

A FORMAL STUDY OF SYLLABLE, TONE, STRESS AND DOMAIN
IN CHINESE LANGUAGES

by

San Duanmu

Submitted to the Department of
Linguistics and Philosophy
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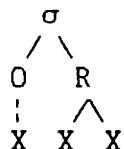
SAN DUANMU

Submitted to the Department of Linguistics and Philosophy
on August 29, 1990 in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
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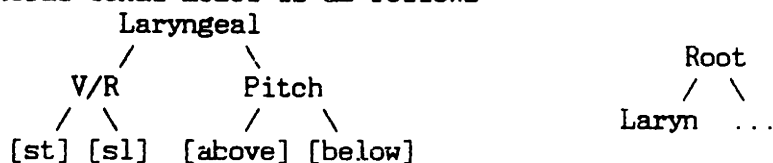
ABSTRACT

This thesis makes a close examination of syllable, tone and stress in Chinese languages, in order to find out general properties that are shared by all natural languages. It offers the following related claims

- (1) All Chinese syllables have the following uniform underlying structure

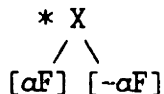


- (2) The general tonal model is as follows



where the tonal structure is part of the feature geometry under a Root node. The V/R node represents both consonant voicing and tonal register. The Pitch node is specified for tone bearing segments only.

- (3) The tone bearing unit is the moraic segment, or equivalently, the segment in the rime, whether it is a vowel or any consonant. A geminate has two Roots and may serve as two tone bearing units.
- (4) Contour segments do not exist. Their absence is attributed to a universal principle, the No Contour Principle (NCP), which is given as follows



- (5) The tonal domain is the stress domain. Most syntax-phonology mismatches are due to lack of stress in some constituents.

Thesis Supervisor: Dr. Morris Halle
Title: Institute Professor

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NOTATIONS

PHONETIC SYMBOLS:

ng = ŋ H = ɦ ? = ʔ τ = ʄ ɓ = ə

In addition, the bracketings ' / / ' and ' [] ' are not always distinguished.

SYLLABIC SYMBOLS:

σ = syllable O = Onset R = rime N = nucleus μ = mora

FEATURE GEOMETRY TERMS:

Rt = Root	Lar = Laryngeal	SL = Supra-Laryngeal
Pl = Place	SP = Soft-Palate	Dor = Dorsal
Cor = Coronal	Lab = Labial	

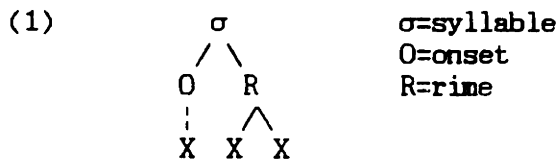
DISTINCTIVE FEATURES:

[cg] = [constricted glottis]	[sg] = [spread glottis]
[sl] = [slack vocal cords]	[st] = [stiff vocal cords]
[cont] = [continuent]	[cons] = [consonantal]
[nas] = [nasal]	[ant] = [anterior]
[dis] = [distributed]	[bk] = [back]
[hi] = [high]	[lo] = [low]
[rd] = [round]	

OUTLINE

This is a formal study of the relations among syllable, tone, stress, and domain in Chinese languages. It is formal in two ways. First, it intends to explore general principles that hold for all human languages. Therefore, it studies not just one Chinese language, but a family of them; frequent references will be made to languages in other parts of the world as well. Second, it employs, and in turn contributes to, recent phonological theories, such as feature geometry, tonal models, templatic morphology, underspecification, syllabic structure, contour features, tone bearing unit, stress metrics, and phonology-syntax mismatches. This thesis studies syllable, tone, stress and domain together because these issues are closely interrelated, and so may illuminate each other. For example, the analysis of the syllable sheds much light on the analysis of tone, and the analysis of tone sheds light on the analysis of stress, and vice versa.

I first discuss in Chapter 2 the syllabic structure in Chinese languages. I propose that all Chinese languages have just one underlying syllabic structure, with one segment slot for the onset and two for the rime, as given below



In previous analyses, Chinese languages have a range of possible syllables, such as C, V, VG, VC, GV, GVG, GVC, CV, CVG, CVC, CGV, CGVC, CGVG, CVGC, CGVGC, etc. For example, in Chao (1968), Mandarin has the following syllables

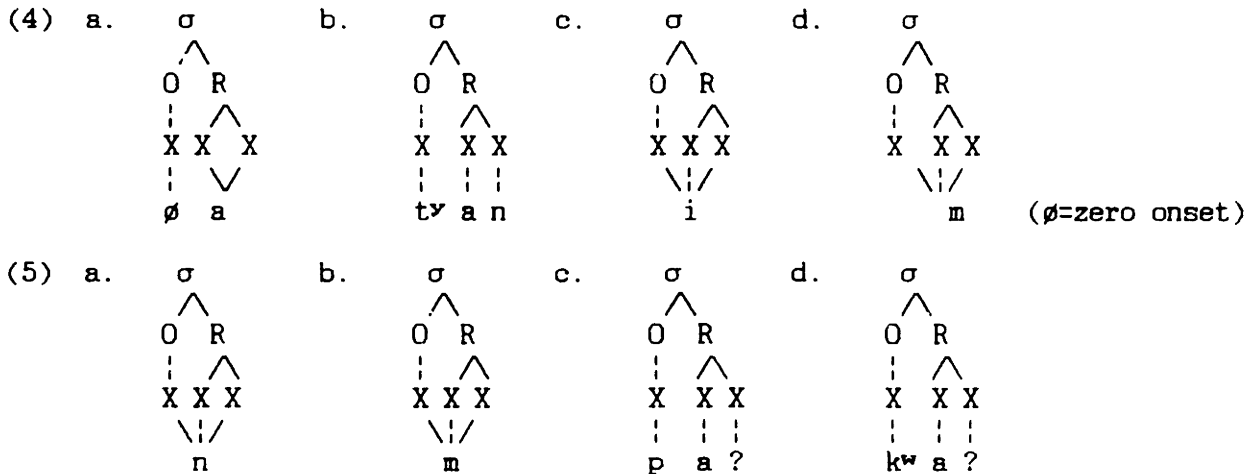
- (2) a. a 'filthy' b. tian 'heaven'
c. i 'clothes' d. m 'Uh-huh'

Similarly, according to Xu et al (1981) Shanghai has the following syllables

- (3) a. n 'fish' b. m 'mu (a measure of land)'
c. pa? 'eight' c. kua? 'scrape'

In the analysis I propose, all syllables in (2) and (3) have the same struc-

ture, which are shown in (4) and (5) respectively



The fixed syllabic skeleton will trigger two processes. First, if the coda is not filled, the nuclear segment will spread to the coda. Second, if the onset is not filled, either the nuclear segment will spread to the onset, as in (4c), or the onset will be specified to what is commonly called the 'zero onset', as in (4a). Thus, in every syllable, all the three slots are filled.

To justify my analysis, I will argue for the points below

- (6) a. Every Chinese syllable has an obligatory onset.
 b. Pre-nucleus G is in the onset.
 c. The onset has just one X slot.
 d. Every rime has two X slots.

Extensive evidence for (6) will be discussed, including distribution, feature structure, dialectal variations, duration, pitch contours, suffixation processes, cooccurrence restrictions, and language games.

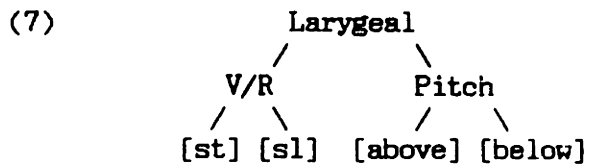
The choice for representing (1) with an X tier, rather than in the moraic system of Hyman (1985) or Hayes (1989), which has no X tier, is not due to an ignorance of the importance of the mora. Rather, it is mainly due to the need for a mechanism that will trigger the obligatory onset. In this respect, my position differs from that of Hayes (1989) in that for Hayes, nothing can trigger an obligatory onset.

The underlying structure (1) may have limited surface variations, conditioned

by phonological environments. For example, the final syllable in Fuzhou may be lengthened by an extra mora or X slot (cf. Wright 1983), the Mandarin stressless syllables will be shortened by a mora or X slot, the Shanghai syllable is shortened by a mora or X slot in nonfinal positions, etc.

To my knowledge, there has been no previous proposal that any language has just one underlying syllabic structure. The claim that all Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure has consequences for historical phonology. For example, the historically 'zero onset' now has much variation cross-dialectally, but regular onsets have largely remained without dramatical change. It would be of much interest for feature theories how the zero onset has undergone changes. Our claim also has consequences for current phonological theories. I will discuss its implications for the V/C segregation hypothesis of McCarthy (1989) and for the moraic theory of Hyman (1985) and Hayes (1989).

In Chapter 3, I discuss the representation of tone. I will argue for the following tonal model



This model is part of feature geometry. It identifies voicing in consonants with register in vowels, both being executed by the same articulator V/R (Voicing/Register). I have labeled the articulators V/R and Pitch in plain words, instead of in specific articulatory terms, because I am not fully sure which laryngeal mechanisms they exactly relate to, although my own speculation is that V/R is related to the vocalis, and Pitch to the cricothyroid muscles.

I have introduced the untraditional features [above] and [below] (rather than [thick] and [thin], or [long] and [short], of the vocal cords, cf. Meredith 1988) for special reasons. Traditional features like [stiff], [slack], [H], [L], etc., strongly suggest binary activities. It is well-known, however, that for pitch, humans can articulate and perceive far more levels than are found in tone languages. It is therefore misleading to use tonal features like [H] and

[L], or [thick] and [thin], as if the vocal cords are restricted to such binary activities. On the other hand, the question remains why so few tonal levels are utilized in human speech. The answer, I suggest, is twofold. First, humans are good at relative pitch, but poor at absolute pitch, both in generation and in perception. Second, people's pitch ranges differ from time to time, and from person to person. Thus, given a tone, it is hard to tell how high it is, and harder still to tell how high it is for a stranger. On the other hand, it is easy to tell a rise from a fall, even if the pitch change is very slight. The fact that the tone speaker rarely mislocates a tone level, even with strangers, suggests that what s/he depends on must be relative pitch. It is likely that the tone speaker is making use of a reference pitch level; any tone above it is H, below it L, and otherwise M. The key is, what supplies this reference level? I suggest that it is the onset. Acoustic studies show that tone (i.e. expected pitch contour) does not begin until the nuclear vowel, and that onsets, overall, remain at the mid pitch level (Kratochvil 1970, Howie 1976). Further support comes from the fact that tone languages usually have obligatory onsets, as I have independently argued for all Chinese languages. What is more, there is no tone language, to my knowledge, that has more than three tone levels without splitting them into two registers. Register in turn independently supplies voice quality cues (cf. Duanmu 1990). [above] and [below] intend to reflect the relative nature of pitch and the importance of the onset. They refer to an effort by the Pitch articulator to move the pitch above, or below, the reference line, wherever this line is at a particular point.

The model (7) permits a maximum of nine level tones, which correspond to those in Hyman (1989) as follows

(8) Hyman (1989):	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU
Tonal Root:	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Tone:	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
	H	L	LH	H	L	LH	H	L	LH
Letter:	H	L	M	!H	!L	!M	H'	L'	M'

(9) DUANMU

LETTERS

[-st, -sl, +above, -below]	H	
[-st, -sl, -above, -below]	L	
[-st, -sl, -above, +below]	M	
[-st, +sl, +above, -below]	!H	
[-st, +sl, -above, -below]	!L	
[-st, +sl, -above, +below]	!M	
[+st, -sl, +above, -below]	H'	
[+st, -sl, -above, -below]	L'	!=downstep
[+st, -sl, -above, +below]	M'	'=raised

No language in the world has as many tone levels as permitted by my model or by Hyman's. To my knowledge, the largest number of level tones in any reported languages is five (e.g. Chang 1953). The fact that no language uses the entire tonal inventory is no theoretical problem, however, since no language uses the entire known segmental inventory (which, according to Maddieson 1984, contains a few hundred segments). As many languages do not utilize ingressive airstream mechanisms, many languages do not utilize tonal register; this will leave the maximal tonal levels to three. On the other hand, if a language has more than four level tones, my model predicts that it must have register, which in most cases comes from onset voicing, either historically or directly. To my knowledge, this prediction is correct.

The model (7) will be compared with the tonal models of Halle & Stevens (1971), Kingston & Solnit (1988), Yip (1980, 1989a), Hyman (1989), Bao (1989) and Bao (1990a), against a wide range of well-observed cross-linguistic tonal phenomena, such as tonogenesis, tone split, depressor consonants, blocker consonants, pitch and register spreading, etc.

Since (7) identifies register with voicing, it predicts that in tone split, caused by onset voicing, there is always a relation of 'voiceless-high' and 'voiced-low'. However, as Kingston & Solnit (1988) point out, there are many cases of voiceless-low and voiced-high. This leads them to suggest that there is no necessary relation between voicing and register or tone height. I will discuss voiceless-low and voiced-high and argue that, as Yue-Hashimoto (1986) suggests, they are caused by tonal 'flip-flop', which took place after tone split. Two crucial arguments are that voiceless-low and voiced-high are found only in languages that have lost onset voicing, and that switching rules, of

which tonal flip-flop is a subcase, are independently motivated.

I next address the issue of contour tones. I first discuss the CTU (contour tone unit), which has been proposed by Pike (1948), W. Wang (1967), Fromkin (1972), Gandor & Fromkin (1978) (but see Maddieson 1979), M. Chen (1986), Newman (1986), Chan (1989), Bao (1990), and most of all, Yip (1989a). I will argue, however, that there is no good evidence for CTUs. I then argue that there is no evidence that the syllable or the rime, as a whole, may serve as the TBU (tone bearing unit), unlike what has been previously suggested (e.g. Wang 1967, Chao 1968, Yip 1980, Yip 1989a, Bao 1990a). Instead, the TBU is always the mora bearing segment, or the segment in the rime, be it a vowel or any consonant. A geminate has two Roots (cf. Selkirk 1988a) and so may serve as two TBUs. I next argue that simple contour tones always fall on bimoraic syllables, and that complex (convex and concave) contour tones always fall on trimoraic syllables. This is true of not only Chinese languages, but also African languages, such as Igbo, Margi and Tiv, which have previously been used as evidence that a contour tone may fall on a short syllable. In other words, there is a direct relation between the tone bearing ability of a syllable and its rime length, and a TBU can carry no more than one tone.

Sagay (1986) proposes that a segment may contain a multi-valued feature, as shown below

- (10) X
 / \
 [αF] [-αF]
- X = any node
F = any feature
α = any value

Such segments are called 'contour segments'. Specifically, Sagay proposes three kinds of contour segments, contour tones, affricates and pre- and post-nasalized consonants. Our conclusion that there are no contour tones naturally invites an examination of the other two contour segments, i.e. affricates and pre- and post-nasalized consonants. I will argue that there is no compelling evidence for either of them. In particular, I will argue that all the cases Sagay uses as arguments for seeing affricates as [-cont, +cont] can be explained if we assume that affricates are [-cont, +strident]. There is, therefore, no evidence that affricates are contour segments. In addition, I will examine the languages in the UPSID (Maddieson 1984) and show that, of the

eighteen or so languages in which Maddieson has posited pre- and post-nasalized stops, either such segments are predictable from the nasality of the surrounding vowels, or such segments do not contrast with (or freely alternate with) plain nasals or plain stops, or such segments are accountable as clusters. There is, therefore, no good motivation for positing underlying pre- or post-nasalized stops in any language. The result that no language has underlying pre- and/or post-nasalized consonant casts doubt on the existence of such segments at the surface level. Because of the lack of evidence for any contour segment (cf. also Herbert 1975, 1986; Steriade 1989), I will maintain the strongest position that no contour segments exist. I will attribute the lack of contour segments to a universal principle, exactly opposite to (10), and call it the No Contour Principle (NCP), as shown below

(11) The No Contour Principle (NCP):

$$\begin{array}{c} * X \\ / \quad \backslash \\ [aF] \quad [-aF] \end{array}$$

Physiological motivations for the NCP will be explored. I will also show that the NCP constitutes the real essence of what are commonly called the 'association conventions' (Williams 1976, Goldsmith 1976, Clements & Ford 1979, D. Pulleyblank 1986, and others).

In Chapter 4, I discuss stress. I show that to obtain the correct stress assignment, the parameters of Halle & Vergnaud (1987) are insufficient. In particular, both syntactic bracketing and syntactic labeling must be available for stress assignment. This is seen in what I call 'non-head stress' (NHS) assignment, common in a number of Chinese languages. The notions 'head' and 'nonhead' are defined as follows

(12) $\begin{array}{c} X^{n+1} \\ \wedge \\ X^n \text{ YP} \end{array}$ or $\begin{array}{c} X^{n+1} \\ \wedge \\ \text{YP } X^n \end{array}$ (mirror image)

In the structural relation in (12), YP is the 'nonhead' and X^n the 'head'. In NHS assignment, greater stress is assigned to the nonhead. In addition, the 'XP stress' assignment, by which the initial (or the final) syllable of an XP gets stress, also requires syntactic bracketing and labeling information.

or 'some'. When it means 'some', it is unstressed, and so the stress domain headed by it is lost, giving a SPM.

The above stress-based account of SPMs does not require notions like c-command or dominance (e.g. Hayes 1984, Nespor & Vogel 1986), nor notions like 'phonological word' (e.g. Selkirk & Shen 1988).

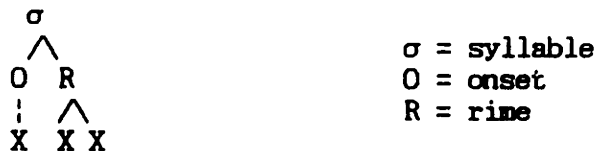
The power of a syntax-dependent analysis of stress/tonal domains goes beyond the calculation of proper phonological output. I will show that stress/tonal domains provide cues for the analyses of a number of areas in Chinese syntax, such as incorporation, classifier structures, and *de* structures.

The rest of this thesis is largely the substantiation of the claims I have presented above. None of the claims have been easy to make. In my own opinion, (1) and (7) are most thoroughly argued for, and (10), the NCP, is of the greatest potential significance.

THE SYLLABLE

2.0. Introduction In this Chapter I examine the syllabic structure in Chinese languages.¹ Since it is impossible to look at every dialect, I will take one representative from each dialect family. According to Yuan (1980: 22), there are eight Chinese dialect families, Northern, Wu, Xiang, Gan, Hakka, Yue, Southern Min, and Northern Min, represented, respectively, by Mandarin, Shanghai, Changsha, Nanchang, Meixian (Moi-yan), Cantonese, Xiamen (also called Amoy or Taiwanese) and Fuzhou. I will examine these eight languages in section 2.1. and show that they all have a uniform syllabic structure of three slots, one in the onset and two in the rime, as shown below

(1) The Uniform Syllabic Structure of Chinese



Since the eight languages represent all the dialect families, we expect the conclusions to be true of all Chinese languages. Arguments will be given from feature geometry, underspecification, segmental distribution, the sonority scale, duration, language games, tone bearing unit, reduplication, and riming in poetry.

That Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure is further supported by the analysis of morphological suffixation and rime change in several Chinese languages, which is discussed in section 2.2. It is also supported by the analysis of language games (Fanqie languages), discussed in section 2.3., and the cooccurrence restrictions on labials, discussed in section 2.4.

In section 2.5. I discuss some implications of the Mandarin syllable for the V/C segregation theory of McCarthy (1988a) and the moraic theory of Hayes

¹. I do not distinguish the terms 'language' and 'dialect' in this study.

(1989) and Hyman (1984, 1985). I show that although Chinese has a rigid syllabic structure, there is no V/C segregation, unlike what is proposed in Yip (1989b) and L. Cheng (1989). This means that V/C segregation must not only depend on rigid templates, but perhaps also on whether the templates carry morphological information. I also show that the moraic theory of Hayes and Hyman, in which moras are the only constituents of the syllable, must be extended to handle empty onsets, so that it in several ways resembles the X tier theory (Levin 1985, Lowenstamm & Kaye 1986).

2.1. The Syllabic Structure of Chinese Languages

2.1.1. Mandarin In traditional analyses (e.g. Hockett (1947), Chao (1968), R. Cheng (1966), C.Cheng (1973), Norman (1988)), the Mandarin syllable is divided into an 'initial' and a 'final', which roughly correspond to 'onset' and 'rime' respectively. The complete inventories are given below (Chao 1968, 22 & 24, with minor changes):

(2) a. Mandarin Initials (_ = retroflex)

p	p ^h	m	f	
t	t ^h	n		l
ts	ts ^h		s	
<u>ts</u>	<u>ts^h</u>		s	r
tç	tç ^h		ç	
k	k ^h		x	(∅)

b. Mandarin Finals (ng = , ɤ = schwa, τ =)

z	ɣ	A	τ	ai	ei	au	ou	an	ɤn	aŋ	ɤŋ	oŋ	er
i		iA	iE	iai		iau	iou	ian	iɤn	iɑŋ	iŋ	ioŋ	
u		uA	uo	uai	uei			uan	uɤn	uɑŋ	uŋ		
ÿ			ÿE					ÿan	ÿn				m

All initials are single segments. [∅] stands for the 'zero onset', to which we return shortly. There are at least fourteen possible syllables, C, V, N, VG, VN, GV, GVG, GVN, CV, CVG, CVN, CGV, CGVN, and CGVG, where G is a glide and N a nasal or [r]. For example

(3) a. e 'goose' b. tian 'heaven' c. tiao 'jump' d. m 'Uh-huh'

I propose below that all regular Mandarin syllables have a uniform structure of

Rather, the Mandarin zero onset has phonological consequences. Its presence not only prevents linking the vowel directly to the preceding coda in pronunciation, as shown in (6.i.e) and (6.ii.) (which are common mis-pronunciations made by English speakers), but may also change the place of the preceding coda to velar (F.K. Li (1966, 300), Chao (1968, 20))³

- (6) i. /mian ao/ ----> a. [mian ?ao]
 cotton coat b. [mian rao]
 'cotton padded coat' c. [miang rao]
 d. [miang ngao]
 e. *[mianao] (Cf. English: 'ran out' [rɛnaut])
- ii. /tian an men/ ----> a. [tian ?an men]
 'Tiananmen' b. [tian ran men]
 c. [tiang ran men]
 d. [tiang ngan men]
 e. *[tianan men]

3. In contrast, the weak interjective syllables /a/ and /ou/ allow linking, and do not change /n/ in the preceding coda to velar (Li 1968:300, Chao 1968:20)

- /tian a/ ----> a. *[tian ?a]
 heaven INTERJ b. *[tian ra] (ɾ = dorsal [+cons, +cont])
 Heavens! c. *[tiang ra]
 d. *[tiang nga]
 e. [tiana] or [tianna]

Unlike in English, where geminates contrast with nongeminates (uneasy v. unneeded), in Mandarin there is no such contrast. It is therefore not clear whether /tian + a/ surfaces as [tiana] or [tianna]. If the former, it means that weak syllables need not have an onsets. If the latter, as is claimed by Chiang (1989), then even weak syllables must have an obligatory onset. Suppose the latter is the case, then the fact that the zero onset of a regular syllable does not trigger gemination of the preceding coda, while that of a weak syllable does, can be explained by assuming that the domain of syllabification is a regular syllable (which is basically a morpheme/word in Chinese) plus any weak suffix attached to it (or, since regular syllables carry stress, the domain of syllabification is a stress domain, cf. Yip 1980). Consider (/ø/ = one of (4a-d))

- /mian ## ao/-->[mian ## øao] /tian a/-->[tianna]
 'cotton-padded coat' 'Oh, heavens!'

The syllabification boundary ## prevents gemination of /n/ in the former (thus forcing the zero onset to become /ø/) but not in the latter. There is some evidence that weak syllables indeed have an obligatory onset, as noted in Chao (1968:46). Consider

- /ni a/-->[ni(y)a] 'Oh, you!' /ta a/-->[ta ya] 'Oh him!'

If it is not clear in the former whether /i/ geminates, there is no doubt that /y/ is inserted in the latter as an onset. It seems therefore that both regular and weak syllables have obligatory onsets. If so the position of this paper is even stronger.

Evidently, (5a-d) are real segments, and we reach our conclusion that every Mandarin syllable has an onset.

However, there remain two important questions. First, what is the relation among the variants of the zero onset? Second, what is the underlying segment from which (5a-d) derive? In terms of features (Chomsky & Halle (1968), Halle & Stevens (1971), Sagey (1986)), (5) can be transcribed as⁴

- (7) a. [ng]: [+cons, +nasal, -cont] dorsal with [±back] options
 b. [ŋ]: [+cons, -nasal, +cont] dorsal with [±back] options
 c. [ʔ]: [-cons, +cg, -sg] [cg] = [constricted glottis]
 d. [H]: [-cons, -cg, -sg] [sg] = [spread glottis]

There is apparently no common feature among (7a-d), so they can hardly derive from the same segment. One may suggest that (7a-d) derive from a featureless segment, written as /[]/. But this solution has three difficulties. First, it is not clear whether any language has completely featureless segments.⁵ Second, although underlying segments may be radically underspecified so that all redundant information is absent (Archangeli & Pulleyblank (1989)), it is not clear if real segments can be underspecified to such a degree that multiple derivations are possible. Third, by definition, a segment should not only contrast with other segments but also with segmentlessness (i.e. with nothingness). In English, for example, /O:l/ 'all' contrasts with /tO:l/ 'tall', and [bi:] 'bee' with [bi:t] 'beet'; in the former pair the onset [t] contrasts with onsetlessness, and in the latter pair the coda [t] contrasts with codalessness. In Mandarin, however, there is no contrast between the 'zero onset' and onsetlessness, e.g. there is no contrast between /e/ and /[]e/.

Let us look at (7a-d) again. If /ŋ/ is not [-son] but [+son], then [+son] is a common feature. However, if we posit a single-featured segment /[+son]/ for (7a-d), we face the same difficulties with positing /[]/, namely /[+son]/

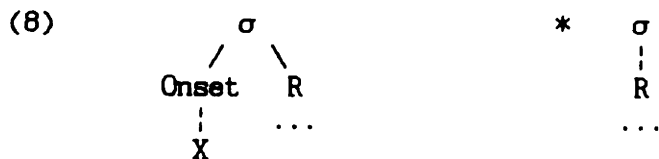
⁴. [+c.g.], [-c.g.], [+s.g.] and [-s.g.] roughly correspond respectively to traditional terms 'glottal stop', 'glottal continuant', 'aspirated' and 'unaspirated'. Cf. Halle & Stevens (1971).

⁵. For example, the English plural morpheme in 'sheep' has no phonological features, and is never considered a segment.

allows multiple derivations and does not contrast with segmentlessness.

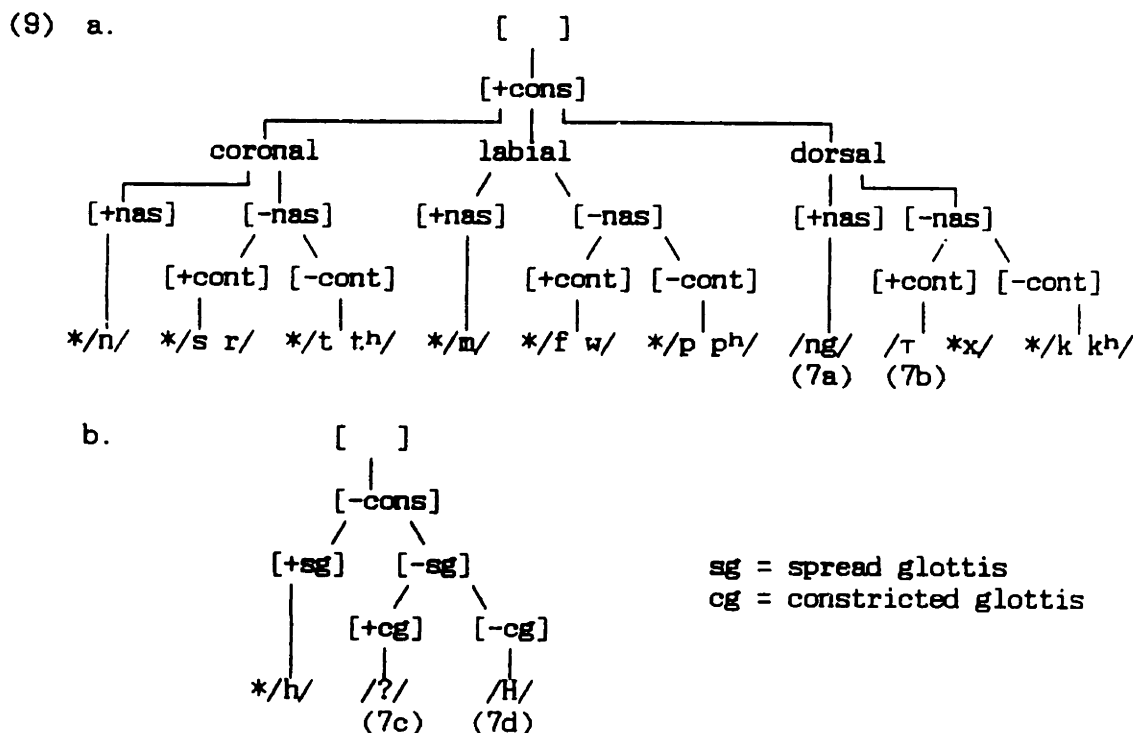
Another possibility is to posit /ng/ as the underlying form of the zero onset, and to derive /τ ? H/ from it by language particular rules. This analysis is similar to the one proposed by Cheung (1986) and Yip (1988) for the Cantonese zero onset. This approach has two merits. First, since /ng/ occurs in codas independently, positing an onset /ng/ makes the distribution of /ng/ complete. Second, before non-high vowels, the zero onset is indeed realized, mostly, as [ng] in Cantonese and Chengdu, among many other dialects. However, this analysis has three drawbacks. First, there is no explanation why /ng/ never occurs before /i u y /, either in Mandarin or in Cantonese or in Chengdu, while the other two nasal onsets /n m/ do. Second, deriving /τ ? H/ from /ng/ for the Mandarin zero onset requires unnatural rules; besides, there is no independent evidence for such rules. Third, historical onsets /n m/ have largely remained unchanged cross dialects, yet the historical zero onset has many dialectal variations. For example, before non-high vowels, the zero onset is basically [n] in Baoding, [ng] in Chengdu and Cantonese, and [?] in Meixian (Hashimoto 1973:91). If the zero onset has been underlyingly /ng/, there is the question of why [n m] have remained unchanged, yet [ng] has given rise to so many variations.⁶

Clearly, we cannot derive (7a-d) from an underlying segment. Moreover, since (7a-d) never contrast with one another, they cannot be derived from different segments either. This is a dilemma. The solution, I suggest, is that (7a-d) are purely triggered by the obligatory onset position. In other words, every Mandarin syllable must have an onset, as shown below



⁶. One may also question the thesis that since [ng] occurs in the coda it should also occur in the onset. In English, for example, [ng] occurs in codas but not in onsets. Although the English velar nasal is derived from an underlying cluster [n+g] (Chomsky & Halle 1968), I speculate that the Chinese velar coda perhaps could be analyzed in the same way historically.

When there is no consonant to fill the onset position, and when the nuclear vowel is [-high], the onset position is specified into one of the variants in (7). Let us see this in detail. Since there is no evidence for a default consonant in Mandarin, nor evidence for default feature values, we must consider all possible ways of specification, as shown below



(9a,b) are not feature trees, but flow charts of all possible ways of specifying the zero onset. We start with [], i.e. no features. The first feature we come across is [cons]. Since there is no evidence of default values, we may choose [+cons] or [-cons]. If [+cons], as in (9a), we obligatorily need place features (cf. Chomsky & Halle 1968, who argue that segments that have no place features, i.e. with just laryngeal features, are [-cons]). One way to get place features is to spread the place node from the nuclear vowel. However, since the nucleus is [-high], spreading its place node to the onset will make the latter a [-high] vowel, too, which I assume is disallowed by general principles. So the onset cannot get its place node from the nuclear vowel. In addition, since there is no evidence that Mandarin has a default place, we must consider all the three places (labial, coronal or dorsal) in turn. Let us follow the dorsal branch (the righthand branch under [+cons] in (9a)). We next

consider [\pm nas]. If [+nas], we get /ng/, which is (7a). If [-nas], we further consider [\pm cont]. If [+cont], we get / τ /, which is (7b), and /x/, which confuses with the real /x/ and is rejected.⁷ If [-cont] we get /k k^h/, which both confuse with the real /k k^h/ and are rejected. This completes the dorsal branch. If we follow through the other two branches in (9a), we will see that their outputs all confuse with underlying onset segments, so none is taken.⁸

The outputs /ng τ / are both dorsal; they may further assimilate in [back] with the nuclear vowel. Although onsets and [-high] vowels rarely assimilate in place, it is common that they assimilate in [back]. In English, for example, /k/ is [+back] in 'call' and [-back] in 'can'. This completes (9a).

If, in the beginning, we choose [-cons], as in (9b), then no place node is needed. The next choice is [\pm sg]. If [+sg], we get /h/, which confuses with the real /h/ and is rejected.⁹ For [-sg], we further choose [\pm cg]. If [+cg], we get (7c), otherwise (7d). Since Mandarin onsets do not contrast in voicing, [\pm stiff VC, \pm slack VC] do not play a role. This completes (9b). Thus (9a,b) give all and only the expected realizations of the zero onset.

It is perhaps not crucial which features are specified first. The key here is that one first generate all possibilities, then filter out those that are already underlying (e.g. [k p ...]) and those that are not permitted by Mandarin phonotactics (e.g. [+slack] or [+voice], assuming that sonorants are

7. Many phonological rules, such as German final devoicing, do not care whether the output introduces ambiguity. Still, the realization process here does seem to care. This must be a language particular option. Note that in German final devoicing, there is just one output for each input, while in Mandarin zero onset realization, there are alternative outputs. Whether avoiding neutralization depends on the availability of alternative outputs remains to be seen.

8. For simplicity I omitted affricates, retroflexes and the lateral /l/. This does not affect our discussion, however.

9. Mandarin /h/ assimilates to the vowel in place and becomes dorsal [x] or palatal [ç].

unspecified for [voice]; clicks; ...).¹⁰

2.1.1.2. Prenucleus G is in the onset The pre-nucleus glide G in (C)GVG, (C)GV or (C)GVN is commonly analyzed as part of the rime (cf. (1b)). I give six arguments to show that it is in the onset.

First, there is no phonetic evidence that Mandarin pre-nucleus CG are two segments. As Chan (1985:67) points out, what is transcribed as [kʷ-] in Cantonese has the same pronunciation as what is transcribed as [kw-] or [ku-] in Mandarin; the distinction between [kʷ-] and [ku-] is 'phonological'. The phonological argument in turn is given as follows (Chan 1985)

In Cantonese, since the labialization only occurs with [k], the canonical shape of the syllable in Cantonese can be analyzed as being CV(V)C instead of C(C)V(V)C. To account for the labialized velar consonant, one extra initial consonant, [kʷ], is added to the inventory of initials.

In the case of Mandarin, both the labial element and the palatal element occur with the full set of initial consonants. It would not be economical to posit three series of consonants: a plain series, a labialized series, and a palatalized series. Thus, in the phonological analysis of Mandarin, a simpler and more elegant solution would be to posit a consonant cluster in which the second consonant is a labial or palatal glide. (67-68)

The main reason for analyzing CG- as a cluster in Mandarin is to reduce the underlying consonant inventory; this is, of course, a legitimate desire. Nevertheless, consonant reduction should not be carried out at the cost of increasing the complexity of the Mandarin syllable, or in the absence of independent arguments for a particular structure of the Mandarin syllable. Moreover, as we will show later, viewing Mandarin pre-nucleus CG as a segment at surface need not increase the underlying inventory of Mandarin consonants.

¹⁰. In other dialects, such as Baoding (Y.F. Li, p.c.), Meixian (Hashimoto 1973:86-87,91) and Chengdu, what corresponds to the Mandarin zero onset has fewer variants. For example

MANDARIN	BAODING	MEIXIAN	CHENGDU	
?an/Han/ngan/ʔan	nan	?an	ngan	'peaceful'
yi	yi	yi	yi	'clothes'

These dialects, it seems, have default values for underspecified features. In addition, default specification seems to ignore ambiguity, so that in Baoding, both /nao/ 'head' and /ao/ 'coat' become [nao]. The number of variants of the zero onset does not affect the argument that the onset is obligatory, however.

The second argument comes from language games, i.e. 'Fanqie' or 'secrete' languages. In such games, a syllable is first reduplicated (which reduplication theory to follow is immaterial to our point), then one or both syllables are modified. Consider a game language from a Mandarin dialect Chengdu (Liu 1944)

- (10) a. Reduplicate the syllable.
 b. Replace the first onset with [n]
- (11) a. ma --> ma-ma --> na-ma 'mother'
 b. gao --> gao-gao --> nao-gao 'tall'

As stated in (10), a syllable is first copied, then the onset of the first syllable is replaced by /n/. This language may give an indication as to where prenucleus G belongs; if in the onset, it should be replaced in the first syllable, otherwise it should stay there. Consider

- (12) a. ie ---> ie-ie ---> ne-ie (*nie-ie) 'grandfather'
 b. niang --> niang-niang --> nang-niang (*niang-riang) 'goodness'
 c. tuei --> tuei-tuei --> nei-tuei (*nuei-tuei) 'correct'
 d. guai --> guai-guai --> nai-guai (*nuai-guai) 'strange'
 e. hsyé --> hsyé-hsyé --> ne-hsyé (*nyé-hsyé) 'snow'
 f. chyán --> chyán-chyán --> nan-chyán (*nyán-chyán) 'curl'

In all cases, prenucleus G is replaced with the onset, suggesting that it is in the onset, and not in the rime. Other Fanqie languages support the same conclusion. We will come back to them in section 2.3.

The third argument is from tone bearing ability. In his acoustic studies of Mandarin tones, Howie (1976, 218) notes that

the domain of tone in Mandarin is not the entire voiced part of the syllable, as is traditionally described, but rather is confined to the syllabic vowel and any segment that may follow it in the syllable.

In other words, tone is borne by the rime, not the onset. Now, by 'syllabic vowel', Howie means the nuclear vowel; prenucleus G is not included. This means that prenucleus G is not a tone bearing unit. Although Howie does not discuss CGVV and CGVN syllables, yet, since all prenucleus G, whether initial or medial, are traditionally considered part of the rime (cf. (1)), Howie's argument applies to all prenucleus G. In his Fo tracings (pp201-214, 'types 2-3'), it is seen that the Fo contours are quite irregular on prenucleus G, but agree with the expected contours very well from the nuclear vowel on. Note

that it is not the case that glides are poor tone bearers; when a glide is in the nucleus or the coda, its F_0 contour is fully regular. It is particularly interesting to note that, in GG syllables /yi yü wu/, where the second G is the nuclear vowel, the F_0 contour is irregular on the first G but regular on the second. This clearly shows that w.r.t. tone bearing ability, pre-nucleus G belongs to the onset, not the rime.

The fourth argument concerns structural adjacency. Before we give the argument, let us consider five possible structures in which the position of pre-nucleus G differs. Take the syllable tian 'sweet' for example

(13) a.	$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \text{O R} \\ \quad \wedge \\ \text{t} \quad \text{a n} \end{array}$	b.	$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \text{O R} \\ \wedge \quad \wedge \\ \text{t i} \quad \text{a n} \end{array}$	c.	$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \text{I F} \\ \quad \wedge \\ \text{t i} \quad \wedge \\ \quad \quad \text{a n} \end{array}$	d.	$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \text{O R} \\ \quad \wedge \\ \text{t} \quad \text{N C} \\ \quad \quad \wedge \\ \quad \quad \text{i a n} \end{array}$	e.	$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ \text{I F} \\ \quad / \backslash \\ \text{t} \quad \text{i a n} \end{array}$	O=Onset R=Rime N=Nucleus C=Coda I=Initial F=Final
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(13a) is the structure I argue for. (13b) is proposed by Bao (1990b:328) and Fu (1990). (13c) is proposed by R. Cheng (1988) and Y. Lin (1989); it also resembles the structure proposed by Harris (1983) for Spanish (but see Carreira 1988 for an alternative analysis of Spanish data without (13c)). (13d) is proposed by Bao (1990b:342) for Taiwanese and Kunshan. (13e) is assumed by Y. Lin (1989), Bao (1990) and Fu (1990) as an alternative for Taiwanese; it is also assumed, often tacitly, in most other analyses of Chinese languages. We will now see evidence that only (13a) is the correct analysis.

It has been noted that the Mandarin mid vowel /ɤ/ assimilates in [back] (and [round]) with an adjacent glide, on either side (cf. C. Cheng (1974), Battistella (1984))

(14) a.	/fɤi/-->[fɛi] 'fly'	/diɤ/-->[die] 'saucer'
b.	/dɤu/-->[dou] 'bean'	/duɤ/-->[duo] 'many'
c.	/diɤu/-->[diou] (*dieu) 'throw'	/duɤi/-->[duei] (*duoi) 'team'

/ɤ/ becomes [ɛ] in (14a), where /i/ is adjacent, and becomes [o] in (14b), where /u/ is adjacent. In (14c), where both /i u/ are adjacent, /ɤ/ assimilates to the coda. C. Cheng (1974) suggests that, if possible, /ɤ/ assimilates to the segment on the right, otherwise it assimilates to the segment on the left.

There is, however, no explanation for the directionality of the assimilation. Battistella suggests that the apparent directionality is a result of structural adjacency. In particular, in (13a,b,c) the nuclear vowel is structurally closer to the coda than to the prenucleus G. If the structure of the Mandarin syllable is either of (13a,b,c), we do not have to stipulate the directionality for the assimilation of /ʂ/; /ʂ/ simply assimilates to the structurally closest segment, i.e. the coda if there is one, otherwise the prenucleus G. In contrast, (13d,e) cannot explain why the coda has greater influence on the nuclear vowel than the prenucleus G. Thus, (14) disfavors (13d,e), leaving (13a,b,c) as possible alternatives. We will compare (13a,b) shortly in section 2.1.1.3. Before then, let us turn to the next argument, which shows why (13c) is not the correct analysis.

In the fifth argument I show that prenucleus CG- forms a structural unit, and so (13c) cannot be the correct analysis. The evidence comes from some Chinese dialects in which there is a switch between [f-] and [hu-]. For example, compare Mandarin with Santai, a Mandarin dialect spoken in the province of Sichuan (for the moment I follow the traditional transcription, where prenucleus G is written as a segment)

(15)	Mandarin	Santai	
	huei	fei	'ashes'
	fei	huei	'to fly'
	huang	fang	'yellow'
	fang	huang	'house'
	hei	he	'black'
	hao	hao	'good'

Mandarin [hu-] and [f-] are changed to [f-] and [hu-] in Santai respectively. Mandarin [h-], however, remains unchanged in Santai. Since Mandarin and Santai belong to the same dialect family, it is reasonable to assume that they have similar syllable structures, i.e. either (13a,b) or (13c). The fact that [f-] may replace [h^w-] and in turn be replaced by the latter show that [hu-] must be a structural constituent. Similarly, all other prenucleus CG's should also be structural units. In other words, (13c), in which prenucleus CG do not form a constituent, cannot be the correct analysis.

Other cases of the alternation between [f-] and pre-nucleus [hu-] is also found, as Lü (1962) notes

in some (Chinese) dialects [f-] and [hu-] are not distinguished. Either may be freely used in place of the other. They are...free variants.

Such cases confirm that, in these dialects at least, (13c) cannot be the correct analysis.

The final argument comes from riming. Two syllables rime in Chinese if they have the same nucleus and coda; the onset C and pre-nucleus G have no effect.¹¹ This is true throughout history, from the earliest recorded poems in *Shijing* (*The Book of Songs*) (L. Wang (1957:3-4)), to present day poems.¹² If pre-nucleus

11. More specifically, two syllables rime if they have the same surface nucleus and coda; two syllables whose nuclei and codas are identical underlyingly but different at surface may or may not rime (thanks to K. Hale for pointing this out to me). For example, as mentioned above, in an open syllable, the Mandarin mid vowel /ɤ/ assimilates in [back] and [round] to the glide on the left, and if there is no glide to the left, /ɤ/ is realized as [ɿ] (unrounded back mid vowel). Thus, /die/→[die] (e.g. 'dad'), /duɤ/→[duo] (e.g. 'many') and /dɤ/→[dɿ] (e.g. 'gain'). To my knowledge, [die] and [duo] do not rime. However, [duo] and [dɿ] occasionally rime, as seen in the following lines (from the 1989 Spring Festival Gala Celebration TV Show, CCTV, Beijing, transcribed in Pinyin, where 1, 2, 3 and 4 mark the four tones)

...
 jin4 qin1 jie2 hun1 hai4 chu4 duo1,
 close kin marry bad effects many
 'Inbreeding marriages have many bad effects.'

zhe4 yang4 xia4-qu4 liao3-bu4-de2.
 this way go-on terrible
 'It will be terrible if such things go on.'

