



## Figures

### l-r ligature (r with ascender, ʀ)

An old letter for a lateral flap, used in IPA transcription before the official adoption of *l*. Also used by Dolgopolsky (2013) for a liquid that is historically ambiguous between [r] and [l]. Considered for similar use (as a ‘rhotic lateral’) by the extIPA in 2015, but the eventual decision was to not adopt it.

ʀ L-Fish-hook R ligature *Usage:* alveolar lateral flap  
*Input:* \textlfishhookrlig  
*Sources:*

Figure 1. Fukui (2004: 29)

The flapped lateral occurs before all vowels and in conjunction with the semi-vowels. The phonetic symbol for the flapped lateral is ʀ; but in current Lamba orthography no distinction is made between it and l, as the

Figure 2. Doke (1938: 29). The apparent descender is simply a misalignment with the baseline, as seen in the next illustration.

ʋalukuluka (they are vomiting).  
Examples of ʀ:  
1. limbi (another)      ʀlilila

Figure 3. Doke (1938: 38), showing that the letter has no descender. (This is also apparent from the consonant table on p. 11, where the ligature appears in italic hand.)

74

C. M. DOKE—

The ʀ phoneme: ≠khomani speakers use neither the rolled r nor the liquid l, but regularly employ the flapped lateral consonant ʀ.

Figure 4. Doke (1936: 74). A typeset ligature in italic typeface.

!gaaʒ (camel)  
|gāʒ (wide straat)  
|kʒʔpō (to dance)  
!gaiʒsi (hail)

Figure 5. Doke (1936: 68). An example of the l-r ligature in the context of a word.

**ɽ** = a consonant (flap or tap) that is intermediate between ʀ and ɭ (Loubignac's Ĩ in ZAS), or a phoneme without phonemic distinction between ʀ and ɭ (as in proto-Agaw).

Figure 6. Dolgopolsky (2013: 230)

und volksetymologischer Verdrehung") ||| From N \*paLuC∇ (or \*paLŪC∇?) 'stinging insect (flea, mosquito, tick)' > HS: C = \*f∇ll∇t- 'flea' > EC: Gdl fillé̄t id. (coll.); ?? Hr {AMS} fillá̄ȳe, Gwd {AMS} fillá̄ȳe 'flea' (× N \*P̄r̄ūL∇ 'stinging insect') ||| Ag \*fɜɽɽt- (= \*fɜllɽt-), {Ap.} \*fɜɽt- > Bln {R} filũtā, Xm {R} fəltə, Q {R} peleyə, {Flad} pelea, Km {Ap.} fäläy 'flea' ¶ Ap. AV 9 (Ag \*fɜll∇t- or \*fɽrɽt-), R WB

Figure 7. Dolgopolsky (2013: 494), for proto-Agaw ('Ag'), showing that here <ɽ> is not the lateral flap ɭ but rather a consonant indeterminate between \*l and \*r.

## Alveolar IPA letters with retroflex tail

Like the implosive <ɗ> mentioned in the *Handbook* as an obvious, if unofficial, extension of the IPA, the lateral flap <ɭ> and old-style implosive <ɟ> fill out the retroflex series. (For <ɗ̥> and <ɟ̥/ɟ̥̄>, see the separate requests for click and extIPA letters.)

Erik Zobel wrote, 2020 feb 04: *I'm am working on two chapters ("Chamorro" / "Palauan") for the OUP Guide to the Malayo-Polynesian languages of Southeast Asia and Madagascar, and there will also be a chapter about the languages of Sulawesi. I'm lobbying to have the authors use the SIL PUA symbol for the retroflex lateral flap in the phonetic overview, and mention the attestation in Buol, Totoli, Tonsawang, Sangir etc. Can't guarantee if they will listen to me, but do you think that may help?*

## Retroflex lateral flap (ɭ)

A retroflex lateral flap occurs throughout South Asia, in languages spoken by half a billion people, from Pashtun to Oriya (Masica 1991 *The Indo-Aryan Languages*), in Sulawesi, and in various languages of Australia, Africa and the Americas.

