

Creolization and admixture: Typology, feature pools, and second language acquisition

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Abstract

Proponents of a 'feature pool' approach to creolization (e.g. Mufwene 2001, Aboh Ansaldo 2006) have claimed that the emergence of the new grammar is driven by the syntax-discourse prominence, markedness and frequency of available features, with typological similarity or dissimilarity of the languages involved playing a crucial role in the competition and selection process. This paper takes a closer look at the predictions of a feature pool-based approach to creolization and tests whether these predictions are borne out by the facts. Three case studies from the Surinamese creoles and Sri Lanka Malay show that the feature pool approach suffers from a number of conceptual, theoretical, and empirical problems. The typology alone of the languages involved in the contact is not a good predictor for the outcome of language contact. The feature pool approach neglects processing constraints: one can only select from what one can process. 'Creolization', as in the case of the emergence of the Surinamese Creoles, is not 'exceptional', but happens in contact situations in which second language acquisition plays a significant role. The processing restrictions inherent in second language acquisition play an important role in shaping the structural outcome. 'Admixture', as in the case of Sri Lanka Malay, is not 'exceptional' either, but happens in different situations and shows different processes at work. And these processes allow structural outcomes that are very different from those found under the conditions of second language acquisition.¹

1 Introduction

In recent years the idea has gained ground that creolization is a special kind of second language acquisition (SLA), or, at least, that SLA plays a crucial role in creolization (see, e.g., the recent columns by Plag 2008a,b, 2009a,b in this journal, or publications such as Lefebvre & Jourdan 2006, Siegel 2008). An alternative to the SLA approach is one that makes reference to the notion of 'feature pool' and views different kinds of language creation in general as emerging from a process of selection from such a 'feature pool' (e.g. Mufwene 2001). Under this approach, "[t]he composition of the feature pool determines the extent to which xenolectal elements influence the structure of the new, outcome system." (Mufwene, <http://humanities.uchicago.edu/faculty/>

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31 [mufwene/classes/CreoleVernacularsAndCultures.html](#)). This approach has impor-
32 tant implications for the problem of the role of typology in language creation and for the
33 question whether it is useful to distinguish between different types of language creation,
34 such as creolization and admixture. The following two quotations from Aboh & Ansaldo
35 (2006) illustrate these implications.

36 If we have sufficient information about the *typological input* in a contact
37 environment, we are in a position to *explain the structural output* by looking
38 at how features of the input varieties are *selected, discarded and exapted* into
39 the new grammar. ... [S]ections 3 and 4 present data from two different contact
40 environments, which, in the literature, would be assigned to different excep-
41 tional phenomena, namely creolization and admixture, respectively. As we
42 show, these labels are not useful in suggesting evolutionary processes, as *the*
43 *same principles apply to both cases* of typologies in contact. Aboh & Ansaldo
44 (2006:39) [...] We are therefore led to conclude that the phenotype of creole
45 ... cannot be said to derive from processes such as acquisition/restructuring
46 and loss/reconstruction but rather from a *general recombination of the lin-*
47 *guistic features* from the competing language that made it to the F[eature]
48 P[ool].” (Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:50), italics mine)

49 This paper takes issue with these claims. I will test the usefulness of a feature-pool-
50 based approach with the help of some case studies and contrast the feature pool approach
51 with an SLA-based approach. I will show that processes of SLA must be taken into account
52 in those settings where SLA plays an important role, and creolization is one of them. These
53 individual-level processes of SLA can help to explain the emergence of certain structures
54 in particular creoles as well as certain facts that cross-linguistically seem to hold in creole
55 languages, irrespective of the typologies of the languages involved. The discussion will
56 also show that it is useful to distinguish different contact environments, since different
57 individual-level processes may prevail in different settings. Finally, it will be shown that
58 typology plays a less pronounced role than authors like Aboh & Ansaldo (2006) would
59 have it. Typological information does not suffice to understand the emergence of new
60 structure.

61 The paper is structured as follows. The next section looks in more detail at the concept
62 of feature pool and the mechanisms of selection. Section 3 will sketch in more detail some
63 basic tenets of Processability Theory and its implications for an understanding of an
64 SLA-based account of the phenomena to be investigated. In sections 4 and 5 I present
65 an analysis of the data presented in Aboh & Ansaldo (2006), comparing the feature pool
66 approach with an SLA-based approach. A final discussion is presented in the concluding
67 section.

