WECOL 2017
October 19-21
Boise State University

Featured Plenary Speakers:

Dr. Martha Bigelow
University of Minnesota

Dr. Christine Sims
University of New Mexico
Linguistics Institute of Native Americans

Special Sessions on Language and Displacement and Undergraduate Research
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Plenary Addresses

Friday, October 20th

Language and Place: Cultural Literacy in Oral-based Traditions
Dr. Christine Sims
University of New Mexico and Linguistics Institute of Native Americans

Reflections on the integral connection between language and place will be examined through the lens of oral-based language traditions of the Southwest. Drawing on examples from her knowledge of her own Pueblo and other Native languages, Dr. Sims will address the ways in which Native language speakers use their knowledge of physical space and place as key aspects of oral language use and the development of cultural literacy within a linguistic community. The implications for language re-genesis and revitalization efforts in light of displacement and movement away from traditional ecologies of language use will be explored.

Saturday, October 21st

New to school and new to print: Insights on language learning among refugee-background students
Dr. Martha Bigelow
University of Minnesota

This presentation will share research on how classroom language learning can meet the needs of newcomer refugee-background adolescents with limited formal schooling. Data show how the cultural and linguistic assets refugee-background youth bring to class can facilitate learning and challenge the status quo of interaction research in the field of second language acquisition.
Quantificational Structures in Karuk

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In her 2001 paper, Lisa Matthewson makes the strong claim that quantifiers combine with
determiner phrases as in (Fig 1), and are thus distinct from determiners, based on her work with
St’at’imcets. She shows that in St’at’imcets, quantifiers only combine with a determiner phrase, and not
plain noun phrases, and then argues that this structure is universal cross-linguistically, and re-analyzes
English quantification to fit this structure. In this paper, I further assess that claim in light of data from the
Karuk language, spoken in Northern California. I argue that in Karuk, in addition to the definite marker
*pa*, there is a null indefinite determiner. Both of these head determiner phrases, which can then combine
with quantifiers. This provides evidence that Matthewson’s quantificational structure applies not only to
St’at’imcets, but more generally cross-linguistically as well.

If we look at Karuk quantification over noun phrases, in the vast majority of cases, quantifiers
like *taay* ‘many’, combine with determiner phrases headed by the definite determiner *pa*, as in (1). These
constructions follow Matthewson’s proposal for quantificational structures. However, there do exist
constructions in which quantifiers combine with noun phrases without the presence of an overt
determiner, such as in (2). These constructions do not seem to conform to Matthewson’s proposal.

Since some of the quantified noun phrases without *pa* have possessive inflection as in (3), instead
of positing a null indefinite determiner, one possible analysis for quantified noun phrases without *pa*
could be analyzing the possession marker itself as a determiner. However, as (4) shows, the possessor can
also appear in a possessed noun phrase, and is dropped optionally, consistent with Karuk being a pro-drop
language. Furthermore, if we also take into account that possession marking can co-occur with an overt
definite marker as in (5), these facts then indicate that possession marking on nouns is inflection, rather
than the presence of a determiner.

Karuk quantified noun phrases do however fit into Matthewson’s structure of quantification if we
posit that Karuk has a null indefinite determiner. Quantificational structures without the overt determiner
*pa* would then be quantifiers combining with a determiner phrase headed by this null indefinite
determiner. Evidence for this determiner is not limited to quantification. (6) shows how noun phrases
with no overt determiner have an indefinite meaning, in contrast to (7), where the overt determiner *pa*
results in definite meaning. Then, Karuk quantificational structures like (1) and (2), and possessive
constructions like (3) and (4) are in fact distinguished in definiteness, but because this distinction is not
made for these constructions in English, the free translations for (1-4) also do not distinguish
definiteness.

To conclude, if we assess Karuk quantification in terms of Matthewson’s proposal for
quantification, we find that Karuk quantificational structures do follow the structure of quantifiers
combining with determiner phrases, so long we posit a null indefinite determiner. The existence of this
determiner is further supported from contrasts in meaning between noun phrases with and without the
over determiner *pa*. Thus, given that Matthewson’s proposal holds for Karuk, and gives us insight into
indefiniteness and possession in Karuk, Karuk quantificational structures provide further cross-linguistic
evidence for Matthewson’s quantificational structures.
All data come from Ararahih'uripih: A Dictionary and Text Corpus of the Karuk Language
http://linguistics.berkeley.edu/~karuk/
Alphanumeric codes refer to text and line number within the corpus

(1) Sally uum [taay pa-púsíhich] u-thiíná-tih
       Sally 3.SG much the-cat.(dimin.) 3s(>3)-have-DUR
       Sally has lots of cats. (SD-VS-01)

(2) [taay púsíhich] tá ni-mah
       much cat.(dimin.) PERF 1s(>3)-see
       I see lots of cats. (SD-VS-01)

(3) uum [táay mu-sunyithih'ásar] u-shavsiprin-ahi
       3.SG much 3sPOSS-chinquarinji. juicy 3s(>3)-pay.as.fee-ESS
       He was paid much chestnut mush for treating him. (DAF_KT_03)

(4) [Vina mu-'ifuni] uum taahkúnish
       Vina 3sPOSS-hair 3.SG white
       Vina has white hair. (SD-VS-01)

(5) käri xás u-paathkúri pa-mu-kutraahíthan
       then then 3s(>3)-throw.into the-3sPOSS-coat
       And he threw his coat in the water. (WB_KL-05)

(6) xás káan askitávaan u-tápkuup
       then there woman 3s(>3)-like
       He liked a woman there. (WB_KL-25)

(7) xás t-óo mnish pa-únuhich
       then PERF-3s(>3) cook the-kidney
       Then he cooked the kidney. (ALK_14-35)

(Fig 1) from Matthewson 2001

Hundreds of years of trauma and forced assimilation post-European contact have had and continue to have a deep impact on many aspects of Native American life. Language attrition and identity struggles are some of the largest symptoms of displacement of tribal community members/citizens from a centralized community (Crystal, 2000; Harrison, 2007; McCarty & Zepeda, 2010). Without immediate access to cultural activities and a community of practice, these peripheral Native American community members grow up in a dominant culture, excluded from both their heritage and its respective language (Garrett, 1996; Garroute, 2003). Specifically for those who seek to reclaim and reconnect with their community, it is not uncommon for them to become heritage language learners (HLLs) (Hale & Hinton, 2001; Nicholas, 2009; Peter, 2014; Kickham, 2015; White, 2015). Since these HLLs are also distance-learners, the usual and often studied methods of language revitalization (i.e., immersion, master-apprentice programs, in-person classes) will not be applicable. Using Cherokee HLLs as a case study, this research analyzes the results of a language attitudes survey distributed to pilot testers of a beta Cherokee language mobile app, which reveal that Cherokee distance-HLLs place a higher importance on having access to distance-learning materials that instill meaningful, everyday, and culturally relevant phrases -- instead of on such things as random vocabulary lists and linguistic/grammar rules -- in order to use the language as a means of community access and inclusion. As Shaul (2014) asserts, communities of practice must adapt their revitalization efforts to their needs; therefore, as is evidenced for Cherokee distance-HLLs, efforts must be made to create new and innovative resources for other peripheral Native American HLLs.

References


Literature concerning learners’ reading abilities documents a proven association between visual-spatial knowledge and reading ease in monolingual children. Researchers in this field have presented evidence to show that visual-spatial awareness is essential for the growth and improvement of literacy among unilingual children. A study by Valentina Tobia and Gian Marco conducted to investigate the elements that indicate reading fluency in Italian Orthography examined the relationship between linguistic and visual-spatial attention processes in forecasting how fluent children in preschool fare in reading Italian (Tobia & Marzocchi, 2014). Their findings suggest that vocabulary and verbal short-term memory (VSTM) are important in making predictions of reading fluency despite being weak. Besides, the roles of these predictors change as students become more skilled.

In a different study, Hoyeon Kim explored the issues concerning predictors in the determination of reading difficulties in children in their early years (Kim, 2004). The study found all signs of visual awareness skills to have significant positive correlation with each other. Accordingly, the findings indicated significant association between eye movement, interchangeable elements, and rapid naming inconsistencies suggesting that phonological responsiveness is an important indicator in establishing learning difficulties in learners. Most studies deduce that perceptual practices should be considered as the primary indicators of comprehension ability because of restrictions that surround the scale and quality of the association between comprehension and perceptual abilities (Tobia & Marzocchi, 2014; Kim, 2004, Liu, Chen & Wang, 2016).

Based on the implicated studies, it is evident that a majority of researchers focus on investigating the effects of visual-spatial attentiveness on the comprehension ability of unilingual children. Hence, there is a gap in literature concerning bilingual children indicating a need for more studies in this area. Consequently, the current study provides new insights through studying the association between visual-spatial awareness and L2 comprehension skills in multilingual children. The study’s methodology involves using an IQ test and a reading fluency test on children in their first grade of schooling. Hence, the study is designed to measure visual-spatial awareness and consist of 208 questions presented as multiple choices. Besides, the questions are based on a test developed by Dr. William A. McConochie, a psychologist. The study participant is an Arabic bilingual child who started learning English at the age of four. Accordingly, the second measure tests reading fluency and involves asking the responded to read 20 passages, each in 1 minute. The child’s ability to read over ten words in each paragraph qualifies her to restate the narrative within a minute. The main aim of this measure was to investigate of the child could comprehend the contents of the reading material.

The findings of the study indicate above average performance concerning child’s ability to achieve visual spatial awareness. Concerning reading ability, the findings indicated that the child was at the grade level because she scored 32.4%, which is lower than the recommended grade appropriate comprehension confidence of 60 accurate vocabularies per minute (Good & Kaminski & Dill, 2002). The study provides significant insights concerning visual spatial awareness among bilingual children. However, the findings do not represent overall insights from other bilingual children because only one child participated in the study. Hence, other studies should investigate a similar concept using a larger sample size and in multiple language areas.

References

This presentation reports on oral proficiency data for upper-division Spanish students in the Department of World Languages at Boise State University from 2014-2017 (N=339). The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation now mandate that Spanish teachers reach an advanced-low level of proficiency. It is imperative, therefore, that U.S. foreign-language (FL) programs prepare FL teacher candidates and FL majors alike to achieve advanced-level oral proficiency according to ACTFL criteria. The data reveal that 81.5% of graduates in the Spanish Program meet the advanced benchmark as was determined via an advisory rating for Oral Proficiency Interviews (OPI). These findings are surprising in light of a recent study involving 2890 FL teacher certification candidates (Glisan, Swender & Surface 2013), whereby nearly half (46%) scored below the advanced-low level. The participants in this study, however, contribute to interesting and increasing trends in diverse linguistic backgrounds that characterize the complexities associated with Spanish-English bilingualism in the U.S. and the way oral proficiency gains are measured and targeted in a typical FL classroom and program. Specifically, four linguistic backgrounds were analyzed according to the OPI score: 1) Second-language learners, 2) Extended Study Abroad Learners (<1.5+ years), 3) Heritage Language Learners, and 4) Native Speakers. These trends help dispel problems with bleaching notions of what it means to be “advanced” or “bilingual”. Thus, this presentation will conclude with a practical application for advanced-level FL pedagogy as a result of this on-going study. Specifically, it will underscore the need for FL programs to differentiate assessments and linguistic outcomes according to the diversity of linguistic backgrounds represented, specifically, at the upper-division level.

References

A major observation in the literature on Spanish interrogatives is that preverbal lexical subjects in interrogatives cannot cooccur with certain types of wh-. Two prevalent analyses in the field have been proposed by Torrego (1984) and by Suñer (1994). Accordingly, they consider the phenomenon to be related to an argument/adjunct distinction (Torrego) or an argument/non-argument distinction (Suñer). If an argumental wh-word is fronted, the subject must be postverbal (1)a, but this effect does not occur if the wh- word corresponds to an adjunct -(1)b. A crucial difference between Suñer’s and Torrego’s analyses has to do with the placement of the verb in subject inversion contexts generated by interrogatives: for Suñer V is in TP and for Torrego V is in CP.

Given the finer elaboration of the left periphery by Rizzi (1997) and more recent work by López (2009), Villa-Garcia (2015), the proposals on subject inversion with interrogatives must be revised, especially because additional contexts unrelated to the original generalizations do not trigger inversion.

In this paper, I propose that subject-verb inversion in interrogative clauses in Spanish is in no way related to the argument/non-argument; argument/adjunct distinction. Instead, I argue that the inversion effects and their absence follow from the referential/specific nature of the wh-words and the licensing requirements of FinP, which is in turn is a phase. Consider first the cases where subject inversion must be obligatory such as (1)-(3). The asymmetry argument/adjunct related to inversion vanishes if the displaced constituent is inherently nonspecific or can hardly be taken as specific. This is illustrated by wh-adjuncts which force inversion -(2)a and (2)b and by aggressively non D-linked wh-words -(2)c-(2)d. This obligatory inversion pattern is consistent with focus fronting which requires strict adjacency between the fronted DP and the verb -(3). Even more revealing cases are found when wh-fronting of an argument is expected to trigger inversion but this does not occur. Thus, preverbal lexical subjects can cooccur if the wh- is specific or D-linked -(4)a-(4)b, and interestingly, if an assertion marker is present (Inclán Nichol 1997)-(4)c.

In an elaborated left periphery such as Rizzi (1997) -see (5)- in which wh-words and focus fronting are uniformly licensed in the specifier of Focus Phrase, it is difficult to explain the lack of inversion in (4). This is because the crucial property in non-inversion cases is the obligatory specificity of both the wh-word and the lexical subject. Thus, although multiple dislocations are possible (6)a, Rizzi’s system predicts no contrast with non-inversion environments, which is not the case -cfr. (4)c with (6)b.

This puzzle can be solved if FinP is taken as a phase as in López (2009), which I assume to encode φ-features and edge features. Movement can be triggered by Agree as in Chomsky (2001) but also movement can be caused by the uninterpretable features of the goal as in Bošković (2007). At the point where the Finº phase is constructed, the lexical subject as well as any CLLD constituent or wh- in [Spec, vP] (i.e. the edge of the previous phase) are active and contain uninterpretable features. This situation triggers massive displacement to the [Spec, FinP]. Obligatory inversion as observed in (1)a and (2) and in focus fronting constructions -(3) obtains after the wh-word moves to the [Spec, FinP] and the verb moves to Finº to check the uninterpretable φ-features, licensing indirectly the lexical subject in [Spec, TP] (see (7)a). When subject-verb inversion apparently fails to occur, however, it is the lexical subject which moves to [Spec, FinP] to delete Finº’s φ-features and receive Case (see (7)b). The specificity effect of (6)b is derived precisely by this mechanism: non-D-linked/nonspecific require Agree to be attracted, but this operation is not active anymore if the lexical subject has been already attracted, Finº is not active anymore. In contrast, D-linked and specific wh-phrases being inherently presuppositional and definite (Rullman and Beck 1998) are able to make an intermediate stop at the Finº phase on its way to [Spec, Top]. This occurs even if the lexical subject or any other dislocated element occupies [Spec, FinP] because Agree is not involved and because uninterpretable features of the D-linked/specific wh would fail to be spelt out in the complement of Finº.
(1)  a. ¿A quién llamó Carmen?  
    ACC who call:3PST Carmen  
b. ¿Por qué Carmen llamó a Cristina?  
    for what Carmen call:3PST ACC Cristina  
(2)  a. ¿Cómo le contestó Juan la pregunta?  
    how DAT=answer:PST Juan the question  
b. *¿Cómo Juan le contestó la pregunta?  
    how Juan DAT=answer:3PST the question  
c. ¿Dónde diablos saludó Juan a la actriz?  
    where devils greet:3PST Juan ACC the actress  
d. *¿Dónde diablos Juan saludó a la actriz?  
    where devils Juan greet:3PST ACC the actress  
(3)  a. LA CARTA escribió Juan (pero no el ensayo)  
    the letter write:3PST Juan (but NEG the essay)  
b. *LA CARTA Juan escribió (pero no el ensayo)  
    the letter Juan write:3PST (but NEG the essay)  
(4)  a. ¿A cuál estudiante Carmen llamó el fin de semana?  
    ACC which student Carmen call:3PST the end of week  
b. ¿A quién de los presentes Carmen saludó en la fiesta?  
    ACC whom of the persons Carmen meet:3PST in the party  
c. ¿A quién Carmen sí llamó?  
    ACC whom Carmen AFF call:3PST  
(5)  FORCEP-------TOP*-------FOCP-------TOP*-------FINP---- TP  
(6)  a. ¿A quién (esta carta) Carmen (esta carta) la escribió?  
    ACC whom (this letter) Carmen (this letter) ACC write:3PST  
b. *¿Qué Wiles si resolvió?  
    what Wiles AFF solve:3PST  
(7)  a. [FinP whi V+Fin°[TP DP][j] Subject-j ...T°[vP ti ... (subject-verb inversion)]  
b. [TopP which NP][FinP ti DP][j] Subject-j Fin°[TP tj ...T°[vP ti ... (absence of inversion)]  

Selected references

The present paper questions the assumption that non-native acquisition in contact situations leads to an inevitable simplification process of grammatical structures. We show that in the specific case of Equatorial Guinean Spanish (EGS), a simplified consonant inventory and a relatively simplified syllabic structure, can create the conditions leading to the emergence of lexical tone, a complexity not found in Castilian Spanish -see comparison in (1). Although EGS is a variety deeply influenced by the vernacular tonal languages spoken in the Equatorial Guinea, lexical tone is not automatically transferred to EGS but only partially: high tones are identified with prominent syllables (Lipski 2015) -see example (2). This outcome can be interpreted as an “interrupted process” as argued for creoles and language contact varieties in McWhorter (1998, 2007).

