

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11

New evidence against the modularity of grammar: Constructions, collocations, and speech perception

MARTIN HILPERT*

12 *Abstract*

13
14 *This paper combines quantitative corpus data and experimental evidence to*
15 *address the question whether speech perception is influenced by knowledge*
16 *of grammatical constructions and, more specifically, knowledge of preferred*
17 *collocation patterns of these constructions. Lexical identification tasks are*
18 *devised in which subjects are presented with synthesized, phonetically am-*
19 *biguous stimuli. The results suggest that knowledge of constructions and*
20 *collocations influences speech perception, thus providing evidence for a*
21 *usage-based, non-modular view of grammar.*

22
23 *Keywords:* *modularity of grammar; constructions; collocations; lexical*
24 *identification task; phonemic boundaries; compensation for*
25 *coarticulation.*

26
27
28 **1. Introduction**

29 Usage-based approaches to language (Barlow and Kemmer 2000, Bybee
30 and Hopper 2001, Bybee 2006) hold that repeated usage events over time
31 shape grammar. One foundational aspect of this hypothesis is the often-
32 made observation that frequent words tend to reduce phonetically and
33 phonologically (Zipf 1935; Hooper 1976; Bybee 2000, 2001, *inter alia*).
34 Several phenomena empirically support this point. Jurafsky et al. (2001)
35 find that word-final t/d deletion correlates positively with the relative
36

37
38
39 * I would like to thank Katherine Crosswhite, Suzanne Kemmer, Nancy Niedzielski, Joan
40 Bybee, Anatol Stefanowitsch, and two anonymous referees for *Cognitive Linguistics*, who
41 have offered helpful comments on earlier versions of this paper. Also, the audience of the
42 8th CSDL in San Diego provided valuable suggestions. The usual disclaimers apply.
Please address correspondence to <hilpert@icsi.berkeley.edu>.

1 frequency of lexical items such as *want* or *mind*. Similarly, Cooper and
2 Paccia-Cooper (1980) observe increased palatalization of word-final stops
3 before a glide in items with higher frequency. Palatalization is thus more
4 likely in a phrase such as *did you*, as compared to *mind you*. Finally,
5 Gregory et al. (1999) report that word duration is relatively shorter
6 for items with higher text frequency and greater contextual probability.
7 These and many other studies strongly support the relation of frequency
8 and phonetic reduction, and hence the usage-based model.

9 The present study focuses on another tenet that is commonly held
10 in usage-based approaches and elsewhere, but which as yet has not been
11 sufficiently supported through empirical studies. A core assumption in
12 both cognitive linguistics (Langacker 1987) and connectionist modeling
13 (McClelland et al. 1986) has been that the mental representation of gram-
14 mar is non-modular. The common distinction between a syntactic mod-
15 ule, the mental lexicon, and a phonological module is rejected in favor
16 of a monotonic structure of grammar. In many formalist frameworks, a
17 modular organization of grammar with particular emphasis on the auton-
18 omy of syntax is presupposed, following suggestions and definitions of
19 Fodor (1983). To illustrate, Newmeyer (1998: 23) defines the autonomy
20 of syntax in terms of the following hypothesis:

21

22 The Autonomy Of Syntax (Autosyn):

23 Human cognition embodies a system whose primitive terms are nonsemantic
24 and nondiscourse-derived syntactic elements and whose principles of combination
25 make no reference to system-external factors.

26

27 This hypothesis does of course not deny that information from different
28 grammatical modules is integrated at some level of linguistic processing,
29 or even at multiple levels. The crux of the argument is therefore that cer-
30 tain types of information are processed in one module but disregarded in
31 another. Frazier (1987) lays out how, for instance, acoustic spectra are in-
32 strumental for parsing speech into words, whereas the resolution of ana-
33 phoric reference seems quite unrelated to this particular task. Clifton
34 (1991: 97) explicates this assumption in the following quote:

35

36 Modules are defined, in part, in terms of the information relevant to them, and
37 thus in terms of their representational vocabularies. Information about letters or
38 speech sounds is relevant to the lexical module (if there is such a thing), but is of
39 no possible value to the syntactic module.

40

41 In cognitive linguistics, the idea of modularity has been repeatedly
42 criticized (Bybee 2006; Fillmore et al. 1988; Goldberg 1995, 2006; Lan-

1 gacker 1987). The alternative view is that lexical and syntactic knowledge
2 are stored in the same way, and are not processed by different mental
3 modules. A representative position is expressed by Langacker (2005):

4

5 Lexicon, morphology, and syntax form a continuum, divided only arbitrarily into
6 discrete “components”. Everything along this continuum is fully describable as
7 assemblies of symbolic structures. A symbolic structure is specifically defined as
8 the pairing between a semantic structure and a phonological structure (its seman-
9 tic and phonological poles).

10

11 While this approach denies the existence of distinct modules that han-
12 dle different aspects of grammatical knowledge, little experimental evi-
13 dence has been offered to demonstrate the uniformity of grammar. As a
14 notable exception, Tanenhaus et al. (1995) demonstrate that visual infor-
15 mation has an immediate influence on syntactic processing: A sentence
16 such as *Put the apple on the towel in the box* presents hearers with a tem-
17 porary syntactic ambiguity, as the prepositional phrase *on the towel* can
18 initially be understood as a destination. If hearers are given a visual con-
19 text that contains an apple, a towel, and a box, they will, for a brief pe-
20 riod, pay close attention to the towel. Tanenhaus and colleagues show
21 that the situation is very different if the visual context contains a second
22 apple that is placed on a napkin. When presented with a contrastive set of
23 two apples, a towel, and a box, hearers do not initially parse *on the towel*
24 as a directional prepositional phrase—little attention is paid to the irrele-
25 vant sole towel. Tanenhaus and colleagues interpret this result as evidence
26 against the modularity of syntactic processing.

27 Despite these findings, the hypothesis that grammar is non-modular is
28 still both more speculative and not as well supported as the more general
29 hypothesis that grammar is shaped through usage. The present study
30 addresses the need to demonstrate more thoroughly that knowledge of
31 language is indeed a large inventory of symbolic pairings of sound and
32 meaning, and nothing else.

