

Speakers apply morphological dependencies in  
the inflection of novel forms

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## Introduction

Theories of morphology must account for stems inflecting in *different*, often *arbitrary* ways

- irregulars: English plural *oxen*, *sheep*, *syllabi*
  - inflection classes: Russian nouns in class I–IV

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Arbitrary inflection of lexical items must be somehow *grammatically marked*

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Hungarian wug test explores one aspect of arbitrary inflection:  
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  - Gouskova et al. (2015): Russian masculine nouns ending in consonant clusters form diminutives with -ik, not -ok or  $t\beta'ik$
- Correlations between inflected forms can be handled using the same grammatical tools

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- Syncretism: identity between realizations of different morphosyntactic features (e.g. Müller, 2004; Kramer, 2016; Caha, 2021)
  - Grammar induces identity, e.g. through shared structure, underspecification, impoverishment
  - Ex: Russian agreement doesn't show gender distinctions in the plural → rule deletes gender features in the context of PL

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  - Grammar induces identity, e.g. through shared structure, underspecification, impoverishment
  - Ex: Russian agreement doesn't show gender distinctions in the plural → rule deletes gender features in the context of PL
- Inflection class: lexical items “whose members each select for the same set of inflectional realizations” (Aronoff, 1994: 64)
  - Often assumed as discrete units of analysis, e.g. Russian “class I” (Corbett and Fraser, 1993; Müller, 2004; Caha, 2021)
  - These “macroclasses” often hide overlaps and complexities in inflectional patterns (Cameron-Faulkner and Carstairs-McCarthy, 2000; Finkel and Stump, 2007; Ackerman et al., 2009; Ackerman and Malouf, 2013; Bonami and Beniamine, 2016; Parker and Sims, 2020)

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- Not a new insight (see Wurzel, 1989), but rarely discussed in generative work (rare exception: Halle and Marantz (2008))
- Well-established in lexicon (e.g. Ackerman et al., 2009; Ackerman and Malouf, 2013), but rarely if ever tested experimentally (rare exception: Bybee and Moder (1983))
- Theoretical work done by “inflection classes” can be shifted from hard-coded grammar to gradient pattern generalization

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These patterns can be learned as *phonotactics*

# Outline

- 1 Background: morphological features and inflection class
- 2 Experiment: Hungarian possessive and plural
- 3 Discussion

# Morphological arbitrariness

- Arbitrary inflection of exceptional lexical items must be *grammatically marked*
- One common approach: *morphological features* (e.g. Lieber, 1980; Corbett and Baerman, 2006) that are attached as *diacritics* to lexical entries

# Morphological arbitrariness

- Arbitrary inflection of exceptional lexical items must be *grammatically marked*
- One common approach: *morphological features* (e.g. Lieber, 1980; Corbett and Baerman, 2006) that are attached as *diacritics* to lexical entries
- Common subtype: *inflection class features*, which group together lexical items “whose members each select for the same set of inflectional realizations” (Aronoff, 1994: 64)

# Inflection class features: the case of Russian

Russian feminine nouns: class II and III (Corbett and Baerman, 2006)

<i>class</i> <i>example</i>	II 'newspaper'	III 'bone'
nominative	gazet-a	kost <sup>j</sup>
dative	gazet-e	kost <sup>j</sup> -i
instrumental	gazet-oj	kost <sup>j</sup> -ju

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# Feature-based analysis of Russian

The features II and III are each referenced in *multiple* (DM-style) *vocabulary insertion rules* (see Halle and Marantz, 1993; Müller, 2004; Embick and Marantz, 2008)

## (I) *Vocabulary insertion rules for Russian cases*

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|-------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| a. NOM $\leftrightarrow$ a / II __  | d. NOM $\leftrightarrow$ Ø / III __  |
| b. DAT $\leftrightarrow$ e / II __  | e. DAT $\leftrightarrow$ i / III __  |
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## (2) *Lexical entries for Russian nouns*

- a. II: /gazet<sub>II</sub>/ ‘newspaper’, /tʃert<sub>II</sub>/ ‘characteristic’, /dol<sup>j</sup><sub>II</sub>/ ‘portion’, ...
- b. III: /kost<sup>j</sup><sub>III</sub>/ ‘bone’, /tetrad<sup>j</sup><sub>III</sub>/ ‘notebook’, /ploč:ad<sup>j</sup><sub>III</sub>/ ‘square’, ...

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- Rule (7f) → instrumental [ju]

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- Rule (7f) → instrumental [ju]

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The structure of the grammar, with features used in multiple rules, facilitates inference of new forms!

# Narrowly tailored features: the case of Hungarian

Russian feminine nouns: class II and III (Corbett and Baerman, 2006)

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Hungarian plural (-ok/-ɒk) and possessive (-ɒ/-jɒ): all four possible combinations (Rácz and Rebrus, 2012)

	<i>"lowering stems"</i>			
<i>noun</i>	dɒl	tʃɒnt	va:l:	hold
<i>gloss</i>	'song'	'bone'	'shoulder'	'moon'
plural	dɒl-ɒk	tʃɒnt-ɒk	va:l:-ɒk	hold-ɒk
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# Feature-based analysis of Hungarian

Features for the possessive ( $[\pm j]$ ) and plural ( $[lower]$ ) are each referenced in *one rule* (see Siptár and Törkenczy (2000) for an alternate analysis)

- (5) *Vocabulary insertion rules for Hungarian plural and possessive*
- a.  $PL \leftrightarrow \text{ok} / [lower] \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
  - b.  $PL \leftrightarrow \text{ok}$
  - c.  $POSS \leftrightarrow \text{jp} / [+j] \underline{\hspace{2cm}}$
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(5d) POSS ↔ p / [-j] \_\_

Unlike in Russian, the structure of the grammar, with each feature used in a single rule, **does not** facilitate inference of new forms.

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Results:

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Stimulus presented twice in frame sentence

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- bare: luf $\ddot{\text{o}}$ n
- plural: luf $\ddot{\text{o}}$ nok (regular stem)

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Participants see another frame sentence, select possessive from drop-down menu

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- [ lufon**d** / lufon**jp** ]

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- bare: lufon
- plural: lufonok (**regular stem**)

Participants see another frame sentence, select possessive from drop-down menu

- [ lufon**n** / lufon**j** ]

# Task

Stimulus presented twice in frame sentence

- bare: lufon
- plural: lufon**ok** (**lowering stem**)

Participants see another frame sentence, select possessive from drop-down menu

- [ lufon**D** / lufon**jp** ]

# Stats

- 90 participants
- 35–50 trials per participant
- ...of which 8–12 lowering stem trials
- 81 stimuli (57 target, 24 filler)
- 2,398 total target trials

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Then: predict experimental results from phonological model

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- final C manner + final C place + harmony class + final V height + final V length + final coda complexity + word length

Then: predict experimental results from phonological model

- Given nonce word phonology and participant, predicts odds of **-jp**
- (I | participant) + *phon\_odds*

