Lexical insertion occurs in the phonological component^{*} Matthew Wolf Yale University

The B words were not constructed on any etymological plan. The words of which they were made up could be any parts of speech, and could be placed in any order and mutilated in any way which made them easy to pronounce while indicating their derivation[...] Because of the greater difficulty in securing euphony, irregular formations were commoner in the B vocabulary than in the A vocabulary. For example, the adjectival forms of *Minitrue, Minipax,* and *Miniluv* were, respectively, *Minitruthful, Minipeaceful,* and *Minilovely,* simply because *-trueful, -paxful* and *-loveful* were slightly awkward to pronounce. In principle, however, all B words could inflect, and all inflected in exactly the same way.

-From "The Principles of Newspeak" (Orwell 1949)

1. Introduction

The same abstract morphological object in a given language—whether the theory being assumed identifies this as the classical morpheme, a set of morphosyntactic features, or something else—may be pronounced in different ways when it appears in different contexts. The term 'allomorphy' in the broadest sense refers to any instance where this occurs. Some cases of allomorphy involve purely morphosyntactic suppletion, a parade example being the English irregular verb which is pronounced [gow] in the present tense and [wɛnt] in the past tense. While the grammar must choose between these phonologically-distinct pronunciations, the choice is not made on the basis of any phonological information. If one knows which inflectional features this verb bears in some utterance, one will be able to predict which pronunciation to use; nothing at all about the verb's position in prosodic structure, or about the phonological composition of other parts of the utterance, needs to be known.

At the other extreme, there are other cases of allomorphy which arise solely from phonological alternations. In such cases, the morphology consistently selects a

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single *underlying* pronunciation for some morphological object, and this underlying pronunciation undergoes different phonological changes in different phonological contexts where it may be found. For example, in my variety of English, the Rhythm Rule (Liberman & Prince 1977) results in the word 'thirteen' having at least two different surface allomorphs: $[,\theta \sigma.'t^{h}ijn]$ in citation form and non-pretonically, but $['\theta \sigma.,t^{h}ijn]$ when it precedes another primary-stressed syllable, as in the phrase *thirteen men*.

This paper is concerned with systems of allomorphy which fall in the territory between these two extremes. Since at least the work of Carstairs(-McCarthy) (1987, 1988, 1990, 1998), it has been widely familiar that there are systems of allomorphy where the allomorphs are distributed according to a phonological generalization, but where it would not be plausible to derive the different surface allomorphs in the phonology from a single underlying form. What these cases demand is that there be a selection between multiple different listed pronunciations (like the first type of allomorphy above) but that this selection make reference to information about the phonological context in which the chosen pronunciation will appear (like the second type). A fairly well-known example is that of the 3rd person masculine singular possessive/direct object enclitic in Moroccan Arabic (Harrell 1962; Heath 1987: 34, 238; Mascaró 1996b), which is /-u/ after a consonant-final base, but /-h/ after a vowel-final one:

(1) a. [ktab-u] 'his book' b. [xt[°]a-h] 'his error'

Following Paster (2005, 2006, this volume), I will refer to this phenomenon as 'phonologically conditioned suppletive allomorphy', or PCSA for short.

A longstanding and unresolved question in phonological and morphological theory is that of how these different kinds of allomorphy are distributed in the grammar. A relatively traditional response—implicitly accepted in some form, I suspect, by most generative linguists—would go like this. There is a module of grammar, which we may call the morphological component, in which non-phonologically-conditoned suppletion like that involving *go* ~ *went* is handled. This component takes abstract morphological structure and consults the list of arbitrary sound-meaning pairs stored in the language's lexicon to decide which collection of sounds is appropriate for expressing which bit of morphological structure. When this is finished, the output of the morphology—a collection of phonological underlying representations—becomes the input a second module of the grammar, which we may call the phonological surface form, which is then passed along to the articulators to be phonetically realized. The second type of allomorphy, like that involving [$_{i}\theta_{\sigma}$.'t^hijn], arises in the phonological component.

So far all this is relatively straightforward, perhaps even banal. The trickier (and thus more interesting) matter, under the standard assumptions just laid out, is that of

where in the grammar PCSA arises. It is this question which the present chapter is concerned with. In the existing literature, three general responses to this question can be identified.

The first answer is that PCSA arises in the phonological component. This view has become widespread since the appearance of Optimality Theory (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]). In parallel Optimality-Theoretic models of phonology, the selection of the surface pronunciation of some form results from considering various candidate pronunciations and determining which best satisfies a set of ranked and violable constraints. It is easy to see the intuitive appeal of treating PCSA in such a framework, since PCSA seems by definition to involve using phonological criteria to choose between competing alternative pronunciations. It is thus not surprising that in the first few years of OT, a number of different researchers (Burzio 1994; Mester 1994; Hargus 1995; Tranel 1995, 1996, 1998; Drachman, Kager, & Malikouti-Drachman 1996; Kager 1996a; Mascaró 1996a,b; Anttila 1997a,b; Dolbey 1997; Hargus & Tuttle 1997; Perlmutter 1998; Plag 1999; Steriade 1999b; Anttila & Revithiadou 2000; Rubach & Booij 2001) proposed OT analyses of PCSA effects in a variety of languages. Many works since these (far too numerous to list) have pursued this same line of analysis.

The second response is that some cases of PCSA happen in the phonology component and others in the morphology component. Lapointe & Sells (1996), Dolbey (1997), and Lapointe (1999) note that there are at least some attested PCSA systems in which typologically-plausible and strictly *phonological* OT constraints are not available which will produce the correct distribution of allomorphs. If PCSA is to be kept in the phonology component, these cases seem to require that the phonological constraints must be augmented with additional constraints which impose preferences which are, from a phonological standpoint, arbitrary (Kager 1996a; Mascaró 2007; Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró 2007; Trommer 2008). An alternative suggestion, put forth by the authors cited at the beginning of this paragraph, is that the cases of PCSA which are not clearly phonologically optimizing are not really part of the phonology at all, but are instead like English *go/went*: they involve arbitrary subcategorization for features of the environment in which each allomorph appears, and it simply happens that some of the features subcategorized for are phonological.

The third response goes further. If some cases of PCSA need to be chalked up to arbitrary preferences imposed by nonphonological constraints, then this seems to vitiate the argument for PCSA ever representing optimization according to phonological criteria. If arbitrary morphological subcategorization frames are needed in order to cope with some cases of PCSA (as well as with nonphonological suppletion like *go~went*), then it is most economical (or so the argument goes) to assign all suppletion to the morphology component. Versions of this position are staked out, notably, by Paster (2005, 2006, this volume), Bye (2007), and Embick (2010).

This paper suggests that a very different response is in order. Perhaps, if there are systems of suppletive allomorphy which show the mixed influence of phonological criteria and morpholexical, nonphonological ones, this is because the two kinds of

criteria are enforced by constraints which belong to a single component of the grammar, meaning that it is unsurprising that they should interact. That is, perhaps there is no crisp dividing line between allomorphy belonging to the morphological module and allomorphy belonging to the phonological module, because these are not in fact separate modules. Instead, I would like to suggest, there is a single module of grammar in which all lexical insertion occurs, along with all phonological operations.¹

The argument is developed as follows. In section 2 I present the structure of the standard approach to PCSA in OT, taking as a central illustration Mascaró's (1996b) analysis of the Moroccan Arabic example mentioned above. Having seen how this mode of analysis works, we will then consider a well-known case in which arbitrary preferences seem to be required, namely that of the Ergative suffix in the Pama-Nyungan language Dyirbal. Section 3 lays out an analysis of the Dyirbal facts cast within a theoretical framework which assumes that phonology and lexical insertion occupy a single module of grammar. One advantage of this approach over one which relegates all PCSA to the morphology is that it makes possible a more satisfactory treatment of conspiracies (Kisseberth 1970) between PCSA and phonological alternations or phonotactic restrictions of the same language (Kiparsky 1972; Tranel 1995; González 2005; Itô & Mester 2006; Alber to appear). This argument is developed in section 4. Section 5 discusses some additional types of interactions between phonological and morphological constraints which are expected if the two constraints belong to the same component and are freely re-rankable with respect to one another. Section 6 gives a concluding summary and examines some potential lines of future work in the research program argued for in this chapter.

2. PCSA as phonological optimization: The standard treatment, and its limits

The idea that PCSA occurs in the phonological component has been implemented in a variety of different ways, but to the extent that a 'standard' implementation of this idea exists, it is probably the one presented by Mascaró (1996a,b). The analysis of the Moroccan Arabic 3^{rd} person masculine singular possessive/direct object enclitic in Mascaró (1996b) assumes that this morpheme has two underlying forms, /-u/ and /-h/², and that the following convention (originally stated in explict form in Mascaró 1996a) is applicable in such cases:

(2) For a lexical item L such that Φ = a, b: Eval(Gen (a, b)) = Eval(Gen(a) \cup Gen(b))

That is: when a morph L's phonological representation Φ consists of two underlying forms *a* and *b*, the candidate set evaluated when L is in the input is defined as the union

¹ Diana Apoussidou has pointed out to me that—aside from matters of 'allomorphy' as such—one could argue for this same conclusion by pointing to the act of composing verse, which appears by definition to involve lexical selection making reference to the phonological properties of the words chosen.

 $^{^{2}}$ The idea of a morpheme as having more than one UR—or, somewhat differently put, of the UR as a set of allomorphic alternants—has its roots in work by Hudson (1974) and Hooper (1976).

of two candidate sets: Gen(a), the candidate set produced with just a in the input, and Gen(b), the candidate set produced with just b in the input³. When some morphs in the input have multiple underlying forms, candidates thus differ not only in what surface form they contain, but also in which underlying form they select for those morphemes which have multiple disjunctive URs.

When the Moroccan Arabic 3^{rd} person masculine singular enclitic is added to a vowel-final base, a candidate using the /-h/ allomorph will win, provided that having an onsetless syllable, as using /-u/ would give rise to, is less serious a problem than having a coda in the word-final syllable, as using /-h/ would give rise to. Mascaró's (1996b) analysis expresses this idea via the OT constraint ranking ONSET » NOCODA:

(3)			
/xt ^s a - {h, 1	u}/	Onset	NoCoda
Inputs:	Outputs:		
/xt ^s a-h/	a. ☞ [xt ^s ah]		1
/xt ^s a-u/	b. [xt ^s a.u]	W1	L

For consonant-final bases, the same ranking will result in the selection of a candidate that uses /-u/:

(4)
(1	/

/ktab – {h, u}/		Onset	NoCoda
Inputs:	Outputs:		
/ktab-u/	a. 🖙 [kta.bu]		
/ktab-h/	b. [ktabh]		W1

Let us now consider the general requirements that must hold for an instance of PCSA to be analyzable under these assumptions. Suppose that a morpheme is realized, depending on its context, by one of two listed allomorphs *X* and *Y*, which appear respectively in the phonological contexts A_B and C_D. If the choice between *X* and *Y* is made by an OT grammar in the manner illustrated for Moroccan Arabic, then two things must be the case:

(5) a. Some (markedness) constraint M_1 that exerts the preference AXB > AYB must dominate all constraints that exert the preference AYB > AXB.

b. Some other (markedness) constraint M_2 that exerts the preference CYD \succ

CXD must dominate all constraints that exert the preference $CXD \succ CYD$.

These requirements result directly from the basic logic of constraint ranking in OT. For a pair of competing options like AXB and AYB, the highest-ranked constraint which prefers one over the other must prefer AXB, since otherwise unattested *AYB would be

³ An essentially identical formulation is also put forth by Perlmutter (1998: 319).

chosen instead.⁴ In some allmorphy systems, like $/-h/ \sim /-u/$ in Moroccan Arabic, it is easy to find the required M_1 and M_2 among markedness constraints which are well motivated by phonological typology. In Mascaró's (1996b) analysis of Moroccan Arabic depicted in (1)-(2), for instance, we can call on standard, widely-used, not-especiallycontroversial constraints like ONSET and NOCODA.

For other allomorphy systems, it is not apparent that the required M_1 and M_2 can be found. The system that arises most frequently in discussions of this issue (McCarthy & Prince 1990, 1993a: ch. 7; Bonet 2004; McCarthy & Wolf 2005; Paster 2005, 2006, this volume; Bye 2007; Trommer 2008) involves the marking of Ergative case on vowel-final stems in the Pama-Nyungan language Dyirbal (Dixon 1972)⁵:

 (6) Dyirbal ergative jara-ŋku 'man-erg' jamani-ku 'rainbow-erg' palakara-ku 'they-erg'

As the data illustrate, disyllabic vowel-final stems are suffixed with /ŋku/ in the Ergative, while longer stems are suffixed with /ku/.⁶ (Stems ending in a nasal or [j] mark the Ergative with [Tu], where [T] is a stop homo-organic with the stem-final consonant; with stems ending in a liquid, the final liquid is deleted, and the Ergative is marked with [-ru].) It is reasonably clear that there will be constraints that prefer /ku/ over /ŋku/, regardless of context, since the nasals, velars, and consonant clusters are all marked. However, given that /ku/ and /ŋku/ resemble each other so much, it is not so obvious that we would be able to find a typologically-plausible universal constraint which could prefer /ŋku/ over /ku/ just in case the stem was disyllabic.

If we can't, then it seems that in addition to substantively phonological preferences among allomorphs like those imposed by constraints like ONSET and NOCODA, at least some cases of PCSA require a role for *arbitrary* preferences among allomorphs, in the Dyirbal case in favor of /-ŋku/. Some authors have retained the same sort of OT framework illustrated for Moroccan Arabic while adding constraints that impose arbitrary, lexically-specified preferences (Kager 1996a; Kenstowicz 2005; Mascaró 2007; Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró 2007). Others have drawn a different lesson, concluding that if PCSA cannot be adequately treated without recourse to arbitrary preferences, there is nothing conceptually gained by treating PCSA as involving phonological optimization at all (Paster 2005, 2006, this volume; Bye 2007; Embick

 $^{^4}$ See Prince (2002, 2003) for formal discussion in relation to this. The formulation that the highest-ranked constraint which distinguishes between a winning and a losing candidate must prefer the winner is originally due to Jane Grimshaw.

⁵ Dyirbal has a single (voiceless unaspirated) stop series; to represent these I use IPA [p t k ...] rather than [b d g...] as used by Dixon (1972) and others. Similarly, I use [j] rather than [y] to represent the glide used in Dyirbal.

 $^{^{6}}$ In their study of Dyirbal song, Dixon & Koch (1996: 44) report finding one instance of the /-ŋku/ allomorph being used with a trisyllabic base. They suggest that this may be an archaism, reflecting an earlier stage (retained in other Australian languages) where the /-ŋku/ form was used with all vowel-final stems.

2010). That is, the preference-relations among allomorphs which have been understood as being exercised by substantively phonological constraints could be replaced by arbitrary statements expressing the same preferences. In this way, non-phonological selection criteria would do all the work, and there would be no need to have both phonological and morpholexical constraints on allomorph selection.

As mentioned, this chapter will argue for a quite different conclusion: that allomorph selection is governed by both phonological and morphological constraints, and that these constraints occupy one and the same OT grammar and are freely rerankable with respect to one another. The next section presents the assumptions of the framework being argued for here.

3. Optimal Interleaving theory and its treatment of arbitrary preference in allomorph selection

The framework for which I will argue here is one which I call Optimal Interleaving, or OI for short, the proposal for which is originally put forth in Wolf (2008). This framework, in brief assumes (a) a realizational view of morphology, and (b) that morphological realization occurs together with phonology in a single OT-CC (McCarthy 2007) or Harmonic-Serialist (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]: §5.2.3.3) grammar. This section lays out these assumptions in more detail.

3.1 Realizational morphology

Stump (2001) presents a taxonomy of morphological theories which distinguishes between *incremental* theories and *realizational* ones. In an incremental theory, morphemes are regarded as meaningful collections of phonological material, which are assembled together to make words. That is, the construction of the abstract semantico-syntactic structure of words and the construction of the words' (underlying) phonological form proceed hand-in-hand. On the other hand, *realizational* theories⁷ assume that a purely abstract morphological structure is built first, and then at a later step, this structure is 'realized' or 'spelled out' by associating units of the abstract structure with collections of phonological material. Rules or constraints of one sort or another, depending on the realizational theory being assumed, are responsible for dictating which abstract morphological features can be (arbitrarily) paired with which collections of phonological structure.

