

Discovering of Grammatical Matrix Language Markers in Code-Switched Text

Anonymous ACL submission

Abstract

Code-switching (CS) is the process of speakers interchanging between several languages. CS is a complex process. To better describe CS speech the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) theory introduces the concept of a Matrix Language (ML), which is the language that provides the grammatical structure for a CS sentence. In this work several novel approaches for discovering system morphemes based on the MLF theory were introduced. Deterministic and predictive variations of the System Morpheme Principle (SMP) were developed to discover system morphemes through the task of ML determination and prediction. Morpheme Order Principle (MOP) from the MLF theory was used to assess the ML determination performance from the two SMP implementations. The deterministic approach revealed the correlation between the conventional system morphemes (pronouns, conjunctions, determiners, auxiliaries) and token frequencies averaged over Part of Speech (POS). Moreover, the deterministic approach has also revealed the ranking of the POS with respect to the ML determination task, showing the importance of particles and adpositions. Using monolingual data for discovering the POS that act as system morpheme types has led to a 0.07 Matthew's Correlation Coefficient (MCC) increase compared to the baseline for SEAME and a 0.04 increase for Miami. A predictive SMP was trained and has achieved 0.03 MCC increase demonstrating the advantages of the statistical analysis of the linguistic properties of data in the deterministic SMP. This study provides valuable insight into the properties of tokens in relation to their grammatical categories in CS data.

1 Introduction

Code-switching (CS) is the process of speakers switching between several languages in spoken or written language. CS data is typically scarce, therefore models for processing CS often yield poor

performance in comparison to monolingual models. Given that in many countries CS is widespread (e.g India, South Africa, Nigeria) (Diwan et al., 2021; Ncoko et al., 2000; Rufai Omar, 1983), it is essential to develop Natural Language Processing (NLP) and Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) technologies for processing both CS speech and text.

In order to better describe the process of code-switching the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) theory was formulated (Myers-Scotton, 1997). It introduced the concept of a main, i.e. dominant language and a secondary, inserted language to describe CS sentences. These languages are called Matrix Language (ML) and Embedded Language (EL), respectively. The MLF theory introduces two methods for ML determination: *The Morpheme Order Principle* (ML will provide the surface morpheme order for a CS sentence if it consists of singly occurring EL lexemes and any number of ML morphemes) and *The System Morpheme Principle* (all system morphemes which have grammatical relations external to their head constituent will come from ML). System morphemes are a type of morpheme that primarily serve a grammatical function rather than carrying lexical meaning. Coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, auxiliaries, determiners and pronouns are actively discussed as the main POS of the system morphemes but a concise closed set is not given in the linguistic literature for a language variety. Furthermore, there are no known methods for automatic detection or determination of system morphemes. Bullock et al. 2018 explores if the same 5 POS can be used for automatic ML determination, however, no impact of the different combinations of POS was observed for the ML determination task.

MLF sets the framework for identifying the "main" or "dominant" language in a CS sentence and may bring valuable insights for CS data such as language or token distributions but has been rarely

043
044
045
046
047
048
049
050
051
052
053
054
055
056
057
058
059
060
061
062
063
064
065
066
067
068
069
070
071
072
073
074
075
076
077
078
079
080
081
082
083

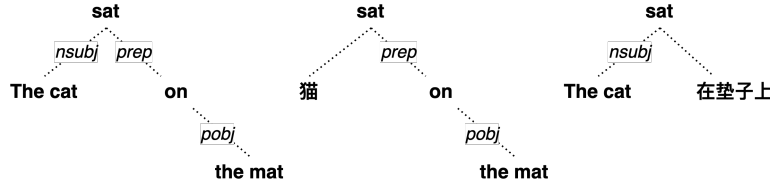


Figure 1: Example of CS simulation (original - left, synthetic - right).

implemented for NLP or ASR tasks. Some of the ideas from the MLF theory were implemented in Lee et al. 2019 and Hu et al. 2020 but the implementations are limited due to the absence of ML annotated data. Otherwise the usage of the MLF theory, specifically in the context of ML determination has been limited.

In this paper, several novel approaches for discovering system morphemes based on the MLF theory are introduced. Deterministic and predictive variations of the System Morpheme Principle (SMP) are developed to discover system morphemes through the task of ML determination and prediction. Morpheme Order Principle (MOP) from the MLF theory is used to assess the ML determination performance from the two SMP implementations. The correlation between the conventional system morphemes (pronouns, conjunctions, determiners, auxiliaries) and token frequencies averaged over Part of Speech (POS) are analysed. The deterministic approach was used to reveal the ranking of the POS with respect to the ML determination task. A predictive SMP is also trained and compared to the performance of the deterministic SMP.

The remainder of the paper is as follows. The next section provides a detailed description of the methods used. This is followed by a section on experiments, which provides information on datasets, detailed implementation, experiment descriptions as well as discussion of results. Conclusions summarise and complete the paper.

2 Methods for ML determination

Being called "principles for ML determination", the Morpheme Order Principle and the System Morpheme Principle in reality present three of the features of CS CP (projections of complementiser) which cannot be utilised to determine the ML directly. Therefore, the principles need to be reformulated to perform only ML prediction based on a set of conditions. Let $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n]$ be a CS CP as a sequence of morphemes, $\mathbf{l} = [l_1, \dots, l_n]$,

$l_i \in L_1 \cup L_2$ - a sequence of corresponding LID tags, then: a) *The Morpheme Order Principle*: if singly occurring $\mathbf{x}_{i:j}$ lexemes (sequence of morpheme constituents in a lexeme) come from the same language L_2 within a context of morphemes from L_1 , then L_1 is the ML and L_2 is the EL (a detailed description of the method can be found in Iakovenko and Hain 2024 under the name of P1.1); b) *The System Morpheme Principle*: if $x_i, \dots, x_j \in \mathbf{x}$ system morphemes $x_i, \dots, x_j \in X_{sys}$ which have grammatical relations external to their head constituent and $l_i, \dots, l_j \in L_1$, then L_1 is the ML and L_2 is the EL. Below detailed descriptions of the SMP method variations are presented.