The riming syllables *duo* and *de* have the same underlying nuclei (both being [ɤ]) but different surface nuclei ([o] and [ɿ] respectively).

12. Another example of modern riming is seen in the lines below (from a Taiwanese TV series of report *Da Qian Li Lu Feng He Yun*, directed by Lin Feng)

...	liu shi qi ba,	'People in their sixties,
	yang niao zhong hua.	raise birds and tend flowers.
	qi shi qi ba,	People in their seventies,
	zheng xie ren da.	sit in PCC and the People's Congress.
	ba shi qi ba,	People in their eighties,
	zhen xing zhong hua.	revitalize China.'

(PCC: Political Consultative Conference)

where [ba], [da] and [hua] rime. That is, pre-nucleus consonant and glides have

G is in the onset, the explanation is simple: two syllables rime if they have the same rimes. However, if prenucleus G is in the rime, then one has to explain why different rimes can rime.

The assumption that prenucleus G is in the rime is probably influenced by *Qieyun*, one of the oldest and most important 'riming books', written around 600 A.D. In *Qieyun* a syllable is split into two parts, the initial consonant, often called the 'initial', and the rest, often called the 'final'. Altogether 206 'finals' are distinguished and arranged in table form. Although the 206 'finals' include prenucleus G, those that differ only in prenucleus G are permitted to rime in poems (L. Wang 1957:4). With respect to riming, therefore, a 'final' is not the same as a 'rime', since different 'finals' can rime. Strictly speaking, then, *Qieyun* is more than a riming book; it provides phonological distinctions not only between those 'finals' that do not rime, but also between those 'finals' that rime. There is the question of why *Qieyun* does not group prenucleus G with the 'initial', i.e. the onset consonant. My speculation is that it is probably due to an arbitrary choice, given that *Qieyun* does not give arguments for grouping prenucleus G with 'finals' anyway. The common assumption that prenucleus /i u/ were historically in the rime has also been challenged recently by F.K. Li (1984), who argues that prenucleus /u/ was historically not a rime segment but a secondary articulation on the onset C. It remains to be shown whether prenucleus /i/ was also part of the onset.

2.1.1.3. The onset has one slot Having shown that prenucleus G is in the onset, I next show that prenucleus CG is a single segment. In other words, I argue that what are traditionally written as prenucleus clusters, i.e. [tu- ti- du- di- nu- ni- lu- li- ...], are in fact single segments, i.e. [t^w- t^y- d^w- d^y- n^w- n^y- l^w- l^y- ...], with the glide being a secondary articulation. The view that pre-nucleus CG is two segments is based on the assumption that prenucleus G is in the rime. Once we see that prenucleus G is in the onset, there is no more support for that view. There is, on the other hand, further evidence for our analysis. If prenucleus CG were an onset cluster, we would expect other onset clusters as well. In particular, there is a cross-linguistic

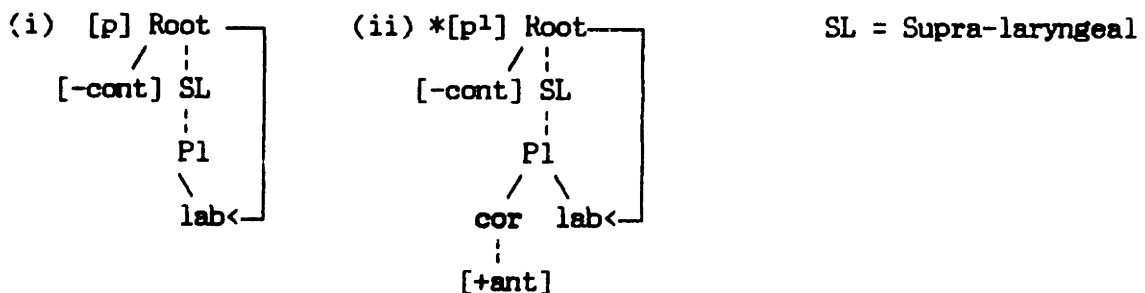
no effect on riming.

tendency that if a language allows an onset cluster C_1C_3 , where the sonority distance between them is not the largest, then it should allow an onset cluster C_1C_k , where the sonority distance is larger (Greenberg (1984), Harris (1983), Selkirk (1984), Steriade (1982)). This means that if /li- lu- ni- nu-/ are good onsets, we would expect /pl- kl- pr- kr-/ to be good, too, since the sonority distance is larger in the latter set (assuming the sonority hierarchy of vowel-glide-liquid-nasal-fricative-stop). However, in Mandarin we do find the former set, /lia/ 'two', /luan/ 'egg', /nian/ 'year' and /nuo/ 'move', but not the latter set, /*pla *kla *pra *kra/. This fact is unexplained if pre-nucleus CG are a cluster.

In contrast, if pre-nucleus CG are a single segment C^G , the result is what we would expect. The reason is that Mandarin allows /i u/ as secondary articulations but not /l r/, so /li- lu- ni- nu-/ are good and /pl- kl- pr- kr-/ bad. This is not an unusual restriction; it is far more common cross-linguistically to find dorsal and labial secondary articulations than coronal secondary articulations (cf. Maddieson 1984).¹³

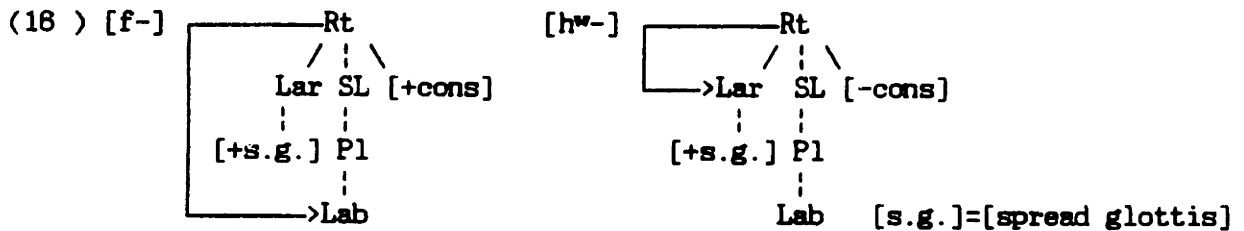
¹³. It is not clear why coronal secondary articulations are less common. It is probably due to the fact that coronal sounds are acoustically more robust and so they tend to be primary articulations.

There is another possible reason why [l] is a bad secondary articulation. According to Sagey (1986), a secondary articulation is represented by adding a minor articulator node to the feature tree of a given segment. In addition, all manner/stricture features belong to the major articulator; manner features of minor articulators are interpreted either by general principles (e.g. [-cons] as a universal default) or predictable on a language particular basis (Sagey 1986:272). Now Hegarty (1989) has argued that [lateral] is a manner feature, attached to the Root node instead of the coronal node. Consider [p] and [p^l] in this light



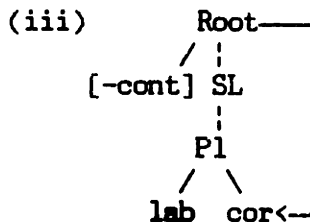
The articulator of [l] is 'coronal'. If we add this to [p], as shown in (ii),

Additional evidence for (13a) and against (13b,c) comes from the [f-] and [h^w-] alternation (cf. section 2.1.1.2.). Let us take a close look at the process. According to (13b,c), in which [h^w-] contains two segments, there is no good explanation as to how two segments could become one and, especially, how one segment could become two. In contrast, according to (13a), where [h^w-] is single segment (a double articulation), there is a simple explanation. The representations of [f-] and [h^w-] are as follows (following the feature geometry of Sagey 1988)



however, we do not get [p^l], since there is no feature [+lateral]. If we add [+lateral] to the Root node, it will become a property of the major articulator 'labial'. So we never get [p^l] as a well formed complex segment.

On the other hand, Sagey's argument equally supports the opposite view, namely, (ii) is the representation of [p^l]. This is because minor articulators do not need manner features. For example,



As a default, (iii) will be interpreted as [t^w], rather than [t^f] or [t^P], by the universal default [-cons] for minor articulators. Similarly, [+son] could also be a universal default feature for the minor articulator, because secondary articulation is generally sonorant. Thus, (ii) will be interpreted as [p^l] rather than, say, [p^o] or [p^o], because oral [+son, +ant] implies [+lateral]. In general, the minor articulator 'coronal' will be interpreted, universally perhaps, as [l] (if it is [+ant]) or [r] (if it is [-ant]). It will not be interpreted as [t] or [s] or [θ], etc.

It has been tentatively proposed that, similar to other Sino-Tibetan languages (such as Tai), Ancient Chinese had onset clusters C₁C₂, where C₂ is a liquid ([l] according to Dong 1954, and [r] according to F.K. Li 1980b). Our analysis offers the possibility that even Ancient Chinese had a single onset.

There are two differences between [f-] and [h^w-]. First, the pointer goes to Labial in [f-] but to Laryngeal in [h^w-]. Second, the value of [cons] is plus in [f-] but minus in [h^w-]. We may, however, consider the second difference as a consequence of the first. When the pointer in [f-] is changed from Labial to Laryngeal, [+cons] must also change to [-cons], since according to Chomsky & Halle (1968) all laryngeal sounds (i.e., in terms of feature geometry, those sounds with the Laryngeal node as the major articulator) are [-cons]. Similarly, when the pointer in [h^w-] is changed from Laryngeal to Labial, [-cons] must also change to [+cons], too, since, presumably, there is no [-cons] aspirated labial sound. If this analysis is correct, then the change between [f-] and [h^w-] is simply a change of the object of the pointer. And this analysis is possible only if we assume (13a).

2.1.1.4. The rime has two slots Two points need be shown: (a). the rime has at most two segments, and (b). the rime has at least two segments.

First, although the rime may contain a diphthong or a nasal coda, diphthongs do not occur in closed syllables. This shows that the rime cannot contain three segments. Furthermore, when the diminutive suffix /-r/ is added to a syllable, the original coda has to be dropped

(17) ya+r --> yar yan+r --> yar guai+r --> guar
 'tooth' 'edge' (*yanr) 'strange' (*guair)

All this is natural if the Mandarin rime has just two slots.

It is easy to see that rimes have two slots in CVN and CVV, for codas contrast in place, e.g. /bai/ 'white', /bau/ 'thin', /ban/ 'half', /bang/ 'help'. The question is whether rimes have two slots in what are traditionally transcribed CV syllables. It is well-known that all regular Mandarin syllables, e.g. /ta/ 'he', /tai/ 'embryo' and /tang/ 'soup', have about the same duration (e.g. Howie (1976)). If these syllables do not have the same rime length, namely two X slots, there is no reason why they should have the same duration. In English, for example, 'hike' and 'hack' markedly differ in duration, because the former has one more rime slot. The fact that Mandarin /ta tai tang/ have the same

length shows that vowels are long in open rimes and short in diphthongs and closed rimes. What is traditionally transcribed [CV] is in fact [CV:], and /ta/ 'he' should be /ta:/. Why then did traditional transcriptions fail to reflect this fact? The reason is that phonemically Mandarin vowels do not contrast in length. However, the lack of length contrast can mean one of three things: (i) all vowels are long; (ii) all vowels are short; or (iii) vowel lengths are predictable. We have seen that Mandarin vowels do vary in length, so (i) and (ii) cannot be correct. This leaves (iii) the right answer, and our analysis correctly predicts length variations.

There is further evidence that the rime has two slots. Phonetic studies (Woo (1969), Lin & Yan (1988), Yang (1988)) show that the rime duration of a weak syllable is about 50% the rime duration of a regular syllable.¹⁴ In addition, Lin & Yan (1988) show that when a full syllable is weakened, the duration loss mostly comes from the drop of the coda or the off-glide of a diphthong. For example, when *fang* (in *ti fang* 'place') is weakened, the coda /ng/ is dropped, and the vowel is nasalized and reduced towards schwa. In our terms, when weakened, a syllable loses the final rime slot. Note that coda loss is not a universal consequence for weakened syllables. In English, for example, it is the nucleus that seems to undergo most weakening, as the following show

- (18) student /-dent/ --> /-dnt/
 Sunday /-dai/ --> /-di/
 Whitsun /-sun/ --> /-sn/

2.1.1.5. Summary I have argued that a regular Mandarin syllable has a fixed length of three slots, one in the onset and two in the rime, and that pre-nucleus G is not a rime segment but a secondary articulation on the onset.

The phonological derivation of a morpheme is as follows.¹⁵ A morpheme is supplied with a sequence of segments and a fixed syllable structure. Association follows a few simple rules given below, together with examples (omitting Onset, Rime, Nucleus, Coda nodes; \emptyset = one of (7a-d), / δ / = [-hi, -lo])

¹⁴. The onsets of weak and full syllables do not differ so much in length.

¹⁵. Chinese morphemes are dominantly monosyllabic.

- (19) a. Link the most sonorant segment to the nucleus.
 b. Link other segments.
 c. If the coda is empty, spread the nuclear segment to it.
 d. If the onset is empty and if the nucleus is [+high] or [+cons], spread the nuclear segment to it.¹⁸
 e. Specify the zero onset (cf. (8)).

(20) a. /i/ --> [yi:] 'one'	/i\ 19a X X X i	/i\ 19c X X X i	/i\ 19d X X X i	/i\ X X X i
b. /m/ --> [m:] 'Uh-huh'	/m\ 19a X X X m	/m\ 19c X X X m	/m\ 19d X X X m	/m\ X X X m
c. /e/ --> [øe:] 'goose'	/e\ 19a X X X e	/e\ 19c X X X e	/e\ 19e X X X e	/e\ X X X ø e
d. /an/ --> [ʔan] 'peace'	/a\ 19a X X X a n	/a\ 19b X X X a n	/a\ 19e X X X a n	/a\ X X X ø a n
e. /na/ --> [na:] 'hold'	/n\ 19a X X X n a	/n\ 19b X X X n a	/n\ 19c X X X n a	/n\ X X X n a
f. /nan/ --> [nan] 'south'	/n\ 19a X X X n a n	/n\ 19b X X X n a n	/n\ X X X n a n	
g. /gu/ --> [gu:] 'drum'	/g\ 19a X X X g u	/g\ 19b X X X g u	/g\ 19c X X X g u	/g\ X X X g u

¹⁸ We may formalize this and say that nuclei above a certain sonority degree do not spread to the empty onset. Intuitively, onsets cannot contain highly sonorant sounds, e.g. [-high] vowels. However, it is not clear where glottal onsets /ʔ F/ should lie on the sonority hierarchy. I therefore leave this somewhat informal rule as it is.

skeleton...(T)he skeleton is constant in any given dialect...

However, neither Chao nor Yip made their claims explicit. In fact, Yip allows some slots in the syllabic skeleton to be unfilled (p847), and this weakens the claim of a fixed skeleton, since one may always posit the maximal skeleton, and derive smaller skeletons by leaving some slots unfilled.

2.1.2. Shanghai¹⁷ Shanghai has the following inventory of 'initials' and 'final' (Xu et al 1981:145)

(21) Initials:	p	ph	b	f	v	?m	Hm	
	t	th	d			?n	Hn	
	ts	tsh		s	z	?l	Hl	
	tç	tçh	dZ	ç	Z	?ny	Hny	
	k	kh	g	h		?ng	Hng	
						?	H	
Finals:	z	a	o	0	τ	E	ø	ø=schwa
	i	ia		i0	iτ	iE		ng=
	u	ua				uE	uø	~=nasal rime
	y						yø	
	r	m	n					
	a~	a~	ɸn	ong	a?	o?	ɸ?	
	ia~	ia~	in	iong	ia?	io?	iI?	
	ua~	ua~	uɸn		ua?		uɸ?	
			yn				yI?	

The inventory does not seem to be an optimal analysis, for there are a number of missing positions; it will, however, not affect our discussion. As in Mandarin, all 'initials' are single segments. A suffixed /h/, as in /ph/, indicates aspiration. Sonorant initials are of two kinds. Those that are transcribed with a prefixed /?/, such as /?m/, pattern with voiceless obstruents and occur in upper register tones only. Those that are transcribed with a prefixed /H/, such as /Hm/, pattern with voiced obstruents and occur in lower register tones only. I suggest that the former set of sonorants have stiff vocal cords, and the latter set have slack vocal cords. More discussion on laryngeal features will be given in Chapter 3. Syllables with the 'zero onset' in Mandarin have /?/ or /H/ in Shanghai, depending on whether they are in the upper or the lower register respectively. Each 'final' must take one and only

¹⁷. Data in this section refers to New Shanghai (Xu et al 1981). The same arguments apply to Old Shanghai (Chao 1928, Sherard 1972, Shen 1981).

one 'initial'.

Let us now consider rime length. Our arguments that Mandarin prenucleus G is secondary articulation of the onset equally apply to Shanghai. This leaves the longest rime with two segments, such as /ong o?/. Moreover, like in Mandarin, all rimes, except those ending in /?/, have similar duration. Rimes ending in /?/ have much shorter durations, due partly to the glottalization of the vowel, and partly to the silence of /?/. We will therefore follow the same arguments for Mandarin and consider Shanghai vowels to be long in open rimes and short in closed rimes.

Unlike Mandarin, however, Shanghai has no diphthongs. In addition, while in Mandarin, /n ng/ codas minimally contrast (e.g. /da/ 'big', /dan/ 'egg', /dang/ 'swing'), in Shanghai there is no minimal coda contrast. /n ng ?/ are in complementary distribution, occurring with [-low, -back] vowels, [-low, +back] vowels and glottal vowels respectively. Moreover, [+low] vowels do not occur with /n ng/ but with /~/ . It is possible, therefore, that the Shanghai rime has one segment, with /~ n ng/ being manifestations of nasality, and /?/ a partial manifestation of glottality, in addition to the glottalness of the vowel.

It is not obvious which analysis is correct, i.e. whether the Shanghai syllable is bimoraic or monomoraic. I suggest that the Shanghai syllable is bimoraic in isolation (and in final positions perhaps) but monomoraic otherwise. One reason is that in nonfinal positions, the /?/ coda is dropped, but the glottalness of the vowel remains (Chao 1928; Xu et al p150). In addition, in isolation a Shanghai syllable may bear two tones, but nonfinally it may bear just one.¹⁶

It remains to be shown that the syllabic /z n m r/ can span three segments (or two in nonfinal positions). Evidence again comes from language games. Take Mo-

¹⁶. It remains to be shown whether the Shanghai syllable is lengthened in isolation, or shortened nonfinally. If the former, my claim that all Chinese syllables are bimoraic must be modified somehow.

na from New Shanghai (omitting voicing diacritics [H ?] for sonorants)¹⁹

- (22) Basic rules of no-na from Shanghai:
 a. reduplicate
 b. replace the first rime with /o/.
- (23) na --> no na 'mother'
 ng --> o ng (speaker A) 'fish'
 ngo ng (speaker B)
 tie? --> tio-tie? 'iron'
 iang --> io-iang 'sheep'

The data show that for Speaker A, /ng/ has the zero onset, and for Speaker B, /ng/ has the onset /ng-/. In our view, Speaker A does not spread /ng/ to the onset position, while B does, as shown below

- (24) Speaker A: σ ---> σ Speaker B: σ ---> σ
- | | | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ O \ R \\ \ \wedge \\ X \ X \ X \\ \ / \\ ng \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ O \ R \\ \ \wedge \\ X \ X \ X \\ \ / \\ \emptyset \ ng \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ O \ R \\ \ \wedge \\ X \ X \ X \\ \ / \\ ng \end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ O \ R \\ \ \wedge \\ X \ X \ X \\ \ / \\ ng \end{array}$ |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

where / \emptyset / stands for a realization of the zero onset, which in this case is /H/. A syllabic segment that spans across three slots is found in Mandarin and other Chinese dialects (Chao 1931). The words /tie?/ and /iang/ show that the prenucleus [i] is in the onset, as we predict. We conclude that, like Mandarin, Shanghai has the uniform syllabic structure in given (1).

2.1.3. Meixian (Moi-yan) The inventory of Meixian initials and finals is given below (Hashimoto 1973:91,92,96)

¹⁹ This is a game language played among children. My two informants A and B were born and raised in Shanghai. A is in his mid twenties, and B is her in late twenties.

(25) Initials:	b	p	f	m					
	d	t		n	l				
	z	c	s						
	g	k		ng				(ng = angna)	
	∅		h						
Finals:	a	au	ai	am	ab	an	ad	ang	ag
	ua		uai			uan	uad	uang	uag
	ia	iau	iai	iam	iab	ian	iad	iang	iag
	e	eu		em	eb	en	ed		
	ue					uen	ued		
	ie	ieu							
	o		oi			on	od	ong	og
	uo		uoi			uon	uod	uong	uog
	io		ioi			ion		iong	iog
	z	u	i	zm	zb	zn	zd		
			ui			un	ud	ung	ug
		iu		im	ib	in	id		
						iun	iud	iung	iug

Like in Mandarin and Shanghai, the Meixian has no cluster initials. /∅/ stands for the 'zero initial', which has the value [ʔ] before non-high vowels, [v] before a nuclear /u/ and [y] before a nuclear [i]. Prenucleus /i u/ also become [y v] respectively when the initial is /∅/. These facts are what we would predict: [ʔ] is the default segment, non-high vowels spread to the empty onset position, and pre-nucleus G is the onset if there is no other consonant.

For the finals, Hashimoto writes /b d g/ for the Ru Sheng codas instead of the more traditional /p t k/, as used in Yuan (1960), but this need not concern us here. Let us instead focus on the number of segments in the rime. We mentioned already that pre-nucleus /i u/ are [y v] when there is no initial consonant. This is evidence that, like in Mandarin, pre-nucleus G in Meixian is part of the onset. This leaves the longest rime with two segments, CC, VG, and VC. The remaining question is whether C and V rimes have two slots. Unfortunately, Hashimoto does not say whether C and V rimes have the same durations as CC, VG and VC rimes. However, in view of traditional custom of not marking length in most Chinese dialects, and the fact that in many such dialects open and closed rimes in fact do have similar durations (e.g. Mandarin, Chengdu and Shanghai), and the fact that in those dialects where length is marked, such as in Cantonese, open vowels are always marked long, it is reasonable to assume that all Meixian rimes to have the same length of two slots. Thus, Meixian also has the uniform syllabic structure as given in (1).

2.1.4. Xiamen (Amoy) Xiamen or Amoy originates from the city of Xiamen. It is also known as Taiwanese, being a major dialect spoken in Taiwan, due to demographic migrations. Like in Mandarin, Amoy does not permit onset clusters. The Amoy 'final' inventory is given below (Luo 1956:10)

(26) Open:		a	o	e	ai	au	ng=angna
	i	iu	ia	io		iau	ɛ=schwa
	u	ui	ua		ue	uai	
Nasalized:		a~	o~	e~	ai~	au~	
	i~	iu~	ia~			iau~	
		ui~	ua~		uai~		
Closed:		am		an	ang	Oing	
	im	iam	in	ian	iɛng	iang	iOng
			un	uan		uang	
		ap		at		ak	Oik
	ip	iap	it	iet	iɛt	iak	ick
			ut	uat			
Syllabics:		m				ng	

This does not seem to be an optimal analysis, for again there are many missing positions. In particular, where we expect /Ong Ok/, we see /Oing Oik/. This has been corrected in more recent analyses (J. Lin 1975, Lu 1977), where there are /Ong Ok/ but no /Oing Oik/. Given this, and following the reasoning given for Mandarin, it is apparent that Amoy again has a uniform syllabic structure as in (1). In particular, the onset has one slot, the prenucleus G is in the onset, the longest rimes have two slots, and V and C syllables are geminates.

P. Li (1985) and Bao (1990b) suggest that evidence from language games (Fanqie languages) shows that, in Taiwanese, the prenucleus G is in the rime. Y. Lin (1989) and Fu (1990) argue for the same conclusion, drawing evidence from cooccurrence restrictions. I will treat this issue in sections 2.3. and 2.4. respectively, and show that their arguments are either inconclusive or make incorrect predictions. I will further show that if we assume the Taiwanese syllabic structure to be the same as in other Chinese languages, as in (1), we can give a successful account of both the Fanqie data and the labial labial cooccurrence restrictions.

Amy provides additional evidence for the bimoraic rime. It comes from literary v. colloquial styles of speech. Most nasalized vowels appear only in colloquial speech. In literary speech, they appear as VN. However, nasalized diphthongs remain as such in literary speech

(27) Colloquial v. literary speech in Amy (Lu 1977:13-16):

Colloquial	Literary
a~	an
e~	ing
i~	ien
ia~	ing
iO~	iong
iu~	iong
ua~	uan
uai~	uan/uai
o~	
ai~	no nasal coda counterparts.
au~	
iau~	
ui~	
uai~	

It is interesting to note that in literary speech /uai~/ either remains nasalized, or appears as either /uai/ or /uan/. The fact that nasalized diphthongs never appear as VGN follows if XX is the maximal rime length.

2.1.5. Fuzhou Like previous languages discussed above, Fuzhou also does not permit onset clusters. However, unlike previous languages, Fuzhou seems to allow up to three rime segments, i.e. with diphthong in closed syllables, thus showing apparent counterevidence to the claim that Chinese rimes have two slots. There are many discrepancies among different descriptions of Fuzhou rimes. Consider first the 'final' inventory given by Liang (1982), which is one of the largest, with 49 members

(28) a/a	E/	oe/ øy/Oy	o/O	i/Ei	u/ou	y/øy
ang/ang	Eing/aing	øyng/Oyng	oung/Oung	ing/Eing	ung/oung	yng/øyng
a?/a?	Ei?/ai?	øy?/Oy?	ou?/Ou?	i?/Ei?	u?/ou?	y?/øy?
ia/ia	E?/ ie/iE ieu/iEu	oe?	o?/O?			
iang/iang	ieng/iEng		yong/yOng			
ia?/ia?	ie?/iE?		yo?/yO?			
ua/ua			uo/uO			
uang/uang			uong/uOng			
ua?/ua?			uo?/uO?			
ai/ai						
au/au	Eu/					
uai/uai			uoi/uOi		m n ng	

Each rime has two forms, separated by a slash. The form before the slash occurs with high tones, and that after the slash with low tones. It can be seen that vowels in low tone forms are generally lower than their high tone counterparts. The syllabic nasals do not vary with tones, apparently because vowel lowering cannot apply. The correlation between low tones and low vowels, and high tones with high vowels, is a well-known phenomenon, but the mechanisms that underly this correlation is not exactly known (cf. Hombert 1978 for a review). We will therefore leave the explanation open. Five rimes, [E oe E? oe? Eu], are not given their low tone counterparts, for reasons Liang does not provide. The inventory has many missing slots, and is clearly not an optimal analysis. Let us compare it with that of Wright (1983)

(29) a	e/a	oe	(o/O)	i/ei	u/ou	y/øy
ang	eing/aing	øyng/Oyng	oung/Oung	ing/eing	ung/oung	yng/øyng
a?	ei?/ai?	øy?/Oy?	ou?/Ou?	i?/ei?	u?/ou?	y?/øy?
ia	ie		iO		iu	
iang	ieng		iOng			
ia?	ie?		iO?			
ua			uO			
uang			uOng			
ua?			uO?			
ai		øy/Oy				
au						
uai	uei				m n ng	

Wright's inventory does not have [E?/a? o/O o?/O? oe]. The absence of [o/O] is likely due to an oversight, since it appears in Tao (1930), Chao (1931), and Liang (1982), as well as in Wright's own data (e.g. p.322 to 'many', p.376 ko

'brother'). In addition, many rimes, especially those with low vowels, do not have alternations. This is natural, since it is hard to further lower low vowels.

Like Liang's inventory, Wright's has many missing positions. In particular, the column under [oe] probably could be merged with the column under [e/a]; the former can fill the positions beginning with [u] under the latter. On the other hand, [uei], which Liang writes [uoi/uOi], can be moved to the column under [o/O]. Moreover, the column under [y/øy] may either be merged with the column under [i/ei], to fill the positions beginning with [u], or be merged with the column under [u/ou], to fill the positions beginning with [i]. This gives us a system with five vowels [i e a o u], as shown below

(30)	a	e/a	(o/O)	i/ei	u/ou
	ang	eing/aing	oung/Oung	ing/eing	ung/oung
	a?	ei?/ai?	ou?/Ou?	i?/ei?	u?/ou?
	ia	ie	iO		iu
	iang	ieng	iOng		
	ia?	ie?	iO?		
	ua	oe(=ue)	uO	y/øy(=ui)	
	uang	øyng/Oyng(=ueng)	uOng	yng/øyng(=uing)	
	ua?	øy?/Oy?(=ue?)	uO?	y?/øy?(=ui?)	
	ai				
	au				
	uai	øy/Oy(=uei)	uei(=uoi)		m n ng

We next consider which form is derived, the low tone form or the high tone form. If the low tone form is underlying, there are at least two difficulties. First, [a] will split, some becoming [e] and some remain [a]. Second, many common rimes will be missing, such as [i ing u e]. In contrast, if the low tone form is derived, there is no difficulty. Clearly, then, the simpler analysis is to assume the low tone form as derived. Let us then disregard the low tone rimes. The inventory becomes

(31)	a	e	o	i	u
	ang	eing	oung	ing	ung
	a?	ei?	ou?	i?	u?
	ia	ie	iO		iu
	iang	ieng	iOng		
	ia?	ie?	iO?		
	ua	oe(=ue)	uO		y(=ui)
	uang	øying(=ueng)	uOng		ying(=uing)
	ua?	øy?(=ue?)	uO?		y?(=ui?)
	ai				
	au				
	uai	øy(=uei)	uei(=uoi)		m n ng

It will have been noted that although nuclear /i u/ are lowered in low tone rimes, pre-nucleus /i u/ are never lowered. This agrees with our analysis that pre-nucleus /i u/ are part of the onset, so they are not tone bearing and thus not subject to lowering.²⁰ Now ignoring pre-nucleus [i u], there are six rimes that contain three segments, [eing ei? oung ou? øying øy?]. However, they occur in places just where we expect [eng e? ong o? øng ø?]. The question is, which set is underlying? If the former, we see a situation where there are simple rimes like [e o ø] and complex rimes like [eing ei? oung ou? øying øy?], but not intermediate rimes like [eng e? ong o? øng ø?] or [ei ou]. This is against a universal tendency that if a language allows complex structures, it also allows simpler structures. We will therefore favor the alternative analysis and assume [eng e? ong o? øng ø?] to be underlyingly.

Why [eng e? ong o? øng ø?] should phonetically be realized as [eing ei? oung ou? øying øy?] is an open question. Liang (p38) notes that the coda [?] varies with [k] non-contrastively in Fuzhou; he chooses to write [?] for all of them. T. Wang (1969), on the other hand, chooses to write those Fuzhou codas as [k]

²⁰ It will have been noted that, although Wright writes [O] after [i u] in the [o/O] column for both high and low tone members, Liang gives finer distinctions, with [o] for the high tone members and [O] for the low tone members. If we follow Liang's analysis, we may further disregard pre-nucleus [i u], and the inventory will become

a	e	o	i	u
ang	eing	oung	ing	ung
a?	ei?	ou?	i?	u?
ai				
au				
uai	øy(=uei)	uei(=uoi)		m n ng

instead of [ʔ]. Thus the [+high] of [k ng] may have played a role.

We mentioned above that the Fuzhou onset has one slot. We have seen that the longest rime in Fuzhou has two slots. The same argument given for Mandarin that monophthongs are geminates applies to Fuzhou. Consider the following measurements of rime length (calculated from the data in Wright 1983:60-62)

(32) RIME (nonfinal)	TOKENS	AVERAGE
a	160 168 144 156 132 160 164	155
ang	258 244 238 256 238 252 238 260 264	249
au	144 152 232 192 192 160	179
ai	164 156 212 160 122 188 208	173
RIME (final)	TOKENS	AVERAGE
a	332 400 280 360 372	349
ang	452 368 396 368 492	414
au	296 336 232 340	301
ai	280 324 456 380 460 348	375

Apart from the fact that a nasal coda makes the rime longer, [a] has similar durations as [au] and [ai] both in domain final positions (where the syllable is stressed) and in non-domain final positions.²¹ Clearly, monophthongs are long vowels, and we conclude that, underlyingly, the Fuzhou syllable has a fixed length of three segments, in the structure given in (1).²²

There is a remaining question. What is the rime length in low tone forms? Many low tone forms contain diphthongs in closed syllables, suggesting three segments. Before we draw a conclusion, three further facts must be noted. First, the low tone forms occur only finally. Non-finally, only high tone forms occur, even if the rime carries a low tone.²³ Second, both high and low tone forms are

21. The stress domain in Fuzhou, which is also the sandhi domain, seems to start from the right edge of an XP and extends leftwards to the next left edge of XP, similar to that of Xiannan (Anoy) discussed in Chen (1987).

22. Wright's data are not rich enough to compare the lengths of other rimes. For example, there are just two tokens of non-final [i] and no token of [ing].

23. There is additional support for positing the high tone form as underlying. In nonfinal positions, commonly called 'sandhi positions', only 'high tone' forms occur, with both high and low tones. The 'sandhi tones',

comparable in length either finally, or non-finally, while all rimes in final positions are longer than in non-final positions, due to stress. Third, the only complex contour tone, 242 or LHL (ignoring register for exposition), occurs only finally. These facts can be explained if we assume that in final positions, the rime is lengthened to three segments, due to stress, in line with the analysis of Wright. A similar case is found in Mandarin, where a floating H of the Third Tone is realized only finally, accompanied by a lengthening of the rime.

2.1.6. Cantonese The Cantonese onset contains one segment. In addition, /w/ is the only prenucleus glide, which is commonly analysed as the secondary articulation of the onset, similar to our treatment in Mandarin. There are, however, striking differences in the duration of Cantonese rimes. According to some analyses, the durational differences come from a contrast between short and long vowels (e.g. the 'Yale system' of Huang & Kok 1980). Other analyses attribute the differences to tense/lax qualities of the vowel (e.g. Wong 1954). Still others consider both length and quality to be playing a joint role (e.g. Kao 1971). The differences in approach are reflected in the following three versions of the Cantonese 'final' inventory

(33) Wong (1954) (in Kao 1971, p36):

a		E	i	U	oe	u	y	
ai	Ai	ei		Oi				
au	Au		iu	ou				
					oey			
am	Am		im					m
an	An		in	On	oen	un	yn	
ang	Ang	Eng	ing	Ong	oeng	ung		ng
ap	Ap		ip					
at	At		it	Ot	oet	ut	yt	
ak	Ak	Ek	ik	Ok	oek	uk		

however, are in agreement with the voicing of the onsets. On the other hand, tones in final positions, commonly called the 'original tones', disagree with onset voicing. It is therefore more natural to take non-final forms as underlying, i.e. the somewhat misleadingly called 'high tone' forms.

(34) Huang & Kok (1980) (in Kao 1971, p39): (L = long, S= short)

L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L	S	L
a		e		i		o		eu		u		yu
aa	ai		ei			oi			eui	ui		
aa	au			iu			ou					
aan	an			in								
aan	an			in		on			eun	un		yun
aang	ang	eng			ing	ong		eung			ung	
aap	ap			ip								
aat	at			it		ot			eut	ut		yut
aak	ak	ek			ik	ok		euk			uk	

(35) Kao (1971, p40): (L = long, S= short)

L	S	L	S	L	L	S	L	S	L	L
A		e		i	o		oe		u	y
Aj	aj		Ej							
Aw	aw			iw		Ow				
An	an			in						m
An	an			in	on			oen	un	yn
Ang	ang	en	Eng		ong	Ong	oeng			ng
Ap	ap			ip						
At	at			it	ot			oet	ut	yt
Ak	ak	ek	Ek		ok	Ok	oek			

Wong considers quality along to be distinctive. Huang & Kok take the opposite view, favoring length rather than quality. Kao follows the middle road and includes both length and quality. Phonetically, there are both length and quality differences between the 'short' and 'long' Cantonese vowels (Kao). The question is, which is a phonological feature? Since length and quality cooccur, ideally there should be evidence for one or the other rather than both.

It can be seen in (35) that distributionally, length is defective. Of all the 'long-short' pairs, only one, /a A/, contrast in all environments. For the other pairs, most in Kao's analysis, and all in the other two analyses, are in complementary distribution. There is, therefore, no compelling reason for positing length as a phonological feature. The difference between /a A/ may be attributed to quality alone.²⁴

²⁴. However, if we assume that /a A/ are different segments, there is the question of why only /A/ occurs in open syllables, while /a/ does not. I leave this problem open. Thanks to M. Yip for pointing this out to me.

Let us now consider the segments in the rime. We see that 'short' vowels do not occur in open syllables. This means that the rime has at least two slots. The question is whether the rime could have three slots. Having excluded length as contrastive, the only possibility is closed diphthong rimes. In Huang & Kok's analysis, we see /eun eut .../. However, comparing Huang & Kok's analyses with those of Wong and Kao, we see that /eu/ of Huang & Kok is a notational variant of the front round mid vowel /œ/. Thus all the Cantonese rimes contain either a long vowel or two segments.

It remains to be explained why there is such a sharp contrast in duration between Cantonese 'long' and 'short' vowels. Consider the measurements by Ng (1989:22), based on fifty-four mono-syllabic words read in isolation

(36) Rime type	Onset	Nucleus	Coda	Syllable (in ms)
V:	100	507	0	607
V:G, V:N	100	362	228	690
V:P	72	240	38 (+200)	350 (+200)
VG, VN	103	216	295	614
VP	88	136	59 (+200)	283 (+200)

(V: = long, V = short, P = /p t k/, G = /i u y/, N = /m n ŋ/)

The overall picture of Ng's findings is similar to that of Kao (cf. Kao, 57). There are two striking facts to note. First, 'short' vowels in /VP/ rimes are less than a third of 'long' vowels in /V:/ rimes. It is well-known, however, that Chinese syllables with /p t k ?/ codas (all unreleased) are generally much shorter than other syllables, due in most cases, and probably in all cases, to a glottal quality of the vowel. This is shown by the fact that 'long' vowels in /V:/ rimes have twice the length (507ms) than 'long' vowels in /V:P/ rimes (240ms). Second, in comparable environments, 'long' vowels are about 1.7 times the length of 'short' vowels (362ms v. 216ms, and 240ms v. 136ms). This is still a considerable difference. In Swedish, for example, long vowels are about 1.5 times the length of short vowels (Elert 1964). A ratio of 1:1.7 therefore ought to be large enough to establish a short/long vowel contrast in Cantonese. However, the 1:1.7 ratio is misleading if taken at face value. Recall that 'long' and 'short' vowels are in complementary distribution, and the length difference is not between minimal pairs. How this should bias the interpreta-

tion can be seen in the following example. In Ng's data, there are seven syllables in the /C_k/ environment, /pAk sEk tsoek tsok/ for 'long' vowels, and /pak sik fuk/ for 'short' vowels. We see, however, that the 'long' vowels are also lower than the 'short' ones, and phonetically, low vowels are longer than high vowels. Taking this into consideration, the real length contrast between 'long' and 'short' vowels should be smaller.

There are two pieces of further evidence for the fixed length hypothesis. First, we see that /p t k/ codas are about 200ms shorter than nasal or glide codas. This is because the lengths of /p t k/ codas, all unreleased, were measured up to, but not beyond, the closure (Ng, p.c.). It will be naive to base segmental analysis on absolute duration. For example, [s] is probably at least twice as long as [d], but we do not consider [s] as containing two segments. Similarly, the fact that /p t k/ codas are much shorter than /i u m n .../ codas is no evidence that syllables containing the former is one mora/segment shorter. In other words, compensations must be made for intrinsic segmental differences before length arguments can be meaningfully used. It is reasonable, therefore, to add some silent duration to /p t k/ codas, to make them comparable in length with the other codas, as Cheung suggests (p127). In particular, we may add 200ms, the average length of /i u y m n ng/ codas, to /p t k/ codas (shown in brackets in (36)). Once we do this, then all syllables become comparable in length, from 550ms to 690ms, or with a ratio of 1:1.25 between the shortest and the longest. Second, we note that 'long' vowels in open syllables, such as /ma: tse: po: fu:/, are about 1.7 times the length of the same 'long' vowels in syllables with /i u y m n ng/ codas, such as /fa:i me:ng ho:n mu:i/. This agrees with our analysis that all rimes have two slots; a 'long' vowel in an open syllable occupies both slots, and a 'long' vowel in a closed syllable occupies just one slot (the other slot being taken by the coda).²⁵

25. Ng observes that

'long vowels seem to have shorter codas than short vowels in the same context, so that in general, there is a complementary relationship between the vowels and the codas.' (p23-24)

Similar remarks were made by others (Chao 1947:22, Chen & Bai 1958, Yuan et al 1960, Dow 1972:161 and Hashimoto 1972:290, cited in Cheung 1986:124-126). This is as expected. The bimoraic rime has a constant length; if the nucleus takes

In conclusion, Cantonese also has a constant syllabic structure, as shown in (1).

2.1.7. Changsha The initial and final inventories of Changsha are as below (Yuan 1980:104) (___ = retroflex, ' = aspiration, ø = zero onset, 6 = schwa)

(37) Initials	p	p'	m	f	t	t'	n/l	k	k'	ng	x	ø
	tç	tç'	nʸ	ç	ts	ts'	s	z				
Finals	z/z	a	o	ɿ		ai	ei	au	ɿu	o~		
	i	ia	io		ie			iau	iru		ie~	
	u	ua		uɿ		uai	uei					
	ÿ	ÿa			ÿe	ÿai	ÿei				ÿe~	
	an	ian	uan	ÿan	6n	in	u6n	ÿn	ong	iong	ɿ(:)n	n

The initials are all single consonants. The finals are similar to those of Manrarin, where diphthongs do not occur in closed syllables. We may therefore follow the same arguments given for Mandarin and assume that pre-nucleus glides are in the onset and that single vowels are long, and conclude that the Changsha syllable also has a fixed structure of three segment slots.

up more time, the coda has less left, and if the nucleus takes less, the coda has more. It is, however, not clear to me how, phonologically, two segments compensate each other in time. Cheung suggests that the mora is a literal measure of length, that the minimal perceptual unit is a 'semi-mora' (half a mora), and that, in Cantonese, the onset, the vowel and the coda share two moras (four semi-moras), in the following manner (135-136,146)

Structure:				σ = syllable O = onset R = rime V = vowel Cd = coda μ = mora
Syllable:	CV:	CV:C CV:G	CVC	
Length Ratio:	1:3:0	1:2:1	1:1:2	

In every case, the onset has a semi-mora, i.e. a fourth of a syllabic length. The ratio of duration among the onset, the vowel and the coda is 1:3:0 in the first structure, 1:2:1 in the second, and 1:1:2 in the third. In addition, the ratio of vowel length is 3:2:1 in the three structures. As we can see, Ng's measurements match Cheung's predictions only very roughly.

2.1.8. Nanchang Following are the initial and final inventories of Nanchang (Yuan 1960:128-9) (' = aspiration, ø = zero onset, ɤ = schwa)

(38) Initials:	labial	p	p'	m	f								
	coronal	t	t'	(n)	ts	ts'	s	l					
	palatal	tɕ	tɕ'	nʷ			ç						
	dorsal	k	k'	ŋ									
	glottal	ø											
Finals	z	a	o	E	ɤ	an	on	En	ɤn	at	ot	Et	ɤt
	i	ia		iE				iEn	in			iEt	it
	u	ua	uo			uan	uon	uEn	un	uat	uot	uEt	ut
	ɥ		ɥo			ɥon		ɥn		ɥot		ɥt	ɥt
		ai			ɤi								
		au		Eu	ɤu	ang	ong			ak	ok		
				iEu	iu	iang	iong		iung	iak	iok		iuk
		uai		uEu	ui	uang	uong		ung	uok			uk
	n												
		ng											

All the initials are again single consonants. The finals, too, are similar to those of Mandarin, where diphthongs do not occur in closed syllables. Following the same arguments, we again conclude that the Nanchang syllable has a fixed structure of three segment slots.

