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Gender-Marked Sentence-Final Particles (SFPs) in Japanese Manga
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**Overview:** This study investigates “stereotypical language use” using Japanese manga data which is rich in SFPs overtly marked for gender. A hierarchy of SFP use is identified when age range is combined with gender as a variable.

**Background:** The Japanese language is rich in linguistic indexes of sociocultural information with respect to social status, roles, speaker-hearer relationships and gender. In particular, SFPs are highly marked in signifying the gender of the speaker.

The validity and application of many studies of SFPs in Japanese, however, is limited due to gender values being assigned to individual particles in the absence of solid linguistic evidence or valid argumentation for such assignation. A particular problem area is the scarcity of studies using real language data as the basis for the research. This scarcity of natural data risks perpetuating a stereotype of language use. Stereotypes of social evaluation often function at a rather superficial level although there is usually an element of truth on which the stereotype is based (Shibamoto 1987a:39). This is of particular concern with respect to SFPs in standard Japanese which historically have been manipulated with respect to male and female gender roles. During the language reform of the Meiji Restoration, the standardization of the Japanese language ultimately resulted in certain forms being assigned to represent the male and female voice, some which were previously used by both male and female speakers and some which may have been newly contrived forms for female speech (Clark 2009). Mass print media in the form of domestic novels (and later manga) became the vehicle by which these forms were eventually normalized for use in everyday speech (Ueno 2006).

**Methodology:** For this study, 1066 SFP tokens were collected and coded for SFP type, age range of speaker, gender of speaker, character type, manga type, addressee information, copula deletion, grammatical function, speech style, and gender stereotype. The tokens were selected from four manga types: those targeting teen females (TF), adult females (AF), teen males (TM), and adult males (AM). Of the tokens collected, 494 were considered neutral and 572 were considered stereotypically marked for gender. Both sets were analyzed but only the gender-marked SFPs na, zo, ze, sa, wa, and no produced significant findings which are reported on here.

**Analysis and Results:** Quantitative variable rule analysis (Varbrul) was used for quantitative and interpretive analysis of the data. This study provides evidence that the use of SFPs in manga does tend to conform with stereotypical use and, for the most part, supports the traditional linguistic claims of gender use. It also identifies a hierarchy of variability of SFP use among manga character-types based on a correlation of age range and gender variables.
**Implications for Future Research:** Given that such interesting variation can be observed in *manga* where the stereotypical is the “norm”, a fruitful next step would be to delineate a hierarchy of use for the various sub-groups of male and female speakers in natural language contexts.
Language, society, and culture have long been recognized as interconnected. Research by Halliday (1978) and subsequent followers of his Systemic/Functional Linguistics formally established the concept of genre to capture this relationship of language as a social phenomenon. Traditionally referring to types of literary production (novels, poems, plays, etc.), genres have expanded to include spoken production (debate, joke, lecture, etc.). Even broader, genres can be seen as “dynamic social processes rather than as static textual forms” (Kern 2000: 86). Establishing norms of interaction, genres provide recognizable codes between speakers/listeners and writers/readers. Recognizing these codes, we are able to communicate effectively by connecting particular instances of discourse with others we have previously experienced. For example, we can identify cookbooks and recipes upon reading the first few words and glancing at the itemized structure. We are able to anticipate what is coming and which details might be significant. Nevertheless, each culture has its own genre, making a cross-cultural comparison insightful to how different societies interact. Indeed, genre conventions “are arbitrary when considered in isolation, [but] they are not arbitrary within the context of any specific society” (Kress 1994: 125). Each culture has different expectations between participants, which are expressed at the discourse level in the grammar and content. A cookbook is such an example.

In this study, we will compare the language used in everyday text (cookbooks) available in Japan and the U.S., two cultures that are believed to be very different. We will show how the language in recipes is characterized with both written and spoken discourse. As Tannen (1982) notes, “strategies associated with oral tradition place emphasis on shared knowledge and the interpersonal relationship between communicator and audience,” which contrasts with literate tradition that emphasizes “the communicative function of language: the use of words to convey information or content” (p.3). The oral-like qualities of the recipe include first personal references (I, my), speaker’s mental processes (I think), and emphatic particles (just, very, really) that are evidences of involvement of the speaker (Chafe 1982, p. 48). Recipes also feature written language with clauses, sequences of prepositional phrases (of...of) conjoined phrases, and null subjects with imperatives (Chafe 1982, Bower 1997). Specifically, we will examine the written and oral-like language in two Japanese cookbooks written in English (Harumi Kurihara (Harumi’s Japanese Home Cooking, 2006) and Masaharu Morimoto (Morimoto: The New Art of Japanese Cooking, 2007)) and how the foreign authors relate to their American readers through their grammar and lexical choices. As Tannen (1982) notes, written and spoken discourse are not two separate domains but that there is a continuum between the two, which we will demonstrate in this study.
Languages use different ways to show extra emotional meaning that goes beyond the linguistic sense expressed by words. Some of those are volume of speech, pauses, intonation, interjections, particles, manner of uttering the words, and others. As such, looking at the conversations that are part of the National Corpus of Russian (consisting of over 300 million words), this study finds that one of the ways the speakers express irritation in Russian is by use of the particle –to.

