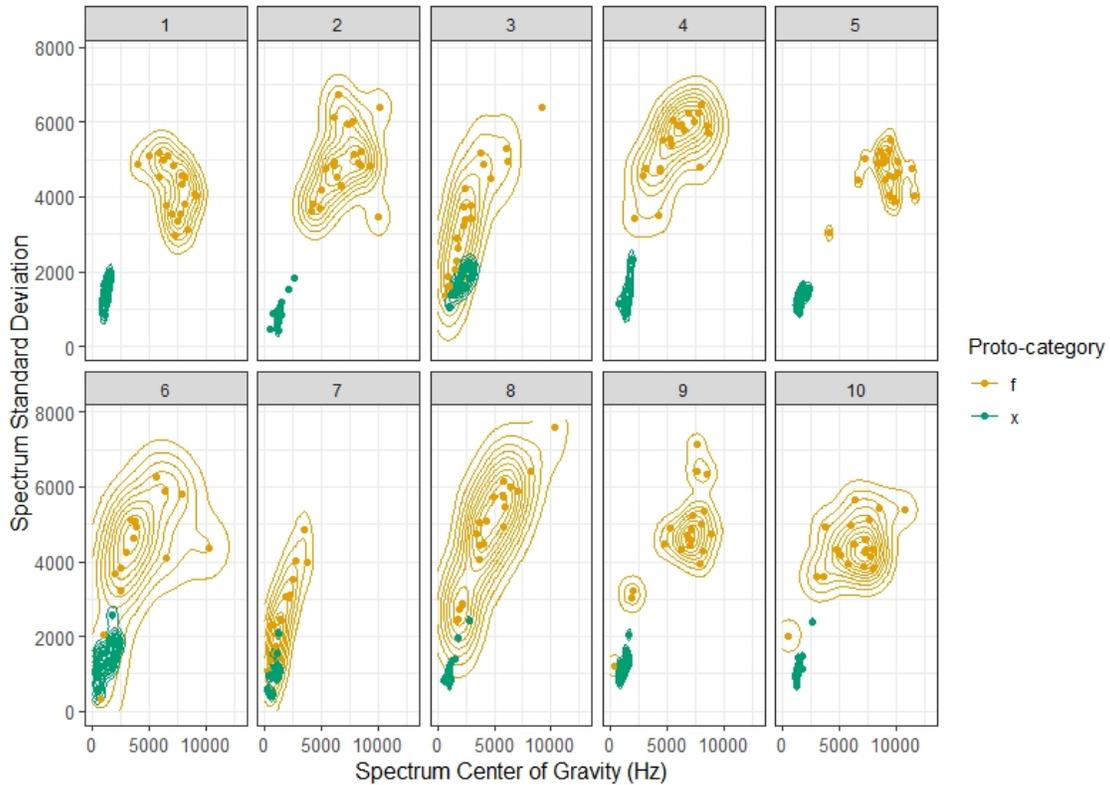


Figure 9. Center of Gravity and Spectrum Standard Deviation of contrastive pairs (*f_-*x_) with rime /əu/

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Study 4: the /oŋ/ environment

The final study investigated the environment of /oŋ/, as this environment has been known to condition mergers and splits in other Chinese dialects (see Table 1). As a Type II dialect, Zhongjiang is expected to maintain contrast in this environment. Figure 10 shows the results. Several speakers, including some that maintain contrast in other environments, show mergers in the context of /oŋ/. Speakers, S1, S4, S9, who all maintain contrast in the study 1 words, show a merger between /x/ and /f/ in the environment of /oŋ/.

