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Abstract booklet



Welcome

Dear delegates,

We are delighted to welcome you to the Sixth Cambridge Postgraduate Conference in Language Research (CamLing 2010). It has been particularly rewarding for all of us to revive the tradition that CamLing had become by 2007, when the last conference in this series was organised, and we hope to have lived up to the high expectations set by the previous organising committees.

We would hereby like to take the opportunity to extend our many thanks to everybody who has helped make CamLing 2010 happen in any way possible. First and foremost, we would like to thank the institutions that have supported the conference with financial sponsorship. These are the Department of Linguistics and the Research Centre for English and Applied Linguistics (RCEAL) of the University of Cambridge, Continuum Books, and the Arts and Humanities Research Council, who generously funded our 'Linguistics Matters!' workshop. To these we should add Cambridge University Press and Oxford University Press for donating the books displayed at the book stands.

Special thanks go to the Cambridge Institute of Language Research, for giving us the opportunity to organise CamLing 2010, and to our host venue, the Cambridge University Computer Lab, for providing us with excellent conference facilities and services. In particular, we would like to thank Professor Kasia Jaszczolt and Dr Luna Filipović (CILR) for their invaluable advice and support, and Iain Burton-Palmer (Computer Lab) for making sure the venue meets all our needs.

We feel indebted to Dr Napoleon Katsos (RCEAL) and Dr Philip Durkin (Oxford English Dictionary), and to Professors Dick Hudson (UCL) and Peter Patrick (University of Essex) for accepting our invitations to deliver the plenary talks and the invited talks at the workshop, respectively. Also, to the members of staff and doctoral students of the University of Cambridge who kindly agreed to review the many high quality abstracts submitted for presentation at CamLing2010, and to the session chairs at the conference.

Last but not least, we would like to thank the numerous people who have unconditionally offered their assistance with aspects of the organisation to such a level of expertise that we would never have been able to reach: Shirley Bidgood for setting up online registration; Jacky Graves and Geoff Potter for helping with finances; Tonya Gussman for assisting with accommodation and dinner at Selwyn College; Rachel Deadman, Louise Radok, and Rachael Graves for their help with administrative issues; and, our amazing volunteers. Thank you, Abhishek Banerjee-Shukla, Tim Bazalgette, Alison Biggs, Juriaan Duyne, Thomas Godard, Rosalind Higman, Norma Schifano, Norbert Vanek and Wen Yi Soh!

And, of course, we thank all of you, our delegates, for attending our conference.

The CamLing 2010 Organising Committee:

Alastair Appleton, Helen Engemann, Minyao Huang, Eleni Kapogianni, Petros Karatsareas.

Contents

Invited Speakers	3
Workshop Speakers	4
Oral Presentations	6
Poster Presentations	41

Invited Speakers

Etymology and lexis: In praise of uncertainty

Dr Philip Durkin

Oxford English Dictionary, Oxford University Press

Etymologies as presented in etymological dictionaries can appear neat, streamlined, and very certain. They can seem an uninviting area for study, because most questions appear already to have received definitive answers, and those problems which remain open are well-known and unlikely to find new solutions. This paper will argue that such a presentation of etymologies, although often a necessity in the compressed format of a single-volume etymological dictionary, is in many ways unhelpful.

Most word histories are splendidly messy, and present difficulties and uncertainties at almost every turn: a keen eye for these uncertainties, and a willingness to suspend judgement on cases which are not susceptible to definite proof, can lead to new insights, and even new solutions to old problems.

Etymology typically draws on insights from a number of different linguistic levels; in particular, it draws on historical phonology and historical semantics. Traditionally arguments based on word form are the most prominent, because they can be tested more rigorously. Arguments based on change in word meaning are much more difficult, and in many cases can be reduced to no more than what 'seems likely' to a particular researcher. I will investigate some difficult cases, and the implications they have for historical linguistic data.

Psychology for linguists - Linguistics for psychologists

Dr Napoleon Katsos

University of Cambridge

A tenet of some of the major strands of contemporary linguistics is that the study of linguistic competence is to be ultimately subsumed under the study of biology. As such, considerations from how language is processed in the mind and the brain ought to be relevant to linguists. In this talk I will focus on one of the many emerging synergies between linguists and psychologists in the area that I work on. In the first part of the talk I will review recent work where experimental evidence has contributed towards resolving a debate in the semantics / pragmatics interface concerning the defaultness of scalar implicatures. In the second part I will discuss how semantic and pragmatic theory is contributing towards resolving challenges for developmental psychologists, such as revealing crosslinguistically robust stages of language acquisition and establishing assessment tools for bilingual children. I will conclude with an outlook for an empirically-based linguistic science.

Workshop Speakers

Linguistics for education

Prof Dick Hudson
University College London

My talk will first outline the main benefits that linguistics can offer to school-level education (and some benefits that this interaction should bring to linguistics). This part will be based on my 2003 article 'Why education needs linguistics - and vice versa' (available at <http://www.phon.ucl.ac.uk/home/dick/papers.htm#wenl>). Then I shall discuss the challenges of interacting politically with educational systems - how to build or strengthen bridges between academic linguistics and schools. In both parts of the talk I will illustrate the general principles from my own experience of interacting with schools in England.

Linguistic rights in the asylum context

Prof Peter L. Patrick
University of Essex

Analysis of the speech of refugees plays a progressively visible, important role in the process of evaluating claims for asylum. Linguists are becoming aware, and concerned, about how our discipline is represented in this process, and the human consequences of the naïve misuse, or abuse, of "language analysis". I review background and recent developments in this area; set it in context of linguistic human rights; illustrate key issues from recent UK cases, and consider what linguists can and should do.

Individuals with varying types of language expertise – linguists with academic credentials, interpreters with various qualifications, native speakers with few or none – are increasingly involved, in different configurations, in the determination of national, regional or ethnic origins of refugees for asylum purposes (Eades 2005). There is considerable controversy over the role language experts and linguistic expertise should play in this process. An early draft of a minimum set of standards (Language and National Origin Group, 2004), though widely endorsed by linguists, has been both cited and contested in proceedings. While each host nation differs in its practices (eg Maryns 2006, Singler 2004), a common solution for governments is to employ a commercial language firm – such as Sprakab (based in Sweden), who collect speech via telephone, analyse it, and provide a report within a few hours. These reports may be relied upon by bodies such as the UK Border Authority (UKBA) in deciding claims.

This paper illustrates with data from recent Somali appellants in the UK asylum process. Somali appeals cases are distinctive: there is rarely disagreement as to whether the applicant natively speaks a language that is characteristically spoken in Somalia – indeed, it is generally granted that the applicant has Somali origins. Rather, the issue at stake is often membership of a minority and persecuted clan, for which the ability to speak a relevant minority dialect of Somali – Af-Reer Hamar – is held to be an index. This focuses the language issues on a set of questions including the following:

- How is determination of ethnic identity related to speech evidence?
- What does it mean to be bi-dialectal/bilingual? Do linguistically-naïve actors in the asylum process make valid assumptions about multilingualism?
- Why do speakers switch between standard languages & stigmatized minority dialects? What consequences do such language choices have for the asylum process? What effects do the language-testing context have on these choices?
- What effect do language attitudes and ideologies have on the ability of actors in the asylum process to recognize, produce and label ways of speaking?
- What types of analysis need to be undertaken to give accurate and reliable results? What standards of accuracy and reliability should be applied? What qualifications ought to be required of those claiming language expertise?
- What actual qualifications, types and levels of expertise are possessed by those now submitting evidence to the UKBA process? Does practice meet international scientific standards? Does it match standards of expertise required in civil and criminal court processes in the UK? (UK Border Agency 2009)
- What would an ideal LADO process look like, from the linguist's point of view?

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Oral Presentations

Using an L1 allophonic contrast to discriminate an L2 phonemic contrast

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L1 Listeners have full access to their L1 phonological system including phonemes and their allophonic distributions. L1 phonological knowledge was found to have a significant effect on producing and perceiving L2 sounds by L2 adult learners (Best 1995, Best and Tyler 2007, Flege 1995). However, the focus of L2 models has been mainly the **phoneme**, with little research on use of L1 **sub-phonemic** (allophonic) features in the perception and production of L2 sounds. Thus, the present study aims to examine whether L2 learners make use of allophonic contrasts in their L1 to discriminate and produce L2 phonemic contrasts.

In a pilot study, two Syrian Arabic (SA) learners of English were asked to classify English vowels into their closest equivalents among their L1 vowels. Both English /æ/ and /ɑ:/ vowels were classified as SA /a:/. It has been assumed that adult learners will have difficulty discriminating L2 phonetic contrasts that do not constitute a phonological contrast in their L1 (Best 1995). However, SA listeners were able to 100% accurately identify and discriminate both English vowels in an identification task. In terms of the perceptual categories of the Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM) the English contrast, which assimilated to a single L1 category, should yield poor/moderate discrimination, rather than the excellent discrimination observed. Since, perception of L2 sounds is strongly affected by learners' native phonological knowledge (Best et al. 2001), suggests that SA listeners use part of this knowledge to accurately identify and produce L2 (/æ/- /ɑ:/) vowels.

Following the same procedures of the pilot study, the present study explores whether the English (/æ/- /ɑ:/) contrast assimilates to two L1 categories: /a:/ and its pharyngealised allophone /a^h:/, which occurs after pharyngealised segments in Arabic (Albark 2008). Ten SA female learners of English and a control group of four native English speakers participated in the study. The results show that the SA learners do indeed use their L1 phonological knowledge including allophonic distribution to produce and accurately identify the L2 contrast.

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The realization of L*+H in Greek

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This paper deals with the realization of the L*+H pitch accent in Greek, one of the five pitch accents of Greek, as described in GRT₀BI (Arvaniti & Baltazani 2005). We examined this pitch accent in several positions and environments to determine the range of variability in its realization and the factors that influence it. L*+H is used as a prenuclear accent in statements and polar questions and as the nuclear accent in wh-questions and negations.

We designed one perception and three production experiments. The first experiment, a production one, was devised to verify the position of the L and H targets in Greek statements as they described in the literature. At first production experiment, we show that the inter-accent distance influences the alignment: with 2 syllables between pitch accents, L appears in its canonical position at the consonant onset of the stressed syllable and H at the end of the post-stress vowel; shorter distance compresses the alignment—the L occurs at the consonant offset of the stressed syllable and the H at the beginning of the post-stress vowel.

