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Moving beyond Pāṇini: causal theories in linguistics

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a VERY brief history of linguistics
or: why linguistics has a problem with causal theories

The origin of grammatical analysis

Pāṇini's *Aṣṭādhyāyī* (fl. 4th c. BCE)

3,959 rules of Sanskrit

An example:

“2.3.1 if not already expressed,

2.3.2 for goal: case 2 (ACC)

2.3.46 for gender and number only (i.e. no role specs): case 1 (NOM)

3.4.69 for agent, goal or intransitive: *laḥ* (finite verb endings)”

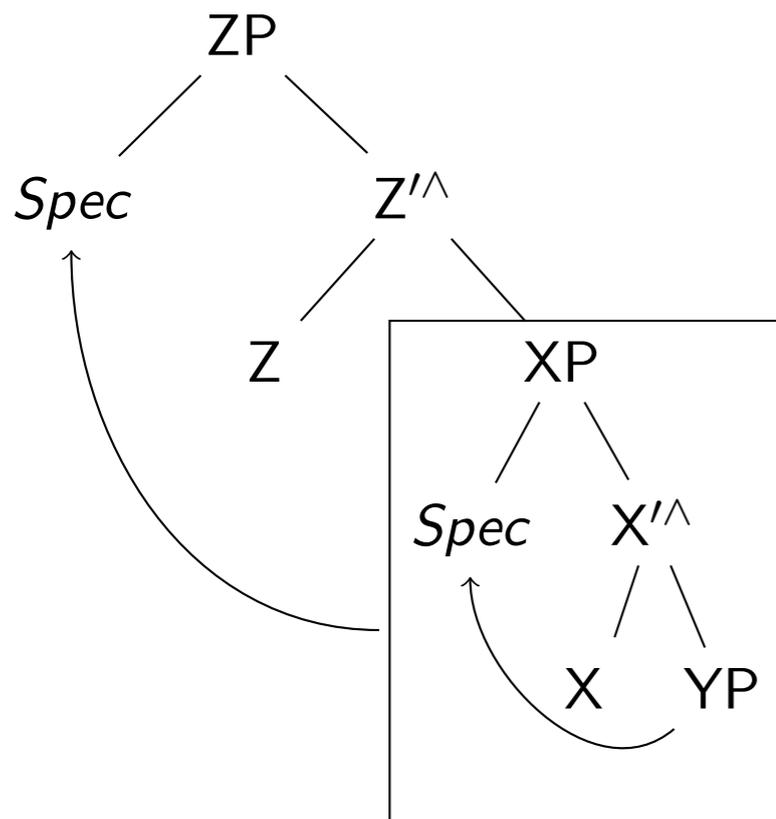
We get accusative on goals *because* it's the law.

Linguistics is engineering, even now

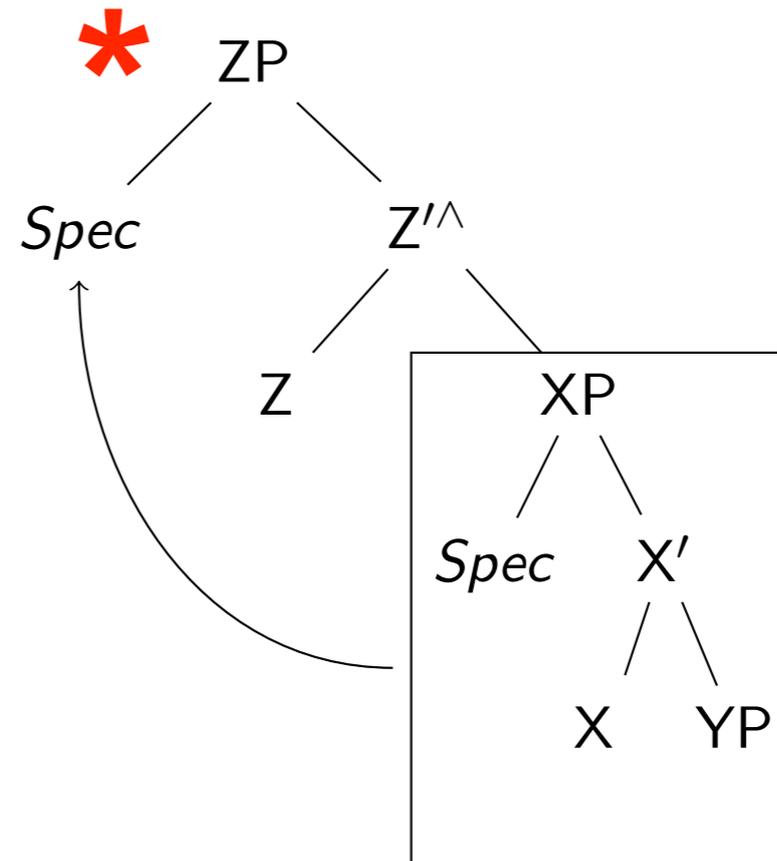
- Formulate the most concise, most parsimonious, most elegant description, like Pāṇini!
- Mostly a goal in itself: “pure linguistics” (Lazard 2012*)
- But perhaps not so interesting for other disciplines:
 - The most elegant and concise description may not capture
 - the generalizations by which children learn
 - the components that fit with the phylogeny of language
 - the units that brains process
- Still, linguists adopt the Pāṇinian style even for cross-linguistic work...

Pāṇinian Thinking in Comparative Linguistics, Typology

- Formulate a law and explain away any counter-examples!
- And so **the law causes the facts!**
- Illustration: The Final-Over-Final-Constraint (a modern version of Greenberg Universal #2; Biberauer et al. 2014*)



e.g. [PP [NP YP N] P]



e.g. *[PP [NP N YP] P]

Pāṇinian Thinking in Comparative Linguistics, Typology

- *Counterexample* in Harar Oromo (Kushitic, Owens 1985)

[PP [NP *maná* [NP *obbolesá xiyyá*]] =*tt*
house brother my in
N NP P



- *Solution*: Explain the example away, e.g. limit the FOFC to complements with the same category features (Biberauer et al. 2014*) and argue that Oromo postpositions are [+V], or indeed not postposition at all.

Why not?

- Nothing is guaranteed to be exceptionless, not even “exceptionless ($p < .05$)” (Piantadosi & Gibson 2014^{*})
- No idea what survived the human population bottlenecks 20-60kya!
- So pick generalizations that are justified (Chomsky 1964ff), but this leaves us in the end perhaps only with very abstract generalizations like
 - simple composition (α & β), as shared with other species (e.g. mongooses, Janssen et al. 2012⁺)
 - supra-regularity, as shared with other cognitive domains (e.g. action, Fitch 2014[†])
 - recursion, as shared with other species when limited to regular grammars (e.g. Tamarin monkeys; Fitch & Hauser 2004[‡])
 - asymmetry (categories), as shared with other species (e.g. Campbell monkeys; Ouattara et al. 2009[§])

A cheap way out

- Plough through databases, find soft constraints (correlations). Then explain them *post hoc*...
- **but this is the very problem that brings us here!**
 - sample?
 - missing data
 - unclear stochastic process
 - **causality?**

