## Deriving the nonconcatenative preference in Dinka*

Coppe van Urk and Adam Chong
Queen Mary University of London
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$\triangleright$ Western Nilotic languages have been cited as a challenge for concatenative approaches to morphology, because of a preference for non-concatenative processes (e.g. Aronoff and Fudeman 2011:54; Inkelas 2014:72; Arkadiev and Klamer 2018:450).
$\triangleright$ In Dinka, many inflected forms are marked only by changes to the root vowel and lengthening, as illustrated for the verb mîit 'pull':

|  | Simple | CF | CP | APPL | AP.APPL | AP |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| UNM | miit | mîiit | mịiit | mị̂it | mị̂iit | mịit |
| NF | mîiit | mjê $\varepsilon \varepsilon t$ | mjẹ̀eet | mjệet | mjêeet | mịiit |
| NTS | míiit | míiit | mịiit | mîit | mịiit | mịiit |
| 1SG | mjèzet | mjê $¢ \varepsilon$ t | mjèeet | mjệet | mjệeet | mjẹeet |
| 2SG | mîit |  | mịiit |  |  | mîit |
| 3sG | mìiit | mîiit | mịiit | mîit | mị̂iit | mịiit |
| PASS | mît |  |  |  |  |  |

This talk: We develop a concatenative view of Dinka morphology, in which these changes are taken to reflect -V affixes that integrate into the root (cf. Trommer 2011, 2015)
$\triangleright$ We demonstrate that licit -V suffixes in Dinka show vowel reduction and propose that -V suffixes incorporate into the root to escape a ban on vowel contrast in final position.
$\triangleright$ This proposal explains the strong correlation between grade changes and lengthening across paradigms in verbal and nominal morphology and provides an explanation of an apparent exception in -CV affixes.
$\Rightarrow$ The apparent preference for non-concatenative morphology reflects surface conditions on the wellformedness of suffixes. As a result, Dinka morphology in fact provides evidence for an approach in which non-concatenative expression may be determined by the phonology.

[^0]
## 1 Non-concatenative morphology in Dinka

### 1.1 Monosyllabicity in Dinka roots

$\triangleright$ Dinka roots are generally monosyllabic with an obligatory onset and coda, as illustrated with some nouns and verbs in Luanyjang Dinka (1a-h):
(1)

|  | Noun | Meaning |  | Verb | Meaning |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. jòom | 'wind', | e. | máaan | 'hate.nF' |  |
| b. kít | 'color' | f. | kóoot | 'care.for.NF' |  |
| c. pjè̀en | 'viper' | g. | kwăatat | 'wrap.nF' |  |
| d. gwè | 'collar bone' | h. | těet | 'pick.nF' |  |
| (Remijsen and Ladd 2008:180,186, | Remijsen and Manyang 200 |  |  |  |  |

(Remijsen and Ladd 2008:180,186, Remijsen and Manyang 2009:115,119)
$\Rightarrow$ Andersen (1993:2) and Remijsen and Manyang (2009:114) provide the following template for the surface form of Dinka nouns and verbs in the Agar and Luanyjang dialects, respectively:
(2) Surface template for Dinka nouns and verbs:

C (w) (j) V (V) (V) C
Note: The underlying form of roots is more restricted and maximally permits a long vowel and one glide (Andersen 1993, 2014; Ladd and Blum 2021).

## Length, voice, and tone in Dinka roots

$\triangleright$ Dinka vowels display a ternary contrast in length (Remijsen and Gilley 2008), between short, long, and overlong vowels. Some near-minimal triplets from Luanyjang are in (3): ${ }^{1}$

| (3) Short |  | Long |  | Overlong |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| láy | 'k.o. berries | làaŋ | 'k.o. berry' | lǎaan | 'slave' |
| kít | 'color' | kịit | 'colors' | kîiit | 'cloth bag' |
| cól | 'mouse' | cǒol | 'charcoal' | côool | 'charcoal.pl' |

$\triangleright$ Most Dinka dialects distinguish three or four tones, high /人/, low/i/, falling/人/, and sometimes also rising / $/$ /. Agar Dinka has three tones, while Luanyjang Dinka has all four.
$\triangleright$ Finally, vowels show a binary contrast between modal/creaky voice (unmarked) and breathy voice /\%/, in all vowels except $u .^{2}$

### 1.2 Vowel fronting and lowering

The most common expression of non-concatenative morphology in Dinka involves two processes of vowel fronting and vowel lowering.