2.1 System Morpheme Principle (SMP)

Compared to MOP, there are fewer issues in formulating the principle when adapting SMP for ML determination. However, as highlighted in the earlier section, there are no computational methods for determining system morphemes or a set of system morphemes. Despite lacking the complete system morpheme set, one can determine system morphemes from a composition of context-free probabilities of morphemes if an ML identity is known for a CP.

2.1.1 Deterministic approach to SMP

Let's first assume that system morphemes X_{sys} - the morphemes that contribute to the grammatical structure of the CS CP - are the morphemes that are frequent in data. Then the amount of influence of a morpheme x on the grammatical structure may be approximated by the morpheme frequencies $P(x)$:

$$x \in X_{sys} \approx (P(x) > \beta) \quad (1)$$

where β is threshold for determining the system morpheme set X_{sys} . This approach may include the derivation of the system morphemes from monolingual data.

For the approach to better generalise to a variety of morphemes, especially for ideographic lan-

Table 1: Universal Dependencies 2.0 dataset statistics.

Language	Sentence count			Token count		
	train	dev	test	train	dev	test
English	32179	5110	7798	523806	76180	7798
Mandarin	7994	3054	3555	859067	93318	3555
Spanish	28474	1000	3147	197232	25326	3147

165 guages, one can use morpheme frequencies aver- 201
 166 aged over its grammatical category: 202

$$167 \quad x \in X_{sys} \approx \left(\frac{1}{|T_G(x)|} \sum_{\hat{x} \in T_G(x)} P(\hat{x}) > \beta \right) \quad (2)$$

168 where $\hat{x} \in T_{POS}(x)$ are the tokens of the same 205
 169 grammatical category G as x . Once the X_{sys} sys- 206
 170 tem morpheme set is obtained the ML can be pre- 207
 171 dicted effortlessly using the expression from the 208
 172 beginning of the Section 2. 209

173 2.2 Predictive approach to SMP 210

174 Alternatively, a predictive approach to predicting 212
 175 ML can be defined. Two more sequences can be 213
 176 derived from CS CP \mathbf{x} : grammatical categories 214
 177 of morphemes $\mathbf{g} = [g_1, \dots, g_n]$, $g_i \in G$ and mor- 215
 178 pheme types following the 4-M model (Myers- 216
 179 Scotton, 2002) $\mathbf{t} = [t_1, \dots, t_n]$, $t_i \in T_{sys} \cup T_{cont}$. 217
 180 All sequences can be obtained using token clas- 218
 181 sification algorithms and have the same length 219
 182 $|\mathbf{x}| = |\mathbf{g}| = |\mathbf{t}| = |\mathbf{l}|$. The following holds true: 220
 183 $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{g} \rightarrow \mathbf{t}$ and $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \mathbf{l}$, where the arrow denotes 221
 184 sole dependency. The textual representation \mathbf{x} is 222
 185 language-dependent, while \mathbf{g} and \mathbf{t} are language- 223
 186 independent. Since morpheme types can be unam- 224
 187 biguously derived from the grammatical category 225
 188 of a morpheme, \mathbf{t} can be substituted with \mathbf{g} when 226
 189 trying to recognise the ML L : 227

$$190 \quad P(L|\mathbf{t}, \mathbf{l}, \theta) = P(L|\mathbf{g}, \mathbf{l}, \theta) \quad (3)$$

191 With a trained model $P_t(L|g, l, \theta_t)$ one can try 228
 192 to recognise the ML identity from the number of 229
 193 occurrences of a singular grammatical category and 230
 194 language combination $|(g_t, l_t)|$. Then, for a test CS 231
 195 dataset $D_t = [(g_1, l_1, L_1), \dots, (g_m, l_m, L_m)]$ one 232
 196 can calculate feature importance f_t for the task 233
 197 of ML determination: 234

$$198 \quad f_t = \prod_{i=1}^{|D|} P_t(L = L_i | g_i, l_i, \theta) \quad (4)$$

199 Once calculated for all (g_t, l_t) combinations re- 233
 200 sulting in feature importances $[f_1, \dots, f_t] = F$ may 234

then be used as the "content-system" morpheme 201
 scale for a specific language mix and approximate 202
 morpheme types $T_{sys} \cup T_{cont}$. 203

204 3 Experiments 205

206 In this section the efforts towards discovering the 207
 208 system morphemes are described. It is important 209
 210 to highlight that the experiments in this section are 211
 212 carried out on a word-level as an approximation of 213
 214 morpheme-level tokenisation. This is done because 214
 215 grammatical categories of morphemes (e.g. POS 215
 216 tag) are ambiguous and there are no existing tools 216
 217 or methods to reliably determine grammatical cate- 217
 218 gories of morphemes. As a result the objective is to 218
 219 find system morphemes which are equal to whole 219
 words that act as ML markers. Furthermore, the 220
 ML determination is carried out on the sentence 221
 level as an approximation of the CP-level analysis. 222
 This is also related to the limitation of resources 223
 and tools for reliable CP segmentation of texts. 224

220 3.1 Datasets 221

222 Both monolingual and CS datasets are used for 222
 223 the experiments below. For the joint POS+LID 223
 224 tagger training the Universal Dependencies 2.0 224
 225 (Nivre et al., 2017) dataset is used for Mandarin, 225
 226 English and Spanish languages following Soto and 226
 227 Hirschberg 2018. The token distributions for the 227
 228 training, validating and testing of the model are 228
 229 given in Table 1. To discover system morphemes 229
 230 from monolingual data the train sets from the 230
 231 Fleurs dataset (Conneau et al., 2022) are used, and 231
 232 the statistics for the tokens are presented in Table 2. 232

Table 2: Fleurs dataset statistics.

