Class 4: The duplication and conspiracy problems

To do

- Read K&K ch. 10, pp. 424-436 only—study questions due Thursday
- Read Kisseberth—study questions due Thursday
- Look at metaphony assignment, due Oct. 14

Overview: Sometimes it looks like multiple parts of the grammar are doing the same thing. If this is bad, can we do anything about it?

1. Dynamic vs. static phonology

The 'dynamic' phonology of a language is the phonology that shows up in alternations. We have analyzed this with rules:

cat[s]	walk[t]
dog[z]	jog[d]
pea[z]	flow[d]

The 'static' phonology is the generalizations that hold of monomorphemic words. Often analyzed with morpheme structure constraints:

*[ligt], *[nubs]

(Why not with rules? Because we don't know what change to make: [nubz] or [nups].)

2. Conceptual remarks

Morpheme structure rules are funny: no one is claiming that the English lexicon actually contains words like $/\alpha kd$, repaired by MSR to αkt (after all, why would a learner construct such a lexical entry instead of $/\alpha kt/?$). But the prohibition on αkd must be expressed somewhere in the grammar of English, since speakers know it (they would reject αkd as a new word).

Some might claim that the lexicon contains /ækD/, with a final consonant underspecified for [voice]. Still, if the MSR applies only to underspecified Cs, what *would* happen to hypothetical /ækd/? What prevents it from existing?

This comes back to the 'lexical symmetry' idea we see in K&K's discussion of Russian final devoicing: the grammar needs to explain, one way or another (phoneme inventory, MSRs, or rules), why certain types of underlying forms don't occur.

• Learning problem: how do English speakers know to reject *ækd* anyway (cf. *back down*)?

• An even weirder case that we discussed earlier: some English speakers think that *slol* and $\int m c \eta$ sound funny?¹ If we tried to write a rule to change them, instead of merely a constraint banning them, what would they change to??

3. Example: Estonian

(Finno-Ugric language with 1,100,000 speakers, mainly in Estonia--) Estonian content morphemes have a minimum size: at least two syllables or one heavy syllable, where 'heavy' = CVVV, CVVC, or CVCC. *Note-taking accident! I thought these data were from Prince 1980 but they're not...*

*/ko/, */ma/, */kan/

Estonian also has a rule deleting final vowels in the nominative sg. (there's also C lengthening, but don't worry about it):

/matsi/	matts	'lout, bumpkin, nom. sg.'
/konna/	kon:n	'frog, nom. sg.'
/tænava/	tænav	'street, nom. sg.'
/ilma/	ilm ²	'world, weather, nom. sg.'
/jalga/	jalg	'foot, leg, nom. sg.'

But it cannot apply in certain cases:

/kana/	kana	'hen, nom. sg.'
/koi/	koi:	'clothes-moth, nom. sg.'
/maa/	maa	'country, land, nom. sg.'
/tuba/	tuba	'room, nom. sg.'
/koli/	koli	'trash, nom. sg.'

• Let's try to write a mini-grammar for Estonian that tries to capture these facts.

4. The duplication problem (Kenstowicz & Kisseberth 1977³)

This term refers to cases where rules and morpheme structure constraints seem to be doing the same thing ('duplicating' each other's effects). This troubled researchers from the late 1970s onwards, because it seems (although we don't actually know) that a single phenomenon (e.g., avoidance of sub-minimal words) should have a single explanation in the grammar.

¹ There are not many monosyllabic words like this—here are all the examples from the CMU Pronouncing Dictionary, excluding probable proper names. OED has a few more but they were all previously unknown to me. $s\{p,m\}C_0VC_0\{p,b,m\}$: smarm(y), smurf, spam, spiff(y), spoof

 $s\{m,n\}C_0VC_0(m,n,\eta\}$: smarm(y)

 $^{\{\}int, s\}\{l, r\}C_0VC_0\{l, r\}$: shrill, slur, slurp—notice none with l...l or r...r

 $skC_0VC_0\{k, g, \eta\}$: skink, skulk, skunk

² I'm not sure if this example and the next have lengthening.