[^1]Andersen (1993) describes fronting and lowering in terms of three distinct vowel "grades":

$\triangleright$ Grade 1 describes the underlying vowel in the root. ${ }^{3}$
$\triangleright$ Vowel fronting (Grade 2): A number of different inflectional and derivational categories involve vowel fronting, primarily of the central vowel $a$ : ${ }^{4}$

| (4) | Underlying form | 3SG | Non-topical subject | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | lêer | lèeer | léeer | 'roll' |
|  | yáan | ๆย̇ยєп | ๆย́єєп | 'open' |
|  | côol | còosl | cósol | 'call' |

(Agar Dinka; Andersen 1993:20)
$\triangleright$ Vowel lowering (Grade 3): Other morphological categories systematically involve vowel lowering and breaking (of peripheral vowels), except when the root vowel is already low:

| (5) | Underlying form | 1SG | 2PL | Meaning |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pîk | pjẹ̀ek | pjẹ́k-kạ̀ | 'push' |
|  | bộk | bọ̀s | bọk-kạ̀ | 'throw at' |
|  | lât | làat | lát-kạ̀ | 'insult' |

$\Rightarrow$ Key point: A vowel grade does not represent a single morpheme, but describes recurring processes that are used by a variety of morphological categories to signal inflection.

## 2 Constraints on Dinka suffixes

## Why would a language prefer non-concatenative morphology?

$\triangleright$ The form of affixes is significantly restricted. Suffixes are limited to a -(C)V template (cf. Reid 2020:52 on Nuer), and vocalic suffixes always take the shape of the reduced vowel $e$.
$\triangleright$ We propose that Dinka places a constraint on vowel contrast word-finally, so that a -V suffix is preferentially integrated into the root. Non-concatenative morphology then is a result of surface phonological constraints

[^2]
### 2.1 Restrictions on suffixes in Dinka

## What do suffixes look like in Dinka? ${ }^{5}$

1. Verbal suffixes. Verbs take a number of suffixes, which either have the form -V or -CV. All vocalic suffixes are $-e$, whereas the CV suffixes are $-k a / k u / k e$.
Table 3. Agar Dinka verbal paradigms by suffix.

|  | Simple | CF | CP | APPL | AP.APPL | AP |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| UNM |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NF |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| NTS |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1sG |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2SG |  | -é |  | -ẹ | -é | -ẹ |
| 3sg |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 1PL | -kụ̀/kụ́ | -kụ̀ | -kụ̀ | -kụ̀ | -kụ̀ | -kụ̀ |
| 2PL | -kạ̀/kạ́ | -kạ̀ | -kà | -kạ̀ | -kạ̀ | -kạ̀ |
| 3pl | -kẹ/kẹ́ | -kẹ̀ | -kẹ̀ | -kẹ̀ | -kẹ̀ | -kẹ̀ |
| PASS |  | -è | -è | -è | -è | - |
| PASS:CT | -è | -è | -è | -ẹ̀ | -è | -è |

$(\mathrm{NF}=$ non-finite, $\mathrm{NTS}=$ non-topical subject, $\mathrm{CT}=$ circumstantial topic, $\mathrm{CF}=$ centrifugal, $\mathrm{CP}=$ centripetal, APPL $=$ applicative, AP.APPL $=$ antipassive applicative)
2. Nominal construct state suffixes. There are two - C suffixes that mark modified nouns. The suffix - $n$ usually triggers nasal replacement, but may surface overtly with some nouns:
(6) a. dò̀ok 'boy'
b. dọ́c-n dà boy-cs1.sG another 'another boy'

