Semantic prosody of metaphors involving animacy
A corpus-based study

Sai Ma, Ye Jin
University of Auckland

This corpus-based study explores the semantic prosody of metaphorical expressions involving the mappings between domains with different animacy levels. The claim here is that semantic prosody (Sinclair, 1996) may accompany some metaphorical mappings (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980), and a possible candidate for that is the mappings between domains with different animacy levels (for “animacy” see: Yamamoto, 1999). We propose the hypothesis that the conceptualization of an entity with higher level of animacy in terms of an entity with lower level of animacy tends to be accompanied with negative semantic prosody, while the conceptualization in the other way around tends to have positive semantic prosody as the concomitant. To test this hypothesis, we resorted to the British National Corpus (BNC) to search for metaphorical expressions concerning mappings between domains with different levels on the animacy hierarchy. Three levels of animacy were adopted, namely, the human domain, the animals domain, and the plants domain, with the gradience based on General Animacy Scale (Yamamoto,1999, p12). Specific words and collocations in the three domains were chosen to be searched in the BNC, and metaphorical expressions were selected manually. The preliminary findings show that certain conceptual metaphors indeed tend to go with certain semantic prosodies, as illustrated in the table below. Sentences in which human beings are conceptualized as animals or plants are seldom accompanied by positive semantic prosody; whereas instances referring to animals or plants as human beings usually go together with positive or neutral semantic prosody.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>metaphorical mappings</th>
<th>semantic prosody (number of instances / percentage)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUMAN BEINGS ARE ANIMALS</td>
<td>3/3.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANIMALS ARE HUMAN BEINGS</td>
<td>33/86.84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HUMAN BEINGS ARE PLANTS</td>
<td>7 / 12.73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLANTS ARE HUMAN BEINGS</td>
<td>19 / 55.88%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With authentic data from a large corpus, this study reveals the concomitant semantic prosody with certain conceptual metaphors which is usually hidden from introspective data. Another contribution of this research lies in extending the examination of semantic prosody into the realm of metaphorical expressions.

References

Temporal Sequence in Chinese Overlapping Structures

Shudong Ma
School of International Studies, Zhejiang University

Present research focuses on space-time interaction in Chinese overlapping structures. It does not, however, focus on a series of debates on Chinese or English speaker's preferences for metaphorical orientation of time (Boroditsky et al. 2011; Yu 2012; Chen & O'Seaghdha 2013). Instead, it will show that the space-time interaction can be mediated by copied elements which get access to temporal sequence.

Element copy is the basic feature of pervasive overlapping structures. Based on the data from Modern Chinese Corpus of Centre for Chinese Linguistics, the instances in previous research, and personal collections, it is discovered that copied elements in many of Chinese overlapping structures are used to navigate a sequential access to entities, activities and speech acts, as exemplified in (1)-(3):

(1) Tāmén yī gè āi yī gè zōu jìn wūzǐ.
They one Classifier next-to one Classifier walk into room ‘They walk into the room one by one.’

(2) Tā zǒu lái zǒu qù.
He walk come go ‘He walks around.’

(3) Tā bútīngdǐ xiě ya chǎo ya.
He continuously write Mood transcribe Mood ‘He continuously writing and transcribing.’

In (1), the copied yī-gē indicates that all the individuals are sequentially lined up in a motion; In (2), the copied zǒu gives rise to the reading continuous motion; In (3), the mood repetition indicates the temporal narration copies the motion in a sequential manner.

Interestingly, temporal sequence, expressed by copied items, is neutral for and can mediate the space-time interaction, as exemplified in (4)-(6):

(4) nǎ nián nǎ yuè.
where year where month ‘in which year and which month’
(5) Zhè chē hū zuǒ hū yòu.
this car suddenly leftward suddenly rightward ‘The car does not drive regularly.’
(6) a. Tā yòu kū yòu xiào.
he again cry again laugh ‘He cries and laughs.’
b. Tā yòu è yòu lěng.
he again hungry again cold ‘He gets hungry and cold.’
c. Tā yòu gāo yòu dà.
he again tall again big ‘He is tall and big.’

In (4), the space-oriented nǎ ‘where’ indicates the sequential scanning from year to month. These interrogative pronouns are metaphorically aligned in two different spatial positions. In (5), the time-oriented hū ‘suddenly’ indicates the leftward-to-rightward alternation in a temporal sequence. In (6), the temporal lexicon yòu ‘again’ is copied to express sequential actions in (6a), concurrence in (6b) and spatial parallel alignment in (6c).

With the uniform sequentializing reading in Chinese overlapping structures, it is argued that space-time metaphor is not unavoidable in linguistic expressions. Furthermore, this sequential reading supports the ontological existence of time as transience (Galton 2011; Evans 2013). Therefore, to build up a comprehensive and consistent framework of space-time interaction, we should consider both space-to-time mapping (Bender & Beller 2014) and cognitive spacetime model (Stocker 2014).

References:
Nominal and verbal gerunds in Present-day English: a case of diverging flexibilities.

Charlotte Maekelberghe
KU Leuven

This paper offers a corpus-based and cognitive-functional analysis of the interaction between internal-constructional, referential and distributional features with nominal (NG) (1) and verbal (VG) (2) gerunds in PDE. Both gerund types are examples of nominalizations, but only NGs have the internal make-up of a noun phrase, while VGs have the internal outlook of a clause.

(1) The problems connected with the keeping of slaves are of interest to me. (BNC)
(2) He’d told us earlier that he was planning on taking a woman to Tramp that night. (BNC)

While the formal differences between NGs and VGs have been thoroughly discussed (Lees 1960, Chomsky 1970, Fraser 1970), a detailed comparison of their discourse-functional behavior in PDE is still lacking. Building on diachronic research (De Smet 2008; Fonteyn forthc.) and Schachter’s (1976) and Heyvaert’s (2008) PDE analyses of the verbal gerund, this study addresses the functional status of NGs and VGs from a referential perspective, while also mapping out their typical clausal functions and control relations. In doing so, we wish to arrive at more detailed functional profile of both gerund types. Analyses were carried out on 800 nominal and 800 verbal gerunds randomly extracted from the BNC and COCA corpus.

Results show that, despite their formal differences, NGs and VGs display quite a similar distribution of reference types, both occurring almost equally frequently with either generic (1) or specific (2) reference. They do, however, differ significantly in the way they ground the instances referred to: NGs depend on nominal grounding strategies, overwhelmingly relying on the definite article (72% in our dataset), whereas VGs depend on control relations with a participant of the matrix clause to receive indirect (clausal) grounding (Langacker 2008: 438; Fonteyn forthc.). Secondly, it is shown that these different internal-constructional grounding strategies are reflected in the distributional features of both gerund types. We argue that the NG’s preference for definite nominal grounding, which makes it less dependent on main clause participants, allows for a greater flexibility on a clausal level. Consequently, NGs can easily function as subjects with specific reference (the definite article referring to a “retrievable instance”) (3) or as clause-external topics (4), whereas VGs are (still) quite uncommon in these positions.

(3) (...) the lifting of sanctions by the E.C. and the U.S. has relieved the pressure on Japan on this issue. (COCA)
(4) The kind of indignation that had to be kept at bay only because there was a higher purpose at that moment: the sharing of concern. (COCA)

On the other hand, the VG’s prototypical ‘bare’ form (which constitutes 96% of our dataset) results in more flexibility on a contextual level. While NGs are significantly more frequent in actualized contexts, as in (3) and (4), VGs can occur freely in both actual and virtual contexts (i.e. contexts set up by space-builders, such as the future-oriented ‘plan’ in (2)) because, due to their lack of internal grounding elements, they “can be conceived as occupying any position in time and as being either real or imagined” (Langacker 1991: 34). Based on these observations, it is hypothesized that the NG’s conceptually independent profile corresponds to that of prototypical nouns, whereas the VG likens the relational profile of a verb, being conceptually dependent on its (main clause) trajectory to refer to a grounded instance (Heyvaert 2008). While both gerund types can, in short, express the same range of reference types, their internal properties and semantic functions (i.e. their relation to grounding/instantiation (Langacker 1991: 33)) do account for the significant differences that they show in their distributional preferences.

References
Applying Cognitive Linguistics in the Second Language Classroom: Teaching English Phrasal Verbs

Narges Mahpeykar, Andrea Tyler, Yuka Akiyama, Hana Jan
Georgetown University

The multiple meanings of English phrasal verb constructions (PVC) have largely been considered arbitrary and thus a problem for L2 learners. Until recently, analyses focused exclusively on the contribution of the multiple meanings of the prepositions in the PVCs and assumed a single meaning for the verb. However, using a Cognitive Linguistic (CL) inspired framework (Goldberg, 2005; Langacker, 1991; Tyler & Evans, 2003), Mahpeykar & Tyler (2014) demonstrated that verbs in PVC constructions also have multiple meanings, i.e. polysemy networks, which contribute systematically to the multiple meanings of the PVCs. This corpus-based, CL work established that considering the contribution of the polysemy networks of both the verbs and the prepositions allows for a systematic representation of the multiple meanings of the PVCs.

After presenting this framework, we discuss the results of a small-scale, effects-of- instruction experiment which investigated using the CL framework as the basis for classroom instruction. The participants were enrolled in two, low intermediate classes in an intensive English program; 11 participants received CL-based instruction on the multiple meanings of four PVCs; 14 received non-cognitive instruction. The intervention consisted of 3 hours of instruction, which combined interactive, teacher fronted ppt presentations interspersed with student centered, task-based instruction. All participants took a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test; each test item included a ‘guessed’/’didn’t guess’ confidence rating. Accuracy results showed both groups improved (CL gain scores were 2.5 points, Control were .9) but there were no significant between group differences. However, the confidence ratings showed that the CL group’s ‘didn’t guess’ scores went from 1.5 to 9.1, while the control group’s went from 6.3 to 9.8; a repeated ANOVA analysis showed that the CL group’s confidence gains by the post-test were significantly greater (p=.000); this gain was maintained for the delayed post-test. We discuss these findings in terms of readiness to learn.
Periphery matters: types and consequences of semantic overlap
Anastasia Makarova
CLEAR group, UiT – The Arctic University of Norway

While radial categories are one of the cornerstones of cognitive linguistics, the relationship between radial categories has not received much attention. In this paper I focus on morphology and present two corpus studies each comparing a pair of Russian verbal prefixes: 1) vy- ‘out of a container’ and iz- ‘out of a container’, and 2) pri- ‘next to’ and pod- ‘under’. Comparisons of the radial categories of the relevant pairs of prefixes indicate that radial networks can interact in different ways. I identify two kinds of conceptual overlap: central, occurring when two radial networks share one prototype, and peripheral overlap, which occurs when non-prototypical subcategories of radial categories overlap. I demonstrate that the role of the prototype is essential for both types of overlap.

The first case study illustrates central overlap. The prefixes vy- and iz- are semantically close, frequently occur with the same verbs, and form close synonyms, e.g. vybrat ‘select, choose’ and izbrat ‘select, elect’. As shown in Nesset et al. (2011), these two prefixes share most of their radial structures, and, crucially, their prototype. While vy- tends to be used in concrete contexts, iz-, borrowed from Church Slavic, gravitates towards metaphorical uses. Radial category profiling, i.e. the analysis of the relative frequency distribution of the subcategories of the two prefixes, revealed that the meanings of the prefixes have different centers of gravity and facilitated measuring the similarity of the two radial networks.

The second case study addresses prefixes pri- and pod- that are less obvious candidates for comparison, since, unlike vy- and iz-, they are not semantically close, and have different spatial prototypes. While pri- has arrive as its prototype and focuses on the horizontal closeness of entities, pod- has apply to bottom as its prototype and focuses on the vertical dimension (Endresen et al. 2012, Janda et al. 2013). Such pairs of verbs as privorovyvat’ and podvorovyvat’ both mean ‘steal a little bit from time to time’, however, indicate that the two prefixes are indeed related and offer data for comparison. A detailed analysis of the radial network of the two prefixes shows how the two prototypes motivate semantic extensions and, each in its own way, are related to meanings that belong to the periphery of the respective radial networks. Peripheral overlap affects the meaning attenuate, i.e. ‘abruptly’, ‘a little bit’, attested for both prefixes.

The two case studies enable us to shed new light on the role of the prototype in a radial network. While the crucial role of the prototype in cases of central overlap is clear, it is much less evident in cases of peripheral overlap. A thorough exploration of a comprehensive list of 2,131 Russian attenuative verbs – verbs that describe events of low intensity and significance, as well as incomplete events – that are prefixed in pri- and pod- suggests that the prefixes carry with them the relation to the prototype in their attenuative uses (Author 2014). Prototype effects justify the uneven distribution of the prefixes across Russian verbs. Verbal meanings interact with prototypical meanings of the prefixes in different ways: they can have overlapping semantics and be attracted to one another, they can have conflicting semantics and hence be repulsed from one another, or they can be neutral to one another (Author 2014). Without a thorough understanding of the semantic nature of the two attenuative prefixes, an analysis of the distribution of pri- and pod- in Russian attenuatives would not reveal any systematic motivations behind the choice of the prefixes.

My study contributes to the typology of conceptual overlap in cognitive linguistics and suggests that investigations of semantic overlap should not be limited to clearly related units such as prefixes vy- and iz- presented in the first case study, but should extend to less obvious types of semantic overlap as illustrated by the case of pri- and pod-. Peripheral overlap should not be overlooked, since it may account for non-trivial distributions. In this way, the study sharpens our understanding of semantic overlap in general, which is vital for studies of rival forms and variation in language.

References
Expressions such as ‘This highway goes from Mexico to Canada’ (Langacker, 1999) describe the configuration or extension of an entity by evoking a sense of motion along the entity conceptualized as path. This cognitive phenomenon is labeled as constructional fictive motion since it does not involve real movement in the actual world. Rather, implicit fictive/abstract motion occurs through a process of mental scanning along a trajectory in the speaker-conceptualizer’s mind (Talmy, 2000). However, the instantiations of fictive motion (FM) provided by the scholars who first coined the notion, i.e. Talmy and Langacker, derive mainly from introspection. Acknowledging the increasing interest in usage-based methods and the need for empirical data in Cognitive Linguistics research, this paper aims at offering a corpus-based approach to FM expressions in real language use. In order to tackle this issue, two set of searches were carried out in the BNC. The first included the subject and verbs of FM constructions based on intuition drawn from Langacker (1987, 1991) and Talmy (2000). The second included nouns and verbs of FM constructions elicited in an experiment with drawings conducted by Rojo and Valenzuela (2003).

The results show that in terms of frequency the difference between FM constructions based on introspection and those elicited through experimental research was not significant. However, the use of other verbs and nouns that arose from the corpus data has contributed to the acquaintance of new examples not regarded in previous literature; e.g. the description in terms of motion of entities such as bridge or tunnel or the use of verbs such as cross. A total number of 379 of expressions of FM found in the BNC correspond to expressions that were not considered in the seminal works of the founders and that provide new conceptual insights into the theory. The study shows how the use of corpus data as a research tool makes sense in the context of theoretically motivated predictions about the distribution of a particular linguistic phenomenon in a particular corpus. In this sense, we argue that Corpus Linguistics can offer new insights into Cognitive Linguistics theory.

References
Learning difficult Japanese polysemous particles with usage-based instruction

Kyoko Masuda
Georgia Institute of Technology

Japanese locative particles, particularly *ni* and *de*, are challenging for Japanese-as-a-foreign-language (JFL) learners, since languages carve up the space in different ways and speakers construe the *ground* and the *figure* differently depending on the context (e.g., Talmy 1975, 2000). Moreover, those locative particles are even more challenging due to their polysemous nature with multiple related meanings. Instructed second language (L2) learning has been further complicated because their meanings are taught in a piecemeal fashion, presenting usage without explaining how the meanings are systematically related.

Recently, L2 studies have explored the use of usage-based approach in the classroom (cf., Boers et al. 2010, Beréndi et al. 2008, Csabó 2004, Lam 2008, Tyler et al. 2010, Tyler 2012, White 2012). Following this spirit, Masuda and Labarca (2015, forthcoming) has examined on the effects of a usage-based instruction supported by the use of schematic presentations and explanation on more prototypical and less prototypical usage to teach the polysemous particles to English-speaking college students (N=28). Focus is on the particles *ni* and *de*, both on more prototypical uses (*ni*: existential, goal; *de*: location, instrumental) and less prototypical ones (*ni*: purpose, time, *de*: range, manner).

Two third-semester JSL groups received two treatments, traditional pictorial presentation (TRAD) and cognitive schematic presentation (COG). Two types of production tasks were employed to measure progress: A fill-in-the-blank task and a story writing task. There were three testing periods: pre-test, post-test, and 3-week- delayed post-test. A tendency to longer-term retention in COG, especially less prototype meanings, was detected. The current paper will show some of the schematic presentations of particles, and will analyze students’ introspection data such as attitude questionnaire, selected comments from the interviews, and some excerpts from audio-recorded exchanges during pair-work in order to figure out overall perception on usage-based instruction.

Preliminary findings show that, in general, students mentioned that schematic presentations were memorable because of three properties: visual, kinetic and tangible. For example, Aaron says “...instead of just hearing about them [particle functions] you have a visual representation of what the particle actually does.” Thus, it seems that schematic presentations enhance retention primarily by being visually salient. Another property was the sense of movement that some schematic presentations evoked, as in Mike’s words, “...[the] schema for *de* [for location] is memorable because the ball was moving.” Carl describes the effect of the shaking circle moving towards the goal or the purpose, saying, “...like the animation, yeah, the “shaking” [lines for movement in the schematic presentation], that made it more memorable than actually does actual movement...”. This kinetic property seems to be powerful indeed as Nick, an even under-70% scorer, spells out, “they [schematic presentation] helped with remembering action and direction.” The third schematic presentation quality was their tangible, object-like appearance. Aaron indicates “…you can’t touch them essentially…but you can almost touch them— as much as they are ideas and they are abstract...part of language... [treatments] should [give] tangible examples and [have, sic] compare the particles.” Comparing the usage-based approach with the traditional picture presentation approach, Carl says “when you memorize the usage of the particles, you memorize them with only one or two usages...” and he points out the advantages of schematic presentations, “When you see... all possible usages [in the schematic presentations], then you don’t make as many mistakes’. He, thus describes the effects of schematic presentations on the acquisition of other less prototypical usages, which resulted in his broader variety of uses. His composition score keeps going up from 67 to 100, with five extraordinary, variety of uses in story writing at the delayed-post-test. This presentation will end with three important considerations for implementing a usage-based instruction, especially when using schematic presentation.

Selected References


Clause Integration in Different Types of Caused Motion: A Crosslinguistic Experimental Study

Yo Matsumoto*, Kimi Akita**, Kiyoko Eguchi***, Monica Kahumburu****, Miho Mano***** Takahiro Morita****** Kiyoko Takahashi*******

*Kobe University, **Nagoya University, ***Applied Technology High School, ****Catholic University of East Africa, *****Tokushima University of Education, ******Toyo University, *******Kanda University of International Studies

One issue in the study of the typology of motion event descriptions concerns the choice of integrated vs. nonintegrated constructions to describe motion events. Unlike what is assumed by Talmy (1991), speakers of a language do not necessarily integrate a complex motion event into a simplex linguistic structure (e.g., Bill kicked a ball into a goal); instead, they often use a less integrated, complex sentence (e.g., Bill kicked a ball and it flew into the goal) (Croft et al 2010). A question is, then, when speakers employ simplex vs. complex structures. Results of a crosslinguistic production experiment are reported to examine the complexity of linguistic constructions used to describe caused motion events, focusing on English, French, Hungarian, Swahili, and Thai in this presentation. As a part of a larger experiment on motion event descriptions, video clips of four different types of caused motion events are presented to the speakers of the above five languages. The four types of caused motion events are 1) kicking (ballistic causation), 2) carrying (co-motional causation), 3) putting (manipulative causation), and 4) calling (verbal causation). Three stimulus clips were used for each type of caused motion, all involving a path into some space (e.g., into a bag, into a small building).

The results show languages do differ in their preferences to use a simplex, integrated structure vs. a complex, less integrated structure. This is shown by the average numbers of clauses and verbs used to describe the same set of video clips. Hungarian and English speakers, for example, tend to employ a smaller average number of clauses (1.06 and 1.14, respectively) than those of Swahili and French (1.34 and 1.49). However, certain similar patterns are found across different languages, suggesting that a certain kind of event intrinsically tends to be described by a complex construction. Speakers of English and Hungarian, for example, typically used a simplex sentence with a single verb to describe kicking, carrying, and putting, while many (especially English speakers) used a sentence with coordination to describe the caused motion events involving calling. Most speakers of French and almost all speakers of Swahili used a simplex sentence with a single verb to describe the putting event, while about half used sentences with coordination, subordination, or a relative clause for kicking and carrying, and about 80% used such complex sentences for caused motion involving calling (see Figure below for Swahili). Thai was the only language in which speakers used the same construction throughout: they used a serial verb construction that involves causative verb and various types of motion verbs, although the kinds of verbs used are different in different types of caused motion. These results lead to the following generalizations: 1) manipulative causation of motion (e.g., putting) is depicted in a sentence structure that is simpler than (or at least as simple as) the other types of caused motion, and 2) verbal causation of motion (e.g., calling) is depicted by a sentence structure more complex than (or at least as complex as) the other types of caused motion. These two generalizations are true of other languages that are similarly investigated in the same project, such as German, Italian, Newar, Russian, and Tagalog (Matsumoto et al, in progress).

These findings are discussed in view of the factors contributing to the choice of constructions. Croft et al. (2010) have claimed that a complex sentence construction is employed to describe an unnatural combination of subevents. The finding of this paper cannot be accounted for this way: there is nothing unnatural about a motion caused by the act of calling. Instead, the choice of a complex structure appears to be related to the nature of events. Calling differs from the other events in involving both of the following two factors: 1) a temporal discrepancy between the causing subevent and the motion subevent, and 2) the presence of a human Figure, who can exercise his/her will to respond to the causing subevent (i.e., calling). Putting, on the other hand, has neither of these two. This means that a low independence of the component subevents is crucial in the event integration into a simple sentence.

References

Matsumoto, Yo. et al. A crosslinguistic experimental study of motion and caused motion event descriptions

In cognitive linguistics, it is often suggested that language learning is influenced, among other factors, by distributional information implicitly present in the input. Within constructionist theories, a number of factors have been shown to influence the learning of argument structure constructions. In particular, Ellis, O'Donnell, & Römer (2014) showed that for any given argument structure construction, the probability of producing a certain verb is determined by three factors: 1) the token frequency of the verb in this construction (which reflects its entrenchment); 2) the reliability, or contingency, of mapping between the verb and the construction; 3) the prototypicality, or centrality, of meaning of the verb for this construction.

However, construction representations used by Ellis et al. (2014) were informed by the COBUILD dictionary (Francis, Hunston, & Manning, 1996). This dictionary contains form-based patterns that carry little semantic information – e.g., V about N, V into N, V as N. At the same time, constructions are often defined as pairings of form and meaning. Therefore, it is yet unclear whether the reported findings are specific to the form-based representation, or they can be generalized to learning argument structure constructions irrespectively of their exact representation.

In the present study, we simulate the learning process using a probabilistic computational model that learns argument structure constructions from given input data (Alishahi & Stevenson, 2008). In our simulations, the input consists of the construction instances extracted from the English PropBank. The model iteratively clusters instances into groups that potentially represent argument structure constructions. At the end of learning, we run an elicited production experiment. More specifically, we provide the model with a set of test sentences with a missing verb, and ask the model to produce all the verbs that fit into the empty slot. Finally, we fit a series of mixed effects models that predict the probability of production of each verb by the three factors (frequency, contingency, and prototypicality).

In the first analysis, we follow Ellis et al. (2014) in defining constructions as form-based patterns (e.g., ARG1 VERB into ARG2), showing that our model replicates the individual impact of the three factors on the frequency of verb production. In the second analysis, we represent constructions as form–meaning pairings. For each construction instance, we consider its form to be its syntactic pattern, and its meaning to be the FrameNet frame (e.g., GETTING) which it linked to (as a part of SemLink project, see Palmer, 2009). Thus, each construction is represented as a pairing of a frame with a syntactic pattern (e.g., GETTING: ARG1 VERB into ARG2).

Our comparison of the two types of analysis shows that the individual effects of the three factors – frequency, contingency, and prototypicality – hold for both form-based patterns and form–meaning mappings. However, the contribution of the (semantic) prototypicality is substantially higher for the form–meaning mappings. This suggests that looking at the production of verbs within form-based patterns may lead to underestimating the impact of the semantic prototypicality on the accessibility of the verbs.

Based on the results of our simulations, we also argue that the proposed three-factor model needs to be refined. Apart from the (token) frequency of a verb in a construction, the overall (token) verb frequency in the input data serves as an additional predictor of the production probability in our simulations. We believe this relates to the distinction between relative vs. absolute frequency, and, respectively, between cotextual vs. cotext-free entrenchment (Schmid, 2010). However, the issue requires further investigation.

References
In the literature of cognitive linguistics, Aristotle is predominantly characterized as a founding figure of the ‘classical theory’ of categorization (Tuggy, 2007: 88), and “a literalist,” who “was mistaken about metaphorical language being only poetic and rhetorical in nature and not part of ordinary everyday language” (Lakoff and Johnson, 1999: 111-112). Despite caveats (e.g. Mahon, 1999; Geeraerts, 2006: 24, 375; Swiggers, 1988: 622-623), this prevailing characterization of Aristotle has led to the dismissal of what he may have to say on such important topics as metaphor, frame semantics, polysemy and prototype theory. In this paper, I shall present evidence that the study of Aristotle can be useful in elucidating metaphor, as understood in cognitive linguistics, and demonstrate that the techniques of cognitive linguistics can themselves be useful for clarifying Aristotle’s notions on this topic.

I will begin by touching on Aristotle’s view of polysemy. I intend to show that he recognized categories that do not fit the ‘classical theory’ of necessary and sufficient conditions, and will summarize his account of these types of categories. Aristotle places metaphor in this account. In fact, what Aristotle had written about category membership is strongly suggestive of prototypes as used in cognitive linguistic descriptions of polysemy. This will segue into a presentation of a model of cognitive linguistics used to interpret Aristotle’s description of word use. By using this approach, I enlarge upon what Lloyd identifies in his discussion of Aristotle and metaphor, stating that, “The basic vocabulary for describing what metaphor is is thus full not just of what we might term the ‘metaphorical’ but of what Aristotle himself treats as metaphor” (Lloyd, 1996: 211-212). In other words, from the perspective of cognitive linguistics, there is strong textual support that Aristotle consciously used a conceptual metaphor to describe not only word use in general, but also to describe what metaphor itself is. If correct, this interpretation can open the door to a revised understanding of Aristotle’s view of metaphor.

In conclusion, I suggest that a serious rereading of Aristotle should be conducted from a cognitive linguistic standpoint. A revised understanding of his notions, as they pertain to cognitive linguistics, may lead not only to a deeper understanding of Aristotle’s writings, but similarly, cognitive linguistics may find unexpected conceptual foundations.

References
German and Brazilian conceptualizations of business negotiations
Milenе Mendes de Oliveira
University of Potsdam

Most intercultural business communication nowadays in the world happens in English. Nevertheless, speakers tend to overlook the fact that “bilingual learners and speakers of English may draw on their first language systems of cultural conceptualizations” when using the second language (Sharifian, 2009: 245). Thus, even though a common language is used, Brazilians and Germans might be counting on very different conceptualizations of negotiation. Differences in cognitive associations related to the concept of negotiation can cause misunderstandings. Drawing on the framework of Cultural Linguistics (Palmer, 1966) and World Englishes (Wolf & Polzenhagen, 2009), this paper intends to report on a study whose aim is to identify cultural conceptualizations (Sharifian, 2011) of business negotiations used by German and Brazilian business people.

Even though the practice of business negotiations has already been identified as an important area of research, so far this has been mainly done through a pragmatic perspective. Graham (1983), for instance, presents a list of negotiation techniques commonly used by Brazilians. The methodology chosen for his study was the pragmatic analysis of filmed ‘negotiation games’ (Kelley, 1966). The author describes Brazilians as ‘hard bargainers’ due to an authoritarian approach to negotiations. However, these results contradict Amado and Brasil’s (1991) findings, which state that Brazilians tend to avoid direct confrontation for the sake of personal relationships. Such contradictions make it evident that mere pragmatic descriptions might lead to incomplete and mistaken conclusions about the activity of negotiating.

Wolf & Polzenhagen (2007: 161-2) criticize “functionalist intercultural pragmatic theory, which deliberately excludes the semantic dimension of cross-cultural communication” and call for a meaning-oriented approach to this type of study. This is what the present paper aims at, i.e., to look at the concept of ‘business negotiations’ through the analysis of cultural conceptualizations, which, according to Sharifian (2011: 3), are connected with fundamental cognitive processes such as schematization and categorization, as well as with conceptual metaphors, metonymies, and conceptual blends.

For this study, interviews with German and Brazilian business people have been performed and transcribed. Research methods count on both quantitative and qualitative analytical procedures. The latter make an attempt to interpret the identified conceptualizations in the light of sociological and anthropological studies on German and Brazilian societies/cultures. The ultimate objective of this study is to describe cultural models (Sharifian, 2011: 27) of business negotiations in both cultures.

References


Production of multi-words in context: what processing of grammatical words tells us about the advance planning.

Maria Messerschmidt¹, Hartwig Siebner², Violaine Michel Lange¹,²

¹Department of Scandinavian Studies and Linguistics, University of Copenhagen, Denmark
²Danish Research Centre for Magnetic Resonance, Centre for Functional and Diagnostic Imaging and Research, Copenhagen University Hospital Hvidovre, Denmark

Grammatical and lexical words differ widely in content and function. Data from brain-damaged patients (Gardner & Zurif, 1975; Biassou et al., 1997; Alario & Cohen, 2004) or errors such as slips of the tongue (Garrett, 1975) suggest that their processing is operated at different stages in speech production. Based on this literature, speech models of sentence production propose that at the formulation stage, lexical words are processed at the so-called functional level while grammatical words are processed at the so-called positional level (Garrett, 1975; Bock & Levelt, 1994). Nevertheless, this proposal has been very difficult to investigate for several reasons. First, research in speech production has long been focused on the production of isolated single words. Even though the past years have seen a significant increase in publications investigating multi-word messages, very little is known as to how speakers plan and process more than one word messages. Second, as the production of grammatical elements can only be done in context, much less is known about processing of grammatical words compared to processing of lexical words. Eventually, it is very difficult to compare elements (lexical and grammatical) which differ so much in function, frequency, age of acquisition and categorization.

The current study attempts to fill this gap by comparing fully similar sentences with only a difference of verb status (grammatical vs. lexical) elicited by a specific context. In the lexical context, sentences contained either a lexical verb such as “John has a warm sandwich” and were followed by a question such as “what about Mary?”. Participants were instructed to answer “So has she” as soon as they read the eliciting question. In the grammatical context however, sentences contained a grammatical verb such as “John has warmed a sandwich” and participants were also instructed to answer “So has she” after reading the eliciting question. This design allowed us to compare fully equal sentences (e.g. So has she) with only a difference in verb status as elicited by the context. Six different verbs were used. Reaction times (RT) were measured. The prediction was the following, if two sentences with equal phonological content differ in processing at the formulation stage, differences in RT should be observed for the words planned before articulation initiates. Most accounts of advance planning suggest than more than one words is planned before articulation of the message (Schnur, 2011; Oppermann et al., 2010; Michel Lange & Laganaro, 2014). The word of interest being the verb in second position of the sentence here allows us to observe a potential difference in the processing of the message. The current study presents longer naming latencies for the grammatical condition relative to the lexical condition suggesting indeed a later encoding process for the grammatical verb. We therefore suggest that encoding of the second word of the message is encoded at least up to the positional level before articulation, thus providing crucial information on the span of advance planning before articulation. These results are discussed in the light of models of sentence production.

The primary-metaphor components and generic structure of Moving Ego and Moving Time

Kevin Moore
San Jose State University

This talk refines the conceptual-metaphor analysis of two well-studied metaphors — Moving Ego and Moving Time (Boroditsky & Ramscar 2002; Clark 1973; Gentner, Imai & Boroditsky 2002; Lakoff & Johnson 1980, 1999; Moore 2014). In Moving Ego, temporal relations are depicted in terms of a present that moves relative to other times, as in We are approaching Christmas. In Moving Time, times move relative to the present, as in Christmas is approaching. The primary-metaphor theory of Grady (1997) seeks to state metaphors in terms of the most direct connections between experiential motivations, metaphor mappings, and linguistic expressions; but Grady does not resolve the question of whether Moving Ego and Moving Time are primary (Grady 1997: 119).

This talk decomposes Moving Ego and Moving Time into primary metaphors (cf. Evans 2003: 74ff). Among these primary metaphors are three which Moving Ego and Moving Time share:

NOW IS HERE. Example: Summer is here. Motivation: Human experience typically happens at the location of the experiencer (i.e. “here”); the experience correlates with the experiencer’s “now”.

IMMEDIACY IS PROXIMITY (i.e. something that is about to happen is metaphorically close). Example: Summer is near. Motivation: The closer a moving entity gets to ego the sooner it will arrive, or the closer ego gets to a place the sooner she will arrive there.

OCCURRENCE OF A TIME IS ARRIVAL. Examples: We have arrived at the end of the month. Summer has arrived. Motivation: The event of an arrival correlates in experience with the time of the arrival.

This analysis reveals temporal properties of the experiential motivations of Moving Ego and Moving Time and shows what the two metaphors have in common. Accordingly, a generic-level structure is identified and the metaphors are stated as conceptual integration networks (Fauconnier & Turner 2002). The generic space describes a macro-event whose aspectual structure is shared by the source and target frames of the two metaphors. This macro-event consists of three stages (cf. Chang, Gildea, & Narayanan 1998): i. The durative pre-event (Mover is approaching/Time is future); ii. The punctual core event (Mover arrives/Time becomes present); iii. The stative post-event (Mover has passed/Time is in the past).

As suggested above, the current analysis identifies the shared properties of Moving Ego and Moving Time, and specifies the temporal and deictic (i.e. past-present-future) concepts that are depicted by the metaphors. This analysis has several results: i. The shared inferential structure of Moving Ego and Moving Time is specified; ii. The differences between the two metaphors are stated; iii. SEQUENCE IS RELATIVE POSITION ON A PATH (as in a reception follows the talks, Moore 2014) is identified as a primary metaphor that is not a component of Moving Time. The most salient distinguishing feature of SEQUENCE IS RELATIVE POSITION ON A PATH is that its structure does not involve ego’s point of view. By contrast, Moving Ego and Moving Time are crucially structured by ego’s point of view situated in the “now”.

Selected References
This paper uses construction grammar together with metaphor and metonymy to provide and enriched accounting of the form, meaning, and function of the derivational morpheme –ara in Karuk, a polysynthetic agglutinative language isolate spoken along the Klamath River in Northern California. The –ara morpheme is a suffix that can be added to both verb and noun-stems to form instrumental applicative verb-themes and adjectival noun-themes. Bright (1957), in his grammar of the Karuk language, describes -ara as three independent forms: the Attributive –ara, the Applicative –ara, and the Resultant-State –ara, (Bright 1957). The Attributive –ara is added to the noun imyāt “hair,” forming the adjective imyátaara “hairy.” The Applicative -ara is added to the transitive verb thimyav “to polish Y,” forming the instrumental applicative thimyâara “to polish Y with X.” And, the Resultant-State –ara is added to the intransitive verb ishtak “to become chipped out,” forming the adjective ishtáakara “chipped out.” However, Bright does not describe the types of nouns and verbs eligible for attachment and selection by -ara, nor the emergent meaning formed via unification.

Using the formal theoretical framework provided in Cognitive Semantics (Dancygier & Sweetser 2014; Filmore 1982; Goldberg 1995; Sullivan 2013), I propose that there are two independent prototypical -ara constructions: the Adjectivizer -ara construction, which turns nouns and verbs into adjectives, and the Instrumental Applicative -ara construction, which adds to verb-stems denoting agent-controlled processes a valence that profiles an instrument canonically used in that process. These constructions unify with noun constructions and verb constructions to form two higher-level prototypical constructions: the Adjective-Nominal construction and the Instrumental Applicative construction. Each of these more general constructions has a radial category network, exhibits an assortment of metonymies, and can be extended metaphorically.

For instance, for each expression in (1), -ara unifies with a verb, forming an Adjective-Nominal construct. The profiled referent in each instantiation is understood to be a specific indefinite referent and attributor of the adjectival noun phrase, though is not realized explicitly in the utterance itself. The expression in (1(a)) constitutes EXPERIENTIAL STATE FOR ANIMATE BEING metonymy. The active static state of the process denoted by the verb, “angry,” comes to stand for the referential animate entity.

(1) (a) ixvíiphara to.be.angry-having(ed) “angry (one)” (b) imshiípara to.become.extinguished-having(ed) “extinguished (thing)” (c) xúrihara to.get.hungry-having(ed) “hungry (one)”

Expressions in (1(b-c)) constitute RESULTANT STATE FOR ENTITY metonymy, whereby the resultant state of the process denoted by the verb, “extinguished” and “hungry,” come to stand for each respective referential entity. For the Adjective-Nominal construction, frame metonymy is an inherent feature of the semantics.

Discussion also focuses on the types of Argument Structure constructions associated with these Adjective Nominal constructions and Instrumental Applicative constructions. For instance, the Adjective-Nominal construction can be used to form Predicate Adjective constructions, in (2), and Depictive constructions, in (3).

(2) ixvípharas vuíá, páy yíthuk kun’úumanik be.angry-having(ed)-PL INTENS this elsewhere 3PL(:3)-go.to-ANC “They were angry, and they were transformed.”

(3) hāari üksaahti ikvílt-har sometimes 3SG(:3)-to.laugh-DUR to.sleep-having(ed) “Sometimes he laughs in his sleep.”

In order to arrive at these understandings, constructional meanings need to refer to frame metonymic relationships. At present, Construction Grammar is incomplete in predicting constructional meaning unless it takes into account those aspects of meaning (Sullivan 2013), and sometimes those aspects of meaning need to be written into the construction.

References


The emergence of systematic structure in artificial gestural communication systems

Yasamin Motamedi, Kenny Smith, Marieke Schouwstra & Simon Kirby
University of Edinburgh

Languages exhibit systematic structure: signals are not independent of each other but form part of a system. Previous work has shown that the emergence of systematic structure increases learnability of a system, and that the pressures of transmission drive this emergence (Kirby, Cornish and Smith, 2008; Cornish, Smith and Kirby, 2013). Additionally, a link has been posited between systematic structure and the arbitrariness of a system’s signals; that is, as signs become more arbitrary, the systematic re-use of signs increases, aiding learnability (Theisen-White, Kirby and Oberlander, 2011).

We present a study that looks at how systematic structure arises in manual communication systems, using an experimental method that combines the Iterated Learning Model (Kirby, Cornish and Smith, 2008) and silent gesture (Goldin-Meadow, So, Özyürek and Mylander, 2008). Pairs of participants are asked to communicate a set of meanings to each other using only manual gesture, creating a set of gestures that are then transmitted as training to another pair. These gesture sets are passed on through transmission chains of five cohorts. Through this method, we assess how systematic structure emerges through communication and transmission.

We use a novel video analysis technique to measure different elements of the gesture produced, in order to show that structure evolves gradually throughout the systems participants produce. By taking values of pixel intensity across frames of video, we can quantify the range of movement in a gesture. The results from this form of analysis are able to show a reduction in movement; the gestures participants produce in later generations of a chain are smaller than those produced in earlier generations. We suggest that this shows a move away from large, pantomimic gestures to smaller, more language-like gestures.

We corroborate findings from video analysis with a devised coding system used as comprehensive descriptors for the gestures. The system used allows analysis of particular features of the sign: not only size of movement, but also manner of movement, repetitions and symmetry of gestures. We are able to analysis how participants create distinctions between word classes, and assess whether the strategies used are ones that reflect the capacities and constraints of the modality.

We present a set of results that suggest the gradual emergence of systematic structure, and we further explore how this structure emerges, relating our findings to observations of natural sign languages. Our work adds to a growing literature on the cultural evolution of linguistic structure, and further expands it to the gestural modality, positing that the structures created here through modality-general processes bear modality-specific traits.