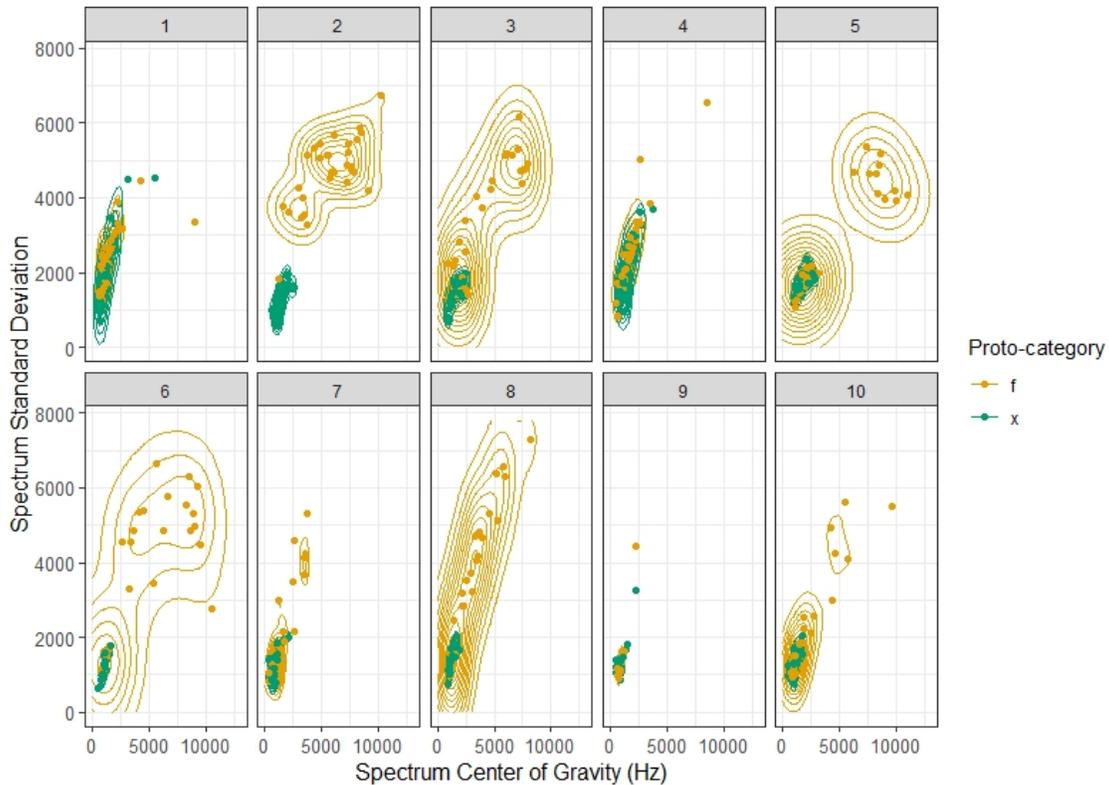


Figure 10. Center of Gravity and Spectrum Standard Deviation of non-contrastive pairs with rime /oŋ/

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480 5 Discussion

481 Across the four studies reported above, we observed substantial individual differences in how
482 /x/ and /f/ were produced across contexts. The most common pattern was shared by four
483 subjects: S3, S4, S8, and S10. This group includes two male participants (S3 & S8) and two
484 female participants (S4 & S10). For this group, *x in the environment of /w/ is produced with
485 the range of variation characteristic of synchronic /f/. Essentially, this group shows a
486 synchronic merger between *f and *x^w. Three other subjects, S1, S6, S9, show only minor
487 deviation from the dominant pattern.

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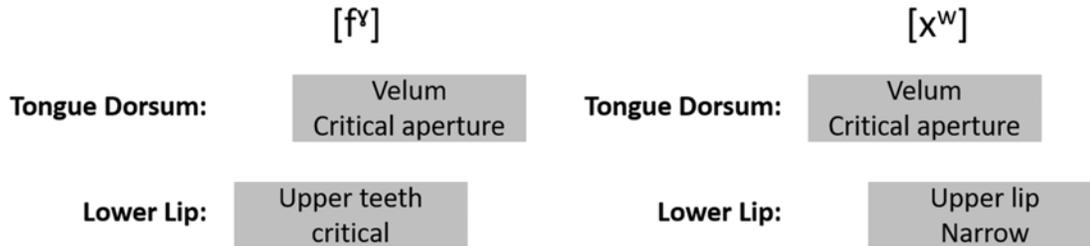
489 Our reporting of the data focuses on two spectral measurements. We also explored other ways
490 to summarize fricative spectra including additional spectral moments, such as skew and
491 kurtosis, formant values, and duration. In exploring these additional phonetic measures, we
492 found that many of them were correlated. For example, skew and kurtosis, the third and fourth
493 spectral moments, were closely correlated with the mean energy (CoG) and variance of the
494 spectrum, the first and second spectral moments. This is not necessarily a general finding but
495 follows from the typical properties of velar and labiodental fricatives. We found no differences
496 between /x/ and /f/ in duration. Ultimately, we opted to focus on a smaller number of phonetic
497 measurements that have particularly clear articulatory interpretations; however, we have also
498 submitted the entire data set, including additional measurements as well as sound files and text
499 grids as a *Data in Brief* article.