Agar Dinka; Andersen 2020:275,277)
$\Rightarrow$ Dinka places significant restrictions on suffixes:
$\triangleright$ Optional onset: Unlike roots, suffixes may surface without an onset.
$\triangleright$ No length: Unlike roots, suffixes do not display long or overlong vowels.
$\triangleright$ No coda: Unlike roots, suffixes do not surface with a coda.
$\triangleright$ Little stacking: Suffixes display little stacking (though the plural clitics can be decomposed into a -C and -V suffix).

A -CV template:
Suffixes are restricted to the form -CV maximally (see also Appendix).

[^3]
### 2.2 Vowel grades as -V suffixes

## Key observation:

Dinka permits few -V suffixes. Those that do surface have the form -e.
$\triangleright$ The suffix $-e$ marks the passive, passive circumstantial topic, and 2nd person singular. No other vowel suffixes occur (though CV suffixes may have different vowels, see sec. 3.3).
$\triangleright$ There is evidence that $e$ is the underspecified vowel in Dinka:

- Remijsen and Gilley (2008:p. 335) note that short e (breathy or creaky) is "appropriately transcribed [ $\mathrm{\rho}$ ] in many of its realizations".
- Andersen (2007:fn. 20) points out that much of the reduced functional vocabulary ends in $e$, suggesting vowel reduction. Examples include the preposition è/nè, the negative auxiliary $c e$ è, and some complementizers (e.g. kè 'then', é 'while').
- In the paradigms of the perfect auxiliary cé and future auxiliary bé, short forms surface with $e$, alternating with full vowels in long forms.


## Proposal:

The prevalence of -e reflects a pressure to reduce vowel contrast in word-final position. Dinka vowel grades reflect -V affixes that undergo metathesis to escape vowel reduction.
$\triangleright$ Fronting (Grade 2): We posit a front vowel suffix -i for Grade 2 (or possibly $-\varepsilon$ ), since this grade triggers fronting. In addition, this grade likely has its origins in a front vowel. See the cognates of 3rd person singular:

(7) | Form | Gloss | Language |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Pàm- $-\bar{\varepsilon}$ | eat-3SG | Surkum (Andersen 2014:239) |
|  | ríin- | run-3sG | Nuer (Reid 2020:102) |
|  | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}-\mathrm{g} \dot{\varepsilon} \varepsilon r-\bar{\varepsilon}$ | PST-build-3sG | Anywa (Reh 1996:194) |

$\triangleright$ Lowering (Grade 3): We identify Grade 3 with the low vowel $-a$, since this grade triggers vowel lowering across the board. The cognate of Grade 3 inflection is also often a low vowel, such as in the 1st person singular:
(8)

| Form | Gloss |
| :--- | :--- |
| Pàm- |  |
| l $\overline{\text { capap-í }}$ | eat-1sG |
| open-1sG |  |

Language
Surkum (Andersen 2014:239)
Nuer (Reid 2020:103)
ā-gé $\varepsilon$ r-ā $\quad$ PST-build-1sG
Anywa (Reh 1996:194)

Another piece of evidence for this proposal is that auxiliaries with a reduced vowel (the perfect $c e$ and future beé) surface with these vowels in Grade 2 and Grade 3 contexts, respectively:

Table 4. Paradigm of perfect auxiliary. ${ }^{6}$

| Grade in lexical verbs |  | Perfect auxiliary |
| :--- | :---: | :--- |
| UNM |  | cẹ́ |
| NTS | 2 | cịí |
| 1SG | 3 | cà |
| 2SG | $(3)$ | cá |
| 3SG | 2 | cẹ̀ |
| 1PL | 3 | cựuk |
| 2PL | câak |  |
| 3PL | $(2)$ | cịik |
| PASS | 2 | cịíi |
| PASS:CT | cịin-ẹ̀ |  |

