Metroplex Conference Schedule
Saturday, November 1, 2014
9:00am – 5:00pm

8:30am – 9:00am  Registration

9:00am – 9:45am  Opening Talk – Dr. Salvatore Attardo (TAMUC): “Context”

9:45am – 10:00am  Break

10:00am – 12:00pm  Session 1 – Chair: Lucy Pickering

10:00am – 10:30am  Paul Kroeger (GIAL): “The status of the agentive clitic in Malay: evidence from reflexive binding”

10:30am – 11:00am  Sok-Ju Kim (UTA): “NPI scrambling in Heritage Korean: incomplete acquisition, L1 attrition, or age effects?”

11:00am – 11:30am  Rosalia Dutra (UNT): “Parallelisms and the expression of affect in multi-party conversations: an example from Brazilian Portuguese”

11:30am – 12:00pm  Flavia Belpoliti (TAMUC): “’Pero no sabo esa palabra’: correlating receptive and active knowledge among Heritage Learners of Spanish”

12:00pm – 1:15pm  Lunch & Posters Session

1:15pm – 2:45pm  Session 2 – Chair: Salvatore Attardo

1:15pm – 1:45pm  Kathryn Farmer, Hamed, Khanpour, Rodney Nielsen (UNT): “Top identification: was that a car or a Honda?”

1:45pm – 2:15pm  Zachariah Yoder (GIAL): “The reliability of recorded text test (RTT) scores”

2:15pm – 2:45pm  Kristen Fleckenstein (UTA): “The role of ASL non-manual negation markers in sentential and constituent negation”

2:45pm – 3:00pm  Break

3:00pm – 5:00pm  Final Session – Chair: Christian Hempelmann

3:00pm – 3:30pm  Davide Guagnano (TAMUC): “Explicit and implicit communication in humor”

3:30pm – 4:00pm  Jeremy Graves (GIAL): “Elusive noun classes of Fe’fe’”

4:00pm – 4:30pm  Ehsan Shafiee Zargar (UTA): “Possessor raising in Classic Persian”

4:30pm – 5:00pm  Sadaf Munshi (UNT): “Structural aspects of Vanivun and Ladishah – two genres of Kashmiri folklore”
This paper presents a pragmatic view of context as a dynamic, automatic, subconscious process whereby speakers form a mental representation of the relevant parts of their extended perceptual sphere in relation to the ongoing state of their (inter-) action(s).

The presentation will start out by a vivid example of the importance of context to everyday interactions, in this case by a misguided computer algorithm and a Facebook user, to emphasize the practical importance of the notion of context. Several views of context will be reviewed, including Firth, Malinowski, Catford, Halliday, Givón, and Stalnaker, with the purpose of emphasizing the range of definitions.

The focus on the paper however is on the mechanisms whereby the speaker builds and maintains the mental representation of his/her world, with an emphasis on the delimitation of the construct. Particular attention will be given to the abductive and inferential processes required for this function.
‘Pero No Sabo Esa Palabra’: Correlating Receptive and Active Knowledge Among Heritage Learners of Spanish
Flavia Belpoliti, Texas A&M University-Commerce
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“Words are the basic building blocks of language, the units of meaning from which larger structures such as sentences, paragraphs and whole texts are formed” (Read 2000, p. 1). Still, research in this area in the context of Heritage Languages continues to be overlooked in favor of other components of the acquisition process, especially in the case of Spanish in the US (Lafford et al. 2003; Montrul 2009).

The main goal of this study is to analyze the relationships between receptive and active vocabulary knowledge of Spanish Heritage Learners (SHL) by contrasting results from a test of lexical recognition and a writing task. The participants in this study (N=75) were college-level students who took a Spanish Placement Exam (Fairclough, Belpoliti & Bermejo, 2010) to enter the Spanish for Heritage Learners Program at a major metropolitan university in the Southwest.

The study is part of a larger project that seeks to better understand the overall lexical knowledge SHL possess, which can help in the development of the still pending explanation and description of proficiency levels for learners of Spanish as a Heritage Language. In addition, the results will assist pedagogical designs and implementations that focus on these students’ particular learning needs (Valdés, 2001).

References
Parallelisms and the Expression of Affect in Multi-Party Conversations: An Example from Brazilian Portuguese.
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This presentation explores some aspects of the grammar of utterances in the context of the animated conversational exchange of multi-party interactions. It shows that the high degree of lexical, prosodical, structural and organizational parallelism that characterizes this material is the means through which speakers maximize social proximity. As a result, when speakers engage in the production of co-constructed talk-in-interaction, not only do they push language into new directions by producing “increments of inferred significance with immediate impacts on local meaning in the moment” (Du Bois 2010:3), but they also produce an outlet for the joint expression of emotive meanings. A characterization of these emotive meanings is, in turn, shown to be sensitive to the number of times certain linguistic features are reproduced across speakers, which leads to the conclusion that speakers are aware of, and thus carefully monitor, the production of parallelisms in face-to-face interactions.
The companionbot project is an ongoing research endeavor at the University of North Texas Human Language Technologies lab (UNT HiLT). When completed, the companionbot will live in-home with elderly people who may be at risk for depression and will serve as a counselor, companion and guide to its user. To do this, the companionbot must be able to identify which topics the user enjoys discussing so as to know what might be an enjoyable topic for future conversation. While the “topic” of communication has been a popular area of study in Computational Linguistics, most of the previous work relates to topic modeling, which is a distinct task, unrelated to that of topic identification. Topic modeling assumes a generative model, where one first randomly samples topics according to a topic distribution and then, given a topic, randomly samples words according to that topic’s lexical distribution statistics. The topics, vocabulary, and distributions are all learned from a large corpus of documents and a predefined number of topics. In contrast, our system needs to be able to identify any dynamic topic at any taxonomic level the user chooses to discuss, it must rely on spoken data, and it must be able to function in real-time as the conversation progresses.