This colloquial particle has been an interest of researchers for a few decades, in particular because its nature is hard to pin down. It is hard to prescriptively or even descriptively say where it can be used or what it means. The functions of the particle –to that the previous research describes are: to show contrast, to show emphasis, to mark delayed question in discourse, and to mark theme or information known to hearer, but not currently activated in the hearer’s mind (Bolden 2003, 2008, Grenoble 1998, McCoy 2001, Vasilyeva 1972). This study looks at another additional to all these categories function of the particle –to, that is, expression of negative emotions of irritation or impatience.

Therefore, the three goals of this paper are: 1) in addition to a brief overview of the already identified and described in the literature functions of the particle –to, this study shows by analyzing naturally occurred conversations that in some situations this particle is used as an emphasis marker to express negative emotion of irritation. 2) Moreover, to further prove the point that –to serves the function of showing negative emotion, this paper illustrates how this particle is used for this purpose in the created speech of movie scripts. This demonstrates that the function of expression of irritation by –to has been recognized by Russian native speakers, but has not been described yet. 3) Lastly, examination of the social contexts where the particle appears shows that its use is dependent on register and social status of interlocutors, that is, the particle is used mostly in the casual register of spoken colloquial style conversations with the interlocutors of equal status, or when the speaker is of the higher status than the listener, or when one has negative attitude towards the other.

The multiple functions and specifics of appropriate use of the particle –to, with all the fine differences and nuances between them, are hard to describe and even more difficult to explain to someone else. Therefore, the Russian as a Foreign Language textbooks (Langran 2005, Skorokhodov 2010, Vishniakov 2007) contain little to no information on this widely used colloquial particle. The results of this study as well as the results of the previous and future research on Russian particle –to, together with the original examples of conversations produced by native Russian speakers, could be used for teaching Advanced Levels of Conversational Russian as a Foreign Language.
The Pragmatics of Swahili Adnominal Demonstratives
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Overview: Synchronic studies on Swahili adnominal demonstratives have not addressed the interplay between syntactic position and pragmatic function of these structures. This study shows how the notion of salience, the prominence of referents in discourse (Chiarcos et al. 2011), explains Swahili word order variation. Swahili proximal and distal demonstratives agree with the class of the noun they modify. Here, I examine class 1 (animate nouns) proximal (huyu) and distal (yule) demonstratives in the two attested word orders: NP+DEM (1) and DEM+NP (2):

(1) [Msichana yule] a-li-ingia
  1girl  Distal.DEM  1AGR-PAST-enter
  ‘That girl entered.’

(2) [Yule msichana] a-li-ingia
  Distal.DEM  1girl  1AGR-PAST-enter
  ‘That girl entered’

In (1) the distal demonstrative yule is postnominal, but prenominal in (2). Crucially, the two are viewed by native speakers as truth conditionally equivalent. A close analysis reveals distinct pragmatic values; (1) signals topic continuity while (2) signals topic shift.

Methodology: 437 adnominal demonstratives from the Helsinki Corpus of Swahili were analyzed. The demonstratives were coded as prenominal or postnominal, proximal or distal. Further, based on contextual analysis, the pragmatic function of each demonstrative was coded as:
  (i) gestural (signals the distance of a referent from the deictic center)
  (ii) “recognitional” (indicates familiar referents) (Himmelman 1996)
  (iii) anaphoric (tracks evoked entities in discourse)

Results and Discussion: 42 gestural demonstratives were in prenominal position and 11 were postnominal ($X^2 (1,N=53)=18.13$, p<0.001). 49 recognitional demonstratives were in prenominal position, 5 were postnominal ($X^2 (1,N=54)=35.85$, p<0.001). The frequency difference indicates that the DEM+NP order is preferred for gestural and recognitional demonstratives. Further, contextual analysis of the examples revealed that the NP+DEM order establishes topic continuity within the same ‘discourse segment’ (Grosz et al. 1995; Walker et al. 1998). On the hand, the DEM+NP marks topic shift as well as establishing a referent as the most salient visual or cognitive referent.