33 The issue of modularity is closely related to the question of how audi-
34 tory perceptual input is integrated with knowledge of lexical items and
35 syntactic structures. Is speech perception a purely bottom-up process in
36 which sounds are sequentially parsed into phonemes, words, phrases,
37 and sentences, or are there lexical and syntactic top-down effects that
38 guide the perception of speech? Strict bottom-up organization would ac-
39 cord with (though not necessitate) a modular approach to grammar. Con-
40 versely, top-down effects on speech perception, in which lexical or syntac-
41 tic levels of processing interact with the processing of speech sounds, are
42 more naturally accounted for in a non-modular approach. It has to be

1 pointed out, though, that both types of organization could in principle be
2 modeled by either a modular or non-modular architecture.

3 Lexical top-down effects on speech perception have been reported on
4 several occasions (Elman and McClelland 1988; Ganong 1980; Magnu-
5 son et al. 2003; Warren and Warren 1970). As will be explained in more
6 detail below, these effects only operate on lexical units and therefore do
7 not bear on the question of the autonomy of syntax. The present study
8 goes beyond lexical effects and presents a top-down effect on speech per-
9 ception that is driven by speakers' knowledge about constructions and
10 non-lexicalized collocations. The fact that this type of knowledge has an
11 effect on the perception of auditory input demonstrates the immediate in-
12 terrelatedness of syntax and phonology, and thus constitutes new evi-
13 dence against the purported modularity of grammar.

14 Recently, empirical evidence for syntactic effects on speech production
15 has been presented by Gahl and Garnsey (2004). In a study of pronun-
16 ciation variation, they show that words are not only shortened if their over-
17 all text frequency is high, but also when their syntactic context makes
18 them highly probable. The overall duration of same word is shorter in
19 contexts where it is more likely to occur, and hence more easily identified
20 by the hearer.

21 To illustrate, in the corpus data used by Gahl and Garnsey, the verb
22 *suggest* co-occurs with sentential complements more often than with di-
23 rect objects, such that sentences like *The director suggested the scene*
24 *should be filmed at night* are more likely than *The director suggested the*
25 *scene between Kim and Mike* (2004: 752). In a production study that mea-
26 sures reading times, Gahl and Garnsey find that syntactic biases toward
27 one complementation pattern significantly correlate with reduced produc-
28 tion of the verb in question (2004: 763). Verbs such as *argue*, *believe*,
29 *claim*, *conclude*, *confess*, or *decide* are pronounced shorter if they occur
30 with a sentential complement, and longer if they occur with a direct ob-
31 ject. Conversely, verbs such as *accept*, *advocate*, *confirm*, or *emphasize*
32 are reduced when occurring with a direct object, but not when they take
33 a sentential complement. Gahl and Garnsey conclude that the probabili-
34 ties of different complementation patterns are mentally represented for
35 each verb, and that this knowledge of syntactic probabilities affects
36 speech production (2004: 768).

37 These findings suggest that the organization of grammar is in fact non-
38 modular. On a strictly formalist view, the relative frequencies of syntactic
39 patterns would not be part of any grammatical module to begin with, as
40 it is held that usage does not affect the mental representation of grammar
41 (Newmeyer 2003). On any modular view, the fact that syntactic represen-
42 tations affect subphonemic speech production would require an elaborate

1 interface between modules, effectively reducing the autonomy of each
2 respective module to a relative degree. The only conceivable explanation in
3 terms of strict modularity would require the ad-hoc postulation of differ-
4 ent lexical entries for verbs such as *suggest*, only differing in relative
5 length, depending on their complementation patterns. Since such a solu-
6 tion requires a fair amount of technical machinery and auxiliary assump-
7 tions, Gahl and Garnsey point out that “the most parsimonious accounts
8 of these effects will be ones in which the grammar itself is enriched with
9 probabilistic information” (2004: 769).

10 The present study aims to provide further evidence for the non-
11 modular view of grammar, and extends the approach of Gahl and
12 Garnsey to another domain of language use: it will be argued that syn-
13 tactic probabilities affect not only speech production, but also speech
14 perception.

15

16

17 **2. The experimental paradigm**

18

19 The experimental paradigm used in the present study is that of lexical
20 identification tasks. Subjects hear a stimulus and are asked to identify
21 the word or phrase they perceived by selecting an orthographical repre-
22 sentation on a computer screen. The stimuli used in this task are often
23 not unambiguously identifiable. The stimuli are rendered ambiguous
24 through synthesized elements that lie on a continuum between two pho-
25 nemic poles, such as /p/ and /b/. For minimal pairs such as *pear* and
26 *bear*, the intermediate steps on the continuum allow two possible interpre-
27 tations, each of which is a lexical word of English. The experiment deter-
28 mines at which step of the continuum subjects flip from one interpretation
29 to the other.

30 One of the best known applications of this experimental paradigm is
31 the demonstration of the so-called categorical perception of speech
32 sounds by Liberman et al. (1957). Liberman and colleagues showed that
33 speech perception differs fundamentally from other types of perception.
34 For instance, if subjects are presented with a color continuum from red
35 to orange, that continuum is perceived as a gradual change that goes
36 through a stage of orange-red in the middle. By contrast, if subjects are
37 presented with a continuum from the syllable /pa/ to the syllable /ba/,
38 each stimulus is perceived as either one or the other. No stimulus is per-
39 ceived as midway between /pa/ and /ba/. This finding suggests that
40 speech perception is categorical and depends on a specialized speech
41 processing system, but this point has been subject to controversy (Fry
42 et al. 1962, Kewley-Port and Luce 1984). This particular debate is not of

1 concern here, as the present study merely shares the experimental para-
2 digm, not the theoretical stakes, with these early studies.

3 An aspect of speech perception that is relevant to the present study has
4 been discussed by Warren and Warren (1970), who observe a remarkable
5 effect: When sounds are cut out from a recording and replaced by a non-
6 phonemic sound such as a cough, hearers will “fill in” the missing sound
7 without even being aware of it. For instance, if the first /s/ is replaced in
8 a recording of the word *legislatures*, hearers will fail to hear that the word
9 has been altered, even when they are explicitly asked to identify the
10 spliced element. Warren and Warren call this effect *phonemic restoration*.

11 They further find that phonemic restoration is sensitive to the meaning
12 of the context. In a sentence such as *It was found that the <cough> eel was*
13 *on the shoe*, hearers robustly restore the word *heel*. By contrast, replacing
14 the last word of the sentence with *axle* leads to the restoration of *wheel*.
15 The restored element appears thus to be the semantically most appropri-
16 ate candidate from a set of phonologically related items.

