

# On The Computational Complexity of Syntactic Dependencies

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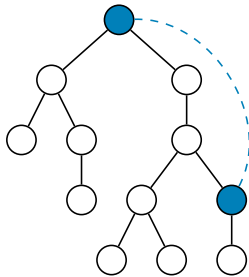
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# Language as a computational problem

1. What kinds of computations are needed to build linguistic structures?
2. What can we gain from this knowledge?



# What kinds of computations are needed?

With a few caveats, linguistic patterns are **tier-based strictly local (TSL)**:

- Local and long-distance **phonotactics** (McMullin 2016; Heinz 2018)
- Local and long-distance **phonological maps**  
(Chandlee and Heinz 2018; Burness et al. 2021)
- Most **syntactic dependencies**

Selection	(Graf 2018)
Functional hierarchies	(Hanson 2023b)
Adjunction	(Hanson under review)
Movement	(Graf 2018, 2022b)
Case	(Vu et al. 2019; Hanson 2023a)
Agreement	(Hanson to appear)

# Computational complexity: The old view

Modeled using **surface strings**, syntactic patterns are fairly **complex**

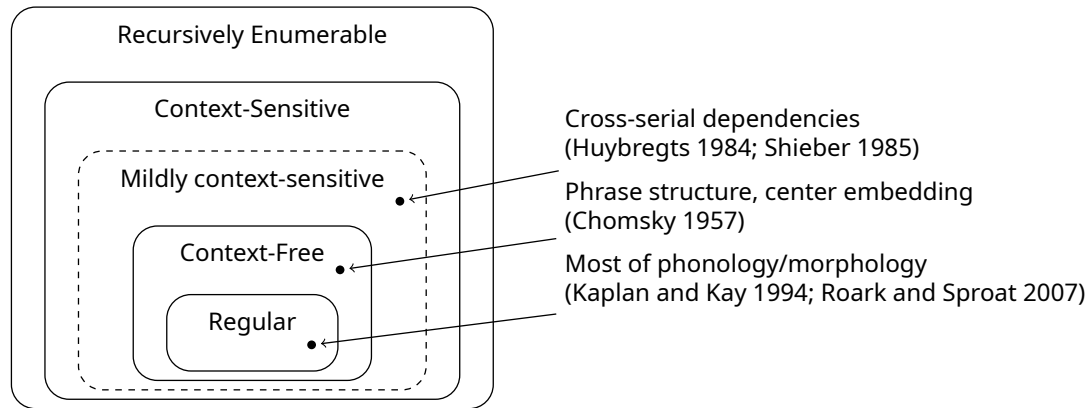


Figure 1: The Chomsky Hierarchy (Chomsky 1959), simplified

# Computational complexity: The new view

Modeled using **trees**, syntactic patterns are **subregular**, along with most of phonology and morphology

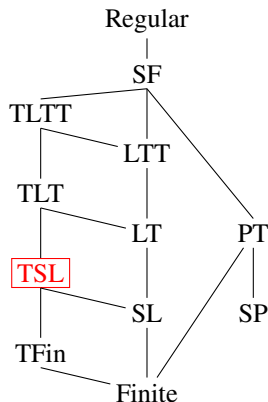


Figure 2: The Subregular Hierarchy (Heinz 2018; Lambert 2023), simplified

# What can we gain from this knowledge?

- Syntax and phonology extremely similar (Graf 2022a)
  - Similar locality profile, similar parameters of variation (**Hanson to appear**)
- The mathematical properties of TSL patterns are well understood (Heinz et al. 2011; Lambert and Rogers 2020; Lambert 2023)
  - Connections to corpora (**Swanson et al. under review**) and experimental data (**Torres et al. 2023**)
- TSL patterns require simple inference mechanisms (Lambert et al. 2021) and are efficiently learnable (Jardine and McMullin 2017; Lambert 2021)
  - Integration with distributional approaches to learning (Belth 2023; **Hanson 2024**)

## Overall theme:

By focusing on the computational properties of language, we can discover new generalizations and build connections within and beyond linguistic theory.

# Roadmap

What is a TSL computation?

A TSL model of agreement

Consequences for typology

Related and ongoing work

- Gradiance in syntactic islands

- Other syntactic dependencies

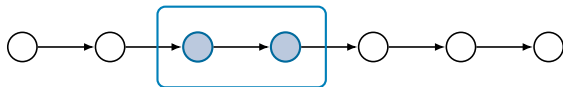
- Future research

What is a TSL computation?

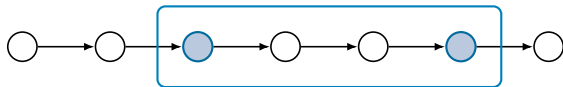


# What does it mean to be local?

Local  $\rightarrow$  finitely bounded



(window size 2)



(window size 4)

Long-distance (non-local)  $\rightarrow$  no finite bound



# Not just local, *strictly local*

**Strictly local (SL):** permitted/forbidden substrings of fixed size

## Ex. Local assimilation

✓ a m p a p a n d a

✗ a n p a p a n d a

✗ a m p a p a m d a

Window: 2

Good: nt, nd, mp, mb, ...

Bad: \*np, \*nb, \*mt, \*md, ...

Cognitive interpretation: moving window of attention

McNaughton and Papert (1971) and Rogers et al. (2013)

# Long-distance, but *local over a tier*

**Tier-based strictly local (TSL):** like SL, but *irrelevant elements are ignored*

**Ex. Samala sibilant harmony (Heinz 2018)**

✓ p i s o t o n o s i k i w a t

✗ p i s o t o n o ʃ i k i w a t

Window:	2
Visible elements:	s, ʃ
Constraints:	*sʃ, *ʃs



Also see: Heinz et al. (2011) and Lambert and Rogers (2020)

# More about TSL

- SL is the **special case** of TSL where the tier contains everything
- TSL is **distinct** from autosegmental phonology (Goldsmith 1976)
  - ▶ Autosegmental tier: true multistratal representation
  - ▶ TSL: extra arcs in the basic string/tree representation

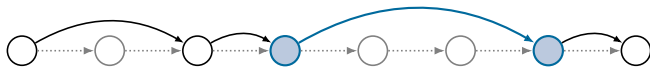


Figure 3: Two adjacent elements on a tier

Model-theoretic view of TSL: see Lambert et al. (2021) and Lambert (2023).

