

Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial Non-trivial because there are many data that are ambiguous for which parameter value or constraint ranking they implicate Octopus ? or or This is generally a problem for acquisition (poverty of the stimulus = the data are compatible with many hypotheses).

Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

Non-trivial because there are many irregularities. This is less common for acquisition – usually there aren't a lot of exceptions to the system being acquired.

Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

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Some causes of irregularity:

Interactions with morphology (Chomsky & Halle 1968, Hayes 1982, Kiparsky 1979)

Example: Adding productive morphology doesn't change the stress pattern, even though all grammars base their stress patterns on the syllables present in the word.

> **EARly EARlier**

PREtty PREttiest senSAtion senSAtional senSAtionally

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Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

Non-trivial because there are many irregularities. This is less common for acquisition – usually there aren't a lot of exceptions to the system being acquired.

Some causes of irregularity:

SUspect

Interactions with grammatical category (Hammond 1999, Hayes 1982, Cassidy & Kelly 2001, Christiansen & Monaghan 2006)

Stress contours may be different across grammatical categories, even though the syllabic word form doesn't change.

suSPECT

NOUNS VERBS Syllabic word form vc vcc **CONduct** conDUCT V VCC **DE**sert deSERT

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v vcc

Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

These irregularities can cause multiple stress contours to be associated with a syllabic word form. This is problematic for the grammars in these knowledge representations...

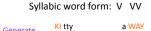
Syllabic word form: V VV

KI tty a WAY ин он v VV V VV

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Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

These irregularities can cause multiple stress contours to be associated with a syllabic word form. This is problematic for the grammars in these knowledge representations, since a grammar can only generate a single stress contour per syllabic word form...



one of these..



UH OH

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Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

These irregularities can cause multiple stress contours to be associated with a syllabic word form. This is problematic for the grammars in these knowledge representations, since a grammar can only generate a single stress contour per syllabic word form or select a single stressed syllabic word form as the best candidate.

Syllabic word form: V VV

KI tty Select V vv one of these...

ин он

V VV

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Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

Upshot of multiple stress contours: No one grammar can account for all the stressed words in the input.

But how big of a problem is this in English child-directed speech?

Syllabic word form: V VV

KI tty

UH OH v VV V VV

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Learning English metrical phonology: Non-trivial

Analysis of Brent corpus (CHILDES database): 4780 word types (99,968 tokens) of American English speech directed at children between the ages of 6 and 12 months



Syllabic word form: V VV

ин он KI ttv a WAY v vv V w v VV

Multiple stress contours

73 of 123 syllabic word forms Hayes: 86 of 149 syllabic word forms 166 of 452 syllabic word forms

This occurs a lot!



Learning English metrical phonology: Target state update

Acquisition success: Identify the grammar that can account for the word-level stress patterns in the language a good portion of

Is this reasonable?



Probably.

A grammar is useful because it provides a compact representation of some aspect of the data. Even if it doesn't cover all the data, covering some is helpful.

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Learning English metrical phonology: Acquisition evaluation

How easily does a knowledge representation allow children to learn their specific language's grammar, when given realistic data?

Learnability analysis provides a quantitative way to compare competing knowledge representations (Pearl 2011, Legate & Yang 2012)

Working premise: Rational learners



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Learning English metrical phonology: Acquisition evaluation

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Working premise: Rational learners

A learner trying to learn which grammar is the right one for the language will choose the grammar perceived to be the best.



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> able to account for the most data in the acquisitional intake = most useful to have





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Quantifying learnability

Once we define the acquisitional intake, we can then ask which grammar in the hypothesis space defined by the knowledge representation is best, assuming a rational learner that will choose the grammar compatible with the most data.



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Quantifying learnability

Once we define the acquisitional intake, we can then ask which grammar in the hypothesis space defined by the knowledge representation is best, assuming a rational learner that will choose the grammar compatible with the most data.



Compatibility with a data point: A grammar is compatible with a data point if the grammar can account for that data point.

Here: Matching stress contour.

Individual grammar evaluation

Intuition: More compatibility is better.

A grammar that can account for 70% of the data is better than a grammar that can only account for 55% of the data.

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Quantifying learnability

Once we define the acquisitional intake, we can then ask which grammar in the hypothesis space defined by the knowledge representation is best, assuming a rational learner that will choose the grammar compatible with the most data.



Raw compatibility for a grammar: The amount of data that grammar can account for.



Example: A grammar that can account for 70% of the data has a raw compatibility of 0.70.



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Quantifying learnability

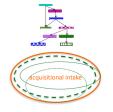
Once we define the acquisitional intake, we can then ask which grammar in the hypothesis space defined by the knowledge representation is best, assuming a rational learner that will choose the grammar compatible with the most data.



Relative compatibility for a grammar: The proportion of other grammars that this grammar is better than, based on raw compatibility.

Example: The best grammar in the knowledge representation has $^{\sim}1.00$ relative compatibility. This is the one that's easiest to learn, given the data.

Individual grammar evaluation



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Quantifying learnability

Once we define the acquisitional intake, we can then ask which grammar in the hypothesis space defined by the knowledge representation is best, assuming a rational learner that will choose the grammar compatible with the most data.



Learnability potential for a knowledge representation: The amount of data the best grammar is compatible with. This is how much of the data that knowledge representation is capable of accounting for with any of its grammars.





Example: If the best grammar can account for 70% of the data, this knowledge representation has a learnability potential of 0.70.

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English learnability: Knowledge representations

So what's the best any grammar in a given knowledge representation actually does, given realistic child-directed data?

Learnability potential = proportion of data the best grammar (relative compatibility \approx 1.00) can account for

Raw compatibility of best grammar

HV: 0.668 types Hayes: 0.683 types OT: 0.657 types

Around 2/3 of the word types



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English learnability: Knowledge representations

Implication:

The best grammar in any of these knowledge representations is pretty useful to have. It allows a learner to account for a good proportion of the input, even if there's a significant chunk that can't be accounted for.



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English learnability: Knowledge representations

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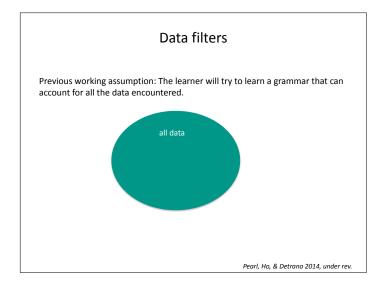
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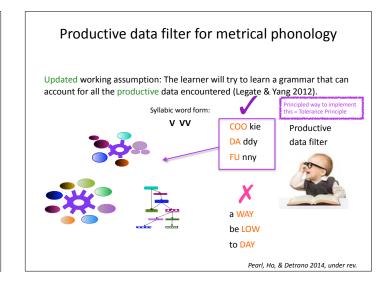
But...is that really the best they can do?



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Updated working assumption: The learner will try to learn a grammar that can account for all the productive data encountered (Legate & Yang 2012). all data all productive data Acquisitional intake = only productive data (Lidz & Gagliardi 2015) Pearl, Ho, & Detrano 2014, under rev.



English learnability: Knowledge representations

So what's the best any grammar in a given knowledge representation actually does, given realistic child-directed data and a productive data filter?

Learnability potential = proportion of data the best grammar (relative compatibility \approx 1.00) can account for

Raw compatibility of best grammar

HV: 0.949 productive types Hayes: 0.933 productive types OT: 0.843 productive types

84-95% of the productive word types



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English learnability: Knowledge representations

This looks even better! Though the parametric representations are a little ahead, all representations can generate a grammar that accounts for a very large proportion of the productive data. Quite useful!



Raw compatibility of best grammar

HV: 0.949 productive types Hayes: 0.933 productive types OT: 0.843 productive types

84-95% of the productive word types



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English learnability: English grammars

What about the "English" grammar in each knowledge representation?







Working assumption for acquisition:

The "English" grammar should be the best grammar in a representation (relative compatibility $\approx 1.00)$ for the data of English.

Is it?



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English learnability: English grammars

How does the (best) English grammar compare to the other grammars defined by the knowledge representation, when looking at all the data?

Relative compatibility of the English grammar = proportion of grammars in the hypothesis space the (best) English grammar is better than

Relative compatibility of English grammar

HV: 0.673 out of 156 grammars Hayes: 0.676 out of 768 grammars OT: 0.817 out of 362,880 grammars

Better than many...but many are still better

HV: 51 are better Hayes: 249 are better OT: 66,407 are better



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English learnability: English grammars

Implication:

There are many other grammars in the hypothesis space that are more compatible with the data. It would be easier to pick one of these other more compatible grammars.



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English learnability: English grammars

What about if children have a productive data filter

on their acquisitional intake?





Relative compatibility of English grammar

HV: 0.622 out of 156 grammars
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Little if any improvement...and sometimes worse:

HV: 59 are better Hayes: 246 are better OT: 73,302 are better



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English learnability: English grammars

Implication:

There are still many other grammars in the hypothesis space that are more compatible with the data. It would be easier to pick one of these other more compatible grammars.



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English learnability: English grammars

Implication:

There are still many other grammars in the hypothesis space that are more compatible with the data. It would be easier to pick one of these other more compatible grammars.



So what do these other more compatible grammars look like anyway? What values/constraint rankings do they use? Can the current English grammar definitions be adjusted?



