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The source of variation in language

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Source of variation

- By the 'source' of variation we can mean two distinct things:
 The diachronic source
 - The synchronic (or grammatical or mental) source
- I will try to say something about both.



Definition of variation

- Variation here will mean that
 - a speaker uses different forms to express the 'same' meaning
 - all forms belong to what the speaker considers to be the 'same' language
- In this talk I will limit the discussion to morphology and phonology.



Variation in morphology from change

- In morphology, I will assume that no original state has two alternative forms with the same meaning.
- When such a state exists, one form is original and one is new.
- The new form is a result of *change*.
- Variation in morphology is thus the result of language change.



Morphological change 1 – grammaticalization

- A function word can become an affix through coalescence with an adjacent word.
- In Scandinavian, the third person reflexive pronoun *sik* became a verbal suffix *-sk* expressing mediopassive.
- In Old and Modern Norwegian, many verbs can either use the reflexive pronoun (original) or a mediopassive suffix (new), with no apparent difference in meaning.



Morphological change 1 – grammaticalization

- breida seg ~ breidast 'disperse'
- brigda seg ~ brigdast 'change'
- eva seg ~ evast 'doubt'



Morphological change 2 – analogy

- A declension pattern can extend beyond its original domain.
- In East Norwegian, -i is a salient marker of the perfect in strong verbs.
- It has spread to weak verbs.
- In weak verbs, the original perfect endings -a and -t now exist alongside the new ending -i.



Morphological change 2 – analogy

- bada ~ badi 'bathed'
- svingt ~ svingi 'turned'



Morphological change 2 – analogy

- In Old English, an original unstressed *ō developed to u in medial syllables and a in final syllables (Stausland Johnsen 2015).
- This would give alternations such as *wundude wundad* 'wounded'.
- In analogy with other verbal paradigms where no such vowel alternations existed, either u or a could be generalized:
 - wundude ~ wundud
 - wundade ~ wundad

Morphological change 3 – loss of contrast

- A morphological contrast expressed with different endings can be lost.
- After the loss of the contrast, the two endings can be used interchangeably.
- East Norwegian dialects distinguish between dative and 'non-dative' cases in nouns.
- -om (dative plural) vs. -ne (non-dative plural)



Morphological change 3 – loss of contrast

- This contrast is now lost for many speakers.
- The original case forms -om and -ne can now be used interchangeably to express the plural.
- Real example (NRK Dagsnytt 18, 4/4 2023):

Hytt-om kan bli brukt mer – Å bruke dei hytt-ne vi allerede har bygd



Morphological change 4 – language contact

- When language varieties meet, morphemes can be borrowed and used interchangeably with the original morphemes.
- For many Norwegian speakers, the original past tense suffix -a can be used interchangeably with the borrowed (Norwegian-)Danish suffix -et.
- kasta ~ kastet 'thrown'
- skuffa ~ skuffet 'disappointed'



Variation in phonology

- Variation in phonology is either:
 - A phonological process is optional, resulting in two possible outcomes.
 - ^a Two or more ways of realizing a phoneme in the same context.
- Unlike morphology, phonological variation is not necessarily the result of historical changes.



Phonological change 1 – sound change

- I will assume that all synchronic phonological processes are fossilized sound changes.
- At some point in the history of East Norwegian, the sequence /rt/ assimilated to a retroflex segment /t/ (Stausland Johnsen 2012).
- This sound change is fossilized as a synchronic phonological rule that takes /r#t/ across morpheme boundaries to /t/:
- /fø:r-/ 'lead' + /-te/ 'PRET' > /fø:te/

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/stuːr-/ 'big' + /-t/ 'NEUT' > /stuːt/
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Phonological change 1 – sound change

- Some phonological processes of this kind are optional.
- An /n/ assimilates to the place features of a following consonant in Norwegian.
- /sæjn/ 'slow' (adj.) \rightarrow [seŋ-kə] 'slow' (verb)

/grøːn/ 'green' \rightarrow [grøŋ-kas] 'become green'



Phonological change 1 – sound change

- Across lexical boundaries, however, this process is optional.
- /san/ 'sand' + /ka:ke/ 'cake' > [sanka:kə] ~ [saŋka:kə] 'cookie'
 /bran/ 'fire' + /bi:l/ 'car' > [branbi:l] ~ [brambi:l] 'fire truck'
- This gives variation in the realization of /n/ in the same words.