500 5.1 Secondary velar articulation in Zhongjiang labiodental fricatives

501 A key characteristic of the dominant pattern is that /f/ shows a range of variation spanning from
502 the CoG values for /x/ to much higher CoG values. Given the range of variation for /f/, it is
503 possible that /f/ is variably velarized, i.e., as /f^v/. The secondary velar constriction, a narrowing
504 of the vocal tract in the region of the soft palate, would account for the low CoG observed for
505 some tokens. The continuous variation from low CoG values, characteristic of /x/, to high CoG
506 values, characteristic of /f/, may result from variation in the timing and magnitude of the two
507 component gestures of /f^v/, a raising of the lower lip for the /f/ component and a raising of the
508 tongue body to the soft palate for the [v] component. It is also notable in this context that /x^w/,
509 which is unambiguously a complex segment, has the same duration as /f^v/, which we propose,
510 on the basis of the spectral variation, is also a complex segment. This account of the phonetic
511 variation observed for *f may also be able to contribute to an account of the merger between
512 *f and *x^w, which is also a characteristic of this group (Figure 8, Study 2).

513
514 If *f contains a secondary velar constriction, i.e., /f^v/, then it is a complex segment, similar in
515 composition to a labialized velar, /x^w/. Both /f^v/ and /x^w/ contain two constrictions. One
516 constriction is formed by the tongue dorsum at the soft palate. This is the constriction that gives
517 rise to turbulent airflow, the /x/ component /x^w/; the /f/ component of /f^v/. The resonance of
518 turbulent energy in the relatively long cavity in front of the constriction contributed to low CoG.
519 The second constriction involves the lips, the /w/ component of /x^w/ and the /f/ component of
520 /f^v/. Notably, the labial constriction location is anterior to the velar constriction. Variation in
521 the timing and magnitude of these two constriction gestures could explain the range of CoG
522 values for /x^w/ and why they closely overlap with the range of values observed for /f^v/.

523
524 To illustrate the similarity between a velarized labial fricative, /f^v/, and a labialized velar
525 fricative, /x^w/, we provide partial gestural scores for these sounds in Figure 11. A gesture is a
526 discrete constriction event in the vocal tract, and the gestural score depicts how these events
527 are organized in time (e.g., Browman & Goldstein, 1986). Gestures are defined by a set of
528 dynamic parameters, including a target constriction location (CL) and constriction degree (CD).
529 The gestural score in Figure 11 shows Tongue Dorsum and Lower Lip gestures for both /f^v/
530 and /x^w/. The grey boxes indicate the activation duration, or temporal extent of the gestures,
531 and they are labelled with CD and CL parameters. Notably, the gestures for /f^v/ (left) and /x^w/
532 (right) are similar. Both involve the Tongue Dorsum and Lower Lip articulators. There are
533 some small differences in the parameters for the gesture and the relative timing of the gestures.
534 One parameter difference is the constriction location (CL) of the lower lip gesture. For /f^v/, the
535 lower lip CL is the upper teeth; for /x^w/, the CL is the upper lip. There is also a small difference
536 in Lower Lip constriction degree (CD); it is “critical” for /f^v/ and “narrow” /x^w/.



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Figure 11. Partial gestural score for /fv/ (left) and /xw/ (right). These complex segments are composed of similar gestures, both involving the lower lip and tongue dorsum articulators.

542 The gestural score in Figure 11 highlights the articulatory similarity of /fv/ and /xw/.
543 Maintaining acoustic distinctiveness between articulatorily similar sounds relies crucially on
544 the precise timing and magnitude of the constituent gestures. Although we do not have
545 articulatory data for these speakers, we speculate that the variability in the acoustics can derive
546 naturally from variability in the relative timing and magnitude of constituent gestures. For /fv/,
547 early formation of the tongue dorsum constriction at the velum could lower CoG and give rise
548 to the percept of /xw/. Likewise, for /xw/, early formation of the lip constriction yielding a
549 relatively flat spectrum (and high CoG) could give rise to the percept of /fv/. This change, *x^w
550 to /fv/, is expected of Type II dialects, and is the dominant pattern in the Zhongjiang data
551 reported above. However, there was variation within the Zhongjiang sample. A minority of
552 speakers also showed the opposite pattern, /fv/ produced as /xw/. This was exemplified most
553 clearly by speaker S7. In Southwestern Mandarin dialects more broadly, we observe sound
554 changes in both directions (Figure 1, map of dialects). Our data also revealed new nuances to
555 the characterization of the Zhongjiang dialect, which are related to the proposal above. Study
556 4 revealed that some speakers that show the dominant pattern (consistent with Type II) whereby
557 *x^w becomes /fv/ also show a shift from *f to /x/ in the environment of /oŋ/. Three speakers,
558 S1, S4, and S9, showed this pattern. This indicates that there are also bidirectional mergers
559 within speakers. Deriving the acoustic variability from temporal variation in articulation
560 provides a natural account for the bidirectional nature of these mergers.

