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Echo Reduplication in Kannada: Implications for a Theory of Word Formation

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1 Introduction

According to the Lexicalist Hypothesis, morphological structure is built in  
the lexicon by processes distinct from those that build syntactic structure. The  
structure of morphologically complex words is erased upon insertion into a  
syntactic phrase-marker and hence, is invisible to sentence-level operations  
and descriptions (Chomsky 1981, DiScullo and Williams 1987, Kiparsky  
1982, Mohanan 1981). Hand in hand with this morphosyntactic hypothesis  
are the following morphosemantic and morphophonological claims. First,  
some structure-meaning correspondences are created in the lexicon and hence  
are idiosyncratic, as in (1a, b), while others are created in the syntax and  
therefore are transparently compositional, as in (1c).

(1) a. /kæt/ = CAT  
b. /trans+mit+ion/ = PART OF A CAR  
c. a cat sleeps = SLEEP(CAT)

Second, some phonological rules apply in the lexicon, and hence can have  
idiosyncratic properties (e.g., English trisyllabic laxing: (2a) vs. (2b)), while  
others apply postsyntactically (or everywhere) and hence are exceptionless  
(e.g., English flapping: (3a) vs. (3b)).

(2) a. ser[ij]n : set[e]nity  
b. ob[ij]s : ob[ij]sity

(3) a. sea[D]ed  
b. Have a sea[D]. I'll be right back.

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A corollary of the lexicalist hypothesis is that there should be converging criteria which distinguish words from constituents of larger size. We expect various measures of wordhood to lead us to the same object. The domain of semantic idiosyncracy should be the same as the domain of phonological idiosyncracy. Recent work in the framework of Distributed Morphology challenges lexicalism by showing that there is no single object that is defined by these various criteria (Marantz 1997, Noyer 1998). The elements with idiosyncratic meaning are not the same as the elements defined phonologically as words. Neither of these, in turn, correlates with the domain of non-productive morphological rules. Hence, these authors conclude that there is no well-defined category of word, and so a lexicalist grammatical architecture in which idiosyncratic semantic, syntactic and phonological properties are stored together in a single lexicon becomes less plausible.

This paper adds to the arguments against lexicalism by focusing on the syntactic properties of a morphological rule in Kannada traditionally referred to by Dravidianists as Echo Reduplication (Emenau 1938).¹ I will show that Echo Reduplication (ER) in Kannada applies equally to words, subparts of words and entire syntactic phrases.² Because ER can apply to phrasal categories, we must conclude that it applies post-syntactically; it takes syntactic structures as input and returns morphological forms. Given that it also applies to morphological units which form subparts of words, we conclude that these units are also visible post-syntactically. That is, the internal, sub-word, structure must be visible at the same point as the phrasal structure. Hence, a theory in which word-internal structure is erased prior to the construction of phrases becomes more difficult to maintain. The alternative to the lexicalist theory is one in which syntax provides the input to the morphological component, as in the Distributed Morphology framework. On this view all structure composition takes place in the syntax, which in turn is read by the morphological module.

It is important to observe, however, that there are morphological structures which do not allow ER to apply inside of them, suggesting that some morphological structure is not phrase-structurally represented. Hence, we have evidence that some amount of morphological structure can be seen as

¹This kind of rule is usually called “fixed melody reduplication” in the generative phonological tradition. See, for example, McCarthy 1982, Marantz 1982, Yip 1992, Jha, Sadanand and Vijayakrishnan 1997 for morphophonological analysis.

²Unless noted otherwise, all Kannada data were collected in 1998 and 1999 from R. Amritavalli, S. Chandrashekar and S. Vedantam. Special thanks to R. Armitavalli for her time and careful assistance in the construction of these data.
syntactic structure and that some amount of morphological structure cannot. If the morphological structure that is not phrase-structural were to correspond to some other criteria of lexical item, then we would be able to maintain the lexicalist hypothesis. It does not, however. This leaves us with the question of how to distinguish those pieces of morphological structure that allow ER to apply inside of them from those that do not in a theory without a traditional lexicon, such as Distributed Morphology. I propose that the relevant distinction is between apparent 'morphemes' which are added to the root inside a postsyntactic morphological component and those which are added to the root by syntactic composition.

