

Class 19: Stress III

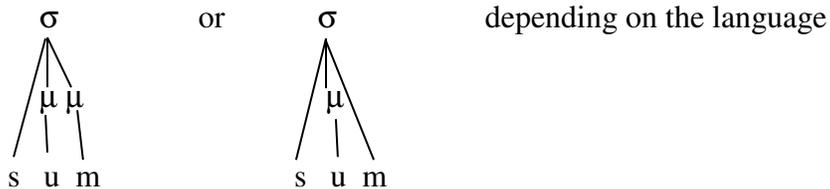
To do

- Fijian stress (last assignment) due Friday
- Be working on project. If you've gotten stuck in your analysis, come see me Thursday.
- You can do the course evaluation online, any time before Saturday

Overview: More about weight; arguments for feet that we didn't get to.

1. What are moras again?

- A *mora* is an abstract unit of duration¹ that has been proposed for dealing with footing and stress assignment in so-called “quantity-sensitive” languages.
 - It's the difference between a light syllable and a heavy syllable.
- What gets a mora?
 - Onsets usually don't get any (but see Topintzi 2006, Topintzi 2010, Ryan 2014)
 - A nucleus vowel almost always gets one (though in some languages, schwa gets no mora).
 - A long vowel or diphthong (2 vowels in the same nucleus) usually gets two.
 - A coda consonant may get one, depending on the language—and in some languages, only certain coda consonants get one



- Syllable weight
 - 1 mora: light syllable
 - 2 moras: heavy syllable
 - 3 moras: superheavy syllable
- How could a syllable have 3 moras?

¹ or total acoustic energy, or total acoustic energy weighted with some frequencies counting more than others. See (Gordon 2002), (Gordon 2005).

2. Reasons to add moras to the theory

- Syllables with more moras often attract stress, leading to this constraint (Prince 1990):
WSP (“weight-to-stress principle”): a heavy syllable must be stressed

- Before moras you had rules like $V \rightarrow [+stress] / _ C\{C,\#\}$
- Doesn't capture the typology (why not $V \rightarrow [+stress] / _ CV$ instead?)

- Compensatory lengthening (Hayes 1989)

Latin historical change

	*kas.nus > ka:.nus	‘gray’
	*kos.mis > ko:.mis	‘courteous’
	*fi.des.li.a > fi.de:.li.a	‘pot’

Turkish free variation

	sav.mak	→ _{optionally} sa:.mak	‘to get rid of’
<i>but</i>	da.vul	→ _{optionally} da.ul	‘drum’

- Draw the moras and syllable structure for [sav.mak] and [da.vul]. Let's ponder why deletion leads to lengthening in one case but not the other.

Greek (East Ionic)

	*woi.kos > oi.kos	‘house’
	*ne.wos > ne.os	‘new’
	*od.wos > o:.dos	‘threshold’

- Draw the moras and syllable structure for [woi.kos], [ne.wos], [od.wos], and ponder.

Middle English (originally from Minkova 1982) ta.lə > ta:l ‘tale’

- We have to ignore several complications, but we can get the basic idea by drawing [ta.lə]

Unattested cases

sa → a:
sla → sa:

- Why don't these occur?