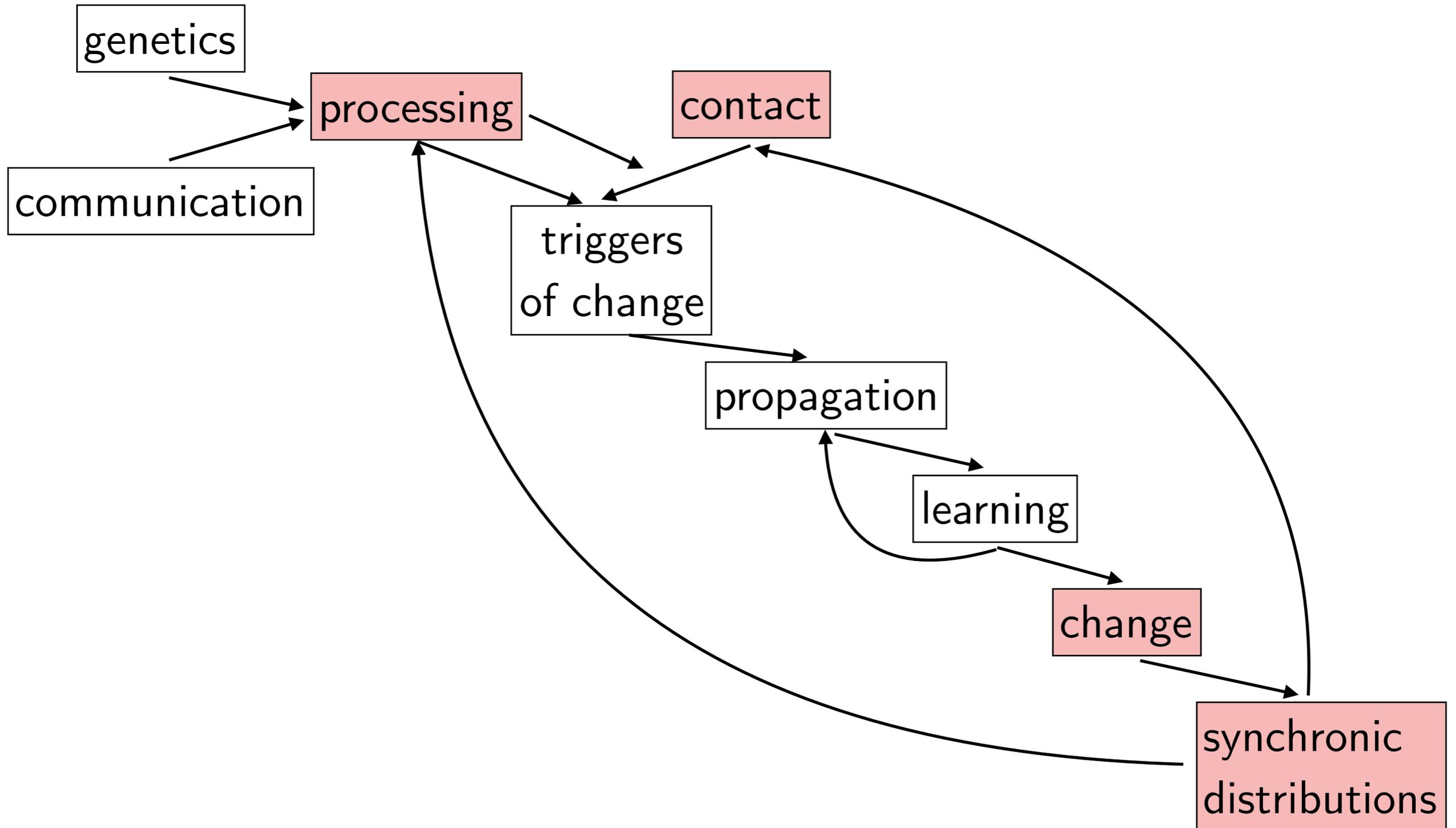
**Perhaps after nearly 2500 years,
it's time to move on!**

A more expensive way out: a normal science approach

- **How is the (evolutionary, diachronic, ontogenetic) development of specific parts of languages *caused* by the natural and social ecology of language?**
- For this, we need:
 - (1) **Theories** on how natural and social conditions causes specific patterns in language evolution, change and development so that structures end up with the distributions we observe
 - (2) Fine-grained variables for **measuring** these distributions. Adequate iff
 - descriptively correct
 - cross-linguistically applicable
 - in sync with what we know about processing, acquisition
 - (3) Statistical **models** for testing (1) against (2)

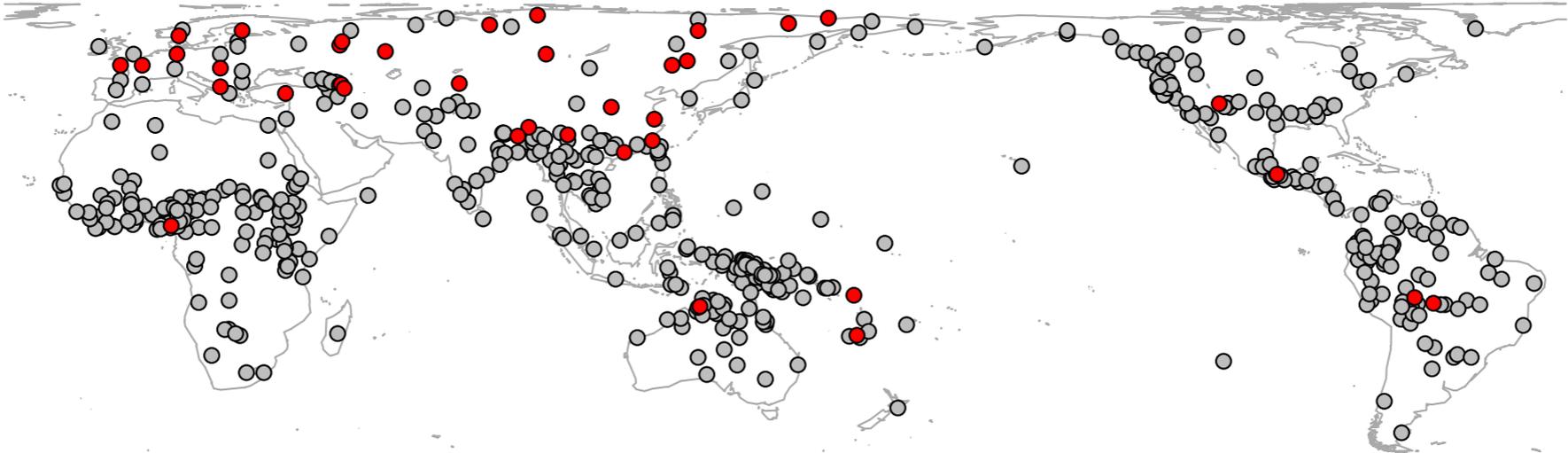
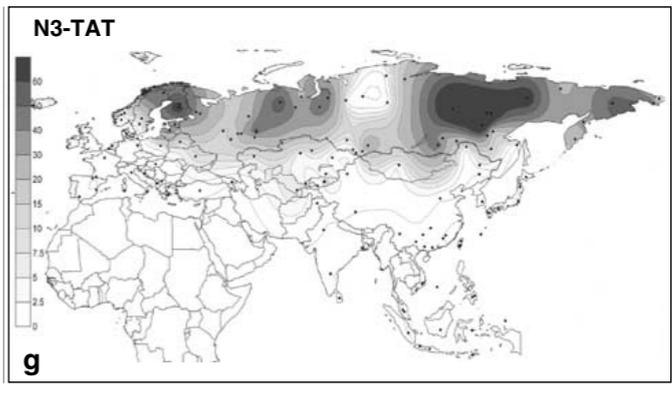
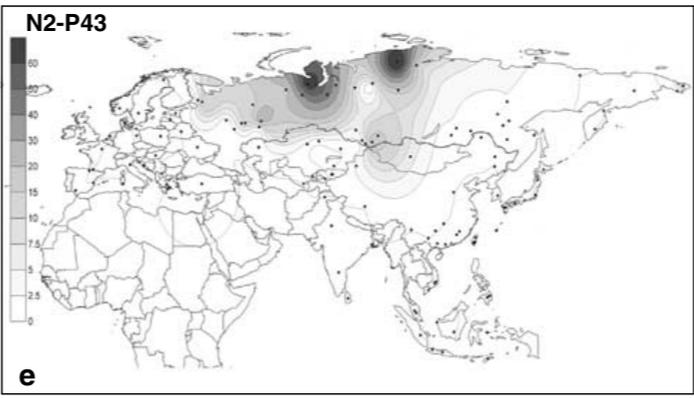
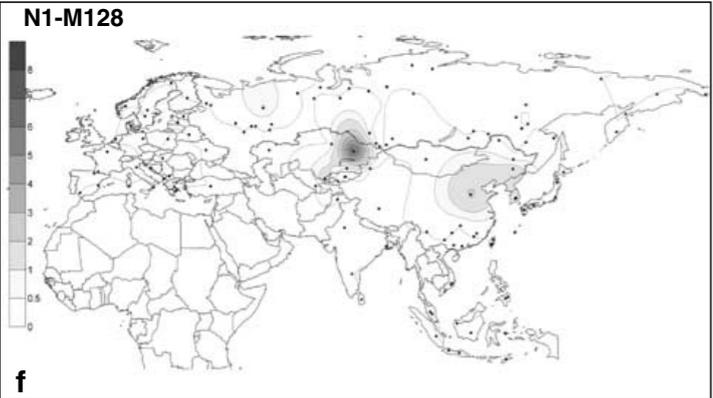
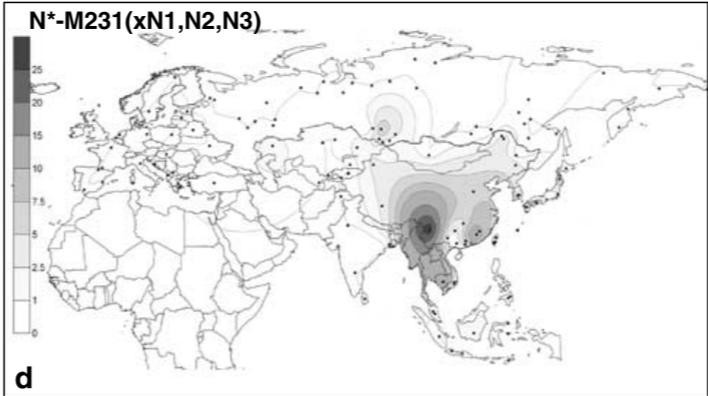
Theories