17 Another application that is similar in spirit to the present investigation
18 was developed by Ganong (1980). Ganong found that hearers perceive
19 phonologically ambiguous stimuli with a lexical bias: if a string of pho-
20 nemes can be interpreted as a lexical word, subjects will favor this inter-
21 pretation over a competing interpretation that is merely a phonotactically
22 legal non-word. To illustrate, a stimulus that is ambiguous between *face*
23 and *faish* will tend to be perceived as *face*. The Ganong-effect can be
24 measured by comparing responses to different continua of stimuli. Re-
25 sponses to a continuum from *face* to *faish* will differ markedly from re-
26 sponses to a continuum from /ɛs/ and /ɛʃ/, which apart from the missing
27 onset is identical to the *face* to *faish* continuum, but which offers only
28 non-word syllables as possible interpretations. In the first continuum, sub-
29 jects will be biased towards the competitor interpretation that is a lexical
30 item (*face*). In the second continuum, none of the competitors is a lexical
31 item, and so comparatively fewer responses will identify an ambiguous
32 stimulus as /ɛs/. This effect can be interpreted as a shift in the perceptual
33 category boundaries of phonemes such as /s/ and /ʃ/.

34 While both phonemic restoration and the Ganong-effect represent
35 striking lexical top-down effects in the processing of auditory input, they
36 do not address the hypothesis that syntax is an autonomous module of
37 grammar. In order to put this hypothesis to the test, the present study in-
38 vestigates whether not only lexical words, but also larger syntactic units
39 such as constructions (Goldberg 2006) or collocations can affect speech
40 perception. Under the notion of syntactic effects, the present approach
41 subsumes even lexico-grammatical dependencies such as the collocational
42 preferences of particular grammatical constructions (Stefanowitsch and

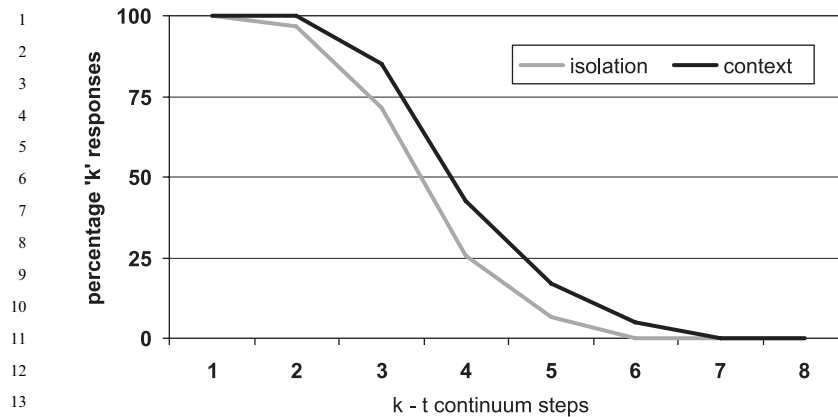


Figure 1. *Idealized curves of phonemic categorization*

Gries 2003). The present study devises lexical identification tasks in which subjects hear ambiguous stimuli that are embedded in different syntactic and collocational contexts. Unlike Ganong (1980), the present study uses stimuli for which both competing interpretations are actual words of English, as for example *cry* and *try*. Further, unlike Warren and Warren (1970), the present study employs stimuli whose competing interpretations are all semantically viable, i.e., hearers will not be given the biased choice of, say, a wheel being either on an axle or on a shoe. If a syntactic context significantly leads subjects to favor one competitor over the other, this constitutes evidence against the autonomy of syntax. The basic idea of the experiments in this study is thus to test whether syntactic context can shift category boundaries in phonemic perception. Figure 1 shows two idealized curves of phoneme perception in a continuum from /k/ to /t/.

The grey curve represents responses to stimuli heard in isolation, the black curve represents responses to stimuli heard embedded in syntactic context. The null hypothesis of the present study is that syntactic context has no influence whatsoever on phonemic speech perception. The stimuli should be categorized the same, whether they are heard in isolation or embedded within a given syntactic context. The two curves should thus coincide. The research hypothesis is that syntactic context can introduce a bias that leads subjects to shift their phonemic category boundaries, such that the two curves coincide at the ends of the continuum, but diverge in the middle. These alternative hypotheses are weighed in three different experiments.

1 The first experiment of this paper tests the general question whether
2 syntactic knowledge has any effect on lexical identification. It is shown
3 that constructions actually influence the perception of phonemically am-
4 biguous stimuli. Given a stimulus that is ambiguous between two lexical
5 elements in a construction, subjects are more likely to identify the stimu-
6 lus as an element that frequently occurs in the respective construction,
7 and less likely to identify it as an element that only sparsely occurs in
8 that construction.

9 The second experiment tests how robust the findings of the first experi-
10 ment are. If constructions influence the perception of phonemically
11 ambiguous stimuli, it should be possible to find constructions that induce
12 opposing biases, thus shifting the perceptual category boundaries in op-
13 posite directions. The results show that this is the case, corroborating the
14 findings of the first experiment.

15 In a third experiment it is tested whether constructional context does
16 not only influence the level of phonemic processing, but also extends to
17 low-level phonetic processing. While the results of the first two experi-
18 ments could be dismissed as operations that potentially involve the late
19 re-categorization of ‘misheard’ words, the third experiment investigates
20 whether syntactic knowledge directly and instantaneously influences
21 lower levels of speech perception. The used test case is whether construc-
22 tional context can trigger the phonetic effect of compensation for coarti-
23 culation (Elman and McClelland 1988). In processing naturally occurring
24 speech, hearers accommodate the fact that any string of phonemes is af-
25 fected by coarticulation. The production of every speech sound is influ-
26 enced by its preceding elements that are coarticulated with it. For exam-
27 ple, the /k/ in *this car* will sound somewhat different than the /k/ in *one*
28 *car*. Compensation for coarticulation can be thought of as an increased
29 “tolerance”, such that even less than perfect examples of a phoneme are
30 categorized as such, when hearers know that there is a reason for the un-
31 dershoot. Compensation for coarticulation is necessarily a low-level pho-
32 netic process that works instantaneously to keep up with the natural
33 speech flow. The results of the third experiment show that constructions
34 can indeed induce compensation for coarticulation. This means that
35 knowledge of syntax has an effect on phonetic processing, which in turn
36 constitutes evidence against syntactic modularity of the kind hypothesized
37 in Newmeyer (1998).