On a realizational view, the derivation of the English word *cats* will proceed something like this: first an abstract structure which we may represent as |CAT+PLURAL|is built. The process of spell-out then associates the abstract unit |CAT| with the underlying phonological string /kæt/ and |PLURAL| with the underlying string /z/. The collection of underlying forms /kætz/ then undergoes voicing assimilation and other phonological rules to yield the surface form [kæts]. Within this general picture, there is substantial room for disagreement, for instance with regard to the extent to which

⁷ The terms 'separationist' (Beard 1995) and 'late insertion' used as descriptors of morphological theories mean essentially the same thing as 'realizational', in the sense of that term being used here.

words do or don't contain internal syntax-like structure organizing their abstract features; Distributed Morphology (Halle & Marantz 1993) and A-Morphous Morphology (Anderson 1992) are prominent realizational theories which take markedly different positions on this issue. In this paper, I will attempt to remain agnostic about such issues to the extent possible, focusing instead on arguments for a realizational perspective in general, and in particular on reasons to suspect that morphological realization takes place in the same grammatical module as the phonology. I will use the term "morpheme" to refer to structures at the abstract level of morphological structure and the term "morph" to refer to the bundles of phonological material which are used to spell out morphemes (i.e., what is known in Distributed Morphology as a "vocabulary item"). My use of the term "morpheme" in this way should not be taken as indicating disagreement with frameworks like A-Morphous Morphology which reject the classical morpheme; rather, it should be taken as referring to any structural positions or layers within the abstract representation of a word which are smaller than the whole word but (potentially) larger than an individual morphosyntactic feature.

While this paper is mainly concerned with pencil-and-paper theoretical arguments, it is worth noting that several lines of experimental evidence suggest that a realizational view of morphology is correct. Results involving speech errors (Pfau 2000; see also Albright 2007 for discussion), anomic aphasia (Henaff Gonon et al. 1989; Hittmair-Delazer et al. 1994; Badecker et al. 1995; Semenza et al. 1997), tip-of-the-tongue states (Levelt 1993; Caramazza & Miozzo 1997; Vigliocco et al. 1997), and lateralized readiness potentials using a go/no-go paradigm (van Turrenout et al. 1997, 1998; Rodriguez-Fornells et al. 2002; Jescheniak et al. 2003; Guo & Peng 2007; cf. Abdel Rahman & Sommer 2003; Friedmann & Biran 2003) have all been cited as evidence in favor of the psychological reality of a level of representation—and perhaps even an actual temporal stage in on-line processing—in which the semantic and morpho-syntactic features of a word are present, but in which the word's phonological properties have not yet been introduced. In psycholinguistic models which incorporate a distinction between 'lemmas' and 'lexemes' (e.g. Levelt 1989, 1993; Levelt et al. 1999), these notions roughly correspond to those of 'morphemes' and 'morphs', as the latter two terms are used in this chapter.

On the theoretical side, we can identify at least two arguments in favor of a realizational view. First, it is generally assumed that it is only the abstract morphological structures, and not their spell-outs, which are built in or interact with syntax; spell-out, in derivational terms, occurs after syntax is done. This predicts that the syntax will be insensitive to the phonological composition of words, which seems to be right⁸; this prediction is dubbed 'Feature Disjointness' in Distributed Morphology (Marantz 1995), and similar empirical conclusions are argued for (though from a standpoint quite different from DM's) under the rubric of the Principle of Phonology-

⁸ A similar argument can be made regarding purely morphological diacritic features, such as markers of declension-class membership, if we assume that such features inhere not in root morphemes, but instead in the morphs that realize them; see Acquaviva (2008: 13) for discussion of this point.

Free Syntax (Zwicky 1969; Zwicky & Pullum 1986a,b, 1988; Miller, Pullum & Zwicky 1992, 1997)⁹.

The other argument in favor of a realizational view is that it permits us to analyze at least some morphological syncretisms without having to resort to accidental homophony. A straightforward illustration involves adjective inflection in Dutch (Saulerland 1995). Neuter singular strong adjectives have no overt inflectional ending; strong adjectives of other numbers-gender combinations carry an ending /-ə/:

	[+neuter]	[-neuter]
[+plural]	-9	-9
[-plural]	Ø	-9

(7) Number/gender endings in Dutch strong adjectives

On an incremental view of morphology, this would require us to posit three accidentally-homophonous /-ə/ suffixes, with the meanings "neuter plural", "non-neuter plural", and "non-neuter singular". This is because in an incremental theory, morphological features inhere in and are introduced by the formatives which represent them, and so the observed formatives must carry all of the features which are possessed by the word which they appear in. Realizational theories are different, because while all the required dimensions of morphosyntactic feature contrast exist at the level of abstract morphological structure, it is possible that some of these contrasts may be neutralized in the mapping from morphmes to morphs—that is, a single morph of the language may be used to express multiple distinct morphemes.

Following Sauerland (1995)'s Distributed Morphology analysis, in a rule-based realizational framework we might set up the following two rules for Dutch:

- (8) a. Spell out the inflectional ending as $/\emptyset/$ if it contains the features [-plural, +neuter].
 - b. Spell out the inflectional ending as $/-\partial/$.

Since rule (8a) is applicable in a proper subset of the places where rule (8b) is, the rules will effectively apply in the order shown if they are disjunctively ordered in accordance with the Elsewhere Condition (Kiparsky 1973). In other words, the null form of the inflectional ending is the default, but when the feature-combination required for the use of this form is absent, the elsewhere form $/-\partial/$ is used instead.

In Distributed Morphology, such default/elsewhere relationships between morphs (or "vocabulary items" in DM parlance) is generally taken to be expressed via the Subset Principle (Halle 1997):

⁹ However, see Teeple (2006, 2008a,b) for arguments involving French determiners and prepositions that syntax must be integrated with phonology and morphological spell-out in a single, fully parallel grammar.

(9) Subset Principle

The phonological exponent of a Vocabulary item is inserted into a morpheme in the terminal string if the item matches all or a subset of the grammatical features specified in the terminal morpheme. Insertion does not take place if the vocabulary item contains features not present in the morpheme. Where several Vocabulary items meet the conditions for insertion, the item matching the greatest number of features specified in the terminal morpheme must be chosen.

On this view, morphs (vocabulary items) can be thought of as ordered pairs consisting of a bundle of morphological features and a bundle of phonological material. When determining which morph to pair up with a particular morpheme, the grammar compares the features of the morpheme with the features of each morph in the language's lexicon. The morph which is chosen is the one which matches the greatest number of the features present in the abstract morpheme, provided that the morph does not contain any features which the morpheme lacks. Expressed in these terms, we can set up the following two morphs for Dutch (Sauerland 1995):

(10) a. <[-plural, +neuter], Ø> b. <Ø, /ə/>

Couched in these theoretical terms, the default status of the phonologically-null morph is a consequence of the fact that its bundle of morphological features contains a proper superset of the morphological features of the /-ə/ morph. In a short while, we will see that a similar mode of analysis can be called on in order to implement the required arbitrary preference among the competing allomorphs of the Dyirbal Ergative. The main architectural innovation this will require, naturally, is that constraints on the goodness of feature-matching in morphological spell-out must be able to interact with phonological constraints. Before addressing either the Dyirbal Ergative or these broader theoretical questions, though, we need to consider how a Subset-Principle-like mechanism of morph selection could be set up using OT constraints.

3.2 Constraints on morpheme-morph correspondence

Let us suppose, in keeping with the general hypothesis advanced in this paper, that the input to the phonology consists of an abstract morphological structure.¹⁰ Let us assume that the abstract representation consists of a set of nodes called *morphemes*, and that individual morphosyntactic features are autosegmental dependents of these nodes. (In principle the features might not be direct dependents of morphemes, but instead arranged in a more elaborate multi-layered feature geometry, as in Harley & Ritter [1998]). To the extent possible, I will try to remain agnostic regarding what kind of superordinate structure the morphemes themselves may be organized into (e.g. whether the morphemes are terminal nodes of a syntactic tree, or slots in a

¹⁰ Zuraw (2000) makes the same assumption; she refers to the abstract semantic/morphosyntactic structure that forms the input to the phonology as the *intent*. That the input to the phonology may contain some not-yet-spelled-out morphosyntactic features is also proposed by Yip (1998).

morphological template, or something else.) Following Trommer (2001), I will refer to a morpheme together with its dependent morphological features as a *feature structure*, or FS.

As before, let us suppose that a language's lexicon contains a list of *morphs*, and that morphs are ordered pairs consisting of an FS and an underlying phonological material. Under these assumptions, a candidate in the phonology will consist of:

A set of morphs;
A surface phonological representation;
An input-output Correspondence relation (McCarthy & Prince 1995, 1999) between the surface phonological representation and the underlying phonological representations contained in the morphs;
A Correspondence relation between the FSes of the morphs and the FSes of the morphemes in the input. (Call this the MM correspondence relation.)

For the English word *cats*, the winning candidate will then look something like this (coindexation indicates that two elements stand in Correspondence with one another; to emphasize the existence of distinct Correspondence relations, Greek letters indicate MM correspondence, and Arabic numerals indicate IO correspondence):

(11)		
input	morphs	surface
		form
CAT_{α} -PLURAL _{β}	$<_{CAT_{\alpha}}, /k_1 a_2 t_3 />, <_{PLURAL_{\beta}}, /-z_6 />$	$[\mathbf{k}_1 \mathbf{a}_2 \mathbf{t}_3 \mathbf{s}_4]$

Similar assumptions about the nature of candidates can be found in Zuraw (2000) and Walker & Feng (2004), as well as in much recent work in the Bidrectional Phonology and Phonetics program making use of 'lexical' or 'M-Phon' constraints, including Boersma (2001, 2006), Escudero (2005), Apoussidou (2007), Jesney (2009), Jesney, Pater & Staubs (2010), and Hamann, Apoussidou & Boersma (to appear).¹¹

As in standard OT, phonological markedness constraints will evaluate the surface phonological representation, and phonological IO-faithfulness constraints will evaluate the Correspondence relation between the underlying and surface phonological structures. One thing which will be new is that there will be faithfulness constraints on the morpheme-morph dimension of Correspondence which assess the 'goodness of fit' between the input FSes and the FSes of the morphs employed in a given candidate.

Let us now return DM's Subset Principle. Given the assumptions and terminology just laid out, we can rephrase the Subset Principle as follows:

 $^{^{11}}$ A related proposal also appears in Eisenstat (2009). See also the works cited in footnotes 12 and 13 for Correspondence-theoretic approaches to morphological selection (though which do not necessarily take the view that spell-out and phonology are in the same module of the grammar).

(12) a. If F is a feature-structure of a morpheme and F' is a feature structure of a morph that it corresponds to, F' must not contain any features which are not present in F.

b. If F is a feature-structure of a morpheme and F' is a feature-structure of a morph that it corresponds to, F' must contain as many of F's features as possible.

c. In case of conflict between them, satisfying requirement (a) takes priority over satisfying requirement (b). However, requirement (b) must still be satisfied to the fullest extent possible, without violating requirement (a).

Once it's rephrased in this way, it becomes clearer that the Subset Principle contains a kind of implicit OT-type constraint ranking: constraint (12a) dominates (12b). That ranking means that (12a) will be obeyed in case of conflict, but even then (12b) is satisfied to the fullest extent that it can be. The minimal violation of disobeyed constraints forms the core argument for OT's assumption that constraints are ranked, rather than being parameterized as on or off (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]; see also McCarthy & Prince's [1994] discussion of The Emergence of the Unmarked, which is a subcase of this minimal-violation effect). Therefore, it seems fruitful to reformulate (12a-b) as OT constraints.

Requirement (12a) can be stated as a constraint of the DEP family, which on the IO dimension of correspondence serve to militate against epenthesis¹²: the introduction of items in the output representation which lack correspondents in the input representation. Specifically, let us assume that for every morphosyntactic feature F, there is a constraint of the following form¹³:

(13) DEP-M(F) Let π' be an instance of the feature F at the morph level. Assign one violation-mark if there does not exist some π at the morpheme level, such that π and π' stand in MM-correspondence.

In addition to the DEM-M constraints for features, there will also presumably be DEP-M(FS) constraints, requiring that every feature structure at the morph level have a corresponding FS at the morpheme level.

Similarly, requirement (12b) can be stated as a constraint of the MAX family, which in IO correspondence militate against deletion: the presence of items in the

 $^{^{\}rm 12}$ See also Gouskova (2007) for discussion of other roles played by DEP constraints on various dimensions of correspondence.

¹³ A non-exhaustive list of similar constraints in OT treatments of morphology includes Curnow's (1999) IDENT constraints, Ackema & Neeleman's (2004, 2005) FAITHFULNESS, and Wunderlich's (2001) IDENT constraints, Xu (2007) DEP constraints, and Aronoff & Xu's (to appear b) IDENT constraints.

input which lack correspondents in the output. On the MM dimension of Correspondence there will exist constraints of the following form for every feature F (as well as for FSes)¹⁴:

(14) MAX-M(F) Let π be an instance of the feature F at the morpheme level. Assign one violation-mark if there does not exist some π' at the morph level, such that π and π' stand in MM-correspondence.

To show these constraints put to analytic use, let's return for one last time to the Dutch example. Recall that the two morphs we posited were:

(15) a. <[-plural, +neuter], Ø> b. <Ø, /∂/>

When the morpheme containing an adjective's inflectional features has any person/number feature combination besides [-plural, +neuter], it will be the $\langle \emptyset, / \partial \rangle$ allomorph which is used. This creates a conflict between DEP-M and MAX-M constraints for feature-combinations like [+plural, +neuter] and [-plural, -neuter]. For the latter of these, the question is, is it more important to give a correspondent to the morpheme's [-plural] feature or to avoid using a morph containing a token of [+neuter] which isn't present at the morpheme level? The attested result follows if DEP-M(+neuter) outranks MAX-M(-plural):

(16)		
FS _α	DEP-M(+neuter)	MAX-M(-plural)
/ \		
$[-plural]_{\beta}[-neuter]_{\gamma}$		
\mathbb{I} $\mathbb{F}S_{\alpha}$		1
$/ \partial_1 / [\partial_1]$		
$ FS_{\alpha} $	W1	L
/ \		
$[-plural]_{\beta}$ [+neuter] _{δ}		
(no phonological material)		

By an exactly analogous argument, DEP-M(-plural) must outrank MAX-M(+neuter) in order to get the $/\partial/$ morph to win with adjectives which are [+plural, +neuter].¹⁵

¹⁴ A non-exhaustive list of similar constraints includes Noyer's (1993) PARSE-PROPERTY, Bonet's (1994) ELSEWHERE, Kiparsky's (1997) MAX-CAT and (2005) EXPRESSIVENESS, Donohue's (1998) PARSE constraints, Curnow's (1999) MAX and IDENT constraints, Selkirk's (2001) REALIZE constraints, Trommer's (2001) PARSE constraints, Wunderlich's (2000, 2001, 2003) MAX constraints, Ackema & Neeleman's (2004, 2005) PARSE, Teeple's (2006, 2008a,b) FAITH-SM and EXPRESSIVENESS, Strigin's (2007) MAX-STRUCT, Xu (2007) MAX constraints, and Aronoff & Xu's (to appear b) IDENT constraints.

3.3 Harmonic Serialism

The original OI proposal in Wolf (2008) is cast within an OT architecture called OT with Candidate Chains (McCarthy 2007). In OT-CC, each candidate is (approximately) a chain of successively more harmonic forms, each differing from the last via only by one of some hypothesized set of minimal changes. OT-CC is an elaboration on Harmonic Serialism (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]: §5.2.3.3) designed to cope with counterfeeding and counterbleeding opacity. However, OI's premise that morphological spell-out occurs in the phonology can also be implemented in plain Harmonic Serialism (see for instance Kimper [2009] and McCarthy [to appear/2011]), which for many phenomena supplies as much derivational machinery as we need. For greater ease of exposition, I will therefore assume an HS version of OI in the present paper.