- General framework (cf. talks by Dan Dediu, Morten Christiansen, Florian Jaeger, Jasmeen Kanwal, Christian Bentz)



Causal theories — some examples

- **Event-based theories:** contact effects limited to concrete, *localized and historical* events, with no functional motivation, e.g. events in Eurasia in the least 14ky:



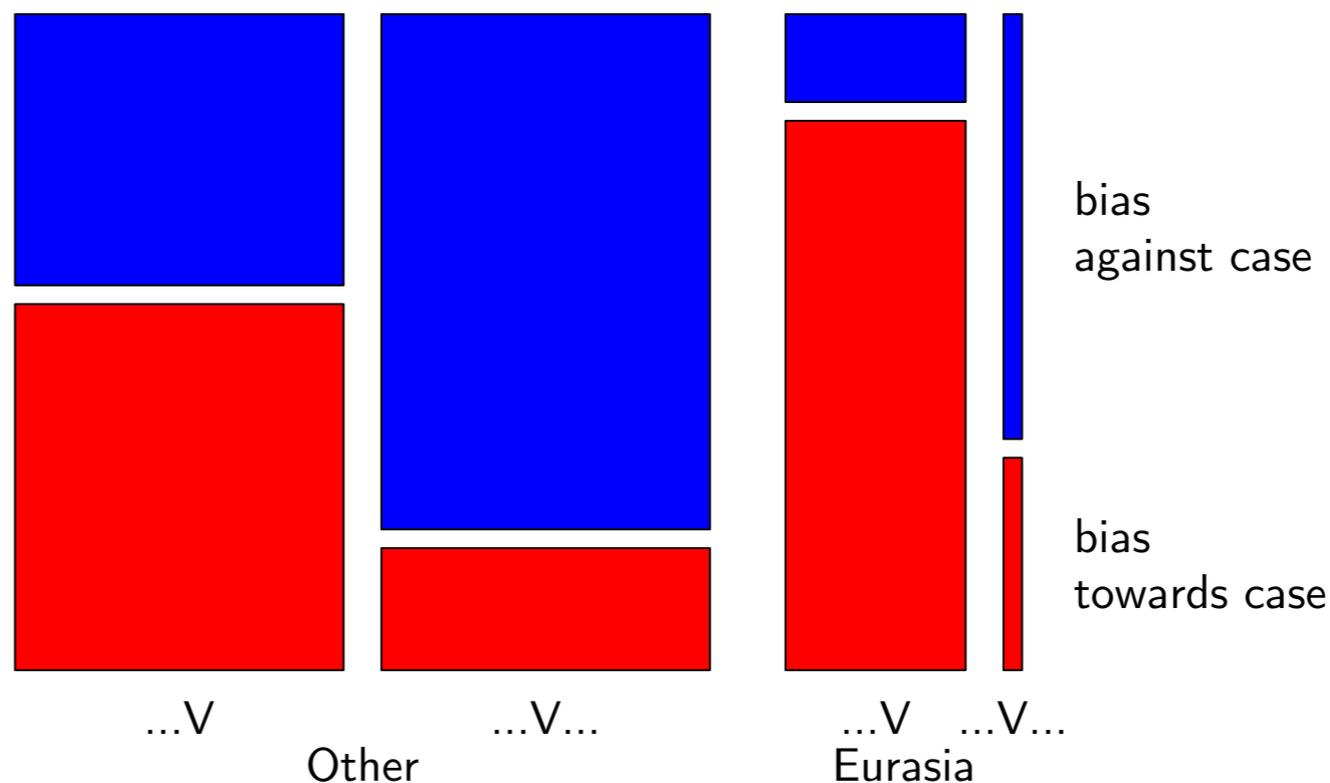
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Causal theories — some examples

- **Functional theories:** processing and communication principles cause certain directions in language change, e.g.
 - High cost of voicing in word-final position favors development and maintenance of final devoicing (Blevins 2004^{*})
 - Low humidity disfavors development and maintenance of rich tonal distinctions (Everett et al. 2015⁺; also Coupé's talk)
 - Signal transmission in verb-final structures is safer with case makers (Hall et al. 2013[†], Gibson et al. 2013[‡])
 - Informative communication prefers certain lexical patterns (Regier's talk)
 - Priming trends cause differences in NP frequency (Bickel 2003[§])
 - *Perhaps:* supra-regular computation favors the development and maintenance of embedded phrase structures ("*Dendrophilia*", Fitch 2014[#])

Signals may be weak

- Causes trigger *possible* change, but actualization requires many opportunities for change (many speakers, many generations) because:
 - uncertainty of social propagation (but once there, we get amplification through feedback loop in the next generation; cf Dediu's talk)
 - competing forces: e.g. contact events can enhance or suppress a principled trigger of change



- In fact, a causal trigger must not be too strong: it might harm communication and acquisition!