$(\mathrm{NF}=$ non-finite, $\mathrm{NTS}=$ non-topical subject, $\mathrm{CT}=$ circumstantial topic $)$

## 3 Vowel grades as metathesis

### 3.1 Prominence reduction drives metathesis

## What constraints drive vowel reduction?

$\triangleright$ Crosswhite $(2001,2004)$, based on a crosslinguistic survey on vowel reduction, proposes that vowel reduction is driven in some languages by what she calls "prominence reduction", a pressure to neutralize contrast in less prominent positions.
$\triangleright$ We suggest that the word-final position is a less prominent position in Dinka. We adopt a constraint that bans a mora word-finally
(9) *u\#: Assign a violation mark for a word-final mora.
$\triangleright$ We propose that reduction to the default vowel $e$ occurs because $e \boldsymbol{e}$ can be a non-moraic vowel in Dinka (see also Crosswhite 2001 on schwa). As a result, e will not violate (9).

## What happens when a root takes a suffix with a moraic vowel (e.g. -i or -a)?

$\triangleright$ For vocalic affixes with moraic vowels, (9) drives incorporation into the root if faithfulness constraints preventing vowel reduction or deletion outrank constraints blocking metathesis (Max $\mu \gg$ Linearity).

[^4]$\triangleright$ We illustrate with a tableau in (10) for Grade 2, the 3rd person singular of mîit 'pull'. As motivated above, the Grade 2 suffix is $-i$.
(10) Tableau for Grade 2 3SG suffix.

| Input: <br> [mîit+ìisG] | $\operatorname{Max\mu }$ | $* \mu \#$ | Linearity |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. mìiit |  |  | $*$ |
| b. mìit | $*!$ |  |  |
| c. mîit-ì |  | $*!$ |  |
| d. mîit-ẹ̀ | $*!$ |  |  |

$\triangleright$ (We model the fronting and lowering effects as the outcome of assimilation under vowel coalescence, see also Zaleska 2020. Details omitted for time.)

### 3.2 Grade changes imply lengthening in verbal paradigms

Changes in vowel grade strongly correlate with lengthening. We present the distribution of vowel grade and length in Agar Dinka for five verbal paradigms (Andersen 1992, 1993, 2017):

Table 5. Agar Dinka paradigms by grade.

| 5. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Simple | CF | CP | APPL | APPL.AP |
| UNM |  | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| NF |  | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| NTS | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 1SG | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 2SG |  | 3 | 2 | 3 | 3 |
| 3SG | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 1PL |  | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| 2PL | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 3PL |  | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| PASS |  | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| PASS:CT | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |

$\triangleright$ This table is laid out according to Andersen's division between "derivational" morphology (columns) and "inflectional" morphology (rows).
$\triangleright$ This division is useful for displaying paradigms, but likely about attachment height rather than a difference in type of morphology.

## Table 6. Agar Dinka paradigms by length.

|  | Simple | CF | CP | APPL | APPL.AP |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| UNM |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| NF | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| NTS | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 1SG | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 2SG |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 3SG | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 1PL |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 2PL |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| 3PL |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| PASS |  | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |
| PASS:CT | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu$ | $-\mu_{\text {II }}$ | $-\mu$ |

$(\mathrm{NF}=$ non-finite, $\mathrm{NTS}=$ non-topical subject, $\mathrm{CT}=$ circumstantial topic, $\mathrm{cF}=$ centrifugal, $\mathrm{cP}=$ centripetal, APPL $=$ applicative, APPL.AP $=$ applicative antipassive, $-\mu=$ lengthening of the root by one mora, $-\mu_{\text {II }}=$ lengthening of the root up to a bimoraic limit)

$$
\Rightarrow \text { In accordance with our view, Grade } 2 \text { and Grade } 3 \text { morphological categories reliably }
$$ lengthen roots by one degree of length across verbal and nominal paradigms (Andersen 1993, 2017; Ladd and Blum 2021; Van Urk and Sun 2021).