References


We argue linguists have an important role to play in crafting useful pedagogies for L1 composition. In the United States, for the last half century, we linguists have typically avoided such roles except where it involves criticizing the shibboleths and prejudices of prescriptivism. But by framing “prescriptivism” in general as a usually misguided, authoritarian affair, we have also in effect framed ourselves out of being able to give useful advice about language education and writing instruction. In fact, there are likely many insights, both in linguistics and in cognitive science more generally, which might bear on the problem of how writing might most effectively be taught. But for those insights to be of any use, linguists must learn how to share them with compositionists, and compositionists must be convinced to listen.

The conventional wisdom in the US — both in English education, and in Composition and Rhetoric — is that explicit instruction about grammar or linguistic form is potentially harmful to language learning. In one widely cited literature review, Hillocks (1986) claims that there is no evidence explicit grammar instruction ever improves students' writing (for a similar findings, see also Hillocks and Smith 1991; EPPI 2004; Andrews 2010). On the other hand, as many have noted (e.g. Hudson 2004; Hudson & Walmsley 2005; Kolln & Hancock 2005; Myhill 2010), these results reflect a very limited notion of what grammar is and how it might be taught.

We argue that, in order for grammar instruction to be useful for student writers, students have to learn not to worry about correctness per se, and instead learn to focus on the different sorts of rhetorical effects they can achieve by making different grammatical choices. We draw on ideas from classical rhetoric (in particular, Stasis Theory) and cognitive construction grammar (e.g. Langacker 1988, 2000; Verhagen 2005; Goldberg 2006) to develop lesson plans that can help students master both conventions of written academic English and techniques of argumentation. We suggest that learning to recognize constructions that do important intersubjective work in discourse (e.g. discourse particles, clausal connectives, and clausal complementation constructions) can help students discover new arguments and find more effective ways to arrange them. By learning such constructions, students not only master formulaic patterns typical of academic prose, but also learn to think strategically about the ways their arguments get structured.

This approach is similar to that of Graff & Birkenstein's (2010) They Say, I Say, a best-selling academic writing textbook. The book uses simple templates to teach basic rhetorical moves; each template a pairing of linguistic form and argumentative function — in effect, a construction— serving to highlight a basic rhetorical move and providing the means to accomplish it. We argue that the strategy in Graff & Birkenstein could be more effective if it were explicitly framed as a way of thinking about the grammar of academic English, and if grammar itself were thus framed as an inherently rhetorical skill. Metalinguistic awareness would be fostered by highlighting higher-order generalizations across familiar templates and fine-grained distinctions within them. Thus, a lesson on complement clause constructions could focus on the ways different matrix predicates may be keyed to different argumentative contexts or kinds of affective stance; and a lesson on clausal connectives could highlight the roles that very small words, like even, only, but and while, can have significant rhetorical effects. In this way, explicit instruction about linguistic form should be helpful both for novice students learning basic argumentative techniques and for advanced students learning to deploy these techniques flexibly and creatively.
Conciousness, Intersubjectivity and Evidentiality in Interaction. Parenthetical constructions and discourse markers clusters in oral academic discourse

Gisela Elina Müller

Universidad Nacional de Cuyo (Argentina)
CONICET (Consejo Nacional de Investigaciones Científicas y Técnicas)

The aim of this study was to examine certain dialogic and intersubjective mechanisms, in particular, parenthetical constructions and discourse markers clusters that strongly attract the attention of the interlocutor in the Discussion session of Ph. D. Dissertation Defenses. What unifies the discourse structures under consideration is the need of a member of the jury of emphasizing the evidential character of the presented argument, as an answer to probable mental states of the candidate that could lead him/ her to another argumentative direction, negatively affecting the course of interaction. The research fits into an interactive approach to consciousness (Chafe 1994, Paglieri 2012) and takes into consideration a set of interrelated conceptual categories: focus chain and profile (Langacker 2003), the attentional factors of the cognitive system of attention (Talmy 2008); evidentiality, from a cognitive-functional approach (Nuyts 2001, Bermúdez 2005, Cornillie 2007), intersubjectivity (Verhagen 2008); and identifiability and activation (Lambrecht 1994). The data examined come from a sample of four Discussion sessions, selected from a large corpus of twenty Dissertation Defenses in Social Sciences and Humanities in Spanish. The size of the sample is 17,046 words (approx. 200 minutes of videotaped recording), transcribed by the author of this research.

The general approach is cognitive-functional and follows a multimodal methodology which combines quantitative and qualitative techniques. The research, sustained in strong empirical evidence, claims for a method of analysis that pays attention to the processing of knowledge, the unfolding of the interaction, and the event presentation in current discourse scene. The analysis is based on the assumption that parenthetical constructions ("En principio como tesis/ – y lo hemos dicho/ sobre todo e inclusive ha quedado en los informes nuestros – / evidentemente es una tesis que..."; In principle as a thesis/ - and we have said that/ especially and even it has been [settled] in our report - /evidently it is a thesis that...), and discourse markers chains, at the beginning of a turn and with a focusing adverb inside ("Claro/ a ver/ entones/ justamente/ en este punto/ entones/ porque usted está pensando..."; “Clearly, let’s see, so, exactly, at this point/ so/ because you are thinking…”), would function, in this particular genre and in these special contexts of potential academic conflict, as loci of attention coordination and of intersubjective construction of evidentiality.

The most relevant results are connected with changes in consciousness movement and its motivational sources: progressive focalization and demarcation of a critical point, in order to defuse a counterargument, in the case of the discourse markers clusters; and sudden change of perspective, for introducing evidence in support of a negative comment that comes immediately or later on, in the case of parenthetical constructions. The results suggest a close connection among the sort of consciousness movement, discourse construction types, grade of activation and identifiability of referents, construction of evidential meanings and particular expression of intersubjectivity.

References
The distinction between grammatical and lexical items is a cornerstone in linguistic theory. In a recent, usage-based theory, Boye & Harder (2012) account for this distinction in terms of information prominence: Grammatical elements are by convention discursively secondary (background), meaning that they serve an ancillary purpose and can never be the main point of the utterance. Lexical elements, on the other hand, are potentially – but not necessarily – discursively primary (foreground).

A psycholinguistic implication of this theory is that information prominence correlates with an allocation of cognitive resources to specific areas of the discourse so that prominent elements receive more attention. That makes Boye & Harder’s (2012) theory of grammar testable and therefore a candidate for experimental validation which is an important next step for cognitive linguistic theories.

The implication of the theory for attention was tested under the following hypotheses: It was hypothesized 1) that focalized, and therefore primary, elements receive more attention than non-focalized, secondary ones, and thus – in accordance with Boye & Harder (2012) – 2) that lexical elements receive more attention than grammatical ones.

These hypotheses were tested in a reading experiment in Danish. The experiment employed a letter detection task (e.g. Rosenberg et al. 1985), a paradigm that assumes that the error rate for letter-detection reflects the attentional resources at work, in such a way that fewer errors mean that more attention is being paid by the participant. 84 adult speakers of Danish were instructed to find specific target letters in two text passages in which were embedded 16 experimental sentences. The stimuli were constructed using a 2x2 design, contrasting 1) focal and non-focal items as well as 2) lexical and grammatical ones. Focalization was manipulated by means of Danish focus particles like præcis (‘exactly’) as well as by the use of cleft constructions. Lexical and grammatical items were distinguished in accordance with the diagnostic tests given in Boye & Harder (2012).

The results support hypothesis 2, but not 1: Participants detected significantly more letters (<.0001) in lexical compared to grammatical items during reading, while there was no significant difference between focalized and non-focalized items in the experiment. A post hoc analysis accounting for other factors related to attention (e.g. word length, position on the line of text, new or given information, semantic vagueness) revealed an interaction effect for focus and lexico-grammatical status. This suggests that at least in Danish, the lexicon-grammar contrast might be a more important cue to information prominence (foreground vs. background status) than focalization (by means of focus particles or cleft constructions), although the lack of an effect of focus might also be due to features of the experimental design. The nature of the interaction between the two means of signaling information prominence is a matter for future investigations. The current experiment provides some insight into the function of grammar as a signal for background information, support for the lexicon-grammar continuum and it’s relation to discourse prominence.

References


Micro-level changes in Romance Reflexive Constructions: semantic contiguity, referential identity and analogy

Carolin Munderich
Eberhard Karls Universität Tübingen

The phenomenon: In current Spanish and Italian, we can observe the development of a new reflexive construction (1), which, at first sight, strongly resembles the so-called reflexive passive construction (2). However, in contrast to (2), the verb in (1) does not agree with the postverbal NP apparently leaving this construction without a syntactic subject:

(1) Se vende [cervezas]NP
  REFLEX sellSG beerPL
  ‘Beers are sold/One sells beers’

(2) Se vende [cERVEZA]NP
  REFLEX sellSG beerSG
  ‘Beer is sold’

Detges/Waltereit (2002: 166) assume that (1) developed via a process of reanalysis in which the syntactic subject of (2) was reanalyzed as a direct object. Additionally, they presume that in another micro-step of reanalysis an indefinite agent is introduced into (1). So far, though, this hypothesis lacks clear empirical evidence. Thus, our first main research task is to find data that proves an agentive interpretation of se in structures like (1). Furthermore, we have to investigate which factors influence the development of (1). Put differently: Can we find factors that make it cognitively plausible that an indefinite agent is introduced in a former passive construction?

The main claim: In accordance with Detges/Waltereit (2002), I assume that the trigger for this process of reanalysis is a relation of semantic contiguity between (1) and its source construction (2), cf. (1) a. and (2) a.:

(1) a. ‘An indefinite agent sells beer’
(2) a. ‘A sale of beer is taking place’

Additionally, the two constructions describe referentially identical situations, which co-determines the reanalysis. Furthermore, a second set of factors crucially influences the development of (1): analogy and iconicity (on their connection cf. Itkonen 2005: 101). First of all, we find concrete analogy of (1) not only with (2), but also with another reflexive construction, the so-called impersonal construction (3), which can thus be described as a second source construction of (1) (on multiple source constructions cf. De Smet et. al. 2013). Interestingly, (3) also contains an indefinite agent:

(3) Se ataCA [a los periodistas]NP
  REFLEX attackSG PREP DEF.M.PL journalistSM.F.PL
  ‘Someone attacks the journalists’

Moreover, iconicity plays an important role on a more abstract level. Since an agent is necessary to conduct the action in extralinguistic reality, introducing an agent into the new construction is a means of increasing its iconicity. This also brings us back to the analysis of Detges/Waltereit who argue that reference to extralinguistic reality is one of the two main pragmatic principles guiding reanalysis (Principle of reference, Detges/Waltereit 2002: 157). Thus, not only semantic contiguity but also analogy and, on a more abstract level, referential identity play an important role in the development of (1). This demonstrates how these three principles can interact in an ongoing process of language change.

The method: The main claim is investigated by a psycholinguistic rating experiment, more precisely a sentence-picture verification task. In this experiment, the main research question is whether language users represent an agent when they are processing structures like (1): Each participant sees a construction as in (1) followed by a picture. Subsequently, (s)he has to decide how good the picture (s)he sees matches the previously read sentence. If the hypothesis stated above holds true, then a picture including an agent should be rated significantly better in combination with (1) than a picture without an agent. Furthermore, the reaction time should be significantly shorter when combining (1) with a picture including an agent than when combining it with a picture without agent.

This paper presents a section of the thesis: *Teaching English as a foreign language to deaf and hard of hearing children included in regular education in the city of San Juan, Argentina*. The objectives of this research are: the description of the current state of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) to deaf and hard-of-hearing students enrolled in regular schools, to determine levels of achievement and identify strategies to optimize this task. This is an exploratory-descriptive research based on a case study. The subjects are students with a hearing loss ranging from moderate to severe. The instruments used are school documents (students tests, lesson planning, etc.), records obtained from non-participant observation, and interviews. Data were analyzed qualitatively using ATLAS-ti software. This work is based on the theoretical assumptions of neurocognitive linguistics (Lamb, 1999: 13), and the theory of usage-based acquisition (Tomasello 2000: 439). For neurocognitive linguistics, the linguistic system is linked to other subsystems of the total human cognition; and the mind is a system of networks characterized by its connectivity. This cognitive system interprets external symbols resulting from a process of selective activation of neural connections. The activation of nections’ strengthens the links between these nections, thus consolidating the network. Knowing a language, is knowing how to use it, which implies being able to perform certain processes, which, in the framework of the theory of relational networks in neurocognitive linguistics it means firstly, movements of activation of network connection between node and node, and secondly different operations that alter the shape of the network. These alterations may result either in strengthening connections, or in constructing inhibitory connections; the former causes the strengthening of structures, while the latter results in the weakening of the links between nodes, thus originating defective or erroneous constructions. The language and the system of networks change when in use. Tomasello (Lieven & Tomasello 2008) argues that grammar emerges from the analysis of real 'usage events' and that some environmental factors that influence it are the frequency, consistency and complexity. Frequency refers to the occurrence with which different specific forms are produced in the same space; consistency promotes learning, whereas complexity prevents it. This theory assumes that language is global and that language acquisition is the result of interaction. In this presentation we analyse the written productions of deaf and hard of hearing students learning EFL in regular schools, and correlate them with the way in which they were taught there, taking into account the frequency, consistency and complexity of structures they were exposed to. One of the main contributions of this research is that making use of cognitive-based theories to support EFL teaching is beneficial to these students. Observations show some correlation between, on the one hand, a more inductive teaching style following a cognitive approach recruiting subsystems other than the linguistic one, namely the visual, and a strengthening of the structures used by the students, shown in a better use of the target language; and on the other hand, some correlation between a more behaviourist style, with little exposure to the language and language being presented at word or sentence level, and a more fragmented and poor language performance of students.

References

1 A nection is “the basic module of the relational network, at the next level of organization above the node”. (Lamb 1999: 73)
Noun-to-Verb Conversion as a Frame-Driven Word Formation
Hirotaka Nakajima
Kobe University, JSPS Research Fellow

This study investigates the role of a frame or encyclopedic knowledge in a specific type of word formation called noun-to-verb conversion in English. We argue that denominal verbs are frame-driven; a frame not only serves as a meaning of a denominal verb, but also determines which nouns are eligible for conversion to verbs.

We first propose that the meaning of a denominal verb is event-based and derived from a frame about an event. This can provide a unified account for the English words *hammer*, *egg*, *tomato*, and *coffee*.

(1)  a. John hammered the metal.
    b. [...] and you've been egged and tomatoed and beaten up, and later on that which they have worked for have come to pass. 'throw eggs and tomatoes at' (COCA)
    c. [...] one might suggest that Cardinal Gagnon and Cardinal Joseph Ratzinger have occasionally coffeed over the subject. 'have a discussion/conversation' (COCA)

The proposed account captures the meanings of the three verbs in (1a, b) as that they gain their meanings from the striking frame and the insulting-act frame respectively, where the referents are frequent (and thus typical) participants as instruments. This means that the meanings should be attributed to the frames and accounted for as those derived from the frames. In contrast, in terms of the meanings of nouns, previous studies (e.g., Baeskow 2006) attempt to account for denominal verbs using the idea that knowledge about typical functions of nominal referents serve as the inputs for the meanings of denominal verbs. However, they fail to account for *egg* and *tomato* in (1b) because throwing is not a typical use of eggs and tomatoes and therefore not attributable to the semantics of the two nouns. *Coffee* in (1c) also gets its meaning ‘have a discussion/conversation’ not because of its typical use as a kind of drink but because of our knowledge of discussion/conversation where two or more people have a conversation while (in many situations) drinking coffee. Our proposal appropriately captures the frame-based nature of these verbs. Moreover, the sentence in (1c) suggests that it is necessary to consider frame-particular information in detail to better account for the meanings of denominal verbs (cf. Dirven 1999).

Additionally, some denominal verbs show semantic constraints on the possible participants realized as arguments which seem to come from the frames of those verbs. Good examples are seasonal terms. The sentences in (2a, b) show that these verbs require non-resort locations and non-wealthy actors are not appropriate with these verbs. This constraint apparently comes from the “vacation frame”.

(2)  a. ?John summered in the prison.
    b. ?The poor man summered in Paris.

Moreover, our proposal can account for possible nouns that are available for conversion. We know from the vacation frame that summer and winter are typical seasons for vacations, so *summer* and *winter* are eligible for conversion to encode that frame, as shown in (2c). This clearly demonstrates that the convertibility of nouns is determined by the frames to be encoded.

To summarize, we conclude that denominal verbs are made to encode the frames as their meanings. This proposal supports the central claim of Frame Semantics that “meanings are relativized to scenes” (Fillmore 1977: 59). Also, it reveals a relationship between linguistic semantics and encyclopedic knowledge by investigating how new verbs and their meanings are made from frames through conversion.

Selected References


Corpus
Analyzing Complement Clauses with the Verb *Know* from an Intersubjective View
Chiharu Nakashima
*Fukuoka Jo Gakuin University*

This paper examines the cases where complement clauses with the verb *know* have the second person as their sentence subject. With the verb *know*, which is one of the factive predicates, truth of complements is generally presupposed, and even when the main clauses are negated the complements are not (Kiparsky and Kiparsky 1970). Langacker sheds some light on this specific feature of factivity by presupposing two layers of conceptualization. In case of the verb *know*, as in Fig. 1, if the main clauses are negated the complements are not because the proposition (P1) is “independently accessible to the speaker and accepted as being valid (Langacker 2002)”. When the sentence subject is you, however, there are anomalous cases where the propositions do not stay as valid if the main clauses are negated, as in (2). Thus, we propose two types of complement clauses with the verb *know*: type A in which the factivity is kept intact as in (1); type B in which the feature of factivity is lost, as in (2). The objective of this paper is to elucidate how such a difference in factivity is brought about.

(1) You don’t know that I spend large amounts of my free time working on costumes for various conventions…. (http://poniesforparents.tumblr.com/post/85035719264)

(2) … it’s a good idea to have more than one executor because you don’t know that your executor is going to survive you. (BNCC)

We explicate each type based on Verhagen’s theory of intersubjectivity and the construal configuration (2005). That is, we claim that type A is the cases where the expressions are maximally “objective” as in Fig. 2(a). Type B, as in Fig. 2(b), represents the cases that profile the coordination relation between the speaker and the hearer, with respect to the same object of conceptualization.

---

References


The purpose of this paper is to propose the functional parallelism of tag questions in English and ending particles (e.g. yo, ne) in Japanese in terms of information structure (Langacker 2009). We conclude that both have mainly two functions: packaging the mind and sharing it with interlocutors.

We claim that analogy of the core-final structure, which has an existential core and elements for coding interactional representation on the end of the sentences, can be analyzed by “Anchoring Structure”. Langacker (2009) proposed it as information structure organized by layers and linear order starting with an anchor. Accounting for English Inversion the core-initial structure [Interactive system + Proposition] was described, however, even in English we can see another type of structure whose existential core puts on the end. We discuss the import of the core-final structure characterized by intersubjectivity (Verhagen 2005) and motivated by shared intension (Tomasello 2008).

Langacker (2009) only suggested the anaphoric use of the tag (e.g. The students are still complaining, aren’t they?), but we can also find another. Following examples (1) and (2) have no anaphoric references and haven’t even built clause structure.

The ending particles are also located after the expression of conception which the speaker has in his mind. As is the case in the structure of tag questions, their sentence has the information structure which comprises these elements; [Conception + interactive elements]. Moreover, they have the interactive import of indicating interlocutors’ coordination in speaking events, so that they are used not for written language, but for spoken language.

(1) Quiet, isn’t it? (BNC)
(2) ‘Arcadia!’ he said, and barked a laugh.
   ‘Bit of a misnomer, isn’t it?’ Defries said. (BNC)
(3) Yushoku, tabe-ta yone.
   Dinner-TOP, have-AUX (PAST) Ending particles
   ‘You had dinner, didn’t you?’
(4) Shizuka, da ne.
   Quiet, be (Copula) Ending particles
   ‘Quiet, isn’t it?’

References
The **Ving** Nominalizations from a Cognitive Grammar Perspective  
Nadya Naumova  
Naval Academy, Bulgaria

The paper presents a part of a much broader study on the English **Ving** forms made from the Cognitive Grammar perspective. The meanings of the **Ving** form are analyzed as a continuum formed by the interrelation of conceptual content and its construal, with each divergence in form iconically representing conceptual closeness or distance. The study claims that Present-day English has one **Ving** form; an *ad hoc* verb derivation, denoting *in the process of* V, i.e. the conceptually dependent interactions in an immediately observed situation. Its schematic meaning potential reasons and explains the diverse **Ving** meanings on construction (meaning potential) and sentence level (communicative potential).

In the process of human cognition, the conceptualization of immediate experience undergoes two types of abstraction: (i) actual plane gestalts formed by focusing of attention on different portions of the experienced situation, which further lead to the formation of (ii) structural level concepts: ‘things’, events and processes.

The investigation follows two main claims: the conceptual primacy of events and the specificity imparted to a **Ving** form due to the immediate vantage point inherent in its construal. Hence, a **Ving** form *per se* presupposes elaboration of events with actual, not schematic event participants. Crucial for the analysis is the assumption that attention is fundamental to the formation of **Ving** nominalizations not only as alternative focusing on either the verbal or the nominal profile, but also with respect to the scope of the reified gestalt. In the course of immediate experience human mind is capable of focusing its attention on different parts of the observed scene, creating different gestalts. Since the meanings of nominal and relational predications correspond to alternate mental construals of one and the same conceptualization, we can claim that the existing **Ving** constructions – relational and nominalized are alternate mental construals of the same gestalts formed in the process of immediate experience of a situation, consequently **Ving** nominalization occurs on construction level. Such a thesis explains the existence of relational and nominalized constructions with the same template (*Tr-**Ving**-*Lm*, *Ving*-*Lm*), because it is the gestalt that undergoes reification, not just the **Ving** form.

The analysis distinguishes between ‘base of reification’ and ‘scope of reification’. The base of reification coincides with the scope of predication of a **Ving** form, and has the conceptual structure of event. The scope of reification corresponds to that portion of the immediately observed situation which is brought to focus and profiled as nominal. Three types of nominalized **Ving** construals are singled out – *Acc Ving Lm* (event), *Ving Lm* (event’s ‘core’), and *single Ving* (event’s ‘trajectory’) denoting *the process of* V. Since these autonomous structures, once reified may have one (or both) event participants conceptualized as non-inherent, a missing event participant is considered latent and its latency meaningful. These nominalization patterns are used in the formation of other nominalized **Ving** constructions: *Poss Ving (Lm)*, *Poss Ving of (Lm)*, *Ving of Tr/Lm*. The **Ving** form acquires different meanings depending on the nominalization pattern and the type of construction it appears in. The single **Ving** can also be used metonymically to denote physical ‘things’, and these uses are different metonymic extensions to its denotation of *the process of* V. Four types have been outlined: the ‘process-result’ group, the ‘agent – process’ group, the ‘inherent part’ group, and the ‘collective agent’ group.

The study of the existing **Ving** constructions (**Ving** nominalizations in particular) reveals that they are symbolic representations of the way processes are gradually detached from the conceptually autonomous ‘things’, thus being abstracted from the conceptually primary events and singled out as a separate concept.
From “grammatical” to “discourse” constructions: the pragmaticalization of se bem que concessive constructions in Brazilian Portuguese

Maria Helena de Moura Neves
Andre Vinicius Lopes Coneglian
Mackenzie Presbyterian University

In this paper, we analyze concessive construction headed by the conjunction se bem que (literally, “if well that”) in Brazilian Portuguese, which is undergoing constructional change, losing its status as purely “grammatical” construction (01) and being coopted as a “discourse” construction (02) with the specific function of conveying the Speaker’s objection to some asserted or assumed inference that may arise in specific discourse contexts. Therefore, the aim of this paper is to identify the process whereby se bem que constructions become a discourse construction and the cognitive forces that motivate such a change.

(01) O farmacêutico abaixou a cabeça, vencido. Silvio surgiu de novo, o rosto molhado, o pacote de balas apertado nas mãos. Hesitou durante um minuto, olhando para o homem e para a mãe. Não tinha perdido uma só palavra do diálogo, se bem que nada percebesse. (CDP:19:Fic:Br:Cardoso:Dias)
The pharmacist put his head down, gave up. Silvio appeared again, with a sweaty face, with the package in his hands. He hesitated for a minute looking at the man and at the mother. He hadn’t lost a single word of the dialogue, se bem que [although] he noticed [subjunctive] nothing.

(02) Acho que a ação atrai a muitos escritores precisamente por isso, porque a literatura bem, a literatura não é só ação, é só literatura. Se bem que alguns escritores que o Sr. preza muito também entraram em a política. (CDP-19:N:Br:Folha)
I think that the action appeals to many writers precisely because of that, because literature, well literature is not action, it is just literature. Se bem que [though] some writers you appreciate [indicative] also had a political career.

Our first claim is that the process whereby this constructional change happens is pragmaticalization (Kaltenböck et al., 2011; Heine, 2013), since these constructions develop more syntactic autonomy and get more discourse bounded in the sense that they serve to metacomunicative and interactive purposes. Our second claim is that the cognitive force that drives se bem que constructions to undergo pragmaticalization is the increase of intersubjectivity, that is, these constructions represent the engagement of the Speaker’s mental states to the Hearer’s mental states which results in a specific communicative behavior, discursively realized as the Speaker’s objection to some real/potential inference the Hearer may draw.

The results of our corpus analysis can be systematized as follows: a) at the syntactic level, the tendency is for se bem que constructions to behave more autonomously the more intersubjective and discourse bounded they are; b) at the semantic and pragmatic levels, se bem que construction which are more discourse bounded tend to set up a specific discursive environment in which they occur; c) at the cognitive level, discourse bounded se bem que construction tend to occur in speech act and metaspatial conceptual domains, which are clearly about the interaction itself. It should be noted that in our corpus there were not enough examples of epistemic se bem que constructions that would allow us to propose generalizations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>se bem que (01)</th>
<th>se bem que (02)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Syntax</td>
<td>verb in subjunctive mood</td>
<td>verb in indicative mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>has scope over a “main” clause</td>
<td>has scope over a text span</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>pre-position and postposition</td>
<td>occurs only in postposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantics, and</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>parenthetical function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pragmatics</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>followed by reason clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>negation of implicature/presupposition</td>
<td>objection to hearer’s inferences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognition</td>
<td>content domain</td>
<td>speech act domain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>epistemic domain*</td>
<td>metaspatial domain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The influence of gesture restriction on verb tense use: Does gender play a role?

Elena Nicoladis and Lisa Smithson
University of Alberta

Adults often prefer to tell stories in the present tense rather than the past tense (Berman, 1988). When asked to tell an interesting story, adults show an even stronger preference for the present tense relative to telling an accurate story (Dudukovic et al., 2004). A possible explanation of these results is that tense choice is related to the dynamicity of imagery, with present tense being more dynamic and past more static. The use of co-speech gestures has been linked to dynamic imagery (Hostetter & Alibali, 2008). Furman and Nicoladis (2014) found that children’s and adults’ gesture rate was more highly correlated with present tense use than age. In an unpublished study, we asked adults to read a text written in the past and to retell it. They were assigned to one retelling condition: gestures encouraged, gestures restricted, or control. Gestures encouraged used more present tense (36%) than control (25%) and gestures restricted (31%), although the difference was not significant, perhaps because participants retold a text written in the past.

Gender differences may play a role in influencing tense use and gesture production in a narrative task. Previous research has found that there are gender differences on visuospatial tasks, generally favouring males. Since researchers have argued that gesture production may be strongly linked with visuospatial abilities (Hostetter & Alibali, 2008), gender may influence gesture production. In Ehrlich et al. (2006), children were asked to complete a spatial transformation task and then to explain how they solved the task. The researchers found that males gestured significantly more about the movement. It may be the case that a stronger imagistic representation resulted in a higher rate of gesture.

Relaying information in the present tense may be associated with the generation of more vivid imagery (Hackman & Holmes, 2004). If gesture production enhances dynamic imagery, then we might expect males to rely more on the past tense when gestures are restricted (since males may rely more strongly upon gesture production to strengthen imagistic representations required for the present tense). In contrast we might expect females to be less influenced by the restriction of their gestures. In the present study, we asked participants to watch two cartoons and tell them back. Participants told one story with gestures restricted (wearing Gvinic Skin Response sensors) and one without. In the GSR condition, they were told not to move otherwise they would interfere with the GSR encoding. We measured their tense use (percentage of present out of past and present). The results showed that there was an interaction between gender and condition. Men’s tense use was particularly affected by gesture restriction, while women’s tense use showed little effect. This result suggests that gesture restriction may be detrimental to imagery generation, particularly among males. The possible implications of this finding are discussed.

References


Assessing the role of the environment in emerging cultural communication systems

Jonas Nölle
Aarhus University

While the evolution of language is still regarded a “mystery” by some (Hauser et al, 2014), increasing efforts of the past decades have managed to describe various underlying mechanisms. Steels (2011), for instance, identifies three evolutionary forces: 1) Socio-ecological evolution leads to increased complexity in human’s social and ecological life establishing the need for language. 2) Biological evolution provides the “hardware” to process language and 3) cultural evolution determines how linguistic structure conventionalizes, spreads and changes in populations. This cultural evolution has been successfully modelled in so-called “iterated learning” paradigms with humans (Kirby, Griffiths & Smith, 2014) as well as artificial agent-based simulations (cf. Steels 2011).

However, especially the ecological part of the socio-ecological component in Steels’ evolutionary spiral has been neglected in cultural language evolution research, although cross-linguistic studies suggest correlations between certain linguistic categories and ecological factors affecting the respective speech communities. An example is the relationship between spatial Frames of Reference that are profiled differently among languages (Levinson & Wilkins, 2006) and factors like subsistence mode, ecological zone or dwelling (Majid et al, 2004:112). To assess these correlations from an evolutionary perspective, I propose a new paradigm for the study of emerging communication systems.

First, I present a new variation of Garrod and Anderson’s (1987) maze task, where subjects had to communicate positions in a maze in three conditions that varied in their environmental layout. The results suggest that linguistic conventions that emerge and stabilize between interlocutors in the context of a collective problem not only depend on automatic priming mechanisms, as suggested in the Interactive Alignment Model (Pickering & Garrod, 2004), but are also highly sensitive to factors of the shared task environment.

To investigate if such influences extend from linguistic routines to emerging communication systems, the second part focuses on the recent approach of “experimental semiotics” (Galantucci & Garrod, 2011). Previous studies have investigated how human subjects invent new ways to communicate when their use of language is constrained, but relied on abstract games with impoverished ecologies. I present a novel paradigm that maintains experimental control, but allows for a more ecologically valid setting to test the above stated hypothesis of “ecological determinism” (Majid et al, 2004: 112).

In virtual reality setups with varying environments, dyads have to engage in coordinative computer games in which they have to develop an ad hoc communication system to increase task performance. This way it can be tested whether such communication systems become ecologically biased and reflect cognitive strategies that have been adaptive to environmental affordances. In general, the paper aims to promote virtual reality paradigms as well as the integration of experimental semiotics with data from comparative linguistic research for prospective research in (cultural) language evolution.

References
Where should Depictive Construction be positioned?

Haruka Ogawa
Graduate School of Human and Environmental Studies, Kyoto University

Among a variety of constructions in the form of "NP₁ V NP₂ XP", those with resultative and depictive predicates have been discussed contrastively under the name of "secondary predicates" and have caused much attention in the literature of English grammar. The major differences that have been claimed so far are: (i) resultatives function as an argument whose implied subject is NP₂, whereas depictives are adjuncts that can be subject or object-oriented as in (1) (cf. Carrier and Randall 1992); and (ii) resultatives designate the result state of NP₂ caused by the action of NP₁ while depictives denote the state of either NP₁ or NP₂ during the time of V (cf. Himmelmann and Schultze-Brendt 2005) and sometimes can be interpreted as conditional meanings depending on the context as in (2) (cf. Halliday 1967).

(1) a. He ate the meat naked. [subject-oriented]
   b. He ate the meat raw. [object-oriented]

   (2) He can carry the box empty. (cf. He can carry the box if it is empty.)

This paper, from the viewpoint of Construction Grammar (Goldberg 1995), argues that Depictive Construction (henceforth DC) is not so closely connected to constructional schema as Resultative Construction (RC) and that we need to take other constructions of the same syntactic form into consideration to identify what DC is. The instances* from The Corpus of Contemporary American English suggest that DC does not have a highly abstract constructional schema while RC clearly does. In other words, DC does not have any productive pair of a certain verb and depictive (i.e. it does not allow various NPs in the NP₂ slot) and therefore the connection between the two is not strong enough for the form "NP₁ V NP₂ XP" to have a constructional meaning. The chart below shows the token frequencies of each intermediate-level constructional schema (in descending order).

| RC <506> | open NP₂ wide(er) <81> | cut NP₂ short(er) <53> | wipe NP₂ clean <35> | pull NP₂ free <24> |
| DC <245> | eat NP₂ alive <5> | eat NP₂ raw <5> | hear NP₂ called <5> | enter NP₂ uninvited <4> |

Furthermore, under the loose definition of depictives mentioned above, DC includes a wide range of constructions such as intransitive motion constructions and complex-predicate constructions with perception verbs.

Consequently, we can conclude that DC should be studied more in relation to semantically close constructions rather than to RC, despite the identical superficial syntactic alignment. As for the theoretical aspect, Construction Grammar needs to improve itself so that it can also deal with expressions without a constructional meaning attached to a highly abstract schema. Although surface structures are significant for this theory, it is not obligatory for one form to have a single meaning.

Note: *They are extracted in the form of "verb + article + noun + adjective/past-participle" and do not include the examples in which the token frequency of the verb exceeds 100.

References
Asymmetrical Distributions in Nominal Conceptual Expansion
Sadayuki OKADA
Osaka University

When a nominal expression designates a referent which lies beyond the range of its default referent, the nominal is considered to have a conceptual expansion. Here I investigate the distributional properties of the conceptual expansion of nominals, paying special attention to their argument status in the sentence in which they are employed. Using a preliminary survey on the distribution of extended nominal reference with data from the BNC (British National Corpus) and BCCWJ (Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese), I demonstrate that argument nominals show a wide variety of extended references, while the same expressions located in adjuncts only cover part of the designations attested in argument positions. (For the demonstration, I pick up 50 nominal expressions often cited in studies of metonymical semantic extensions. I will discuss the type and token frequencies of expanded references from basically the same number of occurrences of nominals in argument and adjunct positions.) Here is a sample of the survey result with regard to 500 occurrences of the English noun “voice(s).” It shows that the type frequency of extended readings is wider in argument positions than in adjunct positions (out of 250 occurrences each in argument positions and in adjuncts).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argument Expanded</th>
<th>57 (Person/People: 29, View/Opinion: 23, Representative: 2, Singers: 1, Accent: 1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adjunct Expanded</td>
<td>16 (View/Opinion: 10, Person/People: 5, Singer: 1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This is a quantitative survey supporting the basic claim of Waltereit (1999) and Sweep (2009) to the effect that metonymical extensions are licensed in direct arguments like the object and the subject. But I would also like to argue that once licensed in argument positions, the extended reference will be entrenched and starts to be observed in adjunct positions. The semantic permeation of extended reference from arguments to adjuncts has not been a matter of great concern, as far as I know. This kind of semantic extension is not expected to be observed only in one particular language, and therefore, I would like to take into consideration data from Japanese, in addition to those from English. In the course of the discussion, we will look at some historical data supporting the directionality of permeation with OED and its Japanese counterpart (Nihon Kokugo Daijiten: A Comprehensive Dictionary of the Japanese Language). Though there are many different routes for lexical semantic change, the distribution of extended meanings attested in BNC and BCCWJ seems to support this probable mechanism of lexical semantic change. (At least we can claim that it is a very productive directionality for nominal semantic extensions.) One more thing to note in this research is that as far as conceptual expansions are concerned, it seems that we need not make a strict segregation between metonymical and metaphorical extensions.

Selected References
Metaphors between general and specialised knowledge: a corpus-based analysis of linguistic metaphors in aviation discourse

Ana Ostroški Anić
Institute of Croatian Language and Linguistics

The role of metaphor as a basic cognitive mechanism in the construction and retrieval of specialised knowledge has been studied for some time now within cognitive terminological approaches (Tercedor Sánchez et al 2012, Ureña and Faber 2010). However, these studies are largely focused on the description of metaphorical conceptualization in a certain knowledge field, leaving somewhat aside the effect of metaphorical conceptual mapping on bridging general and specialised knowledge, especially in the acquisition of specialised knowledge.

The paper analyses English and Croatian metaphorical terms and their constructions created by the process of metaphorization of words from general language. It aims to describe the syntactic patterns of metaphorical terms created in this way, and thus establish a connection between linguistic metaphors and their corresponding conceptual metaphors both in English and Croatian. The results will also give evidence as to the different syntactic and semantic characteristics of words when used in different discourse, i.e. in a general and a specialised one. Linguistic metaphors of a number of terms denoting concepts such as control, separation and traffic are extracted out of two corpora (English and Croatian) of aviation textbooks and manuals on the field of air traffic management. Several methods of semiautomatic metaphor detection and extraction have been applied (e.g. the extraction of metaphorical patterns as in Stefanowitsch 2006), most efficient of which has proved to be an analysis of collocations within the word sketches extracted from corpora (MacWhinney and Fromm 2014). Collocations such as increased air traffic, separate air traffic, maintain communication or conflicting traffic are proof that collocational patterns show the need to both express abstract or new ideas through metaphor, and to establish regular patterns for unambiguous communication (Deignan 2005).

References
The relation between pitch contour and gesture in emphasis and attenuation marking

Vera Pacheco

*Universidade Estadual do Sudoeste da Bahia*

Maíra Avelar Miranda

*Universidade Estadual do Sudoeste da Bahia*

In this paper, we investigate if emphasis and attenuation performances are accompanied by changes in the pitch contour, as well as in face and body movements. To Kendon (2004, p. 1) “(...) it is through body orientation, and especially, through the orientation of the eyes, that information is provided about a direction and nature of a person’s intention (…)”. We intend, thus, to investigate if the emphasis and the attenuation are linguistic resources that can be marked at the same time by the voice timbre rising and falling (identified in the sound signal by the f0 curve), and also by specific body movements. In order to perform this research, we: (i) selected dozens of YouTube lecture, interview, and debate videos from Brazilian Portuguese speakers; (ii) selected excerpts in which we identified emphasis and attenuation; (iii) analyzed the performed facial and body movements that occurred together with the prosodic effects of emphasis and attenuation; (iii) evaluated, by using Praat, the pitch contour of the excerpts in which auditory emphasis and attenuation were identified together with gestures.

As Cagliari (2007 [1982]) reminds us, based on Crystal (1975) and Laver (1975), many semantic facts manifest themselves through certain voice quality types. Then, it is possible to claim that an utterance can have several meanings depending on the way it is said. The emphasis of specific excerpts is usually marked by the melodic tone rising, if compared to the rest of the utterance (Cagliari, 1999). After analyzing a lecture given by William Bonner, anchor of the National News (Jornal Nacional), we could verify that the emphasis is used by the speaker to highlight, give importance to determined speech excerpts.

When saying the excerpt “How this applies to Globo journalism”, Bonner raises his melodic tone exactly when saying the word applies. In this utterance, this word is the one that has a differentiated meaning. It is, in fact, the utterance’s most important word. When raising the volume of applies, the journalist drives the attention of its spectators, indicating, from that moment, that he is giving important clues on how the television network that employs him works. In other words, he is telling to his audience: pay attention! In cases of emphasis, there is an f0 rise, and eye, eyebrows and hand rising movements. As stated by Kramer and Swerts (2006), to indicate a more important word within those that are being said, the speakers use different ways to highlight it, including pitch accent and body movement parameters. The emphasis is usually also used to make corrections in some excerpts.

On the other hand, the speaker tends to lower its melodic tone a lot when he/she intends to indicate excerpts whose semantic content “is considered as something ‘between parentheses’, ‘of lower importance’, ‘inserted in the middle of another excerpt’, that is, into the main subject of the discourse at that time” (Cagliari, 1999, p. 9, free translation). In the same video performed by Bonner, when the journalist talks about an aircraft accident, he closes his eyes, lowers his head and the pitch curve goes from 200 Hz to 100 Hz. He also uses the attenuation marking to express hesitation in some excerpts. Then, in cases of attenuation, there is an f0 fall, and eye, eyebrow and hand falling movements.