- Asymmetric foot inventory

At least for trochaic languages, we want feet to be able to count moras

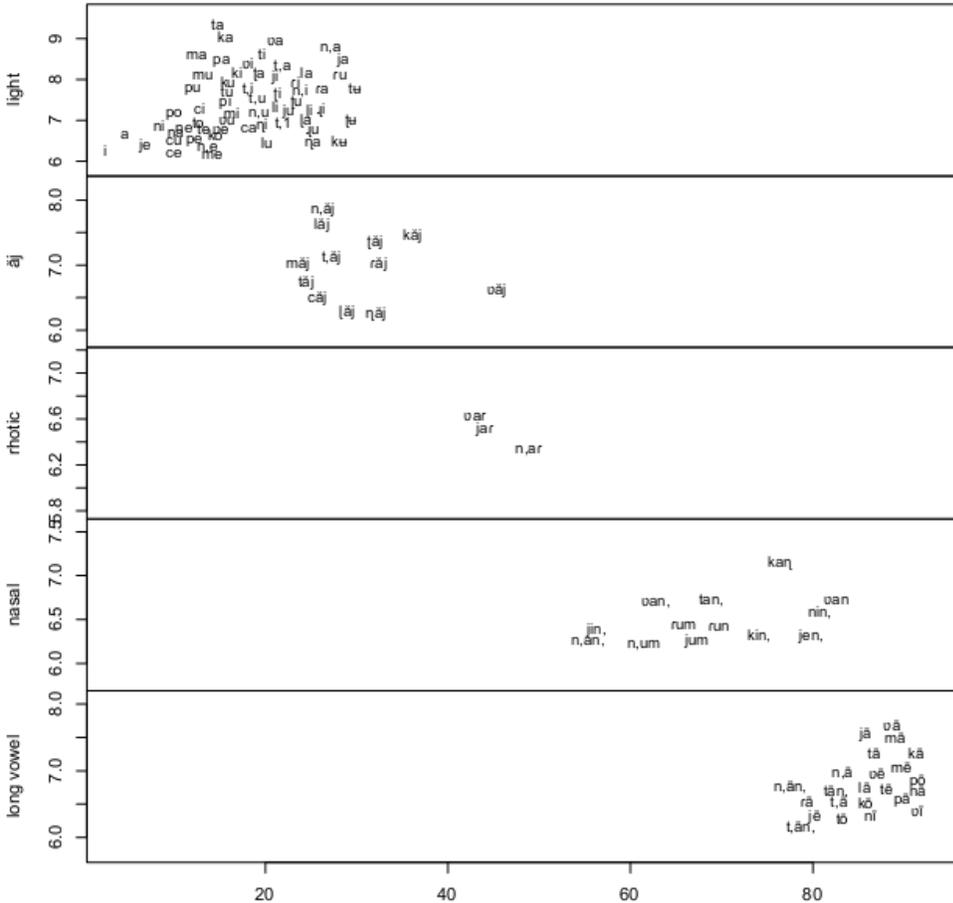
	<i>trochees</i>	<i>iamb</i> s
<i>quantity-insensitive</i>	attested	maybe unattested?
<i>quantity-sensitive</i>	attested: moraic (LL), (H)	attested: “uneven” (LH), (H), (LL)

- Hayes (1995) argues, through an extensive typological survey, that these 3 are the only foot types. There are claimed to be no languages with syllabic iambs.
 - Altshuler 2006 proposes a counterexample—Osage (mostly iambic, quantity-insensitive).

3. Reining in our optimism about moras

Ryan 2011a; Ryan 2011b shows that language can make many more than 2 or 3 weight distinctions

- Tamil: using sophisticated statistical measures over a huge verse corpus, Ryan finds 5 partly-overlapping weight classes



horizontal axis: percentage of the time each syllable type acts as though heavy in verse.

each vertical slice: a different syllable type

vertical axis within slice: log frequency of each type (doesn't seem to play much role, but helps spread out the points so they're more visible).

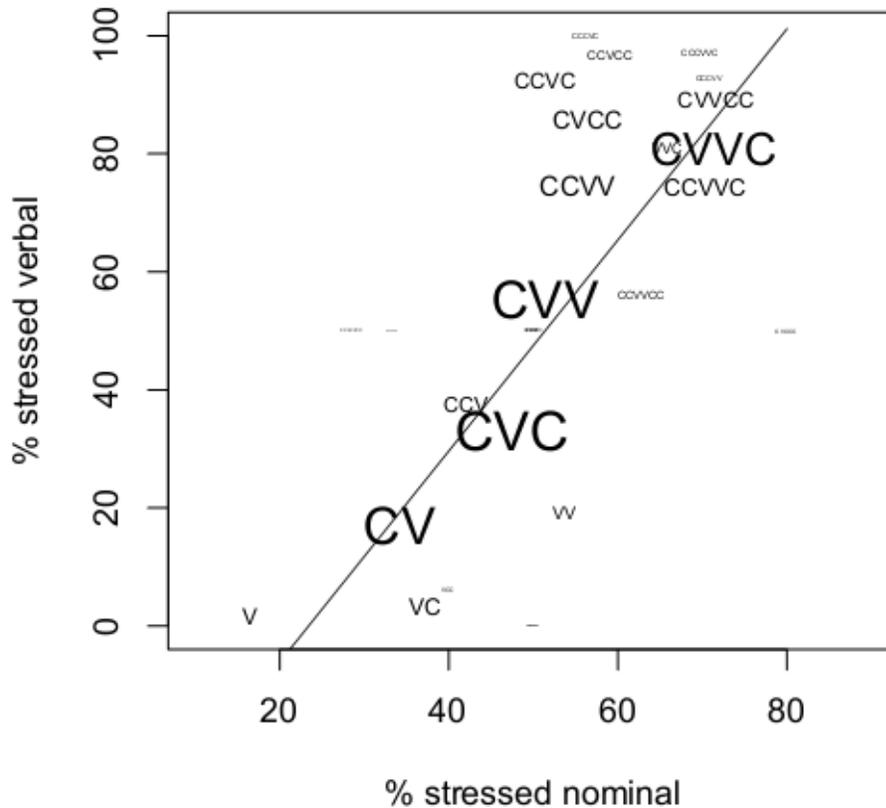
Figure 14: Figure 13 filtered into five phonological classes.