Implications: Several studies examine pragmatic functions of demonstratives across languages (Krasavina 2011; Diesel 1999; Cornish 1999; Himmelmann 1996; Fillmore 1975, 1982, 1997). However, few studies discuss demonstrative function and position relative to the noun via a corpus analysis. Moreover, aside from brief mentions (Givon 1976, Leonardo 1985, 1987; Wilt 1987; Carstens 1991), the pragmatic function and syntactic position of Swahili adnominal demonstratives have not yet been investigated. This study reveals how the syntax-pragmatics interplay can explain distinct structures viewed as semantic equivalents by native speakers.
Communicatory Practices among Role-Playing Gamers: Building a Working Model of the Index Sign
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Ferdinand de Saussure famously lectured on the arbitrariness of the ‘sign’—composed of the signifier and the signified—in his General Course on Linguistics, and he put a name to the brand of linguistics known as semiotics. As a student of Linguistic Anthropology I have utilized the theory of signs, primarily as identified by Charles Pierce, to understand how meaning is understood in and out of context, and how contextualized use of language between individuals in a community of practice aligns them with one identity or another (often, multiple). Pierce’s theory of the index, a linguistic sign that gains meaning through contiguous associations between the signifier and the signified, can be used in discourse analysis to discover how different phrases, words, physical actions, and their combination thereof ‘point’ to various contextualized roles as defined in a community of speakers. In this presentation I take ethnographic data from time spent among players of fantasy Tabletop Role-Playing Games and utilize the indexical theory as developed in semiotics and sociolinguistics to explore how players manage various role identities through linguistic means.

Primarily, this presentation contributes a new way of understanding how meaning is organized within the index sign. Philosopher and anthropological linguist Silverstein (1976) argued that indices are divided in two parts, one referential (i.e. to the real world thing it ‘speaks’ of) and one non-referential. This important contribution to semiotics, however, does not explain the possibilities of meaningful representation in human communication, but certain sociolinguists and philosophers have found more useful expression of the index elsewhere. Soviet theorists Bakhtin and Voloshinov identified its use in literary analysis, while Ochs (1993) and Hill (2005, among others) were able to apply the index to gender presentation and mock Spanish. For these later linguists, the index is capable of identifying both direct and indirect, over and covert meanings. And yet even these capabilities identified in the theory are not entirely representative of the whole “potential of language behavior” (Ochs 1993:338). As with many things anthropological, the index has been used more as a guiding line of how to talk about communication that ‘points to’ identities. What I propose, then, is a way of conceiving of the index that allows for multiple possibilities of representation.

Using the ethnography of communication methodology, I analyze the speech of players during multiple gaming sessions of Dungeons & Dragons and Pathfinders, two Role-Playing Games. These games are particularly well-adapted to such research because players have at their disposal multiple roles, constantly able to move between fiction and reality in their communication, and a detailed and well-developed speech community. I have identified that the index sign is subdivided into two indexicals—one referential, one stylistic—and that these may optionally be
further subdivided into sub-indexicals. This model allows for a wider and more holistic understanding of how human language expression cultural identity in meaningful contexts. The results of this study are currently being edited for publication in the *International Journal of Role-Playing*. 
Language ideology is defined by Wolfram and Schillings-Estes as “…ingrained, unquestioned beliefs about the way the world is, the way it should be, and the way it has to be with respect to language” (Wolfram & Schillings-Estes, 1998: 9). The language ideology surrounding Chiac, a variety of Acadian French spoken primarily in Southeastern New Brunswick, is complex to say the least. Due to its high use of anglicisms and archaic grammatical structures, its use has been stigmatized and marginalized by speakers and non-speakers alike, with this view intensifying at the beginning of the 20th century with increased contact between New Brunswick and the rest of Canada. However, with the release of the documentary Éloge du Chiac in 1969, a new ideology was brought to light: that of pride (Comeau & King, 2008). After the documentary’s release, there was an explosion of studies on the language focusing on both sociolinguistic and linguistic aspects, such as syntax, phonology, language ideology, and usage. Through these studies, it has become apparent that this shift in ideology is causing a revolution of sorts, which is reflected in the use of Chiac in popular culture and current media.