Phonological change 2 – loss of contrast

- When the contrast between two phonemes is lost, speakers could end up using them interchangeably in the same contexts.
- The contrast between /ç/ and /ʃ/ is being lost in Norwegian.
- It has been reported (anecdotally) that some speakers now use [ç] and [j] interchangeably as the realization of the same phoneme.



Phonological change 3 – language contact

- When language varieties meet, their phonological systems and inventories can influence each other.
- In East Norwegian, /l/ and /r/ are two separate phonemes.
- East Norwegian words with /r/ have /l/ in Norwegian-Danish.



Phonological change 3 – language contact

- Contact between these varieties has caused many speakers of East Norwegian to realize the phoneme /r/ variably as [r] or [l].
- [c] ~ [s] */ [s] */ [s]
 - [suːɾ] ~ [suːl] 'sun'



Phonological variation without change

- At least under one condition, phonological variation exists without there having been a change to cause it.
- The realization of a phoneme often varies along a dimension there is no contrast for.
- In word initial position in Norwegian, aspirated stops contrast with non-aspirated stops.
- There is no voice contrast.

Phonological variation without change

- Initial non-aspirated stops vary between a voiced and a voiceless realization.
- /bu:/ = [bu:] ~ [pu:] 'live'

Phonological variation without change

- Norwegian vowels contrast in length: short and long vowels.
- But there is no contrast between long vowels and 'half-long' or 'super-long' vowels.
- Long vowels in Norwegian vary considerably in how long they are.
- [mart] ~ [mart] ~ [mart]



Variation in the grammar

- These are some of the many ways from which variation can arise in a language.
- But how is such variation represented in the mental grammar of a speaker?
- And how does a speaker 'choose' which variant to produce in a given context?



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- One traditional way of encoding variation is with different kinds of probabilistic grammars.
- Probabilities are hard coded into the grammar.
- Say it is observed that a speaker produces variant A 25% of the time and variant B 75% of the time.
- These probabilities are then hard coded into the grammar of this speaker (the implementation varies by model).
- This will ensure that when a form is produced, there is a 25% chance of producing A, and a 75% chance of producing B.

- The typical problem with such approaches is that they do not explain anything.
- Instead, they are formalizations of observations.
- I.e. we observe X in the output, so we put X in the grammar to ensure that the speaker produces X.



- More relevant here is that a purely probabilistic approach assumes that the only thing distinguishing the variants is their frequencies.
- In other words, the choice of one variant over another has nothing to do with the context (linguistic or extra-linguistic).
- This is probably incorrect.



Factors influencing choice of variant

- We know of many factors which strongly influence which variant is 'chosen'.
- They include:
 - Speech rate
 - Interlocutor or audience
 - Social setting
 - Theme (what you are talking about)



- Models of probabilistic grammars can implement mechanisms in which these factors change the probabilities of different variants.
- E.g. when you shift to an interlocutor of a specific type, the probabilities of variant A vs. variant B changes from 25 % vs. 75 % to 65 % vs. 35 %.
- But this is also just hard coding the observations, and there is no explanation for why these factors change the probabilities the way they do.



- One model that has been quite successful in explaining variation in phonetics is the "exemplar model".
- Here I will lay out the core properties of the model and suggest how it can account for variation in phonology and morphology as well.



- It was long an assumption that phonetic and extra-linguistic details of a perceived word were 'stripped away' as the word was passed through the perceptual and representational systems.
- E.g. when a listener perceived the word *cat*, all that remained in the end was the phonemic string /kæt/.
- A range of experiments have shown that this is not true.



When perceiving a pronunciation of the word *cat*, listeners actually 'remember':

Phonetic details (length, pitch, aspiration, vowel quality, etc.)

- Extra-linguistic details (voice, loudness, gender, situation, etc.)
- Perceived tokens of a word are stored as individual *episodic* memories, which we call *exemplars*.



Evidence for exemplars

- In several experiments, people have been recorded reading out lists of words.
- Then they listen to recordings of other people pronouncing these words.
- Then they are asked to read out the words again.
- In the second round of reading, their pronunciations have shifted significantly towards the pronunciations they had heard from others.

