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# Week 8 – Prosody and Reduplication

April 7 and 9, 2008

## 1 Prosodic morphology

### 1.1 Introduction

(1) *Prosodic Morphology* is a term that refers to morphology other than affixation. Examples you may have seen before include shape transformations, reduplication, truncation, and infixation.

(2) **Shape transformations**—e.g., Modern Standard Arabic:

|            |                |
|------------|----------------|
| rasam-a    | ‘he drew’      |
| rassam-a   | ‘he made draw’ |
| rasm-un    | ‘a drawing’    |
| rassaam-un | ‘draftsman’    |
| risaam-ah  | ‘orientation’  |
| raasim     | ‘drawing’      |

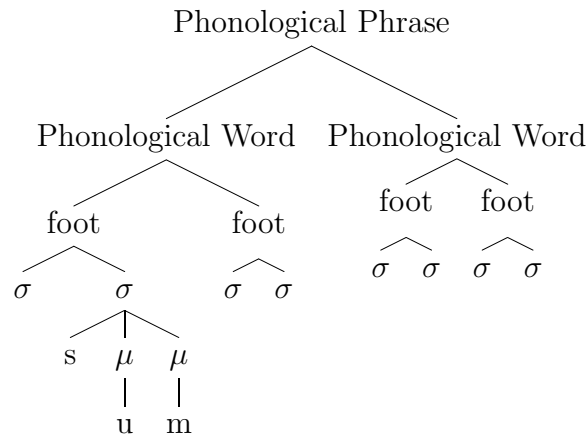
(3) **Reduplication**—e.g., Nisgha

|                   |                                     |             |
|-------------------|-------------------------------------|-------------|
| wax               | wix-wá:x                            | ‘to paddle’ |
| t <sup>s</sup> ám | t <sup>s</sup> im-t <sup>s</sup> ám | ‘to cook’   |

(4) Problem: How to analyze this morphology, and how to capture cross-linguistic similarities?

(5) Proposal: Prosodic morphology can be described with constraints that refer to basic prosodic units: moras, syllables, and feet (McCarthy and Prince 1986, 1995) (and references therein).

## 1.1.1 Prosodic constituents review



## 1.1.2 Truncation

- (6) many examples in McCarthy & Prince 1986.
- (7) Yapese (Jensen 1977; Austronesian language with about 7,000 speakers in Yap state of the Federated States of Micronesia)

| <i>name</i> | <i>vocative</i> |
|-------------|-----------------|
| lu.ʔag      | luʔ             |
| ba.jaad     | baj             |
| ma.ŋεε.fεɛl | maŋ             |

- ★ – Is the vocative a prosodic constituent of the basic name?  
 – How can we describe the vocative prosodically?

| /vocative(luʔag) | VOCATIVE= $\sigma$ | MAX  |
|------------------|--------------------|------|
| a. lu.ʔag        |                    |      |
| ☞ b. luʔ         |                    | ag   |
| c. lu            |                    | ʔag! |

- (8) Central Yupik (Woodbury 1985; Eskimo-Aleut language with 10,000 speakers in Alaska) Transcriptions are not quite IPA (capitalizing names).

| <i>name</i>    | <i>proximal vocative</i>                                      |
|----------------|---|
| A.ŋu.kay.naq   | A.ŋuk <sup>1</sup>  |
| Nu.pi.yak      | Nu.pix, Nu.pik  |
| Cu.pəl.laq     | Cu.pəl  |
| A.ŋiv.yan      | A.ŋif   |
| Ka.lix.tuq     | Ka.lik  |
| Qə.tun.yaq     | Qə.tun  |
| Mayw.luq       | Mayw (*Mayw.luq)  |
| Ay.na.ya.yaq   | A.yən (*Ay.nay)   |
| Nəŋ.qə.çal.yia | Nə.ŋəq (*Nəŋ.qəç)   |
| Qak.fa.yal.yia | Qak (*Qak.fay)  |
| A.kiu.yal.yia  | A.kiuk (with a ‘compressed’ diphthong that has just one mora) |

- ★ – Is the vocative a prosodic constituent of the full name?
- What’s the target prosody here (consider the disyllabic cases first)?
- Why is [\*Ay.nay] ruled out?
- What should the constraint on vocatives look like in Yupik? Let’s draw some tableaux.

