

Class 19 (Week 10, T)
Induction II: constraints & features

To do

- Work on your project.
- Because we're having class right now, during my usual office hours, we should negotiate some office hours for later in the week.
- While we're at it, let's negotiate some for next week too.

Overview: What if we aren't born with a constraint inventory, or even a feature set? We'll continue our tour of some proposals for constraints, then talk about features.

1. Flack (2007): inducing a constraint from perceptual experience

- There are languages that prohibit [p] specifically in word-initial position: *#P
 - Initial [p] has particularly short VOT, and it's more variable than initial [b]'s
 - Difference in maximum burst intensity for initial [p] and [b] is smaller than for other voiceless-voiced pairs (p. 122)
- To produce an instance of a category ([p], [b], [t], etc.) in a context, speaker samples values for various phonetic dimensions from stored distributions centered on prototype
- In perception, listener must guess the category
 - Some noise is added: perception is imperfect
 - Rather than Bayes' rule as in Kirby (2013), finds the closest prototype
- Listener gets feedback on accuracy
 - Allows listener to update prototypes
 - Listener also **stores accuracy rate** for each category, perhaps over a moving window of the past n tokens (here, $n=400$)
 - Specifically, **hit rate** and **false alarm rate**
 - Does anyone know these terms?
- Hit rates for each consonant as learning proceeds over time:

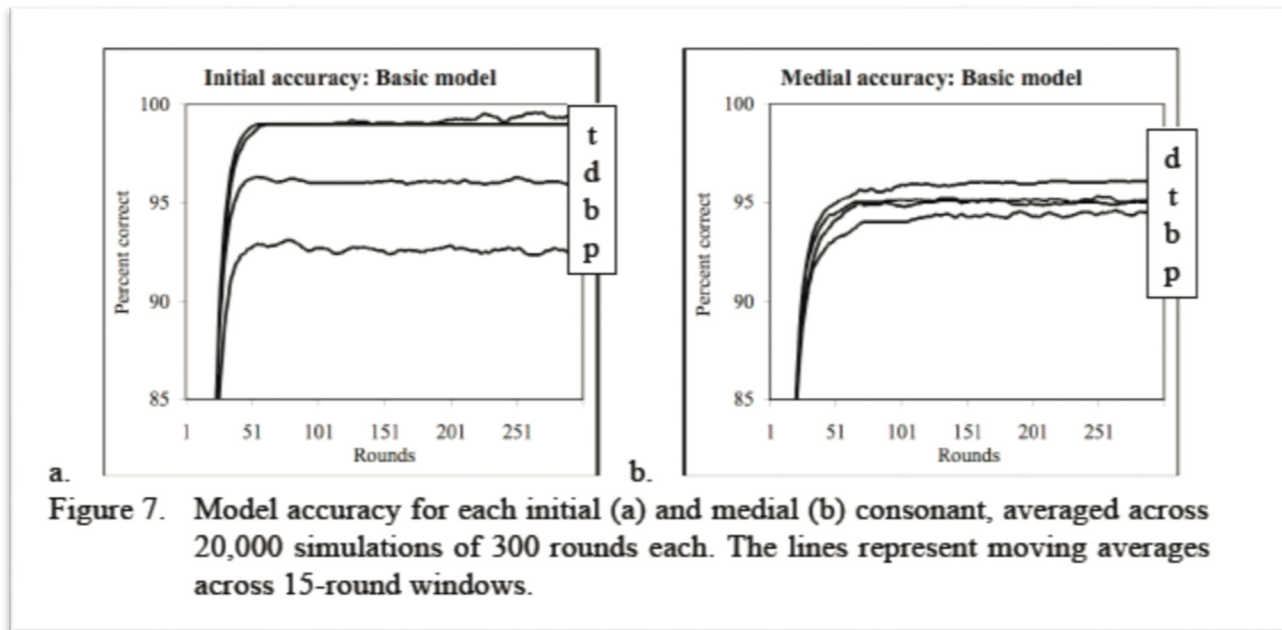


Figure 7. Model accuracy for each initial (a) and medial (b) consonant, averaged across 20,000 simulations of 300 rounds each. The lines represent moving averages across 15-round windows.