The paper proceeds as follows. In section 2, I will introduce ER, describing the environments in which it can apply and the problems that these data pose for various versions of the lexicalist hypothesis. In section 3, I present some other possible analyses of ER that maintain the lexicalist hypothesis and I show why these fail to account for the data adequately. In section 4, I present an additional argument from affix ordering against a lexicalist analysis of ER. Finally, in section 5, I outline an analysis of the apparent exceptions to the rule of ER.

2 The Facts

ER in Kannada repeats an element, replacing the first CV with gi- or giː- (depending on the length of the input vowel), and yields a meaning of 'and related stuff' (reduplicant glossed as RED):³

(4) a. pustaka
    book
    'book'

    b. pustaka-gistaka
    book- RED
    'books and related stuff'

  ³Although this paper is not concerned with giving a phonological analysis of ER, phonologically minded readers will want to know what happens when a word beginning with gi- undergoes ER. Four informants gave four different answers to this question. One speaker said that ER applies to such words just as it would to any other word. Hence, we find: giDa 'plant' → giDa-giDa. A second speaker said that the first consonant of the reduplicant must change to either b or v: giDa-biDa, or giDa-viDa. The third speaker agreed with both of the other two speakers in allowing either substitution or not and also said that some speakers may simply be unable to reduplicate such a word at all. The fourth speaker requires the fixed melody to be changed to pa: giDa-paDa. See Jha et al. 1997 for a phonological analysis of ER in various Indian languages. Also see Trivedi 1990 for a typology of ER in India.
ER can apply to all classes of words except interrogative pronouns and demonstrative adjectives (Sridhar 1990). In (4) we see ER applying to a noun; in (5), a verb; in (6), an adjective; and, in (7) a preposition:

(5) a. ooda run 'run' b. ooda-giida beeDa run-RED PROH 'Don’t run or do related activities.'

(6) a. doDDa large 'large' b. doDDa-giDDa large-RED 'large and the like'

(7) a. meele above 'above' b. meele-giile above-RED 'above and the like'

ER may apply either inside ((8a), (9a)) or outside ((8b), (9b)) of inflectional elements:

(8) a. baagil-annu much-gich-id-e anta heeLa-beeDa door-ACC close-RED-PST-1S that say-PROH 'Don’t say that I closed the door or did related activities.'

b. baagil-annu much-id-e-gichide anta heeLa-beeDa door-ACC close-PST-1S-RED that say-PROH 'Don’t say that I closed the door or did related activities.'

(9) a. baagil-giigil-annu much-id-e door-RED-ACC close-PST-1S 'I closed the door and related things.'

b. baagil-annu-giigilanu much-id-e door-ACC-RED close-PST-1S 'I closed the door and related things.'

Entire phrasal categories may be reduplicated by ER:

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'K.G. Vijayakirshnan (personal communication) reports that Tamil, a closely related Dravidian language, does not allow ER to apply inside of inflectional elements.'
The data in (8–10) are problematic for the strictest variant of the lexicalist hypothesis, namely one in which all morphological composition takes place in the lexicon. To my knowledge, no-one has ever explicitly held such a position (but see Chomsky 1993, which may hold it implicitly). The reason such data are problematic for the staunch lexicalist is that the rule applies equally to subword and phrasal constituents, an impossibility if the internal morphological structure is erased upon insertion into the syntactic phrase-marker.