Table 1: Ku Waru phonemic inventory: Consonants

	Labial	Apico-Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Plain stop	p	t		k
Fricative		s		
Prenasalized stop	mb (b)	nd (d)	ɲɔ̃z̃ (j)	ŋg (g)
Nasal	m	n	ɲ (ny, yn)	ŋ (ng)
Continuant	w	r	j (y)	
	Retroflex flap	Alveolar continuant	Palatal continuant	Prestopped velar
Lateral	ɭ (rlt)	l (l)	ʎ (ly, yl)	ɣ̟ (l)

Figure 8. Rumsey (2017: Table 1)

**Retroflex lateral flap /ɭ/.**

- (1) a. /ɭim/ → [ɭim] a woman's name  
 b. /(kera) ko.la/ → [(kɛɾɐ) koɭɐ] '(bird) chicken'  
 c. /(kum) pini.l/ → [(kum)pinɭ] '(ear) eardrum'

Figure 9. Rumsey (2017: 98)

Lateral approximant		l̃	ɭ	ʎ	ɮ
Lateral flap		ɭ	ɭ		

Figure 10. Bekker (2003: 439). The letter is grey rather than black because it's not an official IPA symbol.

suffice). Other unofficial symbols are [ɭ] for a retroflex lateral flap and [ɣ̟] for an epiglottal

Figure 11. Ball et al., section 4.1.

Mark Harvey (p.c.), who wrote a grammar of Gaagudju where the sound occurs allophonically, said of the letter ɭ that he “can foresee that it will need to be used in descriptions of Australian languages, so [he] would be happy to support its inclusion.”

Robert Mailhammer (p.c.) said of the proposal for ɭ that “the symbol [ɭ] used has been an l with either a tap or a retroflex tap superscript [...]. But having a proper symbol would, of course be good. [...] for the lateral flaps there is definitely a need.”

Lakhan Gusain at John Hopkins (p.c.) says he would like to have this letter for Pashto.

Eric Zobel (p.c.) said “For us Sulawesianists, it’s quite a pity that the retroflex lateral flap doesn’t get a Unicode symbol. Sneddon has described it for the Sangiric languages, Himmelmann for Totoli and Dondo,”

## Small t with hook and tail (ɭ)

A voiceless retroflex implosive. It occurs in Oromo. It is the single missing voiceless implosive letter.

In addition to the above sounds, Oromo is also uniquely distinguished from many world languages in that it has a voiceless ingressive retroflex stop. The IPA symbol for this sound is  but the

-11-

symbol /T/ will be used here. The choice of /T/ over the conventional  is purely a matter of practicality in this paper.

Figure 12. Dissassa (1980: 10–11)

Table 28.1 lists the implosives that have been found in languages. Unlike ejectives, implosives can be either voiced or voiceless. The voiced series of implosives is more common than the voiceless series. There appear to be no implosive fricatives used in any language, although a voiced implosive affricate [ɖʒ] is reported to occur in Roglai of Vietnam (Norris McKinney, personal communication) and Komo of the Democratic Republic of Congo.

Table 28.1. Implosive sounds

	Bilabial	Alveolar	Palato-alveolar	Retroflex (alveolar)	Palatal	Velar	Uvular	
vl.	ɓ	ɗ				ɠ	ʛ	implosive stop
vd.	ɓ	ɗ		ɗ	f	ɠ	ʛ	
vd.			ɖʒ					implosive affricate

The ingressive glottalic airstream mechanism is symbolized by adding a hook to the top of the basic symbol of the corresponding pulmonic sound.

Figure 13. Bickford & Floyd (2006)

Laver (1994: 582, Table 19.2h) lists a voiceless retroflex implosive in a table like that of Bickford &



## Small o with retroflex tail (ɔ̣)

The only basic-Latin vowel without a tailed variant. Used for prosodic/allophonic retroflexion in descriptions of Iwaidja. In the figure below it slightly resembles an o-ogonek, but is analogous to other retroflex/rhotic vowels (cf. the a-with-tail <ạ> rather than a-ogonek <å> in the transcription following each example).

Firstly, although retroflexion can be realised phonetically on a syllable-initial segment (e.g. /gomɔ̣daw/ (I) ‘long-necked turtle’), a final segment (e.g. /gunbaɔ̣d/ ‘knee’), a vowel (e.g. /be‘g/ ‘deaf adder’), or various combinations of the above (e.g. /dɔ̣d/ ‘louse’, /gaɔ̣gi/ ‘salmon-tailed catfish’ (E:D)), it only needs to be marked once on any syllable and once a syllable is marked as retroflex the loci of retroflexion will be predictable: any apical segment in the syllable and the vowel. Retroflexion is more clearly audible on the vowel in monosyllables, which are phonetically lengthened, as discussed in §2.1.2.