(p. 141)

- Important point about phonologization
 - Once *#P has been promoted high enough, the learner gets no experience of initial [p]!
 - But they do still have one important piece of information listed above—can you guess what?
- The learner's rule for inducing a constraint:

(117) Some segment x is perceptually difficult in some context $Context_Z$ if either:

a. $Accuracy(x/Context_Z) < threshold$

and

$Accuracy(x/Context_Z) < Accuracy(y/Context_Z) \rightarrow Constraint *x/Context_Z$

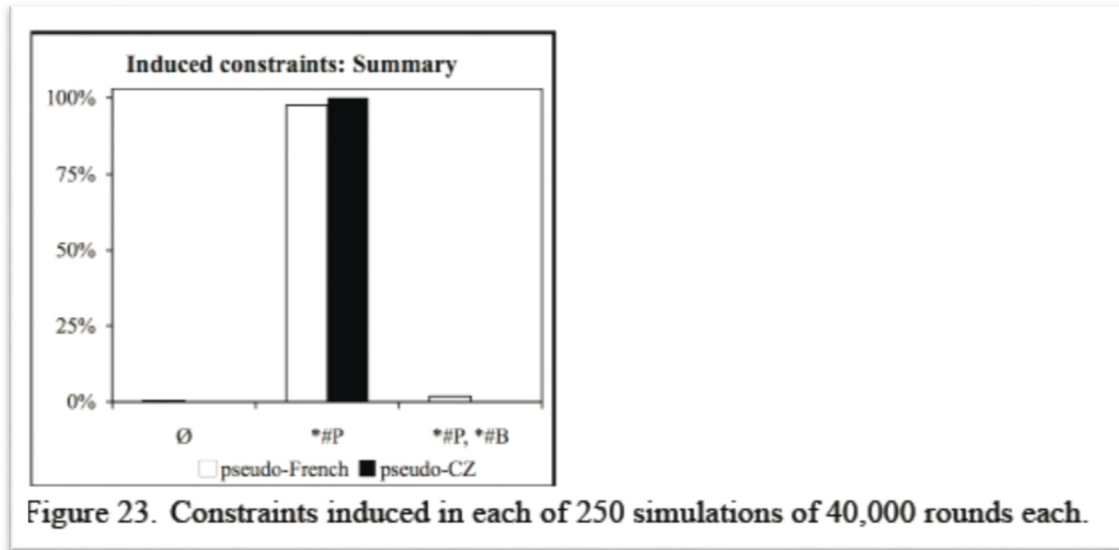
This difference must be significant ($\alpha = 0.01$).

b. $Accuracy(x/Context_Z) < FalseAlarm(x/Context_Z) \rightarrow Constraint *x/Context_Z$

(p. 160)

- Where “accuracy” means hit rate
- If there is no hit rate, because the sound never actually occurs in that context, treat it as 0.
- So how would this work for a language with no initial [p]? Let's draw a possible confusion matrix.

- Results: both a learner of simplified French (has initial [p], but it is perceptually difficult) and a learner of simplified Cajonos Zapotec (no initial [p]) learn *#P in nearly all runs



(p. 173)

2. A selection of other approaches that we won't have time to cover in depth

- Hayes (1999): as we saw previously (when talking about phonologization), generate lots of constraints according to a set of templates, and then select the ones that match the articulatory-difficulty map well (high accuracy in saying which of two cells in the map is harder), with a bias favoring simpler constraints
- Boersma & Pater (2007): in Harmonic Grammar, construct *positive* constraints for every property that the observed form has (as well as some other constraints, including negative ones)
 - e.g., on observing Canadian English [ʔʌɪs] 'ice', construct these, among many others:

(17)	Observed structure	Constructed constraint
a.	D [-low]	RAISED DIPHTHONG: A diphthong must be [-low] (Assign a reward of 1 to each diphthong that is [-low])
b.	D C [-low][-vce]	RAISED/VOICELESS: A diphthong preceding a voiceless consonant must be raised (Assign a reward of 1 to each diphthong that is [-low] that precedes a voiceless consonant)

(p. 4)

- Discuss: We've mentioned earlier some problems that having positive constraints could cause. How do the above constraints get around them?

