Saltation in Phonology¹

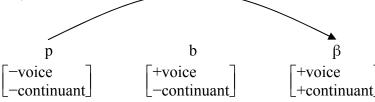
I. OVERVIEW

1. Defining saltation

• Term proposed by Lass (1997)²

• Intuitively: one sound "leaping over" another. E.g. Campidanian Sardinian (Bolognesi

1998):



when intervocalic

2. Campidanian examples (Bolognesi 1998: 30-31, 36-39)

a. Intervocalic spirantization of voiceless stops

```
bel:u [p]i\S:i \rightarrow bel:u [\S]i\S:i 'nice fish' s:u [t]rintaduzu \rightarrow s:u [\delta]rintaduzu 'the thirty-two' d\epsilon [k]uat:ru \rightarrow d\epsilon [\S]uat:ru 'of four...'
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b. Retention of intervocalic /b, d, g/

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s:u [b]inu \rightarrow s:u [b]îu 'the wine' don:ia [d]ominiyu \rightarrow don:ja [d]ominiyu 'every Sunday' dɛ [g]əma \rightarrow dɛ [g]əma 'of rubber'
```

3. This talk: an empirical/analytic/theoretical tour of saltation

- Examples
 - ➤ Themes: apparent rarity, unusual diachronic origins
- Analysis
 - > why classical Optimality Theory fails
 - > why the Lubowicz analysis is not a good idea
 - A new proposal, based on Zuraw's *MAP and Steriade's P-map

¹ This represents a paper in progress written with James White of UCLA.

² We are avoiding Lubowicz's term for saltation, "derived environment effect": it's tied to a particular analysis, and we would prefer to use an analysis-independent label for the phonemenon.

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- Psycholinguistics
 - > Saltation appears to be hard to learn work of White
- Learnability
 - ➤ Computational work explaining difficulty of learning saltation work of White
- What it all means for phonology and phonological inquiry

II. SALTATION EXAMPLES AND THEIR DIACHRONIC ORIGIN

4. Theme

- We cover a few cases of saltation (we only know of about ten)
- Where we know the history, result is always the same: saltation is always a **restructured** process never a fresh sound change.
- This in fact follows from earlier claims by Minkova (1993) and Lass (1997) re. gradualness of sound change if you can't saltate across a *possible* segment, then you certainly can't saltate to create an alternation.

5. Type I: $A \rightarrow C$; B is later interposed in loanwords

• Standard German (Ito and Mester 2003)

/g/ saltates over /k/ to become [ç] / I ____]word

/'kø:nig/ \rightarrow ['kø:niç] 'king' cf. ['kø:nigə] 'kings'

The invariant /k/ words are cosmopolitan forms like *Plastik* and *Batik*.

• Other

- ➤ Slovak [e, o] saltate over [e:, o:] borrowed phonemes to arrive at [ie, uo] (Rubach 1991, Lubowicz 2012)
- ➤ Polish [g] saltates over borrowed [dʒ] to arrive at [ʒ] (Lubowicz 2002)

6. Type II: $A \rightarrow C$, B is later interposed through grammar change

- We think Campidanian was not always saltatory.
- It was originally a **lenition chain**: [p] and [b] move toward null:

$$\begin{cases}
p & \rightarrow & b & \rightarrow & \beta \\
b & \rightarrow & \beta & \rightarrow & \varnothing
\end{cases} / V \underline{\qquad} V$$

• Schematic evolution:

'nice fish' 'the wine'

a. bεl:u [p]iʃ:i s:u [b]ĩu primal stage

b. bɛl:u [b]i \hat{j} :i s:u [β] \hat{i} u intermediate stage

c. bɛl:u [β]i β :i s:u [\emptyset]ĩu crisis stage — massive stem-initial neutralization!

• When /b/ (also [d, g]) reached null, this triggered **massive restructuring** — restoration of the isolation form in intervocalic contexts.

d. bɛl:u [β]i∫:i s:u [b]ĩu post-crisis stage — restructuring

7. Why think that this account is true?

- In neighboring dialects, stage (b) above is attested; $[b] \rightarrow [\beta] / V$ V^3
- In modern Campidanian, some [b] $\sim \emptyset$ alternations **remain as relics**:
 - ➤ Alternation is optional, found only in some words ([s:a bia ~ s:a ia] 'the road')
 - Ø is employed in *careful* speech (Bolognesi p. 36-7), not the expected rapid speech (lenition).
 - The eligible words appear to be frequent, core vocabulary.⁴
 - ➤ All this suggests: in careful speech, speakers are retrieving lexically listed allomorphs —relics of language history.