# Phonological frequency matching

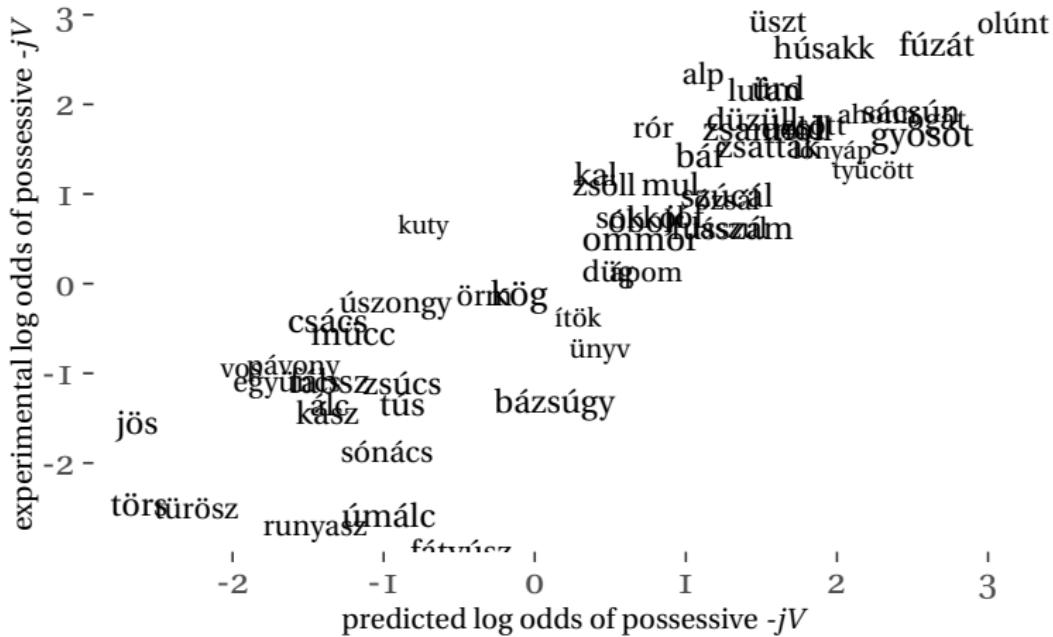
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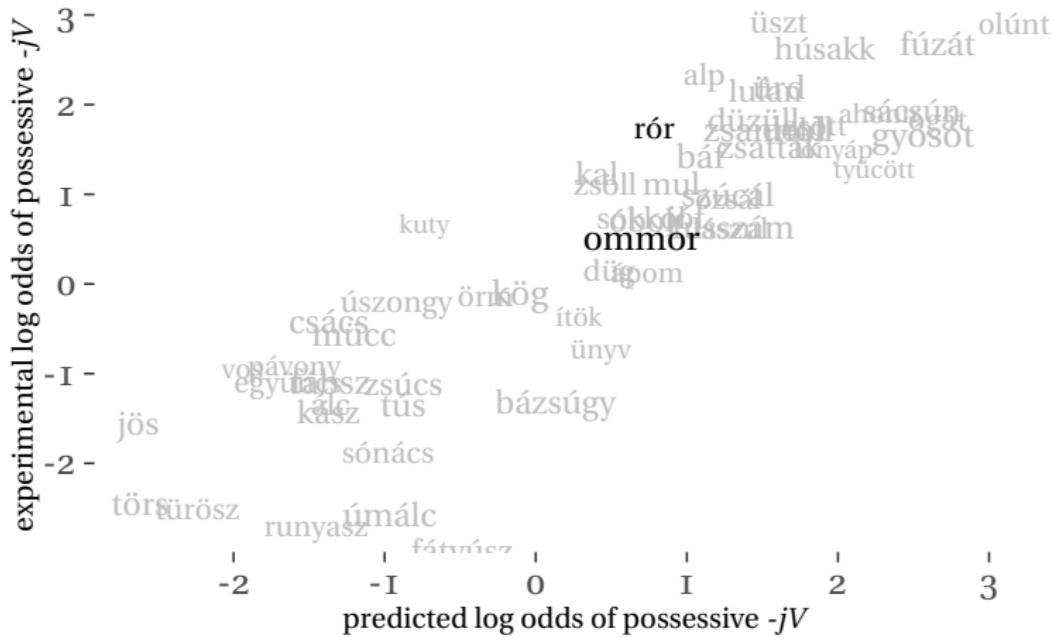
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## Results: phonological frequency matching



Baseline: the phonological model predicts experimental rate of possessives for *individual nonce words* quite well

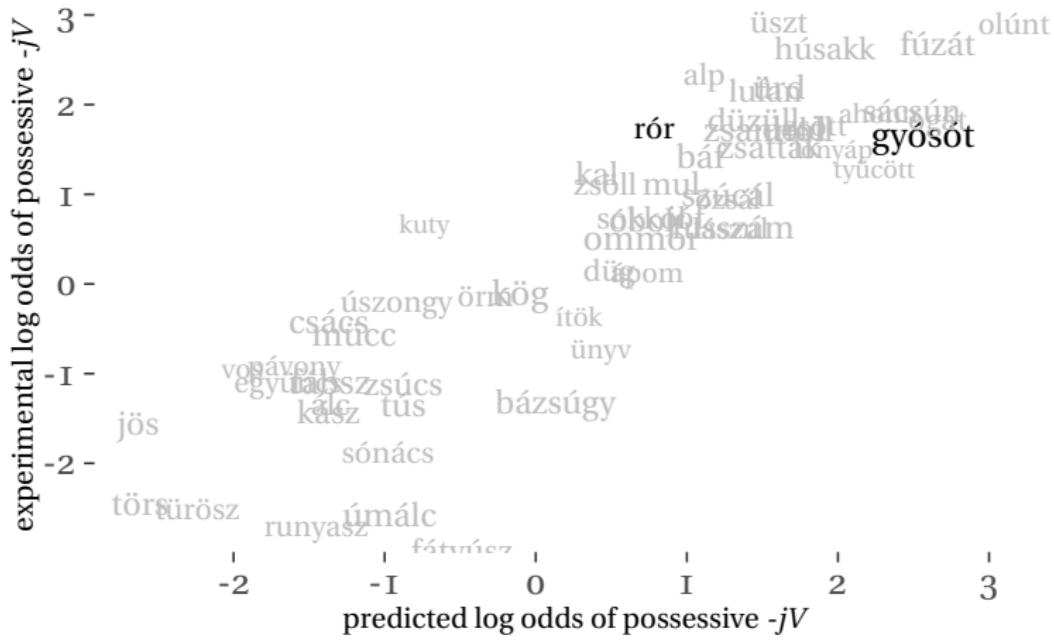
# Results: phonological frequency matching



