Hittite Stressed Vowel Lengthening and the Phonology-Orthography Interface*

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1. Introduction

Almost exactly a century ago, Hrozný (1917:xii) proposed that Hittite scribes in some cases used “plene writing”—the repetition of identical vowel signs in the spelling of vowels or diphthongs (cf. Kimball 1999:55)—to indicate contrasts in vowel length: vowels spelled plene are phonetically longer than non-plene vowels. In its broad sense, Hrozný’s hypothesis is now standardly accepted (e.g., Melchert 1994:27; Kimball 1999:59; Kloekhorst 2008:32); however, the exact relationship between plene writing and vowel length remains controversial. In particular, Kloekhorst (2014) has challenged a number of points on which previous scholarship had converged.

This paper focuses on just one issue that has been called into question by Kloekhorst, viz., the synchronic and diachronic treatment in Hittite of inherited *é.¹ I advance arguments principally for the three (interdependent) hypotheses in (1):²

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¹ That is, the historical reflexes of the PIE short vowel */e/ in stressed syllables that were not affected by any qualitative changes (lowering, raising, rounding, etc.) at any point in the pre-history of Hittite.

² The term “stress” in (1) refers to the primary word-level prosodic prominence (cf. Yates 2016b), the primary acoustic correlates of which were likely increased duration and intensity. The same feature is referred to equivalently as “accent” in Melchert 1994, Kimball 1999, and Kloekhorst 2008, 2014, and as “ictus” in Yates 2015, 2016a (cf. Kiparsky 2010, among others), where “accent” is used contrastively to refer to underlying pre-specification for prominence; I maintain the latter distinction here, using acute (’) to mark accent(s) in underlying forms (/V/) and stress in surface forms ([V]).

Diachronically, the outcome of inherited *é (and *ē, tautosyllabic *ēh₁) in Hittite is [éː].

ii. Synchronously, Hittite [éː] (from these historical sources) is derived from /e/, which is phonologically lengthened when stressed.

iii. This synchronic phonological lengthening process is diachronically stable within Hittite.

These positions generally accord with the analysis laid out by Melchert (1994: 133–5) and adopted with only minor refinements by Kloekhorst (2008:95–100). However, each directly contradicts the more recent analysis of Kloekhorst (2014), who argues that the reflexes of inherited *é are distinct from those of *ē and *ēh₁—specifically, that in non-final syllables only the latter yield [éː] in Old Hittite (OH), while *ē develops into short [é] in closed syllables, and half-long [éˑ] in open syllables.

Kloekhorst’s recent proposals are examined further in §2, where they are shown to be problematic on empirical and theoretical grounds. In particular, I contend that two orthographic assumptions crucial to his theory cannot be maintained: the relative frequency of plene writing cannot be used to diagnose a distinct class of “half-long” vowels in Hittite (§2.2); nor do any plene spellings represent phonemic glottal stops (§2.3). It is therefore argued that the data adduced by Kloekhorst is better explained by traditional views concerning the phonological interpretation of plene writing, and especially, the earlier assumption that inherited *é was historically lengthened, developing into Hittite [éː] (§2.4).

Having assessed the diachronic development of Hittite [éː] in §2, I turn in §3 to its synchronic analysis. I revisit Melchert’s (1994) hypothesis that Hittite [éː] was synchronically derived from /e/ via stressed vowel lengthening (see further §2.1 below). I present new evidence that this phonological process was diachronically stable within Hittite, arguing, in particular, that it applies to new instances of /e/ that emerge within (New) Hittite via sound change or analogy, e.g. (2):

3 The inherited short diphthong *éi—when it does not undergo conditioned raising to Hittite [iː]—is generally assumed to pattern with *ē and *ēh₁, yet due to the poverty of uncontroversial examples in non-alternating contexts (cf. n.21 below), I have generally omitted it from the discussion here.

4 Specifically, Kloekhorst (2008) correctly rejects the notion of a distinct PA phoneme */eː/; see now Melchert 2015 for discussion.

5 Square brackets ([ ]) enclose approximate phonetic transcriptions (IPA, except [y] for [j] and stress); I assume the phonemic inventory given in Yates 2016b. Note with respect to (2a) that
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(2) a. \( \langle \text{ti-it-} \ddot{h}a \rangle \) [tít̚a] ‘thunders’ (3SG.NPST.MID) (KBo 17.11 i 9, OH/OS)  
\( \langle \text{sî-i-} \ddot{h}a \rangle \) [sísːtːu] ‘let (him) prosper’ (3SG.IMP.ACT)  
(KUB 12.43, 2, 3, OH/OS)

b. \( \langle \text{te-e-et-} \ddot{h}a \rangle \) [tēːt̚a] ‘thunders’ (3SG.NPST.MID) (KBo 17.11 i 9, OH/MS)  
\( \langle \text{sê-e-[eš-du]} \rangle \) [sēːsːtːu] ‘let (him) prosper’ (3SG.IMP.ACT)  
(KBo 2.32 rev. 6, NH/NS)

The chronologically later Hittite forms in (2b) contrast with earlier (2a) in both vowel quality and quantity ([í] > [éː]); I propose that this length discrepancy is due to stressed vowel lengthening, which was (still) synchronically operative when the Hittite-internal lowering change (\( i > e \)) took place. Finally, §4 concludes with brief summary remarks.

2. Diachronic stressed vowel lengthening: inherited *é > Hittite [é]

2.1. On inherited *é in Hittite and the theory of plene writing

The scholarship of the last thirty years has converged not only in support of Hrozný’s (1917:xii) hypothesis that plene writing indicates vowel length, but also of his further suggestion (op. cit. 186–7) that some plene spellings indicate original short vowels that have undergone (historical) lengthening under word stress (“Tondehnung”). With respect to inherited *é, it has become the standard view that this short vowel was lengthened under word stress in the prehistory of Hittite, yielding the long vowel \( ë \) ([éː]), which was also the Hittite outcome of *ē and tautosyllabic *ēh₁ (Kimball 1999:132–49; cf. Kloekhorst 2008:95–9). Both the non-original long vowels in (3a) and the original long vowels in (3b) are therefore attested with plene writing.  

