

# Probing knowledge of similarity through puns

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MIT, April 17th 2009

## Theoretical background

- Some kind of similarity seems important in shaping phonological patterns.
- Speakers can change /A/ to [B] if A and B are “perceptually sufficiently similar” (Steriade, 2001/2008, *et seq*).

## Some examples

- Nasals are more likely to assimilate in place than oral consonants (Jun, 1995): nasal pairs are sufficiently similar whereas oral pairs are “too different”.
- A voicing contrast is more likely to neutralize than other manner contrasts (Steriade, 2001/2008): minimal pairs differing in voicing are similar enough to be interchangeable.
- In Japanese loanwords, geminates are more likely to devoice than singletons, and a voicing contrast is less perceptible in geminates than in singletons (Kawahara, 2006).

## The overall goal

- The less the perceptual change, the more likely it occurs.
- In other words, speakers exert stronger grammatical pressure against a larger perceptual change.
- I attempt to provide further support for this principle from the perspective of imperfect puns (*dajare*).

## Part I: Consonantal similarity (Kawahara & Shinohara, 2009)

- Japanese speakers traditionally create puns by combining two similar sounding words or phrases.
- Examples: *Arumikan-no ue-no aru mikan*, *Aizusan-no aisu*, *okosama-o okosanai-de*.
- Corresponding sounds do not need to be identical, but nevertheless need to be “similar” (Cutler & Otake, 2002; Shinohara, 2004; Kawahara, 2007; Steriade, 2003; Zwicky & Zwicky, 1986).

### Question and approach

- What do we mean by “similar”?
- Perceptually similar? *as per* Steriade (2001/2008)?
- A traditional ‘introspection-based’ approach does not seem appropriate to answer this question (Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1986).
- One can (only?) answer this question with a statistical/experimental approach.

## Method

- We collected 2371 examples of imperfect puns from online websites as well as through elicitation.
- We defined pun domains as sequences of moras with matching vowels: *okosama*-o *okosanaide*.
- We counted a number of mismatched consonant pairs (e.g. the [m-n] pair in the above example; 535 consonant pairs in total).

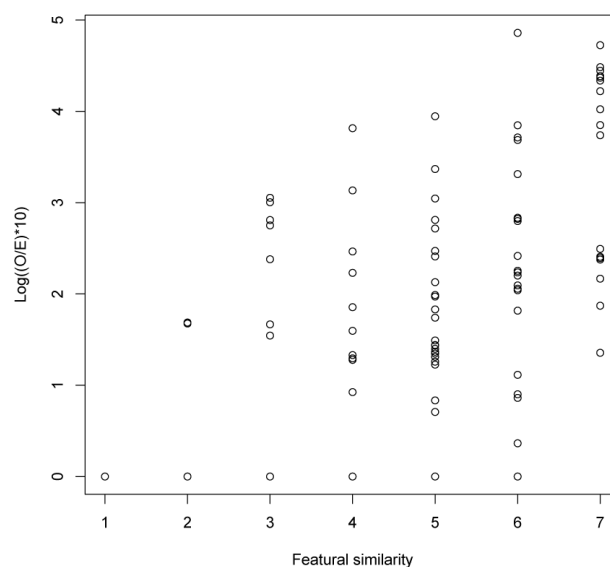
## O/E ratios

- We need a measure of combinability of two consonants—the likelihood of two consonants making a pun pair.
- Suppose that an [A]–[B] pair occurs more often than an [A]–[C] pair, can we say that the [A]–[B] pair is more combinable than the [A]–[C] pair?
- Not necessarily, because [B] might simply be more frequent than [C].
- O/E values provide a nice measure. They are observed frequency relativized with respect to expected frequency.

## O/E ratios cont'd

- To statistically establish the relation between similarity and combinability in puns, we started out with a simple version of featural similarity.
- Featural similarity is defined in terms of the number of shared feature specifications (Bailey & Hahn, 2005; Shattuck-Hufnagel, 1986, and others).

## Correlation



Combinability and (featural) similarity correlate with each other  
( $r_s = .497, p < .001$ )

# Evidence for perceptual similarity

Featural similarity accounts for some broad patterns, but it fails to capture some aspects of pun pairings:

- 1 Contextual effect of [place].
- 2 Different saliency of different features.
- 3 The effect of a phonologically inert feature.
- 4 Similarity with  $\phi$ .