In typological studies, tonogenesis has been regarded as the linguistic process behind the creation of lexical tone (Hombert et al 1979), in which the quality of consonant segments and the syllabic structure play a fundamental role. In particular, Maddieson (2007) found that larger consonant inventories tend to correlate with increasing tone complexity and also that the more complex the syllable structure becomes, the lower the complexity of tones. Using data published by Quilis and Casado-Fresnillo (1995) and Bibang Oyee (2002), we compare Castilian, the vernaculars Bube and Fang, and EGS, and find that two different processes are involved -see table in (3): simplification of the consonant inventory and development of the syllabic structure from the universal CV towards a more complex pattern.

Simplification is mostly found at earlier stages in EGS. Accordingly, the consonant inventory in EGS displays a preference for typologically unmarked segments such that complex segments in the inventory of the vernaculars or the target language are avoided. For example, double articulated consonants in Fang are never transferred to the interlanguage and the rare segment /θ/ from Castilian Spanish is reported not to be attained in EGS. Additionally, transfer from the vernaculars to EGS occurs only if there is close similarity with the target language. Transfer in this scenario creates equivalent segments (stop consonants p, b, k, g) or quasi-identical segments (coronal consonants). In addition, syllabic structure follows a similar trend but with some qualifications. As Castilian Spanish shows more complex patterns of syllabic structure than the vernaculars, an initial outcome in EGS is simplification reinforced by the structures in the vernaculars. However, the data also shows that EGS seems to follow a developmental pattern well attested in typological studies and L1/L2 acquisition in which codas are universally developed earlier than onsets: CV >>CV/CVCC>>CCVCC. Thus, complex onsets are generally simplified in EGS as in cubrir “cover” (realized as [ku-bí] whereas codas with nasals are also allowed in the interlanguage as in álbum “album” (realized as [al-bu], [al-bũ], [album] but cfr. [al-bun] in Castilian Spanish).

As tonogenesis requires a relatively large consonant inventory and a very simple syllabic structure (CV), EGS does not develop lexical tone distinctions because EGS tends to simplification of the consonant inventory size and development of syllabic structure towards the patterns of Castilian. Then tonogenesis gets interrupted and EGS only shows partial transfer of phonetic distinctions. Finally, this study also suggests that although Equatorial Guinean Spanish (EGS) has been described as “a (bilingual) dialect” (Hualde et al 2009; Lipski 1999, 2008) or as a second language (Vuskovic 2013), the patterns observed in the interlanguage suggest ingredients from second language acquisition (transfer and simplification) and creole development (lack of distinctive lexical tone). This indicates that EGS is probably best described as an interlanguage at different levels of fossilization. Non-native acquisition of EGS lies between two extremes: at one extreme, this interlanguage is heavily influenced by dissimilarities between Castilian and the vernaculars; at the other, the interlanguage is influenced by the prescriptive norms of Castilian taught in schools and other formal institutions.
(1) Presence of lexical tone

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vernacular languages</th>
<th>Castilian Spanish</th>
<th>Equatorial Guinean Spanish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes (H/L), distinctive</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Yes (H/L), non-distinctive see also (2) below</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wèèà “month”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wèèá “shrimp”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(2) Equatorial Guinean Spanish High tone= H, Low tone=L
(Fang woman living in Malabo reported by Lipski 2008)

(3) Comparison of Bube, Fang, Castilian Spanish and Equatorial Guinean Spanish

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonant inventory</th>
<th>Syllable structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Complex inventory with some rare segments; but also with simple segments and oppositions.</td>
<td>Simple CV. No complex onsets; some (simple) codas are allowed but with restrictions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple inventory with some complex segments and oppositions.</td>
<td>Moderately complex as it allows complex onsets and complex codas C(C)V(C)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very simplified inventory with respect to Castilian and the vernaculars</td>
<td>More complex syllable than vernaculars but simpler than Castilian CV(C)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References


Fatherese: The Missing Link of L1 Acquisition in Young Children
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From the moment that a baby is developing within its mother’s womb, it is experiencing language. Language, as defined by Jean Berko Gleason (1997), is a “symbolic system, based on syntactic, semantic, and phonetic features, that allows mutually intelligible communication within a group of speakers” (479). Given that the baby resides within the mother for the first nine months of its existence, it acquires much of its language exposure from its mother. However, in the case of a deaf parent, the child might receive auditory language from those around the mother. If the child is also deaf, it will acquire visually expressive language from the antenatal period on.

After birth, the child will continue to acquire language from its mother, typically in the form of motherese, or mother’s speak. This type of speech is characteristically described as being simplified grammar with an exaggerated tone while occasionally performed in a repetitive loop. Motherese is heavily studied within the sub-field of Child Language. In the past, researchers have performed several studies in order to better understand the way that mothers speak to their children and how their children can acquire their L1, or first language, from the mother-child interactions. However, past researchers have not thoroughly investigated male caregivers’ speech, which for the purpose of this thesis I will call fatherese, and how it can affect the way that a child uses their language. As a result of this limited research, I chose to analyze features of fatherese in comparison to motherese and how it affects childhood L1 acquisition. I analyzed the conversations of four children under the age of five and their separate interactions with both their mother and their father from the Gleason Corpus within the CHILDES (The Child Language Data Exchange System) Corpus. From this analysis, I discovered a male driven influence to how children interact in respect to their perceived gender norms.
An Eye-Tracking Study: Disciplinary Teacher’s Assessment of L1 & L2 Texts
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Applied linguists are interested in the cognitive processes of writing teachers within the subfields of both second language writing and writing assessment. Such cognitive insights as how a teacher reads and scores a piece of L2 writing can have an impact on the way in which second languages are taught and assessed in writing classrooms. This is particularly relevant as increasing numbers of L2 students matriculate into disciplinary courses traditionally designed for native-English speakers.

Prior research has shown that, across all disciplines, teachers are affected by language in the text that diminish comprehensibility, fluency, and the efficacy of the argument. These include errors of grammar and vocabulary usage (Lindsey & Crusan, 2011). Teachers also have demonstrated ethnolinguistic bias by giving lower scores because of characteristics of the student, such as student’s names and ethnic background (Rubin & Williams-James, 1997). We also know, from think-aloud protocol methodologies, that raters evaluate L1 and L2 texts on different criteria, even when using the same rubric (Song & Caruso, 1996). That being said, we still do not know the cognitive processes associated with how disciplinary teachers specifically read, score, and evaluate L1 and L2 texts.

Thus, we have gathered first-year disciplinary teachers who evaluate both native and non-native students, but are not necessarily trained to teach non-native students, in order to discover how they assess student texts. With an eye-tracker, we can understand teachers’ cognitive processes during reading and further, we can single out errors in a text that are affecting comprehension and processing (Anson & Schwegler, 2012). This is done by having participants read low-proficiency, authentic L1 and L2 texts. Teachers were asked to evaluate each text immediately after reading it based on a quasi-holistic rubric addressing rhetoric, organization, word choice, and grammar. The texts were coded by interest areas based on the four areas on the rubric, for example transitions or grammar errors. The eye tracking data in these interest areas, which included total dwell time and other measures of early and late reading processes were then analyzed using t-tests.

Overall, disciplinary teachers spend more time looking at organization and word choice than rhetoric or grammar. Disciplinary teachers mostly read the rhetoric and grammar portions of the two texts the same. Within organization, disciplinary teachers focused on the native text in their early and late reading processes, such as spending more time reading the native organization areas initially. For the late reading processes, teachers went back to the organization interest areas of the native text more frequently and spent more time in them. This could be due to the more cognitively complicated nature of the organizational structure of the native text compared to the simplistic transitions used in the non-native text. For word choice, the disciplinary teachers initially skipped the word choice areas of the native text but then returned to them.

As a preliminary study, the conclusions that can be drawn are descriptive in nature. From this experiment, we can discover if disciplinary teachers read native and non-native texts differently, are affected by non-native errors differently than native errors, and if and how they let these errors affect their assessment of the text. These findings can contribute to our knowledge of rater biases, especially ethnolinguistic and linguistic biases in writing assessment. More importantly, this research demonstrates an effective use of eye-tracking methodologies for measuring cognitive processes of interest to applied linguists and language teachers.


Case stacking as a post-syntactic operation

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This paper investigates “case stacking”, which is believed to shed new light on the relationship between case assignment and theta role assignment. In a typical case stacking construction, two case morphemes are attached to the same NP, thereby one morpheme is “stacked” upon another. In this paper, I argue that the constructions that have been labeled as case stacking actually consist of two different things, genuine case stacking and pseudo case stacking. I propose that both kinds of case stacking are post-syntactic and that Optimality Theory framework can be used to explain cross-linguistic variations regarding case realization.

Previous literature has identified Korean as a typical case-stacking language based on data such as example (1). The stacked morpheme in such constructions has been argued to be a structural case marker (e.g. Gerdzte and Youn 1988 etc.); in other words, the NP has both an inherent and a structural case. Proponents of this analysis argue that case stacking challenges the Chain Condition (Yoon 1996), which regulates that a nominal can only bear one unique case in a maximal Chain (Chomsky 1986). Yet, Schütze(2001) challenges this analysis and proposes that the stacked case morpheme is a focus marker.

Following Schütze, I argue that the stacked morphemes in Korean are in nature focus markers that are allomorphic to the structural case markers. Thus, “case stacking” is a mislabel and Korean constructions such as example (1) should be differentiated from genuine case stacking where the stacked morphemes are indeed genuine case markers. With this separation, I propose that genuine case stacking is a post-syntactic operation and we can account for it without violating the Chain Condition since the additional case is not assigned to the case-stacked NP through structural licensing.

Direct evidence that supports my argument comes from the different syntactic behavior and distributions of the stacked and unstacked case morpheme in Korean. Additionally, negative constructions in Korean, as shown in example (2), confirm the existence of a focus marker that is allomorphic to but independent from the structural case marker. In (2), the “case morpheme” ka is attached to the main verb of the clause, which arguably cannot be case-marked. Furthermore, example (3) demonstrates that the stacking-ka can be attached to NPs with overt nominative-case marking, directly challenging the traditional case-marker analysis. Evidence for the argument that case stacking is post-syntactic comes from the observation that in genuine case stacking constructions such as the Lardil example (4), the case-stacked NP holds no independent relationship with the licensor of the additional, stacked case.

It is worth noticing that although Korean should not be considered as a case stacking language, it should not be attributed to the same category as other non-case-stacking languages either. Compare the Korean example (5) and the Turkish example (6), and it is evident that only Korean allows case alternation. As shown in (5), the Korean case-alternating NP cannot be an independent argument of the verb. Interestingly, the same restriction applies to case stacking as mentioned in the previous discussion, except that in Korean, only one case-morpheme can be realized at a time. This similarity motivates me to propose that both the case-stacked NP in (4) and the case-alternating NP in (5) receive the additional case through case concord, akin to how adjectives receive case from the NPs they modify. This means that when structural case is assigned, it is always assigned to the topmost DP projection and spread down to every nominal eligible for case marking within that projection, regardless of whether the nominal is already case-marked. As a result, some NPs, such as the possessor, will have more than one case.

This case concord, I argue, happens in all languages in the morphological component of the grammar. At the same time, languages can make different choices on whether and what to spell out in PF. To explain this cross-linguistic variation between languages that allow case stacking, languages that allow case alternation and languages that allow neither, I take advantage of the Optimality Theory framework. Specifically, case stacking is favored by the constraint ALL, which is violated if any of the NP’s cases is left unrealized morphologically. The other two constraints that are involved are STRUC—for structural—and INHR—for inherent, both requiring the NP to pick only one case morpheme to spell out. These three constraints are presented in (7). And the interaction of ALL, STRUC and INHR then partitions the set of languages with overt case marking into three groups shown in (8).

With the post-syntactic operations discussed in this paper, I show that a unified analysis can be established for both case stacking and case alternation and that neither of these constructions violate the Chain Condition as they were thought to.
(1) Na-eykey-ka paym- i mwusepta. [Korean]
I-DAT-NOM snake-NOM fearful
‘I am afraid of snakes.’ (Yoon 1996)

(2) Yocm un pap-i mek.hici-ka anita [Korean]
these-days rice at-all be-eaten-ka NEG
‘These days I just cannot eat anything at all.’ (Lee&Ramsey 2000)

(3) Ku pan eyes Milan-i-ka ceyil yeyp- e [Korean]
The class in Milan-NOM-NOM most pretty-INT
‘Milan is the prettiest in that class.’ (Sohn 1999)

(4) Ngada latha karnjin-i marun-ngan-ku maarn-ku [Lardil]
I spear wallaby-ACC boy-GEN-INST spear-INST
‘I speared the wallaby with the boy’s spear.’ (Richards, 2007)

(5) John-u/i son-i cukta. [Korean]
John-GEN/NOM hands-NOM small
‘John’s hands are small/John has small hands.’ (Wunderlich 2014)

(6) Adam-in oğl-u mekteb-e gid-er. [Turkish]
man-GEN son-3sg school-DAT go-PRES
‘The man’s son goes to school.’ (Underhill 1972)

(7) a. ALL: Spell out all case morphemes assigned.
b. STRUC: Only spell out the structural case.
c. INHR: Only spell out the inherent case.

(8) a. Group I – Lardil type of languages with genuine case stacking:
   ALL >> STRUC/INHR
b. Group II – Korean type of languages with case alternation:
   STRUC/INHR >> STRUC
c. Group III – Turkish type of languages with neither case stacking nor case alternation:
   INHR >> STRUC >> ALL

Reference
An empathetic patient-practitioner relationship has been shown to improve treatment and recovery among patients (Halpern 2003), and decrease the likelihood of malpractice suits among medical professionals (Robbennolt 2009). It is, therefore, puzzling why an empathetic approach to medical education through medical humanities has not been more widely adopted.

The Medical humanities are a subdiscipline of the medical field seeking to unite medicine and the arts to create new perspectives and provide a more rounded education for medical students (Evans and Greaves 2010). The interdisciplinary field includes topics such as literature, philosophy, ethics, history, psychology, sociology, and graphic narrative — placing emphasis on relationships and human-ness within the medical education.

Strong relationships between doctors and patients are built on trust, humanness, and empathy. Medical work is inherently human; however, far too often there is a lack of human-ness present in the practice due to ideologies promoting detachment. Operating from a discourse analytic perspective, I present a dissection of the place of graphic medicine in medical education grounded on the visual semiotic theories of Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) and Jewitt and Oyama (2001).

Through analysis of graphic medical narratives created by fourth year medical students (Green 2015), I propose that the medical humanities, specifically through the reading and creation of graphic narratives, need to be more widely incorporated into medical education. The medical humanities have been at Penn State College of Medicine since the college opened its doors in 1967, and was the first medical humanities department in the United States. Michael Green, Professor of Humanities and Medicine at Penn State, teaches and researches graphic medicine; I draw my data from his students.

Graphic medicine is a form of graphic narrative that allows those suffering with, treating, or caring for loved ones with an illness (Green and Myers 2010) a creative form of expression that isn’t available through verbal communication alone (Kress 2000). Through the semiotic analysis of the representational, interpersonal, and compositional metafunctions of four graphic narratives composed by medical students at Penn State College of Medicine, I explore the significance of empathy in the doctor-patient interaction.

The study of these graphic narratives reveals that a sincere empathetic approach to medical practice is valuable to patients and their families, as well as to doctors and medical students. Such principles must be implemented from the beginning of medical education by way of the inclusion of the medical humanities including the reading and creation of graphic narratives.
This paper attempts to add to the growing field of linguistic research in identity by exploring prevalent ideologies surrounding women’s sexual identity and the ways in which those identities are discursively constructed. Taking inspiration from research already conducted in the field (VanderStouwe 2016), as well as, popular constructions of women’s overt sexual fluidity (Chapin 2014), this paper analyzes the discourse of four college-aged women – each of whom has had sexual experiences with men, women, and other genders – through a sociolinguistic lens. Despite recent research conducted by the CDC (Copen 2016), and common conceptions of women holding less stringently to sexual identity labels (Kerner 2012), this paper chooses to draw upon further ideologies, such as that of the “L.U.G.” (Lesbian Until Graduation) (Lewin 2011), to hypothesize that women have clear, concrete definition of their own sexual identities.

Three broad categories emerged from the data and form the primary basis through which this paper answers its hypothesis: when following a question specifically related to identity (i.e. “How do you identify sexually?”), each speaker prefaced their turn with a statement of uncertainty (i.e. “I don’t know”); each speaker was reluctant to choose a preexisting label for their identities (e.g. “I’m not straight but I wouldn’t say I was bi”); and finally, a number of hesitations (extra-long prosody, rising intonation at the end of statements, pauses, repetitions, etc.) featured heavily throughout each of the speaker’s turns. When analyzed as a whole, these categories are interpreted as disproving the hypothesis on which this paper is based. However, rather than confirm preexisting ideologies, this paper suggests that there is a lexical gap wherein no terms currently exist to adequately and accurately encapsulate these women’s experiences.

As this is a topic that is increasingly being discussed in the media and popular culture, this paper concludes by urging that further research be done with a greater number of subjects, and in particular the inclusion of male subjects, so that the idea of sexually fluidity can be more fully explored.
Bibliography


English learners are a diverse group entering our schools with a wide range of backgrounds and needs. Many of them readily develop the necessary language skills, are able to access grade-level subject area content knowledge, and progress satisfactorily in school. However, there are other English learners who have had limited or interrupted formal education and for whom school presents major challenges beyond learning a new language. This subpopulation of ELs, also known as SLIFE (Students with Limited or Interrupted Formal Education), faces significant obstacles, especially at the secondary level, where they have little time to learn English, build grade-level content knowledge, and develop necessary literacy skills (DeCapua, Tang, & Smathers, 2007). While there are numerous reasons why SLIFE struggle, I argue that for many it is not only the new language, literacy issues and the unfamiliar subject area content, but also—and more critically—the nature of formal education itself that is the barrier to their success. In this paper, I examine who SLIFE are and the obstacles they face in the context of the assumptions and expectations of Western-style formal education.