(3) a. \( \langle \text{e-ep-zi} \rangle \) [éːpːtı] ‘takes’ (3SG.NPST.ACT) < PA *h₁ ep-ti  
\( \langle \text{še-ë-ži} \rangle \) [sėːstːi] ‘sleeps’ (3SG.NPST.ACT) < PA *sēs-ti  
\( \langle \text{ge-ë-nu} \rangle \) [kēːnu] ‘knee’ (N.NOM.SG) < PA *ġēnu  
\( \langle \text{ne-e-wa-an} \rangle \) [nēːwan] ‘new’ (C.ACC.SG) < PA *néw-om

Hittite high vowels (/i, u/) do not lengthen under word stress in closed syllables (Melchert 1994:131–3).


7 See Melchert 2014 for the derivation of ‘sit’ and ‘demand’ in (3b) from PIE “Narten formations.”
Melchert (1994:133–5) further proposed that this surface identity led to phonemic merger in Hittite, with surface [ěː] from all three historical sources derived synchronically from /e/ by a stress-conditioned lengthening rule. Within Hittite, then, forms like šēšzi from the group in (3a) and tēzzi from the group in (3b) have the same underlying short vowel /e/, which is lengthened when it is assigned word stress, i.e., (4).

(4) /ses-tṣi/ → šēšzi [sēštṣi] ‘sleeps’ (3SG.NPST.ACT)  
/te-tṣi/ → tēzzi [tētṣi] ‘says’ (3SG.NPST.ACT)

While accepting this view in his etymological dictionary (2008:95–100), Kloekhorst (2014:222–3 and passim) now explicitly rejects Melchert’s (1994) analysis, arguing instead for a phonemic distinction in OH between /e/ and /eː/, each with a different phonetic realization in stressed non-final syllables. This phonological contrast—and its subsequent collapse in NH—is schematized in (5):

(5)  
\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c|c|c|c|c}
\text{PIE/PA *ē} & \text{PIE/PA *ē, *ēh₁} & \text{NH /e/} & \text{NH /eː/} & \text{OPEN σ} & \text{CLOSED σ} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

Kloekhorst’s divergent conclusions follow directly from the fundamentally different way in which his approach accounts for two well-established distributional features of plene spelling, its OPTIONALITY and its ASYMMETRIC FREQUENCY. The first of these features is generally posited to account for synchronic variation observed at the level of individual lexical items: (virtually) all well-attested words show intra- and/or inter-text inconsistency with respect to the plene spelling of long vowels in compositions of all historical periods. In some individual cases, it is possible to identify a likely motivation for the non-use of plene spelling for a long vowel—for instance, when a Hittite scribe was faced with a potentially problematic phonetic variation.

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8 Root-formed mobile mi-verbs like (4) receive “default” stress on their leftmost syllable (for details, see Yates 2016b).

9 Thus, e.g., Kimball (1999:55): “Even within the OH period use of plene writing was inconsistent.” Kloekhorst, too, acknowledges the inconsistency (e.g., 2014:42): “Plene spelling is in no word 100% completely consistent.”
with limited remaining space on a tablet (cf. Rosenkranz 1964:168); in other cases, however, no such motivation can be detected. Any analysis of Hittite plene writing must therefore admit at least some degree of optionality: in any given instance, a long vowel might or might not be represented with plene writing.

The major difference between Kloekhorst’s approach to plene writing and that of previous scholarship is the extent to which such optionality was permitted. Under the earlier view, optionality is viewed as an “essential” characteristic of plene writing (cf. Melchert 1994:27): individual attestations of a word with plene spelling indicate that the relevant vowel is long, but non-plene spellings do not necessarily indicate that it is short (cf. especially Kimball 1999:56). The relative incidence of plene writing is thereby viewed as phonologically uninformative, except insofar as (i) multiple attestations with plene spelling effectively exclude the possibility of scribal error, confirming vowel length beyond a doubt; or (ii) a sufficiently attested word or morphological category shows systematic absence of plene spelling in a phonological context where it is predicted, which may be diagnostic of an alternative stress pattern.11

Under Kloekhorst’s approach, however, optionality is minimal or even excluded wholesale: long vowels are in principle consistently spelled plene. Non-plene spellings of phonetically long vowels in any attestation are due to extra-linguistic factors, such as considerations of tablet space (as noted above), or else more simply to errors or omissions on the part of the scribe. Such non-plene spellings are thereby afforded the same status as other misspellings, including aberrant plene spellings of phonetically short vowels, which are generally agreed to constitute a “residue” that lies beyond the domain of phonological explanation.12

10 Excluding here cases in which plene writing may signal a feature other than vowel length (on which see further §2.3 below).

11 That is, the word or category may be stressed in a position other than the one expected on historical grounds, which could in turn point to a diachronic stress shift (see, e.g., Lundquist 2015 on Vedic -ti-stem abstract nouns; Probert 2006 on Greek thematic nominals; Yates 2015:151–3, 169–74 on PIE nasal-infix verbs in Anatolian), or else to the need to revise one’s assumption about stress in the reconstructed pre-form.

12 For instance, paḫḫur ‘fire’ (N NOM/ACC SG) is attested twice (both times at KBo 17.10 iii 2) as ‘pa-a-ah-ḫur’; yet since plene writing is otherwise unattested (23× non-plene) and is not predicted under any analysis of Hittite vowel length, this effectively single attestation is more plausibly viewed as a scribal error.
This approach leads Kloekhorst to recognize a third class of words in OH in which a vowel is sometimes spelled plene, sometimes not. He assumes that such inconsistent plene writing is an orthographic means of representing an intermediate degree of vowel length, and thus analyzes these vowels as half long (i.e., \([Vˑ]\)). In contrast, then, to the views of Melchert (1994), Kimball (1999), and others, the relative incidence of plene writing in individual word forms is employed by Kloekhorst to distinguish crucially between long and half-long vowels. In the case at hand, he contends that in OH the “(almost) consistent plene spelling” of \([ê]\) contrasts with the “plene spelling in ca. 30–50% of the cases” for \([ê]\) (op. cit. 181). Moreover, once he has established the expected frequency of plene spelling for long and half-long vowels in OH, Kloekhorst finds that the frequency of plene writing for inherited \(*ê\) in closed syllables—at least in those contexts where it necessarily indicates vowel length (cf. §2.3 below)—is “significantly” lower than for the half-long and long vowels;\(^{13}\) in fact, he finds that such plene spellings are sufficiently rare that they are best viewed as erroneous representations of short \([ê]\), the length of which is accurately reflected in its more common non-plene spelling.

