

Does word frequency affect phonology?

Reasons to be cautious... 4

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The contents of this session

1. Reasons to be very cautious about UBP
2. What are categorical frequency effects?
3. What is the final balance of predictions?

How do things stand in terms of the full balance of predictions...?

1. Low frequency ('frequency conserving') effects should exist
 - UBP – yes ✓
 - FP – yes ✓
2. High frequency effects should exist
 - UBP – yes ✓ (?)
 - FP – no ✗ (?)
3. High frequency effects should *always* exist in 'natural' changes/rules
 - UBP – yes ✗
 - FP – no ✓
4. Frequency effects, like all phonological generalisations, should always be gradient
 - UBP – yes
 - FP – no
 - will it make all the difference...?

th in Glasgow Scots

Like most varieties of British English, /θ/ in Glasgow is subject to 'th-fronting', which involves the realisation as [f]:

- θ > f can be seen as being a change in progress
- implemented as a variable ('optional') θ → f

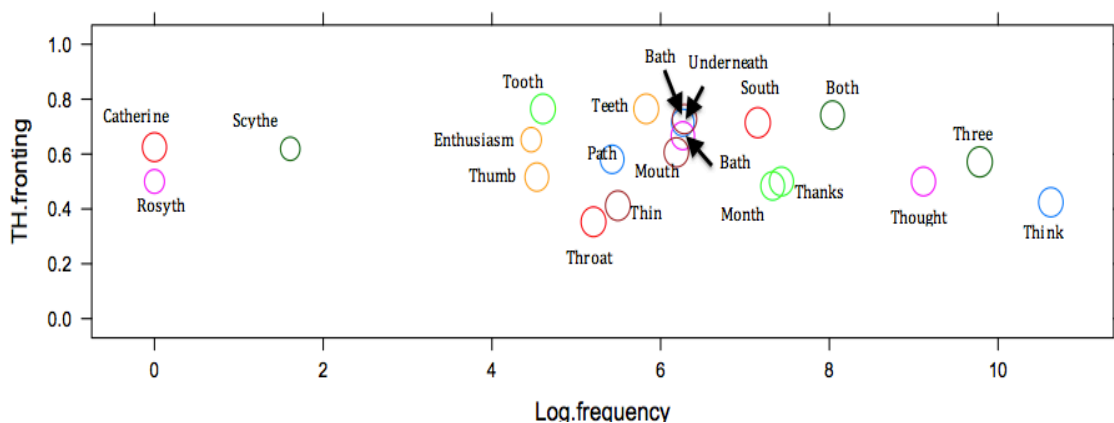
think [θɪŋk] ~ [fɪŋk]

bath [baθ] ~ [baf]

A number of studies have shown that there is **no frequency effect** in this phenomenon

- Clark & Trousdale (2009), Nielsen (2010), Schlee & Ramsammy (2013)
- it is exceptionlessly conditioned by phonological environment
- syllabic/word position: it is most likely in the word-final position
- segmental neighbourhood: following [round] segments make it more likely

Nielsen (2010), interpreting data from Stuart-Smith for Glasgow, shows that all words are affected, and the differences are not statistically significant



However, Glasgow Scots (like other varieties of Scots) has a more complicated situation

- there is **also** what Clark & Trousdale (2009) call:
 - “the change from [θ] to [h] [which] involves a reduction (in the form of lenition)”

This means that forms of words with [h] can also occur:

think [θɪŋk] ~ [fɪŋk] ~ [hɪŋk]

Stuart-Smith & Timmins (2006) have considered the realisation of these forms in Glasgow in detail, counting the tokens of each type for all possible words in a large corpus their results show considerable variation...

In word-medial position:

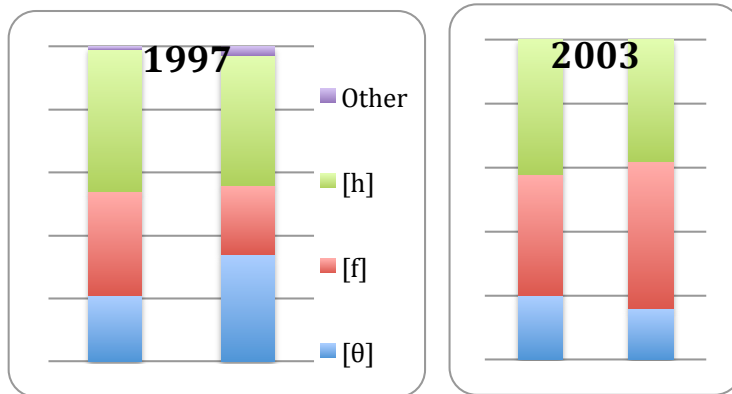
word	1997				2	2003			
	[th]	[f]	[h]	Total		[th]	[f]	[h]	Total
something	2	2	31	36	something	5	3	153	161
nothing	3	7	21	31	anything	3	1	46	50
anything	4	3	15	23	nothing	3	1	40	44
Catholics	6	1		7	healthy	3	39		42
everything		1	4	6	everything			21	21
without	3			3	birthday	3	10	1	14
Catherine		2		2	without		9		9
menthol		1		1	maths		5		5
Strathmore	1			1	Samantha	1	4		5
					Jonathon	1	3		4
					Dorothy		2		2
					athletics		1		1
					birthdays		1		1
					Blackthorn	1			1
					Catherine		1		1
					enthusiasm		1		1
					Grath's	1			1
					months	1			1
					Southpark	1			1

In word-initial position:

Table 4. Lexical distribution of main variants for /th/ in word-initial position in working-class adolescents in 1997 and 2003 in descending order of frequency.

word	1997				word	2003			
	[th]	[f]	[h]	Total		[th]	[f]	[h]	Total
think	13	6	45	64	think	23	22	155	200
thing	4	5	19	30	thing	11	8	59	78
thought	4	22		26	three	12	32	1	45
three	6	11		17	thought	8	33		41
through	9	5		14	things	5	1	30	36
thirty	6	2		8	through	10	21		31
thinks	1		6	7	thingy	6		9	15
thingmy	3		2	5	thousand	6	8		14
thank	2			2	thingwy	2		11	13
third		2		2	thinking	4	3	3	10
thirteen	2			2	thirty	7	2		9
thematic	1		1	2	third	2	6		8
thieving	1		1	2	Thursday	3	5		8
thinking	1		1	2	thingmy	5		2	7
throat		1		1	thinks		1	5	6
thrown		1		1	thank	5			5
Thursday	1		1	2	thingummy	1	1	2	4
					thistle		4		4
					threw		4		4
					thin	1	2		3
					thirteen	3			3
					thingd			2	2
					thingwys			2	2
					throwing		2		2
					thanks	1			1
					theft	1			1
					therapist		1		1
					thingamajiggy	1			1
					thingy'd			1	1
					thinked	1			1
					thinness		1		1
					thong	1			1
					throat	1			1

In comparing Stuart-Smith & Timmins' two corpora, a couple of things are clear:



- There's a much higher ratio of [f] recorded in 2003 than in 1997
- The proportion of [h] has not changed between 1997 and 2003
- also, there's something odd in terms of where [h] can occur...