Methodological challenge

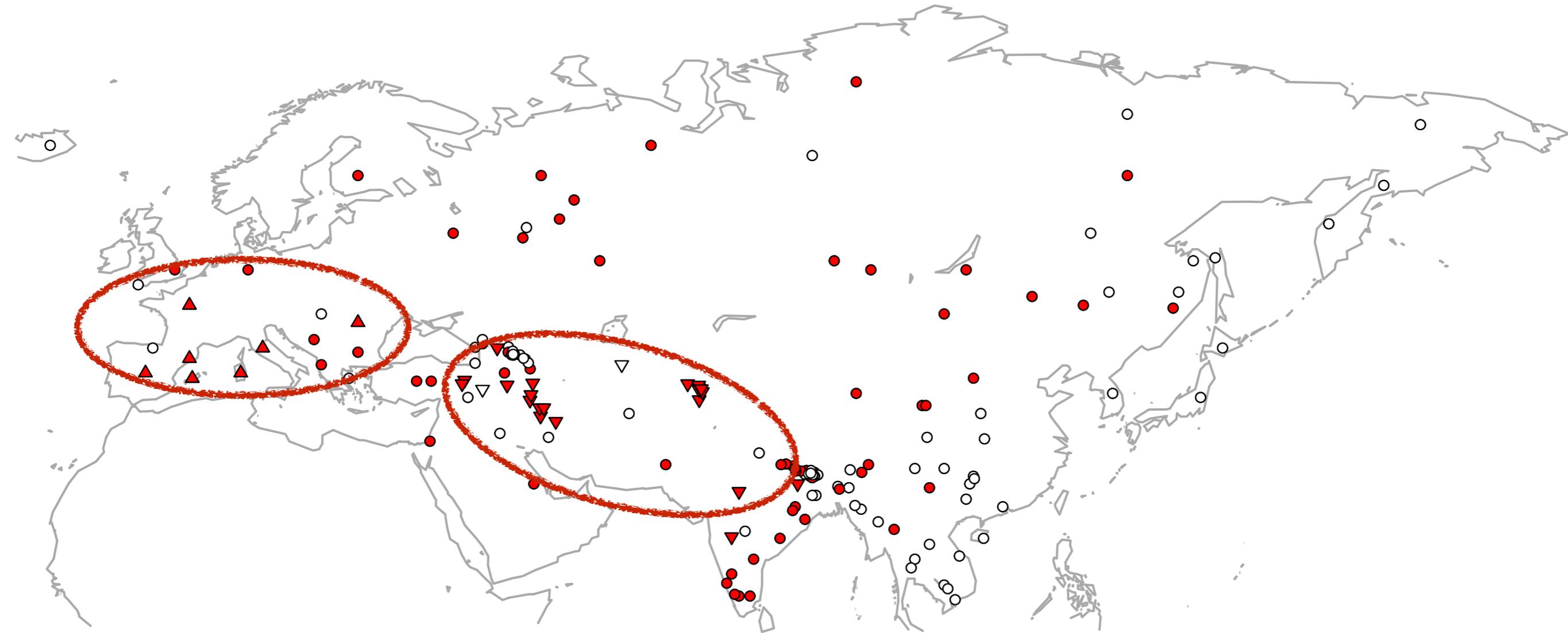
- must pick up signals of change: diachronic transition probabilities (Maslova 2000 etc.)
- even when languages don't belong to a family (44-47% of all families have only 1 known member*)

Traditional approaches

- Family relations are a confound (Galton's Problem, Simpson's Paradox), so control for them by...:
 - strategic sampling (Dryer 1989*), or re-sampling (Everett et al. 2015+)
 - modeling them as fixed (Dediu & Ladd 2007†, Bickel et al. 2009‡) or random (Jaeger et al. 2011§, Bentz & Winter 2013#) factors
- but...
 - even after controlling for confounds,
 - synchronic frequency estimates \Rightarrow transition probabilities:
 - the process may not have reached stationarity (Maslova 2000¶)
 - indeed sometimes has not reached stationarity (Cysouw 2011||),
 - especially when it is driven by local contact events!

and more problems..

- also, shared inheritance or parallel development within a family can be the very signal we seek to pick up!
- E.g. DOM in Romance (e.g. Spanish *a*, Romanian *pe*) or Indo-Iranian (e.g. Hindi *-ko*, Nepali *-lāi*, Persian *râ*)



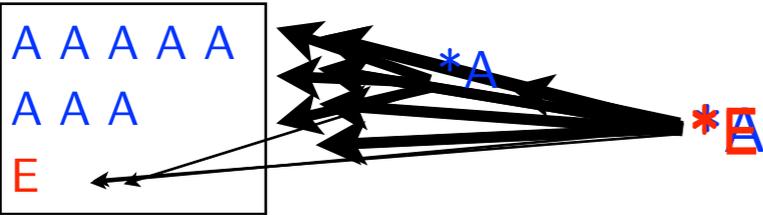
The Family Bias Method (or the Family of Family Bias Methods)

Core ideas:

1. Families are not a confound but demonstrated families are the very basis on which we can estimate transition probabilities (Greenberg 1978*, Maslova 2000+ etc.)
→ estimate difference in transition probabilities, eg. $P(A>B) > P(A<B)$:
“family biases”
2. We can estimate family biases even for isolates and small families via extrapolation (Bickel 2013[§])

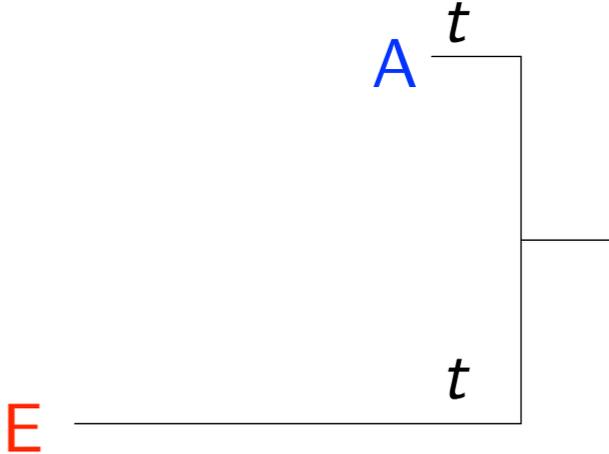
Step 1: estimating family biases in sufficiently large families

Set-based approach:

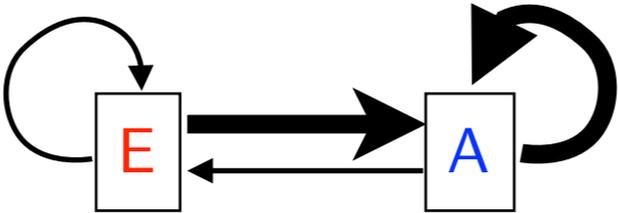


- Infer a family bias if A “dominates”, using e.g. a binomial test. (If nothing dominates, we don’t know.)

Tree-based approach:



- Estimate the best-fitting transition rate matrix Q in a Continuous-Time Markov chain
- Infer a family bias if $q_{AE} \neq q_{EA}$ fits the data better than $q_{AE} = q_{EA}$ (LR or BF)



Step 1: estimating family biases in sufficiently large families

Assumptions

	<i>set-based</i>	<i>tree-based</i>
<i>family model</i>	tree, wave, linkage, network	tree (strict)
<i>stochastic process of diachronic event</i>	independent multinomial trial	Continuous-Time Markov or Wiener process
<i>data requirement</i>	none	non-constant
<i>family requirement</i>	none	topology; branch lengths*

*e.g. length 1 between each node, assuming that anagenetic change in, say, the lexicon, is irrelevant for type change, especially if caused by contact (Thomason & Kaufman 1988)

Step 2: estimate bias probabilities behind small families and isolates

- Use the mean probability of bias in large families for estimating the *probability that a small family is what survives of a large family with a bias* (in whatever direction). E.g. Laplace estimates on biases with 95%CI:

Africa	Eurasia	Pacific	N/C America	S America
.92 (.75,1)	.75 (.48, .94)	.5 (.27,.73)	.88 (.59,1)	.5 (.15,.85)

- if estimated to be biased, estimate direction of bias value (e.g. E) based on what they have, allowing for deviations with a probability based on deviations in large families, and resolving ties at random, e.g.