### 3.3 The lack of vowel reduction in -CV suffixes

Consider verbal paradigms for the simple transitive:
Table 7. Verbal paradigms of simple transitive by verb class. ${ }^{7}$

|  | Grade | CVC/F | CVC/L | CVVC/F | CVVC/H |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| UNM |  | CV̀C | CV̀C | CV̀VC | CV̇VC |
| NF |  | CVVVC | CV̇VC | CV̂VVC | CV́VVC |
| NTS | 2 | CV́VC | CV́VC | CV́VVC | CV́VVC |
| 1sG | 3 | CV̀VC | CV̀VC | CV̀VVC | CV̇VVC |
| 2SG |  | CV̀C | CV̀C | CVVVC | CV́VC |
| 3SG | 2 | CV̇VC | CVVVC | CVVVC | CVVVC |
| 1PL |  | CV́C-kụ̀ | CV́C-kụ̀ | CV̀VC-kụ́ | CV̀VC-kứ |
| 2PL | 3 | CV́C-kà | CV́C-kà | CV̀VC-kạ | CV̀VC-kạ́ |
| 3 PL |  | CV́C-kè̀ | CV́C-kẹ̀ | CV̀VC-kẹ́ | CV̀VC-kẹ́ |
| PASS |  | CV́C | CV́C | CVVC | CV́VC |
| Pass:CT | 2 | CVVVC-è | CVVVC-è | CVVVC-è | CV̂VVC-ẹ̀ |

[^5]
## Observation:

There is no obvious restriction on vowels in the plural -CV suffixes (e.g. 2PL $-k a$ and $1 \mathrm{PL}-k u$ ).
$\triangleright$ Section 2 posits the ranking $\operatorname{MAX} \mu \gg * \mu \#$. The effect of the constraint favoring reduction only emerges because of the low ranking of Linearity.
$\triangleright$ This set-up predicts that, if metathesis is impossible, then we should not see any reduction. We suggest that, in -CV suffixes, the initial consonant protects the vowel from integration.
$\triangleright$ We posit a ban on non-local metathesis, enforced by Carpenter's (2002) I-Adjacency, in addition to high-ranking constraints blocking complex codas and consonant deletion. ${ }^{8}$ Since reduction is blocked by $\operatorname{Max} \mu \gg{ }^{*} \mu \#$, the vowel surfaces faithfully:

| Input: $\text { [côol+kụ́ }{ }_{1 \mathrm{PL}} \text { ] }$ | MaxC | $\begin{gathered} \text { *Complex } \\ \text { Coda } \end{gathered}$ | I-ADJ | Max $\mu$ | * $\mu \#$ | Linearity |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a. còol-kụ́ |  |  |  |  | * |  |
| b. còoวl | *! |  |  |  |  | * |
| c. còoolk |  | *! | ** |  |  | ** |
| d. còol-kẹ |  |  |  | *! |  |  |
| d. còosl-kẹ |  |  | *!* |  |  | ** |

$\Rightarrow$ In accordance with this account, there is no lengthening before -CV suffixes. As evident in Table 7, short roots remain short and long roots remain long.

## Independent evidence for a preference for local metathesis

$\triangleright$ One piece of support for the idea that Dinka bans non-local metathesis comes from auxiliaries that lack a coda consonant, such as the perfect cé and future bé.
$\triangleright$ Precisely with these auxiliaries, the vowels in plural -CV suffixes do undergo metathesis, because metathesis is now local (only the onset C intervenes):

(11) |  | Plural suffix | Perfect auxiliary |  |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
|  | 1PL | -kù̀ | cụ̀uk |
|  | 2PL | -kà̀ | câak |
|  | 3PL | -kẹ̀ | cịik |

[^6]
## Concluding remarks

$\triangleright$ We have argued that the prevalence of non-concatenative inflection in Dinka ultimately derives from surface phonological constraints on permissible suffixes.
$\triangleright$ Dinka morphology in fact provides evidence that affixation is underlyingly concatenative, since such a view posits a direct relationship between the wellformedness of suffixation and non-concatenative processes.