68 2 The feature pool and selection

69 In this section I will first take a closer look at the notions of feature pool and selection in
70 order to understand the underpinnings of this approach. What is meant by ‘feature pool’?
71 Mufwene defines the feature pool as “the ‘arena’ where features associated with the same
72 or similar grammatical functions came to compete with each other. While interacting with

73 each other, speakers contribute features to a pool” (Mufwene 2001:4). The feature pool “is
74 analogous to a gene pool in population genetics. ... Regardless of their origin the features
75 compete with each other” (Mufwene 2001:30f). With regard to the nature of the entities
76 represented in the feature pool, Aboh & Ansaldo give the following clarification: “[A]
77 feature pool can be taken to represent the population of utterances OR features available
78 to speakers in a contact environment” (Aboh & Ansaldo 2006:44). This is an important
79 remark because it stresses the fact that the notion of ‘feature’ presupposes the analysis
80 of the available linguistic signals at an abstract level. In other words, processing must
81 play a crucial role in determining what is available to the speakers. Entities that cannot
82 be processed cannot participate in any selection process. Given the necessary processing
83 resources, the feature pool may contain variants from all language varieties involved, i.e.
84 from all first languages (superstrate, substrate, adstrate etc.), all interlanguages (at all
85 levels), and all L1 learner varieties (at all levels).

86 How does selection work? The term ‘selection’ may refer to two different, but related
87 processes. First it can mean the adoption of a particular variant into the idiolect of a
88 speaker. This is the so-called ‘individual’ level. The choices at this level are determined
89 by constraints on language acquisition, on processing and on the resulting representations.
90 Selection may, however, also happen at the level of the speech community, i.e. at the so-
91 called ‘population level’. In this case, selection means the adoption of a particular variant
92 into the new variety, as determined by sociolinguistic pressures such as accommodation
93 and prestige. The problem is that the two levels are very hard to distinguish, with the
94 individual being the major locus at both levels, since sociolinguistic factors also need
95 to work in the individual. This problem has been acknowledged also by authors like
96 Mufwene, who, as a consequence, focus on the idiolect (cf., e.g., Mufwene 2001:26).

97 The interesting question is of course, which features make it into the new variety and
98 why it is these features that are selected and not other ones. According to Mufwene, not all
99 features are created equal: “The term *competition* refers to the condition of inequality that
100 obtains among variants in a feature pool, with some factors of their internal or external
101 ecologies (dis)favoring some of them for dominance.” (Mufwene 2005). The factors involved
102 are listed in (1).

- 103 (1) Factors at work in competition and selection (e.g. Mufwene 2001:57, Aboh &
104 Ansaldo 2006:44):
- 105 a. syntax-discourse prominence
 - 106 b. markedness/transparency
 - 107 c. frequency
 - 108 d. typological (dis-)similarity

109 It should be noted that the factors a-c are all factors that work at the level of the individual
110 because they imply certain kinds of phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, and
111 lexical processing by the speaker. Presumably this also holds for the factor in (1d) since
112 typological distance between two languages A and B would probably either hinder or
113 foster the processing of certain patterns of language A by a speaker of language B.

114 3 Processability in SLA and creoles (e.g., Pienemann 115 1998, 2005)

116 Processability Theory is a theory of interlanguage development that builds on psycholin-
117 guistic models of speech production as developed by, for example, Levelt (1989), or Kem-
118 pen and Hoenkamp (1987). According to the theory, there is a universal, implicational
119 hierarchy of processing procedures derived from the general architecture of the language
120 processor. In addition and related to that, there are specific procedural skills needed for
121 the production of utterances in the language to be learned, the target language. Based
122 on these assumptions, predictions can be made for second language development which
123 can be tested empirically. Research in this paradigm has shown, for example, that, irre-
124 spective of the native and target languages involved, the morphosyntax of interlanguages
125 develops in certain implicational stages that reflect the processing procedures available to
126 the learner at a given time. The morphosyntactic phenomena that are relevant in the con-
127 text of the present paper are listed in (2) and discussed below. They are all characteristic
128 of early stages of interlanguage development.

- 129 (2) Morphosyntactic traits of early interlanguages
- 130 a. Loss of inflection, contextual inflection in particular
 - 131 b. presence of possessive pronouns
 - 132 c. Simplified sentence structure:
 - 133 (i) SVO or SOV
 - 134 (ii) loss of case marking (i.e. contextual inflection) on full NPs
 - 135 (iii) ‘Subject’/‘Object’-distinction on pronouns
 - 136 (iv) ‘Unmarked alignment’ of position, thematic roles and syntactic functions
137 (i.e. no structural case assignment)

138 Interlanguages of an early stage largely lack inflectional morphology. Starting out with
139 one-word utterances, learners gradually acquire more complex structures in a specific
140 order. The first type of inflection that emerges is inherent inflection, i.e. “the kind of
141 inflection that is not required by the syntax but has syntactic relevance. Examples are
142 the category number for nouns, comparative and superlative degree of the adjective, and
143 tense and aspect for verbs” Booij (1995:2). Of these, number on nouns is the first to be
144 observed in English interlanguage. Notably, inherent inflection can work without access
145 to complex phrasal structures and therefore precedes the development of so-called ‘con-
146 textual inflection’ in acquisition. In contrast to inherent inflection, contextual inflection
147 is “dictated by syntax, such as person and number markers on the verbs that agree with
148 the subject and/or objects, agreement markers for adjectives, and structural case markers
149 on nouns” (op. cit.). In SLA this type of inflection is acquired rather late, which is why
150 we, for example, find subject-verb agreement morphology only much later, i.e. at more
151 advanced stages.