8. Upshot

Saltation was not a sound change in Campidanian; rather [b] was interposed between [p] and [β] due to the loss of productive [b] ~ Ø alternation.

9. Type III: retreat by hypercorrection in North German

- Sources:
 - > for saltation: Ito and Mester (2003)
 - historical background: Zhirmunskii (1962), Robinson (2000), Pilch (1996)
- Northern German: the history of voiced velars via sound change:

frag-en ~ frag	dick-e ~ dick	mach-en ~ mach ⁵	Alternating pairs with *g, *k, *x
$g \sim g$	$\boldsymbol{k} \sim \boldsymbol{k}$	$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{x}$	pre-North German
$\gamma \sim \gamma$	$\boldsymbol{k} \sim \boldsymbol{k}$	$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{x}$	Spirantization of /g/ after vowels
$\gamma \sim x$	$\boldsymbol{k} \sim \boldsymbol{k}$	$\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{x}$	Final Devoicing ⁶

³ See Bolognesi (1998: 36), citing Virdis.

⁴ Alternating forms have glosses like 'of', 'want', 'road', 'house'. Non-alternating forms have glosses like 'doctor', 'drill', 'rubber', 'chicory'.

⁵ These forms are schematic and not guaranteed to match actual dialect data. Glosses: 'ask-imperative/infinitive'; 'fat-plain form/adjectival inflection'; 'do-imper./infin'.

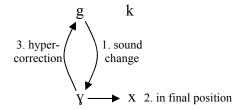
⁶ There are complications to this history (Kiparsky (1982:39-40) which I ignore here.

• This is Vernacular Northern German. In Refined Northern German: [γ] restores to [g], imitating the standard

$$\mathbf{g} \sim \mathbf{x}$$
 $\mathbf{k} \sim \mathbf{k}$ $\mathbf{x} \sim \mathbf{x}$ hypercorrection

Now, in /frag/ \rightarrow [frax], /g/ saltates over /k/ in going to [x].

- Some speakers have $[\gamma \sim x]$ in informal speech, saltatory $[g \sim x]$ in careful speech.
- Summary diagram:



10. Summing up the empirical picture for saltation⁷

- Cases are not abundant, we think.
- ... and we would expect this if they only arise under exceptional circumstances, as above
- We will suggest later that saltation is hard to learn; perhaps also relevant...

III. ANALYSIS OF SALTATION IN OPTIMALITY THEORY

11. Saltation and Optimality Theory

- Classical OT (Prince and Smolensky 1993) is famous for needing repair to cover phonological **opacity**, 8 and there is a huge literature on the topic.
 - Many different ways to augment classical OT to accommodate opacity.
 - More on this at end of talk.
- But saltation is also problematic for classical OT: Lubowicz (2002), Ito/Mester (2003).

12. Why classical OT fails for saltation, I: basic constraints and ranking for Campidanian

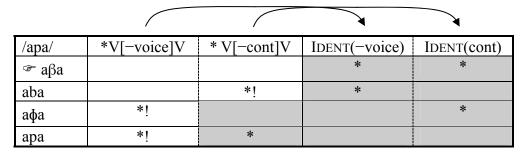
• Markedness constraints

*V[-voice]V favors intervocalic voicing
 *V[-cont]V favors intervocalic spirantization

⁷ The remaining empirical examples known to us occur in Manga Kanuri (Schuh, ms.), Suma (Bradshaw 1999), and Japanese (Ito and Mester 1997). If you are aware of any more please let us know!

⁸ See McCarthy (2007) and Baković (2007) for comprehensive overviews. The two fundamental cases, expressed in rules, are: (i) A \rightarrow B / C ___D, then new CAD created by a second rule; (ii) A \rightarrow B / C ___D, then a later rule removes or crucially alters CBD.

- Faithfulness constraints
 - > IDENT(voice) favors retention of basic voicing value
 - ➤ IDENT(cont) favors retention of basic stop status
- We get $/p/ \rightarrow [\beta]$ only if each Markedness constraint dominates its opposing Faithfulness constraint:



13. Why classical OT fails here

• Once we've set up the grammar this way, /b/ is doomed to spirantize too:

/aba/	*V[-voice]V	* V[-cont]V	IDENT(-voice)	IDENT(cont)
☞ *aβa				*
aba		*!		
афа	*!		*	*
apa	*!	*	*	

• The same sort of argument applies for saltation in general.

