# Paradigmatic and Inflectional Change: Some Theoretical Lessons 

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#### Abstract

Several paradigm-based morphological changes in Greek and Latin are presented, including a persistent and recurring type of change involving the reshaping of inflectional endings based on other endings, that provide evidence first for the existence of paradigms and then for their internal structure. These considerations lead to an exploration of the relevance of various theoretical constructs and notions (e.g. rules of referral, OOcorrespondence relations, constraints on syncretism, and directionality in grammaticalization), and to (hopefully, informed) speculation on what speakers really know about morphology and what they really do with it.


## I. Introduction

Paradigms are a given in most recent theories of morphology yet there are proposals still cited in the literature, such as Williams 1981, in which the paradigm as a theoretical construct is an epiphenomenon and not a basic unit of organization. Moreover, questions remain about the internal structure of paradigms and about the nature of relations between and among the forms in a paradigm. Most theorizing about paradigms is done on the basis of synchronic data and synchronically focused issues. Yet there is potentially very telling evidence from language change that bears on the existence of paradigms and on their structure. In what follows, I examine and discuss this evidence, with examples from Greek and Latin (but mostly Greek), with the following goals in mind:
a. to bring to light a persistent and recurring type of change - the reshaping of inflectional endings based on other endings - that provides evidence regarding paradigm-internal and paradigm-external connections
b. to explore the utility and/or validity of various theoretical constructs and notions, especially rules of referral (cf. Stump 1993), O(utput)O(utput)-correspondence relations, constraints on syncretism, and directionality in grammaticalization
c. to speculate on what speakers really know about morphology and what they really do (at least part of the time).

## II. What is a Paradigm?

DEFINITION: for me, paradigm = an organized set of inflectionally related forms (where I am happy to go with the now-traditional view of inflection as being the syntactically relevant (and/or determined) morphology), with the following embellishments:
a. the paradigm itself is schematizable as a set of "cells" (with no claims made about the psychological reality of such "cells" per se)
b. relations between a given cell and some base form (a "stem") are expressed somehow (e.g. via rules that create the forms and fill the cells, via spelling out of feature bundles, via rules of referral (where appropriate), or the like)
c. relations among cells are expressed somehow (e.g., via redundancy rules over the bundles of features that define each cell, via rules of referral (making specific reference to shape of one cell in specifying shape of another cell, e.g. in Latin, $[+$ Dative $/+$ Plural $]=[+$ Ablative $/$ +Plural], via OO-correspondence statements, or the like)
d. the rule/relationship types involved in and involving paradigms are not the same as those creating stems (i.e., are distinct from derivational processes), though conceivably some of the same sorts of constructs could be employed (e.g. spelling out of features like [+noun, +abstract, +dimension] in the creation of nouns like wid-th, just like the spelling out of features such as [+present, +third person, +singular] in the creation of verbs like run-s)

## III. Analogical Change as Evidence for Paradigms

OBSERVATION:
A common phenomenon in analogical change is for forms within a paradigm to be affected by the change but for extra-paradigmatic forms to be unaffected (this is equivalent, generally, to saying that inflectionally related forms are affected but derivationally related forms are not). Probably this is to be related to productivity (with inflection being the most productive type of morphology and derivation of different degrees of productivity behaving differently)