# Invisibility and blocking

TSL with a window size of 2 (TSL-2) can handle both invisibility and blocking

Ex. Slovenian sibilant harmony (McMullin and Hansson 2016)

✓  $\int$  p i  $\int$

✓ n a  $\int$  i  $\int$  i  $\int$

Window:	2
Visible elements:	s, $\int$ , <b>t</b>
Constraints:	*s $\int$ , * $\int$ s

Also see McMullin (2016), Graf (2022b), and Hanson (to appear).

## A TSL model of agreement

# Locality of syntactic agreement

## (1) Minimality (Rizzi 1990)

- a. The cat<sub>SG</sub> **chases**<sub>SG</sub> the rats.
- b. \* The cat **chase**<sub>PL</sub> the rats<sub>PL</sub>.

## (2) Horizons (Keine 2019)

- a. There **seem**<sub>PL</sub> [<sub>TP</sub> to be some ducks<sub>PL</sub> in the garden].
- b. \* It **seem**<sub>PL</sub> likely [<sub>CP</sub> **for** there to be some ducks<sub>PL</sub> in the garden].

## Hanson (to appear):

The agreeing items must be adjacent on the relevant tier.

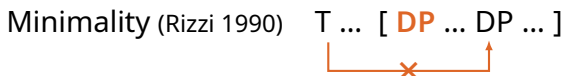
# A unified model of locality

Long-distance dependencies are TSL-2 over their respective structures.

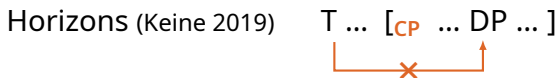
LD phonotactics



Minimality (Rizzi 1990)



Horizons (Keine 2019)





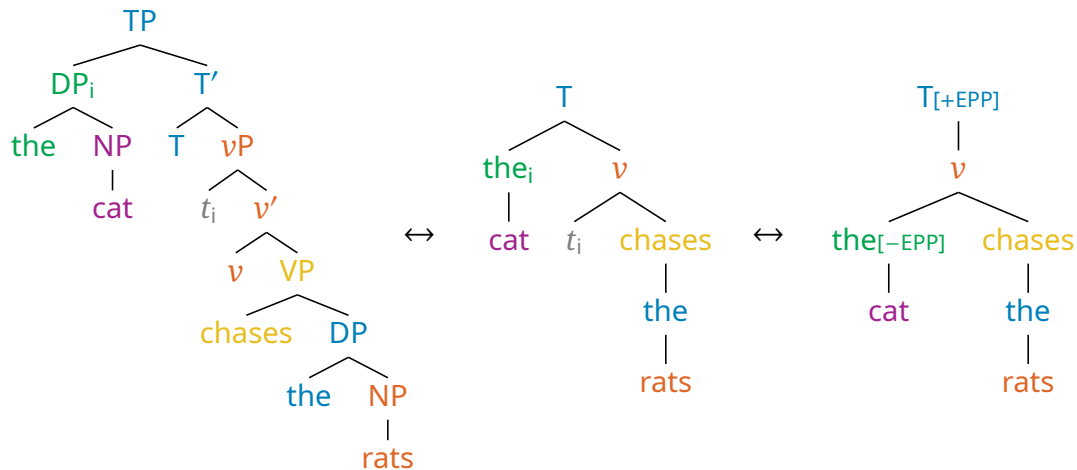
# Setup

Key ingredients:

- Hierarchical representation
- Way to indicate long-distance dependencies
- Way to pick out the paths (=strings) which matter

# Derivation trees

'The cat chases the rats.'



See Graf and Kostyszyn (2021). Related: Brody (2000).

# Modeling long-distance dependencies

Diacritics mark items which *actually* move/agree/etc. in the current derivation, as in Minimalist Grammars (MGs, Stabler 1997, 2011).

Operation	Feature Type	Example
Move	Landing site	+EPP
	Mover	−EPP
Agree	Probe (valuee)	+ $\phi$
	Goal (valuer)	− $\phi$



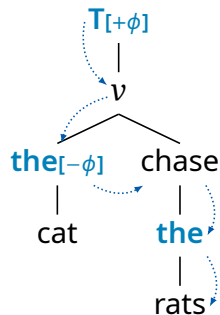
Agreement diacritics: see Hanson (to appear). Related: Ermolaeva and Kobele (2022).

# Paths, spines

Individual syntactic dependencies don't make use of the entire tree at once.

What path (=string) do we need for agreement?

- Nodes ordered by **derivational prominence**  
     $\approx$  order of last external Merge  
    (Graf and Shafiei 2019)
  - ▶ Head < (Spec) < Comp
- At each branching point, follow the **complement spine** (Graf and De Santo 2019)



Also see: Kayne (1984), Uriagereka (1999), Adger (to appear), and Graf and Hanson (under review).