The differing assumptions of Kloekhorst and earlier scholarship concerning optionality also have consequences for their analyses of the other notable distributional feature of plene writing, i.e., its asymmetric frequency. This property is discussed by Melchert (1994:27) and in greater detail by Kimball (1999:55–6), who observe that—as already noted by earlier scholars—the relative incidence of plene vs. non-plene spelling is correlated with the factors in (6):\(^{14}\)

- **Chronology:** plene spelling decreases over time, occurring most frequently in OH compositions, less frequently in post-OH compositions (and copies of OH texts).
- **Syllabic position:** vowels are spelled plene less frequently in closed syllables (i.e., preceding a consonant cluster or geminate consonant) than in open syllables.

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\(^{13}\) Kloekhorst’s use of “significant” in discussing the frequency of plene spelling is not equivalent to “statistically significant,” since no statistical testing methods are applied to his data; rather, all figures are reported in terms of raw frequency or percentages and evaluated by impressionistic comparison (cf. Melchert’s [to appear] criticism on this point).

\(^{14}\) For references to earlier scholarship, see Kimball 1999:55.
Under the traditional approach, the (6.i) lower relative frequency of plene writing in chronologically later texts reflects only a decrease in the use of an orthographic practice that was, already at the earliest stage, optional. Meanwhile, (6.ii) is likely motivated by general principles of orthographic economy: the lower incidence of plene writing in closed syllables is due to the higher “cost” (in terms of scribal effort and physical tablet space) of using plene writing in this context, where it requires three signs (⟨CV-V-VC⟩), versus open syllables, where just two signs are necessary (⟨CV-V⟩) (cf. Melchert 1994:27). Significantly, the same calculation may in part explain why plene writing is more consistent in vowel-initial words with first syllable stress—including inherited *#é—than in other closed syllables (cf. §2.4 below): plene writing here requires just two signs (⟨V-VC⟩), and is therefore relatively “cheap.” These two factors conspire to limit plene spellings of vowels in closed syllables in late texts to a relatively low number.

In contrast, Kloekhorst sees in (i) a series of historical vowel shortenings: all OH long vowels in non-final syllables undergo (some) shortening by NH including [éː], which is reduced to [é] in closed syllables and [é ˑ ] in open syllables, thereby leading to the elimination of the OH phonemic distinction between /ɛː/ and /ɛ/. The (ii) positional asymmetry has two causes. On the one hand, it is due to the non-lengthening of inherited short vowels in closed syllables (e.g. *#éC. > Hitt. [éC.]), and on the other, due to the more thoroughgoing historical shortening of long vowels in this environment, which for Kloekhorst in some cases has begun already within OH (cf. §2.3 below). The logic behind the lower relative incidence of plene writing in chronologically late texts and especially in closed syllables is therefore that in the post-OH period there were fewer surface long vowels than in OH, since they were generally subject to reduction diachronically and especially so in closed syllables. In broad terms, then, the difference between his approach and others is that the observed diachronic decrease in the relative incidence of plene writing is not purely a change in orthographic practice, but the result of phonological change.

Without the benefit of modern descendant languages, the relative likelihood of these competing theories must be evaluated by their ability to explain the data. This data is basically captured under the traditional approach, but at the expense of a highly imperfect correlation between plene writing and vowel length in individual word attestations (i.e., across tokens). Kloekhorst’s approach attempts to fit the data more closely by positing additional phonological and phonetic distinctions, yet questions have been raised about the empirical status of these distinctions, as well as the plausibility of some of Kloekhorst’s assumptions.
concerning the phonological interpretation of plene writing (Kimball 2015, Melchert to appear). The remainder of this section therefore considers Kloekhorst’s hypotheses in more detail.

2.2. Against a ternary length contrast

Under Kloekhorst’s analysis, Hittite non-high stressed vowels show three degrees of phonetic vowel length: short [V], half-long [Vˑ], and long [Vː]. This ternary surface length contrast is orthographically encoded by varying degrees of plene writing—for the front mid vowel, [ê] is (in principle) never spelled plene; [éˑ] is spelled plene in “ca. 30–50%” of attestations; and [éː] is (again, in principle) always spelled plene.

This subsection focuses on a typological question raised by Kloekhorst’s hypothesis: is it reasonable to assume that this ternary length contrast was represented in the Hittite orthographic system? Somewhat problematic, in this respect, is half-long [éˑ], an allophone of /e/ in stressed open syllables under Kloekhorst’s analysis. Since it has long been established that writing systems strongly tend to represent only phonemic contrasts (e.g., Stockwell and Westbrook 1951, 1961; cf. Lass 1997:45–60), Hittite would be cross-linguistically exceptional in orthographically encoding this allophonic distinction. However, in this case the general typological issue is further compounded by the specific facts of the feature in question: even in the (very rare) languages in which ternary phonemic length contrasts have been established, they are not encoded in the orthographic system.

Probably the two best known cases of ternary phonemic length are found in Estonian (e.g., Odden 1997, Asu and Teras 2009) and Dinka (Anderson 1987, Remijsen and Gilley 2008);16 minimal triplets are given in (7) with both orthographic and phonetic representations:

15 A further issue raised by Kimball (2015:27) is that, even if Hittite had half-long vowels, it is totally unclear why this feature would be encoded by inconsistent plene writing; Kloekhorst offers no explanation for this orthographic principle.

16 See Odden 2011 for discussion, as well as reanalysis of several other languages which have been held to show a ternary length contrast.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Estonian</th>
<th>Dinka</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>⟨sada⟩</td>
<td>[sata]</td>
<td>‘hundred’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨saada⟩</td>
<td>[saːta]</td>
<td>‘send.IMP’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨saada⟩</td>
<td>[saːta]</td>
<td>‘get.INF’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨leel⟩</td>
<td>[-lːl]</td>
<td>‘isolate.2SG’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨leel⟩</td>
<td>[-lːːl]</td>
<td>‘isolate.2SG’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>⟨leel⟩</td>
<td>[-lːː:l]</td>
<td>‘provoke.3SG’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In each case, the ternary vowel length contrast is in spelling reduced to a binary contrast: both long and over-long vowels are graphically doubled, while short vowels are distinguished by their singleton spelling.