predicted: ro:rjp = om:orjp

actual: ro:rjp > om:orjp

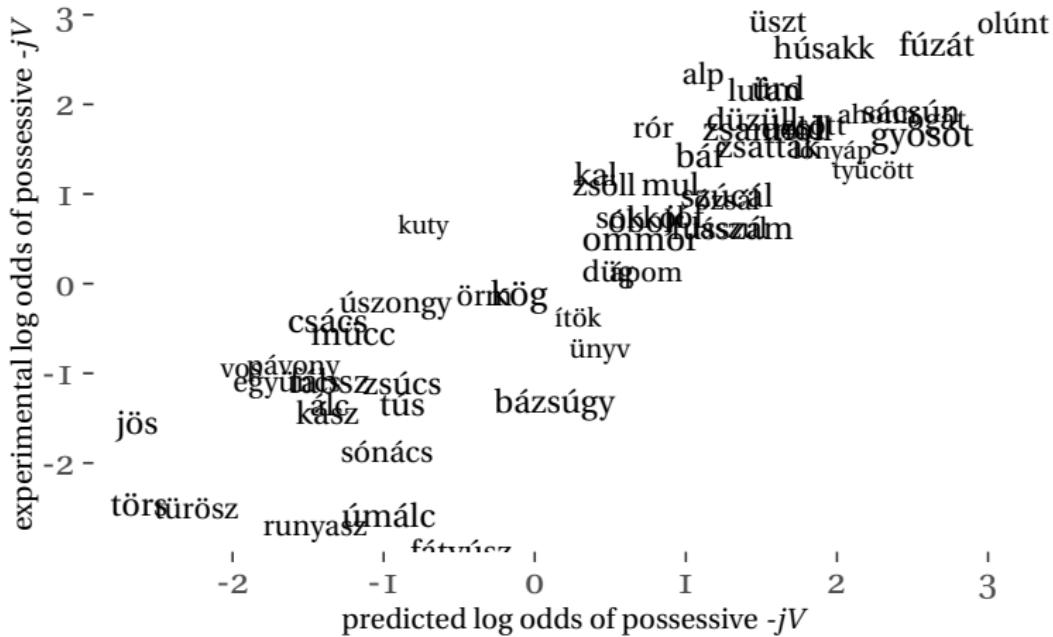
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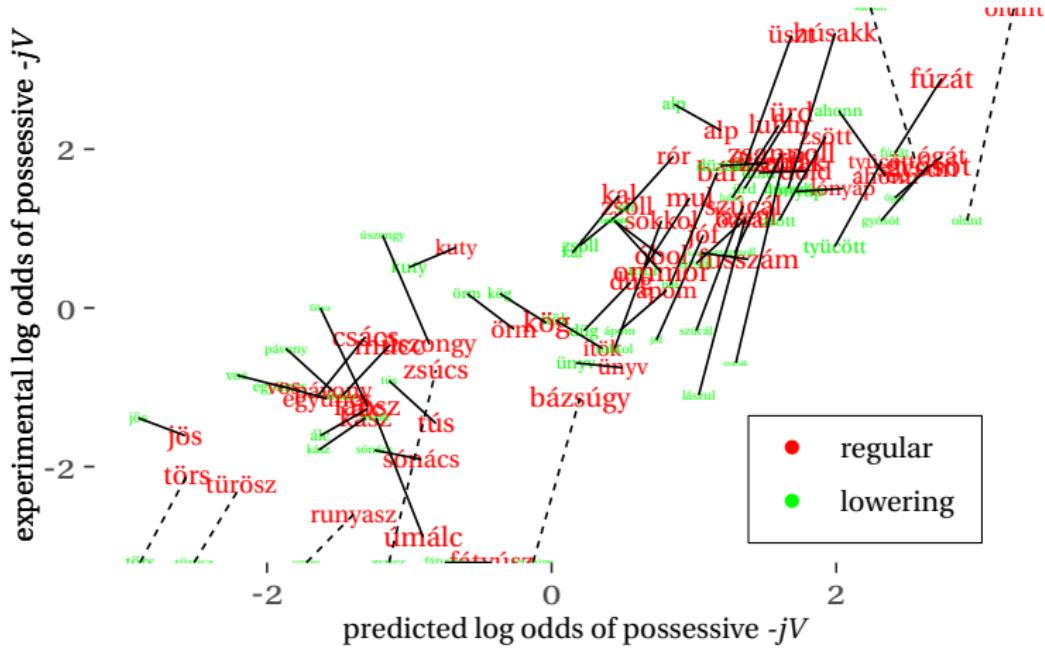
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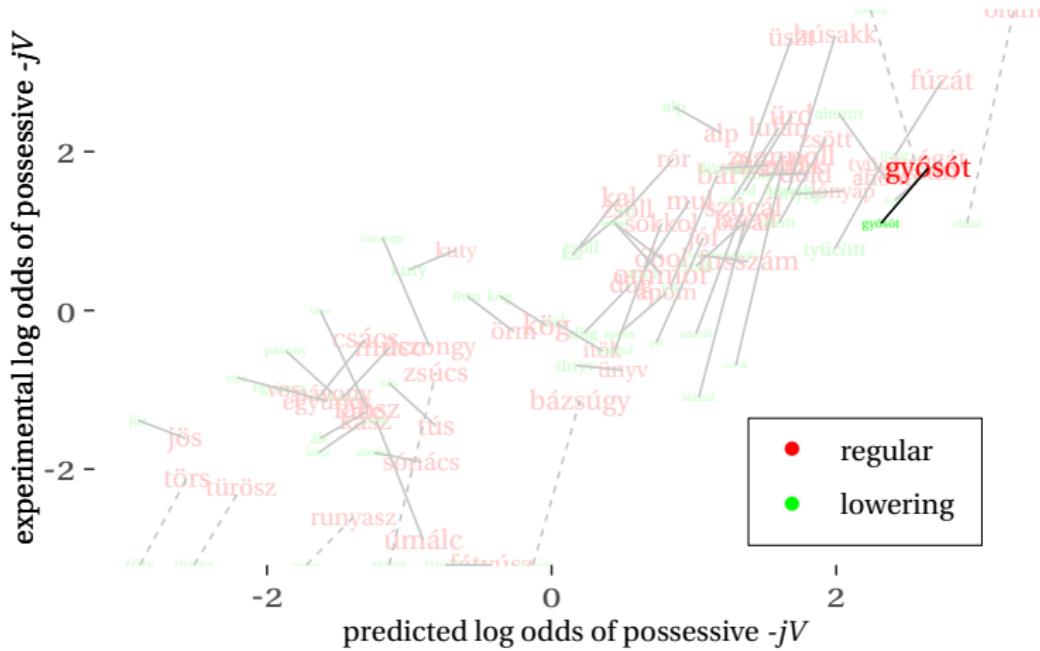
- Given nonce word phonology **and plural** and participant, predicts odds of **-jp**
- $(I \mid \text{participant}) + \text{phon\_odds} + \text{plural}$

