## עבבוד שפות טבעיות

שולי וינטנר

## Morphology

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Why look at many languages?

## Example

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לדבר is third person, plural, past form of the verb דברו

- this form is obtained by concatenating the suffix ) [u] to the base דיבר [dibber]
- in the inflected form דברו, the vowel [e] of the base [dibber] is reduced to a schwa. This reduction is mandatory, as [dibberu] is ungrammatical.


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In the example, the final form is obtained by concatenating an affix (which is not a word) to the end of a base (which might be a word).

- Interaction of morphology and phonology

In the example, the vowel $[\mathrm{e}]$ is shortened to a schwa.

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Inflectional : distinct features are merged into a single bound form. Example: Latin

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gǒu bú ài chī qīngcài
dog not like eat vegetable
Can mean any of the following (inter alia):

- the dog doesn't like to eat vegetables
- the dog didn't like to eat vegetables
- the dogs don't like to eat vegetables
- the dogs didn't like to eat vegetables
- dogs don't like to eat vegetables


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"The grammar is in the morphology"

## Inflectional languages

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am ó
love $1 p / S g /$ Pres/Indicative/Active

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Hence: words have paradigms, defining all possible inflected forms of a word. Words which belong to the same paradigm are all inflected forms of a single morpheme.

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Example: החלטיות $\rightarrow$ החלטי $\rightarrow$ החלטה $\rightarrow ה ח ל י ט ~$

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## Verbal morphology

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Example: passivization (Latin)
puer Cicerōnem laudat
boy Cicero praise/3/Sg/Pres/Ind/Act
"the boy praises Cicero"
Cicerōnem laudātur
Cicero praise/3/Sg/Pres/Ind/Pass
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Example: causativization נפל ז הפיל; נסע ז הסיע

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Example: Latin
vir Cicerōnem laudābō
man Cicero praise/3/Sg/Future/Ind
"the man will praise Cicero"
vir Cicerōnem laudāvit
man Cicero praise/3/Sg/Perf/Ind
"the man has praised Cicero"

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In some languages (e.g., Georgian and Chichewa) verbs agree not only with their subjects but also with their objects.

## Nominal morphology

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Inflectional categories for nouns (and adjectives) include

- number (singular, plural, dual)
- case (marking various kinds of semantic function)
- gender (feminine, masculine, neuter)

Latin has five cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative.

Finnish has fourteen different cases!
Example: the inflection paradigm of the noun magnus (big) in Latin.

## The inflection paradigm of Latin magnus

|  |  | masculine | feminine | neuter |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sing. | nom | magn+us | magn+a | magn+um |
|  | gen | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | magn+ae | magn+ $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ |
|  | dat | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ | magn+ae | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ |
|  | acc | magn+um | magn+am | magn+um |
|  | abl | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ | magn $+\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ |
| plur. | nom | magn+ $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | magn+ae | magn+a |
|  | gen | magn+ōrum | magn+ārum | magn+ōrum |
|  | dat | magn+is | magn+is | magn + İs |
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Example: Swahili has inflection affixes for humans, thin objects, paired things, instruments and extended body parts, inter alia.

## Adjectival morphology

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Example: Welsh

| gwyn | gwynn+ed | gwynn+ach | gwynn+af |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| white | as white | whiter | whitest |
| teg | tec + ed | tec + ach | tec + af |
| fair | as fair | fairer | fairest |

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Negation: able $\rightarrow$ unable; אוטי

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Example: policeman; newspaper; בית ספר; יפת עינום
Both lexemes might undergo modification in the process.
In German, the concatenation is expressed in the orthography:
lebensversicherungsgesellschaftsangestellter
leben s versicherung s gesellschaft s angestellter life insurance company employee

## What are morphemes?

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In order to know what morphemes are, it is useful to check in what ways they are expressed.

The simplest model of morphology is the situation where a morphologically complex word can be analyzed as a series of morphemes concatenated together.

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The simplest model of morphology is the situation where a morphologically complex word can be analyzed as a series of morphemes concatenated together.

