

Class 3

Introduction to Reduplication; Reduplicant Shape

2/13/18

1 Introduction

Reduplication: a class of processes where the phonological exponent of a morphological category is formed by “copying” material from a different portion of the phonological output.

⇒ The phonological material indicating the category co-varies with the phonological material of the particular base it attaches to, rather than being fixed across bases.

- For example, Diyari makes diminutives by prefixing a copy of (roughly) the first two syllables of the base:

(1) Diyari diminutive reduplication (Austin 1981:64)

- | | | | | | | |
|----|-----------|------------------|-------------|---|-------------------------------|---------------------|
| a. | 2σ | <i>pirta</i> | ‘tree’ | → | <i><u>pirta</u>-pirta</i> | ‘small tree’ |
| b. | 3σ | <i>kinthala</i> | ‘dog’ | → | <i><u>kintha</u>-kinthala</i> | ‘little dog, puppy’ |
| c. | 4σ | <i>wilhapina</i> | ‘old woman’ | → | <i><u>wilha</u>-wilhapina</i> | ‘little old woman’ |

- **Terminology:**

- *Reduplicant:* The “copy”, i.e. the portion of the output word which consistently depends on the phonological properties of the rest of the word. (Usually indicated by underlining.)
- *Base:* The portion of the output word which the reduplicant copies (basically, everything which isn’t the reduplicant).

- It’s not always possible to be sure which string is the reduplicant and which is the base.

- In cases of total reduplication especially, the distinction often doesn’t matter.

- It is often a matter of analysis which part is identified as the reduplicant.

- The distinction is more significant in some theories (e.g. Base-Reduplicant Correspondence Theory; McCarthy & Prince 1995, 1999) than others (e.g. Morphological Doubling Theory; Inkelas & Zoll 2005).

- **Big questions:**

1. There is systematic variation (cross-linguistically and intra-linguistically) in the shapes of reduplicants. *What considerations go into determining reduplicant shape?* [today’s class]
2. Phonological processes/distributions frequently do not apply transparently in reduplicated words. *What theoretical machinery is required to accurately and restrictively describe the set of attested non-transparent reduplication-phonology interactions?* [next two classes]

2 Basic dimensions of variation in reduplicant shape

- Among reduplication patterns, we find a great amount of variation in what material is copied.

★ Total reduplication vs. partial reduplication

1. *Total reduplication*: an entire word (or morphological constituent) is copied; e.g. **Indonesian** (2).
 - The two parts often act like independent words, or like the two members of a compound.
 - The two parts usually look completely identical to corresponding unreduplicated word in isolation (\approx the “reduplicant” is a fully faithful duplicate of the base).
- Therefore, total reduplication patterns often don’t show much interesting phonology. But,
 - Javanese total reduplication (Dudas 1976) is important for understanding “over-application” and “under-application” and how phonology interacts with reduplication generally. (More on this in the next two classes.)
 - Indonesian shows interesting interactions between stress/accent and reduplication:

(2) Plural reduplication in Indonesian (McCarthy & Cohn 1998:32, 52; cf. Cohn 1989:185)

	<i>indefinite</i>		<i>definite</i>	
a.	<u>búku</u> -búku	‘books’	búku-bukú-ña	‘the books’
b.	<u>waníta</u> -waníta	‘women’	waníta-wanítá-an	‘womanly’ (adj.)
c.	<u>màsaràkat</u> -màsaràkat	‘societies’	màsaràkat-màsarakát-ña	‘the societies’
d.	<u>minùm(-)an</u> -minùm-an	‘drinks’	minùm(-)an-mìnnum-án-ña	‘the drinks’

- ◇ In the indefinite, where the reduplicated word is unsuffixed (or the two members contain the same suffixes), both members bear primary stress.
 - ◇ In the definite, where the reduplicated word is suffixed, the first member now gets a secondary stress instead.
 - Some people have interpreted this to be an effect of *identity* between base and reduplicant (Kenstowicz 1995, McCarthy & Cohn 1998, Stanton & Zukoff 2016); others have attributed it to more general properties of the morphological system of the language (Inkelas & Zoll 2005:§4.3).
- ⇒ The question of what aspects of reduplication belong to morphology and which belong to phonology is one of the major issues we’ll be concerned with.