(Ryan 2011a p. 21)

- Then, he finds more and more categories (in Tamil and for other languages)
- The categories often don't behave as though evenly spaced
 - Weight is not just a hierarchy, but maybe a numerical scale

→ In versification and lexically-variable stress (English real and fake words), it seems more like you can attach a real number to each syllable, like “0.81”.

- Here's Ryan's English real-word data:



Size of font indicates frequency.

Notice that more-complex onset leads to more stress.

(Ryan 2011a, p. 179)

4. Long exercise: Manam

Austronesian, Papua New Guinea, 8,000 speakers (Ethnologue & Gordon 2005). Data from Lichtenberk 1978, Lichtenberk 1983, Buckley 1998 .

- Develop an OT analysis of Manam stress using feet. I've given syllabifications you can assume.

- | | | |
|-----|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. | ú | 'kind of fish trap' |
| 2. | gá | ' <i>Morinda citrifolia</i> ' |
| 3. | máj | 'bird' |
| 4. | pá.tu | 'stone' |
| 5. | dá.m ^w a | 'forehead' |
| 6. | tá.go | 'not' |
| 7. | zé.re | 'sorcery' |
| 8. | bá.zi | 'wing' |
| 9. | si.ŋá.ba | 'bush' |
| 10. | ta.né.p ^w a | 'chief' |
| 11. | ga.rí.b ^w a | 'flower sheath of palm tree' |
| 12. | ì.mo.ná.qo | '3sg.rl-eat' |
| 13. | ta.nè.p ^w a-.tí.na | 'chief-int' |
| 14. | bò.ta.zí.ŋa | 'hole' |

try drawing feet first

- trochaic or iambic?
- right- or left-aligned?
- what happens to leftovers: unfooted, or subminimal foot?
- which foot gets primary stress?

15.	mó.a	‘penis’	} these shouldn’t present any problems for a preliminary analysis based on 1-14. But once you’re done, check that these still work.
16.	sá.i	‘spoon’	
17.	ró.a	‘spouse’	
18.	á.e	‘leg’	
19.	so.ʔá.i	‘tobacco’	
20.	ʔe.té.a	‘side of canoe opposite outrigger’	
21.	ì.bo.qá.u	‘3sg.rl-be.bent’	
22.	ʔò.a.dé.ʔa	‘then’	
23.	bò.a.zí.ŋa	‘hole’	
24.	i-.mò.a.tú.bu	‘3sg-be.heavy’	
25.	lún.ta	‘moss’	
26.	móm.b ^w a	‘victory leaf’	
27.	u.táŋ	‘1sg.rl-cry’	
28.	ém.be.ʔi	‘sacred flute’	note: not *[è̃m.bé.ʔi]
29.	úŋ.gu.ma	‘person from a village other than one’s own’	
30.	è̃m.be.ʔi-.tí.na	‘sacred.flute-int’	
31.	i-.dàn-.dàn-.la-.lá.ʔo	‘3sg.rl-crawl-rpl-lim-thither’	not *[i-dan-dàn-la-láʔo]
32.	mòm.b ^w a-.tí.na	‘victory.leaf-int’	
33.	mà.la.bóŋ	‘flying fox’	
34.	ná.i.ta	‘who?’	<i>explain why these are different</i>
35.	mó.a.si	‘song’	• why do these candidates win, instead of the candidate you would have expected based on the analysis up until now? • you’ll have to invent a constraint here
36.	ʔá.o.ga	‘two pieces of wood rubbed against each other to produce fire’	
37.	bó.e.sa	‘Boesa Island’	
38.	gó.a.i	‘star’	
39.	tá.u.a	‘trading partner’	
40.	ta.mó.a.ta	‘man’	
41.	i-.pò.a.sa.gé.na	‘3sg.rl-be.tired’	
42.	gò.a.i-.tí.na	‘start-int’	
43.	rò.a-.na-.tí.na	‘her real husband’	
44.	jà.u.ja-.tí.na	‘good-int’	
45.	j-u.n-à.u-.tí.na	‘he hit me a lot’	
46.	wà.u.wá.u	‘new’	
47.	di.sò.a.ʔi.nó.ʔa	‘they sat down first’	
48.	bi.éŋ	‘Bieng (place)’	

5. If we still have some time: phonological words

- We keep referring to the **word**, as in ALIGN(Word, Left; Foot, Left), or $*\begin{bmatrix} -\text{son} \\ +\text{voice} \end{bmatrix} \#$
 - So what counts as a word, anyway?
- This was already an issue in SPE. Take a rule like...

