

Summary. Grammatical tone can systematically delete/replace lexical tone, but only if the target is syntactically inward. We present a fully modular account, whereby the scope of dominant tone emerges from recursive layering of morphs at Spell-out. We formalise this via Correspondence.

Types of grammatical tone. All African tone languages exhibit GRAMMATICAL TONE (Hyman et al. 2021), defined as tonal changes in a specific morphological/syntactic environment that cannot be attributed to general phonology. Grammatical tone (GT) can be divided into DOMINANT GT and NON-DOMINANT GT. Both types are found in Kalabari [i.j.n] (Harry 2004, Harry & Hyman 2014), which has a basic tone contrast between L and H. The associative construction [N₁ N₂] is used for possession and compounds, in which N₁ modifies a head N₂. In (1) below, the modifying N₁ is /tùbò/ ‘child’, and the associative construction means ‘a child(’s) X’. This pattern shows dominant GT, whereby the lexical tone of N₂ is deleted and replaced by a HL pattern. Compare this to the imperative in (2) which exhibits non-dominant GT. Here, a HL pattern is appended to the right edge of the verb but co-occurs with the verb’s lexical tones rather than replacing them.

Lex T	(1) Noun	Associative (DOM)	(2) Verb	Imperative (NON-DOM)
HL	bélè ‘light’	→ tùbò bélè	bámà ‘punish’	→ bá [↑] màà
HH	námá ‘meat’	→ tùbò námà	óló ‘cough’	→ ólò
LL	pùlò ‘oil’	→ tùbò púlò	lègì ‘sit down’	→ lègì
LH	gàrí ‘garri’	→ tùbò gáří	ḍùkó ‘tell, talk’	→ ḍùkó

In the associative, when N₂ has more than two moras then the HL melody targets the two rightmost only, in (3b-c). The tone of the modifier spreads to the remaining initial mora of N₂.

(3) a. /kúkàlí/ ‘fruit’ b. [tùbò kù**ká**lí] ‘child’s fruit’ c. [féni kù**ká**lí] ‘bird’s fruit’

Dominant GT in the associative deletes the tone of all inwardly-located structure, e.g. the complex NP in (4a) (URs: /àbàjì/ ‘ocean’, /námá/ ‘animal’). However, an outwardly-located definite marker /mè/ ‘the’ cannot be targeted by dominant GT, shown in (4b). Other D/Q markers are equally unaffected by the dominant GT, e.g. /má/ DEF.PL, /améè/ INDEF.PL, and /mámgbà/ ‘all’.

(4) a. [tùbò à**bá**jì **nà**mà] ‘child’s ocean animal’ (*[tùbò à**bá**jì námá])
 b. [tùbò kù**ká**lí mè] ‘the child’s fruit’ (*[tùbò kù**ká**lí mè])

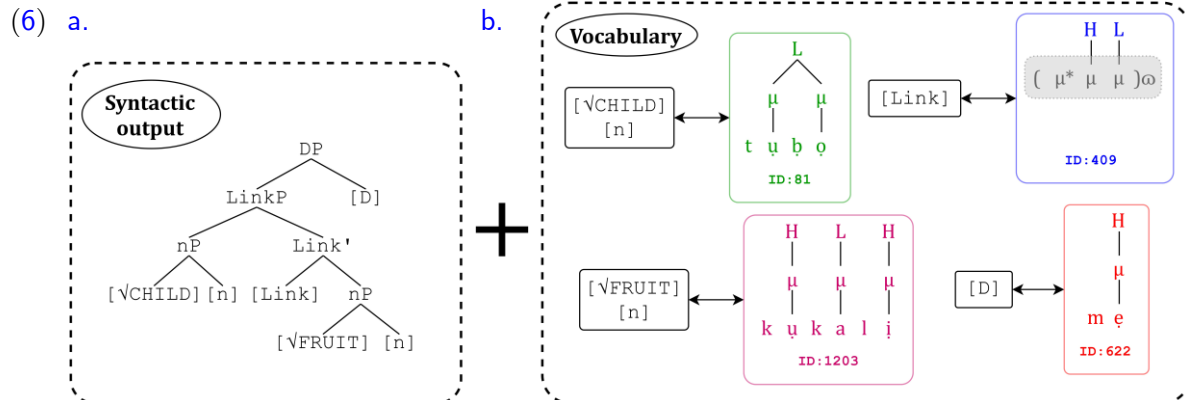
Rolle (2018) shows that cross-linguistically, dominant GT is always restricted to inward targets. This is unlike non-dominant GT patterns which may apply inward or outward, depending on the language. This typological finding is called the DOMINANT GT ASYMMETRY, summarised in (5).