Adding to the challenges of this project are the nebulous nature of “topics.” For example, human annotators often disagree about what the topic of any given conversation is, and this agreement becomes much worse when the annotators are asked to identify where that topic begins and ends. In order to make reliable training data for a computational system, we needed to find ways to reduce as much as possible both inter-annotator and intra-annotator variability. Through a process of iteratively refining our annotation approaches including limiting the candidate words and using a ternary selection process, we were able to reach agreement of over 95% between our three annotators on previously unseen data ($\kappa = .814$). This presentation will discuss each of these challenges, our solutions, and the effects of those solutions, both positive and negative.

References
The Role of ASL Non-Manual Negation Markers in Sentential and Constituent Negation
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Observed patterns of negation vary widely from language to language. While some, like Standard American English, use a single negation marker for sentential negation, many other languages fall within the bounds of negative concord. Negative concord is a well-documented linguistic process involving the use of multiple instances of negation in a single sentence without cancelling the sentence’s overall negative polarity (Giannakidou, 2005). In American Sign Language (ASL), it is known that facial expressions and head movements serve grammatical functions rather than simply adding non-verbal emphasis, as they do in spoken languages (Zeshan, 2004). ASL uses many non-manual behaviors, but the negative headshake is the only one capable of signaling negation in the absence of any manual negation marker (Veinberg and Wilbur, 1990). Negative concord structures, in the form of a co-occurrence of manual and non-manual negation markers, in ASL have been found to create sentential negation. Constituent negation in ASL, however, is a lesser-documented phenomenon, and the exact role and scope of non-manual negation markers in constituent negation has not been determined.

Existing research on the structure and semantics of negation in ASL has overlooked the possibility of constituent negation as separate from sentential negation. Some research mentions the possibility that constituent negation exists in ASL, but an in-depth analysis has not been undertaken for constituent negation the way that it has for sentential negation. Though Zeshan (2004) discusses the ways that a negative headshake could be applied for constituent negation in signed languages, her research only briefly touches on constituent negation in other sign languages and does not examine ASL.

The present research attempts to examine and compare the specific role of non-manual negation markers in sentential and constituent negation in ASL. The differences between sentential negation with negative concord and sentential negation with only a non-manual negation marker are explained, as are the differences between the negation structures used in constituent negation.

In order to distinguish sentential negation from constituent negation, the following properties are used as diagnostic tools:

1. tag-questions,
2. adverbial jumping,
3. the again-test, and
4. the deliberately-test.

The results from the present research seem to indicate that there is a co-existence of wide (sentential) and narrow (constituent) scope negation, rather than a reliance on sentential negation as suggested by most contemporary formal logicians. Languages use a variety of different strategies to mark different syntactic scopes, and ASL appears to have grammaticalized the two types of negation using different combinations of manual and non-manual negation markers. While a manual negation marker is not sufficient to produce sentential negation, it does appear to be a grammatical method of expressing narrow scope negation.

Data
The following data contain representations of the ASL signs via English glosses, as indicated by the words in all caps. Other gestural information, like a negative headshake, is depicted by a line appearing between the start and end points of the headshake. Because other types of headshakes are used in ASL, this specific type of non-manual gesture is marked by ‘neg.’ The English translation of each sentence can be found below the gloss. Sentences (1)-(3) show examples of sentential negation, while (4) and (5) show constituent negation.
1. MOTHER FUTURE NOT BUY HOUSE
   ‘Mother will not buy a house’

2. TEACH+AGENT NOT LIKE MOVIE
   ‘The teacher does not like movies’

3. fs-JOHN NOT FINISH READ BOOK
   ‘John didn’t finish reading the book’

4. fs-JOHN SORRY NOT READ BOOK
   ‘John regrets not having read the book’

5. I LOOK-OUT, HAPPY NOT YOU
   ‘When I look out there, it makes me glad I’m not you’

References
Elusive Noun Classes of Fe’fe’
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Bantu languages are known for their large number of noun classes with a typical language having 15-20 noun classes. Singular and plural noun classes are usually paired together to form genders, with gender concord occurring on nominal modifiers and verbs. Ngangoum (1970) only identified two noun classes in Fe’fe’, whereas Hyman (1972) identified eleven. These two analyses are the only comprehensive analyses available, and there has been no further work specifically on Fe’fe’ as far as we have been able to determine. This paper shows that Fe’fe’ noun classes currently exhibit four distinct genders which are solely distinguished by the concord prefixes shown in Table 1 that occur on singular possessive pronouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Class</th>
<th>Gender concord on SG possessive pronouns when noun is SG</th>
<th>Gender concord on SG possessive pronouns when noun is PL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Class 1 | 1-
| | mb-
| Class 2 | 1-
| | l-
| Class 3 | z-, ∅-2
| | z-, ∅-
| Class 4 | m-
| | m-

Examples (1)-(4) illustrate gender concord prefixes on the third person singular pronoun i which modifies a singular noun from each of the four classes.