Language	Sentence count	Token count
English	2518	52602
Mandarin	3246	60622
Spanish	2796	68285

In order to train, test and validate an automatic 233
 ML detector from POS+LID tags data is simu- 234

lated using the 15349 semantically aligned monolingual sentences from the GALE corpus (Liu et al., 2010). Finally, real CS data: SEAME and Miami is used for testing and probability estimations. Sentences that contain tokens from two languages: English/Mandarin or English/Spanish accordingly are chosen for the analysis. The statistics for the two CS datasets is given in Table 3

Table 3: CS datasets statistics.

Language	Sentence count	Token count
SEAME	57052	766525
Miami	292	3589

3.2 Joint POS and LID training

It has been shown before that POS tagger models trained on monolingual data can generalise to CS in token classification tasks. Therefore for joint POS and LID training monolingual English, Mandarin and Spanish datasets from the Universal Dependencies 2.0 are used. The statistics for the splits are given in Section 3.1. For each token in the source sentence a POS tag and the LID are recognised simultaneously.

To train an English/Mandarin POS+LID predictor a pretrained multilingual BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) with 12 attention heads is finetuned on the train subset of the data mentioned above. The model is finetuned for 3 epochs with cross-entropy loss. The accuracies on the validation and test subsets are 94% and 93% respectively, while the F1-scores are 94% and 92%. Calculating the performance metrics on Miami gives F1 score of 80% which supports the earlier claims of relative applicability of monolingual POS systems to CS.

3.3 Data-driven discovery of system morphemes

3.3.1 Average token probabilities from monolingual

For the first experiment the method from Section 2.1.1 is applied to monolingual Fleurs data for the three languages: English, Mandarin and Spanish. POS tags are recognised for each of the sentences in the corpora using the joint POS+LID tagger described above. The token probabilities are estimated and average token probabilities are calculated based on the POS tag. Finally, the average probabilities are summed across the three languages and sorted to demonstrate the similarity

with the conventional system morpheme set mentioned in linguistic and some NLP literature (Figure 2).

From Figure 2 it can be observed that the conventional grammatical categories that are typically represented by system morphemes auxiliaries (AUX), determiners (DET), coordinating conjunctions (CCONJ), subordinating conjunctions (SCONJ) and pronouns (PRON) seem to be located in the top half of the sorted list. Apart from the conventional aforementioned grammatical categories particles (PART) and adpositions (ADP) seem to have average probabilities which are comparable to those of the conventional grammatical probabilities.

Suppose that the expectation of the token probability that belongs to a certain POS can be used as an indicator for the ML which is present in a CS sentence, then the top N POS can be extracted for each of the three languages from the estimated rankings. Examples of the extracted POS sets are given in Table 4 which will be discussed later in more detail.

3.3.2 Average token probabilities from CS

The same approach as above can be applied to a subset of real CS data where the ML can be determined using the MOP method described in Iakovenko and Hain 2024. Similar to Fleurs, token probabilities are estimated and then averaged over POS, but contrary to the experiment above averaging of the probabilities is carried out only for the tokens for which the LID is equal to the ML determined using MOP. The resulting rankings of POS are displayed in Figures 3 and 4 for SEAME and in Figures 5 and 6 for Miami.

Although in the case of CS the POS which are conventionally represented by system morphemes are less aligned with average probability rankings, some conventional system POS still lead in the rankings such as CCONJ for SEAME when the ML is Mandarin and SCONJ for Miami when ML is Spanish. Furthermore, some similarities with the monolingual data are observed, for example the leading tendencies of PART and ADP which may be a reason enough to consider morphemes which belong to these POS as system morphemes.

3.3.3 Measurement of performance on the ML determination task

To measure if the extracted POS can indicate the ML in a CS sentence they are tested as the X_{sys} set