Regarding the research proposal here presented, we can conclude, at least regarding Brazilian Portuguese, that the auditory emphasis and attenuation can come along with, respectively, the rising or lowering of the f0 curve. In addition, these prosodic effects are performed together with simultaneous ascending/descending eye, eyebrow and hand movements. Then, we can state that these gestures are relevant mechanisms for emphasis and attenuation marking.

References


Emotion cannot be structured in its own terms: it is a classic example of metaphorical concept. Researchers in Conceptual Metaphor Theory (CMT) (Lakoff & Johnson 1980; Lakoff 1993), have devoted great attention to how emotion concepts are grounded in bodily experience (e.g. Kövecses 2003; 1987; Lakoff 1987, pp.380–415), but they have mainly focused on de-contextualized utterances. CMT leaves little room for individual creativity (Tsur 2000), cultural diachrony (Geeraerts & Gevaert 2008), or context.

This project seeks to model the language of emotions with Blending Theory (BT) (Fauconnier & Turner 2002). According to BT, there is no hard-wired, direct transfer between big domains, but opportunistic activation, association, and integration of small conceptual packets called mental spaces (Fauconnier 1985). Mental spaces flexibly combine entrenched structures and contextual information, for local purposes of thought and action. So far BT has focused on general principles and on specific integrations, an very little on mid-level templates. Recent work on generic integration templates (GITs) (Pagán Cánovas 2010; Turner 2014; Pagán Cánovas & Turner forthcoming) proposes that mapping patterns are better understood as flexible instructions for creating conceptual blends, serving specific purposes in specific contexts. A complete model of conceptual mappings requires studying the historical evolution of GITs as well as comparing their varied instantiations across cultures (Pagán Cánovas 2011; Pagán Cánovas forthcoming).

The twenty-eight centuries of uninterrupted Greek literary tradition offer a large set of data for the diachronic study of GITs in creative figurative language. This talk surveys some of these patterns and their creative use for the expression of emotion, comparing a variety of cultural environments, throughout a wide selection of poetic texts in ancient and modern Greek. What all these texts have in common is the structuring of affective meaning as part of a spatial event that can be run as a mental simulation, that is, “seen with the mind’s eye” or imaged. Besides exposing templates for conceptual integration, these blends of schematic spatial gestalts with non-spatial concepts can retain attentional preferences originated during the first months of human development (Mandler & Pagán Cánovas 2014).

References
Since Schiffrin's (1987) seminal work on well, considerable amount of work on Spanish has been developed to analyze bueno beyond traditional dictionary's description --for which it is an interjection of approval or surprise DRAE-- and to see it as a dialogic marker (Bauhr 1994, Cortés Rodríguez 1991, Fuentes Rodríguez 1993a, 1993b, Gregori Signes 1996, Martín Zorraquino 1991, Travis 2006, Hummel 2012). There is disagreement about the behavior of bueno as a discourse marker. Some authors claim that it has been reduced to an anaphoric marker of approval (Travis 2005). Some others treat it as a complex marker accomplishing functions that depart from its base adjectival form (Bauhr 1994, Hummel 2012). While the anaphoric approval and corrective meanings are well attested, the bipolar character of bueno as an anaphoric and a cataphoric marker has recently been identified (Hummel 2012). This paper attempts to analyze a set of further extensions of bueno where both approval and anaphoric uses are drastically reduced leaving the space for cataphoric functions to take over, as in (1-3):

1. Bueno, ya me harté
   'OK, I've had it'
2. Bueno / a ver / por ejemplo / cuéntame cuando entraste con el H'
   'OK / let's see / for example / tell me about when you entered with the H'
3. Bueno. ¿Con quien hablo?
   'Hello. Who am I talking to?'

It is proposed that bueno functions as a "window opener", a marker that instead of making reference to previous discourse it opens new mental spaces in discourse (Fauconnier 1986) in order to introduce new topics, new turns, new argument lines or new spheres in discourse. These readings are obtained as extreme cases of attenuation and subjectivity where the speaker validates a new discourse phase without depending on the content of previous discourse. Based on a data set of 200 examples extracted from the CREA corpus of Mexican Spanish (oral and written) it is shown that the three dominant uses are not of approval of previous discourse (Travis 81%) but of meanings correcting a previous assertion to increase assertiveness (51%), expansions and elaborations of speaker's current discourse (19%) and "window openers" (22%). The data suggests that bueno is undergoing a reanalysis where a semantic bleaching process not only loses the root meaning of goodness but also stops referring to the content of some anaphoric antecedent to instead impose a new conceptualization based on the speaker's conceptualization.

References:
Feelings, perceptions, representations and concepts are a person's source of knowledge about the world around. As Leshcheva claims, the part of knowledge is formed by daily experience as a result of direct interaction with environment on the basis of feelings (heat – cold); part of knowledge is acquired on the basis of more difficult cognitive process – perception, which gives the information about subject properties in its direct impact on sense organs (Лещева 1994: 51). Lexis, connected with perception modi has many a time been in the focus of research conducted not only by linguists, but by psychologists, anthropologists, and ethnographers. Studies carried out by scholars from different schools make their contribution into the nature of human olfactory sensations (Chen, Dalton 2005; Jonsson et al. 2005; Doty et al. 2006; O’Brien et al. 2009; Stevenson 2010; Barrett et al. 2012).

Our aim is to show how knowledge obtained via sensory perception channels is reflected in the language, namely in Western Slavic languages (Polish, Czech and Slovak) in the form of nouns, i.e., bases, or attributes, i.e. features. In medicinal plants' (MP) names, five information-processing channels (vision, touch, smell, taste and hearing) are distinctly traced. The frequency of these channels in different languages varies, but the priority belongs to vision, which allows to describe the outlook of the plant and to localize it in space. Now we will highlight smell, which is very important in vital functions of people and some animals.

Ananyev has described in detail general olfactory features, among them there such as quality, concreteness, intensity, duration and spatial definiteness (Ананьев 1961: 356). Layenko (Лаенко 2002) takes into account such olfactory properties, as their evaluative features, quality, strength (intensity), stability, concentration, recognizability of smell and others. Our analysis of phytonymic lexicon is mainly based on these approaches and some others. In spite of the fact that the common olfactory features (sweet, bitter, sour, etc.) are rather unanimously described, the standard classification of smells doesn’t exist. In the analysis of olfactory attributes in phytonym’s semantics we will be guided by the following principles: to take into account presence / lack of smell, its intensity, evaluating component (pleasant: fragrant, sweet-scented; unpleasant: stinking, fetid, odoriferous, suffocating); complementary properties (sweet, sour); existence of perception standard of vegetable, animal or other origin (fir, rosemary, bug, goat, vinegar, lime, honey, etc.).

We find examples only in the names of those MPs, which have strong pleasant odour or unpleasant smell evoking headache. Evaluating component (pleasant smell) is represented by the following examples: Polish lit. *Marzanka wonna* – Woodruff (Asperula odorata L.); unpleasant smell: *Asa smrdutá* – Asafetida (Ferula Assa-foetida L.); Slovak *Smradinky* – Black currant (Ribes nigrum L.). In Western Slavic languages examples with perception standard of vegetable origin: Slovak *Lemonka* – Lemon balm (Melissa officinalis L.); or vegetable/animal origin prevail: Polish lit. *Miodunka plamista* – Lungwort (Pulmonaria officinalis L.). As far as strong sweet smell of some plants attracts bees we may speak about smell intensity: Slovak *Včelník* (Origanum vulgare L.).

Our research shows that olfactory channel is important for human cognitive activity. Olfactory attributes, unlike those of taste, size, form, etc. have no standards. Smell is connected with subjective factor: the same plant has different olfactory attributes in different languages, especially if we compare Germanic and Slavic, Eastern and Western Slavic languages, etc. It is interesting to state that phytonyms containing standards of vegetable origin (lily-of-the-valley, lilac, jasmine, pine) have positive evaluation, whereas those of animal origin (goat, bedbug) – negative one; the exception is bee in the plant's names, which testifies to smell intensity.
Expanding illocutionary scenarios via metonymic inference

Klaus-Uwe Panther / Linda L. Thornburg
University of Hamburg / Nanjing Normal University

In various publications we have argued for an approach to speech acts, in particular indirect illocutionary acts, that is based on the notion of illocutionary scenario (or, alternatively, illocutionary frame). Illocutionary scenarios consist of propositional meaning components (partially coinciding or overlapping with Searlean felicity conditions) that are connected by potential metonymic links. In the case of a conventional indirect illocutionary act, meaning components such as ‘Speaker wants Hearer to do A’, ‘Hearer is able to do A’, ‘There are no good reasons for Hearer not to do A’ are referred to in the actual utterance act and thereby metonymically evoke the whole illocutionary scenario or intended illocutionary act, here the request Speaker asks Hearer to do A. The reference to such propositional meaning components yields, as is well known, conventionalized indirect directives such as Can/could you do A? / You can do A, I want/would like you to do A, and Why don’t you do A?, respectively.

But what happens if the intended illocutionary act is not conventionally associated with a specific illocutionary force as, for example, in utterances (1) and (2)? Consider the following data from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), where relevant linguistic context is added in square brackets:

(1) “[...] You know, it is hot in here.” [“Shall I open the netting?” said the sommelier.] (COCA 2004)

(2) Holy shit, it’s hot in here, [let's open some windows.] (COCA 2012)

Suppose that the first clause utterances are meant to convey an indirect request or suggestion that something should be done so that it is not hot in the speaker’s location. The proposition ‘It is hot in here’, or more precisely, its schematic form ‘It is ADJ in Speaker’s location’ (where ADJ refers to a value on a temperature scale), is not a meaning component of the canonical scenario of directive illocutionary acts. Consequently, the directive scenario has to be dynamically accommodated, i.e. expanded conceptually, in order to enable and obtain the intended interpretation. In both utterances (1) and (2) a process of metonymic chaining is triggered that involves the notions of Speaker EVALUATION and Speaker DESIRE, leading ultimately to the reading ‘Do something to the effect so that it is not hot in here’. Thus, the metonymic source, i.e. the assertion It is hot in here is located “outside” the illocutionary scenario, but through metonymic chaining, the hearer is led into the directive scenario proper.

The analysis of examples like (1) and (2) strongly suggests that the standard assumption in cognitive linguistics that metonymy involves inferences or mappings within a single frame/domain/idealized model (see e.g. Dancygier 2009, Radden & Kövecses 1999) has to be reconsidered because it is based on the assumption that frames are static semantic configurations. In contrast, the above and numerous other data to be discussed in our presentation provide evidence that the boundaries of frames or scenarios are flexible; in particular, on a case-to-case basis, they may have to be stretched intensionally in order to enable conceptual material outside (but near) the boundary of a canonical scenario to be integrated into the adjusted frame.

References
A hell of a day: The referential identity of English binominal phrases

Chongwon Park & Daniel Turner
University of Minnesota Duluth

This presentation develops an analysis of English Binominal NPs (BNPs) from a Cognitive Grammar perspective. English BNPs are schematically illustrated as [Det1-N1-of-Det2-N2], and their representative examples are provided in (1).

(1) a hell of a day, a jewel of a city, that ponce of a boss, his shaven dome of a head, a giant of a man

BNP constructions pose several analytical and theoretical problems as noted in Aarts (1998), Foolen (2004), Keizer (2007), and Kim & Sells (2014). The first problem concerns the headedness of the construction. Though N1 is claimed to be at least a syntactic head in the traditional approach, N2 often functions as the semantic head of the whole construction, from which the core meaning stems, as in (2).

(2) She’s a frightened little mouse of a woman, who makes a fierce stand and won’t back down.

(she ≠ a frightened little mouse but she = a frightened woman, therefore NP2 has the core meaning)

The second question is whether the of-marked PP is selected by N1 or the of serves a special grammatical purpose: linker (den Dikken 2006, among others). The third question regards the semantic relation between N1 and N2. As pointed out by Kim and Sells (2014), N1 functions as a predicate of N2. If so, what constructional and conceptual properties of the BNP construction make this construal available?

In this presentation, we answer these questions with emphasis on the constructional meaning of BNPs in which N1 and N2 predicate referential identity. More specifically, as illustrated in the figure for the BNP a hell of a day, we demonstrate that the preposition of exhibits nothing but a non-processual relation between two things (nouns), instead of playing a special grammatical linker role. N2, which designates a virtual instance of the specified type, then corresponds to the trajector of the relationship profiled by of. At a higher level of organization, N1 corresponds to the lower part of the equative, denoted by the double line, thereby leading to the interpretation of “this day is a hell”. One advantage of our analysis is that the properties of BNPs observed by the aforementioned researchers are all explained symptomatically of the constructional meaning of equative nominals. The analysis we provide resembles Langacker’s (2008: 397) analysis of predicate nominatives such as Joyce is my cousin and Joyce is an actress. This resemblance is fully expected because the main function of BNPs and the predicate nominatives is to indicate the referential identity.
Epistemic Conditional Construction in Korean
Jeong-Woon Park
Hankuk University of Foreign Studies

One and the same conditional construction may be used in the content, the epistemic, or the speech-act domain (Sweetser 1990 and Dancygier and Sweetser 2005). In Korean, however, there is a conditional construction used exclusively in the epistemic domain, as illustrated in (1).

(1) kwuk-i ccan kel po-myen sokum-ul manhi neun keney
Soup-Nom is.salty Comp see-if salt-Acc much put Epis
(Lit.) 'If (I) see that the soup is salty, (they) must have put much salt in it.'
'If (as I know) the soup is salty, they must have put much salt in it.'

Although the "main predicate" of the protasis in this construction is the verb po- 'to see,' the content of the complement clause is not restricted to visual perception. It can be any type of perception (visual, auditory, olfactory, tactile, or gustatory) and even cognition, which is illustrated in (2).

(2) kukes-ul kiekhaci moshanun kel po-myen nemu manhi masyessten kes kathta
It-Acc remember cannot Comp see-if too much drank Comp seem
'I cannot remember it, I must have drunken too much.'  [Cognition]

This paper aims to explore the formal and semantic aspects of the epistemic conditional construction and the grammaticalization processes involved in this construction. It first examines formal characteristics of the epistemic conditional construction in comparison with general conditional constructions in Korean. It argues that the construction in question can be marked by the conditional marker –myen 'if/when,' but not by –tamyen 'if,' because the former, but not the latter, can convey positive epistemic stance. It also argues, based on morphological and syntactic evidence, that the form po- in the construction is not a verb any longer, but that the complex form po-myen has become grammaticalized into the marker of the protasis of the epistemic conditional construction. It then argues that the epistemic stance (cf, Fillmore 1990) conveyed by the epistemic conditional construction is always positive, that is, the speaker commits to the truth of the proposition of the protasis. It also investigates the grammaticalization processes involved in this construction, paying special attention to the function of the conditional marker –myen 'if' and the semantics of the verb po- 'to see.'

References
In foreign language education, some challenging grammatical patterns can be better explained with help from images illustrating their cognitive phases. For example, the rich inventory of Korean verb ending suffixes enable speakers to express their relation to the propositional contents of the sentences and toward the hearers. However, various modalities conveyed within these suffixes make learning too difficult for those whose native language does not have similar counterparts.

Schema theorists claim that abstract concepts are best understood after a foundation of concrete, relevant information has been established (Schallert, 1982). The general knowledge provides a framework into which the newly formed structure can be fitted. This paper suggests the use of illustrations, of visual cues, that could activate learners’ schemata in understanding the core aspects of some challenging Korean verb suffix endings. Some complex Korean grammatical patterns, such as passive and causative constructions, can simply be introduced to students as lexical items by providing step by step cognitive phases which all together create one single complex grammar construction.

For instance, the notion of the passive voice and causative construction are too vague to students in many languages, and it is especially the case for Korean. Korean passive verbs are formed by inserting suffixes such as i, hi, li, ki partially overlap with that of causative verbs which consist of i, hi, li, ki, wu, kwu, chwu, as in mekta/mek-hi-ta ‘to eat/be eaten’ and mekta/mek-i-ta ‘to eat/to feed’, respectively. Illustrations can be used to activate learners’ schemata, which in turn would help them fill in the information gap. In this case, the two different perspectives of the agent as well as the patient must be visualized as independent yet related schemata to illustrate the notion of the passive voice (examples 1a-1b). The active form of the verb capta ‘to catch,’ as in example (1a), as well as the passive form capita ‘to be caught’ (1b) can be presented to students using some forms of illustration. When these two perspectives are presented, students will be able to grasp the notion of the active and passive voice as two independent yet concurrent actions. Once students get familiarized with the lexical items, passive constructions could be introduced to show further differences in terms of sentence structure. In case of causative, the independent actions occur with a very small time interval as in cwukta/cwuk-i-ta ‘to die/to kill’. In this case, the process is the same as in passive but the two actions are not concurrent.

Reference
This paper revisits the so-called definiteness effect in *there*-constructions, i.e. the constraint proposed in especially the formal literature (e.g. Milsark 1974) that *there*-existentials can only take indefinite post-verbal noun phrases. Thus syntactically definite determiners and universally quantifiers are excluded in this construction as below (Milsark 1974:195).

(1) *There is the dog/John’s dog/that dog/John/him/he in the room.*
(2) *There are/is all/both/every/each dog in the room.*

This paper builds on other work that has criticized the formal approach to post-verbal NPs in this construction. This work, usually pragmatic or cognitive in nature, has pointed to a range of examples of *there*-constructions with formally definite noun phrases (see e.g. Rando & Napoli 1978, Holmback 1984, Abbott 1993, McNally 2011, Ward & Birner 1995, Birner & Ward 1998). In this strand of research, it has been claimed that the notion of definiteness should not be exclusively formal, but also from the point of view of pragmatics/information status.

The studies by Ward & Birner (1995) and Birner & Ward (1998) are the most convincing, not least since they consider naturally occurring data. They argue that the NP “must represent an entity that is not presupposed by the speaker to constitute shared knowledge” (Birner & Ward 1998:120). Usually such NPs will be grammatically indefinite, but because there is no perfect match between grammatical definiteness and non-hearer-new status, they identify five types of *there*-constructions with formally definite NPs. These types can be characterized as hearer-old entities treated as hearer-new (i.e. reminders); hearer-new tokens of hearer-old types; hearer-old entities newly instantiating a variable (i.e. list); hearer-new entities with individuating descriptions; and false definites. However, despite the fact that Birner & Ward’s five types of exceptions are informed by corpus data, they do not discuss their relative frequencies.

My study looks at specifically these five types of formally definite but hearer-new entities which readily occur in *there*-sentences in natural data. It is based on two samples of 1,000 examples of *there*-sentences, randomly collected from the written and spoken sections of the British National Corpus. I have manually analysed these examples according to the five types that Birner & Ward (1998) identify. Based on differences in relative frequencies, I propose a prototype-based network of formally definite exceptions to the definiteness effect, both in speech and in writing. Token frequencies suggest that in speech the central member of formally definite but hearer-new *there*-existentials is the ‘hearer-old entities treated as hearer-new’ (i.e. reminders) as in *there’s Mark and Sally* (BNC KCN 3600). In contrast, the ‘list type’ (e.g. *All the different hats, there’s German’s, Italy’s, British, BNC KC2 4663) is less central, while hearer-new tokens of hearer-old types, hearer-old entities with individuating descriptions and false definite are even more peripheral. In written English, on the other hand, the list reading (e.g. *There is the risk of permanent damage and neglect to the individual’s spiritual life*, BNC A7K 630) emerges as the most frequent type. This is perhaps not surprising, given that composing and processing lists poses serious demands in terms of working memory. The written form may mitigate such demands, as the author/reader can easily go back in the text.

By combining existing insights related to information structure with a prototype-based network-based view of constructions, the proposed account of these exceptional *there*-constructions pushes the position taken by Birner & Ward yet a further step away from the formal approach to the definiteness effect.

References
When describing spatial scenes, we tend to use our own egocentric perspective. Tversky and Martin Hard (2009) showed that this default self perspective can be changed: Having a person in the scene and mentioning action both make describers more likely to take the point of view of the person in the scene (referred to as other perspective). We extend these findings by asking whether the patterns Tversky and Martin Hard observed for verbal descriptions of static scenes hold for 1) moving scenes and 2) for gesture, and 3) for situations where the computational cost of taking another’s perspective is high. Left and right are costly for people to compute (Vingerhoets & Sarrechia, 2009). Taking another’s perspective is also costly to compute: We typically do it by mentally rotating to that other’s position (Roberts & Arman, 1993). Situations involving mental rotation to take the other’s perspective AND left/right labeling should be particularly costly, then. We predict that in these situations, participants will revert to self perspective or use deictic pronouns to shift the communicative burden to gesture (e.g., it was here + gesture).

Participants (n = 16) described videos in which a person sits at a table while a train moves next to a cup (see Fig. 1). Participants were prompted to describe how the train moved relative to the cup. Because a person is present in the scene and action is mentioned, a substantial number of participants should take other perspective (rather than the default self perspective). The train either moved on a sagittal (8 trials) or a transverse (8 trials) axis. Computational costs of taking other perspective should be higher for transverse trials than for sagittal trials: While both require mental rotation, transverse trials require labeling a left to right path and sagittal trials only require labeling a static left/ right location. Our key prediction was that the use of other perspective would be higher for sagittal trials than for transverse trials. Verbal descriptions were coded as self, other, pronominal, or no information. The mean proportion of other responses in speech was significantly higher for sagittal trials (mean .42, sd .29) compared to transverse trials (mean .16, sd .12), t (15) = 3.66, p = .002, d = 1.17, confirming our key prediction. We will present a finer-grained analysis of speech and gesture data, as well as findings from an ongoing gesture-only version of the study: If participants reverted to self perspective for transverse trials to avoid using left and right, removing language from the picture should increase production of other perspective. Our findings are compatible with models of perspective taking in which it is effortful to shift from one’s own to another person’s point of view (see, e.g., Wu, Barr, Gann, & Keysar, 2013).

References:

Figure 1: Still from example stimulus video
Motivation behind the extended senses of the Polish ditransitive construction

Joanna Paszenda
Pedagogical University of Cracow, Poland

The paper aims to characterize the family of ditransitive expressions in Polish and to identify the cognitive mechanisms that motivate them. The ditransitive pattern is understood here to involve an agent, a recipient(-like) argument, and a theme argument, with both objects formally realized as NPs. So defined, the ditransitive prototypically subsumes a double object construction (DOC) in English and a ‘dative’ construction in Polish, to the exclusion of their prepositional variants.

Adopting Goldberg’s (1995, 2006) view of argument structure, and implementing the multidimensional approach to constructional polysemy, put forward by Geeraerts (1998/2006), the present contribution analyzes extensions from the construction's central sense (defined as actual beneficial possessional transfer of a material entity) which are motivated by: (i) metaphorical mappings, (ii) metonymic mappings, (iii) perspectival switching, and (iv) conceptual integration, and which proceed along the following dimensions: the nature of causation, the nature of the transferred entity, the direction of transfer, and the polarity of transfer.

Relying on the groundwork laid by Rudzka-Ostyn’s (1996) and Dąbrowska’s (1997) studies of the Polish dative case, the paper underscores the semantic contribution of overt case marking on the first object as the key factor licensing the wider semantic range of the Polish pattern compared to the English construction, notably its application to the expression of events of ‘pure’ benefaction and malefaction, and reversed transfer. The results affirm Colleman & De Clerk’s (2011) stipulation that a correlation exists between the presence or absence in a language of explicit morphological case distinctions and the semantic possibilities of its ditransitive construction.

References


Examining evidence from language families around the world using diagnostic methods from historical linguistics and linguistic anthropology, this paper spotlights two basic sets of part-whole relationships that emerge, both experientially and conceptually, across the transverse anatomical plane (the human waistline) to argue that such primary relations are key for framing a more adequate account of the origins of double-scope conceptual blending (Fauconnier & Turner 2002). Face-groin meronymies and arm-leg meronomy are shown to be endemic to tacit human cognition based on universal tendencies of semantic shift across world languages families (building on Wilkins 1996: 273-274). Evidence is presented from cross-cultural semantic mappings, including intra-field meronymic lexicalizations such as ‘arm-thigh’ (i.e., upper arm), inter-field meronymic mappings that lexicalize the ‘arms’ and ‘legs’ of a tree (both from Ngwi languages of Tibeto-Burman), and many further related examples from Apache to Dene Sųłiné. Likewise, regarding face-groin relations, analogous evidence emerges from languages as diverse as Sherpa, Yiddish, Lalo and English through marked and unmarked relationships between the two human “faces” (see also Matisoff 1978: 157–165).

Arms and legs, face and groin: what if such ignominious body “parts” are much more whole than we tend to assume? What if they also hold the key to a new revolution in thinking about the way we think? Such relations appear to be due to both visual iconicity and embodied experiences of tacit proprioception. Building on the work on Pelkey (2013), Müller (2008) and Koch et al. (2012), I argue that body memories of “primary blends” are built on systematic analogies across the transverse plane that may sleep soundly in languages like English, but can easily be awakened. This is illustrated through a cognitive semiotic analysis of proprioceptive reversals inherent in Vibram's FiveFingers® footwear: a primary blend of hands, fingers and gloves with feet, toes and shoes. Encounters with the novel footwear stir awake sleeping body memories known to all humans through basic blends of kineesthesia and visual iconicity: primary blends that teach us parts are whole.

References
Several scholars have provided in-depth studies of the translation of Anglosaxon film titles into Spanish (Calvo 2000, Luján García 2010ab, Mendiluce & Hernández 2005, Santaemilia 2000). Their contributions discuss different techniques which are employed in the art of film title translation. Among them, transliteration, literal translation, explication, adaptation and providing a new title figure prominently. Other relevant criteria which are relevant to the process of film title translation are faithfulness, cultural awareness, and combination of commercial and aesthetic effects. This proposal focuses on a particular film genre: comedy. Our corpus of analysis, AFI's 100 Years...100 Laughs, is a set of 100 English comedy titles which The American Film Institute in Los Angeles selected from a ballot of 500 nominated films in mid June 2000 and their counterparts in Spanish. This study differs from previous treatments of the translation of Anglosaxon film titles into Spanish in four important ways: first, under the assumption that the different techniques applied to the translation process might vary from genre to genre, we exclusively pay attention to comedies to verify or falsify existing hypotheses regarding the qualitative distribution of the translation techniques that are employed; second, while acknowledging the great importance of previous works, we offer a detailed analysis of the motivation underlying the translation of film titles. Film title translation is a discursive mode which is highly motivated and needs a principled explanation in terms of cognitive models. Translators unconsciously use Idealized Cognitive Models (ICMs) (metaphor, metonymy, image schemas and propositional models) as the grounds for their work. To carry out our research, we will resort to Ruiz de Mendoza and Galera's (2014) recent in-depth analysis of cognitive operations. They have distinguished formal operations (cueing, selection, abstraction, and integration) and content operations (expansion and reduction, correlation, comparison, echoing, strengthening and mitigation, parametrization, and saturation). We will be concerned with the role played by ICMs, especially metonymy and its associated cognitive operations of expansion and reduction, in the task of film title translation. For instance, Mr. Blanding Builds his Dream House was translated into Los Blandings ya tienen casa (literal translation ‘The Blandings already have a house’). The Spanish title holds a metonymic relationship with respect to its original English title whereby the result of the action of building the house – having the house – stands for the action. Third, we will also redefine and sometimes question some techniques of English film title translation. For example, when can literal translation or adaptation be said to generate a new title? Are nuances of meaning like connotation sufficient to conclude that a new title is provided? We might even state that adaptation can be subsumed under the technique of providing a new title as a special subcategory. Finally, a comparison between the comedy titles translated into Castilian Spanish and South-American Spanish will be made with a view to checking whether the two varieties use the same strategies for the translation of comedy titles and whether their quantitative distribution differs. By way of illustration, Tootsie keeps the original title in both varieties, Adam's rib is literally translated in Spain and South America (La Costilla de Adán), and Home alone is literally translated into Castilian Spanish but a new title is provided in South America (‘Mi pobre angelito’ – ‘My poor little angel’), where the child who is alone at home is made prominent in the translation.

References
A number of methods for research in the linguistic conceptualization of emotions have emerged as a consequence of the componential perspective on emotion. The componential theories assume an emotion to be conceptualized as a multidimensional process consisting of several components such as bodily changes, expressive behavior, action tendencies, appraisal, and feeling state that occur as a response to the specific events in the environment with the aim of quickly preparing the organism for optimal reaction (Scherer 2003; Barrett 2011; Fontaine, Scherer and Soriano 2013).

From the field of Cognitive Semantics, the Conceptual Metaphor and the Conceptual Metonymy theory have promoted studies of the conceptualization of emotions with the focus on the identification and classification of source domains that activate the meaning of emotion words. By analysing the conceptual structure of conventionalized linguistic expressions, researches have laid out the standard methodology for studies of the linguistic construal of emotion words in English (Kövecses 2000) that has been replicated in many other languages.

In the last decade, corpus-based methods of analysis have been added to the metaphor research projects (Stefanowitsch and Gries 2006). This methodology essentially entails extracting a number of occurrences of the target lexical unit from the corpora and identifying source domains with their respective profiles and mappings. Besides being more reliable in qualitative identification and classification of source domains, the corpus-based methodology has proven to be invaluable in producing quantitative data regarding the actual use of specific constructions. The data produced with the analysis of collostructions reflects the distribution of conceptual components and metonymic and metaphoric mechanisms of conceptualization of emotions in the texts. This empirically oriented corpus-based methodology enabled new perspectives in the intra-cultural (diachronic and sociolinguistic) and cross-cultural analysis of conventionalization of constructions and cognitive entrenchment of specific types of conceptualizations.

In the process of developing an even more representative comparative methodology for intra-/cross-cultural analysis of distribution of the emotion components, researchers in the Swiss Center for Affective sciences and their collaborators from various countries developed a tool for identifying the underlying multidimensional structure of the emotions called the GRID instrument (Fontaine, Scherer and Soriano 2013). The GRID instrument consists of a set of emotion feature profiles that theoretically encompass main components of the emotion construct, corresponding in a broader sense to Fillmore’s frames (Fillmore 2002) and Langacker’s domains (Langacker 2008). As opposed to the corpus-based collostructional methodology, where researchers identify the components that construct the semantic value of the target emotion term, this methodology relies on the speaker’s sense of salience of selected emotional features representing their knowledge of the activated components on the response scale of the GRID instrument.

This paper will present a comparison of these two methods using the empirical collostructional analysis from the hrWac corpus of the 1000 Mw and experimental data obtained using a GRID instrument methodology on 40 subjects for emotion words strah ‘fear’, gadenje ‘disgust’, sram ‘shame’ and ljubav ‘love’ in Croatian. The goal is to structurally compare the distribution and occurrence of source domains and frames in the corpora with the saliency of the equivalent components obtained by the questionnaire. The study will also propose methods to incorporate the data from the GRID instrument in the verification and elaboration of the collostructional analysis within emergent constructional model of the conceptualization of emotion in Croatian (Perak 2014).

References:
The expression of fear in Italian and Russian: a corpus-based approach to causality

Erica Pinelli
University of Pavia

The aim of this paper is to analyze the conceptualization of fear and the metaphorical comprehension of emotional causation in Russian and Italian. In particular, the present research investigates the semantics of four Russian words, strach ‘fear’, ispug ‘fright’, opasenie ‘fear/apprehension’ and bojazn’ ‘fear/apprehension’ and their corresponding three Italian words, paura ‘fear’, spavento ‘fright’ and timore ‘apprehension/fear’ when occurring in causal prepositional phrases. The data proceed from the Russian National Corpus and the CORIS/CODIS Corpus of Written Italian.

Several linguists (among others Radden 1985, Dirven 1997, Croft 1991, Luraghi 2014) have paid attention to the metaphorical expression of causation, which is mainly expressed through prepositions with spatial meaning. Fear, and emotions in general, are suitable concepts for investigating the metaphorical expression of causation (Radden 1985, Dirven 1997): on the one hand emotions are themselves abstract concepts, and they are very frequently metaphorically or metonymically understood; on the other hand, causation is a relevant factor in the expression and the conceptualization of emotions. Depending on the relationship between stimulus, emotion and reaction, the kind of emotional causation varies and this variation can be observed in the linguistic expression.

A quantitative analysis of Russian data shows that strach and ispug mainly occur in ot+genitive ‘from’ which allows to express an uncontrolled reaction of the experiencer to the emotion as in (1).

1) Ona drožala ot stracha.
   She was trembling from fear.

On the contrary, opasenie and bojazn’ tend to occur in iz+genitive ‘out of’: in these occurrences the experiencer does not lose control over his/her actions and s/he reacts to the emotion wittingly, as in (2).

2) Ognja ne razvodili iz opasenija, čto kto-libo obnaružit’ ich mestoprebyvanie.
   They did not make a fire for [out of] fear that someone could discover their dwelling place.

The prepositional phrase s+genitive, which has the spatial meaning of “source from a surface”, co-occurs mainly with strach and ispug. The prepositional phrase s+genitive has an intermediate position between the two others prepositional phrases: in these cases the degree of control that the experiencer has over his/her reactions is higher than in iz+genitive, but lower than in ot+genitive.

3) Ja so stracha zakryl glaza.
   I closed my eyes from fear.

In my paper I will compare the Russian results with Italian data. I will take into consideration the Italian prepositions da ‘from’, di ‘of’ and per ‘through’ and observe the distribution of fear words, paura, spavento and timore, in these prepositional phrases. Through this comparison I intend to show that in both languages the degree of control of the experiencer on his/her reactions is a relevant factor for the selection both of the prepositional phrase of causation and of the fear word. Moreover, the analysis of the prepositions will show different metaphorical comprehension of causation in Russian and Italian.

References
This talk is about constructional change that reflects change in associated non-linguistic practice. The particular case concerns a class of constructions that are used in initiating bets. There are many variants within the class, but most can be divided into three subtypes. Two are biclausal constructions, while the third is monoclausal. The first type is a biclausal construction whose first clause has a deictic function (1). The second type is also biclausal and has a first clause that expresses possession (2). These two constructions are relative clause constructions, with similarities to presentational relatives (e.g. Lambrecht 1988, 1994, Duffield et al. 2010). Importantly, the latter part of the two constructions (the relativized noun phrase together with the relative clause) is identical in form. The third type is monoclausal, and is equivalent to the tail end of both biclausal types (3), but without the relative marker that. Examples (1)-(3) are uttered in response to the interlocutor's claim to be able to do something.

(1) Here's $10 that says you can't. ((1884) Wallace's Monthly)
(2) I've got a dollar that says you can't. ((March 11 1905) The Bemidji Pioneer)
(3) $10 says you can't. ((26 March 1977) Pottstown Mercury)

Different staking practices are associated with the use of these constructions. The crucial difference among these practices is whether they involve the speaker displaying money or not. Also of importance, but secondary, is whether display happens immediately before or during the utterance (up-front display) or whether it happens after the utterance (subsequent display).

The period of use of these constructions begins in the middle of nineteenth century and continues until the present. Using a corpus of 400 dialogues in which these constructions are used to initiate a bet, I show that staking practice changes over the period. It shifts first from up-front display of money to subsequent display, and thereafter to no display. The use of the different constructions shifts roughly in tandem with these changes in staking practice. Initially only the biclausal constructions are found. The deictic (1) is always used with up-front display, while the possessive (2) is used with all practices, but particularly with subsequent display. The possessive becomes more frequent than the deictic, and at the same time the monoclausal construction (3) develops, apparently through ellipsis of the main clause of one or both biclausal constructions. With the monoclausal construction there is usually no display.

I suggest an account of these changes in terms of referentiality. Stakes are referential where money is displayed—particularly in the case of up-front display. Where there is no display of money, stakes are non-referential, merely expressing an abstract quantity. Where display is involved and stakes are referential, the first (i.e. main) clause is needed in order to introduce a referent (Principle of the Separation of Reference and Role; Lambrecht 1994), grounding it to the speaker. Where there is no display and stakes are non-referential, the first clause is not needed. Hence the use of the (elliptical) monoclausal construction grows as staking practice shifts towards subsequent display or no display.

References
The “Great Recession”, consumerist ideology and multi-modal metaphors

Fabio I. M. Poppi  
University of East Anglia (UEA)

The starting point of this work is the notion of discourse metaphor, which can be described as a relatively stable metaphorical mapping that works as a key framing tool within a particular discourse over a certain period of time and in relation to different sociocultural contexts (Zinken, Hellsten and Nerlich, 2007: 363). In addition, several works have shown that discourse metaphors are not only functional in describing how discourses change and evolve through time, but also in understanding which ideological implications lie behind them and how such implications may vary through time (Larson, Nerlich and Wallis, 2005; Musolff, 2006; Musolff and Zinken, 2009). The necessity to understand how discourse metaphors tend to remodel themselves during periods of emotional turmoil and socio-political uncertainty (Zinken, Hellstein and Nerlich, 2007: 367; Underhill, 2011), has prompted this work to describe how consumerist ideology was framed in the pre-Great Recession period (2007-2008) and in the subsequent years of crisis (2011-2012). To identify such conceptual and ideological shifting, two groups of TV car commercials belonging to those periods of time have been analysed. The analysis aims to understand how two groups of subjects (Italian and English) process multimodal metaphors in TV commercials, focusing in particular, on the choice of source domains that constitute the conceptual mappings in relation to central target domains such as: THE CAR, THE BUYER or THE CAR OWNER, THE ACT OF BUYING, THE REASON FOR BUYING/OWNING and THE FEELING/EMOTION AFTER BUYING/OWNING THE CAR. In order to describe the conceptual relation between source and target, this work has been built around an adapted version of the "Think Aloud" procedure, recently proposed by Šorm and Steen (2013). Our hypothesis consists in describing how the consumerist ideology quickly adapts their contents and the conceptual metaphorical structure in relation to external conditions (such as the austerity and reduction of consumption relative to the economic crisis), which in different ways represent a contradiction to the typical values and attitude that consumerist ideology itself implies.

Selected References
Incorporating image schemas into categorization procedures: Vantage Theoretic approach

Serhiy Potapenko
Nizhyn University

Vantage Theory, successfully applied to color differentiation, relates categorization procedures to human orientation in space and time (MacLaury 2002: 494). The immobility of space is linked to the formation of a dominant vantage with strong similarity to the category focus while the mobility of time is connected with the recessive vantage differing from the focus as a result of motion to the category margin (MacLaury 2002: 495). However, Vantage Theory faces difficulties being applied in cognitive linguistics as it lacks conceptual means of representing the category focus (Glaz, Allan 2010: 151).

Since categories are constructed from ICMs which among other structuring principles depend on image schemas (Evans, Green 2011: 280), this presentation relates the focus of a category to a particular image schema, i.e. a recurring, dynamic pattern of our perceptual interactions and motor programs (Johnson 1987: xiv). An image schema serves as the basis for forming two category vantages: dominant, offering a balanced view of all components, and recessive which has two variants. The strong one reflects an intensification of image schematic features while the weak one indicates their loss.

The suggested approach of image schematic vantage construction is exemplified in this presentation by the analysis of the units denoting the CONFLICT category whose focus is represented by the COUNTERFORCE image schema. It captures an experience of two equally strong, nasty, and determined force centres colliding face-to-face (Johnson 1987: 46), underlying categorization procedures at three levels: superordinate, basic and subordinate (Rosch 2009: 41).

At the superordinate level the dominant vantage is evoked by the noun conflict representing a balanced interaction of source, vector and target within the COUNTERFORCE schema; the weak recessive vantages emphasize activity (unrest) or opposing sides (stand-off); the strong recessive vantage named by the noun crisis implies an intensification of all three COUNTERFORCE components overlapping with the WAR category.

The basic level units differentiate participants quantitatively (tens of thousands of people) and qualitatively with respect to the body's integrity (five people were injured).

The subordinate categorization level represents unarmed and armed participants. Those unarmed are portrayed from three perspectives: dominant with force sufficient to counteract opponents (protesters); weak recessive with force receding into motion (demonstrators) or immobility (supporters); strong recessive (activists) with force intensification linking participants to the POLITICIAN category.