Harmonic Serialism involves repeated and gradual looping through the same OT grammar, which can be given the following informal pseudo-algorithmic description:

1. Set *CurrentInput* to be the original input to the grammar.

2. Construct a candidate set consisting of (a) a fully-faithful candidate identical to *CurrentInput*, and (b) all candidates which can be formed from *CurrentInput* by performing one of a specified set of basic operations.

3. Find the optimum of this candidate set.

4. If the optimum is the fully-faithful candidate, exit; the derivation has converged, and the optimum becomes the output of the grammar.

5. If the optimum is not the fully-faithful candidate, then a new loop begins. Set *CurrentInput* to be the optimum just found, and return to step 2.

HS thus differs from standard OT not only in the repeated looping through GEN and EVAL until convergence, but also in imposing a limit on how much the candidates which compete on each optimization can differ from the input. The HS architecture does not entail in and of itself any particular assumptions about what are the "basic operations" by which candidates can differ from the input. As such, a major (perhaps *the* major) topic of research in HS is to explore the implications of various hypotheses about what those operations are.¹⁶ OI advances the hypothesis that the insertion of any one morph from the language's lexicon, and the placing of this morph in correspondence with the abstract morphological structure, is a single basic operation.

¹⁵ As an alternative (or perhaps in addition) to using faithfulness constraints to regulate morpheme/morph correspondents, it would be possible to propose constraints which directly stated "morphosyntactic feature *F* should be realized by underlying form *U*". The 'lexical' constraints of Bidirectional Phonology and Phonetics (see references below (11)) and the realization constraints of Realization OT (Xu 2007, Aronoff & Xu to appear a,b) work this way. Constraints of the same form appear in several works in the OT literature on PCSA systems requiring arbitrary preference, for instance Kager (1996a).

¹⁶ An extensive bibliography of recent works in or about HS and OT-CC is available from <u>http://works.bepress.com/john_j_mccarthy/102/</u>.

3.4 Analysis of the Dyirbal Ergative

In Dyirbal, the competing ergative morphs $/-\eta ku/$ and /-ku/ stand in a specialgeneral relationship: $/\eta ku/$ appears in one specific context (after a disyllabic stem), and /ku/ appears elsewhere. In this case, the context of the special morph is phonologically defined.

As we have already seen, special-general relations of the same sort also exist in systems of suppletive allomorphy in which there is no evidence of phonological conditioning. The inflection of Dutch strong adjectives discussed earlier in this chapter is just such an example: null inflection is used with neuter singular adjectives (the special case) and $/-\partial/$ is used otherwise (the general case).

In order for the general case to emerge, the preference for the special case has to be overruled in certain contexts. In OT terms, this means that in the contexts where the general case appears, the relevant MAX-M(F) constraints are dominated by a constraint which, in just those contexts, prefers the use of the general case over the use of the special case. As we saw in (15), in the case of Dutch, the relevant constraints are DEP-M(+neuter) and DEP-M(-plural).

For Dyirbal, the analytic strategy will be the same. The arbitrary preference for $/\eta$ ku/ over /ku/ can be derived from the assumption that $/\eta$ ku/ spells out more features than /ku/ does. The main difference between Dutch and Dyribal will be in the nature of the constraint that dominates MAX-M(F) and which triggers use of the general case. For Dutch, these were morpheme/morph faithfulness constraints, but for Dyirbal, the constraint will have to involve phonology, since a phonological generalization is at work.

In order to justify the particular assumptions that I'll make about the morphosyntax of /ŋku/ and /ku/, we need to consider one further fact about the Dyirbal case system. This is that Locative case shows a pattern of allomorphy which is identical to that of that of the Ergative, except that the Locative has [a] where the Ergative has [u]. So, among V-final stems, disyllabic stems take [ŋka] in the Locative, whereas longer stems take [ka] (Dixon 1972):

(17)	jara-ŋka	'man-loc'
	jamani-ka	'rainbow-loc'

That there should be this kind of partial syncretism between the Ergative and Locative is unsurprising in light of proposals about case features. Specifically, Halle & Vaux (1998) have proposed that Ergative and Locative share a feature [-free], which designates 'nominals with a consistent role in argument structure.' The other two cases which have this feature under Halle & Vaux's proposal are Instrumental (whose phonological realization is identical to that of Ergative in Dyirbal) and Accusative, which Dyirbal doesn't have. $^{^{17,18}}$

We can therefore make the following generalization about Dyirbal:

(18) a. The feature [-free] is marked by $/\eta$ on disyllabic roots, but receives no overt phonological realization with longer roots.

b. In the [-free] cases, the other case features besides [-free] may be spelled out by other morphs, i.e. /ku/ in the Ergative and Instrumental or /ka/ in the Locative.

The idea that the apparent /-ŋku/ allomorph is in fact two suffixes /-ŋ/ and /-ku/ is independently proposed by Trommer (2008) in the service of a proposal about the phonological basis for the /-ŋ/ appearing only with disyllabic bases. His proposal is cast within Stratal OT (e.g. Kiparsky 2000, among many others), and assumes that /-ŋ/ is a stem-level extension while /-ku/, the Ergative marker proper, is a word-level affix. He proposes that, at the stem level, the competing allomorphs of the stem extension are /-ŋ/ and Ø. The default allomorph is /-ŋ/, enforced in Trommer's (2008) analysis by an arbitrary-preference constraint Ext=g. The null allomorph is used instead with greater-than-disyllabic bases because Ext=g is outranked by a markedness constraint which is lexically indexed to the /-ŋ/ allomorph:

PWD=BINFT
 Assign one violation mark for every prosodic word which is larger than a single binary foot in size.

Trommer (2008) assumes a slightly modified version of the convention proposed by Pater (2007, 2009) for interpreting lexically-indexed markedness constraints:

(20) $*X_L$: Assign one violation mark to any instance of X which that contains a phonological exponent of an allomorph specified as L.

Under this convention, the indexed markedness constraint $PWD=BINFT_{\eta}$ will assign a violation-mark to any PWd which contains the /-ŋ/ allomorph of the stem extension *and* is larger than a single bisyllabic foot in size. It therefore provides a disincentive for the use of the /-ŋ/ allomorph on a base that is three or more syllables long:

¹⁷ Superficially, Dyirbal has a nominative-ergative system in nouns but a nominative-accusative system in pronouns. However, Dixon (1972: §5.2) argues that the pronouns too underlyingly pattern as nominative-ergative. In any case, if accusative case does exist in Dyirbal, it and its morphosyntactic exponence is limited to a closed class of forms (the pronouns) and can probably be safely ignored when advancing a proposal about the phonological exponence of the case feature [-free].

¹⁸ For an account of the gradual collapsing together of the various allomorphs of the Ergative and Locative by younger Dyirbal speakers as the language dies out, see Schmidt (1985: ch. 4). She finds that "reduction in the range of locative allomorphs operates on the same principles as ergative allomorph reduction" (p. 52).

(21)	Stem level: /-n/	blocked with trisvllabic stem
()		

/jamani-{-ŋ, Ø}/	$PWD=BINFT_{\eta}$	Ехт=ŋ
☞ [('ja.ma) _{Ft} .ni] _{PWd}		1
[('ja.ma) _{Ft} .niŋ] _{PWd}	W1	L

For a bisyllabic root like /jara/, the default $/-\eta$ / allomorph will be selected at the stem level, since no violation of PWD=BINFT_n will result:

(22)Stem level: $/-\eta$ chosen with disyllabic stem

/jara-{ŋ, Ø}/	PWD=BINFT _η	Ext=ŋ
IS [('ja.raŋ) _{Ft}] _{PWd}		
[('ja.ra) _{Ft}] _{PWd}		W1

The stem $[(ja.ran)_{rt}]_{PWd}$ will subsequently receive the Ergative suffix/-ku/ in the Word-level morphology, creating a new violation of PWD=BINFT_n. This, however, will be tolerated, provided that the anti-deletion constraint MAX is too highly ranked to permit trimming the word down to disyllabic size, or deleting the $/-\eta$ to render PWD=BINFT_n inapplicable:

(23) Word level: /-ku/ added					
[('ja.raŋ) _{Ft}] _{PWd} -ku	Max	$PWD=BINFT_{\eta}$	Ext=ŋ		
☞ [('ja.ṟaŋ) _{Ft} ku] _{PWd}		1			
[('ja.raŋ) _{Ft}] _{PWd}	W1	L			
[('ja.ra) _{Ft} ku] _{PWd}	W2	L			

On this analysis, there is a straightforward markedness basis for the preference for $/-\eta$ over null, but the basis of choice is not obviously apparent from the surface because the $/-\eta$ / vs. null choice at the stem level is rendered opaque by subsequent affixation at the word level. In what follows, I will show that this analysis can be translated into the premises of OI theory via (a) attributing the arbitrary preference for $/-\eta$ to MAX-M(-free) and (b) implementing the opaque character of the system in HS rather than in Stratal OT.

Before showing the analysis, one bit of preview on the phonological constraints to be employed. As in most previous analyses of the Dyirbal Ergative (and indeed as with most phonological analyses of syllable-counting PCSA), the constraint lying behind the non-use of /-ŋ/ with longer than disyllabic stems will be one involving foot structure. Dyirbal has left-to-right trochaic stress (Dixon 1972: §7.2.2; McCarthy & Prince 1990): the initial syllable and all non-final odd-numbered syllables get stress. Dixon (1972: 275) reports that there are no phonetic differences between stressed syllables that would permit us to identify one particular stressed syllable in the word as the bearer of primary stress. However, he says so after mentioning that one could conceivably posit that the initial syllable bore primary stress. (Dixon himself rejects this as "a mere analytic ploy", due to the just-mentioned lack of phonetic distinctions between degrees of stress.) The basis for this possibility is that there are a number of morphemes in Dyirbal (not just the Ergative) which show one allomorph with twosyllable bases and a different allomorph with longer bases. Transitive verbalizations of nouns (Dixon 1972: 86) are formed by adding /-mal/ to a two-syllable stem, and /-(m)bal/ to a longer stem. Second, reflexive forms of [j]-final verbs are formed by adding /-máriy/ to disyllabic stems, and /-(m)báriy/ to longer stems. These alternations can be seen as conditioned by the affix's proximity to the initial stress. There are other allomorphic processes which refer to proximity to *any* stress (e.g. the reflexives of [l]-final roots: Dixon 1972, p. 89), but there are no allomorphic alternations which are conditioned by proximity to any particular non-initial stress (to the exclusion of other stresses). This might be seen as evidence that all word-initial stresses in Dyirbal have a property which no medial stresses have. If that's right, the obvious candidate for this property is that initial stresses are primary stresses, while medial stresses are all secondary.

Assuming that primary stress in Dyirbal is indeed word-initial, we may attribute the blocking of $/-\eta/$ -affixation on greater-than-disyllabic stems to the following constraint:

(24) COINCIDE(\mathfrak{y} , head ft)_{\mathfrak{y}}

Assign one violation-mark for every instance of the segment $/-\eta$ / which is not in the head foot. [Due to indexed nature of constraint, only evaluate instances of $/-\eta$ / which belong to the morph that spells out the feature [-free].]

This constraint is a member of the COINCIDE family of positional markedness constraints introduced by Zoll (1998). These constraints impose requirements to the effect that marked structures are allowed only when affiliated with certain prominent positions. In the present case, this constraint will discourage introducing an [-ŋ] if that segment would not fall in the head foot, which by hypothesis is coextensive in Dyirbal with the first two syllables of a word. This requirement, it can be noted, is quite similar to the restriction in Guugu Yimidhirr (Haviland 1979; Kager 1996b) that long vowels are permitted only in the first two syllables of a word; it is this pattern which is one of the empirical bases upon which Zoll (1998) argues for the existence of licensing constraints like (23).

Now, to see how the analysis of Dyirbal works, let us begin by considering the derivation of [jaṟaŋku], 'man-ERGATIVE'. I will assume that the input to the phonology for this word contains two abstract morphemes: a root morpheme MAN, and a Case morpheme having as its dependents the features [-free, -oblique, +structural, +superior] (i.e., the full composition of Ergative case in the theory of case features in Halle & Vaux [1998]). I will assume that the insertion of any one morph from the language's lexicon can occur as a single step in the Harmonic-Serialist derivation. Additionally, I will assume that the construction of prosodic structure—syllables and feet, for present purposes—can occur simultaneously with any operation that occurs on a single step. This will simplify the current presentation, and is not intended to take a definitive stance on the extent to which prosodification operations are or are not steps in their

own right in HS derivations; see the conclusion for some discussion of this still very much open issue with regard to PCSA.

Supposing that MAX-M(root) is undominated in Dyirbal, the first thing to occur will be the insertion of the root morph /jara/. (For visual simplicity in the tableaux illustrating the analysis of Dyirbal, I will depict direct co-indexation between phonological surface forms and the FSes of the input; it should be understood that the link between these two representations is mediated by MM-correspondence between the morpheme and morph levels, and by IO-correspondence between the phonological surface form).:

(25)							
MAN ₁ -	Max-M	Max-IO	COINCIDE	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3,$	(root)	(seg)	(ŋ,	(-free)	(-obl)	(+struc)	(+sup)
$+$ str ₄ , $+$ sup ₅ $\}$		_	head				_
_		1 1 1	ft) _ŋ			, , , ,	
MAN ₁ -				1	1	1	1
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3,$						1 1 1	
$+\text{str}_4, +\text{sup}_5\}$						1 1	
						1 1 1	
[(jara ₁) _{Ft}] _{PWd}						1 1 1	
MAN ₁ -	W1			L	1	1	1
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$, , , ,	
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }						1 1 1 1	
						1 1 1	
\mathfrak{y}_2							
MAN ₁ -	W1	1 1 1		1	L	L	L
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	
$+$ str ₄ , +sup ₅ }						1 1 1	
						1 1	
ku _{3,4,5}						1 1 1 1	
MAN ₁ -	W1			1	1	1	1
$\{-tr_2, -obl_3, \dots\}$		1 1 1				, , , ,	
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }		1 1 1				1 1 1	

On the second pass, our choices are either to insert /-ŋ/, whose feature structure contains the feature [-free], or to insert /-ku/, whose feature structure contains [-oblique, +structural, +superior]. Assuming that MAX-M(-free) is higher ranked than the MAX-M constraints for the other three features, the candidate which inserts /-ŋ/ will beat the one that inserts /-ku/:

(26)							
MAN ₁ -	Max-M	Max-IO	COINCIDE	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3, $	(root)	(seg)	(ŋ,	(-free)	(-obl)	(+struc)	(+sup)
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }			head			1 1 1	
			ft) _ŋ			1 1 1	
[(jara ₁) _{Ft}] _{PWd}		1				, , ,	
MAN ₁ -					1	1	1
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3, $						1 1 1	
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }						, , , ,	
						1 1 1	
$[(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft}]_{PWd}$							
MAN ₁ -				W1	L	L	L
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3, $						1 1 1	
$+\text{str}_4, +\text{sup}_5\}$						1 1 1	
_						1 1 1	I I I
$[(jara_1)_{Ft}ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$						1 1 1	
MAN ₁ -				W1	1	1	1
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3, $						1 1 1	I I I
$+\text{str}_4, +\text{sup}_5\}$							
_							
[(jara ₁) _{Ft}] _{PWd}						1 1 1	

As can be seen, I'm assuming here that upon being inserted, the suffix $/-\eta/$ is immediately incorporated into a foot. Because the root is disyllabic, the foot which $/-\eta/$ becomes part of is the leftmost foot of the word, and so the indexed constraint ALL-FT-LEFT_n is not violated.