EXAMPLES (a/b well-known, c not so well-known):
a. Leveling in paradigm of Latin $s$-stems, where NOM honos / GEN honoris 'honor' => honor / honoris) but (unproductive) derivationally related hones-tus 'honest' is left untouched; so also with arbos / arboris 'tree'=> arbor / arboris (with derivative arbustum 'grove' left untouched) and robos / roboris 'oak' => robor / roboris (with derivative robustus 'strong' left untouched)
b. Leveling in paradigm of Greek *m-stems, where NOM hen / GEN hem-os* 'one/NTR', khthōn / khthom-os* 'earth' => hen / henos, khthōn / khthonos, but (unproductive) derivatives $\boldsymbol{m}$-ia 'one/FEM' and khthamalos 'earthly' are left untouched (note productive derivative khthonios 'earthly' with "levelled" -n-, but this is likely a re-creation, a new derivative based on new stem with productive suffix)
c. The Ancient Greek adjective for 'fourth' shifted accent shift masculine and feminine NOM.SG forms, i.e. tétartos (M) vs. tetártē (F), caused by the fact that the F form ended in a long vowel, and that in words with a long vowel in the final syllable, the accent could fall no further back the penultimate syllable. The F form tetárté occurred with the definite article $h e$ : to mean 'Wednesday' (literally "the fourth" with the F noun hēméra 'day' understood). Between Ancient Greek and Modern Greek, vowel length ceased to be distinctive and the accent placement in the F adjective was changed to the initial syllable, on analogy with the masculine, giving M tétartos vs. F tétarti (with $i$ from earlier $\bar{e}$ ). BUT, the Modern Greek word for 'Wednesday' is $i$ tetárti, (where $i=$ 'the'), a direct continuation of earlier hē tetártē with the Ancient Greek accent placement intact and unaffected by the analogical levelling in the adjectival M/F forms.

## IV. Paradigm-internal and Cross-Paradigmatic "Reshuffling" of Inflectional Morphemes OBSERVATION

An apparently common change involving inflection is for endings (e.g. case endings in nouns, or person, number, and/or tense (etc.) endings in verbs, to affect one another, either paradigm-internally (e.g. different persons within the same tense, thus involving different cells within the same paradigm), or across paradigms (e.g. same person across different tenses, thus involving the same cell but in different paradigms).

EXAMPLES (from Greek only, and mostly modern Greek and mostly nonactive (i.e., middle/passive or medio-passive) forms (cf. Newton 1972 on the instability and variability of these endings, and Minas 1987 for a comprehensive list of dialectal forms), but other instances can be readily identified):

## Paradigm-internal:

a. (AGrk) 2 SG/3SG nonactive voice present endings taking on -a- vocalism of 1 SG ending: -sai / -tai from earlier *-soi / -toi based on 1SG -mai (note: -o- seems original based on 2SG/3SG Past -so / -to (and note dialectal 3SG -toi))
b. (MGrk) 1PL/2PL nonactive past endings: 1PL -mastan / 2PL -sastan from earlier -maste / -saste (Ancient -me(s)tha / -esthe), based on end part of 3PL -ondan (as in (h) below), thus indirectly reflecting 3PL active -an
c. further innovative (MGrk) dialectal 3PL nonactive past ending -ondustan from earlier ondusan based on 1PL -mastan and 2PL -sastan (as in (b), cf. Joseph 2004a, 2006b)
d. (MGrk) 2SG nonactive past imperfective ending: -sun from earlier -so, based on 1SG nonactive -mun
e. further innovative (MGrk) 2SG nonactive past imperfective ending: -suna from -sun, with -a added from 1SG nonactive, thus reflecting 1SG active form too indirectly (cf. (j) below)
f. (MGrk) 3PL past ending -ane from earlier -an, presumably due (at least in part) to 1PL -a-me and 2PL -a-te
g. (MGrk) 2SG past active ending -es selected out of earlier -as/-es variation, presumably due to 3SG active -e (Joseph 1980)

## Cross-paradigm:

h. (MGrk) 3PL nonactive past ending: -ondan from earlier -onto, based on 3PL active -an
i. (MGrk) dialectal 3PL nonactive past ending -ondusan from earlier -onto based on 3PL active -san
j. (MGrk) 1SG nonactive past imperfective ending: -muna from -mun, with $-\mathbf{a}$ added from 1SG active
k. (MGrk) 3SG nonactive past imperfective ending: -tan(e) from -ton, with $-\mathbf{a}-$ vocalism and -e (taken over from active, especially active plural (as in (f))

## V. Another Type of Cross-Paradigm Influence: Pronoun-Verb Ending Interaction

## OBSERVATION

Another not infrequent change in inflectional endings, especially for verbal endings, is influence from pronominal forms, with the endings reshaped/remade based on free or bound pronouns (NB: some of these may be truly paradigmatic but a syntagmatic basis has been suggested too (Dunkel 2002), as in (d)).

