## Gradience at the syntax-phonology interface Evidence from Mandarin and Wenzhounese

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## Roadmap

1. Introduction
2. The syllabicity constraint

- In Mandarin
- In Wenzhounese

3. Theoretical implications for LFG
4. Conclusion

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## 1. Introduction

## Target languages

- Mandarin Chinese (based on previous work)
- Wenzhounese: a southern Wu dialect (my field work)


## Shared properties

- Canonical word order: SVO
- Topic prominence (Li \& Thompson 1976)
- Many words have monosyllabic and disyllabic variants


## 1. Introduction

For example, in Mandarin, - 'to plant' zhong or zhong.zhi - 'tree' shu or shu.mu

Four logically possible combinations for the VP 'to plant trees'

|  | Syllabicity | Verb | Object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. | $2+2$ | zhong.zhi | shu.mu |
| b. | $1+2$ | zhong | shu.mu |
| c. | $1+1$ | zhong | shu |
| d. | $2+1$ | zhong.zhi | shu |

## 1. Introduction

All of them are syntactically well-formed, but (d) is far less acceptable

|  | Syllabicity | Verb | Object |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a. | $2+2$ | zhong.zhi | shu.mu |
| b. | $1+2$ | zhong | shu.mu |
| c. | $1+1$ | zhong | shu |
| d. | $2+1$ | zhong.zhi | shu |

## The syllabicity constraint:

$2+1$ VPs (disyllabic verb + monosyllabic object) are prosodically ill-formed ${ }^{1}$

## 1. Introduction

## Research questions

1. How much less acceptable are $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ in Mandarin?
2. How much less acceptable are $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ in Wenzhounese?
3. Implications for modularity

- Does phonology have (direct) access to syntactic information?
- How should the syllabicity constraint be formalised in LFG?

4. Implications for grammaticality

- Binary or gradient?
- How can LFG incorporate gradient grammaticality?


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## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Mandarin

Duanmu's (2012) corpus study:
The token count of $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ is exceptionally low, which would be unexpected if monosyllabic and disyllabic objects are freely variable.

| Pattern | Token | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | 711 | $16.2 \%$ |
| $1+2$ | 838 | $19.91 \%$ |
| $1+1$ | 2,749 | $62.8 \%$ |
| $2+1$ | 81 | $1.8 \%$ |

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| Pattern | Token | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{2 + 2}$ | $\mathbf{7 1 1}$ | $\mathbf{1 6 . 2 \%}$ |
| $1+2$ | 838 | $19.91 \%$ |
| $1+1$ | 2,749 | $62.8 \%$ |
| $\mathbf{2 + 1}$ | $\mathbf{8 1}$ | $\mathbf{1 . 8 \%}$ |

## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Mandarin

Judgment study (adapted from Duanmu et al. 2018):


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## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Experiment 1

- Production test: Is a disyllabic verb more likely to induce a disyllabic object (i.e. $2+2$ ) than a monosyllabic verb is (i.e. $1+2$ )?
- Judgment test: Are $2+1$ VPs considered less acceptable than 2+2 VPs?


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Experiment 1: Procedure

- 32 native speakers of Wenzhounese (note: they also speak Mandarin)
- Production test: Wenzhounese sentences elicited
- Judgment test: listened to and rated audio stimuli



## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Production test: Results

Monosyllabic verb $<$| Pattern | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | $71 \%$ |
| $1+2$ | $46 \%$ |
| $1+1$ | $54 \%$ |
| $2+1$ | $29 \%$ |

## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Production test: Results

Disyllabic verb | Pattern | Percentage |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbf{2 + 2}$ | $\mathbf{7 1 \%}$ |
| $1+2$ | $46 \%$ |
| $1+1$ | $54 \%$ |
| $\mathbf{2 + 1}$ | $\mathbf{2 9 \%}$ |

## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Production test: Results

| Pattern | Percentage | Likelihood ratio test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | $71 \%$ | $x^{2}(1)=20.90$ |
| $p<0.0001$ |  |  |
| $1+2$ | $46 \%$ |  |
| $1+1$ | $54 \%$ |  |
| $2+1$ | $29 \%$ |  |

- Compared to a monosyllabic verb, a disyllabic verb is significantly more likely to induce a disyllabic object
- $2+1$ VPs are disfavoured in production


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Production test: Compare with 2+1 and 2+2 VPs in Mandarin


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Production test: Compare with 2+1 and 2+2 VPs in Mandarin

Similarity: $\quad 2+1$ VPs are disfavoured in both varieties
Difference: $\quad 2+1$ VPs are more disfavoured in Mandarin than in Wenzhounese
Implication: Strong vs. weaker constraint

## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Judgment test: Results

| Pattern | Rating | Z-score | SD | Likelihood ratio test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | 6.26 | 0.68 | 0.40 | $x^{2}(1)=16.37$ |
| $2+1$ | 5.96 | 0.52 | 0.61 |  |

- Both $2+1$ and $2+2$ VPs are acceptable (rated above 4)
- But $2+1$ VPs are significantly less acceptable than $2+2$ VPs


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Judgment test: Linking hypothesis
Grammaticality vs. Acceptability

- The relation is indirect (Lau et al. 2017; Phillips et al. 2021)
- There can be mismatches (Haider 2019)
a. The rat the cat the dog chased killed ate the malt.
b. *The key to the cabinets are rusty.