The armed participants are also portrayed from three perspectives. The dominant one is graded from the possession of arms (armed men) to their use (gunmen) and belongingness to one of the opposing sides (Ukrainian soldiers). The weak recessive vantage represents armed participants quantitatively by the noun personnel (all Ukrainian service personnel) and qualitatively by the unit servicemen (withdraw servicemen). The strong recessive vantage underlies the use of the nouns forces and troops with the latter overlapping with the STATE category.

To conclude, the enrichment of Vantage Theory with image schemas explains the meaning of the units denoting a particular category from different perspectives which is proved by the analysis of the words denoting CONFLICT. Further application of the suggested procedure aims at reconstructing categories drawing on other image schemas.

References


Constructions in L2-processing and the Swedish Constructicon - an experimental approach

Julia Prentice
University of Gothenburg

After some time of predominantly dealing with first language acquisition, usage-based approaches and cognitive linguistics, as well as corpus linguistics, have continued to increase their influence in the field of L2 research over the last decades, as Ellis (2013:66) points out. Various studies within all three of those approaches have pointed at significant differences between L1 speakers and (even advanced) L2 speakers when it comes the use, processing and mastery of idiomatic patterns in a given language (e.g. Granger 1998, Ellis et al. 2008, Ekberg 2013, cf. Wray 2008). The latter is one of the reasons that the Swedish Constructicon (SweCcn), an electronic resource with Swedish construction descriptions, partially focuses on the analysis and description of constructions that are potentially problematic for L2 users of Swedish (Lyngfelt et al. 2012)

This paper presents a study that aims at confirming the relevance of a sample of constructions, for L2 acquisition by investigating aspects of their psycholinguistic validity (cf. Ellis et al. 2008), in relation to collocational features, i.e. the strength of association between a construction and a given lexical component (cf. Stefanowitch 2013). The constructions have been categorized as L2-relevant in the SweCcn, a categorisation that is currently partially based on the researchers’ intuition and thus remains to be confirmed. To do so, experimental and corpuslinguistic methods are going to be combined by measuring and comparing L1 and L2 users’ reaction time for reading and recognition of the constructions in a grammaticality judgment task (cf. Ellis et al. 2008) and putting the results in relation to collostructional strength (cf. Stefanowitch 2013). The underlying questions are (a) if there is a difference in processing speed between L1 and L2 users, which would support the assumption that the constructions in the sample have some relevance for SLA and (b) if the processing of the constructions is influenced by collostructional strength (cf. Ellis et al. 2008). The study is at the same time aiming at validating part of the information provided in the SweCcn and making use of the database as a resource for SLA research.

References
How do actors gain an understanding of their environment? On the one hand, they familiarize themselves with physical objects through bodily interaction and exploration; on the other hand, they gain understanding through linguistic interaction with other knowledgeable agents. We report work in progress from a project investigating such familiarization processes through modeling them in an anthropomorphic robot. The robot consists of a torso equipped with two arms with touch-sensitive hands enabling familiarization with novel objects and their affordances through bimanual action. This process is to be guided through situated dialogue with a human instructor, possibly including for example deictic expressions, anaphors or underspecified references to actions, such as in the following: “Open this box.” – “Okay.” – “No, you have to grasp it at the top.” – “Like this?” – “Yes, good, keep going”. Our approach aims to model the needed linguistic and dialogue abilities.

We follow an embodied cognition approach, proposing three layers of representation, which ground higher-level knowledge in lower-level experiences and sensorimotor behaviors: The lowest (sensorimotor) level is constituted by sensor input and motor primitives, i.e. control structures of the robot. The highest (linguistic) level deals with speech input and generating answers. Between these two layers, a schematic level of representation mediates between symbolic language representations and sensorimotor information. For our embodied approach, action and the execution of actions are central. Therefore we focus on executable action schemas (implemented as X-Schemas; Narayanan 1999), which are selected and parameterized based on linguistic input and which directly provide a level of mental simulation and prediction. Crucially, the schematic layer is active during language understanding as well as during action execution: During language understanding it can invoke appropriate action schemas and test different hypotheses to find the most likely meaning of the language input. During execution it keeps the system aware of the current action state and facilitates situated language interpretation as well as precise error reporting or requesting missing information.

In its current state, the system parses linguistic input using the Embodied Construction Grammar (ECG) formalism (Bergen & Chang 2013, Bryant 2008). ECG in general works by mapping linguistic form to meaning in terms of embodied schemas (based on image schemas). We aim to enhance embodied language processing by (1) tying sensorimotor information into the schemas by means of the intermediate layer mentioned above and (2) incorporating situational knowledge (i.e. the configuration of the environment and the current action states) into language processing by coupling the parser to a knowledge base and the schematic representation layer. Thus, we aim to improve comprehension of dialogue acts pertaining to currently ongoing actions by enabling the schematic layer to influence parsing decisions.

We will present the current state of our project, discuss theoretical and practical requirements for the implementation of the formalism and demonstrate first results regarding situated simulation-based natural language understanding.

References
Neo-concepts in user guides: A cognitive linguistic and translational analysis

Augustyn Rafał
Maria Curie-Skłodowska University

In this paper neo-concepts are understood as novel concepts hidden behind completely new lexical items or expressed via already existent word forms which have been assigned an additional meaning. The frequent emergence of neo-concepts is a corollary of the dynamic evolution of natural languages, which in turn is connected to the development of human civilisation, in particular in the area of consumer electronics. Among others, neo-concepts can be encountered in language relating to technical inventions such as mobile devices (laptops, tablets, smartphones etc.) and new software.

The aim of this paper is to analyse (i) possible conceptualisations (cf. Langacker 2008) of the neo-concepts found in the user guide for the Sony Xperia Z3 smartphone in the original language version (English) as intended by the text author and construed by the source text readers, as well as (ii) their subsequent re-conceptualisation (cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk 2010, Rojo & Ibarretxe-Antuñano 2013) by both the translators and the target text readers in the renditions of the mentioned manual into Polish and German.

In particular, we argue that when faced with the translation of technology-related neo-concepts, answering the series of the following questions could help the translator choose the most appropriate translation strategy and individual solutions ensuring the establishment of equivalence between the source text and target text conceptualisations:

a) What are the underlying conceptualisations behind a given technical term?
b) How did a given term become a neo-concept and how does it function in the source language (SL)?
c) Are there any other lexical vehicles in the SL conveying the same or similar concepts?
d) Do similar concepts exist in the target language (TL) or do they have to be first introduced?
e) Is it necessary to preserve the SL neo-concept in the TL or can it be replaced by concepts conventionally used by TL speakers?
f) Is it possible to render the SL neo-concept into the TL using lexical items existing in TL?

References
The talk presents the results of a large-scale typological project on lexical categorization of physical qualities. The project has been carried out within the frame-based approach to lexical typology (cf. Lander et al. 2010, Reznikova et al. 2012). The study was based on more than 20 semantic domains (like ‘sharp’, ‘wet’, ‘soft’, ‘heavy’, ‘tight’, ‘even’ etc.) and was aimed at revealing the general tendencies and cross-linguistic differences in their conceptualization. For each domain, the analysis relied on data from 10 to 20 structurally distinct languages (e.g., English, Russian, Mandarin, Komi) that were collected from corpora (if they are available for the given language), and checked with native speakers using specially designed questionnaires. The obtained data were compiled into a database, which allows for various typological generalizations. In particular, the database shows that cross-linguistic variation in lexicalization patterns for physical qualities may be due to the following parameters:

(1) **Taxonomy of objects.** Adjectives impose constraints on taxonomic properties of nouns they modify, and these constraints may vary across languages. The semantic differentiation that adjectives are most sensitive to is that between human and non-human objects. Thus, if a certain adjective in a given language can modify nouns of both human and non-human reference (cf. English *old man*, *old house*, Russian *vysokij mužčina* ‘tall man’, *vysokij zabor* ‘high fence’), this provides a major source of typological variation (cf. the lexical differentiation between human and non-human qualities of ‘being old’ and ‘being of considerable height’, as in Georgian *moxuci kaci* ‘old man’ VS. *dzveli saxli* ‘old house’, and English *tall man* VS. *high fence*). Other taxonomic categories that may require special attributive terms include body parts, food, clothes, i.e. objects pertaining to human life (cf. Wierzbicka 1985 on the anthropocentrism of human language).

(2) **Topology of objects.** Along with taxonomic properties, the semantic restrictions that adjectives impose on co-occurring nouns may concern topological features of the respective objects, cf. Talmy’s (2000) topological classes as clusters of concepts corresponding to physical objects which are similar in their shape, size and orientation. Topology is relevant e.g. for the domains of sharpness or dimension. Thus, many languages lexically distinguish between ‘sharp’ as a property of objects with a functional EDGE (like knife or saw) and ‘sharp’ as describing objects with a functional END-POINT (like needle or spear), cf. Komi *lečyd* ‘sharp (about a knife)’ VS. *jues* ‘sharp (about a needle)’, the same stands for French *tranchant* VS. *aigu*. For dimensional adjectives, the height of BARRIERS-type objects may be lexically opposed to that of POLES-type objects, as in Kazakh *biik* ‘high (about a wall)’ VS. *yzin* (about a tree).

(3) **Evaluation.** One and the same quality may be perceived either as neutral or as positive / negative, and this distinction may be encoded lexically. Thus, in the domain of ‘wet’, many languages contrast between humidity as a neutral property (cf. *humid air*) and humidity which is seen as a negative feature (i.e. humidity which causes deterioration and makes things unusable, as in *damp air*, *damp cellar*), cf. also for Japanese *simetta* (neutral) VS. *siketa* (negative).

(4) **Type of perception.** Lexical diversity within a domain may be motivated by the fact that qualities can be perceived through different channels. For instance, the property of having an even/smooth surface can be identified either through tactile or visual perception, and languages may use special terms to distinguish between these sensory modalities, cf. in Khanty *wol’ak* (about ‘surface’ or ‘skin’ in case of tactile perception) VS. *pajli* (about ‘walls’ or ‘road’, visual perception). Similar effects can be observed in the domains of softness and sharpness.

Typological comparison gives clear evidence that semantic diversity, which seems to be of non-systematic and random nature is actually governed by general cognitive patterns that are at work across languages and lexical fields.

**References**


Wierzbicka A. *Lexicography and conceptual analysis*. Ann Arbor, Karoma.
How viruses and beasts affect our opinions (or not):
The role of extendedness in metaphorical framing

Gudrun Reijnierse
University of Amsterdam

One of the most influential theoretical claims about metaphor in cognitive linguistics is that it can influence reasoning, for example via the process of hiding and highlighting (e.g., Lakoff & Johnson 1980). Empirical studies investigating this claim, however, show mixed results. While some studies find that metaphors (covertly) influence opinions (e.g., Thibodeau & Boroditsky 2011, 2013), others find no effect of metaphorical framing (e.g., Steen, Reijnierse, & Burgers 2014). These contrasting findings raise the question under which conditions a metaphorical framing effect may or may not take place.

In this paper, we examine the influence of extendedness as a condition for the appearance of a metaphorical framing effect. Based on the assumption that extended metaphor constitutes a case of deliberate metaphor (Steen, 2008), and therefore has the potential to influence people’s opinions, we investigated whether extending a metaphorical frame in a text leads people to perceive policy measures that are in line with that frame as more effective for solving a crime problem than policy measures that are not in line with it. The metaphorical frames ‘Crime is a virus’ (Experiment 1) and ‘Crime is a beast’ (Experiment 2) were extended via a series of additional conventional metaphorical expressions having crime as the target domain and beast/viruses as the source domain. Participants (N = 354, M = 32.71 years, SD age = 10.90, 40.4% female in Experiment 1; N = 361, M = 32.35 years, SD age = 11.12, 56.6% female in Experiment 2) were randomly assigned to one of five experimental conditions with increasing numbers of sentences containing metaphorical expressions. They read a short text about a city’s crime problem and were asked to rate the effectiveness of two sets of policy measures that could be used to solve the crime problem described in the text. The first set of measures were in line with the metaphorical frame, and the second set were not in line with the frame.

The results yield limited support for the hypothesis that extended metaphors influence people’s opinions. When controlling for political affiliation, we found a trend in the expected direction for Experiment 2 (‘Crime is a beast’): the more metaphorical sentences participants read, the more effective they perceived the policy measures that were in line with the frame. No effect was found for measures that were not in line with the frame. For Experiment 1 (‘Crime is a virus’), we found a trend in the opposite direction: the more metaphorical sentences participants read, the less effective they rated the policy measures that were not in line with the frame. No effect was found for measures that were in line with the frame.

On the basis of these findings, we argue that metaphorical framing effects may be more subtle than has been assumed. One of the reasons for the limited support for the hypothesis that extended metaphor can influence people’s opinions may be attributed to the fact that we asked participants to rate the effectiveness of possible solutions to the crime problem. Our hypothesis thus tacitly assumed that, after reading a text of only five sentences, participants not only (unconsciously) accepted the metaphorical frame to accurately describe the situation, but that they were also able to use that frame when asked to think of a way to solve the crime problem. The processes underlying this use of frames merit to be studied in more detail, for example by investigating more precisely when and how people pick up the metaphorical frame and make it their own (cf. Scheufele, 1999). Taking into account these underlying processes can enrich our knowledge of when and why metaphors potentially affect our opinions.

References

Using Corpora as a Tool in Teaching English-Russian Translation Within the Cognitive Approach

Irina Remkhe, David Gillespie
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technological University, University of Bath

Corpora are rich information sources that can be a useful tool in teaching translation and gaining translation competence. They provide the translator with usage-based linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge that is more efficient compared to that found in dictionaries and/or glossaries in terms of quality, speed and reliability of the data presented in corpus systems. In parallel corpora aligned data provided in the surrounding context are considered to be beneficial for the translator and allow for a more finely-tuned search of the information contained in the corpus. Among the main advantages viewed as being useful for teaching translation are: 1) sample texts collected from different areas of expertise; 2) high reliability in solving translation problems and checking for references; 3) a well-designed system for immediate data retrieval.

In this study we seek to provide a comparative and evaluative analysis of two corpus-based approaches used as a methodology for teaching technical translation and translation quality assessment. They are: a) using the web for corpus when the web is used as a source for sample texts on the area of expertise to gain the necessary knowledge for understanding the original and rendering it in the target language with the appropriate terminology; b) using parallel corpus as translation aid tools based on an automatically built search system that provides ready-made context-based translation equivalents easily accessible through certain search engines.

The efficiency of both methods was tested and verified in an experiment carried out with student-translators following a Translation and Interpreting Degree programme of English-Russian translation at the University of Bath. The subjects were asked to do a specialised English-to-Russian translation assignment using: 1) the web to manually extract texts in order to build up knowledge of the subject discussed in the original text prior to the translation process; 2) a special corpus compiled manually to be used by technical translators; 3) parallel corpora provided by the National Corpus of the Russian language and the SketchEngine system. As the result of the experiment, all methods proved to be complementary and led to greater efficiency when used by novice translators with little experience in specialised areas.

The findings of the follow-up questionnaire confirmed the fact that corpus-based methods of translation lead to greater fluency in translation, enhance the translator’s competence and can be used as reliable problem solving techniques that provide cognitive insights into the further investigation of the issue of translation competence as such.

References
The cognitive commitment and endangered language pedagogy

Sally Rice
University of Alberta

In this position paper, I describe efforts to develop linguistic competence in Indigenous language speakers from a cognitive linguistic (CL) perspective. There is a natural fit between linguistic description, documentation, and analysis informed by a cognitive/constructionist approach and the linguistic and pedagogical training so needed by speakers of endangered languages, especially the many oral and polysynthetic languages of Canada. One of the primary challenges speakers face in carrying out language revitalization efforts is that existing L2 curricula suffer from a structuralist bias and are overly ESL-centred, over-valuing orthography and literacy, focusing on topics with minimal conversational value or cultural relevance (numbers, colors, animals, body parts, TPR-like posture changes and object manipulation tasks), and burdening students with decontextualized language activities (memorizing verb paradigms, translation exercises). Experience shows that the best way to combat these shortcomings in available materials is to develop speakers’ linguistic and meta-linguistic competence through a linguistic understanding of the lexical and grammatical patterns of their languages, as well as the ways those patterns can be meaningfully and systematically manipulated in context. Over the past 16 years through CILLDI, The Canadian Indigenous Languages & Literacy Institute, and the 6 courses that make up its Community Linguist Certificate (CLC), a veritable laboratory has been created in which to apply CL tenets in the training of Indigenous linguists and endangered language activists. What the courses look like, the ethos that informs them, and some student success stories are the focus of this presentation.

The central tenets of CL revolve around the dismissal of universalist linguistics that elevates the import of structural aspects of language (form) at the expense and neglect of semantics/pragmatics (meaning) and usage (context). CL regards grammar as meaningful; it takes the construction as the basic analytical unit; it is usage-based and corpus-driven; it embraces diversity of language, construction, genre, and speaker; it assumes lexical and grammatical polysemy (partial compositionality) as the norm; it acknowledges the role of metaphor and metonymy in language change; and it never separates the form-meaning pairing from the context of use. These tenets are amply described from an L2 perspective in the many references cited below. Within the cognitively informed CLC program, any form/meaning dichotomy has been exposed and rejected and, instead, our speaker/students learn that languages are best thought of as constructicons made up of both smaller (morphemes) and larger (discourse turns) as well as more regular (analyzable) and more idiomatic (non-compositional) elements. Indeed, the model of language that works best for endangered oral languages might well be one that resembles a contextualized phrasebook. We emphasize the role that context, cognition, construal, convention, culture, communication, and language change all play in the framing and interpretation of linguistic expressions. I will exemplify how we work with speaker/students in the CLC program to help them uncover both the more productive and the more conventionalized morphosyntactic and discourse patterns of their languages.

The CLC courses try to keep the morphosyntactic complexity in perspective by focusing on how each language imposes its own grammatical and lexical filter on concepts and how these, in turn, relate to conventionalized uses of language across a range of communicative contexts. The cultivation of an oralcy and even a “socialcy” that puts speakers’ everyday social navigational needs and constructional supports for communicating with others front and centre in what gets conveyed in the L2 classroom is desperately needed. Such constructional elements may look nothing like their ESL counterparts; they may be quite complex and even semi-unanalyzable to learners, but they have a currency based on frequency and interactional utility upon which language learning can build in an organic and language-specific fashion, all the while recognizing dialectal and even generational variation. Using this heightened awareness, we work with speakers to demonstrate how they can apply this new knowledge to re-conceptualize classroom language teaching, diagnosing the shortcomings in existing materials and approaches, as well as outlining practical steps for integrating these ideas throughout the community’s language revitalization efforts (language nest, school programs, adult language classes, master/apprentice programs, etc.).

References
Cognitive linguistic (CL) research has long been at the forefront of investigations into the linguistic marking of subjectivity and intersubjectivity in language (Verhagen 2005; Davidse, Vandelanotte, & Cuyckens 2010). Much of this research has focused on viewpoint and alignment in discourse, but the expression of stance—the epistemic/attitudinal/emotional in language—fits squarely under the (inter)subjectivity rubric as well (Englebretson 2007, DuBois 2007). Along with the CL commitment to looking at natural, contextualized language data, there has been a growing interest in interaction and multimodality. Indeed, there is a small literature emerging, some from a CL perspective, that focuses on gesture, gaze, and other co-speech (or co-sign) behaviours such as shifts in posture, head, or facial expression that accompany face-to-face interactions (Kendon 2002, Dudis 2004, Debras 2013, Schoonojans 2013). While previous, but not especially CL-oriented, corpus studies have pursued the linguistic marking of stance (Biber & Finegan 1988, 1989; Precht 2000; Haddington 2006), few have done so from both a CL and a multimodal perspective.

This paper examines videotaped interaction from the Little Red Hen media corpus, on-line sources such as YouTube, as well as video from experimental studies of our own and suggests, not surprisingly, that the major interactional modalities and their concomitant major body parts—speech (mouth), gesture (hands), gaze (eyes), and face/posture (head and shoulders) are highly coordinated. However, our research strongly indicates a division of labour when it comes to the marking of the propositional (discourse content) versus the attitudinal/epistemic (speaker stance). The upper body (head and shoulders) along with prosody in the speech signal appears to do the lion’s share of stance-taking work. We could add the position of the torso as a regular component in the marking of stance as well. While stance can receive robust expression in the verbal channel, manual gestures seem to play more of a propositional and discourse-framing role than does the upper body, although shifts in gaze are well known for being active in signaling or preventing an upcoming turn and thus can be discourse-framing, too. By contrast, strategic movement of the eyebrows, mouth, head, and shoulders unmistakably places them at the locus of stance-marking in our North American English data. We especially focus on movements of the eyebrows, mouth, head, and shoulders in the context of particular kinds of stance-taking positions or “postures”, which may or may not find correlates in the linguistic expression, except for being supported by prosodic cues.

This work is part of a larger research agenda examining the conventionalization and constructionalization of co-speech bodily behaviours including but not limited to manual gesture. As in the linguistic signal per se, our CL perspective constantly requires us to consider the effect of iconicity and metaphor. Here, though, the stance signal we target is arguably less abstract than speech or gesture and fully embodied in articulators (heads and shoulders) that have limited movement. Nevertheless, the axes of movement these articulators can take (along the vertical, lateral, and sagittal planes) are fairly well aligned with positive or negative prosody and stance, keeping with the classic values associated with IN/OUT and UP/DOWN orientational metaphors in linguistic expression, well known to the CL community.

References
Patterns of certainty in metaphor usage in a debate about the existence of God

Peter Richardson
Hokkaido University, Japan

Metaphor research has highlighted the ideological, pragmatic and persuasive characteristics that metaphor usage can exhibit in discourse (Charteris-Black 2004, 2011; Goatly 2007; Musolff and Ziken 2009). One example of this type of research focused on the use of metaphor to express patterns of certainty in the language of conservative Christian and Muslim believers (Richardson 2012). It was found that believers often use metaphor to construe abstract beliefs and perceptions about a divine entity as something more concrete and basic (cf. Pragglejaz 2007), and therefore in some way more tangible and real. Many of the metaphors also contained the assumption that the beliefs being described were obviously correct.

This paper raises the question of whether the use of metaphors to project a sense of certainty within the domain of religious language or language about religion is confined to the language of conservative religious believers. This paper therefore attempts to extend that investigation beyond conservative religious language by focusing on the metaphors used during one of the most well-known debates on the existence of God: the 2007 debate at the University of Alabama between the atheist Richard Dawkins and the mathematician and Christian apologist John Lennox.

I first use MIP, the metaphor identification procedure (Cameron and Maslen 2010; Pragglejaz 2007), to identify the metaphors used by both debaters. I then focus in on occurrences which construe a key abstract argument or idea as something more concrete and tangible, reinforce analogies and simplified binary representations, and carry explicit or implicit content (cf. Clark 2013) which construes certain ideas as obviously correct. My analysis shows that both participants at particular points in the debate make some use of metaphors employing these elements. I go on to argue that many of these usages may not represent fixed positions, but strategic, dynamically evolving discourse choices (cf. Cameron 2010) that suited that debate with that particular opponent at that time.

This paper therefore seeks to demonstrate that it is not just conservative religious believers that may use metaphor to project a sense of certainty in certain types of discourse.

References

Testing the P-chain model; does language learning predict comprehension and production in children?

Nick Riches
Newcastle University

Background: Dell and Chang’s P-chain model (Dell & Chang, 2013) argues that a single mechanism, prediction-based learning, accounts for a range of linguistic processes, including production, comprehension and acquisition. This framework is closely aligned with cognitive linguistic arguments that the language system arises from a small set of domain general processes. It contrasts with generative accounts which split the language system into separate components. The study tests the P-chain model by exploring the relationship between processes which are linked in the model; language learning abilities, comprehension and production skills. A strong association between these processes would provide empirical support.

Methods: Two constructions; What makes you think you can beat me in a race? and Just because my legs are short doesn’t mean I can’t beat you (underlined segments are invariant), were taught to 49 children (mean age 5;2, s.d. 3.5 months). As these are long and complex it was assumed that they would be unfamiliar for the children. They both involve arbitrary form-function mappings, and can therefore be regarded as constructions from a Construction Grammar perspective. The constructions were presented in a storybook context, and learning was assessed using Sentence Repetition and Elicitation probes. Consistent with the principles of Dynamic Assessment (Lidz, 1991), the degree of scaffolding was manipulated according to the child’s performance. From a Vygostkyan perspective this enables us to determine the child’s “Zone of Proximal Development”. The dependent variable; learning rate combined production accuracy and degree of support in the final stage of the story. Additional tests of language comprehension and production were employed; the Test of Reception of Grammar (TROG: Bishop, 2003), and the Renfrew Action Picture Test (RAPT: Renfrew, 1997).

Findings: There was substantial variation in the children’s abilities to acquire the unfamiliar construction. The fact that few children performed at ceiling suggests that the constructions were either genuinely novel, or only partially acquired, and consequently the task genuinely reflected learning. The learning rate was strongly associated with performance on the TROG (r = 0.56, p < 0.001***), and the mean z-score from the TROG and RAPT combined (r = 0.54, p < 0.001***). Association with the RAPT (r = 0.27, p < 0.05*) was weaker. Finally, the TROG-RAPT association was relatively weak (r = 0.23, p > 0.05).

Discussion: The strong association between learning rate and both the TROG and the mean z-score supports the central claim that production, comprehension and acquisition are all underpinned by the same mechanism. However, the comprehension-production association was relatively weak. To account for this, we might reformulate the model, placing greater emphasis on language learning as the primary mechanism.

Further analyses found that the construction with larger invariant chunks (Just because…) was easier to learn, implicating a chunking mechanism. Phonological short-term memory may support this process. However, overall learning was a significant predictor of TROG scores even when initial repetition abilities were entered as a covariate. This suggests a mechanism which is partially independent of verbatim repetition abilities. A prediction-based learning mechanism fulfils this requirement as it supports both learning of invariant chunks, and also predictive relationships within schematic constructions.

References
Proper Noun Phrases with Determiners

Elizabeth M. Riddle
Ball State University

Proper nouns (PN) are generally analyzed as definite and having unique reference (e.g. Abbott 2010, but cf. Anderson 2004). Some languages, such as Greek, generally require determiners with PN, a form of definite agreement. In contrast, English is analyzed as disallowing articles with (most) PN because PN are considered inherently definite. PN occurring with determiners as in “the Alps,” “I know a Jan” (i.e. I know someone named Jan), “I know 3 Jans,” or “this Jan, not that one” are considered exceptions, derived from common noun (CN) structures, or uses of PN as CN.

Others have discussed pragmatic uses of determiners, and especially demonstratives with PN (e.g. Lakoff 1974, Chen 1990, Schnedecker 2005, Nauruoka 2006, Riddle 2010) in a few languages. Based on a large corpus of data (electronic and observed) in 6 languages and taking a discourse pragmatic and cognitive linguistic approach, I show that many determiners are used with PN widely in discourse in 3 languages (English, French, Dutch) where articles do not occur obligatorily with PN, and how demonstratives occur with PNs in 2 languages lacking articles (Hmong, Polish). I argue that although the languages investigated use determiners with PN in some language specific ways, they each use them for a range of conceptually similar purposes involving point of view, including indication of personal attitude, level of newness of information, and/or focus; uses of demonstratives involve metaphoric extension from their deictic meanings. For example, English and French have a wide range of uses where the determiner indicates a non-neutral attitude and focus, as in 1-5:

1. I don’t want the Scumble descending on me like a ton of bricks, believe me.
2. Look at the Muffer.
3. Et pourtant cette Odette d’où lui venait tout ce mal, ne lui était pas moins chère
   ‘And yet this Odette, who hurt him so much, was no less dear to him’
4. quand une Jeanne Debul en pleine forme sortit du grill
   ‘when a Jeanne Debul in fine fettle left the grill’
5. Mrs. Kane … had claimed the prerogative of extreme old age to tell him two days before that
   if he did not look after his wife better she would run off with “that Dermott.”

   The speaker in 1 is referring to an especially difficult work superior, Scumble. In 2, the article with a PN indicates a sense of affectionate amusement towards a cat held out as remarkable for particularly cute behavior. In 3, from French, a side to Odette’s personal character is singled out. The narrator does not refer to her neutrally, but rather as an object of examination, creating a disempathetic effect on the discourse level, although he nonetheless loves Odette. 3 and 4 use metonymy to focus on a particular feature of a person’s identity on a given occasion, but the reference involves a specific individual with a particular proper name. In White Hmong (6), the demonstrative no ‘this’ occurs after a PN referent which is prominent in the particular discourse.

6. muaj ibtug menyum Hmoob muaj hnub yug lintawm 15 xyoo, huua Vaj Pov no
   have one child Hmong have day born at 15 year named Vang Paj this
   ‘there was a Hmong youth who was 15 years old named Vang Paj’ (Vaj)

   Here, a key character is introduced, the young Vang Pao, who later became a famous leader.

   After discussing the relevant data from the five languages in question, the implications for the notion of PN and for treatments of NP reference such as Ariel’s (e.g. 1998) Accessibility Hierarchy based on NP form are discussed.
Population structure, social bias, and efficiency: An iterated-learning study

Gareth Roberts and Maryia Fedzechkina

University of Pennsylvania

A number of cognitive factors have been suggested as playing a role in constraining the space of possible language structures (Jaeger & Tily 2011), and in recent years there has been a notable increase in the use of experimental methods to investigate their effect on the emergence and organization of linguistic structure (Galantucci et al. 2012). Many of these studies focus on transmission and employ the iterated-learning paradigm, in which learners acquire behaviours (e.g., languages) by observing other individuals whose behaviours were acquired in the same fashion (see Kirby et al. 2014, for a recent review). A common finding is that, through repeated learning, languages become more efficient, although this can also occur in only one generation (Fedzechkina et al. 2012).

A typical simplification of the iterated learning paradigm is that every learner is exposed to the linguistic output of only one other individual, and it has been demonstrated both formally and experimentally (Griffiths & Kalish 2007, Kalish et al. 2007) that this process leads to convergence on the prior biases of the learners involved. The consequences are less clear where learners are exposed to multiple models, although formal analysis suggests that perceived heterogeneity of input is important (Burkett & Griffiths 2010). The picture may be further complicated by social factors, such as intergroup bias (Roberts 2013), which may conflict with other pressures or biases.

Here we present new experimental data concerning two important questions that have been little explored in laboratory iterated-learning studies: (a) the role of multiple models on the emergence of efficient structure and, (b) the role of intergroup bias in hindering the adoption of efficient structure that has out-group associations. Our experiments involved the iterated learning of languages with initially ambiguous and inefficient case and word order systems (cf. Fedzechkina et al. 2012). At each experimental ‘generation’ every learner was presented with the linguistic output of a small group of individuals, presented either as the output of multiple speakers or undifferentiated by source. Two further social factors were manipulated: a frequency bias in the presentation of different speakers’ data and an in-group/out-group bias, in which the out-group language was initially more efficient than the in-group language. These conditions were contrasted with a single-source control condition. The results shed experimental light on the importance of social factors in our understanding of the emergence of structure in language.

References
There is a rich background of sociolinguistic work showing speakers’ linguistic behaviour shifting to match groups that they feel positively affiliated with (e.g. Eckert 2000, Moore 2003). Linguistic shifts do not always involve positive affiliation; they may be the result of frequent interaction alone, with affiliation playing little role (Labov 2001, 506). It is rather unusual, however, to observe a shift in which speakers’ appropriation of linguistic variants is associated with negative affiliation. Such a situation was recently recorded in the South Philadelphia neighbourhood of Grays Ferry (Sneller 2014).

Grays Ferry is a blue-collar area of Philadelphia with similar proportions of white and black residents (U.S. Census Bureau 2013), but a high degree of racial segregation and a history of racial tension. Sociolinguistic interviews were conducted in 2012–2013 with white residents of a three-block stretch, for which median income is well below middle-class income range for the state (U.S. Census Bureau 2013) and which has high levels of drug addiction. All but one male interviewee exhibited TH-fronting, a feature strongly associated with African-American Vernacular English (AAVE). Interviewees’ racial attitudes were measured based on the interviews, and this metric turned out to be the best predictor of TH-fronting frequency. However, the relationship was in an unexpected direction, with higher-frequency TH-fronting being associated with more aggressive attitudes towards black people.

A likely explanation for this is that more aggressively racist attitudes in Grays Ferry are associated with involvement in ‘street’ culture: buying and selling drugs and stolen bikes, and participating in turf-related gang conflicts. While most residents engage in very few cross-racial interactions indeed, activities associated with street culture are frequently cross-racial, opening up a new source of linguistic influence and reinforcing racial attitudes. Furthermore, the association of TH-fronting with these interactions in particular and with young black men more generally likely lends it connotations of ‘toughness’.

While this explanation is compatible with the data, it is hard to test. Sociolinguistic case-studies are, by their nature, hard to replicate, and the variables involved hard—not to mention unethical—to manipulate. Over the last decade, however, experimental methods have been developed that allow language change to be modelled in the laboratory (see Galantucci et al. 2012, for a review). In particular, Roberts (2010) used an innovative artificial-language paradigm to investigate the factors influencing new-dialect emergence. Here we present an experimental study in this paradigm. Teams of participants played a computer game that involved chatting in an artificial language, exchanging ‘goods’, and ‘fighting’. Frequency of interaction and in-group/out-group affiliations were manipulated, and linguistic behaviour was recorded and measured. This allowed the real-life situation in Grays Ferry to be replicated under laboratory control, shedding light on how speakers might come to speak like their enemies.

References
U.S. Census Bureau (2013), American Community Survey, American FactFinder. URL: http://factfinder.census.gov/home
New methods to measure language attitudes: A case study on attitudes towards regional varieties of Dutch in Belgium

Laura Rosseel, Dirk Geeraerts, Dirk Speelman
QLVL, University of Leuven, Belgium

Within the context of Cognitive Sociolinguistics, this paper sets out to study the cognitive representation of language variation. In line with the strong empirical tradition in Cognitive Sociolinguistics, the study aims to bring methodological innovation to the field of language attitude research, seeking its inspiration in recent advances in social psychology. Despite the abundance of new implicit attitude measurement tools in social psychology, language attitude research has known very little methodological innovation since the 1960s. Recently, however, linguists have started to adapt a number of these social psychological methods to make them suitable for linguistic research (e.g. Speelman et al. 2013, Campbell-Kibler 2012, Pantos 2012). Yet, when it comes to the possibilities these methods can offer language attitudes research, only the surface has been scratched.

This paper presents the results of an exploratory study using such a social psychological implicit technique to measure language attitudes towards standard Belgian Dutch and a number of regional varieties of Dutch in Belgium. Building on work by Olson and Fazio (2004), we use a personalized version of the Implicit Association Test (IAT, Greenwald et al. 1998). The IAT measures the association between a binary target concept and a binary attribute concept by tracking the time a participant needs to classify stimuli belonging to either the target or the attribute category in a combined categorization task. Depending on how the target and attribute concepts are combined and assigned to the response keys, categorization will be more or less difficult, resulting in slower or faster reaction times, respectively. Comparing reaction times in trials with different pairings of target and attribute concepts, then, will reveal which concepts participants automatically associate. In our experiment standard Belgian Dutch and a regional variety of Dutch function as target categories, while the attribute concept we use is valence (positive vs. negative). The results of the IAT give an indication of whether participants hold more positive or negative associations with the different language varieties included in the experiment.

In addition to presenting the results of this exploratory experiment, the paper discusses possibilities and limitations of the use of these new social psychological implicit attitude measures for linguistic research.

References
Cognitive constraints on the dative alternation across space, registers, and verb lemmas

Melanie Röthlisberger
KU Leuven

The present study explores variability in the hidden – though cognitively ‘real’ – probabilistic constraints that fuel the variation between the double object (I give him a book) and prepositional dative construction (I give a book to him) (the well-known “dative alternation”). Situated at the crossroads of the probabilistic grammar framework (which assumes that variation in language is probabilistic rather than categorical, see Bod et al. 2003) and the “English World-Wide Paradigm” (which is concerned with the sociolinguistics of, and linguistic variation across, post-colonial English-speaking communities around the world. e.g. Schneider 2007), the present study investigates the extent to which language users’ grammatical knowledge differs across post-colonial varieties of English. Specifically, the study is interested in the extent to which core predictors of the dative alternation (e.g. length) are stable across regional varieties, registers, and dative verbs.

Previous studies have posited that varieties of English share a stable set of predictor variables due to the fact that all of the factors can be related to cognitive processing efforts (see Bernaisch et al. 2014, with a focus on South Asian Englishes). Other studies (e.g. Bresnan & Hay 2008) report significant cross-varietal differences (e.g. animacy in New Zealand and US English). Despite those apparent disparities in their findings, the existing body of research fundamentally agrees that processing-related factors apply universally to all varieties. However, most of these studies focus on the prototypical dative verb GIVE for their analysis, and employ a limited set of registers (e.g. newspaper or spoken data). The current study is thus the first of its kind that analyses the dative alternation across different genres, modes and varieties, taking a wide amount of alternating verbs into account.

By tapping into five different varieties of World Englishes, namely British English, Canadian English, New Zealand English, Singaporean and Indian English, thereby including spoken as well as written mode, a total of 15 different genres and a wide range of alternating verbs, this study's comprehensiveness fills a gap in the literature.

The main linguistic constraints tested in contemporary studies were operationalized and the complete dataset of 5'012 instances of double object and prepositional dative constructions accordingly annotated. With a focus on the underlying cognitive linguistic determinants that drive the alternation (e.g. end-weight), the study relies on mixed-effect logistic regression analysis to infer linguistic knowledge from observations in naturalistic corpus data (see Arppe et al. 2010: 12-15 for a discussion on the inference from alternations to linguistic knowledge). The resulting models show, that on the one hand, the five varieties under scrutiny share a core set of probabilistic constraints on their linguistic choice-making; on the other hand, cross-varietal differences – and thus differences in language users’ cognitive grammar – can be identified.

References
Space and Attitude: An experimental study of Polish demonstratives and possessives
Magdalena Rybarczyk

Recent research has demonstrated quite clearly that experiments, in particular the ones which exploit non-linguistic tasks, may reveal insights into aspects of the conceptual construal phenomena which are necessarily omitted in purely textual approaches (see Matlock and Winter 2013, Matthews and Matlock 2011). Experimental work reported in this presentation extends the scope of this research to the grammatical category of nominal grounding predications. The tasks were designed to enquire whether linguistic manipulations in the form of Polish nominal determiners can influence the way people reason about space. Participants read a brief story about two characters and were asked to mark the location of one of the characters on the corresponding picture. Two stories involved a perspectival manipulation (ta ‘this’ vs. moja ‘my’) in person reference. The preliminary results confirmed that distance is relevant to the characterization of meanings encoded by possessives and demonstratives, yet not in a straightforward way. The pilot studies validate contextually derived claims about the distancing power of the Polish proximal demonstrative and its contrastive value vis-à-vis the first and second person possessive pronouns with respect to the human “personal sphere” (see Rudzka-Ostyn 1992, Janda 1993, Dąbrowska 1997). Experimentation provides a reliable method to empirically test a hypothesis about the division of the personal sphere into two layers. Cross-linguistic exploration of grammatical carries of attitude may serve as a window onto human intersubjective capacities. The general methodological message in this paper is that the key to an accurate explanation of how attitudes arise in grammar lies in large scale corpus-based research coupled with psycholinguistic experimentation.

References
This paper aims to examine the influence of constructional subschemas (cf. Langacker 2008) on acceptability judgment. Constructional subschemas are partially-specific constructions, such as X tree or X need Y, schematized by extracting commonalities among some lower-level (specific) schemas like apple tree and oak tree, or Teachers need time and People need help. Acceptability (or grammaticality) is the degree of naturalness that each expression is considered to have. Acceptability and its judgment have been the main data sources in a wide range of linguistic literatures.

While some researches have pointed out that this methodology (acceptability judgment) is problematic, little is devoted to constructing a comprehensive and systematic theory or model to explain why people have some feeling or sense of anomaly on a certain type of expression, and to predict the degree of acceptability of expressions (including not only conventionalized but also new or coined expressions). On this point, some researches (e.g. McDavid and O’Cain 1977) have tried to determine some factors affecting acceptability judgment. However, the factors identified in the previous studies are limited only to extra-linguistic ones (e.g. age, social class, or region subject lives in). And thus it remains to be elucidated what kinds of linguistic factors can affect acceptability judgment.