2.1 Variants of Weak Lexicalism

2.1.1 Derivation = Lexical. Inflection = Syntactic

One step back from the staunch lexicalist is the weak-lexicalist, who would hold that derivation and inflection are distinguished with respect to the lexicon. On this view, derivational morphology applies inside the lexicon while inflectional morphology applies outside the lexicon (Anderson 1984, 1992). The weak lexicalist would expect a syntactic rule of ER to be able to capture the facts given in (8–10), but would predict that ER would not be able to reach into complex words formed by rules of derivational morphology.

In (11–13) we see that ER can apply either inside or outside of valency changing morphology, prototypically considered to be derivational/lexical (Grimshaw 1982, Lieber 1980, Selkirk 1982, DiSciullo and Williams 1987):

5See Lidz (1998) for arguments that the reflexive and causative morphology of Kannada is not added to a root inside the lexicon.
(11) Anticausative use of reflexive

a. muchu
close
‘to close (tr.)’

b. muchi-koLLu
close-REFL
‘to close (intr.)’

c. baagilu muchi-gichi-koND-itu anta heeLa-beeDa
door-NOM close-RED-REFL.PST-3SN that say-PROH
‘Don’t say that the door closed or did related things.’

d. baagilu muchi-koND-itu-gichikoNDitu anta heeLa-beeDa
door-NOM close-REFL.PST-3SN-RED that say-PROH
‘Don’t say that the door closed or did related things.’

(12) Reflexive use of reflexive

a. hogaLu
praise
‘to praise’

b. hogaLi-koLLu
praise-REFL
‘to praise oneself.’

c. rashmi tann-annu hogaLi-gigaLi-koND-aLu anta heeLa-beeDa
Rashmi self-ACC praise-RED-REFL.PST-3SF that say-PROH
‘Don’t say that Rashmi praised herself and did related activities.’

d. rashmi tannannu hogaLi-koND-aLu-gigaLikonDaLu
Rashmi self-ACC praise-REFL.PST-3SF-RED
anta heeLa-beeDa
that say-PROH
‘Don’t say that Rashmi praised herself and did related activities.’
(13) Causative

a. kaTTu
   build
   'to build'

b. kaTT—isu
   build-CAUS
   'to make build'

c. naanu mane-yannu kaTT-giTT-is-id-e anta heeLa-beeDa
   I-NOM house-ACC build-RED-CAUS-PST-1S that say-proh
   'Don’t say that I had a house built and did related activities.'

d. naanu mane-yannu kaTT-isi-giTTis-id-e anta
   I-NOM house-ACC build-CAUS-RED-PST-1S that
   heeLa-beeDa
   say-PROH
   'Don’t say that I had a house built and did related activities.'

e. naanu mane-yannu kaTT-is-id-e-giTTiside anta
   I-NOM house-ACC build-CAUS-PST-1S-RED that
   heeLa-beeDa
   say-PROH
   'Don’t say that I had a house built and did related activities.'

Similarly, ER can occur inside or outside of category changing morphology, such as the verbalizing use of the causative morpheme or the deadjectivalizing pronominal affixes.

(14) Verbalizing use of causative

a. patra
   letter
   'letter'

b. patr-isu
   letter-CAUS
   'to write a letter'
c. Rashmi Vijay-ige patra-gitr-is-id-aLu anta heeLa-beeDa Rashmi Vijay-DAT letter-RED-CAUS-PST-3SF that say-PROH 'Don’t say that Rashmi wrote Vijay a letter and did related activities.'

d. Rashmi Vijay-ige patr-is-gitris-id-aLu anta heeLa-beeDa Rashmi Vijay-DAT letter-CAUS-RED-PST-3SF that say-PROH 'Don’t say that Rashmi wrote Vijay a letter and did related activities.'

(15) Deadjectival nouns

a. cikka
   small
   ‘small’

b. cikk-avanu
   small-he
   ‘one who is small.’

c. avanu cikk-gikk-avanu alla
   he-NOM small-RED-he NEG
   ‘It’s not as if he’s a young etc. man.’

d. avan-annu cikk-avanu-gikkavanu anta heeLa-beeDa
   he-ACC small-he-RED that say-PROH
   ‘Don’t say that he’s a young man and such.’