2. *Partial reduplication*: the reduplicant “copies” a phonological substrings from the base; morphological constituency is (usually) ignored.

- The copied substrings may coincide with a constituent in some forms, but this is accidental.
 - ◇ For example, Diyari partial reduplication copies two syllables.
 - ◇ When the root is two syllables (1a), it looks like the whole root is being copied.
 - ◇ But when the root is longer (1b,c), we see that the process is not actually targeting the root.
- Partial reduplication frequently displays phonological restrictions which do not hold of other parts of the language’s phonology.
 - ◇ This (virtually) always goes in the direction of having *less marked* structures in the reduplicant than elsewhere — *the emergence of the unmarked* (TETU; McCarthy & Prince 1994a).
 - ◇ I’ll argue that the disyllabic shape of the reduplicant in languages like Diyari is an instance of TETU, in that such a shape is optimal for the language’s stress pattern.

★ **Number of syllables/moras that get copied**

1. 1 syllable; e.g. **Sanskrit** (3)
2. 2 syllables; e.g. **Diyari** (1)/(4)
3. Variable yet predictable; e.g. **Ponapean** (5): varies predictably between 1 and 2 moras

○ Sanskrit perfect tense reduplication always copies a CV syllable from the left edge

(3) Sanskrit perfect reduplication (Whitney 1885, Steriade 1988)

- a. $\sqrt{dar-}$ ‘pierce’ → da-dār-a ‘I have pierced’
- b. $\sqrt{beud^h-}$ ‘wake’ → bu-bud^h-úr ‘They have woken’
- c. $\sqrt{pais-}$ ‘crush’ → pi-piš-úr ‘They have crushed’

○ Diyari diminutive reduplication always copies the first two syllables from the left edge

(4) Diyari diminutive reduplication (Austin 1981:38, 64)

- a. 2σ *pirta* ‘tree’ → pirta-pirta
- b. 3σ *kinthala* ‘dog’ → kintha-kinthala
- c. 3σ *tyilparku* bird type → tyilpa-tyilparku (*tyilpar-tyilparku)
- d. 3σ *ngankanthi* ‘cat fish’ → nganka-ngankanthi (*ngankan-ngankanthi)
- e. 4σ *wilhapina* ‘old woman’ → wilha-wilhapina

○ Ponapean copies *one or two* moras from the left edge, depending on properties of the base

(5) Ponapean reduplication (Kennedy 2002:225)

	1-mora stem	2-mora stem	3-mora stem	4-mora stem
2-mora reduplicant	<u>pàa</u> -pá	<u>duñ</u> -duné	<u>dùu</u> -dùupék	<u>rii</u> -ri.àalá
	<u>tèpi</u> -tép	<u>sipi</u> -sipéd	<u>mèe</u> -mèelél	
	<u>dòn</u> -dód	<u>diñ</u> -dilíp	<u>lìi</u> -lì.aán	
1-mora reduplicant		<u>dù</u> -duúp		<u>tò</u> -toòroór <u>sò</u> -soùpisék

→ No language consistently copies three syllables/moras. This is probably related to facts about prosodic structure. (More on this next time.)

★ **Conditions on codas/syllable weight**

1. Syllable has to be light/open; e.g. **Sanskrit** perfect reduplication (3), second syllable in **Diyari** (4c,d)
2. Syllable has to be heavy/closed; e.g. **Ilokano** (6)

○ One of the reduplication patterns in Ilokano consistently has a heavy syllable in the reduplicant.

- If the first syllable of the base is heavy (6a), copy the first syllable of the base as is.
- If the first syllable of the base is open (6b–d), copy the first syllable + the first following onset consonant (and parse the copy as a coda).
- If the first syllable of the base is open and followed by a [ʔ] (6e,f), copy the first syllable and lengthen the vowel.