The Western-style of formal education predominant in the U.S. and found globally, albeit with cultural variations (Grigorenko, 2007), is predicated on logic, analysis, reasoning, and literacy. Successful participants in this type of education develop strong literacy skills and specific modes of discourse and interaction styles. Moreover, they develop academic ways of thinking, or what Flynn (2007) calls “scientific spectacles,” leading them to understand and interpret the world differently than those who have not been so educated. While many ELs find success in this education model, many others, especially SLIFE, find this style of schooling so disorienting as to prevent them from accessing either the language they must now learn or the subject matter content they must master.

Because SLIFE have not fully participated in Western-style formal education, they have cognitively different ways of understanding and interpreting the world (Mejía-Arauz, Roberts, & Rogoff, 2012; Rogoff, 2003). They view the world as a concrete, functional one, dominated by real-life, or pragmatic ways of thinking. Once they are in the U.S. educational system, however, SLIFE are asked to learn academic language and concepts removed from their prior experience-based knowledge. They are required to practice and demonstrate language skills and knowledge through new and unfamiliar decontextualized tasks that presuppose literacy and that are based on academic ways of thinking, ones vastly different from their accustomed ways of thinking. In addition, while the literacy skills of SLIFE vary, their use and understanding of literacy rarely intersects with the cultural expectations and assumptions of the U.S. classroom (Dudley-Marling & Lucas, 2009; Street, 2011). Thus, SLIFE are confounded by the means in which language and content are presented, practiced, and assessed in U.S. classrooms.

Given the challenges SLIFE encounter when they enter U.S. schools, a deficit view frequently pervades educators’ attitudes toward SLIFE because their assets are almost always invisible when viewed through the lens of formal education (Roxas & Roy, 2012). This lens identifies and labels SLIFE based on what they don’t have: no or low language proficiency, no or low literacy skills, significant gaps in subject-area knowledge, and not knowing how to “do school” (Bigelow, 2010). However, it is not the students who are the “problem,” but rather the structure and constructs of formal education (Patterson, Hale & Stessman, 2007). A common perspective is that immigrants and refugees succeed in a new country by adopting the language, behaviors, values, and norms of the new culture. But this pressure to adopt a new culture wholesale is not necessarily in the best interests of students (Bigelow 2011; White & Glick 2007). Leveraging home language skills promotes the acquisition of an additional language, which in turn fosters academic success in the new country (Haynes, 2007).

I conclude my examination of SLIFE by briefly outlining a culturally responsive instructional approach that builds bridges to formal education for SLIFE. This approach promotes academic achievement by helping these students access the literacy practices and academic ways of thinking of Western-style formal education while honoring and respecting their language(s), existing skills,
knowledge, and lived experiences to avoid the alienation, disenchantment, and failure SLIFE too often experience. By focusing on assets and by building bridges, SLIFE are granted a voice otherwise silenced in institutionalized educational practices that all too often paint them as intellectually inferior.

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Path and Aspect Representations in Matsigenka
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Relationships between semantics of motion and aspect have been of increasing theoretical interest in recent years (Jackendoff 1983; Zwarts 2005, Pantcheva 2010). Work on these semantic domains has tended to focus on adpositions and verbs of motion in western languages, but similar aspectual properties are found in directional suffixes common to many languages of the Americas. This paper will focus on the aspectual properties of directional suffixes in Matsigenka, a Kampan Arawak language of Peru. These directional suffixes provide path information for motion predicates, but can sometimes take on aspectual functions when attached to non-motion predicates (Payne 1982 (Ashéninka, Kampa), Michael 2008 (Nanti, Kampa)).

Matsigenka has a total of six directional suffixes, each of which has a directional and aspectual function. While the directional meaning of each suffix is relatively transparent, for some, their aspectual interpretations are not. Recent work on the path geometries of Matsigenka directionals has shed light on a number of similarities between representations of path geometries and viewpoint aspect (Michael 2016).

An example of the similarities between path and aspectual representations can be seen with the semantics of the Matsigenka ablative suffix -an. Figure 1 below is a diagram of -an’s most common aspectual usage, a progressive, which shows the relationship between two temporal parameters, the topic time (TT) and the situation time (Tsit). Likewise, Figure 2 below gives a representation of -an’s directional meaning, ‘away’, and shows the relationship between the path geometry and the topic segment (Tseg). If we take the information in Figure 2 and project it down one dimensionally onto the time axis, we notice that this new geometry becomes strikingly similar to Figure 1, showing a relationship between -an’s aspectual and directional meanings.

Given the similarities between these representations of -an’s two meanings, it seems likely that other Matsigenka directionals could hold similar relations. Thus the goal of this paper will be to build on the diagram framework exemplified in Figures 1 and 2 to show how a directional’s path and aspectual semantics are related.

![Figure 1: The Progressive](image1.png)

![Figure 2: The Ablative -an](image2.png)


References

Language and Identity:
How the Globalization of English Changes National Identities

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Language often plays a large role in the identities people create for themselves. With the globalization of English, it is inevitable that the interaction between language and identity will change. By comparing scholarship on English in The Netherlands, New Zealand, and Trinidad and Tobago, we will attempt to show how the globalization of English creates tension in the identities of those residing in these nations. We will also attempt to contrast this with the idea that the globalization of English presents opportunities for speakers to choose among multiple languages and language varieties as they construct identities in local contexts.

Our case studies will focus on:

- The prestige of English and Dutch in the Netherlands, more specifically the prevalence of each in contrast to the other.
- The importance of Maori revitalization in the identity of New Zealand English as a distinction from Australian English
- The conflict in ideologies surrounding Creoles and Standard English in Trinidad and Tobago

We will also discuss how the English influence has created change in each nation’s identities of language in terms of how education is approached, how English creates an advantage in the business world, and how English interacts with the other languages present in each nation. Finally, we will look at the positive or negative effects of globalized English as a whole.
Title of Abstract: The presence of “Queísmos” in the speech of Mexican American residents of Phoenix

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Spanish and Portuguese are two romance languages noted for the existence of a particular “unstandardized” phenomena: the use of *queísmos* or *dequeísmos*. These respectively refer to the deletion of the obligatory preposition or the insertion of a redundant preposition that make these structures non-standard. Whereas previous literature has tended to focus on the use of *dequeísmos* in Spanish-speaking countries, very little attention has been paid to *queísmos*. Consequently, there is limited research regarding its use in comparison with the standard form, especially in language contact situations.

In this light, the present study investigates the usage of “*queísmos*” in sociolinguistic interviews of 33 Mexican American all of whom have lived in Phoenix for not less than 6 years. The statistical packets Goldvarb and SPSS were used for this analysis. The linguistic factor considered was the type of structure whereas the extra linguistic factors hypothesized were the sex of the speaker, the age and the level of bilingualism.

The results depict that the presence of *queísmos* is very indeed very rare. This is due to the few number of tokens (100 tokens) obtained in spite of having interviewed 33 speakers. The probabilistic results from Goldvarb depict the only significant predictor to be the structure type (*p*=0.000), with the structure *darse cuenta* being the strongest predictor followed by *acordarse*. From the data, the number of tokens representing *queísmos* was 60 out of 100 tokens whereas the standard form was used in the remaining 40 tokens. Other instances of *queísmos* occurred after phrases like *desde antes que*, *manera que*, *miedo que*, *el hecho que*, *depende que* and *después que* and this constituted a separate category we named *other*. Based on this we conclude that the use of *queísmos* is constrained by lexical motives.

The descriptive statistics received from SPSS depicted a significant relationship between age and the use of *queísmos* (*p*=0.01), although age was not a significant predictor in Goldvarb. Within groups, the youngest speakers (20 to 34) used much more *queísmos* (72.3% of the time) than speakers between the ages of 35 to 54 (63.6%) and the oldest speakers (38.7% of the time). On the other hand, the preposition was maintained many more times (61.3%) among the oldest speakers, followed by speakers between 35 and 54, and lastly speakers between 20 and 34. These results support the theory of age grading (Tagliamonte, 2012), which is basically defined as the changes that languages undergo as one progresses in age.

The other hypothesized factors namely the level of bilingualism and gender, although not significant in SPSS provide some insights into the use of this phenomena. For example, the results illustrate the use of more “*queísmos*” in the speech of English-dominant speakers than Spanish-dominant speakers or balanced bilinguals. This could likely be attributed to the stronger influence of English among these speakers and also the fact that most of these verbs are reflexive and as such, are not present in English. With respect to gender, the results depict the occurrence of *queísmos* to be more frequent amongst males (64.9%) than females (57.7%). This, females either used the standard form or maintained the preposition many more times than males. These results reinforce arguments by Labov (2006), Trudgill (1972, 1992) Tagliamonte (2009) among others regarding the existence of the gender paradox. This is to say females are more likely to conform
to sociolinguistic norms whereas men are more likely to deviate from them. Moreover the existence of covert prestige among males leads to the preference of the unstandardized variants while females, due to their subordinated roles in society, are more likely to modify their speech towards prestige options.

To the extent that this research is trying to investigate an emerging issue, the study provides some insights to account for the use of queísmos in the Spanish of bilinguals in Phoenix.

By way of illustration, example 1 is an example of the standard variety, example 2 is a case of dequeísmos and 3 is a case of queísmos.

1. Soy creyente en que los sueños tienen un significado especial( LIE2FB)  
   (Standard variety)  
   I am of the belief that dreams have special meanings
2. Jaja No lo quiero empezar porque sé de que cuando empiezo voy a hacer binge watch, y luego, ya voy a acabar y luego voy a tener que esperar. (KAT1M)  
   Haha, I don’t want to begin begin because I know that when I start I am going to binge watch, and later I am going to finish it and I have to wait.
   (Standard: No lo quiero empezar porque sé de que cuando empiezo voy a hacer binge watch, y luego, ya voy a acabar y luego voy a tener que esperar
3. Yo me acuerdo de que de niño... ¿los spelling tests? (SWLZ)  
   I remember that as a child,...the spelling tests?

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On the distributional differences of *bera* & *hura* in Basque

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It has been claimed that Basque has no true 3rd person pronouns (Laka, 1996; Hualde & Ortiz de Urbina, 2003; de Rijk, 2008). Rather, these authors propose that there are two 3rd person (emphatic) demonstratives: ‘hura’ and ‘bera’ (*bera* is also referred to as a quasi-pronoun by Trask, 2003), which derive from an emphatic marker (*ber-*/*hur-*) and a historical distal demonstrative -a (Hualde & Ortiz de Urbina, 2003). This project aims to illustrate the different distributional properties of *bera* and *hura*, and provide evidence that, while *hura* does patterns with demonstratives, *bera* patterns with a 3rd person pronoun in Basque.

**Not an emphatic maker, nor a weak pronoun:** This notion of ‘emphatic demonstratives’ builds on the fact that both *bera* and *hura* are constructed by an emphatic marker (*ber-*/*hur-*) and do not have a non-emphatic contrastive counterpart. In Basque, the emphatic personal pronoun is grammatical only when it is focused (1a), whereas the non-emphatic is grammatical only when it is not-focused (1b).

(1) a. Amak / ZEU  / *zu  nahi  zaitu  
mum  you.EMPH  you  want  AUX.3sg  
‘Mum wants YOU(sg)’

b. *ZEU  / Zu  amak  nahi  zaitu  
you.EMPH  you  mum  want  AUX.3sg  
‘MUM wants you(sg)’

As opposed to non-3rd-person pronouns, *hura* (*hark* ERG case) and *bera* can indistinctly be in focus (2a) and non-focus (2b) positions. Therefore, although etymologically they derive from an emphatic marker, they do not have an emphatic function in the same way that the emphatic versions of non-3rd-person pronouns do.

(2) a. Ama  BERAK/HARK  nahi  du.  
mumABS  he/sheERG  want  AUX.3sg  
‘HE/SHE wants mum’

b. Berak/Hark  ama  nahi  du.  
he/sheERG  mumABS  want  AUX.3sg  
‘He/she wants MUM’

*Berak* and *hura* are not weak pronouns either because they can be coordinated (3a), modified and left-dislocated (3b).

(3) a. Berak/Hark  eta  nik  aukeratu  dugu.  
He/She  and  I  chose  AUX.1pl  
‘He and I have chosen it’

b. Mikelek/berak/hark  gure  etxea  bisitatu  du  
Michael/he  our  house  visit  AUX.3sg  
‘Michael, our house, he has visited’

**Different distributions:** Basque is a consistent NSL where overt pronominal subjects cannot be used to refer to inanimate objects. Patterning with Spanish personal pronouns, *bera* (4b) cannot refer to inanimate objects but *hura* (4a) can, which patterns with demonstratives.

(4) a. Zein  soineko  gustatzen  zaizu  gehiago?  Hura  gehiago  gustatzen  zait.  
which  dress  like  AUX.2sg  more  that  more  like  AUX.2sg  
‘Which dress do you like more? I like that one more’

which  dress  like  AUX.2sg  more  it  more  like  AUX.2sg  
‘Which dress do you like more? I like it more’
Regarding animate objects, *hura* (5a) can only refer to an animate object perceived as being far from the speaker while the speaker is simultaneously pointing at it, but it cannot refer to an animate object perceived as being close (5b). *Bera* (5c), on the contrary, can refer to animate objects indistinctly if they are perceived as close or far by the speaker while pointing at them. Once again, *hura* patterns with demonstratives whereas *bera* patterns with personal pronouns.

(5) a. **Hura** bilbokoa da (while pointing at somebody perceived as far)
that from Bilbao is
‘He/She is from Bilbao’

b. *Hura* bilbokoa da (while pointing at somebody perceived as close)
that from Bilbao is
‘He/She is from Bilbao’

c. **Bera** bilbokoa da (while pointing at somebody perceived as far/close)
he/she from Bilbao is
‘He/She is from Bilbao’

Yet, another dissimilarity is that while *bera* can bear the variable interpretation (8a,i) made available by the pronoun and the referential (8a,ii) interpretation, *hura*, since a demonstrative is involved, can only bear the referential (8b,ii) interpretation. Thus, *bera* patterns with personal pronouns and *hura* patterns with demonstratives.

(8a) Denek uste dute **bera** atsegina dela.
 everybody think AUX.3sg he/she nice is
 Interpretation i: ‘Everyone thinks that he (i.e. himself) is nice’
 Interpretation ii: ‘Everyone thinks that that boy is nice’

(8b) Denek uste dute **hura** atsegina dela.
 everybody think AUX.3sg he/she nice is
 Interpretation ii: ‘Everyone thinks that that boy is nice’

This project shows that, despite *bera* and *hura* being regarded as extensions of emphatic markers, they do not have an emphatic function and, therefore, they are not emphatic. They are not weak pronouns either. The distributional differences presented agree with Hualde & Ortiz de Urbina (2003) and de Rijk (2008) that *hura* patterns like a demonstrative, but diverges by providing evidence that *bera* patterns like a [+Animate, +Pers3, +Sing +Masc, +Fem] pronoun in Basque. These different patterns illustrate native Basque-speakers’ reassignment of the distributional properties of *bera*, which have led *bera* to gradually turn into a true 3rd person pronoun. This process might be attributed to the dialect mixture between Standard Basque, which has favored the usage of *hura* whenever a 3rd person pronoun is needed, and Biscayan dialects, which have historically used *bera* as a 3rd person pronoun and *hura* only as a distal demonstrative. Van Gelderen’s (2011) subject agreement cycle illustrates that 3rd person pronouns typically derive from demonstratives: demonstrative > 3rd person pronoun > clitic > agreement > zero, and the examples above provided show that *hura* is still restricted to being a demonstrative whereas *bera* has evolved to the next stage, 3rd person pronoun.

A Matthewsonian Analysis of Quantification in Karuk

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Can quantification be analyzed in a uniform manner across languages? Lisa Matthewson asserts that it can. In her paper “Quantification and the Nature of Crosslinguistic Variation” (2001), she compares Lillooet Salish quantification with that of English. In Lillooet (and also English, she concludes) quantifiers always take a sister argument of type e and form a quantifier phrase (QP) of type <<e,t>,t>. This paper investigates whether or not her analysis can also be applied to quantification in the Karuk language. The evidence from this language is very encouraging for the Matthewsonian hypothesis of a cross-linguistic standard for analyzing quantification.

UC Berkeley’s online Karuk corpus Ararahih'urípi was consulted for the research. There are plenty of Karuk data that very neatly fit with Matthewson’s analysis. These examples include syntactic structures in which the quantifier (Q) takes a sister determiner phrase (DP) comprised of a determiner (D) and noun phrase (NP).