- (9) Afar (Bliese 1981; Afro-Asiatic language with 1,579,000 speakers in Ethiopia, Djibouti, Eritrea)

| <i>frequentative</i> |               |                 |
|----------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| to.kam               | tok.mee.ni    | ‘you (pl.) ate’ |
| ju.ɣam               | juɣ.ru.feh    | ‘he rested’     |
| a.ram                | ar.ga.ɣuk     | ‘he cut’        |
| ti.fam               | ti.fiɣ        | ‘it dripped’    |
| tu.bam               | tub.lee.ni    | ‘you (pl.) saw’ |
| ja.mam               | ja.maa.tee.ni | ‘they come’     |

- ★ – Focus on the first word in the frequentative: how is it formed, descriptively?
- Does the first part of the frequentative copy a prosodic constituent of the stem?
- What is the prosodic target for the frequentative?

- (10) Japanese (Poser 1984; Itô, p.c. to McCarthy & Prince; plus additional data from Poser 1990, Mester 1992)–some possible variants may be missing

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<sup>1</sup>Some of these vocatives also have monosyllabic variants, but we’ll ignore that (Aŋ, Nup, Cup, Kal, Qət).

- a. In Japanese, a short vowel gets one mora, a long vowel gets two, and a coda consonant gets one.<sup>2</sup>

| <i>personal name</i>           | <i>hypocoristic</i> (shortened nickname) |
|--------------------------------|--|
| midori                         | mii+tʃiʌN<br>mit+tʃiʌN<br>mido+tʃiʌN     |
| hanako                         | hana+tʃiʌN                               |
| yumiko                         | yumi+tʃiʌN                               |
| yasuko                         | yat+tʃiʌN                                |
| osamu                          | osa+tʃiʌN                                |
| yosuke                         | yoo+tʃiʌN                                |
| yoko                           | yoo+tʃiʌN                                |
| kinsuke                        | kin+tʃiʌN                                |
| taizoo                         | tai+tʃiʌN                                |
| keiko                          | kei+tʃiʌN                                |
| ʃinzaburoo                     | ʃin+tʃiʌN                                |
| hiromi                         | hiro+tʃiʌN<br>romi+tʃiʌN                 |
| wasaburoo                      | waa+tʃiʌN<br>wasa+tʃiʌN<br>sabu+tʃiʌN    |
| kazuhiko                       | kazu+tʃiʌN                               |
| taroo                          | taa+tʃiʌN<br>taro+tʃiʌN                  |
| <i>course name</i>             | <i>abbreviation at ICU</i>               |
| ‘Introduction to Christianity’ | inkuri                                   |
| ‘General Education’            | zyene edo                                |
| ‘Introduction to Linguistics’  | inrin                                    |
| ‘freshman’                     | fure man                                 |
| ‘introduction’                 | intoro                                   |
| <i>full term</i>               | <i>abbreviation</i>                      |
| paasonaru konpyuutaa           | paso kon                                 |
| waado purosessaa               | waa puro                                 |
| imeedZʲi tSʲenzyi              | ime tʃʲen                                |
| pantii sutokkingu              | pansuto                                  |
| konekuSʲon                     | kone                                     |
| sutoraiki                      | suto                                     |
| zeminaaru                      | zemi                                     |

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<sup>2</sup>Longer names are more complicated.

- ★ What's the prosodic target for these shortenings?

- (11) Zuni (Newman 1965; language isolate with 6,413 speakers in New Mexico, south of Gallup)

| <i>word alone</i>       | <i>when 1st member of compound</i> |                   |
|-------------------------|------------------------------------|-------------------|
| tuk.ni                  | tu-                                | 'toe'             |
| me.li.ka                | me-                                | 'non-Indian'      |
| pa.gu                   | pa-                                | 'Navajo'          |
| <i>plain</i>            | <i>familiar</i>                    |                   |
| k <sup>w</sup> 'a.la.si | k <sup>w</sup> 'a-mme              | 'Crow'            |
| sus.ki                  | su-mme                             | 'coyote'          |
| ku.ku                   | ku-mme                             | 'father's sister' |

- ★ Is the shortened form a prosodic constituent of the base?

- ★ What's the prosodic target for these shortenings? How is it different from Yapese?