- Pater (2014) proposes something similar for the same case, but now without positive constraints
- Moreton (2010): explore infinite space of possible constraints with evolutionary algorithm
 - Every subpart of every possible representation is a constraint
 - Start with a random set of constraints
 - Error-driven: if current grammar selects a candidate that doesn't match the observed true winner...
 - constraints that favor observed forms (correct winners) are allowed to breed.
 - breeding = combine two constraints to produce a new, offspring constraint with aspects of each parent. Offspring can also mutate.
- Pizzo (2013): Inducing constraints to handle alternations (Turkish vowel harmony and devoicing)
 - On making an error, create a constraint at random, according to certain templates
 - Can be faithfulness or markedness
 - Must penalize some property on which the spurious winner differs from the observed winner
 - The researcher can set parameters for how much stem-faithfulness and tier-markedness constraints show be allowed/favored
- Alderete, Tupper & Frisch (2013): Connectionist model of OCP-Place in Arabic roots

3. Inducing features

- Discuss: What are features for, anyway? What would we take as evidence for or against the claim that features are universal (or even innate)?

4. Mielke (2004): a cross-linguistic survey

- A lot of rules defy feature analysis.
 - E.g., ChiMwiini palatalization before suffix *-iit-*:

(2) p t t → s
 k → ʃ
 b d d g → z / [+nasal]__
 t → z

(p.3)

- 561 languages, ~17,000 rules or phonotactics, 6077 total (distinct) classes referred to by rules in those languages
- Three feature theories—how well do they capture these 6077 classes?

Feature System	Characterizable (Natural)		Noncharacterizable (Unnatural)	
<i>Preliminaries</i>	3640	59.90%	2437	40.10%
<i>SPE</i>	4313	70.97%	1764	29.03%
Unified Feature Theory	3872	63.72%	2205	36.28%
ANY SYSTEM	4579	75.35%	1498	24.65%

Table 5.3. The ability of three feature systems to characterize 6077 phonologically active classes with a conjunction of distinctive features

(p.

190)

- What if we allow some set operations other than just intersection?

Best analysis	<i>Preliminaries</i>		<i>SPE</i>		Unified Feature Theory	
Natural (feature conjunction)	3640	59.9%	4313	71.0%	3872	63.7%
Disjunction (2 classes)	1443	23.8%	1248	20.5%	1266	20.8%
Subtraction (2 classes)	59	0.97%	71	1.17%	94	1.55%
Disjunction (3 classes)	233	3.83%	201	3.31%	205	3.37%
Disjunction (4 classes)	64	1.05%	56	0.92%	67	1.10%
Disjunction (5 classes)	17	0.28%	21	0.35%	17	0.28%
Disjunction (6 classes)	0	0.00%	4	0.07%	5	0.08%
Disjunction (7 classes)	1	0.02%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Disjunction (8 classes)	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	1	0.02%
Disjunction (9 classes)	0	0.00%	1	0.02%	0	0.00%
Unnatural (even w/disjunction)	620	10.2%	162	2.67%	550	9.05%

Table 6.2. The ability of three feature systems to characterize 6077 phonologically active classes with a conjunction, subtraction, or disjunction of distinctive features

(p. 193)

- Example of “unnatural even with disjunction”: only central vowels, but not front or back