Data Examples*:

(1) [ Koovúra pa-xuun ] ávahkam pa-‘imváram múuk tá kun-p-ithxup-va
   [ All the-acorn.soup] over the-plate with PERF 3pl(>3s)-ITER-cover-ESS
   And each bowl was covered with its plate. Margaret Harrie, “The Ten Young Men who Became the Pleiades’
   (DAF_KT-02)

(2) [ Koovúra pa-nani-kústaan ] vúra yåamach-as
   [ All the-1sPOSS-sister ] Intensive pretty-PL
   All my sisters are pretty. Vina Smith, Sentences: pretty sisters (VS-26)

(3) Pa-‘áraar-as kúnish [ koovúra pa-‘ishímf kuma-‘áraar-as ]
   the-human-PL sort.of [ all the-brave 3sPOSS-human-PL ]
   Those guys are all tough guys. Sonny Davis, Sentences about body parts, etc. (SD-01)

(4) pee-krivraam [ púfaat chivchákar ]
   the-house [ nothing door ]
   The house has no doors. Vina Smith, Sentences about rocks and trees. (VS-34a)
(5) [ koovúra vúra mi-putíruh ] ni-tháfip-eesh
    [ All Intensive 2sPOSS-potato ] 1s(>3)-devour-FUT
    I am going to eat all of your potatoes.  
    Vina Smith, Sentences from Now You're Speaking Karuk (VS-20c)

(6) [ koovúra ] áama nu-‘áv-eesh
    [ all ] salmon 1pl(>3)-eat-FUT
    We are all going to eat salmon.  
    Vina Smith, Sentences: questions and answers, verb tenses (VS-17)

(7) pa-naní-taat vára [ koovúra ] u-píthxah
    the-1sPOSS-mother Intensive [ all ] 3s(>3)-wash
    My mother washed all (the clothes).  
    Vina Smith, Washing (VS-24)

(8) [ fíim ] t-i-tháfip pa-‘áama
    [ 2sg. ] PERF-2s(>3)-devour the-salmon
    You ate up the salmon.  
    Vina Smith, Sentences about looking and feeling a certain way (VS-32)

(9) koovúra t-i-tháfip pa-‘áama
    All PERF-2s(>3)-devour the-salmon
    You ate up all the salmon.  
    Vina Smith, Sentences about looking and feeling a certain way (VS-32)

* Brackets added to indicate relevant items
A Sociolinguistic Overview of Choyo (Queyu) in Western Sichuan, China

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In this paper, I am going to talk about the effect on the relocation of Choyo villages due to a dam construction nearby. This presentation covers a sociolinguistic overview on Choyo speakers with an emphasis on the influence of relocation to their language use.

Choyo, (a.k.a. Queyu, ISO 639-3: qvy), is a Tibeto-Burman (TB) language belonging to the Qiangic branch. There are fewer than 10,000 Queyu speakers, living in Yajiang, Xinlong, and Litang Counties in Sichuan Province, China (Lu, 2007). This study focuses on Choyo speakers residing in Yajiang.

Based on the author’s initial visit to Yajiang County last summer, the number of Choyo speakers is decreasing, due to following reasons. First, the intergenerational transmission rate of Choyo is low, as many Choyo families do not teach children their mother tongue, but turn to local Tibetan or/and Mandarin varieties. This situation is worse as intermarriage is common. In such families, Choyo is very unlikely to be spoken at home. Second, only Mandarin is used at local schools, which speeds up the spreading of Mandarin but inhibits the usage of other minority languages such as Choyo. Third, Choyo has no writing system, and is not used in any mass media such as broadcasting and TV. The last reason leads to the endangerment of Choyo is the dam construction in Yajiang area. Choyo villages were therefore relocated to Yajiang and other non-Choyo speaking places.

I have revisited Yajiang County this past summer, and collected more data and information on Choyo speakers in Yajiang regarding speaker population, domains of language use, Choyo village locations, communications and connections among Choyo villages. In addition, I have also asked how this displacement affects their lives, where are their new residences, how far away they are from each other now, how relocation is affecting them economically (in terms of job seeking and salary), socially (how is their new neighbourhoods, whom do they interact with now), and linguistically (how much and how often do they speak Choyo, where do they speak Choyo, with whom do they speak Choyo, and so on). For this talk, I will present the result from my summer field trip, aiming to provide a better picture of the local sociolinguistic situation of Choyo, with a special focus on the relocation of the villages.

References
Two aspects of Hocank phonology have strongly influenced the development of phonological theory. One is its unusual pitch accent pattern, often cited as the only example of placing accent on the third mora of each word. The second is ‘Dorsey’s Law’ (DL), a process which adds an epenthetic copy vowel to CR onsets (/kre/ -> [kere]). The VRV sequences created through DL are reported to be phonetically distinctive, with a shorter duration and more even pitch contour than other VRV sequences. DL sequences also disrupt accent placement in complex ways.

Due to their complexity and typological rarity, Hocank accent and epenthesis often serve as linchpin evidence for proposals to significantly expand the types of representations and/or computations permitted in phonological theory. For example, several phonologists have suggested that DL sequences like [kere] are phonologically monosyllabic. Yet neither of these phenomena has been studied instrumentally. Most theoretical work relies on impressionistic descriptions by Kenneth Miner and Amelia Susman.

We present an acoustic description of Hocank accent and epenthesis based on analysis of Miner’s archived recordings, which were made in Wisconsin in 1974-75 under the auspices of the Wisconsin Native American Languages Project. After annotating 28 hours of recorded elicitation sessions, we extracted over 5500 word and phrase tokens spoken by three Hocank speakers.

We find partial support for the claims that DL sequences have unusual phonetic properties. VRV sequences derived from epenthesis, such as the underlined portion of /krahe/ -> [karahé] ‘start going back’, indeed have a shorter duration than lexical VRV sequences, such as that in [harukós] ‘hold’. Yet contrary to impressionistic descriptions, we do not find that Dorsey’s Law sequences have an unusual pitch pattern. After normalizing for duration, the pitch on DL and non-DL VRV sequences is highly consistent.

For most prosodic word shapes, the pitch patterns we found are consistent with published reports on the location of accent. However, we find unexpected pitch patterns in words consisting of two heavy syllables. Such words are reported to bear accent on the second syllable, but they in fact have a lower pitch on the second syllable than the first. This could reflect a downstepped high accent. This pitch pattern is distinct from that of other two syllable word types, such as light-light and light-heavy, that are also reported to have second syllable pitch accent.
Refugee Parenting & Language: A Literature Review Analysis using the Family Stress Model

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Abstract

Refugee families are subject to extreme financial, psychological, cultural and familial stress upon arrival to a host country. This study analyzes aspects of parenting in a refugee resettlement context, using the Family Stress Model (FSM) as a guiding conceptual framework. Using the FSM we will analyze literacy and the English language.

Long Abstract:

This integrative review presentation will examine the current global immigration crisis by addressing: How does literacy impact the family? What language programs are available for refugees? How can host countries better support refugees in aspects of literacy, language and education. Refugee resettlement will be explored using the Family Stress Model (FSM) as a framework.

Family Relations

A study conducted by Atwell, Figgord and McDonald-Wilmsen (2009) explored the relationship between refugee parents and children focusing on parent’s perceptions of their children’s futures. Atwell discusses the pressures on families after resettlement due to different opportunities and support children receive. Children’s schooling provides them with an array of resources (education, technology, school clubs, ESL teachers and so forth). Parents often do not have access to such resources. Additionally, the article discussed how strain could be placed on families due to differing parent and child expectations of what their future should hold. The study focuses on the ‘sense of coherence’ model (SOC) to help establish the importance of appropriate expectations and visions for their children's futures. The uncertainty throughout the resettlement process can make thinking about the future daunting or even obsolete.

One of the greatest stressors identified was the power differential that occurs between children and parents. Children oftentimes assimilate faster due to schooling and consequently have greater access to resources. They may be the primary provider for the family, serve as a translator, or parent younger siblings (Atwell et al., 2009). This change in the power structure or hierarchy often threatens parents and can cause them to adopt harsher parenting practices to gain more control.

English Language and Literacy

Another factor affecting distress in families is literacy and the English language (Atwell et al., 2010; Lewig et al., 2010). Parents acknowledged that language served as a barrier to harnessing services, employment or resources from professionals. Parents identified language as the most difficult obstacle upon arrival to host countries. Furthermore, referring to the aforementioned power deferential, language has been a major factor in broadening the gap between parents and children post-resettlement. Lewig et al., identified language barriers between practitioners and refugees as a deterrent for taking advantage of programs or resources. Additionally, they felt that practitioners and social service providers were culturally incompetent and did not understand their frustration upon arrival. Practitioners also identified the lack of cultural competence, and the language barrier as a hindrance in their ability to provide for...
families. Both acknowledged a need for better parent child communication and collaboration between families, schools and the community. The need for culturally relevant English classes was seen as a potential solution (Lewig et al. 2010).
Unintentional language planning for displaced families in a bilingual school
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Districts often justify their two-way immersion programs partly as a means of providing minority-language speakers the opportunity to study in their mother tongue. However, many of the communities served by these schools are home to displaced families who speak languages other than those employed as media of instruction in the classroom. One such community in the greater Seattle metropolitan area has witnessed an influx of Mam and Q’anjob’al speakers from western Guatemala who continue to experience the effects of the Guatemalan Civil War. Children from these families now constitute a sizeable portion of the student body at the town’s Spanish-English bilingual primary school. Even so, the issue of how to cater to the needs of these families appears to be under-prioritized at the district level.

The purpose of this presentation is to examine a subset of data from a larger ethnographic study of teacher agency in language policy implementation in bilingual schools. To this end, I will take a closer look at the attempts of staff to better serve their Guatemalan students in the absence of sanctioned protocol or any directive that outlines the district’s position on the matter. Data collection methods included in-depth interviews, site visits, observations, and document analyses to illuminate the dynamics of teacher policymaking. In the school reported on here, various teachers stressed the importance of supporting their nonnative speakers of Spanish, but their methods of addressing this issue in class lacked systematicity and were difficult to explain along the lines of school policy. In this paper, I attempt to reconcile these data by invoking Anna Tsing’s (2015) concept of unintentional design which maintains that even at the intersection of uncoordinated activities and incidents, new ecologies of practice can emerge.

While a small minority of participants was uncertain of their students’ heritage, the rest were quick to point out that instruction for Mam and Q’anjob’al speakers constituted a key challenge confronting the school. They managed issues that surfaced when working with these students in various ways. Multiple teachers, for example, responded to moments of compromised communication by asking their students to teach them the corresponding words in their first language. One staff member who showed great concern for the Guatemalan community inadvertently set the ball in motion that resulted in the establishment of an integration committee devoted to addressing matters of immigration, student comfort, and family stability. In a Spanish-medium classroom, the students themselves proposed the idea of a world language day that would recognize and celebrate all languages represented by their classmates.

In analyzing the genesis of these developments, it is clear that they were not composed as part of the grand design of the bilingual school. On the one hand, there is something very organic and almost egalitarian about how they arose. On the other hand, the official priorities of the school overshadow these new practices, leaving marginalized families for the most part still in the margins.

This study unearths more questions than it answers. How do districts leverage this tension between unintentional design and the highly orchestrated process of language-in-education policy for the good? Are the examples mentioned here indicative of progress or symptomatic of the limited attention and resources paid to displaced families and refugees? How do discourses of marginalization and bilingual education open and close spaces for inclusive schooling and community-building? At the very least, ethnographic research in language policy studies should pay attention to unintentional design, for these organic changes can point us in the direction of the challenges the establishment may be unwilling or unable to address on its own.
Reference

“And lots more beside[s]”: Analysis of *besides* and *in addition to* in American and British English Corpora

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Many students, both domestic and international, attempt to augment their writing with the use of less frequent (though often more nuanced) linking adverbials, thus hoping to create prose that sounds more academic or educated, but often sounds awkward or non-native. A linking adverbial that is frequently misunderstood, if not misused, is *besides*. Yeung (2009) found that English learners in Hong Kong frequently included *besides* in their formal writing, but did not move beyond the meaning of *in addition* in their usage. Additionally, Lei (2012) found that Chinese doctoral students overused, but typically used incorrectly, the linking adverbials *besides* and *actually* in their formal writing. Moreover, Leedham and Cai (2013) found that sample texts from the Chinese university entrance exams contain large numbers of instances of *besides*, which might influence the saliency of this particular linking adverbial to this group of non-native speakers.

Alongside its nuanced meanings, *besides* often requires a more complex syntactic structure than *in addition to*, a phrase that shares meaning with *besides*, but is typically less problematic to insert into a given sentence than *besides* is. Due to acknowledged differences between lexical development in American and British English (Sanyal, 2013), and the use of British materials in English as a Foreign Language classrooms internationally (Yeung, 2009), this study aims to investigate whether the issues seen with the use of the transition word *besides* correlate to usage in either American or British English, looking at different genres of use and at the historical trend of usage in American English. The findings indicate that there are statistically significant differences between spoken and academic usage of *besides* and *in addition to*, both within and between corpora, with the exception of spoken British and American English. The impact of the influence of other genres, mainly fiction, is discussed as a possible explanation for non-native usage of *besides*. 
References


Speaking up for Health: Culture and Language as Protective Factors to Wellness
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The Northwest region of the United States is home to a great diversity of Indigenous languages. These languages are returning to daily use within Tribal communities, and language vitality, often described only in terms of the decline in the number of fluent elders who grew up speaking their languages, is increasing as more people are learning and using their languages, and by doing so, bolstering health and wellness. Culture and language are proven protective factors that support wellness in Native American (NA) communities by affirming positive identity and wellbeing through speaking Indigenous languages, engaging in cultural practices, and building strong intergenerational ties. This paper will discuss the results of a qualitative study examining the links between wellness and knowledge and use of Indigenous languages.

Since the late 1800s, Native people of the United States have not received an education rich in their language and traditions due to assimilationist education polices of boarding schools that remain in effect even today. Mainstream educational curriculum materials do not reflect the culture and language of the diverse Native population. However, many Tribal Nations now are teaching their languages in schools, and in after-school and community programs. Language teachers are writing their own curriculum ensuring their students receive an accurate and culturally rich education. Students are learning the lifeways, history, culture and stories of their Elders, both past and present.

The benefits beyond knowledge of language and culture are beginning to be acknowledged and studied. A 2007 study of youth suicide rates in British Columbia showed that the use of language was an important factor, with suicide rates much lower in bands in which at least half the population reported a conversational knowledge of their language (Hallett, Chandler & Lalonde, 2007). In a study of diabetes occurrence in Alberta, First Nations that had more cultural continuity, measured by language knowledge, also had significantly lower diabetes prevalence (Oster, Grier, Lightning, Mayan & Toth, 2014). In a study of overall wellness of Native Americans in California, the ability to speak a Tribal language differentiated “good” from “poor” wellness groups (Hodge & Nandy, 2011). Whalen, Moss and Baldwin (2016) argue that language maintenance/revitalization is an aid to recovering from historical trauma.

Our current work, presented in this paper, is an extension of a previous study which showed that increasing knowledge of the Ichishkiiin language had a beneficial influence in high school students’ lives. In that previous study, parents reported that their children became more curious about their culture and history. Students reported using Ichishkiiin in their community. An intergenerational teaching approach encouraged students to teach their younger relatives, and they also taught their parents and other family members. The study showed the promise of language learning within a rich cultural context as a protective factor to support wellness.

In the current study, we report on interviews of teachers of Indigenous students, some of whom speak, teach and learn Indigenous languages of the Pacific Northwest, and gather information about attitudes towards language learning and use. Specifically, we address opinions about whether speaking an Indigenous language and/or practicing cultural traditions have: (1) a direct effect on their wellness and that of other members of their community; (2) are perceived as beneficial to wellbeing; and (3) what are the benefits? We will share our findings, and discuss the relationship between language and culture to increased reports of wellness.
References


Overshoot in Positional Licensing
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Positional Licensing (PL; e.g. Walker 2011) can cause a feature to spread to a licensing position such as a stressed syllable. For example, in Tudanca Montañés (Romance; Spain), word-final high vowels become centralized (=[−ATR]) (Hualde 1989); represented here by capitalization), and this centralization spreads to the stressed vowel (Hualde 1989, Penny 1978), as shown in (1). As is typical of PL-driven assimilation, once the spreading feature reaches the licensor, it stops: [orÉgAnU] ‘oregano,’ *[OrÉgAnU]. But to address certain problems that PL causes in Harmonic Grammar (e.g. Legendre et al. 1990), Kaplan (2015) argues for a version of PL that encourages assimilation to extend beyond the licensor. This paper argues that two PL-based systems, the one in Tudanca Montañés and a similar one in Eastern Andalusian, provide evidence supporting Kaplan’s formalism.

PL typically penalizes unlicensed features, but in Kaplan’s system it instead rewards features that are licensed: each feature subject to PL receives +1 if it coincides with the licensor and +1 for each additional position it coincides with. Thus ruling out *[OrÉgAnU] requires another constraint—e.g. IDENT(ATR)-pretonic—disfavoring the “overshoot” that positive PL motivates (2).

Evidence that this is the correct way to rein in overshoot, as opposed to reformulating PL so that it does not reward overshoot, comes from a second source of centralization in Tudanca Montañés: pretonic mid vowels adjacent to labials centralize (3). Other labial-adjacent vowels do not normally centralize (4). This arrangement results from ranking faithfulness below a mid-vowel-specific centralization constraint, *LAB-[+ATR]mid, but above a more general constraint *LAB-[+ATR].

But non-mid vowels do undergo labial-induced centralization when word-final/stressed-vowel centralization also occurs (5). The initial vowel of [piyíhku] ‘pinch’ centralizes because (i) it is labial-adjacent, and (ii) the final and stressed vowels are centralized. In contrast, [piyíhkos] ‘pinches’ meets only condition (i), so the labial-adjacent [i] does not centralize. By combining the analysis of PL-driven centralization in (2) with the account of labial-induced centralization, this pattern is produced (6). The two faithfulness constraints normally block both overshoot and pretonic non-mid centralization because together they outweigh PL and *LAB-[+ATR]. But the latter constraints can gang up on faithfulness, triggering centralization just when doing so both satisfies *LAB-[+ATR] and increases PL’s reward.

Crucial to the success of this analysis is PL’s reward for overshoot. Without it, pretonic non-mid centralization cannot be achieved. The winning candidate in (6) would receive only +2 from PL, reducing its score to −3 and making candidate (c) the winner. In that scenario, *LAB-[+ATR] must overcome faithfulness on its own, but, by design of the analysis, it cannot: if it did so here, it would incorrectly trigger labial-induced centralization in [piyíhkos].

