

# Introducing *Pattern Matching Analysis* (PMA) as a Friend, if not a Variant, of Construction Grammar

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## 1 Introduction

Kuroda [6] proposed a framework called PATTERN MATCHING ANALYSIS (PMA henceforth) as a connectionism-compatible alternative to syntactic theories endorsed in many variants of Generative Grammar. It turned out that PMA was compatible with Construction Grammar [3, 5] in many respects. This paper tries to elaborate on their convergences, with reference to the resultative construction.

## 2 PMA Account of Resultatives

### 2.1 Goldbergian Account

Goldberg [5] proposed five “argument structure” constructions. Resultative Construction is one of them, illustrated by examples like (1):

- (1) Bill hammered the metal flat.

Sentences like (1) are said to be instances of Resultative Construction because “resultative predicates” such as *flat* are licensed despite the fact that they are not licensed by matrix verbs like *hammer*. Goldberg claims that the fact is best accounted for when we assume that sentences like (1) are interpreted by making reference to a super-lexical “pairing” of a form  $F$  to an abstract meaning  $M$  in (2):

- (2)  $F$ : Subj:  $x$  V:  $v$  Obj:  $y$  Xcomp:  $z$ ;  
 $M$ :  $x$  CAUSES  $y$  TO BECOME  $z$  [5, p. 3]

### 2.2 PMA Account

PMA provides a somewhat different, if not incompatible, picture of the phenomenon, by reinterpreting the core idea in Goldbergian constructions. Before elaborating our points, let us specify basic assumptions.

The specification in Figure 1 is the PMA of (1). In tables like this, the  $i$ th (sub)pattern,  $p_i$ , encodes the syntax and semantics of  $i$ th segment of  $p_0$ , called “base pattern.”

p0:	Bill**	hammered**	the metal**	flat**
p1:	Bill*	V1	O1	--
p2:	S2	hammered*	O2	--
p3:	S3	R3	the metal*	--
p4:	S4	V4	O4	flat*

Figure 1: PMA of (1)

A subpattern has the following properties: A word (e.g., *hammer*) with a specific sense is mentally represented as a subpattern (e.g., “ $S$  *hammer*\*  $O$ ”) that instantiates a “surface-true” schema for a given language. For example, words are represented as patterns of the form  $SRO$  for English, and as patterns of the form  $SOR$  for Japanese, reflecting respective canonical word orders.

Each subpattern consists of two kinds of components: a “body” and its glues. Body refers to a word form  $w$  to be encoded by a subpattern, indicated by  $w^*$  and placed in orange cells. Glues are abstract, “invisible” elements like  $S$  (for subject, or external argument),  $O$  (for object, or internal argument(s)),  $P$  (for preposition and postposition),  $V$

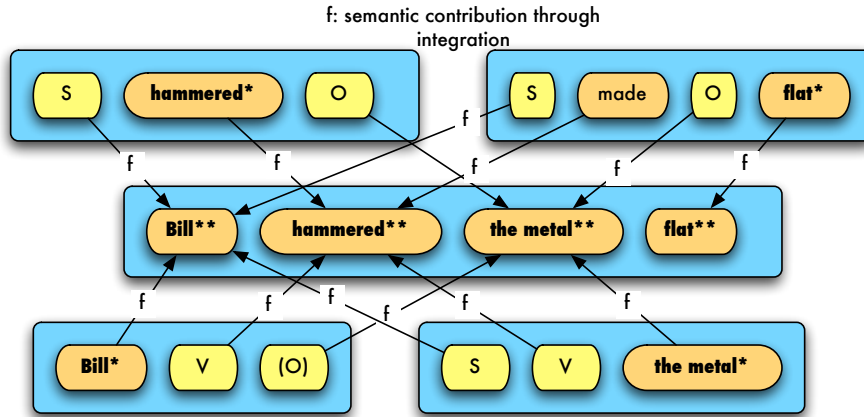


Figure 2: PMA of (1) graphically

(for verb),  $R = \{ V, P \}$  (neutralization between  $V$  and  $P$ ). They are placed in yellow cells. “—” in white cells indicates “null” specification.

Glues have their own semantics, by which “selectional restrictions” can be specified for a word. With the help of glues, each pattern is associated to “semantic frames” [4].

The syntax and semantics of a sentence (e.g., *Bill hammered the metal flat*) is given as the “integration” of subpatterns. Integration of subpatterns is roughly a column-wise, vertical unification (but with certain kinds of “adjustments” allowed), whose operator is indicated by  $\xi$ . For example, the syntactic-semantic specification for (1) is given roughly as:

- (3)  $[Bill^{**}][hammered^{**}][the\ metal^{**}][flat^{**}]$ , where  $Bill^{**} = \xi(\{ Bill^*, S_2, S_3, S_4 \})$ ,  $hammered^{**} = \xi(\{ V_1, hammered^*, R_3, V_4 \})$ ,  $the\ metal^{**} = \xi(\{ O_1, O_2, the\ metal^*, O_4 \})$ , and  $flat^{**} = \xi(\{ -, -, -, flat^* \})$ .

The diagram in Figure 2 illustrates how subpattern integration goes for (1). It is easy to see the base pattern as a “blend” of subpatterns [2].

PMA does not posit any theoretical constructs like (2). The relevant effect can be accounted for if the meaning of (4) is imported to the meaning of (1):

- (4) Bill made the metal flat.

But the point is, How? The comparison of the PMAs in Figures 1 and 3 would make the point.

p0:	Bill**	made**	the metal**	flat**
p1:	Bill*	V1	O1	--
p2:	S2	made*	O2	A2
p3:	S3	R3	the metal*	--
p4:	S4	V4	O4	flat*

Figure 3: PMA of (4)

As  $p_2$  in Figure 3 indicates, *make* has its own subject, object and predicate ( $S_2$ ,  $O_2$  and  $A_2$ ) as its proper arguments.  $p_2 = S_2\ made^*\ O_2\ A_2$ , or more specifically  $A_2$ , licenses the occurrence of *flat* in (4). By contrast, as  $p_2$  in Figure 1 indicates, the argument structure of *hammer* lacks the counterpart of  $A_2$  in Figure 3.

Under this, PMA allows us to account for the resultative reading in (1) as follows:

- (5) Sentence (1) is licensed when  $p_4$  in Figure 1 is implicitly elaborated so that the meaning of  $V_4$  is approximated by *made\**, as is induced by  $Bill^{**}\ V_4\ the\ metal^{**}\ flat^{**}$ , partial integration of  $\{ p_1, p_3, p_4 \}$ . This is a good example

of **implicit pattern completion** as a typical property of neural networks, especially, Hopfield nets.

The account above gives us interesting predictions such as the following:

Resultative construction, for one, and Goldberian “argument structure” constructions in general, are both “lexically” and “collocationally” conditioned in that no such effects can be manifest unless a specific word or phrase with a specific sense is associated with a specific lexical context. In this sense, the account provided by PMA is basically compatible with findings and claims in Boas [1].

More specifically, only APs (and PPs if any) that appear in the context “S make O —” show the resultative construction effect: any other APs (and PPs) don’t: the resultative reading for (1) is “induced” by the “argument structure” of *flat* that encodes an effect of causation.

Any “purely semantic” account of the argument structure elaboration effects (in terms of LCS [7]) would fail, because the phenomenon is also collocationally based.

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## References

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