## Evidence I: Contextual effects

- Nasals are more likely to assimilate in place than oral consonants (Mohan, 1993).
- A [place] contrast is known to be less salient in nasal consonants than in oral consonants (Boersma, 1998; Jun, 1995; Mohr & Wang, 1968; Pols, 1983).
- The parallel in the pun pattern:

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m-n: 8.85	b-d: 1.09	p-t: 1.11
	b-g: .65	p-k: 1.08
	d-g: .39	t-k: .87

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## Evidence 1: Contextual effects

- Speakers indeed consider the [m-n] pair as more similar than any other kind of oral consonant minimal pair.
- The contribution of [place] to similarity differs depending on whether it is hosted by nasals or oral consonants.
- The featural similarity model cannot explain this observation.

## Evidence 2: Saliency of different features

- A [voice] contrast is less perceptible than [nas] and [cont] contrasts (Kawahara, 2009; Steriade, 2001/2008).
- Again the parallel in pun pattern:

cont		nasal		voice	
p-ϕ:	5.58	b-m:	4.68	p-b:	8.51
t-s:	.90	d-n:	1.12	t-d:	7.64
d-z:	1.68			k-g:	8.03
				s-z:	11.3
				ʃ-ʒ:	6.81

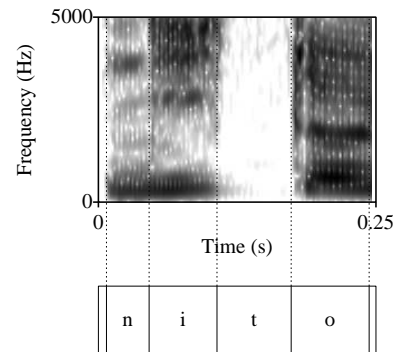
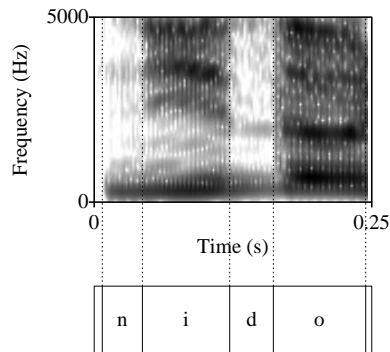
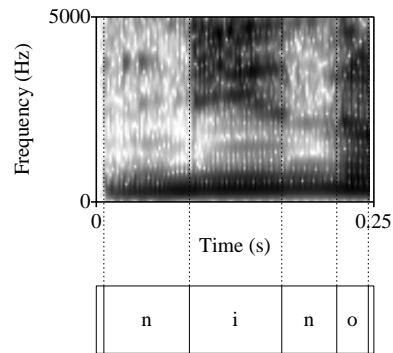
## Evidence 3: Effect of phonologically inert features

	Voiced obstruents	Voiceless obstruents
Paired with sonorants	63 ( <b>18.2%</b> )	30 ( <b>6.0%</b> )
Total	346	497

- Speakers combine sonorants more often with voiced obstruents than with voiceless obstruents ( $z = 5.22, p < .001$ ).

## Perceptual explanation

- The fact that sonorants are more combinable with voiced obstruents than with voiceless obstruents might be related to:
  - ▶ Low frequency energy.
  - ▶ Intervocalic lenition of voiced stops to approximants (Kawahara, 2006).



## But phonologically...

- The [+voice] feature of Japanese sonorants is inert: it does not trigger Lyman's Law:
  - ▶ Japanese does not allow two occurrences of voiced consonants within single stems. But only voiced obstruents count as voiced consonants.
  - ▶ The [+voice] feature on sonorants is underspecified (Itô & Mester, 1986), sonorants do not bear [voice] at all (Mester & Itô, 1989) or sonorants and obstruents bear different [voice] features (Rice, 1993).

## Evidence 4: Similarity with $\phi$ .

- The list of consonants that often correspond with  $\phi$ :  
[w]: 6.25, [r]: 4.59, [h]: 3.72, [m]: 2.54, [n]: 1.49, [k]: 1.39.
- These are consonants that blend into their environments, and hence are perceptually close to  $\phi$ .
  - ▶ [w] blends into surrounding vowels (Myers & Hansen, 2005).
  - ▶ [r] is very short (Nakamura, 2002).
  - ▶ [h] again blends into surrounding vowels (Keating, 1988).
  - ▶ [m] and [n] have blurry transitions (Downing, 2005).
  - ▶ [k] coarticulates with surrounding vowels (de Lacy & Kingston, 2006).