## Results: sensitivity to morphology



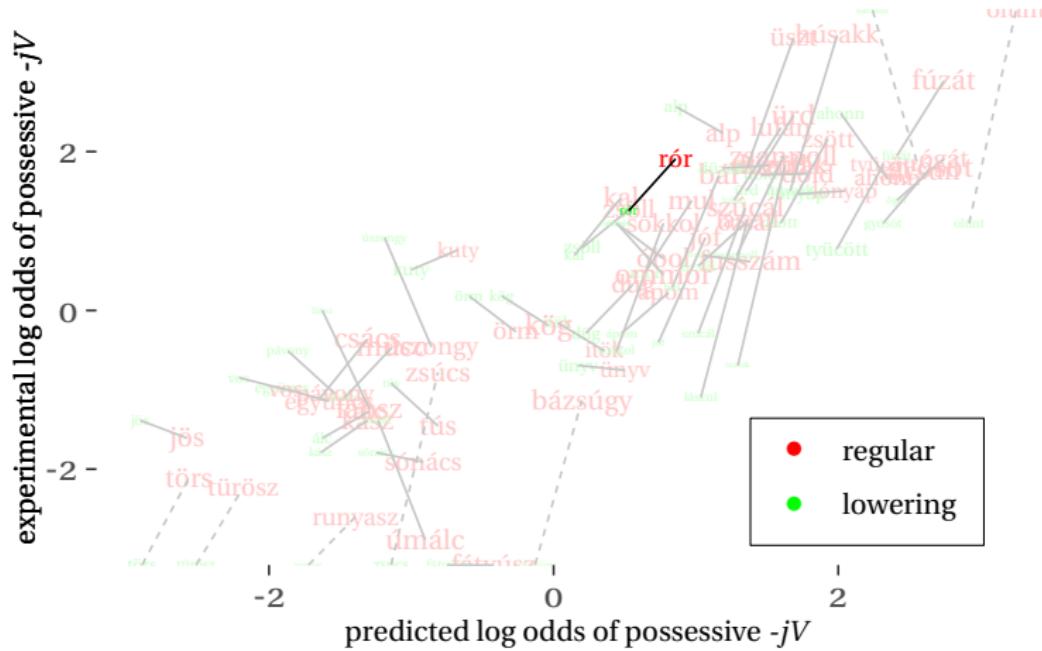
Target condition: most nonce words had a *lower* rate of -jp when presented as **lowering stems**

## Results: sensitivity to morphology



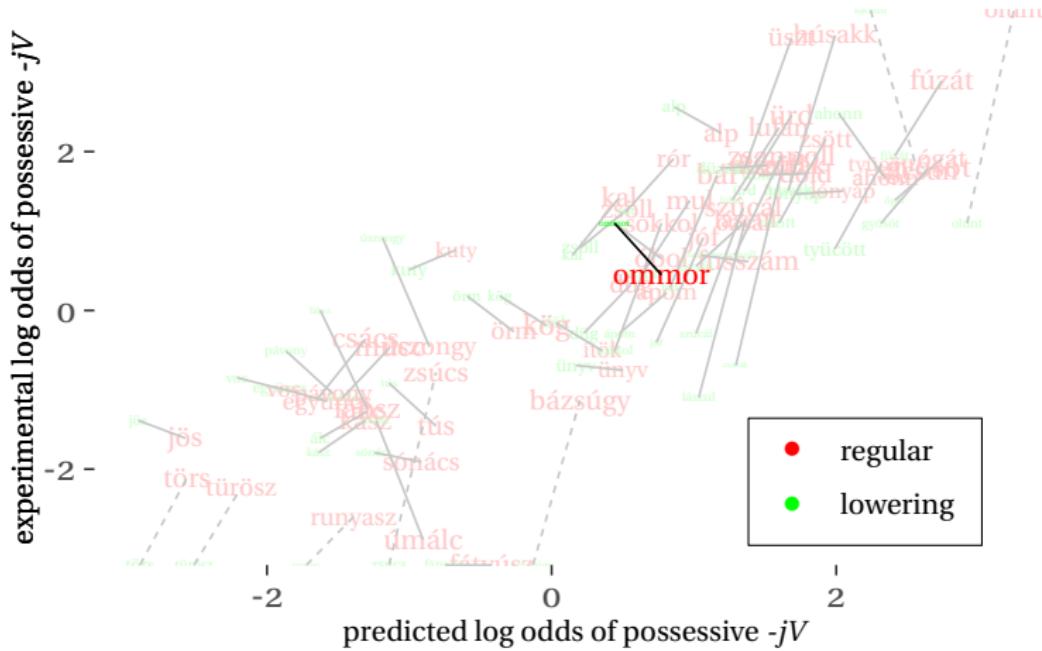
predicted: *jo:so:t~~ok~~*, *jo:so:t~~jp~~* > *jo:so:t~~ok~~*, *jo:so:t~~jp~~*  
actual:      *jo:so:t~~ok~~*, *jo:so:t~~jp~~* > *jo:so:t~~ok~~*, *jo:so:t~~jp~~*

# Results: sensitivity to morphology



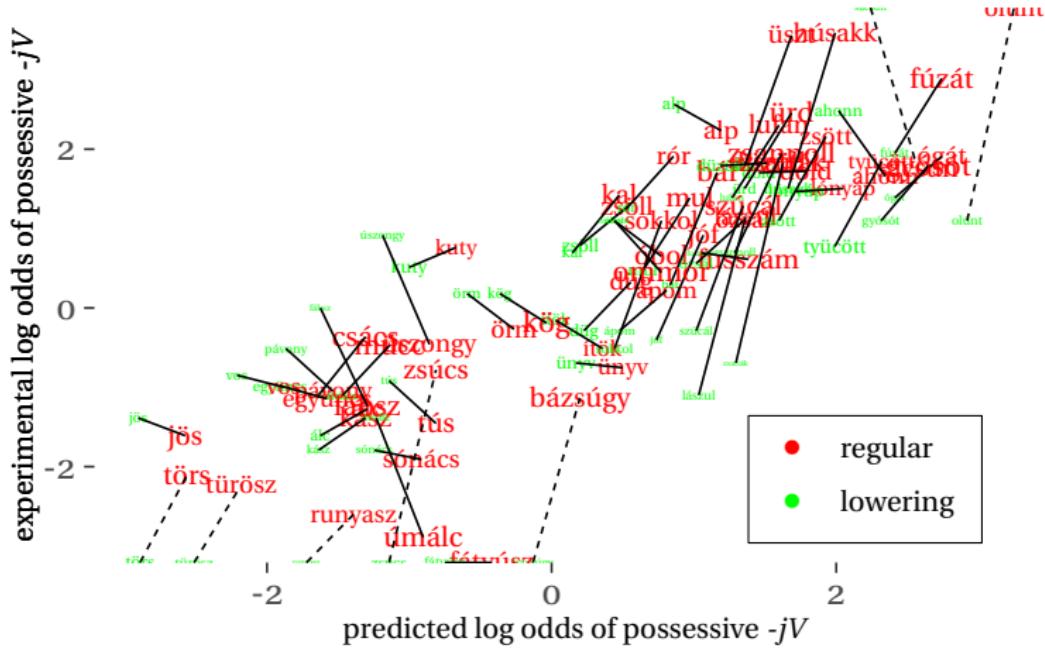
predicted: ro:rok, ro:rjɒ > ro:rɒk, ro:rjɒ  
actual: ro:rok, ro:rjɒ > ro:rɒk, ro:rjɒ

## Results: sensitivity to morphology



predicted: om:orok, om:orjp > om:ordk, om:orjp  
actual: om:orok, om:orjp < om:ordk, om:orjp

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- ...Taking this into account, they also assigned **-p** more to nonce words with plural **-pk**

# Outline

- 1 Background: morphological features and inflection class
- 2 Experiment: Hungarian possessive and plural
- 3 Discussion

# Interpretation of results

Rácz and Rebrus (2012) and others: -**jp** is the productive default for most words

- recent loans and neologisms take -**jp**
- ... unless they end in palatals and sibilants, in which case, they take -**d**

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No obvious explanation for difference, but ...