These data are problematic for the weak-lexicalist because in them, ER treats the substructures of words with derivational morphology as equivalent to the substructures of words with inflectional morphology and entire syntactic phrases. Hence, a view in which derivation is lexical but inflection is syntactic will not divide the world in a way consistent with the demands of ER.

It is important to note at this point that there are some domains in which ER may not apply. Consider the examples in (16-20), in which ER cannot apply inside of certain affixes.

(16) a. toor-ike
   show-NMNL
   ‘appearance’
b. * toor-giir-ike
   show-red-nmnl

c. toor-ike giirike
   show-nmnl RED
   'appearances and related things'

(17) a. tooru-vike
   show-GER
   'showing'

b. * toor-giiDu-vike
   show-RED-GER

c. tooruvike giiruvike
   show-ger RED
   'showing and related activities'

(18) a. ooD-aaTa
   run-play
   'running around'

b. * ooD-giiD-aaTa
   run-RED-play

c. ooD-aaTa giiDaTa
   run-play RED
   'running around and related activities'

(19) a. hoogu-vudu
   go-GER
   'going'

b. * hoog-gii-guvudu
   go-RED-GER

c. hoogu-vudu giiguvudu
   go-GER RED
   'going and related activities'
The fact that ER cannot apply inside of certain derivational affixes suggests that weak lexicalism may be right in saying that some morphological operations are syntactically represented while others are not, but wrong in making the division correspond to the division between derivation and inflection (perhaps suggesting that such a distinction is not real). We return to this question below.

2.1.2 Idiosyncratic = Lexical. Compositional = Syntactic

An alternative variant of weak lexicalism might say that the distinction between lexicon and syntax is not reflected in the difference between derivation and inflection, but rather in the difference between the idiosyncratic and the compositional. On this view, we might expect ER to be able to reach only inside of semantically compositional structures, but not inside of noncompositional structures. This hypothesis is immediately called into question by the fact that ER can apply to the internal elements of idiomatic expressions, as demonstrated in (21) and (22).

(21) a. Hari kannu much-id-a
   Hari eye close-PST-3SM
   ‘Hari died.’ (lit. Hari closed his eyes)

   b. Hari kannu-ginnu much-id-a

   c. Hari kannu muchida ginnu muchida

(22) a. Rashmi Hari-ge maNNu tinn-is-id-aLu
   Rashmi Hari-DAT mud eat-CAUS-PST-3SF
   ‘Rashmi ruined Hari.’ (lit. Rashmi made Hari eat mud)

   b. Rashmi Hari-ge maNNu giNNu tinn-is-id-aLu
c. Rashmi Hari-ge maNNu tinn-is-id-aLu giNNu tinnisidaLu

The existence of phrasal idioms like (21a) and (22a) is potentially problematic for the lexicalist hypothesis by themselves because they show that the domain of semantic idiosyncracy does not correspond to the morphophonological word. While this problem does not seem to alarm lexicalists (cf. Jackendoff 1997), the fact that ER treats the subparts of syntactic idioms on a par with the subparts of syntactic phrases may. The fact that ER treats the subparts of semantically non-decomposable chunks on a par with the subparts of semantically decomposable chunks suggests that a grammar which separates the lexicon from the syntax on the basis of semantic idiosyncracy embodies the wrong architecture.

The problems for a variant of lexicalism that takes idiosyncracy to be the hallmark of the lexicon can also be seen by examining the distinction between "word-level" and "stem-level" affixation. Aronoff and Sridhar (1983) show that the distinction between word-level and stem-level affixation in Kannada is diagnosed by a correspondence between epenthetic [u] (Bright 1972) and semantic transparency. They demonstrate the correlation by examining the properties of the nominalizing suffix -ike. When attached at the stem-level, there is no epenthetic [u] and the meaning of the derived form is idiosyncratically related to the base. On the other hand, when this affix is attached at the word-level, there is an epenthetic [u] and the derived form is transparently a gerund. Moreover, there are some verbs for which there is no stem-level variant, whereas all verbs have a word-level, gerundive variant.