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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

Parametric: HV

English grammar



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English learnability: **English grammars**

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?



It turns out that many high compatibility grammars use a different Quantity Sensitivity value: Quantity Insensitive (QI), rather than Quantity Sensitive (QS).

This allows them to handle words like bellybutton, which have an unstressed internal heavy syllable.



BE Ily BU tton

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English learnability: **English grammars**

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?



It turns out that many high compatibility grammars use a different Quantity Sensitivity value: Quantity Insensitive (QI), rather than Quantity Sensitive (QS).

So what happens if we swap the English definition's quantity sensitivity value?

 $QS \longrightarrow QI$



Relative compatibility over all data = 0.94!

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English learnability: **English grammars**

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

Parametric: HV

It turns out that many high compatibility grammars use a different Quantity Sensitivity value: Quantity Insensitive (QI), rather than Quantity Sensitive (QS).

So what happens if we swap the English definition's quantity sensitivity value?

QS -> QI



Relative compatibility over all data = 0.94! But relative compatibility over productive data = 0.71...

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English learnability: **English grammars**

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?





Upshot: For the HV knowledge representation, the learning problem could be ameliorated by simply switching one parameter value as long as children aren't using a productive data filter.

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English learnability: **English grammars**

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?







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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?



It turns out that many high compatibility grammars use a different Foot Inventory value: Syllabic Trochees (Syl-Tro) rather than Moraic Trochees (Mor-Tro).

This allows them to handle words like *baby* and *kitty*, which have a final unstressed heavy syllable.

BA by KI tty



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English learnability: English grammars

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So what happens if we swap the English definition's foot inventory value?

Mor-Tro —> Syl-Tro



Relative compatibility over all data = 0.91

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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?



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Mor-Tro —> Syl-Tro



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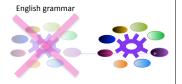
And relative compatibility over productive data = 0.96!

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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?





Upshot: For the Hayes knowledge representation, the learning problem could be ameliorated by simply switching one parameter value especially if children are using a productive data filter.

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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

Constraint-based: OT

English grammar obeys this ordering





Nonfinality, Parse
Foot binarity
Trochaic
Weight-to-Stress
Align left, Align ri

English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

VV syllable.

Constraint-based: OT

It turns out that **all** high compatibility grammars use a different ordering of Non-Finality (Non-Fin) and Weight-to-Stress VV (WSP-VV): Non-Fin is ranked higher than WSP-VV

This allows them to handle words like *baby* and *kitty*,

which have a final unstressed

BA by KI ttv



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English learnability: English grammars

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Constraint-based: OT



It turns out that **all** high compatibility grammars use a different ordering of Non-Finality (Non-Fin) and Weight-to-Stress VV (WSP-VV):

Non-Fin is ranked higher than WSP-VV

So what happens if we swap the English definition's ordering of these constraints?

Non-Fin >> WSP-VV



Relative compatibility over all data = 0.99!

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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

Constraint-based: OT



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So what happens if we swap the English definition's ordering of these constraints?



Non-Fin >> WSP-VV



Relative compatibility over all data = 0.99! Relative compatibility over productive data = 0.93!

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English learnability: English grammars

What values/constraint rankings do the grammars use that are more compatible with the data than the official English grammar?

Constraint-based: OT



English grammar obeys this ordering



Upshot: For the OT knowledge representation, the learning problem could be ameliorated by simply switching one constraint ordering especially if children aren't using a productive data filter.

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Metrical phonology learnability: Take away

All three knowledge representations are useful for acquisition:
They can generate grammars that account for a large portion of realistic English child-directed speech data, especially if children are using a productive data filter.









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Metrical phonology learnability: Take away

All three knowledge representations are useful for acquisition especially if children are using a productive data filter.

However, the current English grammar definitions in each representation are not the grammars most easily learnable from the data.



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Metrical phonology learnability: Take away

All three knowledge representations are useful for acquisition especially if children are using a productive data filter.

However, the current English grammar definitions in each representation are not the grammars most easily learnable from the data.

But each representation has a grammar that is very close to the current English grammar definition (change one parameter value or one constraint ordering) which *is* much more easily learnable.

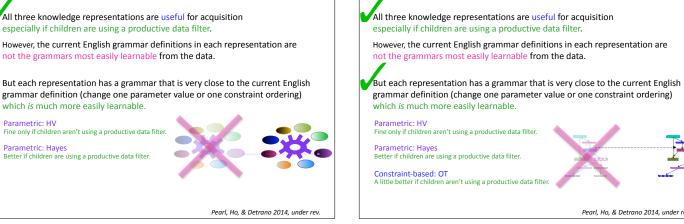
Parametric: HV

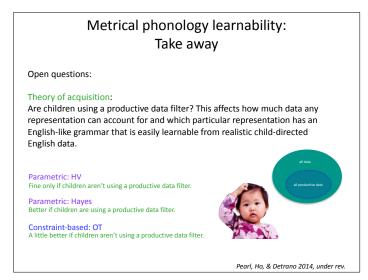
Fine only if children aren't using a productive data filte

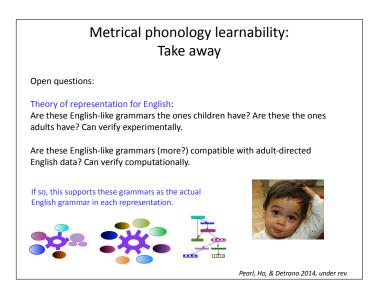


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Metrical phonology learnability: Take away



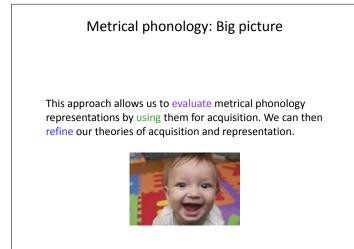




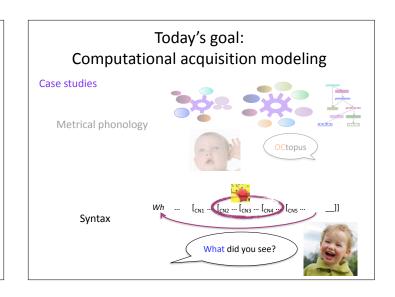
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Metrical phonology learnability:

Take away



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Syntax: Syntactic islands

- Why? Central to UG-based syntactic theories.
- What? Dependencies can exist between two non-adjacent items. They do not appear to be constrained by length (Chomsky 1965, Ross 1967), but rather by whether the dependency crosses certain structures (called "syntactic islands").



What does Jack think ___?

What does Jack think that Lily said that Sarah heard that Jareth believed ?

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

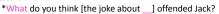
Syntax: Syntactic islands

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Some example islands

Complex NP island:

*What did you make [the claim that Jack bought __]? Subject island:



Whether island:

*What do you wonder [whether Jack bought __]? Adjunct island:

*What do you worry [if Jack buys __]?

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

Adult knowledge as measured by acceptability judgment behavior





ect island:

*What do you think [the joke about ___] offended Jack?

r island:
*What do you wonder [whether Jack bought __]?

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

Adult knowledge as measured by acceptability judgment behavior

Sprouse et al. (2012) collected magnitude estimation judgments for four different islands, using a factorial definition that controlled for two salient properties of island-crossing dependencies:

- length of dependency (matrix vs. embedded)
- presence of an island structure (non-island vs. island)

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

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Complex NP islands

Who __ claimed that Lily forgot the necklace? matrix I non-island What did the teacher claim that Lily forgot ? embedded | non-island Who __ made the claim that Lily forgot the necklace? matrix | island *What did the teacher make the claim that Lily forgot ? embedded | island

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

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Subject islands

Who thinks the necklace is expensive? matrix I non-island What does Jack think is expensive? embedded | non-island Who __ thinks the necklace for Lily is expensive? matrix | island *Who does Jack think the necklace for is expensive? embedded | island

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

Adult knowledge as measured by acceptability judgment behavior

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Whether islands

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

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Adjunct islands

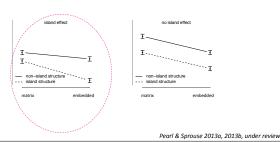
```
Who _ thinks that Lily forgot the necklace? matrix | non-island what does the teacher think that Lily forgot _ ? embedded | non-island who _ worries if Lily forgot the necklace? matrix | island embedded | island embedded | island
```

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Syntactic islands: Acquisition target

Adult knowledge as measured by acceptability judgment behavior

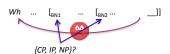
Syntactic island = superadditive interaction of the two factors (additional unacceptability that arises when the two factors are combined, above and beyond the independent contribution of each factor).



Adult knowledge as measured by acceptability judgment behavior (from Sprouse et al. 2012 data on the four island types, with 173 subjects) Superadditivity present for all islands tested = Knowledge that dependencies cannot cross these island structures is part of adult knowledge about syntactic islands Importance for acquisition: This is one kind of target behavior that we'd like a learner to produce.

Syntactic islands: Representations

Subjacency (Chomsky 1973, Huang 1982, Lasnik & Saito 1984)
(1) A dependency cannot cross two or more bounding nodes.





Bounding nodes are language-specific (CP, IP, and/or NP – must learn which ones are relevant for language)

resented as a sequence of container nodes).

Subjacency (Chomsky 1973, Huang 1982, Lasnik & Saito 1984)

Subjacency-ish (Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b)

(1) A dependency cannot cross two or more bounding nodes.