Using a questionnaire for native Japanese speakers and multiple regression analysis, this study identified, as one of the linguistic factors affecting the judgment, the frequency of the latter-filled type of constructional subschemas (e.g. X tree). The questionnaire consisted of 58 coined Japanese N-N compounds (e.g. 出窓人間 which literally means “bay-window human”), assigning a numerical value to each item from 0 to 5. The participants were asked to judge the degree of acceptability of those 58 coined expressions on this scale. The value of acceptability assigned by participants was analyzed using multiple linear regression, with other variables representing word frequency and semantic relationships (Analysis 1). Moreover, the other 524,307 patterns of regression models with different variables were considered to validate the conclusion (Analysis 2).

In Analysis 1, a statistically-significant model was extracted by the criterion of VIF (Variance Inflation Factor) and AIC (Akaike’s Information Criterion), and it contained the latter-filled type of constructional subschema as a significant variable (p<.001). In Analysis 2, the 524,307 patterns of models, as a whole, showed that whether the constructional subschemas in question are latter-filled can affect the judgment. More specifically, it showed that the variable of the latter-filled subschema frequency was contained as a significant variable in the statistically significant models at a comparatively high rate, and moreover that the participants paid more attention to the latter nouns (N2) than to the former (N1).

These results can be interpreted to indicate that (the frequency of) the latter-filled type of constructional subschemas, rather than that of the former-filled type of subschemas or word frequency, can affect acceptability judgment.

References
Langacker, Ronald W. 2008. 
The cultural evolution of lexical syntactic categories in an Iterated Learning experiment
Carmen Saldana1, Simon Kirby1 and Kenny Smith1
1Language Evolution and Computation Research Unit, The University of Edinburgh

Human cognition made possible the evolution and maintenance of a communicative system that shows both combinatoriality and compositional syntax (Hurford, 2012). It was the evolved capacity to abstract away from selectional restrictions that paved the way to syntax in language: it allowed humans to develop relationships between lexical items (Deacon, 1997) and these items to have a schematic type of meaning that is independent of the entities in the world that words refer to (Evans, 2014). The current project analyses the nature and the cultural evolution of a basic requirement for the existence of syntactic phrases and syntagmatic relations: syntactic categories. It does so through Iterated Artificial Language Learning (IALL) experiments with a meaning space constituted by basic motion events. The IALL framework (Kirby, Cornish & Smith, 2008) provides us with a clean tool to investigate the emergence of explicit syntactic categories in early communication systems and thus to observe the interaction of conceptual systems and grammar construction without any language-specific lexicon previous to performance. We designed two experiments: the first one included iteration and an artificial pressure for individuation and the second one, iteration and dyadic interaction. Coherent with previous results (Kirby et al., 2008), languages become more learnable along with the emergence of structure as shown in Figure 1 where we observe a significant ascending trend in structure in both experiments (L=2170.0, m=8, n=9, p<0.001 and L=1386, m=4, n=10, p<.001 respectively)(see Figure 1). For the first time, resulting systems within the IALL framework under laboratory conditions tackle the split of lexical and functional morphology in the construction of lexical syntactic categories in early communication systems. We will discuss the systems obtained and the role of social interaction in the evolution of syntax. The current project provides evidence (1) for higher syntactic complexity emerging through cultural evolution through an increased complexity in the meaning space including motion events and potential functional elements, (2) the construction of lexical syntactic categories and (3) the role of interaction in the evolution of the transparency in meaning-form mappings in the syntax of early communication systems (see Figure 2).

References
“What size is your voice?” Conceptual mappings based on the human senses

Julia Salzinger
Technische Universität Dortmund

The five human senses are very crucial in our everyday interaction with the world. Therefore, they have an impact on language and perception and thus, in extension, on cognition. While general embodied manifestations in language have been recognized as a possible window into cognitive processes (Lakoff, Johnson 1980; Johnson 1987), the five senses as the main interactional medium with the world have mostly been regarded on a rather superficial level. The analysis of conceptual metaphors based specifically on the senses is mostly limited to very few examples such as LOVE IS WARMTH, or KNOWLEDGE IS LIGHT (Kövecses 2007; Sweetser 1991; Danesi 1990). A focus on different conceptual metaphors within one sense and a comparison across all senses cannot be found. Furthermore, studies about variation on perception due to the usage of different words related to one sense (e.g. glowing, beaming, glaring etc.) do not exist.

My work investigates the influence sense-related language use has on our perception and (re)action, which in turn reveals underlying conceptual mappings that structure our thinking. Being able to use a large corpus has been a major advance in cognitive linguistics. It is one thing to refer to commonly used phrases from dubious sources that support one’s theory, but quite another to have a sound basis of actual corpus data from a corpus that is large enough to represent a language very much in its entirety. Based on the COCA as the largest and thus most representative corpus of contemporary American English, my work strives to uncover the powerful impact sensual conceptual metaphors have. It demonstrates for example why we perceive voices in terms of size and dimension, why a glittering career is superficial but admirable while a brilliant career is more serious and respected. It shows why a smell is seen as solid material but can also be sweet or bitter, thereby interlinking two senses. We do not seem to understand the senses as single independent entities in the way suggested by our referring to them with their five different names. It is rather the case that transitions between the senses are fluent, sometimes to the point that it will not be noticed that they are used together in one expression (e.g. sweet smell).

Looking at sense-related language use will allow a better understanding of reactions and actions, perception and cognition. I argue that conceptual mappings such as the ones mentioned above are highly influencing and have a strong impact on us. If we want to discover more about cognitive processing and the reasons why we act and react in a certain way, it is of great importance to finally pay more attention to sense-related language use in general, and sensual conceptual metaphors in particular. Furthermore, an analysis like this is important for many fields of research, it is not limited to linguistics and the analysis of language but is also a valuable contribution to fields like (cognitive) psychology and neurology. In conclusion, by closely examining recent and actual language use based on a large text compilation like the COCA, this project sheds light on the neglected issue of the senses and their influence on us.

References
Danesi, Marcel (1990): Thinking is seeing: Visual metaphors and the nature of abstract thought. In Semiotica 80 (3-4).
A Usage-Based Approach to Epistemic \textit{Have to}:
Its Preferred Grammatical Patterns and Subjectivity

Keisuke SANADA
Sapporo Gakuin University

This paper presents a usage-based approach to epistemic \textit{have to} in contemporary American English, with data collected from the \textit{Corpus of Contemporary American English}. More specifically, this paper has the following two aims.

The first aim is to quantitatively identify preferred grammatical patterns in which epistemic \textit{have to} occurs. My quantitative investigation shows that epistemic \textit{have to} frequently occurs with at least one of the five grammatical patterns listed in (1). Furthermore, as many as approximately two-thirds of all tokens occur with a combination of (1a), (1b), (1d), and (1e), as illustrated in (2).

\begin{enumerate}
    \item a. Third person subjects (i.e., very few second person subjects and no first person subjects)
    \item b. Inanimate subjects
    \item c. Negative sentences (in the case of \textit{have to})
    \item d. Declarative mood (i.e., almost no occurrence in interrogative mood)
    \item e. Followed by imperfective verbs (especially \textit{be})
\end{enumerate}

(2) \textit{It has to be one of the more bizarre 911 calls ever made}: (2012, spoken)

The second aim is to seek the theoretical implications of these findings for the theory of subjectivity of modality, in particular the views of cognitive grammar and functional grammar. First, I will demonstrate that from (1a) and (1b) epistemic \textit{have to} cannot necessarily be said to be conceptually objective simply because it tolerates tense inflections like German modals (cf. Langacker 1990). Langacker would argue that epistemic \textit{have to} is not a grounding predication and therefore is less subjective than fully grammaticalized modals (for example, \textit{must}). Patterns (1a) and (1b), however, will serve as evidence that epistemic \textit{have to} is highly subjective at least in another respect. This is because those two patterns show that a conceptualizer is very rarely encoded as a subject in the epistemic \textit{have to} sentence, which, in the cognitive grammar view, means that a conceptualizer tends to be off stage and not an object of conceptualization. Second, I will also demonstrate that from (1c) and (1d) the functional grammar view of the subjectivity of modality (cf. Halliday 1970 and Sawada 1993) may not work effectively. This is because epistemic modality (or “modality” in Halliday’s terminology) is subjective and is outside the scope of negation and interrogation. This argument is compatible with (1d) but is clearly incompatible with (1c). The preferred grammatical patterns of epistemic \textit{have to} may thus show at least some need to reconsider previous theories on the subjectivity of modality.

References
Manner-of-Speaking (henceforth MoS) verb research stems from the need to verify the elaboration of MANNER in the verb root in the conceptual frame of SPEAKING (for example after 1990 Snell-Hornby 1993, Levin 1993, Urban & Ruppenhofer 2001, Rojo & Valenzuela 2001, Mastrofini 2014). Much research has been dedicated to the frame of MOTION, and less to that of SPEAKING, considering the lexical semantic approach and the typological differences between satellite-framed and verb-framed predominance in languages (for example. Levin 1992; Talmey 2000a,b, 2007; Slobin 2004; Filipović 2007; among others). After having conducted an in-depth reconnaissance of MoS verbs from past research and through dictionary definitions, we distinguished 176 MoS verbs, for a total of 186 different MoS verb senses (Vergaro et al. in preparation). The second methodological approach confirmed the presence of the 186 MoS verb entries and their elaboration of fictive path through a corpus-based analysis (Vergaro et al. 2014). Following this we investigated how the bundle of components that describes each verb <MANNER> slot interfaces with the syntactic choices that make up the <PATH> slot in the encoding of the MoS event by considering the Attraction and Reliance in a corpus analysis of over a total of 109,850 instances (Sandford et al. under revision). This paper proposes to verify the entrenchment of ten <MANNER> components (both physical auditory and semantic-pragmatic) of the MoS verbs for the native English speaker through an online questionnaire. Sets of 10 randomized verbs are tested at a time to give the informant a manageable task. The objective is not only to confirm the presence of the components for each verb entry, but also to corroborate the psychological reality of the clustering of fine-grained distinguishing aspects.

References
Struggling with English Prepositional Verbs

Nathan Schneider
University of Edinburgh

It is widely acknowledged that certain verb-preposition combinations are idiosyncratic: come across and refer to are canonical examples of collocations known as prepositional verbs (PVs; Huddleston 2002: 274–280). Huddleston argues that PVs resemble non-prepositional verbs in the structure verb–[preposition–object]. This analysis is readily expressed in a Construction Grammar framework by hypothesizing a family of PV constructions that are motivated by the more general syntactic pattern while adding specific lexical information (e.g., that come across means ‘encounter’, but come up with means ‘invent’). However, in developing a construction of prepositional verbs, we run into a formidable challenge: namely, that it is often difficult to tell PVs apart from non-prepositional verbs. Consider talk with (somebody): this is a highly frequent (and likely routinized) combination, and the object of the preposition is a highly salient participant, yet the expression exploits the normal meaning of talk and a co-participant function of with that is not specific to communication (e.g., struggle with (somebody)). Syntactic tests such as the prepositional passive have been proposed to distinguish PVs from non-prepositional verbs, but grammaticality judgments are difficult to make or yield slightly contradictory results (Vestergaard 1977, inter alia). Qualitative semantic criteria in the literature (e.g., Tseng 2000) are also quite difficult to apply.

We examine two approaches that may help distinguish prepositional verbs. First, because PVs are arguably idiosyncratic in meaning, we have sought to characterize the “ordinary” functions of prepositions in order to identify “extraordinary” functions that can be attributed to the influence of the verb. As part of an ongoing corpus annotation project, we have developed a coarse-grained hierarchical inventory of preposition functions, many of which correspond to thematic roles (Schneider et al., 2015). Where annotators consider the PP as the verb’s THEME or are hesitant to assign another thematic role, this often indicates a PV. This may be a sufficient but not necessary condition.

Second, because the verb and preposition are tightly associated in PVs, we look for inspiration in the literature on the argument/adjunct distinction. While that distinction is also not resolved definitively with syntactic tests, the partially semantic accounts may be fruitful. Jolly (1993) proposes a ternary distinction between (a) semantically core participants of the verb that are marked with functional/case-marking prepositions—canonical arguments; (b) semantically non-core participants marked with a lexical preposition, so as to convey (e.g.) a spatial or temporal setting—canonical adjuncts; and (c) an intermediate category for participants in a second event that is related to the verbal event marked with lexical prepositions, e.g., put on the table—these are termed “argument-adjuncts” in RRG. We hypothesize that prepositional verbs are limited to prepositions functioning non-lexically, though this might not be a sufficient condition. Goldberg (2006: 42–43) accounts for PPs that are neither prototypical arguments nor prototypical adjuncts by dissociating the semantically core participants of the verb from those of the argument structure construction in which the verb is used: the argument structure construction can add arguments beyond those associated with the verb (sneeze the napkin across the table) or deprofile the verb’s core participants such that they are syntactically optional (load the wagon (with hay)). Our hypothesis is that prepositional verbs are those for which a general-purpose argument structure construction fails to apply, and instead require a verb-plus-PP construction specific to particular preposition and a single verb or small class of verbs.

References
English object complement clauses are known to have various forms: to-infinitives, bare infinitives, ing-participles and ed-participles. The form used in a particular situation is understood to be correlated with the finite verb whose object the non-finite form complements. Reference Grammars of English, such as Quirk et al 1985 and Huddleston & Pullum 2002, describe the formal patterns individually with particular references to the (semantic) groups of the matrix verbs they are found to co-occur with. For example, bare infinitives are specified to complement verbs of perception and verbs of causation, and to-infinitives – speech-act verbs, believe verbs, verbs of intention, causative verbs etc (cf Quirk et al: 1205f). Since some of these matrix verb groups are shared between the patterns, they are not very helpful in the determination of their functional-semantic specifics. Also differences reported for the status of the NP following the finite verb (being an object in the main clause and/or the subject in the subordinate clause) are present across the individual complementation patterns, so that they are not directly informative about their functional-semantic specifics either. Hence, it seems that, broadly speaking, for the choice of English object complement patterns, one is left with the individual matrix verbs, which, however, are not always clearly correlated with the formal types.

All this seems to speak for fuzzy boundaries between the four types of object complement clauses listed in the grammar books of English. In order to get a deeper insight into the nature of the different types of English object complementation, we carried out an empirical analysis of the bare and to-infinitive patterns and the two participial patterns. The analysis is couched in a usage-based construction-grammar framework and aims at the ‘bottom-up’ identification of the nature of the object complement patterns at issue, in particular their semantic specifics and their schematicity.

Our working hypothesis is that the formally distinct complementation types represent clusters of more specific constructions. These are verb(-group) specific, and possibly more schematic constructions of the type ‘V plus object plus infinitive/participle’ can be abstracted away from them.

To test these assumptions from a usage-based perspective, the British component of the International Corpus of English (ICE-GB) was searched for relevant data, which were then analysed quantitatively. In particular, the data were submitted to several types of collostruction analysis (cf Stefanowitsch & Gries 2003, 2009, for example). In a first step, the statistical measures of collostruction strength and delta P, as well as the type and token frequencies of the matrix verbs found are interpreted for what they reveal about the verb(-group) specific constructions. Further information on the exact specification of the constructional candidates is gained from a distinctive collexeme analysis of all the object complement constructions found. In a second step, some of the more specific constructional candidates are put to the experimental test in a sentence completion experiment.

References
The variation of *usted* as a grammatical object in discursive interaction

María José Serrano
*Universidad de La Laguna*

1. Theoretical framework

Syntactic variation can be considered a matter of communicative choice since grammatical forms are not totally synonymous. Any alteration in syntactic form is parallel to a difference in the way events and their participants are conceptualized, therefore the differential patterning of syntactic variants across communicative settings and social groups will reflect the preference for different ways to create meanings and styles. The principles and methods of the study of variation can greatly benefit from the theoretical bases offered by cognitive linguistics, particularly its view of syntax as inherently meaningful (Lavandera 1984, Langacker 2009). Cognitive notions like the salience and the informativeness of elements have properly explained the variation of pronominal subjects, as previous studies have shown; thus it follows that the variation in the formulation and placement of grammatical objects will be amenable to the same properties. In this research we will approach the variation of the expression/omission of the second-person *usted* used as a grammatical object (*Le decimos a usted*/*Le decimos Ø*). The formal agreement of the object by the verbal clitic (*le, les*) is mandatory, whereas the pronoun does not usually need to be explicitly formulated, due to the inherent salience of the second person in discourse.

2. Corpus and methodology

This investigation will be based on the *Corpus Conversacional del Español de Canarias* (CCEC) which comprises a series of transcribed oral interactions among Canary Island speakers in different communicative situations. These are divided into two sections: spontaneous conversations and talk shows broadcast on regional TV, the latter being also internally classified into a number of genres. The mass-media texts amount to 171,258 words. We will calculate the overall frequency of clauses with *usted* when functioning as an object across the texts as absolute variable multiplying the token number in each genre by 10,000 and dividing it by its total word number. The analysis of absolute variables is complemented with that of relative ones comparing the percentages of expression and omission of each variant when necessary.

3. Preliminary results

The statistical patterning of the expressed grammatical object *usted* (*‘Le presentamos a usted’, ‘We present you’ frm.l.* and the omitted (*‘Le presentamos Ø’) reveals the existence of meaningful differences along the discursive interaction, as observed in the following excerpts:

(1) ‘*Le voy a pedir a usted* que me diga su opinión sobre las fotografías que van saliendo’  
‘I am going to ask you (frm.l.) about the pictures we are presenting’ (ElEnv1702)

(2) ‘*Yo quiero mostrarles Ø* otra parte importante de esta vivienda’ (CanDi1401)  
‘I want to show you (frm.l.) another part of this house’

As would be expected, the most used variant is the omission of the second-person *usted* pronoun, whose reference is retained by the clitic agreement, whereas the formulation of the object is rather infrequent. However, a detailed analysis of this case of variation will help us to better ascertain how it contributes to the construction of cognitively based communicative styles across the interactional continuum.

References

This presentation examines a use of the English progressive construction called “interpretive” as exemplified in (1) to (4).

(1) Were you lying when you SAID that? No, I was telling the truth. (Leech 2004:22)
(2) When I said ‘the boss’ I was referring to you. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002:165)
(3) In joining the Euro we might be giving away our sovereignty. (Leech et al. 2009: 134)
(4) You’re kidding! (ibid.)

This usage has been identified by many scholars and some suggest that it may be one of the reasons for the recent increase of the progressive. The function of the interpretive progressive is to interpret—clarify or reveal the deeper significance of—a situation which is mentioned explicitly as in (1) to (3), or contextually inferable as in (4). The situation which is interpreted by the interpretive progressive (the object of interpretation) and the situation which the progressive profiles are one and the same situation; therefore they are supposed to be temporally co-extensive. Then the question is why the interpreting part is expressed in the progressive construction, which prototypically assigns imperfective aspectuality to the situation, while the object of interpretation is in the simple verb form in (1) and (2). This aspectual incongruity has led a number of scholars to claim that this usage has no aspectual meaning, and accordingly they call it “non-aspectual”, “not-solely-aspectual usage”, “subjective progressive” or “experiential progressive.” Although this aspectual peculiarity of the interpretive progressive has been pointed out, no theoretical or conceptual explanation has been suggested as to why the English progressive has come to have this function, which appears to have lost the meaning of imperfective aspect. The present study attempts to give a cognitive and functional explanation to this question.

In fact, imperfective aspectuality plays an important role for the interpretive use to emerge. This use has two subtypes:

(a) identification of the intentional goal of an action which is already known to the interlocutors
(b) prediction of unintended result or effects of an action

The cognitive operation motivating the progressive construal is metonymic cognition where an observed partial situation is construed as a part of a larger action/situation frame. In an intentional action as a whole, there is a metonymic relation between the intention to achieve a certain goal and the behavioral means to achieve it. The intentional action is the whole, the intention is a part and the behavioral means is also a part. When we people observe someone’s behavior (either physical action or speech), we have to understand the intentional significance of the behavior (Tomasello 1999). To conceptualize an intentional action as a whole based on the partial fragmental observation is metonymic conceptualization from part to whole. The cognitive process of “zooming out” is proposed instead of “zooming in” in order to explain some cases of the interpretive use. The superficial impression that the interpretive use has no aspectual meaning emerges from the profile shift from temporal aspectual domain (imperfectivity) to other domains. The notion of “(inter)subjectivity” is crucial here. Intention is an internal mental state to which only the intentional agent has access and we have to rely on inferences, construe subjectively, to understand other people’s intentions. Asymmetry in cognitive state between the speaker and hearer (or participants in a joint activity) prompts imperfective construal since if the hearer cannot understand the communicative intent of an utterance it means that the intended speech act has not yet been successfully performed. The interpretive progressive is one means for negotiation to establish one shared conception of reality between interlocutors, who have different cognitive states in discourse. Moreover, the interpretive progressive can be used to foreground the speaker’s subjective (epistemic) construal of the situation; an intentional action is (re-)conceptualized in a larger action frame which includes further effects unexpected previously by the agent.
The effect of reading directions on spatial representation of timeline

Kazuko Shinohara¹ and Yoshihiro Matsunaka²
¹Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology
²Tokyo Polytechnic University

When we talk about time, we often use spatial language. Based on the framework of Conceptual Metaphor Theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999), a large body of work has empirically tested the structure of spatial representations of time (Boroditsky 2000, Casasanto and Boroditsky 2008, among many others). Casasanto and Bottini (2014) propose the hierarchical mental metaphors theory, which suggests that spatial representation of timeline may be universal at one level but it may be more culture-specific at another. They demonstrate that even a short time of reading can affect the direction and orientation of the mental timeline: the standard orthography strengthens the common left-to-right mental timeline, while mirror-reversed orthography evokes a reversed timeline, i.e., right to left. Vertical (upward or downward) reading encourages upward or downward timelines respectively. Thus, experience of reading can easily affect mental representation of timeline. The present study aims to provide an empirical support to the hierarchical mental metaphors theory by using the Japanese language, which has both lateral and vertical writing systems (Figure 1). Our experiment demonstrates that vertical reading can evoke not only an up-down representation of timeline but also a right-to-left one, which derives from the vertical writing system.

In our experiment, 121 Japanese speakers read funny stories for two minutes that were vertically written for one group and laterally written for the other group. After that they arranged three pictures of life events in a chronological order. The lateral condition increased responses of the left-to-right arrangement while the vertical condition increased both up-to-down responses and right-to-left responses (Figure 2). These differences were statistically significant ($\chi^2(3)=16.491, p<.01$). Since the vertical writing system involves the right-to-left flow of lines as well as the up-to-down direction within a line, these responses are congruent with the directions in the writing system the participants read. From the results, we can conclude that exposure to the writing system can affect how we represent timeline spatially, which provides support for Casasanto and Bottini’s hierarchical mental metaphor theory.

References
Discourse metaphors and the story-based four-character Chinese idioms

Dingfang Shu
Shanghai International Studies University

Previous theories of metaphor have been focused on metaphor “in” discourses rather than discourses “as” metaphors. Discourse metaphors are defined as discourses that are wholly mapped onto source domains. Broadly speaking, there are two kinds of discourse metaphors: independent discourses interpreted as metaphors or discourses involving both the source and the target discourses. The former include fables, allegories, and those involving fictive characters or plots. The latter typically appear in some political or argumentative discourses. This paper takes discourse metaphors in One Hundred Metaphors for Buddhism (《百喻经》) and Zhuang Zi (《庄子》) as examples and analyzes their structural properties and cognitive features. It is found that most of the metaphors take the form of a story which is mapped onto the target domain either through a parallel explication or a one-sentence summary. For example, in One Hundred Metaphors for Buddhism, the story of a foolish rich man asking the builders to build him the third floor of a three-story house without the two ground floors (空中楼阁) is told first and then wholly mapped onto the target domain, i.e. Buddhism, to depict some people dreaming of becoming a Buddhist disciple by skipping the painful practising stages. In Zhuang Zi, at the end of the story of Pao Ding Dissecting the Cow (庖丁解牛), Wenhuijun commented, “I had asked about the dissecting of a cow, but now I understand how I should keep fit”. That is, the principles that Pao Ding followed in dissecting a cow are understood by Wenhuijun to be applicable to the domain of a healthy life. Similar examples abound in Zhuang Zi. It is calculated that stories told in Zhuang Zi to explicate the principles of Taoism have given rise to over 200 some four-character idioms in Chinese. Pao Ding Jie Niu is one such example. It is now generally taken to refer to someone very skillful at some craft by following the natural laws of the world. The idiom acts as a metonymy for the story behind, which can be recounted when needed. Discourse metaphors typically make a point which can be summarized in a phrase or a four-character idiom and applied in different target domains. In a sense, the story-based four-character Chinese idioms are condensed metaphors by way of metonymy that can be mapped onto other domains sharing some similarities or basic principles.

References
In an empirical study conducted for my PhD thesis, I have attempted to triangulate the core meanings of expressions from the same semantic field (BALDNESS) across English, German and Japanese by means of a model of the visual states referenced by these expressions. For this purpose, I have revisited and ‘inverted' William Labov's famous experiment eliciting lexical category boundaries (Labov 1973): Native speakers of all three languages were asked to design visual representations of expressions referring to baldness phenomena in an online experiment. The set of visualizations produced for each linguistic stimulus was then compared across languages to determine conceptual overlap or distance between expressions in the three languages, resulting in conceptual 'maps' for the lexical field without recourse to linguistic descriptions.

The theoretical background to my empirical work is an embodied, perceptual symbol-based understanding of linguistic meaning (cf. Barsalou 1999). I argue that cross-linguistic semantics is in fact only viable if we assume a shared (albeit not necessarily identical) conceptual layer that is accessed by different languages in differing ways. On this account, the meaning of linguistic expressions is dynamically generated by conceptual simulators whose activity is fine-tuned by linguistic and contextual cues jointly determining simulation parameters. My empirical work both implements these assumptions methodologically and assesses their viability based on the findings. The results generally confirm expectations derived from the theoretical framework, namely strong inter-informant convergence within languages and partial, systematic divergence between languages.

Coincidentally, these findings are also highly relevant to issues in translation theory, most centrally concerning the concept of equivalence as discussed in translation studies (see e.g. Pym 2010). In my view, both theoretical innovations and empirical results coming out of the cognitive sciences – and specifically cognitive linguistics – need to be introduced into mainstream translation theory discourse in order to ‘ground' the issues discussed there in a realistic account of human language processing and psychology.

References
The Conceptualization of ‘Austerity’ in the Portuguese, Spanish and Irish Press

Augusto Soares da Silva
Catholic University of Portugal
Maria Josep Cuenca
Universitat de València
Manuela Romano
Universidad Autónoma de Madrid

This work studies the conceptualization of ‘austerity’ in different cultures and languages (namely, Portuguese, Spanish and English) by analysing the Portuguese, Spanish and Irish press. The analysis draws on Soares da Silva’s (2014) study of the metaphors used in the implementation and justification of harsh austerity policies in the Portuguese press in 2011, right after the entry of the Troika. Even though the political and economic situation was quite similar in all three countries, this paper shows how the specificities of the economic measures, as well as the specific socio-cultural contexts of the Portuguese, Spanish and Irish communities, influenced the way ‘austerity’ was conceptualized and expressed metaphorically.

To this aim, recent Cognitive Theories of metaphor in real discourse situations are applied (e.g., Brandt & Brandt 2005; Cameron & Deignan 2006; Kövecses 2010, Semino 2008; Steen 2011), as well as Critical Discourse Analysis approaches to metaphor (Charteris-Black 2005; Dirven et al. 2007; Hart 2010). Both approaches clearly complement each other and share an active, socio-cognitive approach to language in use (Bernárdez 2008, Pishwa 2009).

The analysis relies on a corpus of news and opinion articles. The metaphors were identified in Portuguese, Spanish, and English by searching for four key words from the field of economy and politics: austeridade-austeridad-austeritat-austerity, corte-recorte-retallades-cut, dívida-deuda-deute-debt, and Estado-State. The method for metaphorical identification is based on Stefanowitsch’s (2006) “metaphorical pattern analysis” of target domains. Considering these four targets, the results highlight that metaphors of austerity are typically related to human behaviour (responsibility/irresponsibility, discipline, sacrifice, obesity, cruelty, despotism, honour, good students), path and force image schemas, and events (war, games, household management, and therapy).

In short, by analysing the discourse of ‘austerity’ in several communities affected by the recent deep European economic crisis, this study sheds light on key-questions such as: (i) The persuasive force of specific metaphors used in the implementation of the austerity policies by the Troika. (ii) The different incidence of target domains in the three languages, as well as culture-specific expressions, triggered the specific socio-cultural, political and economic situations.

References
On given occasions, native English speakers employ the color terms dark and pale in combination with the emotion word fear. The present paper investigates the variations in the conceptualization of this emotional domain, as well as the possible differences in the Valence, Arousal and Power dimensions which structure its meaning, when the word fear is modulated by these chromatic terms.

With this aim in mind, we use two complementary methodologies: we start by applying the more classic or traditional linguistic methodology, classifying a list of corpus-based figurative linguistic expressions into a number of different metaphors (e.g., Kövecses 2000); then, we employ the GRID questionnaire, a psycholinguistic tool proposed by Fontaine, Scherer and Soriano (2013) in order to elicit the features of the components which constitute the meaning of fear according to native speakers, and which the GRID approach identifies as appraisal, bodily reaction, expression, action tendency and feeling. As Soriano (2013) did for the domain of anger, we compare the insights obtained in the first and second part of the study in order to check whether there is convergence regarding the meaning structure of dark and pale fear as elicited by both methodologies. Finally, a principal component analysis (PCA) is applied to examine the variability and the salience of the features of fear depending on the color term involved.

References
Comprehension of words describing speed involves speed in auditory and visual perception
Laura J. Speed & Gabriella Vigliocco
Radboud University & University College London

Embodied theories of language propose that comprehension of words and sentences involves activation of the perceptual systems (Meteyard, Rodriguez Cuardrad, Bahrami & Vigliocco, 2012). Here we investigated the comprehension of language describing motion, from an embodied perspective. This study tested whether comprehension of single verbs denoting speeded actions requires resources involved in the perception of speed. Furthermore, we tested whether these perceptual resources included both the visual and auditory modality. Subjects completed a lexical decision task on single verbs that denoted either fast or slow motion (e.g. *dash*, *amble*) as well as filler words that were unrelated to speed (e.g. *computer*). These words had previously been normed according to their implied speed by a separate group of participants. Before being presented with each word, a perceptual stimulus denoting fast or slow motion appeared for three seconds. In Experiment 1 and 2 the perceptual stimulus was a visual display of lines moving outwards, quickly or slowly, creating vection. In Experiment 3 and 4, the perceptual stimulus was the sound of fast or slow footsteps. Each word was presented twice, once with each speed of perceptual stimulus. If comprehension of speed words does involve resources used in the perception of speed, then combining perceptual speed with speed words in this way should affect word comprehension, such that responses to the words will be different when perceptual speed and word speed match, compared to when they do not match. We additionally manipulated the modality in which the speed words were presented (as visual words in Experiment 1 and 4, or spoken words in Experiment 2 and 3) in order to assess whether the match in modality of verbal stimulus and perceptual stimulus played a role in the interaction between speed in perception and speed in language. Response time results showed that perceptual speed and word speed interacted only when the modality of presentation of verbal and perceptual stimuli matched (i.e. visual speed and visual words, or auditory speed and auditory words). Moreover, the direction of interaction differed between visual and auditory presentation: Experiment 1 found a facilitation effect with responses faster when perceptual speed matched word speed, compared to when they did not match, whereas Experiment 3 found an interference effect with responses slower when perceptual speed matched word speed, compared to when they did not match. We suggest that this difference occurs due to the number of overlapping features between the perceptual stimulus and the meaning of the words: the visual lines overlapped with word meaning in terms of speed only, but the auditory footsteps overlapped in terms of speed and the effector used in the action (i.e. foot movements). Thus, because the footsteps and speed words overlapped to a large extent, there were fewer resources left available, leading to interference. The visual moving lines and the speed words however only partially overlapped, and this overlap instead facilitated performance. In sum, results suggest that interactions between language and perception occur for speed only when processing occurs in the same modality, possibly due to allocation of perceptual attention. Additionally, the perceptual resources used in speed word comprehension appear to include specific features of the described actions (both speed and effector used).
Predicting quotation use from speakers’ behavioral and linguistic characteristics

Kashmiri Stec
University of Groningen

Research on gestural viewpoint suggests that several factors may contribute to the expression of character (CVPT) vs. observer (OVPT) viewpoint gestures, among which are syntactic features, event properties and discourse status (Parrill 2010). The articulators involved in the expression of either viewpoint are less well documented, and in the case of speaker-gesturers, tend to focus on use of the hands. Although the privileged status of the hands might make sense for OVPT gestures, it is hard to say the same for CVPT, where facial expression, torso movement and body orientation may also play crucial roles in its expression. To what extent are these non-manual articulators important? And what factors (behavioral, linguistic or otherwise) contribute to their use?

Mico-analyses of CVPT expression in speaker-gesturers as compared to signers (e.g. Rayman 1999; Earis 2008) suggest that non-manual articulators may play an active role. Once we look beyond the hands, we also see that these viewpoint shifts may affect non-verbal behavior in systematic ways, e.g. when quoting someone (Stec 2012). This raises the questions: Which articulators contribute to the expression of CVPT in speaker-gesturers? Does this contribution vary between speaker-gesturers? Does the quotative context make a difference?

To answer these questions, we asked 25 speaker-gesturers of American English to tell semispontaneous autobiographical narratives to a friend. We then identified all quotative utterances in the corpus, and used ELAN to annotate them for articulator use (e.g. the speaker-gesturer’s gestures, displays of facial affect, intonation, movements and gaze), quotative context (reported speech vs. fictive interaction (Pascual 2002), and quoted monologues vs. quoted dialogues) and speaker characteristics (gender and the results of the IRI perspective-taking survey (Davis 1980)).

We present an analysis based on generalized linear regression models, and use circus plots and mosaic plots to visualize the use of articulators in our data set and understand how they pattern together. Briefly, we find that speaker characteristics are less important, and that quotative context and non-manual articulators are more important. We discuss our findings in the context of previous research on the expression of viewpoint in speaker-gesturers, the use of communicative spaces and with respect to the possible roles quotative context and common ground may play in the expression of CVPT.

References
The effects of stimulus modality on interpretation of ambiguous temporal metaphors

Elise Stickles\textsuperscript{a} and Tasha N. Lewis\textsuperscript{b}

\textsuperscript{a}University of California, Berkeley and \textsuperscript{b}Loyola University Maryland

Experimental work has shown that spatial experience motivates spatiotemporal metaphor use. The experience of, or thinking about, motion primes TIME IS EGO MOVING THROUGH SPACE, whereas the experience of stasis primes TIME IS MOTION PAST EGO (e.g., Boroditsky 2000; Boroditsky & Ramscar 2002; Matlock, Ramscar, & Boroditsky 2005). A wide variety of studies have investigated priming of this metaphoric dual via an ambiguous test question: Next Wednesday’s meeting has been moved forward two days. What day is the meeting on now? This elicits different responses (“Friday” or “Monday”), depending on the metaphor in use. Related studies dealing specifically with non-motion primes demonstrate varied results on a wide range of priming stimuli such as individual differences, calendric systems, and emotion (Duffy & Feist 2014; Duffy 2014; Hauser, Carter & Meier 2009). Furthermore, research regarding the effect of perspective-taking in face-to-face communication versus computer-mediated communication has also shown divergent results with the same test question (Lewis & Stickles 2014).

Despite the fact that this ambiguous test question has been used extensively for research purposes in this area, many studies do not report the results of a control, or make use of a prior study’s controls instead of reporting their own. Markedly different baseline response distributions are reported between studies, ranging from 40% to 70% “Friday” control responses, despite findings by some studies that speakers show no clear preference for one metaphor over another in the absence of priming (e.g., Boroditsky 2000). Furthermore, they frequently do not discuss in detail the modality of stimulus presentation. Bender & Beller (2014) additionally discuss in depth the fact that relying on this test question to determine metaphor use produces data which are inherently ambiguous and difficult to interpret. Hence, the potential effects of communication modality on spatiotemporal metaphor use should be further investigated, in order to better understand results of these studies.

Consequently, the research question guiding this study is: How does stimulus modality affect the interpretation of the ambiguous test question? Participants were asked the ambiguous test question, eliciting different responses without being primed by individual experience, observation of another individual or interlocutor. Five hundred and seven participants on Mechanical Turk (www.MTurk.com) were asked the test question in one of several modality conditions: spoken audio; spoken audio with video; right to left scrolling text; left to right scrolling text; text appearing one word at a time; or text presented simultaneously in a familiar reading format.

All conditions resulted in a significantly greater frequency of “Friday” responses (n = 334, p < 0.0001). A mixed effects analysis revealed significant effects of both scrolling text (p < 0.01) and familiar text format conditions (p < 0.05); these conditions produced more “Monday” responses than the others, albeit still with an overall “Friday” preference. Thus the experience of visual motion in reading from left to right may have an effect on interpretation of the test question. These results suggest that American English speakers have a baseline preference for the TIME IS EGO MOVING THROUGH SPACE metaphor, with a stronger preference in audio rather than written presentation. This has implications both for (re)interpretation of prior studies’ results and future study designs.

References
Metonymic Connections are not “Mapped”:
Theoretical and Neurological Evidence for “Metonymic Binding”

Daniel C. Strack
The University of Kitakyushu

While the word “mapping” appears often in explanations of metaphor theory, there is little awareness that the term actually has two working definitions from different fields of study. While the majority of metaphor researchers seem to understand the term in a mathematical “set theory” sense, those who make direct reference to neuroscience tend to use it either explicitly or implicitly as a neurological term.

In set theory, “mapping” signifies two sets correlated according to a certain “function,” a process that generates the second set by working equally on constituent items of the first set. On the other hand, the neurological term “mapping” generally refers to the correlated projection of topographically organized activation patterns from one area of the brain to another so as to preserve isomorphism. The presence of this highly specialized, task-specific type of neural connectivity has been confirmed in the visual, auditory, and somatosensory systems.

Because Conceptual Metaphor Theory proponents typically characterize metonymy as a phenomenon occurring within a single conceptual domain, from a “set theory” point of view, it is logically inconsistent to explain metonymic connectivity in terms of “mapping” (a correlation across multiple sets). Neuroscientists, on the other hand, refer to the process that links neural activation patterns across modalities to form concepts not as “mapping” but as “binding.” In fact, results from neuroscientific research on “binding” appear to provide indirect empirical support for viewing metonymy as a single-domain phenomenon.

For the above reasons, expressing metonymic connectivity by way of the term “binding” will both remove some of the theoretical and terminological inconsistencies that have restrained inquiry into metonymy and also allow cognitive linguists access to a broad range of neuroscientific literature that seems to offer provisional confirmation for a single-domain view. As new developments in Conceptual Metaphor Theory are valid only insofar as they can be justified with reference to human cognition, using terms such as “mapping” and “binding” in their neurological senses will serve not only to stress the fact that many aspects of CMT are based on neurological insights but also to constrain theory by grounding it in the working language of cognitive neuroscience.

References
This paper provides experimental evidence for considerable education-related differences in processing and comprehension of predicate nominal object relative clauses. The experiment measured high academic attainment (hereafter, HAA) and low academic attainment (hereafter, LAA), native and non-native speakers’ response time and decision accuracy using an online sentence-picture matching task which compared processing and comprehension of active transitive and subject and object relative clause sentences (e.g., This is the girl that hit the boy, This is the girl that the boy hit). The results support usage-based (e.g., Barlow and Kemmer, 2000, Bybee 2010, Langacker 2000) and constraint-based approaches, particularly those that predict that participants’ performance is shaped by regularity, frequency and direct experience of the constructions (e.g., MacDonald and Christiansen 2002). All groups processed actives and subject relative clauses faster than object relative clauses whilst the LAA native and HAA non-native participants made significantly more errors with object relative clauses than active and subject relative clause sentences. However, since the results show evidence of non-native speakers outperforming (some) native speakers in an online task tapping knowledge of complex grammar, they are problematic for accounts which posit that only non-native speakers engage in ‘shallow’ syntactic processing (e.g., Clahsen and Felser 2006).