On the next and, for our purposes, final pass, /-ku/ is inserted:

$ \frac{ MAN_{1}-}{\{-fr_{2}, -obl_{3}, +str_{4}, +sup_{5}\} } $	Max-M (root)	Max-IO (seg)	COINCIDE (ŋ, head ft) _n	Max-M (-free)	Max-M (-obl)	Max-M (+struc)	Max-M (+sup)
$[(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft}]_{PWd}$			5			1 1 1	
$ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbb{I} & \ MAN_1^{-} \\ \{-fr_2, -obl_3, \\ +str_4, +sup_5 \} \\ \\ [(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft} ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd} \end{bmatrix} $							
$[MAN_1 - \{-fr_2, -obl_3, +str_4, +sup_5\}]$ $[(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft}]_{PWd}$					W1	W1	W1

(27)

Now let us consider what happens with longer bases, with which the $/\eta/$ morph will not appear. On the assumptions that Dyirbal foot structure is left-to-right trochaic, and that the $[\eta]$ of an intervocalic $[\eta k]$ cluster is parsed as a coda (the justification for which will be discussed shortly), we may propose that the spell-out of [-free] by the $/\eta/$ morph is blocked because MAX-M(-free) is outranked by the indexed positional licensing constraint which requires instances of the segment $/-\eta/$ to coincide with the head foot:

(28)							
THEY1-	Max-M	Max-IO	COINCIDE	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2, -\mathrm{obl}_3,$	(root)	(seg)	(ŋ,	(-free)	(-obl)	(+struc)	(+sup)
$+\text{str}_4$, $+\text{sup}_5$			head				
			ft) _n			1 1 1	
$[('pa.la)_{Ft}(ka.ra_1)_{Ft}]_{PWd}$			5				
THEY1-				1			
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2, -\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }							
$[('pa.la)_{Ft}(ka.ra_1)_{Ft}ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$						1 1 1	
THEY1-			W1	L	W1	W1	W1
$\{-fr_2, -obl_3,$							
$+\text{str}_4$, $+\text{sup}_5$							
$[('pala)_{Ft}(kara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft}]_{PWd}$							
THEY ₁ -				1	W1	W1	W1
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2, -\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1	
$+\text{str}_4$, $+\text{sup}_5$						1 1 1	
						1 1 1	
[('pa.la) _{Ft} (,ka.ra ₁) _{Ft}] _{Pwd}							

At this point we can see why assumptions about the syllabification of $[V\eta kV]$ sequences as $[V\eta.kV]$ is essential to the success of the analysis of the disyllabic stems. We assumed that /-ŋ/ is inserted before /-ku/, which requires that MAX-M(-free) outrank the MAX-M constraints for the other three features making up Ergative case. If COINCIDE(η , head ft)_{η} dominates MAX-M(-free), the former constraint will by transitivity also dominate the MAX-M constraints for the three features spelled out by /-ku/. If adding /-ku/ would cause /-ŋ/ to resyllabify as an onset, then it follows that adding /-ku/ will create a new violation of COINCIDE(η , head ft)_{η}. Given the constraint rankings just adduced, insertion of /-ku/ would then be blocked, which obviously is not what we want:

(29)							
MAN ₁ -	Max-M	Max-IO	COINCIDE	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$	(root)	(seg)	(ŋ,	(-free)	(-obl)	(+struc)	(+sup)
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }			head			, , , ,	
			ft) _ŋ			1 1 1	
[(jara ₁ ŋ ₂) _{Ft}] _{PWd}						1 1 1	1 1 1
MAN ₁ -			W1		L	L	L
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	1 1 1
+str ₄ , +sup ₅ }						1 1 1	
						, , , ,	
$[(ja.ra_1)_{Ft} y_2 ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$						 	
		1 1 1				1 1 1	1 1 1
● [™] MAN ₁ -					1	1	1
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	1 1 1
$+\text{str}_4$, $+\text{sup}_5$						1 1 1	1 1 1
						, , , ,	, , , ,
[(jara ₁ ŋ ₂) _{Ft}] _{PWd}						1	

The same assumption about syllabification will be necessary if we alternatively assumed that /-ku/ were inserted before /-ŋ/ (making /-ŋ/ a kind of infix). This is because /-ŋ/ would end up in onset position to begin with, again resulting in a new violation of $COINCIDE(\eta, head ft)_{\eta}$:

(30)							
MAN ₁ -	Max-M	Max-IO	COINCIDE	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M	Max-M
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$	(root)	(seg)	(ŋ,	(-free)	(-obl)	(+struc)	(+sup)
$+str_4, +sup_5\}$			head				
			ft) _ŋ			, , , ,	
$[(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft} ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$						1 1 1	1 1 1
MAN ₁ -		- - - - -	W1	L		1 1	1
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	1 1 1
$+$ str ₄ , +sup ₅ }						1 1 1	
$[(ja.ra_1)_{Ft}\mathfrak{y}_2ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$							
● [™] MAN ₁ -		1 1 1		1		, , , ,	
$\{-\mathrm{fr}_2,-\mathrm{obl}_3,$						1 1 1	
$+str_4, +sup_5\}$						1 1 1	
		1 1 1				, , , ,	1 1 1
$[(jara_1 \eta_2)_{Ft} ku_{3,4,5}]_{PWd}$							

Is this assumption about syllabification justified? Dixon (1972: 274) states that "[i]t is not easy to formulate a criterion for dividing up Dyirbal words into syllables", but there are a couple of pieces of evidence hinting that [Vŋ.kV] is the right syllabification for intervocalic nasal-stop clusters. First, these clusters occur only word-medially in Dyirbal, never as word-initial onsets or word-final codas (Dixon 1972: 272-

273). Second, there is at least one other case in the language where the choice of $[V\eta kV]$ versus [VkV] is sensitive to the degree of prosodic prominence of the material preceding the intervocalic consonants. This involves the Dative marker, which is generally [-ku], but which appears as [- η ku] when it immediately follows a stressed syllable (Dixon 1972: 284).¹⁹ In any case, there does not appear to be any evidence which would argue in favor of [V. η kV] being the correct syllabification.

3.5 Comparison with other theories of arbitrary preference in PCSA

The Dyirbal Ergative is challenging for the assumption that PCSA should be analyzed in the phonology because it is hard to see what phonological constraint(s) will exert the baseline preference for /-nku/ over /-ku/. Therefore, it seems necessary to add to the OT grammar of the phonology some constraint which will exert a nonphonological preference in favor of /-nku/. In the OI analysis presented in the previous section, this preference is indeed nonphonological, but it is not strictly speaking arbitrary. The idea that the presence of the /-n/ is favored by virtue of its being the morph which expresses the case feature [-free] is supported by the partial syncretism between the Ergative and Locative. This approach to nonphonological preferences in PCSA thus has the virtue of ascribing such preferences to the morphological feature-composition of morphs. When constructing an analysis, we of course do not have complete freedom in assuming that a certain morph has a certain feature-composition: the hypotheses that we can make in that regard are empirically constrained by the general properties of the langauge's morphology. Put somewhat differently, the OI approach does not introduce 'arbitrary preference among allomorphs' as a theoretical primitive; nonphonological preferences must always be embedded within the overall analysis of the language's morphology. This is an advantage, both conceptually, and (probably) in restrictiveness, relative to theories which add to the phonology constraints which simply say 'allomorph X is arbitrarily preferred to Y'. In addition to this, the OI approach avoids a number of other empirical and theoretical difficulties with existing proposals for implementing arbitrary preference in PCSA, which we will now examine.

The first OT-based proposal for implementing an arbitrary preference among allomorphs is found in the analysis of the Dyirbal ergative in McCarthy & Prince (1993a: ch. 7). They argue for a serial analysis in which the privileged allomorph /-ŋku/ is 'tried' first. That is, in the first pass of constraint evaluation, the input contains only

¹⁹ Dixon discusses this (197: 283-286) as one reflex of a process of nasal insertion, whereby "the sooner a medial consonant cluster, C_2 , comes after a stressed vowel the more tendency there is for it to include a nasal... [this process] involves the insertion of -n- at certain grammatical boundaries" (283). The fact that proximity to *preceding* stress is what makes conditions favorable for the insertion of the nasal seems to be consistent with the assumption being made here that nasals are syllabified as codas. Now, if there is such a general process, the reader may naturally wonder whether the $[-\eta ku] \sim [-ku]$ alternation is actually the result of a phonological rule, not a matter of listed allomorphy at all. The best response to this objection seems to be that insertion of nasals at morpheme boundaries occurs at different degrees of proximity to stress for different suffixes: following the head foot for the Ergative and Locative, but immediately following stress for the Dative.

the allomorph /-ŋku/ rather than the pair of underlying forms {/-ŋku/, /-ku/}. They further assume that the allomorph /-ŋku/ is indexed to a constraint AFFIX-TO-FOOT:

AFFIX-TO-FOOT
 The base to which /-ŋku/ is suffixed is a single foot.
 [nb. definition mildly rephrased from original—M.W.]

If this constraint, along with ALIGN([ŋku],R, PWd, R), which will militate against infixing /-ŋku/, are ranked above the anti-null-parse constraint MPARSE (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]; McCarthy & Wolf 2005; Wolf & McCarthy 2009), the null parse will win on the first pass of constraint evaluation if the stem involved is greater than disyllabic:

/jamani-ŋku/	Affix-to-Foot	Align([ŋku],R,	MPARSE
		PWd,R)	
a. 🖙 null parse			1
b. [('ja.ma) _{HeadFt} (ˌni.ŋku) _{Ft}] _{Wd}	W1		L
c. [('ja.ma) _{HeadFt} (,ŋku.ni) _{Ft}] _{Wd}		W1	L

(32) /jamani-ŋku/ leads to null parse

The fully-faithful candidate (31a) violates AFFIX-TO-FOOT because the suffix /-ŋku/ is not adjacent to the head foot. AFFIX-TO-FOOT is satisfied in (31c), which infixes /-ŋku/ so as to place it immediately to the right of the head foot, but this involves displacing /ŋku/ from the right edge of the PWd, and hence violating ALIGN([ŋku],R, PWd, R). Both of these constraints are ranked above MPARSE, and so the null parse (which, by hypothesis, violates no constraint but MPARSE) is the winner.

Because the pass of constraint evaluation with /-ŋku/ in the input fails to produce any output, the grammar then tries again with the elsewhere allomorph /-ku/ in the input instead²⁰. Because /-ku/ is not indexed to AFFIX-TO-FOOT, that constraint can no longer be violated, and the fully-faithful candidate now defeats the null parse:

(33) (35) (35) (35) (35)	nun purse		
/jamani-ku/	Affix-to-Foot	Align([ŋku],R, PWd)	MParse
a. ☞ [('ja.ma) _{Ft} (ˌni.ku) _{Ft}] _{wd}			
b. null parse		1 1 1	W1

(33) Use of /ku/ beats null parse

While this approach does work, it suffers from the conceptual drawback of having to impose an external mechanism of 'order of trying' to get the desired result. Since competition is the essence of OT, we would prefer on grounds of parsimony for

²⁰ Discussions of parallels between allomorph selection and morphological gaps can also be found in Kiparsky (1994: §3.1), McCarthy & Wolf (2005: §6.1), and Bye (2007).

competition like that between $/-\eta ku/$ and /-ku/ in Dyirbal to be resolved within an OT grammar.²¹

The MPARSE approach also suffers from a second, more serious drawback: it is unable to account for systems of allomorphy in which some realization (whether faithful or unfaithful) of both allomorphs would be more harmonic than the null parse. Consider, as an example, the indefinite article in English, which is a $([e_1] \sim [a])$ before a following consonant-initial word and $an([\alpha n])$ before a following vowel-initial word. If there were an arbitrary preference between these two allomorphs, then one of them would have to yield the null parse as winner when it was 'tried' in the environment where it does not appear. If a were the special case, the null parse would have to be the optimal output for an input like *a apple*, and likewise if *an* were the special case, the null parse would have to be the optimal output for an input like an duck. The problem here is that there is no reason to think that either of these inputs would map to the null parse. This is because an can perfectly well be used with words containing a coda (an *end*) and *a* can equally well be used with words containing an underlying internal hiatus (a sambaing [i.e., an instance of someone dancing the samba]), which might be repaired by one of various processes (e.g. r-insertion), depending on the dialect. This means that, in English, neither NOCODA nor ONSET can dominate MPARSE (or MPARSE_{indefinite}, if we posit morphologically-specific versions of the constraint, as in Wolf & McCarthy 2010).

Given this, the MPARSE approach would require that systems of listed allomorphy which involve arbitrary preference have a fundamentally different architecture from at least some systems that do not. In the former case, there would be only one allomorph in the input at a time, with allomorphs being tried in the requisite order, whereas in the latter case, both allomorphs would have to be present in the input simultaneously, as in the analysis given for Moroccan Arabic in (3)-(4).

This situation stands in contrast to that of the lexical-insertion-in-thephonology view adopted in OI theory. In OI, systems that involve arbitrary preference and those that do not can be analyzed using exactly the same architecture. For a case like that of the Moroccan Arabic 3^{rd} person masculine singular clitic, where there is no arbitrary preference, we simply need to assume that the two morphs /h/ and /u/ have identical FSes. This means that all constraints of the MAX-M(F) and DEP-M(F) families will be indifferent as to whether to use /h/ or /u/, and the choice will be left entirely up to the phonological constraints.

The second existing proposal about arbitrary preference is advanced by Bonet, Lloret, and Mascaró (2007) and Mascaró (2007), and also is used in Bonet (2004), Kikuchi (2006), Bradley (2007), and Bennett (2009, 2010)²². It involves the following constraint:

²¹ The MPARSE approach to arbitrary preference does have the possible advantage of being able to accommodate competition between synthetic and periphrastic expressions with the same meaning, where the two competing forms might not plausibly belong to the same candidate set, at least not at the level of the phonology. The question of whether competition between synthesis and periphrasis exists is a controversial one; Embick & Marantz (2008) is a recent entry denying that there is such competition, which cites a number of works taking the opposite view.

(34) PRIORITY. Respect lexical priority (ordering) of allomorphs. Given an input containing allomorphs $m_1, m_2, ..., m_n$, and a candidate m_i' , where m_i' is in correspondence with m_i, PRIORITY assigns as many violation marks as the depth of ordering between m_i and the highest dominating morph(s). (Definition from Mascaró 2007)

PRIORITY-based analyses are architecturally identical in form to multipleunderlying-form analyses like the one presented earlier for Moroccan Arabic: there is only one pass of constraint evaluation, and all of the competing allomorphs are in the input at once. The following tableaux, adapted from Bonet (2004), illustrate how the PRIORITY approach handles the Dyirbal facts:

(55) Dyiroui muniekg	WILLI PRIORITY	
/ jara -{ŋku, ku}/	Affix-to-Foot	Priority
a. 🖙 [('ja.ŗa) _{HeadFt} ŋku] _{wd}		
b. [('ja.ra) _{HeadFt} ku _{Ft}] _{Wd}		W_1

(25) Duirhal 'man EDC' with DRIODITY

With a disyllabic stem, as in (35), $[-\eta ku]$ and [-ku] can both be suffixed to the head foot. Candidate (35a) thus satisfies AFFIX-TO-FOOT, because [-nku] is so suffixed, and (35b) satisfies the same constraint, vacuously because /-ku/ is not indexed to AFFIX-TO-FOOT. Since AFFIX-TO-FOOT is indifferent as to the choice of allomorphs, the choice is made by the lower-ranked constraint PRIORITY. The winning candidate chooses the first-listed underlying form /-nku/ and thus gets no marks from PRIORITY. By contrast, candidate (35b) chooses the second-listed underlying form /-ku/. It therefore gets one mark from PRIORITY, and thus loses.

Now consider what happens with a greater-than-disyllabic stem:

(36)	Dyirbal rainbow.erg	with Priority	
/jamani-{ŋ	ku, ku}/	Affix-to-Foot	Priority
a. 🖙 [('ja.m	a) _{HdFt} (,ni.ku) _{Ft}] _{Wd}		1
b. [(ˈja.ma) _ŀ	_{IdFt} (,ni.ŋku) _{Ft}] _{Wd}	W 1	L

(36) Dyirbal rainbow.erg' with Priorit
--

Because, when the stem is more than two syllables long, the head foot is no longer at the right edge of the Prosodic Word, neither allomorph of the ergative suffix can be suffixed to the head foot. As a result, the candidate that chooses the first-listed underlying form /-nku/ incurs a violation from AFFIX-TO-FOOT. The candidate that chooses /-ku/ gets no such violation (again vacuously because /-ku/ is not indexed to AFFIX-TO-FOOT), and so the /-ku/-selecting candidate now emerges as the winner, because AFFIX-TO-FOOT is higher-ranked than PRIORITY.