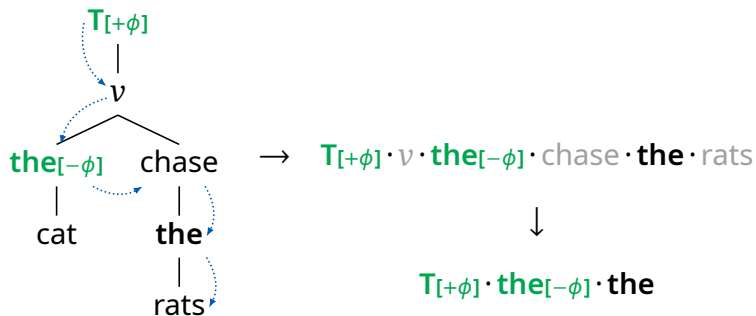
# Tiers over spines

TSL grammar for English subject-verb agreement:

- **Tier contents:**  
all agreement participants (finite T, D) and blockers (C)
- **Tier constraints:**  
every  $\phi$ -probe is immediately followed by a  $\phi$ -goal, and vice versa

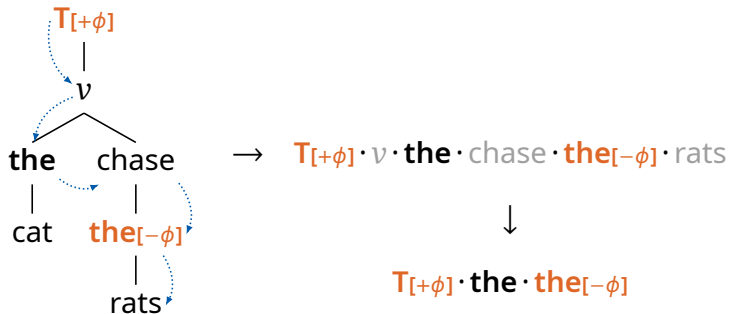
# Minimality

✓ The cat **chases** the rats. (subject agreement)



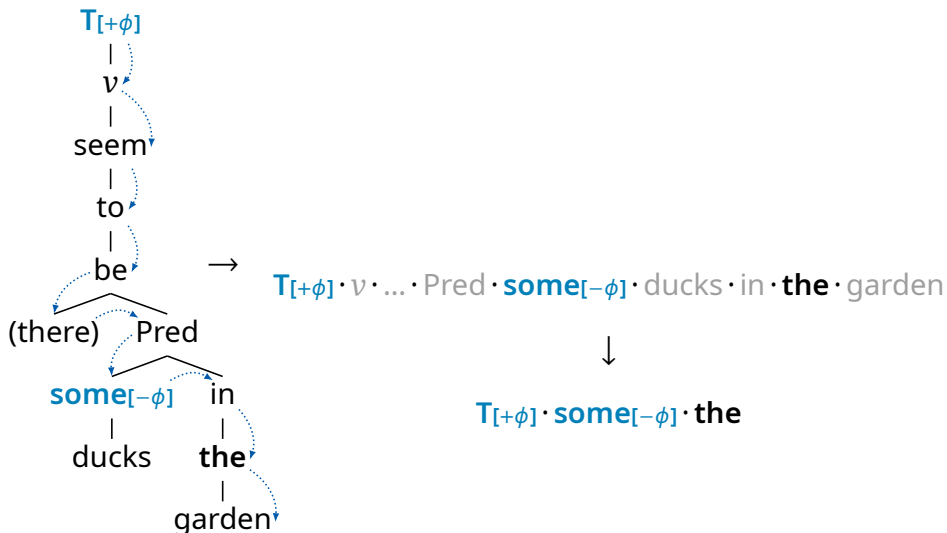
## Minimality (2)

✗ The cat **chase** the rats. (object agreement)



# Invisibility

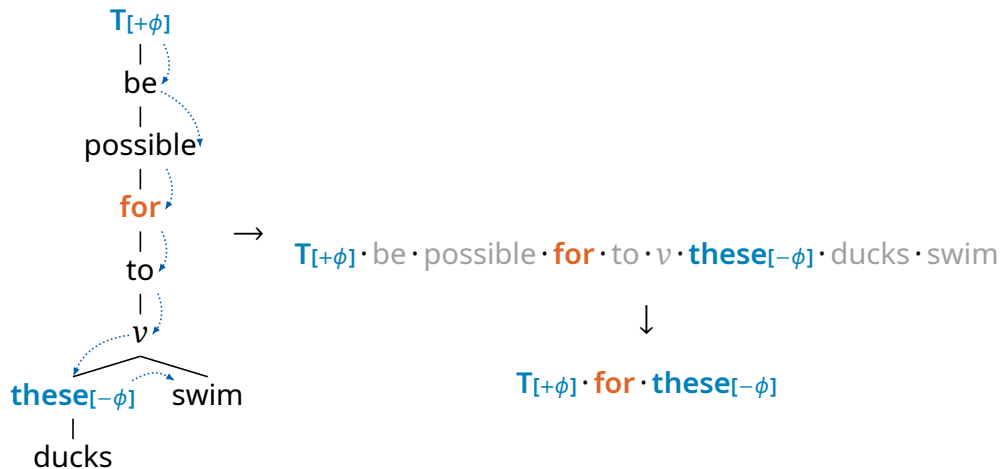
✓ There **seem** to be some ducks in the garden. (no blockers)





# Blocking

✗ It are possible **for** these ducks to swim. (C is a blocker)



# TSL grammar for subject-verb agreement

Window: 2

Tier: finite T, all D, all C

Constraints:  $\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} X[+\phi] \cdot Y[+\phi] & X[-\phi] \cdot Y[-\phi] \\ X[+\phi] \cdot Y & X \cdot Y[-\phi] \\ X[+\phi] \cdot \times & \times \cdot Y[-\phi] \end{array} \right\}$

## Consequences for typology

# A unified model of locality

TSL-2 captures the pattern of invisibility and blocking which is characteristic of long-distance linguistic dependencies.

LD phonotactics



Minimality (Rizzi 1990)



Horizons (Keine 2019)



Islands (Ross 1967)



# Parameters of variation

In general, syntactic dependencies have different visibility conditions, and therefore require distinct tiers.

Dependency	Participants	Blockers
$\phi$ -agreement	$T_{\text{FIN}}$ , all D	all C
EPP movement	$T_{\text{FIN}}$ , all D, <i>there</i>	all C
<i>wh</i> -movement	$C_{\text{wh}}$ , all <i>wh</i> -movers	if, because, ...

Table 1: Visibility conditions for English

See Preminger (2014), Deal (2015), and Keine (2019), a.o.

## Parameters of variation (2)

The contents of a given tier also vary across languages.