2.1.9. Summary I have shown that Mandarin, Shanghai, Meixian (Moi-yan), Xianen (Anoy), Fuzhou, Cantonese, Changsha and Nanchang have a uniform syllable structure of three segments, one for the onset and two for the rime. Since the languages represent all the eight major Chinese dialect families, it is reasonable to assume that all Chinese languages have this uniform syllable structure. To my knowledge, no language has previously been shown to have just one uniform syllabic structure. It is of some theoretical significance that, for the first time, not only one language, but a family of languages are shown to have one and the same syllabic structure. Our finding well reflects the cardinal role the syllable plays in Chinese phonology. Moreover, our finding has important consequences on several areas of phonological investigation, some of which are examined in section 2.3. Before then, let us look at further evidence that Chinese languages have a uniform syllable structure.

c. /pan/ --> [ban]	/!\	-->	/!\	/pan+r/ --> [par]	/!\	-->	/!\
'dish'	X X X		X X X	'dish (dim)'	X X X		X X X
							\
	pan		p a n		p a n r		p a(n)r
d. /pai/ --> [pai]	/!\	-->	/!\	/pai+r/ --> [par]	/!\	-->	/!\
'plate'	X X X		X X X	'plate (dim)'	X X X		X X X
							\
	pai		p a i		p a i r		p a(i)r

When the diminutive morpheme [r] is spoken alone, it has a syllabic template and becomes [ɤr:]. When used as a suffix, it has no independent syllabic template, so it replaces the last segment of the root, which we assume is syllabified on the previous cycle.

Spectral analysis also shows that the [r] coda adds a retroflex color to the nuclear vowel (Wang & He, 27), which we have so far not marked. We assume, following feature geometry, that the coronal node of [r] spreads to the nuclear vowel, as shown below

(42) /ba+r/ --> [bar] 'handle' (Mandarin)	[bar] 'bar' (A. English)
X X X	X X X
...	...
Rt Rt	Rt Rt
...
Pl Pl	Pl Pl
\	
Dor Cor	Dor Cor
[+lo] [-ant]	[+lo] [-ant]

The Mandarin [bar] 'handle (dim.)' is different from the American English [bar] 'bar'. In the former, the nuclear vowel is retroflexed (shown by underline), via the spreading of the Coronal node from the coda to the nucleus. In the latter, there is no Coronal spreading, so the nuclear vowel is not retroflexed.

Let us consider further cases ([ng] = angma, [ɔ] = schwa, [~] = nasality)

(43)	/gɔng+r/ --> [gɔ̃r]	'thick soup (dim.)'
	/gɔn+r/ --> [gɔr]	'root (dim.)'

If the [r] suffix replaces the coda, we expect the diminutive forms of [gɔng] and [gɔn] to be identical. However, the nuclear vowel is nasalized in 'thick

soup (dim.)' but not in 'root (dim.)'. The difference may be attributed to the fact that, in unsuffixed forms, the nuclear vowel is nasalized before [ng] but not before [n], as shown below

- (44) /gɔ̃ng/-->[gɔ̃[~]ng] 'thick soup'
 /gɔ̃n/-->[gɔ̃n] 'root'

It is not clear why the nucleus is nasalized before [ng] but not before [n]. It is probably because in anticipation of the velar closure in [ng], the soft palate is lowered earlier. In any case, this difference in nasality is kept in the diminutive forms.

Let us now look at more complicated cases. Consider the following (in Wang & He's notations)

- (45) a. /gou+r/-->[gour] 'hook (dim.)'
 b. /hu+r/-->[hur] 'lake (dim.)'
 c. /dau+r/-->[daur] 'knife (dim.)'

Here we expect the coda [u] in (45a,c) to be replaced, but in Wang & He's transcriptions it stays. This is not only unexpected from our analysis of other suffixed nouns so far, but is against our assumption that the Chinese syllable has a fixed length of three segment slots. My own work with native Beijing speakers, however, suggests a different transcription, given below

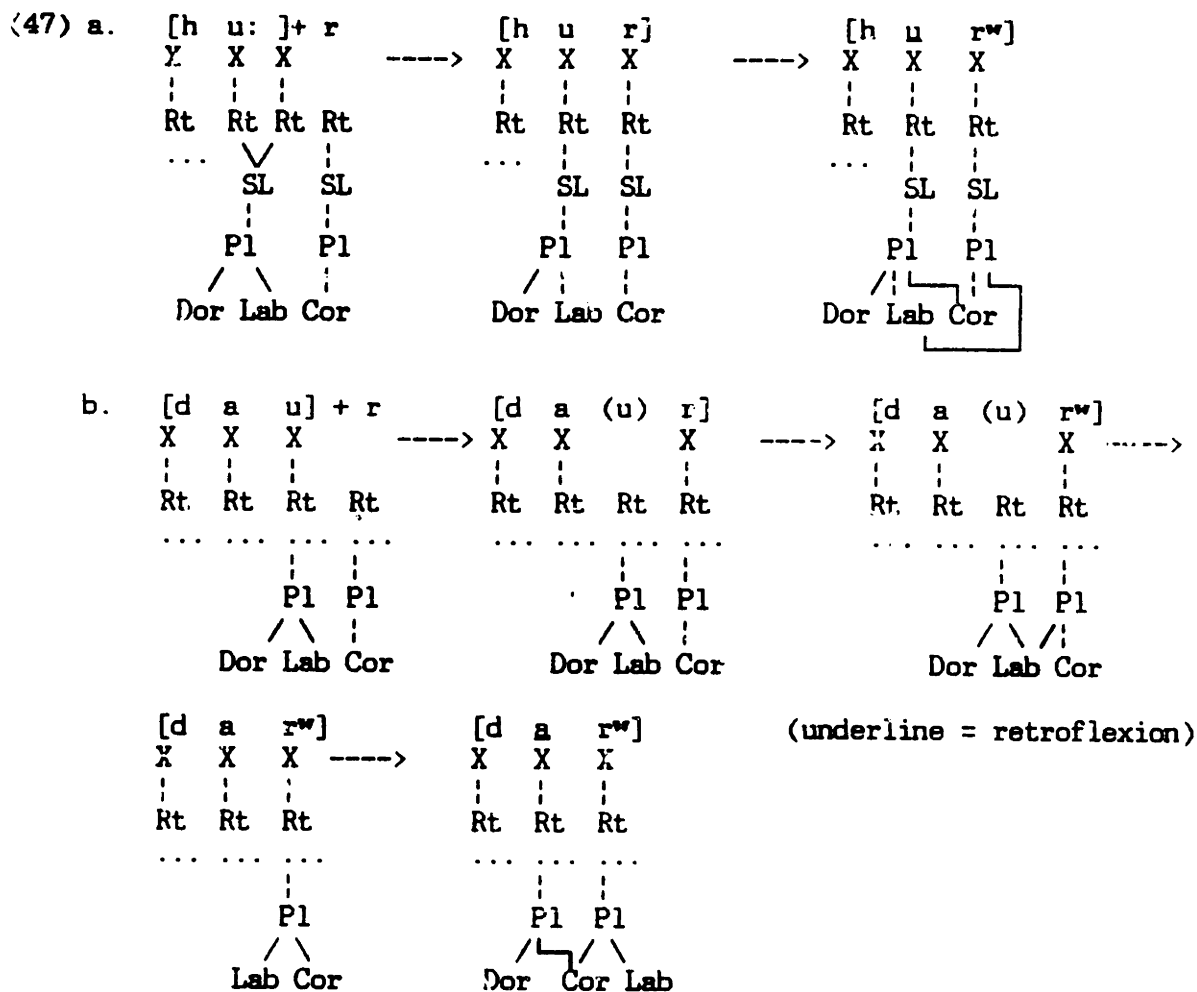
- (46) a. /gou+r/-->[gɔr^w] 'hook (dim.)'
 b. /hu+r/-->[hɯr^w] 'lake (dim.)'
 c. /dau+r/-->[dɛr^w] 'knife (dim.)' (underline=retroflexion)

There is no diphthong before the [r] coda; instead, the coda [r] is rounded. In other words, what Wang & He transcribe as [-ur] is in fact [-r^w].

We now must ask, where does the rounding on [r] come from? In (46a,b), it may come from the nuclear vowel. In (46c), however, the source is not so obvious: if the coda [u] is replaced in (46c), how can [r] acquire rounding? Here I will suggest that the rounding on [r] indeed comes from the replaced [u], i.e. the Labial node of the replaced [u] is reattached to [r]. The idea that floating elements may be reattached to nonfloating segments is not new. In tonology, for example, it is common knowledge that a floating tone (i.e. the Vocal-cord node of a feature tree, as we will discuss in Chapter 3) from a deleted segment may

be reattached to another segment.

We now give the derivations of (46L, r) below



In (47a), after [r] is integrated into the coda, [u] spreads its labial node to [r], while [r] spreads its coronal node to [u]. The geminate vowel [u:] is drawn with two Root nodes rather than one; for reasons cf. Selkirk (1988a) and Chapter 3. In (47b), [u] is first replaced, and then its Labial node is reattached to the coda [r]; the rest of [u] is discarded. [a] does not acquire the Labial node from [u], as is independently seen in (45c), probably because [a] is [-round] in Mandarin. Finally, [r] spreads the coronal node to [a]. We should add that [r] is [+high] in [hvr^w] and [+low] in [dar^w]. Thus, [r] should probably have a Dorsal node itself, or the Dorsal node of the nuclear vowel probably spreads to it. For simplicity, however, we have not drawn it.

The process in which elements in a replaced/floating segment is reattached to a nonfloating segment is crucial for the analysis of (46c). I will introduce the term 'feature recycling' to refer to this process. More specifically, I propose that feature recycling has the following four aspects

- (48) a. Features and/or articulators in a floating/replaced segment may be reattached (i.e. recycled) to a nonfloating segment, without changing the existing features and articulators in the latter.
 b. Which articulators/features to recycle is a language particular option.
 c. Feature recycling observes the phonotactics of the language in question.
 d. Feature recycling is local.

The purpose of (48d) is to prevent long distance recycling, e.g. the [+round] of a replaced coda [o] or [u] should not be recycled onto the onset.²

It should also be noted that feature recycling adds features to a nonfloating segment but does not change its features. Therefore, feature recycling is different from multiple associations of two or more segments to one slot. Such multiple associations have been proposed by E. Pulleyblank (1984, 1986) and Chan (1985), as illustrated below

- (49)
- | | | | | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|
| C | C | V | V | V | V |
| ^ | ^ | ^ | ^ | ^ | / \ |
| k u | u k | i u | i a | u a | u a i |
| [k ^w] | [k ^w] | [ü] | [e] | [o] | [ö] |

The multiply associated segments are 'unordered' and 'simultaneous' (Chan 1985:68-69, quoting E. Pulleyblank 1984). Thus, the two representations of [k^w] are identical. Similarly, for [ö], which is made up of three segments, there can be six identical representations. That two or more segments combine to give one is called the 'fusion process' (Chan 1985:78).

2. This is seen in the Fanqie language Mai-ka, where
 xou --> xai-kou --> xai-kou (*x^wai-ka)
 ou x

After the syllable is reduplicated, the first rime is replaced with [ai] and the second onset with [k]. The floating vowels [ou] has [+round], but [+round] cannot attach to [a] nor to [i], since Mandarin does not have [O], nor permit [ü] in the coda. Neither can [+round] attach to the first onset [x] to create [x^w-], because recycling must be local.

The purpose of (49) is to reduce the underlying inventory of consonants and vowels. However, this theory differs in significant ways from the theory of feature geometry. For example, Sagey (1986) argues that, in a feature tree (under an X slot) an articulator (e.g. Dorsal, Coronal, Labial) can appear at most once. In (49), however, under every slot (C or V), there are at least two Dorsal nodes.

Another characteristic of (49) is that multiply associated segments may contain contradictory features. For example, in the representation of [e], the segment [i] is [+high,-back], while [a] is [+low,+back]. If [i] and [a] are articulated 'simultaneously', what happens to the contradictory features? Chan (1985:78-79) stipulates some rules for the 'vowel fusion process', among them

If the elements have different vowel heights such that one is [+high,-low] and the other is [-high,+low], the resultant vowel is [-high,-low].

If one of the elements is ... [+front], the resultant vowel bears the plus feature assignment.

In other words, if vowels differ in height, we take the average height, yet if vowels differ in frontness, the front vowel wins.

My proposal of feature recycling differs from multiple associations in two ways. First, in my proposal, only one segment may be linked to an X slot, and in a segment, no articulator or feature may appear more than once. For example, if a nonfloating segment has a Labial node, it cannot receive another Labial from a floating segment. Second, feature recycling can only ADD features and nodes to a nonfloating segment, and does not CHANGE its features or nodes. For example, if a nonfloating segment is [+high], it cannot receive [+low] to become [-high,-low]. Similarly, if a nonfloating segment is [+back], it will not be overridden by a floating [-back].

It should have become clear that feature recycling is a formal and constrained notion. Indeed, the popular 'autosegmental' phenomenon that when a vowel is deleted its tone may survive is probably a subcase of feature recycling: both the vowel and its tone stays floating, but for phonotactic reasons only the tone may be recycled. We will see more of feature recycling in section 2.2.3.

In summary, the diminutive suffix [r] in Mandarin replaces the coda of the root rime. Replaced segments, such as [u], may be recycled, subject to phonotactic constraints.

2.2.2. Chengdu Like in Mandarin, the diminutive suffix in Chengdu is also [r]. In addition, [r] can be a monosyllabic word by itself, meaning 'child' or 'son'. Unlike in Mandarin, however, the [r] suffix in Chengdu replaces the entire rime, rather than just the coda, as the following shows

(50)	Underlying	Mandarin	Chengdu	Gloss
a.	/gɔn+r/	[gɔr]	[gr:]	'root'
b.	/gɔŋg+r/	[gɔ̃r]	[gr:]	'thick soup'
c.	/gau+r/	[gar ^w]	[gr:]	'cake'
d.	/gou+r/	[gor ^w]	[gr:]	'dog'

Since the nuclear vowel is replaced with the coda, many distinctions are lost in Chengdu. For example, (50a-d) remain distinct in Mandarin, but are neutralized in Chengdu.

Unlike the nuclear vowel, pre-nucleus glides [i u ü] are not replaced in the diminutive form in Chengdu. This is seen below

(51) a.	/bian+r/-->[bʲr:]	'side'	cf.	/ban+r/-->[br:]	'class'
b.	/guan+r/-->[dʷr:]	'hall'	cf.	/gan+r/-->[dr:]	'stem'
c.	/ia+r/-->[yr:]	'bud'			
d.	/uan+r/-->[wr:]	'bowl'			
e.	/üan+r/-->[ÿr:]	'yard'			

This is further evidence that pre-nucleus glides are not in the rime but in the onset, as we argued in section 2.1.

2.2.3. Jiyuan Jiyuan (He 1981, Y. Lin 1990) has two diminutive suffixes. We look at one of them here. First, consider the patterns below³

³ In He (p6,p11), [i] and [i?] change to [i:u]. It is not clear why He writes [i:u] rather than [iu], since there is no [iu] elsewhere for [i:u] to contrast with. I suggest that He wants to indicate that [i] is the nucleus rather than [u], therefore the length mark can be ignored.

(52)	Root Rime	Dim. Rime
	i, i?	iu
	u, u?	u ⁴
	a, au, a?, e	0
	ia, iau, ia?, ie	i0
	ua, ua?, ue	u0
	üe, üa?	ü0
	an	a [~]
	ian	ia [~]
	uan	ua [~]
	üan	üa [~]
	ang	0 [~]
	iang	i0 [~]
	uang	u0 [~]
	üang	ü0 [~]

The patterns in (52) are not complete. Some cases were not found, and some have too few examples so that their reliability is in doubt, such as [l]-->[lou] (He, p11). I have only included the clear cases here. We want to find out what features the suffix has, and how it affects root rimes. We can see right away that pre-nucleus [i u ü] do not play a role, in line with our assumption that they are not in the rime; we will therefore ignore them. In addition, we will assume that vowels are long in open rimes, as argued in section 2.1. Moreover, [a] is [-back] before [n] in Jiyuan (He, p8); He does not mark it, but we will. After the above readjustments, we have the following patterns

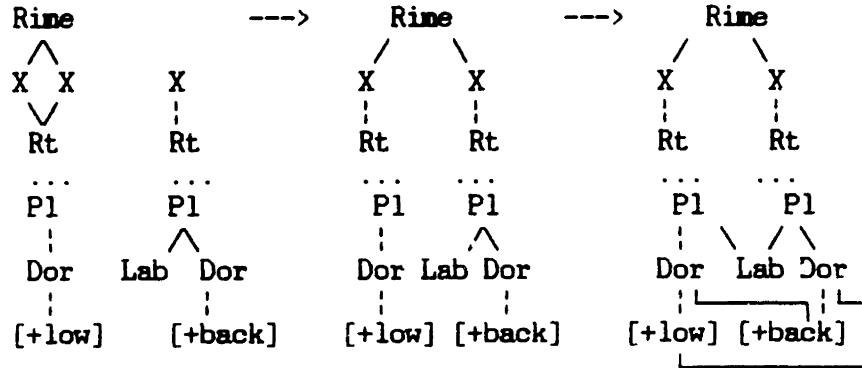
(53)	Root Rime	Dim. Rime
a.	i:, i?	iu
b.	u:, u?	u:
c.	a:, au, a?, e:	0:
d.	an	a [~] :
e.	ang	0 [~] :

I suggest that the suffix is a segment with the features [+back, +round], and this segment replaces the coda of the root rime, like the [r] suffix in Mandarin. The reason to consider the suffix a segment, rather than just two features [+back, +round], is that it replaces the coda [ʔ] in (53a,b,c), [u] in (53c), [n] in (53d) and [ng] in (53e), instead of simply adding the features [+back, +round] to those codas. The derivations of (53a) and (53b) are clear; here, after the suffix takes over the coda slot, [i] in (53a) and [u] in (53b)

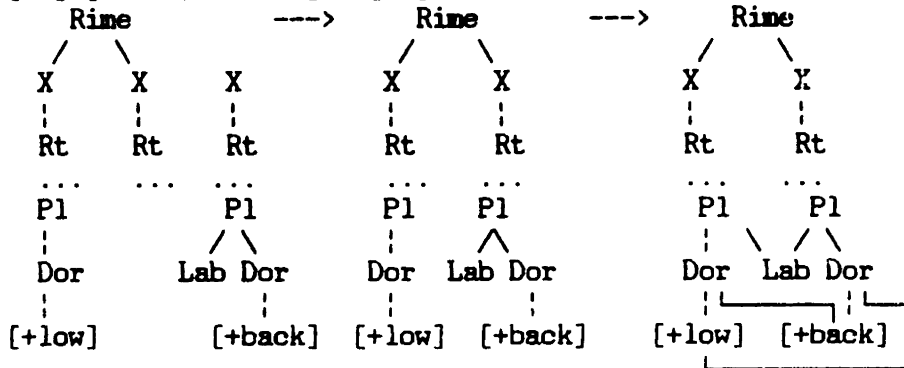
⁴. He (1981) found no data showing changes in /u u?/. He suggests that their diminutive forms are the same as their root forms.

spread [+hi] to the coda. We next look at [a:], [au] and [a?] in (53c). Since [a] is the only underlying low vowel, we assume that it is unspecified for [back]. When the suffix is added, its [+back] and [+round] are spread to [a], while [a] spreads [+low] to the coda, as shown below

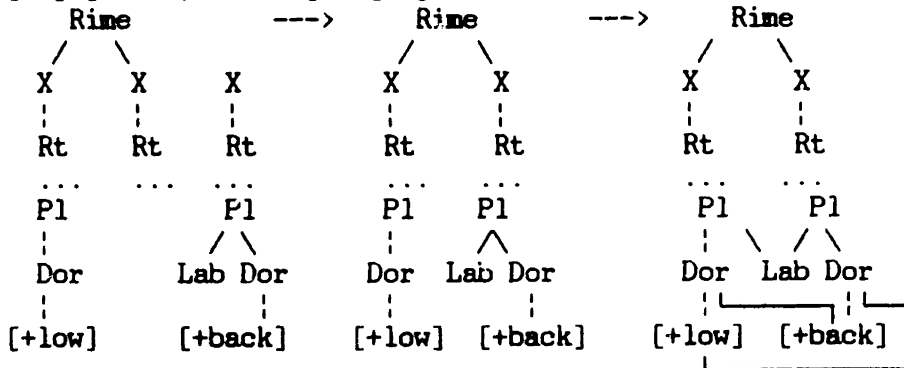
(54) a. [a:]+[+back,+round]-->[O:]



b. [au]+[+back,+round]-->[O:]



c. [a?]+[+back,+round]-->[O:]

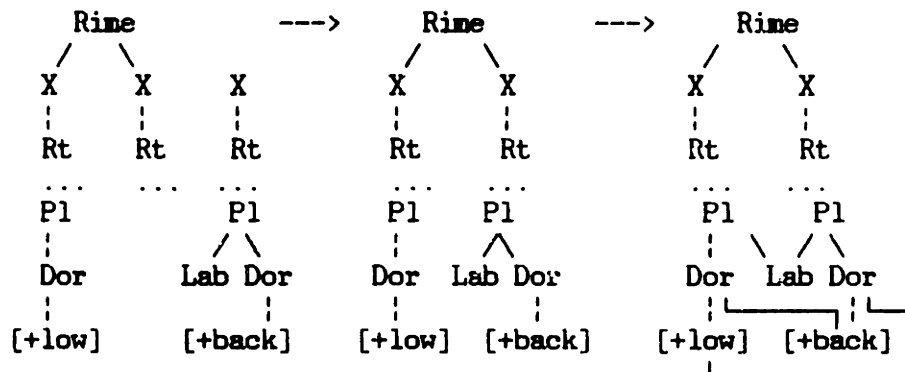


In (54a), the suffix is first incorporated into the coda slot, then its Labial node and [+back] spread to the nucleus [a], making the latter [O]. The nucleus [a] in turn spreads [+low] to the coda, making the latter [O], too. The result is a geminate [O:]. In (54b,c), after the spreadings between the nucleus and the coda, the features in the replaced [u ?] can no longer be recycled, and hence are not drawn. For example, the coda in (54b) acquires [+low] from the nucleus, so it cannot utilize the [+high] of the floating [u].

The derivations in (54) show a different representation of geminates. Geminates are usually represented as having two X slots but sharing all the other nodes (e.g. Clements 1985, Sagey 1988). In contrast, the geminate [O:] in (54) has separate feature trees down to the very lowest articulator level; this result goes even beyond the two-root theory of Selkirk (1988a). We will see in Chapter 3 that the fact that a geminate may have two root nodes has consequences for the notion of the tone bearing unit.

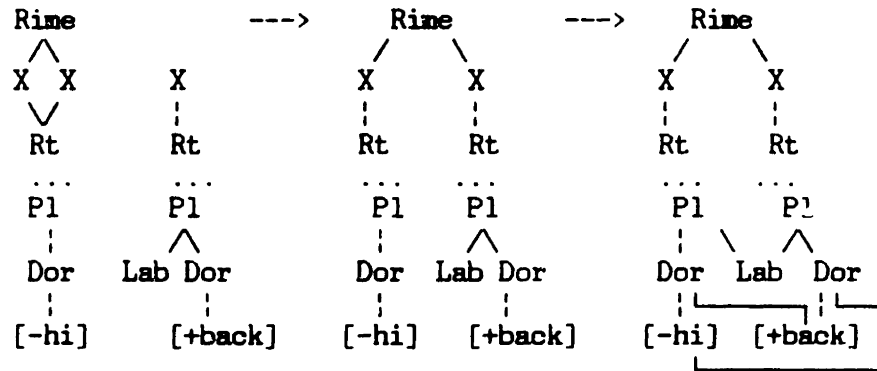
The derivation for (53e) [ang]-->[O~:] is similar to (54b,c), as shown below

(55) [ang][+back, +round]-->[O~:]



The nasality from the replaced [n] will be recycled by an independent step, which for simplicity we have not shown. Next consider [e:] in (53c). Since [e] is the only underlying mid vowel, we assume that it is unspecified for [back] or [low], but only as [-high], along the lines of Archangeli & Pulleyblank (1989) perhaps. The derivation is as follows

(56) [e:]+[+back,+round]-->[O:]



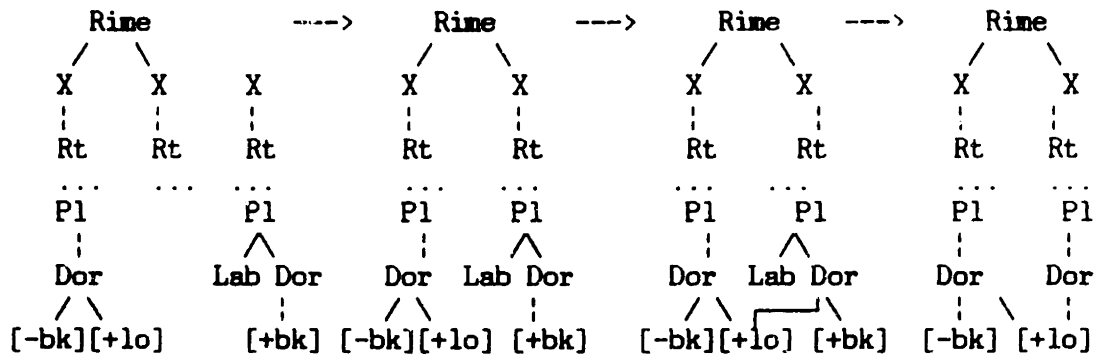
Since Jiyuan does not have [o], [-hi, +back] is specified as [+low]. We finally consider the derivation of (53d)

(57) [æ̃n]+[+bk,+rd]

[æ̃]+[+bk,+rd]

[æ̃O]

[æ̃:]



Since [æ̃] is [-back], it cannot receive [+back] from the suffix. In addition, since Jiyuan does not have [O], [æ̃] does not receive the Labial node from the coda. After [æ̃] spreads its [+low] to the coda, we have two low vowels [æ̃O]. But, to my knowledge, no language has two low vowels in one syllable, so I will assume that [æ̃O] as a rime is ruled out by universal phonetics. Consequently, [æ̃O] is simplified to [æ̃:] instead.

recycle nasality from replaced [n ng], but like Jiyaun, Yanggu does recycle [+round] from replaced [u], as in (60f,g). Next consider the following

(61)	Root Rimes	Dim. Rimes
a.	a:, a~ng	lar
b.	ua~n	luar
c.	E(æi), æ~n	lar
d.	ur:, u~ng	lurr
e.	u:	lr ^w :
f.	au	lar ^w
g.	ou	lor ^w

The root rimes in (61a-g) are the same as those in (60a-g), but here in (61) there has appeared an [l] in front of the diminutive rimes. Dong (p273) states that forms in (61) occur with non-palatal, non-retroflex coronal onsets, namely [t d ts ds n s], while forms in (60) occur with other onsets. For example

(62)	a. /dau+r/-->[dlar ^w]	'knife'
	b. /bau+r/-->[bar ^w]	'bag'

The question is, what is the nature of [l] in (61)? And where does it come from? If it is a segment, then (62a) will contain four segments, violating the uniform syllabic structure hypothesis. However, [l] clearly cannot be an independent segment. The reason is that the Yanggu [l] occurs only with coronals like [d t] but not with noncoronals like [p b]; yet, as a cross-linguistic tendency, we would expect just the opposite. To understand [l], we recall that retroflexion in the diminutive form spreads over the entire rime. We also note that the [l] in (61) is retroflex in quality (Dong p276). It is clear then that [l] is simply the retroflex feature [-ant], which is spread from the suffix to the onset. This analysis offers a natural explanation for why [l] does not appear with noncoronal onsets, nor with retroflex coronals, nor with alveolar-palatals. In noncoronals, there is no coronal node to which [-ant] can attach to. In retroflex coronals, there is already [-ant], so the spreading is vacuous. In alveolar-palatals, the feature [+distributed] is incompatible with [-ant]. Thus, all the distributions are as predicted.

Finally, we consider the last set of patterns

(63)	Root Rimes	Dim. Rimes
a.	ia:, ia [~] ng	i:lar
b.	iE(æi), iæ [~] n	i:lar
c.	ie, ieng	i:ler
d.	iau	i:lar ^w
e.	iou	i:lor ^w
e.	ür, üng	ü:lir
f.	üa [~] n	ü:lar

This set of sounds all have prenucleus [i] or [ü], and their diminutive forms have all become bisyllabic. The reason seems to be that the retroflex feature [-ant] attempts to spread over the entire syllable, as we saw in (62). But in (63) the spreading is blocked by [i ü], due to the incompatibility of [+dist] in [i ü] and [-ant] from [r]. This incompatibility seems to have split the syllable into two, and by the uniform syllabic structure hypothesis, each syllable has developed into a bimoraic one.

In summary, the Yanggu retroflex suffix [r] replaces the coda of the root rime and then the feature [-ant] spreads over the entire syllable. If the spreading is blocked by a prenucleus front glide, the syllable breaks into two right after the glide.

2.2.5. Heshun The last language we consider is Heshun, which has a yet different diminutive suffix (Tian 1986). This suffix lengthens the root syllable. Consider the following, in Tian's notations

(64)	Root Rime	Dim. Rime
	a	a:
	ia	i:a
	ua	u:a
	ur	u:r
	i	i:
	u	u:
	ü	ü:
	ai	a:i
	uai	u:ai
	uei	u:ei
	Ou	O:u
	iOu	i:Ou
	ing	i:ng
	ueng	u:eng
	a?	a:
	ia?	i:a
	ua?	u:a
	...	

Tian does not say whether the diminutive forms are monosyllabic or bisyllabic. But it is clear from the transcriptions that many must be bisyllabic, such as [i:a], [u:ai] and [i:Ou]. In the absence of counterevidence, I will assume that all diminutive forms are bisyllabic. In addition, Tian does not mark vowels as long in open rimes. In view of these considerations, (64) can be rewritten as follows

(65)	Root Rime	Dim. Rime
a.	a:	a:a:
b.	ia	i:a:
c.	uai	u:ai
	...	

I propose that the Heshun diminutive suffix consists of an empty syllabic template. For illustration, we show the derivations of (65) below

(68) a.	/a/ → [øa:øa:]	$ \begin{array}{cc} \sigma & \sigma \\ /! \backslash & /! \backslash \\ \text{XXX} & \text{XXX} \end{array} \rightarrow \begin{array}{cc} \sigma & \sigma \\ /! \backslash & /! \backslash \\ \text{XXX} & \text{XXX} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \emptyset & \emptyset \\ \hline & a \end{array} $	<p>([ø] = zero onset)</p>
		a	

b. /ia/-->[yi:øa:]	σ σ -->	σ σ -->	σ σ
	/!\ /!\	/!\ /!\	/!\ /!\
	XXX XXX	XXX XXX	XXX XXX
	ia	i a	i øa
c. /uai/-->[wu:øai]			
	σ σ -->	σ σ -->	σ σ
	/!\ /!\	/!\ /!\	/!\ /!\
	XXX XXX	XXX XXX	XXX XXX
	uai	u ai	u øai

Unfortunately, Tian's paper is very brief (two and a half pages), therefore my analysis can only be tentative. It would be very interesting to find out how the tonal patterns change in the diminutive forms. Tian (p372) says that the root tone remains 'basically unchanged' in the diminutive forms. Exactly how this is done must be left for further studies.

2.2.6. **Summary** Suffixation and rime changes are an intricate area in Chinese phonology. A preliminary survey shows that our proposal that Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure accounts for a wide range of suffixation phenomena. We have also seen that features recycling is a necessary mechanism in accounting for nasality in Jiyuan and rounding in Mandarin. This mechanism is also seen in Fanqie languages, to which we now turn.

2.3. **Language Games (Fanqie Languages)** The most popular Chinese language games are Fanqie languages. Basically, a Fanqie language first reduplicates a given syllable, then modifies the onset of one of them, and/or modifies the rime of the other. Following Chao (1931), which is the most detailed description of Fanqie languages, the output of the syllable *ma* 'mother' in a Fanqie language is used to be the name of that Fanqie language. Thus, *Na-ma*, *Mai-ka* and *Mo-pa* will change *ma* 'mother' respectively as follows

(67)	Language	Input	Reduplicate	Onset-change	Rime-change
	<i>Na-ma</i> :	<i>ma</i> -->	<i>ma-ma</i> -->	<i>na-ma</i> -->	<i>na-ma</i>
	<i>Mo-pa</i> :	<i>ma</i> -->	<i>ma-ma</i> -->	<i>ma-pa</i> -->	<i>mo-pa</i>
	<i>Mai-ka</i> :	<i>ma</i> -->	<i>ma-ma</i> -->	<i>ma-ka</i> -->	<i>rai-ka</i>

In *Na-ma*, only the first onset is changed. In *Mo-pa* and *Mai-ka*, the first rime and the second onset are changed.

A major problem in analyzing Fanqie languages lies in the treatment of the prenucleus G. According to Chao (1931:353), prenucleus G has three kinds of behavior; it may belong to the initial, or to the final, or to both, as show below (following the original transcriptions)

(68)	Na-ma:	tuei --> nei-tuei	'correct'	(Liu 1944:74)
(69)	Mo-pa:	lia~ --> lo-tia~	'two'	(Chao 1931:338)
(70)	Mai-ka:	xuei --> xuai-kuei	'return'	(Chao 1931:324)

In Na-ma, the prenucleus [u] 'belongs to the initial', i.e. [u] and the initial [t] form a unit, which is replaced together by [n] in the first syllable. In Mo-pa, the prenucleus [i] 'belongs to the final', i.e. [i] and [a'] forms a unit, which is replaced together by [o] in the first syllable, and which stays together in the second syllable. In Mai-ka, the prenucleus [u] 'belongs to both the initial and the final', i.e. it stays with the initial [x] in the first syllable, and it stays with the final [ei] in the second syllable.

The different behaviors of the prenucleus G is accountable if we make the assumptions that the prenucleus G may (sometimes) be an independent segment and that Chinese languages (both base languages and Fanqie languages) may differ in their syllable structures, especially w.r.t. the position of the prenucleus G (for details, cf. Yip 1982 and Bao 1990b).

Such assumptions, however, are not available in my analysis. This is because I am claiming that all Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure, and that all prenucleus G's are in the onset (either the secondary articulation of the initial consonant, or the onset itself, if there is no initial consonant). Moreover, if all Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure, it is natural to assume that all Fanqie languages do, too. Therefore, I must account for the three behaviors of the prenucleus G from a fresh perspective. I will now show that, with the notion of feature recycling (cf. section 2.2), such an account is not only possible but in several ways superior to previous ones. I take Na-ma, Mai-ka and Mo-pa in turn.

2.3.1. Na-ma The Na-ma case, in which the prenucleus G 'belongs to the initial', is in favor of our claim that prenucleus G is part of the onset. In section 2.1.1.2. we gave the following analysis (in Liu's transcriptions)

- (71) a. Reduplicate the syllable.
b. Replace the first onset with [n]

(72) tʷei --> tʷei-tʷei --> nei-tʷei 'correct'

In the second step, both [t] and [u] are replaced in the first syllable, suggesting that [tu] forms the onset unit, in agreement with our view that [tu] is [tʷ].

However, one must ask why feature recycling does not place in (72). If it does, we should see the following

(73) tʷei --> tʷei-tʷei --> n(tʷ)ei-tʷei --> *nʷei-tʷei

X		X
Rt	Rt	Rt
SL	SL	SL
/		/
SP	P1	SP P1
	^	
Cor	Lab	Cor Lab

Since Na-ma permits secondary articulations [ʷ ɣ ʎ], once [tʷ] is replaced, we expect its Labial node to be recycled to the new onset [n], creating [nʷ], as shown above. This, however, does not happen. There are two possible explanations. First, feature recycling does not happen in Na-ma. Second, feature recycling is an automatic process, but Na-ma has an additional rule to simplify the first onset. I will assume the second explanation for three reasons, first, it is a stronger claim, second, feature recycling takes place in both Mai-ka and Mo-pa, and third, there is more evidence of onset simplification in Mo-pa, to be seen shortly. Let us then revise the rules for Na-ma as follows

(74) Na-ma Rules:

- a. Reduplicate the syllable.
- b. Replace the first onset with [n]
- c. Simplify the first onset (i.e. delete the minor articulator).

Since feature recycling is assumed to be an automatic process, it is not written in the rules. It should be noted that, even with (74c), the Na-ma syllable has the same uniform structure as we proposed for all Chinese languages, i.e. one onset slot and two rime slots, and that the prenucleus G, if

present, is in the onset.

2.3.2. Mai-ka In Mai-ka, based on Mandarin, the prenucleus G 'belongs to both the initial and the final'. Superficially then it is not clear where the prenucleus G belongs. I suggest that it has the following analysis

(75) Mai-ka Rules:

- a. Reduplicate the syllable.
- b. Replace the first rime with [ai].
- c. Replace the second onset with [k].

All the three rules are regular Fangie rules, i.e. reduplication, onset modification, and rime modification. Let us see how they interact with feature recycling to give the correct results. Consider the derivations for [ma] 'mother' and [x^wei] 'return'

(78)	na	x^wei	
(75a):	na-na	x^wei-x^wei	
(75b):	n(a)ai-na	x^w(ei)ai-x^wei	
(75c):	n(a)ai-k(m)a	x^w(ei)ai-k(x^w)ei	
FR :	mai-ka	x^wai-k^wei	(FR = feature recycling)

Floating (i.e. replaced) segments are shown in brackets. We first consider whether floating vowels can be recycled. In the word **na**, the floating vowel is [a], which has the the node Dorsal and the features [+low]. Dorsal cannot be recycled, since the new vowels [ai] both have Dorsal already; [+low] cannot be recycled, either, since the new [a] already has [+low], and the new [i] has [+high], which is in conflict with [+low]. Therefore, nothing from the floating [a] can be recycled. Following the same reasoning, nothing can be recycled from the floating [ei] in the word **x^wei**.

We next consider floating consonants. Like its source Mandarin, Mai-ka allows three secondary articulations [^w ɣ ʎ]; this means that only two features may be recycled, [+round] under Labial and [-b .] under Dorsal. Now in **na**, the floating [m] has neither [+round] nor [-back], so it is discarded. In **x^wei**, however, we can recycle [+round], with its Labial node, from the floating [x^w].

It is interesting to consider **wan** 'curved', which we expect to become [wai-k^wan]. However, the real output is [vai-kan]. The difference is explained by an

as a minor articulator, since the onset modification only switches the value of [cont]. The result [lʷo-tʷã] further undergoes onset simplification, giving the final output [lo-tʷã].

In previous analyses of Mo-pa (based on Kunshan), and similar Fanqie languages such as La-pi (based on Taiwanese), the prenucleus G is assumed to be in the rime (Chao 1931, P. Lin 1985, Bao 1990b). This approach gives a simpler analysis of the prenucleus glide in words like lʷã or liã 'two'. Take Bao's (1990b:346) analysis for example

(80) Mo-pa Rules:

- a. Reduplicate the syllable.
- b. Replace the first rime with [o].
- c. Switch the value of [cont.] of the second onset, and [acont] --> [avoice]..

	(80a)	(80b)	(80c)
(81)	liã ---->	liã-liã ---->	lo-liã ----> tiã

Compared with my analysis (78), (80) is simpler in two ways. First, there is no assumption of feature recycling. Second, there is no assumption of onset simplification. On the other hand, (80) assumes, without independent evidence, that Mo-pa (and its source Kunshan) has a different syllabic structure from languages like Mandarin and Chengdu, while (78) assumes that all Chinese languages (base or Fanqie) have the same syllabic structure. We already saw in section 2.2. that feature recycling is independently motivated. The crucial difference between (78) and (80), then, lies in whether there is onset simplification and whether the prenucleus G in Kunshan is in the rime.

To choose between the two theories, we want to find a case where they make different predictions. Such a case is found in the GV syllable. In our analysis, the prenucleus G is in the onset, and since it is a simple onset, onset simplification does not apply, so G should appear in the first output syllable. In the analysis of (80), G is in the rime, and so it should be replaced with V in the first syllable by [o]. Moreover, in our analysis, G (being an onset) should switch [cont] and [voice] in the second syllable, while in the analysis of (80), G (being in the rime) should not be changed in the second syllable. Take [i0] 'want' for example, the two theories predict different derivations

(82)		G IN THE ONSET	G IN THE RIME	
	Input:	i0	i0	
	Reduplicate:	i0-i0	i0-i0	
	Replace first rime:	i(0)o-i0	o-i0	
	Change second onset:	i(0)o-tç0	o-i0	
	Feature recycling:	io-tç0	---	
	Onset simplification:	---	---	[o] is [-low]
	Output:	io-tç0	o-i0	[0] is [+low]

(83) i0 --> io-tç0 'want' (Chao 1931:336)

In our analysis, the floating [0] in the first syllable cannot be recycled. In addition, [i] becomes [tç] in the second syllable after switching [cont] and [voice]. In the analysis of (80), [i] should disappear in the first syllable and remains unchanged in the second. (83) shows that our is correct.⁶

Our analysis of Mo-pa should apply to La-pi, which is based on Taiwanese. As mentioned earlier, Bao (1990b) and P. Lin (1985) assume that, since in La-pi the prenucleus G 'belongs to the rime', its source language should have the same property, too. We have shown that, in Mo-pa, where the prenucleus G has been thought to 'belong to the rime', it is actually in the onset. I also predict that in La-pi, G in GV syllables is also in the onset. Unfortunately, in P. Lin (1985), the source of La-pi, there is no data on GV or GVC syllables (such as [ua ue ue? ...]). Therefore, I have to leave the prediction open.

2.3.4. Summary I have shown that, with the independently motivated notions of feature recycling and onset simplification, we can account for all Fanqie languages in a simple way, employing just the three standard Fanqie rules, reduplication, onset modification, and rime modification, without assuming different syllabic structures for either base or Fanqie languages. Moreover, our account makes correct predictions where other accounts fail, e.g. the GV syllables in Mo-pa. The successful treatment of Fanqie languages should taken as a strong confirmation of our claim that all Chinese languages have the

⁶. Bao (1990b:345) has cited one GV syllable from Chao (1931:338)

jI --> jo-tçi (where [j] = [y]) 'have'

But Bao does not see it (not other GV syllables) as a problem for his analysis, probably due to an oversight. Note that Chao uses [j] (= [y]) and [i] alternately for the prenucleus palatal glide, probably for tonal reasons.

uniform syllabic structure in given (1).

2.4. Cooccurrence Restrictions on Labials It has been widely noted that many Chinese languages have cooccurrence restrictions (CR) on labial sounds. This issue is of interest to us not only because it has direct implications for the phonological theory (the OCP, the V/C segregation, the definitions of adjacency, the status of secondary articulation in feature geometry, etc., cf. McCarthy 1986, 1989a; Mester 1986; Selkirk 1988b; Yip 1989b; Y. Lin 1989; L. Cheng 1989; Fu 1990), but also because it has been used as evidence for the view that Chinese languages differ from one another with regard to syllabic structures (Y. Lin 1989, Fu 1990). In this section I will offer an analysis of the labial CR in three Chinese languages, Mandarin, Cantonese and Taiwanese, and show that there is no compelling evidence that these languages have different syllabic structures.

Before we proceed, it should be borne in mind that no analysis of Chinese labial CR is likely to be conclusive. This is because some key aspects in labial CR remain open. I will give three examples, the difference between a CR and a gap, the difference between primary and secondary articulations, and the difference between a Labial node dominating [+round] and a Labial node alone.

First, consider the distinction between a CR and a gap. A CR refers to a systematic lack of distribution, while a gap refers to an accidental lack of distribution. The native speaker normally has the intuition to tell a gap from a restriction. Gaps are potential syllables, which may be invented at any time and accepted immediately. Restrictions, on the other hand, hold even for invented syllables. In English, for example, both [frot] and [fraum] are lacking; [frot] is a gap, while [fraum] is due to a restriction.