- clear that speakers have and can apply generalizations over the distribution of -jb and -d in the lexicon
- these generalizations are both *phonological* and *morphological*

# Generalizations and productivity

Existing formal models for productively learning phonological generalizations (e.g. Albright and Hayes, 2003; Hayes et al., 2009; Gouskova et al., 2015)

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  - Hungarian nouns ending in sibilants always take **-d** ( $[-j]$ )
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- if inflectional patterns are marked with lexical diacritic features, weighted constraints can handle morphological dependencies as well
  - Hungarian nouns with plural **-ɒɒk** ( $[lower]$ ) usually take **-ɒ** ( $[-j]$ )
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<i>constraint weight</i>	*[+strident]#	*[lower]	total
rupsos <sub>[lower]</sub>	5	I	-6
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rupsos <sub>[lower]</sub>	5	-1	-6
fu:za:t <sub>[lower]</sub>	0	-1	-1

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- $P(/rupsos_{[lower, \text{[+j]}}/) = \frac{e^{H(\text{[+j]})}}{e^{H(\text{[+j]})} + e^{H(\text{[-j]})}} = \frac{e^{-6}}{e^{-6} + e^0} = .002 = 0.2\%$
- $P(/fu:za:t_{[lower, \text{[+j]}}/) = \frac{e^{H(\text{[+j]})}}{e^{H(\text{[+j]})} + e^{H(\text{[-j]})}} = \frac{e^{-1}}{e^{-1} + e^0} = .269 = 26.9\%$

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- *morphological dependencies*: since morphological features like [+j] and [lower] are present in underlying forms, they can also define good and bad words for a different lexical class

Phonological and morphological effects are evaluated together, in a single analysis

We can handle morphological dependencies using independently necessary general phonological mechanisms

# Do we need inflection class features at all?

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(5) *Vocabulary insertion rules for Hungarian plural and possessive*

- a. PL  $\leftrightarrow$  **vk** / [lower] \_\_
- b. PL  $\leftrightarrow$  **ok**
- c. POSS  $\leftrightarrow$  **jp** / [+j] \_\_
- d. POSS  $\leftrightarrow$  **p** / [-j] \_\_

(I) *Vocabulary insertion rules for Russian cases*

- a. NOM  $\leftrightarrow$  **a** / II \_\_
- b. DAT  $\leftrightarrow$  **e** / II \_\_
- c. INS  $\leftrightarrow$  **oj** / II \_\_
- d. NOM  $\leftrightarrow$  **Ø** / III \_\_
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Ackerman et al. (2009); Baerman et al. (2017) and others: Russian and Hungarian differ in *degree* of cohesion, not kind  
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(indeed, actual Russian inflection is messier than the oversimplified four-class analysis (Parker and Sims, 2020))

- We need separate generalizations to capture Hungarian morphological dependency between **-vk** and **-ɒ**
- Maybe Russian-style “inflection classes” are just very strong morphological generalizations

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Alternate Russian analysis

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### (I') *Vocabulary insertion rules for Russian cases*

- |   |   |
|---|---|
| a. NOM $\leftrightarrow$ a / [N:a] __   | d. NOM $\leftrightarrow$ Ø / [N:Ø] __   |
| b. DAT $\leftrightarrow$ e / [D:e] __   | e. DAT $\leftrightarrow$ i / [D:i] __   |
| c. INS $\leftrightarrow$ oj / [I:oj] __ | f. INS $\leftrightarrow$ ju / [I:ju] __ |

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### (2') *Lexical entries for Russian nouns*

- |   |
|---|
| a. II: /gazet <sub>[N:a,D:e,I:oj]</sub> / ‘newspaper’, /tſert <sub>[N:a,D:e,I:oj]</sub> / ‘characteristic’, /dol <sup>j</sup> <sub>[N:a,D:e,I:oj]</sub> / ‘portion’, ...        |
| b. III: /kost <sup>j</sup> <sub>[N:Ø,D:i,I:ju]</sub> / ‘bone’, /tetradj <sub>[N:Ø,D:i,I:ju]</sub> / ‘notebook’, /ploč:ad <sup>j</sup> <sub>[N:Ø,D:i,I:ju]</sub> / ‘square’, ... |

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### (8) *Heavily weighted constraints for sublexicons*

- |                             |                             |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| a. for [N:a] nouns: *[D:i]  | c. for [N:Ø] nouns: *[D:e]  |
| b. for [N:a] nouns: *[I:ju] | d. for [N:Ø] nouns: *[I:oj] |

...

...

# Summary

- Hungarian speakers productively apply correlations between inflected forms in the lexicon
- These cases are not well-suited for an “inflection class” analysis
- We need a way to account for gradient correlations between narrowly targeted inflectional features
- Gradient constraint-based phonotactic models can be easily extended to do this
- Inflection classes can be recast as *emergent* clusters of strong correlations between narrowly targeted features

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# Full procedure

Sample trial (regular plural)

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In 1997, the **lufnøn** entered into the competition for flowery **lufnønok** for the first time.

*Please select the word's plural form: [ lufnønøk / lufnønøk / lufnønøk / lufnønok ]*

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In 1997, the **lufn** entered into the competition for flowery  
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*Please select the word's plural form: [ lufnøk / lufnok / lufnɛk  
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*That's correct! Now select the word in the appropriately inflected form according to you.*

My [ lufnønm / lufnønem / lufnønom / lufnønom ] couldn't sing well, however my husband's [ lufnøne / lufnønjε / lufnønɒ / lufnønjɒ ] sang brilliantly.

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*Please select the word's plural form: [ lufnønøk / lufnønøk / lufnønøk / **lufnønok** ]*

*That's correct! Now select the word in the appropriately inflected form according to you.*

My [ lufnønøm / lufnønøm / lufnønøm / **lufnønøm** ] couldn't sing well, however my husband's [ lufnønø / lufnønø / **lufnønø** / **lufnønø** ] sang brilliantly.

# Full procedure

Sample trial (lowering stem)

In 1997, the **lufon** entered into the competition for flowery **lufonok** for the first time.

*Please select the word's plural form: [ lufonøk / **lufonok** / lufonæk / lufonok ]*

*That's correct! Now select the word in the appropriately inflected form according to you.*

My [ **lufonøm** / lufonem / lufonøm / lufonom ] couldn't sing well, however my husband's [ lufone / lufonje / **lufonø** / **lufonjo** ] sang brilliantly.