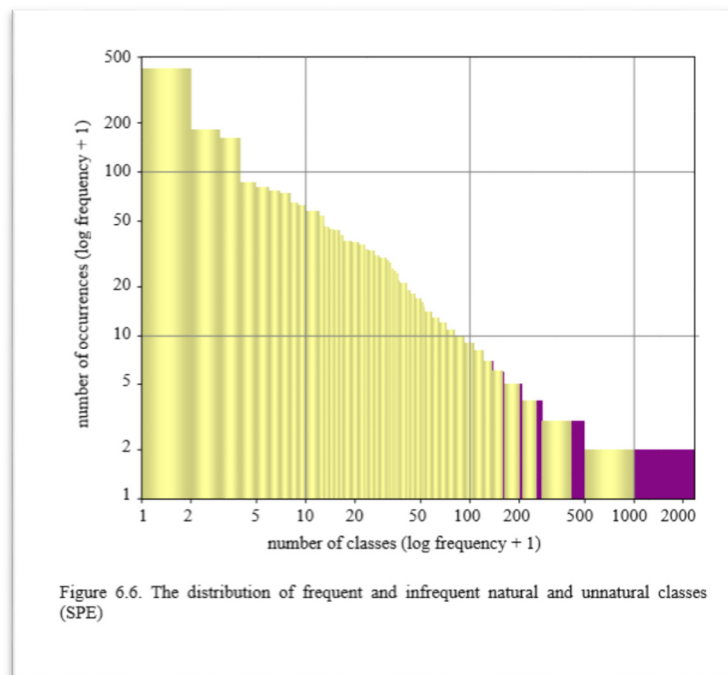
- Are the theories at least doing better than a null hypothesis?
 - Generate 6077 random sets of phonemes (with same distribution of sizes) and see how many are captured by each theory

Best analysis	<i>Preliminaries</i>		<i>SPE</i>		Unified Feature Theory	
Natural (feature conjunction)	342	5.63%	467	7.68%	270	4.44%
Disjunction (2 classes)	1718	28.3%	1994	32.8%	1745	28.7%
Subtraction (2 classes)	9	0.15%	17	0.28%	11	0.18%
Disjunction (3 classes)	948	15.6%	1160	19.1%	939	15.5%
Disjunction (4 classes)	624	10.3%	774	12.7%	630	10.4%
Disjunction (5 classes)	349	5.74%	456	7.50%	352	5.79%
Disjunction (6 classes)	247	4.06%	292	4.81%	246	4.05%
Disjunction (7 classes)	107	1.76%	126	2.07%	121	1.99%
Disjunction (8 classes)	29	0.48%	29	0.48%	48	0.79%
Disjunction (9 classes)	8	0.13%	3	0.05%	16	0.26%
Disjunction (10+) or error	241	3.97%	290	4.77%	400	6.58%
Unnatural (even w/disjunction)	1455	23.9%	469	7.72%	1299	21.4%

Table 6.4. The ability of three feature systems to characterize 6077 randomly-generated classes with a conjunction, subtraction, or disjunction of distinctive features