## Across Western Nilotic

We're currently working on extending this view across Western Nilotic systems, focusing on Shilluk and Nuer. A number of observations that we think are promising:
$\triangleright$ In Shilluk, all affixes are limited to [-ATR] vowels. Instead of process of lowering and fronting, several morphological categories in Shilluk shift the root vowel to [+ATR].
$\triangleright$ In Dinka/Nuer, no contrast in creaky/breathy voice is found in suffix vowels. In Dinka, all suffix vowels are breathy. In Nuer, voice quality is strictly determined by [ATR] value in suffixes. Both languages shift the root vowel to breathy in a number of paradigms.
$\triangleright$ In Shilluk, almost all suffixes contain short vowels. All lengthening lengthens the root to overlong (i.e. by two degrees of length if possible).

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## Appendix: Implementing a -(C)V template for affixes

## How do we model the -CV restriction on suffixes?

$\triangleright$ On the $-(C) V$ shape.

- The onset requirement of roots is evidence for high-ranking Onset. In suffixes, the onset $C$ is already provided by the obligatory coda consonant of the root. ${ }^{9}$
- We attribute the absence of codas to NoCoda. Roots must be exempted from this effect, perhaps by McCarthy and Prince's (1990) FinalC (see also Gafos 1998).
- The absence of long or overlong vowels is attributable to a constraint on long vowels at the end of the word, ${ }^{*} \mu \mu \#$. A similar restriction is active in Nuer (Reid 2020).
$\triangleright$ Little stacking.
A number of authors have related word maximality effects to metrical structure (de Lacy 2003; Ketner 2006; Uchihara and Mendoza Ruiz 2021). The combination of maximal root and affix template are reminiscent of a disyllabic foot.
To enforce this maximum, we propose two constraints on foot shape: i) a (categorical) constraint forcing right-aligned feet (Uchihara and Mendoza Ruiz 2021), and ii) a constraint anchoring the root to a foot boundary.
(12) Align-R(Ft,Wd): A foot should be right-aligned with the word edge. Align-L(Root,Ft): The root should be left-aligned with a foot.

Taken together, these constraints ensure that a prosodic word ideally consists of one foot, anchored by the root. ${ }^{10}$
$\Rightarrow$ Suffixes come in all shapes that fit the CV maximum determined by independent constraints (-C, -V, and -CV). Non-concatenative morphology results from surface phonological conditions and how Dinka prefers to resolve violations of them

[^7]
## Appendix B: Multiple affixation and mora coalescence

## Why do verbs appear to be restricted to at most one Grade 2 or Grade $\mathbf{3}$ affix?

$\triangleright$ We can see in Table 6 that most of what Andersen (1993) and Trommer (2011) call the "derivational" morphology (centrifugal, centripetal, applicative, and applicative antipassive) is usually marked by Grade $2 .{ }^{11}$
$\triangleright$ When we combine a Grade 2 derivational category with one of the "inflectional" categories marked by a vowel grade (e.g. nTs, $1 \mathrm{sG}, 3 \mathrm{sG}$ ), we only get one degree of lengthening.

Proposal: We adopt a constraint that penalizes lengthening a short root to overlong, building on the intuition that this type of overlengthening is too great a change.
(13) Матсн-Length: Assign a violation mark if the length of a syllable input differs by more than one degree in the output.

This constraint will allow lengthening of a short root to long and a long root to overlong, but prevents multiple lengthening.

Problem: If this constraint is highly-ranked, we should see a preference for overt affixation return (because $\mathrm{MAx}_{\mathrm{A}} \mu \gg{ }^{*} \mu \#$ blocks reduction).