(23) verb gloss +ike gloss #ike gloss
a. beeDu 'beg' beeDike 'plea' beeDuvike 'begging'
b. jaaru 'slide' jaarike 'slipperiness' jaaruvike 'sliding'
c. keeLu 'ask' kaaLike 'request' kaaLuvike 'asking'
d. tooru 'show' toorike 'appearance' tooruvike 'showing'
e. horaDu 'leave' *hooraDike horaduvike 'leaving'

Now, if we take a variant of the lexicalist hypothesis to hold that productive morphological rules with transparent meaning are syntactic while nonproductive morphological rules with idiosyncratic meaning are lexical, then we would expect to find ER able to apply inside of gerundive -ike but not inside of the stem-level variant of this affix.
The data come out otherwise. ER is not possible inside of either variant of -ike, a problem to which we will return.

(24) a. toor-ike
    show-NMNL
    'appearance'

b. * toor-giir-ike

c. toorike giirike

(25) a. tooru-vike
    show-GER
    'showing'

b. * tooru-giiru-vike

c. tooruvike giiruvike

Even worse for this variant of lexicalism is that there are both stem-level and word-level affixes that ER can apply inside of, such as the causative -isu and the plural -gaLu, respectively:

(26) a. beeD-isu
    beg-CAUS
    'to cause to beg'

b. * beeDu-visu

c. beeD-giiD-isu
    beg-RED-CAUS
    'to cause to beg and related activities'

d. beeD-isu-giiDisu
    beg-CAUS-RED
    'to cause to beg and do related activities'

(27) a. kaalu-gaLu
    leg-PL
    'legs'

b. * kaaligaLu
We can conclude that neither the distinction between stem-level and word-level affixation, nor the related distinction between semantically idiosyncratic and semantically transparent affixation gives us a way to determine which affixes ER can apply inside of and which it cannot.

3 Some Less Plausible Lexicalist Solutions

3.1 Two Rules

One possibility for maintaining lexicalism given that ER applies equally to subparts of words and entire phrases would be to posit two rules of ER. On this view, there are two separate but identical rules of reduplication, one applying in the lexicon (to sublexical material) and a second applying in the syntax (to lexical and phrasal material).

The problem with the two rules gambit is that it is redundant. Giving up the Lexicalist Hypothesis in favor of a theory in which morphologically complex words are syntactically complex allows us to explain ER with one rule which applies to any syntactic constituent.

3.2 ER is Phonological

A second possibility for maintaining the Lexicalist Hypothesis would be to say that ER is phonological. A phonological analysis of ER, in which the elements which can undergo reduplication are all of the same phonological category, would circumvent the lexicalist objection by showing that the rule has no morphosyntactic relevance.

This tack is problematic for three reasons. First, there is no single phonological constituent represented by the elements which can undergo ER. That is to say, given a single input like (28a), the rule produces three outputs:
ER can apparently decide to break the word at any of its morpheme boundaries, irrespective of phonological constituency. This point is especially clear, when we examine a word whose morphological structure differs from its phonological structure. Consider (29), with the morphological structure in (29b) and the syllabification in (29c):

(29) a. hogaLi-koND-aLu
   ‘she praised herself.’

   b. [[[hogaLi]-koND] -aLu]
      praise -REFL.PST-3SF

   c. ho.ga.Li.koN.Da.Lu

The three possible outputs of ER given (29a) are those in (30).

(30) a. hogaLi-gigaLi-koND-aLu

   b. hogaLi-koND-gigaLikONDaLu

   c. hogaLi-koND-aLu-gigaLikONDaLu

These correspond to the morphological constituents of (29). Impossible ERs of (29a) are given in (31).

