

# Two tense consonants do not block tensification in Korean: A rejoinder to Kim (2022)\*

## Abstract

In Korean, the initial lenis obstruent of the second member of a compound can become a tense consonant. A previous study suggests that the likelihood of this tensification is significantly reduced when the first member of a compound contains two tense consonants, instantiating a case of dissimilation prohibiting three occurrences of the same feature. Since such a pattern has been believed not to be possible in human languages and since the presence of this pattern, if true, would bear on the general question of the counting capability of phonological systems, we attempted to replicate this finding with a larger set of stimuli and a larger number of participants. The results of the current experiment did not find evidence for the dissimilatory effect by which two tense consonants in the first member block compound tensification. We conclude that Korean does not instantiate a case of a phonological constraint which counts three segments.

**Keywords:** Korean, tensification, sai-siot, dissimilation, counting

## 1 Introduction

### 1.1 Korean compound tensification

In Korean, the initial plain/lenis obstruent of the second member of a compound can become a tense consonant (e.g. /san/ ‘mountain’ + /pul/ ‘fire’ → [sanp’ul] ‘wild fire’), a pattern that is sometimes referred to as “sai-siot.” The application of this tensification pattern is not obligatory for all lexical stems, and the likelihood of tensification is affected by several factors, such as segmental

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\*Acknowledgements to be added.

7 differences as well as lengths, etymological status (Sino-Korean vs. native Korean) and lexical  
8 frequencies of the morphemes involved, etc (see especially Ito 2014, Jeon 2023 and Zuraw 2011  
9 among others). Among these factors, the current paper zooms in on a recent claim by Kim (2022)  
10 that when the first member of a compound contains two laryngeally marked consonants (tense and  
11 aspirated consonants: Gallagher 2011), the probability of tensification significantly decreases.

12 This claim is based on a report of Kim (2017), which is an online experiment using the Google  
13 Docs document, with the data coming from 21 native speakers of Korean. The crucial portion of  
14 the results that forms the basis of this claim is reproduced in Table 1. As shown, according to this  
15 result, one instance of tense or aspirated consonant does not substantially affect the likelihood of  
16 tensification, but two instances do.<sup>1</sup>

Table 1: The part of the results of Kim (2017) that is relevant to the current study. The leftmost column stands for the number of laryngeally marked consonants (tense or aspirated consonants) in the first member of the compounds (Word-A). The data are based on the responses from 21 speakers.

condition	tensification ratio	total N
plain/sonorant	0.58	2,809/4,830
one tense	0.62	521/840
one aspirated	0.56	308/546
two marked Cs	0.04	6/168

17 If true, this result would constitute a very important finding from the perspective of phonolog-  
18 ical theory in general, because it would be a counter-example to the thesis that “phonology does  
19 not count”, a point that we expand upon in the next subsection.

## 20 **1.2 Dissimilation of three segments?**

21 The claim that the presence of two laryngeally marked consonants reduces the probability of com-  
22 pound tensification in Korean is important for general phonological theorization, because it would  
23 constitute a case which has been thought to be impossible in the phonology of natural languages,  
24 i.e., dissimilation of three—but not two—tokens of the same feature. Prohibition against two in-  
25 stances of the same feature/segment is very common across languages (see Bennett 2015, Hansson  
26 2001 and Suzuki 1998 for extensive typological studies on dissimilation); however, no languages  
27 have been known to prohibit three instances of the same feature, while allowing for two.

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<sup>1</sup>Kim (2017) also found a dissimilatory effect by a laryngeally marked consonant that is contained in the second member of a compound (Word-B), but for that case, one token seems to suffice to significantly reduce the likelihood of tensification. This is a familiar case of dissimilation of *two* segments, however. See also Ito (2014) and Zuraw (2011) for a related observation on a laryngeal dissimilatory effect within Word-B.