## EXAMPLES

a. 1PL ending -ne occurs in some Macedonian dialects, e.g. in Vrbnik (Kramer 2002), in Gorno Kalenik (Hill 1990), and Radožda-Vevčani (Hendriks 1976), and in some Bulgarian dialects (Bûlgarski Dialekten Atlas II.189, largely areas where there was migration from SW Macedonia (Friedman, p.c.) but not exclusively so), especially in 'to be' (sne) but more widespread in some dialects (cf. aorists in -f-ne in Radožda-Vevčani (Mac.) and BDA II.186; III. 202 lists both berene and beren 'we carry' -- elsewhere in Mac. and Bulg., 1PL forms with $-\mathbf{m}$ - occur, e.g. sme, berem/bereme/beremo, etc. (BDA II.186, III.202), and so also more generally in South Slavic and the rest of Slavic (and elsewhere in Indo-European). Thus 1PL -n- is innovative - not a sound change since there is no regular phonological context for $\mathbf{m}>\mathbf{n}$ (cf. rasmea 'smile' in Gorno Kalenik and Bulg. dialects with -ne after a vowel, e.g. zovène 'we call'), so the best solution is morphological, specifically analogy with 1PL pronoun (begins with $\mathbf{n}$ - in most dialects, though some have $\mathbf{m}$-), with 1PL pronominal form with initial $\mathbf{n}$ - impinging on verbal 1PL ending with initial $-\mathbf{m}$-)
b. New Mexican Spanish -nos for -mos in 1PL verb forms (Janda 1995), e.g. hablabanos 'we were speaking' occurs, as opposed to hablabamos elsewhere; Janda suggests the innovative form of the ending is based on the initial consonantism of the 1PL pronoun nos(otros).
c. Early Slavic of the 1PL verbal ending -my for expected $-m b$, e.g. pobyxomy (vs. expected pobyxomb) presumably has innovative vocalism $-y$ based on the vocalism of the 1PL nominative pronominal form my (so Gramatika na Starobŭlgarskija Ezik, p. 296).
d. Dunkel 2002: 100-101: early Slavic first person dual ending -vě for expected -va, where innovative vocalism results from a carry-over ("perseveration" for D) of a collocation of pronoun with inflected verb, e.g. *vě jesva 'we two are' > vě jesvě.
e. Greek 3PL nonactive -ondus(t)an from earlier -ondan (cf. §IVb/c), based on weak 3PL possessive/objective pronoun tus and analysis of 1PL/2PL -mastan/-sastan as being based on weak 1/2PL possessive/objective pronouns mas/sas (Ruge 1984, Joseph 2004a)
f. Thavoris 1977: Northern Greek nonactive 2PL imperative, e.g. kimísas 'sleep(PL)!', an innovative replacement for expected reflex of earlier kimi $\theta$ íte, is based on a reinterpretation of 2 SG kimís 'sleep(SG)!' as ending in the 2 SG weak genitive pronoun [-s], so that the plural would take the 2PL weak genitive pronoun sas, thus kimísas; presumably such a reanalysis would be possible only if a linkage between pronouns and personal endings were wellmotivated independently.

## VI. Theoretical Hay to be Reaped

a. These developments show that cells in paradigms are connected to one another somehow; what is the appropriate formal mechanism for expressing such connections?
i. Rules of Referral might be useful here, but they are generally for forms that are exactly identical (i.e., paradigmatic cell syncretism), whereas the endings in $\S V$ end up only partially similar. Still, that could be remedied easily and some current views of rules of referral allow for partial overlap in form. But, more to the point: rules of referral are useful after the fact, for expressing resulting syncretisms, but could they be predictive of what will happen, of which forms will come to be similar? Probably not (note that the predictions of Williams 1981 about syncretism in the Latin noun paradigm based on his division of Latin's four (sic) cases into two classes met with little success, as argued by Joseph \& Wallace 1984).
ii. If OO-correspondence relations are the formal mechanism for expressing linkages, they must be of a different sort from at least some conceptions of them; Kager 1999: 215, for instance, claims that:

A 'base' in an OO-correspondence relation must be
(a) 'compositionally related to the affixed word in a morphological and a semantic sense'
(b) 'a free form, i.e. a word'
whereas the influences in the examples in IV are from affix to affix. Thus, a broader view of what elements can figure in such correspondence relations is needed if this mechanism is to be employed.
iii. What I would say is needed therefore is rather what Janda \& Joseph (1992c, but see also 1986, 1989, 1992a, and Janda 1982, Joseph \& Janda 1988), in discussing the possibility of "hyperanalyzing" the Greek nonactive endings into numerous constituent morphemes (so that 1PL -mastan would be // -m-a-st-a-n //, morphemically) have called metaredundancy rules or meta-templates (and the constellations they define - other examples discussed in J \& J 19** include Sanskrit reduplication, Greek negation, and German umlaut):
"[If] certain (parts of) words share significant, non-accidental commonalities of form [it] does not require us to treat these similarities as distinct morphemes associated with individual word-formation rules ... [Rather] hyperanalytic pseudo-agglutinativity (accompanied by massive violations of the $\mathrm{E}[$ lsewhere]C[ondition]) is in fact unnecessary, because there exists a nonmorphemic mechanism for expressing systematic partial similarities of form shared by words (and morphological rules) - namely, the "meta-redundancyrules" or "meta-templates" of Janda \& Joseph 1986, 1989, 1992a, and 1992bMS (cf. also Janda 1982 and Joseph \& Janda 1988). For example, such metastatments are motivated for Sanskrit [reduplication] by the existence of numerous reduplication-rules whose near-identity can hardly be accidental (e.g., they all copy only the $t$ of an $s t \ldots$-root vs. only the $s$ of an $s n \ldots$-root) but which
also show significant differences (e.g., in prefixal vs. infixal status, overall template-shape, and vocalic or consonantal prespecification) and so cannot be collapsed into a single rule. Positing a meta-redundancy rule, though, permits us to unite the myriad similar reduplication-rules of Sanskrit as a single "rule constelltion" (see Janda \& Joseph 1986, 1989).... This formalism "parses", as it were, the identical portions of all [relevant] morphological rules ... In this sense, a meta-redundancy-rule is merely a generalization stating that every occurrence of the particular formal configuration which it expresses (possibly including features of morphosyntax and semantics, as well as phonology) is to be evaluated as an instance of the same morphological element. However, since uncollapsible similarities of this sort can also be found between a morphological rule and a lexical item (cf. Frank 1991), as well as between two morphological templates (cf. Janda \& Joseph 1992a), it is perhaps more revealing to give them the alternative (and shorter) label "meta-template(s)".
b. What cells in a paradigm can be connected with what other cells? Are there constraints on these linkages?
i. note that the examples in §IV show linkages of both:
--same-person but cross-number (e.g. 1SG <--> 1PL)
--same-number but cross-person (e.g. 1PL <--> 2PL)
ii. Burzio 2005 posits "morphological neighborhoods" as a basis for syncretism, and Tantalou \& Burzio 2005: §2.2 say explicitly that "Cross-linguistically, syncretism obeys two main generalizations. One is that it tends to affect neighboring cells"
iii. Leaving aside the question of what "neighboring" means (isn't the schematic layout of a paradigm arbitrary?), note the following further facts about the range of linkages found:
$\alpha^{\prime}$. Romanian present tense $1 \mathrm{SG}<-->3$ PL (in $2^{\text {nd }}, 3^{\text {rd }}$, and (most of) $4^{\text {th }}$ conjugations, e.g. eu/ei vad 'I/they see', eu/ei merg 'I/they go', eu/ei zidesc 'I/they build', and some irregular verbs, especially sînt 'I am'/'they are')
$\beta^{\prime}$. Romanian stem extensions occur in SG + 3PL ( $1 / 2 / 3 \mathrm{SG} / 3 \mathrm{PL}$ zid-esc-Ø / zid-eşt-i / zid-eşt-e / zid-esc-Ø vs. 1/2PL zid-im / zid-iţi 'build')
$\gamma^{\prime}$. German 2/3SG vowel changes in present (ich sehe / wir sehen but du siehst / er sieht)