The second experiment examined L*+H as a nuclear pitch accent in wh-questions and negations. We used 60 sentences varying in 0, 1, 2, interval stress. The results of the second experiment suggest that, although the scaling of the peak is not significantly affected by tonal crowding, the alignment of the H and L targets is generally affected by tonal crowding. Under tonal crowding conditions, the peak aligns with the nuclear vowel, but when there is no such pressure the peak aligns with the first post-nuclear vowel.

The final two experiments compared the realization of L*+H as a prenuclear accent in polar questions and affirmatives. We used 60 sentences in two different environments, the first when two unstressed syllables intervene and the second when only one unstressed syllable intervenes. The results show no difference in the alignment of the pitch accents between the two types of sentence. In the fourth experiment we tried to see if those sentences can be discriminated on the basis of the prenuclear stretch alone. On the basis of portions of the two types of utterance, the participants were asked to decide whether the part they heard belonged to a statement or a polar question. The result is that they could not discriminate statements from polar questions until they heard the nuclear part of the utterance.

To summarize, our experiments come to the conclusion that the realization of L*+H in Greek is affected by various factors and is generally the variant pitch accent in all types of sentences.

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Latin word order and the EPP

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This paper focuses on the manifestation of the Extended Projection Principle (EPP, Chomsky 1982: 10) in Latin. The EPP, in its simplest terms, is the feature that requires that Spec,TP be filled (or that sentences have subjects). Latin is a pro-drop language generally classified as SOV. However, it has considerable flexibility in its word order and even when an overt subject is present, it does not necessarily appear in a position where it can satisfy the EPP:

- (1) referunt **consules** de re publica
bring.motion-3.PL **consul-NOM.PL** of republic-ABL.SG
'The consuls bring forward a motion of public affairs'

In this paper, Latin word order is illustrated with data from a corpus of texts (from Caesar, Suetonius and the Vindolanda tablets), before theories of the method of satisfaction of the EPP in a variety of languages are debated. First, Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou's (1998) proposal for free inversion in null subject languages is discussed, then Massam & Smallwood's (1996) account of Niuean (a V-initial language), and finally Biberauer's (2003) theory of Germanic word order. Each is considered on its own merits and whether it can account for the effects attested in Latin. Each might be expected to have some explanatory benefit: Latin is a null subject language, it frequently has V-initial order and it has SOV default order, like a number of the Germanic languages Biberauer examines.

Biberauer's (2003) argument for EPP-satisfaction via *v*P-raising (rather than DP) to Spec,TP is concluded to be the one that is best able to explain the Latin facts. It accounts for the most common word order, SOV, in a straightforward way and offers an explanation for the variation noted within the corpus as well as an account of the later development of the language to SVO order.

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Adjectival periphrasis in Ancient Greek

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In this paper, I discuss the predicative use of the present and perfect participle in Ancient Greek. Constructions of the verb *eimi* “I am” with these participles could be variously interpreted: compare examples 1a., 1b. and 1c. I concentrate on the second type, commonly called ‘adjectival periphrasis’.

- (1) a. Arkhōn esti
 Ruling he-is.3SG
 ‘He is a ruler.’
- b. Aganaktōn esti
 Being-angry he-is.3SG
 ‘He is angry.’
- c. Didaskōn esti
 Teaching he-is.3SG
 ‘He is teaching.’

My two main goals are: (a) to give a unified semantic description of adjectival periphrasis, and (b) to clarify whether the adjectival participle is also categorially adjectival. My corpus consists of the data collected by the major studies on periphrasis in Ancient Greek (a.o. Aerts 1965). As a theoretical framework, I use *Cognitive Grammar* (Langacker 2008).

Firstly, I show that adjectival periphrasis typically involves the predication of properties, and not objects or actions. Such a property reading is a matter of imperfective construal, which is generally arrived at by combining *eimi* with a lexically imperfective verb (present participle) or with a lexically perfective verb of which a resultant state is profiled (perfect participle). Interestingly, Ancient Greek also had the possibility of a property reading with lexically perfective verbs, for events belonging to a ‘structural plane’, as in (2).

- (2) Estin de tous men Hellēnas parakalōn (Isocr. *Ant.*57)
 It-is.3SG PTC the.M.ACC PTC Hellenes summoning
 “It (the speech) is summoning the Hellenes”. (i.e. “it is a speech which summons the Hellenes”).

With regard to the categorial status of the adjectival participle, I argue against complete adjectivisation of the participle. In my view, the formal criteria proposed in the literature are inconclusive. Instead, I propose to locate adjectival periphrasis on an intracategorial continuum (cf. Pompei 2006), and to consider the constructions under analysis gradual extensions of a prototypical adjectival construction.

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Relative constructions in Maltese

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Maltese has a number of formal types of relative constructions (RCs) related with different sorts of relational RCs, including restrictive RCs (RRCs), non-restrictive RCs (NRRCs), and fused RCs (FRCs). Among the formal differences across Maltese RCs is the type of relativisation strategy they employ, such that for example, RRCs are restricted to *li*-introduced RCs, which pattern with *that*-introduced RCs in English, unless pied-piping is involved, in which case a restricted set of *wh*-pronouns is allowed, as illustrated in (1a,b) respectively. FRCs, on the other hand, are introduced by a special set of *wh*-pronouns which narrowly overlaps with the RRC set.

- (1) a. It-tifel li rajt
 the-boy that saw.1SG
 ‘The boy that I saw.’
- b. It-tifel ma’ min rajtek
 the-boy with who saw.1SG.2SG.ACC
 ‘The boy with whom I saw you.’

Another formal difference which exists in Maltese RCs is the nature of the NPrel (in Andrews’s 2004 terminology referring to the in-clause function), which, in LFG terms, could be either a GAP, or a *pro* with a resumptive status. Moreover, Maltese RCs also differ as to whether they allow ‘internal’ heads, as understood in Citko (2008), Cinque (2008) and Cardoso & de Vries (2010), which is a nontraditional approach to the externally- vs. internally-headed RC dichotomy. Internal heads in *li*-introduced RCs should best be treated as discourse functions in LFG terms – preferably TOPics which are associated with an obligatory RP presence in otherwise obligatorily GAP contexts in the RC. The description of Maltese RCs is followed by a syntactic analysis whereby for each formal type of RC, in order to capture the RC-variation described, constituent- and feature-structures are constructed within a Lexical Functional Grammar approach.

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Orality and literacy in verbal dueling: Playing the dozens in 21st century

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The game of dozens, a type of verbal dueling involving ‘yo momma insults’, was first brought to the attention of researchers as a specifically African-American speech event (e.g. Dollard 1939). In his classic study, Labov (1977) demonstrated how the insulting epithets in the dozens drew predominantly on such features as Blackness or life in Black neighborhoods. However, since 1970s considerable diffusion has taken place between white and African-American communities in the USA: inarguably, many features of AAVE have infiltrated the speech of teenagers of every social class and national background. This development has not been reflected in the linguistic research on the dozens, which continues to be described on the basis of Labov’s 30-year-old study.

In an attempt to track the diachronic changes of the speech event, I have supplemented Labov’s data with newly collected material from the TV show ‘Yo Momma’ run on MTV in 2006-2008. As my study has shown, the sociocultural developments in American society had a twofold effect on the speech event. Firstly, the demographic patterns of the players have shifted, with female and white ‘clowners’ confidently coming to the fore. Consequently, the stock of topics has been enriched, e.g. with the previously tabooed topics of pregnancy and menstruation. Secondly, the linguistic changes discernibly follow the movement on the orality-literacy continuum (cf. Ong 1982), from the secondary orality mindset to the more literal mode of thinking. This trend is manifested in preference for original insults rather than ready-made formula, which was uncharacteristic for Labov’s subjects, or in the choice of topics for insults, frequently dealing with issues of literacy and dictionary meaning. Nevertheless, the key rules of the dozens are invariably adhered to, and the speech event demonstrates remarkable homogeneity over the years.

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Motion event descriptions in English by Turkish EFL instructors

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In the last twenty years, there has been an increasing interest in the research of motion events and their descriptions in typologically different languages. Much of this interest has derived from the works of Talmy (1985, 2000) and his lexicalization patterns. In that sense, Slobin (2000) introduced “Thinking for Speaking” hypothesis and stated that lexicalization patterns have certain consequences for the ways in which speakers express motion events as their choices and syntax structures might change by typological variations. Situated within the framework of this tendency, the aim of this study was to investigate how this tendency influenced second language acquisition process. In order to fulfill this aim, the motion event descriptions strategies of Turkish native speakers (30 EFL instructors) with high English proficiency were analyzed through their English and Turkish descriptions. The data for the study was collected through three different instruments taken and adapted from Yu (1996), including a picture description task, a narration task and a translation task. The statistical analysis of the data revealed that even Turkish native speakers with high English proficiency showed significant differences while describing motion events in English and Turkish. While English motion event descriptions included mostly manner verbs, Turkish ones tended to focus on path information. Additionally, the study has revealed that subjects had some preferences regarding subordinate manner structures. Turkish EFL instructors preferred to encode path in the main verb slot, whereas giving manner information outside the verb through subordinate forms. In English descriptions, however, subjects tended to give manner information in the main verb slot while encoding path through satellites outside the verb. The results gained in this study will lead us clarify the problems of Turkish students in English motion event description process. Besides, they may help EFL instructors understand the reasons behind the mistakes of their students and suggest certain strategies and activities to solve these problems.

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Sentence beginnings: Present-day English versus Old English and Dutch

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Dutch learners of English are taught to start English sentences with a subject, and are warned against starting sentences with other material, such as adverbials. The reason for this is that the pre-subject position in Dutch is rather flexible – it can host contrastive but also discourse-neutral elements – whereas the English clause-initial position is closely associated with contrast (Biber et al. 1999, Hannay & Keizer 1993), e.g. (1).

(1) Outdoors, it was very cold. Indoors, it was stiflingly hot.

This restriction concerning the first position in English in its turn appears to result in a flexibility of the nature of the subject which Dutch does not have. Most importantly, English allows for a range of inanimate subjects which Dutch does not allow for, e.g. (2).

(2) This theatre seats 50 people (Hannay & MacKenzie).

Dutch would opt for ‘50 people’ as the subject and ‘in this theatre’ as a clause-initial or clause-final PP, without placing any contrastive meaning on that initial PP.