References


How we communicate: bringing together different approaches of metaphor

Claudia Strey
Pontifícia Universidade Católica do Rio Grande do Sul
CNPq

When we think about language use, one of the most studied phenomena is metaphor – traditionally viewed as departing from the norm, or from conventional meaning. However, metaphors have been object of different perspectives, and different theoretical and experimental grounds. The first objective of this paper is to analyse how two different approaches – relevance theory (RT) and cognitive linguistics (CL) – understand the role of metaphor in communication, as well as how their perspectives underlie different foundations of how communication works. Overall, both theories differ in some of their goals and working assumptions (Gibbs & Tendhal, 2008), and the most important seems to be that CL assumes that linguistics metaphors depend on pre-existing cross-domain mappings; whereas RT states that cross-domain conceptual mapping may result from repeated use of linguistic metaphors (Wilson, 2011). It means that for CL metaphors arise primarily in though (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980, 1999), while RT says it is in language (Sperber & Wilson, 2006). However, both theories have a similar understanding of communication: they deny the code model and advocate for an inferential communication (Tendhal, 2009). However, to account for an inferential communication imply explaining how more gets communicated then what is said (Yule, 1996), and therefore to define the relation between utterance meaning and speaker meaning (Grice, 1989; Levinson, 1983). In this sense, while CL tends to assume that understanding utterances is a matter of applying general-purpose cognitive abilities to the communicative domain, RT argues that understanding utterances involve a special-purpose inferential procedures – drawing inferences about the speaker’s meaning. It seems that CL does not explain how hearers pick up speaker’s meaning now how the most relevant inferences are drawn when the meaning of one conceptual domain is carried over to another. However, both theories seems to be somehow complementary, and the second main objective of this paper is to explain how RT could provide a way of distinguishing valid inferences from mere conceptual association when a metaphor is uttered. An interface between both theories are proposed, in the spirit of the Metatheory of Interfaces (Campos, 2007), assuming that mappings are part of the inferential process, but they are driven by relevance. Finally, I will illustrate the interface with an example from a television program, aiming to show that even if we consider mappings as part of the inferential process, the construction of those mappings seems to be guided by a cost-benefit ratio. However, mappings need to be accessed quickly or be part of the initial assumptions of the speaker.

References
Does metaphoric extension lead to semantic change? A corpus study of English *get*

Karen Sullivan and James Hultgren

*University of Queensland, Australia*

Metaphoric extension has long been treated as a type of semantic change (Reisig 1839). The current study suggests that metaphoric extension is better understood as a stable, persistent attribute of particular word senses, which have a role in semantic change only when another process intervenes. The study considers 1000 tokens of *get*, randomly selected from the British National Corpus (BNC) and annotated for 37 semantic and morphosyntactic features organized in sets known as ‘Behavioral Profiles’ (Hanks 1996). The senses of *get* were examined, and their similarity assessed, in agglomerative cluster analyses following the Behavioral Profiles procedure (Gries & Divjak 2009). The outputs of these analyses include dendrograms in which the similarity of senses is represented by the tightness of clusters between senses.

In the data, metaphorically extended senses cluster closely with their originating senses. This is the case even for extensions first documented over 600 years ago, such as the non-metaphoric sense of *get* in *get a horse* and the metaphoric sense in *get an idea*. Slightly looser clustering is found between non-metaphoric senses and metaphorically extended senses that have subsequently undergone syntactic reanalysis or grammaticalization, such as the sense of *get* in *get to the smithy* and its extended inchoative sense in *get old*, which we argue arose through the later reanalysis of a metaphoric extension involving the Location Event-Structure Metaphor.

New senses that emerged without metaphor showed no morphosyntactic or semantic similarity to their originating senses. The inchoative sense in *get old* led to the passive sense in *get hit*, yet no metaphor was involved in this change, and these senses failed to resemble each other either semantically or morphosyntactically.

The study suggests that the metaphoric senses of *get* have remained tightly bound to their originating senses over time. The senses of *get* that evolved through semantic changes such as grammaticalization, on the other hand, demonstrate independent semantic and morphosyntactic traits that distinguish them from their originating senses. In sum, the metaphoric extensions of *get* demonstrate on-going stable relationships between the metaphoric and non-metaphoric senses, whereas the non-metaphoric extensions of *get* reflect semantic and morphosyntactic changes.

References


Asymmetric properties in Japanese temporal metaphors
Kohei Suzuki
Kansai University of Nursing and Health Sciences

It is common to assume that there are three Spatio-Temporal metaphors: Moving-Experiencer, Moving-Time and Time-RP metaphor (Sequence is Relative Position on a Path). Among them, Moving-Experiencer and Moving-Time metaphor are suggested as “figure-ground reversals” of one another; times are objects that move past in Moving-Time metaphor, whereas times are location that an observer moves over in Moving-Experiencer metaphor (Lakoff & Johnson 1999). This study proposes that they are not mere “figure-ground reversals” of one another; their distributions are skewed in Japanese.

This study conducted a corpus-based research on temporal metaphors. The table shows that Moving-Experiencer and Moving-Time metaphor have skewed distributions in most motion verbs. We found few examples of Moving-Exp metaphor except for sugiru ‘pass’ and susumu ‘move forward’. Further, the type frequency of Moving-Experiencer metaphor is the “subclass” of the type frequency of Moving-Time metaphor.

(1) {yotei jikan/nagai jikan}-ga sugita
‘The predetermined time was over’ / ‘Long time has passed’
(2) {yotei jikan/ ??nagai jikan}-wo sugita
‘(We) passed the predetermined time’ / ‘We went through a long time (intended)’

Table. Token frequency of motion verbs in each temporal metaphor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Moving-Time</th>
<th>Moving-Exp</th>
<th>sum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sugiru (pass)</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>412</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kuru (come)</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>198</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nagaru (flow)</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chikaduku (come close)</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>susumu (move forward)</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yattes-kuru (come)</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In (1) and (2), yotei jikan ‘predetermined time’ shows a point on the time line. Videlicet, yotei jikan ‘predetermined time’ is a <Momentary Event>. On the other hand, nagai-jikan ‘long time’ means <Duration> of time. As these examples show, Moving-Time sugiru ‘pass’ has both <Momentary Event> and <Duration> sense, while Moving-Experiencer sugiru ‘pass’ does not have a <Duration> sense.

Further, we will discuss that several verbs have peculiar constrains only on the Moving-Time metaphorical usage.

References
Aspectual choice in modal contexts: a perspective from translation studies

Nina Szymor
The University of Sheffield

Since the 1990s, various corpus-based studies have looked at the relations between translated and non-translated texts, showing systematic differences at lexical, syntactic and discursive levels (e.g. Baker 2004; Mauranen 2000). This study looks at aspectual preferences of individual modal verbs and adverbial predicatives in Polish (musieć, należy, powinien, moc, mozna and wolno), comparing their use between a balanced corpus of Polish (NKJP National Corpus of Polish), legal subcorpus of NKJP, and a corpus of translated legal Polish (PELCRA English-Polish Parallel Corpora). Many studies attempted to describe the relationship between modality and aspect, both in general (e.g. Boogaert and Janssen 2007; Abraham and Leiss 2008) as well as Slavic linguistics (e.g. Divjak 2009; Paduceva 2008), but their focus is on the correlations between modality types (e.g. deontic, dynamic and epistemic) and aspect, rather than individual modals and aspect.

Analysis of the three corpora has shown that there are significant differences in the choice of aspectual forms following the modals expressing necessity and obligation. In the balanced representative corpus of Polish (NKJP), musieć, należy, and powinien each behave differently in terms of aspectual preferences. Musieć does not have preference for any aspect, należy shows preference for perfective infinitives, whereas powinien shows preference for imperfectives. In a random sample extracted from the legal subcorpus of NKJP, musieć and powinien show no aspectual preferences, and należy prefers perfective. Interestingly, a random sample taken from a corpus of translated legal texts shows a consistent preference for perfective infinitives following all three modals. Parallel analysis of the translations and their source texts has shown that translators choose (more often than authors of non-translated texts) perfective infinitives following musieć in sentences, where imperfective is also possible and correct. Experimental validation of the corpus analysis takes the form of acceptability rating task and a translation task, completed by two groups of respondents: trainee translators and professional translators.

The observed differences in aspectual choice between translated and non-translated Polish texts are explained with reference to the characteristics of human cognition. The study contributes to uncovering ‘the conceptual operations which guide the use of translation strategies in the process of recreating meaning’ (Rojo and Ibarretxe-Antunano 2013: 10) – a Cognitive Linguistic trend in Corpus-Based Translation Studies.

References
National Corpus of Polish (http://nkjp.pl/)
PELCRA English-Polish Parallel Corpora (http://pelcra.pl/res/parallel/pelcra-par-1/)
An impressive amount of research has been conducted on the relations between verbs and constructions, as well as relations between multiple constructions. Despite the wide variety of approaches adopted, however, most studies have not taken speech act distinctions into account. In this paper, we discuss how verbs interact with directive constructions in English. The aims of this study are: (i) to identify a set of frequent verbs and preferred argument realization/structure patterns characteristic of directive constructions; and (ii) clarify the commonalities and differences between imperatives and representative indirect directive constructions (with can you, could you, will you, would you, I want you to, and why don’t you). The discussions are based on data comprised of 1774 tokens of imperatives (Takahashi 2012), as well as 901 tokens of 15 indirect directive constructions taken from 27 fictional stories combined with spoken data from COCA.

The main findings and claims include the following. First, while some verbs (e.g. tell, come, get, be, take and give, among others) are frequent in both imperatives and indirect directives, others (e.g. let, look, forget and listen) are frequent only in imperatives. Second, as for the most frequent verb tell, there are significant differences in preferred syntactic patterns between imperatives vs. can you interrogative requests. According to Mukherjee’s (2005: chap. 3) comprehensive quantitative survey of English ditransitive verbs, the most frequent syntactic pattern (30.4%) of tell in its all tokens is with “[Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: that-clause],” followed by “[Indirect Object: NP],” “[Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: wh-clause]” and “[Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: NP],” in this order. It was found that while this tendency applies to some extent to the imperative use of tell, the can you request tells a very different story, as shown in Table 1 below.

### Table 1. Preferred argument structure patterns of tell with the directive can you tell sequence (first 100 tokens from COCA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pattern Description</th>
<th>Tokens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A “tell [Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: that-clause]”: 0 tokens</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B “tell [Indirect Object: NP]: 3 (e.g. Can you tell me?, 2005 FIC)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C “tell [Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: wh-clause]”: 44 (e.g. Can you tell me what it is?, 2012 FIC)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D “tell [Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: NP]”: 32 (e.g. Can you tell us more?, 2010 MAG)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E “tell [Indirect Object: NP][Direct Object: to-infinitive]”: 0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F “tell me/us about [NP]”: 10 (e.g. Can you tell me about this?, 2005 SPOK)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quite unlike imperatives, in which argument structure patterns are more evenly distributed, the can you tell directive sequence is strongly biased towards two argument patterns (C and D in Table 1), which account for well over 75% of the data. Not a single token of the verb’s most frequent pattern in imperatives as well as elsewhere (A in Table 1) was found, implying that preferred argument patterns might significantly differ among different subtypes of directive constructions.

Third, clear-cut interjectional (e.g. come on, look and listen) and formulaic discourse-organizational/interactive uses of imperatives (e.g. let me put it this way, tell me, etc.) are hardly found with any other directive construction. Fourth, the verb plus first-person pronoun sequence is pervasive not only in imperatives (Takahashi 2012) but also in all the directive constructions under analysis, though some verbs are highly selective of their “companion constructions”. The actual realization of this argument construction can be predicted in terms of the conception of explicit speaker desirability/benefit of the entire proposition and the verb’s relatively low degree of polysemy. Finally, the acceptability of benefactive ditransitives” in imperatives (e.g. Cry me a river – cf. Green 1974, Goldberg 1995) can be explained in terms of English speakers’ familiarity with this verb plus first-person sequence, combined with the rhetorical, expressive power of hearer-directedness of the imperative (Fortuin and Boogaart 2009: 653-654).

In conclusion, choosing a specific directive construction in actual conversation is not simply a matter of “directness” or “politeness”. The discussions made here imply that speech act differences have a non-trivial impact on frequent verbs, argument patterns and propositional contents.

**References**

Green, G. 1974 Semantics and syntactic regularity. Indiana University Press
Mukherjee, J. 2005 English ditransitive verbs: Aspects of theory, description and a usage-based model. Rodopi
Pérez Hérnandez, L. 2013. Illocutionary constructions: (Multiple source)-in-target metonymies, illocutionary ICMs, and specification links. Language & Communication 33, 128-149
The Acquisition of the Deictic Verbs *iku* ‘to Go’ and *kuru* ‘to Come’ in L1 Japanese

Miho Takanashi
Tama Art University

The purpose of this study is to investigate how Japanese children acquire the deictic verbs *iku* ‘to go’ and *kuru* ‘to come’ in the early stage of development. Children begin to use these verbs from an early stage. However, some studies have shown that even children of 6-7 years old yet have not completely learned the uses of deictic verbs (Clark 1974 on English, Masataka 1999 on Japanese), and the details of category expansion is unknown. Another important issue is why it takes such a long time to fully acquire these verbs.

In this study, I investigate these issues employing the usage-based model (Tomasello 2003). The data for the study were drawn from National Institute for Japanese Language and Linguistics (1983) and consisted of 1 set of mother-child conversations collected 2 hours in one month from 12 to 48 months.

The results are shown in figure1. Three meaning types of *iku* and three meaning types of *kuru* appeared. A1 of *iku*: A(=Sp) x → y appeared at the age of 1;7, and B1 of *kuru*: A(#Sp) x → y Sp appeared at the age of 2;0, which means he began producing *iku* with the meaning of one’s own movements, and *kuru* with the meaning of movements to oneself. Figure 2 shows the interchangeability of these verbs in certain situations, where a distance from X and Y is an important factor in order to determine which verb is selected. For example, in the situation (iv), if one is physically or mentally closer to X, he will use *iku*, and vice versa. B4 did not appear in his production. Meaning type B4 is normally produced when the mental distances are given priority. Mental distances are deeply related to human relation. However, children around 7 years old are still in a simple human relation, so the necessity of using B4 for this child is quite low. That is why he has not used B4 yet at 48 months.

From the results above, it can be inferred that the reasons to take a long time to obtain adult like understanding can be stated as follows:

1. *iku* and *kuru* are not always complementary.
2. Either *iku* or *kuru* is selected according to some factors especially physical or mental distances.
3. Children at this age have not been involved in complicated human relations yet, so they get a small amount of input of complicated meanings. Moreover, they do not need to use *iku* and *kuru* with complicated meanings.

Category expansion of *iku*

A1. A(=Sp) x → y (first production: 1;7) form: *iku* meaning: (I) want to go to bed.
A2. A(#Sp) x → y (first production: 2;2) form: *itayo* meaning: The baby has gone to that room.
A3. A(#Sp) x → y (first production: 2;2) form: *kitano* meaning: I came here to support.

Category expansion of *kuru*

B1. A(#Sp) x → y (first production: 2;0) form: *kita* meaning: A grocer has come.
B2. A(#Sp) x → y (first production: 2;0) form: *kita* meaning: An airplane has come toward the grocer.
B3. A(#Sp) x → y (first production: 2;0) form: *kitano* meaning: I came here to support.

Figure1. Category expansion of *iku* and *kuru*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation Type</th>
<th><em>iku</em></th>
<th><em>kuru</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A1</td>
<td>A(=Sp) x → y</td>
<td>A(#Sp) x → y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1</td>
<td>A(#Sp) x → y</td>
<td>A(=Sp) x → y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2</td>
<td>A(#Sp) x → y</td>
<td>A(=Sp) x → y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B3</td>
<td>A(#Sp) x → y</td>
<td>A(=Sp) x → y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure2. Interchangeability of *iku* and *kuru*

References
The cognitive linguistic approach to the semantics of English verb-particle constructions within the Theory of Lexical Concepts and Cognitive Models

Yukiyo Takimoto
Bangor University

This paper deals with the meaning-construction processes of English verb-particle constructions (VPCs) within the Theory of Lexical Concepts and Cognitive Models (LCCM Theory) developed by Evans (2009).

Generally, English verb-particle constructions are considered to be the combinations of verbs and spatial particles to behave like one verb. To illustrate, consider the following examples:

(1)  
   a. The rocket shot up  
   b. The girl shot up last year  
   c. The price of milk shot up last month  
   d. The police shot up the building  

All the examples from (1a) to (1d) include the same VPC shot up. However, each use appears to relate to a distinct sense associated with the VPC. That is, the use of shot up is associated with the depiction of the scene where the rocket moved upward rapidly in (1a), the scene where the girl grew taller rapidly in (1b), the scene where the price of milk rose suddenly in (1c), and the scene where the police caused great damage to the building by shooting in (1d). Then, how is the difference in meaning produced? What kinds of mechanisms are working in the mind to differentiate among these meanings?

Building upon the previous studies (Lindner 1981; Morgan 1997), this paper attempts to characterize how the distinct senses associated with the same VPC are processed in the mind within one of the latest linguistic theories, LCCM Theory.

LCCM Theory is designed for characterizing the protean nature of word meaning and assumes on the basis of work on cognitive psychology (e.g., Barsalou 1999) the bifurcation between the linguistic and conceptual system. The theory holds that utterance-level meanings (conceptions) are produced as a consequence of the information in the linguistic system (lexical concepts) providing access to the corresponding one in the conceptual system (cognitive models).

Based on the assumption of LCCM Theory, this paper predicts that the interpretation of the overall VPC is produced by activating the nodes (lexical concepts) of three kinds of semantic networks that populate in the linguistic system; the semantic networks of verbs, spatial particles, and the overall VPCs, and in turn by each node (in some cases, several ones) of these semantic networks affording access to the corresponding information in the conceptual system (cognitive models).

The reconsideration of the meaning-construction processes of VPCs along with their semantics within LCCM Theory might lead not only to the better characterization of VPCs but also to providing evidence for the more psychologically realistic explanation for the protean nature of word meaning.

References
The pragmatic functions of wh-interrogative words in Cebuano
Michael Tanangkingsing
National Taipei University of Technology

Abstract: The wh-words in Cebuano normally occur in clause-initial position in equational constructions. In this study, I will investigate in greater depth the pragmatic functions of these interrogative wh-words by unsa, which is equivalent to ‘what’. The interrogative word unsa has evolved many pragmatic uses, which will be shown to have been formed by discourse. In addition to asking ‘what’, it can also serve as a placeholder or a replacement word when a speaker is still searching for the right word to say, as in (1), equivalent to the Cebuano expression ku’an and similar ‘whatchamacallit’ placeholder words in other languages (e.g., Indonesian anu, see Yap and MV Sri Hartini 2011; Cantonese matje, see Yap, Chor and Lam 2012; and Mandarin shenme, see Lee, Su and Tao 2014). It can also be used as an expression of complaint indicating the feeling of being treated unfairly, as in (2). It has also grammaticized into a discourse marker, as in (3), as well as a stance marker in the expression unsa=ka (diha’), literally, ‘what (are) you (there),’ conveying disbelief or surprise at an unexpected statement or action of another person, as in (4). The data for this study come from a corpus consisting of Cebuano conversations approximately five hours in length, and tokens of unsa expressions will be culled and analyzed for their pragmatic functions as well as other innovative uses in interaction.

References

Examples
(1) unsa as a placeholder
J: na’a=ka=y mga ku’an mga unsa ni mga manghod
L: o= daghan=kayo=mi, pito=mi ka bu’uk
DM: many=very=1EPL.NOM seven=1EPL.NOM LK piece
J: ‘You have er…, younger siblings?’
L: ‘Yes, (there are) very many of us. Seven in all.’

(2) unsa as an expression of complaint
unsa=man=na= kayo=sila oy!
what=PAR=that=very=3PL.NOM VOC
‘They’re so . . . [word search].’ (lit., ‘They’re so like what!’)

(3) unsa as a discourse marker
kataw-an-an=ka’ay=ni=ng ako=ng amigo
laugh-LV-NMZ=n very=1SG.PSS-LK 1SG.PSS-LK friend
unsa, na-lingaw=ka dong/
DM: AV-amused=2SG.NOM VOC
‘My friend here is so funny. So, Dong, were you amused?’

(4) unsa as a marker for disbelief/surprise
T: 'What are you thinking!'  
M: 'That's what's tasty.'
The role of language, culture and age in the conceptualization, perception and understanding of heatwaves

Chris Tang and Gabriella Rundblad

King’s College London

In the US, heatwaves have been responsible for higher levels of mortality than earthquakes, tornados and floods combined, while the 2003 heatwave alone was responsible for over 30,000 excess deaths across Europe. The most common victims are typically marginalized groups: the elderly, the sick and the socially isolated (Hajat et al. 2007), but the adoption of a few simple measures can substantially reduce the risk of morbidity and mortality. Many countries, like the UK, have ethnically diverse populations, particularly in urban areas, where heatwaves hit the hardest. From what little is known about how minority groups respond to public health advice, language barriers present a particular challenge (Zanchetta and Poureslami 2006), though culturally determined differences in conceptualization may represent a greater, less obvious obstacle (Greenhalgh 1998; Sharifian 2011).

Through their greater contact with the dominant culture through education systems, younger members of ethnic minority communities have the potential to act as “ambassadors” of risk and health advice in communication systems. This project assessed the agency potential of young people during heatwaves by investigating the perceptions and health beliefs and underlying conceptualizations evident in participant groups of different ages and cultural backgrounds. Focus groups, cognitive tasks and a health literacy assessment were carried out with White British and Bangladeshi populations of an inner city London borough. Results indicate that older Bangladeshis draw upon a very different conceptualization system to interpret key warning information compared to young male Bangladeshis, with young female Bangladeshis potentially drawing upon overlapping conceptual systems. I will discuss the implications for the role of culture, language and age in accessing, interpreting, appraising and acting on warning and health information, and for the intersubjective emergence of conceptualization at a cultural level.

References
Extensions in Event Construal and Grammatical Constructions:  
A Conceptual Basis of Semantic and Syntactic Anomaly in English and Japanese Constructions

Kazumi Taniguchi  
Kyoto University

This paper demonstrates extended, higher-order construal of causative/transitive events as reflected in semantic and syntactic idiosyncrasies of grammatical constructions in English and Japanese.

In Cognitive Grammar, event construal has successfully been captured by cognitive models, especially the action-chain model which idealizes events as interactions among participants (Langacker 1990). In addition to a prototypical transitive event depicted in Figure 1, this paper claims that there is another dimension of construing events: EVENT CAUSES EVENT, based on recognition of the cause-effect relationship between two events (Figure 2). Such an EVENT-CAUSES-EVENT type of construal is compatible with traditional notions in predicate logic, as well as Gentner’s (1983) theory of analogy that comprises three levels of organizations: objects, first-order relations whose arguments are objects, and higher-order relations whose arguments are events.

Examples of linguistic encoding of such extended, higher-order transitive events can be observed in English and Japanese: resultative constructions with fake objects as in (1), and adversative (indirect) passives as in (2) which do not have active-voice counterparts, respectively:

1. John ate himself sick.  
2. Watashi-wa sensei-ni tonari-ni suwar-are-ta. (lit: 'I was sat next to me by the professor')

In (1), it is possible to interpret that the event “John ate (too much)” causes the other subsequent event “John became sick,” imposing the standard alignment of trajector/landmark on the EVENT-CAUSES-EVENT construal. In (2), the underlying construal is that the event “the professor sat next to me” causes the other implied event, “I got troubled.” In Japanese, the encoding of EVENT-CAUSES-EVENT construal is limited to a passive clause due to its general tendency of construing events through inchoative templates (cf. Ikegami 1981), and thereby the head participant of the caused event receives maximal salience. Unlike English resultatives, the caused event in Japanese adversative passive does not manifest itself in overt expressions, possibly for a pragmatic reason of politeness, yielding strong implication of adversity on the part of the passive-subject referent.

It is striking that these seemingly non-related constructions exhibit similar anomaly both in semantic and syntactic aspects: increase in valency, implication of negative consequences (cf. Carrie & Randall 1992), and "unergativity" constraint on the intransitive verbs available in the constructions. In general, unaccusative verbs cannot be used either in fake-object resultatives (*The lake froze itself solid) or in the adversative passive (*Watashi-wa ike-ni koor-are-ta 'I was frozen by the lake'). This constraint can be accounted for if the causing event inherits from the prototypical transitive event the dynamicity and energeticity of the causer/agent participant. Such commonalities in the two languages of different linguistic families are not coincidental, but derived from the conceptual basis of extended, higher-order event construal.

Selected references
From perception to language:  
The importance of speed in motion descriptions  
Piia Taremaa  
University of Tartu

Introduction. Over the past decades, motion events, and lexicalisation patterns in particular, have received enormous attention in cognitive linguistics. However, the structure of motion expressions from the perspective of motion perception is not often discussed. As one of the inherent properties of motion is the speed of motion, the speed of the described motion can presumably affect semantic patterns of motion descriptions. In fact, considering speed, there is not only evidence that processing fast motion is faster than that of slow motion (e.g., Kreegipuu and Allik 2006), but also that attention tends to focus on the Goal of motion when processing fast motion expressions and on the Location or Trajectory when processing slow motion expressions (Lindsay et al. 2013, Speed and Vigliocco 2013).

Aim and hypothesis. The aim of the current study is to evaluate the role of speed in motion descriptions. The hypothesis is that fast motion verbs co-occur preferably with expressions of the Direction/Goal and with manner expressions of fast motion (e.g., sõöstis kiiresti tuppa ‘(s)he dashed quickly into the room’), whereas motion verbs depicting slower motion co-occur with the Location/Trajectory and with manner expressions of slow motion (e.g., uitas aeglaselt tännavatel ‘(s)he meandered slowly on the streets’).

Method and material. A corpus study was conducted covering 42 Estonian motion verbs. With each of the verb, 100 actual motion sentences were extracted from the Balanced Corpus of Estonian. The sentences were examined by applying multifactorial feature analysis. Each sentence was tagged for the following variables: the motion verb itself, the type of the verb (goal, source, or manner of motion verb), the speed of motion expressed by the verb (fast or slow motion), spatial categories (Source and FromDirection as the initial portion of the path, Location and Trajectory as the medial portion of the path, Direction and Goal as the final portion of the path), and manner expressions of speed (fast or slow motion).

Results. As expected, fast motion verbs tend to combine with expressions of the final portion of the path (e.g., sõöstis tuppa ‘(s)he dashed into the room’), whereas slow motion verbs tend to combine with expressions of the medial portion of the path (e.g., uitas tännavatel ‘(s)he meandered on the streets’). Not surprisingly, there is also an association between the speed of the verb and manner adverbials: Fast motion verbs tend to co-occur with manner expressions describing fast motion (e.g., sõöstis kiiresti ‘(s)he dashed quickly’) and slow motion verbs with manner expressions describing slow motion (e.g., uitas aeglaselt ‘(s)he meandered slowly’).

Conclusion and discussion. The results indicate a semantic agreement in expressing speed and spatial information. These findings support the idea of enhanced structure of motion descriptions (e.g., Kopecka 2010). In addition to spatial information, this enhanced structure is manifested by multiple expression of manner information likewise.

References
Lindsay, Shane, Christoph Scheepers & Yuki Kamide. 2013. To Dash or to Dawdle: Verb-Associated Speed of Motion Influences Eye Movements during Spoken Sentence Comprehension. PLOS ONE 8(6), 1-11.
Discourse-centered metaphor studies demonstrate that metaphorical units carry at least two distinct sets of properties: one related to their conceptual or linguistic form (e.g. word class, source/target domain, novel/conventional), and one related to their specific functions in their context of use. While many studies articulate the links between the two, in effect showing how metaphors operate in ‘real world’ activities (Low, Todd, Deignan, & Cameron, 2010), the noticeable preference for deep qualitative analysis at the expense of generalizability might undermine the outreach potential of metaphor research, especially in places where a certain premium is traditionally placed on the latter. This paper accordingly proposes analyzing the link between metaphoric form and function in discourse as statistical associations and/or interactions between categorical variables. I show how chi-squared and log-linear analysis (Gilbert, 1993) can detect the presence and strength of associations between metaphoric form and function, and how such associations may be meaningfully interpreted in the discourse context in question, leading to quantitatively based implications which complement qualitative ones. Examples will be taken from psychotherapy talk, where formal properties of metaphors tend to interest discourse analysts, and functional properties tend to interest psychotherapists, with few attempts to draw these strands together. I present findings from one study involving bivariate chi-squared analysis, where metaphors from ten sessions of meta-cognitive therapy were doubly coded for formal (e.g. word class, novel/conventional) and functional variables (e.g. type of therapeutic function performed, therapist/patient-uttered), which were then permutatively correlated. Certain correlations (e.g. therapist/patient-uttered and therapeutic function; Cramer’s V=0.3265) were found to be stronger than others (e.g. word class and therapeutic function; Cramer’s V=0.1266), which may help clarify which linguistic and/or interactional aspects of metaphor are more therapeutically sensitive for subsequent applicative research. As for log-linear analysis, which involves more complex associations and interactions between more than two variables, I present ongoing work with psychotherapeutic metaphors in the Chinese context, sharing initial findings and ways to interpret variable relationships, as well as taking a reflexive stance to discuss issues and challenges with this approach.

References
This paper attempts to analyze the composite structures minɛ yanwan and saja yanwan. Both are literally rendered by ‘the damage of land’. In this paper I show that while minɛ and saja refer to one and the same spatial entity, their semantic and conceptual structures show striking discrepancies. Using the theoretical framework of Cognitive Grammar, the paper seeks to demonstrate that the differences are better captured by a careful analysis of the grammatical constructions of their component structures. Langacker (2000:5) uses the notion “strength of activation” and argues that as part of their “conventional value”, linguistic expressions do not simply select domains, but “rank” them as well, such that different expressions may invoke the same domains but show striking conceptual and semantic contrasts “by virtue of their ranking”. The findings of the research support Cognitive Grammar’s assumption that “different languages often code the same conceptual structure by means of substantially different images” (Langacker 2002:109).

The two examples below show the conceptual difference between minɛ and saja when followed by the component structure yanwan.

(1) gaari minɛ yāwã gɔ ārã gabu dɛi
last.year land damage the rain excess for
‘last year’s land damage was due to excess of rain.’

(2) ōsaāi gɔ be muño-la le saja yanwan dogoo-le
grave the-PL repair if land damage finish-NEG
‘if the graves are not repaired, land damage will not end’

The composite structures minɛ yanwan (1) and saja yanwan (2) present combinations with apparently similar component structures. Although saja and minɛ refer to the same spatial entity the “compositional path” (Langacker 2008:61) of their respective component structures obeys different conventionalized conceptual rules. The conceptual difference further resides in what Evans and Green (2006) call ‘the “binary relations” that exist between their component structures. Whereas in (1) the embedded trajector (the perpetrator of yanwan ‘damage’) can be any agentive entity, no direct action from an agentive entity is involved in (2). This can be shown grammatically: when we change the nominal yanwan into a verb, we will have yanwan-gaa-ti with minɛ but yanw-aain with saja. In yanwan-gaa-ti the morpheme -gaa is a causative and -ti is a resultative, whereas with yanwaain we only have the resultative –aain, thus suggesting that with the spatial entity saja the trajector/perpetrator of damage cannot be a lexically overt agent.

References
Construction Grammar theorists posit the existence of a constructional network with inheritance links of shared semantics and form. For the of-binominal noun phrase, the supposition has been that individual of-binominal constructs initially form inheritance links to the different of-binominal meso-constructions (e.g. sort-of, partitive) and then later are subsumed under the more schematic macro-constructions such as the Degree Modifier (e.g. Trousdale 2012: 179-185). These inheritance links, however, often fail to account for the idiosyncratic premodification patterns seen in many of the of-binominal constructions, e.g. a hell of a large bill and a hell of a bill but not *a large hell of a bill. Examining this premodification behavior, this study asks whether there might be inheritance links to more fundamental forms, such as the adjective phrase, that would account for this anomaly. To answer this question, this paper analyzes the development of and change in the premodification patterns of constructions that stem from the evaluative binominal noun phrase construction (EBNP), e.g. that angel of a girl, and constructionalizations from this form that have accrued modifier functions, e.g. that beast of a machine > that beast of a night.

This project has taken as a basic premise the existence of four premodifier zones as proposed by Feist’s (2012) categorization of premodifier functions and constraints: Classifiers, Descriptors, Epithets, Reinforcers. The proposed hypothesis is that in the grammaticalization process of the EBNP, one very distinct feature is the shifting of the head from N1 to N2, e.g. a hell of devils > a hell of a town (Trousdale 2012: 182). This shifting of the head triggers a decategorization of the N1 so that it no longer functions as a noun but as a modifier. This results in functional-syntactic ambiguity because the initial noun still has nominal form, yet develops different functional semantics as, for example, an evaluative or degree modifier. Speaker uncertainty over the syntactic role of the initial noun leads to an analogous link to adjectival premodifiers and thereby integrates ‘N1 of a’ into the regular premodification patterns. Therefore, it is expected that with the ambiguous form-function and low frequency of the EBNP (cf. Keizer 2007), the premodification usage will be irregular. However, when the N1’s function shifts to more prototypical modifier types as, for example, those of an evaluative modifier, it then occupies the premodification zone belonging to the evaluative modifier (i.e. the Epithet zone) thus blocking the Classifier and Descriptor zones in front of the N1.

The first part of this study, the qualitative analysis, entails the extraction of all EBNP and related constructions exhibiting premodification from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA). These tokens are divided into micro-construction groupings and tagged according to the premodifier zones filled (as delineated by Feist). For the second, qualitative analysis, a binary regression model is used to measure the strength of the two premodifier positions (before N1 or N2) in the of-binominal noun phrase to either attract or repel one or more of the four premodifier types.

References
Grammaticalization of the Verbs for ‘Take’ in Chinese and Thai: A Constrastive Study

Kingkarn Thepkanjana  Satoshi Uehara
Chulalongkorn University  Tohoku University

According to Lord (1993), verbs with certain meanings in serial verb languages at a stage in their diachronic development tend to lose some verbal properties through grammaticalization. For example, a verb meaning ‘take’, occurring as the first verb in a serial verb construction, henceforth, SVC, may grammaticalize into an object marker. This paper aims to contrastively examine the grammaticalization of the verbs for ‘take’ in Chinese and Thai, i.e. bable and ʔaw, respectively, and to account for their different grammaticalization patterns.

Li and Thompson (1974) claim that bable in Archaic Chinese was a lexical verb meaning ‘to take hold of’. It occurred as a single verb in a sentence or as an initial verb in an SVC. The initial verb bable in an SVC has been grammaticalized into a preposition marking an object as shown in (1).

(1) Zhāngsān  bā Lisi  pīping  le
Zhangsan  bā Lisi criticize  aspect marker
‘Zhangsan criticized Lisi.’ (Li and Thompson 1974: 203)

Li and Thompson (1974) claim that the grammaticalized bable functions as the “disposal form” indicating what happens to the direct object (DO). The bable construction leads Li and Thompson to propose a change in word order from [S+V+PP] in Archaic Chinese to [S+PP+V] in Modern Chinese.

On the other hand, the Thai counterpart, ʔaw, which can also occur as the initial verb in an SVC retains the verbal properties and, unlike bable, has not grammaticalized into an object marker as in (2).

(2) dam ʔaw  phâaphankhoo  khlum  hûa
Dam ʔaw take scarf cover head
‘Dam took a scarf to cover her head.’

It is noted that the SVCs with the lexical verbs bable and ʔaw occurring as the initial verbs express the event in which the agent takes a hold of something and does something with it. Thai’s retention of the verbal properties of ʔaw, which originally occurred as a non-initial verb in an SVC is grammaticalized into an object marker in (3).

(3) khâw  daw ʔaw  wâa  thea  pen  khonráay  nay  hêtkaan  nîi
he  take  COMP she be  criminal in  event  this
‘He guessed (as opposed to other cognitive actions such as thinking and believing) that she was a criminal in this event.’

It is argued that the different constituent orders in Chinese and Thai bear on the different grammaticalization patterns of bable and ʔaw. Chinese has the modifier-head order whereas Thai has the head-modifier one. The emerging bable construction gives rise to the structure [S+PP+V] with V as the head. This change complies with the modifier-head order in Chinese. On the other hand, this grammaticalization of the initial verb ʔaw would violate the head-modifier order constraint in Thai. In contrast, the grammaticalization of the Thai final verb ʔaw in an SVC into a pragmatic marker complies with it. This type of grammaticalized pragmatic marker of bable is lacking in Chinese. To conclude, the Chinese bable is more grammaticalized than the Thai initial verb ʔaw. On the other hand, the Thai non-initial serial verb ʔaw has been grammaticalized into a pragmatic marker. This change does not take place in Chinese. It is to be cautioned that we should not fall into what Langacker (1987) calls “exclusionary fallacy”. That is, we should not assume that the different grammaticalization patterns of bable and ʔaw are exclusively accounted for by the constituent order constraints in Chinese and Thai.
Can the language you speak influence your propensity to save money, follow a healthy diet or engage in sport activities? According to the economist Chen (2013), the answer to the above stated questions is yes. He argues that languages which grammatically mark the difference between present and future, so-called strong future-time reference (FTR) languages, bias their speakers to perceive the future as more distant and more certain when compared to speakers of weak FTR languages. Both perceptual effects would increase the discount rate for future events and foster future-oriented behavior such as saving. Chen (2013) found support for his linguistic-saving hypothesis from regression analyses on variables queried from large-scale demographic databases. We retested the hypothesis within a quasi-experimental design. We report on two experiments investigating the effect of cross-linguistic differences in the grammaticalization of tense on intertemporal choice. In Experiment 1, speakers of English (strong FTR) and German (weak FTR) read two hypothetical choice scenarios from the domains of finance and career in their respective native language. For each scenario, they chose between a smaller-sooner and a larger-later reward option. Experiment 2 extended the design by adding Chinese speakers (weak FTR) as a third group of participants, and by expanding the number of scenarios to 17, encompassing domains relating to professional life (e.g. additional job training) as well as to private context (e.g. following a healthy diet). Exp. 1 specifically controlled for financial and career backgrounds. Exp. 2 more generally controlled for differences in the participants’ value systems with the Schwartz (2006) Human Value Scale. We found that English native speakers had a significantly greater bias towards the larger-later (future) choice options than the German and Chinese speakers who appeared to be more present-oriented. Regression analyses indicate that the grammaticalization effect persists when demographic and value differences are added to the model. While our findings seem to be in conflict with the direction of Chen’s predictions, they can be interpreted in line with salience/framing effects and the thinking for speaking hypothesis (Slobin, 1987).

References
Semantic Opposition in Constructional Synonymy
-An Empirical analysis of Chinese “zhe”/“le” existential constructions

Zhen Tian
Hunan University

Based on corpus data, this paper explores semantic opposition in a pair of synonymous Chinese constructions which are claimed to be interchangeable in previous literature (Fan fanglian1963, Nie wenlong 1989, Ren Ying 2000, Wang baohua 2005, Song yuzhu 2007). It is generally held that the aspect markers “zhe”(durative) and “le”(perfective) have lost their usual distinction in these constructions.

a. Zhi shang xie-zhe zi.
   Paper-top write-DUR word(s)
   “There are words written on the paper.”

b. Zhi shang xie-le zi.
   Paper-top write-PER word(s)
   “There are words written on the paper.”

However, previous studies neglected factors such as verb distribution. A distinctive collexeme analysis (Gries & Stefanowitsch 2004, Gries 2007) reveals a strong tendency for the “zhe” existential construction to attract temporally unbounded verbs while the “le” existential construction attracts bounded ones. This distinction is also reflected in the word form, in that most of the verbs occurring with the former are one-syllabic verbs, while the overwhelming majority of the verbs appearing in the latter are resultative compound verbs with two syllables. Initial observation also suggested subtle differences in other aspects which were not properly addressed in the past. Therefore a multi-factor analysis was carried out of other factors, such as semantic features of the second NP, constraints on time adverbials and contextual factors. The results suggest that the “zhe” existential construction tends to describe static existence while the “le” existential construction tends to describe dynamic events.