Under the right circumstances, therefore, Tudanca Montañés exhibits the overshoot that positive PL predicts. In the normal case, assimilation stops at the licensor, revealing that this is in fact a PL-driven phenomenon, and activity in the pretonic domain shows that PL can produce overshoot, contrary to traditional formulations of this constraint type. A similar argument holds for Eastern Andalusian (Jiménez & Lloret 2007, Lloret & Jiménez 2009), where word-final vowels become lax and trigger laxing of the stressed vowel and optional laxing of pretonic vowels (7). In a variable-weights approach to optionality in HG (Jesney 2007), when IDENT(ATR)-pretonic outweighs PL, it blocks pretonic assimilation as it often does in Tudanca Montañés. But under the opposite weighting relationship, PL triggers pretonic assimilation; in fact it correctly requires assimilation of all pretonic vowels (see monederos in (7)). Once again, if PL does not promote overshoot, the full pattern of assimilation cannot be obtained.

Tudanca Montañés and Eastern Andalusian show that the proper means of prohibiting overshoot in PL-driven phenomena, is through other constraints that block overshoot rather than by devising PL formalisms that exclude overshoot from the start. This conclusion supports the positive version of PL developed by Kaplan (2015), which provides straightforward accounts of the overshoot in Tudanca Montañés and Eastern Andalusian that are otherwise unexpected from the point of view of PL.
(1) pÍntU ‘male calf’ sekÁlU ‘to dry him’
orÉgAnU ‘oregano’ antigwÁlImU ‘very old’

(2) /oré-ganu/

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>LICENSE([-ATR], 6)</th>
<th>IDENT(ATR)</th>
<th>IDENT(ATR)-pretonic</th>
<th>H</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. orÉgAnU</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. OrÉgAnU</td>
<td>+4</td>
<td>-4</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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</table>

(3) mÉñika ‘pinky’
gwÉbéra ‘egg-basket’
bOnúka ‘weasel’

(4) piyihkos ‘pinches’
pintÁa ‘painted’ (fem)
buhÁanos ‘worms’

(5) plyÓhkU ‘pinch’
ehpInÁ0U ‘spinal cord’
mUrflyU ‘stone’

(6) /ehpínáθu/

<table>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>*LAB-[+ATR]_{mid}</th>
<th>LICENSE</th>
<th>ID(ATR)</th>
<th>ID(ATR)-pre</th>
<th>*LAB-[+ATR]</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. ehpínáθu</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. ehpInÁ0U</td>
<td>+3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>-3</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. ehpInÁ0U</td>
<td>+2</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-2</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(7) momentos moméntc ~ moméntc ‘instants’
relojes rel5he ~ rel5he ‘watches’
monederos moneñeci ~ moneñeci ‘purses’
*moneñeci, *moneñeci

References


ABSTRACT

A sizable number of phonetic and psycholinguistic experiments have been conducted to investigate the recognition of real words. From this work, researchers have found that various characteristics of lexical items affect the recognition process, such as lexical frequency, phonotactic probability, phonological neighborhood density, and uniqueness point. Such studies have also described processes that occur during word recognition, such as activation and deciding which among a number of candidates is the item being heard. The present study continues in this line of research and examines the recognition of phonotactically legal pseudowords.

Many psycholinguistic studies use pseudowords in their stimuli set for experiments so that the task asked of the participants requires linguistic processing to occur. Yet, these studies tend to disregard the responses to pseudoword stimuli because the studies are focused on characteristics of the words. As such, the process of recognizing pseudowords themselves has gone under-described for some time, making it difficult to say, for example, what effect the pseudowords may be having on participants during their participation. Additionally, understanding how pseudowords are processed may have implications for understanding how new vocabulary items are acquired in first- and second-language contexts, because a new word is effectively the same as a pseudoword when it is first heard.

In the present study, we investigate how listeners respond to pseudoword stimuli in an auditory lexical decision task. The data are from the Massive Auditory Lexical Decision data set (Tucker et al. 2017), which consists of auditory lexical decision responses to 26,800 words and 9,600 pseudowords, with a mean of 11.88 responses per pseudoword from 232 monolingual native Canadian English speaking participants. We use linear mixed-effects regression to model the effects of phonotactic probability, phonological neighborhood density, and uniqueness point on participants’ response times to the pseudowords in the auditory lexical decision task. Significant effects were found for each variable of interest, and all showed a trend of higher values predicting longer response times, suggesting overall that more remarkable sequences (that is, less likely sequences) are easier to recognize as pseudowords than more common sequences. We conclude our analysis by discussing similarities between pseudoword processing and real word processing and examining the implications of these findings for experimental design and models of word recognition.
Language, Identity, and Conflict in Donetsk, Ukraine

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In March of 2014, pro Russian separatists in eastern Ukraine, known as the Donbass Region of Donetsk and Luhansk, began an armed conflict against the Ukrainian government. The conflict continues with international observers indicating Russia's military, financial and political support. Vladimir Putin has claimed that Russian speakers in Ukraine and across the region are Russians ethnically and culturally. Putin argues that Russian identity is rooted in its language and culture and therefore Russian speakers in Ukraine need the protection of Russia, share a strong Russian identity and perceive Russia as their native homeland.

The concept of language as the direct link to ones identity is not a new concept. Specifically, language is understood within and out of academia as the most important factor in terms of ones ethnic and national identity. Language as been argued to be “the most important dimension of individual identity (Clement, 1980), one of the most important symbols of ethnicity (Giles, Bourhis and Taylor 1977) and a stronger link to identity than residence, religion or ancestry (Pool, 1979) (quoted from: Mahootian 2012). These arguments have led to language nationalist policies throughout the world. It is no coincidence that President Putin of Russia has claimed the right to intervene on behalf of Russian speakers in Ukraine, whether in Crimea or in the Donbass region. But how accurate is Putin’s claim that Russian speakers in the Donbass region hold a Russian identity? Furthermore, does language itself have a great influence on identity?

The research of this paper focuses on language use and ethnic identity among refugees from Donetsk, Ukraine now living in Poltava, Ukraine. The methodology focused on two major factors: one, participants were asked to identify which language they used: Russian, Ukrainian or Mixing Languages when speaking with:

1. Parents
2. Grandparents
3. Government Officials
4. Friends
5. Children (if any)
6. Husband / Wife (if any)
7. God
8. Siblings (if any)
(modified from a study conducted by Gal (1978)). Second, I define ethnic identity using Edwards’s (2009) definition that an ethnic-group membership is an “involuntary phenomenon”, which members “share common cultural characteristics” and which there is a “continuing ‘us and them’ differentiation” (p. 158). Using a 7 point likert scale, participants were asked to identify themselves either with number 1 Ukrainian to number 7 Russian and whether or not the cultures were number 1 similar to number 7 absolutely different. Therefore, the data would account for the 'cultural characteristics' along with a 'continuum of 'us and them'".

Based on the ethnographic research of interviewing and examining language use and identity among Russian speaking refugees from Donetsk, this paper argues that Putins's conclusions of Russian speakers in the Donbass region as loyal Russians with strong Russian identities are not true with younger speaking Russians from Donetsk. To the contrary, Russian speakers from Donetsk indicated a very strong Ukrainian ethnic identity. Furthermore, Russian speakers would distinguish themselves from what they indicated as 'Russian terrorists' and indicated the involvement of Russian troops in Ukraine based on language variation. Finally, this research begins to question long standing assumptions regarding the connection between language and identity.
Verbal agreement in Karuk (an isolate from northern California) exhibits a complicated, discontinuous, non-canonical dependency on subject and object, mood, and polarity (see Table 1). This makes Karuk a good test for theories of agreement, and has earned it some attention in the literature (Bright 1957, Macaulay 1992, Béjar 2003, Béjar and Rezac 2009, Campbell 2012). Despite this attention, though, no one has formulated an explicit analysis of the entire verbal agreement system. This paper does that.

In particular, while partial analyses of Karuk’s verbal agreement prefixes exist, no one has explained how Karuk’s lone verbal agreement suffix (-ap) is inserted. In this paper, I propose that Karuk has two different -ap suffixes inserted in two different syntactic positions, which allows me both to account for the observed distribution of -ap and to explain the reduced scope of Karuk’s agreement prefix paradigm in negative contexts.

Previous work
Béjar provided the insight that Karuk agreement prefixes express Agree on a low cyclic $\phi$-probe specified for plural number and local person: the probe first Agrees with the internal argument, and then, only if the object isn’t maximally $\phi$-specified (i.e. isn’t plural number and local person) is there also Agree with the external argument. This accounts for the fact that 1PL and 2PL are the only object types for which features of the subject are irrelevant in determining agreement morphology (see the shaded columns in Table 1).

Building on that contribution from Béjar, Campbell provided the Vocabulary (i.e. a list of phonological items associated to feature sets) available to the morphology to express the Agree relation on the $\phi$-probe, correctly accounting for the observed distribution of the prefixes in the positive paradigms – something Béjar failed to do.

As for the suffix -ap, Macaulay analyzed it as an inverse marker which shows up when the object outranks the subject on a 2PL > 1 > 2SG > 3 hierarchy; Béjar analyzed it as a plural marker. Campbell, noticing empirical problems with both analyses, suggested that -ap might be an inverse marker following a 2 > 1, 3 person hierarchy. This accounts for -ap’s distribution in positive contexts, but not in negative contexts. Campbell also doesn’t explain how and where in the syntactic structure -ap is inserted.

What this paper does
This paper extends Campbell’s analysis in the following ways: 1. I provide feature specifications for two Vocabulary items which Campbell describes but doesn’t give features for ($\hat{n}$- and kîn-, which she describes as respectively expressing agreement with second person objects in inverse contexts and with third person plural subjects in the context of a plural object); 2. I extend the analysis to the negative paradigm; 3. I provide an explicit analysis of the suffix -ap.

The key innovation is a proposal that in addition to the probe controlling agreement prefix insertion, Karuk has two other probes in different syntactic positions (Figure 1). These control the insertion of the suffix -ap. These two probes, operating alongside Campbell and Béjar’s agreement probe, bring about a full analysis and feature specification for the entire agreement Vocabulary. This paper thus offers the most complete and explicit picture of Karuk agreement to date.
Table 1 (above): Karuk verbal agreement morphology (adapted from Bright 1957). S = subject, O = object. Shading indicates object types for which agreement morphology holds constant.

Figure 1 (below): Neg, Voice, and v probes with their feature specifications in brackets. The Neg and v probes license insertion of -ap; the Voice probe licenses prefix insertion. (ADDR = addressee, PART = participant, NSG = nonsingular)

References
Measure Phrases in Spanish Spoken in Multilingual Learning Contexts
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Introduction. Various studies argue that although English allows measure phrases with comparative adjectives (e.g. Mary is five feet taller) and non-comparative adjectives (e.g. Mary is five feet tall), Spanish does not allow measure phrases with non-comparative adjectives [1] [2], as shown in example (1), from [3]. However, no study has examined the constraints on measure phrases in the Spanish spoken by bilinguals in regions where English is the dominant language. In order to explore the possibility that measure phrases may be used differently by Spanish heritage speakers in the U.S. (HS) and second language (L2) learners, we conducted an online acceptability judgment study with second generation Spanish HS and L2 learners in Kansas. Our results show no distinction between acceptability ratings of measure phrases with comparative and non-comparative adjectives among the HS group, whereas L2 learners preferred comparative adjectives to non-comparatives. Both groups preferred measure phrases combining with adjectives using the prepositional copula de ‘of’.

Measure Phrases in English and Spanish. Measure phrases, such as ‘one pound’, ‘two inches’, are noun phrases that express amount. They combine with degree expressions and serve as a measurement of the extent to which the target degree exceeds the standard degree (e.g. John is ten inches taller than Bill). In Spanish, phrases of measurement behave differently. [2] argues that Spanish does not allow the combination of a measure phrase with a bare gradable adjective (1b). However, it has been shown that certain adjectives do allow measure phrases [4], as in example (2). In addition, [3] show that measure phrases in Spanish do combine with bare adjectives with the help of a prepositional copula de ‘of’, as shown by (3).

Our Study. [2] and [4] make contradictory predictions for combination of measure phrases with adjectives in Spanish. In order to test how these predictions hold in a language contact situation, we conducted an online acceptability judgment study. 10 (3M, 7F) HS of Mexican family origin and 7 L2 learners (2M, 5F) enrolled in intermediate Spanish courses at a university in the Midwestern United States participated in this study. We used a 2 x 2 design to test (a) measure phrases combining with bare gradable adjectives and comparative gradable adjectives (example, un metro alto ‘one meter tall’ vs. un metro más alto ‘one meter taller’), and (b) the presence and absence of ‘de’ (dos pies de ancho ‘two feet wide’ vs. dos pies ancho ‘two feet wide’). We used Qualtrics to collect the survey responses, and each survey lasted about 10-15 minutes. Participants rated combinations of measure phrases with bare and comparative adjectives on a scale of 1-5, with 1 being highly unacceptable, 3 being neutral, and 5 being highly acceptable.

Results. In both groups, we found no difference in acceptability ratings between comparative and non-comparative adjectives (see (4)). However, both groups rated adjectives combining with a measure phrase using the prepositional copula ‘de’ higher than adjectives combining without ‘de’. Our results suggest that measure phrases combining with non-comparative adjectives are accepted by both HS and L2 learners of Spanish. The mean ratings for comparative adjectives were 2.64 (HS) and 3.02 (L2 learners) and non-comparative adjectives were 2.63 (HS) and 2.7 (L2 learners), suggesting that participants accepted measure phrases with both comparative and non-comparative adjectives. In contrast, the mean ratings for adjectives combining with measure phrases in the presence of ‘de’ were 3 (HS) and 3.2 (L2 learners) and adjectives combining with measure phrases without ‘de’ were 2.34 (HS) and 2.9 (L2 learners), suggesting that heritage speakers preferred the use of ‘de’ with measure phrases.

Conclusion. Our study suggests that both Spanish HS and Spanish L2 learners accept Spanish measure phrases that do not follow the constraints described in previous literature. These findings point to a need for further research on measure phrases in situations of language contact.
(1) a. Juan es [un metro más alto] que Pedro.  
   John is one meter more tall than Peter
   ‘John is one meter taller than Peter.’

(2) Esta varilla está doblada noventa grados.  
   This rod is bent ninety degrees  
   ‘This rod is ninety degrees bent.’

(3) La pared tiene [dos metros de altura].  
   The wall has two meters of height  
   ‘The wall is two meters high.’

(4) Table 1: Mean Acceptability Ratings of Adjectives with Measure Phrases

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Heritage Speakers</th>
<th>L2 Learners</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean of Comparative Adjs</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean of Non-comparative Adjs</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean of Adjectives with ‘de’</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>3.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Mean of Adjectives without ‘de’</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Identity and Investment in Language Learning among Adult Refugees with Interrupted Schooling

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There are currently 22.5 million refugees in the world and every year tens of thousands of them are resettled in the United States. Many of these refugees who are resettled in the U.S. are adults, and by law they have to take part in employment. Yet, on top of working some of these adult refugees choose to continue their education by enrolling in local colleges and universities. To further note, a number of these refugees have had interrupted formal schooling because they did not have access to education for several years. This complicates the process of second language acquisition and educational attainment.

Research on adult immigrants learning English as a second language suggests that changes in identity and investment play an important role in the language acquisition process. Much less is known, however, about adult refugees learning English and their educational experience in universities, especially those with interrupted formal schooling.

Using a qualitative case study methodology, this study investigates identity and investment in language learning of adult refugee language learners with interrupted formal schooling. Methods of data collection will consist of interviews with refugee university students and collection of artifacts (e.g. writing samples). For data analysis, I will draw on Bonny Norton’s concepts of identity and investment in language learning.

I anticipate that this research will identify multiple perspectives on identity and investment in an adult refugee context. This research has important implications for future investigations of different refugee populations, as well as, language teacher preparation and language or refugee resettlement policy. Ultimately, this research can help scholars, teachers, and the target community better understand how to help refugee students with learning English and their educational experience in universities. In addition, this research will expand our knowledge of second language acquisition in refugee education contexts.
For many of us working within indigenous language revitalization, we are fighting several battles. There are the practical battles: What methods do we use? Who has the language fluency to teach, and who has the teaching skills to facilitate language learning and usage? And there are larger, more insidious battles: How do we teach indigenous languages by both acknowledging the trauma of language loss without replicating the effects? How do we use contemporary educational methods without the inherent bias often contained within those methods? I certainly do not have all of these answers, but my hope is that by sharing my experience I will be contributing to current dialogues in language revitalization and participate in growing our indigenous practices. Two years ago, I developed the Lushootseed Language Institute, a two-week Lushootseed immersion on traditional Lushootseed-speaking land. Largely funded by the Puyallup Tribe of Indians and supported by the University of the Washington Tacoma, adult learners from various indigenous communities with varying degrees of Lushootseed fluency take eight hours of class each day with each class focusing on a specific part of Lushootseed language learning and revitalization. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the development and implementation of an indigenous language institute and practical applications of indigenous methodologies into language teaching and learning.
Interaction of Merge and labeling: Consequences for hyperraising
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[1] Overview: It has been observed that hyperraising is not possible in English (= (1)) while it is in Bantu languages like Lubukusu (= (2)) (Carsten & Diercks 2013). Moreover, hyperraising is not always allowed in Bantu. Take Lubukusu as an example. While the NP can hyperraise when the complementizer is mbo, it cannot when the embedded clause is headed by the complementizer a-li (= (3)). This paper addresses hyperraising within and across languages, arguing that its grammatical behaviors follow from interaction of Merge and labeling. It also shows that the proposed theory extends to explain the that-t (race) effect.