(6) Heavy σ reduplication in Ilokano (McCarthy & Prince 1986:3,10; Hayes & Abad 1989)

a.	/takder/	→	?ag- <u>tak</u> -tak.der	‘be standing’
b.	/basa/	→	?ag- <u>bas</u> -ba.sa	‘be reading’
c.	/adal/	→	?ag- <u>ad</u> -a.dal	‘be studying’
d.	/trabaho/	→	?ag- <u>trab</u> -tra.ba.ho	‘be working’
e.	/da(?)it/	→	?ag- <u>da</u> :-da.ʔit	‘be studying’
f.	/ro(?)ot/	→	?ag- <u>ro</u> :-ro.ʔot	‘be leaving’

* **Position of reduplicant**

1. Prefix; all the partial reduplication we’ve seen so far
2. Suffix; e.g. **Manam** (7)
→ (though this could alternatively be analyzed as being infixal before the stressed syllable; many suffixal patterns are like this, especially those with “foot” reduplicants)
3. Infix; e.g. **Mangarayi** (8)
→ Many patterns involving infixation are probably characterizable as one of the next two
4. Variable; e.g. **Sanskrit** desiderative (9): oriented to the left, but can be infixal for phonotactic reasons
5. Adjacent to stress; e.g. **Samoan** (10): “prefixed” to the stressed syllable

- Manam suffixal reduplication: copies the final two moras (= bimoraic foot)

(7) Manam (Lichtenberk 1983; from Donca’s 24.962 notes)

salága	→	salaga- <u>lága</u>	‘be long’ / ‘long (sg.)’
moí.ta	→	mo.ita- <u>íta</u>	‘knife’ / ‘cone shell’
malabóŋ	→	malabom- <u>bóŋ</u>	‘flying fox’
?ulan-	→	?ulan- <u>láj</u>	‘desire’ / ‘desirable’

- Mangarayi infixal reduplication: reduplicant infixal after initial C, copies following VC*

(8) Mangarayi plural reduplication (McCarthy & Prince 1986:36; Merlan 1982)

	Singular	Plural	
a.	gabuji	g-<u>ab</u>-<u>ab</u>uji	‘old person’
b.	yirag	y-<u>ir</u>-<u>ir</u>ag	‘father’
c.	jimgan	j-<u>img</u>-<u>img</u>an	‘knowledgeable one’
d.	wangij	w-<u>ang</u>-<u>ang</u>ij	‘child’
e.	muygji	m-<u>uyg</u>-<u>uyg</u>ji	‘having a dog’

- Sanskrit desiderative reduplication: CV reduplicant is
 - prefixed for C-initial roots, but
 - infixes past the initial V or VC for V-initial roots for phonotactic reasons (Zukoff 2017a:§6.6.2)

(9) Classical Sanskrit desiderative (Whitney 1885)

	Root shape	Root		Desiderative	
a.	CCV	√tvar	‘hasten’	t̄i-tvar-iṣa-	
		√stamb ^h	‘prop’	t̄i-stamb ^h -iṣa-	
b.	VC	√aj	‘drive’	a- <u>ji</u> -j-iṣa-	not *aj-aj-iṣa-
		√īd	‘praise’	ī- <u>di</u> -d-iṣa-	not *īd-īd-iṣa-
c.	VCC	√arc	‘praise’	ar- <u>ci</u> -c-iṣa-	not *a-ri-rc-iṣa-
		√ubj	‘force’	ub- <u>ji</u> -j-iṣa-	not *u-bi-bj-iṣa-
		√ajj	‘anooint’	aj- <u>ji</u> -j-iṣa-	not *a-ji-jj-iṣa-

- Samoan reduplication: CV reduplicant copies and precedes the stressed syllable.
 - Stress is on the penultimate mora (moraic trochees from the right).
 - When the word is only bimoraic, the reduplicant appears as a true prefix (10a,b).
 - When the word is longer, the reduplicant ends up as an infix (10c).