(5)	Trigger	→ Target	NON-DOM GT	DOM GT
Inward	Affix	→ Root	✓	✓
	Modifier	→ Noun	✓	✓
	Outer affix/mod.	→ Inner affix/mod.	✓	✓
Outward	Root	→ Affix	✓	*
	Noun	→ Modifier	✓	*
	Inner affix/mod.	→ Outer affix/mod.	✓	*

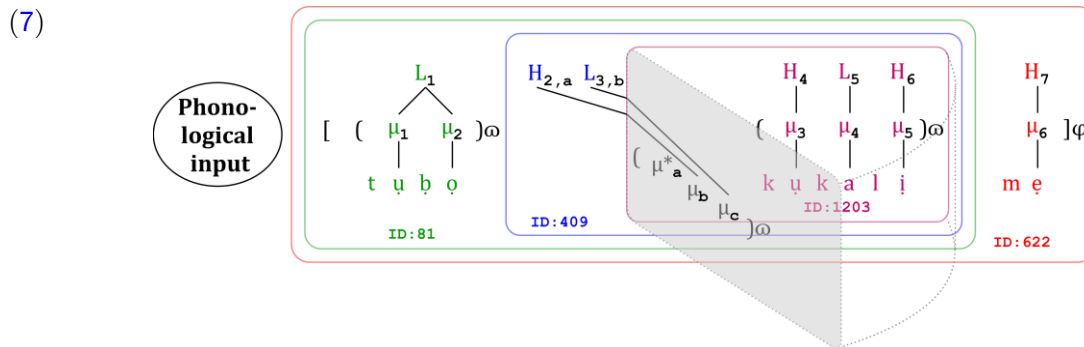
This restriction on directionality corroborates previous work on GT (McPherson 2014) and parallel findings for stress/‘pitch accent’ (Kiparsky & Halle 1977, i.a.), codified in the theoretical literature as principles of ‘Strict Base Mutation’ (Alderete 1999) and ‘Stem Scope’ (Inkelas & Zoll 2007).

Proposal. In this talk, we propose a novel account of GT dominance. Our model takes as its starting point the output of the syntactic derivation which is sent to Spell-out. For example, (4b) above corresponds to the syntactic structure in (6a) below, consisting only of syntactic features. At Spell-out, these syntactic features activate entries within the Vocabulary (6b), essentially stored syntax-phonology pairings familiar to realizational models of morphology (Embick 2015,

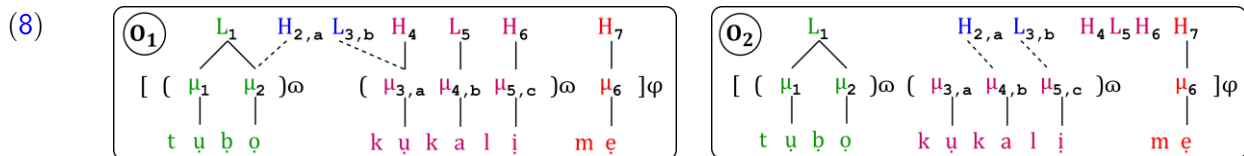
Scheer 2020). These involve normal phonological primitives (segments, moras, tones), and each item has a morphological index (=colour) to distinguish from other items (van Oostendorp 2005).



One item in (6b) requires further comment: the linker, analysed as a HL sequence associated to PHANTOM STRUCTURE, in grey (Rolle & Lionnet 2020). In essence, phantom structure constitutes an abstract template which is imposed on the phonological environment of the sponsoring morph. Spell-out takes the two parts of (6) and produces the input to the phonological module, in (7).



This input consists of (i) linearised morphs composed of phonological primitives, (ii) recursive layering of these morphs based on their syntactic position, and (iii) initial prosodification (ω , φ). Importantly, the phantom structure associated with the linker is not linearised with respect to the adjacent morph, but rather exists on a parallel phantom plane that is co-extensive with it. This input is evaluated by the phonology and mapped to an optimal output. Our model exploits Correspondence Theory (McCarthy & Prince 1995), whereby strings in the input correspond to strings in output candidates ($O_1 \dots O_n$). This is indicated via subscripting in (7), and in (8) below.



There are two correspondence strings: one purely for the phonological substance (the numbers) and one for the phantom structure (the letters). The multiple planes of the input must be collapsed into a single plane in the output. Tone replacement is due to faithfulness to the tonal specification of moras in the phantom string correspondence. This favours output O_2 where μ_b maintains its association to H_a . Further, the scope of dominance is constrained by these correspondence relations. Because the outer determiner / $m\acute{e}$ / is not co-extensive with the phantom plane in the input, its mora μ_6 does not correspond to phantom structure and is unaffected by the GT. This proposal is fully modular in the sense that (i) it only refers to phonological primitives and relationships, and (ii) there is no sensitivity to syntactic primitives or structure after Spell-out.