14. A remedy for this problem: Lubowicz (2002), Ito and Mester (2003)

- Local constraint conjunction (Smolensky 1995)
- This idea has a decent pedigree, e.g. in conjoining markedness constraints (Ito/Mester):
 - > It's bad for obstruents to be voiced.
 - > It's bad for consonants to be in coda position.
 - > It's especially bad to be a voiced obstruent coda
 - ➤ Local conjunction: *VOICED OBSTRUENT & *CODA (within same segment)
- Lubowicz's idea for saltation: *conjoin Markedness and Faithfulness*.

15. The necessary conjoined constraint for Campidanian

- IDENT(voice) & *V[-cont]V
 - > "Don't both be unfaithful to voicing and be an intervocalic stop."

a. Conjoined constraint forces /apa/ to become [aβa]

/apa/	ID(vce) & *V[-cont]V	*V[-vce]V	ID(voice)	ID(cont)	*V[-cont]V
æ aßa	" v [—cont] v		*	*	
☞ aβa *apa		*1			*
*aba	*!	- !	*		*

➤ Without the conjoined constraint, *[aba] would win.

b. /aba/ is stable

/aba/	ID(vce) & *V[-cont]V	*V[-vce]V	ID(voice)	ID(cont)	*V[–cont]V
aba					*
*aßa				*!	

• This approaches generalizes to all cases of saltation.

16. This solves one problem, but at the same time creates a worse one 9

• Conjoined Markedness & Faithfulness produces disastrous predictions when applied to **phonotactics** (inventory of legal sequences).

17. Let's derive this language: "voiced obstruents are legal only in triple consonant clusters"

- The devil's constraint: IDENT(voice) & *CCC
- Backdrop: a language like Hawaiian with (almost) no voiced obstruents
 - ➤ Thus: *[-son, +voice] >> IDENT(voice)
- But our version of Hawaiian will include the devil's constraint, ranked highest.
- a. Voiced obstruents disallowed in simple cases

/ba/	IDENT(voice) &	Max(C)	*[-son,	*CCC	IDENT(voice)
	*CCC		+voice]		
☞ pa					*
*ba			*!		

⁹ This section of the talk channels a personal communication from Colin Wilson.

b. Voiced obstruents allowed in triple clusters

/atbka/	IDENT(voice) &	Max(C)	*[-son,	*CCC	IDENT(voice)
	*CCC		+voice]		
☞ atbka			*	*	
*atka		*!			
*atpka	*!			*	*

• This bad prediction generalizes: something marked, and generally illegal, *suddenly* becomes ok when it's in an overlapping marked context.

IV. LOOKING FOR A BETTER ANALYSIS

18. Desiderata

- Expand the power of classical OT enough to get saltation, but avoid severe collateral damage.
- For reasons to be given, the theory should mildly *discourage* saltation while still permitting it to exist.

19. Step I: Abandon classical OT's minimality restriction on Faithfulness constraints

- **Correspondence theory** (McCarthy and Prince 1995), a pillar of classical OT, sensibly uses an **atomistic** approach:
 - > Set up constraints that ban changes in just *one* feature; or deletion of just *one* segment.
- Zuraw (2007): permit supraminimal constraints, but penalize their supraminimal status.

20. *MAP constraints (Zuraw 2007)

• *MAP(x, y) assesses a violation to a candidate if a segment belonging to natural class x in the input is mapped to a corresponding segment in natural class y in the output.

21. Step II: a penalty for supraminimality (Zuraw)

- Appealing to phonetic substance, *MAP constraints are assigned a default ranking as follows:
 - *MAP constraints banning changes that cover a **larger perceptual distance** are assigned a default ranking higher than constraints banning smaller changes.
- This ranking preference is taken to be a **learning bias** in UG.
 - ➤ Given sufficient evidence in the ambient language, it is possible for learners to subvert the default rankings, but this is harder.

22. Rankings in *MAP are based on the P-map

- Zuraw draws on earlier work by Steriade (2001, 2008) on the **P-map**.
 - > = a compilation of the language learner's phonetic experience concerning the perceptual distance between forms
- It is assumed that language learners consult the P-map in assessing preferred rankings for *MAP constraints.