The same contrast between flexibility of the first constituent and the subject can be observed in earlier stages of English. Old English word order partially resembles Dutch word order – both are OV and verb-second – and this gives rise to the expectation that the options for the subject in the clause-initial constituent in Dutch and Old English are comparable as well. This similarity disappeared during the fifteenth century, when verb-second word order and consequently the flexibility of the clause-initial position were lost in English (e.g. Los 2009).

We will present a corpus-based comparative study of Dutch, Old English and Present Day English, investigating the behaviour of the first constituent and the subject. We expect that Dutch pairs with Old English in the following respects: (i) a wider range of options for the first constituent and more use of this position; (ii) fewer inanimate subjects, due to the more restricted role of the subject.

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Code-choice between English and Cypriot Greek bilingual compound verbs
Κάμνω erase (I do erase) instead of διαγράφω (I erase)

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Greek Cypriots have been accused of mixing too much English into their native variety Cypriot Greek. They are “reported by contributors to the press to freely use English loans and those competent enough in the language to code-switch” (Karyolemou 1994: 257).

However, most studies addressing this issue “are not based on actual data or extensive sociolinguistic research but rely instead on personal opinion and speculation” (Goutsos 2005: 187). The data of this paper come from natural speech recordings collected in Cyprus and the UK (from students temporally living there) since December 2008, enriched by non recorded speech collected through participant observation (Dayton 1996). English words and phrases are clearly present in the daily use of CG:

- (1) Είμαι πολλά ανχωμένη και εν ξέρω **if it makes sense** αλλά είμαι και πιο **relaxed**,
περσι εν ήμουν καλά και **έκαμα diagnosed** τον εαυτό μου με **depression**.
I am much stressed and I don't know **if it makes sense** but I am also more **relaxed**,
last year I was not well and I **did diagnosed** myself with depression.
- (2) Εν το έβαλα μες στο **memory** μου, να **κάμω processing** ότι έχει εξετάσεις ο
Κυριάκος εκείνη τη μέρα.
I did not put it in my **memory**, to **do processing** that Kiriakos has exams that day

The paper focuses on one particular construction present in the data: the Bilingual Compound verbs which consist of the verb *kamno* (= do) and an English lexical item. Two questions arise in relation to these constructions. Firstly, how can we analyse them syntactically when in many cases the English lexical item that accompanies the verb *kamno* (= do) is also a verb? Discussion is constructed based on Moravcsik's (1975), Muysken's (2000) and Wohlgemuth's (2009) analysis of BCVs. Secondly, why BCVs exist at all since there are other mechanisms to incorporate foreign lexical items into CG?

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The person marking system in Ancash Quechua

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Ancash Quechua is an indigenous language spoken in the north-central Peruvian Andes. Quechua is an agglutinative language, which exhibits rich morphology. This paper presents an analysis of the person marking system focusing on subject and object agreement, and compares person marking in Ancash Quechua with that found in other Quechuan languages. The Ancash Quechua person marking system exhibits both regular and irregular inflectional patterns.

- | | | |
|--|---|---|
| (1) a. kuya-ma-nki
love-1O-2S
'You love me.' | b. kuya-ma-n
love-1O-3S
'He/she loves me.' | |
| (2) a. kuya- <i>q</i>
love-1S>2O
'I love you.' | b. kuya- <i>shunki</i>
love-3O>2O
'He/she loves you.' | |
| (3) a. kuya-a
love-1S
'I love him/her.' | b. kuya-nki
love-2S
'You love him/her.' | c. kuya-n
love-3S
'He/she loves him/her.' |

In the transition from 2S to 1O and from 3S to 1O (1a, b), the suffix *-ma* marks the object of the first person. In the transition from 1S to 3O, 2S to 3O and 3S to 3O (3a, b, c), the object of the third person has no markings. In contrast, in the transitions from 1S to 2O and 3S to 2O (2a, b), the object of the second person appears marked together with the subject by two different amalgamed suffixes: *-q* '1S>2O' and *-shunki* '3S>2O'. In this study we focus on the irregularities of the patterns of the second person object marking based on the analysis of data from natural speech and contrastive information from grammars of other Quechuan languages.

I claim that the remarkable divergence in the marking of the second person object is a consequence of the diachronic development of Ancash Quechua's inflectional system. In light of contemporary typological linguistic perspectives, I account for subject and object marking divergence with the hypothesis that it is conditioned by the person hierarchy, which is 1 > 2 > 3, and is a result of historical stages of development of this language.

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The phonetics of /t/ in British Asian English

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Prior research on English-Panjabi bilinguals suggests that /t/-realisation is one of the most salient features of Asian varieties of British English, often being realised with what has been termed a ‘retroflex’ or ‘postalveolar’ articulation (e.g. Lambert et al. 2007; Sharma & Sankaran 2010). While British Asian /t/ has been the subject of a number of auditory analyses, few draw upon acoustic evidence (although see Alam 2009) or report direct comparisons with a White control group. This paper reports on an acoustic phonetic analysis of /t/-realisation in the speech of White English-monolingual and Asian English/Panjabi-bilingual children.

Eight Sheffield English speakers, aged 14-15, participated in a word list experiment to measure the realisation of word-initial English /t/ in front and back vowel contexts. All Asian speakers were at least bilingual in English and Panjabi, while the White control group was monolingual in English. In order to explore the hypothesis that the stop systems of Panjabi-Urdu influence British Asian /t/-realisation, a set of Panjabi-Urdu words featuring word-initial retroflex /t/ in front and back vowel contexts was also included.

Measurements were taken from the waveform and spectra, including voice onset time, vowel duration and vowel formants. A series of spectral parameters were also derived from the stop burst, including the first four spectral moments (Forrest et al. 1988), three cepstral coefficients, and a measure of burst intensity.

The results suggest that the most salient acoustic differences occur in voice onset time and the spectral shape of the burst. The Panjabi-Urdu stops pattern closer to those of the Asian English data, but remain sufficiently different to suggest that direct phonetic ‘transfer’ does not occur. These findings are discussed in relation to (a) theories of cross-language influence and (b) sociolinguistic conceptions of variation and identity.

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Automatic recognition of abbreviations and abbreviation's expansions in multilingual electronic texts

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Automatic recognition of abbreviations and abbreviation's expansions in multilingual electronic texts is described in this paper. The paper presents universal rules (Zahariev 2004) for creating an algorithm for the automatic recognition of abbreviations and abbreviation's expansions in texts written in various languages by focusing on how universal the expansion patterns are, and then testing them on multiple languages to see how reliable such patterns are.

As a first step, a demonstration algorithm has been used which focuses on the automatic recognition of abbreviations and abbreviation's expansions in just one language (Slovene) and with a restricted number of characters for each abbreviation. Further development expands the number of characters for each abbreviation to ten and takes into consideration all four types of abbreviation-expansion patterns. In the next stage, the algorithm is provided online in a demonstration version. At this stage, a random selection of Slovene text is used to verify the performance of the algorithm and to improve recognition. The universality of rules is taken into consideration by the presence of foreign abbreviation-expansion pairs that exist in Slovene texts and is verified on random foreign texts.

The upgraded algorithm is then fully capable to handle large text databases and is used on a Slovene corpus of over 60 million words. In 30 minutes, the software filters the whole corpus and provides 5,000 abbreviation-expansion pairs with 69,75% of precision. The final version of the algorithm filters texts coming from the Europarl corpus, covering all EU languages and bearing in mind specialised characteristics of each language. The acquired data is then converted and used for (semi)automatic production of abbreviation dictionaries.

The algorithm for automatic recognition of abbreviations and abbreviation's expansions is the link between the electronic text and the (semi)automatically produced dictionary of abbreviations. Such dictionary represents the future of electronic lexicography (Kompara 2009).

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Overt quantifier raising neg-wh-quantifiers in Cantonese

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This research reports the overt quantifier raising (Rögnvaldsson 1987; Haegeman 1995; Rizzi 1990) phenomenon in Cantonese, particularly with reference to non-existential quantifiers in the morphological combination of a negative morpheme *mou* and any ordinary wh-phrases. Any *mou*+wh combinations (e.g. *mou bingo* ‘nobody’, *mou matje* ‘nothing’ etc) are referred to as negative wh-quantifiers (Neg-whQ) and there observed to be obligatory raisings to preverbal positions to object Neg-whQs. Cantonese canonically has the SVO word order, the observed overt quantifier raising of object quantifiers results in SOV structures and resemble to Kiss’ (1995) proposal on Hungarian that quantified NPs raise. Quantifier raising (QR) is a proposed movement of quantifiers, and is parameterized between being covert (English) and overt (Hungarian, French, Icelandic, Chinese etc). Cantonese object quantifiers are seen to belong to the later type. Cantonese and Mandarin Chinese share many syntactic similarities, yet, Neg-whQ is an exceptional case that it is allowed to undergo QR in the Cantonese as in (1) but not in Mandarin Chinese as in (2) although overt QR is observed in both languages. Therefore Neg-whQ in Cantonese is the main focus in this research.

- (1) Ngo [mou bingo] ; zungji t_i [Cantonese]
 I no who like
 ‘I don’t like nobody.’
- (2) * Wo [meiyou shei] ; xihuan t_i [Mandarin Chinese]
 I no who like
 ‘I like nobody.’

This study claims that the overt QR by successive movement is driven by the uninterpretable features [quant] (Chomsky 1995) and [neg]. A NegQP structure for object Neg-whQ is proposed to account for the SOV order in Cantonese. The proposed NegQP has an unpronounced quantifier operator \emptyset which carries [quant] feature as its head, negator *mou* in spec position which specifies the phrase with [neg] feature and a wh-phrase as its complement (any DP for other non-existential quantifiers). It gives the correct order of neg-whQ where the negator *mou* precedes a wh-phrase (e.g. *bingo* ‘who’) and NegQP inherits both [neg] and [quant] features which triggers QR that applies to any Neg-whQ in Cantonese.