38

39 3. Materials and participants

40

41 The speech stimuli used in the present study are based on recordings of
42 an adult female human voice, speaking in a standard American English

1 variety. After the recordings, the stimuli were altered with a computerized
2 synthesizer to yield ten-step continua between two phonemic poles,
3 such as /k/ and /t/. The chosen method of synthesizing was sample-
4 averaging. This technique divides two wave forms of the same length
5 into small slices at the rate of 44.1 kHz and creates continua of ambigu-
6 ous sounds by laying wave forms from the two different sources on top of
7 each other. Depending on how strong each source is represented at a
8 given continuum step, the resulting wave form sounds more or less like
9 one of the original sources. The synthesized stimuli are embedded in un-
10 altered recordings of actual words to yield a continuum between, say, the
11 English words *cry* and *try*. The end points of the continuum are unambig-
12 uously perceived as *cry* and *try*, but the point at which the perceptual
13 crossover from *cry* and *try* occurs will vary from person to person.
14 In some experiments reported in this paper, the outer continuum steps
15 were discarded if pilot studies indicated that even steps that lay more to-
16 wards the center of the continuum were identified unambiguously across
17 subjects.

18 Fifteen volunteer subjects with self-reported normal hearing, normal or
19 corrected to normal vision, and English as their native language partici-
20 pated, each one in all three of the experiments. Since this was a procedure
21 of about 45 minutes, subjects were instructed to take breaks whenever
22 they felt the need for doing so. The experimental design was fully self-
23 paced through mouse clicks and allowed for subject-controlled breaks.
24 All subjects were Rice University undergraduate or graduate students
25 that were either paid or given course credit for their participation. None
26 of the data had to be excluded.

27

28 **4. Experiment 1—The English *make-causative***

29

30 In the first experiment, subjects are presented with ambiguous speech sig-
31 nals within a construction that is intended to bias the lexical identification
32 process towards one of the two competing interpretations. The construc-
33 tion used in this experiment is the English *make-causative*, which has a
34 strong bias towards verbs of emotion and psycho-physiological reaction
35 (Kemmer 2001). Typical examples are *It made me feel dizzy* or *That*
36 *makes it look a lot bigger*; examples involving activity verbs such as *He*
37 *made me do it* are much less frequent, despite the high text frequency of
38 the verb *do*. Table 1 shows the twenty most frequent verbs from an ex-
39 haustive extraction of the *make-causative* construction from the British
40 National Corpus (Leech 1992), which yields 10,708 examples.

41 While the verb *cry* occurs 73 times in the *make-causative* construction,
42 the verb *try*, which is not shown in Table 1, occurs only eleven times. As a

1 Table 1. *The 20 most frequent verbs in the English make-causative construction in the BNC*

2	Verb	Tokens	Verb	Tokens
4	feel	1654	appear	142
5	look	822	happen	119
6	think	542	come	111
7	laugh	358	realise	111
8	seem	293	see	100
9	work	264	pay	97
10	sound	258	meet	93
11	go	237	stand	91
12	want	195	take	74
13	wonder	157	cry	73

15 minimal pair with *cry*, it affords a test case for the effect of constructional
 16 context on speech perception. Note that *try* is ten times as frequent in dis-
 17 course as *cry* (Francis and Kucera 1982), such that the frequency of *cry*
 18 and *try* in the make-causative is asymmetrical to their overall frequency.
 19 At any rate, the context of the make-causative should bias the categoriza-
 20 tion of stimuli ambiguous between *cry* and *try* towards *cry*. The carrier
 21 phrase that is used in the experiment is the phrase *They made me*, which
 22 is followed by a signal that ranges on a eight-step continuum from /traɪ/
 23 to /kraɪ/. It is hypothesized that the constructional carrier phrase biases
 24 hearers towards perceiving a principally ambiguous signal as /kraɪ/. To
 25 test this hypothesis, subjects categorized the ambiguous signals both with-
 26 in the constructional frame and in isolation.

28 4.1. Method

30 4.1.1. *Materials*. For the experiment, a ten-step /t-/k/ continuum
 31 was created using a sample-averaging script within Praat (Boersma and
 32 Weenink 2005). The source signals were the items *cry* and *try*, recorded
 33 from the speech of a female native speaker of American English. Input
 34 sections were selected that contained the burst of the consonant as well
 35 as the first four glottal pulses. Again using Praat, the longer one of the
 36 two sections was shortened such that both sections were of equal length.
 37 From these continuum endpoints, intermediate signals were created in
 38 10% steps. Each of the resulting /t-/k/ continuum steps was concate-
 39 nated with the remaining stretch of the recording of *try*, which comprised
 40 the entire word minus the burst and the first four glottal pulses. This
 41 procedure yields a continuum of sounds, the first one an unambiguous
 42 /kraɪ/, and the last one an unambiguous /traɪ/. In pilot studies the two

1 endpoint steps were identified unambiguously and hence discarded; only
2 the intermediate eight steps were used. For the carrier phrase, the phrase
3 *they made me* was recorded from the same speaker, and subsequently
4 concatenated with each of the eight stimuli. The subsequent concatena-
5 tion of stimuli types yields 16 different stimuli (carrier phrase and null
6 context by eight try-cry continuum steps).

7
8 4.1.2. *Procedure.* The experiment was conducted using PsyScope 1.2.5
9 (Cohen et al. 1993). Subjects were given on-screen instructions, stating
10 that they would see a clickable red dot as a fixation point at the center
11 of the computer screen. After clicking the dot, they would hear a pre-
12 recorded sound file and have to identify the percept as a word of English
13 in a two-way choice. Orthographical representations in a 44 pt font were
14 displayed to the left and right side of the screen. The same orthographical
15 representation would appear in the same place throughout. For each sub-
16 ject, this experiment involved 64 trials, such that each of the eight contin-
17 uum steps was heard eight times, four times in isolation, and four times in
18 the constructional context. No filler trials were used.¹ Stimuli were pre-
19 sented in randomized order, while the relative positions of the ortho-
20 graphical representations were kept constant.

21 4.2. *Results*

22
23 Figure 2 summarizes the outcome of the first experiment. In both condi-
24 tions, the perceptual crossover from /k/ to /t/ occurs between steps three
25 and six. The outer two steps on either side of the continuum are unambig-
26 uously identified by all subjects. The figure shows that the categorization
27 curve is drawn half a step towards the right side of the continuum in the
28 context of the make-causative construction, which is consistent with the
29 research hypothesis. More instances of ambiguous sounds are identified
30 as *cry* if they are presented in the constructional carrier phrase. A re-
31 peated measures ANOVA was conducted for the *cry* responses in isola-
32 tion and in the constructional context to measure the effect of the con-
33 structional carrier phrase. The calculation is based on all *cry* responses
34 of fifteen subjects in two different conditions (isolation, causative) across
35 the eight steps in the synthesized continuum.
36

37
38
39 1. To the extent that filler trials serve to obscure the research question in an experimental
40 design, they were not deemed necessary in the present study. Additionally, since partic-
41 ipants completed all three experiments in one lengthy sitting, fillers would have meant
42 an additional strain on the participants.