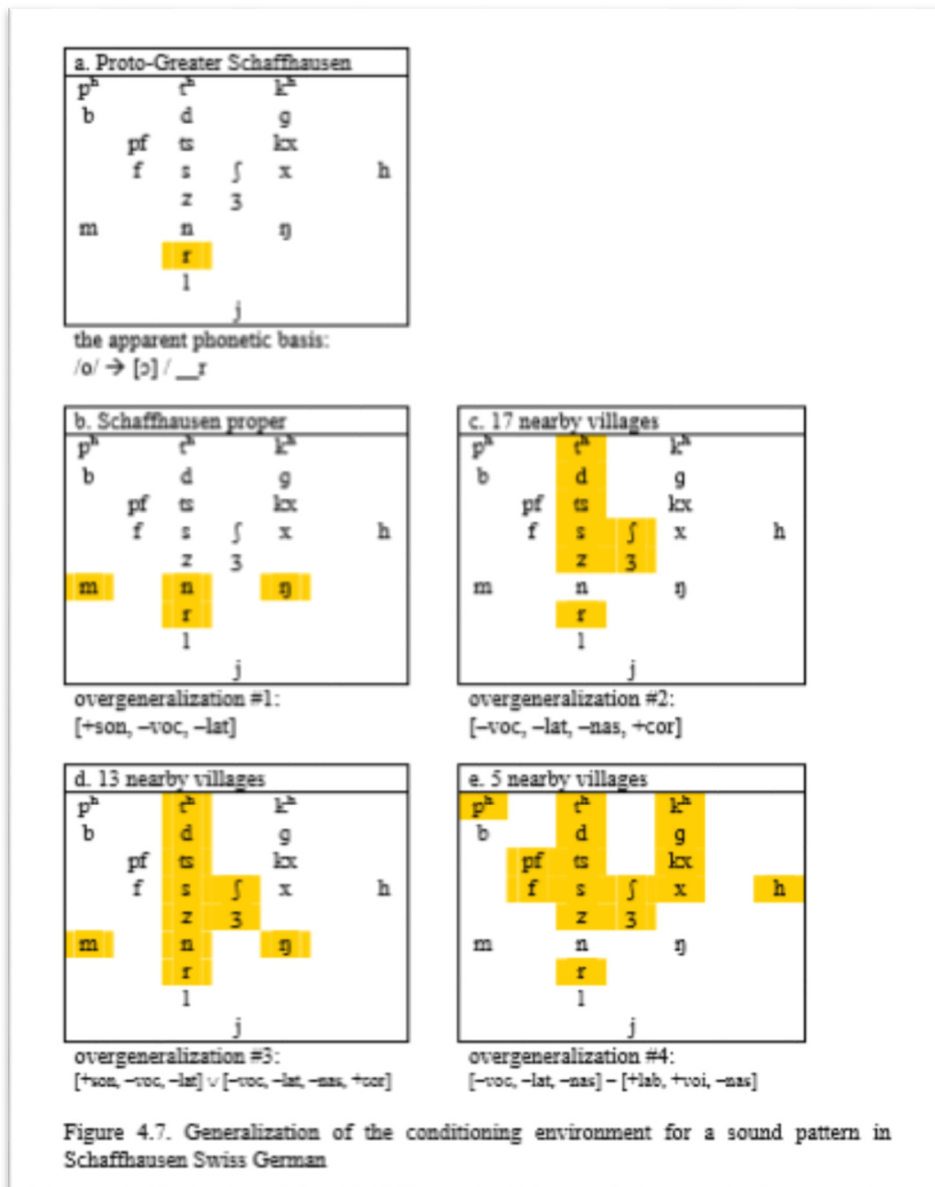
(p. 195)

- Mielke’s take: We can’t just write off these “unnatural classes” as “oddities”, because...
 - A lot of them recur in multiple languages, just like “natural” classes are supposed to
 - The frequency distribution of “natural” vs. “unnatural” is not bimodal or well separated
 - Taking the distribution for SPE, which had the best results overall (also shows the best separation):



(p. 204)

- So why do some classes recur, if it's not because of an innate feature inventory?
 - Some phonetic effects just naturally involve classes of sounds, like vowels near nasal consonants tend to be a little nasalized, which can then get phonologized.
- Shared phonetic properties do seem to matter to the learner, though:
 - Schaffhausen Swiss German: originally, $o \rightarrow \text{ɔ} / __r$
 - Seems reasonable as a phonologization of a phonetic effect of [r] on [o]
 - The rule has gotten generalized differently in different parts of the area:



(p. 108)

- Mielke concludes that learners construct features in response to learning data
 - We can give them names, but a feature F is just defined by what set of sounds are +F and what set are -F
 - What remains to be proposed is an explicit algorithm for detecting groups of sounds that pattern together, and inducing features from it

5. Flemming (2005): putting features into the grammar

- Discuss: In OT, there is no phoneme inventory. What work was the phoneme inventory supposed to do in rule theories, and how does an OT grammar accomplish that work?

- In a similar move, Flemming proposes getting rid of the feature set, and shifting its responsibilities to the constraint inventory.

- An issue Flemming raises for natural classes: Suppose you have a vowel inventory /i,e,a,o,u/ and you want a rule-based grammar that deletes /i,a,u/ __ V. What could you do? (no curly brackets allowed)

- Then if there are no such rule-based languages, is there a way to use feature theory to rule them out?

- How would we analyze the language in OT?