²² Similar constraints demanding the use of privileged allomorphs are invoked by Kager (1996a), van Oostendorp (1998), Kenstowicz (2005), and Trommer (2008).

The PRIORITY approach is thus able to get the desired results because the constraint **PRIORITY** can exert whatever pairwise preferences are needed: we simply list the desired preference-order among allomorphs in the lexicon, and PRIORITY does the rest. This approach is not without its problems, though. The main one is that, unless we stipulate a universal upper bound on the number of underlying forms that a single lexeme can have, PRIORITY will have to evaluate candidates gradiently, since it assigns (*n*-1) violation-marks to candidates that pick the *n*th highest-priority allomorph. For example, Bonet, Lloret, & Mascaró (2007) propose that the masculine gender suffix in Catalan has three underlying forms, which are ordered in the preference hierarchy $\{\emptyset>u>a\}^{23}$. To give the desired effects, PRIORITY needs to assign one violation-mark to candidates that pick /-u/ and two violation-marks to candidates that pick /-ə/. Given that, outside of suppletive allomorphy, gradient evaluation is never necessary and is frequently empirically undesirable (McCarthy 2003), we have good reason to look for an alternative to PRIORITY which requires only categorical evaluation. MAX-M(F) constraints are just such an alternative: they assess categorically, assigning a single violation mark for each instance of the feature F at the morpheme level which is not spelled out at the morph level.

Mascaró (2007: fn. 13) suggests that PRIORITY could be regarded as categorical, if it is thought of as assigning a violation-mark for every pairwise preference among allomorphs that is not respected by a given candidate. For example, a candidate in Catalan which used [ə] as the masculine marker would get two marks because it disregards two preference statements: 'Ø>ə' and 'u>ə'. However, since Ø and [-u] are not present in the output of a [ə]-selecting candidate, it is unclear how PRIORITY could judge that both preference statements had been disrespected, absent giving it the power to compare [ə]-selecting candidates with Ø-selecting and [u]-selecting alternatives within the candidate set, or something equivalent to this. Cross-candidate comparison by the constraints themselves is a major departure from standard OT assumptions about how constraints work,²⁴ and so eschewing a constraint like PRIORITY, which may require such a device, is probably well-motivated.

The third and final existing proposal about arbitrary preference uses categorical constraints. Picanço (2002) proposes that, when a lexeme has multiple allomorphs, each allomorph is indexed to a PARSE-MORPH constraint (Akinlabi 1996). The constraint PARSE-MORPH(X) is violated by a given candidate if that candidate fails to pick allomorph X, so the ranking of the various PARSE-MORPH constraints will determine the

²³ There are other analyses which posit the existence of more than two allomorphs of a single affix: Mascaró (2007) argues that the infinitive marker in Baix Empordà Catalan has six and that the Classical Arabic definite article has fourteen, while Wolf (2007) proposes that morphemes that trigger the 'mixed mutation' in Breton have four.

²⁴ Cross-candidate comparison is employed in the Sympathy theory of phonological opacity (McCarthy 1999, 2003a); see McCarthy (2007: §2.3.4.3) for discussion of some problems with this theory. Two further (and distinct) forms of cross-candidate comparison are proposed in Wilson's (1999, 2001) and Blumenfeld's (2006) approaches to the 'too-many-repairs' problem; see McCarthy (2008a) for an HS-based approach to the same problem which does not involve cross-candidate comparison.

order of (arbitrary) preference among the allomorphs.²⁵ For instance, in Dyirbal, for input /jara-{/ŋku/, /ku/}/, the candidate [jara-ŋku] violates PARSE-MORPH(ku), while *[jara-ku] violates PARSE-MORPH(ŋku). If PARSE-MORPH(ŋku) is higher-ranked, then [jara-ŋku] will be preferred over *[jara-ku]. There is a problem, though: there is no clear reason why both of these candidates should not be bested by *[jara-ŋku-ku], which satisfies *both* PARSE-MORPH constraints by virtue of preserving both allomorphs in the output. The architecture of the PARSE-MORPH approach requires candidates to stand in correspondence with *all* of the underlying forms of a given morpheme in order for the PARSE-MORPH constraint relevant to each of the unused allomorphs to be violated. Perversely, however, this allows candidates like *[jara-ŋku-ku] to arise, which the PARSE-MORPH constraints (as well as MAX) will allow to win.

Of course, we could stave off this problem by stipulating, perhaps via a formulation like the one in (2), that with regard to a given set of listed allomorphs, each candidate can stand in correspondence with one and only one member of the set. OI, on the other hand, can derive the economisation of allomorphs without having them pile up in the output. The reasoning is that the insertion of any phonologically contentful morph will bring with it additional markedness violations. This provides a disincentive for the insertion of morphs beyond what is necessary to satisfy higher-ranked constraints, for example of the MAX-M family. For a fuller development of this argument, see Wolf (2008: §2.5), as well as Trommer (2001: §3.4.3), who is working within a different OT-based theory of realizational morphology. Similar arguments about the emergent nature of economy effects in OT are put forth by Grimshaw (2003) on syntax and by Gouskova (2003) on phonology.

3.6 Comparison with subcategorization-only approaches

PCSA systems like the Dyirbal Ergative respect generalizations that can be stated in phonological terms, but which cannot be rationalized solely in terms of typologically well-supported phonological markedness constraints. In OI, as well as in the PRIORITY and PARSE-MORPH theories, the response to this problem is to fit these PCSA systems into the phonology. This is done by incorporating into the phonology constraints which enforce nonphonological preferences.

Another response is possible, though. This is to argue that the lack of markedness conditioning in PCSA systems like the Dyirbal ergative is evidence that those systems are not part of the phonology. Instead, one can assume that the allomorphs /-ŋku/ and /-ku/ compete before the phonology gets underway, in the morphology, and that /-ŋku/ subcategorizes for a disyllabic stem:

²⁵ PARSE-MORPH constraints as used by Picanço (2002) seem to be equivalent to the 'lexical' constraints used in Escudero (2005), Apoussidou (2007), Boersma (2006) and related works (see references below (11)), and to the realization constraints of Realization OT (Xu 2007, Aronoff & Xu to appear a,b). These authors propose that each UR available in the language for some meaning is hypothesized to be associated with a constraint demanding that that UR be used to express that meaning.

(37) Subcategorization frames for Dyirbal ergative²⁶
 Use /-ŋku/ if the stem is disyllabic
 Use /-ku/ otherwise

Lapointe & Sells (1996), Dolbey (1997), and Lapointe (1999) have argued that some PCSA systems—the ones that resist a purely markedness-based analysis, like the Dyirbal ergative—should be handled through some sort of extra-phonological subcategorization mechanism. Paster (2005, 2006, this volume), Bye (2007), and Embick (2010) go further, arguing that, if PCSA systems like the Dyirbal ergative need to be treated as extra-phonological, it is more parsimonious to assume that *all* PCSA is extra-phonological. That is, there is no reason for some PCSA to be handled with subcategorization in the morphology and some with markedness constraints in the phonology if subcategorization will suffice for both.

At the same time, a strong parsimony argument can be given in favor of the position that at least some cases of PCSA are part of the phonological component (Mester 1994; Tranel 1996; González 2005; Itô & Mester 2006; Alber to appear). These cases are those which involve conspiracies (Kisseberth 1970). In these cases, the suppletive allomorphs are distributed in such a way as to avoid some phonological configuration X, and the phonology of the language (segmental alternations, static phonotactic restictions, syllabification, stress placement, etc.) independently prohibits, avoids, or eliminates other instances of the same configuration X. If PCSA is not part of the phonology, then the ban on X would have to be enforced at two separate places in the grammar: in the morphological component and the phonological one. This would exactly parallel the Duplication Problem (Clayton 1976; Kenstowicz & Kisseberth 1977; Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]) faced by theories of phonology which make use of morpheme structure constraints: restrictions defining the phonological form of inputs to the phonology often duplicate restrictions which are active in the phonology itself (see also Cook 1971; Kiparsky 1972: 216; and Ross 1973 for early suggestions that syntactic or morphological rules, or morpheme structure constraints, could participate in a conspiracy alongside phonological rules).

Conspiracies involving PCSA are found even in many of the simplest examples. For instance, in the analysis of Moroccan Arabic /-u/~/-h/ suppletion which we adopted from Mascaró (1996b), the use of /-h/ rather than /-u/ after a vowel-final stem was attributed to the constraint ONSET. This constraint makes itself felt in numerous other places in the language. Heath's (1987) study of colloquial Moroccan Arabic phonology reports all of the following strategies for avoiding onsetless syllables. First, stems cannot begin with a short vowel; this is rectified through epenthesis of glottal stop (p. 19). Second, vowel-initial loan verbs from French and Spanish undergo either initial glottal-stop epenthesis or deletion of the initial vowel. Third, borrowed vowel-

²⁶ Notice that these subcategorization frames must refer to a derived property of the stem, namely its syllable count. This is not a problem for a subcategorization model if it's coupled with a Lexical Phonology-type model of phonology/morphology interleaving. First, the level n phonology for Dyirbal would syllabify the stem; then, the ergative suffix would be added in the level (n +1) morphology, subject to the subcategorization frames in (41).

initial nouns can also undergo glottal-stop epenthesis, though "there are indications that speakers find the glottal-initial form awkward" (19), and as an alternative they will use the noun with the definite prefix /l-/, even in morphosyntactically non-definite contexts (pp. 19, 38):

(38) /ʃi l-an^san^sas^s/ 'some pineapples' some DEFINITE-pineapples

For some nouns this has progressed to full re-analysis of definite /l-/ as part of the stem, as indicated by the presence of a double lateral in the definite form: /l-las^c/ 'the ace [playing card]'.²⁷ Finally, there are also alternations involving devocalization of suffixal high vowels following a vowel-final stem (pp. 199, 237) and deletion of suffixal short vowels following a vowel-final stem, and indeed short vowels never appear on the surface adjacent to another vowel (p. 252).

A similar argument, first made in the OT literature by Tranel (1996) and again involving ONSET, can be made for French. At least three strategies for avoiding onsetless syllables can be found in that language. First there is *liaison*, the phenomenon whereby certain morphs have a latent final consonant which surfaces just in case the following word (of sufficient prosodic proximity) begins with a vowel:

(39)	les amis	[le.za.mi]	'the friends'
	les tamis	[le.ta.mi]	'the sieves'

Second is elision: certain other morphs, such as the singular definite article, end in a vowel which is deleted before a following vowel:

(40)	le tami	[lœ.ta.mi]	'the sieve'
	ľami	[la.mi]	'the friend'

Third, a number of determiners and adjectives show suppletive allomorphy which is governed in part by grammatical gender and in part by the C-initial vs. V-initial status of the following word. These words have a V-final allomorph, which appears in the masculine when the following word is C-initial (40a); they also have a C-final allomorph which is used in the feminine (40b) and in the masculine when the following word is V-initial:

(41)	a.	ce pays	[sœ.pe.i]	'this country.маsc'
	b.	cette vie	[sɛt.vi]	'this life.fem'
	с.	cet ami	[sɛ.ta.mi]	'this friend.маsc'

Additionally, certain possessive pronouns show an opposite gender mismatch: the feminine form is vowel-final (41a), while the masculine form ends underlyingly in a

²⁷ The definite article in French is l' [l] before a vowel-initial noun, and is *el* with masculine nouns in Spanish (as well as with certain [a]-initial feminine nouns—see below); this undoubtedly plays a role in the tendency of vowel-initial nouns borrowed from these languages to be re-analyzed with initial [l].

nasal which surfaces before a vowel (41b), and coalesces with the preceding vowel of the pronoun when a consonant follows (41c):

(42)	a.	ma vie	[ma.vi]	'my life'	(feminine)
	b.	mon ami	[mo.na.mi]	'my friend.м	IASC'
	с.	mon pays	[mõ.pe.i]	'my country	' (masculine)

The gender mismatch here occurs before vowel-initial feminine nouns, which take the masculine allomorph, whose final nasal then syllabifies as the onset of the noun's initial syllable:

(43) mon arme [mo.naʁm] 'my weapon' (*[ma.aʁm])

As Tranel (1996) argues, if allomorph selection is hashed out in the phonology, then these suppletion facts can be linked with *liaison* and elision as all being reflexes of the single constraint ONSET. (The gender mismatch apparently involved in the French suppletion facts itself supplies another argument for integrating phonology and morphology into a single module of grammar; see below for discussion.)²⁸

Similar observations can be made regarding syllable-counting allomorphy. In Sámi, for example, the passive marker and four person/number endings have two listed allomorphs, one with an even number of syllables and the other with an odd number of syllables (Dolbey 1997). The distributional generalization is that the even-parity allomorphs are used with even-parity bases and the odd-parity allomorphs with oddparity bases:

(44)	Syllable-counting allomorphy in Sámi					
	, ,	Even-σ root:	Odd-σ root:			
	even ~ odd	/jearra-/ 'ask'	/veahkehea-/ 'help'			
1du:	Ø~-tne	[jeːr.re]	[veah.ke.he:t.ne]			
2du:	-beahtti ~ -hppi	[jear.rabeaht.ti]	[veah.ke.hea-hp.pi]			
2pl:	-behtet ~ -hpet	[jear.rabeh.tet]	[veah.ke.heː-h.pet]			
3pl. preterit:	Ø ~ -dje	[jeːr.re]	[veah.ke.heː-d.je]			
passive:	-juvvo ~ -vvo	[jeːr.rojuv.vo]	[veah.ke.hu-v.vo]			

The effect of this is that words formed with one of these suffix end up with an even number of syllables overall. This is desirable from the standpoint of allowing words to be exhaustively parsed into disyllabic feet, as Dolbey's (1997) analysis proposes:

²⁸ Many of the generalizations which are used to argue for the existence of ONSET-driven (and potentially gender-mismatching) suppletion in French hold true in the prescriptively normative variety of the language, but may be much less clearly true in colloquial or dialectal speech. See Janda (1998) for a number of historical and sociolinguistic arguments that these patterns are not really phonologically driven, and do not really involve gender mismatch.

(45)	
/jearra-{behtet,hpet}	PARSE-SYLLABLE
a. 🖙 [(jear.ra) _{Ft} (beh.tet) _{Ft}] _{PWd}	
b. [(jear.rah) _{Ft} pet] _{PWd}	W1

(46)

/veahkehea-{behtet, hpet}	PARSE-SYLLABLE
a. 🖙 [(veah.ke) _{Ft} (heah.pet) _{Ft}] _{PWd}	
b. [(veah.ke) _{Ft} (hea.beh) _{Ft} tet] _{PWd}	W1

The constraint PARSE-SYLLABLE, which demands that all syllables be parsed into feet, is not responsible solely for determining the choice of allomorphs, but also is at work in ensuring that the syllables of Sámi words are parsed into feet at all.

PCSA can conspire with segmental as well as with prosodic phonology. For example, let us consider the following facts from the Gur language Konni (Cahill 2007; also Struijke & de Lacy 2000). This language has five noun classes, which are distinguished from one another by the number and definiteness suffixes that they take. (Following Cahill's (2007) notation, I use capital letters for segments whose underlying [ATR] value is undeterminable because they undergo allophonic alternations in that feature.):

	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5
Singular	-ý	-ý	-ý	-ý	Ø
Singular definite	Ìı-	-kÚ	-kÁ	-bÚ	-wÁ
Plural	-A	-tÍ	-sÍ	-tÍ	(irregular)
Plural definite	-A-hÁ	-tĺ-tĺ	-sÍ-sÍ	-tĺ-tĺ	(irregular)
% of nouns	26	12	31	7	13

(47) Number and definiteness markers of Konni noun classes

The remaining 11% of nouns are 'mixed': they take singular and plural markers from different classes.