(1) séd | l-i
friend CL1-3SG.POSS
‘his friend’

(2) jēj | l-i
basket CL2-3SG.POSS
‘his basket’

(3) mvi | z-i
goat CL3-3SG.POSS
‘his goat’

(4) ku | m-i
leg CL4-3SG.POSS
‘his leg’

Ngangoum’s (1970) analysis was clearly incomplete, as he focused entirely on tonal distinctions, noting only that nouns pluralized by a nasal prefix (Hyman’s class 6) tend to take the possessive concord marker /m-/. Hyman’s (1972) analysis, while much more thorough, represents an historical approach. Our analysis, however, is focused on a synchronic description of noun classes, which has led us to analyze nouns taking the possessive marker /l-/ as part of a separate class.

There are two historical sources for this class, as noted by Hyman (2014 personal communication). The first source is nouns that historically contained a final consonant /l/; today, the /l-/ only appears in the prefix on the possessive pronouns. The second source is a denasalization process of a final consonant /n/ becoming /d/. This /d/ then develops into /l/, which again appears as a prefix on possessive pronouns.

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1 Tone has been excluded from Table 1.
2 When gender concord is realized as a null prefix, the singular pronoun cliticizes to the noun as =a ‘1SG’, =o ‘2SG’, or =i ‘3SG’.
What is significant here is that two separate sources have converged to create what can justifiably be analyzed as a separate class from a synchronic descriptive viewpoint. Whatever their historical origin, native speakers are only aware that certain nouns take the possessive beginning with /l-/ If we desire to describe the language with this viewpoint in mind, we are justified in analyzing this form as a separate noun class, as in Table 1 above.

References
Explicit and Implicit Communication in Humor
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This paper examines the differences in the organization of explicit and implicit information in two textual genres of humor: jokes and funny interactions. The fundamental difference between these two genres is that information that is explicitly stated in interactions is kept implicit in jokes.

I conducted a study based on the transcription of nine interactions collected from a popular Italian radio show, broadcast by one of the Italian national channels. The Logical Mechanisms and Script Oppositions (Attardo and Raskin 1991; Attardo 2001) of each text were recorded. These same nine texts were also submitted to seven Italian native speakers, with a similar university education, which included some creative writing experience. Some semi-professional writers were included in the sample. The native speakers were asked to produce jokes starting from the radio broadcast interactions. It was found that humorous interactions tended to explicitly state the script opposition and the logical mechanisms, whereas when the native speakers were asked to produce jokes they tended to leave either or both script opposition and/or logical mechanism until the punch line. It was also found that the implicit parts of the texts were often related to the violation of the Gricean maxims, especially Manner and Relevance.
This study investigates whether and how adult Korean “heritage speakers” (Valdés, 2000) in the United States maintain or lose the non-canonical properties of Korea-specific properties of Negative Polarity Items (NPIs) scrambling in comparisons with DP scrambling in Korean. The study also focuses on why scrambling of NPIs is more difficult to acquire than DP scrambling by Korean heritage speakers. Previous research has explored to what extent heritage speakers acquire or maintain the grammatical properties in their heritage language (binding: Kim et al. 2009) and to what degree the acquisition of the grammatical properties is affected by the dominant language (transfer: Montrul 2010, L1 attrition: Polinsky 2011).

Unlike English, in base/unscrambled sentences, NPIs in Korean have to be clausemate with negator (1). With respect to scrambling, English prohibits scrambling whereas Korean allows any DP scrambling. Scrambling can occur locally in short scrambling both in simple and complex sentences (2-3). In addition, Korean allows long scrambling of NPIs, resulting in non-local licensing on the surface (4). Since Korean NPIs are not case-marked, comparisons of acceptability between case-unmarked NPI scrambling and case-marked ordinary DP scrambling are necessary, in order to examine whether case markers cue the interpretations of scrambling.

Participants consist of three experimental groups: twenty-five simultaneous heritage Korean speakers (HKI) (AOA 0-2; ages 18-23, M=20;0), twenty-five early sequential heritage speakers (HKII) (AOA 7-10; ages 18-23, M=20;0), and thirty-four native Korean speakers. The heritage speakers were at intermediate or advanced proficiency. They were college students or college graduates. The subjects completed a paper-based Acceptability Judgment Task on the Korean object NPI scrambling of amwuto ‘anyone’ in three different syntactic properties: short scrambling in simple and complex sentences, and long scrambling. Contexts were given in a question format.