$\{u,i\} \rightarrow \emptyset / +_\#$ (Chomsky & Halle 1968, p. 129, 239)

accounts for alternations in *bile*, *bil+i#ous* and *reptile*, *reptil+i#an*, because their underlying forms are argued to be /bɪl+i/, /reptɪl+i/

- What determines whether there's a #? In SPE...
 - some #s are generated by syntactic brackets
 - some affixes have a # in their lexical entry (/#iv/)
 - #s can also be deleted, inserted, or changed by phonological rules
- In OT, one popular way to do it is with ALIGN constraints that turn certain syntactic boundaries into phonological word boundaries (e.g. Peperkamp 1997).
 - And there can be conflicting constraints that disturb the relationship

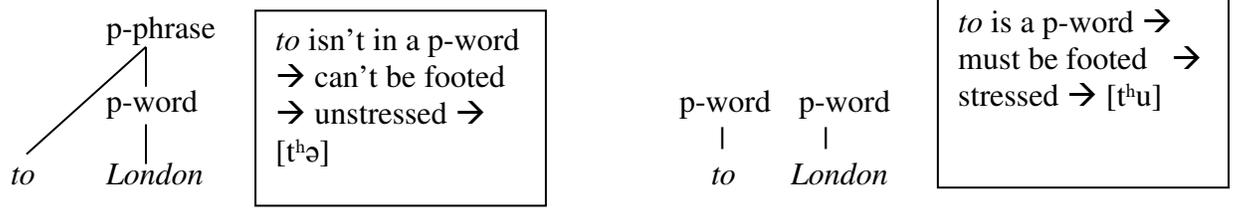
6. English example

- Many English function words (i.e., not Nouns, Verbs, or Adjectives) have weak and strong forms.

	<i>strong</i>	<i>weak</i>
<i>to</i>	t ^h u	t ^h ə
<i>at</i>	æt	ət
<i>for</i>	fɔɪ	fə
<i>a</i>	eɪ	ə
<i>and</i>	ænd	ə

- I'm going __ London next summer. Where are you going __?
- I'm looking __ Campbell Hall. What are you looking __?

- Selkirk 1995 proposes two possible structures:



- To avoid cluttering the tableau, assume that the “t[u]”s form a foot with stress; “t[ə]”s are unfooted.
- Fill in the tableau. Winner is A, B, C, or D?

	to London	ALIGN (LexWd,L,PWd,L)	ALIGN (PWd,R,LexWd,R)	FOOTMUST BEDOMINATED BYPWORD
<i>a</i>	[t ^h u London] _{PWd}			
<i>b</i>	[t ^h ə London] _{PWd}			
<i>c</i>	t ^h u [London] _{PWd}			
<i>d</i>	t ^h ə [London] _{PWd}			
<i>e</i>	[t ^h u] _{PWd} [London] _{PWd}			
<i>f</i>	[t ^h ə] _{PWd} [London] _{PWd}			

(Focus changes things: *I need a flight TO London, not FROM London.*)

- *looking at*: draw a phonological tree that causes *at* to be pronounced in its full form

- Fill in the tableau (we needed to add some constraints). Assume “[æ]t” is footed, “[ə]” isn’t. Winner is A, B, C, or D?

looking at	ALIGN (LexWd,R, PWord,R)	ALIGN (PPhrase,R, Pw,R)	ALIGN (PWd,R, LexWd,R)	FOOTMUST BEDOMINATED BYPWORD	PWORDMUST CONTAIN FOOT
<i>a</i> [looking æt] _{PWd}					
<i>b</i> [looking ət] _{PWd}					
<i>c</i> [looking] _{PWd} [æt] _{PWd}					
<i>d</i> [looking] _{PWd} [ət] _{PWd}					
<i>e</i> [looking] _{PWd} æt					
<i>f</i> [looking] _{PWd} ət					

⇒ *looking* needs to end a p-word, but phrase wants to end w/ a p-word, so *at* must end its own p-word.

- Why doesn't the alternation apply here:

[[[me: [rei.z]v]v-n]v 'to accompany' [[kø:]N [riŋ]N]N 'cue ring'
 [[mil.jø:]N [ri.zi.kõ]N]N 'environmental hazard' [ne:.o: [[re:.v]N ians]A]A 'neo-Revian'

9. More evidence in Dutch: conjunction reduction (see also Booij 1985)

just spelling here, not IPA

	[[land]N[bouw]N]N en [[tuin]N[bouw]N]N	<i>optionally becomes</i>	land- en tuinbouw
	agriculture and horticulture		agri- and horticulture
but:	[[absurd]Aiteit]N en [[banal]Aiteit]N	<i>cannot become</i>	*absurd- en banaliteit
	absurdity and banality		absurd- and banality

- Why not **absurd- en banaliteit*?

Next time: Course wrap-up and prospect; tips on next week's presentations, incl. handouts

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