(10) Samoan reduplication (Broselow & McCarthy 1983:30)

a.	táa	<u>ta</u> -táa	‘strike’
	túu	<u>tu</u> -túu	‘stand’
b.	nófo	<u>no</u> -nófo	‘sit’
	mó.e	<u>mo</u> -mó.e	‘sleep’
c.	alófa	a- <u>lo</u> -lófa	‘love’
	saváli	sa- <u>va</u> -váli	‘walk’
	malí.u	ma- <u>li</u> -lí.u	‘die’

Short answer:

- Alignment constraints (McCarthy & Prince 1993a) pull the reduplicant to one edge or the other.
- When the reduplicant’s alignment constraint can consistently be fully satisfied (given the ranking), the reduplicant surfaces as a true prefix (ALIGN-RED-L) or a suffix (ALIGN-RED-R).
- When ALIGN-RED & CONTIG-IO are dominated by other constraints, the reduplicant can infix.
 - Consistent minimal infix (Mangarayi): ALIGN-X ≫ ALIGN-RED
 - Variable (Sanskrit desiderative): MARKEDNESS ≫ ALIGN-RED — infixation happens only when certain markedness conditions are met. Same logic as Tagalog *-um-* infixation.
 - Stress-based infixation (Samoan): less clear, some sort of faithfulness to stress ≫ ALIGN-RED.
- ANCHOR likely also involved (Nelson 2003, Lunden 2004; “Marantz’s generalization”, Marantz 1982).

★ **Is the reduplicant a faithful copy of the base, or is it less marked in some way** — *emergence of the unmarked* (TETU; McCarthy & Prince 1994a)

1. Faithful (no TETU):

- **Diyari** — everything it copies it copies faithfully
- **Ilokano** — everything it copies it copies faithfully, other than vowel length alternation in forms like *?ag-da:-da?it* (which is not about markedness reduction)

2. Faithful but reduced (phonotactic TETU):

- **Sanskrit** cluster-initial roots copy without one of the consonants (9a)

3. Unfaithful due to process application (no TETU):

- **Ponapean** forms like *dòn-dód* ($d \rightarrow n$ via independent coda condition effect)

3. Unfaithfulness due to featural TETU:

- **Yoruba** (11) only allows the “least marked” vowel [i] in the reduplicant, regardless of base vowel

(11) Yoruba (from Alderete et al. 1999:337)

gbóná	→	gbí-gbóná	‘be warm, hot’/‘warmth, heat’
jɛ	→	jí-jɛ	‘eat’/‘act of eating’
rí	→	rí-rí	‘see’/‘act of seeing’

3 TETU and Base-Reduplicant Correspondence Theory

- TETU refers to cases where particular contrasts / marked structures which are otherwise permitted in a language are not permitted in a subset of morphological categories in that language.
 - TETU in the reduplicant is the most commonly discussed context.
 - TETU can also apply in fixed-segment affixes and other nonconcatenative morphology, like truncation.

→ TETU is the flip-side of Positional Faithfulness (Beckman 1998), where contrasts are said to be specially licensed in strong positions, either phonological (e.g. stressed syllables) or morphological (namely, roots).

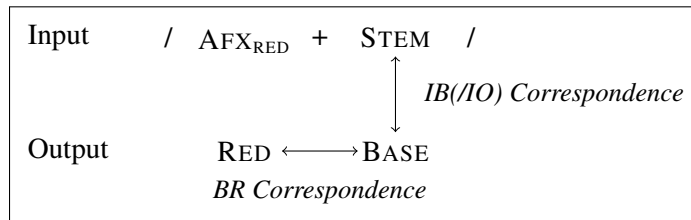
- In OT, TETU emerges when two categories participate in different correspondence relations — i.e. are regulated by distinct faithfulness constraints — and a markedness constraint is sandwiched between the two distinct faithfulness constraints.
- The banner example of this is in reduplication, where there are said to be special correspondence relations affecting the reduplicant. This theory is referred to as Base-Reduplicant Correspondence Theory (BRCT; McCarthy & Prince 1995, 1999).

3.1 Basics of BRCT

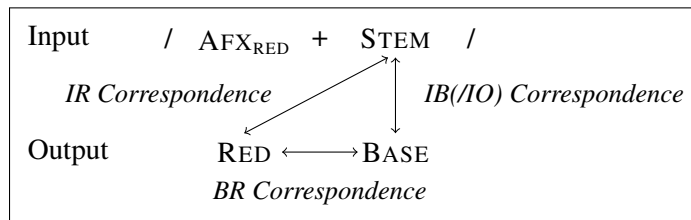
- In the original proposal, two models are considered: the “basic model” (12a), where there are two distinct correspondence relations; and the “full model” (12b), where there are three.
 1. The input root and the output root/base are related via Input-Output (Input-Base) correspondence.
 2. **The output base and the output reduplicant are related via Base-Reduplicant Correspondence.**
 3. The input root and the output reduplicant are related via Input-Reduplicant correspondence
(full model only)