- (12) Things people have noticed about in truncation
- The truncated form doesn't necessarily copy the prosodic structure of the base.
  - The targets of truncation seem to be the basic units of prosody: moras, syllables, and feet.
  - The truncated form tends to copy as much as possible without exceeding the prosodic target—but not always (see Japanese hypocoristics), so we don't have a fully worked-out theory of this.

### 1.1.3 Reduplication

- (13) As in truncation, the copied portion ("reduplicant") is not in general a prosodic constituent of the stem.

- (14) Tagalog (Austronesian language from the Philippines with about 17 million native speakers)

|        |        |            |             |
|--------|--------|------------|-------------|
| ta.wag | 'call' | ta.-ta.wag | 'will call' |
| tak.bo | 'run'  | ta.-tak.bo | 'will run'  |

- (15) A different (derivational) Tagalog reduplicative prefix:<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup>Here's more to the Tagalog story.

ta.li.no ‘smart’ ta.li.-ta.li.no ‘rather smart’  
 ba.luk.tot ‘sinuous’ ba.lu.-ba.luk.tot ‘curved’

- (16) This suggests that, as in truncation, the reduplicant is aiming for a particular shape, not picking out a prosodic constituent from the stem.<sup>4</sup>
- (17) Reduplicant shapes
- Like truncated forms, reduplicants crosslinguistically tend to have as prosodic targets the basic units of prosody: mora, syllable, foot.
  - OT makes it possible to say that ‘the reduplicant must have one foot’ without having to copy an actual foot node from the stem.
  - For now (we’ll revise this next time), we’ll make tableaux for just the reduplicant, assuming that it comes directly from the input:

★ Fill in the tableaux:

| /RED1(takbo)/ | RED1= $\mu$ | RED2= $\sigma\sigma$ | NoCODA | MAX |
|---------------|-------------|----------------------|--------|-----|
| a. takbo      |             |                      |        |     |
| ☞ b. ta       |             |                      |        |     |
| c. tak        |             |                      |        |     |

| /RED2(baluktot)/ | RED1= $\mu$ | RED2= $\sigma\sigma$ | NoCODA | MAX |
|------------------|-------------|----------------------|--------|-----|
| a. baluktot      |             |                      |        |     |
| ☞ b. balu        |             |                      |        |     |
| c. baluk         |             |                      |        |     |

## 1.2 Correspondence Theory: review

- (18) (McCarthy & Prince 1995) How do we evaluate faithfulness constraints like IDENT-IO(ROUND)?
- Does the mapping /tui/ [ty] violate IDENT-IO(ROUND)?
  - How do we know if we should be comparing [y] to /u/ or to /i/?
- (19) Part-numbering
- Every segment in the input is given a unique index (and perhaps every unit of structure, including features, moras, syllables...), usually written as a subscript Arabic numeral.
  - The relation of correspondence between input and output segments is encoded by identical indices. /p<sub>1</sub>a<sub>2</sub>t<sub>3</sub>o<sub>4</sub>k<sub>5</sub>/ [p<sub>1</sub>a<sub>2</sub>t<sub>3</sub>o<sub>4</sub>k<sub>5</sub>] means that *Corr*(/p/, [p]), *Corr*(/a/, [a]), etc., where *Corr*(*x*, *y*) means that *x* corresponds to *y*.
- (20) These are also candidates: [p<sub>5</sub>a<sub>1</sub>t<sub>4</sub>o<sub>2</sub>k<sub>3</sub>], [p<sub>1</sub>a<sub>1</sub>t<sub>1</sub>o<sub>1</sub>k<sub>1</sub>], [p<sub>6</sub>a<sub>7</sub>t<sub>8</sub>o<sub>9</sub>k<sub>10</sub>] but they’re so outrageously bad that we don’t usually bother including them in a tableau.

<sup>4</sup>The most famous counterexample is Yidin’.

- (21) When you see a candidate in a tableau without indices, you can assume that the correspondence relation is the obvious one.
- a. Sometimes it's not clear what the obvious correspondence relation is; in that case, you should spell it out:

| /t <sub>1</sub> u <sub>2</sub> i <sub>3</sub> / | IDENT(ROUND) | IDENT(BACK) |
|---|--------------|-------------|
| a [t <sub>1</sub> y <sub>2</sub> ]              |              | *           |
| b [t <sub>1</sub> y <sub>3</sub> ]              | *            |             |

- (22) Good and bad correspondence relations A relation, like correspondence, can be defined by the list of items that bear that relation to each other:

input    output (a)

/t/    [t]

/u/    [y]

/i/

The correspondence relation here is  $\{(/t/, [t]), (/u/, [y])\}$ .