(31) a. * ho-gi-gaLikONDaLu
b. * hoga-giga-LikoNDaLu

c. hogaLi-gigaLi-koNDaLu (=30a))

d. * hogaLikoN-gigaLikoN-DaLu

e. * hogaLikoNDa-gigaLikoNDa-Lu

The reduplications in (31) are the outputs of an ER rule applied to (groups of) syllables. For example, (31a) reduplicates just the first syllable, (31b) reduplicates the first two syllables, etc. None of these is a possible reduplication (with the exception of (31c) which corresponds to a morphological break as well as a phonological one), despite the fact that any of them could potentially occur if syllables (or larger prosodic units made up of syllables) were the units over which the rule applied.

A bigger problem for the phonological analysis is that the rule respects morphological and syntactic constituency. In the ungrammatical (32), just the nonroot elements of the verb are reduplicated. These morphemes do not form a morphosyntactic constituent and so this reduplication is barred.

(32) * hogaLi-koND-aLu-giNDaLu (cf. (29b))

In (33c), a hypothesized phrasal reduplication of (33a) (whose structure is (33b)), we see that it is ungrammatical to reduplicate the subject and object to the exclusion of the verb, despite the fact that these elements are adjacent in the string. Only syntactic constituents can be reduplicated.

(33) a. Rashmi avan-annu hogaL-id-aLu
   Rashmi he-ACC praise-PST-3SF
   ‘Rashmi praised him.’

b. [AgP Rashmi [TP [vp avan-annu hogaL-] id-] aLu]

c. * Rashmi avan-annu gishmi-avanannu hogaL-id-aLu
   Rashmi he-ACC RED praise-PST-3SF
   Intended: ‘Rashmi and related people praised him and related people.’

An additional problem with the phonological analysis of ER is that ER is syntactically and semantically restricted when it involves a predicate (V or VP). A predicate may undergo ER only if it is embedded under a modal ele-
ment, such as prohibitive (negative imperative (=34)), negation (=35a,b)), question-morpheme (=35b,c)), etc.:

(34) a. * baagil-annu much-gich-id-e
   door-ACC close-RED-PST-1S
   ‘I closed the door and did related activities.’

a’. baagil-annu much-gich-id-e anta heeLa-beeDa
   door-ACC close-RED-PST-1S that say-PROH
   ‘Don’t say that I closed the door and did related activities.’

b. * baagil-annu much-id-e gichide
   door-ACC close-PST-1S RED
   ‘I closed the door and did related activities.’

b’. baagil-annu much-id-e gichide anta heeLa-beeDa
   door-ACC close-PST-1S-RED that say-PROH
   ‘Don’t say that I closed the door and did related activities.’

c. * naanu baagil-annu muchide giigilannu muchide
   I-NOM door-ACC close-PST-1S RED
   ‘I closed the door and did related activities.’

c’. naanu baagil-annu muchide giigilannu muchide
   I-NOM door-ACC close-PST-1S RED
   anta heeLa-beeDa
   that say-PROH
   ‘Don’t say that I closed the door and did related activities.’

d. baagil-annu-giigilannu muchide
   door-ACC-RED close-PST-1S
   ‘I closed the door and related things.’

(35) a. hari baagilannu muchi-gich-al-illa
   Hari door-ACC close-RED-INF-NEG
   ‘Hari didn’t close the door or do any such thing.’

b. niinu baagil-annu muchi-gich-al-illa-valla-a
   you door-ACC close-RED-INF-NEG-TAG-Q
   ‘You didn’t close the door or do any such thing, did you?’
c. hari baagil-annu muchi-gich-id-a-a
   Hari door-ACC close-RED-PST-3SM-Q
   ‘Did Hari close the door or do any such thing?’

Given that the same phonological material can be reduplicated successfully in some syntactic/semantic contexts but not in other syntactic/semantic contexts, a strictly phonological analysis is untenable.