(12) Base-Reduplicant Correspondence Theory (McCarthy & Prince 1995:4)

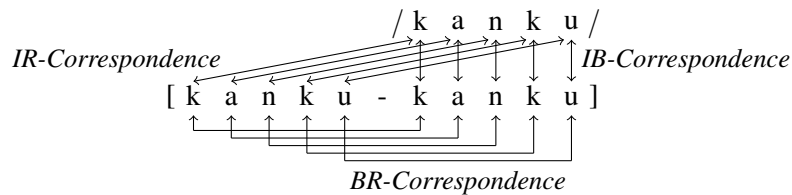
a. Basic Model



b. Full Model

(13) Illustration of the full model (Diyari *kanku-kanku*, Austin 1981:39)

[diagram taken from Stanton & Zukoff 2016]



The exact nature of the relation between the reduplicant and the input is a vexed question.

- A distinct IR relation is probably not quite right. See Spaelti (1997), Struijke (2002), Saba Kirchner (2010, 2013), *a.o.*, for relevant discussions and revisions (also my lecture notes from 24.964 last semester: <https://stellar.mit.edu/S/course/24/fa17/24.964/>).
- I'll assume the basic model for the purposes of this class.

- All of these correspondence relations have the same faithfulness constraints, just defined over different relations. For example, faithfulness constraints over BR relation include:

(14) a. **MAX-BR:**

Assign a violation * for each segment in the base without a correspondent in the reduplicant.

b. **DEP-BR:**

Assign a violation * for each segment in the reduplicant without a correspondent in the base.

c. **IDENT[F]-BR:**

Assign a violation * for each pair of segments standing in BR correspondence which differ on feature F.

→ Base \approx Input; Reduplicant \approx Output

3.2 Analyzing Yoruba TETU in the basic model

- In Yoruba, all bases take [i] as the vowel in the reduplicant, regardless of the base vowel.
 - Also, the [i] always has high tone, regardless of the base tone.

(15) Yoruba (from Alderete et al. 1999:337)

gbóná	→	gbí-gbóná	‘be warm, hot’/‘warmth, heat’
jɛ	→	jí-jɛ	‘eat’/‘act of eating’
rí	→	rí-rí	‘see’/‘act of seeing’

- The most straightforward way to capture this sort of interaction within the basic model of BRCT is the *copy + reduce* approach.

(16) **Copy + reduce**

- General schema:* IDENT-IO ≫ MARKEDNESS ≫ IDENT-BR
- Yoruba vowels:* IDENTV-IO ≫ *-[i] ≫ IDENTV-BR


- (Some, but probably not all, such cases of phonological fixed segmentism in reduplication can also be modeled with epenthesis; cf. Alderete et al. 1999.)

- In the basic model, reduplicants are not subject to IO correspondence. Therefore, IO faithfulness constraints will not protect marked features in the reduplicant.
 - That is, the ranking fragment IDENTV-IO ≫ *-[i] will have nothing to say (directly) about what features surface in the reduplicant.
- The constraint that could protect the marked features in the reduplicant is IDENTV-BR, since the features will be present in the surface base.
 - But, given the ranking *-[i] ≫ IDENTV-BR, this will not be the case.
 - The markedness constraint prevails, and only the unmarked features (i.e. those of [i]) are allowed to surface in the reduplicant.

⇒ The ranking (schema) in (16) thus allows marked features to be prohibited from reduplicants.

- Non-TETU cases will simply have both IDENT-IO and IDENT-BR outrank MARKEDNESS.

(17) BRCT copy + reduce in Yoruba

/RED, jɛ/	IDENT-V-IO	*-[i]	IDENT-V-BR
a.  jí-jɛ		*	*
b. jɛ-jɛ		**!	
c. jí-jí	*!		