561

562 Given the aerodynamic requirements for these fricatives, normal degrees of spatial-temporal
563 variation in articulation may have a disproportionate impact on the acoustics. That is, velar
564 fricatives combined with labial constriction may be anti-stable from the standpoint of
565 articulatory-acoustic correspondence. Non-linearity in the mapping between articulation and
566 acoustics has been proposed as a basis for stable phonetic categories, i.e., the quantal regions
567 of Stevens (1989). Weak fricatives with velar and labial components may be anti-stable in that
568 a small amount of articulatory variation could give rise to relatively large acoustic
569 consequences. Generating turbulence from a supralaryngeal constriction requires precise
570 balance between the amount of air flow volume and the diameter of the constriction. In the case
571 of /xw/, small variation in constriction degree could make the difference between generating
572 turbulent energy at the tongue dorsum or not. Even in the absence of turbulent energy at the
573 tongue dorsum, turbulent energy could still be generated at a more anterior location, the lips.
574 For /xw/, the articulatory conditions for a small reduction in tongue dorsum height to yield

575 qualitatively different acoustic outcomes are met. Lenition of velars, quantified as a reduction
576 in tongue dorsum constriction degree, is particularly common for a number of reasons (for a
577 recent discussion see, e.g., Shaw et al., 2020). In the case of /x^w/, small reductions in velar
578 constriction naturally give rise to acoustic conditions similar to /f^v/.

579

580 Positing a secondary velar articulation for the labiodental fricative, /f^v/, helps to explain the
581 prevalence of alternations with /x^w/, both within specific speech communities, such as
582 Zhongjiang, across the Mandarin-speaking world, and within individual speakers in different
583 environments (e.g., S1, S4, S9). However, there may also be variation between /f/ and /f^v/.

584 One of our Zhongjiang speakers, S5, shows only a narrow range of acoustic variation for /f/. Across
585 studies, S5 shows two fairly distinct fricative clusters within the CoG-SD acoustic space. In
586 study 1, which focuses on minimal pairs, S5 maintains clear separation between /f/ and /x/. In
587 study 2, which looks at mergers to /f/, the majority of S5's tokens have high CoG and SD. This
588 contrasts with the dominant pattern, which shows variation overlapping with canonical /x/.
589 Interestingly, S5 shows the typical Type II merger, *x^w is produced as /f/. Even though this
590 speaker is in the minority, by using /f/ instead of /f^v/ there is a sense in which S5 could be
591 considered the most canonical representative of a Type II dialect in our sample.

592

593 This brings our discussion to the highly relevant issue of dialect contact. The Zhongjiang
594 dialect is island, a Type II dialect in a sea of Type I dialects. All speakers in our sample have
595 at least some contact with both other Southwest Mandarin dialects, such as the Chengdu dialect
596 (Type I), the language variety of the provincial (Sichuan) capital, a major urban area, and a
597 prestige dialect from the perspective of Zhongjiang speakers. Our participants also have some
598 exposure to standard Mandarin, at least through mainstream Chinese media. Within Zhongjiang
599 City, the production of *x^w as /f/ is recognized as a local dialect feature that differs from both
600 Chengdu dialect and Standard Mandarin. It is possible that the /f^v/ variant that we have posited
601 to explain the observed variation is a variant used by Zhongjiang speakers to approximate more
602 standard varieties. From this standpoint as well, we can see S5 as the most prototypical (or
603 possibly even stereotypical) example of a Type II dialect speaker.