- (23) Faithfulness constraints (sometimes also called correspondence constraints) are constraints that care about various aspects of this mapping:

|            |                               |  |
|------------|-------------------------------|--|
| IDENT(F)   | (don't change feature values) | Segments in correspondence must bear identical values for feature [F].   |
| MAX-C      | (don't delete)                | Every consonant in the input must have a correspondent in the output.  |
| MAX-V      |                               | Every vowel in the input must have a correspondent in the output.  |
| DEP-C      | (don't insert)                | Every consonant in the output must have a correspondent in the input.  |
| DEP-V      |                               | Every vowel in the output must have a correspondent in the input.  |
| UNIFORMITY | (don't coalesce)              | Nothing in the output can have more than one correspondent in the input.   |
| INTEGRITY  | (don't split)                 | Nothing in the input can have more than one correspondent in the output.   |
| LINEARITY  | (don't metathesize)           | If A precedes B in the input, and A and B both have correspondents in the output, then A's output correspondent has to precede (but not necessarily immediately precede) B's output correspondent. |

|                 |                 |   |
|-----------------|-----------------|---|
| O-CONTIGUITY    | (don't intrude) | If A <i>immediately</i> precedes B in the input, and A and B both have correspondents in the output, then A's output correspondent has to <i>immediately</i> precede B's output correspondent.    |
| I-CONTIGUITY    | (don't skip)    | If A <i>immediately</i> precedes B in the output, and A and B both have correspondents in the input, then A's input correspondent line has to <i>immediately</i> precede B's input correspondent. |
| LEFT-ANCHOR(X)  |                 | If an input segment A is at the left edge of X boundary (X = word, stem, phrase, whatever), and an output segment B is at the left edge of X in the output, A must correspond to B.               |
| RIGHT-ANCHOR(X) |                 | If an input segment A is at the right edge of X boundary (X = word, stem, phrase, whatever), and an output segment B is at the right edge of X in the output, A must correspond to B.             |

(24) Why names like MAX and DEP?

- a. MAX is short for 'maximize': the material in the input that makes it into the output must be maximized.
- b. DEP is short for 'dependence': every segment in the output should be "dependent" on a segment in the input.)

★ Given the input /p<sub>1</sub>a<sub>2</sub>t<sub>3</sub>o<sub>4</sub>k<sub>5</sub>/, devise, for each of the correspondence constraints above, an output candidate that violates it.

★ Can you think of a candidate that violates DEP but not I-CONTIG?

★ Can you think of a candidate that violates MAX but not O-CONTIG?

★ Can you think of a candidate that violates DEP and L-ANCHOR(WORD) in the same place?

★ Can you think of a candidate that violates MAX and R-ANCHOR(WORD) in the same place?

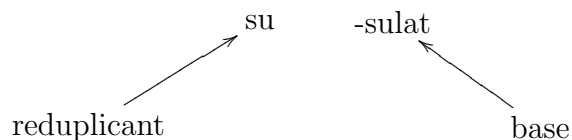
(25) Reminder: If you run into constraints called FILL and PARSE in readings for your term paper assignment, they are relics of a theory, known retrospectively as containment, that was around from about 1993 to 1995. FILL is roughly DEP, and PARSE is roughly MAX, but ask me and I can tell you more.

### 1.3 “Rule application” in reduplication

(26) Wilbur (1973), working in a pre-OT, rule-based framework, identifies three ways in which rules may apply in reduplicated words: *transparent application*, *overapplication*, and *underapplication*.

(27) McCarthy & Prince (1995) reanalyze these types of “rule application” in OT (this was what led them to propose correspondence theory).

(28) Terminology: The base is a term for the stem of a reduplicated word. E.g. *su-sulat*:



#### 1.3.1 Transparent application

(29) The rule applies wherever its environment is met, whether in base (B), reduplicant (R; underlined), neither, or both.