In view of these facts, one might genuinely wonder whether the standard orthography of any natural language represents a ternary vowel length contrast. Yet even if such a language should turn up, it remains the case that Hittite is a very unlikely candidate for one. Not only are half-long vowels in Hittite purely allophonic and so a priori less likely to be written, but its script is notoriously ill-suited to representing even those phonemic length distinctions that definitely exist in the language. A case in point is the Hittite imperfective suffix /-skːé-/ (< PIE/PA *-ské-), which has a geminate (= long) velar stop [kː] via Sturtevant’s Law. This [kː] is overwhelmingly spelled with a singleton sign (19 × 〈-VS-ke/i-〉 in OS texts), e.g., 〈za-aš-ke-ez-zi〉 ‘places’; but in a few cases, it is spelled with an orthographic geminate (1 × 〈-ik-ke/i-〉 in OS texts). Applying the same reasoning that guides the half-length analysis would lead to the conclusion that the velar stop of the suffix is 5% long, and so spelled geminate in roughly 5% of (OS) attestations.

However, not only is such an analysis intuitively unlikely, it also misses an important generalization, viz., that the geminate is represented only when an epenthetic vowel emerges between the /s/ and /kː/ of the suffix, e.g., 〈zi-ik-ke-ez-zi〉 ‘places’, although even then, not in all cases, e.g., 〈zi-ke-e-et〉 ‘placed’; it seems unlikely to be due to chance that, in this phonological context, it was possible for scribes to represent the length of /kː/ without inserting an “empty” vowel into the suffix. Yet whatever the exact motivation for this orthographic pattern,

17 In fact, even the phonological analysis of Hittite /e/ (→ [éː]) advocated in this paper must contend with the allophonic writing problem. I assume that the length of [éː] was represented because this feature was, on the one hand, distinctive (in the sense of Kiparsky 2015:575), and on the other, because it was contrastive elsewhere in the system (i.e., in the high/low vowels and most consonants; cf. n.5 above); in other words, since the phonetic difference between [e] and [éː] would have been similar to the difference between, e.g., [a] and [áː] (where it is contrastive), it might have seemed natural to express it by the same orthographic means.

18 The epenthetic vowel appears suffix-internally specifically when the final consonant of the root is coronal; see Melchert 2013b:178–9, and for the phonotactic conditions on epenthesis, Kavitskaya 2001 and Yates 2016a.

19 The cited forms are OH/OS; for attestations (in all periods), see Kloekhorst 2014:108–16.

20 Spellings of the type 〈-ša-ak-ke/i-〉 for the imperfective suffix are possible in principle but unattested; their absence is consistent with the idea that suffix-internal “empty” vowels were
it is clear that the frequency with which /kː/ is written geminate has no bearing on its phonological length which—despite being contrastive—was optionally represented, with the choice partially determined by extra-linguistic factors, just as is traditionally assumed for plene writing.

2.3. Against a phonetic distinction between [ěː] and [ěː]

As discussed in §§1 and 2.1, Kloekhorst has argued that Hittite preserves the inherited PIE/PA phonemic distinction between /e/ (*ě) and /eː/ (< *ě, *ěh₁). These phonemes contrast only in OH, where the phonetic realization of /e/ is shorter than that of /eː/ in both open syllables ([ěˑ] vs. [eː]) and in closed syllables ([ě] vs. [ěː]). If this fleeting period of contrast could be established, it would undermine the traditional analysis whereby *ě, *ět, and *ěh₁ had merged already by the earliest attested stage of Hittite as /e/, which was subject to synchronic lengthening under word stress (i.e., /e/ → [ěː]).

I focus here on the alleged distinction between [ěː] and [ě] in closed non-final syllables for several reasons. First, Kloekhorst’s analysis makes clear empirical predictions about the relative incidence of plene writing for these vowels (in principle, always vs. never; cf. §2.1 above), and there is sufficient (OH) evidence to evaluate these predictions. Furthermore, it will become clear in what follows that rejecting the “glottal stop hypothesis” entails rejecting the claim that the relative incidence of plene spelling is phonologically meaningful, and so in turn, the putative evidence for a class of surface half-long vowels (which were already argued to be unlikely in §2.2).

Under Kloekhorst’s analysis, the phonetic realization of /eː/ in OH non-final stressed syllables is [ěː], and so predicted to exhibit the same “virtually consistent” plene spelling as in monosyllables. However, a closer look at the evidence that allegedly supports this analysis reveals a different picture; the Table reports the frequency of plene writing for words or morphemes held by Kloekhorst to contain OH [ěː] in a non-final syllable that have relatively secure etymologies and are attested four or more times in OS texts:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>*ěh₁</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*ět</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*ě</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Table includes not only the etymological reflexes of *ě and *ěh₁, but also the surface [ěː] that results from monophthongization of *ěi and *ěi; in Kloekhorst’s account, [ěː] from all four sources is reasonably expected to behave identically with respect to plene writing. I am skeptical, however, of the synchronic phonemic analysis of Kloekhorst, who assigns all the examples in the Table to phonemic /eː/. Issues of length aside, I prefer to view [ěː] in pēhheš—
### Table. Frequency of plene writing for words/morphemes with [éː] in a non-final syllable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Plene</th>
<th>Non-plene</th>
<th>% Plene</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pēḫḫe/i ‘I give’</td>
<td>6×</td>
<td>0×</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tēḫḫe/i ‘I place’</td>
<td>9×</td>
<td>5×</td>
<td>40.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appēḍziya- ‘last’</td>
<td>1×</td>
<td>4×</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tēzi ‘says’</td>
<td>2×</td>
<td>9×</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēššar/-ēšn- ‘(noun suffix)’</td>
<td>1×</td>
<td>21×</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pēššiyə/-a- ‘throw’</td>
<td>0×</td>
<td>11×</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ḫantēḍziya- ‘first’</td>
<td>0×</td>
<td>4×</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>19×</td>
<td>54×</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What this Table shows is that the relative incidence of plene writing varies considerably across items. The consistency predicted by the analysis is observed only in pēḫḫe/i, while for all other items plene writing is a minority pattern; especially striking is pēššiyə/a-, which shows no plene writing in eleven OS attestations. To account for this distribution, Kloekhorst (2014:50 and passim) proposes that, already during the OH period, [éː] was subject to conditioned shortening in closed syllables “before dental consonants” (i.e., /t(ː), t͡s, l(ː), n(ː)/). Yet this further assumption not only suffers from a lack of phonetic motivation, it also effectively posits an ad hoc division of OH texts into “early” and “late” depending solely on whether the vowel is spelled plene or not in this phonological context. In addition to these serious issues, this proposal still leaves unexplained the ratio of plene spelling in tēḫḫe/i, which is aberrantly low under Kloekhorst’s theory; for this form, Kloekhorst (2014:49) raises the possibility of a similar (but separate) OH-internal conditioned vowel shortening, yet this analysis raises the same set of objections as shortening before “dental consonants” and—to the extent that it is empirically falsifiable—is falsified by pēḫḫe/i, which fails to exhibit shortening in the same environment.

