LING 451/551 Spring 2011

Presenting data in linguistic writing

Data set off from text

In linguistic writing, non-prose material (data, figures, tables) is often set off from the text (starts a new paragraph) rather than presented within a paragraph. Compare the following ways of presenting the same information.

The consonant phonemes of English are: /p b t d \mathfrak{g} d \mathfrak{g} f v θ d s z \mathfrak{g} f w n n \mathfrak{g} l r \mathfrak{g} w/.

The consonant phonemes of English are shown below:

Although the tabular presentation of the phonemes of English takes up more space in the document, it makes it easier for the reader to spot certain features of the phoneme inventory not seen in the list, namely the places of articulation that are used in English (shown in the columns) as well as the major classes of segments (shown in the rows). Tables are used frequently in linguistic writing since they can help the reader see patterns more quickly than a list does. However, a writer of linguistics must constantly weigh the advantages of setting off data from the text (does it convey information? does it help the reader see patterns?) vs. the extra length required to do so. (There is always a length limit to any document.)

Data in line with text

When data is presented within a paragraph, it needs to be distinguished from ordinary text in some way. Phonetic symbols and morphemes that are the subject of phonological analysis should be placed within appropriate brackets: $[\eta]$ or $/\eta/$. Morphemes or words that are the object of morphological or syntactic analysis, whether they are from English or another language, should be italicized, as in the last sentence of the following passage from Saxon 1998:

A survey of complement clauses in Dogrib or any Athapaskan language can only be made in the context of a typology of complement-taking verbs. As Schauber (1979:19ff.) points out for Navajo, verbs which allow direct-discourse complements must be distinguished from those which allow only indirect-discourse complements. Further, among "direct-discourse verbs," some may in addition occur with direct quotations (ibid.:28f.). The same kind of hierarchy exists in Dogrib. Many verbs, such as wek'ets'erezho 'know', ?ats'ele 'cause', etc., allow only indirect-discourse complements, as in the examples below:

Anything longer than a short phrase should probably be set off from the text. Interlinear glossed text, whether a short or long phrase, almost always works better when set off from the text. The passage above from Saxon 1998 continues with two interlinearly glossed sentences from Dogrib, set off from her commentary:

- (1) Nàèdì k'èèzho [semo k'arehta gha] ?asìlà doctor 1s.mother 1s.IMP.check COMP 1s.3.PF.cause 'The doctor had me check on my mother'
- (2) Margaret [wembeè dènı] yek'èrèzho 3.knife 3.IMP.be sharp 4.3.IMP.know 'Margaret knows that her knife is sharp'

The conventions on formatting interlinear glossed text are vast, and not so important for a phonology class. See the Leipzig Glossing Rules (http://www.eva.mpg.de/lingua/resources/glossing-rules.php).

Conventions for setting data off from text

Quantitative subfields

In the quantitative subfields of linguistics, such as phonetics and sociolinguistics, data set off from the text is generally divided into figures or tables, and so labeled within the caption associated with the figure or table along with a number. Figures include tree diagrams, graphs, maps, etc. Two examples are shown below:

A figure from Albright and Hayes 2003:

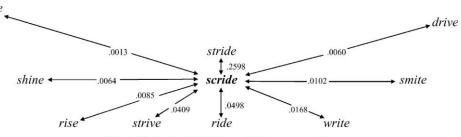


Fig. 1. Similarity of all [ai] \rightarrow [o] forms to *scride*.

A figure from Blake and Cutler 2003:

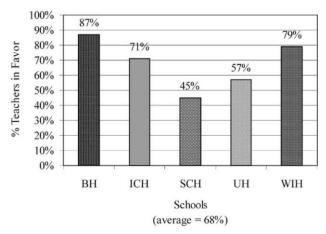


Figure 5. African American English (Ebonics) is a form of English.

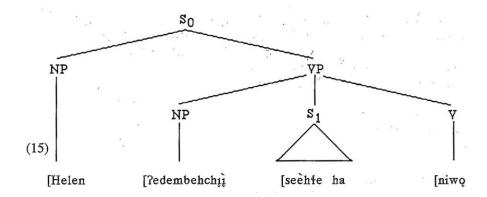
A separate numbering scheme keeps track of each kind of item, so that the work may contain Figure 1, Figure 2, Figure 3 and Table 1, Table 2, Table 3, Table 4.