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Judgment test: Linking hypothesis

- The stimuli in this experiment are simple SVO sentences, so the lower acceptability of $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ is unlikely to result from processing difficulties.
- The results of the judgment test are corroborated by the results of the production test, according to which the preference for $2+2$ over $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ is high but not absolute.
- Therefore, at least in this experiment, acceptability is a reliable indicator of grammaticality (see also Almeida 2014 and Featherston 2005)


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Judgment test: Interpretation

| Pattern | Rating | Z-score | SD | Likelihood ratio test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | 6.26 | 0.68 | 0.40 | $X^{2}(1)=16.37$, |
| $2+1$ | 5.96 | 0.52 | 0.61 | $p<0.0001$ |

- Both $2+1$ and $2+2$ VPs are grammatical if grammaticality is binary.
- But 2+1 VPs are less grammatical than 2+2 VPs.
- Binary grammaticality misses the generalisation.


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

Judgment test: Compare with the judgement test in Mandarin

| Pattern | Rating | Z-score | SD | Likelihood ratio test |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | 6.26 | 0.68 | 0.40 | $x^{2}(1)=16.37$, |
| $2+1$ | 5.96 | 0.52 | 0.61 | $p<0.0001$ |

In Mandarin

- median of rating $\approx 6$ for $2+2 \mathrm{VPs}$
- median of rating $\approx 2$ for $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$

The syllabicity constraint

- Strong in Mandarin but weaker in Wenzhounese


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Experiment 2

- Topic prominence may affect word order
- What if the object is displaced?
- What is the target of the syllabicity constraint?
- A local domain [V NP], or
- The head-dependent relation regardless of word order


## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Experiment 2

A sample stimulus

| Object | Verb |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tsho/tci-tsho | sei.t6i | he | ba | mei | a |
| car/petrol-car | design | PFV | SFP | NEG | Q |

## 2. The syllabicity constraint in Wenzhounese

## Experiment 2

- 30 participants, Wenzhounese-Mandarin bilinguals
- Listened to audio stimuli and asked to rate against a seven-point scale
- No significant difference $\left(X^{2}(1)=0.66, p=0.42\right)$


## 2. The syllabicity constraint

## Summary:

- 2+1 VPs are dispreferred in production and acceptability judgment.
- Wenzhounese is more tolerant of $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ than Mandarin is.
- The syllabicity constraint is strong in Mandarin but weaker in Wenzhounese, which challenges binary grammaticality.
- The syllabicity constraint only applies locally to the object governed by the verb.


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## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Q1: Is there a more general principle that subsumes the syllabicity constraint?

Non-head stress (Duanmu 2007: 146)

- In the syntactic structure [XXP] (or [XP X]), where $X$ is the syntactic head and XP the syntactic nonhead, XP should be stressed.
- Asymmetrical tonal neutralisation cross-linguistically (Hyman 2019: 22)


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Non-head stress + Metrical requirements (Duanmu 2012: 106)
a. Foot binary: A foot needs two syllables, i.e. ( $\sigma \sigma$ )
b. Every stress represents a foot.

| Pattern | Metrical structure $^{\mathbf{1}}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2+2$ | $(\sigma \sigma)(\sigma \sigma)$ |
| ${ }^{*} 2+1$ | $(\sigma \sigma)(\sigma)$ |
| $1+2$ | $\sigma(\sigma \sigma)$ |
| $1+1$ | $(\sigma \sigma)$ |

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Q2: How do we formalise non-head stress in a modular way, given that phonology should not know the difference between head and non-head (or, relatedly, the head-adjunct distinction; Tamelan \& Arka 2021)?

Step 1: The metrical structure is stored in the lexicon (Levelt 1999; Bögel 2015) e.g., 'to repair cars' in Wenzhounese

|  | Monosyllabic | Disyllabic |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| repair | $[$ sou $]$ | [sou.lei] |
| car | $\left[\mathrm{ts}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{o}\right]$ | $\left[\mathrm{th}^{\text {hi.tsho }}\right]$ |

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Lexical entries for 'repair' in Wenzhounese

| s-form | $(\bullet$ FM $)=$ sou | $(\bullet$ FM $)=$ soulei |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\lambda(\pi(\bullet))=\mathrm{V}$ | $\lambda(\pi(\bullet))=\mathrm{V}$ |
| p-form | $/ \mathrm{s} \mathrm{o} \mathrm{u} /$ | $/ \mathrm{s}$ o u l e i i/ |
|  | $\sigma$ | $(\sigma \sigma)_{\mathrm{Ft}}$ |