[2] Hyperraising in English: I argue that hyperraising is impossible in English because A-movement (i.e., Internal Merge) of the subject, which applies counter-cyclically at the C phase (Chomsky 2007, 2008), triggers transfer of {{Spec}, {TP}} (which is marked as γ in (4)); Epstein, Kitahara & Seely (2012) and Mizuguchi (2014) claim that the transfer in question allows counter-cyclic A-movement at the phase level without causing a failure of the derivation. If γ is transferred via A-movement, then the NP John will get trapped in γ and will become syntactically invisible, with the result that it cannot hyperraise from the embedded clause into the higher one. Now suppose that in order to evade Transfer, the NP moves not to Spec-T but to Spec-C in the embedded clause, which is visible to higher phase (= (5)). This movement is also possible under simplest Merge (= (6)); however, it will be ruled out for labeling failure: in English, T by its nature is too weak to label and in order for it to work as a label, Spec-T must be visible when the Labeling Algorithm (LA) applies (Chomsky 2015). In (5), since there is no visible element in Spec-T when LA applies, λ will not be labeled by T. Given that SOs must be labeled for CI interpretation and SM externalization (Chomsky 2013, 2015), the derivation (5) will cause a violation of Full Interpretation at the interfaces.

[3] Hyperraising in Bantu: First consider (3). The example is ruled out for the same reason that (1) is excluded: counter-cyclic A-movement of the subject to Spec-T transfers γ {{Spec}, {TP}}, with the result that it cannot move from the embedded Spec-C into the higher clause. On the other hand, if it moves to Spec-C in the embedded clause as in (5), λ will not be labeled for lack of visible Spec-T. Besides, φ-features on T will not be valued: in Bantu, φ-feature agreement is executed locally via Spec-head (or in the XP-YP configuration) (Kinyalolo 1991 a.o.). Hyperraising is impossible under the two derivational scenarios.

Now consider (2). I claim that grammatical hyperraising in Bantu is due to pair-merge of C and T. I argue that T is not externally set-merged but is externally pair-merged to C, which produces <C, T>. In (2), (8a) is produced instead of (8b) in the embedded clause. In order to raise into the higher clause, the subject nP will move to the Spec of <C, T> (= (9)). Notice that this movement does not induce transfer of the μ-marked set as it is not counter-cyclic: δ is not embedded and the movement can apply at the root. As for labeling, due to the pair-merge, the T-headed set is not created and there is no need to form visible Spec-T for labeling. Finally, φ-features can be valued locally via Spec-head ({{n, …}, {{μ < C, T>, …}}}: C retains φ as the features are under-inherited in the absence of T, and the subject is in its Spec. I argue that the complementizer mbo is an externalization of <C, T> while a-li is a spell-out of C: the two kinds of complementizers in Bantu reflect how Merge applies to C and T. Thus, the derivation (9) is not possible for (3).

[4] <C, T> in English: If the way C and T are merged results in different externalizations of complementizers, it is naturally expected that this also holds true of English. I argue that the that complementizer corresponds to a-li in Bantu, and is an externalization of C while <C, T> is realized as the zero complementizer (Ø) in English. I show that this analysis can explain the that-t effect (= (10)) without assuming the idiosyncratic mechanisms introduced in Chomsky (2015). (10a) is ill-formed for the same reason that hyperraising is impossible in (1) and (3): if the subject moves to Spec-T for labeling of λ, it will not be subject to further computation as it is transferred as part of γ (see (4)); if it moves to Spec-C to evade being transferred, λ will not be labeled by T in the absence of visible Spec-T (see (5)). As for (10b), suppose that T is externally pair-merged to C in the embedded clause. <C, T> is yielded in syntax and is externalized as Ø. Because T is not set-merged, the T-headed set is not generated and the movement of the subject applies at the root (see (9)). The subject can move into the higher clause without causing a labeling problem with the embedded T or being transferred.

[5] Conclusion: I claim that hyperraising in English and Bantu is deduced from interaction of Merge and labeling. I also argue that the proposed theory derives the that-t effect, with (2)/(3) and (10) explained in the same way. As far as the discussion in this paper is correct, it endorses the Strong Minimalist Thesis (SMT), the basic hypothesis in the Minimalist Program, which says that language keeps to Merge, the simplest recursive operation, and interfaces (i.e., labeling for Full Interpretation in our particular case).
Examples

(1) *John seems [that is sick]

(2) babaandu ba-lolekhana [mbo ba-kwa] Lubukusu
2people 2SA-seem that 2SA.PST-fall
‘The people seems like they fell.’ (Carstens & Diercks 2013)

(3) *Mikaeli a-lolekhana [a-li a-si-kona] Lubukusu
Michael 1SA-seem that 1SA-PERS-sleep
‘Michael seems to be still sleeping.’ (Carstens & Diercks 2013)

(4) [\( \lambda \text{that} [\gamma \text{John} [\gamma \text{is} [\alpha \text{t sick}]]]] \) (\( \gamma \rightarrow \) transferred)

(5) [\( \alpha \text{John} [\kappa \text{that} [\gamma \text{is} [\alpha \text{t sick}]]]] \) (\( \lambda \rightarrow \) unlabelled)

(6) Merge(\( \alpha, \beta \)) = \{\( \alpha, \beta \}\}

(7) The Labeling Algorithm (LA)
The properties of SOs are determined by LA through minimal search.

(8) a. \([<C, T> [\alpha \ldots]]\)
b. \([C [T [\alpha \ldots]]]\)

(9) \([\mu nP [\beta <C, T> [\alpha \ldots]]]\) (\( \check{\nu} \) transfer; \( \check{\nu} \) labeling; \( \check{\psi} \) valuation)

(10) a. *Which student do you think [that \( t \) read the book]?
b. Which student do you think [\( \emptyset t \) read the book]?

References


Yo and the Rhetorical Interpretation
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Saito and Haraguchi (2012) (S&H) examine the roles played by sentence final particles (SFPs) in Japanese and make an interesting observation. They argue that yo is a particle for assertion, which is crucial in the interpretation of (1).

This question can only be interpreted as a rhetorical question (RQ). Yo is compatible only with an asserted clause. Since information-seeking questions cannot be asserted, (1) is interpreted only as a RQ, based on the idea that questions are in principle ambiguous between the two interpretations, which may be different only in pragmatics (Caponigro and Sprouse 2007).

I argue contra S&H that (i) yo is not a particle designated for assertion and (ii) (1) is not interpreted as rhetorical merely at the discourse level, suggesting that (1) has its own structure. First, as shown in (2), yo can be attached to a filler (2a), to an interjection (2b), and to a vocative phrase (2c), and it can be used as a greeting (2d), indicating that it is merely a sign of Speaker addressing Hearer, roughly meaning "I am addressing you", not designated for a specific clause type. Second, as in (3), yo can optionally be used in information-seeking questions (Davis 2011). Thus, the obligatory RQ interpretation of (1) is irrelevant to yo. In fact, as shown in (4), (1) stays a RQ even without it, lacking the information-seeking question interpretation (Nitta 1991).

A clear difference between (1) and (3) is that (1) lacks no, which S&H assume to be a Finite head. Interestingly, (1) fails to be in past tense, as shown in (5). This tense restriction suggests that the obligatory RQ interpretation of (1) does not come from pragmatics, unlike S&H's view.

Another point where (1) differs from (3) is that (1) allows negative polarity items such as daremo 'anyone' which can occur only in negative sentences. Importantly, it cannot involve the Finite head no, as in (6). This shows that (1) has its own structure, distinct from ordinary questions (OQs).

I suggest that (1) is a subclass of what I call mono ka RQs (McGloin 1976), exemplified in (7). These questions behave in the same way as (1). In addition, they are both uttered with the falling intonation instead of the typical rising intonation, and answering them results in deviance.

I propose that mono ka RQs, which include (1), have the structure in (8). I assume with S&H that the CP zone consists of multiple functional projections. The highest projection is headed by ka, which is exclamative here rather than interrogative, which captures their non-interrogative status displayed by the exclamation point and the unanswerability. It has a negative operator in its Spec, which is responsible for the negative interpretation, licensing an NPI. The second highest is the Finite projection, headed by mono or its phonetically null counterpart, which is typically headed by no in regular sentences. Since this position is filled, no fails to be there, which captures the effect in (6). Unlike no, mono takes TP of a subjunctive kind, which does not allow past tense, as observed in (5) and (7c).

This analysis can capture another effect. Mono ka RQs cannot have ka dropped, in contrast to OQs, as shown in (9). This effect in (9a) can be captured by attributing it to the lack of the ka projection, which has the negative operator. If ka is absent, so is the operator, failing to license the NPI.
(1) [Cp Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u ka] yo!
  who-NOM there-to go-PRES Q SFP
  'Who will go there = No one will go there.'

(2) a. ano yo b. hora yo c. kami yo d. Yo!
  well SFP look SFP god SFP SFP
  'well' 'look' 'God' 'Hi!'  

(3) a. Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u n da (yo)?
  who-NOM there-to go-PRES C COP SFP
  'Who will go there?'

b. Dareka-ga soko-ni ik-u no ka (yo)?
  someone-NOM there-to go-PRES C Q SFP
  'Will someone go there?'

(4) Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u ka!
  who-NOM there-to go-PRES Q
  'Who will go there = No one will go there.'

(5) * Dare-ga kinoo soko-ni i-tta ka (yo)!
  who-NOM yesterday there-to go-PAST Q SFP
  'Who went there yesterday = No one went there yesterday.'

(6) Daremo soko-ni ik-u (*no) ka (yo)!
  anyone there-to go-PRES C Q SFP
  'No one will go there!'

(7) a. Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u mono ka!
  who-NOM there-to go-PRES C Q
  'No one will go there!'

b Daremo soko-ni ik-u mono ka!
  anyone there-to go-PRES C Q
  'No one will go there!'

c. * Daremo kinoo soko-ni i-tta mono ka!
  anyone yesterday there-to go-PAST C Q
  'No one went there yesterday!'

d. Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u mono ka yo!
  who-NOM there-to go-PRES C Q SFP
  'No one will go there!'

(8) [Cp OP[-Neg] [FIN [TP[subjunctive] ... NPI ...] (mono)] ka[exclamative]]

(9) a. * Daremo soko-ni ik-u (mono)!
  anyone there-to go-PRES C
  'No one will go there!'

b. Dare-ga soko-ni ik-u (no(ka))?
  someone-NOM there-to go-PRES C
  'Will someone go there?'

References
High and low negation in Sign Language of the Netherlands

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Background: Across sign languages (SLs), clausal negation can be realized by manual signs and/or a headshake (hs). Yet, SLs differ from each other with respect to whether the manual negator is obligatorily present [7,11]. Previous studies suggest that SL of the Netherlands (NGT) belongs to the group of non-manual dominant SLs, i.e. SLs in which clauses are commonly negated by a hs only [3,4].

Present study: In contrast to most previous studies [6,8], we analyze negation in NGT based on naturalistic corpus data. Analysis of 1h 35min of data yielded 117 negated clauses. Of these, 48 (41%) contain the manual negator NOT, while 69 are negated by hs only – confirming the non-manual dominant status of NGT. Our study makes two theoretical contributions. First, by focusing only on clauses involving the negative particle, we determine that NGT employs a low and a high NegP – a pattern that has not been previously described for another SL, even though such patterns are found in spoken languages [1,5,10]. Second, based on all clauses in the data set, we offer a novel account for spreading of the hs.

I. Negative phrases: Data analysis reveals that NOT occurs in two different positions. Most frequent word order patterns are (S)-(O)-V-NOT (29 cases) and (S)-NOT-(O)-V (13 cases) – see (1). The remaining 6 examples display four different word orders and will not be considered here. The different positions of NOT are reflected by the presence of two negative phrases in structure (2). We postulate that the negative marker NOT, which merges in the head of the lower NegP2, is lexically specified for hs. Building on Hagemeijer’s analysis of Santome [5], we argue that VP moves to the specifier of NegP2 in order for its negative features to be checked. Assuming that criterial positions are freezing positions [9], this movement stops there. Yet, the higher NegP1 must be lexicalized, and this is achieved by subsequent movement of NOT to Neg1. The structure now contains two copies of NOT. This configuration is the source of the distributive properties of NOT in NGT: spell-out of Neg1 yields S-NOT-O-V while spell-out of Neg2 produces S-O-V-NOT order.

The same process is at work in clauses without NOT, in which we find both (S)-O-V and (S)-V-O orders. In these examples, the hs in Neg2, being an affix, triggers V-to-Neg2 movement. The remnant VP moves to [SpecNegP2] where it freezes. In this case, the verb in Neg2, now accompanied by hs, moves up to Neg1, and again either copy may be spelled out. In this way, both O-V and V-O order are derived.

II. Headshake: Previous studies sometimes argue that the hs spreads over the c-command domain of Neg [3,6,8]. However, our data show considerable variation in the scope of hs. (i) The verb is always under the scope of the hs. (ii) In clauses with object but without NOT, hs accompanies preverbal objects in 50% of the cases, while it almost always accompanies postverbal ones (3a). In examples with NOT, spreading over the preverbal object is optional, at least when VP precedes NOT (1a). (iii) In all configurations, nominal subjects fall outside the scope of the hs, while pronominal subjects are often accompanied by hs (1b). (iv) Sentence-final subject pronoun copies, which are frequently attested in NGT [2], are commonly marked by a hs (3b).

Given this, we argue for prosodic, rather than syntactic, spreading of hs. VP is a potential spreading domain due to the structural configuration resulting from (remnant) VP-movement to SpecNegP2. Indeed, in clauses with NOT, both verb and object are optionally accompanied by a hs. For clauses without and with NOT, our account correctly predicts that hs always accompanies V. As for spreading observed with subjects, pronominal subjects can be marked assuming that they are clitics merged in T. In contrast, nominal subjects are less likely to be prosodically integrated into the clause, and are thus not expected to be accompanied by a hs. Crucially, spreading onto final pronoun copies can only be explained in prosodic terms, as these copies are taken to occupy a high (right-adjointed) position in the structure; yet, they can be prosodically integrated.

Conclusion: Corpus data reveal that NGT displays considerable variation in negative clauses with respect to (i) word order and (ii) spreading of the hs. As for (i), the position of NOT vis-à-vis VP results from the presence of two NegPs which trigger V- or (remnant) VP-movement – allowing different spell-out strategies. As for (ii), we argued that the proposed structure, while not syntactically determining the domain for spreading of hs, does interact with spreading by defining which categories can host the hs.
(1) a. \textsc{INDEX$_1$ POINT UNDERSTAND NOT} \\
‘I don’t understand/get the point.’  \\
\hspace{1cm} [S-O-V-NOT]  \\
\hspace{1cm} \textsc{INDEX$_1$ NOT OPINION HAVE}  \\
‘I don’t have an opinion (on that).’  \\
\hspace{1cm} [S-NOT-O-V]

(2)

\hspace{1cm} TP  \\
S \hspace{1cm} \textsc{NegP$_1$}  \\
\hspace{2cm} \textsc{Neg$_1'$}  \\
\hspace{3.5cm} \textsc{NegP$_2$}  \\
\hspace{5cm} \textsc{VP}  \\
\hspace{6.5cm} \textsc{O} \hspace{1cm} \textsc{V} \hspace{1cm} \textsc{hs NOT} \hspace{1cm} \textsc{VP}

(3) a. \textsc{INDEX$_1$ KNOW INDEX$_3$}  \\
‘I don’t know that.’  \\
\hspace{1cm} [S-V-O]  \\
b. \textsc{INDEX$_1$ EXPECT NOT INDEX$_1$}  \\
‘I didn’t expect (that).’  \\
\hspace{1cm} [S-V-NOT-S]

Constraints on Verbs in Series
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Verbs in series continue to attract linguistic attention as a syntactic phenomenon ((Foley and Olson 1985, Sebba 1987, Baker 1989, Watters 2000, Crowley 2002, Aikhenvald and Dixon 2006) and as one form of complex predicate (Amberber, Baker and Harvey 2014). Generally ignored in much of this discussion is the nature and configuration of their meaning components. As a consequence, semantic restrictions on verb co-occurrence within serial verb constructions remain largely under described.

For this paper, we consider both syntactic and semantic properties of verbs in series in order to highlight construction constraints. Our results are illustrated using Nigeria’s Emai language (Edoid/West Benue Congo in Williamson and Blench 2000), for which we have developed a grammar, dictionary and text collection. Relatively strict SVO, Emai exhibits lexical and grammatical tone, little inflectional morphology and few prepositions.

Emai also manifests a robust system of serial verb constructions whose internal structures reveal restrictions on order and co-occurrence. To characterize these structures, we utilize semantic constructs articulated in Sorace’s (2000, 2004) aspectual/thematic (AT) hierarchy for process and transition verbs as well as Levin and Rappaport Hovav’s (1995, 2005, 2010) notion of manner/result complementarity.

For intransitive verbs in series, three major constraints emerge from a Soracean analysis. The principal class constraint is process precedes transition. Controlled non-motion gua ‘heap’ precedes change of location vade ‘come’ in ójè guá vädé ‘Oje is heaping and coming’). Verb transposition would be ungrammatical. Second, process verbs regardless of order never co-occur in series: controlled non-motion ta ‘talk’ and controlled motion gbe ‘dance’ are unacceptable in series (*élé ibékhsán ò gbé vbi ósté ‘The youths are talking and dancing at the event’). Third, transition verbs co-occur (change of state daa ‘raise’ precedes existence state múzán ‘stand’ in ójè dáá múzán ‘Oje stood up’), while change of location can precede itself (ó ‘enter’ and raale ‘leave’ in òjè ó vbi ékéin imè ráálë [Oje PRP.enter LOC inside farm leave] ‘Oje entered the farm and left’). Change of location never precedes any other transition type (change of location re ‘arrive,’ existence state dia ‘sit’: *ójè ré diá vbi àgá [Oje PRP.arrive sit LOC chair] ‘Oje arrived and sat in the chair’).