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

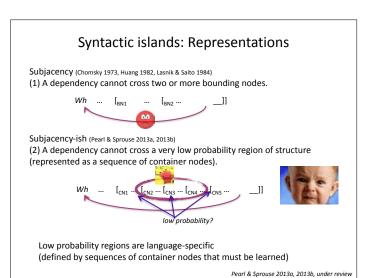
(2) A dependency cannot cross a very low probability region of structure (represented as a sequence of container nodes).

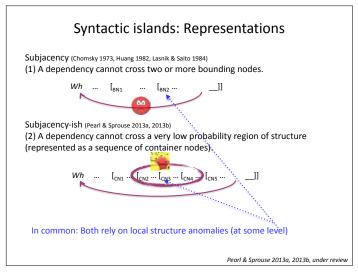
Syntactic islands: Representations

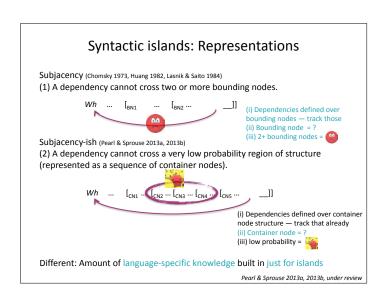
Container node: phrase structure node that contains dependency

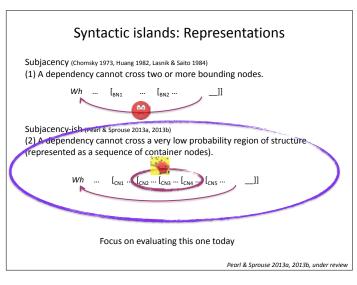
[CP What do [IP you [VP like __ [PP in this picture?]]]]

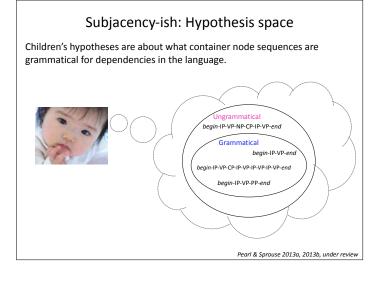
Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

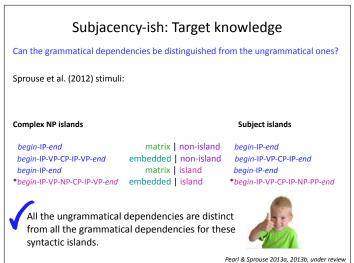












Subjacency-ish: Target knowledge

Can the grammatical dependencies be distinguished from the ungrammatical ones?

Sprouse et al. (2012) stimuli:

Whether islands Adjunct islands

 begin-IP-end
 matrix
 non-island
 begin-IP-end

 begin-IP-VP-CP-IP-VP-end
 embedded
 non-island
 begin-IP-VP-CP-IP-VP-end

 begin-IP-ena
 matrix
 island
 begin-IP-ena

 *begin-IP-VP-CP-IP-VP-end
 embedded
 island
 *begin-IP-VP-CP-IP-VP-end

Uh oh - the ungrammatical dependencies look identical to some of the grammatical dependencies for these syntactic islands.



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Subjacency-ish: Dependency representation

One solution:

Have CP container nodes be more specified for the learner: Use the lexical head to subcategorize the CP container node.

 CP_{null} , CP_{that} , $\mathsf{CP}_{whether}$, CP_{if} , etc.



The learner can then distinguish between these structures:

IP-VP-CP_{null/that}-IP-VP
IP-VP-CP_{whether/if}-IP-VP

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Subjacency-ish: Target knowledge

Can the grammatical dependencies be distinguished from the ungrammatical ones?

Sprouse et al. (2012) stimuli:

Complex NP islands Subject islands

 begin-IP-end
 matrix | non-island
 begin-IP-end

 begin-IP-VP-CP_{that}-IP-VP-end
 embedded | non-island
 begin-IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-end

 begin-IP-end
 matrix | island
 begin-IP-end

 *begin-IP-VP-NP-CP_{that}-IP-VP-end
 embedded | island
 *begin-IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-NP-PP-end

All the ungrammatical dependencies are still distinct from all the grammatical dependencies for these syntactic islands.



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Subjacency-ish: Target knowledge

Can the grammatical dependencies be distinguished from the ungrammatical ones?

Sprouse et al. (2012) stimuli:

Whether islands Adjunct islands

begin-IP-end matrix | non-island begin-IP-end embedded | non-island begin-IP-VP-CP_{that}-IP-VP-end begin-IP-VP-CP_{that}-IP-VP-end embedded | island begin-IP-VP-CP_{if}-IP-VP-end *begin-IP-VP-CP_{if}-IP-VP-end

Now the ungrammatical dependencies are distinct from all the grammatical dependencies for these syntactic islands, too.



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Subjacency-ish: Acquisitional intake

Children must learn which local pieces of structure are low probability for a *wh*-dependency. They learn this from the *wh*-dependencies in their intake, which are defined over the container nodes of the *wh*-dependency.



[_{CP} Who did [_{IP} she [_{VP} like __]]]?

Encoding of dependency: begin-IP-VP-end

 $\begin{bmatrix} \text{\tiny CP} \text{\tiny W} \text{\tiny W} \text{\tiny W} \text{\tiny IP} \text{\tiny VP} \text{\tiny IP} \end{bmatrix}_{\text{\tiny VP}} \text{\tiny VP} \text{\tiny IP} \text{\tiny VP} \text{\tiny VP} \text{\tiny IP} \end{bmatrix}_{\text{\tiny VP}} \text{\tiny VP} \text{\tiny IP}$

Encoding of dependency: begin-IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-VP-PP-end

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Subjacency-ish: Realistic acquisitional intake

Child-directed speech (Brown-Adam, Brown-Eve, Suppes, Valian) from CHILDES: 101,838 utterances containing 20,923 wh-dependencies

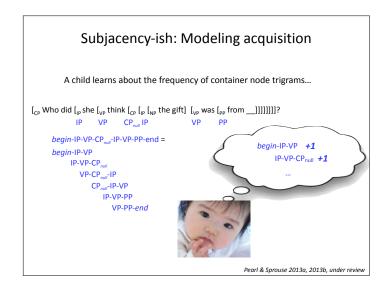


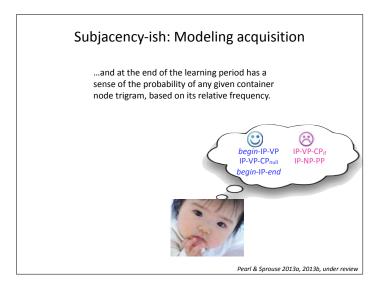
What kind of dependencies are present?

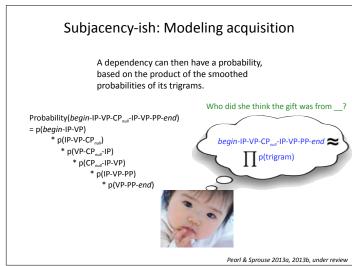
76.7%	begin-IP-VP-end	What did you see?
12.8%	begin-IP-end	What happened?
5.6%	begin-IP-VP-IP-VP-end	What did she want to do?
2.5%	begin-IP-VP-PP-end	What did she read from?
1.1%	$\textit{begin}\text{-}IP\text{-}VP\text{-}CP_{\textit{null}}\text{-}IP\text{-}VP\text{-}\textit{end}$	What did she think he said?

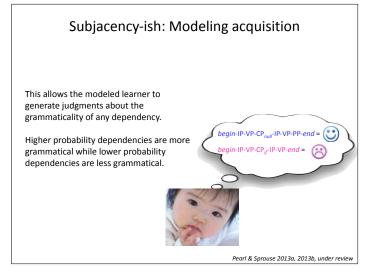
...

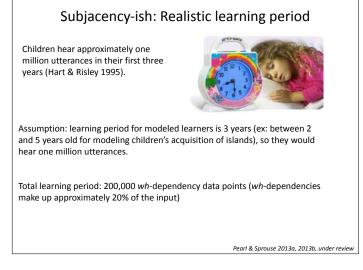
Subjacency-ish: Modeling acquisition Because wh-dependencies are perceived as sequences of container nodes, local pieces of dependency structure can be characterized by container node trigrams. [CP Who did [Phe | Phink |



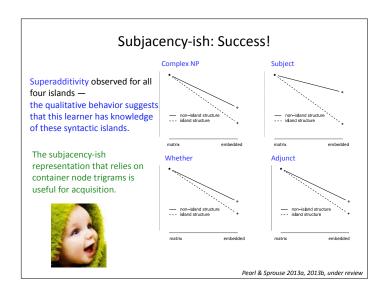


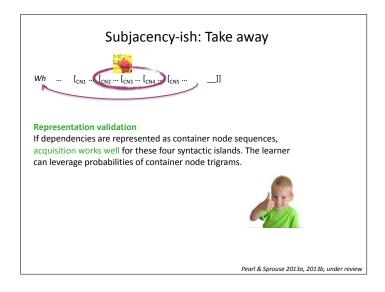


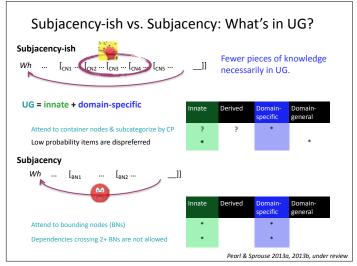




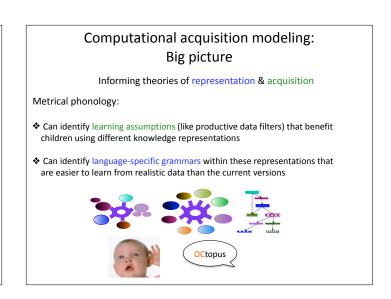
Subjacency-ish: Success metric For each set of island stimuli from Sprouse et al. (2012), we generate grammaticality preferences for the modeled learner based on the dependency's probability. **Degin-IP-VP-CPour-IP-VP-end** | begin-IP-VP-CPour-IP-VP-end** | begin-IP-VP-NP-CPour-IP-VP-end** | begin-IP-VP-NP-CPour-IP-VP-end** | matrix embedded | We can then plot the log probability of the dependency on the y-axis of the interaction plot. | Non-parallel lines indicate superadditivity, which indicates knowledge of islands.