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22 Paradoxically, Kloekhorst (2014:307 and passim) even suggests that the same consonants had a *lengthening* effect on a preceding [áː] vowel, delaying the general historical shortening process that is argued to target this OH long vowel in closed syllables.

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which participates in regular paradigmatic alternations with the diphthong [áːi], e.g., pāi ‘gives’ (3SG.MST.ACT)—as an allophone of /aːi/. In the same vein, while, e.g., apēḍziya- may have an underlying monophthong (< *ei* per Eichner 1973:77), the alternation between, e.g., utnē ‘land’ (N,NOM/ACC,SG) and utniyaš (N,GEN,SG) suggests synchronic /ei/ in the stem-final syllable.

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The take-away from the Table above is that there is little compelling evidence for a long vowel [ɛ:] from *ɛh₁ and *ɛh₂ that is consistently written plene; rather, these forms suggest that plene writing of [ɛ:] in closed non-final syllables is simply infrequent and that, if this vowel [ɛ:] can be distinguished from the reflexes of inherited *ɛ by its elevated frequency of plene writing, then it must be because the latter shows (virtually) no plene spellings at all. Yet as can be seen in (8) (cf. (3a) above), plene spellings of inherited *ɛ are attested in closed non-final syllables, exactly where they are predicted under the traditional account, which posits stressed vowel lengthening in this environment.

(8) a. ⟨ku-e-en-zì⟩ [kʰɛ:nțì] ‘kills’ (3SG.NPST.ACT) PA *gʰēn-tı
   ⟨ḫu-e-ek-ta⟩ [χʷɛ:kta] ‘slaughters’ (3SG.PST.ACT) PA *Hʷég-ta
   ⟨tu-e-ek-kì⟩ [tweed:ki] ‘body; self’ (C.DAT./LOC.SG) PA *twēk-

   b. ⟨me-e-er-tu⟩ [mė:rt:u] ‘let him disappear’ (3SG.IMP.ACT) PA *mėr-tu
       ⟨še-eš-ke-e-ed-du⟩ [sesk:ɛ:tːu] ‘let him sleep’ (3SG.IMP.ACT) PA *šē-kē-tu

   c. ⟨še-eš-ta⟩ [sê:sta] ‘slept’ (3SG.PST.ACT) PA *sēs-t(a)
       ⟨ke-e-en-zu⟩ [kē:nțsu] ‘lap’ (N.NOM./ACC.SG) PA *gēnt-su

   d. ⟨e-eš-zì⟩ [ɛ̞ːtsì] ‘is’ (3SG.NPST.ACT) PA *h₁ės-ti
       ⟨e-eš-har⟩ [ɛ̞ːts̪ar] ‘blood’ (N.NOM./ACC.SG) PA *h₁ēsh-ʃ̥

In order to explain why the forms in (8) do not show that *ɛ regularly yields [ɛ:] in Hittite, Kloekhorst advances several disparate hypotheses: in (8a), that plene writing does not reliably indicate vowel length after a labio-velar glide (/w/) or labialized obstruent (/kʷ(ː), χʷ(ː))/; in (8b), that the long vowel is due to a special process lengthening stressed vowels in imperatival forms; in (8c), that the plene spellings are scribal errors; and in (8d), that plene writing indicates the presence of an initial glottal stop rather than a long vowel.

These hypotheses are problematic in various ways.²³ Since not all imperatives show plene spelling, the imperatival lengthening process posited for (8b) cannot be analyzed as a phonologically regular development, and so its use to “explain”

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²³ Cf. generally the skepticism of Kimball (2015:24–5), especially with respect to the alleged non-contrastiveness of plene writing after labialized obstruents.
unexpected plene spellings is fundamentally stipulative;\textsuperscript{24} moreover, while there is little or no evidence for imperatival lengthening in contexts where a long vowel is not predicted under the traditional approach, there is at least one clear case in which imperatives contrast with indicative forms specifically because they were not lengthened. This situation is observed in ablauting ʰhi-verbs of the dāi-class in OH, where imperatives with short final diphthongs (e.g., ʰpai ‘give!’) and indicative forms with long diphthongs (pāi ‘gives’) constitute minimal pairs for vowel length (Cowgill apud Melchert 1994:148).

In the same vein, ascribing examples like (8c) to scribal error is purely stipulative. It is true, of course, that some “residue” of orthographic errors is to be expected (cf. §2.1), but there are nevertheless strong reasons to doubt Kloekhorst’s analysis of these examples as misspellings of a phonetically short vowel [é] on the grounds of their very low frequency of plene writing. Given that even in OS texts plene writing of [é:] in closed syllables was fairly uncommon and that the strong stem of, e.g., šeš- ‘sleep’ is attested only in later texts where plene is known to be less common (cf. Kimball 2015:23–5), its ratio of plene spelling—at least twice (KBo 19.128 vi 29, OH/NS; KUB 31.39 iv 3, NH/NS) in 60+ attestations (~3% plene)—is not low with respect to the group in the Table above where Kloekhorst predicts a long vowel, but in fact rather high.\textsuperscript{25} If imperatival lengthening is excluded, the strong stems of other mi-verbs exhibit similar profiles: s(a/e)men- ‘withdraw’ is attested 17\times (4\times OS) with one plene spelling of the root vowel (HKM 5 14, MH/MS; 5.8% plene), and mer- ‘disappear’ 15\times (0\times OS) with two plene spellings (KUB 41.23 ii 5, iii 11, OH/NS; 13.3% plene). In any case, relative incidence of plene writing provides no grounds for splitting the reflexes of inherited *é like šeš- from those in the Table that continue *ê or *êh₁.