In Chinese, however, the case is less clear. The native speaker normally does not have a clear intuition to tell a gap from a restriction. For example, Mandarin has for labial consonants [b p m f]; [b] does not cooccur with [ou], but [p m f] do (*[bou], [pou] 'dissect', [mou] 'stratagem', [fou] 'float'). The lack of [bou] is clearly a gap, but [bou] hardly sounds like a possible syllable to the native speaker. Similarly, Mandarin has four tones (1, 2, 3 and

4), but the syllable [bian] occurs with just three ([bian1] 'side', *[bian2], [bian3] 'flat', [bian4] 'change'). The lack of [bian2] is again clearly a gap, but again [bian2] hardly sounds like a possible Mandarin syllable. It is not clear why CRs and gaps are less distinct in Chinese; it is probably due to the fact that Chinese has a highly restricted inventory of syllables. Mandarin has about 400 syllables (excluding tones and the [r] suffix; 1300 if tones are included); the size is comparable in other dialects. This is a very small inventory in view of the fact that Mandarin has about twenty consonants, that most of the consonants may in addition be labialized and/or palatalized, and that Chinese allows three segments in a syllable. As a result, every speaker is fully familiar with the totality of actual syllables, and any syllable outside the totality is immediately recognized as alien.

To look for real CR, then, we must look for systematic lack of distributions, instead of relying on native intuition. But what is systematic is not easy to tell, either. For example, consider the Mandarin cases below

(84) *biou *piou niou 'false' *fiou

Labials do not occur with [iou], except [m]. Are the majority cases gaps or is [niou] an exception? Similarly, all Mandarin syllables of the form (C)iVi are bad (where C is any consonant and V any vowel), except the single word [iai] 'cliff'. Hockett (1947), Fudge (1968:267) and Fu (1990:13) consider this word an exception and suggest a CR *[iVi]. It could be true that [iai] is dropping out of use (becoming [ia] or [ai]), but how much value should we place on the CR *[iVi]? It may be an emerging CR, or it may be the case that Mandarin speakers want to phase out a rare pattern. In addition, even if [iVi] were completely absent in Mandarin, one may perhaps still consider it a gap, or an uninteresting idiosyncrasy, if the restriction lacks cross-linguistic generality. Finally, consider another set of Mandarin example

(85) ?bia *biang bian 'change' bie 'hold back'
 ?pia *piang pian 'cheat' pie 'skim'
 *mia *niang mian 'cotton' mie 'extinguish'
 *fia *fiang *fian *fie

[bia] and [pia] appears only as onomatopoeias. Is the lack of distribution in

tive (Steriade 1987), we may represent labials with a bare Labial node and non-labials without it. We may, however, also represent some labials with a bare Labial node, and some with a Labial node dominating [+round]. This mechanism will enable us to differentiate labials that behave differently w.r.t. CR. For example, Y. Lin (1989) suggests that all labial consonants have a bare Labial node, while all labial vowels have a Labial node dominating [+round]. So far, however, there is no generally accepted representation.

Bearing the above uncertainties in mind, let us look at the labial CR in Chinese and attempt a solution.

2.4.1. Mandarin Relevant distributions of Mandarin labials are given below (following the transcription of Chao 1968)?

(87) a.	bi 'pen'	pi 'skin'	ni 'rice'	*fi	
b.	bu 'cloth'	pu 'shop'	mu 'female'	fu 'rich'	
c.	*bü	*pü	*nü	*fü	
d.	*bua	*pua	*nua	*fua	
e.	buo 'wave'	puo 'slope'	muo 'touch'	fuo 'Buddha'	
f.	*guau	*kuau	*duau	*tuau	*uau
g.	bau 'wrap'	pau 'run'	mau 'cat'	fou 'float'	

First, since (87a,b) are good, we will consider (87c) a gap. (87b,g) show that [b p m f] may cooccur with [u], while (87f) shows that [u] cannot cooccur with [ü]. Leaving (87d,e) for the moment, let us see how [b p m f] differ from [u]. Three possible approaches come to mind. First, [b p m f] are primary labials, while [u] is primary dorsal and secondary labial (Fu 1990, L. Cheng 1989). Second, [b p m f] are consonants, while [u] a vowel (Y. Lin 1989). Third, [b p m f] are unspecified for [round], while [u] is (Y. Lin 1990).

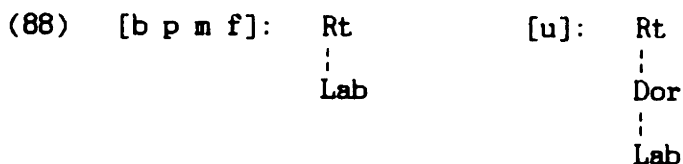
Both Fu and L. Cheng suggest that [b p m f] and [u] differ in whether their Labial node is primary. Following Mester (1986) and Selkirk (1988b), Fu assumes that the Labial node in [u] is dominated by the primary articulator Dorsal, so

7. The set [buo puo muo fuo] is usually transcribed as [bo po mo fo], but as Chao (1968:30) points out, 'the actual pronunciation is still buo, puo, and so on'. This is seen by contrasting cognates in Mandarin and Chengdu

Mandarin:	b ^w o 'wave'	p ^w o 'slope'	m ^w o 'touch'
Chengdu:	bo	po	mo

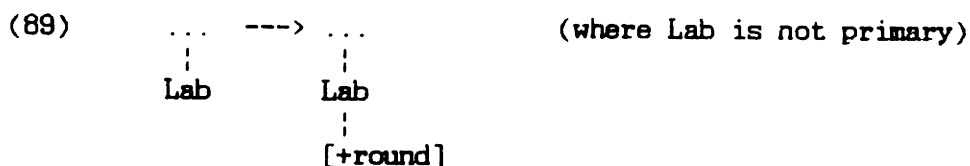
where the pronunciations are different.

that it lies on a different tier from the Labial node in [b p m f], as shown below



This approach may account for the contrast between (87b,g) v. (87f). But it cannot account for the contrast between (87d) and (87e).

I will suggest here that underlyingly all labials have a bare Labial node, unspecified for [round], and that there is a redundancy rule

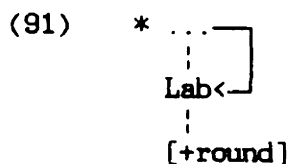


In addition, I suggest that the Mandarin labial CR be *[+round...[+round]], instead of *Labial...Labial. This will account for (87b,f,g) directly.

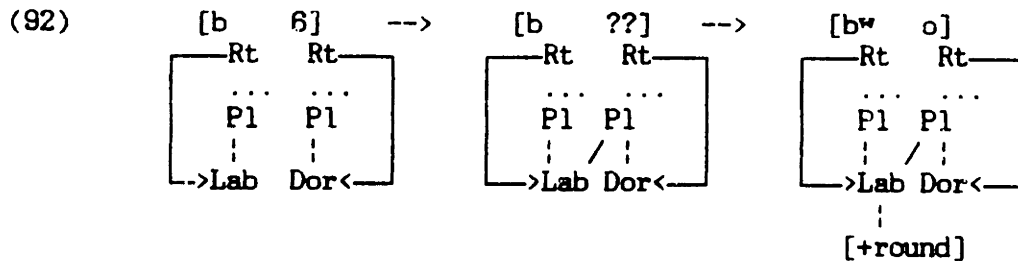
Let us turn to (87d,e). Let us also write the prenucleus [u] as [ʷ] (cf. our discussion in section 2.1.), as shown below



I suggest that Mandarin has the following restriction



That is, primary Labials cannot be [+round]. This will exclude (87d)=(90a). For (90b), recall that Mandarin [o] is underlyingly [ɔ] (schwa), whose rounding comes from the spreading of Labial from a neighbouring segment (cf. C. Cheng 1973). The derivation of /ɔ/→[bʷo] is given below (for convenience, we have not shown the open vowel as long)



The Labial node of [b] first spreads to [ɔ]. Now this Labial node is both the major articulator for [b] and the minor articulator for [o], and so neither (89) nor ((91)) applies. Our prediction here, then, is that the Labial may or may not become [+round]. This prediction is correct. For many Mandarin speakers (type A), the Labial node does become [+round], and for other Mandarin speakers (type B), it does not, as the following shows

(93)

Underlying:	/bɔ/	/pɔ/	/mɔ/	/fɔ/	/ɔ/
Type A:	[bʷo]	[pʷo]	[mʷo]	[fʷo]	[ɾ]
Type B:	[bɾ]	[pɾ]	[mɾ]	[fɾ]	[ɾ]
Gloss:	wave	slope	touch	Buddha	goose

The default value for /ɔ/ is the unrounded mid back vowel [ɾ], as seen in [ɾ] 'goose'. For type B speakers, the Labial node does not become [+round], so the vowel after [b p m f] do not become [o] but become the default [ɾ]. Note that it is not the case that Type B speakers never have [o], as the following shows

(94)

Underlying:	/uɔ/	/duɔ/	/guɔ/	/gɔu/
Type A:	[wɔ]	[dʷɔ]	[gʷɔ]	[gɔu]
Type B:	[wɔ](*[wɾ])	[dʷɔ](*[dʷɾ])	[gʷɔ](*[gʷɾ])	[gɔu](*[gɾɔ])
Gloss:	I	many	state	dog

This is what we predict: when a Labial is secondary, it automatically becomes [+round]. This happens in [dʷ] and [gʷ]. It also happens in [w] and [u], which we need not distinguish (although we used different transcriptions).

To my knowledge, no previous analysis has succeeded in accounting for all of (87a-g) and (93). We have done so by assuming that prenucleus G is part of the onset.

2.4.2. Cantonese Relevant patterns for the labial CR in Cantonese are given below (Kao 1971, Cheung 1986, Yip 1989b, L. Cheng 1989)

- (95) a. pam 'pump' pip 'beep' nan 'food' (baby talk)
 b. *bin *pap *nip *fap ...
- (96) a. po 'old lady' no 'slow' fo 'goods' fu 'rich'
 b. *pü *pö *ni *nö *fü *fö
- (97) a. *up *op *un *on *uw *ow *üp *öp *üm *öm *üw *üw
 b. p'aw 'run' pan 'pump' pip 'beep' nan 'food' (baby talk)
 c. *waw *k'waw *wan *k'wan *wip *k'wip
 d. wo 'and' k'wo 'fruit' kwong 'light' kwok 'country'

As seen in (95), labial consonants sometimes cooccur and sometimes do not. In fact, most such syllables do not occur; the few that do occur are mostly (all?) loan words, onomatopoeias, and baby talk. Nevertheless, we will consider all of (95) possible, and those in (95b) as gaps.⁶ This is because in some patterns, such as (97a,c), even loan words, onomatopoeias, and baby talk do not occur. Similarly, in (96a) we see that labial consonants may occur with round vowels, and so we will again consider (96b) as gaps. There is evidence for this view (Yip 1989b, citing Cheung 1988:242-243)

- (98) p'ey yu: --> p'ü 'for example'
 pat yü --> pü 'it'd be better'

In contracted speech, [p'ü] and [pü] do occur, showing that these are possible syllables.

The real problem, then, is to explain (97). The difference between (97b,c) may be attributed to whether the Labial node is primary or secondary, to which we will come back shortly. (97a) shows a nucleus-coda CR. (97c) show a onset-coda CR. (97d), however, shows a lack of onset-nucleus CR. As Yip (1989b) notes, this asymmetry is puzzling. Structurally, the nucleus-coda relation is closest, the onset-nucleus relation farther, and the onset-coda relation the farthest. If CR holds for the closest and the farthest relations, why not for the intermediate relation? Here I suggest that (97a) is a gap. There are two reasons. First, as Yip (1989b) notes, Cantonese mid vowels have limited distributions; not only are [*om *op ...] missing, but [*em *ep et ...] are also missing. So the lack of (97a) cannot be attributed to labial CR alone.

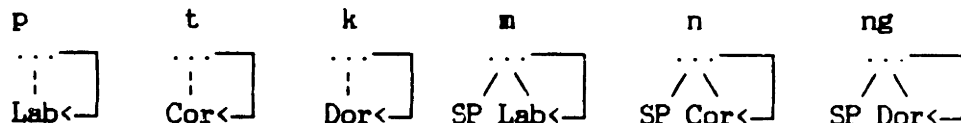
⁶ *{fap} is probably an exception. L. Cheng (p3) cites proposals that [f] is underlyingly [xʷ]. If so, [f] should pattern with [kʷ].

Second, Taiwanese has [Om] 'fill up' and [kOp] 'throw down' (Lu, 12, 17), which suggest that a labial CR on nucleus-coda cannot be general. I will therefore, only consider (97b,c,d).

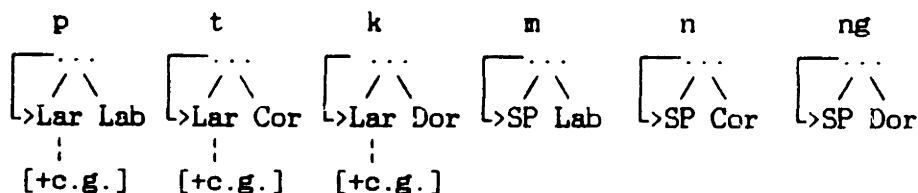
Before I offer my analysis, it is necessary to consider some independent differences between [p t k m n ng] onsets and [p t k m n ng] codas in Chinese. It is well known that Chinese [p t k] codas (as contrast to post nucleus [p t k] in English) have several special properties. First, they are glottalized. Second, they are unreleased. Third, as I will argue in Chapter 3, they are tone bearing, even if the tone they carry is not heard. Finally, they alternate with or have become the glottal stop [ʔ] in many dialects. These properties show that Chinese [p t k] codas have a Laryngeal node, which dominates [+c.g.]. I suggest, in addition, that it is the Laryngeal node that is the primary articulator in Chinese [p t k] codas, not the Labial, Coronal or Dorsal respectively. Similarly, Chinese [m n ng] codas also have some independent properties, too. In many Chinese dialects [m n ng] codas alternate with or have merged to pure nasality. In addition, as Hashimoto (1973:95) notes of Meixian ([m n ng] onsets) are the so-called "croissant", with strong off-glides, and are a kind of explosive, while ([m n ng] codas) are "decroissant" sounds, with on-glides and no off-glides, and are "aplosives."

I suggest that Chinese [m n ng] codas are primary Soft-Palate, and secondary Labial, Coronal and Dorsal respectively. The featural differences between Chinese [p t k m n ng] onsets and codas are shown below (in Sagey's 1986 notations)

(99) a. In Onsets:



b. In Codas:



The proposal of (99c) is entirely new, and so some comment is in order. First,

the major articulators in [p t k] are shown to be Laryngeal. However, Halle (1989:8) suggests a principle

The major articulator of a consonantal speech sound is one of the PLACE articulators.

The conflict between (99b) and Halle's constraint is only apparent, however. What are traditionally written as [p t k] (or [b d g] in Hashimoto 1973) are in fact [ʔ^p ʔ^t ʔ^k] (or [ʔ^b ʔ^d ʔ^g]), with the feature trees in (99b), where Laryngeal is the major articulator and Labial, Coronal and Dorsal the minor articulators. These sounds, therefore, are [-cons] and not [+cons], in agreement with Halle's principle. The widely observed coda change [p t k]-->[ʔ] is the deletion of the minor articulator. Moreover,

Similarly, in (99b), the major articulators of [m n ŋ] codas are all Soft-Palate; Labial, Coronal and Dorsal are minor articulators. In the theory of Trigo (1988), a sound with the Soft-Palate as the major articulator is called a 'nasal glide'. In (99b), [m n ŋ] will all be nasal glides, even though each has a minor articulator. The widely observed coda change [m n ŋ]-->[~] is the deletion of the minor articulator, parallel to [p t k]-->[ʔ].⁹

Having justified (99b), let us now account for (97). I suggest that, like in Mandarin, Cantonese has the rule by which a secondary Labial becomes [+round] while a primary Labial does not. In addition, Cantonese is subject to *[+round]-[+round]. In (97b), the Labial node of the codas are secondary, and so [+round], but the Labial nodes of the onsets are primary, and so not specified for [+round]. Thus, there is no violation of *[+round]-[+round]. (97c), on the other hand, the Labial nodes in the onsets [w kʷ] and the codas [w ʔ m] are both secondary, so they are all [+round], violating the CR *[+round]-[+round]. Finally, in (97d), the Labial nodes in [w kʷ o] are all secondary and hence [+round]. Thus, these words should be bad. What happens here, I suggest, is that the Labial of the onset and that of the nucleus have

⁹ If [m n ŋ] codas, as nasal glides with a minor articulator, are [-cons], then every segment in the rime is [-cons]. The notion mora may then be seen as a [-cons] segment in the rime.

merged to one, so that there is no more violation of * [+round] - [+round].¹⁰ Note that the Labial merger cannot take place in (97b,c) without changing [a] to [+round], due to feature percolation.

L. Cheng (1989) assumes that all labials have a bare Labial node, and she has to propose three labial CRs for Cantonese (p20)

- (100)
- a. onset-coda: *labial-labial
 - b. onset-nucleus: *labial-[front round vowels]
 - c. nucleus-coda: *[round vowels]-labial

In addition, L. Cheng has to assume, without independent evidence, that the primary articulators in [k^w ü ö] are all Labial (instead of Dorsal, as is customarily assumed). Moreover, L. Cheng cannot exclude the pattern [wVw] (where V is any vowel), which is a major offending pattern (L. Cheng, p24).¹¹

2.4.3. Taiwanese Although there are dialects of Taiwanese (Southern Min), what we discuss below should be fairly general properties of them. Relevant patterns for the labial CR are given below (Luo 1956, Lu 1977, Zhang 1983, Y. Lin 1989, prenucleus glides are written as [u])

- (101)a. On 'fill up' kOp 'throw down' (Lu, 12, 17)
 *ua *up *op *om *ou ...
- b. Labial consonant onsets cooccur with round vowels:
 bo 'hat' pi~ 'watch' piun 'basin' ...
 pau 'wrap' bau 'trade' biau 'seedling' ...
- c. Labial consonant onsets cooccur with prenucleus [u]:
 pue 'cup' xue 'buy' p'ua 'broken' ...
 (cf. pe 'fly', he 'sister', p'a 'pat', ...)
- d. Labial consonant onsets do not cooccur with [p m] codas:
 *pin *pam *pap *hip *bem ...
- e. Prenucleus [u] does not cooccur with coda [u]:
 *uok *uau *kuau ...

¹⁰ Cantonese mid and high vowels have very limited distributions. I leave it open whether Cantonese has underlying [o], or whether [o] is derived from a mid vowel by acquiring Labial from a neighboring segment as in Mandarin.

¹¹ L. Cheng (p.c.) notes that of the three syllables [wVp], [wVm] and [wVw], none of which occurs, the last sounds worst.

f. Prenucleus [u] does not cooccur with [p m] codas:

*uam *kuan *uap *huap
 (cf. uan 'aid', kuan 'observe', uat 'get over', huat 'punish', ...)

g. Prenucleus [u] does not cooccur with round nbuclear vowels:

*kuo *uo
 (cf. ue 'shoe', ue? 'narrow', kue 'chicken', ...)

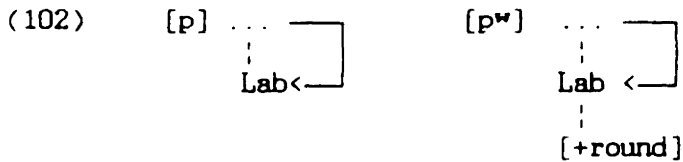
Y. Lin considers there to be a CR on a labial vowel and a labial coda, but as we see in (101a), some such syllables do occur, so this pattern must be possible. (101b,e,f) may again be accounted for along the lines we suggested for Mandarin and Cantonese. Specifically, we assume that a Labial is unspecified for [+round], but will be filled with [+round] by (89) if the node is secondary (i.e. a minor articulator). In addition, we assume that [p m] are primary Labial in the onset, but secondary Labial in the coda. More evidence for the last assumption comes from the observation of Luo (1956:16)

In the coda, [-p], [-t] and [-k] end at closure; there is merely a gesture without sound, and we cannot hear the release. Therefore they are not real 'plosives' but 'implosives'... In colloquial speech, most [-m], [-n] and [-ng] codas tend to become nasalization [~], whereas most [-p], [-t] and [-ng] codas tend to become a glottal stop [ʔ].

Further, we assume that there is the CR *([+round]-[+round]).

In (101b), only the codas will be specified for [+round] by (89), but the onsets will not; so all words are good. In (101e,f), the Labial node in the prenucleus [u] is secondary, hence [+round], and the labial vowels and codas will also be [+round], hence all words are bad.

(101c) should be good whether the prenucleus [u] is a segment or not. If it is, it is secondary Labial and hence [+round], but the onset [p b p'] are not specified for [+round], so there is no CR violation. On the other hand, if [pu- bu- p'u-] are double articulations, i.e. [p^w b^w p'^w] as I claim, there is no CR violation, either. (101c) simply shows that, unlike Mandarin, Taiwanese permits both rounded and unrounded labials (e.g. [p-] v. [p^w-]), a property that is common in many languages. The contrast between [p p^w] can be represented below



Recall that we have suggested (89), which assigns [+round] to a bare secondary Labial. The fact that a primary Labial may be underlyingly specified for [+round] does not affect (89).

We now look at (101d). Recall that this pattern is also rare in Cantonese, but we have considered it a gap, since a few examples are found. Is it possible that (101d) is also a gap in Taiwanese? I have found no direct evidence. However, there is indirect evidence. Consider

- (103) a. huat mng --> huap mng 'grow angry' (Luo, 17)
 b. bet bŋg --> bep bŋg 'die out' (Lu, 25)

[huat] and [bet] become [huap] and [bep] before a labial. It is not clear whether it is generally true that assimilation processes are subject to CRs. There is, however, evidence that at least some phonological process is subject to CR (Yip 1989b). I will, therefore, tentatively consider (101d) as a gap. This completes all patterns in (101).

Finally, we look at (101e). [*kɔo *uo] should be bad, since [u] and [o] are both [+round]. However, they should be good if the two Labial nodes in [u] and [o] merge to one, as we proposed for Cantonese. Why does this not happen in Taiwanese? Is node merger optional when faced with CR? I have no good answer here, and have to leave it open.

It should be borne in mind that the above analysis is only preliminary, and that there are many unsolved issues. We will mention two of them. First, consider

- (104) Om 'fill up' (Lu, 12)
 kOp 'throw down' (Lu, 17)

- (105) kut bŋg --> kup bŋg 'dig grave' (Lu, 25)

The words in (104) appear in colloquial speech only, and do not have written

forms. Similarly, [kut] becomes [kup] before a labial. We have used these words to argue that (101a) is a good pattern. In many descriptions of Taiwanese, however, these words are not cited. If we ignore them (as Y. Lin 1989 does), then our analysis of the labial CR will be quite different. Moreover, similar revisions probably have to be made to our analysis of Cantonese.

The second open issue is that there are many other distributional gaps. Consider the following inventory of Taiwanese finals (i.e. prenucleus glides plus rime, from Zhang, omitting syllabic nasals and nasalized vowels)

(106)		i	a	ua	ia	e	ue	ui	0	o	io	u
	m	im	am		iam							
	n	in	an	uan	ian							un
	ng	ing	ang		iang				Ong		iOng	
	i		ai	uai								
	u	iu	au		iau							
	p	ip	ap	iap								
	t	it	at	uat	iat							ut
	k	ik	ak		iak				Ok		iOk	
	?	i?	a?	ua?	ia?	e?	ue?	ui?		o?	io?	u?

The leftmost column shows possible codas. It is striking that apart from [i a], all other vowels have highly defective distributions with codas. We clearly have not determined the underlying vowels, and so any analysis of CRs must remain open.

Y. Lin (1989) suggests that round vowels, including [u] (whether it is before, in, or after the nucleus), are [+round], and that round consonants, whether in the onset or coda, have just a bare Labial node without [+round]. She also considers (101a) a gap (without mentioning the good [Om kOp]). In addition, she proposes the following rules

(107) For the syllable:

- | | |
|-------------|-------------------|
| a. *Lab Lab | b. *Lab Lab |
| | |
| | [+round] [+round] |

(108) For the Rime:

- | | | |
|-------------|-------------------|-------------|
| a. *Lab Lab | b. *Lab Lab | c. *Lab Lab |
| | | |
| | [+round] [+round] | [+round] |

Two CRs apply to the syllable, while one more applies to the rime. Assuming

that the prenucleus [u] is in the rime, Y. Lin is able to account for all patterns in (101). However, as L. Cheng (p18) points out, Y. Lin's analysis has the defect that the same two rules are stated twice, in (107a,b) and (108a,b). Thus, a syllable like *[kuau] is ruled out twice, once by (108b), and again by (107b). This apparently is a weakness. In contrast, we have assumed just one CR *[+round]-[+round], and have maintained that the prenucleus [u] is in the rime.

2.4.4. Summary I have given an analysis of the labial CR in Mandarin, Cantonese and Taiwanese. I have suggested that, for all three dialects, a bare Labial node will become [+round] if it is a minor articulator (cf. (89)), and that there is one labial CR *[+round]-[+round], instead of several (cf. L. Cheng 1979, Y. Lin 1989, Fu 1990). I have shown, I hope, that as far as facts are clear, my analysis not only achieves at least comparable results as Yip (1989b), Y. Lin (1989), L. Cheng (1989) and Fu (1990), but also accounts for a range of independent properties of [p t k m n ŋ] codas. Finally, I have shown that the prenucleus glide is always in the onset, and that there is no compelling evidence to analyze it otherwise.

2.5. Some Theoretical Implications In this section we discuss the implication of our analysis of the Chinese syllable for two phonological theories, the V/C segregation of McCarthy (1989a), and the moraic theory of the syllable (Hyman 1984, 1985; Hayes 1989). I show that although Chinese has a rigid syllabic structure, there is no evidence of V/C segregation, unlike what Yip (1989b) and L. Cheng (1989) suggest. McCarthy's (1989a) prediction, therefore, needs to be refined. I also show that the obligatory onset in Chinese languages presents a problem for the moraic theory in which the onset has no independent status.

2.5.1. V/C Segregation McCarthy (1989a) suggests that if the morphemes of a language have fixed 'templatic' structures, or 'sufficiently restrictive root structure constraints', then underlyingly consonants and vowels in this language must lie in separate planes. This is termed V/C segregation. For example, the Arabic word *sana* 'poisoned' underlyingly consists of a vowel /a/ and two consonants /sn/, together with the template CVCVC



With the given template, to get the right output, we only need to know the ordering among consonants, and that among vowels, but not that between consonants and vowels. Moreover, not only is the ordering between consonants and vowels redundant, but their segregation is necessary; if they lie in the same plane, as in (109a), we get line crossings, violating a fundamental constraint in phonology (McCarthy (1989a, 73)).

Chinese morphemes/syllables have fixed structures, as we have argued; so there should V/C segregation; indeed, L. Cheng (1989) and Yip (1989b) suggests that Cantonese has V/C segregation. I will show below, however, that, given a set of consonants and a separate set of vowels, we cannot predict the syllable in a simple way.

McCarthy (1989a) does not use syllabic structures, but a CV template instead. We have used an X tier and no CV template. It is not clear how the two systems can be translated into each other. Consider the following Mandarin syllables

(110) [m:] [na:] [nan] [ʔan] [ʔe:]
 'Uh-huh' 'hold' 'south' 'peace' 'goose'

(111) CCC CVV CVC VVC VVV

In our analysis, all the syllables have the same structure (cf. (1)); in a CV analysis, there are different templates, as in (111) (assuming [ʔ] is [-cons]). Cf. Chomsky & Halle (1968)). Of course, it is in principle possible that Mandarin syllables have several templates. The problem is that such templates are predictable from the given segments. For example, given /m/, the structure must be [m:] or CCC, given /di/ it must be [di:] or CVV, and given /dan/ it must be [dan] or CVC. This renders the CV template utterly superfluous. It is not the CV template that dictates the way segments are organized; rather it is the segments that dictate what the CV template should be.

If instead the Mandarin syllable simply translates into CVV, where glides in onsets (as in [ya:]) are considered consonants and consonants can link to V (as in [m:] and [nan]), we can derive all syllables similar to the way we discussed in section 2.1.1.5.:

- (112)a. Link the most sonorant segment to the first V.
b. Link other segments.
c. Spread the segment under first V to the second V.
d. If C is empty and if the segment under first V is [+high] or [+cons], spread the segment under first V to the C.
e. Specify the zero onset (cf. section 2.1.1.1.).

(113)a.	/i/ --> [yi:]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112c)	CVV (112d)	CVV
	'one'	----->		----->	/
		i	i	i	i
b.	/m/ --> [m:]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112c)	CVV (112d)	CVV
	'Uh-huh'	----->		----->	/
		m	m	m	m
c.	/e/ --> [ʔe:]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112c)	CVV (112e)	CVV
	'goose'	----->		----->	/
		e	e	e	ʔe

d. /an/ --> [ɸan]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112b)	CVV (112e)	CVV
'peace'	---->		---->	
	an	an	an	ɸan
e. /na/ --> [na:]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112b)	CVV (112c)	CVV
'hold'	---->		---->	
	na	na	na	na
f. /nan/ --> [nan]	CVV (112a)	CVV (112b)	CVV	
'south'	---->		---->	
	nan	nan	nan	

This CVV is identical to our XXX syllable, with V being the nucleus, C to the right of V the coda, and C to the left of V the onset.

So far we have not assumed V/C segregation. Let us see whether the CVV analysis works when we do. It is easy to see that the answer is no. Consider the words /an/-->[ɸan], /na/-->[na:] and /nan/-->[nan] in (113d-f). Assume, as McCarthy (1989a) does, the Obligatory Contour Principle, which forbids identical segments in sequence (e.g. */nn/). The three words will then have the same representations {a, n, [CVV]}.¹ There is no way to derive three different structures.

One may attempt two ways to solve this problem. First, one may posit a featureless segment /[]/, so that /an/ is {a, [n, CVV]}, /na/ is {a, n[], CVV} and /nan/ is {a, n, CVV}. But we have shown in section 2.1.1.1. that this is untenable. In particular, /[]/ never contrasts with segmentlessness. We never find, for example, a contrast between /[]e[]/ = {e, [], CVV} and /e/ = {e, , CVV}. Moreover, in the V/C segregation theory, every segment must lie either on the C tier or the V tier, and one has to make an arbitrary decision as to which tier /[]/ should lie on. The second way is to posit [ng] as the zero onset, and derive other variations of the zero onset by rules, as suggested in L. Cheung (1986) and Yip (1989b). In this analysis, /an/ is {a, ng n, CVV} and /na/ is {a, n, CVV}. Yet /nan/ is also {a, n, CVV}, which cannot be distinguished from /na/. In addition, positing /ng/ for the zero onset has several problems in itself, as I have argued in section 2.1.1.1. There is no explanation, for

1. We follow McCarthy's (1989) notation whereby in {A, B, [C]}, A is the vowel sequence, B the consonant sequence, and C the template.

example, why /ng/ never occurs before glides, whereas /n n/ do. Secondly, there is no explanation why the historical zero onset, had it been /ng/, has so many variations in different dialects, while the historical /n n/ have relatively few. Third, in languages like Mandarin, there is no simple rule to derive other variants of the zero onset, such as /h ?/, from /ng/. In view of the above problems, I will consider both solutions inadequate. And I will conclude that the /an/-/na/-/nan/ paradigm presents a genuine problem for the assumption that Chinese has V/C segregation.

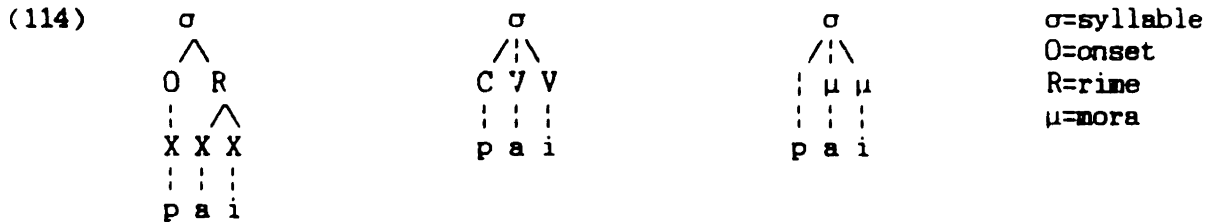
The fact that Chinese lacks V/C segregation need not mean that McCarthy's (1989a) generalization is wrong. There is an important difference between Arabic and Chinese languages. In the former, syllabic templates carry morphological information. In the latter there is just one uniform template; no morphological information is carried by the syllabic structure (cf. however, the marginal case of Heshun in section 2.2.5.). V/C segregation, therefore, may depend on two conditions: whether a language has rigid templates, as McCarthy (1989a) proposes, and whether the templates carry morphological information.² Why the latter condition is needed, however, remains open.

2.5.2. The Moraic Theory There is strong evidence that the mora plays an important role in phonology (Hyman 1984, 1985, McCarthy & Prince 1989, Halle & Vergnaud 1987, Halle 1990, etc.). It is not very clear, however, what the exact relation is between the mora and the syllable. In particular, it is not clear whether the mora is the only constituent in a syllable, or whether notions like onset, rime, nucleus, etc., are still needed. In this section I discuss the moraic theory of Hayes (1989). To a large extent, Hayes' theory resembles that of Hyman (1984, 1985). A central assumption in their analyses is that the onset has no independent dominating node (it either is directly dominated by the syllable node, or shares a dominating mora node with the nuclear vowel). I will show, however, that in their analyses, there is no simple way to represent an obligatory onset position. Let us take Hayes's theory for illustration.

Hayes argues that syllabic theories based on the X tier or the CV template--the

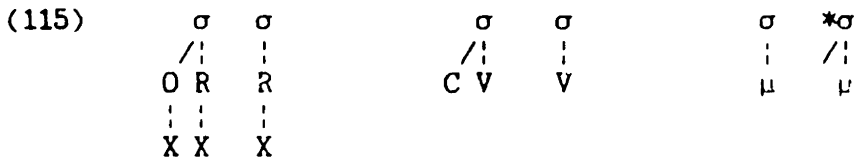
2. Thanks to an anonymous reader for suggesting the second condition.

'X theories'--should be replaced by a moraic theory. The latter is more constrained in that it has no such nodes as onset and rime, nor the X or CV tier, as shown below for /pai/

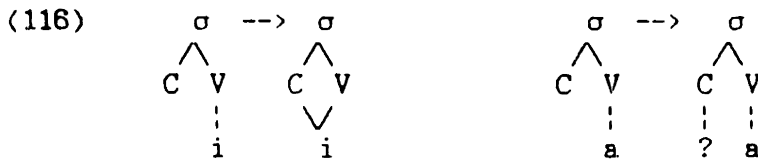


Hayes' argument is based on compensatory lengthening. But first let us look at the issue from a different angle, the problem of fixed syllable structures.

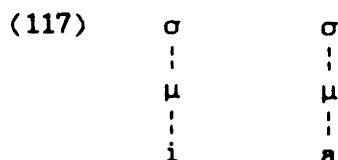
Consider Mandarin and Semitic languages, where syllabic templates are independent of segments. In the X theory, the X tier or the CV template serves as a place holder to which segments may attach. In the moraic theory, onset segments are linked to the σ node directly, while rime segments are linked to the σ node via mora nodes. Thus there are place holders (moras) for rime segments, but nothing for onset segments. X theories can distinguish fixed CV and V syllables (CV and V templates), but the moraic theory cannot



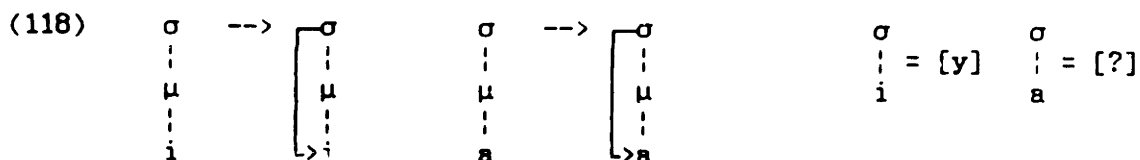
In languages that have an obligatory onset, /i/ usually becomes [yi] and /a/ becomes [ʔa]. In X theories, this is easy to represent



where the obligatory onset triggers spreading or default specification. In the moraic theory, nothing can trigger such processes

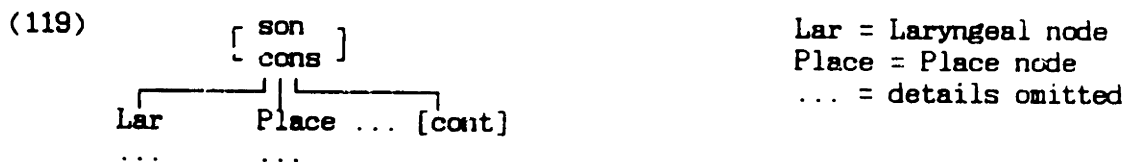


One may propose a rule for the obligatory onset, to extend a link from the σ node to the segment under the μ node



where /i/ directly under σ is interpreted as [y] and /a/ under σ as [?]. A similar view is suggested in E. Pulleyblank (1984, 1986), according to which /a/ has a glide variant, which may be the same as the zero initial (before non-high vowels). In this analysis, the obligatory onset is fully dependent on the nuclear segment. In particular, for each nuclear vowel, there should be just one variant of the zero onset. However, we already mentioned that the Mandarin zero onset has several realizations before non-high vowels (cf. section 2.1.1.1.). Thus, (118) cannot be the correct analysis. The crucial point is that an obligatory onset has an independent status; it does not entirely depend on the preceding or the following segment.

A better solution is to make use of feature geometry. Take the version of McCarthy (1988), where the Root node contains two features [son] and [cons]



We may propose an empty Root node [] as a place holder for the obligatory onset. Hayes (pp282-283) in fact explicitly allows empty Root nodes. Let us examine this in detail. Although Hayes does not use feature geometry, the following discussion is in line with his assumptions.

First, if the onset position has an empty Root node, there is no reason why rime positions do not. Let us assume they all do. Fixed V and CV syllables can

stay, in the moraic theory when a segment deletes, the Root slot may stay. Deletion may be thought of as unplugging the Root node of a segment from the Root socket, leaving an empty slot behind. This is in fact what Hayes (pp282-283) assumes for the Onondaga onset deletion.

But this move undermines Hayes' central point, which is that CL (compensatory lengthening) is triggered by free slots. According to Hayes, in the X theory, the deletion of any segment leaves an X slot behind, thus triggering CL. In the moraic theory, the deletion of a rime segment leaves a mora slot behind, thus triggering CL, but the deletion of an onset segment leaves nothing behind, thus not triggering CL. This is called the 'onset-rime asymmetry' of CL. However, we saw above that once the moraic theory contains a Root tier, the deletion of any segment, from the onset or the rime, may leave a Root socket behind, and this can trigger CL. Therefore, the onset-rime asymmetry no longer exists.

It will not save the CL argument by stipulating that segment deletion always removes the Root node. One may equally stipulate for the X theory that segment deletion removes the X slot, and that nucleus (and coda) nodes trigger CL. Thus the two theories still end up identical.

2.5.3. Summary I have shown that although Chinese languages have a uniform syllabic structure, there is no evidence of V/C segregation, unlike what is suggested by Yip (1989b) and L. Cheng (1989). It seems, therefore, that V/C segregation depends not only on rigid templates, as McCarthy (1989a) proposes, but also on whether the templates carry morphological information. In addition, I have shown that the moraic theories of Hayes (1989) and Hyman (1984, 1985), in which moras are the only constituents in a syllable, cannot handle the obligatory onset, especially the zero onset, unless empty Root nodes are permitted. But this move undermines the compensatory lengthening argument for the moraic theory, and brings the moraic theory closer to the X-theory. There is a likelihood, however, that the X tier is superfluous once the Root tier is allowed to contain empty Roots, although relevant facts are not clear enough for a conclusion.

I have little doubt that the mora plays an important phonological role. As

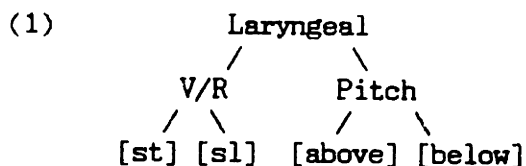
McCarthy & Prince (1989) has convincingly shown, in Arabic templatic transfer, the mora is the central counting unit. In addition, it is well-known that the mora is fundamental to stress assignment (Halle & Vergnaud 1987; Halle 1990, among others). Furthermore, as we will discuss in Chapter 3, there is an important tonal difference between segments in the onset and segments in the rime; the former are never tone bearers, but the latter often are, irrespective of the intrinsic properties of a segment. This difference is most likely due to whether a segment carries a mora, as Hyman (1984, 1985) suggests.

What seems to be the case, though, is that moras are not the only constituents of the syllable. It is also possible that moras and syllables lie in different 'planes' (to borrow a term from Halle & Vergnaud 1980), i.e. moras are dependent on, but not constituents of, the syllabic structure.

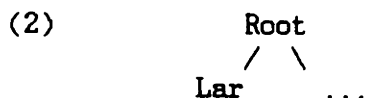
TONE

3.0. Introduction In this chapter I discuss the universal representation of tone, the issue of contour tones, the TBU (tone bearing unit), and the theory of contour features in general.

I first survey a range of tonal models, against a range of cross-linguistic tonal phenomena, such as tonogenesis, register split, depressor consonants, consonant blocker, tone and/or register spreading, etc., and argue for a tonal representation given below



This model identifies voicing in consonants with register in vowels, both being executed by the same articulator V/R. The other articulator, Pitch, controls pitch. Exact articulatory mechanisms for V/R and Pitch will be explained later. (1) permits a maximum of nine tone levels, as Hyman (1989) argues for. As most languages utilize just a small subset of all possible consonants, most tone languages utilize just a subset of the nine possible level tones. For example, if a language does not utilize register (the V/R branch), it will just have up to three level tones. In a larger picture, (1) is part of the entire feature geometry, as shown below



The Laryngeal node may also dominate other articulators, e.g. Arytenoids (for aspiration features), and perhaps Tongue-Root (cf. McCarthy 1989b, Halle 1989); we will, however, not be concerned with them. The choices for the node labels and features in (1) will be clarified, and (1) will be compared with other tonal models in detail in sections 3.1.

Since (1) identifies voicing with register, it predicts that during tone

split, voiceless onsets always leads to the upper register and voiced onsets to the lower register. There are, however, many cases of 'voiceless-low' and 'voiced-high', i.e. syllables with historically voiceless onset now have lower register tones, and syllables with historically voiced onsets now have upper register tones. Yue-Hashimoto (1986) argues that such cases are due to a process that she calls tonal 'flip-flop', which takes place AFTER tone split. On the other hand, Kingston & Solnit (1988) argue that voicing is independent of register. I will discuss these issues in section 3.2. and show that there is evidence in Yue-Hashimoto's favor.

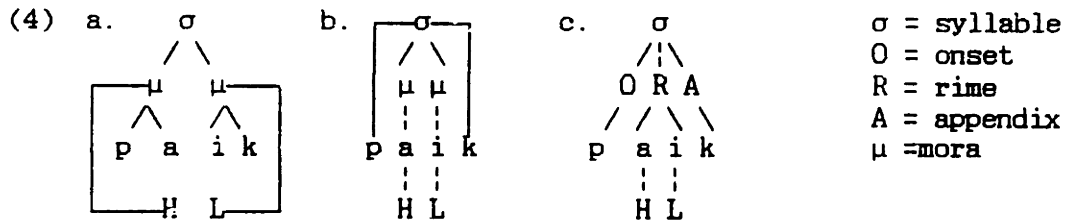
In section 3.3. I discuss contour tones and TBUs. A 'contour tone' is one that has a changing pitch height, such as a rise or a fall, while a 'level tone' is one that has a constant pitch height, such as a high level or a low level. There are three ways of representing contour tones. Take a rise for example



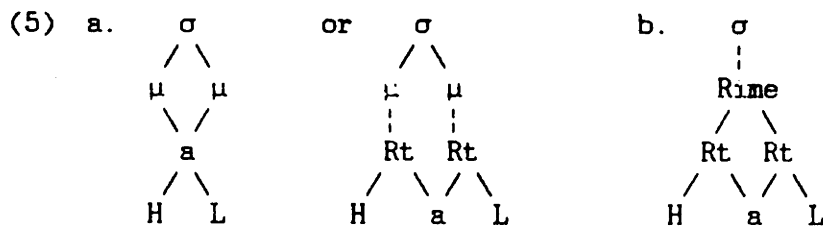
(3a) considers a rise to be a contour unit; this view has a long tradition, originating from the famous Chao (1930) letters and formalized in W. Wang (1967). (3b) on the other hand considers a rise to be made of two level tones, L and H; this view is advocated by Woo (1969), Williams (1976), Leben (1973) and most autosegmental phonologists today. In (3c), a rise is not only made of LH, but the LH forms a unit at the tonal root level. This is called a 'contour tone unit' (CTU). CTU is most forcefully argued for in Yip (1989a), although it is also proposed in Gandour & Fromkin (1978), Newman (1986), Chan (1985), Bao (1990a), among many others.