Syntactic islands: Big picture This approach allows us to evaluate a representation of dependencies by using it for acquisition. We can then refine our theories of what must be in Universal Grammar.



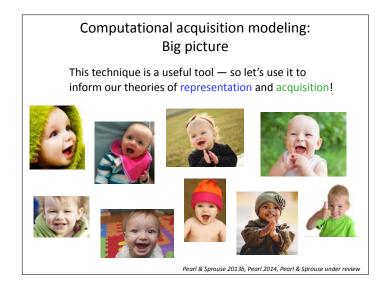
Computational acquisition modeling: Big picture

Informing theories of representation & acquisition

Svntax

- Can validate representations that make it easy to learn syntactic islands, and provide alternative proposals for what's in UG
- Can provide concrete demonstrations of learning strategies using these representations that succeed on realistic input data







Jon Sprouse Tim Ho Zephyr Detrano

Pranav Anand Misha Becker Alex Clark Sandy Chung Joanna Lee Jeff Lidz Joseph Nunn Colin Phillips Matt Wagers Charles Yang

cker Bob Berwick ung Bob Frank Jim McCloskey ips William Sakas Adrian Brasoveanu Norbert Hornstein Armin Mester Virginia Valian

omputation of Language Laboratory

UC Irvine

GALANA selection committee

Audiences at:

Berkeley Linguistics Society Annual Meeting 2014
UC Santa Cruz Linguistics colloquium 2014
Logic & Philosophy of Science 2013 colloquium, UC Irvine
Institute for Mathematical Behavioral Sciences 2013, UC Irvine
Johns Hopkins University Cognitive Science colloquium 2013
New York University Linguistics colloquium 2012

UMaryland Mayfest 2012

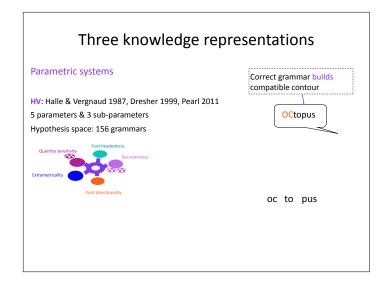
Input & Syntactic Acquisition Workshop 2012

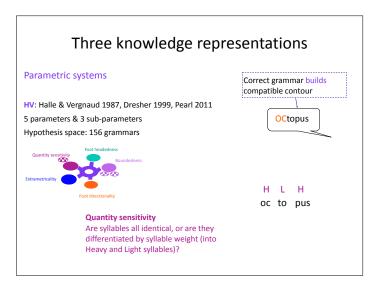


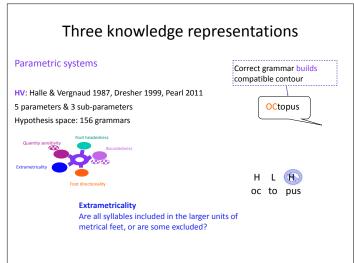
This work was supported in part by NSF grants BCS-0843896 and

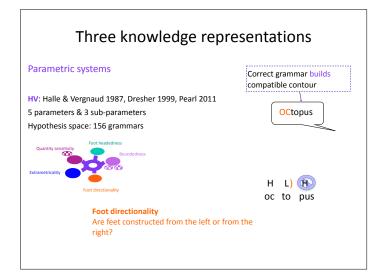
Extra material

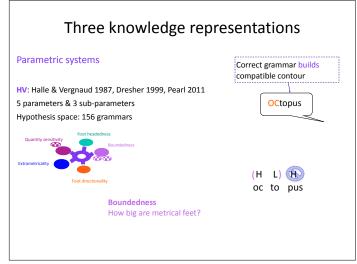
Three knowledge representations Parametric systems Lorrect grammar builds compatible contour HV: Halle & Vergnaud 1987, Dresher 1999, Pearl 2011 5 parameters & 3 sub-parameters Hypothesis space: 156 grammars Foot headedness Quantity sensitivity Foot headedness Grammar = Set of parameter & sub-parameter values Foot directionality