Language	Participants	Blockers
English	$T_{FIN}$ , all D	all C
Hindi	$T_{FIN}$ , D <sub>[NOM]</sub>	all C, $T_{INF}$

Table 2: Verbal agreement in English vs. Hindi

# Case-sensitive agreement

In Hindi, the verb agrees with the closest nominative argument, which may not be the subject.

(3) Hindi verbal agreement ignores ergatives (Mahajan 1990)

- a. Raam                roṭii                khaat-**aa**    th-**aa**.  
Raam.**M.NOM** bread.F.NOM eat-IPFV.**M** be-PST.**M**

'Raam ate bread (habitually).'

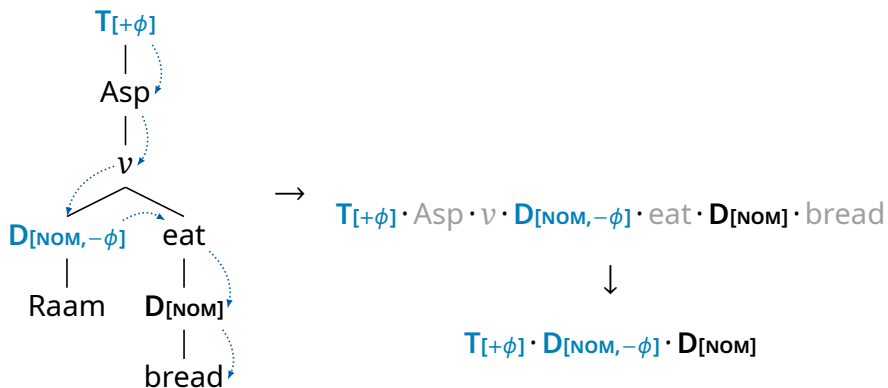
- b. Raam-ne    roṭii                khaay-**ii**.  
Raam.M-**ERG** bread.**F.NOM** eat-PFV.**F**

'Raam ate bread.'

**Analysis:** Project D only if nominative. Tier constraints are unchanged.

## Case-sensitive agreement (2)

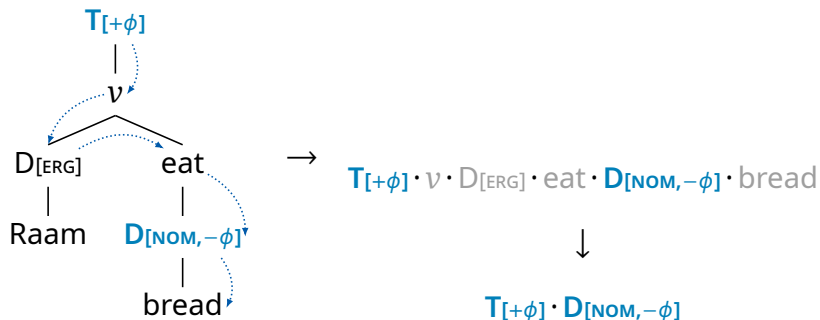
'Raam ate bread (habitually).' (nominative subject, subject agrees)





## Case-sensitive agreement (3)

'Raam ate bread.' (ergative subject, object agrees)



# Long-distance agreement

In Hindi, agreement can extend into vP, but not TP (Keine 2019).

(4) Hindi LDA and default agreement (Bhatt 2005)

- a. Ram-ne [<sub>vP</sub> roṭii khaa-**nii**] chaah-**ii**  
Ram-ERG bread.F eat-INF.F want-PFV.FSG  
'Ram wanted to eat bread.'
- b. Ram-ne [<sub>TP</sub> roṭii khaa-**naa**] chaah-**aa**  
Ram-ERG bread.F eat-INF.M want-PFV.MSG  
'Ram wanted to eat bread.'

**Analysis:** T<sub>INF</sub> appears on the tier, but v does not.

# Limits of variation

Ergative DPs are not necessarily invisible:

- In Nepali, both ergatives and nominatives agree (Preminger 2014)
- In some languages, only ergatives can agree (Baker 2015)

There are some cross-linguistic tendencies:

- Case-visibility hierarchy (Bobaljik 2008):  
Unmarked (Nom/Abs) < Marked (Erg/Acc) < Oblique (Dat, Gen)
- Height-Locality Connection (Keine 2019):  
Higher position of probe ↔ Fewer possible horizons

When we consider the full range of variation, TSL-2 gets the right fit.

## More parameters

We can modify not just the tier contents, but also the constraints.

Phenomenon	Change to baseline grammar
Invisibility	Some D's fail to project
Blocking	Some non-agreeing items project
Upward agreement	Swap order of $+\phi/-\phi$
Chain agreement	Allow sequential $+\phi$
Multiple agreement	Allow sequential $-\phi$
Independent subfeatures of $\phi$	Each probe gets its own tier/constraints

Table 3: Parameters for agreement (Hanson to appear)

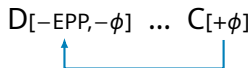
These are extremely similar to the parameters for long-distance harmony!

## More parameters (2)

Even seemingly complex agreement patterns can be handled:

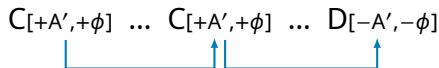
- Upward complementizer agreement (Lubukusu, Diercks 2013)

→ Only project EPP-movers,  $-\phi$  precedes  $+\phi$



- A'-agreement (Dinka, Van Urk 2015)

→ Only project A'-movers, let  $+\phi$  iterate



- Parasitic agreement (Hindi, Bhatt 2005)

→ Second “concord tier” allows parasitic elements between  $+\phi$  and  $-\phi$



See appendix for details.

# Impossible patterns

Logically possible patterns which are not TSL-2 are generally unattested.

Type	Class	Example	Visible Cs
Unbounded	TSL-2	Aari	Only sibilants
LD w/ blocking	TSL-2	Slovenian	All coronals
Transvocalic	TSL-2	Koyra	All consonants
At most 1 C intervenes	TSL-3	Unattested	—
Exactly 1 C intervenes	TSL-3	Unattested	—
At least 1 C intervenes	TLT/OTSL	Unattested	—

Table 4: Typology of consonant harmony (adapted from McMullin and Hansson 2016)

## Impossible patterns (2)

Non-TSL-2 and unattested island types (Graf 2022b):

- Gang-up islands: A mover can escape  $n$  islands, but not  $n + 1$ .
- Cowardly islands: XP is an island iff there are at least  $n$  XPs in the same clause.
- ...