I will not discuss (3a); for criticisms, see Woo (1969) and Yip (1980). There is also no doubt that many surface contour tones are clusters of level tones, as in (3b) (pending clarifications on TBU, to which we return immediately). The question now is, are there CTUs? I will review major arguments for CTUs, and show that none is conclusive. I will thus conclude that there is no CTU.

I next discuss what the TBU is. There are three proposals, the syllable or the rime (e.g. Yip 1980, Bao 1990a), the mora (e.g. Hyman 1984), and the segment in the rime (Woo 1969, updated with autosegmental mechanisms). The difference between the latter two is shown below



Suppose the syllable [paik] is bimoraic and bears HL. In (4a), the TBU is the mora; but since [p] and [k] are both under the μ nodes (cf. Hyman 1984), they share tones with [a] and [i]. In (4b), the TBU is also the mora; but since only [a] and [i] are under the μ nodes, the TBU is in effect the mora carrying segments. In (4c), the TBUs are the segments in the rime, i.e. [a] and [i]. Since I am not aware of any evidence that onsets and post-rime elements (let us call them appendices) do share tones with rime segments, I will disregard (4a). In addition, I will not distinguish (4b,c) but consider them notational variants. (4b) and (4c) are also equivalent for geminates such as [a:]



In (5b), [a:] is two TBUs because it has two Roots (Selkirk 1988a), hence are in effect two segments. In (5b), [a:] is also two TBUs, because it has two moras; [a:] may or may not have two Roots here, which we will not go into.

There is no doubt that in many languages, such as LuGanda (Clements 1986), the TBU is not the syllable, but the mora. The question is whether the TBU can be the syllable or the rime in other languages, particularly Chinese languages, as Yip (1989a) and Bao (1990a) suggest. It is possible that the TBU parametrically varies from language to language. However, I will argue that there is no compelling evidence that it does. Instead, I will argue that the TBU is always

the mora carrying segment. This uniform analysis of the TBU not only is a more constrained theory, but also agrees with the independently motivated tonal model (1), which is part of the segmental feature geometry.

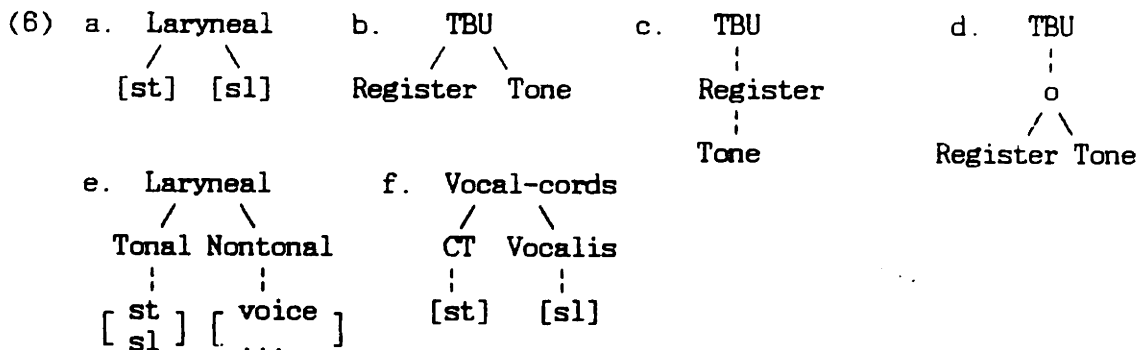
Having discussed the CTU and the TBU, I next discuss how many tones a TBU may bear. There are three views. According to Woo (1969), a TBU can carry just one tone. In contrast, according to Goldsmith (1976), if tones outnumber TBUs, all excess tones must be realized on the last TBU; there is no upper limit as to how many tones a TBU may bear. According to Williams (1976) and D. Pulleyblank (1986), there is also no universal upper limit, although some languages forbid more than one tone per TBU, even if there are excess tones. Finally, according to Bao (1990a), there is a limit of two tones per TBU.

Woo's position is the strongest, and the most vulnerable. It claims that universally no TBU may carry a contour tone; if a syllable carries a contour tone, it must (at least) be bimoraic. Woo's position hinges on there being a direct relation between the tone bearing ability of a syllable (i.e. how many tones it may carry) and its rime length, whereas the position of Goldsmith, Williams and D. Pulleyblank, among others, hinges on there being no such relation. There is evidence in Woo's favor. For example, it is generally true that a monomoraic syllable carries one tone and a bimoraic syllable carries two. In addition, cross-linguistically, it is very rare that a syllable carries more than three tones, and it is perhaps not a coincidence that a syllable is rarely longer than three moras. On the other hand, there have been claims that a monomoraic syllable may carry two tones, as D. Pulleyblank (1986) claims to be the case in Tiv.

I will show that in Chinese languages, there is indeed a direct relation between the tone bearing ability of a syllable and its rime length. I will also argue that in at least two African languages, Igbo and Tiv, the same relation holds, unlike what D. Pulleyblank claims. On the other hand, I am not aware of clear evidence that a monomoraic syllable indeed carries two or more tones without lengthening. I will, therefore, stick to the strongest hypothesis that no TBU may carry a contour tone, until clear counter-evidence is seen.

In section 3.4. I discuss the theoretical implications of one tone per TBU for the theory of contour features in general. Sagey (1986) has proposed three kinds of contour features, contour tones, affricates, and prenasalized stops. I have argued against contour tones. Steriade (1989) has argued that affricates do not have contour features. I will also show, following Herbert (1975, 1986), that no language has underlying prenasalized stops. These results suggest that there are perhaps no contour features at all. If this is correct, it will be a very strong constraint on phonological theories.

3.1. The Representation of Tone In this section I compare seven tonal representations, that in (1) and those below



(6a) is proposed by Halle & Stevens (1971) and subsequently assumed in many other works (e.g. Sagey 1986, McCarthy 1988). (6b) is proposed by Yip (1980). (6c) is proposed by Yip (1989a) and, with minor variations, Hyman (1989). (6d) is proposed by Bao (1989). (6e) is proposed by Kingston & Solnit (1988). (6f) is proposed by Bac (1990a). This list is not exhaustive, but representative, I hope. Aspiration features will not be discussed here, although they interact with tone and voicing in some way (Matisoff 1970, F.K. Li 1980). In addition, I will say nothing about the relation between implosives and tone.

The comparisons will focus on how each model handles the following array of well-observed tonal phenomena

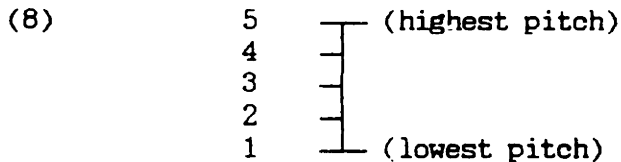
- (7) a. In nontonal languages like English, vowels have a higher initial pitch after [-voice] obstruent onsets, and a lower initial pitch after [+voice] obstruent onsets.
- b. [-voice] and [+voice] onsets lead to high and low tones respectively

in Sino-Tibetan tonogenesis.

- c. [-voice] and [+voice] onsets lead to upper and lower register tones respectively in Chinese languages. In Bantu languages, 'depressor consonants' lower the tone of neighbouring vowels.
- d. In some languages, e.g. Nupe and Ngizim, [-voice] obstruents block L-spreading, [+voice] obstruents block H-spreading, while sonorants block neither.
- e. In many languages, consonants do not block tone spreading.
- f. In Mon-Khmer languages, loss of onset voicing does not lead to tonogenesis, but to changes in vowel quality and/or vowel height.
- g. Tones may spread without affecting register.
- h. Register may spread without affecting tone.
- i. Upper and lower register tones often overlap in pitch.
- j. There are reported languages with five level tones (Black Miao and Tauhua Yao) and at least four rising and four falling tones (Gweabo).
- k. Tones are related with each other, i.e. they fall into natural classes. For example, in a language that has four tonal levels, H, M' (raised mid), M, and L, there are relations between H and M', between M and L, between H and M, and between M' and L. Similarly, a contour tone M'H has a closer relation to LM rather than to HM' or to ML, and so on.

(7a-f) reflect segment-tone interactions, while (7g-k) reflect the internal structure of tone and the relations among them. I will show that (6a,e) are successful largely with the first set of phenomena, while (6b-d) are successful largely with the second set. (6f), which has incorporated properties from both (6a) and (6b-d), is able to account for most of (7). Finally, (1), which is a further improvement on (6d), accounts for all of (7). Before we see how each model accounts for (7) in detail, however, let us begin with a more traditional system, the Chao letters, which has dominated Chinese tonology for six decades and is still by far the most influential in Chinese tonology today.

3.1.1. Chao Letters Chao (1930) designed a tonal marking system which divides a speaker's normal pitch range into five equal levels, referred to, from the highest to the lowest, by the letters 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1



A tone is usually given two numbers, indicating the initial and the final pitch respectively. For example, the Mandarin first tone is [55], a high level tone, and the Mandarin fourth tone is [51], a falling tone from the highest pitch to the lowest. Similar letter systems have been used by other people, such as Doke (1924), who uses nine letters 1 through 9 to mark pitches from the highest to the lowest in Zulu, and Sapir (1930), who uses four letters 1, 2, 3 and 4 to mark pitches from the highest to the lowest in Gweabo.

Chao letters (as well as other tone letters) have serious limitations. First, it is intrinsically vague. For example, the choice of five levels is not based on phonological principles, as Chao acknowledges, but on a balance between phonetic details and phonological distinctions. In addition, as Chao remarks, a distinction between one degree (e.g. between 44 and 55, between 24 and 35, and between 12 and 13) is usually not significant, but that between two degrees usually is. Such lack of precision is well known to workers on Chinese tones, and it is common that two transcriptions of the same dialect do not give exactly the same letters for the same tones. For example, in nonfinal positions, the Mandarin third tone is transcribed as [21] in Chao (1968) but [11] in Chao (1931) and Wang (1979). Similarly, the Shanghai tone named 'Yang Ru' is transcribed as [2] in Jiangsu Sheng He Shanghai Shi Fangyan Diaocha Zhidao Zu (1968) but [13] in Shen (1981). Such flexibility causes serious problems when one attempts to translate Chao letters into a level tone system, such as that of Yip (1980) or Hyman (1989), whose primitives (excluding register) are simply H and L. For example, [2] could be L or H in the lower register, and [13] must be LH in the lower register; but what is the Yang Ru tone of Shanghai, which is transcribed as [2] by some and [13] by others? Similarly, in the lower register, [11] is clearly L, and [31] is probably HL, but what is [21]? It could be HL (Bao 1990:105-111 for Wenzhou), or L (Yip 1980:280 for Mandarin third tone). An ambiguity of such an extent is too large to tolerate in an explicit theory.

A second problem with Chao letters lies in their dubious status between a

phonetic system and a phonemic one. Chao himself does not believe there to be a clear cut between the two systems (Chao 1934/1957). Whether Chao is right or wrong, the dubious status of Chao letters causes considerable confusion. For example, in transcribing Old Shanghai, Shen (1981:132) says¹

The real value of Yin Ping is 52; this paper marks it as 53. The real value of Yin Qu is 33 or 24; this paper marks it as 35. The real value of Yang Qu is 113 or 13; this paper marks it as 13. The real value of Yin Qu is a short tone 5 or 4; this paper marks it as a short tone 55. The real value of Yang Ru is a short tone 23; this paper marks it as a short tone 13.

Similarly, in his transcription of Lhasa tones, Hu (1980:25) says

In the marking system with five levels, (the Lhasa high level tone) is 44. For visual clarity, it is written as 55.

Such practice is extremely common. It is, to some extent, justified. If [44] does no contrast with [55] in a language, why not write it as [55]? And given the tendency that the fewer vowels a language has, the more widely dispersed they are in the vowel space, probably there are times people pronounce [44] as [55]. But the question is not so simple. Take Mandarin for example. There are four syllable tones. Nonfinally, Chao (1968) writes them as [55], [35], [21] and [51]. But why does Chao not write them as [55], [15], [11] and [51], since there is no [15] and [11] in Mandarin? One may suspect that [35] and [15] probably contrast in other languages, but in fact they never (Bao 1990:123). Similarly, to my knowledge, [21] and [11] never contrast. On the other hand, [33] and [24] do contrast in Gao'an (Yan 1981), but that did not prevent Shen from writing [33] as [24] in Old Shanghai, as we saw above. It must be the case, then, that some people do not, or do not always, modify the phonetic values in their transcriptions, such as Chao (1968) probably did not for Mandarin. But if some people modify the phonetic values, and some do not, then there is surely to be confusions. What is more, many people simply do not say whether they have or have not made modifications in their transcriptions.

When one reads Chao letters, therefore, one cannot be exactly sure what the pitch values are, although one can be sure that they must be somewhere close to the given letters. This in many cases does not matter. But in some cases, it

¹. Yin Ping, Yin Qu, etc. are names of the tones.

matters a great deal. For example, [24] is close both to [35] and to [13]. Now [35] is an upper register tone, but [13] is a lower register one. If one wants to 'modify' [24], which direction should one choose? We saw above that Shen has changed [24] to [35] yet [24] to [13]. Maybe Shen had good reasons for doing so, but such changes, which are not uncommon, are very critical.

A third problem with Chao letters is that they are based on phonetic and/or perceptual terms. There is, however, growing evidence that phonological features are articulator based (cf. for example, Lieberman & Mattingly (1985) for the viewpoint of the motor theory, and Clements (1985), Sagey (1986), Halle (1988) and McCarthy (1988) for the viewpoint of feature geometry).

A fourth problem with Chao letters is their total inability to account for the interactions between consonants and tone. In particular, there is no way for Chao letters to reflect the well-known relation between voiced onsets and low tones, and between voiceless onsets and high tones.

A fifth problem with Chao letters is that they cannot explain the relations among tones. For example, if a language has [55], [33], [22] and [11], there is usually a relation between [55] and [22], but not between [22] and [33]. Chao letters cannot explain why [22] may relate to the more distant [55] and not to the closer [33]. In contrast, in a register system such as Yip (1980:44-51), such relations are nicely captured.

The above problems strongly show that, although Chao letters may serve as a crude measure of pitch, they have little phonological value, because they provide no insight to the nature of tone. In contrast, a feature system such as (6b,c) not only can represent pitch values at an accuracy comparable to Chao letters, but also can explain the relations among tones, the nature of sandhi rules, and the interaction between tone and segments, as we will see shortly.

It is perhaps too easy to criticize a system which was designed sixty years ago, and which was probably intended to be no more than an aid to the field linguist. Nevertheless, since most Chinese data are recorded in Chao letters, a clear understanding of their limitations, both theoretical and practical,

cannot be overemphasized.

3.1.2. Halle & Stevens (1971) The very fact that consonant voicing interacts with tone on vowels strongly suggests that there are features that are common to both consonants and vowels. This fact is captured in (6a), an articulatory model proposed by Halle & Stevens (1971, hence H&S). The same features [st] and [sl] (for [stiff vocal cords] and [slack vocal cords]) are interpreted as voicing on consonants and pitch height on vowels in the following fashion

(9)		Consonants	Vowels
	[+st -sl]	-voice	H
	[-st -sl]		M
	[-st +sl]	+voice	L
	*[+st +sl]		

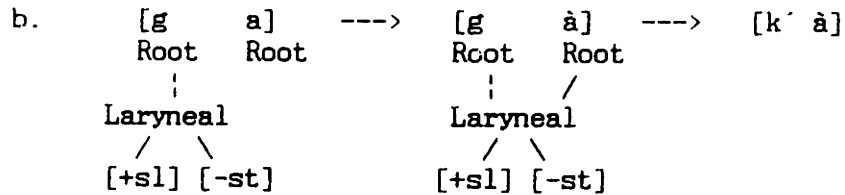
[+st, -sl] is interpreted as [-voice] on obstruent consonants and H (high pitch) on vowels, [-st, -sl] as voicing state on sonorant consonants and M (mid pitch) on vowels, and [-st, +sl] as [+voice] on obstruent consonants and L (low pitch) on vowels. [+st, +sl] is considered an impossible combination.

In this model, [p] has stiff vocal cords, hence will give a higher initial pitch to [a] in [pa]. Similarly, [a] in [ba] will have a lower initial pitch. This is true whether the language is tonal or not (cf. Hombert 1978). Now consider tonogenesis in Lhasa Tibetan (Hu 1980:31, ' = aspiration)

(10) Classic Transcription:	kho	go	tho	do	sa	za
Present Pronunciation:	k'ó	k'ò	t'ó	t'ò	sá	sà
Gloss	:	he	hear	number two	mud	eat

The loss of contrast in onset voicing has led to the emergence of tones on vowels. Tonogenesis is common in many Asian languages (e.g. Haudricourt 1954, Matisoff 1973). In the H&S model, this process is seen as the spreading of the Laryngeal node from the consonant to the vowel, as represented below

(11) a.	[k' a]	---->	[k' á]
	Root Root		Root Root
			/
	Laryneal		Laryneal
	/ \		/ \
	[+st] [-sl]		[+st] [-sl]



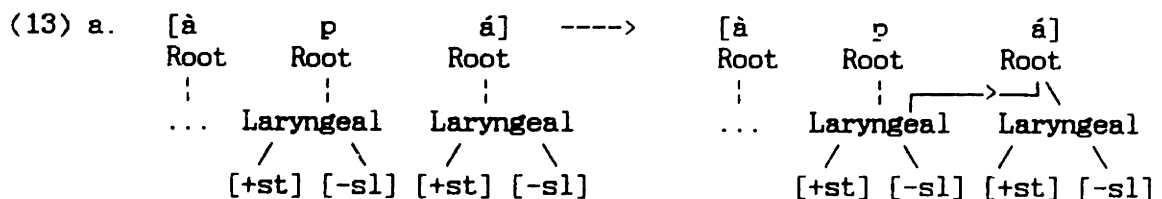
For exposition, the H&S model is embodied in the feature geometry of Sagey (1986). In (11a), the Laryngeal node of [k'] spreads to the [a], giving it a high tone. Similarly, the Laryngeal node of [g] spreads to [a], giving it a low tone. [g] further undergoes devoicing to become [k'à].²

The first stage corresponds to classic Tibetan. The final stage is found in Lhasa. The intermediate stage, before [g] devoices, is found in Xiahe, where the 'tones' on the vowels are 'habitual' and 'very close to (the tones) in the Lhasa dialect', but they are not distinctive (Hu, p36).

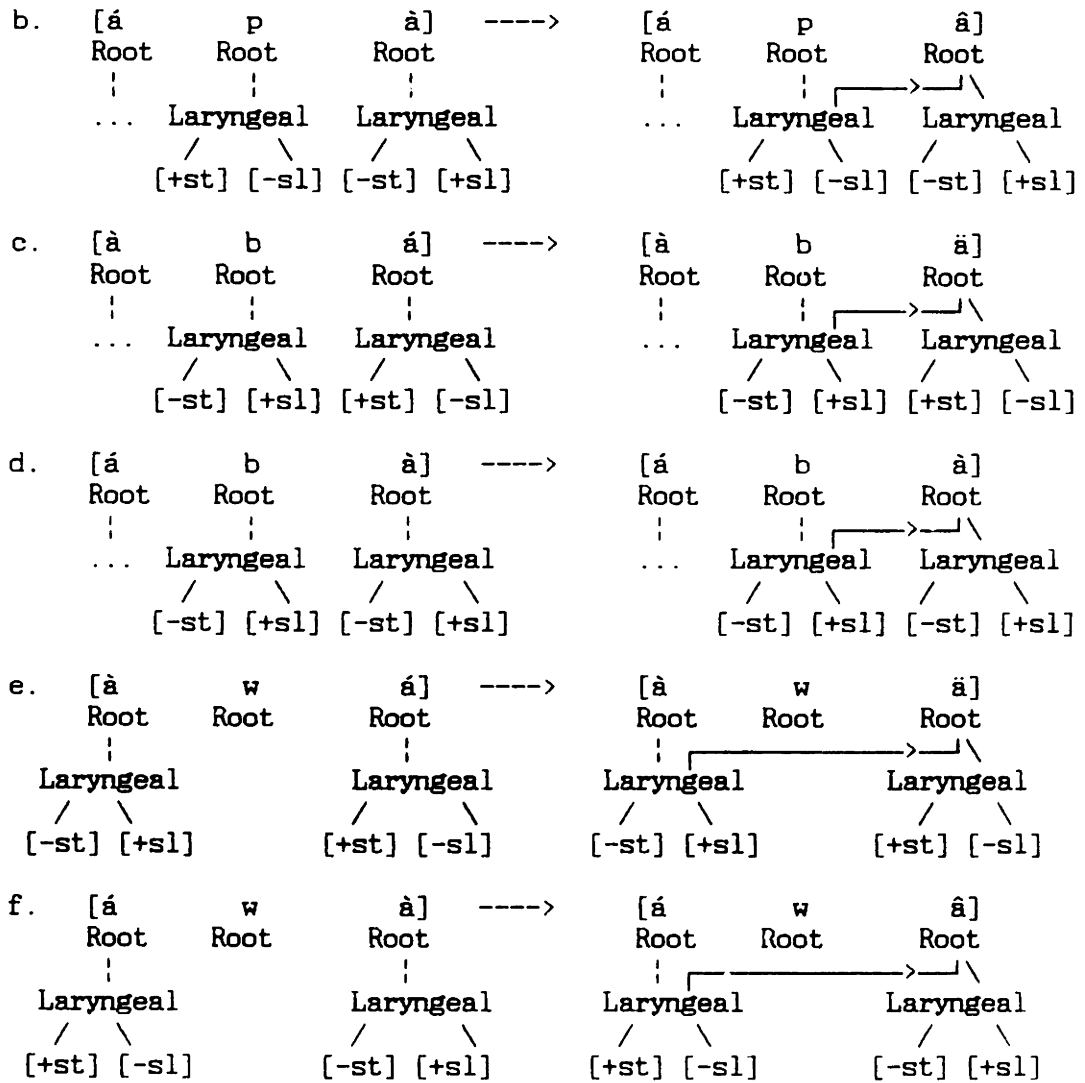
The H&S model can also explain the blocking effects of consonants on tone spreading. Consider the schematized patterns of 'consonant blockers' in Nupe and Ngizim (Hyman & Schuh 1974:107).

- | | |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <p>(12) L-spreading to right</p> <p>a. [àpá] --> [ápá] (*[àbä])</p> <p>c. [àbá] --> [ábä]</p> <p>e. [àwá] --> [áwä]</p> | <p>H-spreading to right</p> <p>b. [ápà] --> [ápà]</p> <p>d. [ábà] --> [ábà] (*[ábâ])</p> <p>f. [áwà] --> [áwà]</p> |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Voiceless obstruents block H spreading, voiced obstruents block L spreading, while sonorants block neither. The H&S model may account for (12) as follows



² The devoicing process may be seen as first delinking the Laryngeal node from [g], and then filling it with [+st, -sl] as a default value. That [+st] is the default value is supported by the fact that, almost universally, when unset voicing is neutralized, the outcome is [-voice], rather than [+voice].



In all cases, there is a spreading of the Laryngeal node to the second vowel. In (13a-d), the spreading comes from adjacent [p] or [b]; in (13e,f), since the adjacent [w] does not have Laryngeal features, it is transparent, and the spreading comes from the first vowel. In (13a,d), the spreading effect does not show up, since the spread node is the same as that of the second vowel; in other cases, the spread node differs from the one on the final vowel, and this shows up as an additional tone.

The account in (13) differs from that of the original authors. According to Hyman & Schuh (1974), all spreadings come from the tone of the first vowel. According to (13), some spreadings come from the vowel, while others come from the consonant. The difference is not trivial. For example, since the H&S model

claims that spreading may come from the onset, as in (13a-d), it also predicts spreading to happen in such syllables as [pà]->[pâ], [âpà]->[âpâ], [bá]->[bâ] and [ábá]-->[ábä]³. However, Hyman & Shuh do not report such cases in Nupe and Ngizim. The analysis of Hyman & Shuh does not have this problem.

The H&S model has more serious problems, too. First, as seen in (9), it only provides up to three tonal levels. Yet, there are reported languages that have four or more tonal levels. For example, Black Miao has five (Anderson 1974:145, citing F.K.Li, values in Chao letters)

- (14) la 11 'candle' la 22 'to move away' la 33 'cave'
 la 44 'a classifier' la 55 'short'

Chang (1953) also reports that Hei Miao (Black Miao) and Tahua Yao have five level tones each. According to Sapir (1930), Gweabo has four pitch levels, which he marks 1 for the highest and 4 the lowest. In addition, Sapir claims that there are six possible rising tones (43, 42, 41, 32, 31 and 21) and six falling tones (12, 13, 14, 23, 24, 34), which, he claims, are all attested. Although Sapir does not provide the complete paradigm, he gives the following examples (p34)

- (15) e 1 ke 21 'I am narrow' ke 43 'you are narrow'
 a 3 ke 41 'we are narrow' mu 32 'octopus'

If the four rising tones (21, 43, 41 and 32) contrast with each other, there must be four tonal levels. What is more, Hyman (1989) argues that as many as nine tonal levels are needed to describe all tonal phenomena. It is of course possible to add more features, hence more contrasts, to a tonal system. But the question is not so simple with the H&S model. The reason is that, since tone is identified with voicing, an increase in tonal contrasts means an increase in voicing contrasts. There is, however, no evidence that any language exhibits more than three voicing contrasts.

A second problem with the H&S model is that, in many languages, tones may spread across consonants irrespective of their voicing values. Consider a case in Yoruba (Pulleyblank 1986:110)

³. Thanks to M. Yip for making this point to me.

(16) dídùn --> dídùn 'sweetness'
 | | | / |
 H L H L

where H spreads from [i] to [u] across the voiced [d]. In the H&S model, the feature representation of [dídùn] before spreading is as below

(17) d í d ù n
 ... Root Root Root ...
 | | |
 Laryneal Laryneal Laryneal
 / \ / \ / \
 [+st][-sl] [-st][+sl] [-st][+sl]

For [u] to become HL, we need to spread H from [i] across [d]. But this cannot be done, since the Laryngeal features of [d] should block the spreading. It is not possible to do the spreading suprasegmentally either, since the process in (16) takes place after tone-to-segments association.

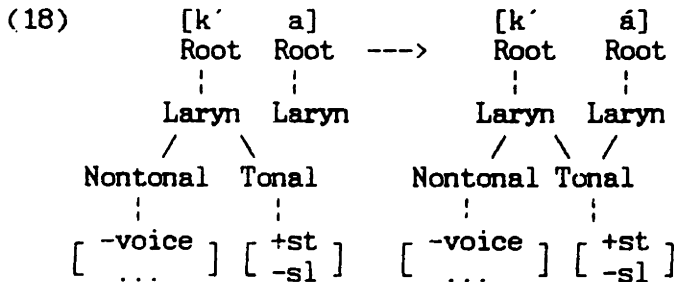
A third problem with the H&S model is that it cannot handle 'register', the importance of which is convincingly argued for in Yip (1980).

A fourth problem lies in H&S's account of tonogenesis, shown in (11). In this analysis, the transfer of onset voicing to the vowel inevitably gives rise to tones. However, in Mon-Khmer languages, this does not happen. Instead, the loss of onset voicing leads to a change in vowel quality and/or vowel height (cf. Gregerson 1976, Huffman 1976). We will return to this issue later.

Finally, it should be pointed out that there have been little experimental evidence for the features [st, sl], and so the H&S model largely remains a hypothesis. Despite the inadequacies, the strength of the H&S model remains, namely, it provides an articulatory theory that captures some relation between voicing and tone in a simple way.

3.1.3. Kingston & Solnit (1988) The model of Kingston & Solnit (1988, hence K&S) adopts the H&S features [st, sl], but does not identify them with voicing. Instead, [st, sl] are exclusively tonal features, which are independent of nontonal features such as [voice].

The greatest strength of the K&S model seems to lie in its account of tonogenesis and the register problem in Mon-Khmer (Gregerson 1976, Huffman 1976).⁴ K&S's account of tonogenesis is similar to that of the H&S model in that there is a spreading of [st, sl] from the onset to the vowel. For example, Tibetan [k'a]-->[k'á] may be represented as follows



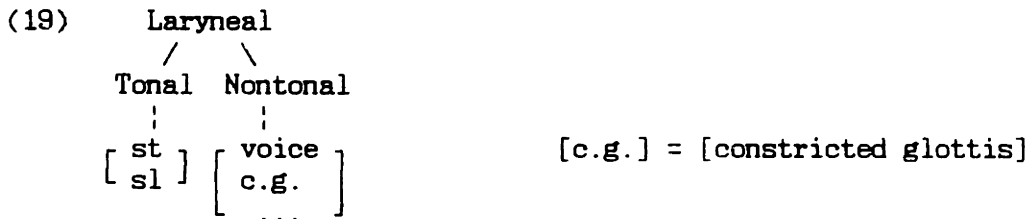
The Tonal node of [k'] spreads to [a], giving the latter a high tone. However, K&S differ from H&S in an important respect. For H&S, [st, sl] in consonants are their voicing features, and there are no other tonal features. But for K&S, consonants may not only have voicing features, but also tonal features, even in a non-tonal language, i.e. even if vowels have no tonal features. K&S suggest that whether consonants carry tones is a parametric option. While this suggestion may in principle be correct, it is counter-intuitive that consonants have tones when vowels do not.

Nevertheless, a separation of voicing from tone enables K&S to account for the Mon-Khmer register, a problem which H&S cannot handle. In many Mon-Khmer languages, the loss of onset voicing contrast has not lead to tonogenesis, but a split of vowel quality, or what is usually called 'register' (Gregerson 1976, Huffman 1976). Vowels of the 'first register' occur with (originally) [-voice] onsets, and vowels of the 'second register' occur with (originally) [+voice] onsets. Vowels of the first register are said to be 'clear, normal, head, tense, ...', while those of the second are 'deep, breathy, sepulchral, chest, ...'. In the analysis of K&S, this phenomenon may be seen as a spreading of the Nontonal node from the onset to the vowel, with subsequent delinking of the

⁴. K&S do not give derivations for tonogenesis or the Mon-Khmer register split, but the following is what they would say, to my understanding.

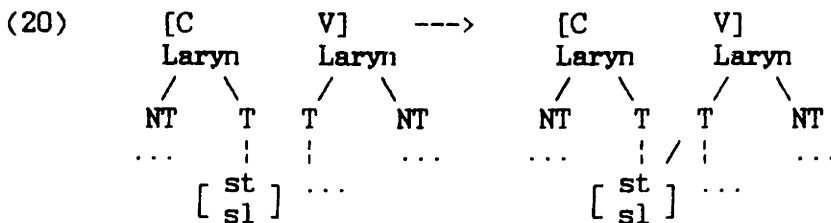
Nontonal node from the onset in some dialects, perhaps. Exactly what features are involved in this process are not discussed in K&S, however.

The K&S model has several problems. First, like the H&S model, it offers up to three tonal levels, too few for quite a number of reported languages. Second, it cannot capture the notion of tonal register (Yip 1980). Third, its representation misses an important concept in feature geometry, namely 'articulator'. Consider the K&S model again, repeated below



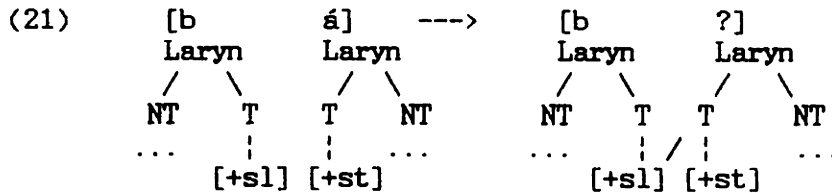
The Laryngeal node dominates two nodes, Tonal and Nontonal, which in turn dominate features. According to Sagey (1986), it is important that all features are dominated by 'articulators', which execute features. In the K&S model, however, it is not clear what articulators Tonal and Nontonal refer to.

A further problem lies in K&S's account of tone split, or what K&S call 'tonomitosiis'. In tonomitosiis, an original tone splits to two according to onset voicing. For example, a rising tone in Shanghai is, in Chao letters, 24 with [-voice] onsets but 13 with [+voice] onsets. Tone split may also be called register split, because the higher tone is now in the [+upper] register and the lower tone [-upper] register (Yip 1980). In K&S's view, tone split involves a spreading of [st, sl] from the onset to the vowel, as shown below (K&S, 23)

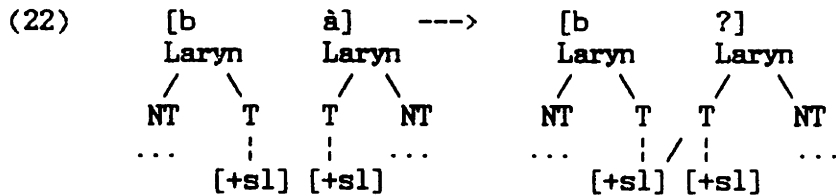


There are two problems with this representation. First, it is not the usual practice in feature geometry to spread a set of features at one step without a dominating node. Second, it is not clear whether the spreading should lower (or

raise) the tone on the vowel, or create a contour tone on it. For example, suppose [bá] undergoes tone split, we expect the H on [á] to be lowered. K&S will represent the process as below



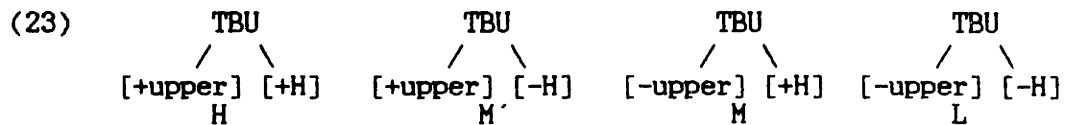
The resulting tone on [a] is [+sl, +st], or [L H]; this sequence, however, is usually interpreted as a rise (Sagey 1986, Yip 1980, 1989), instead of a lowered H. If [L H] is interpreted as M, in the fashion of Hyman (1989), one may ask how K&S would represent a rise. Similarly, in [bà], [b] may lower [à] still further, as in the case of Zulu depressor consonants (Doke 1924, Laughren 1984). K&S's representation of the process is the same



This time, after spreading, the resulting tone on [a] is [+sl, +sl], or [L L]. Again, it is not clear why this sequence should be interpreted as a lowered L, or why spreading should have taken place at all.

As a final comment, we note that for K&S, [voice] is independent of tone, or [st, sl]. In other words, K&S deny the widely held belief that there is a relation between [-voice] and higher tones, and between [+voice] and lower tones. In fact, K&S claim that in tone split, [+voice] onsets could give rise to lower tones and [-voice] onsets to higher tones, contrary to the popular belief. K&S's reason is that in many languages, syllables with originally [+voice] onsets now have higher tones, while syllables with originally [-voice] onsets now have lower tones. Yue-Hashimoto (1986) suggests that such cases are due to a process AFTER tone split, and not DURING tone split. She calls the post-split process tonal 'flip-flop'. We will come back to this issue in section 3.2.1. and show that there is evidence in Yue-Hashimoto's favor.

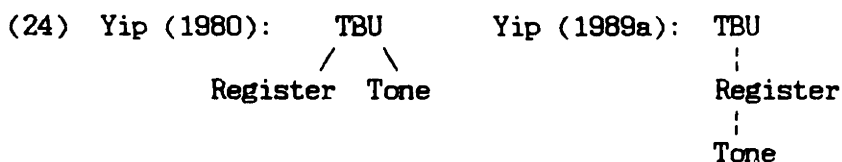
3.1.4. Yip (1980) The most important contribution of Yip (1980) is perhaps the notion of tonal register. This concept nicely captures the interrelations among tones. For example, if a language has four tone levels, H, M' (raised M), M and L, they will be represented as below



This model predicts that there are relations between H and M', both being [+upper], between M and L, both being [-upper], between H and M, both being [+H], and between M' and L, both being [-H]. All such relations are attested (cf. Yip 1980:44-50).

The major problem with Yip's (1980) model is that it does not reflect the interactions between consonants and tone. The retreat from the H&S position is largely due to the numerous problems facing the H&S model. However, the cost of this retreat is that Yip's (1980) model offers no explanation for tonogenesis, tone split, depressor consonants, and other segment-tone interactions.

3.1.5. Yip (1989a) and Hyman (1989) The model of Yip (1989a) is similar to that of Hyman (1989). They differ from that of Yip (1980) in one way, as shown below



While Register and Tone are in a sister relation in Yip (1980), they are in a dominance relation in Yip (1989a). This change is probably motivated by two reasons. First, there are cases where Register and Tone both spread. This means that Register and Tone should have a common node other than the TBU, since, in feature geometry, multiple spreadings are generally prohibited (Clements 1985). Second, while there are cases where both Register and Tone spread and where Tone spreads alone, there are few cases where Register spreads

alone. This is natural if Register dominates Tone.

The model of Yip (1989a) differs from that of Hyman (1989) in three ways. First, while Yip has two contrasts on each tier, Hyman has three, giving nine tonal levels; their representations, together with corresponding letters in traditional transcriptions, are shown below

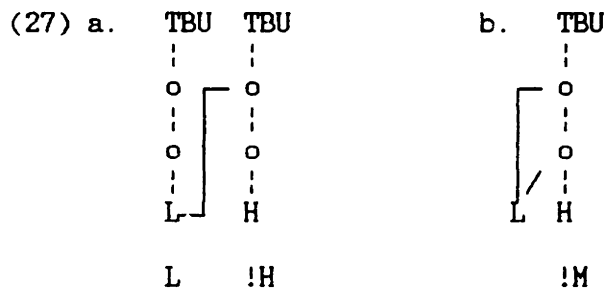
(25) Yip (1989a):	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU
Register:	[+upper]	[+upper]	[-upper]	[-upper]
Tone:	[+raised]	[-raised]	[+raised]	[-raised]
Letter:	H	M'	M	L

(26) Hyman (1989):	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU	TBU
Tonal Root:	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Tone:	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Letter:	H	L	M	!H	!L	!M	H'	L'	M'

'Tonal root' and Tone of Hyman correspond to Register and Tone of Yip respectively. !H, !M and !L refer to downstep H, M and L respectively, and H', L' and M' refer to raised H, M and L respectively. The difference in how many tonal levels each model provides is probably not a big issue, however. One may easily add more levels to Yip's model, pending empirical evidence.

The second difference is that, in Yip (1989a), the Register feature [upper] cannot spread without the Tone feature [raised], but in Hyman's model, [H] and [L] of the Tone Root tier may spread independent of [H] and [L] of the Tone tier. Bao (1990a) reports that in Wuyi, Register may spread independent of Tone. If this is true, then Yip's (1989a) model must be modified.

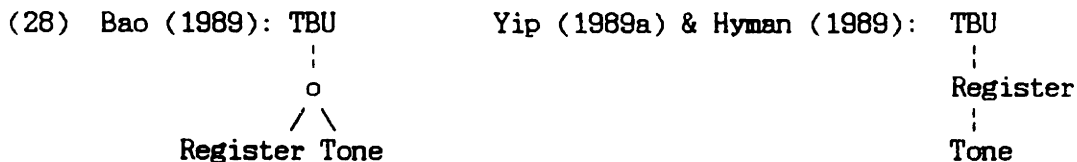
The third difference is that, in Yip (1989a), Register and Tone involve different features ([upper] v. [raised]), while in Hyman (1989) they are given the same features [H] and [L]. In fact, Hyman allows [H] and [L] to be linked to both tiers at the same time, as the following show (Hyman, p5, p7)



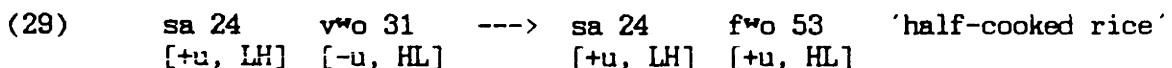
This system is justified only if Register and Tone have the same acoustic and/or articulatory correlates (say pitch or vocal cords tension). However, the phonetic study of Duanmu (1990) suggests that while Tone correlates with F_0 , Register mainly correlates to voice quality. If Duanmu is correct, Register and Tone must involve different features.

The models of both Yip (1989a) and Hyman (1989) inherit the strength of Yip's (1980) model in that they nicely reflect the interrelations among tones, but they also inherit the weakness of Yip (1980) in that little is said about segment-tone interactions.

3.1.6. Bao (1989) The model of Bao (1989) differs from those of Yip (1989a) and Hyman (1989) in one respect: in the former Register and Tone are sisters, while in the latter they are in a dominance relation, as shown below



The motivation for change, Bao argues, is that Register may spread independent of Tone. Consider Wuyi (Bao 1989, G. Fu 1984)⁵



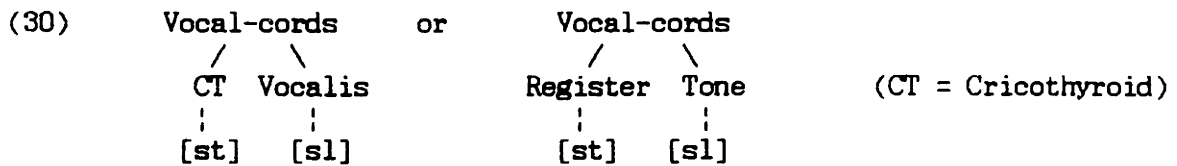
In (29), the register of the first syllable [sa] replaces that of the second [v^wo], changing [v^wo] from [31] to [53], i.e. changing the pitch range without

⁵ G. Fu and Bao write [vuo] and [fuo] for the word 'rice', which I write as [v^wo] and [f^wo], for reasons given in Chapter Two.

changing the contour. The additional change of [v]-->[f] will be explained later. Although independent Register spreading is rare, yet if it exists, Bao's move is justified.

Like Yip (1980, 1989a) and Hyman (1989), however, Bao's (1989) model does not reflect segment-tone interactions. This shortcoming is overcome in Bao (1990a).

3.1.7. Bao (1990a) The model of Bao (1990a), repeated below, incorporates the virtues of both the articulatory model of H&S and the register models of Yip (1980, 1989a), as well as elements from feature geometry



(31)

Features :	[+st, +sl]	[+st, -sl]	[-st, +sl]	[-st, -sl]
Vowel :	H	M'	M	L
Consonant:	[+voice]	[+voice]	[-voice]	[-voice]

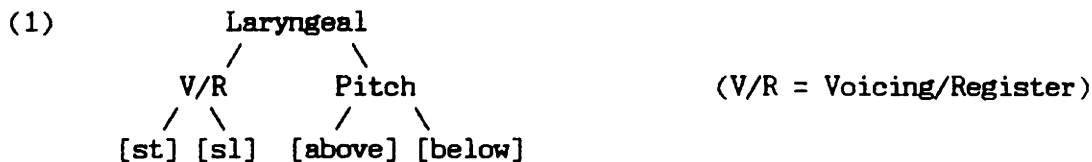
A similar model, though less articulated, was proposed earlier in Meredith (1988). Following Yip, Bao splits the tonal structure into two components, Register=CT and Tone=Vocalis. Following H&S, Bao adopts the features [st, sl] and identifies consonant voicing with Register, both being controlled by the CT node. Following Sagey (1986), Bao suggests that Register/voicing is executed by the articulator CT, and Tone by Vocalis. Bao's model gives two voicing contrasts and four tonal levels.

It is clear that Bao's model allows spreading of Register and Tone, of Register alone, and of Tone alone. It may also explain why the initial pitch of [a] is higher in [pa] and lower in [ba]. Although Bao does not discuss tonogenesis, tone split, depressor consonants, etc., such issues may also be handled, as we will see in the next section.

In my view, Bao's model in (30) is fundamentally correct. Except for a few minor changes, most of it will be adopted in the model I argue for below.