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Bilingual encounters over the phone: A study of two bilingual children's code-switching practices in the negotiation of meaning

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Traditionally, research in the field of Code-switching (CS) has largely focussed on ultimately unsatisfactory attempts to discover universally applicable, predictive grammatical constraints on CS, resulting in conflicting models such as the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model (Myers-Scotton 2002; Jake, Myers-Scotton and Gross 2005) and a model based on a Minimalist approach (MacSwan, 2005a, 2005b). Gardner-Chloros and Edwards (2004) argue that future research in the field of CS should move away from attempts to develop models which dictate the forms of CS speech as, owing to its variability, it “eludes definitive grammatical description”(2004: 35). Given this tantalising outcome, this paper turns towards some sociolinguistic factors in CS by analysing the code-switching practices of two bilingual siblings when interacting with their father over the telephone. It draws on a computerised corpus of child bilingual language, composed of transcriptions of the spoken language of two Brazilian bilingual siblings (M and J), exposed to Portuguese and English from birth. Recorded while M (7;8) and J(5;4) were on holiday in England visiting English relatives, the telephone conversations include as bilingual interlocutors their Brazilian father (who remained in Brazil) and their English mother who is beside the children as they speak over the phone. Starting from detailed quantitative and qualitative analyses using the CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) (MacWhinney 2010) tool, the data is explored to reveal significant differences in the siblings' code-switching practices as they attempt to negotiate meaning with an interlocutor who is physically, culturally and linguistically distanced from their own immediate experiential context. Whereas M uses CS economically and successfully accommodates her bilingual language to optimise understanding between herself and her interlocutor, J appears less able to juggle the use of his two languages appropriately and a break-down in communication is only avoided by appealing to his mother for assistance.

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Text classification of the BNC using corpus and statistical methods

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This presentation demonstrates a new statistical methodology for establishing categories within a text typology. Although there exist many different approaches to the classification of text into categories, my study will fill a gap in the literature as most work on text classification is based on features external to the text such as the text's purpose, the text producer's intentions, and the medium of communication (see, for instance, Reiss 1976; Welirch 1976). Text categories that have been set up based on some external features are not linguistically defined (Biber 1989: 5). In consequence, texts which belong to the same type are not necessarily similar in their linguistic forms. Even Biber's (1988) linguistically-oriented work was based on externally-defined registers.

In this presentation I will show how a text typology, based on similarities in linguistic forms, can be developed using a multivariate statistical technique, namely cluster analysis. In this study, this technique was implemented using R statistical package. There are two reasons for using statistical software: (a) the large number of texts to be classified in the BNC (British National Corpus) and (b) the exhaustive list of linguistic features used as underlying variables for classifying the texts. The linguistic features used include personal pronouns, passive constructions, prepositional phrases, nominalization, modal auxiliaries, adverbs, and adjectives.

Computing a cluster analysis based on this data is a complex process with many steps. At each step, several alternative techniques are available. Choosing among the available techniques is a non-trivial decision, as multiple alternatives are in common use by statisticians. I will demonstrate how a process of trial and error was used to test several combinations of clustering methods, in order to determine the most useful / stable clustering combination(s) for use in the classification of texts by their linguistic features. The stable results obtained from this trial and error process were then validated using three validation techniques available in cluster analysis, namely the cophenetic coefficient, the adjusted Rand index, and the AU p -value.

Cluster analysis, if used with caution, is a powerful tool for structuring the data. The way it has been implemented in this study constitutes an advance in the field of text typology.

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The linguistic behaviour of German migrants in German-speaking Switzerland

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German-speaking Switzerland has been defined by the majority of theorists as a diglossic speech community, whereby the Swiss German dialects and standard German are in complementary distribution (Rash 1998: 49). This is different from the situation in Germany, where competency in dialect has been shown to be affected by extra-linguistic factors (Ammon 1995: 369), and intermediary varieties between dialect and standard have arisen (Keller 1978: 511). This paper explores how German migrants interact with the different situation in German-speaking Switzerland, by examining the responses of 50 migrants to a written questionnaire.

Werner Koller (1992) shows that whilst some migrants ignore Swiss German, others participate in the diglossia model to varying degrees. Those participants who self-identified as speakers of a non-standard dialect were more likely to use Swiss German more extensively (Koller 1992: 126). Since 1990 the number of German migrants has more than doubled (Bundesamt für Statistik 2009), making the question of variety use more pertinent.

The majority of the sample (84%) had passive competency in Swiss German, with females being more likely to understand this variety. Fewer migrants gain active competency (32%), and the domains in which they use this variety vary. No significant difference in behaviour was found between speakers of standard German and speakers of non-standard dialects. Attitudes towards dialect are generally positive and any concerns have also been expressed by German-speaking Swiss themselves.

These results confirm the variation in the linguistic behaviour of German migrants, but also show that the differing linguistic situation in the two areas does not necessarily result in different attitudes towards dialect. The rapid acquisition of passive competency and the mutual intelligibility between Swiss German and other German dialects supports the notion that there is a low level of linguistic distance between Swiss German and other varieties of German (Ammon 1995: 290).

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Observations on German idioms containing *einen* as a constituent

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An idiom is a conventional multi-word expression that is institutionalized, non-compositional and more or less lexically and syntactically restricted, i.e. an idiom cannot be as freely varied in form as non-idiomatic expressions (Nunberg et al. 1994). In addition, an idiom has its own usage conventions and pragmatic functions in a language.

The present study will shed some light on the present-day German idioms containing *einen* as an obligatory constituent. The database of the study is the authoritative dictionary of idioms, *Duden Redewendungen* (2002), with its close to 10.000 idioms. There are plenty of these idioms in German, cf. (1).

- (1) *einen trinken*
a.M.ACC to-drink
'to go for a drink' (cf. also to have a drink in English, respectively)

However, it is somewhat surprising to observe that only a small number of studies have been carried out in the sphere of these idioms. To the best of my knowledge, the only welcome exceptions are Fellbaum et al. (2004) and Schemann (1993). Idioms comprising *einen* appear to be a productive category and *einen* can be labeled as an idiom-prone constituent.

The paper has two major aims. First, German idioms comprising *einen* will be analysed in depth and the paper will provide an overview of these idioms. The ultimate goal is to find out what the constituent *einen* designates in these idioms. Second, the notion of (in)definiteness will be addressed in detail based on the idioms subjected to the study. In general, *einen* in German has its principal role to indicate indefiniteness of the noun phrase but which function has it in these idioms? Is the notion of indefiniteness proper for the case of idioms containing *einen*? Moreover, a Construction Grammar approach to these idioms will be provided and the present study will modify the results of Fellbaum et al. (2004) and Schemann (1993).

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The Bantu-Romance connection: The acquisition of object clitics in French and Ibibemba

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It has been suggested that Bantu object prefixes and Romance object clitics can be given a unitary analysis, syntactically (Cocchi 2000; Labelle 2008). They both cross-reference phi-features of the DP object. They can either co-occur with a doubled or a dislocated object, or replace the object argument entirely. Moreover, in declarative clauses, they appear to the left of the verb. In this paper I consider the implications of these syntactic similarities for the acquisition of object clitics/markers by children in both language families. Do they have similar grammatical representations of these items? Are acquisition processes identical? I compare findings from L1 French (for Romance) studies and Bemba (for Bantu) in order to address the above questions. I present new experimental and spontaneous data for Bemba.

The acquisition of object clitics is problematic for French children. They are acquired much later than subject clitics and determiners and the process is fraught with errors such as agreement, gender mismatches and omissions (Grüter 2006; Prévost 2009). I replicated a study by Grüter (2006) on the acquisition of object clitics by French Canadian children. Grüter tested children aged between 3-5 using a receptive task to find out if their grammar allowed for the existence of null objects since they were said to omit objects in production (both naturalistic and elicited). The results from the Bemba experiment, as in the French study, showed that Bemba children consistently rejected transitive constructions with null objects. A control group of 9 Bemba adults also rejected the null object construction.

Grüter hypothesised that French children omitted objects due to their limited working memory capacity that made it difficult for them to establish long distance agree relations between the clitic head and *pro*. Her hypothesis cannot account for the Bemba data, however. Firstly, Bemba children do not appear to make agreement errors between the object DPs and the object clitic which partly influenced Grüter's hypothesis. Secondly, the results from production in Bemba are contradictory. While cross sectional data from five children (aged 1;7-3;6) also show that Bemba children omit objects in spontaneous speech, unlike their French counterparts, they generally do not omit them in elicited production. Results from an elicitation experiment involving 31 children (aged 2;2-5;5) show that all of them used an object marker with three of the four verbs used in the test. Almost all the children and adults tested used a null object with the fourth verb, *belenga* "to read". This verb, as its equivalent in English, optionally appears with or without an object depending on context. I argue that Bemba children, as young as 1;8, have target-like pragmatic knowledge of discourse contexts where object omissions are possible in their target language.

I conclude by suggesting that the grammatical representations of object clitics and the acquisition processes are quite similar between Bantu and Romance children which would appear to support the idea that Bantu object markers and Romance object clitics can be given a unitary analysis.

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Acoustics and obsolescence in Scottish Gaelic stop consonants

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Scottish Gaelic has two series of stop consonants, orthographically <p t c> and <b d g>. These are realised as voiceless aspirated /p^h t^h k^h/ and voiceless unaspirated /p t k/ in word initial position. In word medial and word final position they are realised as pre-aspirated /^hp ^ht ^hk/ and voiceless unaspirated /p t k/ respectively (Ladefoged et al. 1998). Gaelic also contrasts velarised and palatalised consonants, but this paper will refer to the velarised set only.

Pre-aspirated stops are typologically rare in the world's languages (Silverman 2003), and English does not have phonological pre-aspiration. Gaelic is undergoing obsolescence and is in intense contact with English (MacKinnon 2010). This makes the stop series of Gaelic an interesting candidate for analysis of possible change in progress. Here I address two research questions: [1] What are the phonetic characteristics of the phonological contrasts outlined above? [2] Is this system changing as Gaelic undergoes obsolescence?

Word list data were collected from six native speakers of Lewis Gaelic, three aged 45-55 and three aged 20-22. Data were recorded in a noise-attenuated sound studio and analysed in Praat. A number of durational measures were taken off the waveform: Voice Onset Time, total vowel duration, total pre-aspiration, modal voicing breathy voicing, voiceless pre-aspiration, and stop closure. Statistical tests were applied.

Results suggest that the contrast between the aspirated and unaspirated series is robustly maintained in both speaker groups, but the Gaelic stop system is undergoing gradient phonetic (Babel 2009) apparent time change. Younger speakers have longer VOT in word initial position and shorter pre-aspiration in word medial and word final position. The composition of their pre-aspiration is also different, with less voiceless pre-aspiration. These results suggest a system in flux.