Qualitative subfields

In the qualitative subfields of linguistics, such as syntax, morphology and phonology, data and other non-prose material is also typically set off from the text and assigned a number in linguistic writing of any length or complexity. But unlike the Table/Figure division, a single numbering scheme is used throughout the work. An example may be referred to several pages after it is introduced, and the easiest way for the reader to find it is to search for a number. This is also the least convoluted way for the writer to refer to it. A single numbering scheme also makes it easier for the reader to find the item referred to. If both Figures and Tables are used, then when you're looking for Table 3 and come across Figure 2, you still don't know where Table 3 is (ahead or behind?).

An example of this kind of numbering can be seen in the Dogrib sentences from Saxon 1998 above, where the Dogrib sentences are set off from the text and numbered (1) and (2). The only other kind of item set off from the text in Saxon 1998 is a syntactic tree, numbered (15) (the number is typically at the top left of the item, and so is in an unusual place in this example):

¹I.e. in a short homework, students may but are not expected to follow these conventions. A term paper, on the other hand, is more substantial than a homework and so more careful data presentation is required.



The sentences and the tree are each given numbers, and although the tree is more figure-than table-like, it follows sentence (14) and so is numbered (15).

Examples of data set off from text in phonological publications are presented next.

Sample 1

The example below is from Hayes 1995: 241. Here note the numbered example with labeled subparts (a) and (b), which enables him to refer to each part in the commentary on this example in the text.

This avoid-neutralization factor helps explain a restriction on the overlength rule: it may only apply in disyllabic feet. This can be seen by comparing (227a), with surface overlength, and (227b), with none (weight depicted in moraic notation for clarity):

(227) a.
$$(. \times)$$
 $(. \times)$ 'in his (another's) kayak' J 27

 $\mu \mu \mu \mu \rightarrow \mu \mu \mu \mu \mu$
/qaya:ni/ qayá:ni

b. $(. \times)(\times)$ $(. \times)(\times)$ 'in his (another's) drum' J 27

 $\mu \mu \mu \mu \mu \rightarrow \mu \mu \mu \mu \mu$
/sayuya:ni/ say iyá:ni

In (227b), the syllable /yar/ is stressed only by virtue of having an underlying long vowel; had its vowel been short, it would have been skipped over. Thus, unlike in (227a), overlengthening is not needed to cue underlying length.

Sample 2

The number which introduces the non-prose material is typically parenthesized (as with (227) above) or punctuated with a period. The convention in recent linguistic writing is to provide a short title on the same line as the number, serving as a caption. An informative caption helps the reader see the big picture, or what the example is intended to show, almost at a glance. (Notice that there is no caption for (227) above. Wouldn't it be nice if there was one?) The next example is from Hall 2007:312. Note how the data set off from the text is introduced by a parenthesized number and a caption. (1) is also referred to by its parenthesized number in the text.

Any given segment is simply an abbreviation for an unordered bundle of features. A sample phonological representation for |n| is presented in (1).

(1) A subset of features for /n/

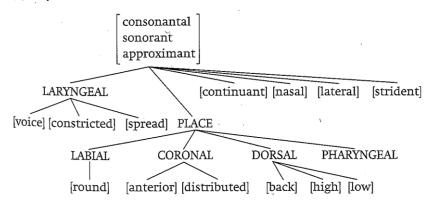


There are two arguments for features. First, features are necessary to account for natural classes. For example, |d| is [+voice]. This does not just

The next example from Hall 2007 is also numbered. Notice how the text above (2) refers back to (1) as well as introduces (2).

The Feature Geometry model referred to in Section 13.1 presupposes that distinctive features are arranged hierarchically in a *feature tree*, in contrast to (1). An example is provided in (2).

(2) A feature tree



According to (2) the segment consists of a root node which dominates two privative class nodes, namely LARYNGEAL and PLACE. Here and below class

Hall's (14) on p. 324 is more like a table than a figure, but it too is fit into the single numbering scheme as (14). Note the caption here also.

In Feature Geometry coronal (as well as Labial and dorsal) is considered to be a privative articulator node, as in (2). In this approach the following seven places of articulation are captured featurally in terms of articulators as in (14).⁵ For reasons of space alveolopalatals are not included here and below. See Hume (1992) and Hall (1997) for discussion.