Given this changing language ideology and the media’s impact on said ideology, I looked to the internet, a source that has yet to be explored by studiers of Chiac and its place in the promotion of the culture. By looking at online sources, including articles found on news sites, blogs and forums, videos and music videos found on Youtube, I was able to gather information on this emerging ideology through comments found below the source. These comments react to the media displayed, are written by non-speakers and speakers, and tend to focus on the use of the variety. Through analyzing these comments both quantitatively through graphs as well as qualitatively, I found a steady pattern of language pride exhibited by speakers and language support shown by a high percentage of non-speakers, though the ideology does remain hegemonic for a small minority of speakers. These findings support earlier studies while adding a couple new dimensions: the first in using online media, and the second in looking not only at speakers’ language ideology, but also that of non-speakers.

My presentation illustrates my study more thoroughly through graphs and examples and its impact on the legitimization of Chiac culture. It also highlights the importance of media in Chiac culture and the changing ideology as well as promotes the use of online media as a source for this language ideology.
An essential communication skill is the ability to evaluate the reliability of the statements we hear. We ask ourselves, does the speaker seem sure about the information? Is the speaker's source of information trustworthy? This ability relates directly to children's developing theory of mind, specifically, their ability to reason about mental states, both theirs and others' (Papafragou, 2002). We test understanding of both certainty (e.g. John was definitely in San Antonio; Maybe John was in Albuquerque) and evidentiality (e.g. I saw John in Las Cruces yesterday; Someone told me John was in Las Cruces yesterday). Languages have different linguistic forms to express degrees of (un)certainty (possibility, probability and certainty) as well as sources of information (direct evidence, inference and hearsay); for example, for certainty, English uses adverbs (e.g. maybe, definitely), modal auxiliaries (must, may) and mental verbs (I know, I think). Modal auxiliaries present a challenge to young children because they serve the dual purpose of expressing degrees of certainty and regulating behavior (by conveying obligation and permission). Our study follows up on the research by Matsui et al. (2006) who found that in Japanese, a language that uses sentence-final particles and mental verbs to express certainty and evidentiality, preschool children understood these concepts better when they were conveyed by particles than when they were encoded by verbs. They also found that certainty contrasts were easier for children to understand than evidentiality contrasts. In our study, monolingual English-speaking participants (32 children, ages 3 and 5 and 12 adults) heard 2 puppets make contradictory statements, varying in information source or level of certainty, regarding the location of a hidden object. Participant interpretation of contrasting degrees of certainty (certainty > possibility, certainty > probability, and probability > possibility) indicate clear developmental trends (adults > 5 year olds > 3 year olds). In the certainty-form contrast, all participants performed well with adverbs and relatively poorly with modals and mental verbs. We show among monolingual English speaking children that the age of 4 is crucial to acquire these forms and semantic groups which express certainty contrasts. The results within evidentiality showed a clear developmental trend with direct observation over hearsay and inference, but that adults consider hearsay and inference equally reliable. The relative reliability of hearsay and inference had never been previously investigated for monolingual adult native English speakers. Previous hierarchies which were not experimentally established distinguished these information sources. In the comparison of evidentiality (which did not include hearsay compared with inference, because there was no adult consensus against which to judge child performance) to certainty, we did not confirm Matsui et al.'s Japanese findings in English. We believe this is due to the fact that our direct evidential markers are based on "see" which children tend to acquire early (e.g. Naigles, 2002, Jeschull and Roeper, 2009).
Knowledge of Adjective Reference by Monolingual Spanish- and English-Speaking Children
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Previous studies (Waxman and Kosowski 1990, Waxman, Senghas, and Benveniste 1997, and Waxman and Guasti 2009) have concluded that monolingual Spanish-speaking children but not English-speaking children (3 and 4 years of age) “extend” a novel adjective that was originally applied to an individual object, to other members of the same superordinate level category. According to the authors, this is due to the Determiner-Adjective construction in Spanish. In this construction, a postnominal adjective occurs in the same surface position as a noun such as in: 

La azul ‘the blue(one), and according to Waxman and colleagues the adjective in this construction adopts a semantic function that is customarily associated with count nouns leading Spanish-speaking children to assume that adjectives refer to objects. Therefore the conceptual representation of adjectives by monolingual Spanish-speaking children is different from their representation by monolingual English-speaking children.

One problem with this explanation is that the authors disregard the difference between reference and predication. In English and Spanish adjectives never refer directly to objects. They refer to properties which are predicated of objects. The researchers presented to the children a model object (e.g., a cow) and four possible choices; two belonged to the same superordinate category (e.g., a fox and a zebra) and the other two options were thematically related to the model object (e.g., milk and a barn). In the Novel Adjective Condition the researchers asked: See this? (model object) This is a foppish thing. Can you find another one that is foppish? The design of these studies does not present shared object properties that the adjective refers to.