In word-initial position:

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through	9	5		14	things	5	1	30	36
thirty	6	2		8	through	10	21		31
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thrown		1		1	thank	5			5
Thursday	1		1	2	thingummy	1	1	2	4
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					thingy'd			1	1
					thinked	1			1
					thinness		1		1
					thong	1			1
					throat	1			1

One thing is noticeable about the occurrence of [h]: it only occurs in a few morphemes:

- practically only *think* and *thing (+three)*

If the data is reanalysed on the basis of the morphemes involved, the picture becomes clearer...

	h	total	%
<i>thing</i>	378	435	87
<i>think</i>	163	217	75
<i>three</i>	1	45	2
<i>healthy</i>	0	42	0
<i>thought</i>	0	41	0
<i>through</i>	0	31	0
<i>birthday</i>	1	15	0
<i>thousand</i>	0	14	0
<i>thirty</i>	0	9	0
<i>without</i>	0	9	0
<i>third</i>	0	8	0
<i>Thursday</i>	0	8	0
<i>thank</i>	0	5	0
<i>maths</i>	0	5	0
<i>Samantha</i>	0	5	0
<i>thistle</i>	0	4	0

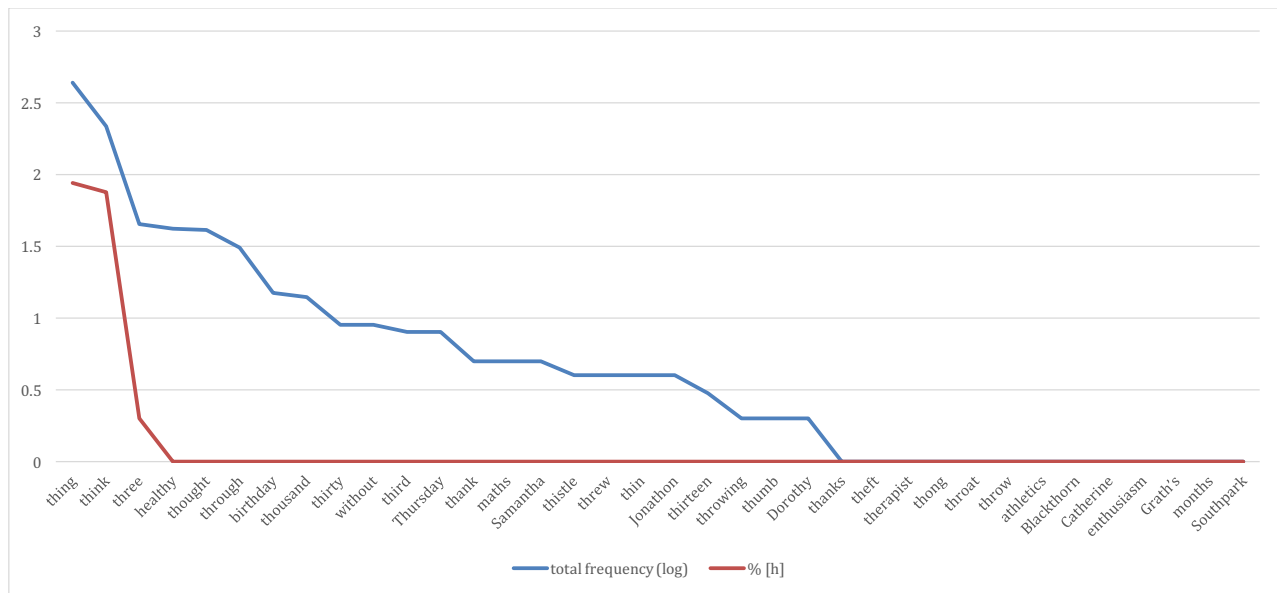
<i>threw</i>	0	4	0
<i>thin</i>	0	4	0
<i>Jonathon</i>	0	4	0
<i>thirteen</i>	0	3	0
<i>throwing</i>	0	2	0
<i>thumb</i>	0	2	0
<i>Dorothy</i>	0	2	0
<i>thanks</i>	0	1	0
<i>theft</i>	0	1	0
<i>therapist</i>	0	1	0
<i>thong</i>	0	1	0
<i>throat</i>	0	1	0
<i>throw</i>	0	1	0
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<i>Southpark</i>	0	1	0

What's going on in Glasgow *th*?

There is a **categorical frequency effect** in terms of the occurrence of [h]

- only three morphemes allow [h] and they are the most frequent
- but there's no 'gradient tail' to this, which would be expected in a UBP model

This chart shows (log) frequency and % [h] in words – they **don't** fit...



This shows that there is a small group of words which can feature [h], and they all are indeed frequent

- however, **no other word** can feature [h] at all
- UBP expects patterns to be **gradient** because exemplars are not categorical things (unlike URs in autonomous phonology), so words like *thought* and *through* should show *some* occurrences of [h] – **word-frequency is gradient**
- UBP expects the close correlation of frequency and gradience of occurrence that we saw in our first consideration of Coronal Stop Deletion
- this pattern is a **categorical frequency effect** which indicates that the words which can feature [h] must be marked in the lexicon in some way as being able to partake in the pattern, while others are not
- this is **more compatible with FP**, where URs have categorical properties which can be marked exceptionally in URs, than it is with UBP, where URs do not exist

The diachrony of the situation explains all this, as shown below...

The words below refer to whole classes of lexical items:

- *hat* = *hat, hot, howl, ahead, Bahamas, alcohol, adulthood, behave, unhinged* etc.
- *think* = *thing, think* **only** (along with other frequent words, for some speakers: *three?*)
- *thin* = *thistle, thin, through, birthday, healthy, Samantha* etc.

At stage I, there is nothing to see...

	URs with /h/	URs with /θ/
STAGE I	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]

At stage II, a (variable) rule of $\theta \rightarrow h$ is innovated

- this is a normal kind of debuccalisation, although is it inhibited in coda position
- as it is variable, if it doesn't apply, /θ/ surfaces as [θ]
- there is dialectal evidence that the process was once quite widespread

	<i>think</i>		<i>bath</i>	
	/θɪŋk/	/θɪŋk/	/baθ/	/baθ/
θ → h	hɪŋk	—	bah	—
*CODA-h	—	—	*	—
	[hɪŋk]	[θɪŋk]	*	[baθ]

	URs with /h/	URs with /θ/
STAGE I	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]
STAGE II NEW PROCESS	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ → [h] (variable) - if this doesn't apply, /θ/ : [θ]

There is then a **substantial reanalysis** – crucially **before** the variation is lost

- this involves the **loss** of $\theta \rightarrow h$
- and a reanalysis of the URs involved
- crucially, the **variation is retained** by assuming that variable words have two URs:
thing = /θɪŋ, hɪŋ/ – either UR can be used

Importantly for our purposes, having two URs **is unusual**.