- Flemming's proposal: if we want to rule out this language, it has to be by disallowing the constraints needed to capture it.
 - It won't suffice to just say that constraints can only refer to natural classes (why?)
 - For example, "[i]f labials and coronals never pattern together as a natural class [e.g., in *post-nasal voicing*], it must be because there are no constraints that render them [*but not, say, velars*] marked in the same context." (p. 12 of ms. version)
- If, on the other hand, there is a good reason for a bunch of constraints to exist, like *NAS-APPROX, *NAS-FRIC, *GEMINATE_NASAL (Lithuanian *n*-deletion), then it will seem as though {approximants, fricatives, nasals} is acting as a class
 - Flemming goes through typological data to justify the three constraints (plus *NAS-[h])
 - i.e., there are languages with one of the constraints high-ranked, but not the other two

- General principle: “sounds can pattern together as a natural class if they violate markedness constraints in the same environment, so given constraints *XA and *XB, A and B can form a natural class” (p. ?)
- “Classhood” is contingent
 - {approximants, fricatives, nasals} can pattern together after nasals specifically, because of the constraint set
 - But we don’t expect them to pattern together in any other environment necessarily
 - I think this is a difference in predictions from Mielke—we can discuss if time.
- How to get subtraction: Markedness1 >> Markedness2
 - Pharyngealization ([RetractedTongueRoot]) spread in Palestinian Arabic
 - Spreads rightward until it hits a high front vowel, a front glide, or a palato-alveolar C
 - all of those are ([+high, -back])

(33)	a.	<u>t</u> ^ʕ uubak	‘your blocks’	<u>t</u> ^ʕ waal	‘long (pl.)’
		<u>b</u> allaas ^ʕ	‘thief’	<u>ʔ</u> absat ^ʕ	‘simpler’
	b.	<u>t</u> ^ʕ iinak	‘your mud’	<u>s</u> ^ʕ ajjad	‘hunter’
		<u>ʔ</u> at ^ʕ ʃaan	‘thirsty’	<u>ð</u> ^ʕ addʒaat	‘type of noise (pl.)’

(p. 34)

- What’s the class of sounds that pharyngealization spreads to?
- How could we capture that in OT? Let’s use McCarthy’s idea that *[+RTR, +hi, -back] is responsible for stopping pharyngeal spread.

6. Coming up Thursday (last day)

- Finish talking about features/natural classes if we don’t finish today
- Course wrap-up

References

- Alderete, John, Paul Tupper & Stefan A. Frisch. 2013. Phonological constraint induction in a connectionist network: learning OCP-Place constraints from data. *Language Sciences* 37. 52–69. doi:10.1016/j.langsci.2012.10.002.
- Boersma, Paul & Joe Pater. 2007. Constructing constraints from language data: the case of Canadian English diphthongs (handout). Paper presented at the 38th meeting of the North East Linguistic Society.
- Flack, Kathryn Gilbert. 2007. The Sources of Phonological Markedness. University of Massachusetts, Amherst PhD dissertation.
- Flemming, Edward. 2005. Deriving natural classes in phonology. *Lingua* 115(3). 287–309. doi:10.1016/j.lingua.2003.10.005.
- Hayes, Bruce. 1999. Phonetically driven phonology: the role of Optimality Theory and inductive grounding. In Michael Darnell, Frederick J Newmeyer, Michael Noonan, Edith Moravcsik & Kathleen Wheatley (eds.), *Functionalism and Formalism in Linguistics, Volume I: General Papers*, 243–285. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Kirby, James. 2013. The role of probabilistic enhancement in phonologization. In Alan C. L. Yu (ed.), *Origins of sound change*, 228–246. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Mielke, Jeff. 2004. The emergence of distinctive features. Ohio State University PhD dissertation.
- Moreton, Elliott. 2010. Constraint induction and simplicity bias in phonological learning (handout). Workshop on Grammar Induction. Cornell University, ms.
- Pater, Joe. 2014. Canadian raising with language-specific weighted constraints. *Language* 90(1). 230–240. doi:10.1353/lan.2014.0009.
- Pizzo, Presley. 2013. An online model of constraint induction for learning phonological alternations. Istanbul.