Within a syllable, all apical stops and nasals agree in retroflexion. Thus there are words like /tɪt/ ‘moon’, /tɔ̣t/ ‘louse’ and /tɔ̣ŋki/ ‘near’ on the one hand and /nin/ ‘small bird’, /nan/ ‘I saw you’ and /tɔ̣kujɛŋ/ ‘long-legged’ on the other, but no syllables like \*/tɪt/, \*/tɪt/, \*/nɔ̣ŋ/ or \*/ŋɔ̣n/. The only exceptions to such ‘retroflexion agreement’ occur when two apical consonants are linked across a morpheme and syllable boundary (see below). Note also that the retroflex continuant /ɹ/ does not participate in these effects and hence we find words like /nɔ̣ɹin/ ‘snake’.

Figure 15. Evans (2003: 86). Syllable-level retroflexion of consonants and vowels.

## i-bar with retroflex tail (ị)

Used for Tarascan in the UPSID.

Retroflexed high central unrounded vowel.  
/ị/ 1 Tarascan.

Figure 16. UPSID (1981: 229)

## Palatal hook

### Turned small r and **tap r** with palatal hook (ɹ̣ add r, )

Used for palatalization of English r.



## Ezh with palatal hook (ɹ̥); d-esh and t-esh with hook (dɹ̥, tɹ̥)

Used for palatalization of [ɹ] since the dedicated IPA letter <ɹ̥> was abandoned.

[tʃ dʒ] denote the consonants in *church, judge*. These are regularly so written, though the stop element is probably often more palatalized and somewhat farther retracted than ordinary [t d]. When the palatalization is especially distinct, the sounds may be written as [tʃ̥ dʒ̥] or [tʃ̥̥ dʒ̥̥].

Figure 20. Kretzschmar (1993: 123). <ɹ̥> is also visible (yellow) in the previous figure. On p. 115 they note that in Kurath et al. (1943) *LANE*, ʃ̥ and ʒ̥ have the hook coming off the bottoms of the letters, but those are clearly allographs.

lla vø·dʒɹ̥·nɹ̥ə  
 b vødʒ̥ɹ̥·nɹ̥ə  
 c ʎvødʒ̥ɹ̥·nɹ̥əz

Figure 21. McDavid & O’Cain (1980: 130)

**Apical Coronal Lingual (A.C.L.)** [t; d; t̥; d̥; ts; dz; t̥s; d̥z; t̥θ; d̥ð; t̥; d̥]  
**Laminal Coronal Lingual (L.C.L.)** [tʃ; ɟ̥; tʃ̥; ɟ̥̥]

Figure 22. Grunwell (1981: 73). The <ɟ̥̥> here (yellow) may not look like a ligature, but context suggests that is just a matter of font support.

## ɬ with palatal hook (ɬ̥)

A palatalized lateral fricative. Found for Coastal Chontal.

tion is Coastal Chontal, a Tequistlatecan Otomanguan Mesoamerican Indian language of Central America (Suárez 1983: 36, citing Waterhouse 1962 and Waterhouse and Morrison 1950). The contrasting lateral segments concerned are [l, l̥, l̥ʰ, l̥ʰ̥, ɬ̥, ɬ̥ʰ], which are, respectively, a voiced lateral resonant, a voiced palatalized lateral resonant, a glottally checked lateral resonant, a voiceless lateral fricative, a voiceless palatalized lateral fricative, (and

Figure 23. Laver (1994: 310)

## eng with palatal hook (ŋ̟)

A fronted velar, as in Vietnamese; analogous to fronted velars k̟ g̟ in Russian.

rhyme group. According to Professor Eugénie Henderson Vietnamese *-nh* and *-ch* are not strictly a palatal nasal and stop, but are fronted velars which she writes as [ŋ̟] [k̟].<sup>69</sup> The vowels in front of them are diphthongized: *-anh* [ɛiŋ̟], *-ênh* [ɛiŋ̟], *-inh* [iɪŋ̟]. It may well be that in Middle Chinese also there was a palatal glide before the final consonant which would justify a reconstruction /aijŋ̟/ [ɛiŋ̟] /aijk̟/ [ɛik̟]; and further that in Old Chinese there was a distinct set of palatal final consonants (though even there one might prefer to treat them as combinations of /ŋ̟/ and /k̟+/j/). As far as

Figure 24. Pulleyblank (1970: 237). The hook is on the left leg here.

## As yet unattested

dʒ with retroflex tail (d-ʒ ligature: dʒ̟)

The obvious choice for people who use ʃ and ʒ together with the old IPA ligatures for affricates. The example above, for Polish, only shows the voiceless affricate, but Polish also has a voiced affricate that would need to be transcribed the same way.

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