NB: it is not unprecedented (remember this...?)

- <indefinite article> = /ə, ən/
- <THIRD PERSON oblique PRONOUN> = /ðəm, əm/

MacKenzie (2013) argues for the following, among others:

would = /wʊd_{PW}, d/
should = /ʃʊd_{PW}, ʃd/
have = /həv_{PW}, v/

Each word can have its own tendency in terms of when each of the URs are employed, just as in the following:

either /aɪðə, iðə/
neither /naɪðə, niðə/

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- *thin* = *thistle, thin, through, birthday, healthy, Samantha* etc.
- **green** = a lexical entry with two URs
- **blue** = synchronic process

	URs with /h/	URs with /θ/
STAGE I	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]
STAGE II NEW PROCESS	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ → [h] (variable) – if this doesn't apply, /θ/ : [θ]
STAGE III REANALYSIS + LOSS OF $\theta \rightarrow h$	<i>hat, think, thin</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]

It is **uneconomical** for a lexical item to have two URs, and we might imagine that a pressure to assume simple lexical entries, with one UR will militate against them

- lexical entries with two URs will therefore be under diachronic pressure to simplify and lose one UR
- which lexical entries are most likely to retain the two URs...?
 - those which learners have lots of experience of = high frequency words
- which UR is likely to be lost?
 - there would be pressure from **English**, which is spoken all through the environment where Scots is spoken, to retain the θ -ful UR

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STAGE II NEW PROCESS	<i>hat</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ → [h] (variable) – if this doesn't apply, /θ/ : [θ]
STAGE III REANALYSIS + LOSS OF θ → h	<i>hat, think, thin</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]
STAGE IV MOST LEXICAL ENTRIES SIMPLIFY	<i>hat, think</i> /h/ : [h]	<i>think, thin</i> /θ/ : [θ]

All this means that there is a **low frequency effect** in which (high) frequency **'conserves'** the lexical entries with two URs

- **only frequent words have retained two URs** since the reanalysis of the $\theta \rightarrow h$ process
- words which took part in the $\theta \rightarrow h$ process but cannot now have [h] have lost the *h*-ful UR through diachronic change
- subsequent generations of children 'misfixed' the URs, performing an act of 'simplification'/'regularisation' – the low frequency effect is predictable
- this leaves only the *θ*-ful UR

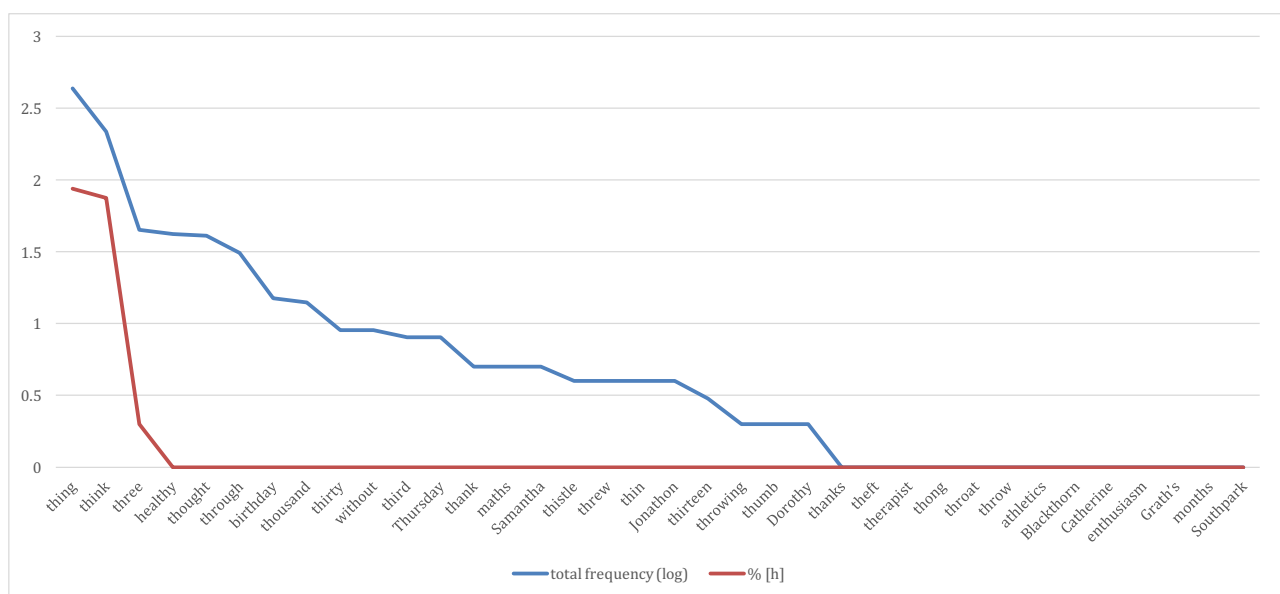
The **frequency effect** identified here has these properties:

- is **categorical** because it relies on two **distinct phonological objects**: URs
- it is a **diachronic** effect
- it is a **low frequency** effect: low frequency words do not support the positing of two URs by children acquiring the language

NB: as we have seen, low frequency effects are entirely compatible with FP

NB: as we have seen, this is a **categorical frequency** effect, which are predicted by FP

- UBP predicts that the gradual decrease in lexical token frequency should be accompanied by a gradual decrease proportion of [h]-ful pronunciations
- this prediction is not met



But are categorical frequency effects really a thing?

How about T-to-R? What is T-to-R...? Here's an example, from Stainforth, South Yorkshire:

We crack on and we get it done – the quicker we get it done, we can get off.

[gɛ.ɪt]

[gɛ.ɪt]

[gɛ.ɪɹf]

So... **something t-related** is realised as **something r-like**

- the environment involves at least **V_V**

One **key characteristic** of T-to-R is:

T-to-R is **neutralising** and **structure-preserving** in terms of the segments involved

- it neutralises a dialect's /t : r/ contrast ([gɛ.ɪt] ~ [fɛ.ɪt] = *get it* ~ *ferret*)
- mostly this entails that both are realised as [ɹ]
- the realisation of /t/ as a flap [ɾ] only counts as T-to-R if the underlying rhotic /r/ is commonly realised as [r] in the variety
 - (as in Liverpool and the West Midlands of England)

Wells (1982) gave the phenomenon the name 'T-to-R'

- he gives the following informal rule:

$t \rightarrow r / [\text{short V}] _ \#[\text{V}]$

Where is T-to-R?