# Phonological model of lexicon

	$\beta$ coef	SE	Wald z	p
<b>Intercept</b>	<b>3.02</b>	.32	<b>9.55</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
C Manner (default: plosive)				
<b>fricative</b>	<b>-1.44</b>	.39	<b>-3.73</b>	<b>.0002</b>
<b>sibilant</b>	<b>-10.69</b>	.80	<b>-13.36</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>nasal</b>	<b>-1.95</b>	.27	<b>-7.16</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>approximant</b>	<b>-4.08</b>	.30	<b>-13.47</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
C Place (default: alveolar)				
<b>labial</b>	<b>-2.02</b>	.26	<b>-7.94</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>palatal</b>	<b>-8.88</b>	1.10	<b>-8.06</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>velar</b>	<b>-3.26</b>	.29	<b>-10.96</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
Harmony (default: back)				
<b>front</b>	<b>-2.03</b>	.18	<b>-10.96</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>variable</b>	<b>2.26</b>	.97	<b>2.33</b>	<b>.0197</b>
V Height (default: mid)				
<b>high</b>	<b>1.73</b>	.22	<b>7.89</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
low	.28	.19	1.50	.1342
V Length (default: short)				
<b>long</b>	<b>1.40</b>	.17	<b>7.98</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
Coda (default: singleton)				
<b>geminate</b>	<b>2.47</b>	.40	<b>6.25</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
cluster	.04	.21	0.18	.8602
Syllables (default: monosyllabic)				
<b>polysyllabic</b>	<b>1.15</b>	.17	<b>6.67</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>

# Phonological model of experimental results

<i>Random effect</i>	<i>variance</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Participant	.55	.74		
<i>Fixed effects</i>	$\beta$ <i>coef</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald z</i>	<i>p</i>
<b>Intercept</b>	<b>.67</b>	<b>.10</b>	<b>7.03</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>
<b>Phon_odds</b>	<b>.34</b>	<b>.01</b>	<b>22.76</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>

# Phonological and morphological model of experimental results

<i>Random effect</i>	<i>variance</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Participant	.54	.74			
<i>Fixed effects</i>	$\beta$ <i>coef</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald z</i>	<i>p</i>	
<b>Intercept</b>	<b>.74</b>	<b>.10</b>	<b>7.48</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>	
<b>Phon_odds</b>	<b>.34</b>	<b>.02</b>	<b>22.77</b>	<b>&lt;.0001</b>	
Plural (default: <b>-ok</b> )					
<b>-dk</b>	<b>-.33</b>	<b>.13</b>	<b>-2.62</b>	<b>.0086</b>	

# Experiment 2: Czech locative and genitive

Czech genitive (-u/-a) and locative (-u/-ε): all four possible combinations (for *masculine inanimate hard-stem nouns*)

<i>noun</i>	proble:m	za:pas	v&etʃer	kost&el
<i>gloss</i>	'problem'	'match'	'evening'	'church'
genitive	proble:m-u	za:pas-u	v&etʃer-a	kost&el-a
locative	proble:m-u	za:pas-ε	v&etʃer-u	kost&el-ε

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locative	proble:m- <b>u</b>	za:pas- <b>&amp;</b>	v&etʃer- <b>u</b>	kost&el- <b>&amp;</b>

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Historically: innovative -u has pushed out original -a and -ɛ in both cases

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Historically: innovative -u has pushed out original -a and -ɛ in both cases

- Today -u is much more common
- Morphological dependency: nouns that take genitive -a also tend to take locative -ɛ

# Background: variation

Most nouns that take genitive **-a** or locative **-ε** do so *variably* (Bermel and Knittl, 2012; Guzmán Naranjo and Bonami, 2021)

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	<i>in</i>	<i>about</i>
<i>bridge</i>	v mosc- <b>ε</b> > o mosc- <b>ε</b>	
	∨	∨
<i>office</i>	v u: <u>raʃ</u> - <b>ε</b> > o u: <u>raʃ</u> - <b>ε</b>	

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	<i>in</i>	<i>about</i>
<i>bridge</i>	v mosc- <b>ε</b>	> o mosc- <b>ε</b>
	∨	∨
<i>office</i>	v u: <u>ra</u> j- <b>ε</b>	> o u: <u>ra</u> j- <b>ε</b>

For variable nouns, a higher rate of genitive **-a** corresponds to a higher rate of locative **-ε**

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Stimulus presented twice in frame sentence

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- bare: cis
- prep + genitive: z cisu ([z] ‘out of’)

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# Stats

- 88 participants
- 50 trials per participant
- ...of which 12 shown with genitive **-a**
- 82 stimuli
- 4,397 total target trials

# Phonological frequency matching

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- Given nonce word phonology, syntactic context, and participant, predicts odds of **-e**
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# Phonological frequency matching

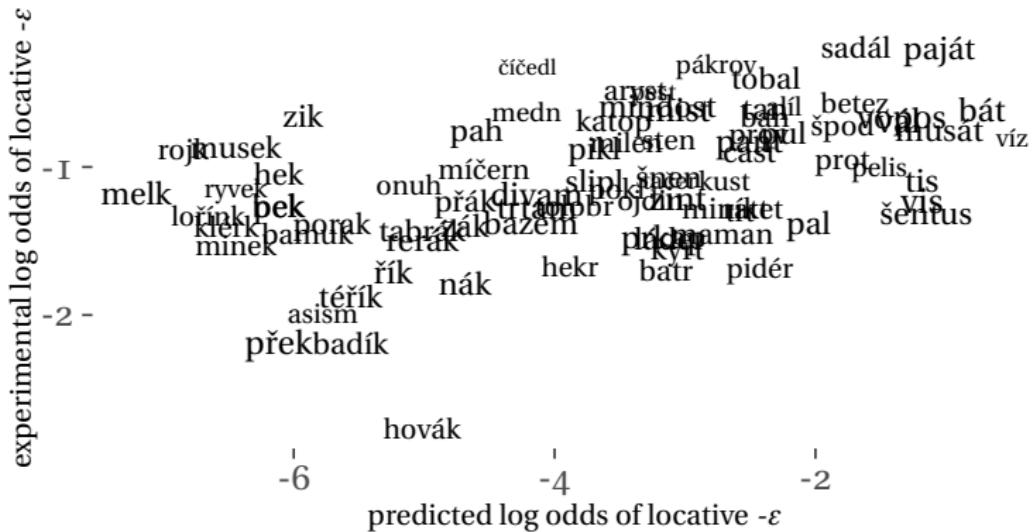
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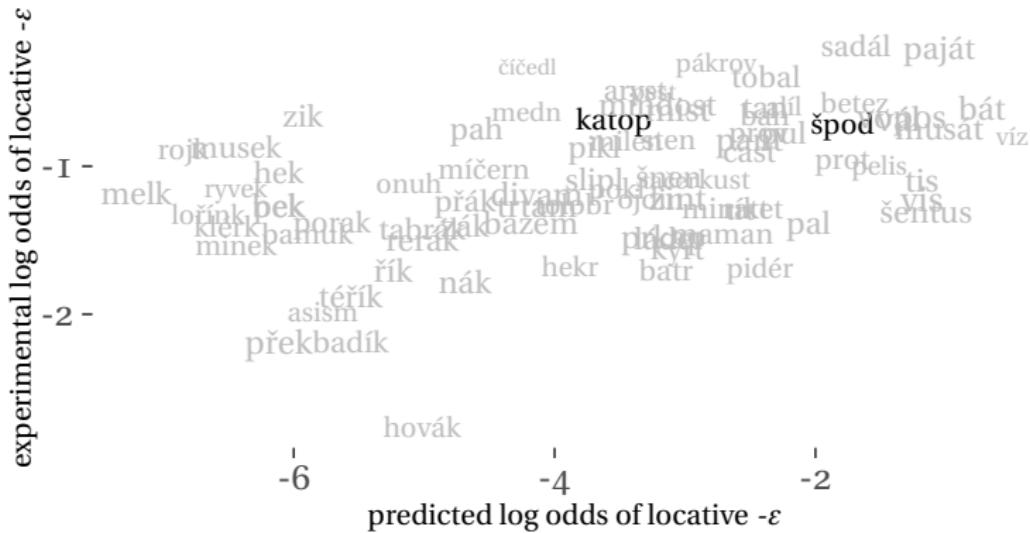
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## Results: phonological frequency matching