The results showed that heritage speakers overall showed lower acceptability of NPI scrambling than native speakers. The results also showed that heritage speakers showed lower acceptability of DP scrambling than native speakers. Incompleteness of the acquisition of NPI and DP scrambling suggests that syntax-discourse interface is harder to acquire than morpho-syntactic properties (e.g., binding: Kim et al., 2009). Case-unmarked and NPI licensing-conditioned scrambling is harder than case-marked licensing-unconditioned DP scrambling both in Heritage and native Korean. Thus, case morphology facilitates interpretations of scrambling in Korean, even though syntax-pragmatic interface (i.e., scrambling) is generally hard to acquire, while case morphology cues scrambling interpretations to heritage speakers.

In terms of age effects and L1 attrition, there were no age effects shown in NPI and DP scrambling. However, HKII shows potential L1 attrition in the acquisition of NPI scrambling, in comparison with HKI. The results may also suggest that HKII tends to be more resilient to case-morphology in scrambling than HKI.

To summarize, heritage Korean speakers showed that NPI scrambling is more difficult to maintain than DP scrambling. There were no age effects found in DP scrambling. However there was potential L1 attrition shown in NPI scrambling by early sequential HKs.
Examples and Figures of Negative Polarity Items (NPIs) in Korean

   \begin{verbatim}
   I-TOP C-NOM anyone meet-PST-DEC-COMP believe-CI NEG-do-PRS-DEC
   \end{verbatim}  
   ‘I do not believe that Chelswu met anyone.’

2. \textit{amwuto [Chelswu-ka t manna-ci an-h-ass-ta].}  
   anyone C-NOM meet-CI NEG-do-PST-DEC  
   ‘Chelswu did not meet anyone.’  
   \begin{verbatim}
   \textit{Intended ‘ANYONE, Chelswu did not meet.’}
   \end{verbatim}

   \begin{verbatim}
   I-TOP anyone C-NOM meet-CI NEG-do-PST-DEC-COMP believe-PRS-DEC
   \end{verbatim}  
   ‘I believe that Chelswu did not meet anyone.’  
   \begin{verbatim}
   \textit{Intended ‘I believe that ANYONE, Chelswu did not meet.’}
   \end{verbatim}

   anyone I-TOP C-NOM meet-CI NEG-do-PST-DEC-COMP believe-PRS-DEC  
   ‘I believe that Chelswu did not meet anyone.’  
   \begin{verbatim}
   \textit{Intended ‘ANYONE, I believe that Chelswu did not meet.’}
   \end{verbatim}

5. Figure 1. NPI Scrambling: Short and Long Scrambling

6. Figure 2. Ordinary DP Scrambling: Short and Long Scrambling
The Status of the Agentive Clitic in Malay: Evidence from Reflexive Binding
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The Malay/Indonesian verbal prefix *di-* is generally analyzed as a marker of Passive Voice. This is uncontroversial in examples like (1a). In this talk I argue that the prefix *di-* always marks Passive Voice, a claim which has been challenged on both functional and syntactic grounds. I focus on the syntactic issues here, in particular the question of whether a clitic pronominal agent like that in (1)b) is a core argument or not.

(1) a. Buku ini akan *di-*baca (oleh) mereka.
   book this will PASS-read by 3pl
   ‘This book will be read by them.’

   b. Buku ini akan *di-*baca=nya.
   book this will PASS-read=3sg
   ‘This book will be read by him.’

Arka & Manning (1998) argue that the agent of the *di-*V construction is an oblique argument except when it is expressed by the 3rd person pronoun =*nya* cliticized to the verb, which they analyze as a core argument. Passive agents by definition cannot be core arguments, so under their analysis examples like (1)b) are not passives, but some kind of ergative or inverse clause. Their primary evidence for this claim is the contrast in binding properties illustrated in (2)). Based on the theory of reflexive binding proposed by Manning (1996), Arka & Manning argue that the agent expressed by the clitic pronoun =*nya* in (2)b) must be a core argument, because it can bind a reflexive which is a core argument. The prepositional agent in (2)a) is unable to bind a reflexive in the same position, because this PP is not a core argument.

(2) (from Arka & Manning 1998)
   a. ?*Diri=nya *di-*serahkan ke polisi oleh Amir.
      self=3 PASS-surrender to police by (name)
      (for: ‘Himself was surrendered to the police by Amir.’)

   b. Dir=nya selalu *di-*utamakan=nya.
      self=3 always PASS-prioritize=3
      ‘Himself is always prioritized by him.’ (i.e., ‘He always gives priority to himself.’)

However, it is not clear that the examples in (2) involve real syntactic binding at all. Cole & Hermon (2005) and Kartono (2013) have shown that the “short reflexive” form (*diri* + pronoun) may either be syntactically bound, like a true reflexive, or take a discourse antecedent like a plain (non-reflexive) pronoun (see examples in 3)). I suggest that the contrast illustrated in (2) is due to discourse or pragmatic factors, rather than the syntactic status of the arguments. I suggest that the greater acceptability of (2)b) as compared to (2)a) is due to the high inherent topicality of clitic pronouns (Givón 1983:18). The use of a clitic pronoun for the agent in (2)b) implies reference to a highly topical participant, and this topical participant would be available to function as a discourse antecedent for *diri=nya*, creating the observed co-referential interpretation. The agentive PP in (2)a), in contrast, is a form that would not normally be selected if the agent is highly topical. This explanation is supported by the fact that an agentive pronoun can appear to “bind” a reflexive even when the pronoun is preceded by a preposition, where it would uncontroversially be an oblique argument (ex. 3)b).