152 Let us turn to the syntactic development. The first stage beyond the one-word stage is
153 characterized by a simplified sentence procedure which shows either SOV or SVO order,
154 with no case marking on full NPs, but already with a ‘Subject’/‘Object’-distinction on
155 pronouns. The inverted commas are used to indicate that at this stage the notions of
156 subject and object are not yet developed but are merely used as convenient symbols

157 for what Pienemann calls ‘unmarked alignment’. Unmarked alignment is the one-to-one
158 mapping of position, thematic roles and syntactic functions by the learner at this stage
159 of development (see Pienemann et al. (2005:229) for detailed discussion).

160 Plag (2008a, 2008b) applied Processability Theory to creoles, comparing the univer-
161 sal stages of second language development to the structures that typically occur in creole
162 languages. He found that the scarcity of inherent inflection, the general lack of contex-
163 tual inflection, and the prevalent presence of unmarked syntactic structures in creole
164 languages (i.e. in basic word order, question formation, and negation) closely match the
165 corresponding traits of early interlanguages. Plag argues that the emergence of the said
166 creole structures can be explained as resulting from the processing constraints known to
167 be at work in SLA. Evidence from the domains of phonology and word-formation, as
168 discussed in Plag (2009a,b), seems to corroborate this conclusion.

169 In the following sections we will test how such a processing-based SLA approach
170 compares to the feature pool approach. We start with the NP in the Surinamese Creoles.

171 **4 Case study 1: The NP in the Surinamese Creoles**

172 In this case study I will compare Aboh & Ansaldo’s (2006) account of the emergence of
173 certain properties of the NP in the Surinamese Creoles with an SLA-based account that
174 makes use of the concepts and insights described in the preceding section. The proper-
175 ties at issue are the encoding of definiteness and specificity, plural marking, possessive
176 marking, and case marking on pronouns.

177 **4.1 Definiteness and specificity**

178 Table 1, taken from Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:49), summarizes the pertinent properties of
179 the NP in the three languages involved. Note that the authors of that study are well aware
180 that the concentration on only three languages involved is a simplification, since there
181 were obviously more than just three languages (and their respective varieties) contributing
182 to the feature pool. For the purposes of their paper, as well as for this one, we take it
183 that this simplification is unharmful.

Table 1: General properties of the NP in English, Gbe and the Surinamese Creoles (SCs), from Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:49)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	noun marked as definite	generic bare nouns	(in)- definite bare nouns	dis- course deixis	pre- nominal DET	post- nominal DET	demonstrative reinforcer
English	yes	yes	no	yes (<i>this/that</i>)	yes	no	yes (<i>this man here</i>)
Gbe	no	yes	yes	yes	no	yes	no
SCs	no	yes	yes	yes	yes	no	yes

184 For our discussion it is important to focus on the parallels and mismatches between
 185 the languages. The Surinamese Creoles and Gbe encode definiteness in much the same
 186 way, as can be seen in columns 1 and 3. However, the Surinamese Creoles behave unlike
 187 Gbe, but similar to English with regard to word order (cf. columns 5-6). For the kind of
 188 selection shown in table 1 Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:49f) offer the following explanations:

189 [T]he syntax and the function of functional categories are subject to dif-
 190 ferent constraints in a situation of competition. ... [T]he syntax and the se-
 191 mantics of functional categories are disassembled and reassembled in various
 192 ways that do not necessarily match the combinations found in the source
 193 languages ... This creates a noun system ... that has the semantic properties
 194 of noun phrases in Gbe, but the syntax of English noun phrases (see Aboh
 195 2004b, 2006a). We are therefore led to conclude that the phenotype of creole
 196 ... cannot be said to derive from processes such as acquisition/restructuring
 197 and loss/reconstruction but rather from a general recombination of the lin-
 198 guistic features from the competing languages that made it to the F[eature]
 199 P[ool].” (my emphasis)

200 This raises a number of questions. First, it is left unspecified why the mixed properties
 201 of the Surinamese NP cannot derive from acquisition processes. No evidence or argument
 202 is provided for this claim. Second, which principles would govern the alternative processes
 203 of ‘reassemblage’ and ‘general recombination’, and how would that work? The reader is
 204 not told. A third problem is the analysis of the systems itself, since table 1 (columns 1
 205 and 3) gives an undercomplex impression about the encoding of definiteness across the
 206 different languages. Taking into account the morphosyntactic properties and the way they
 207 are encoded in the three languages, we arrive at table 2, in which Gungbe and Sranan
 208 represent Gbe and the Surinamese Creoles, respectively.