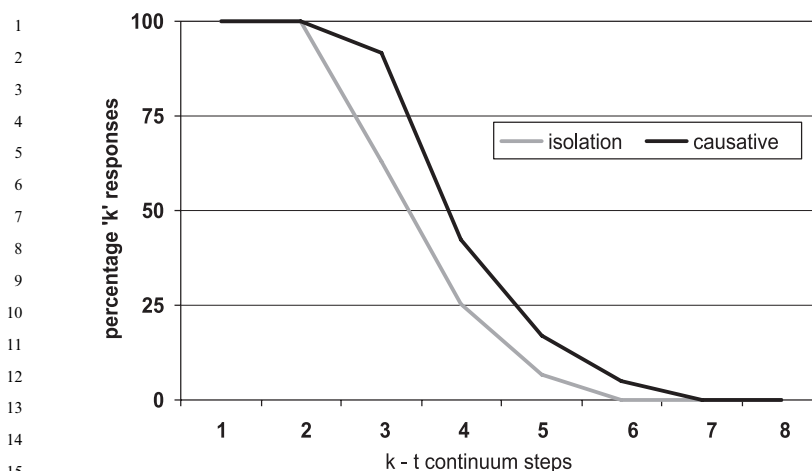


Figure 2. Perception of the /traɪ/-/kraɪ/ continuum in isolation and the causative

The constructional effect is significant in a by-subject analysis ($F_{(1,14)} = 18.44$, $p < 0.001$) and approaches significance in the corresponding by-item analysis ($F_{(1,7)} = 4.17$, $p = 0.08$).

5. Experiment 2—Using collocations to induce opposing biases

While the first experiment is designed to merely explore whether constructional knowledge, which falls into the domain of syntax, has an effect on speech perception, the second experiment tests how robust this effect is. Given that only the by-subject analysis returned a significant result in the first experiment, further investigation seems necessary. Again, subjects are presented with phonologically ambiguous stimuli that are embedded in constructional frames. This time however, subjects hear the same stimuli in three different conditions. In the control condition, subjects hear the stimuli in isolation. In the two other conditions, the stimuli are embedded in collocations that exhibit different lexical preferences. The research hypothesis is that each carrier phrase biases lexical identification towards its lexical preference, while the control condition yields responses that fall in between the two other conditions. The null hypothesis is that all three conditions should receive similar responses, or responses that differ randomly.

The phrases *it's always* and *it's getting* are used as carrier phrases because they collocate heavily with the elements *worse* and *worth*, which form a phonological minimal pair of English. The collocational prefer-

1 Table 2. *The 20 most frequent items after it's always and it's getting in the BNC*

2	it's always	Tokens	it's getting	Tokens
4	the	74	a	25
5	a	64	late	20
6	like	14	dark	15
7	nice	14	more	11
8	difficult	13	worse	10
9	there	12	to	9
10	worth	11	on	8
11	easier	9	the	7
12	going	9	too	7
13	better	8	very	7

14 ences are opposed to each other: while *it's always* frequently occurs with
 15 *worth*, *it's getting* is frequently followed by *worse*. The reverse combina-
 16 tions are not ungrammatical, but very infrequent. Sentences such as *It's*
 17 *getting worth investing again* are thus rarely seen. Table 2 shows the ten
 18 most frequent items that occur after *it's always* and *it's getting* in the
 19 BNC. The table is based on 502 occurrences of *it's always* and 292 tokens
 20 of *it's getting*.

21 As expected, function words such as the determiners *the* and *a*, and
 22 prepositions such as *to* and *on* are among the most frequent elements.
 23 However, both lists also contain open-class elements such as the adjectives
 24 *nice*, *difficult*, *easier*, and *better* with *it's always*, and *late* and *dark*
 25 with *it's getting*. What matters to the present analysis is that the minimal
 26 pair members *worse* and *worth* approximate a complementary distribu-
 27 tion across the two collocational environments. In terms of absolute fre-
 28 quency, *worse* and *worth* occur at the same order of magnitude (Francis
 29 and Kucera 1982), such that any observed effect should not be due to
 30 stronger familiarity with one of the two competitors.

31 The distributional asymmetry between the items after *it's getting* and
 32 *it's always* should lead subjects to interpret the same ambiguous stimuli
 33 in different ways, depending on the preceding context. The question pur-
 34 sued in this experiment is whether this difference is strong enough to in-
 35 duce opposing biases that are statistically significant, and that are both
 36 distinct from intermediate responses to the control condition.

38 5.1. Method

39
 40 5.1.1. *Materials.* A ten-step /s/-/θ/ continuum was created using the
 41 same sample-averaging script within Praat. The source signals were the
 42 items *worse* and *worth*, which were recorded as spoken by a female native

1 speaker of English. Input sections were selected that contained the last
 2 four glottal pulses from the vowel /□/. The longer /s/-section was short-
 3 ened such that it was of equal length as the /θ/-section. From these con-
 4 tinuum endpoints, intermediate signals were created in 10% steps. Each of
 5 the resulting /s/-/θ/ continuum steps was concatenated with the remain-
 6 der of the word *worth*, which comprised the entire word minus the last
 7 four glottal pulses and the frication. This procedure yielded a continuum
 8 of sounds, the first one an unambiguous /w□s/, and the last one an un-
 9 ambiguous /w□θ/. The first points and the last two points of the contin-
 10 uum were interpreted unambiguously in pilot tests, such that they were
 11 discarded and not used in the actual experiment. Only the seven steps
 12 from step two to step eight were used.

13

14 5.1.2. *Procedure.* The experiment was conducted in much the same
 15 way as experiment 1, using PsyScope 1.2.5 with on-screen instructions.
 16 For each subject, this experiment involved 84 trials, such that each of
 17 the seven continuum steps was heard twelve times, four times in isolation,
 18 and four times in each of the two different constructional contexts.
 19 No filler trials were given. Stimuli were presented in randomized order;
 20 the relative positions of the orthographical representations were kept
 21 constant.