● ● = attested

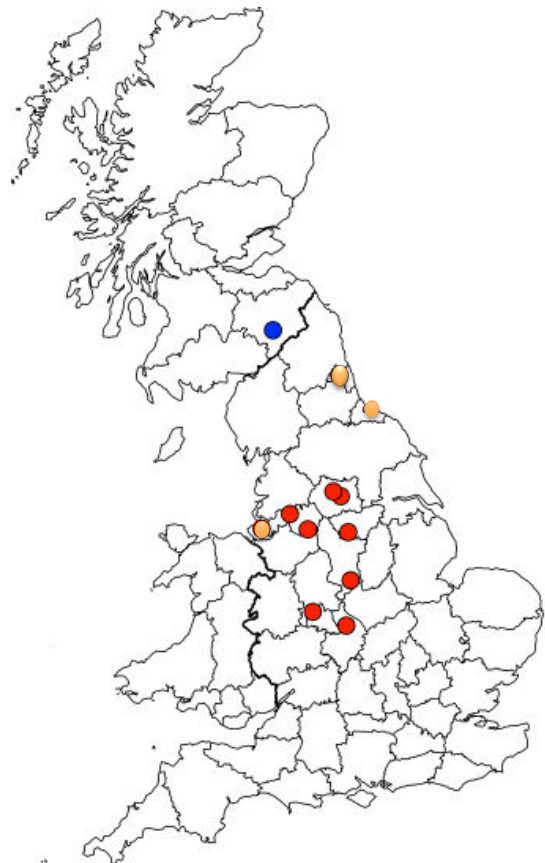
● = shown to be absent

T-to-R has been investigated in a number of places in some detail

- I have results from:



- Newcastle upon Tyne
- Liverpool
- Redcar



There have been serious investigations of T-to-R using **corpora** of natural speech
 Clark, L. & Watson, K. (2011) 'Testing claims of a usage-based phonology with Liverpool English *t-to-r*.' *English Language and Linguistics* 15, 523-47.

- WC speakers born in the early 1900s; 4 female + 4 male informants
- 669 tokens of potential T-to-R sites
- 330 tokens of rhotics in these environments

T-to-R it is fundamentally a **cross-lexical** (= post-lexical) phenomenon

Clark & Watson (2011)

- "In Liverpool English intervocalic (t) contexts, *t-to-r* occurred ... word-medially in only 1.5 per cent of all instances (always in the word *whatever*)."

Thus, in its normal patterning, **the second vowel is supplied by a following vowel-initial word**, so there can be such alternations as:

shut	[ʃʊt]	shut up	[ʃʊ.ɹʊp]
<i>get</i>	[gɛt]	<i>get off</i>	[gɛ.ɹɒp]

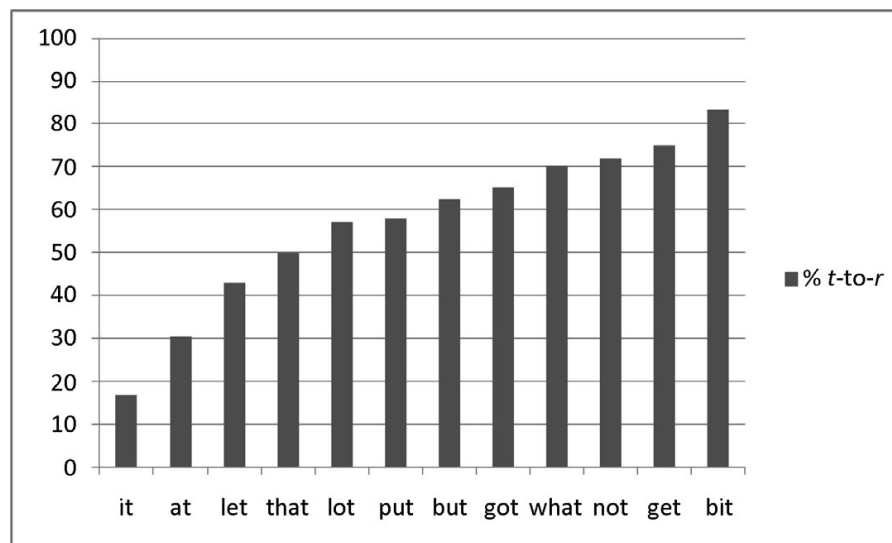
T-to-R is definitely a **variable** phenomenon: forms with **obstruents** are also possible
 Docherty, Foulkes, Milroy, Milroy & Walshaw (1997) also show this in a data from three speakers (A, B, C) from a Newcastle upon Tyne corpus:

Speaker	Glottalised	[ɹ]
A	got a nice jacket got a dark red car	got a little bow
B	got a real monkey	got it got a big black dog
C	get out	got an accent put in

T-to-R: corpora are not enough

Clark & Watson's (2011) 330 tokens of T-to-R all come from 12 words

- this confirms that T-to-R is variable: no word has 100% rhotic realisations



It has been claimed that T-to-R **only** occurs in such words – it **never** occurs in *other* words

- however, “corpora cannot attest the absence of something” (Scheer 2013)

Could it simply be that Clark & Watson's corpus is too small?

- can T-to-R *really* occur in *all* words? perhaps other words occur rarely and, as T-to-R is optional, no corpus has yet caught it in them?

No! In work based at Edinburgh, we have shown that:

T-to-R is **lexically-conditioned** – it can occur in **certain** words, but is not possible in other words which have essentially the same phonological form

This can be shown through the elicitation of **intuition**-based grammaticality judgements

- using a methodology developed for an investigation in Newcastle upon Tyne:

○ Buchstaller, I., Corrigan, K., Holmberg, A., Honeybone, P. & Maguire, W. (2013)

‘T-to-R and the Northern Subject Rule: questionnaire-based spatial, social and structural linguistics.’ *English Language and Linguistics* 17, 85-128.

- and also applied in Liverpool:

○ Caffrey, Catherine (2011) ‘T-to-R in Liverpool English.’ MA (Hons) dissertation, University of Edinburgh.

- and in Redcar:

Scanlon, Bobby (2015) ‘What do speakers know? The case of T-to-R in Redcar.’

The intuition investigations rely on the fact that speakers of T-to-R dialects are aware of T-to-R, and can thus recognise it when **spelled**

- after a contextualisation, the informants were asked questions like the following:

Can you pronounce *not* with an *r*?

For example, can you say: *Oh no - norragain!*
[normal spelling: Oh no - not again!]

1-----2-----3

1. I would never pronounce this word with an *r*.
2. I can sometimes pronounce this word with an *r*, but I wouldn't do it very often.
3. It would be normal for me to pronounce this word with an *r*.

Can you pronounce *knot* with an *r*?

For example, can you say: *Oh no - he's tied it in a knorragain!*
[normal spelling: Oh no - he's tied it in a knot again!]