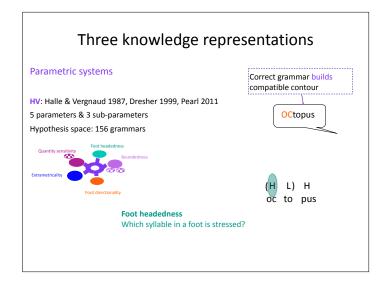


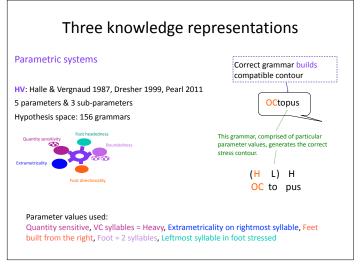


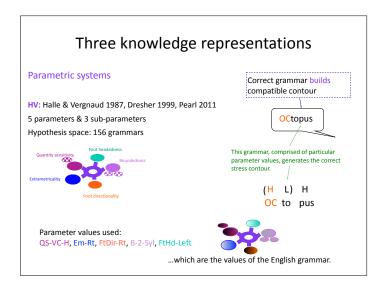


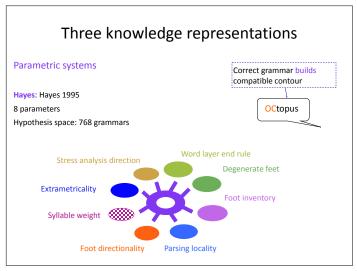


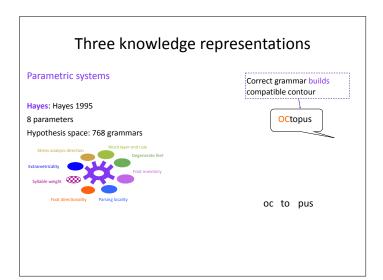


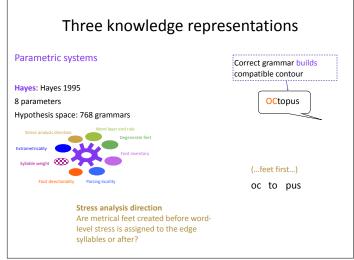


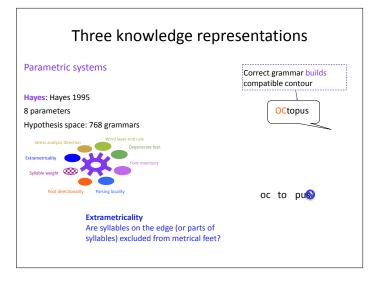


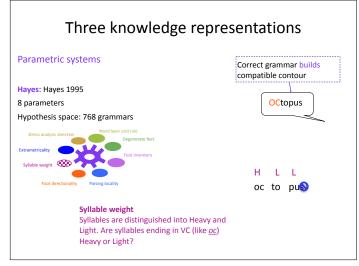


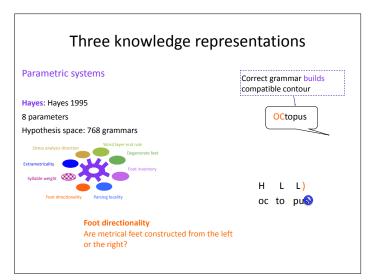


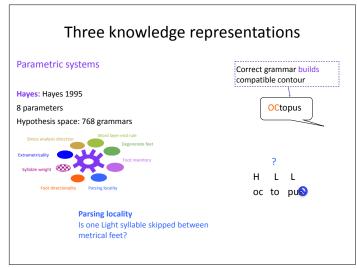


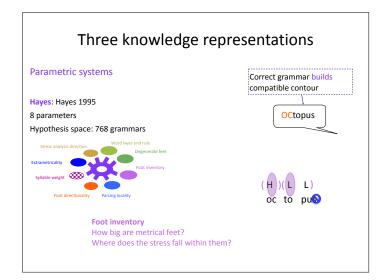


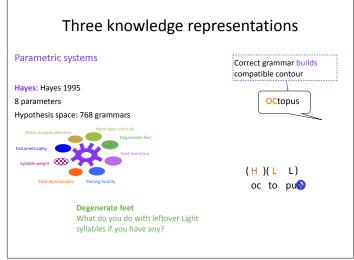


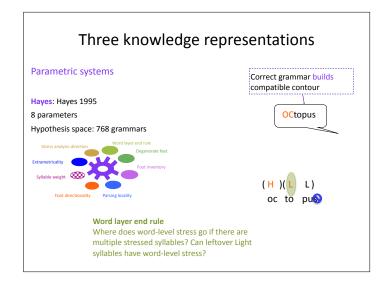


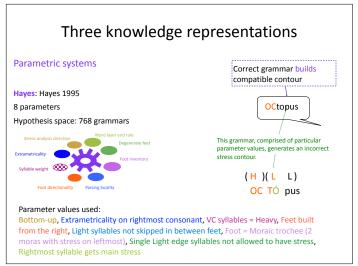


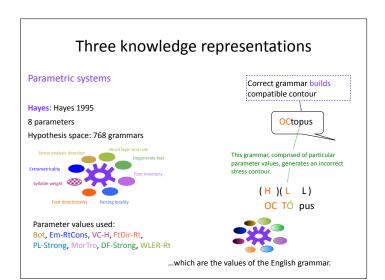


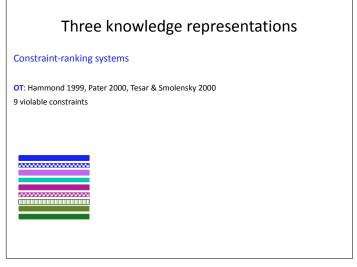


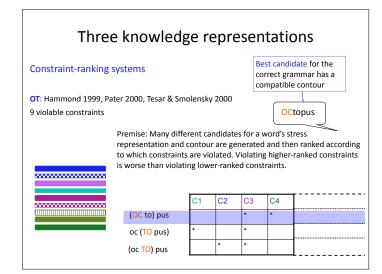


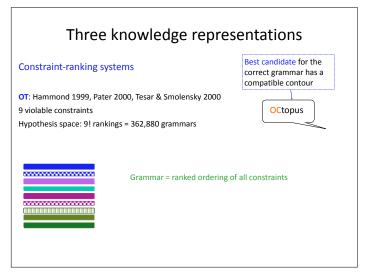


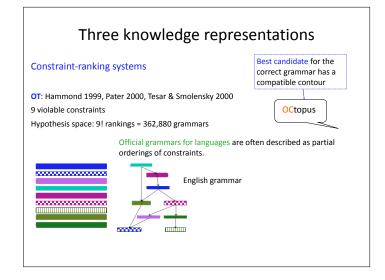


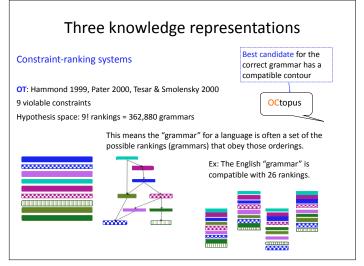


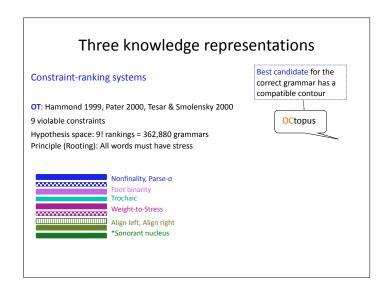


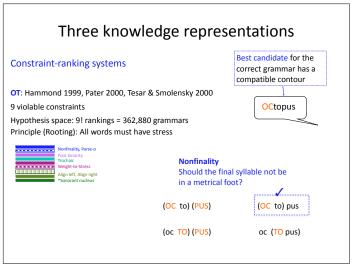


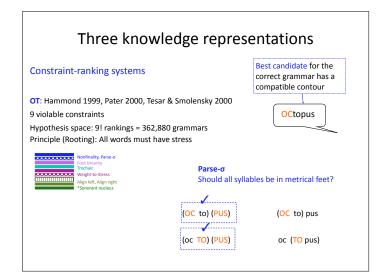


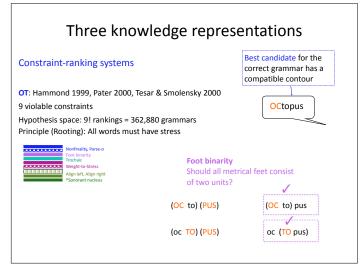


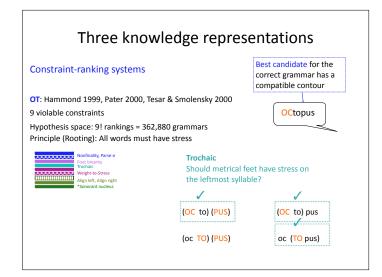


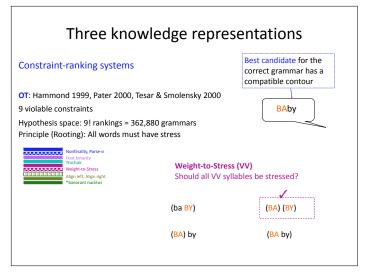


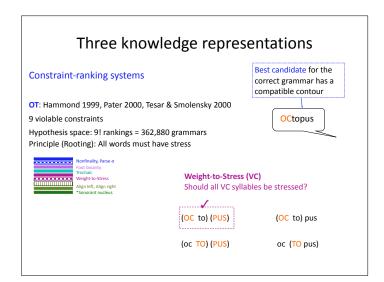


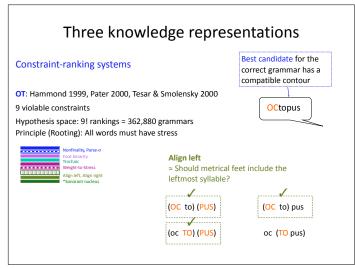


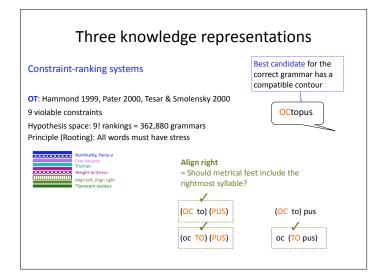


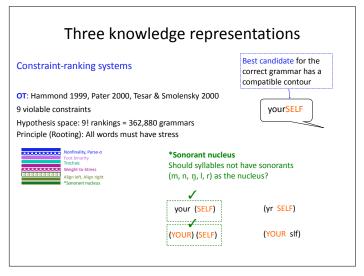


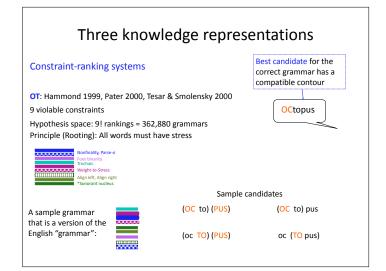


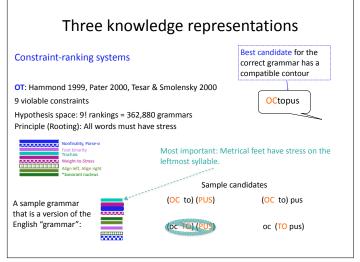


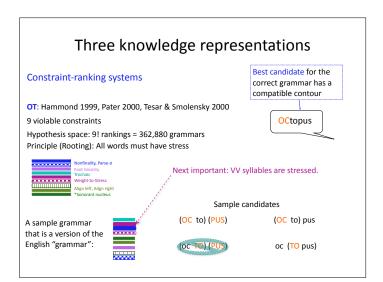


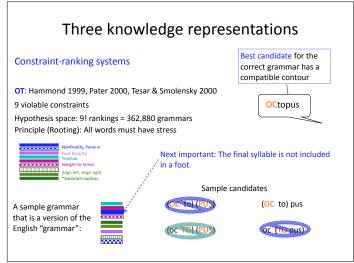


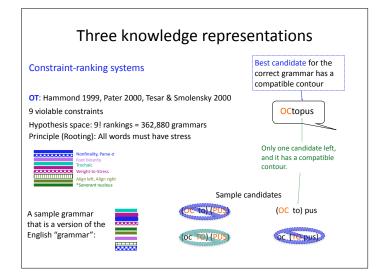


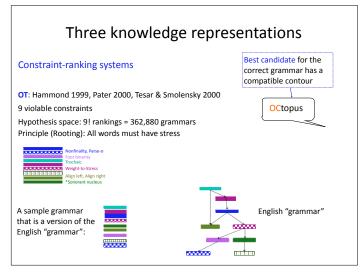


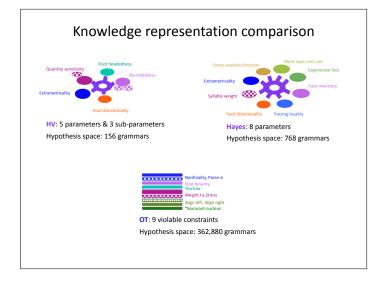


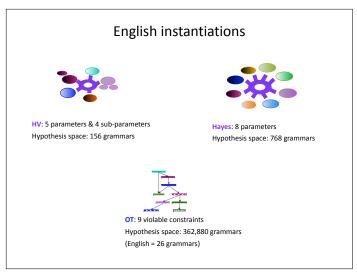


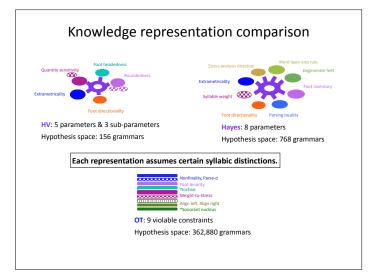


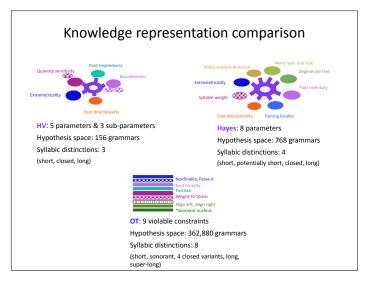












Productive data filter

Updated working assumption: The learner will try to learn a grammar that can account for all the productive data encountered (Legate & Yang 2012).

