

# Morphological complexity meets sociolinguistics: A typological approach

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#### Background

Language usage varies along several social parameters

- Age, gender, socioeconomic status, class, ...
- Research mostly on different varieties of one language.
- E.g. Labov (1996) focused on English varieties in New York.





Is there any sociohistorical reason why

- the English say
  - day vs. day-s
- whereas the Faroese say
  - dagur ['dɛavʊr] 'day' vs. dagar ['dɛːar] 'days'

(cf. Dammel & Kürschner 2008)



- Or why the Finns say
  - tupa 'house, cottage' vs. tuva-n 'house.gen'
  - (and not *tupa-n* 'house.gen')

but the Estonians say

- tuba 'room, chamber' vs. toa 'room.gen'
- (and not *tuba-n* or *tuva-n*)?



The basic question here:

How much can social variation condition grammar? Does grammar adapt to the sociocultural environment?



#### The mainstream view:

"There is no correlation whatsoever between phonological structure (or, for that matter, any aspect of linguistic structure) and the environment." (Kaye 1989: 48)

"[V]irtually all linguists today would agree that there is no hope of correlating a language's gross grammatical properties with sociocultural facts about its speakers." (Newmeyer 2002: 361)



"If you simplify a language's structure in one place, you are likely to complicate it somewhere else [... This works] for externally-motivated change as well as for internally-motivated change." Sarah Thomason (2008).

"In general ... attempts to link language structure with extralinguistic factors are almost intrinsically suspect." Robert Ladd et al. (2015).



In functionalist approaches, grammar adapts

- to preferences in language use (e.g., Bybee 2010).
  - Sociocultural change affects patterns of usage
- and ultimately to cultural ecology in language acquisition, diachrony, and evolution (cf. Givón 2009).
  - E.g. societies of intimates vs. strangers.

Increasing interest from a cross-linguistic perspective:
 See reviews by Nettle (2012) and Ladd et al. (2015).



# Aim in this paper

- How could we start problematizing the question and begin to answer it?
- I discuss here one example:
  - Morphological complexity and language contact.
    - →How to start connecting morphological complexity with sociolinguistics.



# **Type of complexity**

Complexity = number and type of parts and their interactions.

Here focus:

complexity as the number of parts in a system.

- Many typological studies focus on inventories; very few survey interactions or transparency (see Kusters 2003):
  - transparency in morphology (e.g. fusion) may vary depending on the degree of language contacts by adults.
  - More second language (L2) learners  $\rightarrow$  less fusion.



#### Language contact and complexity

Trudgill (2011): Variation in sociolinguistic situation correlates with the complexity of linguistic structure.

Large adult L2 pop. ("high contact")  $\rightarrow$ 

Small adult L2 pop. ("low contact"

Child multilingualism

- Simplification
- → Maintenance or development of complexity
- $\rightarrow$  Complexification

#### Rationale:

- Imperfect learning by adult second language learners.
- Morphology in particular is difficult for L2 learners (e.g. Parodi et al. 2004).



## **Inflectional synthesis - hypothesis**

- Kusters (2003):
  - Language varieties more affected by massive L2 by adults prefer fewer morphological categories on the verb.

Trudgill (to appear):

Polysynthetic language tend to be spoken by relatively small and non-industrialized tribal communities.

DeLancey (2014):

Development of new morphological categories on the verb in a low-contact 'Hill culture' language Lai but not in a highcontact 'Valley culture' language Boro.



Question:

- Does the degree of inflectional synthesis on the verb depend on the proportion of L2 speakers in the community (following Bentz & Winter 2012)?
- (See also Lupyan & Dale 2010).



### Data

Inflectional synthesis =

Number of categories per word in maximally inflected verb forms.

- For instance, two categories counted for English: agreement (-*s*) and tense (-*ed*).

Data from the Autotyp database (Nichols et al. in press).

Kindly provided by Balthasar Bickel, which is gratefully acknowledged.

Sample on inflectional synthesis: 268 languages.



- The number of speakers was taken from the Ethnologue (Lewis et al. 2016) and Christian Bentz's database that he kindly shared.
  - Bentz's database contains information about the number of native language (L1) and second language (L2) speakers for 231 languages.
- The combined database for inflectional synthesis and the number of speakers contains data on 49 languages.
  - The sample is geographically very biased.
  - Overall: reasonably reliable data available for L1
    but not for L2.







## **On statistical testing**

- How to deal with the confounding effects of inheritance and diffusion?
  - Usually through sampling, e.g. one language per family.

 300+ stocks (highest level genealogical units in Autotyp; Nichols et al. 2013).

→impossible to build family as a variable in multiple regression modeling (Sinnemäki 2010).

- I use linear mixed effects modeling to test the hypothesis (see Jaeger et al. 2011; Bentz & Winter 2012).
  - Enables families and areas to be built as variables in the model → their effect can be evaluated.



Two types of random effects:

- Random slopes =
  - The predictor's effect can vary across genealogical units and areas, thus assuming that rates of change vary between different families and between different areas.
- Random intercepts =
  - The predictor's effect is the same across families and areas, thus assuming that rates of change are similar between different families and between different areas.





 $\rightarrow$  Test whether we can do without random slopes.

- If yes, we can assume that a significant main effect is independent of families and areas.
- And leave random intercepts only.



Families were modeled as stocks (Autotyp) and areas as continents (10 areas in the Autotyp).

Each factor's effect was evaluated using likelihood ratio test where a model with the variable of interest was compared to a model without the variable of interest.

L2 % was modeled as the predictor and inflectional synthesis as the response.





Area as random slope:	χ2 = 0.14; df = 2; p = 0.93
Area as random intercept:	χ2 = 4.49; df = 1; p = 0.034 (*)
Stock as random slope:	χ2 = 0.05; df = 2; p = 0.97
Stock as random intercept:	χ2 = 1.47; df = 1; p = 0.23

The model suggest that the proportion of second language speakers (L2 %) has no effect on the distribution of inflectional synthesis.



#### **On social data**

Data on the number of L1 speakers.

- Main source Ethnologue (Lewis et al. 2016). Census data problematic.
- Data even for L1 may be difficult to come by.

#### L2 data.

- Very hard to get data for languages outside Eurasia.
  - Bentz & Winter: ~80% of data from Eurasia & Africa.
- Figures for small languages may be misleading.
  - When the age of native speakers 40+, the youth learn it as a second language. → Elders unlikely to simplify the group's traditional language (?).



How is "second language" defined in the sources?

- How about semi-speakers?
- How are bilinguals counted?

E.g. Windfuhr (2008: 418) on Persian:

L2 = "at least use or understand Persian as a second language"

Current sociolinguistics ≠ sociolinguistics at the time when the linguistic patterns were formed.

 $\rightarrow$  Number-driven approach is clearly not optimal.

Solution: detailed sociolinguistic profiles of languages.



#### Conclusion

- These preliminary results suggest that
  - the proportion of second language speakers in the speech community has no effect on the degree of inflectional synthesis of the verb.
- I also wonder whether L2 % is methodologically a feasible way to model sociolinguistics of language contact.
- In future research a more promising way would be to survey sociolinguistic profiles of languages in detail.



# Thank you!



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