Non-TSL-2 and unattested verbal agreement patterns:

- T agrees with the subject unless there is a temporal adjunct, in which case it agrees with the object.
- Only DPs which contain a relative clause which contains two PPs can agree.
- ...

# The big picture

- TSL computations are **extremely restricted**
  - ▶ No boolean logic
  - ▶ No counting of violations
  - ▶ Tier contents determined solely by the element labels
- Observed typology emerges from this **highly structured** logical space
- Syntax is revealed to be **much more similar** to phonology and morphology than previously thought (Graf 2022a)
  - ▶ Different structures, different features, but same computations

$$\text{FIN} \subseteq \text{SL} \subseteq \boxed{\text{TSL}} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \text{REG} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \text{CFL} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \text{CS} \subseteq \dots \subseteq \text{RE}$$



## Related and ongoing work

## Related and ongoing work

# Islands and gradient acceptability

- We have been treating islands and other blockers as being **categorical**
- **Experimental studies** have found that judgments of island violations are often **gradient** (Chaves 2022)
- Can this be incorporated into the TSL model?

# Probabilistic TSL

Gradient blocking be captured via **probabilistic tier projection** (Mayer 2021).

**Torres, Hanson, Graf, and Mayer (2023):**

Applied pTSL to syntactic islands, modeling data from Sprouse et al. (2016)



Charles Torres  
UC Irvine



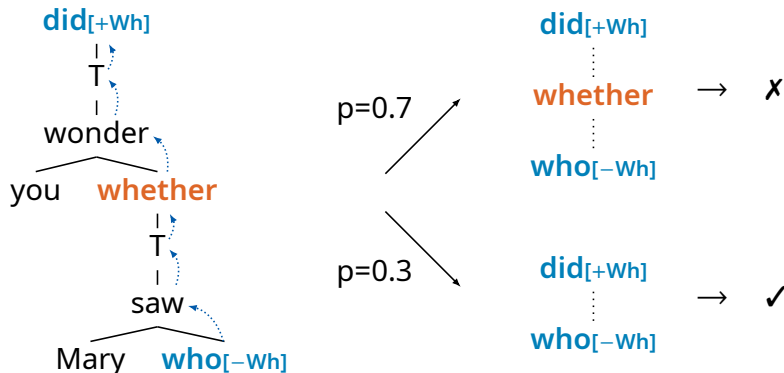
Connor Mayer  
UC Irvine



Thomas Graf  
Stony Brook

# Probabilistic TSL: Example

'Who did you wonder whether Mary saw?'



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Score}(\text{tree}) &= p(\text{tier1}) * \text{licit}(\text{tier1}) + p(\text{tier2}) * \text{licit}(\text{tier2}) \\ &= 0.7 * 0 + 0.3 * 1 \\ &= 0.3 \end{aligned}$$

# Probabilistic TSL: Modeling Study

- Data from Sprouse et al. (2016)
- Three island types and four conditions

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \textit{whether} \text{ island} \\ \text{adjunct island} \\ \text{complex NP island} \end{array} \right\} \times \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{non-island, matrix clause} \\ \text{non-island, embedded clause} \\ \text{island, matrix clause} \\ \text{island, embedded} \end{array} \right\}$$

- Provided a structural analysis for each sentence
- Fit projection probability of island nodes to approximate mean Likert rating for each sentence (z-score normalized and transformed to range  $[0, 1]$ )
  - ▶ other nodes fixed to 1 (movers/landing sites) or 0 (others)

# Probabilistic TSL: Results

Node	Projection probability
that	.46
complex NP	.63
whether	.73
adjunct	.89

Table 5: Mean projection probabilities of fitted pTSL island model

- Projection probabilities mirror relative badness of each island type
- Replicated **superadditivity effect** – extraction from an island is worse than (i) extraction from non-island plus (ii) mere presence of an island
- Model does not capture relative badness of matrix clause movement

# Probabilistic TSL: Discussion

- The TSL model is perfectly compatible with gradient in the grammar
  - ▶ categorical tier projection  $\leftrightarrow$  categorical output
  - ▶ probabilistic tier projection  $\leftrightarrow$  gradient output
- Further extensions:
  - ▶ Can add probabilities to the constraints to produce a stochastic grammar, which can be fit to corpus data in the same manner as a PCFG



## Related and ongoing work

# Other syntactic dependencies

Local	Selection	Graf (2018); Hanson (2023b)
	<b>Functional hierarchies</b>	Hanson (2023b)
	Adjunction	Hanson (under review)
Long-distance	<b>Movement</b>	Graf (2018, 2022b)
	<b>Case</b>	Vu et al. (2019); Hanson (2023a)
	<b>Agreement</b>	Hanson (to appear)

# Functional hierarchies

**Hanson (2023b):** modeling local dependencies with spines

- English clausal hierarchy (Adger 2003):  
 $T < (\text{Neg}) < (\text{Perf}) < (\text{Prog}) < (\text{Pass}) < v$
- ex. 'The cake might not have been being eaten.'

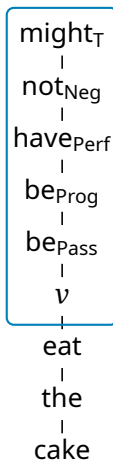
- TSL grammar**

Tier elements: all symbols

Window size: 2

Good substrings:

{	T Neg					
	T Perf	Neg Perf				
	T Prog	Neg Prog	Perf Prog			
	T Pass	Neg Pass	Perf Pass	Prog Pass		
	T v	Neg v	Perf v	Prog v	Pass v	
}						



# Case dependencies

- **Hanson (2023a):** in-depth analysis of case in Japanese\*
  - ▶ Three tiers: verbal domain, nominal domain, lexical case
  - ▶ Valency alternations, nominative objects, long-distance case
- **Current research:** to what extent do the parameters of a TSL-2 model account for cross-linguistic variation in case assignment?
  - ▶ Case spreading / multiple assignment
  - ▶ Dependent case
  - ▶ Split alignment
  - ▶ Differential argument marking

\*See appendix for an example.