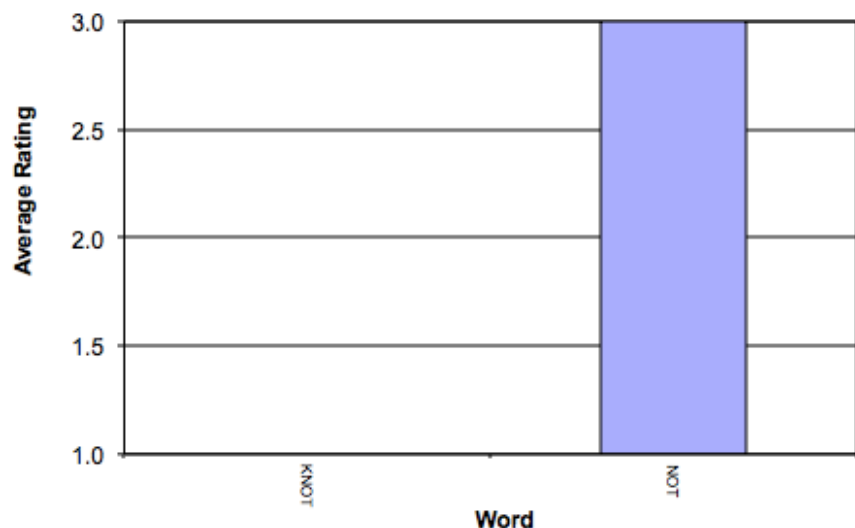
1-----2-----3

This allowed us to test if T-to-R is possible with a range of phonological similar words

- eg, *not*, *knot*, *got*, *dot*, *that*, *cat*, *get*, *wet*

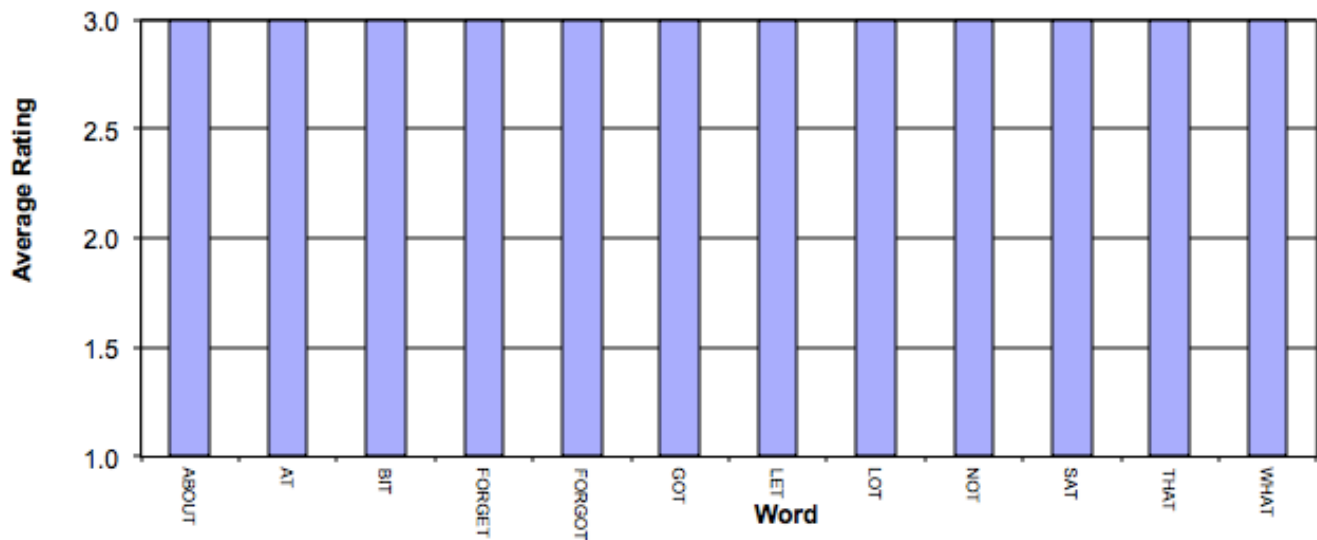
The results are clear...

Liverpool: *not* vs *knot*



Liverpool informants were happy to use score 3.

Liverpool: all words with an average of 3



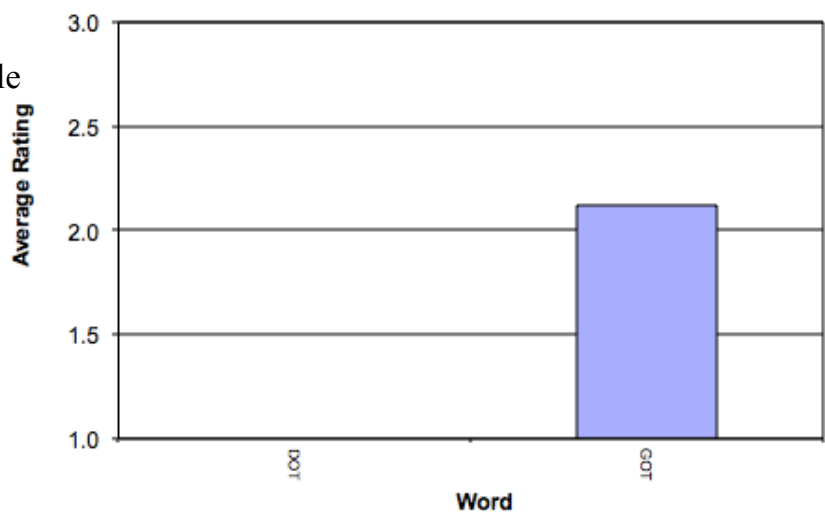
This fits well with Clark & Watson's list: *at, bit, got, let, lot, not, that, what*

- *get* (not asked); *but* = 2.9; *put* = 2.7; *it* = 2.6
- a few other words are also at 3: *sat, forgot, forget, about*

The results are clear in Newcastle, too...

dot vs got

- *not* and *knot* were used in priming sentences in Newcastle
- (in Liverpool, *what* was used as an example sentence)

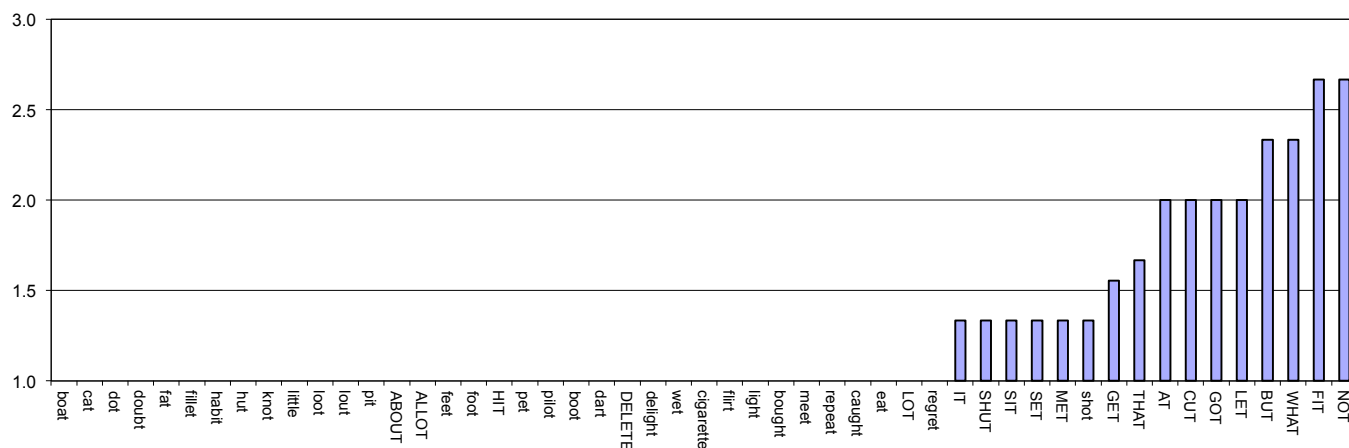


Newcastle informants were not so keen to use score 3

- accepted words typically scored an average of around 2

The full Newcastle results show that most words with final /t/ do not allow T-to-R