Table 2: Feature combinations and determiner expression in Gungbe, English and Sranan, based on Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:50)

row	D-features	Gungbe	English	Sranan
1	[+specific, +definite, +plural]	ló lé	the	den
2	[+specific, +definite, -plural]	ló	the	na
3	[+specific, -definite, +plural]	dé lé	some/certain	zero/wantu
4	[+specific, -definite, -plural]	dé	a	wan
5	[-specific, +definite, +plural]	lé	the	den
6	[-specific, -definite, +plural]	zero	zero	zero
7	[-specific, +definite, -plural]	zero	the	zero
8	[-specific, -definite, -plural]	zero	a	zero

209 If we look at the similarities and differences we can again state that there are two
 210 kinds of similarities. First, those involving only the Surinamese Creoles and Gbe, and
 211 second those that involve all three languages. The Surinamese Creoles and Gbe encode
 212 non-specific singulars in the same way, namely by zero marking, which leads to a def-
 213 initeness syncretism (cf. Table 2, rows 7 and 8). Specific definites are also encoded by
 214 the same means, namely with two different forms for singular and plural (as against a
 215 single syncretic form in English, cf. Table 2 below, rows 1 and 2). In contrast, all three
 216 languages have the same kinds of marking for specific singulars (differential marking, cf.
 217 Table 2, rows 2 and 4), non-specific plurals (zero for indefinites, determiners for definites,
 218 cf. Table 2, rows 5 and 6), and specific plurals (differential marking, cf. Table 2, rows 1
 219 and 3). In sum, we get a much more intricate picture of similarities and dissimilarities
 220 when looking more closely at one of the properties, definiteness. This in turn calls into
 221 question Aboh & Ansaldo’s analysis that we are dealing with a “a noun system that has
 222 the semantic properties of noun phrases in Gbe, but the syntax [i.e. word order, IP] of
 223 English noun phrases” (Aboh & Ansaldo 2006:50). But even if we adopt that simplifying
 224 analysis, does that mean that this kind of mixed system is what we would typically expect
 225 under a feature pool approach? Quite to the contrary, it is exactly what a relexification
 226 account would have predicted (e.g. Lefebvre 1998).

227 To summarize, it is unclear how the feature pool approach accounts for the combi-
 228 nation of properties and forms in the creoles. On the other hand, relexification, which is
 229 a mechanism also known from SLA, seems to provide a more convincing explanation of
 230 the facts, although it has to be stated that no theory seems to be available that could
 231 explain, let alone predict, all the intricacies involved in reaching the final outcome.

232 **4.2 Plural marking**

233 Let us consider the marking of plural. Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:52) summarize the facts as
 234 in 3.

Table 3: Number marking in the NP in English, Gbe and the SCs, from Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:52)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	number on def- inite DET	number on de- ictic DET	number on noun	pre-N deic- tic + number	post-N deic- tic + number	number on DET and N	number on DET only
English	no	yes <i>(these/ those)</i>	yes	yes	yes	yes	no
Gbe	no	no	no	no	yes	no	yes
SCs	no	yes	no	yes	no	no	yes

235 Again we concentrate on the parallels and mismatches between the languages. Unlike
 236 English, the Surinamese Creoles and Gbe have no inflection on the noun, and no number
 237 agreement inside the NP (3, columns 3 and 6). Unlike Gbe, however, English and the
 238 Surinamese Creoles mark number on the deictic determiner and have the same order of
 239 determiner and noun (cf. table 3, columns 2 and 4).

240 To explain these patterns, Aboh & Ansaldo (2006) in general evoke the mechanisms
 241 shown in (1), but at least three of these mechanisms work on the level of the individual,
 242 and not on the population level. The authors maintain, however, that their account works
 243 on the population level (Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:45)). But let us look at their discussion
 244 of salience and the other mechanisms they mention.

245 With regard to salience, one could assume that lack of salience may have led to the loss
 246 of plural inflections. However, Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:52) dismiss this on the grounds that
 247 collective nouns like *shoes* or *news* (*susu* and *nynsu* in Sranan) have preserved the plural
 248 morpheme. These authors attribute the loss of plural inflection to semantic markedness
 249 instead. They write that “plural inflection on the noun was lost because it is semantically
 250 vacuous and because a pre-nominal deictic determiner *den* could express plurality ... only
 251 semantically active inflection is visible for selection in a situation of language contact”
 252 (Aboh & Ansaldo 2006:53). This explanation is both ad hoc and unclear. Why should
 253 plural inflection be considered “semantically vacuous”? It is a prime example of inherent
 254 inflection, hence of a type of inflection that does carry meaning and not only serves con-
 255 figurational purposes. And why would only “semantically active” inflection be “visible”
 256 in a situation of language contact? What would be the underlying principle for this?

257 As an alternative, a processing account in terms of SLA is readily available. Inflections
 258 get lost in early second language acquisition due to the limited L2 processing capacities
 259 of the learners, to the effect that the loss of plural markings across the board is typical
 260 of early stages of SLA. Note that SLA can also account for the fact that some *pluralia*

261 *tanta* (such as *njusu* <E. *news*) and some plural forms of plural-dominant words (such
262 as *susu* <E. *shoes*) made it into the Surinamese Creoles. These words were adopted as
263 unanalyzed forms, i.e. as monomorphemic words. The reason for the non-adoption of
264 many more words with an English plural *-s* is rather trivial. Most nouns are heavily
265 singular-dominant (with much lower frequencies for their plural forms), and frequency is
266 a crucial factor in the learning (or adoption) of non-native words.