Konni exhibits several patterns involving avoidance of flaps in consecutive syllables. The sequences [rr] and [rVr] are never found on the surface in the language, either within a single morph or through the concatenation of two morphs. These sequences are avoided in part through allomorph selection. Cahill (2007: 125, fn. 15) reports that there are "many" [r]-final stems in noun classes 2 and 3, and "a few" in class 4, but none in class 1. (There are no [r]-final stems in class 5 because this class

contains almost exclusively vowel-final stems.) This asymmetry can be attributed to the fact that class 1 is the only one whose members take an [r]-initial suffix, namely the singular definite /-rI/. Similarly, there are several [r]-final mixed-class nouns which take a class 1 plural suffix, but these nouns "without exception" (Cahill 2007: 125) take a non-class-1 singular definite suffix.

The class 1 singular definite marker /-cI/ is thus systematically banned from being used with [*r*]-final nouns. Given the standard OT assumption of Richness of the Base (Prince & Smolensky 2004 [1993]), we are not free to assume a constraint on the *input* to morphological spell-out which says that the diacritic feature [class 1] cannot be marked on /c/-final nouns. Instead, it must be the case that even if there is a /c/-final stem which was lexically-specified with this feature, the feature will not be faithfully spelled out by /-cI/ in the singular definite.

Additionally, because [r(V)r] sequences are never found in the language in any context we can infer that the language's phonotactics contain an active constraint against such sequences. The effects of this constraint can be seen in the two [r]-initial suffixes of the language which undergo a dissimilatory alternation when attached to a base whose rightmost consonant is [r]. One is the agentive, which is normally [-rU], but which changes to [-tU] if the rightmost consonant in the base is [r] (as well as if the rightmost root consonant is [1], if the last segment of the base is [n], and optionally if the last consonant in the root is $[\eta]$ (p. 145):

(48)	[r]~[t] alternation in agentive suffix			
	a. [bớntờː-ɲìː-ɾớ]	'hoodless cobra' (lit. 'toad-swallower')		
	b. [dì-dàː-rớ]	'buyer'		
	but:	-		
	c. [bờ-bờrì-tớ]	'sower'		
	d. [gbì-gbàrì-tớ]	'watcher'		

Similarly, the masculine suffix on nouns is normally [-ra:n], but appears instead as [-da:n] with noun roots whose rightmost consonant is [r] or [n] (p. 147):

(49)	[r]~[d] alternation in masculine suffix			
	a. [kpá- [!] ráŋ]	'male guinea fowl'		
	but:			
	b. [gàɲìàrà-dàáŋ]	'male weaver bird'		

If PCSA is handled wholly through subcategorization frames, then the avoidance of /-rI/ in favor of other singular definite markers would have to be attributed to a subcategization frame dictating some other singular definite suffix be used with /r/-final roots. But on this analysis there would be no connection between the distribution of /-rI/ and the phonotactic constraint which ruled out [r(V)r] sequences across the board in the language, and which triggered the dissimilations undergone by the agentive and masculine suffixes. The subcategorization frame associated with /-rI/

would be part of the morphology, while the phonotactic constraint (and associated dissimilation processes) would be part of the phonology.

Conspiracies involving allomorph selection also limits on affix use which do not obviously involve competition between alternative allomorphs. For example, English doesn't permit geminates morph-internally, but geminates can arise in compounding and level 2 junctures (Benus, Smorodinsky & Gafos 2004, Kaye 2005, Martin 2007): e.g. *sand dune, solely, cleanness.*²⁹ Martin (2007) shows that—despite the allowability of geminates at such junctures—words containing such geminates are statistically underrepresented in corpora of English, at least for compounding and for the suffixes – *less* and *–ly*. (He also identifies similar patterns in Navajo and Turkish, wherein structures that are banned morph internally are found, but nonetheless tend to be avoided, at morph junctures.)

This means that English speakers have a tendency to avoid the use of *-less* and *-ly* with [l]-final bases. This could be expressed as a condition on affix distribution in the morphology, but then no connection would be drawn between the tendency to avoid these affixes in contexts where they would create geminates, and the general absence of geminates in English. On the other hand, we could account for the underrepresentation of forms like *smell-less* by assuming that a constraint *GEMINATE cases them to lose to competing candidates which use different morphs to express the same meaning (e.g. *smell-free*) or to a null output candidate (Martin 2005); making the ranking of this constraint variable would ensure that candidate forms like *smell-less* do not lose all of the time. An analysis like this would account for the conspiracy by linking the general ban on geminates and the gradient avoidance of *-less* and *-ly* where they would create geminates to the action of the same constraint.

It is possible to give at least one additional argument for putting PCSA in the phonology which is related to, but crucially differs from, conspiracy arguments of the kind just reviewed. This is that prosodically-conditioned allomorph selection can show sensitivity to language-particular properties of syllabification or foot-parsing. A version of this argument is given by Bennett (2009, 2010) with regard to plural allomorphy in Irish. Noun plurals in Irish can be formed in a variety of different ways, with the form of the plural taken by a given noun generally not predictable. However, there is a phonological subpattern involving the plural endings –(*e*)*anna* /-*ənə*/ and –(*e*)*acha* /-*axə*/. (These two forms seem to be morphologically 'linked' to one another for several reasons, for instance that these are the only plural endings which can appear in "double plurals" with the further suffix –(*a*)*i* /-*i*:/.) This pattern is that /-əxə/ generally appears only after bases which do not have final stress; when stress is basefinal, /-ənə/ usually appears instead. Main stress in Irish is word-initial, so for the most part root-final stress will be found with monosyllabic roots, and non-root-final stress with polysyllabic roots.

²⁹ This is an example of marked structures being allowed only in morphologically-derived environment ('Derived Environment Blocking' or DEB). For discussion of additional such cases, a number of which provide arguments in favor of OI, see Wolf (2008: ch. 4; 2010).

Bennett (2009, 2010) argues that /-axa/ is disesteemed in post-tonic position due to the interaction of two facts about the prosodic structure of Irish: (a) feet are syllabic trochees, and (b) intervocalic /x/ is syllabified as a coda rather than as an onset. Fact (b) means that the /-axa/ allomorph will be syllabified [-ax.a] (beginning with a closed and thus heavy syllable) whereas /-ana/ will be syllabified [-a.na] (beginning with an open and thus light syllable). Using /-ax.a/ after a stressed syllable would result in the initial heavy syllable of the suffix occupying the weak position of a trochee:

(50)	/klog-axə/	*[(ˈklo.gəx)ə]
	/klog-ənə/	[(ˈklo.gə)nə]
	clock-plural	

We now arrive at the argument for PCSA being in the phonology. This analysis, as mentioned, crucially appeals to the fact that /x/ syllabifies as a coda in Irish. The [-ax.a] allomorph will always begin with a heavy syllable, which will be marked in the weak position of a foot. Now, if PCSA is not in the phonology, the distribution of the allomorphs will have to be handled with subcategorization frames which state directly that /-axa/ is used with bases that don't have final stress (polysyllabic bases), and /-ana/ with bases that do have final stress (monosyllabic bases). These subcategorization statements would produce the same allomorph distribution attested in actual Irish, *even if the language did not syllabify /x/ as a coda*. Now, in the strictest sense this is not a conspiracy, since (as Bennett [2009, 2010] emphasizes), Irish otherwise tolerates ('oH) trochees.³⁰ However, the dispreference for /-axa/ in post-tonic position crucially makes use of a language-particular fact about the syllabification of /x/, a connection which is missed on an analysis which does not put PCSA in the phonology.

To be sure, the core of the empirical case for subcategorization-only accounts of PCSA comes from cases where the distribution of allomorphs cannot fully be rationalized in terms of typologically natural phonological constraints. The drawback of a subcategorization-only approach is that it generalizes all PCSA to this worst case, sacrificing the possibility of making connections between PCSA systems and other aspects of a language's phonology in the many cases (like the ones just reviewed) where these connections *can* be made. In this context, it is possible to draw an analogy with Halle's (1959) famous argument against structuralist phonemics based on the facts from Russian voicing assimilation. Briefly, the objection was that what was clearly a single generalization about the distribution of voiced versus voiceless obstruents had to be assigned both to the morphophonemic rules (in cases like [tc]-[dz] where the two obstruents are not contrastive). Occam's Razor therefore recommends a generative analysis (where voicing assimilation can be stated as a single rule) over a taxonomic-

³⁰ That said, certain Irish dialects exhibit other phonological processes which protect the prominence of [(C)ax] syllables. Bennett (2009, 2010) cites two examples. First, in Munster Irish, which is atypical in that it has quantity-sensitive stress, syllables with a short vowel and a coda do not count as heavy (and so don't attract stress), whereas [(C)ax] syllables do attract stress. Second, in Ulster Irish, unstressed vowels reduce to schwa, with the sole exception of unstressed [(C)ax] syllables.

phonemic analysis (where it has to be stated as two rules). Precisely the same logic can be invoked in the cases discussed in this section: when it is possible to analyze a PCSA system and other aspects of a language's phonology using the same theoretical resources (e.g., the same OT phonological constraints), we should, all else being equal, prefer an analysis which does so over analysis which uses multiple different devices to analyze the same set of facts.³¹ A related point, raised by Aronoff & Xu (to appear) in relation to arguments that affix order cannot be phonologically conditioned, is that it is hard to see what could possibly falsify the position that PCSA is not part of phonology. No matter how richly a PCSA system reflected generalizations which played a role elsewhere in a language's phonology, it would always be possible to redundantly state these generalizations in the form of subcategorization frames in a separate, morphological component. This suggests that—to the extent that phonology/PCSA conspiracies are observed in at least some languages—the position that PCSA and 'real' phonology are part of the same component of the grammar needs to be treated as the null hypothesis.

4. Other predicted forms of phonological interference with morphology

Our analysis of the Dyirbal ergative posits that satisfaction of a phonological constraint $COINCIDE(\eta, head ft)_{\eta}$ results in violation of a lower-ranked morphological constraint of the MAX-M family. If phonological constraints freely are re-rankable constraints on morpheme/morph correspondence, then we expect that there should also be effects where satisfaction of a phonological constraint forces violation of a conflicting DEP-M constraint. In the case of DEP-M(feature) constraints, this would mean that the phonology forced insertion of a morph which bore grammatical features that were not present in the morpheme to which it corresponded. In the case of DEP-M(FS) constraints, this would mean that the phonology was forcing insertion of an entire morph which didn't correspond to any morpheme—a kind of 'dummy affix' which was there for solely phonological reasons, but which did not express any of the grammatical features of the word it appeared in.

Several cases of both kinds have indeed been suggested. In the case of phonologically-induced feature mismatches, we have already alluded to such an effect in Moroccan Arabic, where vowel-initial borrowed nouns show up with the definite prefix /l-/ even in non-definite contexts (Heath 1987: 19, 38); this may be analyzed as DEP-M([definite]) being outranked by either general ONSET and/or a constraint requiring prosodic words to begin with a consonant (Flack 2007, 2009).

³¹ Of course, it is entirely possible that language learners do not always internalize the facts of their L1 in the most parsimonious manner that they can; Hale's (1973) discussion of the Māori passive is a celebrated example of a case where the analysis which seems most simple from the linguist's standpoint is quite arguably not what native speakers have internalized. The existence of such cases does not, I think, invalidate the use of Occam's Razor in arguments in theoretical linguistics. If evidence surfaces that in some case that native speakers' internalized grammars do not correspond to the simplest possible analysis, then we are simply in a situation where all else is no longer equal with respect to the empirical data. Occam's Razor is about which analysis we should prefer out of the infinite number of possible analyses which *are* compatible with the given empirical data.

One of the best-known phenomena which has been analyzed as morphological feature mismatch induced by a phonological requirement is that of the French gender mismatches mentioned earlier. A number of different analyses of these facts have been given. Some have proposed that this in fact involves the use of feminine morphs in morphosyntactically masculine contexts (Tranel 1995; Perlmutter 1998; Steriade 1999b), which in OI terms would mean violation of DEP-M(feminine) as well as MAX-M(masculine).

(51)				
THIS ₁ FRIEND ₂		Onset	Dep-M	Max-M
			(fem)	(masc)
$[masc]_3$ $[masc]_4$				
morphs:	surface phonology:			í I I
\mathbb{R} <this<sub>1, /set/> <friend<sub>2, /ami/></friend<sub></this<sub>	[sɛ.ta.mi]		1	1
$[fem]_5$ $[masc]_4$				
<this<sub>1, /sœ/> <friend<sub>2, /ami/></friend<sub></this<sub>	[sœ.a.mi]	W1	L	L
$[masc]_3$ $[masc]_4$				

. .

Other analyses have argued that the apparent feminine allomorphs in these examples are not really morphologically specified as feminine; however, even under these analyses, the phonology can be seen to be forcing morphological defectiveness of one sort or another. For example, Lapointe & Sells (1996) and Tranel (1998) propose that in a pair like *ce/cet(te)*, [sœ] is indeed [masculine], but [sɛt], which can appear in both masculine and feminine contexts, is unspecified for gender. In OI terms, this means that forms like *cet ami* do not violate DEP-M(feminine), but they would still involve violation of MAX-M(masculine). An analysis conceptually similar to this one is found in Lamarche (1995), who proposes that lexical items like *ce/cet(te)* have two listed allomorphs, neither of which is specified for gender, and which are ordered, [sœ] being the default form and [sɛt] the elsewhere form; use of the default form is proposed to be blocked before a vowel and in morphosyntactically feminine contexts. On a view of this kind, forms like *cet ami* would involve phonologically-motivated violation of arbitrary preferences among allomorphs, just like the one in Dyirbal which was discussed earlier.³²

Another well-known example of an apparent gender mismatch driven by phonological pressures is that of Spanish 'feminine *el*' (Plank 1984; Posner 1985; Zwicky 1985b; Harris 1987, 1989, 1991; Hayes 1990; Halle, Harris & Vergnaud 1991; Janda & Varela-García 1991; Álvarez de Miranda 1993; Janda 1998; Kikuchi 2001; Cutillas 2003;

³² To the extent that this or any similar example involves competition between morphs with nonidentical sets of morphosyntactic features, it serves as an additional argument for a realizational model of morphology (Teeple 2006). An incremental theory would require that competition occur among the alternative phonological forms which were listed in the representation of a given morpheme, and as such the competing allomorphs would by definition have to be affiliated with the same morphosyntactic features.

Paster 2006; Teeple 2006; Eddington & Hualde 2008; Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró this volume). The Spanish definite article is normally [el] before masculine nouns and [la] before feminines. However, except for a few particular types of words³³, for many speakers, of both Iberian and Latin American dialects, the definite article often will appear as [el] before feminine nouns which begin with stressed [á]. Examples include *el arma* 'the weapon' and *el agua* 'the water'. A plausible phonological-markedness motivation for this effect is not hard to discern (see for instance Cutillas 2003: 175-184). Spanish generally fuses sequences of two identical vowels to one, but fusion is blocked if the second vowel is stressed. Using [el] rather than [la] thus serves to prevent the creation of an [a.á] hiatus which the phonology of the language would be unable to dispose of.

That the definite-article morph which shows up with [á]-initial feminines is indeed morphosyntactically specified as masculine is attested to by the following observation (see Janda & Varela-García 1991; Eddington & Hualde 2008; Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró this volume for discussion). With the feminine nouns that take *el*, if an adjective intervenes between the article *el* and the noun, that adjective shows masculine agreement; postnominal adjectives agreeing with the same noun continue to take feminine agreement, as expected:

- (52) a. el nuevo arma secreta 'the new secret weapon' the.MASC new.MASC weapon.FEM secret.FEM
 - b. el abundante agua fría 'the abundant cold water' the.маsc abundant.маsc water.FEM cold.FEM

While these data do seem to provide evidence that there really is DEP-M([masculine]) violation taking place, they also appear to undermine the argument that the appearance of 'feminine *el*' is truly phonologically motivated, since the definite article and the noun are not adjacent. It is hard to see why feminine [la] would be phonologically disesteemed with an [á]-initial noun when the article and noun are not phonologically adjacent. It turns out that Spanish articles are not the only case of PCSA where this issue arises. Schlenker (to appear) points out that in coordinate structures (53a) and with parentheticals (53b), the pre-vocalic allomorphs *mon, ton, son* of the French possessive pronouns discussed earlier will be chosen even when they are not adjacent to the vowel-initial noun. (Asterisks and question marks in these examples are as given by Schlenker.) Similarly, Rotenberg (1978) and Zuraw (2006a,b) observe that the allomorphy of the English indefinite article (*a* before consonants, *an* before vowels) seems to be able to look across parenthetical material (53c-d):

³³ Names of letters of the alphabet, acronyms, nominalized adjectives, and proper names (except for *Asia* and *África*) do not take feminine *el*. The other exception is that [á]-initial nouns always take *la* rather than *el* if their referent is biologically feminine (as opposed to the noun being merely grammatically feminine).