(3) a. [Mertua=nya Rita]i sangat meny-(s)ayangi *diri=nya*.
      mother-in-law=3 Rita really AV-love self=3
      ‘Rita’s mother-in-law, really loves herself, /her,.’ (from Kartono 2013)
b. Di-akui oleh=nya, bahwa diri=nya, sedang belajar mengendarai mobil.

 stringstream
  ‘It was admitted by him, that self, was just learning to drive a car.’

Cole & Hermon (2005) and Kartono (2013) both state that “long reflexive” forms like diri=nya sendiri are true anaphors, requiring “a c-commanding antecedent in a local domain;” so we need to ask whether these forms might provide evidence which supports the Arka & Manning analysis. But once again we find natural examples where the long reflexive can take a discourse antecedent (4)a), and can be “bound” by an agentive PP that contains a pronoun (4)b). The minimal pair in (5)) provides additional evidence that the contrast reported by Arka & Manning is due to the high inherent topicality of clitic pronouns, and does not constitute proof that agentive =nya must be a core argument when it attaches to the verb.

(4) a. Padahal dirinya.sendiri di-hormati oleh raja-raja.

     actually self PASS-honored by kings
     ‘In fact he himself (Gautama Buddha) was honored by kings.’
        Jakarta: Yayasan Obor Indonesia, p. 115 (Google books)]

b. Rio di-manfaatkan oleh=nya untuk kepentingan dirinya.sendiri...

     (name) PASS-exploit by=3sg for importance self
     ‘Rio was being exploited by her, (= his girlfriend) for her, own (lit: self’s) advantage.’
     [http://www.hutanta.com/ebooks/bypass/EB000005JK]


      self=3 always PASS-prioritize by (name)
      (for: ‘Himself is always prioritize by Amir.’)

b. Diri=nya sendiri selalu di-utamakan oleh=nya.

      self=3 always PASS-prioritize by=3
      ‘Himself is always prioritize by him.’ (i.e., ‘He always gives priority to himself.’)

References
  http://dspace.library.uu.nl/handle/1874/280549
Based on various features such as their structural properties, the nature and background of the participants, authorship, content, theme and social context, etc., oral traditions in Kashmir fall under various categories. The main objectives of this study are to talk about the history, development and structural aspects of some popular poetic genres in Kashmir, with special reference to two unique forms of verbal folk arts from Kashmir, viz. Vanivun and Ladi Shah. A defining feature of both Vanivun and Ladi Shah is their **metrical structure** and **fixed melody**; thus, while a large number of poetic instances have been composed and improvised in each of these genres, the melody has always remained the same. This unique feature sets them apart from most of the other forms of poetic discourse in Kashmiri. The melody is built on an abstract metrical structure which is also fixed but not necessarily unique to the genre. Various linguistic means are employed by poets to arrive at the specific metrical structure.
The Reliability of Recorded Text Test (RTT) Scores
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The Recorded Text Test (RTT) is commonly used to test intelligibility of related speech varieties. As introduced by Eugene Casad (1974), the method involves recording a narrative text, developing a question-based audio comprehension test based on the text, and using this test with speakers of speech varieties related to the text’s speech variety. More than 25 papers using this method have been published on www.sil.org/silesr from 2009 to March 2013. Many of these publications use RTT to inform language development decisions. When speakers of one speech variety obtain low intelligibility scores on a related speech variety, this is often used as evidence that the test takers speak a different language from the tested speech variety (Lewis 2009:9).

This is the first study to explore the reliability of RTT scores using multiple text tests, each tested with speakers of more than one related speech variety. The fieldwork took place in 2011 and 2013. Twelve texts were collected, three each from four speech varieties: Bebi [ISO 639-3 identifier bzy], Eneje [kad], Obe Nrugene [afe], and Nkim [isi]. In each language variety, three ten-question comprehension tests were developed based on texts from three topic areas: an experience with a woman who the storyteller loved (e.g. the Bebi Love text), and experience at farm (e.g. the Bebi Farm text), and an experience when traveling (e.g. the Bebi Travel text). Each set of three tests was administered to speakers of three other speech varieties related to the tested speech variety.

In each of the four language varieties, the mean results of each of the ten-question Love, Travel, and Farm tests can be compared with the 30-question combination of all three tests. For example, the ten-question Bebi Love, Bebi Travel, and Bebi Farm tests could be compared with the results obtained if all three tests were treated as a single 30-item test. The subjects’ mean score on the ten-question RTT differ by as much as 12% from their mean scores on the 30-question combination RTT, a statistically significant difference. Ignoring this error in reporting could result in misinterpreting the meaning of the results of the RTT. Some authors have suggested specific thresholds (for example 75%, Summer Institute of Linguistics 1991:45), below which they would conclude (considering other factors) that the tested speech variety is a different language than the subjects’ speech variety and thus the speakers of these two languages could not understand literature published in each other’s’ languages. If results are near to a selected threshold, one may draw incorrect conclusions about how many languages there are and whether literature could be extended to be used by speakers of related speech varieties.

