Item and Pattern Morphology

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Outline

1. Morphological analysis
   - Types of phenomena
   - Conceptions of analysis

2. Models of grammatical analysis
   - Morphemic models
   - Item and pattern models
   - Stem-based implication

3. Implicational analysis
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   - Fractured noun declensions in German
   - Modelling implicational structure

4. Summary and implications
Items and patterns

- Why are item/pattern models relevant to quantitative measures?
  - Because they provide appropriate items to count, i.e., words.

- Why are these models relevant to morphological development?
  - Because they incorporate a speaker-oriented perspective, which addresses tasks that speakers face in language acquisition and use.
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- Speakers need to be able to produce and interpret the forms of a language, including forms that they may not have encountered.

- In languages with rich inflectional morphology, this is the ‘paradigm cell filling problem’ (Ackerman et al. 2009).

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- Language use involves the interpretation of forms and the realization of meanings in isolation from other forms/meanings.
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One motive for the post-Bloomfieldian model consisted, that is to say, in a genuinely factual assertion about language: namely, that there is some sort of matching between minimal ‘sames’ of ‘form’ (morphs) and ‘meaning’ (morphemes). Qua factual assertion this has subsequently proved false: for certain languages, such as Latin, the correspondence which was envisaged apparently does not exist … One is bound to suspect, in the light of such a conclusion, that the model is in some sense wrong. (Matthews 1972: 124)
Morphophonemes, morphs, phones, and acoustic phones are artifacts of analysis or conveniences for description, not elements in a language. (Hockett 1961: 42)

Some of the phonemic material in a derived form may be, not part of any underlying form, but rather a representation or marker of the process. (Hockett 1954: 396)
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Quite apart from minor variants of IP or IA, or models that might be invented tomorrow, there is one model which is clearly distinct from either IA or IP, and which is older and more respectable than either. This is the **WORD AND PARADIGM (WP)** model, the traditional framework for the discussion of Latin, Greek, Sanskrit, and a good many more modern familiar languages. … (Hockett 1954: 386)

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A (slight) mischaracterization

- ‘Item and arrangement’ and ‘item and process’ both refer to units (‘items’) and modes of combination (‘arrangements’/‘processes’).

- But ‘word and paradigm’ refers to a PARTICULAR unit (‘word’) and a SPECIFIC network of units (inflectional ‘paradigm’).

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Why words?

- Words are often of greater predictive value than sub-word units.
  - They are IDENTIFIABLE because they are more consistently demarcated in the speech stream than sub-word units.
  - They are more unambiguously INTERPRETABLE than sub-word units.
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The word is a more stable and solid focus of grammatical relations than the component morpheme by itself. Put another way, grammatical statements are abstractions, but they are more profitably abstracted from words as wholes than from individual morphemes. (Robins 1959: 128).
Why paradigms?

- Paradigms exhibit the most reliable patterns of interpredictability because they are defined over a closed, uniform feature space:
  - Notions like ‘morphological gap’, ‘suppletion’, and even ‘syncretism’ are mainly applied to inflectional paradigms.
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The scope of implication

Yet ‘word and paradigm’ is a specific instance of an ‘item and pattern’ model and debates about the morphological status of words and paradigms, though important, are subsidiary:

- In periphrastic constructions (Ackerman & Stump 2004), units larger than the word may be an equally “stable and solid focus of grammatical relations” (cf. Robins 1959).
- A perfectly agglutinative system would also sanction reliable predictions between ‘units of meaning’ and ‘units of form’.
- Derivational paradigms and other types of morphological families also exhibit (a typically weaker) implicational structure.
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- Sub-word units consisting of roots and formatives are often informative in ways that roots in isolation are not, leading to analyses based on abstract stems (Aronoff 1994), stem sets (Anderson 1992) or stem spaces (Bonami & Boyé 2003).

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  - The demarcation of stems raises new difficulties of segmentation.
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Problems of segmentation I

- The ‘recalcitrance’ of English *children*:
  - *child + ren ~ childr + en* — “each of the points of division has advantages and disadvantages” (Harris 1942: 113).
  - *child + r + en ~ child + ablaut + en ~ children* — “this is one of the cases in which all of our preferential criteria ... fail and nothing remains but a resort to convenience” (Hockett 1947: 240).
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Problems of segmentation II

The order of morphemes is fixed [in Spanish]: (derivational prefix(es)) + lexical stem + theme vowel + tense marker (sometimes including an empty morph) + person marker. Some forms, however, have fused in the course of history and a neat segmentation is not always possible. The preterit is the most difficult paradigm to analyse, since the theme vowel is sometimes indistinguishable, and segmenting the second and third person plural markers in the regular way, /-is, -n/, leaves an awkward residue that occurs nowhere else in the system. (Green 1997: 99)
Parasitism

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Ingush noun declensions (Nichols 2011)
Predictive syncretism in Ingush

- In the singular, a genitive form X predicts (and is predicted by):
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Ingush noun declensions (Nichols 2011)
An abstract stem in Daghestanian?

Two different opinions can be found in the literature: (a) these markers [e.g. -zh JPB] are markers of the ergative case and all oblique cases are formed from the ergative; (b) these markers are markers of the oblique stem (of the singular or plural) and the ergative has no special marker and coincides with the oblique stem of the appropriate number. The first point of view is unsatisfactory: it does not take account of the semantics of the oblique cases (ergative meaning is not a component here), nor of the data from other Daghestanian languages, where the ergative frequently has a special morphological marker like other oblique cases …(Kibrik 1991: 257)
Oblique stems in Ingush?