# Some open questions

- To what extent do the **same patterns** occur in different dependencies?
- Are **constraint interactions** across tiers always limited to intersection? (Meinhardt et al. 2024)
- How does the computational system interact with **other factors**, such as the feature system?
- Can we view the **mappings** from syntax to morphology/semantics as TSL functions? (cf. Graf 2023)

Wrapping up

# Summary

- To a large extent, linguistic structures can be built with TSL computations: Local or long-distance, phonological or syntactic
- Syntax and phonology (partly) share a common computational basis
- The underlying mathematics connect theory, experiment, and more
- Many new empirical puzzles can be identified

By separating out the computational factors underlying language, we can learn many things that we could not otherwise!

Thank you for your attention!



# Appendices

## More agreement case studies

- Upward agreement

- A' agreement

- Parasitic agreement

## Learning tiers from positive data

## Avoiding overgeneration in the category system

## Miscellaneous

## More agreement case studies

# Upward agreement

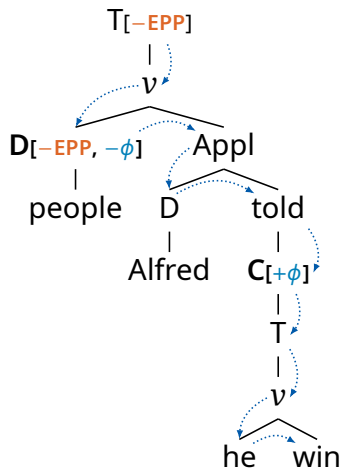
- (5) Complementizer Agreement in Lubukusu (Diercks 2013)
- a. Ba-ba-ndu    ba-bolela Alfredi    ba-li    a-kha-khile.  
c2-c2-people c2-said    c1.Alfred c2-that c1-FUT-conquer  
'The people told Alfred that he will win.'
- b. Alfredi    ka-bolela ba-ba-ndu    a-li    ba-kha-khile.  
c1.Alfred c1-said    c2-c2-people c1-that c2-FUT-conquer  
'Alfred told the people that they will win.'

## Analysis:

- Agreement is upward → allow  $D[-\phi]$  to precede  $C[+\phi]$
- Agreement on C is subject oriented → project only DPs bearing –EPP

## Upward agreement (2)

'The people told Alfred that he will win.'



→  $T[-EPP] \cdot v \cdot D[-EPP, -\phi] \cdot Appl \cdot D \cdot told \cdot C[+\phi] \cdot \dots$

↓

$D[-EPP, -\phi] \cdot C[+\phi]$

**Analysis:** Project DPs only if  $[-EPP]$ . Allow  $D[-\phi]$  to precede  $C[+\phi]$ .

# Syntactic counterfeeding

Agreeing C is impossible in hyperraising structures.

- (6) Agreeing complementizer incompatible with hyperraising

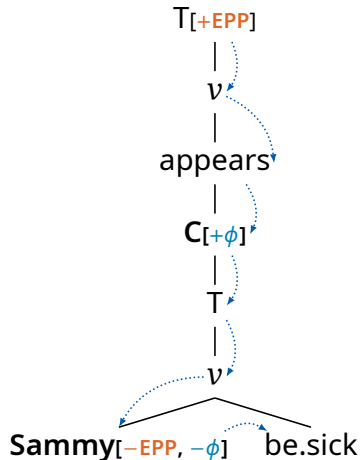
Sammy a-lolekhana **mbo** (\*a-li) a-likho a-lwala.  
**c1**.Sammy c1-appears **that** (\*c1-that) c1.PROG c1-be.sick

‘Sammy appears to be sick.’ (lit. ‘Sammy seems that is sick.’)

This follows immediately from the TSL analysis!

## Syntactic counterfeeding (2)

The hyperraised subject is below C in the derivation tree and cannot agree.



$$\rightarrow T_{[+EPP]} \cdot v \cdot V \cdot C_{[+\phi]} \cdot T \cdot v \cdot D_{[-EPP, -\phi]} \cdot V$$

↓

$$\begin{aligned} & * C_{[+\phi]} \cdot D_{[-EPP, -\phi]} \\ & \text{(should be } D_{[-EPP, -\phi]} \cdot C_{[+\phi]}) \end{aligned}$$

## A' agreement

### (7) Dinka verbal agreement with Spec-CP

a. Mòc à-cé yîin tîiŋ.

**man** 3SG-PRF.SV you see.NF

'The man has seen you.'

(Van Urk 2015, ch. 4, 19b)

b. Yîin Ø-cí môc tîiŋ.

**you** 2-PRF.OV man.GEN see.NF

'You, the man has seen.'

(Van Urk 2015, ch. 4, 20a)

### (8) Agreement in both matrix and embedded clause

Yè kôɔc-kó [CP Op é-kè-yá ké tàak [CP è \_\_\_\_

be **people**.CS-which PST-**PL**-HAB.2SG 3PL think.NF C

é-kè-cí Áyèn ké gâam gàlám]]?