Evidence for exemplars

- Somehow the phonetic details of what they have heard are influencing what they themselves produce.
- This is not possible unless these phonetic details have been stored somehow.
- Since features from these episodes then show up in their own productions, it means that speakers draw from these exemplars when producing speech.
- Stored episodic memories (exemplars) form the basis for linguistic production.

- The mental representation of a word consists of a 'cloud' of exemplars.
- In production, speakers draw from this cloud.
- Most people assume some noise/randomness and averaging over exemplars in the selection procedure.



- Exemplars are 'tagged' with different features.
- All exemplars produced by men are tagged 'male', exemplars produced in a formal setting are tagged 'formal', etc.
- Clouds are connected by tags in a multidimensional network.

- All exemplars in the cloud are not equal.
- They differ in terms of *activation*, just like other memories do.
- Recent exemplars are more activated, while old exemplars weaken and fade away (as memories do).



- Exemplars can be activated through their tags and connections.
- Exemplars which were perceived in formal settings, are tagged 'formal'.
- When the speaker is in a formal setting, exemplars tagged 'formal' are activated.
- Activated exemplars will in turn activate other exemplars they are connected with.



- When the speaker produces a word, the more activated exemplars contribute more to the selection process.
- Speakers will therefore mimic recently heard words more than words heard a long time ago.
- And speakers will mimic words produced in similar contexts as the words they are currently uttering.



Evidence for the exemplar cloud

- The cloud for a word consists of episodic memories of that word being produced.
- The more frequent a word is, the more exemplars in the cloud.
- When a word is perceived and stored, its contribution to the cloud is inversely proportional to the size of the cloud.
- The more exemplars a word has, the less a new exemplar will contribute to its cloud overall.



Evidence for the exemplar cloud

- As a result, we expect to find that speakers are less influenced by recently perceived tokens for high frequency words than for low frequency words.
- Speakers should mimic newly perceived words more when these words have low frequency.
- This is exactly what experiments show.



Exemplar model and variation – phonology

- Speakers have exemplars tagged with /ç/ and /ʃ/.
- Some speakers have lost this contrast, and so they now all have the same tag, e.g. /ʃ/.
- But the exemplars still contain [ç] and [ʃ], since this is what was being perceived.
- When the speaker wants to produce /ʃ/, all exemplars with this tag are activated, thus activating both [ç] and [ʃ].
- The speaker will then produce both [ç] and [ʃ] as variants of /ʃ/.

Exemplar model and variation – phonology

- Speakers have a cloud for the word *sol*.
- Tokens produced by members of the upper class or in formal settings will be tagged accordingly, others as lower class or informal.
- When the speaker finds himself in a formal setting, the tag 'formal' is activated, thus activating more exemplars of the kind [suːl], making this variant more likely to be uttered.
- Conversely, in an informal setting, 'informal' is activated, making [su:[] more likely.

Exemplar model and variation – morphology

- A speaker wants to produce the perfect form of a weak verb.
- The perfect forms of that word will thus be activated.
- But these exemplars are connected with other verbs also tagged with 'PERF'.
- The perfect forms in *-i* of strong verbs will also be activated.
- As a result, the -*i* from a strong verb will occasionally be selected instead of the 'correct' weak verb ending -*a*.

Exemplar model and variation – morphology

- In dialects with a dative vs. non-dative contrast, the plural ending -om is tagged 'DAT.PL.', and the plural ending -ne with 'NON-DAT.PL'.
- For some speakers, the case contrast is lost, so that all plural forms are simply tagged 'PL'.



Exemplar model and variation – morphology

- The clouds for these plural forms will contain both forms in *-om* and *-ne*.
- When such a speaker wants to produce a plural form, -om and -ne are both activated.
- The speaker will then produce both *-om* and *-ne* as variants of the plural.



Exemplar model and variation

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- These were some illustrations of how the exemplar model can be useful in explaining how and why variation exists in a synchronic grammar.
- Whether this can be extended to all cases of synchronic variation, is less clear.
- While the exemplar model has been a popular model to explain phonetic production, no one has (to my knowledge) tried to incorporate an exemplar framework into a theory of grammar.
- It is even less clear how the exemplar model can be applied to syntax.

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