- this also fits well with Clark & Watson's list
- T-to-R is also possible in Newcastle with *at, got, let, not, that, what, get, but, it*
- and also with a few other words, but not *many* others



T-to-R is thus indeed clearly **lexically conditioned**

get it [gɛ.ɪt] *that is* [ðɑ.ɪz] *but it* [bʊ.ɪt] *not a* [nɒ.ɪə]

wet it *[wɛ.ɪt] *fat is* *[fɑ.ɪz] *foot it* *[fʊ.ɪt] *knot a* *[nɒ.ɪə]

T-to-R is, however, unquestionably **productive**.

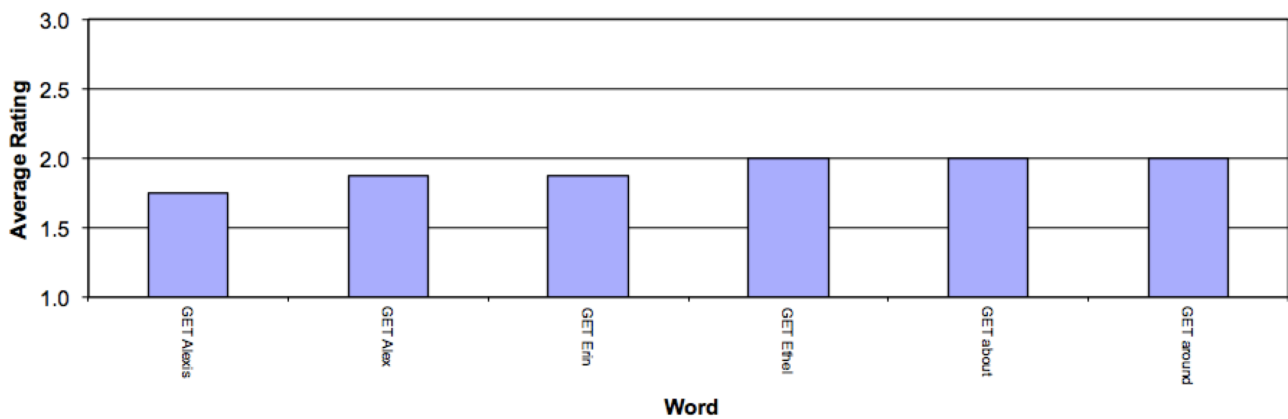
Could it be simply that there are lexically stored chunks which have an underived rhotic?

- *get it* [gɛɪt] ← /gɛɪt/
- *not a* [nɒtə] ← /nɒrə/

○ could all the forms where a rhotic occurs have become unverbated?

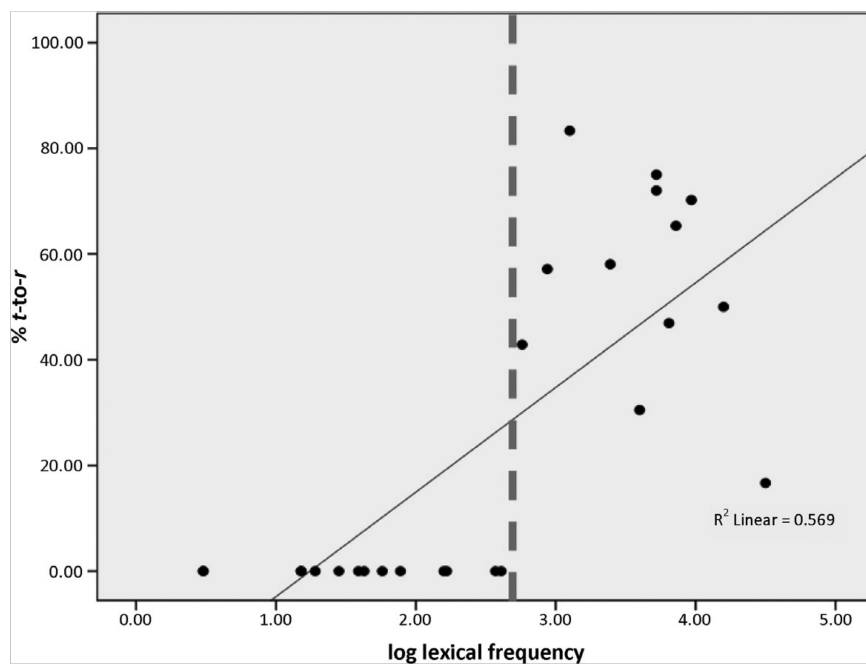
- no

We tested for this in Newcastle: *get Ethel* is just as possible as *get about*



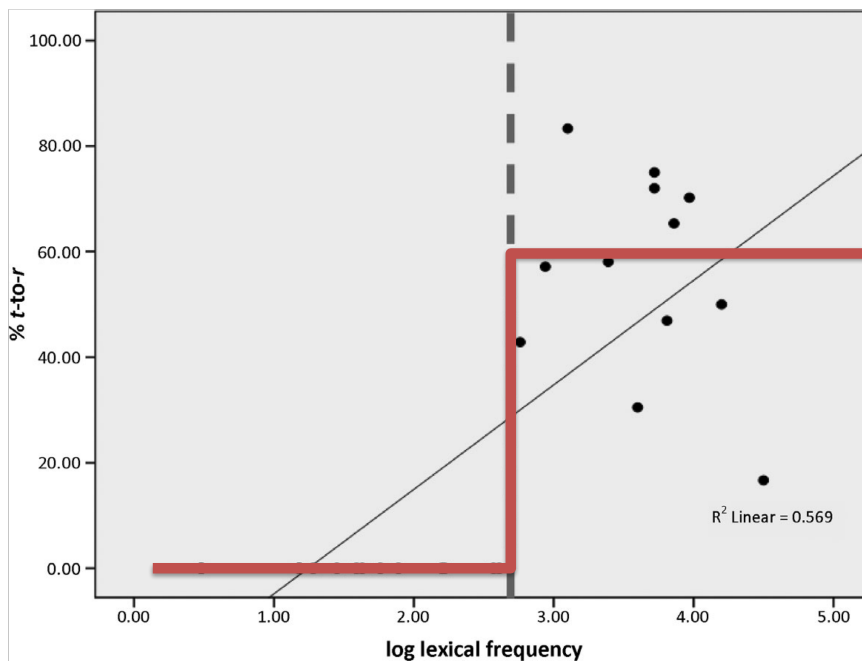
And... important for our purposes: T-to-R shows a **frequency effect**

Clark & Watson (2011) considered the interaction of T-to-R and word frequency



The x-axis shows the (log) frequency of all words in their corpus with: [...*ʌ*t#V...]