3.1.8. The Present Model The model I argue for is basically similar to

that of Meredith (1988) and Bao (1990a). It is repeated below



This model differs from (30) in a few ways. First, while (30) gives two voicing contrasts, (1) gives three. Evidence for three voicing states can be found in tone split and consonant blockers (Hyman & Schuh 1974), in which cases sonorants differ from [+voice] and [-voice] obstruents. Similarly, (1) permits three Pitch contrasts, for the reason that in languages like Yoruba, there are three tonal levels but little evidence of Register. Second, while Bao suggests that the articulator for Register/voicing is the cricothyroid muscles, and that that for Tone is the vocalis muscles, I do not find there to be clear evidence.⁶ Therefore I have labeled the articulators with non-articulatory terms, although, I speculate, V/R probably relates to the vocalis muscles and Pitch to the cricothyroid muscles (unlike Bao's speculations). Third, while Bao considers both Register and Tone to be of vocal cord tension, with an arbitrary choice of [st] for one and [sl] for the other, to me they should have different features. Specifically, V/R is probably related to vocal cord tension (thus [st, sl]), but Pitch probably is related to vocal cord thickness. Moreover, I use Pitch for Tone, not just to save 'tone' for the entire structure, but there is evidence that, while Register normally affects pitch, it primarily affects voice quality (cf. Duanmu 1990).

The features [above] and [below] are my own innovations. It is well-known that humans can articulate and perceive far more pitch levels than are found in tone languages. It is therefore misleading to use tonal features like [H] and [L], or [thick] and [thin], as if the vocal cords are restricted to such binary activities. However, the question remains why so few tonal levels are utilized

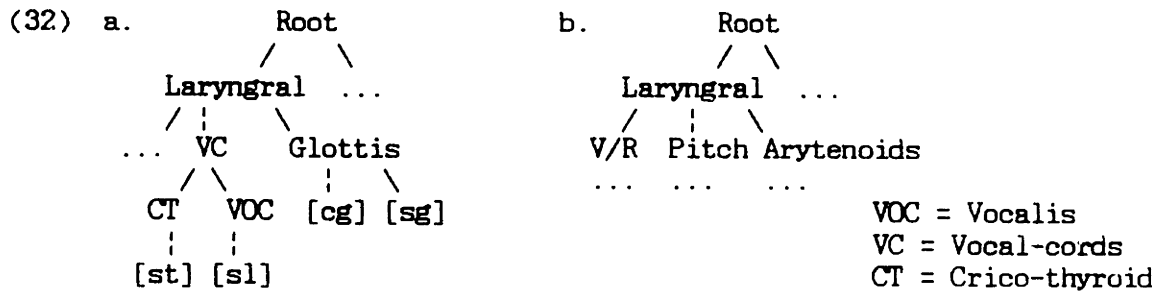
⁶ For example, there seem to be at least three ways to affect pitch, tensing the vocal cords by the vocalis muscles, stretching the vocal cords via cricothyroid muscles, and lowering the larynx (cf. Ohala 1978 for a review of the controversies). Phonologically, however, we seem to need just two notions, Register and Tone, and it is not clear which notion relates to which mechanism.

in human speech. The answer, I suggest, is twofold. First, humans are good at relative pitch, but poor at absolute pitch, both in generation and in perception. Second, people's pitch ranges differ from time to time, and from person to person. Thus, given a tone, it is hard to tell how high it is, and harder still to tell how high it is for a stranger. On the other hand, it is easy to tell a rise from a fall, even if the pitch change is very slight. The fact that the tone speaker rarely mislocates a tone level, even with strangers, suggests that what s/he depends on must be relative pitch. It is likely that the tone speaker is making use of a reference pitch level; any tone above it is H, below it L, and otherwise M. The key is, what supplies this reference level? I suggest that it is the onset. Acoustic studies show that tone (i.e. expected pitch contour) does not begin until the nuclear vowel, and that onsets, overall, remain at the mid pitch level (Kratochvil 1970, Howie 1976). Further support comes from the fact that tone languages usually have obligatory onsets, as I have independently argued for all Chinese languages. What is more, there is no tone language, to my knowledge, that has more than three tone levels without splitting them into two registers. Register in turn independently supplies voice quality cues (cf. Duanmu 1990). [above] and [below] intend to reflect the relative nature of tone and the importance of the onset. They refer to an effort by the Pitch articulator to move the pitch above, or below, the reference line, wherever this line is at a particular point.

(1) gives a total of nine tonal levels, same as given in Hyman (1989). There is, however, an important difference. To Hyman, the nine tonal levels are nine pitch levels, but to me, the case need not be so. It is true that in (1), the higher the register, the stiffer the vocal cords, and so the higher the pitch. But vocal cord stiffness (Register) may be offset by vocal cord thickness (Pitch), since the two mechanisms are independent. In particular, Duanmu (1990) shows that, in Shanghai, Register is always reflected by voice quality, but not always by pitch, and that tones in a higher register need not always be higher in pitch (though they usually are). If this finding has generality, then the nine tone levels are not distinguished by pitch alone. Instead, voice quality will split them in three Registers, and in each register, there are at most three pitch levels. Specifically, for any language that has more than three level tones, such as Black Miao and Tahua Yao Chang (1953), there should be

voice quality differences among the tones. I leave this prediction open.

A final difference between (30) and (1) lies in the position of tone in the overall feature geometry, as shown below



In (32a), from Bao (1990a,153), Laryngeal dominates VC and Glottis. While Glottis is an articulator, VC probably is not, since VC itself dominates two articulators CT and VOC; thus, there seems to be a confusion of levels. In my model (32b), Laryngeal dominates three articulators, V/R, Pitch and Arytenoids (controlling aspiration); this model predicts that when V/R and Pitch both spread, Arytenoids should go with them, since they are all under Laryngeal. Relevant evidence is not clear on this point, and I leave it open.

Incorporating the notion Register from Yip (1980), (1) can reflect the interrelations among tones. Incorporating [st, sl] from Halle & Stevens, (1) can explain why [a] has a higher initial pitch in [pa] and a lower initial pitch in [ba]. Let us now see how (1) accounts for more complicated facts in (7). For convenience, I will often write [H] for [above] and [L] for [below].

3.1.8.0. Too Many Contrasts? (1) gives up to nine level tones. To my knowledge, the largest number of underlying level tones in a language is five (Black Miao and Tahua Yao, in Chang 1953). Five out of nine is not an unreasonable ratio, considering how few segments a language uses out of the entire known inventory (cf. Maddieson 1984). Nevertheless, in bimoraic syllables, (1) in principle allows up to $9 \times 9 = 81$ contour tones, far exceeding the inventory in any language (most Chinese languages have below eight underlying syllable tones). What is more, if onset consonants also bear tones (Kingston & Solnit 1988), the potential number will go much higher.

To reduce the potential number to a realistic level, I suggest the following two universal constraints

- (33) a. Only segments in the rime (bearing a mora) can be assigned Pitch.
 b. One Register per syllable.

(33a) has been a widespread assumption, and (33b) has been proposed in Yip (1980, 1989a) and Bao (1989, 1990a). Both constraints have broad empirical support.⁷ But why should there be these constraints? The explanation for (33a), I suggest, is that onsets have the function of supplying the reference pitch level, so they cannot be TBU any more (cf. our earlier discussions of [above] and [below]). The explanation for (33b) is that tonal registers come from onset voicing during tone split, and there is just one onset in each syllable. Of course, further questions remain: why do vowels not have their own V/R before tone split? Are all tone languages derived from non-tone languages? I have to leave these questions open.

3.1.8.1. Spreading It is clear that (1) allows the spreading of V/R and Pitch, V/R alone, or Pitch alone. In addition, (1) predicts that consonants are usually transparent to Pitch spreading, but opaque to V/R spreading; this is because consonants usually have the V/R node, but not the Pitch node (unless they occur in the rime). This explains why long distance Pitch spreading is common (Sietzema 1989), but long distance V/R (Register) spreading is rare. When V/R does spread, it must change the voicing of the intervening consonants. This can be seen in Wuyi, repeated below

7. (33) reduces potential bimoraic tones to $3 \times 3 = 9$ without Register, or $3 \times 3 \times 3 = 27$ with Register. There is likely a further constraint that pitches contrast by direction and not by degree. I have already argued that H, L and M do not contrast by their absolute heights, but by their being rising, falling and leveling, respectively, from the onset pitch. Similarly, pitch alone should not contrast [53] and [51] nor [13] and [15], unless there are other cues. For example, Igbo contrasts [HM] and [HL] on single syllables, but to my ear [HM] is [533] and [HL] is [51] in Chao letters; [HM] (or [H!H], from [HLH]) is clearly longer and has a period of leveling after the initial fall, while [HL] is a straight fall. (Thanks to P. Ihionu for discussions and for being the informant.) If this additional constraint is correct, there are just $9 - 2 = 7$ bimoraic tones without Register, or $3 \times 7 = 21$ with Register; both seem to be reasonable numbers.

- (14) sa 24 v^wo 31 ---> sa 24 f^wo 53 'half-cooked rice'
 [+u, LH] [-u, HL] [+u, LH] [+u, HL]

When the second syllable changes from the lower register [-u] to the upper register [+u], its onset changes voicing, too. The representation is as follows

- (34)
- | | | | | | | | |
|-----|----------------|-------|-----|-----|----------------|------|-----|
| 24 | v ^w | o | --- | 24 | f ^w | o | 53 |
| [s | a | o] | | [s | a | o] | |
| ... | [+u] | [-u] | | ... | [+u] | [+u] | |
| | V-C | V-C | | | V-C | V-C | V-C |
| | | | | | | | |
| | V/R | V/R | | | V/R | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| | [+st] | [+sl] | | | [+st] | | |

Let us ignore the issue of contour tone here, and focus on how V/R spreads from [a] across [v^w] to [o]. Since [v^w] and [o] already have V/R, the only way to do it is to replace their V/R nodes with that of [a], changing [v^w] to [f^w] and [o 31] to [o 53].⁶

⁶ There is also an alternative analysis. First consider additional data in Wuyi (Fu, p114, [-u]=[+sl], [+u]=[+st])

- (i) Hneng 213 kau 53 --> Hneng 213 kau 53 (*Hneng 213 gau 31)
 [-u] [+u] [-u] [+u] [-u] [-u]

[Hn] indicates murmured [n], which we assume to be [-u]. There is no [-u] spreading in (29). In other words, [+u] spreads, but [-u] does not. We may stipulate this as a language particular asymmetry. But there is a better solution. Following the theory of underspecification, we may assume that, in both consonants and vowels, only [+st] is specified underlyingly, but [+sl] is not. Thus, [+u] may spread across [v^w] because [v^w] has no V/R node; there is no [-u] spreading because [-u] is unspecified, as shown below

- (ii) a.
- | | | | | | | |
|-------|----------------|------|-----|-------|----------------|------|
| a | v ^w | o | --- | a | f ^w | o |
| [+u] | | [-u] | | [+u] | | [+u] |
| V-C | V-C | V-C | | V-C | V-C | V-C |
| | | | | | | |
| V/R | | | | V/R | | |
| | | | | | | |
| [+st] | | | | [+st] | | |

- b. ...ng k a ... --> (no change)
 [-u] [+u]
 V-C V-C
 | |
 V/R V/R
 | |
 [+st] [+st]

In (iia), V/R spreads, because nothing blocks it. In (iib) V/R does not spread, because there is nothing to spread (from [...ng]). There is therefore no [-u]

3.1.8.2. Translation from Chao Letters In Yip (1980,1989a) both Register and Tone are properties of pitch. The translation from Chao letters is simple

Register	Tone	Chao Letters
[+upper]	[+high]	} 5 } 4 } 3 } 2 } 1
	[-high]	
[-upper]	[+high]	
	[-high]	

All tones above 3 are [+upper], and all below 3 are [-upper]. It is, however, very common that [+upper] tones overlap in pitch with [-upper] tones. For example, Shanghai has two rising tones [24] and [13] (Xu et al 1981). [24] is [+upper], and [13] [-upper]. Yet the initial pitch of [24] is lower than the final pitch of [13]. Similarly, what is called [53] in Shanghai in fact spans the entire pitch range, although it is [+upper] (cf. Zee & Maddieson 1979 and Duanmu 1990 for F⁰ contours). Such overlaps must be attributed to phonetic effects by Yip, as well as by Hyman (1989) and Bao (1989, 1990a).

In my system, Register is primarily a voicing property; its effect on pitch is secondary. There is thus no rigid relation between Register and F₀, nor is there a simple translation from Chao letters. For me, a rise in the upper register normally has a higher overall pitch than a rise in the lower register, but some overlap is possible. For level tones, I predict that [+st,+H] normally has a higher pitch than [+sl,+H], but [+st,+L] may or may not have a higher pitch than [+sl,+H]. In a language with four tones, Yip has one translation, but I have (at least) two

(35)		[55]	[33]	[22]	[11]
	Yip, Bao:	[+u,+H]	[+u,-H]	[-u,+H]	[-u,-H]
	Duanmu :	i. [+st,+H]	[+st,-H]	[+sl,+H]	[+sl,-H]
		ii. [+st,+H]	[+sl,+H]	[+st,-H]	[+sl,-H]

In particular, I entertain (ii), where [33] is in the lower register and [22] in the upper.

and [+u] asymmetry.

Tones like [51] and [15] are not permitted in Yip (1980), because every tone must be either [+upper] or [-upper], and so no tone should cross the mid-pitch 3. Thus, Mandarin [51] is modified to [53] (cf. Yip 1980:283-284).⁹ The problem with this analysis is that too many tones must be modified. In his survey of Chinese dialects, Packard (1989,20) finds that 33% of all contour tones cross the mid-pitch 3. This ratio, Packard argues, is too high to be attributed to phonetic effects. The solution, Packard suggests, is to allow a syllable to have two values for Register. The problem with Packard's analysis is that it fails to reflect the fact that Register comes from onset voicing during tone split, and so it is hard to explain where the second Register value comes from. In my analysis, there is no need to modify [51], [15], etc., and so no need to posit two Register values per syllable. For me the relation between Register and Fo is not rigid, so there is no prohibition on crossing the mid-pitch. Besides, for me a language need not have Register at all (or have [-st,-sl] for all tones); in this case [LH] may well be [15] and [HL] may be [51]. I suspect that many Northern dialects, such as Mandarin, belong to this kind.

3.1.8.3. Mon-Khmer Register and Tonogenesis The loss of onset voicing contrast may either lead to a change in vowel quality, as in Mo-Khmer, or to tonogenesis, as in Tibetan. It has been a major puzzle how the same source may lead to two outcomes. Below I show that (1) can provide an account.

3.1.8.3.1. The Mon-Khmer Register In Mon-Khmer languages, historical onset voicing is often lost. But unlike in Lhasa Tibetan, the loss of onset voicing has not led to tonogenesis in Mon-Khmer, but to a split in vowel quality. Mon-Khmer vowels are divided into two 'registers'. The first and second registers occur with (originally) voiceless and voiced onsets respectively. Vowels in different registers have different voice qualities and/or height; relevant facts are summarized below (from Gregerson 1976:323)

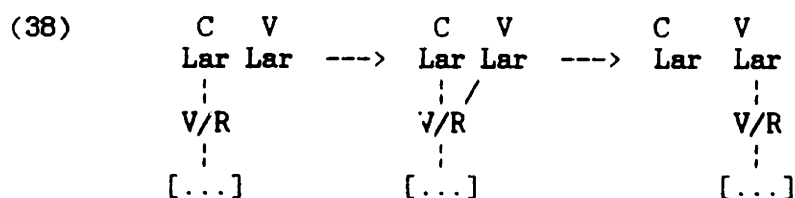
⁹ Yip argues that in words like da(T4) shu(T4) 'big tree', the first T4 is [53], so T4 is underlyingly [53]; the fact that T4 is [51] in final positions is due to 'a phonetic detail'. However, T4 is [51] not only finally but also nonfinally, as in dian(T4) ying(T3) 'movie' and bian(T4) le 'changed'. It is the [53] da(T4) shu(T4) that is more likely due to phonetic effects, partly because in such words, the first syllable has less stress (Chao 1988:29).

(36)	Onset	Vowel Quality	Vowel Height	Pitch
First Register	(original) surd	normal head clear tense	more open, onglided	relatively higher
Second Register	(original) sonant	deep breathy sepulchral chest relaxed	close, centering diphthongs	relatively lower (larynx also lowered)

Gregerson's descriptions are largely in non-phonetic terms, since the exact mechanisms of the larynx remain poorly unknown. Nevertheless, a sketchy outline can be drawn. Suppose, following Halle & Stevens, that the vocal cords are stiff in voiceless obstruents and slack in voiced obstruents, a transfer of these properties to the vowel will lead to 'normal and clear' quality and 'relatively higher' pitch in the former, and 'deep, breathy and relaxed' quality and 'relatively lower' pitch in the latter. Moreover, it is well-known that the pharyngeal cavity is narrowed in voiceless obstruents, and widened in voiced obstruents. This may have lead to 'more open' vowels after voiceless obstruents, due to retracted tongue root, and more 'close' vowels after voiced obstruents, due to advanced tongue root, via enhancement. After the changes in vowel height, the voice quality (due to vocal cord tension), i.e. 'clear' v. 'breathy', or in our terms [+st] v. [+sl], become redundant and may then drop out. This is what happened to modern Cambodian, according to Huffman (1974:57-8), who suggests the following stages

- (37)
- Stage 1: voicing distinctions on onsets; no vowel differentiation.
 - Stage 2: voicing distinctions on onsets; with complementary register (i.e. voice quality) split in vowels.
 - Stage 3: optional loss of onset voicing; register split in vowels becoming distinctive.
 - Stage 4: full loss of onset voicing; registers remain fully distinctive on vowels.
 - Stage 5: changes in vowel height and diphthongization; loss of register contrast.

In his survey of Mon-Khmer, Huffman found 'each of the five stages mirrored in one or more of the fifteen languages' he looked at. Ignoring Stage 3 and 5, the development of modern Cambodian is represented in our analysis as follows



Mon-Khmer register will help us understand tonogenesis. But before then, we need to introduce discuss the notion 'acoustic enhancement', proposed recently by Stevens & Keyser (1989).

3.1.8.3.2. Enhancement In feature geometry, features that appear and disappear together during assimilation processes are grouped under the same node. Assimilation processes, therefore, are each seen as the spreading of a node (cf. Clements 1985). An additional merit of feature geometry is that the feature groupings turn out to match human articulators; this coincidence, in Halle's words, 'is a fact of some significance' (Halle 1988:9).

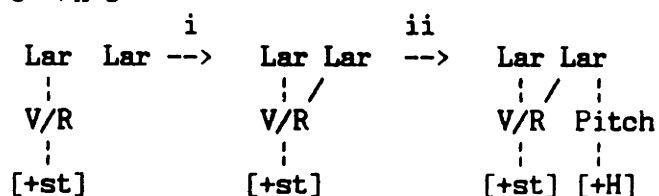
There are, however, many cooccurrence relations that feature geometry fails to capture. For example, cross-linguistically, [+stiff vocal cords] and [+spread glottis] (or [-voice] and [+aspirated]) tend to cooccur, and [+slack vocal cords] and [-spread glottis] (or [+voice] and [-aspirated]) tend to cooccur. But feature geometry has nothing to say as about such relations. Similarly, cross-linguistically, front vowels tend to be unrounded and back vowels tend to be rounded, but feature geometry is again unable to give any explanation. Note that the cooccurring features [back] and [round] belong to different articulators (Dorsal and Labial), which in feature geometry have little to do with each other.

Stevens & Keyser suggest that the above cooccurrence relations may be captured by the notion 'acoustic enhancement'. For example, back vowels have longer front cavity, which gives a lower formant; lip rounding will make the front cavity still longer, which gives a even lower formant. [+round], therefore, acoustically enhances [+back]. On the other hand, front vowels have a shorter front cavity, which gives a higher formant; unrounding the lips will make the front cavity still shorter, which gives a even higher formant. [-round], therefore, enhances [-back]. Similarly, aspiration enhances voicelessness and lack

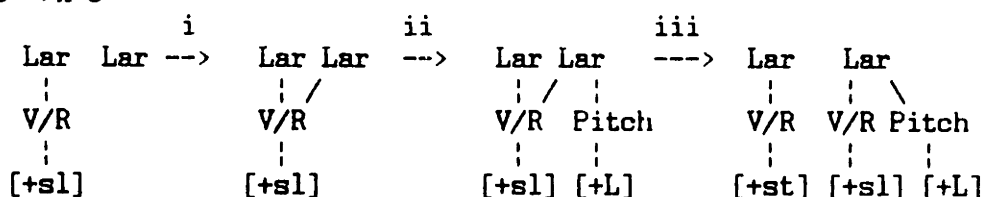
of aspiration enhances voicedness. Enhancement offers a vital supplement to feature geometry by capturing cooccurrence relations that are left out in the latter. It also offers the basis for redundancy rules. For example, [-back] and [-round] need not both be specified; specifying one will trigger the specification of the other. We will see below that enhancement plays a key role in our account of tonogenesis and blocker consonants.

3.1.8.3.3. Tonogenesis We now turn to tonogenesis. Recall that in Kingston & Solnit's analysis, tonogenesis happens when the onset spreads its tonal features to the vowel. Their analysis assumes that in classic Tibetan consonants have tones while vowels do not. This assumption is highly counter-intuitive, and unsupported by independent evidence. I will now offer a different analysis. I will assume that in non-tonal languages vowels are unspecified for Pitch, and that onsets are universally unspecified for Pitch. Below is the analysis of Tibetan tonogenesis (Hu 1980)

(39) a. $k^h o \rightarrow k^h \acute{o}$



b. $g o \rightarrow k^h \acute{o}$



Let us look at (39a) first. In step (i), $[k^h]$ has its V/R [o]. In step (ii), which is the crucial step, the vowel acquires [+H], triggered by [+st]. This step has no explanation in feature geometry, but as we have already discussed, it can be accounted for by 'enhancement'; both [+st] and [+H] enhance high pitch, and so the presence of one tends to trigger the other as a redundancy rule. Note that the onset does not acquire [+H] by acoustic enhancement, for the reason that, universally perhaps, onsets do not bear tones. (39b) is accounted for in the same way, except $[g]$ further devoices to become $[k^h]$ by another rule.

All the four stages in (39) are attested. The first stage, before V/R spreading, corresponds to classic Tibetan. The second stage, between (i) and (ii), corresponds to Mon-Khmer languages, where vowels show voice quality split but no tone. The third stage, between (ii) and (iii), corresponds to Xiahe and other Amdo Tibetan dialects, in which voicing is not yet lost and vowels carry 'habitual tones' (Hu 1980). The last stage, after (iii), corresponds to Lhasa and other Weizang dialects, where onset voicing is lost.

3.1.8.4. Tone Split and Depressor Consonants A good case of tone split is seen in Shanghai, in which onset voicing causes a register split

(40) Upper song 24 'give' so: 24 'sun-bathe'
 Lower zong 13 'heavy' zo: 13 'tea'

As the Chao letters show, all four words are rising; [song] and [so:] are high rises, and [zong] and [zo:] low rises. Historically, the four words had the same tones; now their tones are split according to onset voicing. Voiceless onsets, as in [song] and [so:], give rise to the upper register, and voiced onsets, as in [zong] and [zo:], give rise to the lower register. In our analysis, tone split on [song] and [zong] can be represented as follows

(41) a. [s o ng] [s o ng]
 Lar Lar Lar ---> Lar Lar Lar
 | | | | | |
 V/R Pitch Pitch V/R Pitch Pitch
 | | | | | |
 [+st] [+L] [+H] [+st] [+L] [+H]

b. [z o ng] [z o ng]
 Lar Lar Lar ---> Lar Lar Lar
 | | | | | |
 V/R Pitch Pitch V/R Pitch Pitch
 | | | | | |
 [+sl] [+L] [+H] [+sl] [+L] [+H] [H]=[above]
 [L]=[below]

We assume that, universally, onsets are unspecified for Pitch features, and that before register split, rime segments are unspecified for V/R features. The V/R node of the onset is then spread to the nuclear vowel, and probably further to the coda (which we have not shown). The V/R node is not yet deleted from the

onset in Shanghai, so register is not yet fully distinctive.¹⁰ But onset voicing is lost in many other Chinese languages, such as Cantonese, leaving register a distinctive feature.

Our account of tone split can be applied to Bantu 'depressor consonants', which are voiced obstruents that lower the tone of a neighboring vowel (cf. Laughren 1984 and references cited there). In Laughren's analysis (p209), depressor consonants have the feature [+slack vocal cords]; this is in agreement with our analysis. Consider a case in Zulu (Laughren, p210)

- (42) a. 3 2 2-8 9 b. 6 6 3-8 9
 isihla: lo 'seat' izihla: lo 'seats'
 | √ √ √ | √
 L H L L! H L (L! = extra L)

The numbers indicate pitch, with 1 being the highest and 9 the lowest. We see that the initial vowel is 3 in (42a) but 6 in (42b); this is because [z] is a depressor, which lowers L to extra L. The extra L of the first vowel is later spread to the second vowel by an independent rule. In our analysis, the pitch lowering effect can be seen as V/R spreading from the depressor to the vowel. For illustration, we show the changes in the first two segments

- (43)
- | | | | | |
|-------|-------|------|-------|-------|
| i | z | | i | z |
| L | | | L! | |
| Lar | Lar | ---> | Lar | Lar |
| | | | | |
| Pitch | V/R | | Pitch | V/R |
| | | | | |
| [+L] | [+sl] | | [+L] | [+sl] |
- [L]=[below]

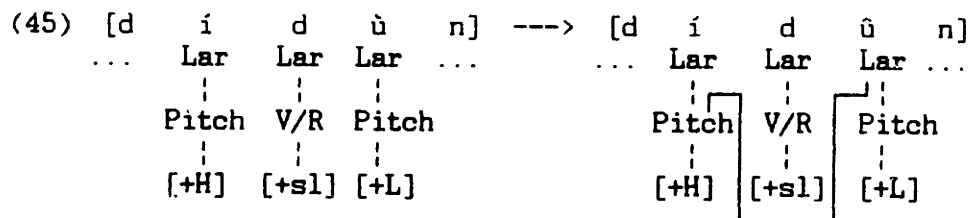
Although Zulu depressor consonants may push an adjacent H away, as seen in (42), they do not lower H tones. This is show below (Laughren, p219)

- (44)
- | | | | |
|------------|---------|-------------|-------------|
| um!fazi... | 'woman' | i!nkunzi... | 'bull' |
| / √ | | √ | |
| H L H L | | H L H L | (*H L H! L) |

¹⁰ In Shanghai, tone split happens in initial and isolated syllables only. For older speakers the onset voicing contrast is still maintained, but for many younger speakers onset voicing is neutralized. In non-initial syllables, the onset voicing contrast is maintained for both speakers, and there is no tone split.

In (44), the depressor [z] has no effect; it does not lower H. It is not clear whether depressors ever lower H in other languages. In any case, we need to explain why [+sl, +H] does not occur in Zulu. The answer, I suggest, lies in enhancement. [+sl] and [+H] disagree in enhancement; the former lowers pitch, while the latter raises it. It is natural, therefore, that [+sl,+H] is ruled out in Zulu, for the same reason that [+round,-back] is ruled out in English.

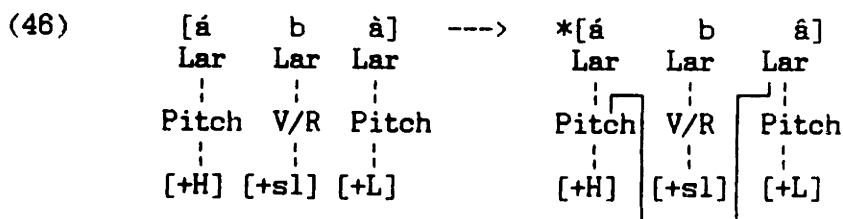
3.1.8.5. Blocker Consonants I have assumed that onsets are universally unspecified for Pitch. They are, therefore, transparent for Pitch spreading. This is true in many languages, such as in Yoruba (Pulleyblank 1986:110), where H and L may spread across any consonant. Below is an example



There are, however, languages in which consonants may block tone. Blocker consonants are reported in Nupe and Ngizim (Hyman & Schuh 1974), repeated below

- (12) a. [ápá] ---> [ápá] (*[àbā]) b. [ápà] ---> [ápà]
 c. [àbá] ---> [àbà] d. [ábà] ---> [ábà] (*[ábâ])
 e. [àwá] ---> [àwà] f. [áwà] ---> [áwà]

[p] blocks L-spreading, [b] blocks H-spreading, while [w] blocks neither. In (12a). Consider (12d) first, whose derivation is as follows



Ignoring Supralaryngeal feayres, (45) and (46) are exactly alike. Why then is (45) good and (46) bad? This is a problem for any theory. We must propose a language particular rule by which [+sl] blocks [+H]. But why is there such a rule? Why, for example, do we NOT find [+st] blocking [+H]? The answer, I suggest, again lies in enhancement. [+H] and [+st] enhance each other, both

giving higher pitch, so they are likely to occur on the same segment; the same is true for [+L] and [+sl]. On the other hand, [+H] and [+sl], or [+L] and [+st], disagree in enhancement, so they are less likely to occur on the same segment. Enhancement, however, is not a principle, but a tendency. A tendency may be observed in some languages but not in others.

We can now see why [+H] may spread across [+sl] in Yoruba but not in Nupe and Ngizim. Suppose that, when a feature F spreads across a segment S, S acquires F by phonetic percolation, [b] in (45) and (46) will then acquire [+H] after the spreading, i.e. [b] will be [+H, +sl]. Nupe and Ngizim apparently disallows such a combination, due to enhancement incompatibility; Yoruba, on the other hand, apparently tolerates it. The same explanation may be given to (12a).

3.1.9. Summary I have compared seven tonal models, (1) and (6a-f), in detail against a wide range of facts summarized in (7). I have shown that only (1) successfully accounts for all the facts.

3.2. Tonal 'Flip-Flop' In our tonal model, voicing is identified with Register, so in tone split, there is a relation of 'voiceless-high' and 'voiced-low', i.e. voiceless onsets should lead to higher tones, and voiced onsets to lower tones. Yue-Hashimoto (1986) notes that, although we generally find voiceless-high and voiced-low, it is not uncommon to find voiceless-low and voiced-high, i.e. tones with historically voiceless onsets are now lower than tones with historically voiced onsets. Let us call the latter case 'Register-reversal'. In her survey of 997 Chinese dialects, Yue-Hashimoto found 340 cases of Register-reversal in 'citation tones', i.e. tones on isolated syllables. Her survey is summarized below (Yue-Hashimoto 1986:164)

(47)	Dialect Family	Number of Dialects	Ping	Shang	Qu	Ru
	Northern	[782]	217	0	3	6
	Xiang	[77]	5	0	3	0
	Gan	[46]	14	0	3	9
	Yue	[39]	5	0	2	4
	Hakka	[19]	3	0	0	16
	Min	[39]	7	4	20	18
	Wu	[49]	0	0	0	0

Ping, Shang, Qu and Ru are names of the four classic Chinese tones before tone split. Most dialects do not show Register-reversal; for example, in the Northern family, there are 226 reversed tones out of 782 dialects, where each dialect may have up to eight tones). Nevertheless, the number of reversals (340 in all) is significantly large that it poses a potential problem for the generalization of voiceless-high and voiced-low.

Kingston & Solnit (1988) argue that Register-reversal is evidence that there is no relation between voicing and Register (in their words between voicing and tone). Yue-Hashimoto, on the other hand, argues that voiceless-high and voiced-low is universally true, and that Register-reversal is due to tonal 'flip-flop' (a notion from Wang 1967), which takes place after tone split. Yue-Hashimoto's position depends on two crucial points: first, Register-reversal happens AFTER tone split, and second, there is independent evidence of flip-flop rules. As we will see, both points are correct.

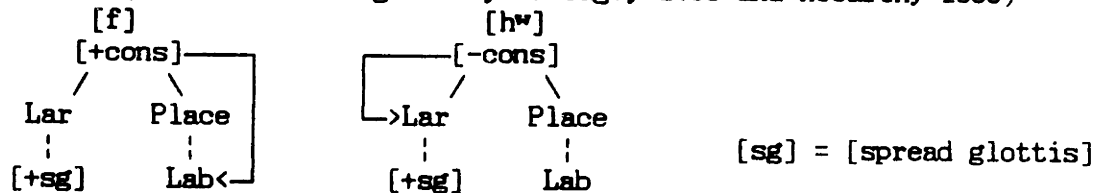
We look at tonal flip-flop first, which is an instance of a more general 'switching rule' $[aF] \rightarrow [-aF]$, where $[F]$ is any feature. If switching rules exist, it is then natural to assume tonal flip-flop, such as $[+H] \rightarrow [-H]$, $[+sl] \rightarrow [-sl]$, etc. Independent switching rules are not unusual. A well-known case is the Great Vowel Shift in English (Chomsky & Halle 1968). Another case is found between Santai and Mandarin, where $[h^w]$ switches with $[f]$

(48)	Mandarin	Santai	
	hwei	fei	'ashes'
	fei	hwei	'to fly'
	hwang	fang	'yellow'
	fang	hwang	'house'
	hei	he	'black'
	hao	hao	'good'

What is $[h^w]$ in Mandarin, which preserves the older onsets, has changed to $[f]$ in Santai, and $[f]$ to $[h^w]$. A simple $[h]$ in Mandarin, however, does not change to $[f]$ in Santai.¹ Note that there is no apparent trigger for the switch. Thus, there is no theoretical problem to assume tonal flip-flop, even if there is no apparent trigger.

Let us now look at the time of tonal flip-flop. As Yue-Hashimoto notes, all languages that exhibit tonal flip-flop has lost onset voicing contrast, an observation that is also confirmed by Kingston and Solnit (p33). Consider (47) again. There is one family, the Wu family, in which Register-reversal has not taken place. This is no accident. Of all families, only Wu has preserved onset voicing contrast; all the others have lost it. This fact supports the assumption that Register-reversal took place after tone split.

¹ The switch between $[h^w]$ and $[f]$ may be one of the value of $[cons]$, as shown below (in the feature geometry of Sagey 1986 and McCarthy 1988)



The two representations are identical, except in the value of $[cons]$ and the pointer. However, the pointer switch follows from $[cons]$ switch, since $[+cons]$ cannot have Laryngeal as the major articulator, nor can $[-cons]$ have Labial as the major articulator.

There are three further points of interest about (47). First, in the Northern family, Register-reversal occurs mostly with Ping. This is because in this family the other three tones often have not undergone split. Second, in the Min family, there is a much higher rate of Register-reversal than in other families, and it occurs with all of Ping, Shang, Qu and Ru. There are, however, two special properties of Min dialects. First, Min has domain final stress (cf. Wright 1983, Chen 1987). Second, there is extensive tone sandhi in nonfinal positions, but as Yue-Hashimoto notes (p167)

(A)ll of the Min dialects show a reversal of pitch values in tone sandhi--namely, the Yin (i.e. voiceless onset) tone is higher in pitch and the Yang (i.e. voiced onset) tone is lower in pitch. Moreover, tone sandhi may involve either the Yin or the Yang or both categories, but still results in a higher overall pitch for the Yin category and a lower overall pitch for the Yang category.

In other words, although many citation tones show voiceless-low and voiced-high, in non-final positions all tones are voiceless-high and voiced-low. This fact has led Woo (1969), Hashimoto (1982) and Ting (1982) to suggest that the underlying tone of a Min syllable is the nonfinal tone, not the final or citation tone; the final tone undergoes Register-reversal probably due to the final stress, as Yue-Hashimoto suggests.²

For the third point, we note that in Hakka Register-reversal occurs mostly with Ru. We expect, following the analysis of Min, that in nonfinal positions, the

². The fact that extra stress may cause pitch reversal is perhaps also true in English. For example, English stressed syllables normally have high pitch and unstressed ones low pitch. But if one wants to emphasize the entire sentence, i.e. in a sense put extra stress on every syllable, there can be a pitch reversal, as shown below

	what	a	good	i-dea	
Stress	*	.	*	.	*
Normal Pitch	H	L	H	L	H(L)
Emphatic Pitch	L	H	L	H	L

* = stress
(L) = final pitch drop

	(...the best way to survive an accident,)	is not to get in-to one
Stress	.	* . * . . *
Normal Pitch	L H L H L L H(L)	
Emphatic	H L H L H H L	

The emphatic form of the second sentence is heard from a TV commercial.

[N] is in the rime. Similarly, in (53b), the third tone [L] is carried by [p], even though [p] is an obstruent and voiceless. That [N] and [p] carry [L] is supported by the fact that the last vowel [a] in (53a,b) carry [H]; if [N] and [p] did not carry [L], it should appear on the final [a], as in (52a).

Many Chinese languages have Ru syllables, whose coda is one of [p t k ?]. For Woo, Ru syllables have just one TBU, the nucleus, but for me all Ru syllables should have two TBUs, the nucleus and the coda. 'Ru tones' (i.e. tones on Ru syllables) phonetically differ significantly from 'non-Ru tones', not only because the pitch on [p t k ?] can not be heard, but also because the [p t k ?] codas are usually glottalized, hence obscuring the pitch on the nuclear vowel as well. For this reason, traditional analyses usually list Ru tones separately from non-Ru tones. However, phonologically, many Ru tones are no different from non-Ru tones. Consider a case in Shanghai (Xu et al 1981, in Chao letters)

(54)	Monosyllabic	Bisyllabic	Trisyllabic	Quadrisyllabic
A:	34	33 44	33 55 31	33 55 33 31
B:	5	3 44	3 55 31	3 55 33 31
	LH	L H	L H L	L H L L

B [5] is a Ru tone, whose coda is [?]; A [34] is a non-Ru tone. Both A and B are upper register tones. A and B give the same phrasal patterns [L H (L...)]. Since in Shanghai, the tones of a phrase come from the initial syllable, it is reasonable to consider both A and B as [LH]. In a phrase, [H] spreads to the second syllable; further syllables get [L] as default (cf. Selkirk & Shen 1988, Duanmu 1988). The fact that B is a short [5] (or [4] according to the Fo measurements of Zee & Maddieson 1979:99) must be due to the fact that [H] on the coda [?] cannot be heard, and that [?] has glottalized the nuclear vowel.

If the [p t k] codas can bear tone, there is the question of whether they should change to [b d g] when the tone is in the lower register, i.e. [+sl]. In my analysis, they should, because [+sl] is [+voice]. However, no traditional transcription indicates such change. There are two explanations. First, the Register value of a syllable may be carried by the nucleus alone, and need not be spread to the coda. Second, Chinese [p t k] codas are unreleased, so even if there is voicing changes in them, the change will not be heard, and naturally, not transcribed.

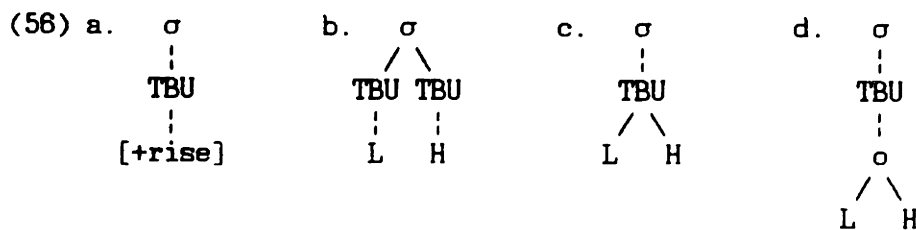
Taiwanese gives further evidence of obstruent TBUs. In Taiwanese, a syllable changes its (citation) tone when it occurs in nonfinal positions. Two tones of interest to us are shown below (Tsay 1990)

(55)		Citation/Final	Nonfinal
	Yang Ru	2	4 / 53
	Yin Qu	11	53

Ru tones are short, shown by underline. Qu tones do not have obstruent codas and are long. Let us assume, for exposition, that the nonfinal tone is the sandhi tone. For [2], there are two changes. When the coda is [ʔ], it is dropped and the new tone is a long [53]; when the coda is [p t k], the new tone is a short [4]. The question is, why does [2] have different outputs? Looking at [11]-->[53], we see an answer: there is just one rule for both [2] and [11], namely, they both are [L] (in the lower register) in citation, and they both change to [HL] (in the upper register) in nonfinal positions. We hear [53] as [4] on a syllable with a [p t k] coda, because the [L] is carried by the coda and cannot be heard.

If all Chinese syllables are bimoraic, and if the tone on the [p t k ʔ] codas cannot be heard, then all Ru syllables should appear with a level tone only. However, it has been widely noted that in Cantonese, a Ru syllable may under certain conditions carry a rising tone (cf. Yip 1980). We will come back to this issue in section 3.6.

3.4. Contour Tone Unit (CTU) When a syllable carries a contour tone, such as a rise, there are four possibilities, as shown below



In (56a) [rise] is a primitive feature (cf. W. Wang 1967). In (56b) there are two TBUs, each bearing one tone. In (56c) there is one TBU, which bears two tones. In (56d), there is one TBU, which also bears two tones, but the two

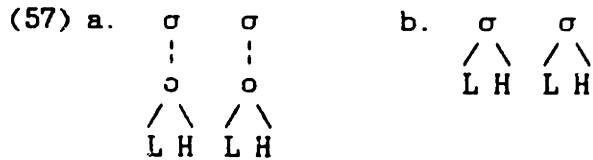
forms a unit. Due to the criticisms of Woo (1969), Yip (1980), Williams (1976) and others, I will not consider (56a). Strictly speaking, (56b) is not a contour tone, so I will not consider it either. (56c) concerns whether a TBU may bear more than one tone, to which we will return later. Here we focus on whether the contour tone unit (CTU), as in (56d), is justified.

CTU has been proposed, though not always formalized, by many people, among them, Pike (1948), W. Wang (1967), Fromkin (1972), Gandor & Fromkin (1978) (but see Maddieson 1979), M. Chen (1986), Newman (1986), Chan (1989) and Bao (1990). The most forceful arguments for CTU, however, is in Yip (1989a). Yip proposes three pieces of evidence for CTU, the OCP effect on CTU, the free occurrence of CTUs, and CTU spreading. I will review Yip's arguments below and show that none of them is conclusive. I will thus conclude that there is no CTU.

3.4.1. Free Occurrence In African languages, contour tones mostly occur on the final syllable. This is attributed to the 'association conventions', variously formulated in Williams (1976), Leben (1973), Goldsmith (1976), Clements & Ford (1979), Halle & Vergnaud (1982), and D. Pulleyblank (1986). In Chinese languages, however, contour tones freely occur in nonfinal syllables. Yip (1989a) argues that if the association conventions are universal, then the nonfinal contour tones in Chinese must be CTUs. Yip's argument, however, is based on the assumption that the TBU in Chinese is the syllable. If, on the other hand, the TBU is the mora or rime segment, and every Chinese syllable has two TBUs (cf. Chapter 2), then the free occurrence of contour tones in Chinese is no evidence for CTU. It is particularly interesting to note that, although simple contour tones, such as LH or HL, enjoy free occurrence in Chinese, complex contour tones, such as HLH or LHL, do not. This fact leads Yip (1989a) and Bao (1990a) to stipulate that a CTU may underlyingly consists of just two level tones. In our analysis, however, the 'freedom' of simple contour tones follows from the fact that all Chinese syllables are underlyingly bimoraic.

3.4.2. The OCP Many Chinese contour tones undergo dissimilation. Mandarin, for example, has the famous [T3 T3]-->[T2 T3], where the third tone ([214] in Chao letters) changes to the second tone ([35]) before another third tone. Similarly, in Danyang there is the rule [24 24]-->[42 24], by which two rising

tones become a fall and a rise. Yip argues that such changes are due to the OCP (Obligatory Contour Principle, Leber, 1973 and McCarthy 1986) applied to CTUs. Take the Danyang [24 24]-->[42 24] for example



In (57a) the two CTUs are identical, so the OCP applies. In (57b), there is no identical sequence of tones, so the OCP should not apply. If [24 24] is as in (57a), we can explain the dissimilation. But if [24 24] is as in (57b), we cannot attribute the change to the OCP.

Yip's argument depends on the assumptions that the OCP applies to Chinese generally. It predicts that all sequences [A A], where A is any tone, should undergo the OCP. However, to my knowledge, tonal dissimilations occur only sporadically in Chinese. For example, in Mandarin, [214 214] undergoes change, but none of [55 55], [35 35] or [51 51] does. Similarly, [24 24] in Danyang undergoes change, but [35 35] in Mandarin does not. This is unexplained in Yip's analysis. It would be circular to assume that those contour tones that undergo dissimilation are CTUs and those that do not are clusters, unless there is other evidence. It seems therefore that whether an identical tonal sequence changes or not is entirely a dialect particular matter.