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The acquisition of enclisis – proclisis alternation: A study on early Cypriot Greek

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The L1 acquisition of clitic constructions has been widely studied cross-linguistically (Hamann et al. 1996 for French, Schaeffer 1997 for Dutch, Costa et al. 2007 *et seq.* for European Portuguese, Marinis 2000 for Greek, Guasti 1993/94 for Italian, Babyonyshev & Marin 2005 for Romanian, Ilic & Ud Deen 2003 for Serbo-Croatian, Wexler et al. 2004 for Spanish). Clitics are lexical materials highly dependent on the functional domain, therefore they constitute a good tool for assessing language development, and in specific, the inflectional domain.

Pronominal clitics in Cypriot Greek (Terzi 1999a, 1999b; Agouraki 2001), but also in Standard Modern Greek (Mavrogiorgos 2009) and the Romance languages (Roberts 2010, Uriagereka 1995) appear either pre- or post-verbally depending on the syntactic context. So far, the focus of acquisitional studies regarding the syntax of pronominal clitics has been the phenomenon of clitic realisation and omission, and specifically the reason why there are languages exhibiting or not the phenomenon of clitic omission in the course of L1A (Wexler et al. 2004 *et seq.*). There is, however, another interesting discrepancy among clitic languages: only children acquiring enclitic languages seem to misplace clitics (Duarte & Matos 2000 for EP, Petinou & Terzi 2002 for CG) at the initial stages of L1A.

In this paper, we investigate the acquisition of clitic placement in Cypriot Greek, based on longitudinal and experimental data. Longitudinal data include spontaneous speech recordings from two children followed for a period of six months. The experimental investigation involves the implementation of a semi-structured elicitation technique in young Greek-Cypriot children, 2-, 3- and 4-year-olds. Initial findings reveal a different pattern for the acquisition of enclisis- and proclisis- environments. Enclisis contexts are adult-like from the onset, whereas proclisis contexts remain problematic for some children, who over-generalize enclisis independently of the syntactic environment. On the grounds of this outcome, we discuss the implications for the developmental trajectory in Cypriot Greek and more generally in enclitic languages.

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Post-nominal ‘lá’ in the DP-structure: a specificity marker

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This paper analyses post-nominal ‘lá’ in Brazilian Portuguese.

- (1) O menino (que está/mora) **lá** é meu neto.
 The boy (who is/lives) there is my grandson.
- (2) “eu tinha [um colega meu **lá**] que ele trabalhava com negócio de obra”.
 [a friend my **lá**]: I had a certain friend who used to work with building stuff.

Semantically, ‘lá’ is deictic locative in (1), but not in (2). Accordingly, while locative ‘lá’ is ungrammatical with demonstrative ‘esse’ (*this*), indefinite article and bare NP (3a), non-locative ‘lá’ (3b) is not.

- (3) a. **The/That/*This/*A/*ø** boy **there** is my grandson.
 b. **The/That/This/A** lady **lá**; **ø** cartoon **lá**.

Following Lyons (1999: 58), specificity markers are “used where there is a particular referent but the identity of this is either not known exactly to the speaker or considered unimportant”. This is exactly the role of ‘lá’ in (2). Many languages have dedicated particles for this purpose, e.g., Samoan ‘se’ and Maori ‘teetahi’. Analogously, colloquial indefinite ‘this’ (4) “is necessarily specific [...] the speaker must have a particular individual in mind” (MARCHANT, 1994: 18). Therefore, like indefinite ‘this’, ‘lá’ might be a specificity marker.

- (4) “in [...] that movie, *The Adventures*, **this** lady – she wanted an escort man”.

Syntactically, while locative ‘lá’ belongs to the VP/IP-domain, e.g., as a verbal argument (1), non-locative ‘lá’ belongs to the DP-domain. We claim that ‘lá’ is merged in Spec of a functional projection with specificity features which is probably the first above NP and the last below modifiers. This explains why ‘lá’ follows modifiers (5a), but ‘lá’ may also precede them (5b). In this case, we suggest, based on Cinque (2005), that the NP raises to Spec,Agr_{QP} above the projection bearing ‘lá’ (QP), and then the NP pied-pipes ‘lá’ to a higher Spec,Agr_{ZP}, leaving behind other modifiers.

- (5) a. [DP D°um [Agr_{ZP} NP *colega*_i Agr_Z° [ZP *meu* Z° [Agr_{QP} t_i Agr_Q° [QP **lá** Q° [NP t_i]]]]]]].
 b. [DP D°um [Agr_{ZP} Agr_{QP} *colega*_i **lá**_{ii} Agr_Z° [ZP *meu* Z° [Agr_{QP} t_i Agr_Q° [QP t_{ii} Q° [NP t_i]]]]]]].
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- The diagram shows a horizontal line with two upward-pointing arrows. The left arrow points to the *colega*_i in example (5b), and the right arrow points to the *colega*_i **lá**_{ii} in example (5b). A horizontal line connects the two arrows, indicating the movement of the NP containing *colega*_i from the Spec,Agr_{QP} position to the Spec,Agr_{ZP} position, which pied-pipes the specificity marker **lá**.

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Intralinguistic *false friends*: British English and American English as a case in point.

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In linguistics, the term *false friends* refers to those lexical items in two or more languages which are similar in form, but different in meaning (Koessler and Derocquigny 1928; Hill 1982; Prado 2001; Chamizo Domínguez & Nerlich 2002; Shlesinger & Malkiel 2005). Word pairs, such as German *Gift* meaning “poison” vs. English *gift*, meaning “a present”, English *motorist* “car driver” vs. Spanish *motorista* “motorcyclist”, or French *poisson* “fish” vs. English *poison* “venom” illustrate this phenomenon. In spite of the fact that false friends are commonly seen as an *interlingual* phenomenon affecting different languages, it is undeniable that *intralingual* false friends exist (Rollings 2001: 909). Words like *biscuit*, *fag*, *pants*, *rubber* or *suspenders* are used both in British and American English but their meanings differ quite a lot. This study analyses some interesting examples of false friends between these two varieties of English. During this presentation, I will allude to the semantic differences of these items in both varieties supporting my arguments with data extracted from two main different online dictionaries (the *Cambridge Dictionary Online* or the *Oxford English Dictionary*) and from two corpora (the *British National Corpus* and the *Corpus of Contemporary American English*). The semantic analysis together with a reflection on the pragmatic use of those items, will pave the way for a categorization of these intralingual false friends. The categorization proposed here is based on the different communicative effects false friends may have between British and Americans, and it aims at helping speakers of English to watch out for the uses of certain words depending on who they are talking to. Taking this into consideration, the situations that false friends produce may be of three different types: (1) funny situations (e.g. *Your pants and suspenders are really cool!!* or *I love my girlfriend's buns*), (2) serious blunders (e.g. *If you are stressed, grab a fag*) and (3) puzzlement (e.g. *Buy some biscuits, chips and jelly, please*). As a final remark, I will mention some of the reasons for the existence of false friends between American and British English. Undoubtedly, factors, such as the geographical distance, the cultural idiosyncrasy and the separate evolution of the language in both countries will have a say in this matter.

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Referential choice: Distribution of subject types in Russian aphasic speech

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Being an essential component of discourse structure, reference presents a very interesting topic for investigation. Many studies have been conducted on referential subject types in canonical non-pro-drop, sentence-based languages in both typical and atypical populations. However, little is known about referential processes in aphasic speakers in optional pro-drop, discourse-based languages, such as Russian.

This study is one of the first ones that aim to enhance the understanding of the way in which the referential system functions in Russian speaking brain-damaged individuals (twelve participants) in comparison to non-brain-damaged individuals (fifteen participants). It addresses the distribution of subject types in oral spontaneous narratives. Moreover, unlike the previous research projects in this field, that engage mostly data from nonfluent aphasic individuals, this study uses the data of two experimental groups: both nonfluent and fluent aphasic speakers (seven and five participants, respectively). Thus, corresponding crossgroup comparisons are to show whether the patterns of realizations and omissions of grammatical subjects vary among aphasia types.

The investigated distribution of subject types in spontaneous speech of the nonfluent aphasic individuals appeared to be similar to that found in non-pro-drop Germanic languages in relation to high subject omission (43% of all the subject types in the sample analysed):

- (1) ...Ø poshel i Ø prishel ustalyy, Ø ustali
...went.3SG.M and came.3SG.M tired got tired.3PL
'... (he) went and came tired, (they) got tired...'

This group pattern is also found to be similar to that observed in the speech of Russian young children. On the other hand, the fluent aphasic speakers demonstrate the tendency of pronominal subjects excessive use (32% of all the subject types in the sample analysed), which must be caused by general nomination problems in fluent aphasia:

- (2) ... oni prishli v les [...] oni vse krichat [...] oni videli
... they came.3PL to forest they all scream.3PL they saw.3PL
'... they came to the forest [...] they all screamed [...] they saw ...'

Thus, it can be seen that the distribution patterns of subject types in narratives of both Russian nonfluent and fluent aphasic speakers are deviant from those of the non-brain-damaged respondents. The latter resort to zero and pronominal subjects in a lesser number of contexts (35% and 22%, respectively) comparing to the experimental groups. However, presumably, different economy strategies are used by the two groups of aphasic individuals.

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A model for ELT materials development within the framework of critical pedagogy

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With the globalization of English language teaching (ELT), the neutrality myth of English as an international language (EIL) has attracted criticisms. Some scholars (e.g. Auerbach 1991; Pennycook 1990; Phillipson 1990), accusing ELT of contributing to the maintenance of an unequal society, have started to argue the highly political nature of language. Critical pedagogy (CP), then, is implemented in ELT programs aiming to empower both teachers and learners to unmask underlying cultural values and ideologies of educational setting and society, and subsequently to make them agents of transformation in their society. However, despite the increase in the number of publications in the field of critical L2 pedagogy, remarkably little has been done on materials development in CP. Considering materials as the core resources in language-learning programs (Richards 2010), the present paper attempts to offer a model for materials development based on the major tenets of critical pedagogy. In order to provide a principled basis for developing the model, the literature on critical pedagogy is first surveyed. A model is then presented for the design of ELT materials. The principles of this model are organized according to the main factors involved in materials development, i.e. program factors, teacher factors, learner factors, content factors, and pedagogical factors. The model might contribute students to be more critical consumers of information which was believed to be essential for living in 21st century. Also, it could help both for developing and evaluating ELT materials according to the framework of critical pedagogy.