28 In fact, such patterns have been believed to be impossible in natural languages. The lack  
 29 of such patterns was, for instance, quite explicitly noted by Ito & Mester (2003). As a back-  
 30 ground, within the framework of Optimality Theory (Prince & Smolensky 1993/2004), Ito &  
 31 Mester proposed to model dissimilatory effects using local self-conjunction of markedness con-  
 32 straints (Smolensky 1995, 1997). According to their proposal, more specifically, a dissimilation  
 33 constraint against two instances of the structure [A] results from a self-conjoined version of the  
 34 markedness constraint prohibiting [A] within a specified domain, i.e. \*[A]&\*[A]<sub>domain</sub> (Alderete  
 35 1997; Blust 2012). Since Ito & Mester (2003) also propose that local conjunction can be recursive,  
 36 they raise the concern that their mechanisms predict a constraint prohibiting three instances of a  
 37 particular structure. They deny that this actually happens in the phonology of natural languages,  
 38 stating that:

39 With local conjunction as a recursive operation, ternary (and higher) conjunction such  
 40 as (No- $\phi$ & $\delta$ No- $\phi$ )& $\delta$ No- $\phi$  = No- $\phi^2$ & $\delta$ No- $\phi$  = No- $\phi^3$  $\delta$  are formally derivable. In the  
 41 example given, the third violation of No- $\phi$  would be the fatal one. No convincing  
 42 evidence has been found so far that No- $\phi^3$  is ever linguistically operative separate  
 43 from No- $\phi^2$ , which tends to support the old idea in generative linguistics (cf. syntactic  
 44 movement theory) that the genuine contrast in grammars is not “1 vs. 2 vs. 3 vs. 4  
 45 vs. . . .”, but “1 vs. greater than 1 (p.265).” [NOTE:  $\phi$  is a variable representing a  
 46 phonological structure and  $\delta$  is a variable representing a domain]

47 In other words, Ito & Mester (2003) claim that there is no evidence that natural languages can  
 48 have a constraint like No- $\phi^3$  $\delta$ , which prohibits three instances of a structure ( $\phi$ ) within a certain  
 49 domain ( $\delta$ ). If this thesis is true about natural languages, then there should not be a constraint like  
 50 No-[+tense]<sup>3</sup><sub>compound</sub> (“no three tense consonants within a compound”).

51 This claim by Ito & Mester (2003) is a specific instantiation of a more general thesis that  
 52 “phonology does not count” (e.g. Goldsmith 1976; Hewitt & Prince 1989; McCarthy 2003; Mc-  
 53 Carthy & Prince 1986; Myers 1997; Walker 2001). As McCarthy (2003) puts it, this is “a widely  
 54 assumed (though often tacit) principle of linguistic metatheory: rules and constraints are local, a  
 55 requirement often expressed by saying that rules or constraints do not count beyond two in their  
 56 definitions (p.80).”<sup>2</sup>

57 While this thesis is well-known and widely accepted, we think that it is important to make  
 58 clear what the scope of this claim is. Paster (2019) for example argues that there are phonological  
 59 processes whose structural descriptions need to count the number of moras, e.g. a process in Kuria

<sup>2</sup>As is clear from the quotes from Ito & Mester (2003) and McCarthy (2003), syntactic systems are also believed not to count (e.g. Chomsky 1965 and Haspelmath 2014). The examples that Chomsky (1965) uses to illustrate this point are the lack of syntactic rules such as “interchange of the  $(2n - 1)$ -th word with the  $2n$ -th word throughout a string of arbitrary length, or insertion of a symbol in the middle of a string of even length” (pp.55-56).

60 which associates a floating H-tone with the *fourth* mora from the left edge the stem. However, she  
61 makes it clear that such “counting” behavior is limited to suprasegmental patterns, and no such  
62 patterns are found at the segmental level: “we have not identified any segmental counting rules —  
63 our examples have all involved tone or stress” (p.35). We will thus limit our focus on segmental  
64 patterns.

65 Kim (2022), in addition to the case of Korean that is reassessed in this paper, argues that two  
66 nasal consonants can block the compound voicing pattern (a.k.a. rendaku) in Japanese, suggesting  
67 that there is a dissimilatory force that can be characterized as \*[N...N...D]. Such a constraint ap-  
68 pears to prohibit three instances of the [+voice] feature, a constraint whose description violates the  
69 generalization stated by McCarthy (2003) quoted above. However, a later study by Kawahara &  
70 Kumagai (2023) demonstrates that the lexical evidence that Kim (2022) uses is weak at best, there  
71 being only one lexical item that unambiguously supports this claim. Furthermore, a nonce-word  
72 experiment designed to specifically address this claim actually shows that Japanese speakers do  
73 not exhibit evidence for a constraint like \*[N...N...D].

74 To the best of our knowledge, therefore, evidence is yet to be found that phonological systems  
75 of human languages can prohibit three instances of the same feature/segment, perhaps because  
76 phonological (or general linguistic) systems lack the general capability to count, at least at the  
77 segmental level.