267 4.3 Possessive marking

268 We start again with Aboh & Ansaldo's table, given here as table 4.

269 The Surinamese Creoles and Gbe are similar in that they (unlike English) have no
270 inflectional marking of possession (see table 4, columns 1 and 2), while the Surinamese
271 Creoles and English share the same word order, which is different from that of Gbe
272 (see columns 2,5 and 6). A reanalysis of non-inflectional genitive marking, systematizing
273 different words orders, as shown in table 5, reveals, however, more similarities than dif-
274 ferences between the different languages. Column 1 of table 5 shows that all languages
275 have a possessor initial structure in which the possessor is followed by a genitive marker
276 and the possessee. Column 2 shows that all languages have possessee-initial structures
277 with English and the creoles sharing the same order of genitive marker and possessor.
278 Finally, in column 3 one can see that all languages have genitive a construction without
279 overt marking, with again the same word order in English and in the creoles. We can thus
280 see that, if we disregard mere word order differences, all constructions shared by the two
281 input varieties survive, preserving the English word order.

282 How can these facts be accounted for under the feature pool approach? Aboh &
283 Ansaldo (2006:54) again evoke their idea of 'semantically active inflection': "We take the
284 loss of genitive inflection in the Surinamese Creoles to be additional evidence that only
285 semantically active inflectional morphology is visible and (maybe) subject to transfer
286 in a situation of language contact". This raises similar questions as above. Why should
287 inflectional possession marking be semantically not 'active'? What is the principled basis
288 for the role or non-role of semantics? When is something 'semantically active', when not?
289 And why is the English word order 'selected'?

Table 4: Possessive marking in English, Gbe and the SCs, from Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:54)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	POSSor- GEN-POSSee	POSSee- PREP- POSSor	POSSor- POSSee	POSSee- PREP- POSSor- GEN	POSSor- PRO- POSSee	POSSee- POSSor- GEN
English	yes <i>John's book</i>	yes <i>a friend of John</i>	yes <i>a horse leg, my leg</i>	yes <i>a friend of John's</i>	yes <i>for Jesus Christ his sake</i>	no
Gbe	yes <i>Jan sín wémà</i>	no	yes <i>sò fò</i>	no	no/?	yes <i>wémà Jan ton</i> [book John GEN] <i>wémà cè</i> [book my]
SCs	no	yes <i>(n)a buku fu mi</i>	yes <i>datra oso, mi oso</i>	no	yes <i>a moy frigi en tere</i>	no

Table 5: Possessive marking in English, Gbe and the SCs, disregarding word order and inflection

	1	2	3
	POSSor- GEN - POSSee	POSSee-[GEN - POSSor] POSSee-[POSSor- GEN]	POSSor-POSSee POSSee-POSSor
English	yes <i>for Jesus his sake</i>	yes <i>a friend of John</i>	yes <i>a horse leg, my leg</i>
Gbe	yes <i>Jan sín wémà</i>	yes <i>wémà Jan ton</i>	yes <i>sò fò wémà cè [book my]</i>
SCs	yes <i>a moy frigi en tere</i>	yes <i>(n)a buku fu mi</i>	yes <i>datra oso, mi oso</i>

290 In contrast, a processing account in terms of SLA seems readily available. As shown by
 291 Pienemann, possessive pronouns are processable at an early stage in SLA (see column 3 in
 292 table 5), while English genitive inflection is contextual inflection, hence only processable
 293 in very advanced stages of acquisition, hence prone to loss.²

294 4.4 Case marking on pronouns

295 Let us now turn to the case marking on pronouns. Given the fact that all languages in-
 296 volved in the contact situation under discussion are morphologically rather poor, Aboh &
 297 Ansaldo (2006:54) predict “that contact between these languages is not likely to produce
 298 a new language that has extensive case morphology”. In this respect, the predictions of
 299 feature pool approach and the SLA approach are basically the same. It is nevertheless
 300 interesting to look at the details. Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:55) provide the summary given
 301 in tables 6 and 7 for weak and strong personal pronouns, respectively.