Finally, there is the issue of examples like (8d), whose consistent and diachronically stable plene writing (⟨e-eC-⟩) appears to systematically violate Kloekhorst’s hypotheses. For this class, Kloekhorst argues that plene writing does not (necessarily) indicate a long vowel (⟨é(ː)⟩), but is instead the orthographic representation of a word-initial glottal stop plus vowel sequence ([#ʔe(ː)−])

\textsuperscript{24} Especially ad hoc is Kloekhorst’s (2014:94 n.348) proposal that samēzi [smē-ŠI] ‘withdraws’ (3SG.NST.ACT)—an ordinary indicative form—underwent imperatival lengthening in a modal context.

\textsuperscript{25} Note, too, that the vowel in šeš- occurs before a “dental consonant” in a closed non-final syllable, where Kloekhorst argues for early vowel shortening; probably the closest phonological comparandum for šeš- is therefore the suffix -ešar-ešin- in the Table above, which shows a similar frequency of plene writing (4.5%) across a large number of attestations.
This theory—championed by Kloekhorst in earlier works (2004, 2006, 2008:75–6) and referred to here as the “glottal stop hypothesis”—assumes that this (phonemic) glottal stop is the Hittite reflex of PIE word-initial laryngeals, which merged as /ʔ/ in precisely those positions where earlier scholarship had assumed the laryngeal was historically lost and the Hittite word was thus synchronically vowel-initial.

In the intervening years, the glottal stop hypothesis has been seriously criticized. The alleged evidence for an orthographic distinction in Hieroglyphic Luwian between word-initial ⟨á⟩ [#ʔ(a)-] and ⟨a⟩ [#a-] has been shown to be non-probative by Melchert (2010a). Weeden (2011:62–8) has convincingly refuted the idea that the Hittite spelling of glottal stops was imported from Akkadian cuneiform, as well as raised doubts about the phonemicity of /ʔ/ in Hittite, and more generally, the explanatory power of the glottal stop hypothesis (cf. Rieken 2010). To the weight of these criticisms, I add here the three cases in (9) where—under its current formulation—this hypothesis makes empirically false predictions:

(9) a. PIE *h₁esh₂-ó- > Hitt. ⟨iš(ha-a-aš)⟩ [isğás] ‘master’ (C.NOM.SG)

   ⟨(i-iš(ha-a-aš))⟩

b. PIE *h₁eh₁-s-’ > Hitt. ⟨išši-i⟩ [is:i] ‘mouth’ (N.DAT./LOC.SG)

   ⟨(i-išši-i)⟩

c. PIE *h₁r̥s-énti > Hitt. ⟨arš-an-zi⟩ [arsánši] ‘flow’ (3PL.NPST.ACT)

   ⟨(a-arš-an-zi)⟩

Both (9a) and (9b) are relatively well-attested words with historically expected oxytone stress, which is confirmed in Hittite by clear evidence for plene writing of the final syllable; similarly, non-initial stress in (9c) is the norm for the weak stem of simplex root mi-verbs like arš in Hittite. Since the initial syllable is unstressed, the traditional approach correctly predicts non-plene writing; in contrast, the glottal stop hypothesis predicts plene writing of the initial syllable, which is unattested.

The etymology of (9a) is standard; see Kloekhorst 2008:390 (cf. Nussbaum 2014:244–5). Example (9b) follows Melchert’s (2010b) analysis (though Kloekhorst’s [2008:166–7] etymology should yield the same initial spelling under his phonological assumptions). Kloekhorst’s hesitant phonetic interpretation of the word-initial syllable in (9c) as “/(ʔ)aršs/” suggests his awareness that Hittite [#ʔars]-—with regular “vocalization” of the syllabic sonorant and theoretically expected preservation of *h₁ as [#ʔ]—is incorrectly predicted to show initial plene spelling.

26 The etymology of (9a) is standard; see Kloekhorst 2008:390 (cf. Nussbaum 2014:244–5). Example (9b) follows Melchert’s (2010b) analysis (though Kloekhorst’s [2008:166–7] etymology should yield the same initial spelling under his phonological assumptions). Kloekhorst’s hesitant phonetic interpretation of the word-initial syllable in (9c) as “/(ʔ)aršs/” suggests his awareness that Hittite [#ʔars]-—with regular “vocalization” of the syllabic sonorant and theoretically expected preservation of *h₁ as [#ʔ]—is incorrectly predicted to show initial plene spelling.
The implications of this incorrect prediction are significant because the glottal stop hypothesis and the traditional approach overwhelmingly predict (non-) plene writing in the same positions—for instance, plene writing is expected in the strong stem of epp- ‘take’ (i.e., ⟨e-ep-⟩) because this spelling represents [éːpː-] under the traditional approach or [ʔépː-] under the glottal stop hypothesis. Since the examples in (9) are some of the few lexical items in which the glottal stop hypothesis makes different, empirically testable predictions from the traditional approach, the fact that these predictions are demonstrably incorrect constitutes strong counter-evidence to the validity of the hypothesis.27

Of course, the glottal stop hypothesis could be modified to account for exceptions like (9): it might be stipulated that word-initial glottal stops were lost before unstressed vowels. Yet if modified in this way, the theory would lose virtually all of its unique predictive power while requiring two additional assumptions to account for the same facts as the traditional approach: (i) that Hittite has a phonemic glottal stop /ʔ/; and (ii) that this glottal stop is orthographically encoded with vocalic signs. Neither assumption is cost-free, and as pointed out by Weeden (2011), Rieken (2010), and others, there are good reasons to be skeptical of both.

In sum, the glottal stop hypothesis cannot be maintained. Word-initial plene spellings of the type in (8d) must therefore represent long vowels [éː], which then speak against Kloekhorst’s (2014) proposal that the Hittite outcome of inherited *é in closed non-final syllables was short [é]. Furthermore, the consistency of plene spelling in these items against nearly all other examples (whether from *é or *ê, *éh₁) suggests more broadly that the relative incidence of plene writing in a given word or morpheme is essentially uninformative about vowel length. This finding constitutes further evidence against the idea that there is a half-long vowel [éˑ] that contrasts with [éː] in open non-final syllables by its lower incidence of plene writing (as argued in §2.2 on independent grounds). The lack of evidence for a phonetic distinction between [éː] and [é] in closed syllables or [éˑ] in closed syllables in turn undermines any claim of a phonemic distinction between /eː/ and /e/ at any attested stage of Hittite.