³ Kenstowicz, Michael, and Charles Kisseberth (1977). *Topics in Phonological Theory*. New York: Academic Press.

5. Shortening a grammar

Using the brace notation to collapse $\emptyset \rightarrow V / C _ C#$ $\emptyset \rightarrow V / C _ CC$

into the shorter $\emptyset \to V / C _ C\{C,\#\}$ says that these rules have something significant in common. (Why? recall SPE's evaluation metric...)

6. Kisseberth: cases where the notation doesn't allow shortening

These rules have something in common too (what?), but they can't be collapsed using curly brackets:

Cases like this are called *conspiracies*, and their widespread existence is the *conspiracy problem*.

(The difference between a case of the duplication problem and a case of the conspiracy problem is sometimes fuzzy and the terms are sometimes used interchangeably.)

7. Constraints

Kisseberth proposes using a constraint to make the rules of Yawelmani simpler:

Instead of

$$V \rightarrow \emptyset / V C$$
 [-long] $C V$

use

 $V \rightarrow \emptyset / C$ _____ C subject to the constraint *CCC

[-long] The constraint can *trigger* rules or *block* them.

• Blocking isn't too problematic—how does it work in the example above?

But triggering might be problematic. What if a constraint triggers multiple competing rules in some cases: how do you choose which rule to apply?

Many more conspiracies have been identified, giving rise to more constraints.

8. The "international conspiracy" problem (Kiparsky)

Sometimes different rules in different languages seem to be aiming for the same surface patterns.

Example on next page: cognate infixes in some Western Austronesian languages—see Zuraw & Lu (submitted) for more/better details and references.

	Tagalog	Timugon	Sarangani	Limos Kalinga	Acehnese	Palauan	Kulalao Paiwan	Tjuabar
	(Philippines)	Murut	Blaan	(Philippines)	(Indonesia)	(Palau)	(Taiwan)	Paiwan
		(Indonesia)	(Philippines)					(Taiwan)
p/f	pili, p um ili	patoj, m atoj	fati, m ati	pija, k um ija	pa j oh, s um a j oh		pili, p n ili	pajsu, p ən ajsu
					pubutet, s um ubutet		piqaj, p n iqaj	
t	takbo, t um akbo	tuun, t um uun	tiis, t m iis		tulak, t um ulak	toŋakl, t m oŋakl		təkəl, təm(ə)kəl
s	sulat, s um ulat				saluɛn, s ɯm aluɛn	sisii?, s m isii?		supu, s əm upu
								sənaw, s əm ənaw
k/q	kuha, k um uha				kalƳn, k um alƳn	kiut, k m iut	quxuts, q m uxuts	kan, k əm an
								kava, k əm ava
b/v	bili, b um ili	bigod, m igod	bunal, m unal	bali, g um ali		basə?, masə?	burəs, b n urəs	
				buuk, g um uuk			vuʎu, v n uʎu	
				bulbul, g um ulbul				
d/ð	datiŋ, d um atiŋ			dakol, d um akol	dաղ _՝ , d ատ աղ _՝	ðakl, θ m akl		
g	gawa, g um awa	gajo, g um ajo			gantoŋ, g um antoŋ			
note						ðobə?, ðwobə?		təvəla, tə $\mathbf{n}(\mathbf{a})$ vəla
also						kemeð, kwemeð		sav-u, s ən əv-u
						daləm, d w aləm		

Moral

 \rightarrow Even if referring to a constraint doesn't simplify the grammar of an individual language, it sometimes seems to give some insight into cross-linguistic patterns. (Following SPE reasoning, where that which is frequent cross-linguistically is thought to be favored by learners, we might conclud that such a constraint is somehow "natural" for learners to construct. What would that mean? Do we need an evaluation metric for constraints?)

Next time we'll look more at theories that combine rules and constraints.