For transitive verbs, similar constraints using Levin and Rappaport Hovav’s constructs are evident. Manner sau ‘push’ precedes result ye ‘move toward,’ never the reverse (ójè sûá îmâ tô yè èkó [Oje PRP.push car move toward Lagos] ‘Oje has pushed the car toward Lagos’). Manner verbs never co-occur in series (*yàn á làà éânmi lî ‘they took turns carrying the meat and chewing it’). However, result verbs co-occur (ójè ò ò fènà isón khâkhâ [Oje SC H pass feces spread] ‘Oje passes his feces and spreads it evenly’; ójè dè émâ é [Oje PRP.buy yam eat] ‘Oje bought yam and ate it’), including locative results in series (ójè shàn égbòà yè àwè [Oje PRP.move through backyard move toward house] ‘Oje moved through the backyard toward the house’).

We conclude that for Emai verbs in series stativity is fundamental. Static/result verbs occur in series or with a preceding process/manner verb. It is thus co-occurrence of Emai process/manner verbs in series that appears absolutely constrained.
The subtitle effect: How subtitle-facilitated perceptual learning can make subtitles (seem) less necessary

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A familiar language spoken in an unfamiliar accent can be difficult to understand, due in large part to mismatch between the speaker’s realizations of different phonemes and what listeners are accustomed to hearing (Adank, Evans, Stuart-Smith, & Scott, 2009). When a speaker appears on video (e.g., on television news or in a documentary film) and that speaker’s accent is judged likely to be unfamiliar to viewers, subtitles in the same language as the audio (henceforth “bimodal” subtitles; Zanón, 2006) may be added to aid viewers’ comprehension. Despite the good intentions behind such subtitling, it is not uncommon for viewers to perceive it as unnecessary and even take offense on behalf of the subtitled speaker, whose pronunciation has been implicitly insulted. This paper problematizes the popular notion that bimodal subtitles are either “necessary” or “unnecessary” for a given speaker, showing that a viewer’s need for such subtitles to understand a particular speaker is dynamic and can be significantly reduced through exposure to subtitled video of that speaker.

The mechanism underlying this effect is believed to be as follows. Unlike standard subtitles, which display a translation of the audio into another language (Zanón, 2006), bimodal subtitles provide viewers with an additional way of accessing the same lexical information that is present (albeit not necessarily readily available) in the audio. The reading of text and the concomitant activation of the corresponding lexical referents are highly automatic (Stroop, 1935) – and the reading of subtitles is no exception (d’Ydewalle, Praet, Verfaillie, & Van Rensbergen, 1991). Lexical activation, in turn, influences the perceptual categorization of speech sounds as realizations of particular phonemes (Ganong, 1980). In other words, recognizing a that a particular word was spoken (lexical activation), entails recognizing the corresponding speech sounds as realizations of the phonemes in that word (perceptual categorization). This effect has been shown to generalize to the perceptual learning of the sound–phoneme mappings underlying unfamiliar native accents (Norris, McQueen, & Cutler, 2003) and unfamiliar foreign accents (Bradlow & Bent, 2008).

Norris et al. (2003) define perceptual learning as a process through which listeners, given clearly identifiable phonemes realized in unfamiliar ways, adjust their sound–phoneme mappings to accommodate the unfamiliar realizations. In most perceptual-learning experiments, the phonemes are made identifiable through context, but bimodal subtitles have also been shown to facilitate perceptual learning of unfamiliar accents by non-native listeners (Mitterer & McQueen, 2009). Moreover, the positive effects of bimodal subtitles on the listening comprehension of students of English as a foreign language (see, e.g., Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Lwo & Lin, 2012) likely share the same underlying mechanism. It has also been shown that native listeners’ comprehension of foreign-accented speech improves significantly following as little as 4 to 8 seconds of exposure (Clarke & Garrett, 2004).

Given this, we hypothesized that subtitle-facilitated perceptual learning, through which viewers quickly adjust to the sound–phoneme mappings underlying the subtitled speaker’s accent, could just as quickly make the very subtitles that facilitate it significantly less necessary, potentially creating the illusion that they were unnecessary all along – a phenomenon that we have dubbed the “subtitle effect.”

We conducted two experiments testing this hypothesis. Experiment 1 showed that the presence of bimodal subtitles can indeed make such subtitles seem less necessary. Specifically, it showed that participants who view a subtitled video clip of a speaker with an unfamiliar accent rate subtitles as less necessary for that clip than participants who view an unsubtitled version of the same clip, $r(31) = 4.36$, $p < .001$. Of course, such a result does not rule out the possibility that the subtitle effect is just an illusion
that arises because viewers, when judging how necessary subtitles are for a subtitled video clip, do not adequately take into account the facilitating effect of those subtitles.

To test for subtitle-facilitated perceptual learning, we conducted Experiment 2, in which participants viewed subtitled or unsubtitled video clips (counterbalanced between subjects), each followed by a second, unsubtitled clip of the same speaker and then were tested on their comprehension of that second clip. The results of Experiment 2 showed that participants who view a subtitled clip of a speaker with an unfamiliar accent show significantly better comprehension of a second, unsubtitled clip of the same speaker than participants who view an unsubtitled version of the first clip ($t(41) = 2.22, p = .032$). The fact that having viewed video of a particular speaker with bimodal subtitles versus unsubtitled can significantly improve comprehension of a second, unsubtitled clip of the same speaker supports our hypothesis that the subtitle effect is not just an illusion, but is based on perceptual learning of the sound–phoneme mappings underlying the subtitled speaker’s accent. In light of these findings, perceptions of bimodal subtitles as unnecessary must be interpreted with caution.

References


Palatalization in Mongolian Vowel Harmony
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Introduction
Mongolian exhibits vowel harmony with respect to Advanced Tongue Root (ATR). Vowels with the feature [-ATR] include /a/, /ɔ/ and /ʊ/. Vowels with the feature [+ATR] include the phonemes /e/, /ɛ/ and /ø/.

Mongolian also has a series of palatalized consonants, which arose from the deletion of historical unstressed /i/. However, these palatalized consonants occur only in [-ATR] words, and significantly affect the quality of [-ATR] vowels, comparable to the effect of Umlaut in Germanic languages. These changes disrupt the phonetic process of vowel harmony by allowing front vowels which do not phonetically reflect the feature [-ATR] to occur in [-ATR] words. These palatalized vowels can also affect suffix vowels, altering the application of vowel harmony. This paper explains the implication of palatalized vowels on the system of Mongolian vowel harmony.

Background
Palatalized consonants significantly shift the quality of both long and short [-ATR] vowels, changing them from back to front vowels while retaining their height and roundness. Canonically, this affect applies to vowels adjacent to the palatalized consonant (see Svantesson). Palatalized consonants do not occur in [+ATR].

In their discussion of Mongolian phonology, Svantesson et al. [2005] primarily focused on the articulation and distribution of palatalized consonants. They acknowledge the phonetic effect of palatalized consonants on [-ATR] vowels and briefly compare palatalized long vowels with diphthongs ending in [i]. They did not provide an acoustic analysis of palatalized short vowels. Bulgantamir [2015] analyzed the acoustics of palatalized short vowels, but did not discuss them in comparison to [+ATR] vowels, long vowels or vowel harmony.

Argument
Palatalized vowels form a natural class distinct from regular [-ATR] vowels and systemically affect the function of vowel harmony. The formant chart in Figure 1 shows the significant differences in formant frequencies. The set of [-ATR] vowels, shown in blue, correspond to the indicated palatalized vowels, shown in green, which have significantly lower F1 and higher F2, reflecting the formants of /i/.

The space of palatalized consonants lies outside the space of [-ATR] vowels and instead intersects with [+ATR] vowels. The vowel chart in Figure 2 shows that the palatalized vowels occupy the range of non-high front vowels, which would otherwise be empty. The palatalized vowels fill a phonemic gap and form a natural class, sharing the features [-high] and [+front]. Palatalized vowels cannot simply belong to the class [-ATR] because they do not phonetically exhibit the feature [-ATR]; rather, they constitute a distinct class of vowels related to the [-ATR] class.

Palatal vowel qualities can spread to suffixes and across word roots, a behavior typical of vowel harmony. This can be seen in conjugation of the verb /χɭr/ /forbid/, realized as [χər]. The reflexive past, morphemically /χɭrʃnV:ɾV:/, should occur as [χərʃnəɾə:ɾə:], but often occurs as [χərʃnəɾəəɾə:]. As these palatal vowels are not adjacent to the palatalized consonant /ɭr/, this phenomenon should not be seen as the extended spread of the consonant’s palatalization but rather a spreading from the palatal vowel in the root to the suffix vowels, as is seen in vowel harmony. This effect is not consistent; both forms occur, and the palatal spreading is more common with [ɔ]~[œ] than with the other [-ATR] vowels.

Conclusion
This paper shows that palatal vowels function as a class alongside [-ATR] and [+ATR]. Furthermore, palatal vowels can exert harmonizing effects on suffix vowels. If these effects continue to regularize in analogy to other vowel harmony processes, palatal vowels will either emerge as a third class in the vowel harmony system or destabilize it, forcing reanalysis and new categorization.
References:

The Changing of Arabic Terminology in Times of War and Displacement
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Introduction: This paper traces the development of the Arabic language through the journey of a Palestinian family on their journey to find refuge. Through a variety of online resources and first-hand accounts from family members, this paper is able to shed light on the tribulations that this family has faced, and how that has influenced the way they speak Arabic till this day. The family has lived and had children in a variety of countries including Palestine, Lebanon, Kuwait and now America. Although the general Arabic spoken within the family is the same, there are underlying differences in the pronunciation of words. The specific goal of this paper is to show the impact of the Palestinian Israeli conflict on the way this family speaks Arabic today in America. Palestinian Israeli Conflict: While there are some religious elements to the conflict, it is much more than that. The Palestinian Israeli conflict is fueled “social, political, historical, ethnic and religious elements” that has created tensions among the people in these lands for many years, but specifically since 1948 when Israel was officially recognized as a nation (Garcia 2017). This is important to this paper because it highlights the internal struggle an elder in the family, namely the grandmother experienced during the time of being displaced from her home, and causing her to travel to other lands.

Findings: In 1948, the grandmother and grandfather left Palestine for a better life, away from the politics and conflict. Grandmother, Kadijah Salah, and grandfather, Najib (Al Keylani) Sleiman, left Palestine to Baalbeck, Lebanon. They resided there with 5 of their kids and their sixth child, Riad Sleiman, was born in 1964. After 20 years, Najib decided it was time to move to Khaitan, Kuwait. While the older children were already established in the way they spoke Arabic, with influences from the Lebanese dialect, there was still Riad and his younger brother who were learning the language in a time of transitioning from Lebanon to Kuwait. They were exposed to different dialects of Arabic when it came to their education and social life versus the Arabic they were hearing at home from their parents. Riad experienced a divide in his exposure to different dialects of Arabic due to his upbringing in Kuwait. His parents spoke a Palestinian dialect, and his siblings spoke a mix of dialects. This fact largely influenced the language he speaks today, as well as how it has mixed with his children’s Arabic in America.

Dialects of Arabic: There are several dialects of Arabic spoken around the world, for the most part they are mutually intelligible. The dialects that are present in this paper will be the Lebanese/ Syrian dialect, the Palestinian/ Jordanian dialect, and the Kuwaiti dialect. The family as a whole maintains the Palestinian/ Jordanian dialect throughout a majority of their conversations. There are times when certain phrases or words (specifically from Riad and his siblings) come from other dialects such as the Lebanese or Kuwaiti dialects of Arabic. For example, people who speak the Palestinian dialect would typically say “Mata” if they were asking the question “when”. People who speak with a Northern Lebanese dialect would say “Aimteen” whereas people with a Southern Lebanese dialect would say “Aimta.” People who speak with a Northern Lebanese dialect would say “Aimteen” whereas people with a Southern Lebanese dialect would say “Aimta.” After observing how the family has said it, there is a interchangeable use of “Mata” and “Aimta.” A younger speaker in the family, born in America, uses “Aimta.” This raises the question, “Why does this speaker use “Aimta” more instinctively than “Mata” which would be more typical due to being raised by the speaker’s grandmother who uses “Mata” more?” In the presentation, I will speak more on this. Is it influenced by who taught the speaker Arabic in the speaker’s younger years, or is it influenced by the speaker’s interactions with their aunts and uncles who were raised in Southern Lebanon (the city of Baalbeck). Is it something their father or grandmother said often in their childhood unintentionally and it became the primary term in their mental lexicon?

Conclusion: The development of the Arabic spoken in this family is still changing till this day. With the large influences of the past on the terminology they currently possess, it is no surprise the Arabic that is currently being spoken is “unique.” The overall uniqueness of the Arabic spoken in this family can be traced back to each of the lands in which the grandmother sought refuge in order to keep her and her family alive.
Extremist Propaganda and Qur’anic Scripture: 
A ‘Radical’ Corpus-Based Study of the *Dabiq*

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**Abstract.** Since the establishment of the Islamic State, Da’esh has been extremely successful in producing English-language propaganda for the purposes of recruiting extremists and radicalizing the disenfranchised. This study utilizes Spier’s (2016) 500,000+ word corpus of Da’esh extremist periodicals and specifically examines the extent to which particular verses from Qur’anic scripture are utilized in the first fourteen issues of *Dabiq*, which were published during a period of twenty-two months (July 2014 to April 2016). Almost three quarters of the 624 quoted or referenced verses are cited only once or twice, and approximately seventy percent of these are unique. The six most frequently attested verses come from five books of the Qur’an (*Al-Ma’idah, Al-Anfal, Al-Hashr, At-Tawbah, Al-Imran*) and account for 8.17% of all the cited scripture in these fourteen issues. Consequently, this study considers the translations utilized, the content of each of these verses, and the manner in which they are included in the periodicals in an attempt to describe the significance of their repeated invocation.

**Keywords:** Corpus Study, Islam, Terrorism, Propaganda, Scripture, Religious Culture

**Languages:** English, Arabic
That’s the right discourse referent. An ERP study on anaphora resolution in German Sign Language
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Background: Research suggests that one of the strongest preferences constraining pronoun resolution in spoken languages is the first mention bias (Crawley & Stevenson, 1990; Gernsbacher & Hargreaves, 1988; i.a.). Namely, the first mentioned referent, which is usually but not necessarily the subject of the sentence, is most accessible, and typically expected to co-refer with a (personal) pronoun in the subsequent discourse. The first mention bias is also under investigated in sign languages but so far only a few studies concentrate on the interpretation of a small range of pronominal elements in some sign languages. For instance, Emmorey & Lillo-Martin (1995) observe no first mention bias for ASL null pronouns, while Kouididobra & Lillo-Martin (2016) mention that the majority of overt third person pronouns in the CLESS Corpus of ASL, compiled by Lillo-Martin & Pichler (2008), refer to the subject/first mentioned referent. This paper presents the first experimental study investigating the reality of a first mention bias in the processing of a two-sentence discourse of German Sign Language (DGS).

The present study: We collected ERP data from 21 right-handed deaf native signers of DGS (12 female, 9 male, age range: 20-51 years) as they watched pre-recorded videos of signed sentences in DGS. The participants learned DGS before the age of three, had at least high school education level and came from different regions of Germany.

The stimuli comprised sentence sets (see the examples in (1) and (2)) containing two discourse referents (DRs) without any overt localization in the first sentence and a pronoun (INDEX) at the beginning of the second sentence followed by a predicate. These sentence sets varied in the direction of the pronominal INDEX sign (right vs. left). This pronoun either picked up the first mentioned or second mentioned referent from the preceding sentence. Previously, Geraci (2014) and Steinbach & Onea (2015) claimed that, in case there are two DRs, the first referent is typically established on the ipsilateral (right) area and the second referent is linked to the contralateral (left) area in signing space. An ERP study by Wienholz et al. (2016) showed that this pattern is a default strategy for DGS, i.e. it applies even in the absence of any overt localization cue. Hence, in examples (1a) and (2a), the first discourse referent, i.e. WOMAN, has been established on the ipsilateral area by default. By contrast, in examples (1b) and (2b), the first discourse referent established on the ipsilateral area is MAN. In the second sentence of (1ab), the pronoun INDEX$_R$ establishes an anaphoric link to the first referent and accordingly the INDEX$_L$ in the second sentence of (2ab) refers to the second referent.

160 stimuli (80 for each condition) were video-recorded with two right-handed fluent deaf signers of DGS, digitized, and then presented on a computer screen to the participants at the rate of natural signing. The stimuli were controlled for non-manuals and verb types. Three different points in time (including the time window before the sign onset) of the INDEX sign were manually coded by two researchers for the later analysis. The following results are based on the trigger ‘direction’ specified for the INDEX. There are three possible scenarios for the results: (i) the ERPs do not differ across conditions, (ii) we observe an increased brain activity in the ipsilateral condition, which would speak in favor for a second mention effect or (iii) we observe an increased activity in the contralateral condition, supporting the notion of a first mention effect.

Results: The data show a significant difference between the two conditions (t(19)= 2.236; p=.038) in the time window 400-500ms following onset of the trigger ‘direction’ over parietal-occipital regions in the right hemisphere, with the contralateral condition being more negative than the ipsilateral condition. Hence, the results seem to confirm scenario (iii). This suggests increased processing costs for the contralateral INDEX sign: It appears that participants expect the second sentence to continue with the first referent. In cases where the second sentence continues with the second referent, this expectation gets violated and causes the observed effect. Based on the above-mentioned studies that show that in DGS discourse referents are also covertly associated with areas in space, the effect can
be interpreted as an effect of first mention. However, we cannot rule out yet that the contralateral area itself, rather than the assignment of the second referent to this area, is responsible for the effect observed. This study is the first experimental investigation that reveals a difference between pronominal pointings to ipsi/contralateral areas in signing space for DGS.