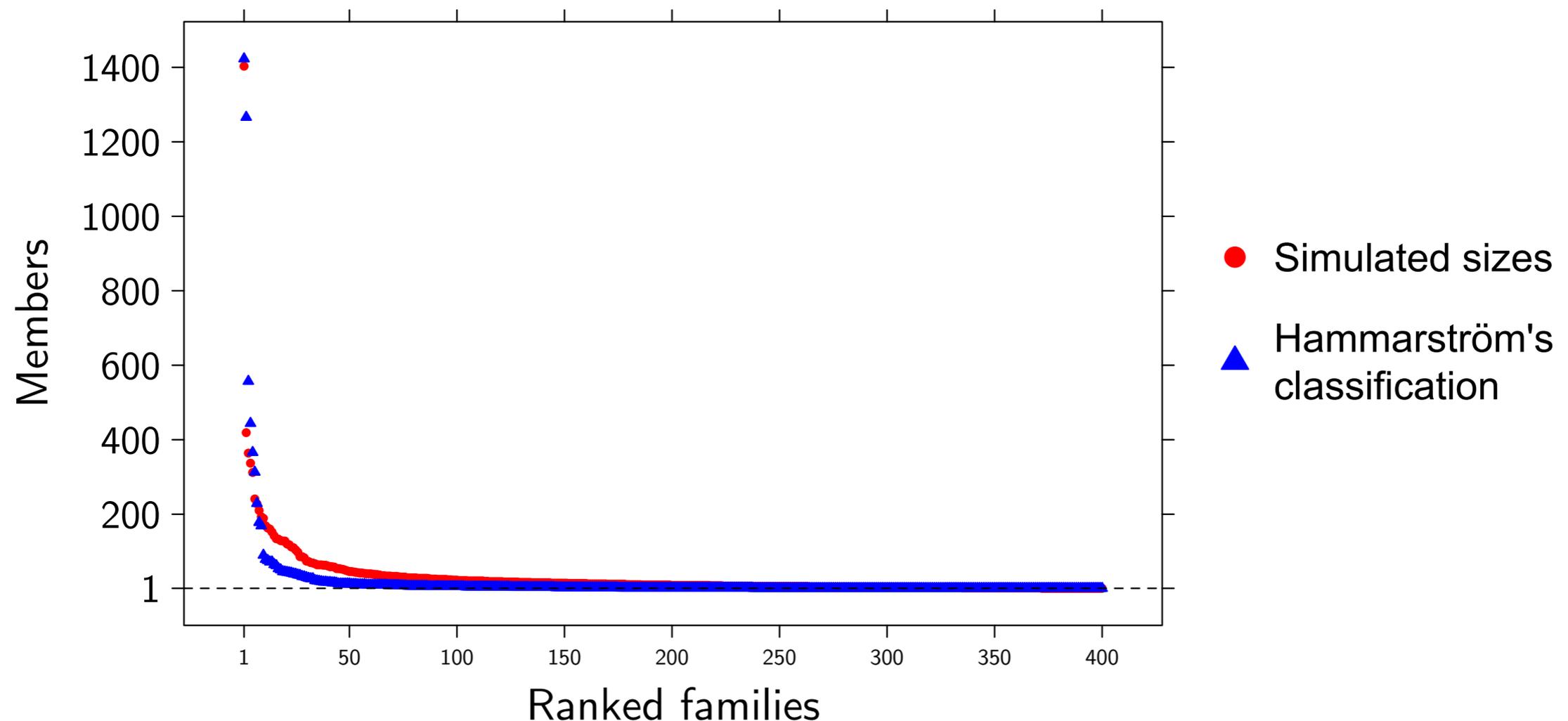
	Africa	Eurasia	Pacific	N/C America	S America
AUTOTYP	.0	.027	.034	.0002	0.01

- take the mean across many extrapolations (e.g. 10,000)

Performance of methods in simulations (preliminary!)

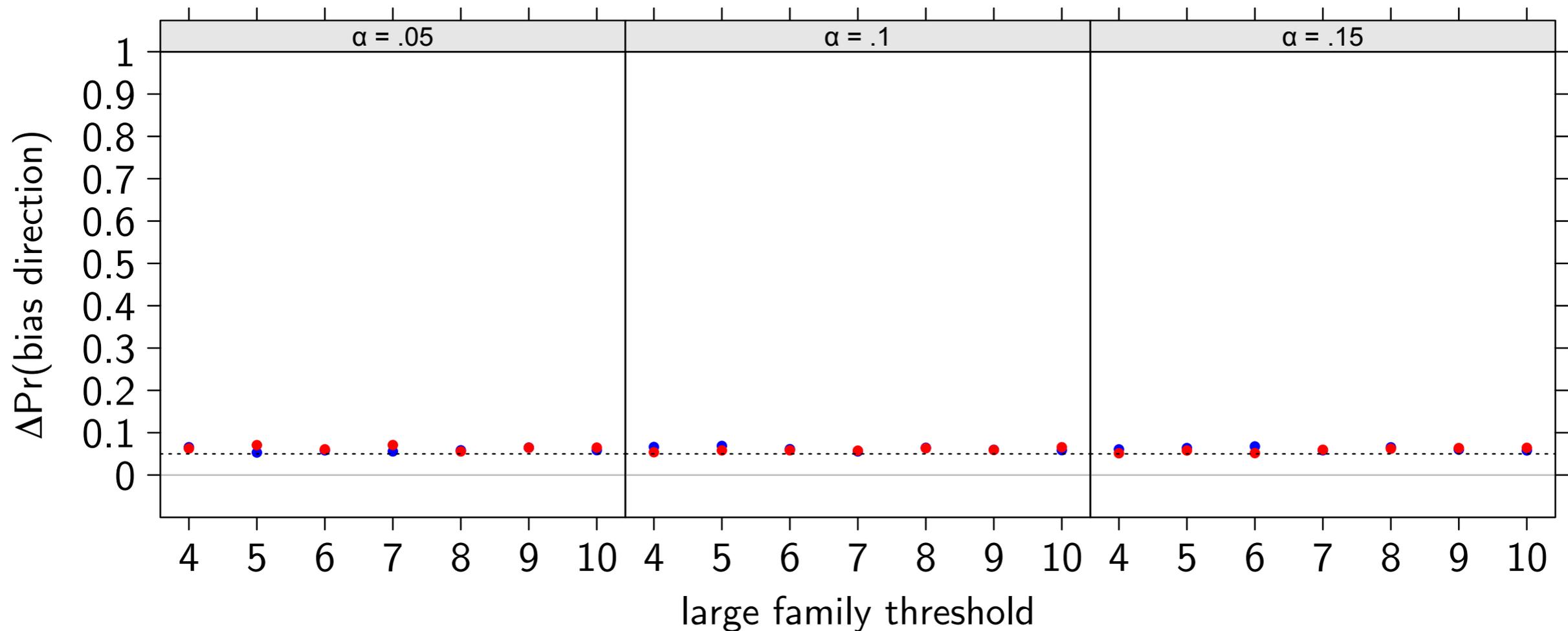
Simulation of a discrete-time Markov process, where language varieties can (within steps of ca. 100 years \sim 3 generations)

- *give birth*: Poisson process with birth rate $\lambda = [.7, .8]$
- *die or stay alive*: Bernoulli process with survival prob. $\pi = [.1, .2]$



Performance of methods in simulations (preliminary!)