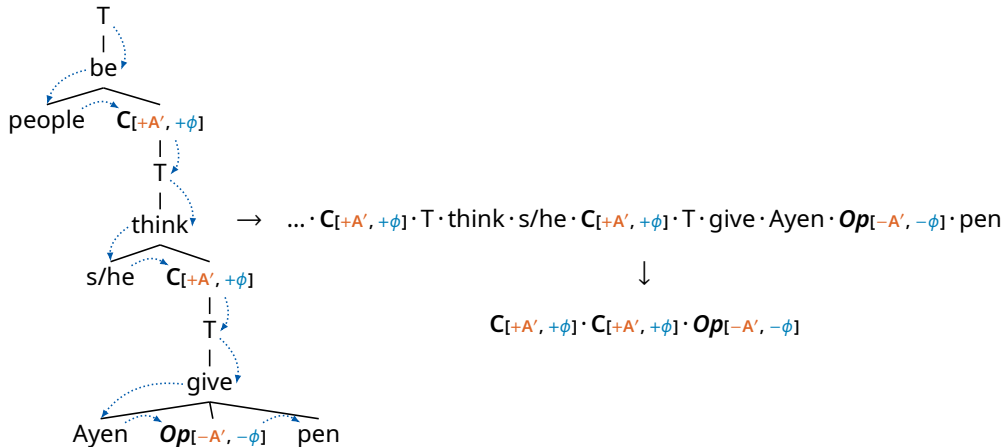
PST-**PL**-PRF.OV Ayen.GEN 3PL give.NF pen

'Which people did (s)he think that Ayen had given a pen to?'

(Van Urk 2015, ch. 5, 14a)

## A' agreement (2)

'Which people did (s)he think that Ayen had given a pen to?'



**Analysis:** Project all D bearing [-A']. Allow C[+φ] to iterate.



# Parasitic agreement

- (9) Hindi participles and infinitives agree iff the main verb does
- a. Shahrukh-ne [<sub>VP</sub> tehnii kaaṭ-**nii**] chaah-**ii** **thii**  
Shahrukh-ERG branch.F cut-**INF.F** want-**PFV.F** be.**PST.FSG**  
'Shahrukh had wanted to cut the branch.'
- b. Shahrukh-ne [<sub>TP</sub> tehnii kaaṭ-**naa**] chaah-**aa** **thaa**  
Shahrukh-ERG branch.F cut-**INF.M** want-**PFV.MSG** be.**PST.MSG**  
'Shahrukh wanted to cut a/the branch.'

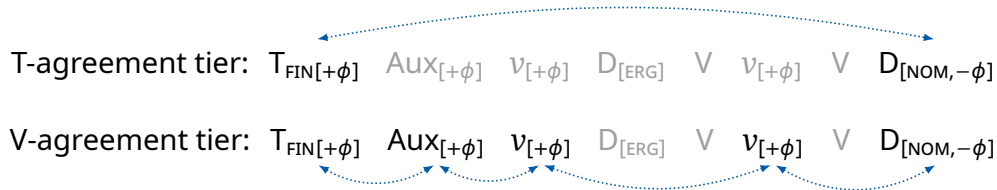
**Analysis:** Verbs agree iff they occur along a chain from  $T_{[+\phi]}$  to  $D[-\phi]$ .

## Complication:

T-agreement and V-agreement must be regulated on separate tiers.

## Parasitic agreement (2)

If T agrees with DP, then all verbs along the path also agree.



Why isn't one tier enough?

- Agreement can fail, so non-agreeing pairs  $T \cdot \text{Aux}$ ,  $\text{Aux} \cdot v$ , etc., must be allowed.
- Once you do this, agreement is incorrectly predicted to always be optional.

## Learning tiers from positive data

# Learnability considerations

TSL constraints are easy to learn if the tier is already known (Lambert et al. 2021)...

But identifying the tier itself is not trivial

- If there are  $n$  symbols, then there are  $2^n$  possible tiers

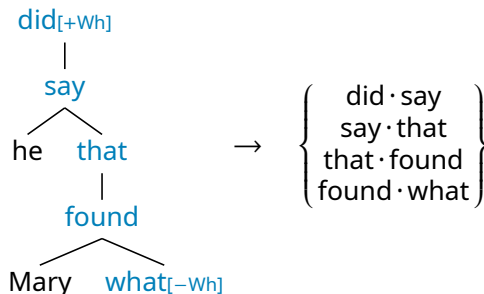
Current formal learners can do efficiently this for pure TSL-2 languages (Jardine and McMullin 2017; Lambert 2021)...

But natural language always involves intersecting tiers

# Learning tiers from paths

**Heuser et al. (2024):** track *licit bigrams along a movement path*, and generalize to categories when allowed by the Tolerance Principle (Yang 2016)

**Hanson (2024):** this algorithm already tracks the information needed by a formal TSL learner → we can adapt it to produce a TSL-2 grammar!



See appendix for details.

# Starting point

Let's assume that:

- The learner already knows the basics of constituency and selection
- The learner can identify the dependent elements,  
e.g. mover and landing site, probe and goal

The dependent elements must appear on the tier, and must be adjacent

Next step: identify the blockers

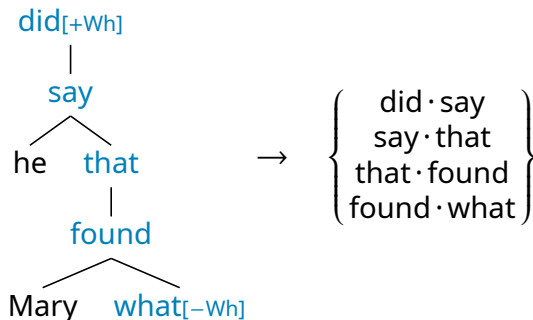
cf. Clark and Yoshinaka 2016; Liang et al. 2022; Li and Schuler 2023

# Blockers for *wh*-movement

- ✓ **What** did Mary find \_\_\_\_?
- ✓ **What** did he say that Mary found \_\_\_\_?
- ✗ **What** did he wonder **whether** Mary found \_\_\_\_?
- ✗ **What** did he **mutter** that Mary found \_\_\_\_?