3.3 Reduplicant shape as prosodic TETU (topic for Thursday)

- We now know that unmarked features can emerge in reduplication via TETU. We already know from last week that truncation often results in unmarked *prosodic* shapes.
- ⇒ **My claim (not completely new):** The shape of the reduplicant can often be modeled as prosodic TETU.
- Specifically, in a given language, the shape of the reduplicant often follows from directly from the prosodic constraints which are otherwise active in the language (see Zukoff 2016).

4 A brief history of theories of reduplicant shape

4.1 Templatic approaches

- McCarthy & Prince (1986) observed that reduplicant shapes tend to be describable as prosodic categories; things like a syllable, or a heavy syllable, or a foot. (See also Hyman 1985.)
 - Prior to McCarthy & Prince (1986), reduplication was normally described in terms of C/V strings (e.g. Marantz 1982, Steriade 1988) or X strings (unspecified timing slots; Levin 1983, 1985).
- McCarthy & Prince (1986) proposed that reduplicant shape should be **underlying specified** as a member of the prosodic hierarchy, possibly with conditions on that category (e.g. binarity for feet).
 - The empty prosodic category is then filled through autosegmental association.

(18) Prosodic Categories (McCarthy & Prince 1986:6)

Wd	‘prosodic word’
F	‘foot’
σ	‘syllable’
σ_μ	‘light (monomoraic) syllable’
$\sigma_{\mu\mu}$	‘heavy (bimoraic) syllable’
σ_c	‘core syllable’ [= (C)V]

- Under this approach, a language like Ilokano has an underlying heavy syllable template: $/\sigma_{\mu\mu}/$.

(19) Heavy σ reduplication in Ilokano (McCarthy & Prince 1986:3,10; Hayes & Abad 1989)

a.	/takder/	→	?ag- <u>tak</u> -tak.der	‘be standing’
b.	/basa/	→	?ag- <u>bas</u> -ba.sa	‘be reading’
c.	/adal/	→	?ag- <u>ad</u> -a.dal	‘be studying’
d.	/trabaho/	→	?ag- <u>trab</u> -tra.ba.ho	‘be working’
e.	/da(?)it/	→	?ag- <u>da</u> -da.ʔit	‘be studying’
f.	/ro(?)ot/	→	?ag- <u>ro</u> -ro.ʔot	‘be leaving’

- Some recent work has returned to using underlying templates in OT (Saba Kirchner 2010, 2013) and Harmonic Serialism (McCarthy, Kimper, & Mullin 2012).
- In early OT, template form was transferred from underlying representation to constraints (McCarthy & Prince 1993b, 1994a,b, 1995, *et seq.*).
 - Rather than the reduplicant having specified UR, the UR is contentless ($/RED/$), and a violable constraint specifies the preferred reduplicant shape: e.g., RED = σ , or RED = FOOT.
 - Additional constraints on the shapes of syllables and feet, and other phonotactics, could then too play a direct role in determining the ultimate surface shapes of reduplicants.
- When given explicit formalization, RED = X constraints are usually formulated as Alignment constraints (McCarthy & Prince 1993a), aligning the edges of the reduplicative morpheme to edges of prosodic constituents.

- Subsequent work in “Generalized Template Theory” (GTT; McCarthy & Prince 1994a,b, 1995, Urbanczyk 1996, 2001) sought to ground the choice of template in independent facts about the language.
- This was usually done by trying to ascribe prosodic properties of reduplicants to prosodic properties of more general morphological constituents:
 - You define the reduplicative morpheme as a particular class of morpheme: affix, root, stem
 - You define a size condition on that class of morphemes: e.g. $AFFIX \leq \sigma$, $STEM = PRWD$
 ⇒ Syllable-sized reduplicants are affixes (i.e. $RED = \sigma$ is really just $AFFIX \leq \sigma$)
 ⇒ Foot-sized reduplicants are stems $RED = FOOT$ is really just $STEM = PRWD$, and prosodic words must have a head foot

4.2 The a-templatic approach

- A stronger version of GTT is “a-templatic” reduplication (Spaelti 1997, Gafos 1998, Hendricks 1999, Riggle 2006, *a.o.*):

- ★ There are no templatic constraints or templatic URs.
- ★ Reduplicant shape is determined solely through the interaction of independently necessary constraints (mainly markedness constraints).
- ★ Partial reduplication is inherently **minimal**, subject to extension by other constraints.