22

23 5.2. Results

24

25 Figure 3 shows that syntactic context actually biases lexical identification
 26 in the predicted way. The diagram shows all *worse* responses relative to
 27 the three conditions of the experiment. The perceptual crossover covers
 28 all steps except the first one, regardless of context. It can be seen that syn-
 29 tactic context has an effect on the interpretation of the ambiguous stimu-
 30 lus, as the condition *it's getting* produces the most *worse* responses. The
 31 light grey curve, representing the condition *it's always* is flatter and drawn
 32 more to the left than the black curve, as this condition yields the fewest
 33 *worse* responses. The medium grey line, representing *worse* responses in
 34 the absence of a carrier phrase, falls between the two other lines, except
 35 at step 7.

36 A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted for all *worse* responses to
 37 measure the effect of the constructional carrier phrases. The calculation is
 38 based on all *worse* responses of fifteen subjects in three different condi-
 39 tions (isolation, *it's always*, *it's getting*) across the seven steps of the syn-
 40 thesized continuum. The constructional effect is significant in a by-subject
 41 analysis ($F_{(2,28)} = 13.60$, $p < 0.001$) and in the corresponding by-item
 42 analysis ($F_{(2,12)} = 18.83$, $p < 0.001$).

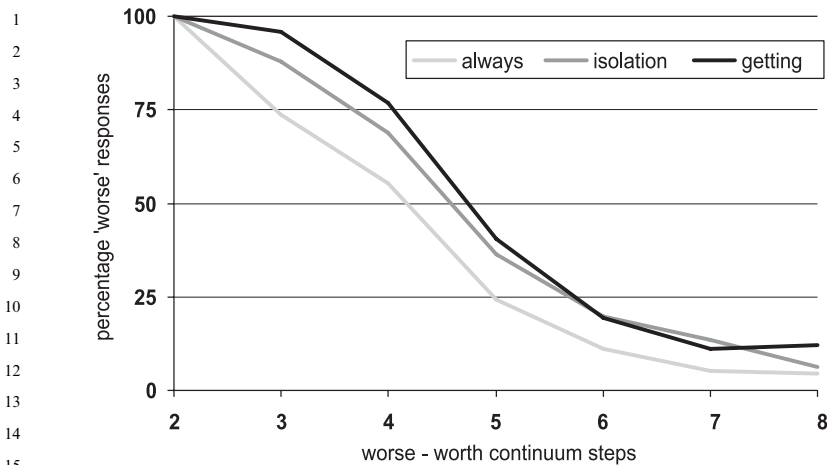


Figure 3. 'worse' responses relative to condition

6. Experiment 3—Compensation for coarticulation

The first two experiments yield evidence that knowledge of constructions and collocations induces shifts in phonemic category boundaries. This can be interpreted as a syntactic effect on phonological processing. While the explanation of such an effect requires some auxiliary assumptions on a modular view of grammar (Newmeyer 1998, 2003), the effect itself does not amount to a refutation of modularity. One possible criticism is that the observed results are the effect of late feedback between modules, which is how the effect of phonemic restoration due to semantic context (Warren and Warren 1970) is most appropriately interpreted. It could thus be that an input that is passed from the phonological module to the syntactic module is left unspecified or subsequently judged to be a misperception, and therefore re-analyzed at a relatively late processing stage. In order to show that syntactic effects on speech perception apply immediately at the level of auditory input processing, it needs to be demonstrated that on-line phonetic processing is affected by syntactic context. The third experiment investigates whether this is actually the case.

A potential source for such evidence is the phonetic effect of compensation for coarticulation (Elman and McClelland 1988). In processing naturally occurring speech, hearers do not expect each token of a phonemic category to be invariant. Hearers unconsciously compensate for the fact that every speech sound is influenced by its preceding elements. If a transition from one phoneme to the next takes effort, hearers will

1 accommodate the resulting undershoot and perceive even less than perfect
 2 examples of a phoneme as a proper member of its category. The behavior
 3 of compensation for coarticulation can be exploited in an experimental
 4 setting. What the experiment aims to test is whether compensation for
 5 coarticulation, as an on-line phonetic effect, can be triggered by the syn-
 6 tactic context of a given construction.

7 To this end, not only one ambiguous stimulus is required, but two. For
 8 the first part of the complex ambiguous stimulus, the third experiment re-
 9 uses stimuli of the second experiment. Subjects are presented with stimuli
 10 that are ambiguous between *worse* and *worth* in two conditions. In the
 11 control condition, subjects hear the stimulus in isolation, while the second
 12 condition presents the stimulus appended to the carrier phrase *it's always*.
 13 As has been shown in experiment 2, this carrier phrase biases lexical iden-
 14 tification towards the competitor *worth*. It is assumed here that prior ex-
 15 posure to the stimuli does not have a biasing effect; the same subjects
 16 heard the enhanced stimuli in the third experiment.

17 The stimulus continues with an element that is phonetically ambiguous
 18 between the words *trying* and *crying*. It is here that compensation for
 19 coarticulation comes into play. The interpretation of the first stimulus
 20 (*worse-worth*) should lead subjects to categorize the second stimulus
 21 (*trying-crying*) in different ways, depending on the degree of effort on the
 22 part of the speaker to make the transition. Transitional effort is opera-
 23 tionalized here, in a somewhat simplistic but not confounding way, as dis-
 24 tance in production site. The two ambiguous stimuli yield four possible
 25 interpretations, which are shown in Table 3.

26 If the first stimulus is perceived as *worth*, which ends on the interdental
 27 /θ/, subjects should 'forgive' that a following velar /k/ is pronounced
 28 somewhat more towards the front; so they should be more likely to per-
 29 ceive the second stimulus as *crying*. Put simply, as /θ/ is produced further
 30 in the front of the mouth than /s/, we expect it to generate a relatively
 31 greater tolerance. By contrast, the transitions from dental to velar (/s/
 32 > /k/), from interdental to alveolar (/θ/ > /t/) are relatively easy; and
 33 the transition from dental to alveolar (/s/ > /t/) is the easiest option al-
 34
 35

36 Table 3. *Stimuli interpretations and degree of effort in coarticulation*

37 Interpretation	38 Transition	39 Effort
40 worth crying	interdental - velar	difficult
41 worse crying	dental - velar	intermediate
42 worth trying	interdental - alveolar	intermediate
worse trying	dental - alveolar	easy

1 together. Hearers should therefore be the least tolerant with respect to
2 this transition.²

3 On the research hypothesis, the constructional context *it's always*
4 should bias subjects towards perceiving *worth* more often than in the con-
5 trol condition. This, in turn, should result in a bias to perceive the second
6 ambiguous stimulus as *crying* more often. If we thus observe more *crying*
7 responses in the second condition, this would suggest that syntax affects
8 even low-level phonetic processing.