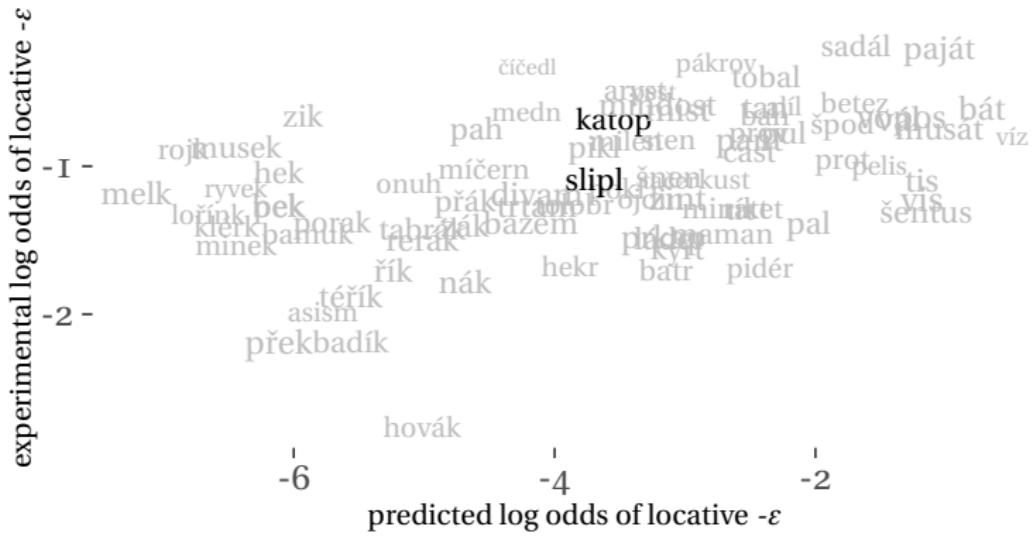


Baseline: the phonological model is slightly predictive of experimental rate of locatives for *individual nonce words*

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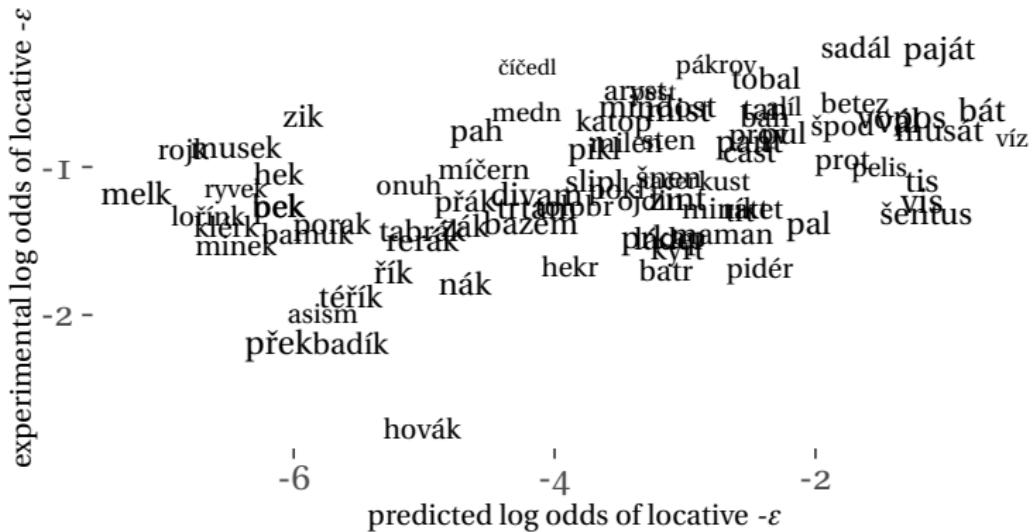


## Results: phonological frequency matching



predicted:  $\text{katopj}\varepsilon = \text{slip}\varepsilon$   
actual:  $\text{katopj}\varepsilon > \text{slip}\varepsilon$

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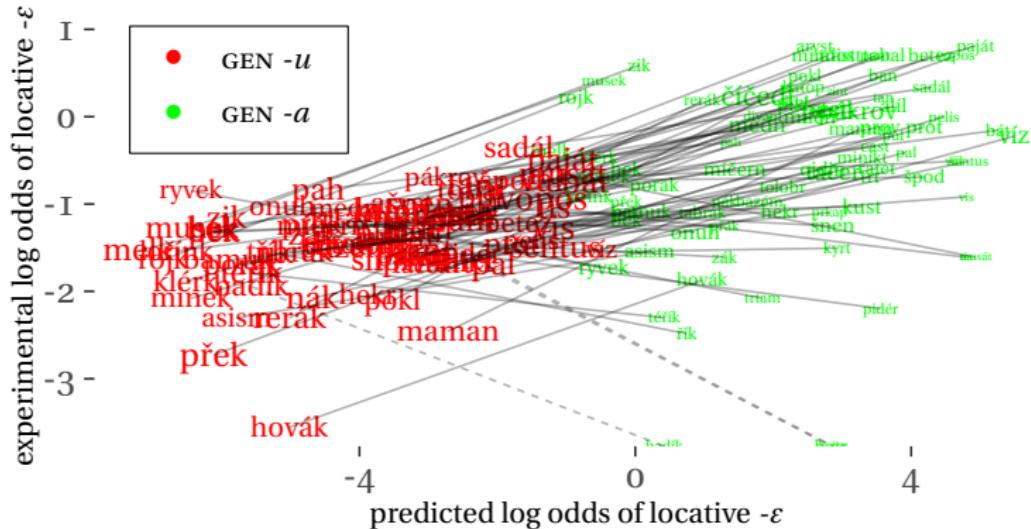
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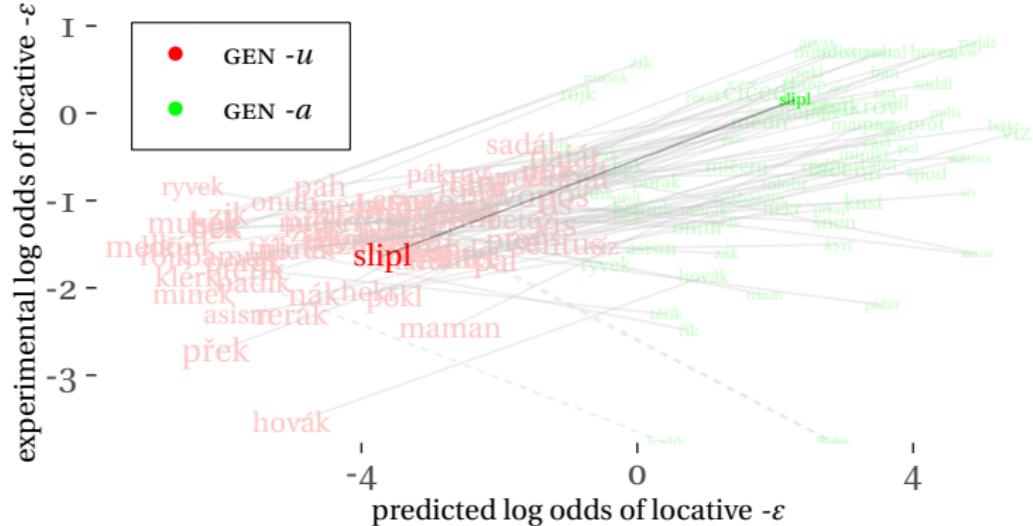
- Given nonce word phonology, syntactic context, **genitive**, and participant, predicts odds of **-ε**
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## Results: sensitivity to morphology