### 78 **1.3 The need for reassessment**

79 With this general theoretical issue in mind, we found it important to attempt to replicate the results  
80 of Kim (2017), further analyzed by Kim (2022). There were indeed some concerns about the  
81 design of this experiment. First, the results were based on the responses from 21 speakers, whose  
82 *N* is not very large. See Chambers (2017), Vasishth & Gelman (2021) and Winter (2019) for issues  
83 related to the lack of statistical power in linguistics and other experimental research. Second, the  
84 participants were all undergraduate or graduate students, and it is not clear whether they were naive  
85 to the purpose of the experiment.

86 Third, neither Kim (2017) nor Kim (2022) report the list of the actual stimuli, so it is impos-  
87 sible to replicate this result. More importantly, guessing from the numbers in Table 1, only eight  
88 Word-A/Word-B combinations (=168/21) were included for the condition which contained two  
89 laryngeally marked consonants. Moreover, among these eight combinations, it is not clear how  
90 many items were used as Word-A in this condition—at most eight items if there was only one  
91 Word-B type, four items if there were two Word-B types, etc. It is implied in Kim (2017) that the  
92 number of the relevant items in this condition was not very large, as it is stated in the paper that “it  
93 is inappropriate to make a generalization in the present study due to the small sample size” (p.5),  
94 although this pattern was analyzed by Kim (2022) to propose a specific mechanism associated with

95 MaxEnt Harmonic Grammar (e.g. Hayes 2022). In short, it is not clear how generalizable Kim’s  
96 (2017) finding is. See Winter & Grice (2021) and Yarkoni (2020) for the issue of generalizability.

97 Furthermore, in this experiment, each participant was asked to make a judgment about tensifi-  
98 cation for 304 items. This is a very large number of items to judge for an online experiment, and  
99 it is not clear whether the participants were able to keep focusing on the task. Neither is it clear if  
100 the order of these 304 items was randomized—and if so, how—so that this result could have been  
101 arisen from the order effect. As discussed in the previous sub-section, the claim by Kim (2017)  
102 has important implications for phonological theorization, and as such, it should be established with  
103 care. With this in mind, the current experiment reported below is intended to improve upon Kim  
104 (2017).

## 105 **2 Method**

106 The experimental materials, the raw response data, analytical files and Bayesian posterior samples  
107 of the current experiment are all available at Open Science Framework (osf) repository at [https://osf.io/9wyjs/?view\\_only=dc93bea1ad1d4350bb2e418fe5451e75](https://osf.io/9wyjs/?view_only=dc93bea1ad1d4350bb2e418fe5451e75). For the sake  
108 of replicability, the online experiment can be viewed at <https://hje3unmcbv.cognition.run/>.

### 111 **2.1 Stimuli**

112 The current experiment varied the number of tense consonants contained in the first member  
113 (Word-A) of a compound from 0 to 2. In order to keep the experiment to be of decent size,  
114 the current experiment focused on the effects of tense consonants, as they are more likely to in-  
115 teract with tensification than aspirated consonants,<sup>3</sup> although we acknowledge that exploring the  
116 effects of aspirated consonant is an interesting and important topic for future exploration. We used  
117 nonce words for Word-A but real words for the second member (Word-B), because using nonce  
118 words for both Word-A and Word-B would be cognitively too challenging for linguistically-naive  
119 participants.

120 For each condition (0 tense C, 1 tense C, 2 tense Cs), we prepared five items, as listed in Table  
121 2. These stimuli were minimally different in terms of whether the first/second consonants were  
122 tense or not. All the nonce words were disyllabic with CV syllables, so that they do not sound like  
123 loanwords.

124 Each of these items was combined with five real Word-Bs, [param] ‘wind’, [tari] ‘leg’, [kirum]  
125 ‘oil’, [sori] ‘sound’ and [tɕari] ‘seat’, each starting with a different type of a voiceless obstruent.

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<sup>3</sup>Zuraw (2011) for example only analyzes the effects of tense consonants, not those of aspirated consonants.

Table 2: The list of stimuli used for Word-A.

0 tense C	1 tense C	2 tense Cs
[sidza]	[s'idza]	[s'itɕ'a]
[padu]	[p'adu]	[p'at'u]
[tʌsi]	[t'ʌsi]	[t'ʌs'i]
[tugo]	[t'ugo]	[t'uk'o]
[kʌbo]	[k'ʌbo]	[k'ʌp'o]

126 The experiment thus had a total of 75 stimuli (15 Word-A  $\times$  5 Word-B).

127 The auditory stimuli were produced by the first author, who is a native speaker of Korean. The  
 128 RMS amplitude of all the stimuli was automatically adjusted to be 60 dB using Praat (Boersma  
 129 2001). The auditory stimuli are available at the above-mentioned osf repository.