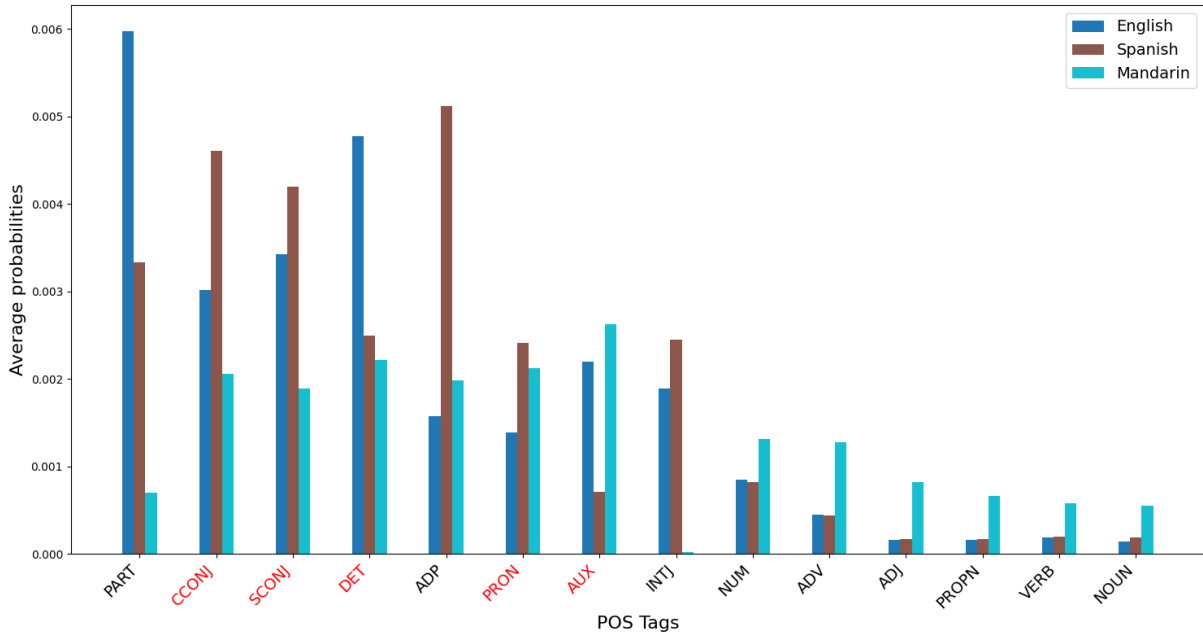


Figure 2: Average word probabilities grouped by POS and sorted by the sum of the average across languages. POS highlighted in red are the POS which are conventionally believed to be represented by system morphemes in linguistics and NLP (Myers-Scotton, 2002; Bullock et al., 2018).

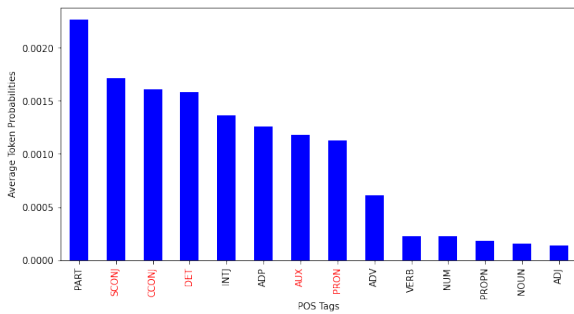


Figure 3: Average SEAME token probabilities grouped by POS for when the ML is English according to MOP.

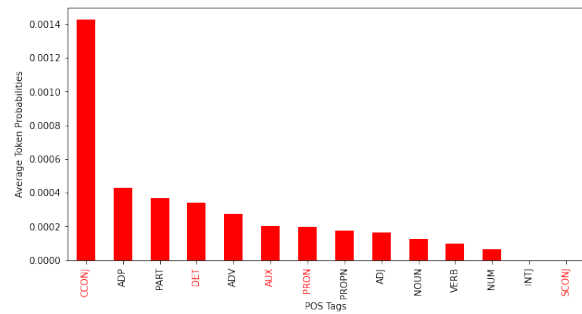


Figure 4: Average SEAME token probabilities grouped by POS for when the ML is Mandarin according to MOP.

328 in the deterministic SMP method (Section 2.1.1).
 329 The outcomes of the deterministic SMP method
 330 with different sets X_{sys} were compared to the
 331 baseline approach where system morphemes are
 332 represented by 5 conventional POS (DET, AUX,
 333 CCONJ, SCONJ, PRON) following Myers-Scotton
 334 2002 and Bullock et al. 2018. The results are pre-
 335 sented in Figure 7 for SEAME and Figure 8 for
 336 Miami where the top N selected POS varies from 1
 337 to 14. The metric for measuring the performance is
 338 Matthew’s Correlation Coefficient (MCC) because
 339 the outcomes of deterministic SMP are compared to
 340 outcomes of MOP. It is not appropriate to use such
 341 measures as Accuracy or F1 in this task because
 342 MOP outputs are also machine generated, although

343 it is highly accurate and the outputs rarely deviate
 344 from human judgment (Iakovenko and Hain, 2024).

345 In the figure one can see how MCC first increases
 346 as the top N increases: this is due to SMP becoming
 347 more accurate as the number of top POS for analysis
 348 increase. Around 6-9 top N the SMP implementa-
 349 tions reach their optimal performance which
 350 means that the top N selected usually do not get
 351 translated into the EL. After the best 6-9 top N a
 352 slight decrease in the MCC values can be observed
 353 due to the rest of POS (e.g. nouns or verbs) being
 354 used in both ML and EL more frequently and there-
 355 fore influencing the decision in SMP less or even
 356 cause errors.

357 From the line plots it can be observed that the

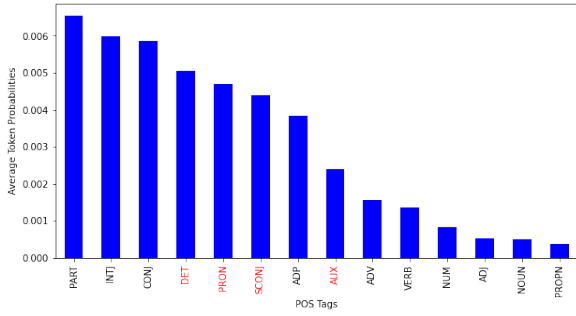


Figure 5: Average Miami token probabilities grouped by POS for when the ML is English according to MOP.