This thesis had immediate implications for reporting. Casad recommended that one could develop RTTs with only ten comprehension questions (1974:12, 113). Increasing the number of questions would increase the reliability. This means that surveyors should report the number of questions in the test, explicitly stating if they use only ten questions. Also, the topic of the tests had an effect on the scores. The four tests based on texts about an experience with a loved woman had higher scores than the four tests based on a text about an experience at farm. Surveyors should report the topics of the texts their tests are based on.

This study demonstrates that the selection of a text to be used in an RTT has significant implications on the results of the RTT. Having identified that the ten-question RTT may not be sufficiently reliable, those who use RTTs need to decide how reliable they want the RTT to be. The reliability could be increased by increasing the number of questions and restricting the range of topics of the RTT to increase its reliability, though this would come at the cost of extra fieldwork. Also more research is needed on the reliability of the retelling version of the RTT, which has subjects retell a narrative segment-by-segment (Kluge 2006). The retelling version may be more reliable because it tests a larger sample of the language than the ten-question RTT (see Decker 2014; Lambrecht 2011).
References
Lambrecht, Philip. 2011. Re: Different RTT methods. Document sent to LgSurveySIL@lists.sil.org, part of this document is planned to be published on SIL ESR by Noel Mann as “Sociolinguistic survey of Stieng in Mondulkiri, Kratie, and Kampong Cham Provinces, Cambodia.” (25 July, 2011).
This study analyzes the Classic Persian phenomenon known as “Fakk-e Ezafe” (disjoining of the addition) as a case of external possession. External possession is defined as “a phenomenon where a nominal is syntactically encoded as a verbal dependent but semantically understood as the possessor of one of its co-arguments” (Deal 2013). Fakk-e Ezafe shows typical characteristics of this phenomenon; the possessor appears in a position higher than the possessum phrase, and it is marked with a –ra suffix, basically used to mark definite-specific objects, as shown in (1).

In the modern syntactic descriptions of Persian, it has been suggested that Fakk-e Ezafe is the same in nature as a similar construction in Modern Persian known as Clitic Binder (Karimi 1990, Ghomeshi 1997), as in (2). I provide evidence from the different licensing conditions associated with each construction and the differences in morphological markings to show that Fakk-e Ezafe and Clitic Binder are distinct phenomena. Crucially, receiving a Possessor theta-role is essential for formation of Fakk-e Ezafe, but not for Clitic Binder constructions.

The characteristics of external possession in Classic Persian are outlined based on the two variables provided by Deal (2013): whether the surface position of the possessor is achieved by movement, and whether the possessor receives an additional theta-role. I argue for a movement analysis of the possessor’s surface position by providing evidence from three phenomena: (I) binding reconstruction effects, (II) relative clause islands and (III) coordinate structure islands. Since Clitic Binder constructions are believed to result from base-generated topicalization of a DP (Ghomeshi 1997), the results of external possession in each of these cases are compared with their Clitic Binder counterparts to show that the same type of base-generated analysis cannot be applied to external possession (see (3) as an example for relative clause island effects resulting in ungrammaticality of the external possession). I also show that the proposed movement of the possessor does not illustrate the cross-linguistically common semantic restrictions such as animacy, inalienability of the possession or affectedness of the possessor by the verb, as in (4). Put together, these properties suggest movement of the possessor to an a-thematic position, also known as possessor raising.

Finally, I propose a formal explanation for the possessor raising mechanism. I suggest that in possessor raising the internal argument of the verb is base-generated as a DP with a KP possessor headed by –ra. Utilizing López’s (2012) proposal that K cannot remain adjacent to the verb and incorporate it, I argue that the KP containing the possessor has to move to a higher position, where it is adjoined to the VP, as shown in (5).

**Examples**

(1) a. dirooz [farzand-e Bijan]-ra molaqat kard-am
    yesterday child-EZ Bijan-ra visit did-1SG
    “I visited Bijan’s child yesterday”

   b. Bijan-ra dirooz farzand molaqat kard-am.
    Bijan-ra yesterday child visit did-1SG
    “I visited Bijan’s child yesterday”

(2) a. dar-e mashin-o bast-am
    door-EZ car-ra closed-1SG
    “I closed the door of the car.”

   b. mashin-o dar-esh-o bast-am
    car-ra door-3SG-ra closed-1SG
    “As for the car, I closed its door.”
(3) a. *xane-ra koodak-i ke dar bast-ra did-am.  
       house-ra child-DET who door closed-ra saw-1SG  
       Intended: “As for the house, I saw the child who closed its door.”

b. xoone-ro bache-I ke dar-esh-o bast-o did-am.  
       house-ra child-DET who-3SG-ra closed-ra saw-1SG  
       “As for the house, I saw the child who closed its door.”