4 Level Ordering, ER and the Lexicalist Hypothesis

The distinction between word-level and stem-level affixation gives us an additional argument for morphological structure being syntactically visible. The argument grows out of A&S’s observation that word-level affixation can apply inside of stem-level affixation in Kannada. A&S’s discussion is based on two suffixes: the dative -ge and the plural -gaLu.

First, all forms to which -gaLu attaches can occur as free forms whereas the same is not true of forms to which -ge attaches.

(36) singular   plural   dative
    a. ‘house’  mane   manegaLu  manege
    b. ‘rock’  banDe  banDegaLu  banDege
    c. ‘leg’  kaalu  kaalugaLu  kaalige  *kaali
    d. ‘forest’  kaaDu  kaaDugaLu  kaaDige  *kaaDI

In (36c–d), both the [u] in the singular and plural forms and the [i] in the dative are epenthetic. The [u] is added word finally to all consonant final stems, as can be seen clearly in borrowings of consonant final words:

(37) a. ‘spoon’  spuunu
    b. ‘car’  kaaru
    c. ‘pen’  pennu
    d. ‘bus’  bassu

From this A&S conclude that -gaLu is a word-level affix because the same epenthetic vowel occurs on stems to which it attaches as on whole words. The [u] of -gaLu is this same epenthetic vowel. This can be seen when we add casemarkers to a plural word. In such an environment the

See Aronoff (1976) for the same observation in English.
epenthetic [u] does not occur. Moreover, when we add a consonant initial casemarker it is the epenthetic [I] which occurs.

(38) a. ‘car-PL-ACC’ kaaru-gaL-annu
    b. ‘car-PL-DAT’ kaaru-gaLI-ge

Now, the fact that the stem-level dative (and other casemarkers, as evidenced by the epenthesis facts) occurs outside of the word-level plural leads A&S to conclude that there is no level-ordering in the sense of Mohanan (1981) and Kiparsky (1982). They don’t deny that the levels exist but only claim that there is no ordering and no bracket erasure.

A&S’s conclusion is lexicalist in nature because it assumes that there are different levels of affixation in the lexicon. There is an alternative analysis, of course, which posits that the difference between the stem-level and word-level affixes is stated not in terms of levels, but in terms of boundary symbols, as in Chomsky and Halle (1968). The important finding of A&S is that there are two kinds of boundaries and that there are no ordering restrictions on these boundaries. They assume that these are types of lexical boundaries, though nothing they say forces this conclusion. The crucial result is only that the boundaries are visible simultaneously.

Now, given the observation that ER can apply to syntactic phrases as well as to sub-word constituents and the observation that word-level and stem-level boundaries must be visible simultaneously, we are led to the conclusion that these levels are syntactically represented. That is, A&S tell us that the two types of boundaries are marked at the same level, but are agnostic as to whether this is in the lexicon or in the syntax. Given that ER can (a) reach inside of these boundaries and (b) apply to syntactic phrases, we are led to conclude that the two types of boundaries are syntactically, and not lexically, represented.

5 When Echo Does Not Apply

This section provides a first step towards determining whether there is any systematicity in which affixes are syntactically represented. As we have seen, using ER as a test leads us to conclude that certain cases of apparent affixation are not syntactically complex. To account for these facts, a view in which all morphology is postsyntactic, such as Distributed Morphology, will require that some morphological structure is represented phrase-structurally.
and other morphological structure is due to nonstructural aspects of the syntax.