- In this approach, there are essentially two types of reduplication, determined by the relative ranking of two constraints:

- (20) a. Total reduplication: $MAX-BR \gg \textit{size restrictor}$
 b. Partial reduplication: $\textit{size restrictor} \gg MAX-BR$

- “Size restrictors” / “size minimizers” are constraints (of various sorts) that, in effect, penalize the *presence* of material in the reduplicant.

- (21) Some proposed size restrictor constraints
- *STRUC(TURE)-SEG/ σ (Riggle 2006; cf. Zoll 1994)
 - ALL-FEET/ σ -L/R (McCarthy & Prince 1994b, Spaelti 1997, *a.o.*)
 - ALIGN-ROOT-L/R (Hendricks 1999, Zukoff 2017a,c, *a.o.*; cf. Riggle 2006)
 - INTEGRITY-IO (Spaelti 1997; cf. Riggle 2006, Saba Kirchner 2010, 2013)
 - DEP(Seg)-BD/OO (Gouskova 2004)

- When MAX-BR outranks all size restrictors (20a), you copy everything.
- When a size restrictor outranks MAX-BR (20b), you copy *as little as possible*.
- The fact that not all partial reduplication patterns are minimal ($\approx CV$) results from other constraints that penalize the minimal shape outranking the size restrictor in ranking (20b).
 - i.e., extension to a longer reduplicant can only be motivated by the presence of higher-ranked conflicting constraints: e.g. prosodic constraints like *CLASH, segmental phonotactics like OCP.
 - The diversity of partial reduplication patterns is due to the diversity of possible conflicting constraints, and their interactions.

★ Put another way: **reduplicant shape is determined primarily by TETU.**

4.3 A sketch analysis of a-templatic reduplication in Gothic

- Gothic (Zukoff 2017a:Ch. 4) represents a clear case of minimal reduplication, with conditional extension.
 - It has prefixal partial reduplication which is by default CV.
 - When a particular phonotactic constraint would be violated by CV, it exhibits a longer reduplicant (namely, CCV).
- For roots beginning in *consonant+vowel* (C₁V), the reduplicant is C₁ε-.
- For roots beginning in *consonant+sonorant+vowel* (C₁R₂V), the reduplicant is also C₁ε- (22a).
- But, for roots beginning in *consonant+obstruent+vowel* (C₁T₂V), the red. is extended to C₁T₂ε- (22b).

(22) Cluster-initial reduplicated form in Gothic (Lambdin 2006:115)

		Present (1SG)	Preterite (1SG)
a. CRV roots	‘tempt’	<i>fraisa</i> [frɛ:s-a]	<i>faifrais</i> [fɛ-frɛ:s]
	‘sleep’	<i>slepa</i> [slɛ:p-a]	<i>saislep</i> [sɛ-slɛ:p]
	‘bewail’	<i>floka</i> [flo:k-a]	<i>faiflok</i> [fɛ-flo:k]
	‘weep’	<i>greta</i> [grɛ:t-a]	<i>gaigrot</i> [gɛ-gro:t]
b. CTV roots	‘possess’	<i>stalda</i> [stald-a]	<i>staistald</i> [stɛ-stald] (not *[sɛ-stald])
	‘divide’	<i>skaida</i> [skɛ:ð-a]	<i>skaiskaiþ</i> [skɛ-skɛ:θ] (not *[sɛ-skɛ:θ])

- This is clearly a partial reduplication pattern, since not everything is copied. This means we need the ranking schema *size restrictor* ≫ MAX-BR (20b).
 - I’ll use ALIGN-ROOT-L as the size restrictor:
- (23) **ALIGN-ROOT-L:** Assign one violation * for each segment intervening between the left edge of the root and the left edge of the word.
- Under certain approaches to morpheme ordering / linearization, ALIGNMENT constraints of this sort are independently necessary to determine the relative order of morphemes in a word (McCarthy & Prince 1993a, Zukoff 2017b).
- This ranking fragment alone will select desired candidate (24a) over (24b,c), because it has fewer segments in the reduplicant (2 vs. 3,4).