An example: Turkish. Not only is Turkish morphology exclusively concatenative; in addition, all affixes are suffixes. Turkish words are of the form stem suffix*.
çöplüklerimizdekiledenmiydi
çöp lük ler imiz de ki ler den mi y di garbage Aff Pl 1p/PI Loc Rel PI Abl Int Aux Past

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Example: Bontoc (Philippines)
fikas $\rightarrow$ f-um+ikas
strong be strong
kilad $\rightarrow$ k-um+ilad
red be red
fusul $\rightarrow$ f-um+usul
enemy be an enemy

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Example: Ulwa (Nicaragua)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { suu+ki-lu } & \text { my dog } \\
\text { suu }+ \text { ma-lu } & \text { your (Sg) dog } \\
\text { suu+ka-lu } & \text { his/her/its dog } \\
\text { suu }+ \text { ni-lu } & \text { our (inclusive) dog } \\
\text { suu+ki+na-lu } & \text { our (exclusive) dog } \\
\text { suu }+ \text { ma }+ \text { na-lu } & \text { your (PI) dog } \\
\text { suu }+ \text { ka }+ \text { na-lu } & \text { their dog }
\end{array}
$$

## What are morphemes?

Some languages exhibit circumfixes, affixes which attach discontinuously around a stem.

Example: German participles

| säuseln | ge + säusel $+\mathbf{t}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| brüsten | ge + brüst + et |
| täuschen | ge + täusch $+\mathbf{t}$ |

## What are morphemes?

In contrast to processes of attaching an affix to a stem, there exist also nonsegmental morphological processes. A typical example is the Semitic root and pattern morphology.

Example: Hebrew binyanim
_a_a_, ni__a_, _i__el, _u__a_, hi__i_, hu_-a_, hit_a__e_.

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orang $\rightarrow$ orang+orang
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man men
Sometimes only part of the word is duplicated, as in Yidin (Australia) plural:
mulari $\rightarrow$ mula+mulari
man men
gindalba $\rightarrow$ gindal + gindalba
lizard lizards

## So, what are morphemes?

In its most general definition, a morpheme is an ordered pair 〈CAT, PHON〉, where CAT is the morphological category expressed by the morpheme (for example, its syntactic and semantic features), and PHON represents its phonological form, including the ways in which it is attached to its stem.

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Example:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \langle(A d j \rightarrow N \text {, "state of" }),([u t], \text { suffix })\rangle \\
& \text { נדיר ז נדירות }
\end{aligned}
$$

## What are words, then?

A morpheme is a pairing of syntactic/semantic information with phonological information. In the same way, it is useful to assume that words have dual structures: phonological and morphological. The two structures are not always isomorphic.

It is a fairly traditional observation in morphology that there are really two kinds of words from a structural point of view: phonological words and syntactic words. These two notions specify overlapping but not identical sets of entities. furthermore, the orthographic word might not correspond to any of these.

## What information should a morphological analyzer produce?

The answer depends on the application:
Sometimes it is sufficient to know that דברו is an inflected form of לדבר; sometimes morphological information is needed, either as a list of features (לברו is third person, plural, past form of the verb לדבר) or as a structure tree; sometimes it is better to produce a list of phonemes without determining word boundaries.

## Morphotactics

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Various kinds of such constraints are known.
Example:
טבע $\leftarrow ~ ט ב ע י ~ \leftarrow ~ ט ב ע י ו ת ~ \leftarrow ~ ע ל-ט ב ע י ו ת ~$
but
*טבעיות-על; *על-טבעותי

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Types of constraints:

- Constraints on the type of the affix: על is a prefix, ות is a suffix
- Syntactic constraints: [i] converts a noun to an adjective; [ut] converts an adjective to a noun
- Other constraints: in English, "Latin" affixes are attached before "native" ones:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { non+im+partial } & \text { non+il+legible } \\
* \text { in }+ \text { non+partial } & * \text { in+non+legible }
\end{array}
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Since most computational analyses of morphology assume written input, phonological rules are often confused with orthographic ones.

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Orthographic rules often do not correspond to phonological rules.

An orthographic rule that does not correspond to any phonological rule:

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An orthographic rule that does not correspond to any phonological rule:
city $+\mathrm{s} \rightarrow$ cities (and not *citys)
bake+ing $\rightarrow$ baking (and not $*$ bakeing)

## Phonology

A phonological rule (changing $\left[a^{j}\right]$ to $[i]$ ) is not reflected in the orthography:
divine+ity $\rightarrow$ divinity

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A phonological rule (changing [a ${ }^{j}$ ] to [i]) is not reflected in the orthography:
divine+ity $\rightarrow$ divinity
A phonological rule (stress shift) is not reflected in the orthography:
grammátical $\rightarrow$ grammaticálity

## Phonology

## Examples of phonological rules

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Examples of phonological rules
English: [n] changes to [m] before a labial consonant:
impossible; impose; immortal
Finnish: vowel harmony

| NOM | PART | gloss |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| taivas | taivas+ta | sky |
| puhelin | puheli+ta | telephone |
| lakeus | lakeus+ta | plain |
| syy | syy+tä | reason |
| lyhyt | lyhyt+tä | short |
| ystävällinen | ystävällinen+tä | friendly |