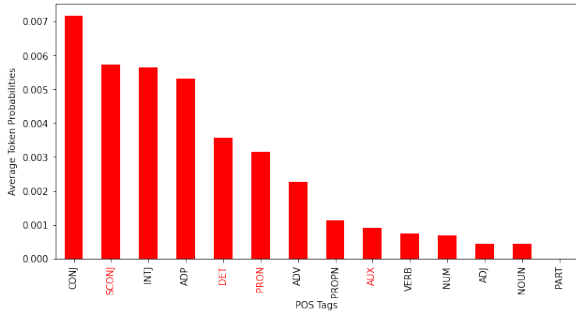


Figure 6: Average Miami token probabilities grouped by POS for when the ML is Spanish according to MOP.

best results are obtained using monolingual data to extract grammatical categories that system morphemes belong to. The best performing top N are 9 for SEAME and 8 for Miami. The ability to utilise monolingual data to estimate system morphemes provides advantages when dealing with low-resource or zero-resource data. The extracted POS which provide the system morphemes for the ML are displayed in Table 4. The best MCC values are obtained using these POS which are 0.22 for SEAME with top 9 extracted POS (a 0.07 increase from the conventional 5-POS baseline) and 0.33 for Miami with top 8 extracted POS (a 0.03 improvement from the baseline).

3.4 Model-driven discovery of system morphemes

In this section a trained approach towards SMP is described. The components are described below in detail as well as the datasets used and their construction.

There is no ML annotated dataset available, therefore a possible option is to generate a synthetic dataset following the Equivalence Constraint (EC) method described in Rizvi et al. 2021. In order to be able to use the method a dependency-level align-

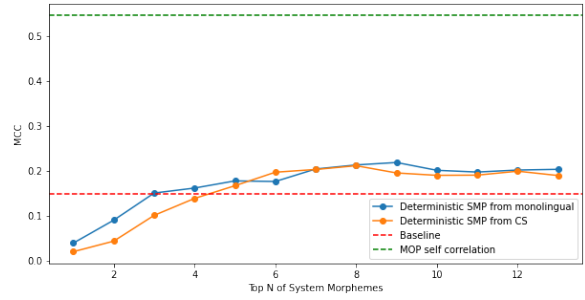


Figure 7: MCC for different SMP implementations for the SEAME dataset. The green dashed line represents the maximum MCC that could have been possible for the SMP implementation: it is not equal to 1 because MOP does not have 100% coverage. The red dashed line is the baseline implementation with 5 conventional POS.

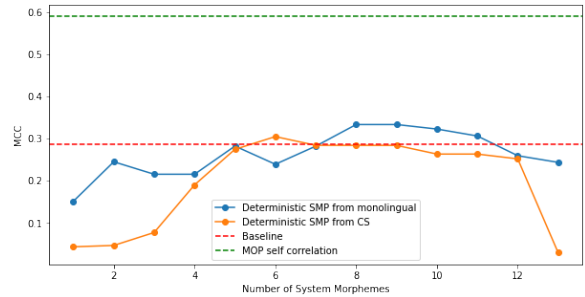


Figure 8: MCC for different SMP implementations for the Miami dataset.

ment of translations is needed, which is present in the GALE corpus for NMT. For each sentence pair alignments with semantic links are used to translate parts of sentences from ML to EL. A sentence may have more than one substitution of such substitutions from ML to EL. 100974 simulated CS sentences are generated from the original 15349 sentences of the GALE corpus. The resulting simulated CS sentences are then split into train (114832) and test (26283) subsets. POS tags are generated for all of the above subsets using the POS+LID tagger described previously (Section 3.2) and used as an input for the SMP ML predictor below.

The same baseline determiner as in Section 3.3 that follows the deterministic approach to SMP (Section 2.1.1) and determines the ML based on the 5 conventional POS in a CS sentence is applied to the test subset of the simulated CS data. The system yields 74% accuracy with 24% of CS sentences determined as an "unknown language". 24% test sentences are marked with the "unknown language" label because the SMP method does not

Table 4: Extracted grammatical categories of system morphemes for English, Mandarin and Spanish.

Language	T_{sys}
English	[PART, DET, SCONJ, CCONJ, AUX, INTJ, ADP, PRON, NUM]
Mandarin	[AUX, DET, PRON, CCONJ, ADP, SCONJ, NUM, ADV, ADJ]
Spanish	[ADP, CCONJ, SCONJ, PART, DET, INTJ, PRON, NUM]

405 have 100% coverage due to some CS sentences con- 447
 406 taining system morphemes from both languages or 448
 407 not having any system morphemes from any lan- 449
 408 guages. Therefore one of the goals of applying 450
 409 a predictive approach to SMP is to maximise the 451
 410 number of CS sentences for which ML can be de- 452
 411 termined. 453

412 In contrast to the baseline system, a decision tree 454
 413 classifier (DT) is trained to determine pseudo-ML 455
 414 identity (the language of the original non-translated 456
 415 sentence) from POS tags generated from simulated 457
 416 CS data. The classifier yields 98% accuracy on 458
 417 the simulated CS test set while maintaining 100% 459
 418 coverage rate. 460

419 3.4.1 Agreement analysis 461

420 In order to analyse the properties of the imple- 462
 421 mented SMP predictor on real CS data agreement 463
 422 analysis for SMP and MOP is carried out. In this 464
 423 experiment only the SEAME dataset is analysed 465
 424 because no English/Spanish translation dataset is 466
 425 manually aligned by dependency groups. Similarly 467
 426 to the prior experiments, the agreement is measured 468
 427 by MCC. The obtained MCC of 0.18 is higher in 469
 428 comparison to the baseline (MCC=0.15), which 470
 429 appears to show the usefulness of the predictive 471
 430 method for real CS data. However the method does 472
 431 not seem to outperform the deterministic SMP ap- 473
 432 proach when the POS that are typically represented 474
 433 by system morphemes are derived from monolin- 475
 434 gual data (MCC=0.22 when top 10 POS are used). 476