Lexical entries for 'car' in Wenzhounese

| s-form | $(\bullet \mathrm{FM})=\mathrm{ts}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{O}$ | $(\bullet \mathrm{FM})=\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{h}}{ }^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{Fs}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{O}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | $\lambda(\pi(\bullet))=\mathrm{N}$ | $\lambda(\pi(\bullet))=\mathrm{N}$ |
| p-form | $/ \mathrm{ts}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{o} /$ | $/ \mathrm{th}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{i} \mathrm{ish}^{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{o} /$ |
|  | $\sigma$ | $(\sigma \sigma)_{\mathrm{Ft}}$ |

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Step 2: Prosodic phrasing (Selkirk 2011; Interface Harmony)



P-structure for $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Step 3: Phrasal stress is assigned to the right edge of a $\Phi$ (cf. Dalrymple et al. 2019: 422), which must be realised on a binary foot (Duanmu 2012)


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

$\checkmark$ Modularity
$\nabla$ Locality


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Q3: How do we capture the difference between Mandarin and Wenzhounese?

- Mandarin: $2+1$ VPs are strongly dispreferred
- Wenzhounese: 2+1 VPs are grammatical but less acceptable

Step 1: Assume OT-LFG (e.g. Bresnan 2000; Lowe 2016)
Step 2: Assume Stochastic OT (SOT), where constraints are weighted and there is a noise component that temporarily impacts the grammar (Boersma 1999)

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

(adapted from Boersma \& Hayes 2001: 47, 49)


- $C_{1} \gg C_{2} \gg C_{3}$
- $C_{1}-C_{2}>C_{2}-C_{3}$


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

(adapted from Boersma \& Hayes 2001: 47, 49)


- The ranking between $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$ is more prone to the impact of noise.


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

(adapted from Boersma \& Hayes 2001: 47, 49)


- Occasionally, $C_{3} \gg C_{2}$


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Two hypothetical constraints for the syllabicity constraint

- $C_{1}$ : penalises $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$
- $C_{2}$ : an economy constraint that penalises longer forms, e.g. $2+2 \mathrm{VPs}$
$C_{1}>C_{2}$ in both Mandarin and Wenzhounese


## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

| Mandarin | $C_{1}=53.5$ | $C_{2}=50$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2 \mathrm{VP}$ |  | $*$ |
| $2+1 \mathrm{VP}$ | $*!$ |  |

100-trial simulation in $\mathrm{R}: C_{1} \gg C_{2}=90 \%, C_{2} \gg C_{1}=10 \%$
Result of the corpus study: $2+2 \mathrm{VP}=89.8 \%, 2+1 \mathrm{VP}=10.2 \%$

| Wenzhounese | $C_{1}=50.8$ | $C_{2}=50$ |
| ---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2+2 \mathrm{VP}$ |  | ${ }^{*}$ |
| $2+1 \mathrm{VP}$ | $*!$ |  |

100-trial simulation in $\mathrm{R}: C_{1} \gg C_{2}=70 \%, C_{2} \gg C_{1}=30 \%$
Result of the production test: $2+2 \mathrm{VP}=71 \%, 2+1 \mathrm{VP}=29 \%$

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Q4: Does OT's domain-general computation undermine LFG's modularity?

One of the input-output relations in OT-LFG (Mohanan \& Mohanan 2003: 313) $\alpha \rightarrow \alpha, \beta, \gamma, \ldots$

Constraints from different modules are present in a single computation

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Category-specific effects in Panoan languages: verbs and non-verbs have different phonological realisations (Elias-Ulloa 2021)

Hypothetical examples (where /C/ stands for an underspecified consonant)

| Category | UR | SR |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Verb | /saCa/ | [sata] |
| Noun | /saCa/ | [saka] |
| Adjective | /saCa/ | [saka] |

*t $\mathbf{t}_{\text {verb }}$ : assign a violation mark to a verb whose /C/ is realised as [t] (adapted from Elias-Ulloa 2021)

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Are category-specific effects real?

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

Assume that every markedness constraint is domain-specific, for example:

1. *t: Assign a violation mark to a word whose /C/ is realised as [t]
2. *NEG-V: Assign a violation mark to expressions like / eat not, as opposed to I don't eat (adapted from Bresnan 2001: 28)

However these constraints are ranked, there is no interaction between syntax and phonology.

## 3. Theoretical implications for LFG

## Q4: Does OT's domain-general computation undermine LFG's modularity?

No, as long as markedness constraints are domain-specific.

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## 4. Conclusion

1. $2+1 \mathrm{VPs}$ are less acceptable than $2+2 \mathrm{VPs}$ in Mandarin and Wenzhounese.
2. This syllabicity constraint can be formalised in a modular fashion.
3. The difference between Mandarin and Wenzhounese results from different constraint strength, which challenges binary grammaticality.
4. SOT-LFG can model gradient grammaticality without violating modularity.

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