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**Statistical approaches to hierarchical data in sociophonetics:
The case of variable rhoticity in Scottish Standard English**

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In variationist linguistics, hierarchical data structures are given when, for example, each of a number of speakers makes several utterances of interest. The utterances are not independent observations since a number of them always depend on a single speaker. Despite their great frequency, hierarchical structures are often not fully reflected in the analytic tools used to model language variation.

Several approaches to hierarchical data structures are possible. If the data are aggregated by calculating average scores for each speaker, characteristics of individual utterances are no longer available as analytic predictors and loss of information results (Raudenbush & Bryk 2002). If, on the other hand, the data are disaggregated by coding individual tokens not only for their intrinsic parameters but also for age, gender etc. which really describe the speaker, observations are erroneously treated as fully independent. This may result in underestimated standard errors of regression coefficients which increases the chance of committing a statistical type I error (Luke 2004: 22). A third approach is Hierarchical Linear Modelling (HLM) which avoids these two problems by analysing variation at several levels in an integrated model (Hox 2002: 12-13).

Looking at factors conditioning the presence or absence of non-prevocalic /r/ in the speech of 27 Scottish subjects, this paper will (a) compare two different ways of analysing the data (logistic regression and a type of HLM), (b) show that some predictors that *are* significant in logistic regression are *not* significant in HLM, thus unveiling type I errors committed in the former, (c) show that predictors identified as significant by *both* techniques are assigned different weights, and (d) show that most of the variation can be explained by internal predictors (stress, syntactic position, liaison-sites, preceding vowel) and that comparatively little can be explained by sociolinguistic predictors (age, gender, dialect-contact).

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On the polyfunctionality of copula sentences in Japanese

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Japanese copula sentences have various functions. For example, (1) has the functions (2)-(4).

(1) *Kakkoi no wa Tom da* [Japanese]
 cool TOP Tom COP

- (2) ‘It is Tom that is cool.’ (specificational)
 (3) ‘The guy who is cool has the name of Tom.’ (predicational)
 (4) ‘The guy who is cool is the same person as Tom.’ (equative)

What has not previously been noted is that *no* has a connotation (e.g. familiar, derogatory) in the readings (3)/(4) but not in the reading (2). This paper explains the distribution of connotations within Dynamic Syntax (Cann et al. 2005), which models how a parser updates semantic representation incrementally as s/he parses a string (“Semantic Incrementality”).

One approach is to argue that *no* is complementizer in (2) and pronominal in (3)/(4), as pronominal *no* is reported to have a connotation when it refers to humans (Kuroda 1992). However, this paper argues that a more explanatory analysis presents itself if we adopt Cann et al.’s (2005) analysis of *no* as pronominal nominalizer, which, in (1), induces the term $(\varepsilon, x, cool'(x))$, where ε is an existential operator that binds the variable “x” which is restricted by the predicate *cool'*. On this basis, Kuroda’s observation can be restated as:

- (5) A connotation arises when the non-referential term $(\varepsilon, x, cool'(x))$ induced by *no* is updated as the referential term denoting humans.

This paper proposes that the distribution of connotations reflects Semantic Incrementality, more specifically the “timing” of updating a non-referential term into a referential term.

First, the readings (3)/(4) obtain when the term is updated pragmatically as the referential term, say, $(t, x, cool'(x) \& guy'(x))$, immediately after the parsing of *no*. (The difference between (3)/(4) arises from the content of *Tom*: “ $\lambda x. x_has_the_name_of_Tom$ ” for (3), and “ $(t, x, Tom'(x))$ ” for (4).) Given (5), this updating yields a connotation. In other contexts, where the term is updated as, say, $(t, x, cool'(x) \& book'(x))$, no connotation arises.

Second, when the updating of the non-referential term is delayed until the parsing of *Tom*, the reading (2) obtains. In this case, the term $(\varepsilon, x, cool'(x))$ induced by *no* is not updated at all, though another occurrence of the term within the structure constructed by *wa* is updated as $(t, x, cool'(x) \& Tom'(x))$. Thus, given (5), no connotation emerges.

The upshot is that the distribution of connotations is explained in terms of Semantic Incrementality, a general property of language use.

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A Cross-Linguistic Analysis of Refusal Strategies Used by Iranian EFL Learners

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Austin (2005) believed that a speech act is an utterance that serves a function in communication, such as requesting something, complaining about something or refusing something. Refusing is a complex issue, as the speaker directly or indirectly says 'no' to his/her interlocutor's request, invitation or suggestion. Chen (2002) declared that refusals are often realized through indirect strategies, which request a high level of pragmatic competence. If refusals are challenging for native speakers (NSs) as they may involve length negotiation moves, the situation becomes even more complex for non-native speakers (NNSs) since it may be conducive to communication failure. Pragmatic inappropriateness may arise as a consequence of limited linguistic proficiency in the L2 or a lack of L2 sociocultural knowledge. In the EFL context, this sociocultural gap makes awareness and instruction of adequate refusals a necessity. This study aims to investigate the similarities and variations between Iranian and American in the strategic types of refusals to provide pedagogical guidelines for Iranian learners of English. To achieve this end, 3 groups (Each had 30 participants), composed of 90 educated students (male/female) of different age, sex and different fields of study were selected. The first group were 30 American English Speakers (A.E.S). Other two groups were selected based on Iranians' performance on the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The second group were the low level participants or Iranian Persian Speakers (I.P.S) and the third group were the high level participants or Iranian English Speakers (I.E.S). The mid level participants were omitted. A number of refusal situations were derived through a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). After collecting the data, the researcher used Chi-square to analyze them. The results revealed that there exist a language specific mode of preference which is even transferred to the second language of the speaker. This also shows that the first two groups, I.P.S and I.E.S, are similar in using some strategies of the Direct and Indirect mode of speaking and a form of transfer is seen clearly. Regarding the age and sex of EFL learners, the result of this study shows that these variables do not have any significant effect on using refusal strategies.

(Anti-) superiority in Turkish, Japanese and Korean

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This paper deals with a puzzle relating to the (anti-)superiority effects in Turkish, Japanese and Korean, and focuses on the locality constraints that determine the syntax and semantics of long distance scrambling of a wh-phrase. Turkish (Özsoy 2009) exhibits anti-superiority in long-distance wh-movement, whereas Japanese and Korean do not this when (a) wh-phrase(s) is extracted from the same local clause (cf. (1)).

In the paper, assuming that movement is driven by feature checking (Chomsky 1995, 2000, 2001; Rizzi 2004), it is proposed that feature checking can apply at various stages during the course of derivation by virtue of an optional wh-feature; hence, the checked wh-feature in the intermediate landing sites makes a lower wh-phrase frozen in place in the embedded clause, with the unchecked wh-feature causing the lower wh-phrase to move further in a successive cyclic manner (cf. McCloskey, 2002; Heck & Müller 2000). Such (a)symmetric feature checking of intermediate movement positions gives rise to the (anti-) superiority phenomena in long distance movement, and consequently results in a tension relation with the edge feature (EF) driven movement (Chomsky 2005).

Some implications of long distance wh-movement are also discussed: In multiple wh-fronting, Turkish obeys both crossing and nesting dependencies, while Japanese and Korean follow crossing dependencies (cf. Richards 2001), suggesting that underlying word orders between Turkish and Japanese/Korean may differ(cf. (2)); In long-distance scrambling, V-raising (i.e., V-v-T) does not feed anti-superiority effects, such that a wh-object may move to a matrix clause(in Turkish) or to an embedded clause (in Korean) without relying on head movement in overt syntax. (cf. see Chomsky 2001 for head movement as a PF operation) (cf. (3)).

To conclude, it is argued that a seemingly optional wh-movement of (a) wh-in-situ phrase(s) is attributed to the optional wh-feature in intermediate positions, which is considered to be a source of variation across languages.

- (1) b. **Kim-i** [sen **kim-in** t gör-düğ-ü-nü] duy-du-n [Turkish]
 Whom.ACC you who.GEN see. NOM.3POSS.ACC hear.PAST2SG
 ‘Who did John say that who ate t?’
- b. ***?Nani-o** Tom-wa [**dare-ga** t tabeta to] itta no [Japanese]
 what.ACC T.TOP who.NOM ate COMP said. Q
 ‘What did John say that who ate t?’
- c. ***?Mwuess-ul** Tom-un [**nuw-ka** t mek-essta-ko] malh-ass-ni [Korean]
 what.ACC T.TOP who.NOM eat.PAST.COMP say.PAST.Q
 ‘What did John say that who ate t?’
- (2) a. **Nei kim-ej** John [Erkin profesörün tj ti [Turkish]
 what.ACC whom.DAT J. Prof.GEN
 okut-tuğ-u-nu] söyledi ?
 read.CAUS.POSS.ACC say.PAST3SG
 ‘To whom, what did John say that Prof. Erkin made read what?’

- b. ***Nani-o_i** **dare-ni_j** John-ga [Tanaka-sensee-ga t_j t_i [Japanese]
 what.ACC whom.DAT J.NOM Prof. Tanaka.NOM
 yom-ase-ta to] itta no
 read-CAUS.PASS.COMP said Q
 ‘To whom, did John say that Prof. Tanaka made read what?’
- c. ***Mwuess-ul_i** **nwuku-ekey_j** John-un [Kim-sensaengnim-i t_j t_i [Korean]
 what.ACC whom.DAT J.TOP Prof.Kim. NOM
 ilk-key-hassta ko] malh-ass-ni?
 read-CAUS.PASS.COMP say.PAST.Q
 ‘To whom, did John say that Prof. Kim made read what?’
- (3) a. **Ne_i** John [t_i Öğretmen kim-e t_i [Turkish]
 what.ACC J. teacher.GEN whom.DAT
 okut-**tuğ**-u-nu] itta no?
 read-CAUS.POSS.ACC say.PAST3SG
 ‘To whom, did John say that teacher made read what?’
- b. ***Nani-o_i** John-waj [t_i seensei-ga dare-ni t_i [Japanese]
 what.ACC J.TOP teacher.NOM whom. DAT
 yom-**ase**-ta to] itta no ?
 read-CAUS.PASS.COMP say.PAST.Q
 ‘To whom, did John say that teacher made read what?’
- c. ***Mwuess-ul_i** John-un [t_i sensaengnim-i nwugwu-ekey t_i [Korean]
 what.ACC John.TOP teacher.NOM whom.DAT
 ilk-**key**-hassta ko] malhass ni ?
 read-CAUS.PASS.COMP say.PAST.Q
 ‘To whom, did John say that teacher made read what?’