Why would this occur?

Perhaps the learner realizes that some data are unproductive, and therefore likely irregular and unpredictable. The goal then becomes to learn a grammar that can account for all the data that are predictable.

Productive data filter

Updated working assumption: The learner will try to learn a grammar that can account for all the productive data encountered (Legate & Yang 2012).

How would this occur?

For every syllable word form (ex: V VV) that has multiple stress contours associated with it, the learner assumes that one of these patterns may be the productive contour and the others are exceptions to this general "rule".

Productive data filter

Updated working assumption: The learner will try to learn a grammar that can account for all the productive data encountered (Legate & Yang 2012).

How would this occur?

A formal way for identifying if there is a dominant rule for a set of items is the Tolerance Principle (Yang 2005, Legate & Yang 2012). This is used to estimate how many exceptions a rule can tolerate in a set before it's no longer useful for the learner to have the rule. If there are too many exceptions, it's better not to have a rule and learn patterns on an individual item basis instead of having a rule that keeps getting violated.

Productive data filter

Updated working assumption: The learner will try to learn a grammar that can account for all the productive data encountered (Legate & Yang 2012).

How would this occur?

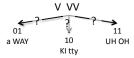
The number of exceptions a rule can tolerate for a set of N items is

 $\frac{N}{ln(N)}$

(Yang 2005, Legate & Yang 2012)

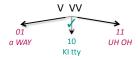
The Tolerance Principle in action

For every syllable word form with multiple stress contours, the learner could assess whether any of those contours is the dominant one (the "rule" for that syllable word form), using the Tolerance Principle.



The Tolerance Principle in action

For every syllable word form with multiple stress contours, the learner could assess whether any of those contours is the dominant one (the "rule" for that syllable word form), using the Tolerance Principle.



If one contour is dominant, the learner should focus on accounting for that pattern, since it's regular and productive. The grammar should be able to generate it. The other contours can be ignored for purposes of learning the grammar.

The Tolerance Principle in action

For every syllable word form with multiple stress contours, the learner could assess whether any of those contours is the dominant one (the "rule" for that syllable word form), using the Tolerance Principle.



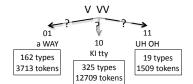
If no contour is dominant, the learner should ignore this syllable word form for the purposes of learning the grammar since there is no obvious regularity to account for.

Productive data filter in action

Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms Hayes: 149 syllable word forms 3 syllable distinctions 4 syllable distinctions



Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge HV: 123 syllable word forms Hayes: 149 syllable word forms 3 syllable distinctions 4 syllable distinctions V VV **>** 11 01 10 a WAY ин он KI ttv 162 types 19 types 325 types

12709 tokens

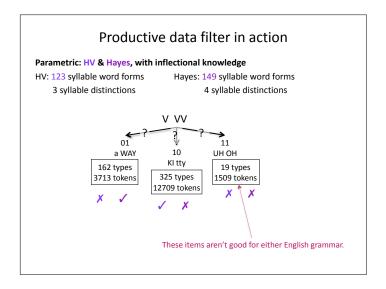
3713 tokens

Productive data filter in action

These items are good for the HV English grammar.

1509 tokens

Productive data filter in action Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge HV: 123 syllable word forms Hayes: 149 syllable word forms 3 syllable distinctions 4 syllable distinctions V VV 01 11 10 a WAY ин он KI tty 162 types 19 types 325 types 3713 tokens 1509 tokens 12709 tokens



Productive data filter in action

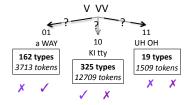
Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

These items are good for the Hayes English grammar.

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



The Tolerance Principle looks at the **word types** with each stress pattern. Each represents an individual item that might follow the regular stress pattern rule (if there is one).

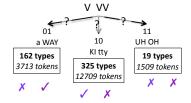
Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



How many items should the stress "rule" apply to? N = 162 + 325 + 19 = 506

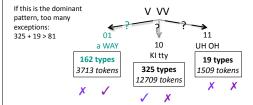
Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



How many exceptions are allowed? 506 / In(506) = 81

Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions

If this is the dominant V VV pattern, too many exceptions: **>** 11 01 162 + 19 > 81 a WAY 10 UH OH KI tty 162 types 19 types 3713 tokens 325 types 1509 tokens 12709 tokens

How many exceptions are allowed? 506 / In(506) = 81

Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions

If this is the dominant V VV pattern, way too many 01 162 + 325 > 81 11 10 a WAY ин он KI tty 162 types 19 types 325 types 3713 tokens 1509 tokens 12709 tokens

How many exceptions are allowed? 506 / In(506) = 81

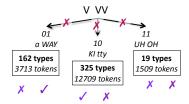
Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



Learner conclusion: No dominant stress pattern, so none of these syllable word form data should be used to learn the English grammar.

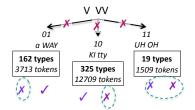
Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



This will end up helping both grammars, since they won't be penalized for the patterns they can't account for.

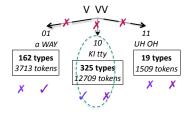
Productive data filter in action

Parametric: HV & Hayes, with inflectional knowledge

HV: 123 syllable word forms

3 syllable distinctions

4 syllable distinctions



However, the Hayes grammar is helped a little more, since it couldn't account for the most frequent stress pattern before, while the HV grammar could.

Productive data filter in action

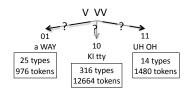
Constraint-based: OT, with inflectional knowledge

452 syllable word forms 8 syllable distinctions

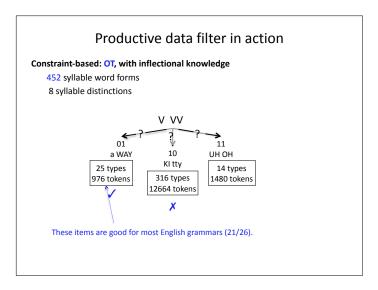
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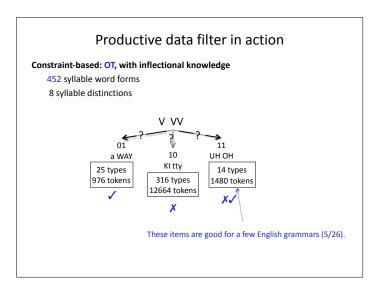
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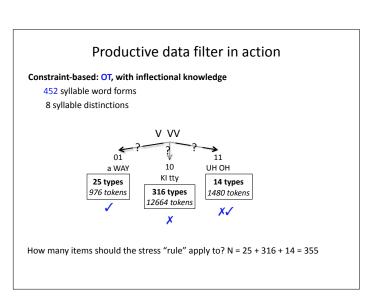
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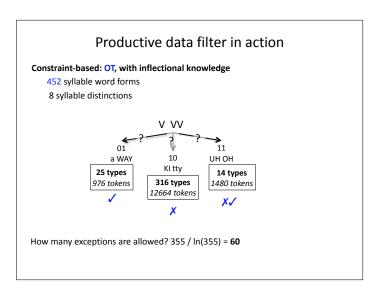


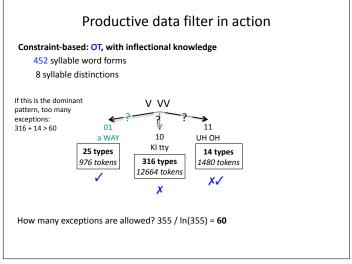
Productive data filter in action Constraint-based: OT, with inflectional knowledge 452 syllable word forms 8 syllable distinctions V VV 01 11 10 a WAY ин он KI tty 25 types 14 types 976 tokens 316 types 1480 tokens 12664 tokens These items are bad for all English grammars.