- add a binomial variable with a family bias
- and see what we can recover, varying the definition of 'small family' and the rejection level of binomial test for inferring a bias in a family:



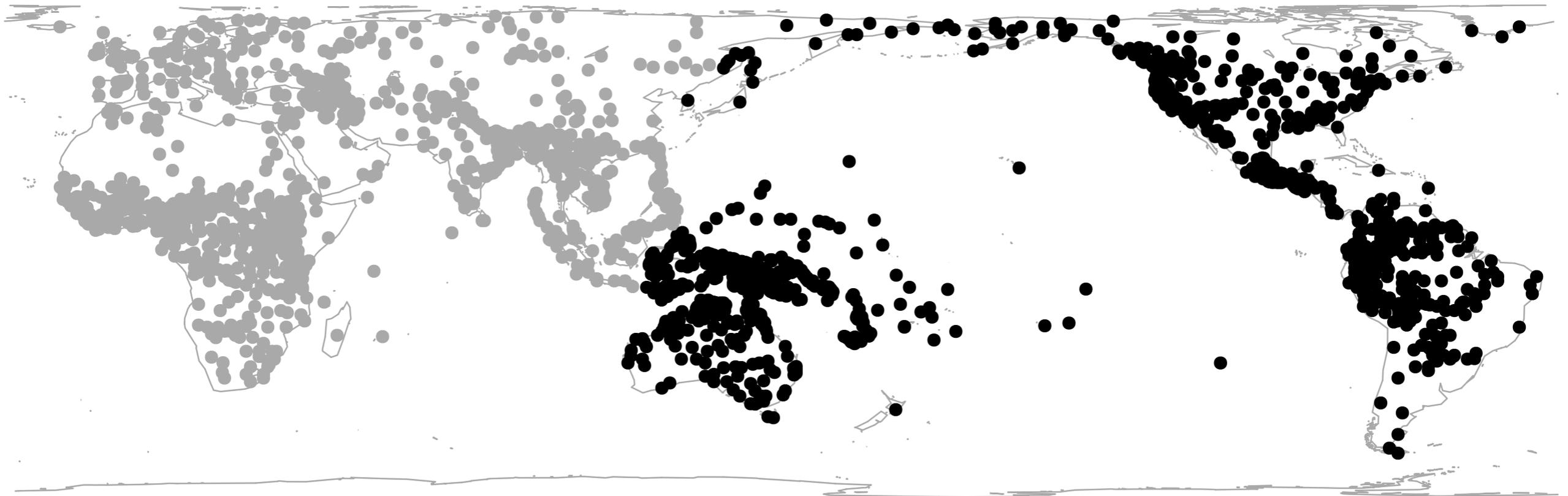
Mean $\text{Pr}(\text{bias direction})$ estimated lower than built in

Mean $\text{Pr}(\text{bias direction})$ estimated higher than built in

So, we have framework and a method
→ apply in two case studies
focusing on methods

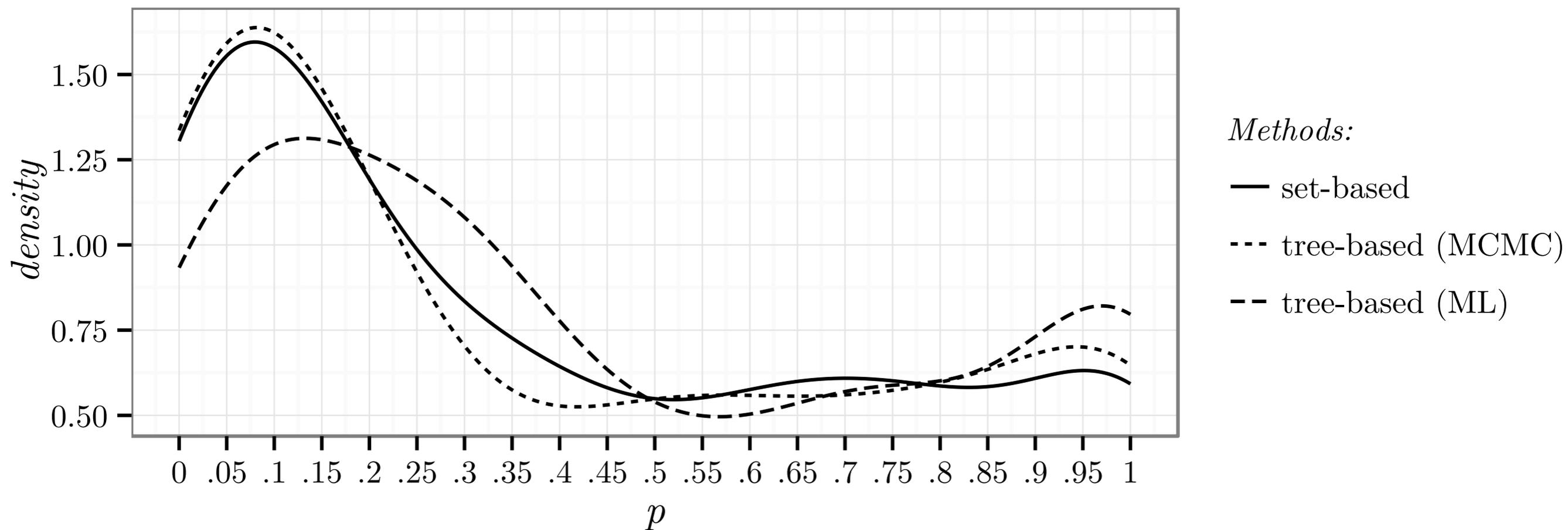
Case Study #1: the Trans-Pacific Hypothesis

- Causal theory grounded in the peopling of the Pacific and the Americas vs. the younger spreads in Eurasia 20-1kya and Africa in the past 2ky: contact triggers change towards similar properties
- **Hypothesis:** families show different diachronic biases in the Trans-Pacific area vs. elsewhere, keeping many diverse properties that were swept away through contact elsewhere



Case Study #1: the Trans-Pacific Hypothesis

- Data from AUTOTYP and (re-coded) WALS, $N \geq 250$, $k < 10$
- 354 multinomial variables coded for $N=[250, 1370]$ languages
- Set-based family bias estimates of large ($N \geq 5$) families with, $\alpha=.1$
- Tree-based family bias estimates of non-constant large families, $BF > 2$
- Extrapolations, then Fisher Exact Test of MEAN BIASES IN VARIABLE \times AREA



Case Study #1: the Trans-Pacific Hypothesis

- False Discovery Rate (q) estimates (using Dabney & Storey's 2014 bootstrap method):

	Significant at $\alpha < .05$	q at that level	Significant at $q < .1$
Set-based	73	0.16	32
Tree-based (MCMC)	71	0.15	26
Tree-based (ML)	43	0.27	17

- From this, subtract variants of variables, e.g re voicing distinctions in WALS:
 - MADVOI: {none, in_plos_ & _fric, in_plos_ only, in_fric_ only}
 - MADVOI2: {none, some}
- **30 true discoveries** (mean, set-based and MCMC-based estimates)

Case Study #1: the Trans-Pacific Hypothesis

- Top 15:

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Source</i>	<i>N(lgs)</i>	<i>p (sets)</i>	<i>p (MCMC)</i>	<i>p (ML)</i>	<i>Trans-Pacific</i>	<i>Other</i>	<i>Variant of</i>
MADVOI2	WALS	565	0.0000	0.0000	0.0001	–voicing	+voicing	
DRYPOS	WALS	794	0.0000	0.0007	0.0069	+poss pref	–poss pref; +poss suff	
MADVOI	WALS	565	0.0000	0.0018	0.0079	–voicing in plos/fric	+voicing in plos/fric	MADVOI2
DRYPOS0	WALS	591	0.0000	0.0003	0.0000	+poss pref;–poss suff	–poss pref; +poss suff; –both	DRYPOS0
MADLAT2	WALS	565	0.0001	0.0002	0.0002	–laterals	+laterals	
BAKADP2	WALS	377	0.0002	0.0002	0.0009	–adp	+adp	
DRYGEN	WALS	1102	0.0002	0.0024	0.0009	–NGen	+NGen	
MADLAT	WALS	565	0.0002	0.0031	0.0046	–non-obstr lat	+non-obstr lat	MADLAT2
DRYGEN0	WALS	1020	0.0002	0.0002	0.0001	–Nnp	–npN; +Nnp	DRYGEN
POLYAGR	AUTOTYP	331	0.0004	0.0001	0.0018	–without;+POLYAGR	+without; –POLYAGR	
DRYDEM0	WALS	1011	0.0004	0.0004	0.0017	+DemN;–NDem	–DemN; +NDem	
MADPRS	WALS	565	0.0006	0.0000	0.0019		+Labial–velars	
LOCUS.POSS	AUTOTYP	270	0.0008	0.0376	0.3543		–H	
MADTON02	WALS	525	0.0008	0.0009	0.0029	+atonal;–tonal	–atonal; +tonal	
HASWAN03	WALS	269	0.0011	0.0011	0.0055	+desid aff	+implicit subj; –desid aff	
LOCUS.POSS.S	AUTOTYP	276	0.0013	0.0025	0.3346		–H	LOCUS.POSS

- Pearson Residual Analysis:

- 83% positive for outside Trans-Pacific (mean across methods)
- 28% positive inside Trans-Pacific (mean across methods)

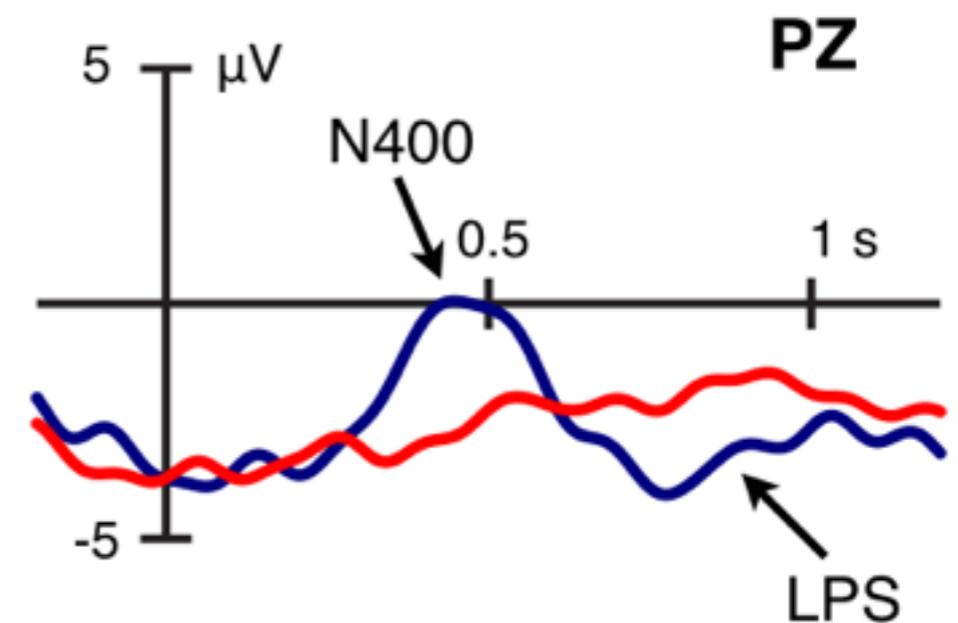
Case Study #2: The Anti-Ergative Hypothesis

- Primacy of A arguments in processing:

dass *Peter* *Lehrerinnen*
that Peter: ~~S~~/A/P? teachers: A/P?

mag [NP1 was A!]
likes
mögen [NP1 was P!]
like

- The comprehension system tends to first assume that an unmarked initial NP is S or A, but not P
- If this NP later turns out to be P, this triggers an N400 (+ LPS):
→ ERP effect (“Anti-Ergative Effect”)



Case Study #2: The Anti-Ergative Hypothesis

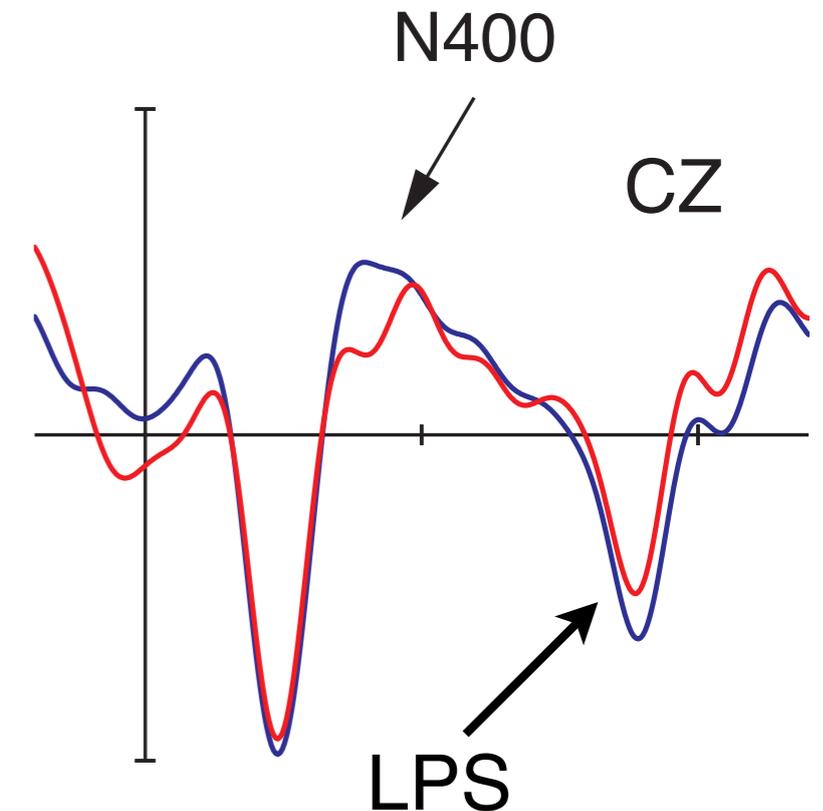
The Anti-Ergative Effect is independent of:

- *Frequency*: because of frequent A drop, initial NPs in Turkish tend to be P arguments, but the effect is still there (Demiral et al. 2008*)
- *Animacy*: initial NPs in Turkish tend to be inanimate, but the effect is still there (Demiral et al. 2008*)
- *Topicality*: initial NPs in Chinese show the effect regardless of whether the context makes them topical or not (Wang et al. 2010+)
- *The role played by {S,A} vs {P} alignment in grammar*: very restricted relevance in Chinese but the effect is there nevertheless (Wang et al. 2009#)

Case Study #2: The Anti-Ergative Hypothesis

And it even shows up in languages with ergative case, such as Hindi:

<i>kitāb</i> book(FEM)[NOM]	<i>bec-ī</i> sell-PP.FEM	(<i>Rām-ne</i>) Ram-ERG
<i>kitāb-ko</i> book(FEM)-ACC	<i>bec-ā</i> sell-PP.MASC	(<i>Rām-ne</i>) R-ERG