23. Backdrop to *MAP-cum-P-map theory

- Essential prediction: alternation prefers to be phonetically minimal; proposed long ago (Vennemann 1972, Kiparsky 1978/1982:65)
- Some literature supporting pressure for phonetically-minimal alternation: Kiparsky (1982), Fleischhacker (2001, 2005), Shademan (2002), Wilson (2006), Zuraw (2007), Lofstedt (2010).
- But as we'll see, we are now in a position for formalize the minimal-alternation-preference, as a bias in phonological learning.

24. Analysis of Campidanian in *MAP-cum-P-map theory

- *MAP constraint banning [p] \sim [β] alternation: *MAP(p, β)
- *MAP constraint banning [b] \sim [β] alternation: *MAP(b, β)
 - \triangleright where p, β stand for the natural classes of voiceless stops and voiced fricatives.
- Key rankings:
 - *MAP(b, β) >> *V[-cont]V to keep /b/ from spirantizing *V[-cont]V >> *MAP(p, β) to make /p/ spirantize
- By transitivity:
 - \rightarrow *MAP(b, β) >> *MAP(p, β)
 - \triangleright ... which is **non-P-map-compliant** ([b] is patently closer to [β] than [p] is).
 - > ... so such a grammar is a disfavored one, in a sense to be made explicit below

25. Tableaux for Campidanian

a. /p/ becomes [β] intervocalically

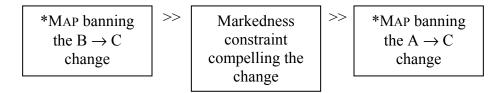
/apa/	*Map(b, β)	*V[-cont]V	*Map(p, β)	*MAP(p, b)
☞ aβa			*	
*apa		*!		
*aba		*!		*

b. /b/ *is stable*

/aba/	*Map(b, β)	*V[-cont]V	*MAP(p, β)	*MAP(p, b)
aba		*		
*аβа	*!			

26. More generally...

• The known saltations of the form $A \rightarrow C$ leaping over B emerge from this ranking:



• ... so following *MAP-cum-P-map theory, saltation should be dispreferred.

V. EVIDENCE THAT SALTATION IS DISPREFERRED

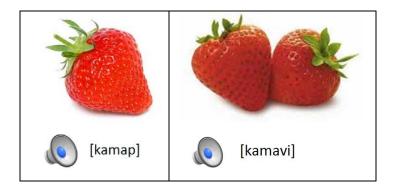
27. How could we empirically detect a dispreference for saltation?

- The apparent rarity, and "accidental" origin of saltation might be taken as support.
- We could also check the *learnability* of saltation: do language learners give low credence to saltatory hypotheses when they try to make sense of ambient data?
- In real languages, perhaps the sheer weight of evidence makes saltation learnable.
- But an experimental set-up with an artificial language, things might be different.

28. White's experimental work on saltation

- Source: James White (in progress) *Biased learning of phonological alternations*. UCLA dissertation, to be finished ca. May 2013
- Paradigm: artificial-language learning

29. Some representative stimuli in White's experiments



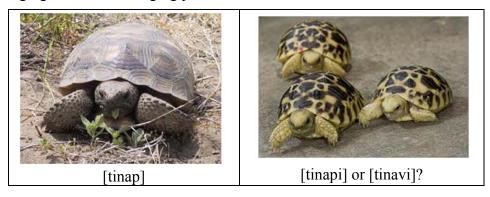
- ... where [v] is an English stand-in for Campidanian [β].
- White also used denti-alveolar stimuli; when I say [p b β], assume also [t d δ].

30. Experiment 1

- Train subjects with a bunch of forms with $[p] \sim [v]$ alternations.
- Also some filler forms, with invariant stem-final [m, n, l, x, s, f].
- In "arrow diagrams":



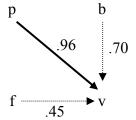
• Check their knowledge: a two-alternative forced-choice task — give a singular, a changing and a non-changing plural.