(24) CV reduplicants for #CR clusters: $\sqrt{flo:k} \rightarrow \underline{f}\epsilon\text{-}f\underline{l}o:k$ ‘he wept’

/RED, flo:k/	ANCHOR-L-BR	ALIGN-ROOT-L	MAX-BR	CONTIGUITY-BR
a. $\underline{f}_i \epsilon_k \text{-} \underline{f}_i l_o :_k k_l$		**	**	*
b. $\underline{f}_i l_j \epsilon_k \text{-} \underline{f}_i l_j o :_k k_l$		***!	*	
c. $\underline{f}_i l_j \epsilon_k k_l \text{-} \underline{f}_i l_j o :_k k_l$		***!*		
d. $\epsilon_k \text{-} \underline{f} l o :_k k_l$	*!	*	***	
e. $\underline{l}_j \epsilon_k \text{-} \underline{f} l_j o :_k k_l$	*!	**	**	

- To ensure that (24a) wins over (24d,e), we need the BR-faithfulness constraint ANCHOR-L-BR to outrank ALIGN-ROOT-L (and also another BR-faithfulness constraint CONTIGUITY-BR).

- (25) a. **ANCHOR-L-BR:** Assign one violation * if the segment at the left edge of the reduplicant does not stand in BR correspondence with the segment at the left edge of the base.
 b. **CONTIGUITY-BR:** Assign one violation * for each pair of adjacent segments in the reduplicant which are not adjacent in the base.

- With respect to ALIGN-ROOT-L, (24a) fares worse than (24d) and identically to (24e).
- So we know that a constraint(s) that penalize (24d) & (24e) worse than (24a) must outrank ALIGN-ROOT-L.
 - Both (24d) & (24e) violate ANCHOR-L-BR, because the leftmost segment of the reduplicant does not match the leftmost segment of the base.
- (24a) avoid the ANCHOR-L-BR violation while still copying (almost) minimally by skipping the second base consonant, which incurs a CONTIGUITY-BR violation.
 - As long as ANCHOR-L-BR \gg CONTIGUITY-BR, we derive the right result.
 - ALIGN-ROOT-L must also dominate CONTIGUITY-BR, so that (24a) can still win over (24b), which avoids the CONTIGUITY-BR violation at the expense of copying an extra segment.
- The basic case thus illustrates minimal copying subject to higher ranked constraints (here, ANCHOR-L-BR).
- In #CTV roots, non-minimal copying is motivated by a phonotactic constraint against particular types of consonant repetitions:

(26) ***C_αVC_α / _C_[-sonorant]:**

For each sequence of repeated identical consonants separated by a vowel (C_αVC_α), assign a violation * if that sequence immediately precedes an obstruent.

- I call this constraint “NO POORLY-CUED REPETITIONS (*PCR)” in Zukoff (2017a), where I argue that it has phonetic underpinnings.
- This constraint is crucial for explaining a variety of similar effects in the reduplication patterns of a number of ancient Indo-European languages, and elsewhere.

- The context for this constraint is met only by the minimal copying candidate for #CTV roots, not #CV or #CRV roots.
- ⇒ Therefore, diversion away from the basic pattern (27a) is called for only for #CTV roots.
 - The ranking ANCHOR-L-BR \gg ALIGN-ROOT-L, which was independently established for the #CRV roots, means that the optimal alternative is (27b), which copies an extra segment.

(27) CCV reduplicants for #CT clusters: $\sqrt{\text{stald}} \rightarrow \text{stestald}$ ‘he possessed’

/RED, stald/	ANCHOR-L-BR	*C _α VC _α / _C _[-son]	ALIGN-ROOT-L	MAX-BR
a. <u>s_iε_k-s_ita</u> ld		*!	**	***
b. <u>s_it_jε_k-s_it_ja</u> ld			***	**
c. <u>t_jε_k-st_ja</u> ld	*!		**	***

(28) Total ranking:

ANCHOR-L-BR, *C_αVC_α / _C_[-son] \gg ALIGN-ROOT-L \gg MAX-BR, CONTIGUITY-BR

- ★ **Moral of the story:** Partial reduplication is minimal, unless high ranking constraints interfere with satisfaction of the size restrictor constraint.
- Next time we’ll see how prosodic constraints can also induce extra copying and explain certain effects formerly attributed to “prosodic templates”.

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