(53) a. Marie a été mon/*ma, puis son épouse.'Marie has been my, then his wife.'

b. J'ai des doutes sur mon/*?ma, disons, employabilité. 'I have doubts about my, let us say, employability'

c. In the car on the way back to London, we had an-to me-even more peculiar exchange about my niece and her boyfriend. (Julian Barnes, "The Past Conditional", in the Dec. 25 2006/Jan. 1 2007 issue of *The New Yorker*; cited by Zuraw 2006a)

d. a—in my opinion, anyway—totally unexpected result (Rotenberg 1978: 55)

These observations are not as damning as they may first seem for the claim that the allomorphic alternations involved are phonologically-conditioned. First, even if we were to say that, for example, feminine *el* is no longer phonologically conditioned in the synchronic grammar of present-day Spanish (as argued by Posner 1985 and Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró this volume), the fact that it only happens with [á]-initial feminine nouns strongly hints that at least at one time in the history of the language it was phonologically conditioned. Second, the phonological status of each of these patterns of allomorphy would be vouched for if it is the case that nonce words consistently come to participate in the pattern according to their phonological shape. At least in the case of English a/an, for which I have native intuitions, it seems quite clear that newlycoined nouns will reliably take a if consonant initial and an if vowel-initial. Thirdly, it is entirely imaginable that cases of non-local allomorph selection like the ones in (52-53) represent a kind of cyclic or transderivational faithfulness effect: for *el nuevo arma*, it is not inconceivable that either there is a deivational stage in the phrase's spellout where the adjective either has not yet been spelled out, or has not yet been linearized into a position between the article and the noun. As an alternative to positing a derivational step where the adjective is absent, one might also contemplate assuming that there is an output-output correspondence relation (Burzio 1994; Benua 1997) between el nuevo arma and the adjective-less phrase *el arma*; selection of *el* would be phonologically motivated in the latter, and the use of the same allomorph of the article would be compelled by high-ranked OO faithfulness in the former. (On the use of OO-faithfulness for phrase-level phenomena, see Steriade 1999a,b; McCarthy 2000, 2007: §2.3; and Truckenbrodt 2002).

An analysis along these lines is not entirely implausible, because in wordinternal phonology as well there are a number of cases known in which the domain in which a cyclic phonological process applies is linearly discontinuous on the surface, as a result of being broken up by the insertion of an infix. In my dissertation (Wolf 2008: §5.6) I review several reported examples of this, including Portuguese vowel assimilation (Ranier 1995, Benua 1997), Cibemba spirantization (Hyman 1994, 2002; Hyman & Orgun 2005; Benua 1997), Sundanese nasal harmony (Robins 1957; Anderson 1972; Stevens 1977; Hart 1981; van der Hulst & Smith 1984; Cohn 1990; Benua 1997), Sanksrit *ruki* (Kiparsky 1982: 80-82), Abaza voicing assimilation (Allen 1956, Kenstowicz & Kisseberth 1977: §2.3) and Pashto vowel coalescence (Kenstowiz & Kisseberth 1977: §2.2). Moreover, apart from phonologically-conditioned allomorphy applying nonlocally at the phrasal level, phonological feature-agreement processes may apply nonlocally in like manner. Sy (2006) argues that in Wolof, ATR agreement holds between the lexical head of an XP and functional items in the same XP, even though they may not be phonologically adjacent. (See also Bing [1987] and Kaye [1981] on possible instances of phonological agreement between pronouns and nouns.) To the extent that phonological relations are not always transparently local on the surface, it should come as no surprise that the structural relations at work in phonologically-conditioned allomorph selection sometimes are as well.

Another possibility, raised by Schlenker's (to appear) discussion of the French possessive-pronoun data, is that there is some sort of discontinuous constituency at work: perhaps at some stage in the derivation, the article in *el nuevo arma* immediately precedes *both* the adjective and the noun. At some later stage, one of these precedence relations will have to be eliminated in order to fit the phrase into a single linear order, and hence make it utterable.

A final case of phonologically-driven gender mismatch occurs with the plural suffix in Modern Hebrew. This language has two plural suffixes: [-im], which for the most part is used with masculine nouns, and [-ot], which for the most part is used with feminines. There are exceptions with both suffixes, though: there are masculine nouns which take [-ot] and feminines which take [-im]. A phonological tendency underlies the use of [-ot] with masculines: Bolozky & Becker (2006) found that of 230 native masculine nouns which take [-ot], 146 have [o] as the rightmost stem vowel. The tendency of such masculine nouns to be more likely to take [-ot] has been found to manifest in experimental tasks with nonce forms (Berent, Pinker & Shimron 1999, 2002; Becker 2009).

An OT analysis of this pattern is given by Becker (2009: ch. 3). His proposal begins with the fact that with most native nouns in Hebrew, as well as all deverbal nouns, suffixes attract stress off of the stem (Bat-El 1993; Becker 2003). This means that using [-im] when the stem's rightmost vowel is [o] results in the configuration [...C₀oC₀ím], as opposed to [...C₀oC₀ót] which would result from using [-ot]. Becker proposes that the first structure is dispreferred relative to the second by a constraint which requires that the mid-vowel features of [o] must be licensed by being linked to a stressed nucleus. In [...C₀oC₀ím] the [o] is unstressed, but in [...C₀oC₀ót], assuming that the two [o]s share place features, these features will be linked to the second, stressed [o], licensing them and avoiding violation of the constraint. Assuming that this constraint is variably ranked above MAX-M(masculine) and DEP-M(feminine), we get the observed pattern of a tendency towards the use of gender-mismatched [-ot] with masculine nouns having [o] as their rightmost vowel. For further details and discussion of this phenomenon, see Becker (2009: ch. 3) and Wolf (2008: §2.4.2).

Several further possible cases of phonologically-driven mismatch in inflectional features are reported, including in English (Dixon 1977; cf. Nathan 1981 and Sparks 1984), Ondarroa Basque (Côté 1999, 2000), Armenian (Vaux 2003: 114-116), and Irish (O'Brien 2007).

Now let us turn to violation of DEP-M(FS): cases in which phonological constraints force insertion of an entire 'dummy' affix. Perhaps the best-known case of this comes from the Western Desert language Pitjantjatjara. Hale (1973) argues that Pitjantjatjara has the following word-final augmentation rule:

(54) $\varnothing \rightarrow \text{pa} / C_{\#}$

The process is clearly conditioned by the presence of what would otherwise be a word-final consonant. When the stem is followed by a V-final suffix, the augmentative /pa/doesn't show up:

(55)	uninflected	ergative	dative	
	man'kurpa	man'kur-tu	man'kur-ku	'three'
	punpunpa	punpun-tu	punpun-ku	'fly'

The /pa/ also appears after certain verbal suffixes: /-n, -n'in, -ŋin, -nin/ ~ /-npa, n'inpa, -ŋinpa, -ninpa/.

This augmentation process is theoretically challenging because the marked status of [labial] place means that epenthesis of [labial] consonants should be impossible. The tableau below illustrates the analysis that I propose for Pitjantjatjara, and the markedness problem that would arise for the assumption that the augmentative [-pa] were epenthetic:

(56)				
THREE ₁	Dep-IO	*C] _{PWd}	DEP-M(FS)	*[labial]
a. 🖙 mankur ₁ -pa ₂			1	2
b. mankur ₁		W1	L	1
c. mankur ₁ -ta	W2		L	1
d. mankur ₁ -pa	W2		L	2

The markedness constraint responsible for /pa/-insertion is what we can call *C]PWd, which bans Prosodic Words from ending in a consonant (see Flack [2007, 2009] for extensive typological justification of this constraint). For the input $|THREE_1|$, i.e. the root meaning 'three' alone, with no inflection, the winning candidate is [mankurpa]. This candidate has inserted the root morpheme /mankur/, as well as the semantically-empty affix /pa/. The presence of /pa/ means that the winning candidate satisfies *C]_{PWd}, but it also means that the candidate incurs an extra violation of *[labial], by virtue of containing the segment /p/.

One competitor of the observed winner is (56b), which inserts only the root

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morpheme /mankur/. This candidate does better than the winner on *[labial], due to the absence of [-pa], but it loses by virtue of violating the higher-ranked constraint C_{PWd} . Of greater interest are the competitors (56c-d), with epenthesis. Both of these candidates violate the anti-epenthesis constraint DEP-IO, by virtue of epenthesizing the sequences [ta] or [pa]. By contrast, the winner does not violate DEP-IO, because all of its surface segments— including the [pa]—stand in correspondence with the segments in the underlying form of some morph.

Crucially for my argument, (56d), which is surface-homophonous with the winner, is harmonically bounded by (56c), which epenthesizes [ta] rather than [pa]. The two perform identically on DEP-IO and C_{PWd} , but (56b) is more harmonic than (56c) because the coronal [t] is less marked than the labial [p]. This means that if morph insertion were not available as a 'repair' in the phonological component of the grammar—that is, if the depicted winner in tableau (56) were not a possible candidate—there would be no way for C_{PWd} –violation to be avoided by insertion of [pa], since [pa]-epenthesis should always be harmonically bounded by [ta]-epenthesis (except in specific contexts that might favor the presence of a labial, e.g. adjacent to another labial).

The prediction of markedness theory that marked segment types like labials can never be epenthetic is largely supported by typological surveys (e.g. de Lacy 2002). The analysis that I offer thus somewhat complicates the status of epenthetic quality as evidence about markedness, since any segment, no matter how marked, could in principle belong to the UR of a morph inserted for phonological reasons. This does not seem tremendously worrisome, though, as there are various diagnostics that will often be available to distinguish epenthetic segments from affix segments. For example, de Lacy (2002) notes that apparent epenthetic round vowels in Seri, Hungarian and Icelandic are restricted to particular morphological contexts, and suggests that these segments aretherefore likely to be morphemes rather than true epenthetic segments. Hale (1973) identifies similar conditions on the distribution of augmentative /-pa/ in Pitjantjatjara —it does not appear with vocatives or after the 2nd person singular clitic /-n/-and argues therefrom that /-pa/ is a morpheme. Similar arguments for the morph(eme)-hood of apparent epenthetic segments have been put forth by Cardinaletti & Repetti (2007) regarding vowel epenthesis in standard and dialectal varieties of Italian (see also Tranel & Del Gobbo 2001: 198) and by Kager (1999: 130) in relation to vowel epenthesis in Mohawk (Michelson 1988, 1989; Piggott 1995). Looking beyond surface evidence, there are also likely to be experimental means for disentangling the epenthetic vs. affixal status of segments. For example, lexical and epenthetic segments may be acoustically different, i.e. epenthesis is at least sometimes incompletely neutralizing (Gouskova & Hall 2009); we might also ask whether speakers display 'perceptual epenthesis' of the inserted material (Dupoux et al. 1999).

Additional possible cases of phonologically-motivated insertion of dummy affixes have been reported in Nunggubuyu (Heath 1984), Alabama (Montler & Hardy 1991), Axininca Campa (Black 1993), Slavey (Howard 1990: 802), Navajo (Young & Morgan 1987: 112), and Spanish and French (Allen 1976).

Now let's consider the MAX-M family. We've already dealt with cases like the Dyirbal ergative which arguably involve MAX-M(feature) violation. What about violation of MAX-M(FS)? This would involve entire morphemes failing to be spelled out by any morph at all.

A familiar and typologically common way in which consecutive identical or nearidentical morphs are avoided is via haplology—i.e., omitting one of them (Stemberger 1981; Menn & MacWhinney 1984; de Lacy 2000). A simple example from English is discussed by Jaeger (to appear) and Walter & Jaeger (2005). In English, use of the overt complementizer *that* is normally optional:

(57) a. She said you came.b. She said that you came.

In the studies just cited, it was found that omission of complementizer *that* was significantly more likely when the complementizer would have appeared adjacent to demonstrative *that*, as in *She said* (*that*) *that inspector came yesterday*. Cases like this can be analyzed by assuming that a phonological OCP constraint (perhaps variably) dominates the MAX-M constraints that favor spelling out one of the two relevant morphemes (see Golston 1995, Yip 1998 for proposals in this direction)³⁴:

(58)		
$\text{COMP}_1 \text{DEMONST}_2$	OCP	MAX-M(complementizer)
☞ ðæt₂		1
$\partial \mathfrak{E} t_1 \partial \mathfrak{E} t_2$	W1	L

Evidence has also been reported of *that*-omission being sensitive to rhythmic factors. Jaeger (to appear: §5) and Lee & Gibbons (2007) found that the complementizer was less likely to be omitted before stressed than before unstressed syllables. Since the complementizer itself is generally unstressed, this makes sense in terms of pressure to avoid stress clashes and lapses.

There is at least one plausible argument against treating haplology as outright omission of a morph. The problem comes from cases of partial haplology, which seem to involve partial fusion of two underlying strings, as in e.g. French /deksi1s2 + i3s4t/ \rightarrow [deksi1,2s3,4t] *déixiste* 'person who studies deixis'. In this example, the affix is clearly not omitted outright, because it still has a surface exponent in the form of the final

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³⁴ The OCP effect on adjacent instances of *that* also seems to control allomorph choice in restrictive relative clauses. Normally there is optional variation between *that* and *which* to introduce a relative clause: *The book* {*which/that*} *I* ordered arrived today, though use of *which* is generally frowned upon by prescriptivists. Pullum (2010) points out that *which* becomes the only acceptable option when another *that* precedes: *That which/*that doesn't kill you might give you stomach trouble.* (The version of the example sentence with *which* is a caption from a cartoon in the July 5, 2010 issue of *The New Yorker.*) My intuitions are that *that* is not entirely ill-formed in this context, though it is clearly degraded relative to *which*. (The option of using *which* to avoid the OCP violation is also mentioned in passing by Walter & Jaeger [2005]).

segment [t]. However, there is reason to be skeptical of the coalescence analysis of partial haplology. This is that it requires us to assume that coalescence occurs between pairs of segments that are underlyingly non-adjacent—for example the [i]s and [s]es in the French example. As there is, to my knowledge, no evidence for non-local coalescence outside of haplology, it would be desirable to pursue an analysis of these cases which don't require any new theoretical devices. One simple strategy would be to assume that such cases simply involve selection of different morphs. In French, for instance, the default morph for 'person who studies X' would be /ist/, with another morph /t/ being used with stems ending in /...is/.

Phonologically-conditioned morph omission is not limited to cases of haplology. One non-haplological example occurs in Northeastern Central Catalan (Bonet, Lloret & Mascaró , this volume), where the plural suffix /-s/ is omitted in interconsonantal and pre-nominal position. Another example occurs in Hausa (Inkelas 1988, Selkirk 2002). Hausa has a focus particle /fa/ which, when it does appear, surfaces to the right of a focused constituent. However, its appearance is subject to various restrictions relating to the size or presence of nearby material. For instance, when it's a verb that's focused, /fa/ will appear if the verb has no complement (making /fa/ VP-final) or if the verb's complement includes more than one PWd. However, /fa/ will not appear if the verb has a single-word complement:

(59) a. Verb fab. Verb fa Adjective Nounc. *Verb fa Noun

Inkelas (1988) and Selkirk (2002) propose to account for these facts in terms of the prosodic phrasing of the different VP types in (59):

(60) a. (Verb fa)_{PPh}
b. (Verb fa)_{PPh} (Adjective Noun)PPH
c. *(Verb fa Noun)

Normally the full VP will be parsed as a single phonological phrase, but when it contains three prosodic words, as in (60b), the complement will be parsed as a separate PPh under the pressure of a BINARYMAXIMUM constraint (Selkirk 2000), which forbids a PPh node to dominate more than two PWd nodes. The generalization on the appearance of /fa/ now becomes straightforward: it's omitted when it would not appear at the right edge of a phonological phrase.