- Use only data from subjects who could score 80% on the trained words.
- Then, ask them *novel words* with [b] and [f] these have been saltated over.
 - e.g. [talab], [tala___i], [timaf], [tima___i]

31. White: Result 1

- Most people get the trained alternation pattern $(p \rightarrow v)$ pretty accurately.
- They also learn accurately *not* to change the filler consonants [m, n, l, I, s, s].
- The "saltated over" consonants ([b] and [f]):
 - These often get changed to [v], even though subjects were not actually trained to do this.
 - > Frequencies of change:



32. White experiments, part 2: we need to rule out other possibilities

• The result just given could be simple **generalization**; maybe subjects entertain not just this [p]-specific rule:

$$\begin{bmatrix} -sonorant \\ -continuant \\ -voice \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} +voice \\ +continuant \end{bmatrix} / V __V (= p \rightarrow v)$$

but (to some degree) the more general rule:

$$[-sonorant] \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} +voice \\ +continuant \end{bmatrix} / V \underline{\hspace{1cm}} V \qquad (= \{p, b, f\} \rightarrow v)$$

33. The crucial control Experiment 2

• Train instead on $\mathbf{b} \rightarrow \mathbf{v}$, and see what happens.

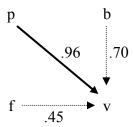
- Saltation is not at stake.
- Generalization is.

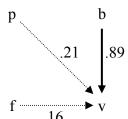
34. Comparative results of Experiments 1 and 2

- Bold arrow: trained and tested
- Dashed arrows: tested only

Experiment 1 potentially saltatory, massive generalization

Experiment 2: not potentially saltatory, modest generalization





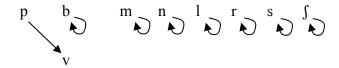
• So both mechanisms seem valid; but the much bigger effect size in Experiment 1 gives us the key result:

Subjects are reluctant to posit that an alternation is saltatory.

35. Even stronger evidence: Experiment 3

• White tried even directly training the subjects that /b/ does not change.

➤ Forms like [talab] ~ [talabi].



- Despite this training, subjects frequently blundered, changing /b/ to [v] in the test forms anyway (about 20% of the time).
- Again, a control experiment again showed that the cause is the saltation, not rule generalization.

VI. IMPLEMENTING AN ANTI-SALTATION BIAS IN PHONOLOGICAL THEORY

36. What does "bias" mean?

- Plausibly, it means "downgraded for consideration during language acquisition".
- White's experiments suggest that language learners find saltation a priori unlikely.
- We want just a bias, not a prohibition:
 - ➤ The saltatory Campidanian pattern *was* learned by children; see Bolognesi (1998:36, 463) for evidence of productivity.
- What theory could give substance to the idea of a learning bias?

37. A method for implementing bias in learning: Wilson (2006)

- Wilson used a learning-bias model to account for the findings of his artificial-language-learning experiment (on palatalization before high vs. mid vowels).
- The model is based on:
 - > a somewhat different constraint-based framework for phonology
 - results in computational learning theory

38. Framework: Maxent grammars

- First appearance in linguistics: Goldwater and Johnson (2003)
- Like OT: GEN (creates candidates) and EVAL (selects winner(s)).
- But EVAL is not based on ranking, but rather a bit of math:
 - > Every constraint has a **weight**; a nonnegative real number.
 - ➤ A formula uses weights and violations to assign a **probability** to every candidate. ¹⁰
 - This works well for predicting free variation, e.g. of the kind White found.

 $^{^{10}}$ $p(\omega) = \exp(-\Sigma_i \lambda_i \chi_i(\omega))/Z$, where $Z = \Sigma_j \exp(-\Sigma_i \lambda_i \chi_i(\omega_j))$. $p(\omega)$ is predicted probability of candidate ω ; $\exp(x)$ is e to the power of x; Σ_i is summation across all constraints; λ_i is weight of the ith constraint; $\chi_i(\omega)$ is number of times ω violates the ith constraint; Σ_i is summation across candidates.

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39. Learning maxent grammars

- The computational learnability situation for maxent (Berger et al. 1996) is excellent:
 - ➤ Given a set of (quantitative) data with candidates, constraints and violations, there is a **unique grammar** (i.e. assignment of weights to constraints) that best fits the data
 - > ... and there are fast algorithms guaranteed to find this grammar. 11

40. Learning maxent grammars II: what about soft UG?

- It is feasible to begin the learning process with a **bias** on every constraint.
- A commonly-used bias the **Gaussian prior** uses two numbers.
 - \triangleright μ : What is the **preferred weight**?
 - \triangleright σ : How much is the constraint willing to diverge from preferred weight?

41. Where will the σ 's and μ 's come from in this case?

- μ: from P-map theory
 - ➤ Perceptual closeness of X and Y in an experiment
 - \rightarrow the μ (preferred weight) of *MAP(X, Y)
- σ : White set σ at an invariant value of 0.5; no particular basis for letting σ vary.
 - \triangleright low enough to let the μ 's have a substantial but not overwhelming effect.