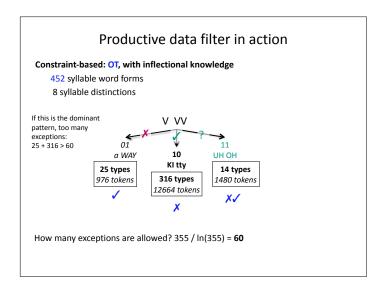




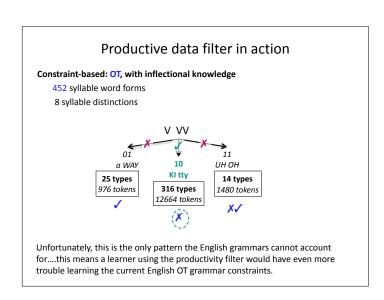


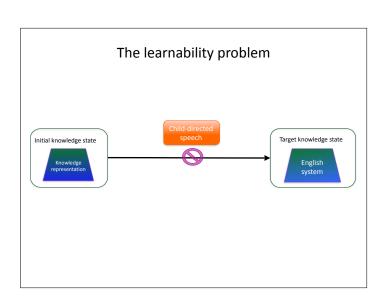


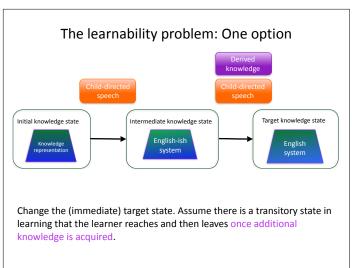
Productive data filter in action Constraint-based: OT, with inflectional knowledge 452 syllable word forms 8 syllable distinctions If this is the dominant pattern, NOT too many V VV 01 25 + 14 < 60 11 10 a WAY ин он KI tty 25 types 14 types 316 types 976 tokens 1480 tokens 12664 tokens How many exceptions are allowed? 355 / In(355) = 60



Productive data filter in action Constraint-based: OT, with inflectional knowledge 452 syllable word forms 8 syllable distinctions V VV 01 10 a WAY ин он KI tty 25 types 14 types 316 types 976 tokens 1480 tokens 12664 tokens Under the OT syllable representation, there is a dominant stress pattern for this word form. Therefore, this pattern should be accounted for by the English grammar.







Learning English metrical phonology

One solution: The learner has derived additional knowledge that helps guide learning.



General knowledge: Interactions with morphology (Chomsky & Halle 1968, Hayes 1982, Kiparsky 1979)

Specific knowledge: Adding productive morphology doesn't change the stress pattern, even though all grammars base their stress patterns on the syllables present in the word.

> senSAtion **EARly PREtty** senSAtional **EARlier PREttiest** senSAtionally

Learning English metrical phonology

One solution: The learner has derived additional knowledge that helps guide learning.



English children seem to use inflectional morphology productively around 3 (Brown 1973) - so they may be aware it doesn't get stressed, based on their prior linguistic experience.

EARly

EARI

PREtty PREtti senSAtion senSAtional senSAtionally

Learning English metrical phonology

So how does the (best) English grammar compare to the other grammars defined by the knowledge representation, once the learner knows inflectional morphology is stressless?

Relative compatibility of the English grammar = proportion of grammars in the hypothesis space the (best) English grammar is better than

Learning English metrical phonology

So how does the (best) English grammar compare to the other grammars defined by the knowledge representation, once the learner knows inflectional morphology is stressless?

Relative compatibility of the English grammar = proportion of grammars in the hypothesis space the (best) English grammar is better than

Relative compatibility of English grammar

0.712 by types out of 156 grammars Hayes: 0.704 by types out of 768 grammars 0.786 by types out of 362,880 grammars

Better than many...but many are still better



Learning English metrical phonology

Implication:

There remain many other grammars in the hypothesis space that are more compatible with the data, even though the learner knows inflectional morphology is stressless. It would be easier to pick one of these other more compatible grammars.



Relative compatibility of English grammar

HV: 0.712 by types out of 156 grammars Hayes: 0.704 by types out of 768 grammars 0.786 by types out of 362,880 grammars

Better than many...but many are still better



Learning English metrical phonology

Continuing conclusion:

The same learnability issues persist for the English grammar in all three knowledge representations, even when the learner has some knowledge of the interactions between morphology and metrical phonology.



Parametric: HV



Parametric: Hayes



HV vs. Hayes on most frequent word forms

Stressed wordform	# Types	Examples	HV	Hayes
Lp	592	water, doing, going	Yes	Yes
Хр	472	little, getting, coming	Yes	Yes
LI	334	baby, sweetie, mommy	Yes	No
XI	309	kitty, daddy, very	Yes	No
Ap	235	goodness, handsome, helper	Yes	Yes
LL	188	okay, byebye, TV	No	Yes
Al	172	window, birdie, only	Yes	No
La	171	peanuts, secrets, highest	Yes	No
Xa	170	biggest, buckets, hiccups	Yes	No
xL	145	below, today, hurray	No	Yes

The impact of morphological knowledge

Example: What happens to words of the La stressed word form when the child gets morphological knowledge? (for the Hayes grammar, which can't account for it without morphological knowledge)

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The impact of morphological knowledge

Example: What happens to words of the La stressed word form when the child gets morphological knowledge? (for the Hayes grammar, which can't account for it without morphological knowledge)

Before morphological knowledge

171 La (island, giant, moment)

After morphological knowledge
57 La (54 of the 171 + 3 added from Lp form)
- Hayes still can't account for these

pockets→pocket slobbered→slobber) 100 Lp (father's → father (cutest→cute nicest→nice weirdest→weird)

- Hayes can now account for these

In this case, knowing inflectional morphology is stressless helps!

The impact of morphological knowledge

In general, the Hayes English grammars benefits from morphology knowledge (6.95% more types accounted for, due to 322 types), unlike the HV and OT English grammars.

Where are these changes happening?

Le

- 28 types: incorrectly derived bisyllabics become monosyllabic
- ${\bf 100}$ types: incorrectly derived ${\bf La}$ becomes correctly-derived ${\bf Lp}$ Examples: father's → father; pockets → pocket; slobbered → slobber
- $\bf 112$ types: incorrectly derived $\bf Xa$ becomes correctly-derived $\bf Xp$ $\underline{\text{Examples}} : \text{sister's} \rightarrow \quad \text{sister; apples} \rightarrow \quad \text{apple; tickled} \rightarrow \quad \text{tickle;}$
- ~ 92 types: Changes in less common wordforms $\underline{\text{Examples}} : \text{messages} \rightarrow \quad \text{message; promises} \rightarrow \quad \text{promise; modeling} \rightarrow \quad \text{model}$

Proposed learning biases/capabilities

Several learning biases/capabilities are potentially both innate and domain-specific.

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Learn from all wh-dependencies	?	?	*	
Parse data into phrase structure trees	?	?	*	
Attend to container nodes & subcategorize by CP	?	?	*	
Extract & track container node trigrams	*			*
Calculate dependency probability from trigrams	*			*

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
	?	?	*	general
?		?	*	

Clearly domain-specific, since this is language data.

May seem reasonable to attend to $\it wh$ -dependency data when learning about $\it wh$ -dependencies (and so this would be derived)

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

	Innate	Derived		Domain- general
earn from all wh-dependencies	?	?	*	

Clearly domain-specific, since this is language data.

May seem reasonable to attend to wh-dependency data when learning about wh-dependencies (and so this would be derived)

...but then why not attend to *all* dependencies (ex: relative clause dependencies, binding dependencies) since *wh*-dependencies are a kind of dependency?

Empirical necessity of just using wh-dependency data:

There are different island effects for relative clauses (sprouse et al. submitted) and no island effects for binding dependencies, so the learner needs to know to pay attention just to wh-dependencies.

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Parse data into phrase structure trees	?	?	*	
		Pearl & S	prouse 2013a,	2013b, under review

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Parse data into phrase structure trees	?	?	*	
Clearly domain-specific, since the strue May be possible to bootstrap this info 2006; acquisition of hierarchical structure given If so, this would be derived	rmation (acquiring sy	ntactic categ	

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general	
Parse data into phrase structure trees	?	?	*		_

Clearly domain-specific, since the structure is specific to language.

May be possible to bootstrap this information (acquiring syntactic categories: Mintz 2003, 2006; acquisition of hierarchical structure given syntactic categories as input: Klein & Manning 2002). If so, this would be derived...

...but it's currently unclear if all the necessary phrase structure knowledge can be bootstrapped.

Important

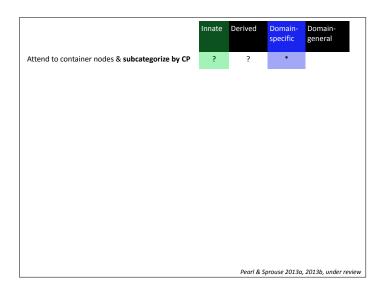
The need for this capability is not specific to learning islands – it's (presumably) needed for learning any kind of syntactic knowledge.