(4) a. xane-ra dar goshood-am.  
       house-ra door open-1SG.  
       “I opened the house’s door.”

       Bijan Rumi-ra all-EZ poems translate done 3SG  
       “Bijan has translated all Rumi’s poems.”

References
A Pragmatic Comparison of Refusals by Turkish EFL Learners and Native Speakers
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Poster in SLA

This study aims to shed light on the acquisition of the pragmatics of refusals by Turkish learners of English at the intermediate level. The data analyzed here were collected via SurveyMonkey©. The survey included a written discourse completion task (WDCT) on refusals adapted from Alemi and Tajeddin (2013). It was sent out to 65 of the researcher’s former EFL students from Turkey, all of whom were adults. 18 people completed the WDCT. In order to be able to compare the results, the same WDCT was also sent to 47 native speakers of English almost exclusively from North America. 21 of these native speakers completed the task. Alemi and Tajeddin had six scenarios in their WCDT which included “different degrees of formality, power relation, and distance”. In order to attract more participants (by keeping the WDCT short) in the current study, three of the original situations were selected. Wolfson’s (1990) bulge theory was taken into consideration and the three situations that were picked included interactions with a family member, a colleague, and a college professor. All three situations were invitation refusals. The findings have shown that the Turkish participant in this study do not differ much from their NS counterparts pragmatically in the refusals they provided.

References
In this study pilot study we applied a dual eye-tracking methodology to determine whether participants attend to each other’s smiling gestures during face-to-face naturalistic conversation involving humorous exchanges. Eye-tracking, video, and audio were recorded for two conversational partners during a 21 minutes conversation. The data were then analyzed focusing on the two Areas of Interest, eyes and mouth, involved in producing a smiling behavior (Ekman & Friesen 1978, Ekman et al. 2002). Despite findings in the literature indicating that speakers need not directly look at smiles (Calvo, Fernández-Martín, & Nummenmaa 2013; Calvo, Gutiérrez-García, Avero, & Lundqvist 2013), results show that in a conversational setting speakers fixate significantly on smiles.
Pronunciation is an important component in achieving intelligibility and effective communication. Many researchers have closely examined the pronunciation of English by Chinese speakers from various backgrounds, including Singapore, Hong Kong and Taiwan (Deterding, 2003; Hung, 2000; Huang, 1996; Levis, 2005; Peng & Setter, 2000; Pennington & Ku, 1993). Less research has been conducted with Chinese speakers from Mainland China (Deterding, 2005b, 2006; Chang, 1987; Ho, 2003). The importance of studies of Mainland Chinese speakers cannot be underestimated as these speakers clearly make up the majority of ESL/EFL learners from this language background. Several corpora have been built up using recordings from National Spoken English test for non-English major, such as COLSEC (Yang & Wei, 2005) and SWECCCL (Wen et al., 2005). However, these studies are unsatisfactory for phonological study because of the recording quality (Wen et al., 2008). An exception is Deterding (2005) who has built a corpus of 19 Chinese speakers from major dialect areas of China, including northeastern provinces of Liaoning, Jilin; the eastern province of Shandong; and central provinces of Henan, Zhejiang, Jiangxi, Jiangsu, Anhui and Hunan. However, the majority of the participants were from northern China, and none of them is from southern China. Thus, it is hard to determine whether the result can represent the pronunciation features of Mainland China English speakers (Deterding, 2006). This study serves as a complementary study on the pronunciation characteristics of Chinese speakers in English based on Deterding’s corpus in 2005. Three participants from Guangxi province were recorded reading The Boy Who Cried Wolf passage (Deterding, 2006) and participating in a short interview. In doing so, I documented patterns that previous research may have overlooked in the hope that this study will improvise possible teaching applications in the EFL classroom in Mainland China.

References
Beyond *wara-* (笑): Lexical/Semantic Field Analysis of Smile and Laughter in Translation
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This study is part of an ongoing corpus-project based on “One Flew Over the Cuckoo’s Nest” by Ken Kesey, which investigates cross-linguistic word choices in translating *smile*, *laugh*, and paradigmatically related roots from English to Japanese using lexical/semantic field theory (Trier, 1931; Hjelmslev, 1943). Our findings show that the core lexical Japanese lemma for frequent English LAUGH words is 笑 (wara-/syoo/e-), and it covers almost 90% of the core English vocabulary. The secondary root used for English smiling and laughing words are ideophones, but the frequency of their use as core vocabulary is small (eight tokens) compared to the primary root (355 tokens). In addition, our findings illustrate that English semantic features prominently distinguish vocalization, then aggressiveness, whereas Japanese features distinguish self-directed and other-directed forms, then aggressiveness. In sum, we conclude that behavioral information is not lexicalized into core vocabulary of LAUGH in Japanese as it is in the core vocabulary in English. Thus, to illustrate lexical information embedded in those English words, Japanese combines the primary root with a number of other roots including ideophones. Moreover, we claim that aggressive component in LAUGH behavior is a universal feature in these two languages. The final results from inter-linguistic analyses can be applied to teaching Japanese as a second/foreign language as well as translation studies.
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Word-lists are foundational to most aspects of language work, especially language documentation and revitalization (Mosel 2006:75, Himmelmann 1998:12-13). They are a necessity for phonological studies, especially in support of orthography decisions, as well as for vernacular dictionary development, supporting language vitality.