# Learning blockers from paths

Heuser et al. (2024): learn movement blockers by tracking **licit bigrams along a movement path** (plus generalization to categories as in Yang 2016)



**Key point:** Bigrams like {wonder · **whether**, **whether** · found, ...} will not be attested along any *wh*-movement path



## Learning blockers from paths (2)

Hanson (2024): the path grammar contains everything we need to construct a TSL-2 grammar

- Extract the elements from the set of path bigrams for movement type X
- The elements which are conspicuously missing are just the tier blockers

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{that} \\ \text{whether} \\ \text{say} \\ \text{mutter} \\ \dots \end{array} \right\} - \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{that} \\ \text{say} \\ \dots \end{array} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{array}{c} \text{whether} \\ \text{mutter} \\ \dots \end{array} \right\}$$

## Learning blockers from paths (3)

Advantages to the combined system:

- Combines the typological merits of TSL-2 with an empirically-motivated acquisition model
- Produces a version of the Height-Locality Connection (Keine 2019), which is not inherent to the TSL-2 model
- Could be adapted for learning constraints on agreement

# Summary

- The space of possible tiers is too large to search exhaustively, but we don't actually need to do this
- When learning non-local constraints, the local constraints should be factored out
- Some empirical generalizations may derive from the details learning process rather than the grammar formalism itself

Avoiding overgeneration in the category system

# Collaborators



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# The problem with subcategorization

- There is a LI of category V that selects a CP
- ...only if that CP contains an AP
- ...and also contains three VPs, none of which contain one another
- ...but only if the LI does not also select a PP
- ...in which case the three VPs must instead be self-embedded
- ...and CP must also contain a non-finite TP
- ...

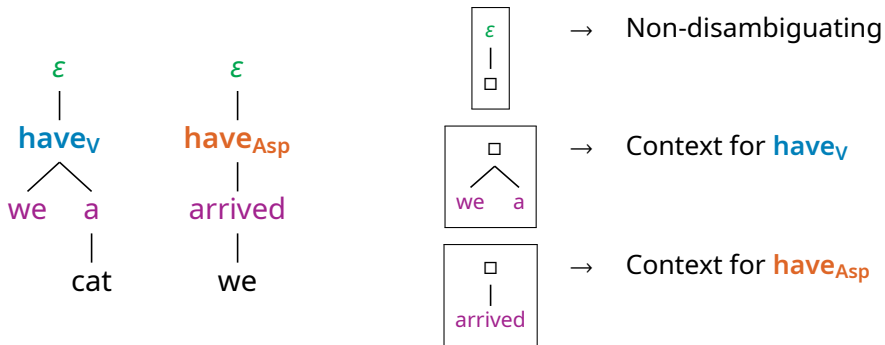
Without further restrictions, any system of category selection can do this

# Reining in category features

- Any regular tree constraint can be indirectly implemented via selection
- Selection is SL-2 over trees
  - Massive overgeneration
  - All subregular distinctions are lost
- **Conjecture:** category and subcategorization features must be inferable from the local tree context → **ISL-recoverable** (Graf 2020)
- **This project:** test this conjecture against MGBank (Torr 2017, 2018)

# ISL-Recoverability

It should be possible to infer the category of every lexical item based only on the phonological features of its **selector** or its **selectees** (or maybe both).





# Results

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Forms with ambiguous category:	8369
ISL-2 recoverable in all contexts:	79–86%
ISL-2 recoverable in at least one context:	95–97%

---

- Most errors are due to empty heads or misparsed sentences (good!)
- Subcategorization features are recoverable at a similar rate (good!)
- Movement features are recoverable at a similar rate (not good!)

# Discussion

- It should not be possible to accurately identify all movement features from the local context
- Simulations suggest that a Zipfian distribution of feature specifications over phonetic exponents produces similar quantitative results  
→ ISL inferrability might be epiphenomenal
- In any case, local inferrability makes a good heuristic for learning: identical items in the same context must have the same category

## Miscellaneous

# What makes a possible tier?

We know that the tier elements can be fairly arbitrary, but they can't be completely arbitrary.

- $T = \{\text{the}_{[\text{Nom}]}, \text{all}_{[\text{Acc}]}, \text{for}_C, \text{smile}_V, \text{already}_{\text{Adv}}, \dots\}$
- $\bar{T} = \{\text{the}_{[\text{Acc}]}, \text{all}_{[\text{Nom}]}, \text{that}_C, \text{wash}_V, \dots\}$

Usually, we want entire classes of items:

- all  $D$ , all  $D_{[\text{NOM}]}$ , all  $D_{[-\text{EPP}]}$ , ...

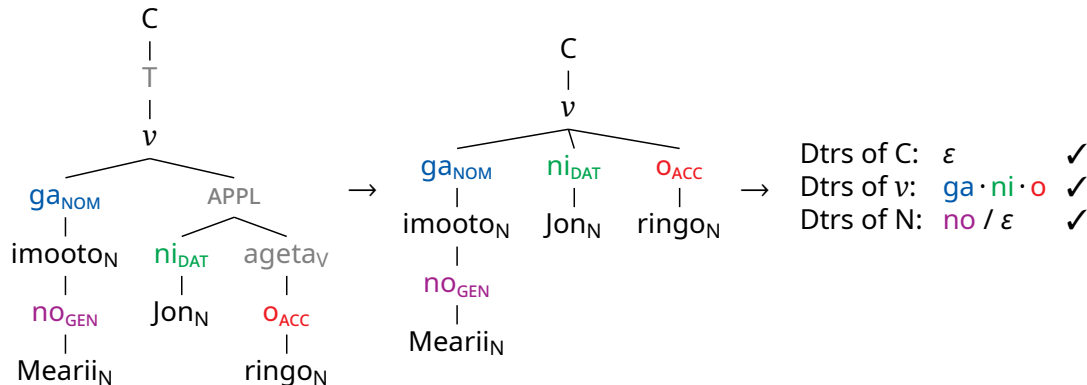
A couple of possibilities:

- a tier must be defined in terms of natural classes  
(insert your favorite theory of syntactic features here)
- unnatural tiers are never posited by the learner under realistic conditions

# Case in Japanese

**Hanson (2023a):** in-depth analysis of case in Japanese, relativizing both dominance and precedence to a tier → **tree tier**

- (10) Mearii **no** imooto **ga** Jon **ni** ringo **o** ageta.  
Mary **GEN** sister **NOM** John **DAT** apple **ACC** gave  
'Mary's sister gave John an apple.'



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