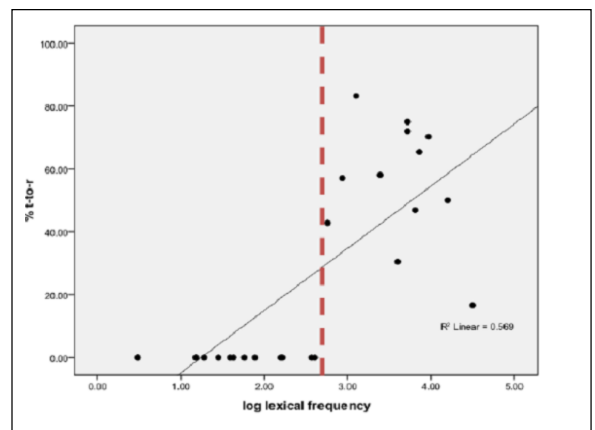
And this too is a *categoryal frequency effect*



The x-axis shows the (log) frequency of all words in their corpus with: [... \check{V} t#V...]

There is a *small group of words* which can undergo T-to-R, and they all are indeed frequent

- however, no other words undergo T-to-R at all
- word frequency increases gradiently
- but T-to-R is categorical
- a word either allows it or not
- (and words allow it to different extents)
- these are *not* the predictions of a Usage-Based frequency-type approach



This pattern in T-to-R is a *categoryal frequency effect*

- the words which can undergo T-to-R all are indeed frequent
- but it is not clear that frequency is driving the realisation of the process
- *why doesn't the amount of T-to-R increase gradiently, with frequency?*
- specific words must be marked categorically as able to partake in the pattern, and these words are frequent
- while other words must be marked categorically as not able to partake in the pattern, and these words are less frequent
- how does a categoryal frequency effect like that come about...? with all the other characteristics of T-to-R...?

T-to-R: a diachronic explanation for the categorical frequency effect

T-to-R *does* make sense, but only if we consider its **diachrony**

- there is reliable data for earlier stages of relevant varieties which gives us the vital clue for the origins of T-to-R:
 - Ellis, A.J. (1889) *On early English pronunciation. Part V: The existing phonology of English dialects compared with that of West Saxon speech*. London: Trübner & Co.
 - Wright, J. (1892) *A grammar of the dialect of Windhill in the West Riding of Yorkshire*. London: English Dialect Society.
 - Broadbent (2008) considers this material and provides important leads
- this material describes of a phenomenon which provided the **kick-off** for T-to-R
 - the discussion focuses on West Yorkshire English (around Leeds-Bradford)
 - this account can be transferred to other varieties which also feature T-to-R
- T-to-R is due to a number of **reanalyses** of this phenomenon, involving **IV** stages

Stage I: speech current in the relevant area in (pre-)mid-19th century

- as described in Ellis (1889)

Ellis (1889) writes that, in West Yorkshire:

- “t, d preceding a vowel and after a short vowel becomes very vulgarly (r)”
- what was (r)? there is good evidence, that at earlier stages in the history of English, including in Northern varieties around this time, the rhotic was typically [r]
- Broadbent (2008) interprets this to be the description of a **flapping** process like this:
 - t,d → r / Ǟ_V

Ellis (1889) mentions that this can occur in all sorts of words, such as these:

at, sat, chat, what, spat, cat, hat [past of hit]
ad, glad, swaddy [soldier], *bad, shadow,*
dad, mad, et [past of eat], *let, get, met, wet, set*
wed, led, bled, sled [slipper],
it, hit, sit, flit, split, little, bit, hiddy [to hide]
smiddy [smith], *did, bid,*
ot [hot], *got, cot, spot, od* [hold], *sod, not, modern*
but, foot, shut, glutton, mutty [calf], *mud* [might]
good, stood, huddle, budding, sud [should]

Stage I: this means that at this point, the following forms occurred:

<i>not</i> /nɒt/ [nɒt]	<i>knot</i> /nɒt/ [nɒt]	<i>nod</i> /nɒd/ [nɒd]	<i>rot</i> /rɒt/ [rɒt]	
<i>not the...</i> [nɒtðə]	<i>knot the...</i> [nɒtðə]	<i>nod the...</i> [nɒdðə]	<i>rot the...</i> [rɒtðə]	
<i>not a...</i> [nɒrə]	<i>knot a...</i> [nɒrə]	<i>nod a...</i> [nɒrə]	<i>rot a...</i> [rɒrə]	t,d → r / Ǟ_V

Stage II: during the mid-late 19th century a major **reanalysis** occurred

- this reanalysis involved both **Underlying Representations** and **the process**
- it produced a quite different system, but the surface forms did not change much
- the fundamental change was to reanalyse the words that underwent the flapping process as possessing **two URs** – eg, /nɒt_{PW}, nɒt/ ‘not’
- one UR was prosodically weak and therefore **cliticised** onto the following word
- the other UR continued to project its own prosodic word
- either could be used, giving **variability**
- the flapping rule was reanalysed so that it applies when the prosodically weak UR was used, requiring a **clitic-boundary** between the flanking vowels, within the Clitic Group
- t,d → r / V_)_{CL}V t,d → r / {...V_)_{CL}V...}_{CG}

English allows for lexical items with two URs:

would = /wʊd_{PW}, d/

should = /ʃʊd_{PW}, ʃd/

them = /ðɛm_{PW}, m/

Northern English allows right-leaning cliticisation:

Definite Article Reduction: *t’other*, *t’internet*

Stage II: this gives the following forms at this point

- the surface change is that the underlined forms become possible

‘not’

/nɒt_{PW}, nɒt/

‘knot’

/nɒt_{PW}, nɒt/

‘nod’

/nɒd_{PW}, nɒd/

‘rot’

/rɒt_{PW}, rɒt/

not the...

[nɒtðə, nɒtðə]

knot the...

[nɒtðə, nɒtðə]

nod the...

[nɒdðə, nɒdðə]

rot the...

[rɒtðə, rɒtðə]

not a...

[nɒtə, nɒrə]

knot a...

[nɒtə, nɒrə]

nod a...

[nɒdə, nɒrə]

rot a...