This requirement could be enforced in one of two ways. Inkelas (1988) proposes that /fa/ has a subcategorization frame requiring it to appear at the right edge of the PPh. In Generalized Alignment terms, we could translate this proposal into a constraint ALIGN(/fa/, R, PPh, R). Selkirk (2002) proposes that /fa/ is banned from surfacing in phrase-medial position by a markedness constraint she calls MEDIALEXHAUSTIVITY. Because /fa/ is a function word, it doesn't form a prosodic word of its own, and instead its syllable attaches directly to the PPh node. This skipping of levels in the prosodic

hierarchy is marked, and violates constraints of a family that Selkirk (1995) calls EXHAUSTIVITY. The proposal in Selkirk (2002) is that there are separate exhaustivityenforcing constraints for phrase-medial and phrase-peripheral positions, and that the MEDIALEXHAUSTIVITY constraint dominates a morphological constraint requiring the surface realization of /fa/. This accounts for the ability of /fa/ to surface phrase-finally but not phrase medially:

(01)			
verb Focus noun	Medial	MAX-M(focus)	Peripheral
	Exhaustivity		Exhaustivity
☞ [[verb] _{PWd} [noun] _{PWd}] _{PPh}		1	
$[[verb]_{PWd} [fa]_{\sigma} [noun]_{PWd}]_{PPh}$	W1	L	

(62)

 (c_1)

verb FOCUS adjective noun	Medial	Max-M	Peripheral
	Exhaustivity	(focus)	Exhaustivity
\mathbb{R} [[verb] _{PWd} [fa] _{σ}] _{PPh} [[adj] _{PWd} [noun] _{PWd}] _{PPh}			1
$[[verb]_{PWd} [fa]_{\sigma}]_{PPh} [[adj]_{PWd} [noun]_{PWd}]_{PPh}$		W1	L

Another well-known case of prosody-driven morph omission occurs in the pausal phonology of Classical Arabic, of which McCarthy (to appear, 2011) gives an analysis in OI terms. Further examples are reported in K'ichee (Henderson to appear), where the root transitive /-o/ and intransitive /-ik/ appear only when they would be final in an Intonational Phrase; in San Miguel Acatán Kanjobal (Zavala 1992: 64), where transitivity-marking thematic vowels only appear phrase-finally; and in Tohono O'odham (Fitzgerald 1994) where the presence or absence of the *g*-determiner is determined by a requirement that utterances begin with a trochaic foot.

All in all, it seems reasonable to conclude that both DEP-M and MAX-M constraints can be violated for phonological reasons. This suggests that we are on the right track in assuming that phonological constraints and constraints on spell-out reside in a single module of the grammar, and can be freely re-ranked with respect to one another.

Naturally, if there exist nonphonological constraints on spell-out besides those of the DEP-M and MAX-M families, we expect that these too should sometimes be violated for the sake of better-satisfying higher-ranked phonological constraints. For example, there might be markedness constraints on the morphosyntactic feature-content of morphs, which forbade certain features or feature-combinations from occurring at the morph level. Analyses featuring such constraints can be found in Noyer (1993, esp. §1.1) and Bonet (1994). One use to which this might be put is in causing the neutralization of a morphological distinction in certain contexts. For instance, Noyer's (1993: 5) analysis of the absence of first person dual forms in Arabic invokes a constraint *[+1 –sg –pl], which prohibits the co-occurrence of dual number ([-singular, -plural], on his assumptions about number features) with first person. While this feature-combination might exist in the input to spell-out, ranking *[+1 –sg

-pl] above the appropriate faithfulness constraints will prevent all of the features from being spelled out by morphs, thus preventing there from being an overt dual/plural contrast in the first person.

Can such constraints be violated for the sake of satisfying phonological constraints? At least one case³⁵ is known to me in which a morph which is normally omitted in a particular morphosyntactically-defined context will appear in that context if its presence is needed in order to satisfy a phonological requirement. The example, reported by Cook (1971), comes from Tsuut'ina, an Athabaskan language of southern Alberta which is also referred to in the literature under the name Sarcee. Tsuut'ina, like most Athabaskan languages, has a rich system of inflectional prefixes. Among these, the following four are omitted in certain morphosyntactic contexts:

(63) a. /mi/ 3rd person singular direct object
 b. /ni/ 2nd person singular subject
 c. /ni/ terminative
 d. /si/ perfective

Cook (1971) observes that these prefixes do appear, even in the morphosyntactic settings where they would normally be omitted, if omitting them would yield a word which had no syllable nuclei in the prefix string.³⁶ The terminative marker /ni/, for example, is normally omitted with 3rd person subjects:

(64)	a. nà-nī-s-nó home-terminative-1sg.subj√travel 'I am going to camp (got there)' b. nà-∅-nó home-3sg.def.subj-√travel 'He is going to camp (got there)'
(65)	a. tì-nī-s-ná theme-terminative-1sg.subj-√move.camp 'I will move camp' b. tì-∅-ná theme-3sg.def.subj-√move.camp 'He will move camp'

However, /ni/ is not omitted, even with 3_{rd} person subjects, when there is no other morph in the prefix string to supply a vowel nucleus:

 $^{^{35}}$ In addition to the Tsuut'ina facts discussed here, a second possible case, occurring in Swahili, is reported by Brandon (1975).

³⁶ Cook (1984: \$11.40) states that this condition on the omission of (61b-d) actually make reference not to the full prefix string but to the 'conjunct' (as opposed to 'disjunct') prefix string. The presence of a syllabic disjunct prefix, he says, does not block /ni/-omission. In the Athapaskan literature, the term 'conjunct domain' refers to prefix positions 4 through 9; it includes subject and object markers, mode, tense, and aspect markers, classifiers, and certain adverbial prefixes (see, *inter alia*, Hoijer 1971; McDonough 1990; Halpern 1990; Hargus & Tuttle 1997 for details).

(66) a. nī-s-nà terminative-1sg.subj-√travel 'I have finished travelling' b. ní-Ø-na terminative-3sg.def.subj-√travel 'He has finished traveling'

This phonological restriction on whether or not to insert an affix is all the more striking if we look at Tsuut'ina words which have no phonologically-overt prefixes. In these words, satisfaction of the requirement that at least one vowel precede the stem is accomplished by [i]-epenthesis:

(67) $/ \varnothing -zi/ \rightarrow i.zi$ 3sg.def.subj- $\sqrt{be.numb}$ 'it will be numb'

As Cook (1971) notes, the epenthesis rule and the blocking of morph-omission in items like (64b) represent a clear case of a grammatical conspiracy: the language employs two different strategies in pursuit of satisfying the same surface wellformedness condition. The Tsuut'ina conspiracy can thus be added to the examples from discussed in the previous section.

In this case, the constraint served by the conspiracy demands that at least one vowel precede the stem. Sometimes, as in (65), the language epenthesizes an [i]. However, if the word in question contains an abstract morpheme [TERMINATIVE], the terminative morph /ni/ (which otherwise might be omitted) is inserted instead.

The Tsuut'ina facts can be analyzed as follows within the assumptions of OI theory. First, the usual omission of the terminative morph results from MAX-M(terminative) being dominated by a morphological markedness constraint something like the following:

(68) *TERM-3 Assign a violation-mark if morphs whose FSes contain the features [terminative] and [3rd person] are present in the same morphosyntactic word.

As stated here, *TERM-3 is entirely *ad hoc*; presumably the avoidance of this particular feature co-occurrence at the morph level is due to some constraint(s) of a more general nature.

The following ranking yields omission of terminative /ni/ with 3rd person subjects:

(69)			
theme ₁ -term ₂ -3p ₃ -move.camp ₄	Max-M	*Term-3	Max-M
	(3p)		(terminative)
a. \mathbb{R} tì ₁ Ø ₃ ná ₄			1
b. $ti_1 ni_2 \mathscr{O}_3 n\dot{a}_4$		W1	L
c. $t\hat{i}_1 ni_2 n\hat{a}_4$	W1		L

The constraint MAX-M(3p), which demands insertion of the 3_{rd} -person subject morph, is undominated, eliminating candidates which do not have the feature ' 3_{rd} person' at the morph level. This leaves as contenders (67b), which inserts the terminative morph /ni/, and (67a), which omits it. Ranking *TERM-3 above MAX-M(term) ensures that (67a) wins.

Next we need to account for the [i]-epenthesis process in (65). For this, we need to assume that some phonological markedness constraint which requires a vowel to precede the stem—call it NONINITIAL—dominates the anti-epenthesis constraint DEP:

(70)		
3.sg.def.subj ₁ -be.numb ₂	NonInitial	Dep
a. $\mathbb{P} \mathcal{O}_1$ i zí ₂		1
b. $Ø_1 z i_2$	W1	L

(-1)

NonINITIAL should be understood as a cover constraint more general constraints which produce a pressure to have at least one pre-stem syllable. One possible way of explaining this pressure would be to assume that the prefix domain in Tsuut'ina is a morphosyntactic constituent. We could then further assume that the right edge of the prefix domain must coincide with the right edge of a foot or some other prosodic constituent (McCarthy & Prince 1993b; Truckenbrodt 1995), which in turn would entail that the prefix domain must contain at least one syllable. This would be quite close to the analysis proposed by McDonough (1990, 1996) for similar effects in Navajo.

Next we have to consider words like (64b), in which /ni/-omission is blocked for the sake of satisfying NonInitial. Here, NonInitial must dominate *3-Term (because /ni/ is used in a third-person context) and Dep must dominate *3-Term as well (because /ni/ is used rather than the epenthetic [i]):

(71)			
terminative ₁ -3.sg.def.subj ₂ -travel ₃	NonInitial	Dep	*3-Term
a. \mathbb{R} $n'_1 \mathscr{Q}_2 na_2$			1
$b. Ø_2 na_3$	W1		L
c. i $Ø_2$ na ₃		W1	L

The Tsuut'ina facts are clearly linked to a class of related effects in the verbal systems of other Athapaskan languages which are traditionally referred to as 'augmentation'. These effects involve an apparent phonological minimality requirement on the size of the prefix domain and/or the overall verb. It is a disputed question, however, whether

this minimality effect is genuinely a phonological one, or if it is a morphological in nature. Is the constraint at work one which requires at least one *syllable* to precede the stem, or is it one which requires at least one *affix* to precede the stem? If the second view is correct for Tsuut'ina, then this example is not relevant for making the argument that morphological wellformedness conditions can be violated for the sake of satisfying phonological ones.

Hargus & Tuttle (1997) favor the morphological account, arguing convincingly that certain previously-proposed phonological accounts are unworkable for augmentation effects in a number of Athapaskan languages. They suggest that augmentative elements are morphs inserted under the pressure of a constraint requiring all verbs to have tense prefixes. This exact account will not work for Tsuut'ina, because the class of prefixes in (61) which can be included to satisfy the minimality requirement include aspect and person-agreement markers. However, it is easy to imagine a looser restriction for Tsuut'ina: every verb stem must be preceded by a prefix, not necessarily just a tense prefix.³⁷ This is also unlikely to be viable for Tsuut'ina, given that the otherwise-expected omission of 3rd person singular direct object /mi/ is apparently blocked in words like the following, which contain the 1st person singular subject prefix /s/ (Cook 1971, p. 469):

- (72) a. mí-s-gúł 3.sg.obj-1sg.subj.-√hit 'I am hitting him'
 - b. mí-s-?ás 3.sg.obj-1sg.subj.-√kick 'I am kicking it'

c. mí-s-mō 3.sg.obj-1sg.subj.-√pick 'I will pick it'

If the requirement at issue were simply that at least one prefix morph precede the verb stem, then it is unclear why /s/ should not suffice to meet this requirement.

5. Conclusion

Some types of suppletive allomorphy make reference to phonological properties of the environments in which the allomorphs appear, but at the same time seem to show the influence of arbitrary and non-phonological preferences. These cases have been the subject of much debate regarding whether they should be treated as arising in the phonology or in the morphology. Here and in Wolf (2008) I have argued that the answer to that question is, effectively, "both"—that phonology and morphological spell-out occur in one and the same grammar. This permits an analysis of cases like the Dyirbal ergative which avoids difficulties for various proposals about how to incorporate arbitrary-preference constraints into the phonology, as well as letting us

³⁷ Classical Nahuatl reportedly requires all nouns to carry at least one affix, with a meaningless suffix /li/ appearing if no meaningful affix is required (Andrews 1975, Trommer 2001: §3.3.1).

deal with the wide range of attested cases in which satisfaction of morphological constraints on spell-out is sacrificed in order to ensure satisfaction of phonological constraints.

The same theoretical conclusion is pointed to by facts, beyond the scope of this paper, which bear on the *interleaving* part of Optimal Interleaving. The implementation of phonology and spell-out in a single OT-CC grammar has, I have argued, desirable consequences for the treatment of several types of serial interactions between phonology and morphology. These include cyclic effects (Wolf 2008: ch. 5), non-derived environment blocking (Wolf 2008: ch. 4), underapplication in derived environments (Wolf 2008: ch. 5; 2010a), and 'local ordering' interactions (Anderson 1969, 1972, 1974) between phonological and morphological processes (Wolf 2009). To the extent that OT-CC gives us the results we want regarding phonology/morphology derivational interactions, this is a strong hint that phonology and morphology belong in one and the same OT-CC grammar, consistent with the conclusion argued for in the present chapter, namely that lexical insertion occurs in the phonological component of the grammar.

Before concluding this chapter, it is worth briefly discussing where the OI research program can go from here. As alluded to earlier, an important theoretical issue to be addressed involves the relationship between morph insertion and prosodification as steps in gradual Harmonic-Serialist derivations. In many cases of PCSA, the choice between allomorphs is often made on the basis of which would result in a less-marked syllabic or metrical structure. For example, in the Sámi data in (44), the pairing of even-parity allomorphs with even-parity bases and odd-parity allomorphs with odd-parity bases is most readily explained in terms of a pressure to parse all syllables into feet, and hence for the syllable count of the overall word to be even, assuming that feet are going to be bisyllabic (Dolbey 1997). This analysis, however, will be hard to implement in Harmonic Serialism if it were assumed that morph insertion, syllabification, and foot-parsing all occur in separate steps, since otherwise the choice of one allomorph versus another cannot be rationalized except with reference to conditions that will not obtain until several steps later. To the extent that allomorphs are chosen on the basis of which will make possible a less-marked syllabic, metrical, or prosodic parse, this suggest that the building of prosodic structure must occur for free, simultaneous with morph insertion, in a single step of a Harmonic-Serialist derivation. This conclusion is in tension, however, with a growing body of work arguing that there are benefits to assuming that syllabification (Elfner 2008), foot construction (McCarthy 2008b; Pruitt 2008; McCarthy & Pruitt to appear; though cf. Hyde 2009), and prosodic-phrase construction (Kimper to appear), all occur as their own steps in HS or OT-CC derivations. It will be very interesting to see how and whether these arguments can be reconciled with the arguments for doing spell-out in the same type of derivational architecture; no matter what the fate of the various theories being considered, investigation of these issues will undoubtedly reveal new generalizations about the nature of phonological and morphological operations, and the degree and manner of their integration with one another.

The aforementioned issues involving prosodification are an instance of a more general question: is allomorph choice always made at the point in the derivation the morpheme in question is spelled out, or may the decision look ahead to later steps of the derivation to see what using this or that allomorph will set us up to experience later on in the derivation? Implementing spell-out in HS, where only a single derivational path can be pursued, imposes a quite strict exclusion of lookahead, which in many cases is desirable (see e.g. McCarthy [to appear] on pausal phenomena in Classical Arabic). In OT-CC, on the other hand, because a multiplicity of derivational paths are constructed, and which then compete as candidates, the door is opened for very specific forms lookahead to emerge (see e.g. Wolf 2008: ch. 2), which may also be desirable. As with the specific case of morph insertion and prosodification, an interesting topic for further investigation will be to what extent, if ever, derivational lookahead effects in PCSA exist in natural languages, and how the attested cases may be fit into the general assumptions of OI theory.

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