3.4.3. CTU Spreading The strongest argument for CTU is that it may spread as a unit. While I am not able to examine all reports of CTU spreading in the literature, I will discuss those reported in Chinese languages, namely, Danyang, Changzhi and Wenzhou. I will show that there is no evidence of CTU spreading.

3.4.3.1. Danyang Danyang is perhaps the most widely cited case of CTU spreading (Chen 1986, Yip 1989a, Chan 1989, Bao 1990a). Lü (1980), the single source on Danyang, gives the following tonal patterns (pp87-88, in Chao

letters)³

(58)	Citation/Monosyllabic:	11	33	24	55
(59)	Bisyllabic	Trisyllabic	Quadrisyllabic		
a.	11-11	11-11-11	11-11-11-11		
b.	42-11	42-11-11	42-11-11-11		
c.	42-24	42-42-24	42-42-42-24		
d.	33-33	33-33-33	33-33-33-33		
e.	24-55	24-55-55	24-55-55-55		
f.	55-55	55-55-55	55-55-55-55		

Lü (p88) states that the sandhi pattern of a phrase is primarily determined by the first syllable. This seems clear in (59), where, except (59c), all non-initial syllables bear the same tone. At face value, then, Danyang shows tone spreading, left to right, after deleting tones on noninitial syllables, similar to the case of Lhasa and Gêrzê. In particular, we see L-spreading in (59a,b), M-spreading in (59d) and H-spreading in (59e,f). However, the regularity in (59) is only apparent, as we will see immediately.

It is, first of all, not clear what the underlying tones are. In particular, there are just four citation tones, but six phrasal patterns. In addition, it is notorious that Danyang citation tones do not correspond to phrasal patterns in any clear manner, even though Lü states that the initial syllable plays a major role. Consider the following bi-syllabic patterns (Lü pp90-98)

³. According to Lü (p87), on short syllables, [33] is [3] and [24] is [4]; since this does not affect our discussion, I have not listed them separately.

(60)

	33	55	24	11
33	42 11 24 55 33 33 55 55	55 55 42 11	55 55 42 11 33 33 42 24 24 55	55 55 42 11 33 33 42 24 11 11 24 55
55	33 33 55 55 42 24 42 11	42 24 33 33 55 55	42 24 33 33 55 55	42 24 33 33 42 11
24	33 33 42 24 55 55 42 11 42 42	42 24 33 33 11 11 24 55	24 55 55 55 33 33 42 24 11 11	24 55 55 55 42 11 42 24 33 33
11	11 11 42 24	11 11 42 24	11 11 42 24 33 33	11 11 42 24

In the leftest column are the citation tones of the first syllable, and in the top row are those of the second syllable. For a given pair of citation tones, there are from two to six quite unrelated sandhi patterns. Similarly, in tri-syllabic phrases, for any given initial citation tone, there are from two to five quite unrelated sandhi patterns, as shown below (Lü pp100-101)

(61)

33	55 55 55 42 11 11 24 55 55 33 33 33 42 42 24
24	24 55 55 55 55 55 42 42 24 33 33 33 11 11 11
55	33 33 33 42 42 24
11	11 11 11 42 42 24

It should be clear by now that the regularity in (59) is superficial, and that sandhi patterns are not derivable simply from the tone of the initial syllable.

Before we review previous analyses of Danyang, a note about its background is in order. Danyang city lies on the border between the Northern and the Wu dialect families. Tone sandhi is poor in Northern dialects, but rich in Wu dialects. The cross-dialectal influence is reflected in Danyang, which has two styles of speech, literary (such as when reading a newspaper or making a speech) and colloquial. The two speeches have different citation tones. In addition, there is little sandhi in literary speech; the sandhi patterns we discuss occur only in colloquial speech. The two speeches are not always clear-cut, though. Colloquial expressions may occur with colloquial tones (and sandhi) even in literary speech, and literary expressions may occur with literary tones (and lack of sandhi) even in colloquial speech. This may in part explain the chaotic nature of Danyang tone.

Previous analyses have, rightly, given up on deriving bi-syllabic patterns from citation tones (Chen 1986, Yip 1989, Chan 1989 and Bao 1990). Instead, six 'word melodies' (not syllable/citation tones), have been proposed. This approach is exemplified in Bao (1990), who states (p77)

We will not be concerned with the relationship between the lexical tones and the phrasal bi-syllabic tone patterns. Suffice it to say that the tone

melody of a phrase depends on the historical origin of the initial syllable of the phrase, rather than its tone. It is not possible to derive the phrasal tone melody from the lexical tones of the component syllables.

Bao proposes the following 'word melodies', for the patterns in (59a-f) respectively (pp80-81)

(62) a. [11] b. [42-11] c. [24] d. [33] e. [24-55] f. [55]
 L HL-L LH M LH-H H

It is not hard to see that by spreading L in (62a,b), M in (62d) and H in (62e,f), to the right, (59a,b,d-f) are easily derived. For (59c), Bao gives the following analysis

(63) 24 24 24 24 24 24 24 42 42 42 24
 | /! \ | | | | | | | |
 σ σ σ σ --> σ σ σ σ --> σ σ σ σ --> σ σ σ σ --> σ σ σ σ

First, all syllable tones are deleted, except the 'word melody' [24], which is a CTU (contour tone unit). Next, [24] is linked to the initial syllable. Then [24], as a unit, spreads to other syllables. Then 'tier conflation' applies. Finally, [24] dissimilates to [42] before another [24] by the following rule

(64) [24] --> [42] / ___ [24]

This rule is specifically called for by Lü (p88). The analysis of Bao (1990) is essentially the same as that of Chan (1989), and, to a large extent, in spirit with Chen (1986) and Yip (1989). Central to all of them is the claim that there is CTU spreading in the pattern (59c).

I will now point out some problems in the above approach. First, it is not clear whether 'tier conflation' should apply to a contour feature that spreads across two or more syllables. For example, the geminate affricate [ts:] never becomes [tsts].⁴ Second, while it is possible that the underlying tone (the 'word melody') of a Danyang syllable differs from its citation tone, it is far from obvious how the 'word melody' analysis derives citation tones on monosyl-

⁴. Yip (1989b,160) suggests that if the affricate [ts] spreads over two adjacent positions, it is [tts] or [tss], but if it spreads over two non-adjacent positions, it will become [ts...ts]. Now in Yip's analysis of Danyang, the TBU is the syllable, so when [24] spreads over two or more syllables, it should not become [24 24 ...], since all the syllables are adjacent.

lables, which, after all, are mostly 'words' themselves. Nevertheless, I will not pretend to be able to offer a better solution. Instead, I will focus on a more serious problem in the previous analyses. This is the problem of the sandhi domain. An important fact that is overlooked in previous analyses is that the domain of the pattern (59c) is different from the domains of the other patterns. To be specific, a regular sandhi domain is sensitive to two things, the syntax of the phrase, and the lengths of the words. For example, [NP VP] never forms a domain, nor does [V NP]; they normally each form two domains. In contrast, [A N] usually forms one domain. Secondly, in [A N] structures, [σ σ] forms one domain, yet [σ σ σ] forms two (i.e. [σ ; σ]), where [σ] refers to a monosyllabic word and [σ] a bisyllabic one. Similarly, in quadrisyllabic [A N] structures, [σ σ σ σ] forms one domain but [σ σ σ σ] forms two; [σ σ σ] may form either one or two domains. The reason why word lengths affect sandhi domains is probably due to stress, which we will not go into here. Now if we compare the domains of the patterns in (59), we come to the surprise: while all the other patterns occur in [σ σ σ] phrases, (59c) never does. Similarly, in trisyllabic [σ σ] phrases, the dominant patterns are (59a,b,d-f), which, in addition, are largely insensitive to citation tones of noninitial syllable. In contrast, (59c) is merely a minor pattern, occurring at a relatively low frequency, and is largely sensitive to the citation tones of noninitial syllables. What is more, in those phrases in which (59c) does occur, most or all of the component syllables have the citation tone [24] (either in colloquial speech or in literary speech).

The above facts point to a very different origin of (59c); they indicate that (59c), which is a minor pattern, is not derived from CTU spreading, but from applying the dissimilation rule (64) to an underlying sequence of [24 24 ...]. While this analysis does not account for all (59c) phrases, due to the chaotic nature of Danyang, it does cover the majority of them.

What I intend to show is that irregular sandhi patterns in a language like Danyang should be taken with caution. In any case, there is little evidence that (59c) is derived from CTU spreading.

3.4.3.2. Changzhi The facts of interest in Changzhi occur with the diminui-

tive suffix [te?] and what we will call the adjective suffix [ti]. When these suffixes are added to a monosyllabic stem, the citation tone of the stem is basically copied on the suffix. Below are the patterns (Hou 1983:260-261)

(65)		Yin Ping	Yang Ping	Shang	Yin Qu	Yang Qu	Ru
	Citation tones:	213	24	535	44	53	<u>54</u>
(66)	σ_{stem}	: 213	24	535	44	53	<u>54</u>
	$\sigma_{stem} + \sigma_{suffix}$:	213-213	24-24	535-535	44-535	53-53	<u>54-54/44-44</u>

The historical names of the citation tones are given, but they need not concern us. The underline in [54] and [44] indicates a syllable with a glottal coda. In addition, [54] has two suffixed forms, which again will not concern us.

Bao (1990:83-88) suggests that the tone patterns in the suffixed forms are derived by spreading the citation tone of the stem to the suffix, and then deleting the citation tone from the latter. This, he suggests, is evidence for CTU spreading. There is an exception [44]-->[44-535], for which we expect [44]-->[44-44]. Bao suggests that [44] is the default tone which is underlyingly unspecified; it therefore has nothing to spread, and so the suffix carries its own citation tone, which is [535].

There is an alternative to this analysis, in which the tone is not spread from the stem, but copied from it. Take [53]-->[53-53] for example

(67)	HL		HL	HL	
	XXX	---->	XXX	XXX	
			\	\	
	l0 ti		l0 ti	ti	'old'

The adjective suffix first triggers reduplication of the syllable structure of the stem, together with its tone [54], which in this case is HL in the upper register, then associations proceed as before. We already saw in section 2.2.5. that syllable structure copying is a possible morphological process.

Let us now compare the two analyses. First, consider [44]-->[44-535], the exception for both analyses. In my account, there is no good explanation. I have to assume that [44-44] is changed to [44-535], due, probably, to dissimilation of some sort. In Bao's account, this is also a problem. There is

first, no other evidence that [44] is a default tone. Second, although the citation tone of the suffix [ti] is [535], that of [te?] is not [535] but [54]. Therefore, even though Bao can assume that the [535] in [44-535] may come from the underlying tone of the suffix [ti], the same assumption does not hold for the suffix [te?]. To derive [44-535] for the [te?] suffix, Bao has to make similar assumptions as I have.

The two analyses also differ in another respect. Recall that I assume register to be identical to voicing; the same is assumed in Bao (1990). Thus, if there is a spreading of register, there should be relevant voicing changes in the consonants in between (cf. the Wuyi case in (14), (28)-(30) above). Now, in Bao's analysis, [535] should be an upper register tone and [213] a lower register tone. If [535] and [213] both spread across the onset [t] in [te?] and [ti], [t] should show voicing changes. But there is no such change. In my analysis, there is no spreading, but copying, thus there should be no voicing change.

In conclusion, there is little evidence that Changzhi has CTU spreading.

3.4.3.3. Wenzhou Like Danyang, Wenzhou is a borderline dialect whose sandhi patterns are not strictly predictable from the underlying tone of the initial syllable, but are sensitive to the underlying tones of all member syllables. The case of interest to us is given below (Zheng-Zhang 1080:248)

(68)

	31	42
35	42-1	
24		
11		
42	11-33	

The leftmost column shows the citation tones, in Chao letters, of the first syllable, and the top row shows those of the second syllable. All output patterns are [42-1], except [42] plus [31], which is [11-33]. [1] is a low

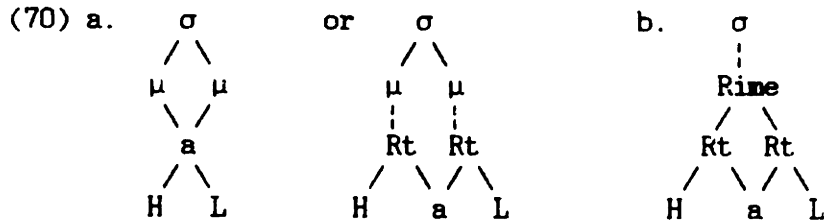
tone on an unstressed syllable, in contrast to [11], which is a low tone on a stressed syllable.

Zheng-Zhang (p248) notes that, in slow speech, [42-1] may become [42-21], but she does not consider the slight drop in final pitch to be of significance. Bao (1990:105-111), on the other hand, takes a different view. He considers [21] to be a weakened [31], which is not [L] but [HL]. The output [42-1] is thus seen as [42-31]. Having made this assumption, Bao proposes the following analysis. In the above combinations, the citation tone of the second syllable, [31] or [42], is spread, as a CTU, to the first syllable, replacing the latter's own tone. Then he proposes a rule, which raises the register of a stressed syllable to [+upper], and lowers that of an unstressed syllable to [-upper].

There are three questions about this analysis. First, there is no evidence that stressed syllables become [+upper] and unstressed ones become [-upper]. In the output [11-33], for example, the first syllable is stressed but in the [-upper] register. Second, it is counter-intuitive that the tone of the unstressed syllable (i.e. the second), rather than that of the stressed one (i.e. the first), should dominate the sandhi phrase. Instead, it is usually the tone of the stressed syllable that dominates, especially in Wu dialects, of which Wenzhou is a member. Finally, there is insufficient evidence that [21] is [HL], rather than [L]. It should be added that, besides [42-1], there are twelve other bisyllabic patterns (including [11-33] above), none of which shows tone spreading, let alone CTU spreading, from the second syllable to the first. I will therefore conclude that there is no CTU spreading in Wenzhou.

3.4.4. Summary I have reviewed three major arguments of Yip (1989a) for CUT (free occurrence of CTU, the OCP on CTU, and CTU spreading) and shown that none is valid in Chinese languages. I have not been able to review similar claims in other languages, such as Lalana Chinotec cited in Yip (1989a, 162). However, since most arguments for CTU are from Chinese languages, and since the strongest, CTU spreading, comes entirely from Chinese languages, I will conclude that there is little evidence of CTU in any language.

Since the traditional view is based more on intuition than on evidence, I will take the latter view, and so disregard (69a). In addition, I will not distinguish (69b,c) but consider them notational variants. (69b) and (69c) are also equivalent for geminates such as [a:]



In (70b), [a:] is two TBUs because it has two Roots (cf. Selkirk 1986a and our discussion of Jiyuan in section 2.2.3.), hence are in effect two segments. In (70b), [a:] is also two TBUs, because it has two moras; [a:] may or may not have two Roots here, which we will not go into.

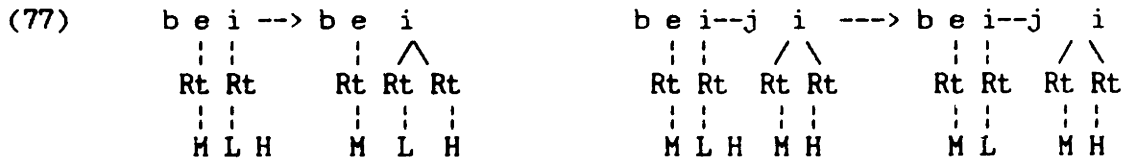
Because there is evidence that the onset does not share tone with the rime, I will not consider the assumption that the TBU is the syllable. We are thus left with two possible TBUs, the rime as a whole, and the segment in the rime.

There is no doubt that in many African languages, such as LuGanda (Clements 1986), the TBU is not the syllable, but the mora, as shown below

- (71) a. kùlábà 'to see'
 b. kùlábikà 'to be visible'
 c. kùkáábá 'to cry'
- (72) a. kùlíná 'to climb' (N is palatal nasal)
 b. kùcópá 'to become a pauper'

All patterns are have [LHLH]. In (71a) the final [H] does not show up, because the syllable is one mora short. In (71c), [aa] carries two tones, because it is two segments, as we assume. In (72a), the third tone [L] is carried by the consonant [N], because [N] is in the rime (or carries a mora). Similarly, in (72b) the first [p] carries [L], because it is in the rime.

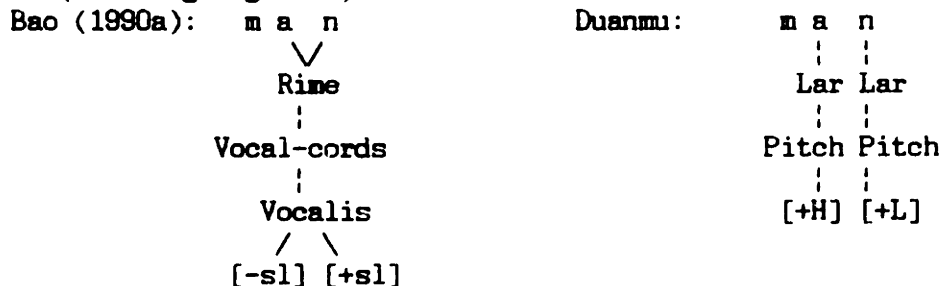
So the question is whether the TBU can be the entire rime in other languages. It is possible that the TBU varies parametrically, so that it is the moraic segment in African languages, but the rime in Chinese languages. However, there



The syllable [bei] is [214] in isolation, where it is longer than syllables with [55], [35] or [51]. In nonfinal positions, as in [bei-ji], [bei] is [21]. Supposing [214] is [MLH], there are two questions to ask. First, why is it [21] in nonfinal positions? Second, why is the [H] of [214] not realized on the second syllable [ji], as we would expect from the association conventions? My answer to the first question is that nonfinal syllables are bimoraic, so that the [H] of [214] cannot be realized; in final positions, the syllable may be lengthened to trimoraic, so all tones of [214] can be realized. The answer to the second question, as I will argue in Chapters 4 and 5, is that in Mandarin the tonal domain is the stress domain, and since most syllables are stressed, the tonal domain is in effect the syllable.

In summary, there is no compelling evidence that the TBU can be the rime. I will therefore assume that the TBU is always the moraic segment. This uniform analysis of the TBU not only is a more constrained theory, but also agrees with the independently motivated tonal model (1), which is part of the segmental feature geometry.¹

¹. Compare the following two representations of the Mandarin word [man 51] 'slow' (omitting Register)



In my analysis, the tones directly link to the Laryngeal nodes of [a] and [i]. In Bao (1990a), the TBU is the rime, and [51]=[HL] is a CTU; the Vocal-cords node of [HL] hangs on the Rime. It is not clear how, in Bao's representation, the tone structure is interpreted on [a] and [i]. Bao (p2) suggest that

'After tone sandhi rules have applied, t(one) is linked to the laryngeal node of the head of TBU through the process of segmentalization.'

In other words, tone is initially assigned to the rime, but finally falls on

3.6. How Many Tones Can a TBU Bear? According to Woo (1969), a TBU can bear just one tone. According to Williams (1976), Goldsmith (1976), and D. Pulleyblank (1986), there is no upper limit as to how many tones a TBU may bear, although some languages forbid more than one tone per TBU, as is the case in Kikuyu (Clements & Ford 1979).

Woo's position is stronger, and so more vulnerable. It hinges on there being a direct relation between the tone bearing ability (TBA) (i.e. how many tones a syllable may bear) and the rime length. In contrast, the position of Goldsmith, Williams and D. Pulleyblank, among others, hinges on there being no such relation. It is generally true that a monomoraic syllable carries one tone and a bimoraic syllable carries two. In addition, cross-linguistically, it is very rare that a syllable bears more than three tones, and it is perhaps not a coincidence that a syllable is rarely longer than three moras. Indeed, the central element of the association conventions, as formulated in D. Pulleyblank (1986, 11), is the one-to-one relation between tones and TBUs. On the other hand, there have been claims that a monomoraic syllable may carry two tones; D. Pulleyblank (1986), for example, claims it to be the case in Tiv.

I will argue that in Chinese languages, there is indeed a direct relation between the TBA and the rime length. I will also argue that in at least two African languages, Igbo and Tiv, the same relation holds, unlike what D. Pulleyblank claims. On the other hand, I am not aware of clear evidence that a monomoraic syllable indeed carries two or more tones without lengthening. I will, therefore, stick to the strongest hypothesis that no TBU may carry a contour tone, until clear counter-evidence is seen.

To show the relation between the TBA and the rime length, one must show two points

the nuclears. Phonetic studies show, however, that in Mandarin tone is carried by both the nucleus and the coda, rather than the nucleus alone (Kratochvil 1970, Howie 1976).

- (78) a. When the TBA is increased, the rime must be lengthened.
 b. When the rime is shortened, the TBA is reduced.

Evidence for (78a) abounds. In Fuzhou, for example, the convex tone [242] occurs only in final positions, where the syllable is stressed and extra long (for rich phonetic data, cf. Wright 1983). Similarly, the Mandarin [214] occurs in final positions only, where, as is well known, the syllable is again extra long (cf. Wu 1986 for spectrograms).² The same is true in Suzhou (Ye 1979, Xie 1982, Qian & Shi 1983, P. Wang 1983) and Wuxi (Chan & Ren 1986, Yip 1989c), where convex and concave tones occur finally only and are longer.

The restriction of convex and concave tones to final syllables, and the rarity of them in nonfinal syllables, has lead Bao (1990a, 62) to propose that 'concave/convex contour are surface phenomena'. To me, it follows from the fact that Chinese syllables are underlyingly bimoraic (cf. Chapter 2), and that final syllables may be lengthened to trimoraic.

The same is true for Ru syllables, which have [p t k ?] codas. Since the tone on the coda cannot be heard, Ru syllables should generally appear as bearing a level tone; this prediction is correct. However, it has been noted that in Cantonese, a Ru syllable may under some circumstances bear a rising tone (cf. Yip 1980, 60-65). In my analysis, it should be the case that such a Ru syllable is lengthened to a trimoraic one, with two moras on the vowel and one on the coda. This prediction seems to be borne out, as Chao (1947) points out that

2. Although it is long noted that [214] is the longest tone in Mandarin, there is, to my knowledge, no direct report on the length contrast between Mandarin [21] and [214]. This is probably because past researches have not turned our interest in this direction. Comparing the lengths of ma 'horse' in ma[21] che[55] 'horse cart' and qi[35] ma[214] (not qi[35] ma[21], which is an optional pronunciation) 'to ride a horse', my intuition is that [214] is from 50% to 100% longer than [21]. Reported measurements of the four Mandarin citation tones do not show this much length difference. There are two reasons. First, in isolation, all syllables may be lengthened, so citation [214] need not be much longer than citation [55]. Second, in many phonetic studies, syllables were read in a carrier sentence; for example, in Howie's study, all syllables were read in the following carrier sentence (Howie 1978:147)

zhege ___ zi, shi Lao Li xiede.

this word be written 'This word ___ was written by Lao Li.'

In this environment, the syllable in question is not in a final position, and so the Mandarin third tone does not appear as [214].

syllables in such circumstances are rather longer.

Evidence for (78b) may be seen in Shanghai. As I suggested in Chapter 2, the Shanghai syllable is bimoraic in isolation but monomoraic nonfinally. A piece of evidence is that [ʔ], the only coda in Shanghai,³ is dropped nonfinally (Xu et al 1981), yet the syllable is not lengthened. In contrast, when the [ʔ] coda is dropped in Southern Min dialects, the nuclear vowel is lengthened (e.g. T. Dong 1954, J. Lin 1975, Chen 1987, Tsay 1990). Now the Shanghai syllable may carry two tones in isolation and finally, but just one tone nonfinally (Xu et al). This is what we expect: when the rime is shortened, its TBA is reduced.

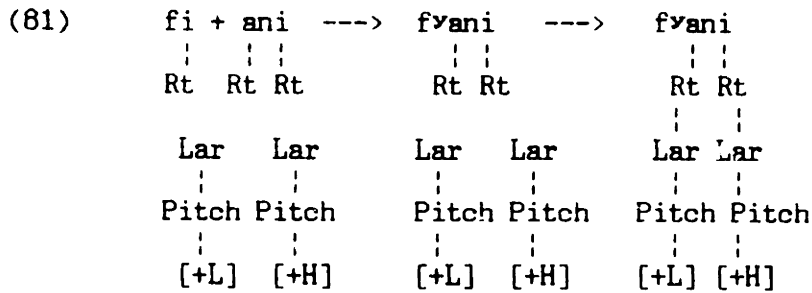
Let us now turn to African languages. Consider first a case in Margi (Williams 1976)

- (79) a. fi-->fi 'to swell' b. fi+ani-->fyani-->fyani 'to make swell'
- $\begin{array}{c} / \quad \backslash \\ \text{LH} \quad \text{L H} \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{c} \text{LH} \quad \text{LH} \quad \begin{array}{c} \text{L} \\ \text{H} \end{array} \end{array}$

Williams argues that Woo's (1967) system cannot handle (79). But updated with autosegmental mechanisms and feature geometry, Williams' conclusion is no longer true, as the following shows

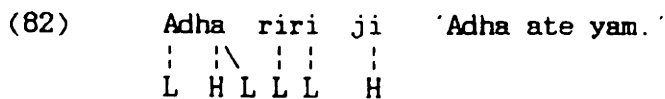
- (80) fi ----> fi ----> fi 'to swell'
- $\begin{array}{c} \text{Rt} \\ | \\ \text{Lar} \quad \text{Lar} \\ | \quad | \\ \text{Pitch} \quad \text{Pitch} \\ | \quad | \\ [+L] \quad [+H] \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{c} \text{Rt} \\ | \\ \text{Lar} \quad \text{Lar} \\ | \quad | \\ \text{Pitch} \quad \text{Pitch} \\ | \quad | \\ [+L] \quad [+H] \end{array}$
- $\begin{array}{c} / \quad \backslash \\ \text{Rt} \quad \text{Rt} \\ | \quad | \\ \text{Lar} \quad \text{Lar} \\ | \quad | \\ \text{Pitch} \quad \text{Pitch} \\ | \quad | \\ [+L] \quad [+H] \end{array}$

³. Shanghai has no diphthongs. Some descriptions writes another coda [ng], which I assume to be nasalization for two reasons. First, when the vowel is low, there is no velar closure, e.g. [a~] but not [ang] (Xu et al). Second, there is no contrast between [ng], [m] and [n] in the coda, although in the nucleus we see [n] 'fish' and [m] 'mu (a measure of land)' (Xu et al).



In (80), L first links to [i]. To link H, another Root has to be created, since in feature geometry, each articulator appears just once. The output is [fií], with a long vowel. In (81), after the hiatus rule, each tone is linked to a rime segment. The analysis of (80) and (81) is exactly like that of (79), except in one point: the vowel in [fi] remains short in (79) but becomes long in (80). Williams did not reject Woo's analysis on the basis of Woo's prediction on vowel length, nor did Williams discuss whether the vowel in [fi] is in fact long. The reason, I suspect, is due to lack of phonetic evidence on vowel length. In addition, phonemic transcriptions are not always reliable; as we have discussed in Chapter 2, although open vowels are long in Chinese, they are rarely so transcribed. The difference between (79) and (80)-(81), therefore, have to be left open.

A similar case is found in Igbo, where, in traditional transcriptions, a short vowel may again bear two tones, as shown below (Green & Igwe 1963, 7)



The second [a] bears two tones, but it is not transcribed as long. This seems to be a counter-example for the claim that the TBA is related to the rime length. However, we note that Igbo does not have long v. short vowel contrast; if vowel length is predictable from the environment, it is likely that the length will not be transcribed. The question is, when a vowel bears two tones, is it in fact long? Fortunately, there is an answer. My work with a native Igbo speaker, P. Ihionu, shows that the vowel is always long when it bears two tones, and 'it sounds', as Ihionu puts it, 'like two syllables'.

As a final case, let us consider Tiv. D. Pulleyblank (1986) argues that in Tiv,

while in English, Kutep, and Sierra Popoluca, affricates are [+cont] to the right. Since there is no disagreement that affricates are [-cont] to the left, I only review the latter three languages. I will show that there is no evidence that affricates are [+cont] to the right.

Consider English first. Sagey (p94) argues that the English plural is realized as /iz/ after strident fricatives and affricates, but not after simple stops or non-strident fricatives

(88)	box	boxes
	church	churches
	hat	hats
	booth	booths

She concludes that English affricates are [+cont] to the right, like fricatives. However, this argument is inconclusive. If we assume that the trigger for /iz/ is [+str], and not [+cont], and the same distribution follows.

We next consider Kutep, where there is a consonant labialization process (Ladefoged 1968:31, 62), as shown below (Sagey p95, from Ladefoged)

(89) a.	Fricatives	basfa	'they kneel'
		nsazvakkwa	'the water is hot'
		baʒve	'they washed'
		baʒvan	'they begged'
		aɕfapang	'groundnuts'
b.	Affricates	baɕfap	'they chose'
		batɕfak	'they sleep'
c.	Stops	bapwa	'they grind'
		banbwa	'they tasted'
		batwap	'they picked up'
		bandwap	'they wove'
		nsazvakkwa	'the water is hot'
		bangwa	'they drink'
		baskwap	'they are foolish'

What is of interest to us is that the labialization is realized as /f, v/ after fricatives and affricates, but /w/ after stops. Sagey takes the pattern as evidence that affricates [+cont] to the right, like fricatives. This argument, again, is inconclusive. We see that the difference between (89a,b) on the one hand and (89c) on the other is not just one of [cont], but also one of [str]. The question then is, which is the triggering feature? To find the answer, we

want to look at [-str] fricatives or affricates: if the labialization after them is /f, v/, we know that [str] plays no role, but if the labialization is /w/, we know that [cont] plays no role. Unfortunately, Kutep does not have [-str] fricatives or affricates. There is, nevertheless, evidence that [cont] plays no role, as shown below (Ladefoged p62)

(90) barwa
 'they greeted'

/r/ is [+cont]. If [+cont] triggers /f, v/, as Sagey claims, /r/ should, too. But /r/ does not trigger /f, v/, so what triggers /f, v/ cannot be [+cont]. Moreover, [son] cannot be the triggering feature either, since the stops in (89c) are [-son] while /r/ is [+son], yet both trigger /w/. Thus, the only possible triggering feature is [+str].⁴ Therefore, Kutep labialization gives no evidence that affricates are [+cont] to the right.

We finally look at Sierra Popoluca. Here, stops are aspirated syllable finally, but fricatives and affricates are not, as Sagey shows them (p95)

(91) a. Stops	/hŋp/	[hŋph]	'mouth'	
	/ʔampat/	[ʔampath]	'I met'	
	/mŋk/	[mŋkh]	'fog'	
b. Affricates	/maʧ/	[maʧ]	'grasp'	(*maʧh)
	/ʔapiC/	[ʔapiC]	'thorn'	(*ʔapiCh)
c. Fricatives	/wɔsten/	[wɔsten]	'two'	(*wɔshten)
	/piStɛʧk/	[piStɛʧk]	'flee'	(*piShtɛʧk)

(/ɔ/ = schwa, /ŋ/ = 'hut', /ʧ/ = 'hits', /C/ = 'church', /S/ = 'fish')

In (91a), the codas [p t k] are aspirated (no word is said about the coda [m] in [ʔampath]); in (91b,c), the codas [ʧ C s S] are not, as the starred patterns show. Sagey argues that affricates and fricatives form a group because both are [+cont] to the right.

There are two problems with this argument. First, the difference between [p t k] and [ʧ C s S] need not be in [cont], but may be in [strident]. Therefore, (91) cannot show whether affricates are [+cont] to the right. Second, (91) is taken from Foster & Foster (1948:4), but a comparison with the original shows

⁴ I ignore the possibility that what triggers /f, v/ is the combination [+cont, -son], since this is not the null hypothesis.

that (91) is not exactly what was given. In particular, Foster & Foster only said that stops are aspirated syllable finally, but DID NOT say that affricates and fricatives are unaspirated. The starred patterns in (91b,c) are added by Sagey. To see why this addition is misleading, we take a look at all the Sierra Popoluca stops, fricatives and affricates, given below (Foster & Foster p4)

(92)	p	t	T	k	?	(/T D N/ = palatal /t d n/)
	b	d	D	g		
		ɸ	C			
		s	S		h	
	m	n	N	ng		

The fricatives /s S h/ are [-voice], and so must be [+asp]. Foster & Foster also say that /ɸ/ is as in the English word 'hits', and /C/ as in 'church', so they too are [+asp]. Thus, all fricatives and affricates are aspirated in Sierra Popoluca. There is therefore no reason to assume that fricatives and affricates are unaspirated, as Sagey does in (91). In other words, Sierra Popoluca gives no evidence that affricates are [+cont] to the right.⁵

In conclusion, I have shown that there is no good evidence that affricates have contour features [-cont, +cont].⁶

3.7.2. Pre- and Post-nasalized Stops The issue of pre- and post-nasalized consonants is too large to be reviewed here (cf. Campbell 1974; Anderson 1976; Sasse 1976; Herbert 1975, 1986, Sagey 1986). I will, therefore, focus on just one point: whether any language has underlying pre- and/or post-nasalized stops. I will survey the UCLA Phonological Segment Inventory Database (UPSID, Maddieson 1985) and show that no language has underlying pre- or post-nasalized stops.

⁵. What seems to me to be the case in Sierra Popoluca final aspiration is devoicing. As Foster & Foster (p4) points out, voiced stops do not occur finally, and the glide /y/ is aspirated and voiceless when occurring finally. Final nasals are aspirated, too, though Foster & Foster do not say if they are devoiced. Since Foster & Foster's discussion is too brief, and the issue is irrelevant to our point, we do not pursue it further.

⁶. How we should represent affricates is a separate issue. For most cases, it seem to suffice if we consider affricates as strident stops ([-cont, +strident]), as suggested in Chomsky & Halle (1968), pending the only claim of [-strident] affricates in F.K. Li (197?).

Herbert (1986) argues, rightly, that a surface pre- or postnasalized stop need not be considered underlyingly as such, if it meets one of the following

- (93) a. Its distribution is completely predictable from the nasality of its neighbouring segments.
 b. It freely varies or does not contrast with a voiced stop, or it freely varies or does not contrast with a nasal.
 c. Its nasal and stop parts belong to separate syllables, as a cluster.

A typical case of (93a) is found in Kaingang (Wiesemann 1972), which has the following patterns ($V\sim$ = nasal V, m = nasals, b = stops, etc.):

- (94) VbV $V\sim mbV$ $Vb^mV\sim$ $V\sim mb^mV\sim$
 V^b_mV $V\sim^m_bV$ $V^b_mV\sim$ $V\sim^m_bV\sim$
- (95) $b \rightarrow b / V _ V$ $m \rightarrow b^m_b / V _ V$
 $b \rightarrow mb / V\sim _ V$ $m \rightarrow m^b / V\sim _ V$
 $b \rightarrow b^m / V _ V\sim$ $m \rightarrow b^m_m / V _ V\sim$
 $b \rightarrow mb^m / V\sim _ V\sim$ $m \rightarrow m / V\sim _ V\sim$

Kaingang contrasts oral and nasalized vowels. Pre-nasalized stops occur only in $/V\sim _ V/$, post nasalized stops only in $/V _ V\sim/$, and pre- and post-nasalized stops only in $/V\sim _ V\sim/$. Similarly, pre-stopped nasals occur only in $/V _ V\sim/$, post-stopped nasals in $/V\sim _ V/$, and pre- and post-stopped nasals in $/V _ V/$. The distributions in (94) is completely predictable by the rules in (95), whereby if a cluster of CV or VC differ in nasality, a short epenthetic sound appears between them. In Kaingang this sound agrees in nasality with the vowel, and in other features with the consonant. Herbert uses the notion 'shielding' for the effects in (95). The 'shielding' effect is also seen in English

- (96) $/prins/ \rightarrow [prin^t_s]$ 'prince'
 $/lenz/ \rightarrow [len^d_z]$ 'lens'

where [t] shields the [+nas] /n/ from the [-nas] /s/, and [d] shields /n/ from /z/. Phonetically, the 'shielding' effect may be due to mis-alignment of time between the soft palate and the place articulators, as illustrated below

(97) a. Kaingang: $b \rightarrow mb / V\sim _ V$

Labial	:	open	close	open
Soft Palate:		lowered		raised
		$V\sim$	m	b
				V

b. English: $s \rightarrow ts / n _$

Apico-alveolar:		closed	open
Soft Palate:		lowered	
		raised	
		n	t
			s

In (97a) the soft palate closes too late, and in (97b) it closes too early. Herbert points out, rightly, that as a matter of phonological practice, such epenthetic sounds have no underlying status. Shielding mostly occurs in languages that contrast /V/ and /V~/.

The case of (93b) also concerns a standard phonological practice. As Pike (1947) and Ladefoged (1968) point out, to postulate nasalized vowels in a language, it is necessary for three of the following four syllable types to be distinctively opposed

- (98) CV CV~ NV NV~
- a. CV CV~ NV~
- b. CV NV NV~
- c. CV CV~ NV
- d. CV~ NV NV~

In the same fashion, Herbert argues that a phonetically pre-nasalized stop alone does not justify the existence of an underlying pre-nasalized stop. Instead, in order to posit underlying prenasalized stops in a language, it must contain all the following four sets of consonants

- (99) voiceless stops
 voiced stops
 pre-nasalized stops
 nasals

Many languages, typically Austronesian and Indo-Pacific languages, have a pre-

nasalized series but not a voiced stop series. In such a case, we must check if the prenasalized series is in fact the voiced series in disguise. For example, Nambakaengö of the Reef Islands-Santa Cruz Family has the following consonants (Herbert pp16-17, citing Wurm 1972a,b)

(100) Nambakaengö	p	p ^w	t	t ^w	k	k ^w
	p ^h		t ^h		k ^h	
	mb	mb ^w	nd	nd ^w	Ng	Ng ^w
	m	m ^w	n	n ^w	ñ	N
	v	w	s/t ^y	y		
			l			

(N = velar nasal)

There are prenasalized stops, but no voiced stops. In a related language, Nea, we find the following consonants

(101) Nea	p	p ^w	t	t ^w	k	k ^w
	p ^h		t ^h		k ^h	
	(m)b	(m)b ^w	(n)d	(n)d ^w	(ñ)d ^y	(N)g
	m	m ^w	n	n ^w	ñ	N
	v	w	s/t ^y	y		
			l			

(N = velar nasal)

where except the sound / (ñ)d^y /, the inventory is identical to (100). However, in Nea, the third line of stops are prenasalized only optionally. Thus, underlyingly we may posit either voiced stops or prenasalized stops. Positing the former will add no extra cost to UG; yet, without other evidence, positing the latter will. Similarly, in Nambakaengö we may simply posit underlying voiced stops, rather than prenasalized stops; whatever relates underlying voiced stops to surface pre-nasalized stops in Nea will do the same in Nambakaengö. The free variation between prenasalized and voiced stops are not restricted to Pacific languages, but are also found in some dialects of Malay (Hendon 1966), many Melanesian languages (Ray 1926), many non-Austronesian languages of New Guinea (Capell 1969), and some Austronesian languages (Dyen 1971). Herbert (p19) cites Capell (1969:29) about this variation in Austronesian languages

Prenasalization occurs in some areas as normal process or as a local peculiarity. In Tuna, some speakers have /b, d, g/, other /mb, nd, ng/, according to geographical distribution of villages. While the pre-nasalization is normal in some areas of insular MN [Malenesia] - Fijian has only /mb, nd, ng/, it is either optional in or missing from others, e.g. Central Malaita (optional), Nguna-Efate (New Hebrides - present in the north, absent in the south).

In short, prenasalized stops do vary with voiced stops. Whatever the reason for

the variation, if the two sets do not contrast underlyingly, there is no reason to posit underlying prenasalized stops.

Finally, we look at (93c), where surface prenasalized stops are underlying clusters. This would be the case, for example, if initially, the nasal part bears a mora or a tone, constituting a syllable by itself, and medially, the nasal part may be the coda of the preceding syllable, for languages that allow CVC syllables. Herbert (1975) considers Luganda to be such a case.

Let us now look at the languages in UPSID. Of the 317 languages, only one, Aranda, has postnasalized stops. Seventeen have prenasalized stops, which fall into four categories

- (102)
- a. Without voiced stops (9 languages): Luvale, Sedang, Washkuk, Selepet, Kewa, Wantoat, Nambakaengö, Paez, Apinaye.
 - b. Without nasals (2 languages): Hakka, Siriono.
 - c. Without voiceless stops (2 languages): Berta, Alawa.
 - d. With voiceless and voiced stops and nasals (4 languages): Gbeya, Sara, Yulu, Ngizin.

(102a) has already been discussed. We look at Aranda and (102b-d) in turn.

Aranda There are two series of stops, voiceless and postnasalized, and a series of nasals. There are no voiced stops. One may wonder if the postnasalized stops are underlyingly voiced stops. However, K. Hale (p.c.) points out that the postnasalized stops, or 'pre-stopped nasals' as he calls them, behave like nasals rather than oral stops. For example, in Anratjera, an Aranda dialect, we find long nasals in place of pre-stopped nasals. If so we must distinguish two nasal series. There are several possible distinctions, e.g. in length, in [tense], or [cont]⁷. I was unable to get the original references on Aranda, and Wilkins (1989)'s account of a neighbouring language, Mparntwe Arrernte, which has a similar consonant inventory, is brief. I will therefore leave the problem open.

Hakka There is no contrast between prenasalized stops and nasals in

⁷ Nasals are considered [-cont] in Chomsky and Halle (1968), but they behave like [+cont] in some Chinese language games (Chao 1931).

Hakka. In fact, some transcriptions write the series as nasals (Yuan 1980).

Siriono Priest (1968, Maddieson's source on Siriono) notes that stops may become prenasalized after a nasal vowel, and that nasals become post-stopped when preceding an oral vowel (104-105). Thus, the prenasalized stops are due to what Herbert calls 'shielding'. In fact, in Priest's own transcription, there are no underlying prenasalized stops.

Berta and Alawa In both languages, there is a voiced stop series and a prenasalized series, but no voiceless series. In particular, in Alawa, there are no aspirated consonants nor fricatives at all

(103)	Alawa	b	^m b	d	nd d	d	nd d	d.	n.d.	g	Ng
		m		n		n		n.			
				r							
				l		l		l.			
				R					j		w

It is likely that the underlying contrast is between voiceless and voiced stops, both unaspirated. The former would sound like a voiced stop in English, and is probably so transcribed. For the latter, to maintain voicing during closure, without making an implosive, one must either expand the vocal cavity or leave the nasal passage open; Alawa seems to have chosen the latter way, giving a prenasalized stops.

Another possibility is that the prenasalized stops are clusters, rather than segments. Triulzi et al (1976), Maddieson's source on Berta, report that Berta has geminate consonants

(104)	ànná	'mother'
	bèllè	'this stone' (< bèlè+lè)

In Triulzi et al's sketchy report, there is little discussion on the syllabic structure of Berta, except the following words (p521)^e

Consonant clusters seem not to occur other than long (geminate) consonants. Homorganic nasal plus stop, as in ^mbè, 'this, this one which', ndé, 'person', Ngole, 'tree, wood' are best thought of as units. Across

^e. Fadashi, Undu and Mayu are three Berta dialects on which Bender's report is based.

syllable boundaries, Fadashi tolerates consonant sequences more than Undu and Undu in turn more than Mayu. e.g. F(adashi): bùbà, 'ashes', U(ndu), M(ayu): bùbà; U(nda): sùrì, 'long', M(ayu): sùrì.

What we can infer is that the syllable structure may be CV or CVC, with some restrictions on coda consonants; thus, prenasalized stops could be clusters intervocalically. Initially, they seem to be clusters, too. As Triulzi et al note, Berta bisyllabic nouns may be HL, LH, HH, and LL, but monosyllabic nouns generally are L. However, a monosyllabic noun with a prenasalized stop may be H, as in ndé 'person'. In our view, if the [n] in ndé is syllabic (with a H or L which Triulzi et al do not mark), the exceptions disappear. There is, therefore, little evidence that Berta has underlying prenasalized stops.