In the present study, children had to recognize that a novel adjective refers to a property of an object and no to the object itself and find the object that has the same property. Children were presented with a model object depicting a pattern (e.g., a tomato with dots) and two test items as alternatives to choose from. One test item was the same object as the model object, but had a different salient pattern (e.g. squiggly lines). The other test item (e.g. a bunny) had the same salient pattern of the model object. This study also explored the role of syntax and morphology as informative linguistic sources for the child to acquire the grammatical category of the adjective by using four different linguistic contexts: (1) Adjective without morpheme or syntactic context, (2) Adjective without morpheme but with syntactic context, (3) Adjective with morpheme but without syntactic context and (4) Adjective with morpheme and syntactic context. The results of the present study show that English- and Spanish- speaking children do understand that adjectives refer to properties and not to objects supporting my hypothesis that children conceptualize adjectives as properties regardless of the language they appear on and that 3 year-olds benefitted from the full context while there seemed to be no effect on the type of linguistic
context for the 4 year-olds and a better performance for 3 year-olds in context 4 than in contexts 2 and 3.
The place of schwa in Educated Ghanaian English: A case for intelligibility in ELF
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The English language has become the language of international politics, air-traffic control, trade, finance, and science. Its prestigious nature as the de facto language of international diplomacy makes it a necessity for its speakers to communicate without encountering any communication breakdown. The speakers of this language can be categorized as native or non-native, based on one’s nationality. While native speakers are technically described as those that use the language as their first language, non-native speakers use it as their second or third language. In the field of SLA in general, the norms of the target or second language and its native speakers are usually used as reference points and models of speech production. However, studies in SLA have also shown that the production and perception of non-native contrasts (segmental and suprasegmentals) pose enormous difficulties for L2 speakers. Several factors account for such difficulties, and these include the influence of the L1 phonological system, markedness, universal tendencies or individual characteristics. The result of a combination of all or any of such factors is the production of what is considered deviant variants of the desired speech segments as perceived by the native speaker. The proposal of Lingua Franca Core (LFC) by Jenkins (2000) and a suggestion of the shift in pronunciation goals from native speaker model to that which promotes international intelligibility (Jenkins, 2000) have brought in their wake, systematic investigations on the shared phonological features that confirms or denies Jenkins’ assertion. In all or most of these studies, one common finding that is considered similar to many new varieties of English, including India (Kachru, 2005); the ASEAN countries (Deterding and Kirkpatrick, 2006) and Zimbabwe (Kadenge, 2009); Ghana (Bobda, 2000) is the regular use of full vowels where reduced vowels might be expected in inner-circle varieties (Deterding, 2006) and that this ‘does not usually affect intelligibility’ (Deterding 2006).

This paper therefore investigates whether Educated Ghanaians produce reduced vowels, especially the schwa using instrumental analysis. To achieve this, words containing schwa at initial, medial and final positions were presented to 66 university students to produce in sentence form. Data were then analyzed using the Computerized Speech Laboratory (CSL). Vowels were plotted in the F1/F21 Bark plane to determine vowel quality. A perception was also conducted with the recorded sentences to determine how intelligible they were. Results of the production test revealed that Educated Ghanaians do not produce the reduced vowel, schwa, but instead, produce full vowels in their place. To determine whether the (un)production of reduced vowels has any effect or influence on intelligibility among speakers of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), a perception test was conducted with the produced sentences. Preliminary results reveal that this phenomenon has no real effect on intelligibility in ELF.

These results show that the (un)production of reduced vowels do not hinder intelligibility, but rather, enhance it. It follows that there should be a shift from native speaker norms in the teaching of ESL to strategies and approaches that will help learners to sound intelligible when communicating.
Variation in Nez Perce glottalized sonorants
Katherine Nelson
Rice University

Nez Perce, a highly endangered American Indigenous Language, is one of few languages in the world which has both a plain and a glottalized sonorant series. While the plain sonorants, /m, n, j, w, l/, can occur in all environments, the glottal /, are more restricted. There has been some work on these segments in Nez Perce (Aoki 1970; Um 2001), but the only instrumental work has been by Aoki (1970). The current study will provide an in depth analysis to further the understanding of Nez Perce plain and glottalized sonorants.

Five native speakers were recorded for this study. Each speaker recorded about 70 words from a wordlist which was developed in consultation with native speakers and language resources. All speakers were recorded in quiet rooms with a Zoom H4n recorder and an AKG C555L head-mounted microphone with an AKG MPA VL adapter.