$\delta^{\prime}$. Sanskrit 1SG.PERFECT <-- > 3SG.PERFECT, both in -au for roots in $-\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ (e.g. jajñau 'I-have/he-has known' from $\sqrt{ }$ jñā-) and both in -a for all other verbs. But, the -a endings were different originally ( $1 \mathrm{SG} *-\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{e}$ vs. $3 \mathrm{SG} *$-e) and the $-\mathbf{a u}$, whatever its origin, is most likely not original to both persons (though see below), yet in all non-a: verbs in Vedic (= earliest layer of Sanskrit) and for all verbs in later Sanskrit, $1 \mathrm{SG}=3 \mathrm{SG}$ in perfect. The Vedic situation with -a : verbs is complicated by there being no attestations of 1 SG forms, and by there being in 3SG one example with simply -a: (paprā 'he has filled' RV1.69.1b), versus 30+ with -au; whatever the 1SG was at that time, unless it was -au for all verbs but $\sqrt{ }$ prā-, there would not have been a fully operative $1 \mathrm{SG} / 3$ SG linkage, due to incomplete spread of the $-\mathbf{u}$, if original to 1SG (hard to tell; see Jasanoff 1988 for
such a view, recanted in Jasanoff 2003: $\S 40$ where 3 SG is suggested as original locus) or to some process altering a 3SG paprau* (at which point 1SG/3SG linkage is OK underlyingly or on surface too if the process were purely phonetic in nature) - see Dawson 2005 for discussion of possible explanations of paprā. Jasanoff 2003: 61 thinks that there is a phonological solution for both 1 SG and 3SG -au outcomes if one assumes a laryngeal cluster simplification, at which point the convergence would have been adventitious at first but possibly developing into a significant one later on. Still, there is more obscurity than light in this case.
iv. Thus, maybe there are NO constraints on syncretism and on the kinds of linkages that can lead to changes in inflectional endings. This would make sense if at least some syncretisms are adventitious (e.g. the result of sound changes that, in keeping with Neogrammarian principles, would not differentiate between affected "targets" based on any grammatical properties they might have or express.
c. Based on (iv), it is fair to ask if all syncretisms really are significant. Diachronic evidence can be helpful here in distinguishing adventitious convergence from truly significant linkage (cf. Baerman 2004), as shared diachronic developments can show the significant type of linkage, e.g.:
i. Greek 1SG thematic past - on $<-->3$ PL - on is adventitious ( $1 \mathrm{SG}<*_{\text {-o-m vs. }} 3 \mathrm{PL}<*_{\text {-o- }}$ nt, both by regular sound changes) and this is confirmed by the fact that an innovation affecting one does not automatically carry over to the other; e.g. 1SG replaced eventually by -a, but 3PL ends up as -an (also -ane) - thus this 1SG/3SG linkage in Greek is different in kind from that same linkage found in Romanian.
ii. To see that the Romanian situation is not a mirage (not merely adventitious) note how it allowed for innovative 1 SG of 'be' to arise, based on 3PL (sînt, presumably replacing in 1SG a form more directly from Latin sum, and still preserved perhaps in fast-speech (enclitic) 1 SG form $-\mathbf{s}$ )
iii. Sanskrit $1 \mathrm{SG} / 3$ SG linkage in perfect (both as $\mathbf{- a}$ ) is fortuitous, but if that linkage is the model for the spread of the -au ending with $-\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ roots (whatever the origin -- see ( $\delta^{\prime}$ ) above), then the complete spread by Classical Sanskrit would suggest the linkage ended up as synchronically real for (at least some) speakers.
d. Directionality in grammaticalization (Joseph 2004b: 58, 2005, 2006a): changes in §IV can be termed "lateral shifts" in that they do not involve movement "up" or "down" the "grammaticalization cline" (of word-to-affix); the endings are equally grammatical before the change and after the change. While that might lead one to say that such changes are not grammaticalizations, the trend among grammaticalizationists has been to treat an everincreasing range of changes as grammaticalizations, and in any case, these are changes in grammatical forms and thus ought to be of relevance to grammaticalization studies. In particular, they bear on the question of unidirectionality in grammaticalization.
i. there are really two possibilities for what unidirectionality might mean:
$\alpha^{\prime}$. There is NO movement from more grammatical to less grammatical
$\beta^{\prime}$. There is ONLY movement from less grammatical to more grammatical
ii. assessment of (i) with respect to the notion of lateral shifts (from §II above):