(30) Tagalog.  $d \rightarrow r / V \underline{\quad} V$

| <i>unreduplicated</i> |           | <i>reduplicated</i>           |                     |
|-----------------------|-----------|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| dagat                 | ‘sea’     | man- <u>da</u> -ragat         | ‘fisherman’         |
| damboṅ                | ‘plunder’ | pan- <u>da</u> -ramboṅ        | ‘act of plundering’ |
| daʔan                 | ‘road’    | pag- <u>da</u> -raʔan         | ‘a passing through’ |
| daʔan                 | ‘road’    | <u>d</u> -um- <u>a</u> -raʔan | ‘drop in’           |
| dapat                 | ‘ought’   | ka- <u>rapat</u> -dapat       | ‘worthy’            |
| daʔan                 | ‘road’    | ma- <u>ra</u> -raʔan-an       | ‘passable’          |
| daʔan                 | ‘road’    | <u>pa-ra</u> -pa-raʔan        | ‘ways and means’    |

(31) This is easy to analyze in OT, leaving aside faithfulness constraints for the moment:

★ Fill in the tableau:

| /pag+RED+daʔan/ | *VdV | * <sub>r</sub> |
|-----------------|------|----------------|
| a pag-da-raʔan  |      |                |
| b pag-da-daʔan  |      |                |
| c pag-ra-raʔan  |      |                |
| d pag-ra-daʔan  |      |                |

### 1.3.2 Overapplication

(32) R and B both undergo a rule, even though only one is in the right environment!

(33) Madura (a.k.a. Madurese; Austronesian language with about 13,700,000 speakers in Indonesia) Nasality spreads rightward from a nasal stop.

|                     |              |
|---------------------|--------------|
| <u>ḵ</u> āt-nēḵāt   | ‘intentions’ |
| <u>w̃</u> ā-mōw̃ā   | ‘faces’      |
| <u>ḗ</u> n-māḗn-an  | ‘toys’       |
| <u>ɔ̃</u> n-sɔ̃ʔɔ̃n | ‘request’    |

(34) Malay (a.k.a. Bahasa Malaysia; Austronesian language with about 18,000,000 speakers mostly in Malaysia, Brunei, Indonesia, Singapore). Nasality spreads rightward from a nasal stop.

|       |            |                      |                    |
|-------|------------|----------------------|--------------------|
| hamõ  | ‘germ’     | <u>hāmõ</u> - hāmõ   | ‘germs’            |
| waḵĩ  | ‘fragrant’ | <u>wāḵĩ</u> - wāḵĩ   | ‘very fragrant’    |
| aḵã̃n | ‘reverie’  | <u>ãḵã̃n</u> - ãḵã̃n | ‘ambition’         |
| aḵḗn  | ‘wind’     | <u>ãḵḗn</u> - ãḵḗn   | ‘unconfirmed news’ |

(35) Cases like Malay (sometimes called ‘back-copying’) are very hard to analyze with rules.

★ What happens, in a rule-based analysis, if copying applies before nasal spreading? (try a derivation of [wāḵĩ - wāḵĩ])

★ What happens, in a rule-based analysis, if nasal spreading applies before copying? (try a derivation of [wāḵĩ - wāḵĩ])

### 1.3.3 Underapplication

(36) Neither R nor B undergoes a rule, even though one (and only one) is in the right environment!

(37) Conservative Tokyo Japanese:  $g \rightarrow \eta / \{V, N\}$  \_\_\_\_\_  
 a. [suu- $\eta$ aku] ‘mathematics’ (cf. [gaku-sei] ‘student’)  
 b. but [gara-gara] ‘rattle’

★ Why doesn’t the [g] of the base become [N]?

(38) Luiseño (Munro & Benson 1973; Uto-Aztec language with about 43 speakers in Southern California):  $\widehat{t}j \rightarrow j / \text{_____} \{ \#, [-\text{cont}] \}$

a. [ $\widehat{t}j$ óka] ‘to limp’, but [ $\widehat{t}j$ uká- $\widehat{t}j$ ka- $j$ ]

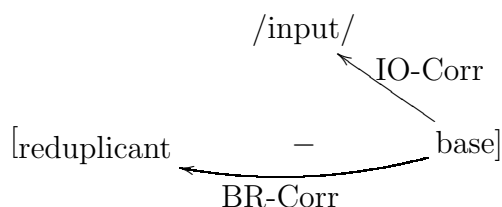
★ Why doesn’t the [ $\widehat{t}S$ ] of the reduplicant become [j]?