When examining the current recordings, extensive variation was found in the realization of glottalization on the sonorant. The glottalized segments are realized both with and without glottalization and some speakers realize them as both plain and glottalized in the same environments. Some of the glottalized segments are realized similarly to past descriptions, with glottalization across a portion or all of the sonorant, however, the current study shows that they are also realized with a pause of approximately 0.09 seconds after the segment.

In addition to these findings, this paper also highlights the importance of conducting acoustic work on lesser studied languages. As Nez Perce is a highly endangered language and one of few with both a plain and glottalized sonorant series, studying Nez Perce is all the more important to add valuable phonetic information to our understanding of glottalized sonorants.
Long Distance Attraction Effects in Sentence Processing
Nathan Eversole
University of Texas at Arlington

A core question in psycholinguistics is how subject-verb agreement (SVA) is computed during online production and comprehension. In terms of comprehension processes, one recent proposal is that SVA is computed through a relatively unstructured search process (Wagers, Lau & Phillips 2009). This model posits that an agreement cue triggers a search through working memory for an NP with corresponding agreement features. If the search mechanism finds an agreeing subject, the search ends. If there is a mismatch, the search mechanism may incorrectly choose a ungrammatical NP with the correct agreement features.

A key finding in support of this proposal is the apparent illusion of grammaticality that occurs in sentences like the following: *The musicians that the reviewer praise so highly won a Grammy.* The unstructured search model holds that this illusion occurs because the plural relative clause head allows for long-distance agreement attraction. One test of this model is to examine whether this illusion of grammaticality is obtained across agreeing verb forms. The strong prediction is that when a plural attractor allows for long-distance agreement attraction, this illusion should be maintained, regardless of the verb that triggers the search.

The present experiment (N=32) tests this prediction by looking at self-paced reading times (RTs) on sentences as in examples (1)-(4) below. Test sentences varied on two dimensions – the number of the attractor NP and grammaticality. Sentences (1) and (2) contain a singular attractor element (musician). Since the ungrammatical sentence (2) does not contain an attractor NP with agreement features that match those of were, no agreement attraction is expected and RTs at and/or immediately after this verb should be inflated. Sentences (3) and (4), however, include a plural attractor element (musicians). Since the ungrammatical sentence (4) contains an attractor element with agreement features corresponding were, agreement attraction should occur and RTs at and/or immediately after this verb should be relatively unaffected.

Results: The results of the experiment were not consistent with these predictions. No RT differences were observed among the sentence types at the agreeing verb (was/were). However, at the word immediately following this verb (praising), RTs were significantly longer in ungrammatical sentences and there was no interaction between grammaticality and attractor number. That is, there were clear processing costs for ungrammatical sentences, regardless of the attractor element’s number.

Conclusion: The results indicate that long-distance agreement attraction does not occur when SVA involves a free morpheme (was/were) rather than the bound, third-person singular morpheme -s. These findings cast doubt on the unstructured search model of SVA processing. Two followup experiments (results forthcoming) were conducted to show that the disparity between the results reported here and those reported by Wagers (2009) are due to the different agreement target. Experiment 2 addresses the difference between the character number in was/were by comparing grammatical and ungrammatical items with were as the agreeing verb (5-8). Experiment 3 replicates the results reported in Wagers (2009), confirming the disparity between the free agreement target and the bound agreement target reported by Wagers.
Form interference effects during silent reading
Iya Khelm, Jeff Witzel, Naoko Witzel
University of Texas at Arlington

This study investigates the role of phonology in silent reading. Although a number of studies have shown that phonological repetition causes reading comprehension difficulties (e.g., Acheson & MacDonald, 2011; Kennison et al., 2003; McCutchen et al., 1991; Perfetti and McCutchen, 1982), the nature of these processing costs remains unclear. The present study attempted to shed light on this issue by examining (i) the time-course of form-related interference effects, (ii) the interaction of these effects with syntactic processing difficulty, and (iii) the extent to which these effects relate to phonological or orthographic overlap.

Participants’ eye movements were recorded as they read reduced and unreduced relative clause (RC) sentences like the following:

(1a) unreduced/reduced RC; O+P+
The infection (that was) left by the injection badly hurt the young child.
(1b) unreduced/reduced RC; control
The infection (that was) left by the medicines badly hurt the young child.
(2a) unreduced/reduced RC; O+P-
The laughter (that was) caused by the daughter continued on throughout the party.
(2b) unreduced/reduced RC; control
The laughter (that was) caused by the minister continued on throughout the party.