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The application of optimality-theoretic pragmatics to the reappraisal of the role of *lɛɛw45* in Thai

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The particle *lɛɛw45* in Thai has been claimed to denote the perfective aspect (Kanchanawan 1978; Boonyapatipark 1983) and the completion of the event (Scovel 1970). Nonetheless, in natural language *lɛɛw45* co-occurs with predicates of various types including those with default end points and those with topic times which overlap or are posterior to the utterance times. Furthermore, the reappraisal of the role of *lɛɛw45* based on optimality-theoretic pragmatics (Blutner 2000; Blutner & Zeevat 2009) and its application in discourse particles and presupposition (Zeevat 2002, 2004, 2009) offers an argument against the conventional claims. *lɛɛw45* is not mainly aimed at temporal effects. Under optimality-theoretic pragmatics which values both form and meaning, *lɛɛw45* suggests that the topic of the sentence is already within the common ground of the interlocutors (CONSISTENCE). It also triggers presuppositions concerning the previous status of the topic (FAITH) and thereby full accommodation is unnecessary (DO NOT ACCOMMODATE). The truth-condition of the sentence with *lɛɛw45* is the same as that of the sentence without it. However, while the experiencing of the event occurred within a particular topic time is asserted, the hearer's recognition of the status of the topic prior to the utterance time is not asserted but only presupposed. More interestingly, the assertion always contradicts the presuppositions and the expectation of the hearer and consequently suggests a correction to the common ground. *lɛɛw45*, not zero marking, is obligatorily used for such purpose (STRENGTH). *lɛɛw45*'s temporal function is considered only secondary and corresponds to the concept of Event Realisation proposed by Bohnemeyer & Swift (2004). The event and its subpart must fall under the predicate and the run time of the subevent must be included in the topic time.

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Shapes and placement of gestures by Germans in descriptions of motion events

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Based on how different languages verbalise motion events they can be divided into two main categories: satellite-framed (e.g., English) and verb-framed languages (e.g., Spanish) (Talmy 1985; Slobin 2004). This typology reflects the speakers' way of thinking-for-speaking (Slobin 1996, 2004). According to, for example, McNeill and Duncan (2000), gestures are also part of thinking-for-speaking. This is reflected by the constituents with which gestures coincide. However, previous research (van Hoof 2000; Vrinzen 2003; Boot 2003) suggests that even two satellite-framed languages can differ in their gesture placement. Therefore, experiment 1 of the present study compares three Germanic languages with regard to gesture placement. The three previous studies showed that the English participants tended to place their gestures on the verb (expected of verb-framed languages) and the Dutch displayed no consistent pattern. This study adds German to English and Dutch. Results suggest that Germans tend to place their gestures on the satellite (expected of satellite-framed languages). Together, these four studies indicate that a categorisation based on speech cannot necessarily be applied to gestures.

In experiment 2, the German participants' gesture shape was investigated. The data were coded according to a scheme designed by Müller (1998). Results showed that (a) gestures of the same mode of representation are more likely to be similar than those of two different modes; (b) the shape of a gesture is not influenced by the way in which the action is presented to the speaker, but by the action itself; (c) actions that were not visible to the speaker, but that must have happened in between two other actions, are less likely to elicit similarly shaped gestures as are actions that were visible to the speaker. In conclusion, gesture shape is as rule-bound as gesture placement.

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Abduction or Inertia? The logic of syntactic change

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Two assumptions often considered principles of inquiry in historical syntax are that linguistic change is abductive (Andersen 1973) and that syntax is inert (Longobardi 2001). In this paper it is demonstrated that these two notions, if meaningfully interpreted, are not compatible: if we wish to develop a coherent theory of language acquisition and change, we must abandon one or the other.

As Deutscher (2002) has shown, much confusion surrounds the use of the term ‘abduction’, and the resulting picture is inconsistent and out of step with the philosophy of science. Nevertheless, under any reading abduction must be considered a form of ampliative inference in language acquisition in which the conclusion contains more information than the premises and is therefore fallible.

Such fallibility cannot be reconciled with the Inertial Theory of syntactic change, which argues that syntactic change does not arise unless caused and that syntax is therefore ‘diachronically completely inert’ (Longobardi 2001: 277–278). Clearly abduction cannot be said to be causal, as the abductive inference itself is the linguistic change. If a mental ‘roll of the dice’ is needed during acquisition, no sufficient cause can be assumed and no diachronic continuity guaranteed, and the Inertial Theory is therefore false. Abduction could be reconciled with inertia if inference were guided to the best explanation by deterministic principles triggered by specific distributions of the primary linguistic data, but this would reduce abduction to deduction, rendering the term superfluous.

I also demonstrate, however, that the variability of the primary linguistic data entails that Longobardi’s theory must either be false or vacuous in any case. I conclude that neither abduction nor inertia is a necessary or useful concept in diachronic syntax, and suggest that we should abandon both, instead treating syntactic change on its own terms.

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Realisation of primary lexical stress in Welsh English

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Primary lexical stress is realised differently in English and Welsh. English lexical stress involves, amongst other features, greater vowel duration in the associated syllable. Williams (1985) showed that Welsh lexical stress involves the shortening of the associated vowel of the stressed syllable and the lengthening of the immediately following consonant. However, impressionistic accounts (e.g. Connolly 1981; Walters 2003) have suggested that the variety of English spoken in Wales, Welsh English, displays a realisation of stress more similar to Welsh than other varieties of English – the shortening of the stressed vowel and lengthening of the following consonant.

This pilot study aims to experimentally examine the realisation of primary lexical stress in Welsh English by comparing it to Welsh and Standard Southern British English (SSBE). The participants will consist of two groups of speakers (Welsh/English bilinguals and SSBE monolinguals), and the data collection will consist of recording sentences read aloud by the participants. Each sentence will have an embedded word in which the stressed syllable is as similar as possible segmentally in both Welsh and English (e.g. Welsh *ffenest* [ˈfɛnɛst] and English *fennel* [ˈfɛnəl]). The length of the vowel of the stressed syllable and the following consonant will be measured in the Welsh English data and compared to the Welsh and SSBE data. Based on previous observations, it is predicted that stress in the Welsh English words will be realised more similarly to Welsh than SSBE - i.e. the stressed vowel will be shorter than in SSBE and the following consonant will be longer than in SSBE.

It is hoped that this pilot study will be the beginning of a more detailed description of the prosody of both Welsh and Welsh English, and that it will also result in expanding current knowledge of prosody in language contact and second language acquisition.

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Poster Presentations

Morphological variability in L2 acquisition

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Several studies reported that second language speakers produce second language morphology variably (i.e. at varying accuracy rates). This study is an attempt to examine the predictions of some hypotheses that were postulated to account for this phenomenon.

Under the Universal Grammar (UG) theory, three hypotheses received much attention in the literature, namely the Representational Deficit Hypothesis (Hawkins & Liszka 2003), the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis (Lardiere 2007), and the Prosodic Transfer Hypothesis (Goad & White 2009). The RDH predicts that the presence or absence of morphological counterparts in the first language determines whether such morphemes are acquirable or not (i.e. L1 effects). The MSIH and the PTH attribute variability to phonological transfer and particularly a transfer of a ban on consonant clusters from the L1 to the L2. Chinese languages, for instance, do not allow consonant clusters at word final position. This fact, according to Lardiere (2003) promotes variability.

This study is an attempt to examine these hypotheses by comparing the use of three English morphemes (3sg, plural *-s* and past *-ed*) by two language groups (Arabic and Chinese). On the one hand, Arabic has morphological counterparts of the morphemes whereas Chinese languages lack such counterparts. In addition, Arabic allows consonant clusters in some contexts (e.g. CVCC) whereas Chinese languages do not. To test the hypotheses mentioned above, the following hypotheses will be examined:

- (1) If variability is caused by a transfer of a ban on consonant clusters, Chinese learners will show less variability in contexts where inflection does not entail consonant clusters (e.g. *plays* vs. *loves*).
- (2) In addition, the function of the morphemes shall not influence the accuracy rates. Learners should produce plural *-s* and third person singular *-s* at similar accuracy rates.
- (3) If the morphemes are acquirable only to learners whose L1s have morphological counterparts, Arabic learners should show less variability than Chinese learners.

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Accomplishment and delimitedness in some Italian manner-of-motion verbs.

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In Italian there are a few manner-of-motion verbs like *correre* ‘run’, *rotolare* ‘roll’ which display a variable syntactic behaviour. When they express activity without a bounded path they select the auxiliary *avere* ‘have’:

- (1) Maria ha corso per due ore
 Mary has.AUX.V.3SG run for two hours
 ‘Mary ran for two hours.’

While when they express movement to an end point they select auxiliary *essere* ‘be’;

- (2) Maria è corso a casa
 Mary is.AUX.V.3SG run to home
 ‘Mary ran home.’

So far scholars have devoted their attention to the end point of the trajectory of motion. *Goal* is the main concept related to this topic in the literature and it is the cover term for two distinct processes: one at the level of inner aspect involving the specification of a lexical feature and the other at the level of outer aspect involving the adjunction of a Prepositional Phrase that independently has an accomplishment interpretation.

This is the key difference between the two main recent approaches advanced on this issue. Folli (2005) claims that Italian unlike English, cannot form complex-eventive VP structures through *accomplishment adjunction* but it uses a process termed *accomplishment creation*, to form complex eventive VP structures with morphologically simple prepositions. For Zubizarreta & Oh (2007) only a complement structure gives rise to an accomplishment reading across the languages, in Italian the presence of auxiliary *essere* and of a *goal* denoting argument in sentence like (2) indicates a structure headed by an empty V.

What happens if we take into consideration the particle *via* ‘away’ which lexicalizes the source of the trajectory? When *via* follows verbs like *correre* the resulting forms have the characteristics of unaccusatives, that is, they select the auxiliary *essere* ‘be’ to form the past perfect and they trigger participial agreement. I will critically describe the two approaches above mentioned devoting my attention to the notion of accomplishment in the motion verbs under discussion and arguing for a phrase like-status of verbs like *correre*: I claim that constructions as *correre a* and *correre via* have the same phrasal verb structure with the implementation of the PP inside the verb

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Epistemic and deontic modality: A grammatical distinction?