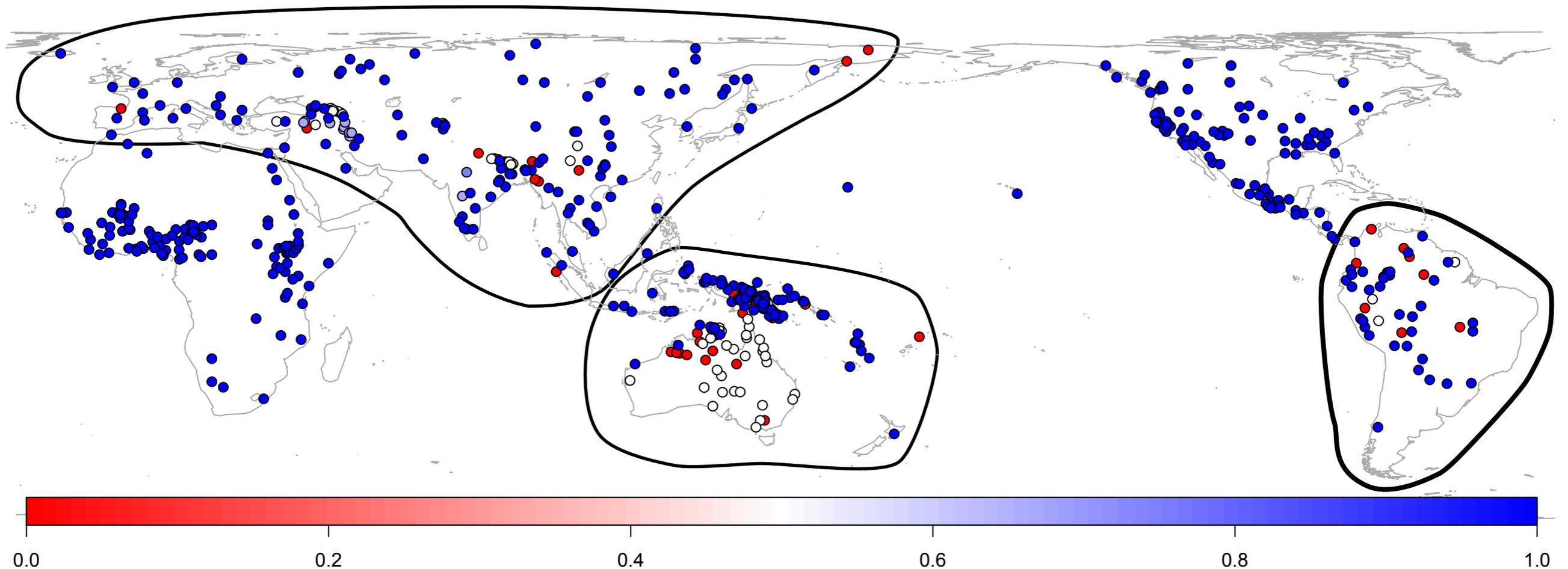
Although Hindi NOM structurally includes and often prefers a P-reading, the processing system first interprets it as S or A!

Hypothesis:

- If the Anti-Ergative Effect indeed applies universally to every unmarked initial NP, and if systems adapt to their processing environment, expect them
 - ▶ to attempt to reanalyze initial NPs as covering {S,A}
 - ▶ to avoid reanalyzing initial NPs as covering {S,P}

Case Study #2: The Anti-Ergative Hypothesis

- Tested on 617 languages, 712 subsystems (e.g. past vs. nonpast); excluding V-initial structures
- Controlling for possible event-based areal diffusion effects

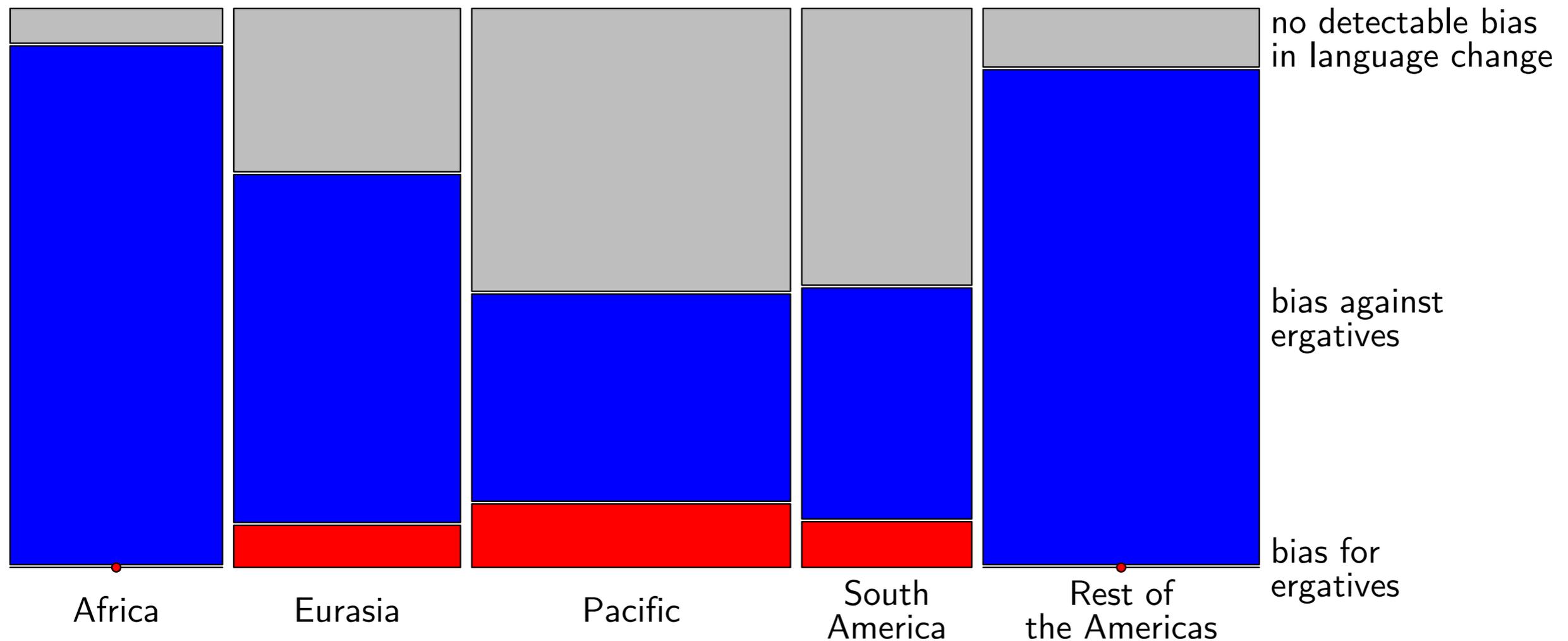


E ($S \neq A$)

A ($S = A$)

(means per language, across all NP types, clause types, and valency classes)

Case Study #2: The Anti-Ergative Hypothesis



Bias for ergatives vs. against ergatives is determined both by:

- contact histories (AREA \times BIAS DIRECTION, LR $p < .01$)
- Anti-Ergative Effect: more ergative biases than anti-ergative biases across all areas (binomial $ps < .05$)

Results are the same across methods and genealogical data (set-based vs tree-based estimates, AUTOTYP vs. GLOTTOLOG trees etc.)

Conclusions

- Causal theories are tricky in traditional, Pāṇinian linguistics
- Alternative: theories of historical contact events and functional constraints
→ causes for biases in language change
- Now testable (though we obviously still need better methods, e.g. sensitive to partial tree or network structures in families)
- Describe language so we can test theories: descriptions need to become even more typologically informed than in the past