42. White's model, step I: obtaining the μ values for the *MAP constraints

• White used a maxent grammar to model the number of consonant confusions in Wang and Bilger's (1973) perception experiment.

								Resp	onse							
Stimulus	P	t	k	b	d	g	f	θ	s	S	v	ъ	z	3	tŞ	d3
р	763	23	80	9	3	10	14	6	6	4	4	2	3	5	1	4
t	25	795	31	1	9	6	4	4.	12	3	0	2	2	2	22	9
k	66	36	753	2	7	18	7	5	4	10	3	1	3	5	7	6
Ъ	55	12	28	608	19	87	46	9	9	2	43	6	3	3	2	4
d	9	16	7	10	763	13	8	13	12	2	15	33	14	9	3	9
g	16	10	44	22	7	762	13	5	3	4	20	4	3	4	ž	12
f	56	0	11	22	9	13	712	61	10	3	25	8	Ŏ	ī	ō	2
θ	11	14	9	9	42	10	73	656	28	7	23	36	13	ī	ĭ	3
S	7	15	12	1	3	4	15	23	828	14	1	1	11	ñ	î	ň
Š	9	17	10	7	9	6	6	1	18	788	$\bar{4}$	2	4	18	19	18
v	5	5	-8	38	22	19	48	7	11	4	637	104	12	7	í	15
ð	8	7	5	38	77	4	10	37	6	7	136	556	34	Ř	î	ž
7.	4	8	15	4	12	10	-š	22	42	8	54	35	687	17	ā	3
3	õ	3	9	ī	13	Ť	4	7	15	30	24	13	22	752	4	20
ř(10	17	14	ŝ	2	7	ž	í	-5	14	2	1	0	75	727	121
d3	16	20	31	2	25	17	$\tilde{4}$	î	11	10	3	2	8	7	86	689

¹¹ In our work we used the Maxent Grammar Tool (www.linguistics.ucla.edu/people/hayes/MaxentGrammarTool/, a user-friendly version of Wilson's software) to find the weights.

•	This gave	him (empirical	lly-ground	ed μ	values,	as follows.	
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Constraint	μ	Constraint	μ
*MAP(p, f)	1.61	*MAP(b, f)	1.32
*MAP(p, b)	1.98	*MAP(f, v)	2.45
*MAP(p, v)	3.57	*MAP([+son], [-son])	14.63
*MAP(b, v)	0		

• The markedness constraints were assigned μ of zero, by fiat.

43. Step 2: train the model as if it were an experimental subject

- Constraints, σ , μ : as above
- Training data = exactly what the subjects got. Separate simulation for each experiment.

44. How the weights changed during learning

- Training data was Expt. 3: [p] becomes [v], [b] stays [b]; filler forms stay unchanged.
- Weights changed like this:

Constraint	μ	Post-learning weight
*V[-voice]V	0	2.04
*V[-contin]V	0	.48
*MAP(p, f)	1.61	1.95
*Map(p, b)	1.98	2.74
*Map(p, v)	3.57 -	→ 1.04
*Map(b, v)	0 -	→ 1.51
*MAP(b, f)	1.32	1.51
*Map(f, v)	2.45	2.45
*MAP([+son], [-son])	14.63	14.63

45. The effect of bias in learning

- We can compare the result with what happens if we run the learning model without bias:
- Without bias, *MAP(p, v) gets zero weight; it is violated extensively.
 - \triangleright In the bias simulation, its μ value (3.57) kept it fairly high (1.04).
- Without bias, *MAP(b, v) gets a very high weight it's needed to retain [b] as [b].
 - \triangleright In the bias simulation, its μ value (0) kept it fairly low (1.51).

46. Step 3: test the model as if it were an experimental subject

- I.e. compare the frequency with which the subjects made a particular guess with the frequency with which the model makes it.
- In general, White's model matches the data rather closely.

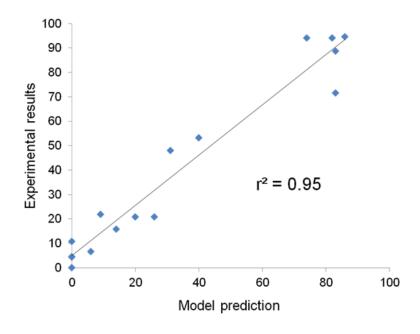
47. Sample result I

- Train $[p] \rightarrow [v], [b] \rightarrow [b]$ (Expt. 3)
 - \triangleright Model, like people, guesses about 20% that b \rightarrow v.
 - Reason: *MAP(b, v), with a prior weight of 0, fails to rise high enough during learning to block this change.