Current technology in digital recording — both audio and video — has the capacity to increase the usefulness of this foundational data, but has so far been underused, underdeveloped, and inconsistent in its application and methodology. This presentation demonstrates a methodology that simultaneously captures:

- a visual record of the articulation of each list item, suitable for phonetic analysis
- an acoustic record suitable for computer-based formant frequency and tonal analysis.

The method captures the data consistently and cost effectively. It is also captured in a manner that incorporates speech community members as participants and agents, with minimal training time.

The methodology has necessitated innovation in physical equipment. Central to this innovation is the mirrored recliner. This recliner provides:

- a stable and comfortable stage for the language speaker's performance of word-list items.
- Portability. Once constructed it can be folded and stowed for easy transport.
- consistency, from word to word, performer to performer, and language to language, increasing the comparability of resulting data sets.
- an optimal visual presentation of the throat, jaw, cheeks, lips, and face,
- simultaneous front and profile views
- ease of construction and distribution through use of a simple and sturdy design that uses rudimentary materials and methods of fabrication, applicable by nearly any shade-tree carpenter worldwide.

This method and these materials yield digital recordings that can be studied repetitively by multiple analysts in multiple locations, benefiting language communities and language research alike. And through this capacity for both visual and acoustic inspection, from several perspectives, the data products enable an extended and ‘thick’ digital data set (Woodbury 2007) for the word-list portion of a documentary corpus.

References
Himmelmann (1998) distinguishes between descriptive linguistics — producing grammars, dictionaries, and text collections — as opposed to documentary linguistics, which is the recording and archiving of digital audio and video recordings for language preservation. During the summer of 2014, I was team leader of a group of four researchers who went to Papua New Guinea to do a language and culture documentation project. The team was comprised of two MAs, a PhD, and a recent BA student. Our goals were ambitious for a three-week trip visiting four villages followed by two weeks in country to process data. We had a linguistic component which consisted of: word lists videoed in four dialects of the Kamasau language, audio recordings of verb paradigms, and texts recorded in each of the four dialects. We had a revitalization component which included: sociolinguistic surveys from each dialect to determine language use especially among children and training of community leaders to carry out discussion activities in order to make speakers more aware of language endangerment issues. The cultural component was primarily to collect videos of significant cultural practices in the villages but also to include photo documentation of cultural items and plants for scientific identification.

This presentation addresses the advantages of including a cultural component as a significant element in a language documentation corpus. There were both anticipated and unanticipated positive results of the cultural focus. Part of the significance is that the researchers asked for and received permission to undertake a documentary project in the language area. In preparation, villagers were encouraged to consider what aspects of their culture they wanted documented through video recording. When the researchers arrived the villagers produced a list of the specific events and processes they wanted videoed. Some of these benefits of the culture component include:

1) Increased linguistic naturalness.
2) Increased sociolinguistic naturalness as the words of daily life are used in the cultural event, rather than being elicited.
3) Engagement of the community because the cultural events recorded were community driven, not researcher driven.
4) Significant cultural events, which they see as part of their identity, were chosen in advance by the community.
5) Village team members being self-selecting and being involved in the project from the inception meant everyone worked together as part of one team, with everyone contributing as they were able.
6) Potential for revitalization through making the video recordings available on SD cards for the Android phones which are becoming increasingly common in the country.

The researcher will be present to demonstrate videos organized with the SayMore program. These are in the process of being transcribed and translated into English and Tok Pisin before being exported into FLEX and ELAN and will then be archived into REAP.

Reference
Assessing the International Impact of Sequoyah and His Cherokee Syllabary
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Sequoyah was an illiterate Cherokee who nevertheless created a syllabary that became widely used among the Cherokee nation. But the influence of his syllabary spread to other languages and other countries. This is the first study to systematically assess the impact of Sequoyah and his syllabary around the world.

His syllabary influenced the creation of new scripts for other languages on three continents, a set of facts not widely known. This presentation will describe how the influence of Sequoyah and his syllabary spread via a variety of means, including a literate Cherokee emigrating to Liberia in West Africa. Word of Sequoyah and his syllabary was also carried by magazines to Canada and China, where it inspired people to create syllabaries. These syllabaries then inspired others to adopt the idea of creating a syllabary for their language, and additional scripts multiplied in many other languages. Sequoyah and his syllabary influenced the scripts used for over 60 languages on three continents.

Within 100 years of his birth, his syllabary had influenced the creation of so many other scripts and script borrowings around the world that as many of 5% of the world’s languages that were written were written with a script influenced by Sequoyah and his Cherokee syllabary. Even today, with so many more languages being written, the available evidence regarding the number of languages that have been written with a script influenced by Sequoyah and his syllabary is solidly calculated at over 1.5% of the world’s written languages.
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