Experiment 1 (EX1; N=32) tested sentences as in examples (1a) and (1b); Experiment 2 (EX2; N=32) tested sentences as in (2a) and (2b). As illustrated in these examples, the by-phrase in the RC contained (i) a word that overlapped in form with the head of the subject NP (infection… injection) or (ii) a length and frequency matched control word (infection… medicines). Form-related words differed from the subject head by only one letter. In EX1, these words were also strongly phonologically related to the head noun (O+P+), differing from it by only one phoneme (infection… injection). In EX2, however, these words were phonologically dissimilar to the head noun (O+P-; laughter… daughter). It was predicted that if phonological overlap influences early stages of comprehension, form-related processing difficulty should be revealed in first-pass reading time (RT) measures and should occur independently of syntactic processing effects. However, if phonological overlap primarily affects retention and retrieval in working memory, form-related processing difficulty should be obtained only in later RT measures and should interact with syntactic processing difficulty. Finally, form overlap effects that are truly phonological in nature should be obtained in O+P+ sentences, but not their O+P- counterparts.
Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Ferreira & Clifton, 1986), both experiments yielded robust indications of syntactic processing difficulty at the disambiguating by-phrase in reduced RC sentences. Both experiments also revealed processing difficulty at the form-related word – the O+P+ word in EX1 and the O+P- word in EX2 – under first-pass and total RT measures. These form interference effects did not interact with syntactic processing difficulty in first-pass RT measures. In EX1, however, there was an interaction of form overlap and RC type under total RT, indicating particular processing difficulty for reduced RC sentences with O+P+ words.

Taken together, these findings indicate that form similarity causes interference even in the early stages of silent reading. These effects cannot be attributed exclusively to phonological form overlap, as processing difficulty was found for both O+P+ and O+P- words. However, the late interaction of form overlap and syntactic processing effects only for O+P+ sentences suggests that phonology, but not orthography, plays a key role in comprehension processes related to retention and retrieval in working memory.
It’s nothing, really: A relevance-theoretic account of meiosis
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This study provides an analysis of the rhetorical figure of speech meiosis or understatement within the framework of Relevance Theory (hereafter: RT). Proponents of RT seek to provide a cognitively realistic explanation of ostensive communication on the basis of two basic assumptions: 1) human cognition tends to be geared towards the maximization of relevance, that is, positively affecting one’s existing assumptions (cognitive effects) with as little processing effort as possible; 2) every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance. In discussing tropes, relevance theorists assert that the same interpretive process underlies both literal and figurative uses of language: the search for optimal relevance.

While much attention has been paid in the RT literature to the figures of metaphor and irony, only Herrero (2009) has treated meiosis at length. However, his treatment is marred by three key defects: 1) reliance on meaning-reversal as an interpretive process even though it has been discredited as such in the RT literature; 2) positing two different cognitive operations that the speaker and hearer must undergo, respectively, even though the ultimate goal is the same: maximization of relevance; 3) claiming that a speaker using meiosis seeks to minimize cognitive effects in her hearer, which contradicts a central insight of RT: the Presumption of Optimal Relevance.

Here I argue for recognition of two distinct types or strategies of meiosis that employ different methods in achieving relevance. One type relies on a process of linguistically uncontrolled pragmatic enrichment for the formation of ad hoc concepts on the basis of lexically encoded concepts whose meanings have been broadened or loosened to include in their extensions items of higher degree than those included in the original denotations. This meiotic strategy is closely allied with the relevance-theoretic approach to metaphor. The second type relies on the notion of echoic or attributive use of language, where the speaker’s utterance represents a thought about another thought or utterance attributed to some other source than the speaker at that moment in time and from which the speaker dissociates to some degree. This meiotic strategy is closely allied with the relevance-theoretic approach to irony and can be shown to closely resemble an uncommon form of irony where an explicitly negative or neutral evaluation is used to express praise rather than blame or indifference: in both cases, the speaker explicitly states what is socially expected while dissociating from it, implying approval of a behavior or attitude that runs counter to accepted social norms. A failure to sufficiently disentangle meiosis from the ironic use of meiosis has prevented previous recognition of these two distinct meiotic strategies.

In providing a complete relevance-theoretic analysis of meiosis that avoids the pitfalls of the earlier approach, this study fills a gap in the treatment of tropes from the RT perspective. It also opens possibilities for integrating meiosis with a relevance-theoretic account of hyperbole and sheds useful light on the nature and classical understanding of meiosis itself.
An inductive approach to Chinese tone identification for naïve learners
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A considerable body of research has investigated focus on form in grammar instruction (Ellis 1990, 1997; Spada 1997). More recent work has dealt with focus on pragmatic forms (Takahashi 2001, Tateyama et al. 2001); however, comparatively little work has been done with focus on form in phonology (Derwing and Munro 2005). To focus on form requires a mode of instruction whereby learners are exposed to meaningful input within a communicative context (Long 1991, Ellis 2001). Successful focus on form relies on learners to first notice these forms as differential to their L1 (Schmidt 1990, 1995). In terms of lexical tone, learners must first be taught to differentiate and identify each tone in order to be able to successfully begin to negotiate meaning. The question remains as to how to most effectively teach tonal distinctions to naïve learners in form-focused communicative classrooms.