435 3.4.2 Feature importance analysis 477

436 While in Section 3.3 dataset statistics were esti- 478
 437 mated separately and explicitly for the determinis- 479
 438 tic SMP approach, in the predictive SMP approach 480
 439 the importance of POS are determined implicitly 481
 440 from task execution performance (Section 2.2). A 482
 441 trained DT-based SMP predictor is used to com- 483
 442 pute Gini importances for the (POS, lang) feature 484
 443 pairs of the classifier. The highest value of Gini im- 485
 444 portance is yielded by Mandarin coordinating con- 486
 445 junctions (CCONJ, Gini importance=0.86), while 487
 446 the remaining features have little or no impact 488

447 (e.g. Mandarin adjectives=0.1, Mandarin numer- 448
 449 als=0.02). This is to be expected because CCONJ 450
 451 are rarely aligned in dependency-aligned GALE 452
 452 data and therefore rarely translated following the 453
 453 EC-based CS simulation method. In this setup the 454
 454 Gini importance thus appears to tell more about 455
 455 the synthetic data generation process and not the 456
 456 actual influence of the POS tag on the ML identity 457
 457 decision. 458

459 A better strategy for determining the importance 460
 461 of specific (POS, lang) pairs generated from CS 461
 462 text is to train several separate ML classifiers for 462
 463 each of the (POS, lang) features. Having multiple 463
 464 classifiers one can calculate the feature that obtains 464
 465 the best accuracy on simulated data (Figure 9) and 465
 466 the highest agreement measured in MCC on real 466
 467 CS data (Figure 10). 467

468 Upon looking at the accuracy values from Fig- 468
 469 ure 9 one can observe the dominating role of the 469
 470 CCONJ for the ML prediction, in a similar fashion 470
 471 to the Gini importance analysis. The individual fea- 471
 472 ture accuracies, unlike the Gini importances, indi- 472
 473 cate that Mandarin adjectives (ADJ) lead to almost 473
 474 the same amount of correctly recognised ML values 474
 475 as the aforementioned Mandarin CCONJ. Judging 475
 476 by the accuracies obtained on test CS GALE data, 476
 477 the most impactful English features for recognising 477
 478 ML are particles (PART) and adverbs (ADV). 478

479 Unlike the accuracy on synthetic GALE data, 479
 480 MCC values for the two ML determination ap- 480
 481 proaches executed on real CS data show a different 481
 482 picture (Figure 10). The overall importance for 482
 483 each of the individual features seem to form three 483
 484 groups with noticeable step-changes in MCC. This 484
 485 is visible between Mandarin adverbs (ADV) and 485
 486 English verbs (VERB), and also between English 486
 487 CCONJ and English PRON. However the same 487
 488 tendencies of the conventional system morpheme 488
 489 grammatical categories being important for ML 489
 489 prediction task cannot be observed to the same 489
 489 extent as with deterministic SMP: while English 489
 489 SCONJ and DET, and Mandarin DET and AUX 489
 489 seem to have a big impact on the ML prediction 489

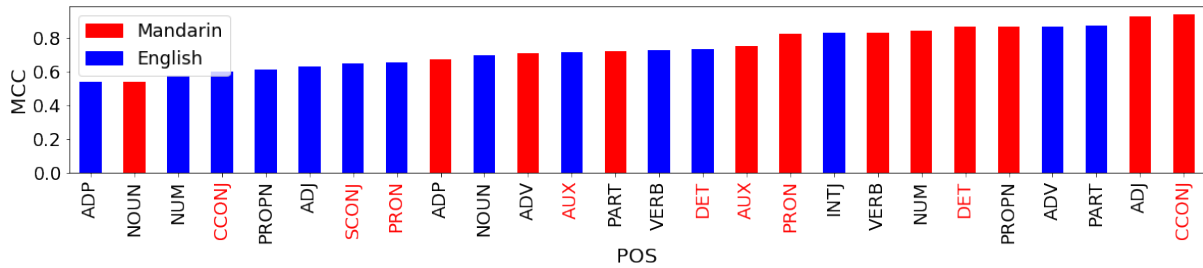


Figure 9: ML classification accuracy on the test subset of synthetic CS data. Predictive SMP uses single feature input.

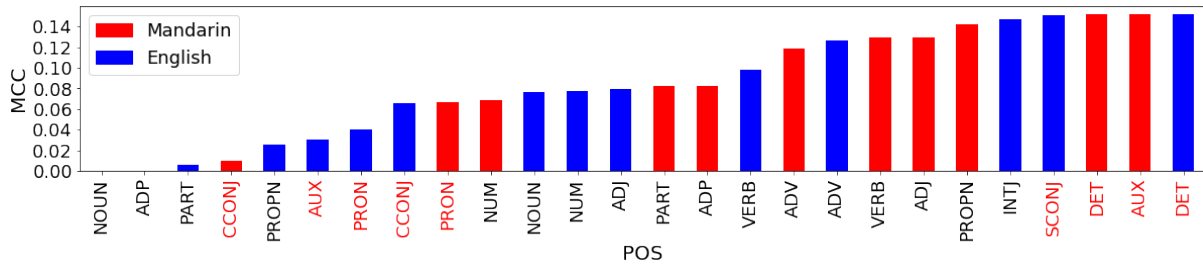


Figure 10: MCC of MOP and predictive SMP outputs on SEAME data. Predictive SMP uses single feature input.

task, the rest of the POS show little to no impact.