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Despite the attention given to the interaction of markers of tense and aspect with modality, and particularly with the expression of modality through modal auxiliaries, the theoretical models proposed to address such interactions are often of considerable complexity and provide no definitive resolution for a number of issues (see e.g. Portner 2009: 222–47). A common premise found in much previous work in this area is the view that semantic categorisations such as the distinction between epistemic and deontic (or ‘root’) modality are basic distinctions directly reflected in the syntax or the lexicon (see further Sweetser 1990: 50–8; Palmer 1990: 5–23). The topic of modality is addressed here from a different perspective, the hypothesis that the considerable differences existing among the different types of modality at the level of abstract semantics are not distinguished within the grammar of many languages, including English, French, and German.

Unlike other theories based on such a premise (see e.g. Papafragou 2000), the analysis presented here attempts to account for the observed differences among modals corresponding to different categories of modality in their interactions with tense and aspect (e.g. Palmer 2001: 86–103), based on two principal considerations: the syntactic scope relations among markers of tense and modality, the latter being conceived as predicates that are held to denote concepts such as necessity, potentiality, and possibility in such a way that their membership in categories such as epistemic or deontic modality is undetermined; and the pragmatic conventions adopted by individual languages as means of resolving ambiguities of syntactic scope and enriching the underdetermined semantics of the grammatical forms involved. The efficacy of this model in accurately modelling the observed linguistic evidence and its cross-linguistic applicability will be discussed, as will its strengths and shortcomings in comparison with those of other analyses.

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A constraint-based model of word stress in PE acquisition

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In this paper a model will be proposed which describes and predicts word stress in Polish English (henceforth PE). This model builds on Burzio's (1994) proposal for English stress. However, Burzio's proposal will be modified and reformulated in terms of Optimality Theory. Two types of foot structure will be proposed to describe the PE stress system: a trochaic and a dactylic foot structure. Furthermore, a proposal of word final empty vowels is developed that might be interpreted in terms of optional, restricted extrametricality. PE stress learning turns out to be foot and syllable oriented, organized within an OT constraint hierarchy. Three salient and experimentally attested stress shift strategies of PE production stages will be presented (Marczak 2008, 2009).

- (1) At an early stage: 'from antepenult to penult', which essentially follows the Polish stress system (fre'quency, abi'lity).
- (2) At a later stage: 'from penult to antepenult' ('consensus, 'develop).
- (3) At an early stage as well – only for verbs: 'from a 'verbal' to a 'nominal' stress pattern ('entrust, 'prevail).

All three types of "error" co-occur with the correct English forms with the same speakers, except that at a VERY early stage penult stress is the only one observed. Remaining variation is unpredictable and may well be lexical (handled through IDSTRESS).

All three stress characteristics in PE follow from intermediate and unstable constraint rankings consisting of the following forms: *UNARYFT, *LONGFT, BINARYFT, RTMOSTPRIMARY FTHEADLT, IDSTRESS, *METRIFYU, METRIFYU_{VERB}.

It will be shown that the instability of the PE stress system may be identified with inherent factors of Boersma's Gradual Learning Algorithm (1998).

The evidence points not so much to straightforward Polish interference with an otherwise English system, but rather to an intermediate, unstable system wherein constraints migrate gradually from a Polish to an English position.

An advanced PE learner tries to use demotion/promotion learning strategies in the experiments so as to achieve a state of stable equilibrium with native stress patterns that will indicate a completed learning.

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Perception of voice quality by synaesthetes and non-synaesthetes

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Synaesthesia is a neurological condition in which stimulation in one sensory modality triggers perceptions in other modalities (see Simner 2007) for an overview of the most common types of synaesthesia). It is reported that in one type of synaesthesia, people's voices trigger colour and/or texture perceptions, independent of what the voice is saying. So Peter's voice for example might be perceived as dark green velvet whereas John's voice might be bright red with sharp edges. This type of synaesthesia has not yet been researched. We report an experiment in which synaesthetes are asked to describe their perceptions, choose a colour and a texture (each from a set of 16) which they think fits the voice best, and choose the strength of some attributes which describe the voice (e.g. rough vs. smooth, light vs. dark, grey vs. colourful). Two sentences spoken by two trained phoneticians in 10 different voice qualities each (e.g. nasal, whisper, falsetto, raised larynx) serve as stimuli. A control group of non-synaesthetes perform the same task. We expect to find that synaesthetes will be much more consistent in their colour and texture associations than non-synaesthetes. We also predict correlations between voice qualities and their acoustic features (like fundamental frequency and aperiodicity index) on one side and colour and texture associations on the other, as found for musical notes (Ward et al. 2006) and vowels (Marks 1975).

We hypothesise that synaesthetes who have synaesthetic experiences with voices will be better in speaker recognition than other naïve listeners as they perceive and process the voice with multiple sensory pathways and have more associations with the voice than just the sound of it. If results are positive a follow-up experiment in the field of forensic phonetics, most likely in form of a voice line-up experiment, will be conducted.

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A functional analysis of the three adverbs *certainly*, *surely* and *definitely*

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This study examines the synonymic expressions from functional perspective, paying particular attention to *certainly*, *surely* and *definitely*. In this paper, I will show the factors influencing the use of the three adverbs are strongly associated with the parameters of modality and discourse. The three adverbs are examined with the aim of exploring how their actual patterns of use vary, by analyzing corpus data.

It is well known that the three adverbs fall into the same semantic category and express a speaker's judgment about the certainty or probability of a proposition. However, a clear-cut usage determinant for them has not been provided in the literature. This paper, therefore, proposes some new clear guidelines for the use of the three adverbs.

For this purpose, I analyzed the data from the British National Corpus (BNC). First, all occurrences of *certainly*, *surely* and *definitely* were extracted from the corpus. Second, I examined these occurrences and collected and enumerated all the examples functioning as sentence adverbs. Third, they were coded for selected variables. The factors to be considered for this study are (i) whether or not they co-occur with modal expressions such as modal verbs, modal adverbs, and comment clauses (*I'm sure*, *I suppose*, *it seems*, ...); (ii) in what position they occur initial, medial or final; (iii) whether the subject in the clause where they appear is a pronoun or full NP; and (iv) whether or not they co-occur with adversatives such as *but*, *however*, *yet*, *nevertheless*, and so on.

The results of this analysis show that the three correlates closely with modal expressions, whereas there is a strong tendency for *surely* to fulfil the discourse function (Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, Hoyer 1997, Halliday 1970, cf. Thompson 1985). In sum, the three adverbs *certainly*, *surely* and *definitely* differ in the part that they play at a discourse-pragmatic level.

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Two types of topic-drop in German

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This poster argues that German topic-drop should be decomposed into *Nonverbatim Topic-Drop* (NVTD) and *Verbatim Topic-Drop* (VTD), which differ with regard to the type of empty category involved.

NVTD allows case mismatches between antecedent and dropped element. NVTD-gaps are limited to structural case (Nom, Acc) and constitute “real” empty pronouns, (1):

- (1) **Kuttes Kran** ist nichts passiert.
 Kutte’s crane.M.DAT is nothing happened
 ‘Nothing has happened to Kutte’s crane.’
 _NOM Hat nur ein bißchen gewackelt.
 has only a little toppled
 ‘(It) has only toppled a little.’ (DWDS-Corpus, BZ 08.01.1994)

Elements bearing non-structural case (oblique NPs, PPs) can only undergo VTD. The well-formedness of the VTD-gap is fully determined by its antecedent; both must carry the same (case and) finely granulated theta-role, (2). Therefore, I assume that VTD-gaps constitute PF-deleted copies of their antecedent.

- (2) Neapel liegt **am Meer.** (3) **Sein_{i/k}** **Auto** mag jeder_i Student.
 Naples lies at coast.M.PP His M.ACC car likes every student
 ‘Naples lies on the coast.’ ‘Every student likes his car.’
 _PP Liegt/*Ist Ostia auch. __{k/j} Mag jede Studentin_j auch.
 lies/is Ostia too likes every Student.F.NOM too
 ‘Ostia also lies (on the coast).’ ‘Every student likes (his/her car) as well.’

The NVTD/VTD distinction is also reflected by interpretational differences: structural case gaps embedded under different verbs in target and context allow only strict readings. Lexical and structural case gaps resulting from a non-rigid designator (as e.g. in (3)) and embedded under the same verb as their antecedent (= verbatim environment) can be interpreted either strictly or sloppily. With regard to VTD, which allows the sloppy interpretation, I will show on the basis of binding data like (3) that it is not simply the surface form of the antecedent which is copied from the context into the target, but a more abstract entity.

Furthermore, I will show that, contrary to standard assumptions (from Cardinaletti 1990 through to Sigurdsson to appear), 1st/2nd person objects are droppable, and that 1st/2nd person subject drop (in contrast to object drop and 3rd person subject drop) obeys different formal and pragmatic licensing conditions, suggesting that this is no topic-drop.

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Developmental comparison of lexicon in written narratives in Turkish and German of bilingual adolescents

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The focus of this paper is on the measurement of lexical richness and the lexical development of bilinguals in Germany. The proposed presentation here aims to characterize the development of lexicon in Turkish (mother tongue, usually the weaker written language) and German (usually the dominant written language) of Turkish-German bilingual adolescents born of immigrant parents in Germany. We compare lexical diversity, lexical density, and word length in both languages of bilinguals in written discourse and in both (narrative and expository). The corpus consists of data from the longitudinal study (LLDM - Free University of Berlin/ MULTILIT - University of Potsdam & Free University of Berlin) of bilinguals in 10th and 12th grade (secondary school) in Berlin, Germany.

The following research questions pertaining to the lexicon are addressed in our study:

Do lexical measures of diversity, density, and word and text length differ according to genre (narratives vs. expository)?

How does the lexical usage of bilinguals differ in Turkish and in German?

What, if any, cross-linguistic influences in the lexicon are found in Turkish and in German?

What patterns are characteristic of the language repertoire, use and shift within these groups?

Our first results show that lexical measures of diversity, density, and word and text length are sensitive to age. Genre plays a limited role in lexical usage though is apparent in choice of modal verbs and tense/aspect. We assume that German is the pupils' dominant language in written discourse in a German educational setting. Cross linguistic transfer is apparent in the lexical choices and collocations, as will be exemplified in our presentation.

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