Gbeya, Sara, Yulu, and Ngizim All of these four languages have four series of stops and nasals: voiceless stops, voiced stops, prenasalized stops, and nasals. We look at them in turn.

Gbeya Maddieson (p229, citing Samarin 1966) gives the following stops and nasals in Gbeya, together with all the vowels (N = velar nasal)

(105) Gbeya	Stops & Nasals				Oral Vowels		Nasal Vowels	
	p	t	k	kp	i	u	ĩ	ũ
	b	d	g	gb	e	o		
	mb	nd	Ng	m̃gb	ɛ	ɔ		õ
	m	n	N	m̃N	a		æ̃	ã

If the four series of stops and nasals contrast with each other, they constitute a case for underlying prenasalized stops.

We note, however, that Gbeya has both oral and nasal vowels, and so before prenasalized stops are postulated, we must examine the 'shielding' effect first. Unfortunately, I was unable to obtain original references on Gbeya. Instead, I looked at Sango (Samarin 1967), a language closely related to Gbeya. Both languages are described by the same author (W.J. Samarin), and during about the same period (1966-1967). So the analysis of Sango should be indicative to the analysis of Gbeya as well.

Like Gbeya, Sango has both oral and nasal vowels. Sango also has four series

of stops and nasals (Samarin p31)

(106) Songa Stops and Nasals:	p	t	k	kp
	b	d	g	gb
	mb	nd	ng	ngb
	m	n		

Samarin particularly points out that prenasalized stops are single segments, and that their nasal parts 'never appear to figure as the end of a preceding phonetic syllable' (p32). So a cluster analysis is not available (assuming that no onset cluster is allowed). In addition, Samarin provides the following minimal contrasts between voiced stops and prenasalized stops (p32)

(107)	Voiced Stop:	Prenasalized Stops
	bi 'to throw'	mbi 'I'
	dé 'cold'	ndé 'different'
	da 'house'	nda 'end'
	dú 'hole'	ndú 'to touch'
	gá 'to come'	ngá 'also'
	gó 'neck'	ngó 'canoe'
	gbá 'in vain'	ngbá 'to remain'

However, the minimal contrasts between voiced stops and prenasalized stops, as given in (107), are only apparent. Samarin gives no discussion of the contrasts between prenasalized stops and nasals, nor between voiced stops and nasals. This omission is suspicious, since Sango has both oral and nasal vowels, and we expect to see the 'shielding' effect. In particular, we want to see whether the prenasalized stops are realizations of nasals before oral vowels, as is the case in Kaingang.

In order to find out the answer, I checked the complete Sango lexicon (Samarin pp259-267), and observed the following distributions

- (108) a. Prenasalized stops do not occur before nasal vowels.
 b. Nasals do not occur before nasal vowels.

(108b) is puzzling, since we would expect the opposite. The answer lies in the fact that vowels after nasals are always nasalized for some people, as Samarin (p38) points out, and as he alternately transcribes the word for 'to grow' as [mái] (p38) and [má~i~] (p263). To put it in another way, all vowels after nasals are nasal vowels, which Samarin does not mark in this environment. In contrast, stops occur before both oral and nasal vowels (Samarin p38)

- (109) kE~ 'to refuse'
 kE 'to be'

Putting the above observations together, we have the following distributions

- (110) a. Stops may occur before oral and nasal vowels.
 b. Nasals occur before nasal vowels only.
 c. Prenasalized stops occur before oral vowels only.

This is just what we would expect for the 'shielding' effect: nasals are shielded from a following oral vowel by an epenthetic homorganic stop.

Sara I was unable to obtain references on Sara. However, like Sango, Sara has both oral and nasal vowels, and so the 'shielding' effect is possible.

Yulu I was unable to obtain references on Yulu. In addition, unlike Sara, Yulu does not have nasal vowels, although they are closely related languages, both belonging to the Central Sudanic family. I can offer no analysis here.

Ngizim Ngizim (Maddieson p320, citing Schuh 1972) has voiceless stops, voiced stops, prenasalized stops, and nasals, yet no nasal vowels. So the 'shielding' analysis is not available, nor can we reduce prenasalized stops to voiced stops or nasals. However, the following comment of Schuh (1981:xi) is revealing

[Prenasalized] sounds function as unit phonemes only in word initial positions; medially, a nasal followed by a homorganic stop is always treated as a sequence.

Thus, it may well be possible that all Ngizim prenasalized stop are underlyingly nasal-stop clusters, since it is easier to explain the 'contraction' of two segments than the 'split' of one.

We have seen that, as far as facts are clear, there is no compelling evidence that any language has underlying pre- and post-nasalized stops. This conclusion, if correct, should not be taken lightly. It is possible that, even if there are no underlying pre- and post-nasalized stops, such segments exist at surface. Phonological arguments for surface pre- and post-nasalized stops include compensatory lengthening, phonotactics, rhythmic counting, and language games

(cf. Herbert 1986 for controversies). But if no language has underlying pre- and post-nasalized stops, it may well be the case that such forms are universally excluded, and that surface pre- and post-nasalized stops, whatever their origins, should be reanalyzed.

3.7.3. The No Contour Principle (NCP) I have argued that there is no clear evidence for any of the three contour segments (contour tones, affricates, and pre- and post-nasalized consonants) which Sagey (1986) has proposed. Since arguments for other contour segments (such as 'short diphthongs') are still weaker, I will maintain the strongest hypothesis that no contour segment exists. I will call the universal constraint the 'No Contour Principle' (NCP)

(111) The No Contour Principle (NCP):

* X	X = any node
/ \	F = any feature
[αF] [-αF]	

Let me speculate on the physiological motivations for the NCP. It is well-known that neurological information is sent in discrete units. For example, the human eye receives information in about twelve frames per second. If the human speech faculty functions in a similar fashion, then it will take some threshold interval of time to generate and perceive a speech sound, say about 80ms. This threshold interval may very well be what phonologists have been calling the 'timing slot' or the 'X-slot', and the content of speech activities during this interval 'the segment'. Although articulators may move at different speeds, it is likely that at some planning level all parallel activities are synchronized, so that in each timing unit, each activity can take place at most once.

The NCP not only constrains feature theories, but may account for some well-known autosegmental phenomena. I will discuss one example, the association conventions.

3.7.3.1. Association Conventions One of the most important components in autosegmental tonology is what has come to be called association conventions (AC) (Williams 1976, Goldsmith 1976, Clements & Ford 1979, D. Pulleyblank 1986, and others). As D. Pulleyblank (1986) argues, earlier formulations of the AC are too strong, and that the AC have just the following two elements (p11)

(112) Association Conventions:

Map a sequence of tones onto a sequence of tone-bearing units,

- a. from left to right
- b. in a one to one fashion.

There is evidence, however, that (112a) is not universal. We will take two example, Tonga (e.g. Goldsmith 1981, 1984; Halle & Vergnaud 1982) and Shanghai (Xu et al 1981-1983, Selkirk & Shen 1988, Duanmu 1988).

In Tonga, a nominal form may have underlying HL, HLHL, etc. These tones do not associate to TBUs from left to right; rather, each L is associated to an accented V, as shown below (Goldsmith 1984:20-21)

- (113) a. i-bu-si --> i-bu-si --> i-bu-si 'smoke' (boldface=accent)
- | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | |
| | | | / | |
| HL | H | L | H | L |
- b. **acisya** --> **acisya** --> **acisya** --> **acisya** 'uncle'
- | | | | | | | | |
|------|----|---|---|----|---|---|-------|
| | | | | | | | |
| | | | | | | | |
| HLHL | HL | H | L | HL | H | L | L H L |

In each case, L is first associated to an accented V. Then other association and spreading apply. Finally, unassociated H is deleted.

In Shanghai, association is from left to right for most patterns, but there is one pattern where it is not

- (114) a. za? 'ten' b. za? se 'thirteen' c. za? se ti 'thirteen o'clock'
- | | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|---|
| \ | | | / | |
| L H | L | H | L | H |
- d. za? se ti ci ci ge? 'foolishly' (Lit.: thirteen-o'clockish)
- | | | | | | |
|---|-------|--|--|--|---|
| | ----- | | | | |
| L | | | | | H |

In each of (114), the underlying tones are LH (coming from the first word *sa?*). Here association is not from left to right, but from the two ends, then there is spreading to the right.

If (112a) is not universal, what is left of the AC is just (112b). But (112b) need not be stated. It simply follows from the NCP.

3.8. Summary In this chapter I have argued for the universal tonal model given in (1). I have also argued that the TBU is the segment in the rime, or the mora carrying segment, that there is no CTU (contour tone unit), that there is a direct relation between the TBA (tone bearing ability) and rime length, and that a TBU can carry at most one tone. In a broader theoretical framework, our conclusion of one tone per TBU leads us to the hypothesis of the NCP (No Contour Principle), stated in (111).

STRESS

4.0. Introduction In this chapter I discuss mechanisms for stress assignment. I will basically follow the metrics of Halle & Vergnaud (1987) and Halle (1989). In addition, like Chen (1987), I will emphasize that in order to account for certain stress patterns, the stress mechanism must have full access to syntactic information.

4.1. Halle & Vergnaud (1987) In Halle & Vergnaud (1987), the stress system of a language is determined by a set of parameters, such as left/right headedness and boundedness. The parameters, in addition, may be set differently at various lines, so that, for example, a language may have [left headed] on line one and [right headed] on line two. This system can account for stress patterns in a wide range of languages in a very simple manner.

4.2. Halle (1989) Halle (1989) extends the system of Halle & Vergnaud (1987) by allowing a language to insert constituent boundaries at certain points, such as the left or right edge of a syllable. This extension explains the fact that in some languages, stress is based on mora counting, yet the syllable is never broken into two stress domains.

4.3. Syntactic Information and Nonhead Stress In Halle & Vergnaud (1987) and Halle (1989), only limited use is made of syntactic information. The question is, is syntactic information needed at all for phonological processes? According to Chomsky's (1981) model of grammar, the phonological component takes as its input the output of the syntactic component. So the null hypothesis is that all syntactic information is available for the phonological component. There is much evidence for this hypothesis. For example, the English Main Stress Rule makes use of syntactic bracketing (Chomsky & Halle 1968). Similarly, in his analysis of Xiamen, Chen (1987) argues that the main stress is assigned to the last (non-weak) syllable in every XP that is not an adjunct. He concludes that 'phonology cannot be syntax-blind' but must make much more use of syntactic information than has been suggested in Selkirk (1984). Moreover, although Selkirk & Shen (1988) argue that the syntax-phonology mapping has 'extremely limited sensitivity to syntactic structure', and that

'no syntactic relations govern the mapping at all, be they dominance, sisterhood, or c-command', yet their analysis of phonological domains makes specific use of both syntactic bracketing and syntactic labeling, as we will see in Chapter 5.

In this section I will discuss a further stress pattern that requires the full use of syntactic information. I will call the pattern 'non-head stress' (NHS),¹ whereby in a syntactic head-nonhead relation, the stress is assigned to the non-head. The relation between head and non-head is defined as follows:

- (1) In X^{n+1} Y is the non-head and X^n is the head.

$$\begin{array}{c} \wedge \\ Y \quad X^n \end{array}$$
 (Y = any projection)

By this definition, the head need not be X^0 but could be any projection of X. Similarly, by this definition, non-head covers what may be called modifier, complement, etc. Note also that (1) does not distinguish adjunct v. argument nonheads, unlike the case of Xiamen discussed in Chen (1987). The NHS rule, which is cyclic, is given below

- (2) In a head-nonhead structure, stress the nonhead.

Let us illustrate (1) and (2) with data from Chengdu, based on my own work. Consider the stress patterns in NPs (boldface = main stress)²

(3) NP:	[niu nai] cow milk cow's milk	[chao fan] fry rice fried rice	[ji dan] chicken egg chicken's egg
	[xian [niu nai]] fresh cow milk fresh cow milk	[[you chao] fan] oil fry rice oil-fried rice	[re [[you chao] fan]] warm oil fry rice warm oil-fried rice

1. Thanks to M. Yip for suggesting this term to me. As she rightly points out, my earlier term 'complement stress' is a little confusing.

2. The transcription is given in Pingying, a Romanised alphabetical system for Mandarin, although the pronunciation of Chengdu differs somewhat from Mandarin. The following stress markings are based on normal speech, i.e. without contrast or focus. The manifestation of stress is mainly in length, so that the stressed syllable is markedly longer.

- (4) Verb: [hong shao] [qing duen] [shou xie]
 red cook plain stew hand write
 to red-cook to plain-stew to hand-write
- (5) Adj: [bing leng] [[shen lu]
 ice cold dark green

The above examples may give one the impression that the stress pattern is left headed. But further patterns show that it is not so

- (6) VP: [chao fan] [pao cai] [he [xian [niu nai]]]
 fry rice pickle veg drink fresh cow milk
 to fry rice to pickle veg to drink fresh cow milk
- (7) PP: [zai [wai mian]] [yan [he bian]] [cao [er lou]]
 at outside side along river side toward second floor

The above patterns may be derived by cyclically applying the NHS rule and the stress clash rule (Halle & Vergnaud 1987). Let us look at a few examples. Consider the following stress patterns

- (8) [[xian [niu nai]]
 fresh cow milk 'fresh milk'
 2 1 1
- (9) [[he [niu nai]]
 drink cow milk 'to drink milk'
 1 2 1
- (10) [[xing mai] de] [shu bao]]
 new buy book bag '(a) newly bought school-bag'
 2 1 0 2 1

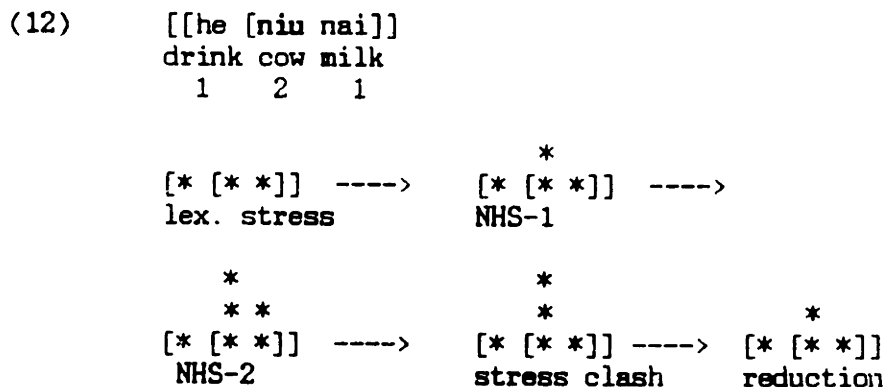
where 2 is stronger than 1, and 1 stronger than 0. The derivation of (8) is as follows (*=stress, following Halle & Vergnaud 1987)

- (11) [[xian [niu nai]]
 fresh cow milk
 2 1 1
- *
 [* [* *]] ----> [* [* *]] ---->
 lex. stress NHS-1
- * * *
 [* [* *]] ----> [* [* *]]
 NHS-2 stress clash

In (11), all the three words are lexically stressed. On the first cycle (NHS-

1), the nonhead is second syllable, which received an NHS assignment. On the second cycle (NHS-2), the nonhead is the first syllable, which gets an NHS assignment. Now the first two syllables have equal additional stress, so the stress clash rule applies, removing one of the NHS assignments. I assume that, as a general rule, later assignments override earlier ones, so that the NHS assignment is deleted from the second syllable. The result is that the first syllable has stronger stress, while the other two have lexical stress alone.

Next, consider the derivation of (10), which is shown below

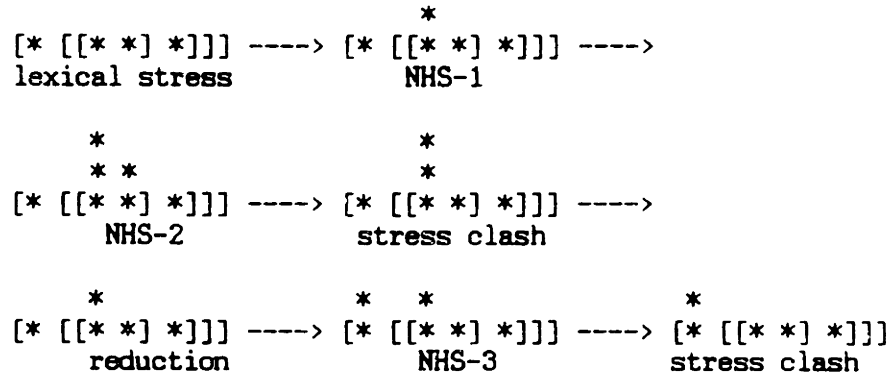


Again all the three words are lexically stressed. On the first cycle, the nonhead is the second syllable, which gets an asterisk. On the second cycle, the nonhead is the last two syllables, each of which receives an asterisk. Then, the stress clash rule applies, removing the NHS from the third syllable. At this point, we have the stress pattern [1 3 1]. Since to my knowledge, [1 3 1] never contrasts with [1 2 1], I assume there to be a stress reduction rule that changes [1 3 1] to [1 2 1], as stated below

(13) Stress Reduction: Reduce stress levels whenever possible, as long as relevant prominence is maintained.

Intuitively, what (13) says is that stress is relative, and not absolute. This is reminiscent of our discussion of pitch in Chapter 3, where I suggested that what matters is relative pitch and not absolute pitch. The final result of (12) is that the second syllable has stronger stress, while the other two have just lexical stress.

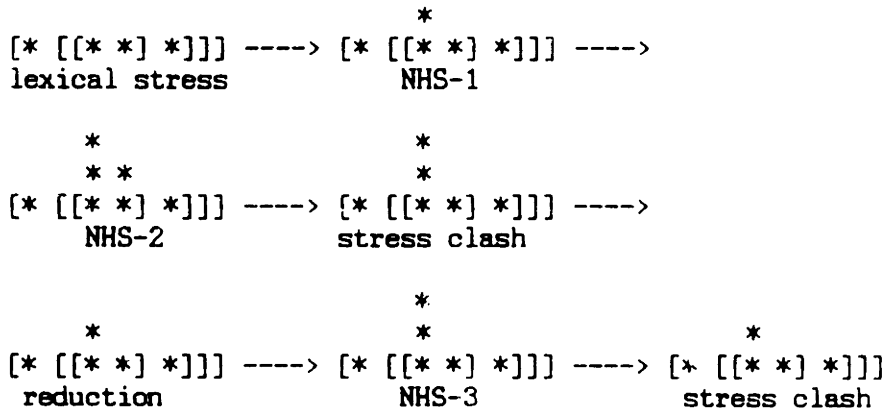
Finally, consider the more complicated (10), whose derivation is given below



First, all the syllables in (17) have lexical stress. On the first cycle, the nonhead is the second syllable, which gets an asterisk. On the second cycle, the nonhead is the second and third syllables, each of which gets an asterisk. Now stress clash and reduction rules apply, leaving just one NHS asterisk on the second syllable. On the third cycle, the nonhead is the first syllable, which gets an asterisk. The stress clash rule applies again, giving [2 1 1 1].

Finally, consider the derivation of (16), which is given below

- (18) [VP chi [[dan chao] fan]]
 eat egg fry rice 'to eat egg-fried rice'
 1 2 1 1



All the steps in (18) are the same as in (17), until the third cycle (NHS-3), where here the nonhead is the second syllable, which gets another asterisk. Finally stress clash rule applies, giving [1 2 1 1].

If the stress clash and reduction rules do not apply after each cycle, we will get the different results. Take (15) for example, derived below

stress on the left, and (20b) on the right. In contrast, the alternative analysis wrongly predicts that both (20a,b) have the stress on the right.

The NHS is not only found in Chengdu, but also in Shanghai, as we will see in Chapter 5. The NHS also provide us with a cue to otherwise unclear syntactic structures. The following are some examples

- (22) [Li xiansheng] [Wang jiaoshou]
Li mister Wang professor
- (23) [Li Hao] [xiao Wang] [Lao Li]
(surname given-name) Little Wang Old Li
- (24) [chi bao] [da lan]
eat full hit break
to eat till full
- [da lan [hua ping]]
hit break flower vase
to hit till breaking the vase
- (25) [jin qu] [zou jin qu] [chi le] [lai guo]
enter go walk enter go eat ASP come ASP
to go in to go in by walking
- (26) [bu lai]
not come
- (27) [shi wu] [wu shi] [[wu shi] wu]
ten five five ten five ten five
fifteen fifty fifty-five

(22) shows that the head is the title, not the name. This agrees with the fact that such phrases may often be shortened to the title only, but not the name only. For example, 'Professor Wang' may be shortened to 'Professor' but not 'Wang'. (23) shows that of a person's names, the surname is the head; so are prefixes like 'Old' and 'Little' in friendly addresses. (24) shows that in Verb-Resultative compounds, the resultative is the head. And so on. Clearly, using the NHS to help clarify syntactic issues is a promising area of research, but that is beyond our scope here.

DOMAIN

5.0. Introduction In this chapter I discuss the determination of tonal domains. I will argue that the tonal domain is the same as the stress domain, as Yip (1980) and Wright (1983) suggest. I will discuss two languages, Mandarin and Shanghai. I will also discuss syntax-phonology mismatches and show that they are also stress dependent. Specifically, I will show that, with a proper analysis of Chinese syntax, all mismatches are accountable with stress rules alone, and no other prosodic accessories are needed.

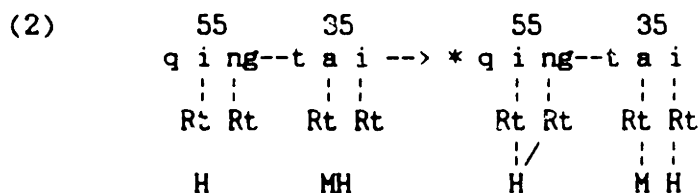
5.1. Mandarin Mandarin has two kinds of syllables, stressed and unstressed. Unstressed syllables, also called 'neutral-tone syllables', are toneless and monomoraic, and are mostly marked lexically (Woo 1969, C.Cheng 1973, Chao 1968, M. Lin & Yan 1988). In contrast, stressed syllables, which comprise the overwhelming majority, always have tones and are bimoraic (or sometimes trimoraic finally) in length (cf. Chapter 2).¹

The fact that most Mandarin syllables are stressed may explain why there is little tone shifting going on, i.e. why the ACs ('association conventions', e.g. D. Pulleyblank 1986) do not seem to apply. For example, consider

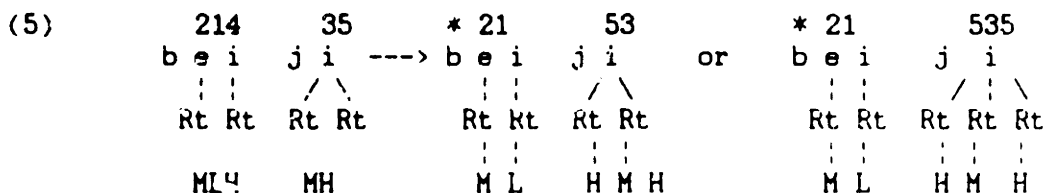
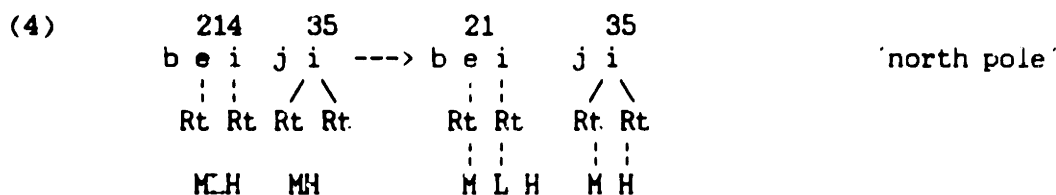
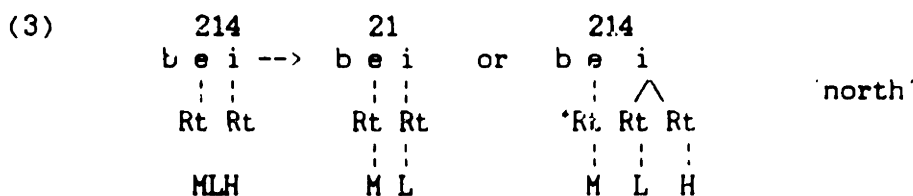
(1)

55	35	* 53	55	
q i n g -- t a i --	q i n g -- t a i --	q i n g -- t a i	q i n g -- t a i	'moss'
Rt Rt	Rt Rt	Rt Rt	Rt Rt	
H	MH	H M	H	

¹. Among stressed syllables, some may bear greater stress than others. Ho (1983) suggests that such additional stress is at least partly marked in the lexicon, while Meredith (1990) suggests that it is predictable from the tones of the syllables. My own experience with native Peking Mandarin speakers suggests that while there is never confusion between stressed and unstressed syllables, judgements on the relative prominence of stressed syllables are less clear. In any case, additional stress will not be our concern here.

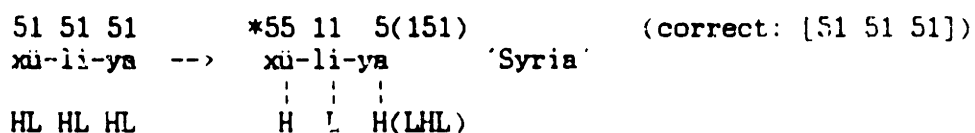


The word for 'moss' has two syllables; underlyingly, qing is [55] or [H], and tai is [35] or [MH]. If the ACs apply, as in (1), we expect the output [HM !] or [53 35]. But the actual pattern is [H MH] or [55 35], as in (2), i.e. each syllable keeps its underlying tones.² Similarly, consider another example



bei 'north' is underlyingly [214], which we assume to be [MLH]. In final positions, shown in (3), it may surface as [21] with the regular length, or as [214] with a longer length. In bei 'north pole', bei is [21] and cannot be [214]. We assume that a syllable may be lengthened only in final positions,

² The problem cannot be solved by assuming that each syllable has just one TBU, as the following shows



If each syllable has one TBU, we expect [55 11 5...], which is wrong. The right pattern is [51 51 51], i.e. each syllable again keeps its own tones.

where it may carry three tones. The question is, if *bei* in (4) has an extra H, why does it not realize on *ji*, to give [ML HM] or [ML HMM], as we would expect from the ACs shown in (5)? The fact, again, is that each syllable keeps its own tones, and the ACs seem to fail to apply.

The apparent failure of the ACs to apply to Mandarin is explained if we assume that the tonal domain is the stress domain. In particular, since most syllables are stressed, the tonal domain is in effect the syllable, as we have seen above. This is not a surprising fact, since most Chinese syllables are words themselves. We do predict, however, that if a stressed syllable is followed by one (or more) unstressed syllable(s), there will be just one domain. This prediction is borne out, as the following shows

(6)	214		21	5	
	m a i l e	---	m a i l e		'bought'
	Rt Rt Rt		Rt Rt Rt		
	MLH		M L H		

mai 'buy' is [214] or [MLH]. When followed by the unstressed and toneless *le* 'PAST', *mai* shifts its H to the latter. This is just what we expect from the ACs. In other words, the apparent failure of the application of the ACs in Mandarin and most other Chinese languages is due to the fact that in these languages most syllables are stressed, so each syllable forms a tonal domain.

The final question we want to find out is whether Mandarin stress is left-headed or right-headed. (6) gives some evidence that it is left-headed. Below is further evidence

(7) a.	buy	ASP	wine		'bought wine'
	m a i l e		j i u	---	m a i l e j i u
					\
	Rt Rt Rt		Rt Rt		Rt Rt Rt Rt Rt
	(MLH)		(MLH)		(M L H) (M L H)
					[21 5 214]
b.	m a i l e		j i u	---	*m a i l e j i u
	Rt Rt Rt		Rt Rt		Rt Rt Rt Rt
	(MLH)		(MLH)		(M L H)(M L H)
					*[21 2 14]

tone domain is the entire phrase.³ In other words, two conditions hold for both Mandarin and Shanghai

- (10) a. Stressless syllables lose their underlying tones.
 b. The tonal domain is the stress domain.

These two conditions are likely to have a more general nature, which I will not pursue further here.

Let us now consider how a 'phrase' or tonal domain is determined in Shanghai. I suggest the following rules (in terms of Halle & Vergnaud 1987)

- (11) Shanghai Stress Domains:
 a. Mark the initial syllable of every XP, if it is not lexically weak.
 b. Construct left headed, unbounded constituents.

We will see what happens if the XP initial syllable is weak in section 5.3.

(11) is similar to the rules proposed in Selkirk & Shen (1988, hence S&S), rephrased below

- (12) a. Mark the initial syllable of every lexical word, i.e. V, N, and A. Ignore functional words, e.g. I, P, pronouns, etc.
 b. Mark the initial syllable of every lexical XP, i.e. VP, NP, and AP, but not PP, IP, etc..
 c. Mark the sentence initial syllable, if it is unmarked.
 d. A sandhi domain starts from a marked syllable and ends before the next marked syllable.

Both (11) and (12) assume that certain weak syllables cannot start a domain. The main difference between (11) and (12) is that while (12) marks both X⁰s and XPs, (11) marks XPs only. This difference is mainly due to different analyses of Chinese nominals. For example, consider

- (13) (du ge?) (fi-ji) () = tone domain
 big plane
 Duanmu: [[[XP] []] [NP]] 'the plane that is big'
 S&S : [[AP] [N]] 'big plane'

³ Selkirk & Shen (1988) argue that unlike the often claimed initial stress in Shanghai, the native speaker does not feel that the initial syllable is more prominent. I am not sure whether Selkirk & Shen are right. However, what Halle & Vergnaud (1987) calls 'stress' need not mean physically longer or louder; retaining the underlying tones of a syllable suffices to be a manifestation of stress.

Both analyses correctly predict (13) to form two domains, but for different reasons. For me, it is because the particle *ge?* (same as the famous *de* in Manrarin) has its own projection and must be flanked by XPs, as shown below

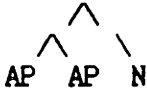
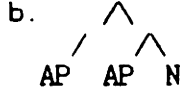
- (14)
- | | |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <pre> DeP / \ De' XP2 / \ XP1 ge? </pre> | <p>a. [[ong <i>ge?</i> [ho <i>ge?</i> tsz]]
 red flower seed
 'flower seeds that are red'</p> <p>b. [[[yi na] <i>ge?</i>] [<i>ge?</i>-nge ma?-z]]
 he buy these thing
 'these things which he bought'</p> |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

So in (13), both *du* and *fi-ji* are XPs, giving two domains. In contrast, for S&S, *ge?* has no projection; it may be followed by N, as in (13), or by XP, as in (14a,b). Although for S&S *fi-ji* in (13) is N, by (12a) it may still start a domain. In addition, *ge?* is lexically weak and cannot start a domain, so (13) forms two domains. Next consider

- (15) a.
- | | |
|----------------------------|--------|
| (so?-lio fi-ji) | |
| plastic plane | |
| [[AP]][N]]: | Duanmu |
| [N]: | S&S |
- b.
- | | |
|----------------------------|--------|
| (cio-ying fi-ji) | |
| small-sized plane | |
| [[AP]][N]]: | Duanmu |
| [N]: | S&S |

Each of (15a,b) forms one domain. Both S&S and I predict it, but again for different reasons. For me, (15a,b) are NPs; since *fi-ji* is not XP, there is just one domain. For S&S, (15a,b) are compound nouns. This is because S&S (and many others, such as B. Lu 1990) hold the view that whether a nominal is NP or N depends on the presence of *ge?*. With *ge?*, it is an NP; without *ge?*, it is a (compound) N. (15a,b) have no *ge?*, so they are not NPs, but compounds. Since a compound is a single word, (15a,b) each forms one domain.

S&S and I do not always make the same predictions, though. Consider

- (16)
- | | | | |
|---------|-------------|----------|--------|
| | (cio-ying) | (so?-lio | fi-ji) |
| | small-sized | plastic | plane |
| Duanmu: | [[AP |][AP |][N]] |
| S&S : | [N | |] |
-
- a. 
- b. 

This phrase forms two domains. In my analysis, cio-ying and so?-lio are APs, and fi-ji is N, so whether the structure is (16a) or (16b), there will be two domains, which is correct. In S&S's analysis, since there is no ge?, (16) is a compound, and so should form one domain, which is wrong.

A major argument S&S give for marking both X⁰s and XPs is based on focused phrases. This is illustrated below

- (17)
- | | | | |
|-----------|-------|------|-----------------------|
| red | horse | tail | 'tails of red horses' |
| [[ong ge? | mo] | ge? | nʅi-po] |
| (|) | (|) |
| (* | | |) |
-): Normal speech
): Focus on ong

- (18)
- | | | | |
|-----------|----------|---------|-----------------------|
| red | horse | tail | 'red tails of horses' |
| [[ong ge? | [[mo ge? | nʅi-po] | |
| (|) | (|) |
| (* |) | (|) |
-): Normal speech
): Focus on ong

In normal speech, both (17) and (18) form three domains. For me, it is because ge? is flanked by XPs; in particular, ong, mo and nʅi-po each is an XP and starts a domain. For S&S, mo and nʅi-po in (17) and nʅi-po in (18) are Ns, but since both XP and X⁰ may start a domain, (17) and (18) each has three domains (excluding the weak ge?).

Now, when we focus ong, (17) and (18) differ. According to S&S, (17) becomes one domain (or the last two domains lose their tones), but (18) remains three domains. The question is why. For S&S, the difference is due to a distinction between the XP boundary and the X⁰ boundary. In particular, S&S suggest that the focused syllable causes tone deletion in the syllables to its right, unless the syllables are separated by an XP. In (17), mo and nʅi-po are not separated

by an XP from ong, so their tones delete. In (18), mo starts a new XP, which blocks tone deletion.

My analysis is quite different. To me the contrast between (17) and (18) is due to NHS ('non-head stress', cf. Chapter 4). Consider

(19)

<pre> W S S W S ong ge? mo ge? nyi-po (2)(2)(1): Focus <u>ong</u> (3)(2)(1): Focus <u>ong</u> </pre>	<p>s = stress on nonhead w = lack of stress on head</p> <p>'tails of red horses'</p>
-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------

(20)

<pre> W ε S W S ong ge? mo ge? nyi-po (1)(2)(2): Normal (2)(2)(2): Focus <u>ong</u> </pre>	<p>'red tails of horses'</p>
-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------	------------------------------

I have marked NHS in (19) and (20) (cf. our analysis of ge? in (14), where between XP₁ and ge?, XP₁ is the nonhead, and between De' and XP₂, XP₂ is the nonhead). In (19)=(17), ong gets two assignments of NHS, ho gets two, and tsz gets one. In (20)=(18), the order is one, two and two. Now to focus ong is to add more stress to it, say another degree. In (19), the effect is for ong to overshadow mo and nyi-po in stress, but in (20), the effect does not make ong stronger than others. Whether or not there is tone deletion in (19)=(17) I am not sure, but my prediction of relative prominence among different domains agree with S&S's observations. The effect of focusing mo can be explained in the same way.

That Shanghai has NHS is independently reflected in the transcriptions of Xu et al (1981-1983). For example, in [V NP] phrases, Xu et al give a narrower pitch range for the tones on V than for the tones on NP. Consider

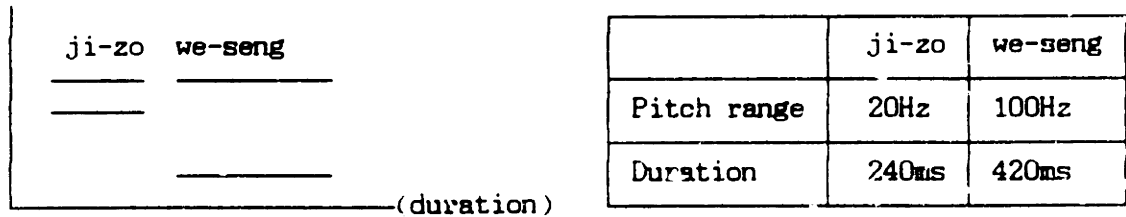
(21) investigate problems 'to investogate problems'
 [VP dio-zo [NP weng-ti]]
 (L H) (L H)
 22 33 22 44 () = tonal domains

(21) has two domains, each with the same tones. Xu et al writes [22 33] for the

verb but [22 44] for the object. This is in agreement with our view that the object is the nonhead, and so has additional stress. My own acoustic study yield the same result, as the following example shows

(22) inspect hygiene 'to inspect hygiene'
 [VP ji-zo [NP we-seng]]
 (L H) (L H)

(Pitch Range)



The VP phrase has two domains. As is shown, in normal speech, the object domain has both a wider pitch range, as Xu et al note, and a longer duration.

I have given a stress-based account of tonal domains in Shanghai, rather than a category-based account, as S&S propose. I will now show that a stress-based account can also explain many otherwise puzzling syntax-phonology mismatches.

5.3. Syntax-Phonology Mismatches Syntax-phonology mismatches (SPM) have attracted much recent attention (e.g. Selkirk 1984, Hayes 1984, Klavans 1985, Nespor & Vogel 1986, Shih 1986, Chen 1987, Marantz 1988, Selkirk & Shen 1988). Some consider SPMs to be accountable by syntactic relations, such as dominance, sisterhood and c-command (e.g. Hayes 1984, Nespor & Vogel 1986); some attribute SPMs to largely independent prosodic operations (e.g. Selkirk & Shen 1988). In this section, however, I will offer a stress-based account of SPMs. I will discuss two languages, Shanghai and Mandarin, and show that the stress-based account is superior to other accounts.

The essence of a stressed-based account of SPM is schematically shown below

(23) a. Syntax: [*][*]
 Phonology: [][]
 b. Syntax: [*][*]
 Stress Deletion: [*][]
 Mismatch: []

In (23a), two syntactic domains map to two phonological domains; there is no mismatch. In (23b), since one of the stresses is deleted, a phonological domain is lost; the two syntactic domains now map to one phonological domain, giving a mismatch. Let us now look at real cases.

5.3.1. Shanghai S&S discuss a rich body of SPMs in Shanghai. Most examples below will be taken from S&S. Consider first

- (24) I read ASP he book 'I read his book'
 [ngu [kō ku [yi ge? sz]]]
 a. () () () ()
 b. () () () ()

If we mark the boundaries at every XP, (24) forms four domains, as in (24a). In particular, since *ge?* is followed by XP, *sz* is NP and forms a domain. In addition, I follow S&S and assume that *ku* does not start an XP. (24a) is a possible tonal pattern, in which there is no SPM. Now, as S&S point out, (24b) is also a possible pattern, which mismatches the syntactic partition in (24a). The question is why. According to S&S, pronouns are optionally weak, hence may fail to start a domain; this explains the loss of the domain *yi ge?*. On the other hand, the initial pronoun *ngu* cannot lose its domain, since if it does, it will remain unpartitioned to any constituent, which S&S assume to violate some well-formedness constraint.

My analysis is only slightly different from that of S&S's. For me, a pronoun may optionally lose its stress, and when it does, the constituent headed by it will be headless and cease to exist (Halle & Vergnaud 1987); in this particular case it will automatically merge with the constituent on its left, due to left-headedness. In addition, I follow S&S and assume that all elements must belong to some constituent, so that the initial pronoun cannot lose its stress (since it cannot merge with the domain to its right). For me, therefore, the SPM in (24b) is a result of stress deletion.

Before we consider further examples, it is necessary to look at Chinese 'classifier phrases' (ClP). I assume that ClP has the following structure

- (25)
- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------------------|
| C1P | ?i? que [yi ma ge? bi-zo] |
| ^ | a cake he buy soap |
| C1' XP ₂ | 'a cake of soap which he bought' |
| ^ | |
| XP ₁ C1 | |

What is of interest to us is that the classifier (C1) is followed by XP, such as a relative clause, as the example shows. Now consider the case below

- (26)
- | | | | | | |
|----|--------|----------|-----|----------|-------------------------|
| | buy | a/one | cup | tea | |
| | [VP ma | [C1P ?i? | pe | [NP zo]] | |
| a. | () | () | () | () | 'to buy one cup of tea' |
| b. | () | () | () | () | 'to buy a cup of tea' |

?i? may mean 'one' or 'a'. When it means 'one', there are three tonal domains, as in (26a), which agree with the syntactic domains. However, when ?i? means 'a', there are just two tonal domains, mismatching the syntactic domains. Our explanation for the SPM in (26b) is simple: ?i? 'a' does not carry stress, so it cannot head a domain, so its domain merges with the one on its left.

S&S call a domain that contains a stressed word followed by one or more weak words the 'Phonological Word' (PwD), which they consider to be similar to what Hayes (1984) and Nespor & Vogel (1986) call the 'Clitic Group'. S&S point out, rightly, that, unlike what Hayes (1984) and Nespor & Vogel (1986) suggest, the formation of a PwD does not require that the weak word c-command the stressed word. For example, in (26b), ?i? does not c-command ma, yet the two words form a domain. In my analysis, however, not only is c-command unneeded, but the notion PwD is also superfluous. It suffices to assume, as everyone does, that certain words do not carry stress, and that every constituent must have a head, as independently argued for by Halle & Vergnaud.

As a final example, consider the following

- (27)
- | | | | | |
|-----|-------|---------|-----------|-------------------------|
| he | live | at | Shanghai | 'He lives in Shanghai.' |
| yi | [VP z | [PP le? | zang-he]] | |
| () | () | () | () | |
- (28)
- | | | | | |
|-----|-------------|---------------|------|-------------------------|
| he | at | Shanghai | live | 'He lives in Shanghai.' |
| yi | [VP [PP le? | zang-he] z] | | |
| () | () | () | () | |

The point of interest to us is that the word le?, which S&S consider to be a

phrases, and in normal speech, most people agree that T3S applies cyclically (e.g. C. Cheng 1973, Shih 1986, Duanmu 1989b). For example,

- (35) a. 3 3 3 ---> 2 2 3 b. 3 3 3 ---> 3 2 3
 [[li pin] chang] [xiao [li pin]]
 gift item factory small gift item

In each case, T3S applies from the innermost brackets out, two syllables at a time. In (35a) the first two syllables change, while in (35b), only the second syllable changes. We will not discuss the behavior of T3S in long phrases. It suffices to note that, in short phrases, and in normal speech, T3S operates on structural bracketing, and that left- and right-branching structures yield different outputs.

In (35), T3S follows the syntactic bracketing. There is no SPM. Sometimes, however, T3S does not follow the syntactic bracketing. Consider

- (36) 3 3 3 ---> 2 2 3 (*3 2 3)
 [[]]
 [mai [wan jiu]]
 buy bowl wine '(to) buy a bowl of wine'

The syntax is right branching. If T3S follows the syntax, we expect the output [3 2 3], same as in (35b). Yet the correct output is [2 2 3], as if (36) is left branching, like (35a). The question is why there is SPM in (36).

Shih (1986, 149-151) suggests that classifiers like wan may cliticize to the preceding verb, so that (36) will change from right branching to left branching

- (37)
-
- mai wan jiu cliticization mai-wan jiu
 buy bowl wine buy bowl wine

Although it may be true that some cliticization is going on, there are three problems with the analysis in (37). First, clitics are usually unstressed. In Mandarin unstressed syllables lose their underlying tones (cf. section 5.1.). However, wan retains its underlying tones, which means that it is stressed. Second, we have argued that the tonal domain is the stress domain. If wan has stress, it should start a domain, and so it is not clear how it can merge with the preceding domain, as implied in (37). Third, as Marantz (1988) points out,

After the merger, a [V ClP] phrase is changed to a [V NP] phrase. At this point, wan is closer to mai than to jiu; this is because between mai and wan there is no intervening bracketing, but between wan and jiu there is an NP boundary. When we apply T3S here, it will operate on mai wan first, and then on wan jiu, giving the output [2 2 3], as shown below

(43)		[VP	mai	wan	[NP	jiu]]
	Underlying:		3	3		3	
	Cycle 1:		2	3			
	Cycle 2:			2		3	
	Output:		2	2		3	

The output of (43) is the same as one from a left branching structure, as we expect.

5.4. Summary I have argued that in both Mandarin and Shanghai, the tonal domain is the stress domain. Although in Mandarin stress is assigned to regular syllables, and in Shanghai it is assigned to XPs, both languages have left headed domains (cf. (8) and (11)). In addition, I have shown that a stress-based analysis, shown in (23), may explain a wide range of syntax-phonology mismatches, whether the mismatches appear with stress sensitive rules, such as in Shanghai tone sandhi, or with rules unbounded by stress domains, such as the Mandarin T3S.

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