²Even with advanced learners, who have acquired the inflectional genitive, there is still a remarkable quantitative preference for the analytic genitive construction in their interlanguage production, cf. Fischbach (2007)

Table 6: Subject-object case marking distinction, personal pronouns, based on Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:55)

	person	English	Gungbe	SCs
singular	1	yes	yes	no
	2	no	yes	no
	3	yes/yes/no	yes	yes
plural	1	yes	no	no
	2	no	no	no
	3	yes	no	no

Table 7: Subject-object case marking distinction, **strong** personal pronouns, based on Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:55)

	person	English	Gungbe	SCs
singular	1	no	no	no
	2	no	no	no
	3	no	no	no
plural	1	no	no	no
	2	no	no	no
	3	no	no	no

302 One can see that all subject/object distinctions on the weak pronouns get lost on the
 303 way from the input languages to the creoles, no matter from which language. The only
 304 exception is the third person singular, where the subject/object distinction is present.³
 305 Notably, none of the languages involved has a subject/object distinction with strong
 306 pronouns, and it does not surprise one that the resulting creoles do not have it either.
 307 Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:56) claim that the absence of distinctions in the strong forms of
 308 either language

309 ... leads us to conclude that the loss of inflection is not related to language
 310 acquisition but instead to the nature of inflection itself. When inflection simply
 311 reflects a syntactic configuration, such as subject-verb or verb-object config-
 312 uration, it may not be *competitive enough* in a situation of language contact
 313 *to participate in the F[eature] P[ool]* from which the emerging language de-
 314 rives viable combinatories. However, when inflection has some semantics (e.g.
 315 intricate relation between nominative case and topicality), it may participate
 316 in the competition and selection process and emerge in the new language.”
 317 (my emphasis)

³There is one interesting phenomenon that is not shown in the table, and which is not discussed by Aboh & Ansaldo, and which will not be discussed here, namely that the syncretism of first and second plural pronoun (*unu*) survives in the Surinamese Creoles through direct borrowing of this form.

318 Again, this explanation raises a number of problems similar to the ones discussed
319 above. First, the connection between strong form case syncretism, acquisition and ‘the
320 nature of inflection itself’ is unclear. Is there a threshold for the feature pool (“not
321 competitive enough to participate”)? If so, what is this threshold? Second, what is the
322 basis for the role or non-role of semantics? Why are not all distinctions in the weak
323 pronouns lost? Does third person masculine have ‘some semantics’ while all other persons
324 have none? There is no answer to such questions in Aboh & Ansaldo’s paper.

325 Under a processing-based SLA account, the facts can be nicely accommodated. Case
326 marking is contextual inflection and therefore absent from early interlanguages. The
327 pronominal subject-object distinction is, however, processable at an early stage (‘un-
328 marked alignment’, see Pienemann et al. (2005)), with a frequency effect concerning
329 lexical learning for the third singular masculine pronoun.

330 **4.5 Summary: The NP in the Surinamese Creoles**

331 In the preceding subsections we have seen that the feature pool approach leaves many
332 open questions and cannot adequately account for the emergence of particular structures
333 in the Surinamese Creoles. In particular, we saw that the composition of the feature pool
334 is problematic. Features can be selected if, and only if, processing allows their perception
335 and integration. An abstract feature can become only part of the feature pool if the
336 speakers are able to process it. Otherwise, the speech signal contains no features, but
337 is simply noise. In a contact situation with many non-native speakers of the pertinent
338 varieties involved, one has to take into account that the processing of the available signal
339 is severely constrained. These processing constraints directly contribute to the emergence
340 of the structures under discussion. L2 processing thus provides a principled explanation
341 for feature selection and feature mixing, preferable to the ad hoc mechanisms evoked
342 by Aboh & Ansaldo (2006). Furthermore, it seems that SLA plays the key role in the
343 emergence of the languages under discussion, not the typological characteristics of their
344 input languages. Any feature pool account would have to incorporate insights concerning
345 the role of processing in order to explain feature selection and creation of new structure.

346 In the next session we will turn from creolization to another type of language emer-
347 gence, exemplified by Sri Lanka Malay, in order to see how the two approaches can explain
348 such cases. We focus on the structure of the NP again, for reasons of comparability.

349 **5 Case study 2: The NP in Sri Lanka Malay**

350 Sri Lanka Malay is a very interesting contact language, since it “presents us with a rare
351 case of morphologization, development of morphological material, as opposed to the more
352 commonly observed reduction of it in contact environments. Moreover, SLM [Sri Lanka
353 Malay] is a rare case in terms of genesis, as it offers us a case study of a language that
354 retains original lexical items but completely shifts in grammar (Thomason & Kaufman
355 (1988)). Both apparently rare aspects of this language find however logical explanation
356 through a FP[feature pool]-based analysis: by looking at the composition of the FP and
357 considering the principles of competition and selection, we can explain how such a devel-
358 opment can take place” (Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:57)).

359

360 Before taking a look at the emergence of Sri Lanka Malay, let us briefly review the
 361 morphological properties of the three major languages involved in the contact, Malay,
 362 Sinhala/Tamil and Sri Lanka Malay. This is shown in table 8.

Table 8: Morphology in Malay, Sinhala/Tamil and Sri Lanka Malay, based on
 (Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:57f)).

	Malayan	Sinhala/Tamil	Sri Lanka Malay
morphology	isolating, some agglutination	agglutinative, some fusion	agglutinative, incipient fusion
case-marking on full NPs	no	yes	yes

363 The Sri Lanka Malay lexicon is of generic Malay origin, and the case markers used in
 364 Sri Lanka Malay are based on Malay free morphemes. A rough comparison of the case
 365 system that is at issue here is given in table 9.