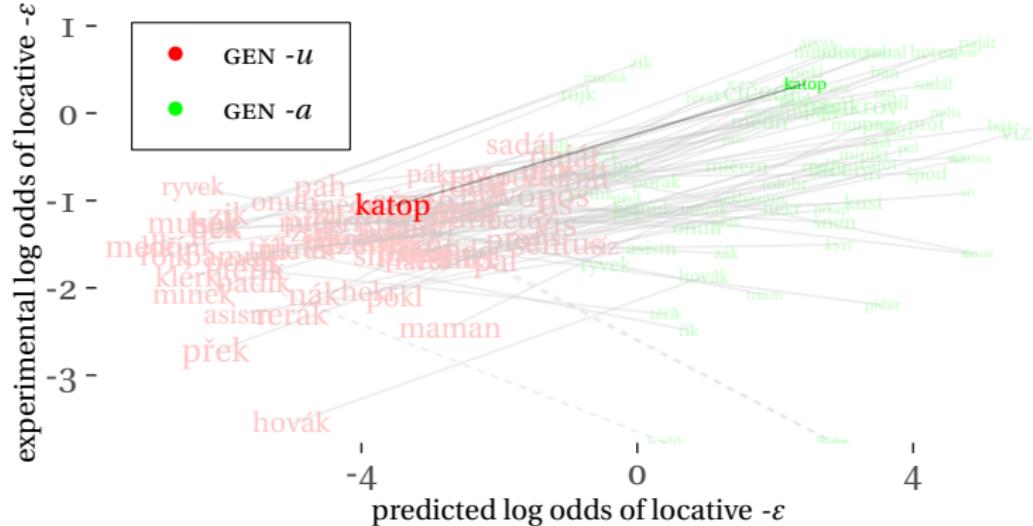
Target condition: most nonce words had a *much higher* rate of -ε when also assigned genitive as -a

# Results: sensitivity to morphology



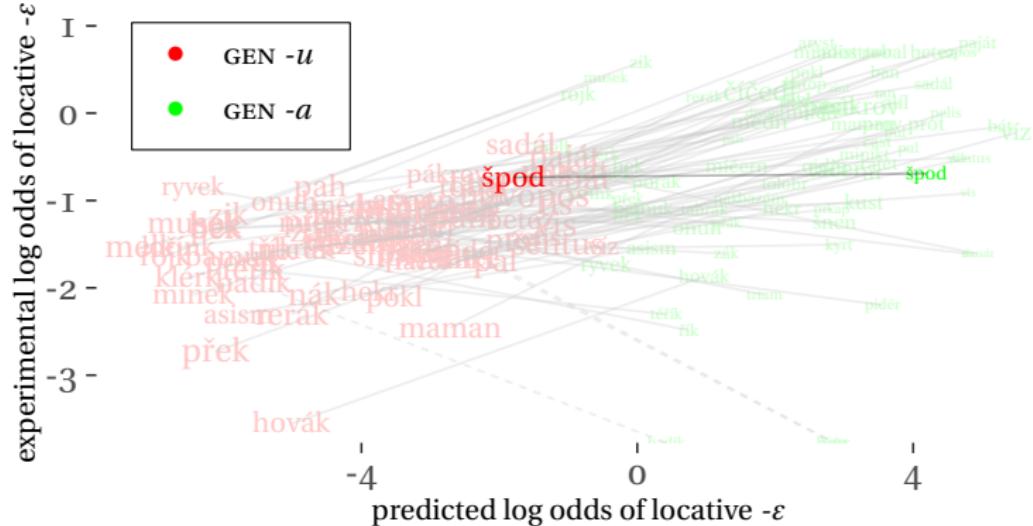
predicted: **sliplu**, **slipl $\epsilon$**  < **slipla**, **slipl $\epsilon$**   
actual:      **sliplu**, **slipl $\epsilon$**  < **slipla**, **slipl $\epsilon$**

# Results: sensitivity to morphology



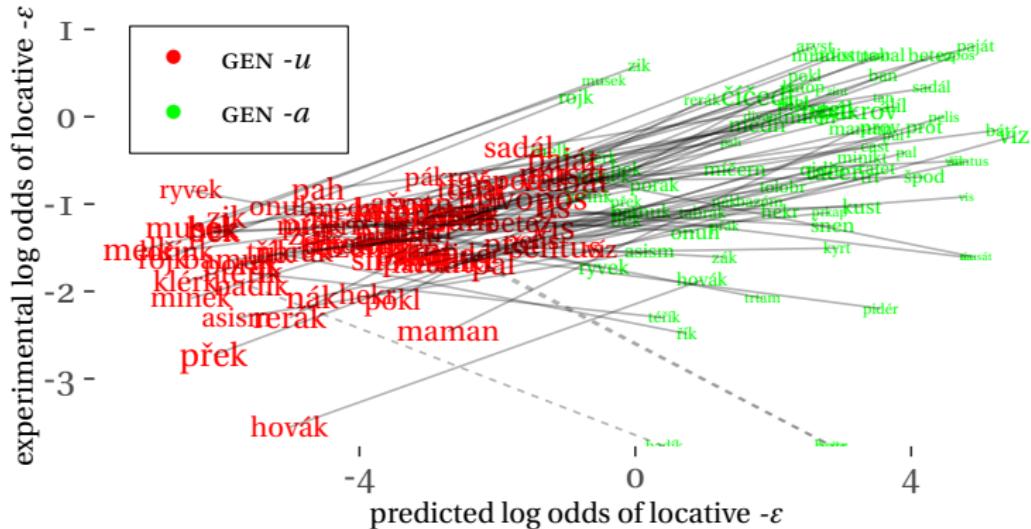
predicted: katopu, katopj $\varepsilon$  < katopa, katopj $\varepsilon$   
actual:    katopu, katopj $\varepsilon$  < katopa, katopj $\varepsilon$

# Results: sensitivity to morphology



predicted: spodu, spo $\varepsilon$  < spoda, spo $\varepsilon$   
actual: spodu, spo $\varepsilon$  = spoda, spo $\varepsilon$

## Results: sensitivity to morphology



Target condition: most nonce words had a *much higher* rate of -ε when also assigned genitive as -a

# Results: summary

- Participants (very loosely) matched the phonological distribution of **-u** and **-ɛ** in the lexicon

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- Not shown: syntactic context (preposition) also closely mirrored the lexicon
- They assigned **-ɛ** much more to nonce words with genitive **-a**