## 130 2.2 Procedure

131 The experiment was run online using the `cognition` platform. The participants were first  
 132 presented with a consent form, and in the instructions, they were asked to use a headphone or an  
 133 earphone in order to participate in the experiment. They were then presented with a recording of a  
 134 Korean sentence and were asked to adjust the volume so that they can hear the sounds clearly. All  
 135 of these were presented to the participants in the standard Korean orthography.

136 Within each main trial, the participants were presented with one nonce word from Table 2 and  
 137 one real word. The nonce words were presented as “native words that are specific to the Jeju  
 138 Island dialect”, so that the participants would treat them as (unknown) native Korean words rather  
 139 than recent loanwords (see Vance 1980 and Zuraw 2010 for similar techniques used for Japanese  
 140 and Tagalog, respectively). The entire compounds were thus presented as expressions describing  
 141 a specific scene of the Jeju Island. Two possible pronunciations of the resulting compound—one  
 142 with tensification and one without tensification—were auditory presented to the participants, and  
 143 the participants were asked to choose which option is closer to how they would produce each novel  
 144 compound.

145 The order of the choices was randomized by the first author; for 37 items, the tensified token  
 146 was presented first, while for the other remaining 38 items the non-tensified token was presented  
 147 first. The participants were allowed to listen to the two options as many times as they liked by  
 148 pressing a button that says “listen again”. The participants were asked to produce each option  
 149 themselves before they register their response.

150 The participants went through two practice trials—/toɣɛ+tɕaru/ ‘NONCE+bag’ and /tigo+pori/  
 151 ‘NONCE+barley’—so that they could familiarize themselves with the task. In the main session,

152 the order of the stimuli for the main trials was randomized for each participant. Once they register  
153 their response, they were not allowed to go back to previous questions.

## 154 **2.3 Participants**

155 A total of 74 speakers completed the online experiment. Among those, 25 speakers participated  
156 through Prolific, a platform that is designed to get participants for online experiments. The quali-  
157 fication conditions for participation in this experiment through Prolific were as follows: they were  
158 monolingual speakers of Korean, they could participate in the experiment through a pc, and they  
159 have typical hearing ability. The first pre-requisite was necessary, because the main pool of partic-  
160 ipants for Prolific come from English-speaking communities. The data from the other participants  
161 were collected by word-of-mouth. The call-for-participants were written in Korean, and only those  
162 participants who identified themselves as native Korean speakers were invited to participate.

## 163 **2.4 Statistics**

164 We fit a Bayesian logistic mixed-effects model, in which the dependent variable was whether the  
165 tensified token was chosen (=1) or not (=0) (for an accessible introductory tutorial on Bayesian  
166 analyses, see e.g. Kruschke & Liddell 2018 and Franke & Roettger 2019). The main independent  
167 variable was the number of tensed consonants in Word-A; so that we could make a pair-wise  
168 comparison between one tense condition and two tense consonant condition, we set the baseline  
169 for this condition to be one tense consonant condition. We included a random intercept for items  
170 and a random intercept and slope for participants for this fixed effect. For prior specifications, we  
171 used a Normal(0, 1) weakly informative prior for the intercept (Lemoine 2019) and a Cauchy prior  
172 with scale of 2.5 for the slope (Gelman et al. 2018).

173 Four chains, each with 4,000 iterations, were run, and 1,000 iterations from each chain were  
174 disregarded as warm-ups. The  $\hat{R}$ -values for the fixed effect was 1.00 and no divergent transitions  
175 were detected. See the R markdown file available at the osf repository for further details.

## 176 **3 Results**

177 The results of the current experiment are illustrated in Figure 1, which is a violin plot representing  
178 the distribution of tensified responses for each number of tense consonants contained in Word-  
179 A. The red diamonds stand for the overall averages for each condition. Transparent blue circles  
180 represent the average for each condition by participant. The grand average tensification ratio was  
181 0.19, 0.19 and 0.21 from left to right. This result shows that two tense consonants in Word-A do

182 not reduce the probability of tensification; if anything, it very slightly increases the tensification  
183 rate, compared to the other two conditions.