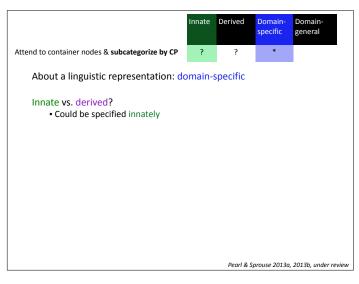
Pearl & Sprouse 2013a, 2013b, under review

	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Attend to container nodes & subcategorize by CP	?	?	*	
		Pearl & S	prouse 2013a	ı, 2013b, under revi

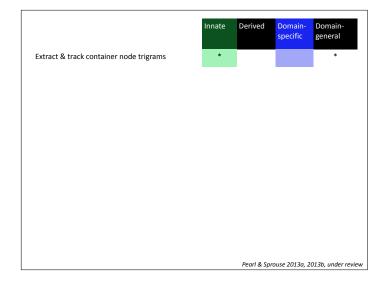
	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Attend to container nodes & subcategorize by CP	?	?	*	
Identifying container nodes - applies to language data: domain-sper - derived from ability to parse utterance		•		-
		Pearl & S	prouse 2013a	, 2013b, under review

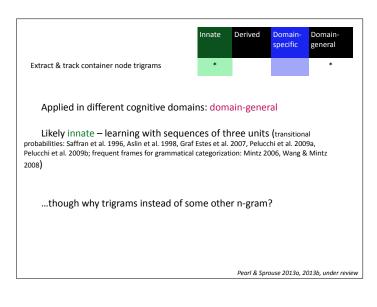
	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Attend to container nodes & subcategorize by CP	?	?	*	
Identifying container nodes				
- applies to language data: domain-spe	cific			
- derived from ability to parse utterand	es			
 applies to language data: domain-spe innate vs. derived? could be specified innately (like becould be derived from a bias to under the derived from a bias to u	oounding		s that are	already

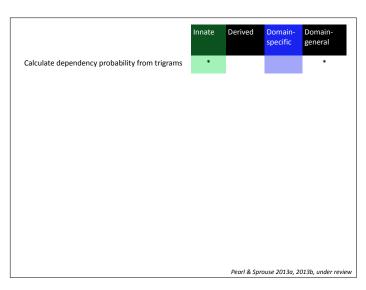


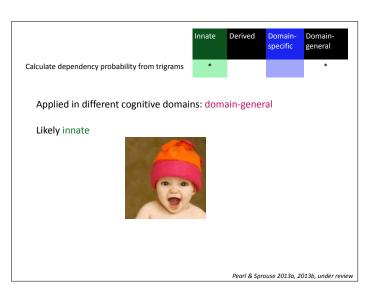


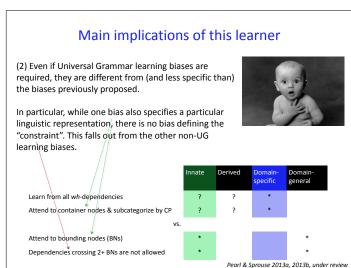
	Innate	Derived	Domain- specific	Domain- general
Attend to container nodes & subcategorize by CP	?	?	*	
About a linguistic representation: do	omain-s	pecific		
Innate vs. derived? • Could be specified innately • Could be derived from prior lingu	istic exp	erience:		
 Uncontroversial to assume ch types of CPs since the lexical or consequences for the semantic 	ontent c	f CPs has	U	
 Also, adult speakers are sens versus null complementizers (J 			ution of <i>tl</i>	nat
but still have to know this is the r	ight thir	ng to subca	ategorize.	
		Pearl & S _l	orouse 2013a,	2013b, under rev











Why learning from container node trigrams works

For each island-spanning dependency, there is at least one extremely low probability container node trigram in the dependency.

Complex NP island start-IP-VP-NP-CP_{that}-IP-VP-end Subject island start-IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-NP-PP-end

Whether island start-IP-VP-CP_{whether}-IP-VP-end

Adjunct island start-IP-VP-CP_{if}-IP-VP-end

These trigrams are never observed in the input – which is crucially different than being observed rarely. Thus, these islands are worse than dependencies involving trigrams that are rarely seen (e.g., dependencies with $\mathsf{CP}_{\mathsf{that}}$) and even longer dependencies that involve more frequenct trigrams (e.g., triply embedded object dependencies using $\mathsf{CP}_{\mathsf{null}}$).

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

The empirical necessity of trigrams

Not unigrams

A unigram model will successfully learn Whether and Adjunct islands, as there are container nodes in these dependencies that never appear in grammatical dependencies (CP_{whether} and CP_{if})....but it will fail to learn Complex NP and Subject islands, as all of the container nodes in these islands are shared with grammatical dependencies.

Complex NP: Subject:

*IP-VP-NP-CP_{that}-IP-VP *IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-NP-PP

Whether:

IP-VP-CP_{whether}-IP-VP

Adjunct:

IP-VP-CP_{if}-IP-VP

The empirical necessity of trigrams

Not bigrams

At least for Subject islands, there is no bigram that occurs in a Subject island violation but not in any grammatical dependencies. The most likely candidate for such a bigram is IP-NP...However, sentences such as What, again, about Jack impresses you? or What did you say about the movie scared you? suggest that a gap can arise inside of NPs, as long as the extraction is of the head noun (what), not of the noun complement of the preposition.

 Complex NP:
 IP-VP-NP-CP_{that}-IP-VP

 Subject:
 *IP-VP-CP_{null}-IP-NP-PP

 Whether:
 IP-VP-CP_{whether}-IP-VP

 Adjunct:
 IP-VP-CP_{ij}-IP-VP

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Parasitic gaps

The learner can't handle parasitic gaps, which are dependencies that span an island (and so should be ungrammatical) but which are somehow rescued by another dependency in the utterance.

*Which book did you laugh [before reading __]?
Which book did you judge __true [before reading __parasitic]?

Adjunct island

*What did [the attempt to repair __] ultimately damage the car?
What did [the attempt to repair __parasitic] ultimately damage __true?

Complex NP island

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Parasitic gaps

Why not? The current learner would judge the parasitic gap as ungrammatical since it is inside an island, irrespective of what other dependencies are in the utterance.

*Which book did you laugh [before reading __]?
Which book did you judge __true [before reading __parasitic]?

*What did [the attempt to repair ___ | ultimately damage the car?
What did [the attempt to repair ____parasitic] ultimately damage ____true?

Complex NP island

This may be able to be addressed in a learner that is able to combine information from multiple dependencies in an utterance (perhaps because the learner has observed multiple dependencies resolved in utterances in the input).

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Across-the-board constructions

A similar problem occurs for across-the-board constructions.

Which book did you [[read __] and [then review __]]? dependency for both gaps: IP-VP-VP

*Which book did you [[read the paper] and [then review __]]? dependency for gap: IP-VP-VP

*Which book did you [[read __] and [then review the paper]]? dependency for gap: IP-VP-VP

Again, this may be able to be addressed in a learner that is able to combine information from multiple dependencies in an utterance (perhaps because the learner has observed multiple dependencies resolved in utterances in the input).

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Some cross-linguistic issues

High probability trigrams that may be ungrammatical

Rizzi (1982): reports situations in Italian where simply doubling a grammatical sequence of trigrams leads to ungrammaticality...

but
*|P-VP-CP_{wh}-IP-VP-CP_{wh}-IP-VP-IP-VP

But these involve the same trigrams, so the learner in Pearl & Sprouse (forthcoming) will treat both the same (either grammatical or ungrammatical). If humans do have different judgments of these, then this cannot be accounted for by this learning algorithm.

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Complementizer that

That-trace effects

*Who do you think that __ read the book? Who do you think __ read the book?

The current learning strategy captures this distinction.

Complementizer that

That-trace effects

...but the current learning strategy will also generate a preference for object gaps without *that* compared to object gaps with *that*. (object *that*-trace effect)

What do you think that he read __ ? [prefers this one] What do you think he read _ ?

Interestingly, Cowart 1997 finds an object *that-trace* effect, but it is much smaller than the subject *that-trace* effect

The model generates an asymmetrical dispreference when using adult-directed corpora, which contain more instances of *that* (5.40 versus 2.81). This could be taken to be a developmental prediction of the current algorithm: Children may disprefer object gaps in embedded *that-CP* clauses more than adults, and this dispreference will weaken as they are exposed to additional tokens of *that* in utterances containing dependencies.

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Now what?

This learning strategy for *wh*-dependencies makes some developmental predictions – can we verify these experimentally?

"that-trace" effect prediction:

Children initially disprefer all dependencies containing that, even ones adults allow

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Now what?

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Children initially disprefer all dependencies containing that, even ones adults allow

Subject extraction

*Who do you think *that* __ read the book?
Who do you think __ read the book?



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Now what?

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"that-trace" effect prediction:

Children initially disprefer all dependencies containing that, even ones adults allow

Subject extraction

*Who do you think *that* __ read the book? Who do you think __ read the book?



Object extraction

What do you think *that* he read ___ ? What do you think he read __ ?



Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Now what?

How does this learning strategy for *wh*-dependencies measure up cross-linguistically?

Island effects varv.

Ex: Italian does not have a subject island effect when the wh-dependency is part of a relative clause, though it does when the wh-dependency is part of a question. (Sprouse et al. submitted)

Would the input naturally lead our kind of learner to this distinction?



Now what?

Can we extend this learning strategy to create an integrated theory of syntactic acquisition?

Related phenomena: The distribution of gaps

Parasitic gaps: Dependencies that span an island (and so should be ungrammatical) but which are somehow rescued by another dependency in the utterance.

*Which book did you laugh [before reading ___]? Adjunct island Which book did you judge ___true [before reading ___oarasitc]?

Now what?

Can we extend this learning strategy to create an integrated theory of syntactic acquisition?

Related phenomena: The distribution of gaps

Across-the-board (ATB) extraction: Similar situation.

Which book did you [[read __] and [then review __]]? Coordinate structure island dependency for both gaps: IP-VP-VP

*Which book did you [[read the paper] and [then review __]]? dependency for gap: IP-VP-VP

*Which book did you [[read __] and [then review the paper]]? dependency for gap: IP-VP-VP

Pearl & Sprouse 2013a

Now what?

Can we extend this learning strategy to create an integrated theory of syntactic acquisition?

Semi-related phenomena: Binding dependencies

There don't appear to be the same restrictions on binding dependencies that there are on wh-dependencies.

The boy thought the joke about himself was really funny.

*Who did the boy think [the joke about ___] was really funny? Subject island