9
10 6.1. *Method*

11 6.1.1. *Materials.* The carrier phrase *it's always* and the seven-step
12 *worse-worth* continuum from the second experiment were re-used without
13 further changes, but the stimuli were concatenated with further material.
14 A ten-step continuum was created from the recorded items *crying* and *try-*
15 *ing*, using the previously discussed method. Here, the first point and the
16 last three points of the continuum were interpreted unambiguously in
17 pilot tests, such that they were discarded and not used in the actual exper-
18 iment. Only the six steps from step two to step seven were used. The sub-
19 sequent concatenation of stimuli types yielded 42 different stimuli (seven
20 *worth-worse* continuum steps times six *trying-crying* continuum steps).
21

22 6.1.2. *Procedure.* The experiment was conducted in the same way as
23 the other experiments, using PsyScope 1.2.5 with on-screen instructions.
24 The only difference concerned the fact that this time, subjects had to iden-
25 tify a percept as a word of English in a four-way choice: *worth crying*,
26 *worse crying*, *worth trying*, or *worse trying*. Orthographical representa-
27 tions in a 44 pt font were either arrayed into the four corners of the screen
28 or displayed to the left and right side of the screen. The same orthograph-
29 ical representation would appear in the same place throughout. For each
30 subject, this experiment involved 252 trials. Each of the 42 stimuli was
31 heard six times, three times in isolation, and three times after the carrier
32 phrase *it's always*. No filler trials were given. Stimuli were presented in
33 randomized order while the relative positions of the orthographical repre-
34 sentations were kept constant.
35

36
37
38 2. A reviewer points out that both *worth* and *worse* should trigger the fronting of the initial
39 consonant of *crying* and asks whether a minor difference in place of articulation, such as
40 dental vs. interdental, has been shown to make a significant difference in compensation
41 for coarticulation. Elman and McClelland (1988) report an effect for the alternation be-
42 tween /s/ and /ʃ/, i.e., an alveolar and a postalveolar fricative, so that indeed minute
differences seem sufficient for the effect to obtain.

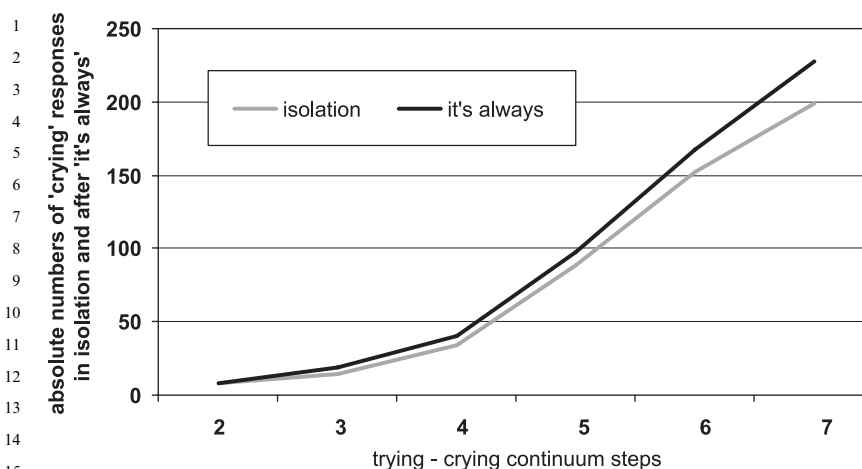


Figure 4. Crying responses to the second ambiguous stimulus by condition

6.2. Results

Figure 4 shows that there are fewer *crying* responses in the control condition than in the condition that involved the constructional carrier phrase. The diagram shows the absolute numbers of responses to the second ambiguous stimulus (*crying-trying*). After the constructional carrier phrase *it's always* we expected a higher number of *worth* responses and consequently a higher number of *crying* responses. This expectation is borne out.

A repeated measures ANOVA was conducted for all *crying* responses to measure the effect of the constructional carrier phrases. The calculation is based on all *crying* responses of fifteen subjects in two different conditions (isolation, *it's always*) across the six steps of the synthesized continuum. The constructional effect approaches significance in a by-subject analysis ($F_{(1,14)} = 4.02$, $p = 0.065$); the corresponding by-item analysis returns a significant result ($F_{(1,5)} = 6.58$, $p = 0.050$).

7. Conclusion

The results of the three experiments demonstrate that syntactic context in the form of constructions and collocations has an effect on both phonemic categorization and low-level phonetic processing. Presenting ambiguous sounds in the carrier phrase of a constructional or collocational frame alters the phonemic category boundaries in a lexical identification task,

1 and it can induce the phonetic effect of compensation for coarticulation.
2 It needs to be acknowledged that the observed effects fail to reach signifi-
3 cance in the cases of the by-item analysis of experiment 1 and the by-
4 subject analysis of experiment 3. Here, there is only evidence in the form
5 of trends. The directions of the observed effects are, however, as pre-
6 dicted; they always move towards the lexical element that more fre-
7 quently occurs with the carrier phrase. This reaffirms the point that collo-
8 cations and collocational patterns within constructions (Stefanowitsch
9 and Gries 2003) have a psychological reality that shapes the way in which
10 hearers perceive speech. It can also be concluded that the lexically based
11 Ganong-effect has a more abstract counterpart which extends to the level
12 of syntax, and which is not restricted to the opposition of words and non-
13 words. The result that subjects are biased towards hearing entrenched
14 units over hearing chance collocations is consistent with views held in
15 Construction Grammar and cognitive linguistics, but up to now, this
16 view had not been sufficiently supported through empirical studies. The
17 results of the present study provide new evidence that syntactic and lexi-
18 cal knowledge are not stored in different mental modules, but rather form
19 a continuum from heavily entrenched and conventionalized units to
20 loosely connected elements (Bybee 2005).

21

22 *Received 27 June 2007*

ICSI Berkeley, USA

23 *Revision received 3 January 2008*

24

25

26 **References**

27

28 Barlow, Michael and Suzanne E. Kemmer

29 2000 *Usage-based Models of Language*. Stanford: CSLI.

30 Boersma, Paul and David Weenink

31 2005 Praat: doing phonetics by computer (Version 4.3.14) [Computer program].
Retrieved May 26, 2005, from <http://www.praat.org/>.