## Why are overt Grade 2/3 affixes avoided in multiple affixation?

$\triangleright$ We want to draw an analogy with work on multiple reduplication avoidance (Stonham 2007; Zimmermann 2021).
$\triangleright$ In some reduplicating languages, such as Nuu-chah-nulth, only one reduplicating morpheme surfaces in contexts with multiple triggers of reduplication (the underlined suffixes):
(14) m'aa-m'aal-?as-ap

RED-cold-at.wrist-really
'S/he has really cold wrists.'
(Nuu-chah-nulth; Rose 1981:341)
$>$ Zimmermann argues that the abstract prosodic material associated with reduplicating morpheme can undergo prosodic coalescence, in violation of the constraint Uniformity, which regulates the one-to-one correspondence of input and output elements.
(15) Uniformity $\mu$ : Assign a violation mark for every input mora that does not map to a unique output mora.

[^8]$\Rightarrow$ We suggest that a similar repair is at work in multiple affixation. Multiple grade affixes will generate multiple moras that incorporate into the root, but these undergo mora coalescence. The ranking $* \mu \# \gg$ Uniformity $\mu$ ensures a preference for coalescence over overt affixation:


## The bimoraic template in the applicative

$\triangleright$ As discussed by Andersen (1992), Flack (2007), and Trommer (2015), the applicative imposes a bimoraic template and blocks lengthening of long roots to overlong:
(16) Bimoraic template in applicative:

| Unmarked form | Unmarked applicative | Meaning |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| wèc | wệec | 'kick' |
| nàj | nệ̂j | 'plait' |
| cò̀l | cộol | 'call' |
| yàan | yẹ́cn | 'open' |
| (Agar Dinka; Andersen 2017:14) |  |  |

$\triangleright$ We follow Flack (2007) in assuming that the applicative is associated with an indexed markedness constraint penalizing overlong vowels.
$\triangleright$ This markedness constraint will play the same role as Match-Length in limiting mora incorporation, leading to mora coalescence instead of overt affixation.


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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Luanyjang examples are taken from the Remijsen (2013) corpus of noun pairs, where a source is not specifically indicated
    ${ }^{2}$ We will follow Andersen and mark voice and tone only on the first vowel.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ This vowel is most frequent and surfaces in unmarked forms (see Andersen 1993, 2017).
    ${ }^{4}$ With centrifugal verbs and some antipassives, Grade 2 optionally fronts $\rho$ to $\varepsilon$ (Andersen 2017:sec. 3.3)

[^3]:    ${ }^{5}$ We focus on suffixes, since non-concatenative morphology is oriented to the final syllable (as evident in polysyllabic nouns, for example).

[^4]:    ${ }^{6}$ Grades in parentheses indicate grades found in derived paradigms. The 2SG and pass exceptionally do not show their grade in the simple transitive paradigm.

[^5]:    $(\mathrm{NF}=$ non-finite, $\mathrm{NTS}=$ non-topical subject, $\mathrm{CT}=$ circumstantial topic $)$
    ${ }^{7}$ There are four root types, which we follow Andersen (1993) in labeling according to the length and tone displayed in the non-finite form.

[^6]:    ${ }^{8}$ We may also want to block metathesis within the -CV suffix, to rule out the candidate càal-ăk. But note that codas are generally banned in affixes in any case, so the impossibility of this repair may simply reflect a NoCoda constraint (see Appendix for more detail).

[^7]:    ${ }^{9}$ In support of this, notice that some auxiliaries lacking a coda, such as the perfect auxiliary cé or the sequentive góo insert a consonant before a -V suffix (e.g. cîin-è 'PRF-PASs.ct' and gôor-è 'sEQ-PASs.cT', Andersen 2007). But there are other functional items without onsets, such as the nominal prefix $a$ - or the general purpose preposition $e$. So it is also possible that OnSET applies to roots only.
    ${ }^{10}$ Of course, we also need constraints that enforce the root template.

[^8]:    ${ }^{11}$ There are two systematic cases where Grade 2 is not observed when there is no Grade $2 / 3$ in the simple paradigm, which is that the NF and 2 sG forms are often marked by Grade 3 .