27 Especially significant is (9c), since Kloekhorst (2008:208–10) argues that the strong stem of this verb—spelled plene in some attestations (n.b. not consistently), e.g., ⟨a-ar-âš-zi⟩—provides crucial evidence for his theory, since plene is unexpected in this verb under the traditional approach. Yet with tremendous weight placed on this single verb’s strong stem forms (cf. Weeden 2011:62), it seems non-trivial that the theory fails on its weak stem. Melchert (1994:125) offers an alternative explanation of plene in the strong stem that is now supported by his recent analysis of Hittite sonorant “vocalization” (Melchert 2015).
2.4. Assessing hypotheses

Kloekhorst’s careful philological investigation of Hittite plene writing has brought to light a wealth of data, which has offered new insight into certain old problems concerning its usage (cf. Melchert 2015), and made it possible to seriously re-evaluate traditional hypotheses concerning its phonological interpretation. However, there are simply too many theoretical and empirical issues with the new phonological interpretation of plene writing that Kloekhorst himself has advanced on the basis of this data. This interpretation requires typologically unprecedented assumptions about the relationship between phonology, phonetics, and orthography (§2.2); moreover, it undergenerates the attested plene spellings of inherited *é in closed non-final syllables, which therefore require special explanations that are variously problematic at the individual level, and viewed collectively, implausible (§2.3). These plene spellings instead support the traditional view that inherited *é became Hittite [é:].

The rarity of plene spellings of [é:] from *é in closed syllables is best explained in the same way as the rarity of plene spelling of [é:] from historically bimoraic *ē and *ēh₁, whose infrequent plene spelling already in OH—especially relative to the historical reflexes of these vowels in open syllables—has now received empirical confirmation from the data amassed by Kloekhorst (cf. the Table above). Since there is no compelling reason to believe that the latter have shortened, it is best to adopt the assumption of Melchert (1994), Kimball (1999) and most subsequent scholarship that this rarity is an orthographic effect: the use of plene writing was optional and subject to considerations of scribal economy, and so used less frequently in closed rather than open syllables because of the additional cuneiform sign it requires (cf. §2.1 above).

The exceptionally high relative incidence of plene spelling in words with initial stressed vowels (i.e., [#Vː-]) fits naturally into this typology: plene here requires just two signs (⟨V-VC⟩), and so these items pattern more closely with open syllables (⟨CV-V-⟩). The diachronic stability of plene writing in these words likely in part reflects the persistence of such principles of economy, but there can be little doubt that emerging spelling conventions played a role. It seems very unlikely to be due to chance that many of the Hittite words exhibiting this stability are some of the most frequent in the entire corpus, encoding basic everyday concepts like ‘be’ ([e-eš-]), ‘take’ ([e-ep-]), and ‘eat’ ([e-et/d/z-]); the “correct” spelling of such words would have been established at an early date, and conse-
quently, these words would have resisted the general diachronic decrease in the use of plene spelling as an optional orthographic practice.  

3. The synchronic status of Hittite stressed vowel lengthening

Having established in §2 that the historical outcome of *é in Hittite is [éː] in both open and closed syllables and thus identical to the outcomes of *ē and *ēh₁, I turn now to its synchronic analysis. As discussed in §2.1, Melchert (1994:133–5) proposed that [éː] from all three sources is derived from the same phoneme /e/ via a synchronic process of vowel lengthening under word stress (i.e., /e/ → [éː]). There can be little doubt about the (eventual) phonemic merger of these entities.  

Once the stressed vowel lengthening process had become categorical, neutralizing the underlying contrast between these historically distinct phonemes in all stressed syllables, the phonemic distinction would have been opaque; that the next generation would then learn a restructured grammar in which every [éː] was derived from a single phoneme is expected under standard theories of language acquisition and change (see, e.g., Kiparsky 1982).

Less immediately clear is whether [éː] was synchronically derived from /e/ within the Hittite period, and if so, until what stage of the language the relevant stressed vowel lengthening process was operative. While it seems phonologically plausible, as well as economical, to analyze this synchronic mapping as a persistent effect of the same process that gave rise to the historical merger of *é with *ē and *ēh₁, it is difficult to distinguish this analysis from one that assumes a purely historical lengthening process, a Neogrammrian-style sound change that had run its course already in the prehistory of Hittite. Moreover, besides disputing the (historical or synchronic) lengthening of /e/ in closed syllables, Kloekhorst has argued that [éː]—together with other surface long vowels in this position—underwent diachronic shortening in the post-OH period, a claim that directly opposes Melchert’s (1994) lengthening analysis.

I suggest here that there is direct evidence for the synchronic operation of the phonological process lengthening stressed /e/ within Hittite. This evidence comes

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28 A distributional asymmetry that I cannot address here is why plene spelling is so (diachronically) consistent in stressed monosyllabic words. I note only that I disagree with Kloekhorst (2014:216–8 and passim) that it must be because they contain vowels that are longer than other vowels spelled with inconsistent plene writing, especially since length is non-contrastive in non-high vowels in this position. For a possible alternative explanation, see Kimball 2015:24.

29 Under Kloekhorst’s theory, the merger occurs but only in the post OH-period (cf. §1); however, §§2.2–2.3 have disputed the evidential basis for this dating.
from its application to “secondary”—or perhaps, more precisely, non-etymological—/e/ when this phoneme arises within the historical period via sound change or analogy. As might be expected, there are relatively few cases of this kind; however, several fairly secure examples are given in (10):\

(10) a. 〈ḫē-e-eš-zi〉 [χē:stsi] ‘opens’ (3SG.NPST.ACT)  
(KBo 17.94 iii 23, NH/NS)  
〈ḫē-e-eš-du〉 [χē:st:u] ‘let (him) open’ (3SG.IMP.ACT)  
(KUB 36.89 obv. 39, NH/NS)  
(KUB 33.106 iii 50, MH/NS)  
〈ḫē-e-šu-u-en〉 [χē:swen] ‘we opened’ (1PL.NPST.ACT)  
(KBo 22.116 obv. 14, NH/NS)  
(KUB 3.94 i 25, NH/NS)

b. 〈le-e-el-ḫu-an-zi〉 [lē:ḥwntsi] ‘pour’ (3PL.NPST.ACT)  
(KUB 31.121 ii 36, NH/NS)  

c. 〈te-e-et-ḫa〉 [tē:tya] ‘thunders’ (3SG.NPST.MID)  
(KUB 32.135 i 3, 10, OH/MS)  
〈te-e-et-ḫu-u-wa-š(=a)〉 [tē:txwas] ‘of thundering’ (N.GEN.SG)  
(KUB 32.135 i 8, OH/MS)  

d. 〈šē-[eš-du]〉  
[šē:s:t:u] ‘let (him) prosper’ (3SG.IMP.ACT)  
(KBo 2.32 rev. 6, NH/NS)  
〈šē-e-eš-ša-u-wa-ṣ(=$)〉 [šē:s:swas] ‘of prosperity’ (N.GEN.SG)  
(KUB 24.1 iv 16, NH/NS)