## Summary of Part I

- Speakers minimize the perceptual disparities between two corresponding elements in puns.
- Here we find non-trivial parallels with purely phonological patterns.
  - ▶ Place assimilation asymmetry and the perceptibility of nasal and oral consonants.
  - ▶ Neutralizability of [voice] with respect to other features.
  - ▶ Speakers epenthesize perceptually least intrusive segments.

## Part II: Vowel mismatch (Kawahara & Shinohara, 2008)

- Speakers can combine two words minimally different in one vowel.
- For example, *shibuya-wa shibiiya* and *haiidegaa-no zense-wa haedekka*.
- We collected 547 examples of such mismatched vowels, calculated the O/E ratios for each pair, and took their reciprocals as distance between the five vowels.

### Vocalic distances

Table: The O/E ratios of the five vowels.

	a	e	o	i	u
a	0	1.60	2.13	0.72	0.78
e		0	0.74	1.90	0.55
o			0	0.46	1.54
i				0	2.06
u					0

Distances between the five vowels are calculated as the reciprocals of O/E ratios.

## Vowel mismatch

Two dimensional representations of the distance matrix:

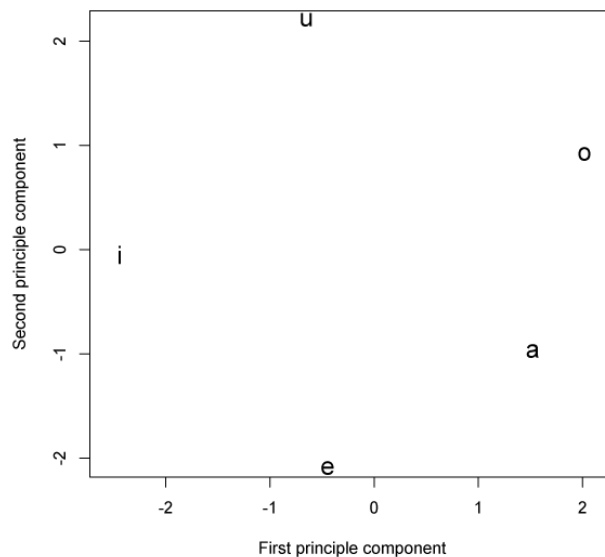


Figure: A PCA analysis of the vowel distance matrix computed based on combinability in puns.

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

## Vowel mismatch

- Evidence for psychoacoustic similarity.
  - 1 [a] is closer to [o] than [e].
  - 2 [i] and [u] are closer to each other than [o] and [e].
- These patterns match with acoustic properties of Japanese vowels (Keating & Huffman, 1984; Nishi, Strange, Akahane-Yamada, Kubo, & Trent-Brown, 2008).
- These patterns on the other hand cannot be explained in terms of featural similarity.
- The distance matrix statistically correlates with a distance matrix created based on euclidean distances of F1/F2 bark values of Hirahara and Kato (1992) ( $r = .647, p = .043$ ).

Navigation icons: back, forward, search, etc.

## Part III: Positional effects (Kawahara & Shinohara, to appear)

- We have seen that speakers minimize the differences between corresponding segments in imperfect puns, just as in phonology.
- Then it may be that positions of mismatches matter: in phonology, speakers avoid mismatches between inputs and outputs in phonetically and psycholinguistically prominent positions (Beckman, 1998; Steriade, 1994).

### Experiment I: Psycholinguistic prominence

The first experiment tested whether speakers avoid mismatches in initial positions. Initial syllables play an important role in word recognition.

- Hearing initial portions of words help listeners to retrieve the whole words (Horowitz, Chilian, & Dunnigan, 1969; Horowitz, White, & Atwood, 1968).
- In “tip-of-the-tongue” phenomena, speakers can guess the first sound more accurately than non-initial sounds (A. Brown, 1991; R. Brown & MacNeill, 1966).
- Also, in tip-of-the-tongue situations, initial sounds help retrieve the whole word (Freedman & Landauer, 1966).