## 1.4 Base-reduplicant correspondence

(39) In OT, overapplication, including back-copying like in Malay, is easy to analyze *IF* we allow a family of faithfulness constraints *that apply between bases and reduplicants*:

|                |   |
|----------------|---|
| MAX-IO:        | every input segment must have a correspondent in the output                                     |
| MAX-BR:        | every base segment must have a correspondent in the reduplicant                                 |
| IDENT(NAS)-IO: | if A in the input and B in the output correspond, they must have the same value for [nasal].    |
| IDENT(NAS)-BR: | if A in the base and B in the reduplicant correspond, they must have the same value for [nasal] |
| ...            |   |

(40) The standard assumption (due to McCarthy & Prince) is that there is I-O correspondence between the input and the base, but not between the input and the reduplicant; the reduplicant participates only in B-R correspondence with the base.



### 1.4.1 Madurese with B-R correspondence

- (41) Assume that nasal spreading results from the ranking  $*[+nas][-nas] \gg \text{IDENT-IO}(nas)$

| /mowa/    | $*[+nas][-nas]$ | IDENT-IO(nas) |
|-----------|-----------------|---------------|
| a mowa    | *!              |               |
| b mōwa    | *!              | *             |
| c mōw̃a   | *!              | **            |
| ☞ d mōw̃ā |                 | ***           |

- ★ Fill in the violations and find the winner:

| /RED+mowa/                    | $*[+nas][-nas]$ | IDENT-BR(nas) | *IDENT-IO(nas) |
|-------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| a (underapplication) wa-mowa  |                 |               |                |
| b wa-mōwa                     |                 |               |                |
| c wa-mōw̃a                    |                 |               |                |
| d (transparent) wa-mōw̃ā      |                 |               |                |
| e (overapplication) w̃ā-mōw̃ā |                 |               |                |

### 1.4.2 Malay with B-R correspondence

- ★ Fill in the violations and find the winner:

| /RED+mowa/                           | $*[+nas][-nas]$ | IDENT-BR(nas) | *IDENT-IO(nas) |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|
| a (underapplication) waŋi-waŋi       |                 |               |                |
| b (semi-underapplication) waŋi-waŋĩ |                 |               |                |
| c (transparent) waŋi-w̃aŋi           |                 |               |                |
| d (overapplication) w̃aŋi-w̃aŋi      |                 |               |                |

### 1.4.3 Japanese with BR Correspondence

(42) Assume that g-lenition results from  $*Vg \gg$  IDENT-IO(nas):

| /suu+gaku/   | *Vg | IDENT-IO(nas) |
|--------------|-----|---------------|
| a suu-gaku   | *!  |               |
| ☞ b suu-ŋaku |     | *             |

(43) We can use B-R correspondence to rule out transparent  $*[gara-ŋara]$ .

a. But how can we rule out the candidate with overapplication,  $*[ŋara-ŋara]$ ?

(44) We need another markedness constraint,  $*[ŋ]$ :

| /RED+gara/                       | IDENT-BR(nas) | *[ŋ] | *Vg | IDENT-IO(nas) |
|----------------------------------|---------------|------|-----|---------------|
| ☞ c (underapplication) gara-gara |               |      | *   |               |
| d (overapplication) ŋara-ŋara    |               | *!   |     | *             |
| e (transparent) gara-ŋara        | *!            |      |     | *             |

## 1.5 Summary of OT approach to application types

- (45) a. **Transparent application** occurs when MARKEDNESS  $\gg$  FAITH-IO, FAITH-BR  
 b. **Overapplication** occurs when FAITH-BR, MARKEDNESS  $\gg$  FAITH-IO  
 c. **Underapplication** occurs when FAITH-BR, MARKEDNESS  $\gg$  FAITH-IO and some other markedness constraint rules out the overapplication candidate.
- (46) What else is B-R correspondence good for? It ensures that the reduplicant looks like the base at all!
- (47) Further exercises
- Invent a reduplicated candidate that violates I-CONTIG-BR, and one that violates O-CONTIG-BR.
  - Invent a reduplicated candidate that violates L-ANCHOR-BR, which requires that the leftmost segment of the base correspond to the leftmost segment of the reduplicant. Do the same for R-ANCHOR-BR.

## References

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