עיבוד שפות טבעיות

שולי וינטנר

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Why look at many languages?

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- לדבר is third person, plural, past form of the verb
- this form is obtained by concatenating the suffix 1 [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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Interaction of morphology and phonology
In the example, the vowel [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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dog not like eat vegetable

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- gŏu 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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"המשבפחינו?"

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"The grammar is in the morphology"
Inflectional languages

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am ó *love 1p/Sg/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 → החלטי → החלטי

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Example: passivization (Latin)

puer Ciceronem laudat
boy Cicero praise/3/Sg/Pres/Ind/Act
"the boy praises Cicero"

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Example: causativization

נפל → הפיל; נסע → 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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הם דברו כל הלילה

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

Nominal morphology

Nominal morphology

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+ ī	magn+ ae	magn+ ī
	dat	magn+ ō	magn+ ae	magn+ ō
	acc	magn+ um	magn+ am	magn+ um
	abl	magn+ ō	magn+ ā	magn+ ō
plur.	nom	magn+ ī	magn+ ae	magn+ a
	gen	magn+ ōrum	magn+ ārum	magn+ ōrum
	dat	magn+ īs	magn+ īs	magn+ īs
	acc	magn+ ōs	magn+ ās	magn+ a
	abl	magn+ īs	magn+ īs	magn+ īs

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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

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

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נדיר → נדירות

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נדיר --- נדירות

Negation: able \rightarrow unable; אלתוטי \leftarrow אלחוטי

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Both lexemes might undergo modification in the process.

In German, the concatenation is expressed in the orthography:

lebensversicherungsgesellschaftsangestellter

leben s versicherung s gesellschaft s angestellterlifeinsurancecompanyemployee

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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 PI 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

 $\begin{array}{lll} fusul & \to & f\text{-}\mathbf{um}\text{+}usul \\ enemy & & be \ an \ enemy \end{array}$

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In general, the placement of infixes is governed by prosodic principles.

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Example: Ulwa (Nicaragua)

suu+ki-lumsuu+ma-luyosuu+ka-luhissuu+ki-luousuu+ki+na-luousuu+ki+na-luyosuu+ka+na-luth

my dog
your (Sg) dog
his/her/its dog
our (inclusive) dog
our (exclusive) dog
your (Pl) dog
their dog

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

Example: German participles

säuseln	ge +säusel+ t
brüsten	ge+brüst+et
täuschen	ge+täusch+t

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_.

Another nonsegmental process is *reduplication*.

- Example: Indonesian
- orang \rightarrow orang+orang
- man men

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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 $\langle CAT, PHON \rangle$, 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:

 $\langle (Adj \rightarrow N, \text{``state of''}), ([ut], suffix) \rangle$ にいっている $\langle (root \rightarrow V, causative), (_i_e_) \rangle$ にいっている $\langle ..., V, causative), (_i_e_) \rangle$

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 T = T is an inflected form of T = T; sometimes morphological information is needed, either as a list of features (T = T = T is third person, plural, past form of the verb T = T) or as a structure tree; sometimes it is better to produce a list of phonemes without determining word boundaries.

Morphotactics investigates the constraints imposed on the order in which morphemes are combined.

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Various kinds of such constraints are known.

Example:

טבע → טבעי → טבעיות → על-טבעיות

but

טבעיות-על; אעל-טבעותי*

Types of constraints:

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Constraints on the type of the affix: על is a prefix, m is a suffix

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- Constraints on the type of the affix: על is a prefix, ת 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:
 - non+im+partial non+il+legible
 *in+non+partial *in+non+legible

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Things are not that simple because of the often quite drastic effects of phonological rules. A great deal of the effort in constructing computational models of morphology is spent on developing techniques for dealing with phonological rules.

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Since most computational analyses of morphology assume *written* input, phonological rules are often confused with orthographic ones.

Orthographic rules often do not correspond to phonological rules.

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 $city+s \rightarrow cities$ (and not *citys)

 $bake+ing \rightarrow baking (and not *bakeing)$

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divine+ity \rightarrow divinity

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A phonological rule (stress shift) is not reflected in the orthography:

grammátical → grammaticálity

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impossible; impose; immortal

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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