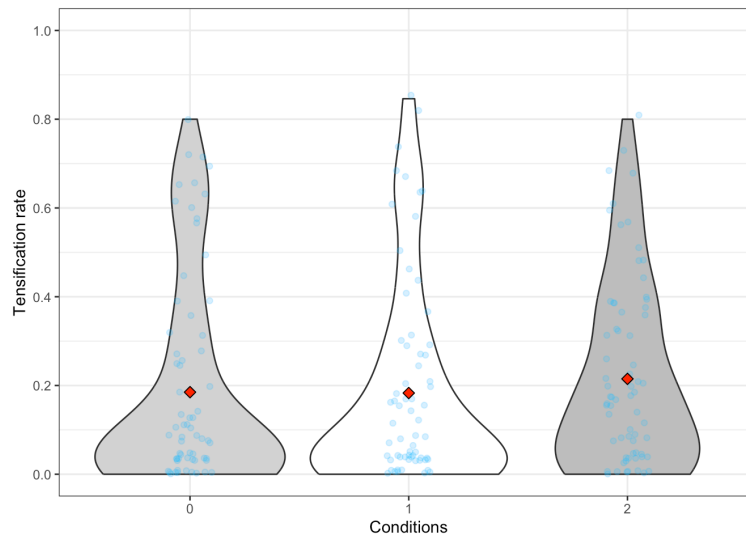


Figure 1: The tensified response ratios for the three conditions.

184 The 95% credible interval for the difference between the 0 tense consonant condition and the  
185 one tense consonant condition was [-0.39, 0.44] with its central coefficient estimate being 0.02,  
186 suggesting that this difference was not very credible. More importantly, the 95% credible interval  
187 for the difference between the one tense consonant condition and the two tense consonant condi-  
188 tion was [-0.01, 1.02] with its central coefficient estimate being 0.51. Although this 95% credible  
189 interval includes 0, the posterior distribution is heavily skewed toward positive values—the prob-  
190 ability of this coefficient being positive ( $p(\beta_1 > 0)$ ) was 0.97. This result suggests that two tense  
191 consonants actually increased, rather than decreased, the tensification response.

## 192 4 Discussion

193 The main purpose of the current experiment was to re-examine the previous claim that two tense  
194 consonants in Word-A can reduce the tensification likelihood in Korean compound formation (Kim  
195 2017, 2022). This claim was important to re-examine, because it would constitute a pattern that  
196 has been thought to be impossible in natural languages, namely, dissimilation triggered by the third  
197 token (Ito & Mester 2003). The presence of such a pattern has implications for the general question  
198 regarding whether or not phonological systems can count (e.g. Goldsmith 1976; Hewitt & Prince  
199 1989; Ito & Mester 2003; McCarthy 2003; McCarthy & Prince 1986; Myers 1997).

200 To that end, we sought to explore this purported dissimilatory effect with a larger number



201 of items and participants. The results show that the difference between the one tense consonant  
202 condition and the two tense consonant condition is very small (2% difference), and if anything, two  
203 tense consonants in Word-A increased—rather than decreased—the likelihood of tensification.

204 It is not clear how substantive this increase is, but it reminds us of a “double-trigger” vowel  
205 harmony pattern, in which the presence of two vowels trigger harmony (Walker 2001)—on this  
206 note, we would like to point out that Ito (2014) found that at least in Yanbian Korean, words with  
207 tense consonants are overrepresented, rather than underrepresented, and thus, there is a sense in  
208 which Korean may show a long-distance assimilation of tense consonants. We reiterate, however,  
209 that the magnitude of the increase in tensification ratio is very small (2%), although the Bayesian  
210 analysis deemed this to be a reliable effect.

211 There are two topics that can be explored in future research: one is the effect of aspirated  
212 consonants. Recall Kim (2017, 2022) treats tense consonants and aspirated consonants as a natural  
213 class (Gallagher 2011), and hence the behavior of aspirated effects remains to be a topic of some  
214 interest. Second, examining the effects of two tense—or aspirated—consonants in Word-B may  
215 also be informative, although Kim (2017) shows that for that case, one instance of a laryngeally  
216 marked consonant can block tensification to a significant degree.

217 All in all, it seems safe to conclude that Korean does not prohibit three tense consonants within  
218 a compound, when two of them are contained in Word-A. In this sense, Korean phonology does  
219 not show evidence for a phonological constraint that counts three instances of tense consonants, at  
220 least when two of them are contained in Word-A.

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