## Psycholinguistic prominence cont'd

- Listeners are faster when detecting mispronunciations in non-initial positions (Cole & Jakimik, 1980; Cole, 1973)—once they hear initial syllables, they anticipate what's coming next.
- Sound symbolism—particular images associated with particular sounds—is stronger word-initially than non-word-initially (Bruch, 1986; Kawahara, Shinohara, & Uchimoto, 2008).

## Phonological privilege of initial positions

Initial syllables exhibit a privileged status in phonology.

- In Sino-Japanese, while initial syllables can contain a variety of consonants, second syllables only allow [t] and [k] (Kawahara, Nishimura, & Ono, 2002; Tateishi, 1990).
- If there were an underlying form like /sasu/ (*as per* Richness of the Base), then speakers avoid changing the initial [s] but not the final [s] (perhaps to [satu]).
- In other words, speakers would avoid making changes in initial syllables.

# Correspondence Theory

In terms of Correspondence Theory (McCarthy & Prince, 1995):

In phonology (input-output correspondence):

Input     /    $s_i$     $a_j$     $s_k$     $u_l$    /  
             |       |       |       |  
Output   [    $s_i$     $a_j$     $t_k$     $u_l$    ]

Likewise in pun formation (surface-to-surface correspondence):

Word 1   [    $s_i$     $a_j$     $s_k$     $u_l$    ]  
             |       |       |       |  
Word 2   [    $s_i$     $a_j$     $t_k$     $u_l$    ]

## Method 1

- The experiment was a wellformed judgement task.
- The stimuli were pairs of words that contain a pair of sounds that minimally differ in voicing ([t-d], [d-t], [s-z], [z-s], [k-g], [g-k]).
- To control for the distance between corresponding words, they were always separated by one-mora particle.
- Two conditions:
  - ▶ Initial mismatches (e.g. *sasetsu-ni zasetsu*).
  - ▶ Internal mismatch (e.g. *hisashi-ni hizashi*).

## Method 2

- We asked two questions: how funny it is and how acceptable it is as a pun pair in a 1-4 scale.
- We included the first question, so that the participants would tease apart these questions.
- The questionnaire started with two sample questions, with one example which is clearly an example of a Japanese imperfect pun and one example which clearly is not.
- 37 speakers participated in this study, but we excluded eight of them because they did not consider the good example as a good pun or considered the bad example as a good pun.

## Result

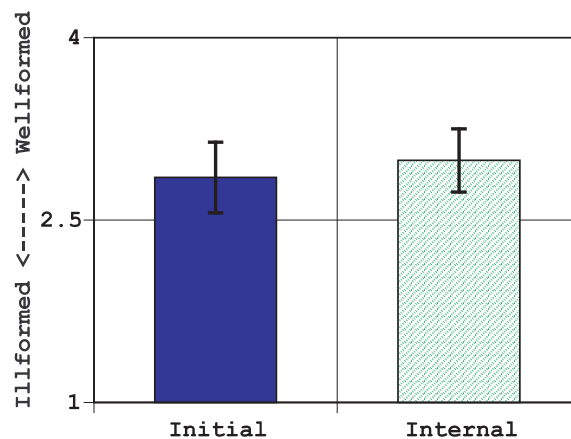


Figure: Wellformedness of puns with initial mismatches and those with internal mismatches. The error bars = 95% CIs.

Speakers judged mismatches in initial syllables less acceptable than those in non-initial syllables ( $z = 2.59, p = .01$  by a non-parametric Wilcoxon signed-ranks test).

# Discussion

Speakers avoid mismatches in a psycholinguistically prominent position, both in phonology and pun formation.

## Phonology

Input / s<sub>i</sub> a<sub>j</sub> s<sub>k</sub> u<sub>l</sub> /  
Output [ s<sub>i</sub> a<sub>j</sub> t<sub>k</sub> u<sub>l</sub> ]

## Pun formation

Word 1 [ s<sub>i</sub> a<sub>j</sub> s<sub>k</sub> u<sub>l</sub> ]  
Word 2 [ s<sub>i</sub> a<sub>j</sub> t<sub>k</sub> u<sub>l</sub> ]

# Experiment II: Introduction

The second experiment tested whether speakers avoid mismatches in long vowels.