604

605 The third speaker whose production patterns fell outside of the main pattern was S2. This
606 speaker's productions are also interesting from the standpoint of dialect contact. This speaker
607 had the range of variation for /f/ that we explained by positing a secondary velar articulation,
608 /f^v/.

609 However, the distribution of phonetic categories across words did not correspond to our
610 expectations for a Type II dialect. By and large, the distribution of variants corresponds more
611 closely to Standard Mandarin. Study 1 showed that, for this speaker, *x^w maintained low CoG,
612 just like *x. This is the pattern expected of Standard Mandarin. However, Study 2 showed that
613 the *f words are produced as /f^v/.

614 We surmise that S2 has generalized the /f^v/ realization, which developed in Zhongjiang from *x^w, such that, synchronically, /f^v/ is used very generally for /f/,
615 including even for *f.

615

616 To summarize, we verified aspects of the description of Zhongjiang as a Type II dialect. That
617 is, *x^w is produced as a labiodental fricative. In addition, we exposed gradient phonetic
618 variation amongst labiodentals, which we attributed to variation in timing between the labial

619 gesture and a secondary velar gesture. A likely source of the secondary velar gesture in /fv/ is
620 the velar component of *x^w. As sketched in Figure 11, the gestural components of /fv/ and /x^w/
621 are similar but differ in relative timing. In addition to these main trends, we identified a context,
622 /oŋ/, in which *f is produced as /x^w/ by some speakers. This had not previously been
623 documented for Zhongjiang and is not considered a characteristic of Type II dialects. Finally,
624 we noted some cases of apparent dialect contact, in which Zhongjiang speakers showed
625 characteristics of prestige dialects (Chengdu dialect, Standard Mandarin).

626 5.2 Labial-velar mergers more broadly

627 Although our study focuses on one particular dialect, the results have implications for labial-
628 velar mergers more broadly. As mentioned in the introduction, labial-velar fricative mergers
629 are common and have attracted the attention of many scholars. One hypothesis raised for labial-
630 velar merger within South Chinese dialects points to labialization as a driver of the merger
631 (Wan1998/2009, Xie 2003, Zhuang 2004/2016, Xiang 2005, Sun 2007, Ye 2008). Zhuang
632 (2004)'s proposal is that production of /w/ overlaps in time with /x/ such that the lower lip
633 gesture for /w/ comes close to the upper teeth, yielding the percept of a labial-dental fricative
634 /f/. Zhuang (2017) further clarifies the proposal, arguing specifically that /x^w/ is not a consonant
635 cluster; rather, the velar fricative is labialized ('labialized aspect of the velar'(软腭音的形容
636 性唇化成分), resulting in a complex segment, at least in South Chinese dialects. A variation
637 on this account, proposed by Wan (1998/2009: 191), posits an intermediate step whereby /x^w/
638 becomes /ɸ/ on route to /f/. Whether the /ɸ/ stage is sufficiently stable or not, this approach can
639 account for why the /w/ environment sometimes leads labial-velar mergers (see Table 1). The
640 account is also consistent with claims about the temporal basis of complex segments (Shaw et
641 al., 2019). Shaw et al. (2019) propose that complex segments, e.g., segments involving multiple
642 gestures, including secondary articulations, differ from segment sequences in how the gestures
643 are coordinated in time. Specifically, complex segments are proposed to have gestures
644 coordinated according to gestural onsets. On this hypothesis, the labial component of /w/ would
645 begin early in the segment /x^w/, which may contribute to the /f/ percept, as proposed by (Zhuang
646 2004).

647
648 Although /w/ is indeed a common environment for labial-velar merger in Chinese dialects,
649 there are also cases in which sound change proceeds in the opposite direction. That is, *f
650 changes to /x^w/. We observed this change as well in the Zhongjiang data, in the environment
651 of /oŋ/. It is harder to see how Zhuang's account explains merger in the opposite direction, *f
652 becoming /x^w/, because this requires the seemingly spontaneous emergence of a velar gesture,
653 an observation also made by Sun (2007).

654
655 We have argued that the phonetic data for Zhongjiang is consistent with the presence of a
656 secondary velar gesture for /f/, i.e., /fv/, across a range of vowel contexts. A change from /fv/ to
657 /x^w/ is less mysterious than a change from /f/ to /x^w/, because there is a velar component to the
658 labiodental fricative in /fv/. Given this secondary velar gesture, we can understand changes in
659 both directions, /x^w/→/fv/ as well as /fv/→/x^w/ as following from the same mechanism, namely,

660 variation in the relative timing between the component gestures of complex segments.