Chinese existential constructions form a complex system. The above semantic opposition can be explained if the pair of constructions is placed in this network, since the “zhe” existential construction shares the same structure (“NP + V + zhe + NP”) with constructions of dynamic existence while the “le” existential construction shares the same structure (“NP + V + le + NP”) with constructions of appearance and disappearance.

c. Shui li you-zhe yitiao yu.
   Water-in swim-DUR one-CL fish
   “A fish is swimming in the water.”

d. Cun li lai-le yige ren.
   Village-in come-PER one-CL person
   “A person arrived in the village.”

A collexeme analysis (Stefanowitsch & Gries 2004, Gries 2007) shows that verbs denoting appearance and disappearance are strongly associated with the “le” construction, while verbs denoting static existence are strongly attracted to the “zhe” construction. Therefore, the aspect markers “zhe” and “le” have a substantial effect on the selection of verbs and on the central meaning of the construction. In summary, semantic opposition can be found in the apparently synonymous “zhe” and “le” existential constructions.

References:
According to typical cognitive views on language learning, linguistic knowledge is “derived from and informed by language use” (Evans & Green 2006:111) and, thus, language acquisition is considered a usage based process. Language itself is taken to consist of a set of form-function pairings, i.e. constructions (Goldberg 2006), which are, during the course of first language (L1) acquisition, assumed to be acquired “on the basis of input and general cognitive mechanisms” (Goldberg 2006:12). The most central mechanism in a language learning context has been proposed to be pattern finding analysis (Tomasello 2003). According to Wray (2008) adult L2-learners tend to analyse input more and as a result store smaller units, which then, to a larger extent, require the learner to make use of grammatical rules to combine them. This is in line with the research results that have shown L2-users’ difficulties when it comes to “restricting their output to idiomatic patterns” (Wray 2008:20).

In this paper we propose that L2-instruction should benefit from encouraging pattern-finding, in the sense of identifying (more or less general, complex and schematic) constructions that learners can build analogies from (cf. Tomasello 2003, Goldberg 2006), as opposed to the more atomistic approach of traditional grammar instruction. In order to mimic the naturalistic pattern-finding processes of language acquisition we are developing construction based exercises for the L2 classroom (cf. Holme 2010, Wee 2007), using the Swedish Constructionon (SweCcN) as a descriptive resource (e.g., Lyngfelt et al. 2012, Sköldberg et al. 2013). SweCcN is a database of Swedish construction descriptions, based on corpus data; hence the exercises present the learner with relevant constructions from authentic input.

In this talk, we discuss the usefulness of construction resources to second language education (cf. Loenheim et al. to appear) and present some practical examples of usage-based exercises for the L2-classroom based on SweCcN. The general idea of the approach is to make stronger use of an assumed cognitive mechanism that can function as a complement to both chunking and rule-based acquisition in second language learning (cf. Holme 2010, Bybee 2010) and to thereby emphasize the view of language as a set of form-function pairings.

References
The purpose of the communication is to report on a study of evaluation in discourse, where subject to evaluation are aspects of the speakers’ own verbal performance, a topic that has not received a great deal of scholarly attention. Of interest are utterances like the ones below (conversational data):

… and she would have careful fear (.) I love that expression, careful fear

The other thing that’s changed is, for want of a better word, and I hate using it, is the music

.. better listening experience, and it’s not all physics, some of it is psychoacoustics – it’s not a nice way to say it, but it is psychologically how you respond to a space

In terms of Bednarek (2009) the evaluative responses which constitute data for the present study represent both overt and covert affect (cf. also Alba-Juez and Thompson 2014).

An initial investigation has shown that in Polish media conversation – a 2 000 hour sample drawn from an opportunistic corpus of some 13 000 hours of educated two- and multi-party talk - such evaluation relies on a set of more or less conventionalized comments (formulae) which involve verbs of speaking and a range of adverbs expressing esthetic evaluation. The evaluations appear to be predominantly negative – up to ca. 90 per cent of all comments – and in an appreciable proportion of cases evaluation of a word or phrase is indistinguishable from evaluation of the referent. This applies to both negative and positive evaluations.

A notable and somewhat intriguing finding is that a considerable number of ostensibly positive evaluations – ca. 20 per cent of all comments - actually invite negative interpretation; thus, one task is to determine the set of factors responsible for such interpretation, one obvious candidate being irony. To this end the study of conversational data will be supplemented by extensive exploration of the Polish National Corpus (nkjp.pl; over 1.5 bn running words in the full corpus and ca. 250 m running words in the balanced part).

The work on metadiscursive evaluative comments involving – as it should – both the comments and above all the stimulus items, is part of a project in diachronic semantics where the focus is on how novel lexical usage becomes entrenched (or is discarded). Thus, it can be argued that the behaviour of interest – as manifestations of glossing practices – plays an important role in conventionalization processes first of all with respect to lexical items (cf. Duncker 2012).

References


The aim of cognitive linguistic studies is to pin down the regularities of the general conceptual structure as reflected in language. One of the central questions in this line of research is a very basic one – how to do it. In this paper we discuss some of the ways how linguists are able to extract meaning from the language user’s mind by focusing on the image-schematic directions of abstract verbs. We do not yet have a full understanding of the exact nature of the data obtained using different methods and it is not clear what is the best way to study objects that are not readily accessible to the linguist. The aim of this study is to bring us a step closer to this understanding.

Much of previous work on the image-schematic representation of abstract verbs has focused on English (e.g. Spivey et al. 2005, Meteyard & Vigliocco 2009); our work is based on Estonian. We report the findings of three linguistic experiments – a forced choice rating task, an acceptability judgement task, and a free form drawing task. In Experiment 1, participants were presented with 70 verbs (47 with abstract and 23 with concrete meaning) with no added context, followed by arrows representing four directions (up, down, left, and right). Participants (72 native speakers of Estonian) were instructed to choose which of the directions describes the verb best and to rank their choices in order of preference. For Experiment 2, a list of 40 verbs with abstract meaning was compiled based on the results of Experiment 1. The selected verbs fall into five groups: verbs with a potential upward, downward, left, right, and neutral direction. Each verb was combined with one of four directions on either the horizontal (left and right) or vertical axis (up and down). Participants (165 native speakers of Estonian) were instructed to indicate on a Likert-type rating scale from 1 to 5 how well or badly the abstract verb matches the direction. In Experiment 3, subjects were asked to create and explain their own representation of abstract verbs. In a pilot study, six native speakers of Estonian provided schematic representations of 10 abstract verbs. The subjects were asked whether they think abstract verbs have a direction and instructed to draw it. The results of the experiments were analysed using mixed-effects logistic regression.

The results of all three experiments confirm the general prediction that abstract verbs have an image-schematic direction, but the specifics of the direction vary according to the type of experiment, type of verb and the viewpoint selected. While some verbs have a clear direction (e.g. mäletama ‘to remember’) which is consistent across all three experiments, other verbs were represented by a wavy line (e.g. elama ‘to live’), circular motion (e.g. möölemma ‘to think’) or punctually by a dot or a square (e.g. määrama ‘to determine’) in Experiment 3. In general, orientational metaphors were systematically used: verbs with a positive meaning (armuma ‘fall in love’, julgema ‘dare’, meeldima ‘like’) correlate with the right and upward direction (GOOD/HAPPY IS UP); verbs with a negative meaning (kannatama ‘suffer’, jätma ‘leave’, vihkama ‘hate’) with downward and left direction (BAD/SAD IS DOWN). An important finding of our third study pertains to viewpoint – the schematic representation of abstract verbs depends on the viewpoint selected by the subjects. This result may explain some of the divergence in the results of previous studies.

Our paper contributes to an understanding of the embodied meaning of abstract verbs. By comparing the results of three different experiments, our study promotes methodological pluralism and discusses the seminal question of cognitive linguistics – how to extract meaning from mind.

References
What counts as extraposition in English has long been a matter of debate in syntactic research and reference grammars, so there is only partial agreement on the following three examples:

(1) *It is perfectly clear that Charles and Diana are less and less comfortable in each other's company.* (CEN 3385)
(2) *It appears that Charles and Diana are less and less comfortable in each other's company.*
(3) *It appears as if Charles and Diana are less and less comfortable in each other's company.*

Example (1) is uncontroversial in this respect and is a typical case of extraposition. For (2), however, CamG (Huddleston/Pullum 2002) rejects this analysis due to the fact that there is no non-extraposed counterpart while CGEL (Quirk et al. 1985) or the VDE (Herbst et al. 2004) treat it as obligatory extraposition. In the case of (3), CGEL also rejects an extraposition analysis due to the fact that *as if*-clauses never occur in canonical subject position whereas VDE opts in favour of obligatory extraposition again.

The present paper starts with the observation that a usage-based network model of exemplars can be used to accurately represent the data and that – as stated by Bybee, who follows Langacker (1987) in this respect – “schemas are formed at various levels of abstraction” (Bybee 2007: 325). It will then go on to show that not only are there different levels of abstraction, but at a similar level of abstraction there are competing abstractions which all emerge from the same network. Thus the analyses offered by CamG, by CGEL and by the VDE do not in fact contradict each other, they merely highlight different perspectives on the patterning of the data represented in the network as illustrated in figure 1, which will be discussed in detail in the paper.

References


---

<sup>2</sup> Larger font size indicates higher frequency, but the font size is not directly proportional to the frequency. For readability, only third person present tense verb forms are given, but the constructions were searched with a lemma in the corpus.
Conceptualising the Arab Revolutions: A Corpus-Based Approach to Conceptual Metaphors and Event-Construal in Political Discourse

Stefanie Ullmann
University of Marburg

For some time now, cognitive linguists such as Lakoff and Johnson (2003 [1980]), Fauconnier and Turner (2002) or Langacker (2000; 2013) have proclaimed that there is a strong relation between not only grammar and meaning, but grammar and cognition. Claims such as that our thoughts are metaphorical in nature or that grammar determines conceptual structure carry important implications not just for the study of language in general, but for any critical approach to socio-politically relevant discourse in particular. Under the assumption that linguistic structures influence the way we perceive the content that is represented, the deconstruction and investigation of powerful discourse – such as that of politics – tend to become all the more pertinent. Especially in combination with methods of Critical Discourse Analysis, the application of these seminal cognitive-linguistic theories to real language data promises to yield valuable insights into how, for example, socio-politically relevant events such as uprisings and revolutions tend to be conceptualised and, beyond that, what effects these conceptualisations have on the resulting discourse in society. This is precisely what the present study attempts to achieve. It deals specifically with the question of how the Arab revolutions have been construed linguistically in official speeches given by international politicians from the US, the UK as well as the Middle East and North Africa between 2011 and 2013. A corpus comprising five hundred thousand words of political discourse on the events of the Arab Spring serves as a basis for the analysis. Special focus is laid on answering questions such as:

- in what way have the events been metaphorised, i.e. which source domains or input spaces occur most frequently and what effects arise from the profiling of specific characteristics emerging from the blended space?
- how are the events portrayed in terms of viewing arrangement or focusing and are any actors profiled more prominently than others and if so, which linguistic structures may reveal this?

To illustrate one of these issues in more detail, quite different metaphors – from JOURNEYS or CHAPTERS IN A BOOK to CONTAGIOUS DISEASES and NATURAL DISASTERS – can be found representing the diverse regional and political viewpoints represented in the corpus. Moreover, metaphorisation as well as other linguistic structures may in fact be indicative of political relations between countries as well as underlying intentions of speakers, which can, in return, quite powerfully influence the perceptions of events in the general public. Therefore, it is the primary aim of this study to not only apply cognitive-linguistic theory in order to identify key cognitive phenomena in discourse but to also set those into perspective and study possible effects and potential ideological characteristics of these constructions. The corpus-based approach shall furthermore guarantee a more automated and thus unbiased approach to Cognitive Critical Discourse Analysis.

References
Usage-based analysis of the development of the Japanese negation construction

Mariko Uno
Georgetown University

This study investigates the development of functions associated with a Japanese negation construction V-nai by children acquiring Japanese as a first language from a usage-based perspective (Ibbotson, 2013). Previous studies by Hatano (1988) and Ito (1988) have shown that the early Japanese negation construction expresses non-existence of objects or events and that its early functions are likely associated with universal biological factors, namely, with those notions that are cognitively salient to children. However, none of the previous studies has yet to look at the effect of input on early functions associated with the Japanese negation construction, nor has there been any consideration of how development of V-nai may reflect the child-directed input. The present study fills these gaps and investigates the role of input in the early functions of the Japanese negation construction.

The study analyzed 6,780 utterances extracted from longitudinal data of speech of four children (Aki, Tai, Ryo, and Sumi) and their mothers, available in the CHILDES database (Oshima-Takane & MacWhinney, 1998). Their age ranged from one to three years old. The dependent variables were child and parental utterances including the negation construction V-nai. The independent variable was the semantic function of the V-nai construction, with seven possible usages adapted from Cameron-Faulkner et al. (2007): (1) non-existence; (2) rejection; (3) denial; (4) failure; (5) inability; (6) prohibition; and (7) epistemic negation. The intra-rater reliability was Kappa = 879, p = .000. Chi-square tests were run to compare the functional category which showed the highest usage rate of the construction to the category which showed the second highest usage rate of the construction. This tested whether the construction was used to express a particular function more often than to express the rest of the functions.

Results showed that all four children used the construction predominantly to express absence of objects or events until they reached the age of 2 (Aki x^2 (1, N = 210) = 75.6, p = .000; Ryo x^2 (1, N = 194) = 186, p = .000; Sumi, x^2 (1, N = 116) = 79.4, p = .000; Tai, x^2 (1, N = 236) = 80.6, p = .000). From then, they started to use the construction to express failure of events as well (e.g., haira-nai, ‘It won’t fit’). With regard to parental input, Ryo, Sumi, and Tai’s mother’s use of the negation construction mirrored their children’s use, and the negation construction was used more often to express absence of objects or events than to express other functions until their children’s second birthdays (Ryo_Input x^2 (1, N = 161) = 51.4, p = .000; Sumi_Input, x^2 (1, N = 21) = 13.7, p = .000; Tai_Input, x^2 (1, N = 206) = 17.4, p = .000). From then, the parents used the V-nai construction to refer to failure of events as often as to express absence of objects or events. However, the pattern of findings was different for the fourth child-parent data set. Aki’s mother used the negation construction to express failure of events as often as to express absence of objects or events from the beginning until Aki reached two years and five months (Aki_Input x^2 (1, N = 253) = .9, p = .753). The tendency was not reflected in Aki’s use of the construction. In Aki’s speech the construction was used to express absence of objects or events predominantly frequently until he reached two years and five months, while the use of construction to express failure of events was virtually absent (17%) until he reached that age.

Thus, one child started out differently from the mother, and used a Japanese negation construction to express a function that was different from the one frequent in the input, whereas the other three children’s usage mirrored their mother’s input. These findings suggest that not only the frequency of input but also other factors such as perceptual or cognitive salience explain the development of functions associated with early constructions. The significance of the findings for usage-based theories of child language development will be discussed.

References
Analysis of neologism to explore where the sound symbolism can be lost

Ryoko UNO*, Nobuhiro KAJI** and Masaru KITSUREGAWA**

* Division of Language and Culture Studies, Tokyo University of Agriculture and Technology
** Institute of Industrial Science, The University of Tokyo

Over the years neologisms have been studied from various points of view, such as morphological, sociolinguistic or cognitive linguistic (e.g. Tsujimura & Davis 2011) perspectives and so on. There was a difficulty in getting a comprehensive list of new words though traditional linguistic approaches. To overcome this problem we use large-scale diachronic Web data and language processing technique to collect neologisms (Kaji, Uno and Kitsuregawa 2009). We are especially interested in analyzing how new verbs are created to reveal what are the essential characteristics of verbs. In this paper, using a data from a Web corpus, we analyze a Japanese newly created verb *mofu*, which is coined based on a mimetic word (i.e. sound symbolic expression; cf. Akita 2012) *mofumofu*. This phenomenon *mofumofu* is also newly created and it roughly means ‘soft’. The verb *mofu* can be seen as a contracted form of *mofumofu-suru* ('do *mofumofu*'), where *suru* is a light verb. We focus on a semantic difference between *mofuru* and *mofumofu-suru* to see how and whether the sound symbolic nature is maintained in *mofuru*.

The “frequency/text” of *mofu* is 0.000125 at the beginning of 2006 and increased to 0.00025 at the beginning of 2009. Both *mofumofu-suru* and *mofuru* can be used as transitive and intransitive verbs.

We analyzed the meaning of *mofumofu*. It can express three different meanings: (1) fluffiness of soft fur, especially cats and dogs; (2) softness of food such as scorn or bread; and (3) slow movement as if something were moving through something soft such as snow.

We also checked the syntactically relevant co-occurrences of verbs and nouns with *mofumofu*. The most frequently co-occurring noun was *ke* (‘fur’) which represents the meaning in (1), while the most frequently co-occurring verb was *taberu* (‘eat’) which represents the meaning in (2). This result supports our analysis that the usage of *mofumofu* is not limited to tactile sensation. Interestingly, while *mofumofu-suru* can express all three meanings (1)-(3), *mofuru* can only express the meaning in (1) as shown in the following examples:

(1) *hituzi no ke ga* (mofumofu-si-teiru / mofut-teiru).
   *sheep GEN hair NOM (mofumofu-suru-PROG / mofuru-PROG)*
   "The sheep’s fur is fluffy."

(2) *kono yakimo wa* (mofumofu-si-teiru / *mofut-teiru)*.
   *this baked sweet potato NOM (mofumofu-suru-PROG / *mofuru-PROG)*
   "This baked sweet potato is soft."

(3) *kingyo ga suiso de* (mofumofu-si-teiru / *mofut-teiru)*.
   *goldfish NOM water tank LOC (mofumofu-suru-PROG / *mofuru-PROG)*
   "The goldfish in the water tank is moving slowly."

As in the case of other mimetic expressions, three meanings of *mofumofu* pointed out above are all instances of an image which is iconically connected with the sound of the mimetic base *mofu*. an image of coming into contact with something soft. On the other hand, the form *mofuru* is arbitrary linked to a specific meaning ‘to touch soft fur’.

In brief, our analysis shows that while the two verbs *mofumofu-suru* and *mofuru* share the base *mofu*, which is originally mimetic, it is at least less sound symbolic in *mofuru*. That is, in this case, becoming a verb means to lose sound symbolic feature to some extent. We are now trying to explore broader diachronic Web data of newly created verbs based on mimetics to see whether this tendency holds in other cases.

References


The notion of subjectivity in the use of the Spanish pseudo-copular verb of change 

hacerse.

Lise Van Gorp
KU Leuven

Hacerse (literally ‘to make-REFL’) is one of the dozen Spanish verbs which can be used in a pseudo-copular construction expressing a change of state. The use of this verb is not restricted to the expression of changes related to the external, objective world (1), it is also able to express a so called ‘subjective’ change-of-state. By our definition, a change is called subjective when reference to the conceptualizer is to be taken into account in order to understand the attributive relationship between the subject and the predicate complement.

In (1), the change-of-state event ‘really’ affects the entity denoted by the subject (Cienfuegos), i.e., the role of the conceptualizer is limited to registering the change from the outside (role of eye-witness). The change-of-state event described in (2) and (3), on the contrary, does not affect the referent of the subject entity itself (la gaviota ‘the seagull’, la postura ‘the position’) but occurs in the experience of the conceptualizer, i.e., the change affects the relationship between the subject entity and the conceptualizer. In (2), la gaviota ‘the seagull’ becomes more accessible to the conceptualizer without undergoing itself any change. Likewise, in (3), the conceptualizer appears to be the very ‘locus’ of the change-event instead of being the eye-witness of an ‘objective’ change (cf. (1)).

(1) [...], puesto que Cienfuegos se había hecho hombre sin más compañía que las cabras de sus riscos de La Gomera.

‘[...] Given that Cienfuegos became a man with no other company but the goats of his cliffs of La Gomera.’

(2) Vio la gaviota que [...] venía a su encuentro, haciéndose cada vez más grande.

‘He saw the seagull which [...] came to him, becoming each time bigger and bigger.’

(3) [...] me forzaba a una postura que a la larga se hacía molesta.

‘[...] it forced me to a position that eventually became annoying.’

The aim of this contribution is to show that there is a continuum between the more objective (or less subjective) and more subjective expressions. Furthermore, we argue that the degree of subjectivity with which the predicative relationship is profiled depends on the left and right collocates of the pseudo-copular verb. The fact that hacerse has the ability to accommodate to a variety of perspectives does not mean, however, that it absorbs the meaning of its predicate complement, nor that it assimilates an evidential meaning, contrary to what Lauwers & Duée (2011: 1057) assume. Evidential and other modal meanings are conveyed by the predicate complement and yield a highly subjective construal. The empirical verification is based on a corpus of contemporary Spanish prose, drawn from the online Corpus de Referencia del Español Actual (CREA).

References
Real Academia Española. Corpus de Referencia del Español Actual (CREA). Online: http://www.rae.es
Mental Space Theory, combined with Domain Theory, accounts for perspective and subjectivity in terms of the restricted validity of particular stretches of discourse, either spoken or thought, to subjects represented in the discourse (Fauconnier, 1985; Sanders, Sanders, & Sweetser, 2012). In this paper, we describe how subjective viewpoints in the genre of news narratives serve a dramatizing function by embedding the viewpoints of people involved in the news events (Van Krieken, Sanders, & Hoeken, in press). In these cases, reported discourse provides access to a Narrative-Internal Discourse Space reconstructing what was said or thought during the newsworthy events.

Evolving from this dramatizing function, we argue that subjective viewpoints have also developed a legitimizing function, where they are used to “ground” the exchange of information between journalist and news source. In such cases, reported discourse provides access to a Narrative-External Discourse Space representing what was said after the newsworthy events took place, thus accounting for the trustworthiness of the journalistic reconstruction.

The present study examines the historical development of the form and function of reported discourse in news narratives. We developed a cognitive linguistic model for the analysis of viewpoint embedding in news narratives and applied our model to a corpus of 300 Dutch journalistic crime narratives which have been published between 1860 and 2010. The narratives were sentence for sentence analyzed on the type of viewpoint (embedding) and, in the case of reported discourse, on the type of Discourse Space it provided access to.

Results indicated that in news narratives from all periods, reported discourse in the direct mode as well as more implicit strategies (e.g., verbs of perception and modality) were journalists’ main instruments to reconstruct news sources’ viewpoints. In the period 1860-1909, the direct mode (23.5%) and indirect mode (22.8%) were almost equally often used to report news sources’ discourse. In the period 1960-2009, however, use of the direct mode had increased significantly to 42.3% while use of the indirect mode had decreased significantly to 12.6%.

Between 1860 and 1870, only 10% of the narratives provided access to a Narrative-External Discourse Space. This percentage had increased significantly up to 95% in the period between 2000 and 2009.

Reported discourse was between 1860 and 1959 significantly more often used to access Narrative-Internal Discourse Spaces than Narrative-External Discourse Spaces. The opposite pattern was found for the period between 1960 and 2009, where reported discourse was significantly more often used to access Narrative-External Discourse Spaces than Narrative-Internal Discourse Spaces.

Thus, while strategies to reconstruct viewpoints have been employed since the mid-nineteenth century, strategies to legitimize these reconstructions have only recently been embraced as a standard practice. Importantly, our study has revealed a striking shift in the function of reported discourse in news narratives: until halfway of the twentieth century, it was mainly used as a strategy to dramatize news narratives by reconstructing the viewpoints of people involved, but then it became first and foremost a strategy to legitimize the narratives by grounding the information exchange between journalist and news source in a Narrative-External Discourse Space.

References
How prototypical the semantic transitivity of ‘love’ in Biblical Hebrew is:
A cultural-linguistic approach

Ruti Vardi
Radboud University, Nijmegen

Constructions of emotion are generally considered as semantically atypical transitive, due to their deviation from principles such as volition, sentience, and agency in the subject argument, transfer of force/energy from an agent to a patient, and effect in the object argument. Emotions such as love are seen as reaction to stimuli in the subject, and not as volitional or intended action. Instead of agent and patient, experiencer and theme/stimulus (respectively) are conventionally used to encode the main semantic roles of arguments in love- and other emotive-, mental-, or psych-constructions (see Langacker, 2002; Naess, 2007). Some love-constructions in Biblical Hebrew (BH), however, may be closer to prototypical semantic transitivity than their congeners are. Love expressed by the stem ‘hv in BH is often prescriptive, implying a sentient, volitional choice in the subject, regardless of an indicative role of a stimulus, as in (1) and (2).

(1) ve’ahavta le-re’axa kamoxa
love.2SGM.PFC to-friend.GEN.2SGM as.yourself
‘You shall love your friend as your own self.’ (Lev 19:18)

(2) ‘ani ‘ohavai ‘ohav
I love.3PL.GEN.1SGM love.1SG.IPF
‘I love those who love me.’ (Prov 8:17)

In my talk, I will present preliminary results from a quantitative-based qualitative analysis of the distribution of ‘love’ in BH, based on Stefanowitsch & Gries (2003). I will show how the biblical context (i.e. the love-event), the cultural domain in which love occurs (e.g. DIVINITY, KINSHIP, MORAL), and the social-cultural identity of participants (e.g. parent, spouse, god, or king) are involved in the degree or typicality of semantic transitivity. The distribution of ‘love’ over the biblical texts, it will be argued, implies the existence of a tight relationship between this emotion and social-cultural hierarchies and structures. This clear social-cultural nature of ‘love’ in BH may increase the degree of semantic transitivity of love-constructions in specific contexts. The results suggest that culture may influence the degree of semantic transitivity in emotive-constructions.

References
Did actually *Pat throw Chris the ball* at Westmynster? A Diachronic Construction Grammar Account

Juan Gabriel Vázquez-González

University of Huelva

This paper aims to analyze the changes in diachronic argument structure leading to the rise of spontaneous causation of ballistic motion as one of the central subconstructional types for the ditransitive construction in Late Modern English. Our concern here is with investigating if such a constructional pattern existed on its own terms in Old English or if it formed part of another major semantic verb class and, if so, in what terms. As is well-known in the literature (Goldberg 1995: 37-39), verbs of ballistic motion correspond with Goldberg’s central sense as these, together with inherent giving and continuous causation, involve actual transfer. As indicated by Barðdal (2007: 26) in her analysis of the Dative-Accusative construction in the (North) Germanic domain, Visser (1963: 629) gives no example of verbs of ballistic motion in Old English. Similarly, Barðdal does not include ballistic motion in her reconstruction of the semantic and lexical range of the ditransitive construction in (Proto-) Germanic as she only finds current but sporadic evidence for it in Överkalix, an archaic dialect in Sweden. By making use of the *Dictionary of Old English Corpus* (Healey 2000) and *A Thesaurus of Old English* (Roberts 2000), I will prove 1) that ballistic motion as such did not exist in Old English and West Germanic, 2) that the corresponding constructional space was ascribed to verbs of continuous causation in a deictically specified motion, and 3) that ballistic motion was morphosyntactically constrained by means of verbal prefixation and a small handful of dative alternation constructions (De Cuypere forthcoming).

References


De Cuypere, Ludovic. Forthcoming. The Old English to-dative construction. *English Language and Linguistics*.


The development of complex demonstratives with *her/der* in Norwegian

Urd Vindenes

Department of Linguistics and Scandinavian Studies, University of Oslo

The Norwegian adverbs *her* ‘here’ and *der* ‘there’ typically function as locational adverbials: *boka ligger der* ‘the book lies there’. However, they may also be used adnominally together with a demonstrative determiner (henceforth *complex demonstratives*, cf. Myklebust 2012):

1. den bok-a der
   that book-DEF there
   ‘that book’

2. den der(re) bok-a
   that there book-DEF
   ‘that book’

The development from locational adverb to demonstrative intensifier is an attested grammaticalization path in many languages (cf. Heine and Kuteva 2002: 172). If the intensifier (i.e. *her* or *der*) is used postnominally (1), the deictic function is exophoric, and if it is used prenominally (2), the function is recognitional. The prenominal intensifiers, as opposed to the postnominal, may take an e-suffix: *den derre boka* (and not *den boka derre*). These extended variants are often analysed as inflected forms (see, among others, Faarlund et al. 1997: 211 and Myklebust 2012) because they resemble weak adjective inflection (3):

3. den gul-e bok-a
   that yellow-DEF book-DEF
   ‘the yellow book’

Two central dictionaries of Old Norse, Fritzner (1886) and Heggstad et al. (1990), state that all of the extended variants of *her/der*, such as *derre, derre and derrane*, are derivatives of the Old Norse adverbs *héra* and *pama*. As far as I am aware, there are no previous analyses of the development of complex demonstratives that take both of these insights into account.

In my talk, I will use data from the Nordic Dialect Corpus (Johannessen et al. 2009) and the Medieval Nordic Text Archive (menota.org) to discuss the status of *her/der*-intensifiers in complex demonstratives. The research questions that will be addressed include: 1. Are the extended variants of adnominal *her/der* instances of inflection? and 2. How can we account for all the different variants of adnominal and pronominal *her/der*?

I will discuss whether the extended variants have developed from the Old Norse adverbs *héra* and *pama*, and whether the geographically widespread variants *herre* and *derre* may have been reanalysed as inflected forms on the model of weak adjective inflection.

References


Differences in the Semantic Range of the English, Dutch, and German Perfects and C-Gravitation

Naoaki Wada
University of Tsukuba

Analyses of tense and aspect markers in terms of grammaticalization are now popular. Included in them are those of the perfect form based on a path of semantic development presented by Bybee, et al. (1994): the grammaticalization stage of the perfect form diachronically changes from ‘resultative’ to ‘anterior’ to ‘perfective’ to ‘simple past’. If we assume, based on this diachronic path heading for the past, that the English perfect stays at the ‘anterior’ stage (expressing ‘current relevance’ or the perfect aspect), the Dutch perfect is at the ‘perfective’ stage (allowing perfective past), and the German perfect reaches the ‘simple past’ stage (allowing both perfective and imperfective past) (Boogaart 1999), then we can explain why unlike the Dutch and German perfects, the English perfect cannot co-occur with specific past-time adverbials (*He has arrived yesterday vs. Hij is gisteren aangekomen/Er ist gestern angekommen), and why unlike the German perfect, the English and Dutch perfects cannot express imperfective past (*When John entered, Mary has written a letter/*Toen Jan binnenkwam, heeft Maria een brief geschreven (unacceptable in the intended reading) vs. Als Johann hereinkam, hat Marie einen Brief geschrieben).

However, the diachronic path-based analysis cannot explain why the English perfect co-occurred with specific past-time adverbials from Middle English to the early 19th century (Elsness 1997); because the path is unidirectional, the English perfect cannot go back to the ‘anterior’ stage after once having reached the ‘perfective’ stage. This analysis cannot explain, either, why the continuative use develops more in the English perfect than in the Dutch and German perfects; besides, the past-directed path cannot say why this more present-oriented use occurred later than the experiential use, a more past-oriented use (Carey 1996). In addition, the analysis cannot motivate why the three perfects differ with respect to the stages on which they are now.

To solve these problems, I develop the notion ‘C-gravitation’, i.e. ‘gravitation toward the speaker’s consciousness’, used in my previous work. In cognitive linguistics approaches, the speaker as subject of linguistic and cognitive activities is assumed to be involved in linguistic phenomena. Along this line, I assume that with respect to temporal phenomena, S-present (the present time-area around the moment of speech at which the speaker’s consciousness exists) plays a crucial role in languages that give ‘weight’ to the ‘speaker’s involvement’ in the grammar system; in such languages S-present forms a ‘magnetic field’ toward which the semantic range of tense forms including S-present in their temporal structure is ‘gravitated’. C-gravitation is independently needed because it does not stem from other notions triggering semantic change, e.g. ‘subjectification’. I propose that in the present-day Germanic languages, the degree of C-gravitation is strongest in English, weakest in German, and in-between in Dutch. This proposal motivates why the three perfects are now on their own stages, why the continuative use, whose semantic range reaches from the past to S-present, develops more in the English perfect, and why the English perfect is pulled back to the ‘anterior’ (current relevance) stage.

References
Recent careful study has considerably advanced our understanding of the relationship between space and time. However, I shall argue, using corpus evidence, that insufficient attention has been paid to the nature of the entity usually glossed as ‘time’. Thus, Evans (2013) distinguishes a wide range of lexical concepts used to describe time but does not systematically vary the types of entity that engage with the various concepts. Núñez & Sweetser (2006) argue that the Aymara may conceptualise the future as behind ‘ego’ because of the importance they place on evidence for knowledge; behind ego, objects being unseen cannot be fully known: as with the future. However, they do not attempt to tease out the respective contributions of time and knowledge to the positioning of reified temporal objects around ‘ego’. I shall propose, with supporting corpus evidence, that time, and the temporal frames of reference (tFoR), which purport to anchor time, are not directly related via metaphor to experience of movement and location. Temporal information may clearly be inferred from the use of spatio-kinetic metaphors but I will argue that what the metaphoric use of various locations and movements directly reflects is not time but ego’s ability to interact with, and via the KNOWING IS PHYSICALLY-INTERACTING WITH conceptual metaphor, have cognisance of, a variety of different types of reified experiences such as reified ideas and events. The apparent temporal metaphors are epistemic, not temporal.

Consider the contrast in (1) and (2), discussed in Wallington (2010), in which the subject appears in what has been called a deictic, relative or ego-reference-point temporal Frame of Reference (tFoR).

1. Christmas is approaching.
2. ??11.46 is approaching.
3. ??11.46 is round the corner.
4. ??11.46 is behind us.

In sentence 2, the approaching reified object, which I shall call here a purely temporal entity, seems to be unacceptable. And it is not just in this frame that such entities cannot be found, as 3 and 4 show. However, Wallington notes that if ‘11.46’ metonymically points to an event of some significance to ego, such as the departure of ego’s train, then the status of the sentences flips to the acceptable. In other words, it is events of significance to ego that appear in such frames and not purely temporal objects. Now note that unlike the case with (1) and (2), both ‘Christmas’ and ‘11.46’ happily appear in sequences, or what has been called a time-reference-point or absolute temporal Frame of Reference.

5. Christmas comes before Hogmanay
6. 11.46 comes before 11.50

However, non-temporal entities such as colours, numbers or anything in a sequence can also appear with such movement metaphors. In short, the metaphor is one for sequences and not directly for time. Turning to reified events, one can distinguish events of significance mainly to ego and those that are shared calendrical events. The difference shows up in the use of spatio-kinetic metaphor. Ahrens and Huang (2002) note that ‘moving ego’ (deictic) metaphors for time, such as (7), need ego to be plural. However it is easy to find examples such as (9) of interest only to ego, where this is not so.

7. We are approaching Christmas.
8. ??I am approaching Christmas.
9. I am approaching my 65th birthday.

Wallington argued that future events are rarely found in positions that are directly in ego’s line of sight compared to events that are, for example ‘round the corner. However this also is too simple; true only of calendrical events. General events, such as ‘good times’, are perfectly felicitous in such frames.

References
Ahrens, K & Chu-Ren Huang. (2002). Time Passing is Motion. Language & Linguistics, 3(3), 491-519
What Metaphors and Gestures Reveal about the Development of ESL students’ Concepts for Writing

Wan Wan  
National Huaqiao University  
Yao Tong  
U University Amsterdam

It has become reasonably common in language education research to uncover the connections between language and thought, and by extension to understand how target languages are taught and learned in interactive settings, through studying metaphor and/or gesture used by teachers and learners (e.g., Author, 2014; Littlemore, 2009). The majority of these studies employ versions of conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980) and the use of gesture as an important external manifestation of embodied cognition in interaction (Gibbs, 2006). The fundamental claim is that identifying and analysing informants’ gestures and metaphorical expressions can function as a useful means to facilitate access to their internalised meanings and even to their conceptual system for the target languages, and ultimately to provide some insight into individuals’ perspectives on their overall language teaching and/or learning. To date, most research in this area has examined metaphor and gesture separately. However, few studies (examples being Corts & Pollio, 1999; McCafferty, 2008) focus on the joint use of metaphor and gesture in educational discourse, adopting a view of language as “a dynamic product of modality-specific forms of thought”, where speech and gesture are integrated at the level of the system and of use (Müller, 2007, p.110). The research findings on how gesture relates to speech support Lakoff and Johnson’s (1980) claim that metaphor is a cognitive representation that reflects how people think (Chuang, 2012; Cienki & Müller; 2008). Nevertheless, in general, it remains the case that there appears to be little research that has discussed in any real detail or depth how metaphors and gestures work together to investigate language learners’ subjective knowledge and concepts for acquiring specific language skills in the real classroom discourse, let alone in the context of writing classes.

The paper is an interim report of an on-going project in the context of a credit-bearing ESL writing module at a university in southern China for an academic year. The study replicates the previous research conducted by Zhao (2007), which is designed to bridge the gap in the literature about combining the use of verbal and gestural metaphors together to examine how Chinese university students acquire concepts of academic writing in English when they are exposed to metaphorical expressions and gestures in writing classes, where English is the main language employed. By analysing the metaphorical expressions and gestures used by both tutors and students in writing classes including in-class activities such as students’ presentations and group discussions as well as student-teacher conferences, the study seeks to answer the following questions: (i) What metaphors and gestures were used by instructors to explain ESL writing-related concepts and conventions and what functions did they appear to serve? (ii) What metaphors and gestures were used by students in a set of writing class activities? and (iii) What effects might the metaphors and gestures students were exposed have had on their conceptual development as regards ESL writing? This study is primarily based on three sources of qualitative data: students’ reflective writing blogs, in-depth interviews, and classroom observations. With respect to the identification and coding policy, the Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) developed by the Pragglejaz Group (Pragglejaz Group, 2007) will be adopted; the gesture coding involves the coding of its form and function using the software ELAN. Forms will be coded in terms of gesture unit, gesture phase (i.e., preparation, stroke, and retraction) (Kendon 2004). Functions will be coded in terms of (i) discourse gestures, performative gestures, referential gestures (Müller, 1998); and with respect to (ii) four “modes of representation”: the hands imitate, the hands mould, the hands draw, and the hands portray (Müller, 1998, pp. 322-323). It is hoped that the study will provide evidence for the assistive role of verbal and gestural metaphors in the learning of ESL writing, and serve to shed light on the pedagogical value of metaphor and gesture in teaching second language writing.

Key References
Multimodal Events in Natural Chinese Conversations: the Co-speech Gestural Representation of Aspects

Ronghua Wang¹² & Guiyin Jiang¹

1. Xiamen University; 2. Vrije Universiteit Amsterdam

Many previous studies on co-speech gestures in human interaction have focused on the semantic relationship between speech and gesture (e.g., McNeill 1992; Kendon 2004). Whether and how grammar is implicated in the multimodal construal of the world is still unclear. However, it is worthwhile investigating to provide extra evidence for the classic claims that gestures are components of speech, and gesture and speech are integral parts of a single process (McNeill 1992; Kendon 2004). As a “window” to thought and imagistic representation of action, gesture is a good way to explore how people choose events in terms of speech.

Being one of the universal linguistic devices, the study of aspect has been gaining more and more attention in research on co-speech gesture (e.g., Duncan 2002; Becker et al. 2011; Parrill et al. 2013). These studies broadened our understanding of the role of aspect in event conceptualization. But their studies all used quasi-natural data, elicited by retelling stories, and did not focus on the interaction between grammatical aspect and Aktionsart. Based on a small corpus, the present study intends to explore the characteristics of co-speech gestural representation of multimodal events by focusing on grammatical aspects, Aktionsarten and their interaction in natural face-to-face interactions in Chinese, a language with a range of formal marking of aspects via particles.

The corpus consists of 20 videos from Yanglan One on One, one of the most popular talk shows in China. According to Comrie (1976:3), different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation are not only revealed by grammatical aspect but also by Aktionsart (i.e., lexical aspect). Based on Xiao & McEnery’s (2004) systematic research on aspect in Mandarin Chinese, we will code speech in terms of Aktionsart (i.e., what they call ‘situation aspect’) and grammatical aspect (i.e., what they call ‘viewpoint aspect’). Aktionsart is classified into states, activity, accomplishment, achievement and semelfactive. The grammatical aspect will be coded as perfective or imperfective aspect. The perfective aspect is subdivided into actual -le, experiential -guo, delimitative verb and complete resultantive verb complements; the imperfective aspect into progressive -zai, durative -zhe, inceptive -qilai, continuative and -xiaqu. The gestures accompanying the aspectual expression in speech will be coded in terms of temporal duration, representational forms (physical referential or metaphorical) and gesture configurations (hands, handshape, location, movement, orientation). To examine the complexity of gestures, the semantic features encoded by the representational gestures will be coded in terms of the ‘components of motion’ as MOTION, PATH, MANNER, FIGURE AND GROUND.