48. Sample result II

- In Expt. 1 ((31)), subjects offered [f] \rightarrow [v] (.45) less often than [b] \rightarrow [v] (.7) why?
 - ➤ Wang and Bilger's data show that [b] is closer to [v] than [f] is to [v].
 - > So, calculated μ values were: *MAP(f, v), 2.45; *MAP(b, v), 0
 - ➤ So, in learning, *MAP(f, v) stays high-ish
 - ➤ So model predicts that [f] is less likely to alternate.

49. White's model fit (all experiments, all predictions vs. observed)



VII. CONCLUDING GENERAL REMARKS

50. The prospects for soft UG

- Soft UG has always seemed intuitively sensible to many people but has been frustratingly fuzzy; how to make it a rigorous theory?
- A possible answer is:
 - > Soft UG is embodied as a learning bias.
 - ➤ Maxent provides the right formal language. 12

¹² This is a bit parochial; the real hero is probability theory, from which the maxent principles are deduced.

Experiments provide data about learning difficulty that are hard to obtain "in the wild".

51. Goals of phonological theory

- Permit analysis of intricate systems especially when evidence tells us such systems are productively internalized.
- Also: say what is **hard** for people where is acquisition liable to fail?
 - ➤ The errors of White's subjects
 - The drastic grammar change that created Campidanian saltation (see (6)-(7))
- This is not a new research goal Kiparsky (1970/1982: 59-60).
 - ➤ Kiparsky's pioneering research on opacity was focused precisely on the *breakdowns* that diagnose acquisition difficulty.

52. The Kiparskyan criterion and current research on opacity

- Opinion: in Harmonic-Serialism-cum-candidate-chain theory John McCarthy and colleagues (see e.g. McCarthy 2007, 2008, 2011) have created **the best theory of phonological opacity that has ever existed**.
- *Every* classical opaque system, e.g. as embodied in standard problem sets, has a strikingly elegant analysis in this theory.
 - This analysis is, normally, a recapitulation of the system's diachronic origins. 13
- But, in the development of this theory, has Kiparsky's original motivation for investigating opacity been forgotten?

53. Opacity is often diachronically unstable

- Many classical problem sets are in real life riddled with exceptions evidence, I think, that the system may have restructured.
- Examples, with work discussing the possibility of restructuring:
 - > Catalan cluster simplification (Wheeler 2005)
 - Lardil apocope/consonant deletion/raising (Richards 1997, Rounds 2011)
 - > Odawa stress/syncope (Bowers 2012)
 - ➤ Polish raising and devoicing (Sanders 2003)
 - Serbo-Croatian /a/ epenthesis and /l/ vocalization (Bochner 1981)
 - ➤ Ukrainian raising/palatalization (Kenstowicz and Kisseberth 1977, 161-2)
 - Yawelmani vowel harmony (Hansson and Sprouse, ms.)
 - ➤ Yidin lengthening and apocope (Hayes 1999)
- Such cases may be problematic for a theory in which opacity flows as smooth as oil sometimes a theory can be *too* good!
- I think we should strive for a theory of opacity that predicts:
 - > when opacity is stable 14
 - > when it is vulnerable to breakdown

¹³ Indeed, the derivations sometimes recapitulate history down to the very details of reduction and spreading that phonetically underlie sound change — see McCarthy (2008, 2011).

¹⁴ I think sometimes it *is* stable, e.g. in single-segment chain shifts.

• The key to such a (future) theory, I think, is likely to be the global similarity relations among the overt forms in the paradigm, not the local similarity relations that governed how the pattern was historically created.

54. Summing up

- Saltation is a minor topic in phonology in terms of its empirical scope.
- Yet it is perhaps informative concerning the usefulness of theoretical approaches to phonology.
- Here, the concepts that seem (to me) to be winners are:
 - ➤ Appeal to phonetic substance (here, *MAP-cum-P-map) for explanation in phonology
 - > Gradient versions of UG, expressed as learning biases
 - > "Fuzzy" theories made rigorous through the use of appropriate mathematics

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