661

662 Notably, our acoustic evidence for a secondary velar articulation in labiodentals is specific to
663 Zhongjiang. The extent to which other Chinese dialects also have velarized labiodentals is an
664 empirical question. We might speculate that velarized labiodentals exist in other dialects as
665 well and that those dialects are more likely to exhibit changes from *f to /x^w/. In the absence
666 of a velar gesture for the labiodental fricative, we'd expect *f to /x/ changes to proceed in
667 environments in which the vowel provides a tongue dorsum retraction gesture, such as /u/ and
668 /o/. These environments are indeed the typical conditioning environments for *f to /x/ sound
669 changes, which may mean that a velarized labiodental, as we have observed in Zhongjiang, is
670 not strictly necessary to condition this change.

671

672 Another possible consideration in predicting labio-velar mergers across speech communities is
673 the specific quality of the conditioning vowels. For example, across dialects of Mandarin, there
674 is variation in the quality of the /u/ vowel. In Zhongjiang, this vowel is not as rounded as it is
675 in Standard Mandarin. When word-initial, not preceded by an onset consonant, Zhongjiang /u/
676 takes on a labiodental approximate quality, e.g., 五 /u³/ /vuu/ 'five', or, variably, even a fricative
677 quality, /vuu/. In other environments as well, the lips are not as protruded for Zhongjiang /u/ as
678 they are for Standard Mandarin. This small difference in labial specification for Zhongjiang
679 may contribute to the ecology of a Type II dialect, favoring change of *x^w to /fv/ or /f/. A
680 detailed account of the variation in lip position for /u/ in Zhongjiang dialect is beyond the scope
681 of this paper. We expect that there will be inter-speaker variation on this dimension as well.
682 The change from *x^w to /fv/ or /f/ may be particularly natural for speakers (or speech
683 communities) that have a lower lip target for /u/ that approximates the upper teeth, as in /vuu/,
684 than for speakers that have higher degree of rounding and lip protrusion.

685

686 Our account of the labial-velar merger as well as the related proposal by Zhuang (2004) relies
687 to some degree on the reinterpretation of temporal variation in articulatory gestures as a basis
688 for sound change. There are other proposals that treat the labial-velar mergers as more standard
689 instances of lenition. For example, He (2004: 123) notes that /f/ is sometimes produced weakly,
690 or reduced, to a bilabial fricative, /ɸ/, in some dialects. Others have assumed a diachronic
691 progression from /f/ to /h/ to Ø, initiated by weakening of /f/ to /ɸ/ (Pellegrini 1980: 69;
692 Jungemann 1955: 142). Variation along this progression could be perceived as /x/, contributing
693 to labial-velar merger in some cases. These approaches have in common with Wan
694 (1998/2009:191), described above, the progression of change passing through /ɸ/.

695

696 The types of patterns observed in Chinese dialects are representative of cross-linguistic patterns
697 as well. For example, round vowels are typical environments for labial-velar merger in the
698 Spanish of Chicano children and adults (Greenlee 1992). In earlier stages of Spanish, the /w/
699 environment supported resistance to lenition of /f/ (to /h/) (Lass & Anderson 1975). In these
700 cases, the labial feature of the /w/ is viewed as reinforcing or "strengthening" the labial
701 component of the /f/ (Hickey 1984), which is consistent, we believe, with our gestural account
702 of Zhongjiang. In Sentani, as described by Cowan (1965), patterns of assimilation conditioned

703 by /w/ reveal temporal spreading of both labial and dorsal components; /w/ conditions
704 assimilation of an adjacent alveolar nasal, /n/, to a velar nasal, /ŋ/, and conditions assimilation
705 of an adjacent glottal fricative to a labial fricative (Ohala and Lorentz 1977). Thus, /h/ before
706 /w/ is optionally realized as /f/ or /ɸ/. These patterns suggest that the types of labial-velar
707 mergers observed across Chinese dialects derive from a general mechanism of coordinating
708 labial and dorsal gestures in time, whether as a part of a complex segment or as a sequence of
709 segments.