The verbal forms in (10a) are late paradigmatic forms of what was originally a ḫi-verb with ā/a ablaut, which can be observed in the oldest layer of texts, e.g., ḥāši : ḥāšanzi ‘open(s)’ (3SG/PL.NPST.ACT). The exact analogical mechanisms that gave rise to ē-vocalism (as well as some unambiguous mi-verb forms) in (10a) are disputed;\(^31\) whatever the source, however, it seems clear that /e/ was

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\(^{30}\) Most of the forms in (10) are discussed by Kloekhorst (2014:73, 76, 94–5, 116), who explicitly ascribes them to scribal errors (of various kinds) except for the imperatival forms, which are held to undergo “imperatival lengthening” (see §2.3 above).

\(^{31}\) See the differing accounts of Kloekhorst (2012:154–5) and Melchert (2013a:141–2, 5–6). The /e/ cannot in any case be original, since an etymological (PIE/PA) */e/ would have undergone prehistoric coloring next to *h₂.
introduced into this verb within the Hittite period, and that this /e/ was subject to lengthening under word stress, surfacing with plene spelling as [éː].

Even more interesting are the forms in (10b)–(d), all of which were subject to the phonological change referred to as “New Hittite lowering” (see especially Yakubovich 2010:309–15, 321–33). In each case, the oldest attested forms of these verbs show consistent short i-vocalism—never spelled plene—which is the expected Hittite outcome of *i in a closed syllable. However, in later texts—typically NS, but occasionally earlier as in (10c)—the same lexical items are attested with plene [éː]. The forms with [éː] appear to have undergone two changes: (i) lowering of /i/ to /e/; and (ii) stressed vowel lengthening, i.e., /e/ → [éː]. The latter change can be explained straightforwardly by assuming that stressed vowel lengthening—still operative even in NH—has applied to the new phonemic vowel /e/.

An alternative explanation of the plene spellings in (10a)–(d) is that they are all scribal errors, which is essentially the position adopted by Kloekhorst (cf. n.34). Yet it seems remarkable that in these verbs plene spellings are never found prior to NH lowering. If such spellings are simply errors—i.e., extra-linguistic insertions of additional cuneiform signs—there is no clear reason why this distribution should be observed. Under the interpretation presented above, however, this distribution is not a coincidence; rather, the phonological change lowering /i/ to /e/ feeds the stressed vowel lengthening process, whence Hittite [éː] predictably emerges.

It is difficult to determine the precise inner-Hittite chronology of the changes introducing /e/ into the words in (10), and therefore to assign a possible terminus post quem for the synchronic operation of the stressed vowel lengthening process posited by Melchert (1994). However, the data in (10) requires that this process was operative within the Hittite period, and strongly recommends the hypothesis that it persisted stably into NH, given its application to forms in (10a)–(d) exhibiting NH lowering, which, by Yakubovich’s (2010:330–3) analysis, was a gradual, lexically diffusing change that began prior to NH but spread especially during the NH period. In fact, there is no compelling reason to believe that synchronic

32 Historically, the examples in (10bc)—and possibly also (10d)—continue inherited forms with *i-reduplication, on which see Dempsey 2015 (on (10d), cf. Kloekhorst 2008:756–7).
33 Other examples of NH lowering that target a long vowel—e.g., ḫḫai > ḫḫai ‘does’; šīna > šēna—‘figure, doll’—might be explained by assuming that the bimoraic vowel had its length “transferred” in the change. However, the total absence of plene writing in the items in (10b)–(d) prior to NH lowering strongly argues that the original [i] vowel was monomoraic.
lengthening of Hittite /e/ under word stress ceased to operate so long as the language was spoken. I therefore take the forms in (10) as further evidence against Kloekhorst’s claim that /e/ did not lengthen in closed syllables, and more broadly, against his proposal that long vowels in closed syllables were generally subject to phonetic shortening in post-OH. On the contrary, these forms suggest in turn that the decreased relative incidence of plene writing of these long vowels in later texts reflects a change that was purely orthographic rather than phonological, as is traditionally assumed (cf. §2.1).

4. Conclusions

This paper has argued that, diachronically, the Hittite outcome of inherited *é was [éː] and that, synchronically, this surface [éː] vowel was derived from /e/ via stressed vowel lengthening throughout the attested period of Hittite. These arguments support the traditional analysis of the relationship between plene writing and vowel length set out, especially, by Melchert (1994) and Kimball (1999) and generally adopted in subsequent scholarship (including Kloekhorst 2008) against the new phonological interpretation of plene writing advanced in Kloekhorst 2014: plene writing was most frequent in early texts, but optional at all periods of Hittite (cf. Kimball 2015).

This finding is, to some extent, an unwelcome result. The optionality of plene writing imposes serious limitations on both diachronic and synchronic phonological analysis of the Hittite vowel system and its interaction with word stress, making it difficult or in some cases impossible to determine what the phonological significance of the presence or absence of plene spelling is. Yet it is clear from the problems encountered by Kloekhorst’s analysis that the evidence cannot be reconciled in a way that is linguistically plausible with any hypothesis that does not admit fairly extensive optionality.

Not all is grim, however. The analysis advanced here allows certain chronologically late plene spellings which Kloekhorst is forced to dismiss as errors to instead be phonologically informative. Such plene spellings include those in (10) above, which made it possible to diagnose the persistent synchronic operation of stressed vowel lengthening into NH. Taking such late plene spellings seriously (i.e., as real indicators of vowel length) thereby makes it possible to more precisely diagnose word stress and stress-related innovations in the history of Hittite.
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