Tone has traditionally been regarded as one of the most challenging aspects of learning Chinese as a second language. In the case of L1 English learners, Wang et. al (2003) suggest that this is a result of the comparative inattention to tone. Others (Shen, 1989; Lee & Nesbaum 1993) have identified the difficulty in processing of the complex segment+tone stimuli. Other work investigates the effects of orthographic scaffolding (Liu et. al 2011) and exclusively auditory training (Wang, Spence, Jongman and Sereno 1999) on the acquisition of tone. Although these studies and others have laid a groundwork for understanding how CSL learners acquire tone, there is still a lack of research regarding how different types of training bolster tonal identification, a gap recognized by Liu et al. and others. The current study addresses research gaps in tone identification training paradigms from an SLA perspective with implications for Chinese second language pedagogy and the ongoing question of the effectiveness of inductive/implicit instruction.

To this end, an inductive training method was created and experimentally tested using twelve naïve learners of Chinese. Participants were introduced to tone by first mapping their knowledge of English intonation onto the contours of Chinese tone. In this section of the experiment tones were described based solely on participants’ individual preferences and perceptions. After determining the characteristics of each tone and being able to identify them based on this self-selected classification system, participants were required to identify tones based on the traditional numeric identification system, chosen above the iconic system as it is considered less easily mapped (Liu et al. 2011). That is, participants were presented with the mapping expected to be the most difficult to acquire.

The findings of this study demonstrate that participants who underwent inductive training performed equally or better at delayed post-tests one week after initial training than in the immediate post-test. Further, a strong correlation is shown between tone feature identification and the success of the participant. This type of approach appears to be successful in helping learners identify tone and retain these distinctions over time as a first step toward negotiation of meaning.
French Audio-Visual Materials to Create a Learning Community in Secondary Education

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Language learning involves content acquisition and personal involvement from the teachers and students’ side. In our paper we will show how audio-visual materials can foster socio-cultural learning (Kelley, 2006) and help enhance students’ transfer of tacit knowledge (Sternberg & Horvath, 1999) to take a more participative role in the language classroom. In the context of French as second language learning in secondary education, we will work with a variety of reading, listening, speaking and writing activities to pave the path for our students to develop the linguistic and sociolinguistic skills involved in the presentational, interpersonal and interpretive communication modes.

To serve this purpose, we will use some extracts from the French movie “Les Choristes” – “The Chorus” – by Christophe Barratier (2004), which was nominated to the Oscar Awards and discusses some universal topics such as childhood, post-war social impact on children and music as a form of expression. Students can easily relate to the story and work on the pronunciation through the songs as well as expand their vocabulary as they improve their performance in French through activities based on dialogues and prompts from the motion picture. The visual support allows students to activate their previous schemata and thus facilitates their involvement in a variety of engaging tasks and projects. We will use information technologies as a tool that offers the teacher a myriad of resources to cater for students’ diversity in the classroom (Castañeda & Soto, 2010).

Our ultimate goal is to create a learning community (Lindbeg & Anders, 2010) where students interact and can personalize contents while they work towards a common goal such as creating a blog (Hou, Chang & Sung, 2009) or presentations on music from different backgrounds and any form of art with a positive impact on someone’s life. The continuous assessment of students’ performance at different stages guarantees that we comply with the quality standards for foreign language teaching.
Preferences of Pre-Service English Language Teacher Trainees for Either Phrasal Verbs or One Word Equivalents  
Serap Atasever

This study was designed to investigate phrasal verb preferences of pre-service English language teacher trainees in ELT Department at Anadolu University, Turkey in terms of three factors; phrasal verb type (literal and figurative), test effect and years of study in English education. Data included three types of elicitation tests; multiple-choice, translation and recall test administered to 52 participants. Results indicated that pre-service English language teacher trainees, especially 3rd year teacher trainees seemed to have a tendency to use phrasal verbs (PV) more frequently than one-word equivalents (OWE). Moreover, subjects showed a greater performance for literal phrasal verb usage rather than figurative ones in all tests especially in multiple-choice test.