(1) **Ipsilateral condition**
   a. WOMAN MAN MEET. INDEX$_R$ AGAIN PREGNANT.
   b. MAN WOMAN MEET. INDEX$_R$ AGAIN PREGNANT.

(2) **Contralateral condition**
   a. WOMAN MAN MEET. INDEX$_L$ AGAIN PREGNANT.
   b. MAN WOMAN MEET. INDEX$_L$ AGAIN PREGNANT.

‘A man/woman meets a woman/man. She/#he is pregnant again.’

Notational conventions: R = right, L = left.

**References:**


The article system of the Omaha language is extensive, consisting of eleven enclitics. These, in turn, encode features of number, animacy, shape, position, and movement. Animate articles also denote agency[T1] [NS2]. This complex system is purported to have developed from “demonstratives that originated as positional verbs, . . [a] development [that] apparently permitted speakers . . . to exploit word order for pragmatic purposes.” (Mithun 1999:199)

One feature of the system, which has not received as much attention as the features mentioned above, is that of evidentiality—the grammatical expression of information source. Reports by Dorsey (1890), Koontz (1984), and Eschenberg (2005) provide only a preliminary analysis of evidentiality in Omaha, and similar developments elsewhere in Siouan remain to be fully explored. Eschenberg (2005) finds that four of the eleven articles appear to denote four separate evidential functions (see examples 1-4 below), and that these evidentials are not necessary to form a grammatical sentence. I assume, as does Eschenberg (2005:2), that the formal similarities between the articles and evidentials are the result of diachronic developments. The fact that four articles are known to express non-mandatory evidentiality is intriguing and prompts further investigation.

This paper will first give an overview of the system and then investigate, in further detail, how and where evidentiality is expressed. Syntactic position and context will be used to pinpoint the types of evidentials that exist and which articles are used to represent them. The semantics of the pertinent articles will also be investigated and elaborated upon, in hopes that any contextual variation can be found to help explain why these evidentials are not mandatory.

The article system is intricate, and it is my hope that, with further investigation into the role of evidentials, a higher degree of comprehension of the system, its relation to a typology of evidential systems, and its historical development can be achieved.

(Eschenberg 2005, p.156-162)

(1) Visual Deduction [kʰe]

Edi ahi-bi-ama ki, koⁿha, the ede noⁿ-te thishtoⁿ a-ki-agthai-kʰe a-bi-ama

There arrive.3-pl-EVID when Grandmother this but dancing 3.finish go-RFL-go-P-EVID say-P-EVID

‘When they arrived there he said, “Grandmother, this is it, but they have finished dancing and gone homeward.’

(2) Witness [thoⁿ]

Tí gá-amá naxíde-thi”ga-i égoⁿ édi thá-zhi-a he, ehé-thoⁿ

lodge there-the.P-pl ear-none-pl such there go-not-IMP DEC 1sg.say-EVID

‘I said those villagers are disobedient so do not go there.’

(1) Visu-
(3) Inferential deduction [tʰe]
Tabe-thoⁿ gashi-shti edi-tʰe.
Ball-the.R long time-also there-EVID
‘The ball must have been lying there forever.’

(4) Reportative [ama]
Upade-akʰa wani a-bi-ama.
Surgery-the.P.sg pain say-P-EVID
‘They say the surgery is painful.’

References
Between 2010 and 2012, the Sakun (Sukur) Language Documentation Project (SLDP) created 24 hours of time-aligned, transcribed and translated videos of Sakun language in daily use. Sakun is a central Chadic language spoken in Adamawa State, Nigeria. The Sukur homeland was inscribed as a UNESCO World Heritage Cultural Landscape in 1999. Despite this international recognition, in November of 2014, Boko Haram gunmen arrived in Rugudum, at the foot of Sukur Kingdom. With ‘dangerous and sophisticated machine guns’, the gunmen proceeded up the hill towards the chief’s palace, shooting anyone who did not flee or convert, scattering the entire 20,000 strong population of Sukur from Kano to Lagos.

This paper explores the problematic nature of understanding displacement in Sukur as something happening to a discreet ethno-linguistic group and argues for the necessity of taking a more ecological approach. A Sakun identity is multilingual in nature. Of the 196 participants in the SLDP, 138 claimed to speak 5 or more languages. While speaking Sakun is neither a necessary nor a sufficient condition for being Sakun, the Sakun argue the language itself is a core element of the Sukur Kingdom. Most Sakun people have returned to their homeland after passing a year as internally displaced persons. Assessing the effects of this traumatic event on the language of the Sakun will require understanding how this displacement also affected the surrounding communities in this tightly woven matrix of interacting cultures among the montagnards.
Obviation in Karuk
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Karuk is the language from the Karuk tribe in northern California near the Oregon border along the Klamath river. Karuk is a language isolate, but shares a unique feature with the Algonquian-Algic languages: obviation. Obviation is used to mark and distinguish third-person participants in discourse. Essentially, obviation is a tool used to rank third-person characters that occupy the same position in a person hierarchy. In an interaction between third-person participants, there is a proximate character who is the main character while all others are considered obviative. An obviative marker is used when the obviative character is the agent or the one acting on the proximate character. In Karuk this is done with the marker ‘îin.

The obviative marker of Karuk contains many interesting features that differ from more typical systems of obviation. Perhaps the most interesting difference is that Karuk uses ‘îin to mark obviatives even when the proximate argument is first- or second-person. This stands out from what is expected of obviation systems as the first- and second-person already outranks the third-person in person hierarchy and does not need to be further distinguished from a third-person participant. Additionally, Karuk uses pronominal affixes based on the person hierarchy that represents who is acting on who in a given interaction. With this distinction made through the pronominal affix, the question arises as to why Karuk would also add the obviative marker, ‘îin. Perhaps the inverse action needs to be marked. However, Karuk also employs an inverse marker of –ap. Interestingly though, when Karuk uses ‘îin to mark the obviative character when the proximate character is first- or second-person rather than third-person in the object role, the pronominal affix marking the subject/object interaction in relation to the person hierarchy as well as the inverse marker –ap is also used. These findings raise the question of whether ‘îin can truly be considered an obviative marker and if so, why Karuk uses it when the proximate character is not third-person.

Examples

The following example from Macaulay (2000) demonstrates the use of ‘îin when both the proximate and obviative argument are third-person:

- ?isyu-x kuniyvunkurihvuti pacisih ‘îin ‘The dogs used to herd elk into ravines.’

Proximate third-person character: ?isyu ‘elk’
Obviative third-person character: pacisih ‘the dogs’
Obviative marker: ‘îin

The following example from Macaulay (1992) demonstrates the use of ‘îin when the proximate argument is second-person and the obviative is third-person:

- ?i-m ?o- ke-misa ‘îin ?i?ave-sap ‘The monster outside here is going to eat you.’
Proximate second-person character: $?i?ave-sap ‘you’
Obviate third-person character: ke-misa ‘monster’
Obviate marker: ‘îin
Pronominal affix: $?i
Inverse marker: -ap

References


This project will cover a component of a larger research project I am conducting with Professor Holland. We are working to document the acoustic phonetics of Colorado dialect, specifically vowels, with the goal of establishing how it relates to and differs from other regional dialects. In the early stages, we observed differences between urban and rural speakers which I will explore in more detail within this project. My goal is to catalogue variation in speakers of Colorado dialect by comparing their to augment our other research, and to see if there are lexical as well as phonetic differences by social demographic.

The Colorado speech region is poorly documented in linguistics. A search for “Colorado dialect” on Google Scholar and JSTOR brings few selections. The only relevant item is a 1961 study\(^1\) associating Colorado semantics with that of the Mid-Western speech region. The rest of the listings relate to mountain sparrow “dialect” of birds. This is just an example, however, the classic phonetic studies also neglect the complexity of Western American dialects. J.C. Wells divided the US into General American, New York City, New England, and the South\(^2\). The *Atlas of North American English* divides the US into more precise boundaries but treats “the West” as one speech region. Labov also describes “the West” as, “a dialect region in formation, without the sharply defined features and boundaries of other sections.”\(^3\) Since these famous studies several years ago, more research has surfaced on the California Vowel shift; however, Colorado is now assumed to adhere to this as well instead of the Mid-West features. For this reason, research on Colorado dialect is remarkably limited.

Our larger project has found results indicating Colorado vowels share some features with the California Shift while others differ. In our initial research, suggestions appeared in the data that urban and rural areas may differ acoustically. We have a small sample of recent as well as historical interview transcripts and I will be comparing these to a corpus of American face-to-face conversations. We received the historical transcripts from the Linguistic Atlas of the Western States\(^4\) who recorded several hundred samples across the Western US. Our modern samples have been recorded by myself and other students for the purpose of acoustic phonetic analysis. Using the face-to-face conversation corpus from American National Corpus, I plan to conduct corpus analysis on a few historical transcripts and a few modern transcripts. The goal is to create a baseline for observing lexical differences between these groups and hopefully add to the other research we’re conducting on the Colorado dialect profile. I will start by looking at keywords flagged by the corpus software then compare the differences across speaker demographics. The LAWS data methodology isn’t the same as our procedures here at CSU; however, we use professional .WAV recording devices, Praat for transcription, and AntConc for corpus analysis.

The current challenge of this project is gathering enough samples to make meaningful observations, and balancing the demographics as young/rural or elder/urban are poorly represented in our data so far. I currently have only two older speakers who I have been comparing to the corpus and have noted interesting patterns. *I*, *me*, *he*, *she*, and *my* are marked for keyness and appear highly infrequently.

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\(^4\) http://www.lap.uga.edu/Site/LAWS.html
compared to the corpus. *And, to, so, and because* are also noted for key infrequency. This suggests perhaps sentences are primarily shorter or avoid complex constructions often joined by conjunctions and prepositions like these. *You,* however, is used much more frequently and I noted that it was most commonly used by the interviewer whose text appears alongside the interviewee. Separating the two speakers is another issue for me to resolve, but I find the lack of personal pronouns to be a noteworthy indicator that other lexical items may vary as well. Hopefully, I will soon find a solution to my small pool of data but otherwise have a clear vision of how to handle the analytic portion of the process.

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**References**


The purpose of this paper is to identify how Language Minority (LM) university students construct agency in their academic literacy experiences. Kanno and Cromley (2013) demonstrate a large disparity in educational attainment for LM students within higher education. One in eight U.S. four-year university students who had been identified English Learner (EL) in U.S. secondary school complete their bachelor’s degrees as opposed to one in four who are not identified as such. They assert that under-preparation in academic literacy is a central issue contributing to this disparity. This paper investigates how academically literate LM university students display agency in face-to-face interaction and narratives.

Data was collected in a university peer-tutoring center. It includes three, 30-minute peer-tutoring sessions in which LM students discuss their academic work and ten, 30-minute interviews with LM students who define themselves as highly academically literate. Analysis involves identification of LM students’ positioning of themselves and others as agents in the small stories (Bamberg and Georgakopoulou, 2008) and accounts (DeFina, 2009) they tell about their educational experiences. We also identify the emergence of agency as negotiated moment by moment (Al-Zidjaly, 2009) in the peer tutoring sessions. In our data, LM students relate accounts that point to institutional constructions of deficiency rooted in the fact that their first language is not English. Analysis of the small stories indicates that these LM students become transformative agents in their development of academic expertise in three major ways: through family and individual resistance to institutional norms, through rich interactions with experts, and due to their use of community resources. Implications include the need to consider how lifelong socializing experiences affect academic literacy development and to further research LM student access to university resources, including faculty relationships and mentoring.
A mixed-methods study exploring perceptions of speech fluency
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Prior research has investigated second language speech fluency perceptions primarily through quantitative means by correlating temporal measures of speech (e.g. speech rate) with rating assessments. However, few research studies have also employed qualitative analyses of interviews with raters and test-takers. To fill this research gap, this study incorporated a two-phase mixed-methods convergent parallel design (Creswell, 2009) to examine how English as a second language (ESL) speakers' speech fluency is perceived by expert raters and intermediate to advanced ESL speakers enrolled in a Canadian university. In phase one, interviews and test simulations of task one of the Oral Language Test (OLT), which is the speaking component of the Canadian Academic English Language (CAEL) assessment, were conducted with six ESL speakers who later self-evaluated their one-minute speeches. In phase two, interviews were conducted with two expert raters who also evaluated the speeches. In-vivo and pattern coding (Saldaña, 2009) analyses of the interview transcripts revealed that, overall, participants' evaluations of speech performances were influenced by the perceived degree of automaticity, comfort, grammatical acceptability, speed, continuity, contextual/cultural familiarity and receptivity of speech. Pearson correlation analyses showed strong and/or significant correlations between specific temporal measures of speech (e.g. speech rate and phonation-time ratio) and participants' evaluations of speech performances. Merging the two analyses indicated how temporal features may be perceptually interrelated with non-temporal features, suggesting that temporal measures only constitute one aspect of a larger whole. The results are discussed in accordance with Segalowitz's (2010) cognitive science perspective of interrelated fluencies (cognitive, utterance, perceived).

References

On the syntax of telicity marking in Mandarin Chinese

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**Introduction.** It has been observed that Chinese differs from English in that a sentence containing an accomplishment with the perfective aspect marker –le like (1) may or may not have a complete reading. A result-denoting element such as wan ‘finish’ in (2) must be added in order for the sentence to convey completion. According to Tai (1984), the phenomenon is due to the fact that Chinese does not have verbs that belong to the accomplishment verb class. On the other hand, Smith (1997) claims that the perfective aspect in Chinese only signals termination instead of completion.

**Problems.** However, the two approaches presented above have been called into question. For example, Soh & Kuo (2005), demonstrate that in some cases, a terminative reading is not available in a sentence that contains an accomplishment verb as demonstrated in (3). They argue that the variation is due to the two languages’ nominal systems. In Chinese, the numeral yi ‘one’ is ambiguous and this contributes to the two readings in (1). Nevertheless, a syntactic account is needed as recent studies such as Ritter & Rosen, (2001, 2005), and Travis (2005, 2010) have demonstrated that event information is encoded in the syntax. A related issue that needs to be addressed is that wan ‘finish’ in fact functions quite differently from many other resultative complements although it has been categorized as a resultative complement. The sentence in (4) is an example that contains a typical result-denoting complement. As demonstrated, the word po ‘break’ describes the result state of the direct object. In contrast, in a sentence like (5), which has a non-referential object, wan does not signal the resultative state of either the object or the subject and simply indicates the completion of the event. Its linguistic properties, therefore, need a revisit.

**Proposal.** This study gives an alternative account to the structure of sentences containing an accomplishment. The adopted approach is that the computation of the telicity of the event is carried out under a functional phrase, Inner Aspect Phrase, which is projected between vP and VP. First, I propose that the two different readings (both atelic and telic) of (1) are due to a syntactic reason. In other words, there are two syntactic structures for a sentence like (1). Secondly, I give an alternative account to a sentence that contains the word wan ‘finish’ like (4) and argue that wan is a pure telic morpheme.

**Analyses.** Following Slabakova (2001), I assume that dynamic verbs such as activity and accomplishment verbs are underspecified for the lexical feature [telic] or they have an [α telic] value that needs to be checked off. Given that the telicity of a sentence like (1) is determined by the semantic property of the direct object as suggested by Soh & Kuo (2005), I claim that the computation is under a spec-head relationship between the main verb and the direct object in InnerAspP. The verb first moves to the head, and the object moves to the specifier of this functional phrase, respectively. Under the spec-head relation, the verb is assigned with the value of [+telic] when the direct object has the feature of [+Quant]; on the other hand, when the direct object has the feature of [-Quant], the verb has the value of [-telic]. As for wan ‘finish’, it is an overt telic morpheme in the head of InnerAspP and it assigns the verb with the value of [+telic] regardless of the semantic properties of the object, if any. Therefore, in a sentence like (2), although the object is the same as (1), nevertheless, the sentence only has a telic reading. The derivation of a sentence like (2) is as follows. First, the main verb xie ‘write’ moves to InAsp and is adjoined to wan. The direct object then moves to the specifier of Inner Aspect Phrase. Finally, the cluster xie-wan ‘write-finish’ further moves to little vP. Similarly, in a sentence like (5), there exists no referential objects that delimit the event, wan also assigns the verb with the value of [+telic] and directly contributes to the telic reading without the help of a direct object.

**Conclusion.** The current study argues for two mechanisms that Chinese uses to mark telicity and gives a syntactic account. First, the telicity of a dynamic event is determined by the semantic property of the direct object; the sentence has a telic reading when the direct object is quantized and specific. The second mechanism is the use of overt telic morphemes such as wan ‘finish’. The sentence is always marked as telic regardless of the property of the direct object, if any.
(1) Wo zoutian xie-le yi feng xin, keshi mei xie-wan (Tai, 1984)
I yesterday write-PRF one CL letter, but not write-finish
*I wrote a letter yesterday, but I didn’t finish it.’

(2) *Wo zoutian xie-wan-le yi feng xin, keshi mei xie-wan (Tai, 1984)
I yesterday write-finish-PRF one CL letter, but not write-finish
*I finished writing a letter yesterday, but I didn’t finish it.’

(3) *Ta zuo-le yi ge dangao, keshi mei zuo-hao (Soh & Kuo, 2005)
he take-PRF one CL cake but not bake-finish
*He baked a cake, but did not finish baking it.’

(4) Zhangsan da-po-le yi ge bolibe Zhangsan hit-break-PRF one CL glass
‘Zhangsan broke a glass.’

(5) Zhangsan pao-wan bu le
Zhangsan run-finish step LE
‘Zhangsan has finished running.’

Selected References