The little impact of Mandarin CCONJ and PRON, and English AUX, PRON and CCONJ in the predictive SMP can be attributed to the difference in the training data and the model used. Although EC can facilitate the creation of natural-looking CS sentences, it might not necessarily be representative of the real CS data. Using both EC and MLF theory inspired data simulations would improve the scores beyond the deterministic SMP performance.

4 Conclusion

This study introduces several novel approaches for identifying system morphemes in code-switched text based on the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) theory. Deterministic and predictive variations of the System Morpheme Principle (SMP) are developed to discover system morphemes through the task of ML determination and prediction. To assess ML determination performance across different feature sets the Morpheme Order Principle (MOP) from MLF theory is utilised.

The proposed deterministic approach highlights a correlation between conventional system morphemes—such as pronouns, conjunctions, determiners, and auxiliaries—and token frequency averages across Part-of-Speech (POS) categories. It also ranks POS in terms of their importance for

ML determination, emphasizing the significance of particles and adpositions. Utilizing monolingual data to identify POS categories functioning as system morphemes resulted in a 0.07 improvement in Matthew’s Correlation Coefficient (MCC) for SEAME (from 0.15 to 0.22) and a 0.04 increase for Miami (from 0.29 to 0.33). Additionally, an alternative predictive SMP model achieved a 0.03 MCC improvement (from 0.15 to 0.18), demonstrating the benefits of linguistic analysis in the deterministic SMP method leading to higher MCC increase.

Overall, this study provides valuable insights into the relationship between token properties and their grammatical roles in code-switched data. The presented findings contribute to a deeper understanding of system morphemes and their role in ML determination, paving the way for more accurate computational models in multilingual language processing.

Acknowledgements

This work was supported by Engineering and Physical Sciences Research Council.

5 Limitations

The main limitation of the method is related to the data availability: there is no ML-annotated CS data available to date. therefore it is problematic to as-

545 sess the quality of ML classification and therefore
 546 the feature importance. ML identity can be deter-
 547 mined in CS data using the MOP principle which
 548 has a high accuracy but the principle can only be
 549 applied in case of singleton EL insertions. Since
 550 there is no ML annotation, simulated data has to be
 551 leveraged but its usage is limited as shown in the
 552 paper and additionally requires dependency aligned
 553 parallel data.

554 References

555 Barbara Bullock, Wally Guzmán, Jacqueline Serigos,
 556 Vivek Sharath, and Almeida Jacqueline Toribio. 2018.
 557 [Predicting the presence of a matrix language in code-](#)
 558 [switching](#). In *Proceedings of the Third Workshop*
 559 *on Computational Approaches to Linguistic Code-*
 560 *Switching*, pages 68–75, Melbourne, Australia. Asso-
 561 ciation for Computational Linguistics.

562 Alexis Conneau, Min Ma, Simran Khanuja, Yu Zhang,
 563 Vera Axelrod, Siddharth Dalmia, Jason Riesa, Clara
 564 Rivera, and Ankur Bapna. 2022. [Fleurs: Few-shot](#)
 565 [learning evaluation of universal representations of](#)
 566 [speech](#). *2022 IEEE Spoken Language Technology*
 567 *Workshop (SLT)*, pages 798–805.

568 Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and
 569 Kristina Toutanova. 2018. [BERT: pre-training of](#)
 570 [deep bidirectional transformers for language under-](#)
 571 [standing](#). *CoRR*, abs/1810.04805.

572 Anuj Diwan, Rakesh Vaideeswaran, Sanket Shah,
 573 Ankita Singh, Srinivasa Raghavan, Shreya Khare,
 574 Vinit Unni, Saurabh Vyas, Akash Rajpuria, Chiran-
 575 jeevi Yarra, Ashish Mittal, Prasanta Ghosh, Preethi
 576 Jyothi, Kalika Bali, Vivek Seshadri, Sunayana
 577 Sitaram, Samarth Bharadwaj, Jai Navavati, Raoul
 578 Navavati, and Karthik Sankaranarayanan. 2021.
 579 [Mucs 2021: Multilingual and code-switching asr](#)
 580 [challenges for low resource indian languages](#). pages
 581 2446–2450.

582 Xinhui Hu, Qi Zhang, Lei Yang, Binbin Gu, and
 583 Xinkang Xu. 2020. [Data Augmentation for Code-](#)
 584 [Switch Language Modeling by Fusing Multiple Text](#)
 585 [Generation Methods](#). In *Proc. Interspeech 2020*,
 586 pages 1062–1066.

587 Olga Iakovenko and Thomas Hain. 2024. Methods of
 588 automatic matrix language determination for code-
 589 switched speech. In *Submitted to Proceedings of the*
 590 *2024 Conference on Empirical Methods in Natural*
 591 *Language Processing (EMNLP)*.

592 Grandee Lee, Xianghu Yue, and Haizhou Li. 2019. Lin-
 593 guistically motivated parallel data augmentation for
 594 code-switch language modeling. In *INTERSPEECH*.

595 Yi Liu, Pascale Fung, Yongsheng Yang, Denise DiPer-
 596 sio, Meghan Glenn, Stephanie Strassel, and Christo-
 597 pher Cieri. 2010. [A very large scale Mandarin Chi-](#)
 598 [nese broadcast corpus for GALE project](#).

C. Myers-Scotton. 1997. *Duelling Languages: Gram-*
 600 *matical Structure in Codeswitching*. Clarendon
 601 Press.

Carol Myers-Scotton. 2002. *Contact linguistics: Bilin-*
 602 *gual encounters and grammatical outcomes*. OUP. 603

SOS Ncoko, Ruksana Osman, and Kate Cockcroft. 2000. 604
 605 Codeswitching among multilingual learners in pri-
 606 mary schools in south africa: An exploratory study.
 607 *International Journal of Bilingual Education and*
 608 *Bilingualism*, 3(4):225–241.