$\alpha^{\prime}$. (i. $\alpha^{\prime}$ ) is weaker, in that it allows lateral shifts (since in a lateral shift, it is not that an element is moving from more to less grammatical)
$\beta^{\prime}$. by contrast, (i. $\beta^{\prime}$ ) rules out such lateral shifts (since by (i. $\beta^{\prime}$ ) the only type of change is from less to more grammatical and a lateral shift is not such a change)
iii. thus, lateral shift changes, if instances of grammaticalization, show that the weaker form of unidirectionality is the most that can be maintained (and see Janda 2001, Joseph 2001, among others, for reasons for giving up unidirectionality altogether).
e. What do speakers really do with these endings to get the results we see? Are they perhaps just "taking guesses" at what the forms in question are, especially given that innovative endings presumably are created on the fly in real time without speakers having access, so to speak, to the full range of possibly related forms to "check" as to the proper composition of the endings?
i. thus, innovative -t- in -ondustan may just as well be the result of an imperfect recollection by the innovating speaker of what the ending is, of course with some influence from $1 / 2 \mathrm{PL}$ with -(s)t- but not necessarily - at least at the moment at which the innovative form first emerges - representing a marking for PL as opposed to just taking up space in the ending without being meaningful
ii. in this regard, cf. Greek 3PL variant ending -osande, where nonactive -(n)de is added onto what is ostensibly 3PL.ACTIVE -osan (vs. -ondusan, which has nonactive -ond(u)- inside of 3PL active -(s)an). It is as if speakers just are taking guesses as to how to put the pieces together, and perhaps it doesn't really matter as long as the forms eventually has all the pieces regardless of the order.
f. More detail on -osande and its import, in particular, about nonactive (mediopassive) -(n)de and 3PL.ACTIVE -osan
i. -nd- of -(n)de derives from Ancient Greek -nt-, found in 3PL mediopassive (nonactive) ending -ontai (present) and -onto (past). In the Ancient Greek diasystem of verbal endings, the -nt- of -ontai/-onto was found in 3PL endings more generally, in both active and nonactive paradigms (note Doric present active 3PL ending is -onti (vs. AtticIonic -ousi, a development from *-onti by regular sound change)); the relationship of -nt- to 3 PL alone was weakened by the development in past active, where ${ }^{*}$-ont (no $-\mathbf{i}$, which was a presential marker) became -on (by regular sound change), moving it away from the ending -onti
ii. On the way to Modern Greek, -nt-, in its more modern form -nd-, changed in function so that it was no longer a carrier of 3PL marking; rather, based on the fact that the present active 3PL ending came to be -un (though there was fluctuation in Medieval Greek between -un and -usi), and that the Ancient Doric -onti did not survive into the Koine and thus not into Modern Greek, and with the added consideration that the past active 3PL was $\mathbf{- n}$ in any case (see above), the value of -nd- could no longer be said to be 3PL.
iii. Rather, the only category of ending where -nd- consistently occurs, at one stage of post-Classical/pre-Modern Greek, came to be the 3PL nonactive endings, with -onde (from Ancient -ontai) in the present and -ondo (from -onto) in the past.
iv. Note too that the -nto of -onto finds support elsewhere in the Greek diasystem of verbal endings in the nonactive voice; cf. 3SG -to, where the connection with present 3SG ending -toi (Arcado-Cypriot and Mycenaean, with the presential marker -i), indicates that -to is properly -to-Ø, with -to- marking voice and the absence of $-i$ marking tense. From the diachronic perspective too, nonactive voice endings in various other IndoEuropean languages with $\mathbf{- 0}$-vocalism (e.g. the 3SG passive -ada of Gothic and similarly -ar of Old Irish) point to an original association, in the endings at least, between $\mathbf{- 0}$ - and nonactive voice, especially for the third person (see Jasanoff 2003: 45-55 for discussion of these and other nonactive endings; he concludes that endings with ${ }^{*}$-o- must be reconstructed for Proto-Indo-European in $3^{\text {rd }}$ person)
v. With regard to $-(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{a n}$, the persistent $\boldsymbol{- a}$ - throughout much of the set of active past endings, in Ancient Greek but even more strongly so in Modern Greek, where the sole 1SG ending is $\mathbf{- a}$ (vs. Ancient Greek -on alternating with -a depending on different classes of verb), means that -san is more closely tied to tense marking per se.