32 Bybee, Joan L.

33 2000 The phonology of the lexicon: Evidence from lexical diffusion. In M. Barlow
and S. Kemmer. (eds.), *Usage-based Models of Language*. Stanford: CSLI.

34 2001 *Phonology and Language Use*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

35 2006 From usage to grammar: The mind's response to repetition. *Language* 82(4),
36 711–733.

37 Bybee, Joan L. and Paul Hopper (eds.)

38 2001 *Frequency and the Emergence of Linguistic structure*. Amsterdam: John
Benjamins.

39 Clifton, Charles Jr.

40 1991 Syntactic modularity in sentence comprehension. In R. R. Hoffman and
41 D. S. Palermo (eds.), *Cognition and the symbolic processes, Vol. 3: Applied
42 and ecological perspectives*. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum, 95–114.

- 1 Cohen, Jonathan, Brian MacWhinney, Matthew Flatt, and Jefferson Provost
 2 1993 PsyScope: An interactive graphical system for designing and controlling ex-
 3 periments in the psychology laboratory using Macintosh computers. *Behav-*
 4 *ior Research Methods, Instruments, and Computers* 25, 257–271.
- 5 Cooper, William E. and Jeanne Paccia-Cooper
 6 1980 *Syntax and Speech*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- 7 Elman, Jeff L. and James L. McClelland
 8 1988 Cognitive penetration of the mechanisms of perception: Compensation for
 9 coarticulation of lexically restored phonemes. *Journal of Memory and Lan-*
 10 *guage* 27, 143–165.
- 11 Fillmore, Charles J., Paul Kay, and Mary C. O'Connor
 12 1988 Regularity and idiomaticity in grammatical constructions: The case of Let
 13 Alone. *Language* 64(3), 510–538.
- 14 Fodor, Jerry A.
 15 1980 *The Modularity of Mind*. Cambridge: Bradford books.
- 16 Francis, W. Nelson and Henry Kucera
 17 1982 *Frequency Analysis of English Usage: Lexicon and Grammar*. Boston:
 18 Houghton-Mifflin.
- 19 Frazier, Lyn
 20 1987 Sentence Processing: A tutorial review. In M. Coltheart (ed.), *Attention and*
 21 *Performance XII: The Psychology of Reading*. Hove: Erlbaum, 559–586.
- 22 Fry, Dennis B., Arthur Abramson, Peter D. Eimas, and Alvin M. Liberman
 23 1962 The identification and discrimination of synthetic vowels. *Language and*
 24 *Speech* 5, 171–189.
- 25 Gahl, Susanne and Susan M. Garnsey
 26 2004 Knowledge of grammar, knowledge of usage: Syntactic probabilities affect
 27 pronunciation variation. *Language* 80(4), 748–775.
- 28 Ganong, William F.
 29 1980 Phonetic categorization in auditory perception. *Journal of Experimental Psy-*
 30 *chology: Human Perception and Performance* 6, 110–125.
- 31 Goldberg, Adele E.
 32 1995 *Constructions*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
 33 2006 *Constructions at Work. The Nature of Generalization in Language*. Oxford:
 34 Oxford University Press.
- 35 Gregory, Michelle, W. D. Raymond, A. Bell, E. Fosler-Lussier, and D. Jurafsky
 36 1999 The effects of collocational strength and contextual predictability in lexical
 37 production. *Chicago Linguistics Society* 35.
- 38 Hooper, Joan B.
 39 1976 *An Introduction to Natural Generative Phonology*. New York: Academic Press.
- 40 Jurafsky, Dan, Alan Bell, Michelle Gregory, and William D. Raymond
 41 2001 Probabilistic Relations between Words: Evidence from Reduction in Lexical
 42 Production. In J. L. Bybee and P. Hopper. (eds.), *Frequency and the Emer-*
 43 *gence of Linguistic Structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 229–254.
- 44 Kemmer, Suzanne E.
 45 2001 *Causative Constructions and Cognitive Models: The English Make Causative*.
 46 The First Seoul International Conference on Discourse and Cognitive Lin-
 47 guistics: Perspectives for the 21st Century, 803–832.
- 48 Kewley-Port, Diane and Paul A. Luce
 49 1984 Time-varying features of initial stop consonants in auditory running spectra:
 50 A first report. *Perception and Psychophysics* 35, 353–360.

- 1 Langacker, Ronald W.
2 1987 *Foundations of Cognitive Grammar*. Stanford: Stanford University Press.
3 2005 Construction grammars: Cognitive, radical, and less so. In F. J. Ruiz de
4 Mendoza Ibáñez and M. S. Peña Cervel (eds.), *Cognitive Linguistics. Inter-*
5 *nal Dynamics and Interdisciplinary Interaction*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter,
6 101–159.
- 6 Leech, Geoffrey
7 1992 100 million words of English: the British National Corpus. *Language Re-*
8 *search* 28(1), 1–13.
- 8 Liberman, Alvin M., Katherine S. Harris, H. S. Hoffman, and B. C. Griffith
9 1957 The discrimination of speech sounds within and across phoneme boundaries.
10 *Journal of Experimental Psychology* 54, 358–68.
- 11 Magnuson, James, Bob McMurray, Michael Tanenhaus and Richard Aslin
12 2003 Lexical effects on compensation for coarticulation: The ghost of Christmas
13 past. *Cognitive Science* 27(2), 285–298.
- 13 McClelland, James L., David E. Rumelhart and the PDP Research Group
14 1986 *Parallel Distributed Processing: Explorations in the Microstructure of Cogni-*
15 *tion. Volume 2: Psychological and Biological Models*. Cambridge, MA: MIT
16 Press.
- 17 Newmeyer, Frederick J.
18 1998 *Language Form and Language Function*. Cambridge: MIT Press.
19 2003 Grammar is grammar and usage is usage. *Language* 79, 682–707.
- 19 Stefanowitsch, Anatol and Stefan Th. Gries
20 2003 Collostructions: Investigating the interaction between words and construc-
21 tions. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 8, 209–43.
- 22 Tanenhaus, Michael, Michael Spivey-Knowlton, Kathleen Eberhard and Julie Sedivy
23 1995 Integration of visual and linguistic information in spoken language compre-
24 hension. *Science* 268, 1632–1634.
- 24 Warren, Richard M. and Roslyn P. Warren
25 1970 Auditory illusions and confusions. *Scientific American* 223, 30–36.
- 26 Zipf, George K.
27 1935 *The Psycho-biology of Language*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin.
- 28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
20
21
22
23
24
25
26
27
28
29
30
31
32
33
34
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
42