710

711 Although labial-velar mergers are not unique to Chinese dialects, synchronic phonotactic
712 restrictions within Chinese may also contribute to the outcomes. We have discussed at length
713 the role of the labial-velar glide, /w/, in conditioning variation and change in labial-velar
714 mergers. Chinese dialects exhibit phonotactic restrictions on how /w/ can combine with onset
715 consonants. Duanmu (2007) discusses the situation in Standard Mandarin. There are 18 onset
716 consonants and three glides. Free combination of the onset consonants and glides would yield
717 54 possibilities, of which 29 are found. One of the missing combinations is /f^w/. This
718 combination is missing as well in Zhongjiang and many other Southwest Mandarin dialects.
719 Duanmu (2007) mentions that in Standard Mandarin there is an exception to the general
720 absence of /f^w/, a single word /f^wo/ ‘buddha’; but this exception is absent in Zhongjiang (and
721 other dialects), where ‘buddha’ is pronounced /fu/. Duanmu (2007) argues convincingly that
722 CG sequences in Standard Mandarin are single sounds, i.e., complex segments, as opposed to
723 segment sequences. On this account, the attested CG gaps, including /f^w/, follow in part from
724 the constraint that an articulator can only be specified once per segment. Conflicting labial
725 specifications for /f/ and /w/ rule out /f^w/. The phonotactic constraint against /f^w/ may encourage
726 /x^w/ and /f^v/ as outcomes of sound change in Chinese dialects.

727

728 The prevalent ban on /f^w/ across Chinese dialects juxtaposes with /fu/ as a frequent outcome of
729 sound change, including cases of *xu → /fu/ (Table 1). There are also cases in which *fu
730 changes to /xu/, but across the survey of Southwest Mandarin dialects (Figure 1), /fu/ is a much
731 more common outcome. Out of 212 documented dialects with a labial-velar merger, 184 (~87%)
732 have resulted in /fu/. The prevalence of /fu/ (c.f., /xu/) as the outcome labial-velar sound
733 changes has encouraged some speculation about phonological/articulatory bases. For example,
734 Li (1995) proposed that both /f/ and /u/ having labial features might contribute to the merger
735 of /xu/ → /fu/. Anecdotally, as described above, we have observed that the labial component of
736 /u/ in Zhongjiang is perhaps closer to that of /f/ than in Standard Mandarin. If Li’s proposal is
737 correct, then it suggests an interesting dichotomy; consecutive labial specifications are
738 preferred across CV sequences but dispreferred across CG.

739

740 This dichotomy between CV and CG, with respect to consecutive labial specifications may
741 have a structural basis, as proposed in Duanmu (2007), as well as a temporal basis that is
742 specific to tone languages. In CV sequences, lexical tone languages are known to differ from
743 non-tone languages in that there is an increased temporal lag between the consonant and the
744 vowel (Gao 2009; Hu 2016; Karlin & Tilsen 2015; Karlin 2018; Zhang et al. 2019; Geissler
745 et al. 2020). In contrast, complex segments are heavily overlapped in time (e.g., Catford 2001:
746 103; Shaw et al. 2019). Possibly, CV sequences in Mandarin allow different specifications of

747 identical articulators for the C and V gestures because these gestures are temporally separated
748 in time. Given the differences in temporal organization (between CV and CG in tone languages),
749 the ban on multiple labial specification would follow from a temporal version of the Obligatory
750 Contour Principle (OCP), such as that proposed in Gafos (2002). This temporal basis for the
751 differences between CV and CG as domains for multiple labial gestures parallels the structural
752 basis for the distinction proposed by Duanmu (2007). If the temporal difference between CV
753 and CG is of direct relevance to the phonotactics, we might expect different patterns in non-
754 tonal languages, which tend to show greater overlap between consonant and vowel gestures in
755 CV sequences.

756 **5 Conclusion**

757 A phonetic study of labial velar fricative variation in Zhongjiang revealed a range of phonetic
758 variation for /f/, which we argued derives from a secondary velar articulation: /fʷ/. The study
759 comes in the context of areal variation amongst Southwest Mandarin dialects in labial velar
760 fricative realization. In particular, these dialects exhibit bidirectional sound changes; both $f^* \rightarrow /x^w/$
761 $\rightarrow /x^w/$ and $*x^w \rightarrow /f/$ changes are common. The identification of a secondary velar articulation
762 points to a possible temporal basis for these sound changes that is also appropriately
763 bidirectional, as shifts in the relative timing of labial and velar gestures can give rise to both
764 outcomes.

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