Joakim Nivre, Željko Agić, Lars Ahrenberg, Maria Je- 609
 610 sus Aranzabe, Masayuki Asahara, Aitziber Atutxa,
 611 Miguel Ballesteros, John Bauer, Kepa Bengoetxea,
 612 Riyaz Ahmad Bhat, Eckhard Bick, Cristina Bosco,
 613 Gosse Bouma, Sam Bowman, Marie Candito, Gülşen
 614 Cebiroğlu Eryiğit, Giuseppe G. A. Celano, Fabricio
 615 Chalub, Jinho Choi, Çağrı Çöltekin, Miriam Connor,
 616 Elizabeth Davidson, Marie-Catherine de Marneffe,
 617 Valeria de Paiva, Arantza Diaz de Ilarraza, Kaja Do-
 618 brovoljč, Timothy Dozat, Kira Droganova, Puneet
 619 Dwivedi, Marhaba Eli, Tomaž Erjavec, Richárd
 620 Farkas, Jennifer Foster, Cláudia Freitas, Katarína
 621 Gajdošová, Daniel Galbraith, Marcos Garcia, Filip
 622 Ginter, Iakes Goenaga, Koldo Gojenola, Memduh
 623 Gökırmak, Yoav Goldberg, Xavier Gómez Guino-
 624 vart, Berta González Saavedra, Matias Gironi, Nor-
 625 munds Grūzītis, Bruno Guillaume, Nizar Habash,
 626 Jan Hajič, Linh Hà Mỹ, Dag Haug, Barbora Hladká,
 627 Petter Hohle, Radu Ion, Elena Irimia, Anders Jo-
 628 hannsen, Fredrik Jørgensen, Hüner Kaşıkara, Hiroshi
 629 Kanayama, Jenna Kanerva, Natalia Kotsyba, Simon
 630 Krek, Veronika Laippala, Phng Lê Hồng, Alessan-
 631 dro Lenci, Nikola Ljubešić, Olga Lyashevskaya,
 632 Teresa Lynn, Aibek Makazhanov, Christopher Man-
 633 ning, Cătălina Măranduc, David Mareček, Héctor
 634 Martínez Alonso, André Martins, Jan Mašek,
 635 Yuji Matsumoto, Ryan McDonald, Anna Missilä,
 636 Verginica Mititelu, Yusuke Miyao, Simonetta Mon-
 637 temagni, Amir More, Shunsuke Mori, Bohdan
 638 Moskalevskiy, Kadri Muischnek, Nina Mustafina,
 639 Kaili Müürisep, Lng Nguyễn Thị, Huyền Nguyễn
 640 Thị Minh, Vitaly Nikolaev, Hanna Nurmi, Stina
 641 Ojala, Petya Osenova, Lilja Øvrelid, Elena Pascual,
 642 Marco Passarotti, Cenel-Augusto Perez, Guy Perrier,
 643 Slav Petrov, Jussi Piitulainen, Barbara Plank, Mar-
 644 tin Popel, Lauma Pretkalniņa, Prokopis Prokopidis,
 645 Tiina Puolakainen, Sampo Pyysalo, Alexandre Rade-
 646 maker, Loganathan Ramasamy, Livy Real, Laura
 647 Rituma, Rudolf Rosa, Shadi Saleh, Manuela Sangu-
 648 ineti, Baiba Saulīte, Sebastian Schuster, Djamé
 649 Seddah, Wolfgang Seeker, Mojgan Seraji, Lena
 650 Shakurova, Mo Shen, Dmitry Sichinava, Natalia Sil-
 651 veira, Maria Simi, Radu Simionescu, Katalin Simkó,
 652 Mária Šimková, Kiril Simov, Aaron Smith, Alane
 653 Suhr, Umut Sulubacak, Zsolt Szántó, Dima Taji,
 654 Takaaki Tanaka, Reut Tsarfaty, Francis Tyers, Sumire
 655 Uematsu, Larraitz Uribe, Gertjan van Noord, Viktor
 656 Varga, Veronika Vincze, Jonathan North Washing-
 657 ton, Zdeněk Žabokrtský, Amir Zeldes, Daniel Ze-
 658 man, and Hanzhi Zhu. 2017. [Universal dependencies](#)
 659 [2.0](#). LINDAT/CLARIAH-CZ digital library at the

660 Institute of Formal and Applied Linguistics (ÚFAL),
661 Faculty of Mathematics and Physics, Charles Univer-
662 sity.

663 Mohd Sanad Zaki Rizvi, Anirudh Srinivasan, Tanuja
664 Ganu, Monojit Choudhury, and Sunayana Sitaram.
665 2021. [GCM: A toolkit for generating synthetic code-](#)
666 [mixed text](#). In *Proceedings of the 16th Conference of*
667 *the European Chapter of the Association for Computa-*
668 *tational Linguistics: System Demonstrations*, pages
669 205–211, Online. Association for Computational Lin-
670 guistics.

671 Madaki Rufai Omar. 1983. *A linguistic and pragmatic*
672 *analysis of Hausa-English code-switching (Nigeria)*.
673 University of Michigan.

674 Victor Soto and Julia Hirschberg. 2018. [Joint part-of-](#)
675 [speech and language ID tagging for code-switched](#)
676 [data](#). In *Proceedings of the Third Workshop on Com-*
677 *putational Approaches to Linguistic Code-Switching*,
678 pages 1–10, Melbourne, Australia. Association for
679 Computational Linguistics.