[rɒtə, rɒrə]

t,d → r / {...V_)_{CL}V...}_{CG}

Stage III: after this, there has been a gradual **loss** of ‘exceptional’ prosodically-weak URs

- the situation in **stage II** seems likely to be unstable
 - it is unusual/uneconomical for a lexical item to have two URs
 - such lexical entries are likely to **simplify in acquisition** over time
 - learners have rationalised the language and only acquired the ‘normal’ prosodically-strong URs for these lexical entries
- this is expected **unless** a lexical entry with two URs is reinforced in the data that the acquirer hears by **exceptionally high frequency**
 - words which originally took part in the flapping process but are now ‘non-T-to-R’ have lost the prosodically weak UR through diachronic change in acquisition
- NB: the rule was reinterpreted to only apply to /t/ – more on this below

Stage III: this gives the following forms at this point

‘not’	‘knot’	‘nod’	‘rot’
/nɒt _{PW} , nɒt/	/nɒt _{PW} /	/nɒd _{PW} /	/rɒt _{PW} /

<i>not the...</i>	<i>knot the...</i>	<i>nod the...</i>	<i>rot the...</i>
[nɒtðə, nɒtðə]	[nɒtðə]	[nɒdðə]	[rɒtðə]

<i>not a...</i>	<i>knot a...</i>	<i>nod a...</i>	<i>rot a...</i>
[nɒtə, nɒrə]	[nɒtə]	[nɒdə]	[rɒtə]

t → r / {...V_ }_{CLV...}CG

Why have all the words with /d/ stopped taking part?

- this is exactly what is predicted by this approach...
- words with final-*d* are **less frequent** than words with final-*t*

Word	FrSp
it	24508
that	14252
what	7313
that	7246
but	6366
got	5025
not	4693
at	4115
get	3464
did	3368
would	3278
had	2835
said	2685
could	1949
put	1640
good	1566
should	1173
hundred	1023
God	305
bad	296

BNC spoken word frequencies:

- the 10 most frequent words with - $\check{V}t\#$
- and 10 most frequent words with - $\check{V}d\#$

FrSp =
frequency (per million words) in speech

yellow = words ending in -*t*

red = words ending in -*d*

Stage IV: at some point there also was an **approximantisation** of /r/ in most varieties

- = $r > \underset{\cdot}{r}$
- this **takes the output of flapping process with it**
- it is possible because the process was **neutralising**, and its output identical with the surface rhotic → **identified with it**
- the precise and relative chronology of this is not important, and perhaps unknowable, but it does not interfere with the two previous developments

If we assume that it occurred last, it had the following effect

- forms which change are underlined

'not'	'knot'	'nod'	'rot'
/nɒt _{PW} , nɒt/	/nɒt _{PW} /	/nɒd _{PW} /	/rɒt _{PW} /

<i>not the...</i>	<i>knot the...</i>	<i>nod the...</i>	<i>rot the...</i>
[nɒtðə, nɒtðə]	[nɒtðə]	[nɒdðə]	[<u>r</u> ɒtðə]

<i>not a...</i>	<i>knot a...</i>	<i>nod a...</i>	<i>rot a...</i>
[nɒtə, nɒ <u>ɹ</u> ə]	[nɒtə]	[nɒdə]	[<u>r</u> ɒtə]

$t \rightarrow \underset{\cdot}{r} / \{ \dots V _ \} \text{CLV} \dots \} \text{CG}$

T-to-R words now **have 2 URs** in their lexical entry, one is marked as prosodically weak

- non-T-to-R words only have one 'normal' UR

knot = /nɒt_{PW}/ not a T-to-R word

not = /nɒt_{PW}, nɒt/ a T-to-R word – the weak form needs a host to the right

This accounts for the **lexical-conditioning**: only some words have 2 URs.

Either UR can be used by a speaker – this accounts for the **variability**

- different words have different (non-phonological) patterns of UR choice
- when the prosodically weak UR is chosen, the T-to-R process applies

$t \rightarrow \downarrow / \{ \dots V _ \}_{CLV \dots}_{CG}$

- the process **always** applies when a weak form is used – it is not variable
- the process is postlexical/'late phonology': T-to-R is not part of lexical phonology

When the prosodically-weak UR is used, structures like the following occur, involving the **cliticisation** to the following P-word, and fitting the structural description of the process:

get Alex $\{(g\epsilon t)_{CL}al\epsilon ks\}_{CG} \rightarrow \{(g\epsilon \downarrow)_{CL}al\epsilon ks\}_{CG} \neq \{g\epsilon t\}_{PW}\{al\epsilon ks\}_{PW}$

not about $\{(nɒt)_{CL}\epsilon b\alpha ut\}_{CG} \rightarrow \{(n\downarrow)_{CL}\epsilon b\alpha ut\}_{CG} \neq \{nɒt\}_{PW}\{\epsilon b\alpha ut\}_{PW}$

T-to-R involves a well-behaved exceptionless process.

T-to-R confirms that there can be '**categorical frequency effects**'

- they are **categorical** because they rely on two distinct phonological objects: URs
- they have 'sharp edges', and thus fit well with a formal approach to phonology
- no single word, other than those considered, shows even one occurrence of T-to-R
- this doesn't fit well with the gradient expectations of Usage-Based Phonology
- they are **diachronic, low frequency** effects, where frequency **conserves**: low frequency words lose their weak form as there is not enough evidence in the PLD to support the positing of two URs by children acquiring the dialects in question

What's the final score?

Where are we left in terms of the predictions made about frequency effects?

1. Low frequency effects should exist

- UBP – yes ✓
- FP – yes ✓

2. High frequency effects should exist

- UBP – yes ✓(?)
- FP – no ✗(?)

3. High frequency effects should *always* exist in 'natural' changes/rules

- UBP – yes ✗
- FP – no ✓

4. Frequency effects, like all phonological generalisations, should always be gradient

- UBP – yes ✗
- FP – no ✓

Formal, generative models come out **better** than UBP when confronted with the full range of predictions regarding frequency effects!

- **FP 3, UBP 2**
- but what about 2? FP isn't completely off the hook...

Something must account for those high frequency effects that truly exist

- but **is it phonology?**
- or an aspect of **speech production?**
- FP needs and expects there to be a module that takes care of speech production
- is it that we get 'better' or **quicker** at saying $\uparrow w\theta?^{h}a:m\downarrow i?^{\uparrow}$ than $\uparrow ad\theta s\downarrow p r i g \theta f^{h} a i m \downarrow^{\uparrow}$?
- or rather: at articulating the gestural scores that our articulators use to implement these whole utterances in speech?

Recent, statistically sophisticated work (Maslowski 2015) has shown that:

- 'reduction' effects show up in nonce words after **3** pronunciations
- they are the **same** after 3 pronunciations as after **50** pronunciations
- no difference in reduction occurs in the speech of people who have **heard** a nonce word 3 times or 50 times – only if they **articulate** it
- this is **not** a frequency effect, but an effect of getting used to pronouncing things
- it is simply like getting used to doing the actions that we use to drive a car?

If this is right, it could lead to a situation where FP gets **4 out of 4**...