(14) Seven places of articulation distributed among the three class nodes LABIAL, CORONAL and DORSAL

respective the first two various and	labials	dentals	alveolars	retroflexes	palato- alveolars	palatals	velars	
CORONAL		✓	✓	✓	✓ .	✓		
DORSAL		,					✓	
LABIAL	✓							

According to SPE and many Feature Geometry treatments coronal is a distinctive feature for consonants and not for vowels. Hume (1992) and

Sample 3

The final example, from Gussmann 2007: 115, is a somewhat negative example, both in terms of data presentation and writing. Gussmann doesn't tell us what to look for in (2) before he presents the data. (Always tell the reader why the example is being presented and what to look for <u>before</u> presenting the data.)

of verbs, and derive or in some other way predict their alternants. Taking Polish nouns as an example, it is easy to show that the nominative singular is not always the desirable base for the establishment of the morphophonemic syntagmatics. We will start, however, by considering a simple phonological example and then move over to purely morphophonological ones.

```
(2) (a) paw [paf] 'peacock' pawi-a [pav<sup>j</sup>a] 'gen. sg.'

(b) przy-słowi-e [pʃiswov<sup>j</sup>e] 'proverb' przy-słów [pʃiswuf] 'gen. pl.'

(c) staw [staf] 'pond' staw-u [stavu] 'gen. sg.'
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If we abstract away the effects of final devoicing, the alternations in (2a-b) involve the two consonants $[v \sim v^i]$; if the morphophonological base were to be identified with the nominative case, we would have to say that in (2a) we are dealing with palatalization before the desinential [a], while in (2b) there is depalatalization in word-final position. The untenability of the former claim is shown by (2c), where no palatalization takes place before the desinential vowel. The phonological regularity can be viewed either as labial depalatalization word-finally and preconsonantally or as palatalized labial licensing by a following full vowel. Crucially, the regularity is totally independent of the specific morphological category where it is found.

As typically morphophonemic alternations consider the examples in (3).

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(3) (a) rów [ruf] 'ditch' row-u [rɔvu] 'gen. sg.'
(b) sow-a [sɔva] 'owl' sów [suf] 'gen. pl.'
(c) sen [sɛn] 'dream' sn-y [sni] 'nom. pl.
(d) dn-o [dnɔ] 'bottom' den [dɛn] 'gen. pl.'
```

The appearance of the alternations $[u \sim o]$ and $[\varepsilon \sim \emptyset]$ has nothing to do with the particular grammatical case: it so happens that a feminine noun like sow-a or a neuter

He does a little better with (3) but I would have introduced as follows:

"As typically morphophonemic alternations consider the examples in (3), where $[u] \sim [\mathfrak{d}]$ and $[\mathfrak{e}] \sim 0$."

Numbering of examples and cross-reference generation using Microsoft Word

Numbers should not be inserted by hand in your document (e.g. by typing '(1)')! You should use a computer program to keep track of example numbers. A further advantage is that the computer can also be used to enter cross-references to numbered examples in the text---this is not something that should be done by hand either.

Caption method

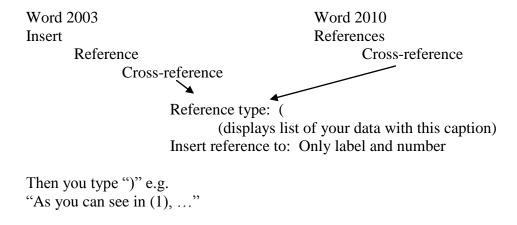
(This is the method I use.) Data set off from text is given a caption (so automatically numbered):

How to number an example using this method

1. Create a new caption label: (Word 2003 Word 2010 Insert References Reference **Insert Caption** New Label Caption: new label 2. Insert a caption using that label Word 2003 Word 2010 Insert References Reference **Insert Caption** Label Caption select (from drop-down list Then you type ") [title]" and the rest of your example (1) [title]

How to refer to an example numbered via this method

Data can now be referred to in text by caption numbering alone.



Numbered item method

How to number an example using this method

Word 2003 Format

[new data]

Bullets and Numbering Numbered

- 1.
- 2.

How to refer to an example numbered via this method

Word 2003

Insert cross-reference as:

Insert

Reference

Cross-reference

Reference type: Numbered item

1

References

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