Table 9: Case onto thematic role-mapping in Sinhala/Tamil, based on Aboh & Ansaldo
 (2006:59)

Case	Thematic role	Sinhala	Tamil	Sri Lanka Malay
NOM	Agent	yes	yes	yes
DAT	Patient	yes	yes	yes
ACC	Experiencer	yes	yes	yes
	Goal	yes	yes	yes
POSS	Possession	yes	yes and Location	yes
LOC	Location	no	no	yes
INSTR	Instrument	yes	yes	yes
	Source	yes	no	yes

366 The table shows that Sri Lanka Malay displays a case system that is overall very
 367 similar to that of its adstrates. Where there are differences between adstrates, Sri Lanka
 368 Malay either chooses one of the options and/or new features may emerge. For example,
 369 in Tamil but not in Sinhala, definiteness plays a special role in accusative marking, and
 370 so it does in Sri Lanka Malay. Sri Lanka Malay, however, also uses accusative marking
 371 to show emphasis, which is not attested in the adstrates. In essence, Aboh & Ansaldo
 372 (2006:59-62) demonstrate that total congruence of the adstrates results in the same pat-
 373 terns in Sri Lanka Malay, while “lack of congruence ... seems to leave more room to the
 374 new grammar to adopt a pattern from the competing languages (presumably the one that
 375 scores higher on parameters such as discourse saliency, semantic transparency). Alterna-
 376 tively, the emerging language may develop a hybrid system, combining various aspects of
 377 the competing features, thus creating novel structures” (p. 62).

378 Does this kind of situation present a problem for an SLA-based account of creolization?
 379 In view of these facts, it is clear that such a system cannot develop in SLA-dominant

380 situations, but only in situation characterized by large-scale bilingualism. Only if speakers
381 have sufficient resources for processing the available case system can they adopt traits
382 of one system into another system. In other words, these developments require a good
383 command of the languages involved by advanced bilinguals. A look into the literature
384 shows that this is exactly the situation in which Sri Lanka Malay came into existence:

385 Surely the Malays *did not create SLM by trying to acquire Tamil or Sin-*
386 *hala*, because if that were the case we would not have a predominantly Malay
387 lexicon. Nor would there have been any plausible reason for Tamils/Sinhalese
388 to restructure their own varieties in acquiring SLM; they were, after all, speak-
389 ers of larger, socially more prestigious languages in which the SLM speakers
390 would have been quite competent. Thus, what we do have is language ac-
391 quisition in an informal context with *high degree of bi/multilingualism*; there
392 is no evidence nor reason to postulate a break in transmission, an imperfect
393 acquisition process or any other construct typical of creole ideology” (Ansaldo
394 2008, my emphasis).
395

396 This brings us back to the question of whether it is useful to assign the emergence of
397 the Surinamese Creoles and Sri Lanka Malay to “different exceptional phenomena, namely
398 creolization and admixture respectively.” (Aboh & Ansaldo 2006:39). Our investigation
399 has shown that the facts from Surinamese Creoles and Sri Lanka Malay need not be
400 accounted for with reference to some notion of exceptionality, but by a careful examination
401 of the contact situation. In situations where SLA plays a role, outcomes can be expected
402 that are different from those in a situation with prevalent bilingualism. Features can
403 be selected if processing allows their integration. This shows that it is indeed useful to
404 distinguish between different kinds of contact situations.

405 **6 Case study 3: The syllable in the Surinamese Cre-** 406 **oles and the role of typology**

407 Aboh & Ansaldo put forward two explicit hypotheses concerning the role of typology,
408 based on the cases of Sri Lanka Malay and the Surinamese Creoles.

409 **(3) Typological predictions, from Aboh & Ansaldo (2006:41):**

- 410 a. Prediction 1 (based on the Surinamese Creoles):
411 Typological homogeneity of the source languages leads to innovation and mix-
412 ing .
- 413 b. Prediction 2 (based on Sri Lanka Malay):
414 Typological non-homogeneity and dominance lead to a radical typological
415 shift, transfer of the L2/L3 feature is heavy, innovation more limited.

416 We have seen, however, that it is not the typology of the languages involved that can
417 explain the selection of certain properties in an emerging language. Rather, we saw that
418 the ‘innovation and mixing’ observed with the Surinamese Creoles is the result of SLA,
419 while the Sri Lanka Malay facts result from language contact in a setting with a high

420 degree of advanced bilingualism. To further investigate the role of typology, and the
 421 correctness of the predictions in (3-a) and (3-b) we will now test Aboh & Ansaldo's
 422 predictions with a different kind of phenomenon, the syllable structure as found in the
 423 Surinamese Creoles. We will concentrate on one language, Sranan, because the syllable
 424 structure facts are best described for this language. The facts are very similar for the
 425 other varieties, though.

426 In Sranan, as well as in the other Surinamese Creoles one can find a massive restructur-
 427 ing of the syllabic make-up of lexifier words, involving epenthesis, deletion and metathesis.
 428 The examples in table 10 illustrate the three processes.