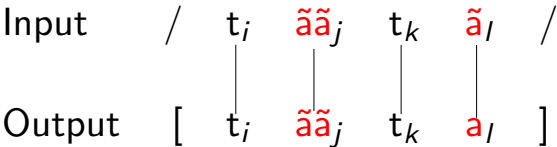
- Long vowels are, by definition, phonetically long.
- Different long vowels are more different from each other than different short vowels (Steriade, 2003)—an [aa]-[ii] pair is more different than an [a]-[i] pair.
- A change in long vowels would be more perceptible also because speakers hyperarticulate long vowels more than short vowels. As a result, long vowels are more dispersed than short vowels (Hirata & Tsukada, 2003; Hisagi, Nishi, & Strange, 2008).

# Phonological privilege of long vowels

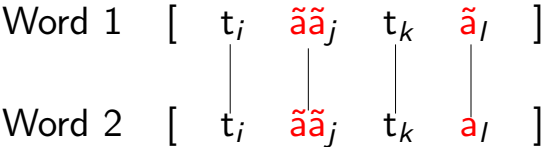
- Hindi for example allows a surface nasality contrast in long vowels, but not in short vowels (Steriade, 1994).
- A hypothetical underlying /tããtã/ would map to [tããta].
- In phonology speakers avoid making changes—or neutralizing contrasts—more in long vowels than in short vowels.

## Correspondence Theory again

In phonology (input-output correspondence):



In pun formation (surface-to-surface correspondence):



## Method

- The design had two fully crossed factors: 10 vowel combinations ([a-i], [a-u], [a-e], [a-o], [i-u], [i-e], [i-o], [u-e], [u-o], [e-o]) × 2 lengths (short vs. long).
- An example of a crucial pair was: *jookuu-no jookaa* vs. *rippu-ga rippa*.
- Other details were identical to Experiment 1, except that we had four sample questions (two good examples and two bad examples).
- 26 speakers participated in the study.

## Result

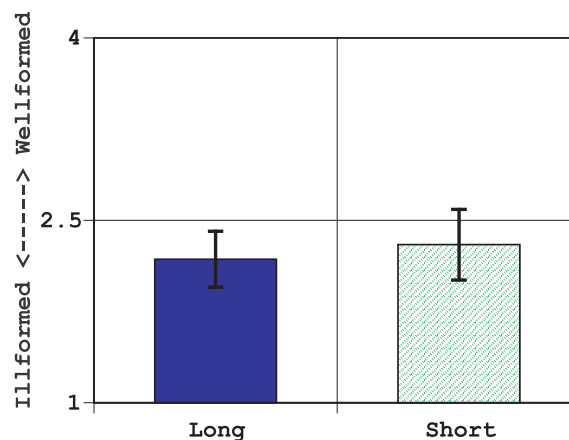


Figure: Wellformedness of puns with long vowel mismatches and short vowel mismatches.

Speakers rated those with long mismatches as worse than short mismatches (2.93,  $p < .001$ ).

# Discussion

Japanese speakers avoid mismatches in long vowels more than mismatches in short vowels

## Phonology

Input / t<sub>i</sub> ãã<sub>j</sub> t<sub>k</sub> ã<sub>l</sub> /  
Output [ t<sub>i</sub> ãã<sub>j</sub> t<sub>k</sub> a<sub>l</sub> ]

## Pun formation

Word 1 [ t<sub>i</sub> ãã t<sub>k</sub> ã<sub>l</sub> ]  
Word 2 [ t<sub>i</sub> ãã<sub>j</sub> t<sub>k</sub> a<sub>l</sub> ]

# Summary and discussion of Part III


- Speakers avoid disparities between corresponding elements more in prominent positions (initial syllables, long vowels) than in non-prominent positions.
- The same principle holds both in puns and in phonology.
- We again found non-trivial parallels between phonology and pun patterns.

## Overall summary




- Speakers minimize perceptual disparities between corresponding segments in puns.
- In this sense, we find non-trivial parallels between pun pairing patterns and phonological patterns.
- We can **probe our knowledge of similarity through studying puns**.
- Pun patterns are understudied—they thus provide an untapped resource for future research.

## Future directions and on-going research

- Analyses of other pun patterns in Japanese (see my website).
- Analyses of other languages (Beattie & Schwade, 2009).
- Investigation of knowledge of similarity through direct perception tests (Kawahara, 2009).

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