Consider, as an illustration, Marantz’s (1997) reinterpretation of Chomsky’s (1970) arguments about nominalization. Marantz’s hypothesis takes it that the relation between a verb and its nominalization is based on syntactic category only. There is a single root whose pronunciation depends upon its syntactic category. In other words, a nominalization is simply what you get when you put a root of a certain type in the nominal environment; if you were to put this root in a verbal environment, you would have gotten a verb. There is no transformation from one to the other. For example, the root $\sqrt{\text{destr}}$- in the verb context will be pronounced $\text{destroy}$ and in the noun context will be pronounced $\text{destruction}$. On this view, it is not the case that $-\text{tion}$ is an affix heading its own piece of phrase structure (or morphological structure). Rather, the environment of the root determines whether it will be pronounced with the $-\text{tion}$ affix. The simple fact of being dominated by an N node determines whether this affix is present. Here, the syntax determines the pronunciation, but by feature, not by configuration. In other words, under the Marantz-Chomsky hypothesis, the root $\sqrt{\text{destr}}$- has the following morphological properties:

(39) a. $\sqrt{\text{destr}}$: $\leftrightarrow [_{\text{n}} \text{destruction}]$

b. $\sqrt{\text{destr}}$: $\leftrightarrow [_{\text{v}} \text{destroy}]$

Hence, the factor determining how the root is realized is the syntactic category of the word, not its syntactic structure. In fact, it has no syntactic structure. The ‘affixes’ which appear on the root arise because of the syntactic environment but are not explicitly represented as nodes in a nested tree-structure.

Other affixes, of course, quite clearly are syntactic heads and the facts of ER give us a way to determine which ones these are (in Kannada). ER can tell us which affixes are present because they correspond to independent heads in the phrase structure and which are present because of categorical properties of the context. In other words, given the conclusion that morphology applies postsyntactically and the fact that some affixes appear to be phrase-structurally represented while others do not, we are led to the conclusion that some apparent affixes occur because of aspects of the syntactic environment which are not part of the nested tree-structures we take to be the core of syntactic combination.

The two kinds of “affixation” are illustrated in (40).
Because ER can reach inside of a morphologically complex word like (40a), we take the boundary between the morphemes to be syntactically represented. The root and the affix each head their own pieces of phrase structure, as in (41):

(41) \[ 
\begin{array}{c}
n \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\uparrow \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\begin{array}{c}
v \\
\uparrow \\
N \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\downarrow \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
v \\
\end{array}
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
patra \\
-isu
\end{array}
\]

ER cannot apply inside of the morphologically complex (40b), as we have seen, and so its syntactic structure is nonbranching:

(42) \[ 
\begin{array}{c}
n \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
\uparrow \\
\end{array}
\begin{array}{c}
toor-
\end{array}
\]

This root is listed in the morphological component as having two alternative pronunciations depending on its syntactic category, as in (43):

(43) a. \[ \sqrt{toor-} \leftrightarrow [\_n toorike] \]
b. \[ \sqrt{toor-} \leftrightarrow [\_v tooru] \]

The appearance of the "morpheme" [-ike] is determined by the morphological component and does not correspond to a piece of syntactic structure.

We can conclude that a theory of morphology which takes all cases of morphological complexity to correspond to syntactic complexity is too strong to account for the data. On the other hand, a theory which recognizes both an independent morphological module and a syntactic module of phrase-structure composition can make the appropriate discrimination to account for the observed pattern of facts in Kannada. Whether there is any systematicity
to the set of affixes which do not correspond to pieces of syntactic structure and whether there is any relationship between these affixes and any other phonological, syntactic or semantic properties remains to be investigated.

6 Conclusions

ER is a postsyntactic rule which, on the whole, does not distinguish between word-internal and word-external structure, suggesting that such a distinction is unnecessary. On this view, morphological complexity generally corresponds to syntactic complexity. We have noted, however, that certain cases of apparent affixation are not syntactically complex. A view in which all morphology is postsyntactic, such as Distributed Morphology, will require that some morphological structure is represented phrase-structurally and other morphological structure is due to nonstructural aspects of the syntax. This theory is superior to a lexical theory which treats the word formation component as wholly distinct from the syntactic component. It is also superior to a theory which eliminates a morphological component altogether by subsuming the functions of morphology into the syntax.

References


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