Table 10: Syllabic restructuring in Sranan

English	>	Sranan
a. Epenthesis		
because	>	bikasi
top	>	tapu
walk	>	waka
call	>	kari
strong	>	tranga
b. Deletion		
speak	>	piki
stand	>	tan
doctor	>	datra
nasty	>	nasi
field	>	firi
c. metathesis		
burn	>	bron
court	>	krutu
over	>	abra

429 A complete account of the different restructuring processes and the complex conditions
 430 under which they apply can be found in Alber & Plag (2001). Table 11 summarizes
 431 the similarities and differences between the languages involved. In addition to the major
 432 substrate Gbe, the minor substrates Twi and Kikongo are also included.

Table 11: Syllable structure in Kikongo, Twi, Gbe, English and SCs, based on
 Alber & Plag (2001), Plag & Schramm (2006).

Structure		Kikongo	Twi	Gbe	English	SCs
coda	nasal coda	no	yes	yes	yes	yes
	obstruent coda	no	no	no	yes	no
	coda cluster	no	no	no	yes	no
onset	obstruent-sonorant onset	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
	obstruent-obstruent onset	no	no	yes	yes	no
	SSP violations	no	no	yes	yes	no

433 First we have to clarify which of the two above predictions is pertinent. We can
434 reasonably assume that superstrate and substrate are non-homogeneous, because the
435 substrates have rather simplex syllable structures while the superstrate has very complex
436 syllable structures. Given that there is also a typological dominance of the substrates, this
437 should lead to a radical typological shift (see (3-b) above). However, there is a problem
438 in classifying the outcome. Are the new syllable types and constraints (e.g. no obstruent
439 coda, no SSP violation, the possibility of having the cluster /r.k/ in word-internal syllable
440 contact, as in *ar.ki* ‘listen’) ‘innovations and mixing’ (prediction 1), or rather ‘more
441 limited innovation’ (prediction 2)? It is also not entirely clear what exactly is meant
442 by ‘typological dominance’, and how it can be determined. Finally, it is unclear, how
443 the specific kinds of repair strategies (epenthesis and deletion in different environments)
444 would be explained by selection from the feature pool.

445 If we view the problem of syllable restructuring from an SLA angle these problems
446 disappear. We can say that, yes, there is a typological shift (from complex superstrate
447 syllables to unmarked creole structures), but this shift is clearly the result of SLA. The
448 kinds of syllabic restructuring observed in SLA exactly parallel those attested in creoles.
449 In SLA, syllabic restructuring takes place only if the learner’s L1 has tighter syllable
450 structure constraints than L2 (e.g. Eckman 1981, Hancin-Bhatt & Bhatt 1997, Broselow
451 & Wang 1998). The restructuring observable in SLA is very similar to that in loan word
452 adaptation (e.g., Silverman et al. 1992, Yip 1993, Itô & Mester 1995a,b, Paradis 1996, Par-
453 adis & Lacharité 1997, Uffmann 2001, 2006, Boersma & Hamann 2008), in that epenthesis
454 is the preferred repair strategy in SLA and loanword adaptation (*modulo* intervening con-
455 straints referring to, e.g., prosodic size, contiguity etc.) In psycholinguistically inspired
456 studies it was shown that perception, i.e. processing based on L1 cues, is the key to an
457 understanding of second language phonological development and loanword adaptation
458 (Boersma & Hamann 2008, Hallé 2008, Strange & Shafer 2008). To summarize, the many
459 similarities between creole languages and interlanguages with regard to syllable struc-
460 ture and the processes involved in its restructuring, strongly suggest that the key to an
461 understanding of the emergence of creole structures in the realm of the syllable lies in
462 the processes known from SLA. In contrast, the applicability of feature pool approach is
463 unclear, and so are the nature and specificity of its typological predictions.

464 7 Conclusion

465 In this paper we have looked at three case studies in order to closer investigate the
466 explanatory power of two rival approaches to language creation in contact situation. It
467 was shown that the feature pool approach suffers from a number of conceptual, theoretical,
468 and empirical problems. It was shown that this approach cannot adequately account for
469 different outcomes of different language contact situations. The typology alone of the
470 languages involved in the contact is not a good predictor for the outcome of language
471 contact. The feature pool approach neglects processing constraints: one can only select
472 from what one can process. Interlanguage processing plays a crucial role in many contact
473 situations and differential outcomes of language contact can be attributed to its presence
474 or absence in the contact situation. ‘Creolization’, as in the case of the emergence of the
475 Surinamese Creoles, is therefore not ‘exceptional’, but happens in contact situations in

476 which SLA plays a significant role. The processing restrictions inherent in SLA play an
477 important role in shaping the structural outcome. ‘Admixture’, as in the case of Sri Lanka
478 Malay, is not ‘exceptional’ either, but happens in different situations and shows different
479 processes at work. And these processes allow structural outcomes that are very different
480 from those found under the conditions of SLA.

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