vi. Thus, -osan/nde does in fact involve TENSE - VOICE in that order, and therefore it shows the reverse order of -ondu-san (and note there are other endings in Greek with VOICE - TENSE in that order, e.g. 1SG -mun-a (noted above in §IVd/j).
g. In Latin, the future imperative 3PL ending is -untō with person/number marker -unt inside of (i.e., to the left of) the mood marker -t̄̄. However, that order does not conform to the order of person/number/mood markers found in other forms of the paradigm, e.g. 2pL -tōte, where -te marks person/number; relevant here too is the fact that the 2 SG future imperative ending is $\boldsymbol{- t} \overline{\mathbf{o}}$, that is to say, $\mathbf{- t} \overline{\mathbf{o}}-\boldsymbol{\emptyset}$, with mood marker - $\mathbf{t} \overline{\mathbf{o}}$-) and that $-\mathbf{t e}$ occurs in other 2 PL imperatives (e.g. present imperative amāte 'love!'). Thus -tōte rather transparently involves marking for MOOD inside of marking for TENSE. Moreover, other mood markings occur inside of the 3PL person/number marker, as in the present subjunctive ament 'that they love' where $\mathbf{- e}$ - is the subjunctive marker and -nt marks 3pl. Thus 3pl -unto stands out in the paradigm as having TENSE inside of MOOD, so that the order is the opposite in this 3pL form from what is found elsewhere. Thus again, it seems that the order is not fixed in general (though it is for particular forms) and that speakers in putting together a 3pl form were faced with what to do with the $\mathbf{- t}$ - of the future imperative -tō and the $\mathbf{- t}$ - of the $3 \mathrm{PL}-\mathbf{u n t}$; a
 represent an "ambimorphemic" element shared between the tense marker and the mood marker, and would thus yield the attested -unto. That "sharing" solution is possible only if the morphemes are ordered with TENSE before MOOD for in the opposite order -tō-unt there is no way to have a single -t- serve double duty. The sharing solution thus provides a rationale for stringing the morphemes together in some order, even if the order is anomalous relative to other forms in the paradigm or in related paradigms. In this solution, therefore, speakers make a reasonable guess as to how to make the morphemes "work" in the form.
h. An interpretation of -ondusan/-osande and -untō: speakers employ a Gestalt strategy of interpretation and production when dealing with the creation of new material via
concatenation. This strategy can be seen in two other phenomena involving ordering of elements:
i. within Indo-European, demonstrative "pieces" are concatenated to form larger demonstrative words; e.g. Greek touto 'this' (NEUTER) = the definite element (later to be the article) to with a deictic element $\mathbf{u}$ (as in Sanskrit asa-u 'this') and the to repeated, and Latin hic 'this' is composed of a deictic hi- and a deictic -c, from *ke-. *ke- occurs in Greek keinos 'that' ( $=$ *ke-eno-); this same combination, but in the reverse order, is found in Umbrian enuk 'that way', from *eno-ke. Thus the specific order of these deictic elements is less important than their simply being present and concatenated.
ii. note the "jumbled word effect" (see especially Grainger \& Whitney 2004) by which fluent reading is possible with passages in which the letters in words are jumbled up, as in the title of the Grainger \& Whitney article, "Does the huamn mnid raed wrods as a wlohe?", i.e. "Does the human mind read words as a whole?". Whatever perceptual principle allows fluent reader to ignore the internal order of letters in a word as long as the ends are intact, and thus to read huamn as human (etc.) without any difficulty, can underlie the ability to produce and/or understand anomalously ordered morpheme sequences such as Greek -osande and Latin -untō.

## VII. A Concluding Thought

Diachrony is relevant to our understanding of synchronic systems and understandably so if one takes a "dynamic" view of synchrony and diachrony whereby diachrony is not a separate "place" that resides somewhere distinct from synchrony but rather is simply the progression through successive synchronic states. In that sense, there is only synchrony for speakers, and diachrony is really just for linguists!

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