- It is straightforward to state the fact that the form of genitive singulars and ergative plurals predict the form of the corresponding datives, allatives and instrumentals.

- Expressing these patterns using oblique stems just creates the problem of annotating underspecified stem entries in such a way that they can be ‘selected’ as the base for the oblique case forms.
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### Layered parasitism in Estonian

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Layered structure of case forms

- *lukk* → *lukku* → *lukkude* → *lukkudesse*
  - Nominative singular *lukk* → partitive singular *lukku* → genitive plural *lukkude* → illative plural *lukkudesse*.
  - Stem 1 *lukk* → Stem 2 *lukku* → Stem 3 *lukkude* → *lukkudesse*.

- Stems are identifiable from word forms that they underlie.
- But the stems cannot be assigned properties in isolation that determine their distribution in the paradigm of an item.
- ‘Indexing’ each of these stems in ways that defines their distribution gives rise to a diacritic model of morphology.
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  - Nominative singular $lukk \rightarrow$ partitive singular $lukku \rightarrow$ genitive plural $lukkude \rightarrow$ illative plural $lukkudesse$.
  - Stem 1 $lukk \rightarrow$ Stem 2 $lukku \rightarrow$ Stem 3 $lukkude \rightarrow$ lukkudesse.

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- The paradigm of lukk is predictable from partitive singular lukku.

- The grammatical forms are directly predictable via
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James P. Blevins (Cambridge)
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Implicational structure of semantic case forms

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- Hence the significant variation lies in stem selection.
- Semantic forms are based on the corresponding genitive:
  - Singular forms are based on genitive singular luke,
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An implicational analysis captures the fact that the stem variation exhibited by Ingush and Estonian does not signal semantic properties but instead sanctions deductions about other forms.

In Estonian, grammatical case forms, singular semantic forms and plural semantic forms each comprise interpretable cohort sets. The same factorization applies to more familiar systems.

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How many declension classes in German?

In reality, the choice of plural formation depends largely on gender and/or inflection class as manifested also in the expression of the four German cases in the singular. Thus if a masculine has the suffix -en in the Gen.Sg., it must also have it for the plural, e.g. der Fürst ‘prince, sovereign’, Gen.Sg. des Fürst-en implies the plural Fürst-en. (Laaha ea 2006: 279)
### Singular patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masc</th>
<th>Neut</th>
<th>Fem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom</td>
<td>Pegel</td>
<td>Segel</td>
<td>Regel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc</td>
<td>Pegel</td>
<td>Segel</td>
<td>Regel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat</td>
<td>Pegel</td>
<td>Segel</td>
<td>Regel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Regel</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

'Single' 'bear' 'sail' 'rule'

Singular declensional patterns in German (cf. Duden (2005: 197))
## Implicational analysis

### Fractured noun declensions in German

#### Plural patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ending Stem</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
<th>P5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N/A/G</td>
<td>Uhus</td>
<td>Prinzen</td>
<td>Hunde</td>
<td>Bünde</td>
<td>Münder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat (Masc)</td>
<td>‘owl’</td>
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<td>‘dog’</td>
<td>‘waistcoat’</td>
<td>‘mouth’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Ohren</td>
<td>Jahre</td>
<td>Flöße</td>
<td>Länder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>—</td>
<td>‘hands’</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Plural declensional patterns in German (cf. Duden (2005: 226))
### Declensional patterns

| P1 | UHU | AUTO | — | KAMERA |
| P2 | STAAT | OHR | PRINZ | REGEL |
| P3 | HUND | JAHR | — | — |
| P3 | BUND | (FLOSS) | — | HAND |
| P4 | MUND | LAND | — | — |
| P5 | BALKEN | MUSTER | — | — |
| P5 | GARTEN | (KLOSTER) | — | TOCHTER |

#### Combinations of singular and plural patterns in German
Structure of German noun declensions

- Singular forms comprise a cohort set, in which the genitive is the most informative form. Plural forms also comprise a cohort set.
- There is a weaker implicational relation between singular and plural forms, conditioned by gender and phonotactics:
  - $S_2 \rightarrow P_2$ (‘weak’ masculine singulars are weak in the plural).
  - $S_3 \rightarrow \neg P_4$ (no feminine plurals in -er).
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Measuring predictive value

- Let paradigm cells be random variables that take realization 'outcomes' as their values (e.g., for [Gen Sg] the value 'Xs').

- The uncertainty associated with the realization of a cell $C$ can be defined in terms of the entropy (Shannon 1948) of the cell, $H(C)$:

  $$
  H(C) = - \sum_{x \in R_C} p(x) \log_2 p(x)
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- $R_C$ here represents the set of realization outcomes for $C$, $x$ an outcome in $R$, and $p(x)$ the probability that $C$ is realized by $x$. 
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- The diagnostic value of an individual cell correlates with the degree to which it reduces uncertainty about other cells.

- Uncertainty reduction can be expressed in terms of conditional entropy, \( H(C_2|C_1) \), which measures the amount of uncertainty that remains about \( C_2 \) given knowledge of \( C_1 \).

- Morphological information measures uncertainty reduction:

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\mathbb{M}(C_2|C_1) = 1 - \frac{H(C_2|C_1)}{H(C_2)}
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- The cumulative uncertainty associated with a paradigm $\mathcal{P}$ depends directly on the uncertainty of its cells $C_1, C_2 \ldots, C_n$.
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Summary

- Word and paradigm approaches are item and pattern models.
  - The patterns provide a base for analogical deduction.
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