We will examine the frequencies of co-speech gestures in different grammatical aspects and Aktionsarten while construing events; and compare the temporal duration of co-speech gestures within and between grammatical aspect and Aktionsart and the semantic features of different Aktionsarten with and without interaction with grammatical aspect. Chi-square will be used to test the statistical differences.

The findings will be expected to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the relationship between speech and gesture in aspectual choice while speakers are conceptualizing event structures via embodied expressions. The features of spontaneous gestures speakers make will provide extra information about how aspect modulates human’s mental simulation of actions.

References
t-to-r in north-west England: Lexical frequency, schema strength and transitional probability

Kevin Watson, Lynn Clark & Sarah van Eyndhoven
University of Canterbury

In parts of the north of England, word-final /t/ can be realised as a rhotic approximant ([j]). This process, commonly referred to as ‘t-to-r’ (Wells 1982: 370), is conditioned by its phonological environment, such that the pronunciation of /t/ as [j] is possible in the first word of a bigram (word 1) when /t/ is preceded by a short vowel and followed by a word (word 2) which begins with a vowel. For example, [j] is possible in the words (in the word 1 slot) in (1) but not in (2) or (3).

(1) ‘bit of’ [bɪt əv]  ‘last apple’ *[læs ə pl]  ‘get near’ *[gɛɹ nɪɹ]
‘it is’ [ɪɹ iɹ]  ‘want it’ *[wɒnt ɪɹ]  ‘bit late’ *[bɪɹ ə ɹ]
‘what about’ [wɒɹ əbaut]  ‘hate it’ *[hɛɹ ɪɹ]  ‘what did’ *[wɒɹ ɪɹ]

However, t-to-r does not apply to all words even in the appropriate phonological environment. For example, t-to-r is never found in the examples in (4).

(4) ‘cat on’ *[kæɹ ən]
‘hot in’ *[hɒɹ ɪɹ]
‘wet it’ *[wɛɹ ɪɹ]

The restricted range of words (in the word 1 slot) which can appear with t-to-r has been said to be a problem for rule-based models of phonology, where phonological rules are thought to apply across the board. Even in models which differentiate ‘early’ processes (which can have lexical exceptions) vs ‘late’ processes (which are exceptionless), t-to-r is problematic because it occurs at word boundaries (a feature thought to be characteristic of ‘late’ processes, see Coetzee & Pater 2011, McMahon 2000). This has encouraged a usage-based explanation of t-to-r, where it is seen to be a result of lexical frequency (Broadbent 2008). However, when tested on a naturally occurring corpus of spoken data, Clark & Watson (2011) show that word-frequency is not a straight-forward predictor of t-to-r, and instead hypothesise that it is a function of the strength of the schema associated with particular words (e.g. Bybee 1995: 430). It is argued, for example, that t-to-r is more likely in ‘bit’ (in the word 1 slot) than it is in ‘it’ because ‘bit’ has a much more limited number of different words which are likely in the word 2 slot, in naturally occurring discourse (i.e. in Clark & Watson’s corpus ‘bit’ is followed in the word 2 slot almost exclusively by ‘of’, but ‘it’ occurs with 27 different following words). However, Clark & Watson’s (2011) corpus was relatively small (with around 700 tokens of t-to-r), so their claims are tentative.

In this paper, we test the hypothesis that t-to-r is related to schema strength, using a corpus sociophonetic methodology with a dataset of approximately 5000 tokens of word-final, prevocalic /t/, from naturally occurring conversation from Merseyside and Lancashire. Unlike Clark & Watson (2011), we use a mixed effects regression model to assess the factors which are the strongest predictors of t-to-r. We find partial support for the claim that a high number of types (rather than tokens) in the word 2 slot is a predictor of t-to-r, but we find that a better predictor of t-to-r is the transitional probability between word 1 and word 2. This measure has also been found predictive of other phonological features (e.g. French liaison, see Côté 2013) but is not yet widely utilised in sociophonetic work. We assess the effect of transitional probability on t-to-r in light of its relationship with schema strength, and, finally, discuss the extent to which similar concepts, important features of Cognitive Linguistics, can be better used in corpus sociophonetic work.

References
Number as boundedness in Kujireray nominal classification
Rachel Watson
SOAS University of London

While the semantic basis of nominal classification systems of the type found in Niger-Congo languages remains the subject of debate, it is accepted that one of the functions of such systems is to encode number. However, the use of one and the same noun class prefix to express various number values is problematic for analyses that attribute specific number values directly part of the semantic specification of the prefix. This paper builds on proposals (Pozdniakov, 2010, Cobbinah, 2013, Cobbinah & Lüpke, 2014) that number is assigned at the level of the noun class paradigm (i.e. monadic, dyadic and triadic groupings of noun class prefixes associated with a given stem or class of stems) where it is the position of the noun class prefix within a paradigm that determines its number value. By providing first-hand data and a constructionalist analysis for the hitherto undescribed language Kujireray (Niger-Congo, Atlantic), I provide an empirically-based contribution to cognitive semantics. I show that while number values are assigned at the level of the paradigm, noun class prefixes themselves are not without semantic value. While a given prefix may associate with different number values according to its various participation in one or another paradigm, this participation is both facilitated and constrained by a schematic semantic value attributed directly to the prefix. In this paper I focus on the values BOUNDED and UNBOUNDED.

I use as illustration the Kujireray noun class prefixes e- and ba-. In the most productive paradigms in which they participate, these are strongly associated with singular (1a-b) and mass (2a-b) number values respectively. However, they may both also be used to form collective plural nouns in certain paradigms (1c-d and 2c-d).

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1a</td>
<td>e-siho</td>
<td>‘cat’</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>e-sux</td>
<td>‘village’</td>
<td>singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2a</td>
<td>ba-pucen</td>
<td>‘citrus juice’</td>
<td>mass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b</td>
<td>ba-uc</td>
<td>‘wind’</td>
<td>mass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>e-lulum</td>
<td>‘European’</td>
<td>collective plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>e-jomb</td>
<td>‘black rice’</td>
<td>collective plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c</td>
<td>ba-kos</td>
<td>‘tick’</td>
<td>collective plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d</td>
<td>ba-nil</td>
<td>‘seeds’</td>
<td>collective plural</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is argued that collective entities denoted by nouns in e- are conceptualized as saliently delineated from the rest of the world (e.g. socially (1c), or as a purpose-grown botanical colony in the rice field (1d)) and thus correlate cognitively with singular, individuated entities. These two representations are united by the schematic value BOUNDED which can be directly associated with the prefix e-. Collective entities of the type denoted by nouns in ba- feature no such individuation in their conceptualization, thus correlating with mass entities. Ba- is therefore attributed the schematic value UNBOUNDED.

Attributing noun class prefixes with such schematic meaning rather than concrete number values can also account for the use of these prefixes in the formation of verbal nouns. For example, e- is associated with object expression and specific reference in verbal nouns – both properties associated with boundedness – whereas ba- is associated with lack of object and generic reference, properties associated with unboundedness. Thus the nominal and verbal domains can be united at a higher level of schematicity (cf. Langacker, 1987, 1990). This analysis is of relevance both for a cross-linguistic grounding of cognitive semantics and for an understanding of lexical organisation along different levels of meaning cross-cutting traditional word classes in Atlantic languages.

References
Does the Brain Grasp Politics, Even When It Doesn’t?: Modulation of Motor and Premotor Areas by Affirmative and Negated Hand-Action Metaphors

Elisabeth Wehling1, Vesna Gamez-Djokic2 & Lisa Aziz-Zadeh2

1 University of California, Berkeley, 2 University of Southern California

Simulation-based models of negation suggest that negation is the product of a comparison between a simulation of the affirmative situation (counterfactual situation) and subsequently simulation of the actual state of affairs (factual situation) (Kaup, 2007). According to psycholinguistic research, this comparison involves both simulation and suppression of the affirmative situation (Kaup, 2001; Hasson & Gluksberg, 2004). More recently, neuroscientific studies suggest that negation entails reduced access to mental representations or inhibition of motor simulation/planning (Tettamanti et al., 2008; Tomasino et al., 2010).

In this study, we investigate whether these postulated general linguistic processing patterns hold for metaphoric language (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980). In fact, while there is growing evidence that the brain processes metaphoric and literal language quite similarly (e.g., Boulenger et al., 2009; Citron & Goldberg, 2014; Lacey et al., 2012), it remains unknown whether observed parallels in the processing of literal and metaphoric language holds for complex linguistic mechanism, such as negation. Here we investigate the processing of literal and metaphoric uses of effector-specific motion verbs (i.e., hand-motion) in negated and affirmative metaphoric and literal sentences (e.g., “She’s (not) squeezing the middle class” vs. “She’s (not) squeezing the lemon”, or “He’s (not) crushing the worker unions” vs. “He’s (not) crushing the garlic”.

We find that the presence or absence of the syntactic negation marker modulates motor areas of the brain during the processing of 3rd person literal and metaphoric hand-action sentences. Specifically, we find decreased activity for negated hand-action metaphors compared to affirmative hand-action metaphors in the primary motor and premotor cortex, as well as in the posterior insula. These results not only add to previous findings showing that processing of familiar metaphors activates sensorimotor representations in the brain, but shows, moreover, that these representations can be modulated by the linguistic context (affirmative vs. negative), suggesting a functional role of embodied representations in metaphor processing. More generally, this study is the first to investigate whether complex linguistic phenomena, such as negation, are processed similarly for literal and metaphoric language, and our confirmatory results lend further evidence to the neural and cognitive validity of conceptual metaphors.

References:
Chinese listeners' perceptions of salient accents of Standard Chinese: an empirical approach

Liqin Xiong
Universidad Complutense de Madrid

While studies on linguistic and social stereotyping (e.g. Kristiansen 2003, 2010) and perceptual dialectology (e.g. Long and Preston 2002; Preston and Niedzielski 2010) have been conducted in many different parts of the world, the situation in China remains understudied. In this talk we present the results of the large-scale experiment to measure lectal identification and to elicit attitudes towards salient accents of Standard Chinese in mainland China. Our hypothesis was that awareness of structured patterns of linguistic variation in the production of spoken Standard Chinese allows for lectal identification and stereotypical attitudinal implication.

In order to elicit the relative perceptual salience of accents of Standard Chinese, a preliminary study was conducted during the second half of 2011 and early 2012. On the basis of this initial survey, involving more than 200 Chinese students, we elicited and defined not only the most five salient varieties (Northeast, Beijing, Shanghai, Guangdong and Sichuan) but also the social dimensions utilized in the final experimental design. It is this data-driven and empirical approach that allows us to outline the main stereotyped perceptions of L1 and L2 accents of Standard Chinese in present-day China. Over 1500 subjects in five regions of China were involved in the identification and attitudinal tasks. The fragments evaluated comprise 10 tokens of 5 L1 accents and 4 tokens of L2 accents.

The study presented here investigates (1) how accurately Chinese listeners identify native speech varieties of Standard Chinese (2) how successful they are when identifying foreign speech varieties of Standard Chinese and (3) Chinese listeners' attitudes towards native and non-native speech varieties of Standard Chinese.

This is the first study to show that in mainland China accents of Standard Chinese are recognized above chance in each of the five regions (Alpha=0.05 P-value of the total scoring of identification<0.001). The results of the experiment collaborate our hypothesis.

References
Structural Salience and Referential Accessibility: A Cognitive Account of Inter-clausal NP Anaphora in Chinese Complex Sentences

Yulong Xu
Shanghai International Studies University

One peculiarity of the Chinese language, as compared with English and many other European languages, is that in the preposed subordinate clause of a Chinese complex sentence, the subject/topic NP can be placed either before or after the subordinator. Another well-known characteristic of Chinese is that it is a pro-drop language and hence the overt pronoun in the subject position of the main clause may be omitted. Thus, corresponding to the structure of the English sentence in (1) below, there are two structural variants in Chinese, as is shown in (2) and (3) (where LE is an aspectual particle indicating currently relevant state).

(1) As John is ill, he/Ø is not able to come.

(2) 因为 张三, 病 了, 所以 他/Ø 不能 来。

Yinwei John, bing le, suoyi ta/Ø bu neng lai

‘Because John is ill, he cannot come.’

(3) 张三, 因 为 病 了, 所以 他/Ø 不能 来。

John, yinwei bing le, suoyi ta/Ø bu neng lai

‘Because John is ill, he cannot come.’

Just as the pronominal subject he in the main clause of (1) can refer either to the subject NP John in the subordinate clause or to someone else mentioned in the discourse, so can the pronominal subject ta ‘he’ and the zero pronoun Ø in both (2) and (3). Therefore, a question arises as to which structure is the preferred one when coreference or disjoint reference between the two NPs in the subject/topic positions of the main and subordinate clauses is intended.

This paper argues that when the subject/topic NP in the subordinate clause is placed before the subordinator (hereafter Pattern B) as in (3), it is the topic of the whole complex sentence. And as such, it is the most structurally salient NP in the whole sentence and hence also cognitively the most highly accessible referent (Ariel 1990, 2013) or conceptual reference point (Langacker 1993, 2009; van Hoek 1997) for the interpretation of the pronominal or zero subject in the main clause. On the other hand, when the subject/topic NP in the subordinate clause is put after the subordinator (hereafter Pattern A) as in (2), it is merely the subject/topic of the subordinate clause, and becomes much less salient structurally and therefore also much less accessible cognitively. Based on this observation, the following hypothesis concerning the preferred referential patterns in Chinese complex sentences can be postulated.

Hypothesis 1: Other things being equal, when coreference between the two NPs in the subject/topic positions of the subordinate and main clauses of a Chinese complex sentence is intended, Pattern B would be the preferred pattern; whereas when disjoint reference is intended, Pattern A would be the preferred pattern.

Moreover, when both of the two patterns are used to express coreference between the two NPs in the subject/topic positions of the subordinate and main clauses of a Chinese complex sentence, as a zero pronoun is a higher accessibility marker than an overt pronoun according to Ariel’s Accessibility Theory, it will be more likely used in Pattern B than in Pattern A. Thus, another hypothesis regarding the preferred referential patterns in Chinese complex sentences can be stated as follows.

Hypothesis 2: Other things being equal, zero anaphora would be the norm of anaphoric reference in Pattern B, and much less so in Pattern A.

Our corpus-based data analysis shows that, in expressing conjoint reference, 86.1% of the sentences are in Pattern B; whereas in expressing disjoint reference, 95.8% of the sentences are in Pattern A. These results corroborate our Hypothesis 1. Our statistical analysis also shows that zero anaphora is used in 91.2% of the Pattern B sentences in our data, whereas it is used only in 57.6% of the Pattern A sentences, which again lends strong support for our Hypothesis 2.

References
Time in the history of Japanese
Toshiko Yamaguchi
University of Malaya

Time has been researched dynamically within the framework of conceptual metaphor theory. The theory postulates that time, due to its abstract nature, is understood on the basis of more concrete terms such as space and, admittedly, this approach has been highly influential in the analysis of time. Moore (2014) has recently proposed three temporal metaphors. Many languages conflate temporal and spatial expressions, which may be the reason why space or, more precisely, ‘motion through space’ has been recruited to analyse how time is realised in language. This paper investigates three Japanese nominals (mae, ‘before’; saki, ‘before, and after’; and ato, ‘before, after’) that attained temporal and spatial meanings during their history.

The central claim of this paper is that the aforementioned terms emerged from the point where two channels merge: the temporality embedded in human cognition and the other coordinate systems employed by the Japanese language. The fundamental cognitive process that produced the concept of temporality is succession. Mae 前 originally indicated the area/region in front of a person/thing and, as in (1), it further developed the meaning of succession.

(1) mae no tosi, kaku no gotoku, karouzite kure-nu.
 BEFORE GEN year such.a.way GEN the.like finally close-PERF
‘The first year (*a year in the past) finally came to a close’.
(Hōjōki ‘Visions of a Tori World’, 13th century)

Saki 先 originally meant the tip of a thin object, later indicated the past, and, as in (2), further developed a future meaning.

(2) … yorozu no koto, saki tumari-taru wa yabure ni tikaki miti nari.
 all GEN thing LATER be.stuck-PERF TOP failure DIR be.close road COP
‘In all things, the principle holds true that decline threatens when further expansion is impossible’. (Tsurezuregusa ‘Essays in Idleness’, 14th century)

Ato 跡/後 originally meant ‘something left behind’, and, as in (3), took on a meaning of posteriority.

(3) sono koto ato yori arafaru-ru wo sira-zu
 that thing LATER from be.disclosed-SPONT ACC know-NEG
‘[A woman] would not notice that things would be disclosed later’.
(Tsurezuregusa ‘Essays in Idleness, 14th century)

It is striking that ‘motion through space’ was not always integral to the interpretation of time and that ego could be present in successive events. It is clear from the collected data that time was assimilated with succession, which was also substantiated by another word, fugi (‘next’), in the 8th century, whose original meaning related to the temporal succession of two events (e.g. the births of deities). However, succession alone cannot fully explain why the three words acquired temporal meanings. We argue that time and space resemble each other in the way temporal expressions can be interpreted in light of FoRs. Different temporal interpretations emerged through the ways a figure and a ground were put into perspective in spatio-temporal scenes. Levinson’s (2003) taxonomy of absolute, intrinsic, and relative FoRs for spatial expressions are retained as conceptual templates. Succession indicates the presence of absolute FoR, while the front-past correspondence relates to intrinsic FoR. Future reference attached both to saki and ato justifies the presence of relative FoRs, concurring with the emerging role of the speaker’s viewpoint. The paper demonstrates how temporal coordinate systems paved the way for the development of temporal expressions in Japanese, which will provide insights into universals and cross-linguistic diversity, leading to the conclusion that ‘choices on perspectivisation’ were crucial factors in shaping time in the history of Japanese.

References
Cognitive linguists generally adopted the viewpoint that verb-particle constructions are compositional and analyzable. For example, adopting a cognitive perspective similar to image schema, Lindner (1981) analyzed how the different meanings of a particle (up or out) in hundreds of VP constructions can be explained away cognitively and systematically. Following Lindner’s shoes, Morgan (1997) explicitly stated that the particle is the linguistic expression of a cognitive image schema, only that the instantiation might be literal or metaphorical.

This study examined such a claim with a behavioral experiment. VP constructions with two pairs of particles (in and out, up and down) were chosen as the language materials, and they appeared in contexts of short sentences so that they would be disambiguated and could only be interpreted as the sense intended. The sentences fell into two types: sentences ended with particles of spatial-sense (e.g. The child happily ran out) and sentences ended with particles of non-spatial sense (e.g. The lights were turned out). Before the particle appeared, a picture flashed on for a moment (200ms), and then was replaced by the particle. There were three types of pictures: pictures in agreement with the particles (e.g. a schematic diagram of outside-going arrow before the particle out); pictures in disagreement with the particles (e.g. a schematic diagram of inside-going arrow before the particle out), and pictures of neutral blank (a cross mark “+”). Participants were asked to judge the sensibility of the sentences and pressed the designated key as quickly as they could without sacrificing the accuracy.

The result shows that in the processing of the spatial type of VP constructions, the latency is the shortest for the agreement picture (630 ms), followed by the neutral blank picture (648 ms), and the disagreement picture takes the longest time (670 ms). As for the processing of the non-spatial VP constructions, the neutral type takes the shortest time (613 ms), followed by the agreement picture (630ms), and the disagreement type still takes the longest time (663 ms). The result indicates that the processing of VP constructions is influenced by the pictures no matter the particle is in spatial sense or non-spatial sense, which can be regarded as evidence for the psychological reality of image schema. In the case of the non-spatial type VP constructions, that the neutral blank takes the shortest time implies the constructional view of non-spatial VP constructions, providing evidence for Construction Grammar proposed by Goldberg (1995).

References
This paper investigates constructions with clause complements involving two evaluative predicates easy 'rongyi', difficult 'nan' in English and Chinese (identified as tough-expressions). Multiple features of the constructions are annotated and examined in a discourse-functional and cognitive framework. Several results are observed from the data collected from BNC and CCL. 1) English and Chinese display different syntactic types and distributional frequency. Object-raising and it-impersonals in English account for 36.17% and 63.83% respectively; raising constructions in Chinese are the majority (85.84%), which includes object-raising (25.67%), subject-raising (55.5%), subject-object-raising (4.67%), and subjectless constructions take up 14.16%. 2) Semantically, Chinese constructions are more transparent than those in English, which is mainly reflected in subject-raising and subject-object-raising constructions. The generally implicit agentive elements in English tend to be raised to some position in the main clauses in Chinese. 3) Different sentence patterns reveal their unique semantic functions in the discourse. Object-raising is a typical kind of topic construction. It-impersonals and subjectless constructions are obvious for their impersonality. Subject-raising constructions show some features between topicality and impersonality. 4) The expression of topicality and impersonality is also closely related with the construal of a generalized speaker. Degrees of subjectivity that decrease from the left are proposed in the following cline: subject-object-raising>object-raising>subject-raising>subjectless>it-impersonals. It concludes that Chinese tough-expressions tend to have a higher degree of topicality and subjectivity while English shows a higher degree of impersonality and objectivity.
This study clarifies the features of Italian motion expressions based on contrastive elicited data from a production experiment using videotaped movies as stimuli. Focusing on diverse motion events such as self-agentive motions and caused motions, we found that Italian speakers chose lexicalization patterns flexibly beyond typological categories depending on semantic component types (path/manner).

In the linguistic typology of the motion events, Italian (Romance languages) is classified as the so-called "verb-framed" language (V-language) wherein path related notions are formally encoded in the main verb and manner in the participial or so called 'gerundio' form (John è entrato in casa correndo. 'John entered the house running') (cf. Talmy2000). Some recent studies pointed out the actual use of expressions like "satellite-framed" language (S-language) (John ha corso in casa. 'John ran into the house') by Italian speakers (Masini 2005; Hijazo-Gascon and Ibarretxe-Antunano 2006) and Italian might be considered as a "hybrid" or "mixed" language on description of motion events. However, a question what is the key to decide the lexicalization patterns still left unanswered.

We collected experimental data from 15 Italian speakers, and 15 Japanese (V-language) and 15 English (S-language) speakers, to compare their typological tendencies. We analyzed INTO-path scenes like (1) someone enters the pavilion in different manners (WALK/RUN/SKIP) in self-agentive motion events, (2) someone kicks a ball into the pavilion, and (3) someone kicks a ball under the bench into the goal in caused motion events.

After reviewing data from the descriptions of subjective and caused motions, we found Italian and Japanese showing different coding patterns, although both languages are classified as V-languages. As for self-agentive motion events, such as (1), English always expresses any manner of components in the main verb as typical S-language and Japanese expresses path components in the head position, like using a simple main verb hairu 'enter' or complex predicates combining path and deictic components like hait-te-iku/kuru [enter-CONJ-go/come] 'go/come entering' as typical V-language. On the other hand, analysis of Italian data showed that coding patterns are considered to be influenced by the types of semantic components of manner: RUN tends to be expressed in the main verb; SKIP, in the satellite position "gerundio"; and WALK tends to be ignored. The types of manner seem to determine the construction in Italian.

Regarding caused motion, the Italian coding tendency differs depending on the complexity of the event. In the case of simple caused motion such as (2), the Italian and English coding patterns are the same: KICK-manner is occupied in the main verb and INTO-path is expressed by a preposition ('He kicked the ball into the pavilion') showing the S-language pattern, though Japanese still express INTO-path in the head position using compound verbs like keri-ireru [kick-put in] 'put into (the ball) by kicking'. However, in complex path events' case, such as (3), Italian expressions indicated a tendency similar to that of the Japanese with regard to keeping the rule of one verb with one path element ('He kicked the ball into the goal passing it under the bench'). In the caused motion, it is conceivable that the Italian coding patterns are influenced by the number of path components.

By highlighting the types of motion events and semantic components, we can identify the factors affecting Italian motion expressions and propose the need to more precisely examine motion events.

References
Constructionalisation, competition, and the case of Middle English ditransitives

Eva Zehentner
University of Vienna

This paper discusses the diachronic development of ditransitive verbs and their complementation pattern(s) in English. More specifically, it aims to investigate the change from Old English, where we find rather high variation in the order and case frames available for the objects of a ditransitive verb (1a-b) to the presence of the infamous ‘dative alternation’ in Present Day English (PDE), i.e. the ability of (most) ditransitive verbs to appear in either the double-object construction (DOC; 2a) or a pattern featuring a relational marker to (2b).

(1) a. (OE, Ælc.P.VIII.) he hitACC forgýfðeowDAT untwylice ‘he will undoubtedly give it to you’
    b. (OE, ÆGenEp) & híneACC mánkynnesGEN bénæmde ‘and took mankind away from him’

(2) a. Mary gives John a book
    b. Mary gives a book to John

Taking an evolutionary linguistics (Croft 2000, Ritt 2004) cum Construction grammar approach (Goldberg 1995, Hilpert 2013, Perek 2012, Traugott & Trousdale 2013), the following, admittedly simplified, scenario for this change is proposed:

The varying sequences of the objects of ditransitive verbs found in Old and early Middle English (eME) are taken to constitute surface epiphenomena of an in general relatively free word order, rather than representing a number of different syntactic (micro-)constructions, i.e. entrenched patterns. From eME onwards, however, the decay of morphological case marking greatly affects the language, and heavily contributes, on the one hand, to a gradually more and more fixed SVO order, thereby reducing variation to a certain extent, and an increasingly frequent use of prepositional patterns, typically involving to (3) but also other prepositions, on the other hand (cf. among others Allen 1995).

(3) (a1470, Malory) gaff the godis […] to theire knyghtes ‘gave the goods to their knights’

Essentially, this results in a system of four basic patterns available for ditransitive verbs in Middle English, namely [SVO_Oi], [SVO_O], [SVOprepO_O], and [SVOprepO]. These patterns, as is suggested, constitute the outcomes of ‘constructionalisation’, i.e. “the creation of a form-meaning pairing, in other words, […] the development of a new sign” (Traugott & Trousdale 2013: 22).

Thus having acquired construction or ‘replicator’ status, the patterns then “compete for territory” (Hilpert 2013: 3; Ritt 2004). Due to various physiological, social, as well as intra-systemic selective factors, some patterns are able to compete and propagate themselves more successfully than others, ultimately leading to a reduction in the number of acceptable patterns to the two default variants of the ‘dative alternation’ exemplified in (2) – at least in Standard PDE. These default patterns can be argued to have entered a symbiotic relationship, i.e. a state of coexistence – sharing the workload, their respective expression is now governed by well-researched factors such as end weight/ focus, givenness, or animacy (cf. e.g. Wolk et al. 2013).

Evidence supporting this account is gained from a quantitative study of all occurrences of ditransitive verbs in either the DOC or its prepositional counterpart(s) in the Penn-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Middle English (PPCME2).

References
Wolk, C.; Bresnan, J.; Rosenbach, A.; Szmrecsanyi, B. 2013. Dative and genitive variability in Late Modern English. Diachronica 30(3), 382-419.
Elliptical complement clauses in interaction

Arne Zeschel & Felix Bildhauer

Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Freie Universität Berlin

The propositional argument of several German complement-taking predicates (CTPs) may be realised in three different ways: (i) as a canonical subordinate clause (involving a complementiser and verb-final word order, cf. 1.a), (ii) as an apparent main clause (no complementiser and V2 word order, cf. 1.b) and (iii) as an elliptical focus construction in which individual constituents of various grammatical functions can stand in for a complete clause (cf 1.c):

(1)  A:  Kommen sie heute oder morgen?
     ‘Will they come today or tomorrow?’

     B.  a  Ich denke, dass sie morgen kommen.
            ‘I think [(that) they will come] tomorrow’.

     b  Ich denke, sie kommen morgen.
     c  Ich denke morgen.

At the same time, even verbs with highly similar meanings do not behave alike in this respect:

(2)  a  Ich denke, dass sie morgen kommen / sie kommen morgen / morgen.
            ‘I think [(that) they will come] tomorrow’.

     b  Ich weiß, dass sie morgen kommen / sie kommen morgen / *morgen.
            ‘I know [(that) they will come] tomorrow’.

     c  Ich bezweifle, dass sie morgen kommen / ??sie kommen morgen / *morgen.
            ‘I doubt [(that) they will come] tomorrow’.

Since they are not licensed across the board, ellipses like (1.c) cannot be accounted for by unspecific appeals to ‘recoverability in context’ alone. How can they be captured in a construction-based approach? Specifically, are the contrasts in (2) evidence for an independent ‘elliptical complement clause construction’ of some kind? We first explore the possibility that types of permitted ellipses can be predicted from governing verbs’ preference for particular kinds of non-elliptical complement clauses. For instance, wissen ‘know’ most commonly combines with wh-clauses among its sentential complements. And though ungrammatical in the ellipsis in (2.b), it works well with ‘sluices’ (Ross 1969) such as (3):

(3)  Ich habe es schon mal gesehen, aber ich weiß nicht, wo.
            ‘I have seen it before, but I don’t know where’

On this account, acceptable ellipses like (1.c) and (3) would be conventionalised fragments of CTP’s most entrenched schemas for ‘canonical’ sentential complementation (and only these), and there is no independent functional or semantic generalisation (and hence, no unified construction) behind the contrasts in (2). On the other hand, also if permissible ellipses were indeed conventionalised fragments of a CTP’s most common complementation pattern, they could still be subject to idiosyncratic further constraints: for instance, in contexts that license such ellipses in principle (e.g. question-answer adjacency pairs), it is conceivable that an ellipsis may nevertheless require additional pragmatic preconditions to be met that are irrelevant to its non-elliptical counterpart. In this case, any such additional constraints would need to be captured somewhere in the grammar. We explore these issues in a corpus-linguistic study of more than 20 CTPs from different semantic classes using samples of 500 attestations each (taken from a subset of the DECOW2012 web corpus containing mostly spontaneously produced, written interactions, predominantly from forum discussions). We first assess CTP’s preferences for different kinds of sentential complementation and their occurrence with particular ellipses. Next, we zoom in on the actual usage patterns of the elliptical utterances thus identified by investigating a variety of their morphosyntactic, semantic, deictic, information structural and sequential context properties. We close with a brief discussion of theoretical options for modelling our findings within a surface-oriented, construction-based approach to grammar: what is the theoretical status of structures that are apparent variants of other constructions (i.e. conventional surface patterns with the same function, but different form and possibly more restricted distribution)?

References

Towards a data-driven identification of argument structure constructions in large corpora

Arne Zeschel
Institut für Deutsche Sprache, Mannheim

Two desiderata for the corpus-linguistic study of verb argument structure constructions are: the data-driven identification of (i) non-anticipated constructions (i.e. relevant lexicogrammatical patterns not a priori envisaged by the analyst) and (ii) non-anticipated instances of constructions (i.e. creative/productive/formerly undocumented realisations of given constructions). Corpus queries, however, typically involve searches for (combinations of) specific lexical items and/or their associated annotations, not least since syntactic annotations (in contrast to e.g. POS, cf. Giesbrecht/Evert 2009) are still relatively error-prone and also more theory-dependent. In short, even though the constructionist interest is in (more or less) schematic grammatical patterns, the most common way to investigate these is to search for potential lexical instances of these patterns (which of course requires that the patterns themselves are already known).

The paper makes suggestions for a systematic approach to identifying both non-anticipated constructions and non-anticipated instances of known constructions in large corpora. The procedure is restricted to partially schematic constructions with at least one lexically specified slot. Here, the descriptive focus is on prepositional verb argument structure constructions in German such as the PROSPECTIVE POSSESSION construction in (1):

(1) Auch Historiker sitzen nicht bloß am Schreibtisch oder graben nach Dokumenten.
   ‘Neither do historians just sit at their desks or dig for documents’
   [DeReKo]

The talk presents data from a project aiming at identifying and documenting the full range of such constructions for the 20 most frequent prepositions of German. Its two main aims are the following: (i) a data-driven identification of all relevant constructions for all 20 prepositions in our corpus, and (ii) a precise description of individual constructions identified in step (i) via an exhaustive identification of their instances in our data, a collection of 1m attestations per preposition extracted from a stratified sample from DeReKo (Kupietz et al. 2010). Our approach is to start with maximum recall and minimum precision: first, we extract all instances of the only supposedly invariant element of relevant constructions, i.e. the preposition, and second, we successively narrow down the results by eliminating classes of hits that are irrelevant for present purposes. The reduction procedure involves item-specific semi-automatic eliminations of structurally and semantically irrelevant uses of the prepositional search term from the initial corpus through stepwise subcorpus formation. For the remaining data, we then start out from type frequency lists of tuples consisting of the preposition, the next following noun and the nearest lexical verb lemma within the sentence. We use a database of pre-compiled further co-occurrence information for each of these tuples in our data to determine relevant expressions’ likely meaning in context without having to inspect the often many hundred underlying concordance lines corresponding to each tuple individually. To permit necessary checks whether the underlying data indeed convey the hypothesised meanings, the database is interfaced with our corpora so that associated concordance lines can be accessed at any point. Relevant target constructions are identified by analysing a large sample of these tuples and their associated co-occurrences from different ranges of the frequency distribution.

The talk presents our workflow and reports preliminary findings from an analysis of different prepositions.

References
In Chinese, three-character idioms abound, e.g. 走后门 (zou houmen), meaning literally “enter the back door”, and figuratively “pull strings or find some influential officers for help”. 走后门 (zouhoumen) is the base form; however, its form may change according to the context in which it is embedded, as in 走了三次后门 (zoule sanci houmen), a variant meaning that someone pulled strings three times or found influential officers for help three times. How idiom base forms and their variants are contextually processed is controversial and in need of further research. In the present study, event-related potential (ERP) data were collected to investigate time course and neural activity in the processing of Chinese three-character idioms and their variants in literally and figuratively biased contexts. The ERP data revealed that, independent of literally or figuratively biased contexts, Chinese three-character idioms and their variants were processed similarly, with no difference in the time window of N400 and sustained late negativity, a result that disconfirms predictions made by Cognitive Linguistics, Relevance Theory and Glucksberg’s proposal. These data provide neural evidence that different types of context play a facilitative role in the processing of base forms and idiom variants. For both base-forms and variants, processing was more difficult in literally biased contexts than in figuratively biased contexts in the time window of N400 and sustained late negativity.
Syntactically marked passive constructions in Chinese: A corpus-based multivariate study

Weiwei Zhang, Fang Wang
Institute of Linguistics, Shanghai International Studies University

BACKGROUND AND RESEARCH QUESTION - Within the general framework of construction grammar, our study reports on a multivariate study of syntactically marked passive constructions of the four markers (bei, rang, shi, gei) in Chinese on the basis of corpus data.

For decades, passives as a major grammatical category in Chinese have been subject to much research in and beyond Cognitive Linguistics. The previous research mostly focused on the long vs. short passives, the syntactic functions, the semantic prosodies and the genre distinction of Chinese passive variants (e.g. Tang 2001; Shi 2004), etc. Methodologically, passives in Chinese have been studied mainly by introspective methods, with the exception of McEnery & Xiao’s (2006) corpus-based study, in which they conducted a contrastive analysis of passive constructions in English and Chinese. In line with current developments in Cognitive Sociolinguistics (Kristiansen & Dirven 2008; Geeraerts et al. 2010), it is also important to incorporate social variation when we deal with certain linguistic/cognitive phenomena. In this case study, we tackle the lectal variation between two varieties of Chinese: Mainland Chinese (MC) and Taiwan Chinese (TC).

Specific research questions we intend to answer are: 1) To what extent MC differs from TC in terms of the choice of passive markers? 2) What factors may influence the choice of different passive markers?

DESIGN – The study is based on data extracted from two corpora: the UCLA Chinese Corpus (MC) and the Sinica Corpus (TC). For each extracted observation, we manually and semi-automatically code a number of factors which may impact people’s choice of the passive markers, e.g. the syntactic functions (predicate, subject, object, attributive...), semantic prosodies (i.e. polarity, animacy, controllability), discursive factors (i.e. genre), lectal factor (MC vs. TC), as independent variables, with the response variable being the four markers. Then, multidimensional scaling and multinomial logistic regression are employed to gauge the effect of the above-mentioned independent variables as well as their interactions on the use of passive markers in Chinese.

IMPLICATION – Theoretically, the case study may reveal that the variation in the use of passive markers in Chinese is not a question of free variation, but signals an intricate interplay of a number of syntactic, semantic and discursive factors, and also a specific lectal stratification of the linguistic community. Methodologically, we want to demonstrate through this case study that the multivariate statistics adopted in this study can lead us to a number of conclusions about to what extent the different constraints determine the use of passive markers under investigation.

References
Applying Cognitive Linguistics to Teaching English Prepositions: An Experimental-CALL Study
Helen Zhao and Man Ho Wong
The Chinese University of Hong Kong

The complexity of English prepositions has always been a challenge for second language (L2) learners (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 1999). Cognitive linguists have made a substantial amount of efforts of analyzing the semantic representations of the prepositions (Lakoff, 1987; Talmy, 2000; Tyler & Evans, 2003; Lindstromberg, 2010). Image schemas, with variation among studies, are proposed to visualize the conceptual representations and to connect the basic spatial senses (e.g., in a box) with the more abstract, metaphorical senses (e.g., in love) of prepositions. Some empirical studies (Tyler, 2012; Tyler, Mueller & Ho, 2010) found positive learning outcomes when L2 learners were taught prepositions with cognitive linguistics methods. Yet, few studies provided step-by-step descriptions of their instructional procedures. Inadequate information of exactly what was going on in these classrooms makes it difficult to replicate or to compare across studies.

The current study is an experimental study that investigates the effects of teaching English prepositions with cognitive linguistics methods in a computer-based tutorial system. Our main research question is to see whether cognitive linguistics methods (image schemas) outperform traditional explicit instructional methods. Our participants were 100 Cantonese learners of English in a community college in Hong Kong. They were randomly assigned to one of the four groups: 1) schema feedback (SF); 2) rule feedback (RF); 3) corrective feedback (CF); and 4) control group (receiving training on English articles). The first three groups received training on three prepositions (in, at, over) through the online interface shown in Figure 1. On each screen they were presented with a picture stimulus and two minimal-pair sentences that only differed on the prepositions (e.g., Ben jumped over the ditch vs. Ben jumped towards the ditch). They were asked to choose the sentence that matched the picture. They were provided with immediate feedback. The SF group (Figure 1) was given the image schema mapped with the sentence as well as a verbal explanation of the mapping. The RF group was given a metalinguistic explanation of the preposition usage with three example sentences. The CF group was informed of whether their choice was correct or wrong. All the four groups went through the same procedure with four sessions: a pretest, training (balanced time across groups), a posttest, and a delayed posttest (two weeks later). The tests were composed of two parts: a cloze test and a translation test, both at the sentential level. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants from each condition after they used the tutor.

Our data analysis showed no significant difference in terms of accuracy of performance among the four groups at the pretest. But at the posttest, there was a significant difference between the three preposition training groups and the control group. This finding suggests positive instructional effects of the tutor. Regarding the distinction of feedback, we did not observe a significant difference among the SF, RF, and CF groups in the cloze test. However, the SF group outperformed the other groups in the translation test. That indicates that when the learners were tested in a receptive task similar to training, the amount and the type of information that we provided to them as feedback did not make a distinction. When the learners were required to transfer what they learned in a receptive task to a productive task, the strategy of spatial imagery of the cognitive linguistic method of teaching allowed the tutor to generate robust learning.

Reference:

Figure 1  Snapshot of the English preposition tutor (schema feedback)
Between deontic modality and necessity conditionals: A cognitive typological analysis of Chinese, Japanese and Korean necessity conditionals

Bing ZHU and Kaoru HORIE
Nagoya University Japan

Cross-linguistically, modal markers can obtain post-modal functions such as conditional and concessive at the late stage of grammaticalization (van der Auwera & Plungian 1998). In this research, we’ll focus on a special conditional known as “necessity conditionals”, which show a common patterning with deontic modality markers in Chinese, Japanese, and Korean though their formal manifestations are very different across languages.

In Chinese, the deontic modal marker bìxū, which means ‘must’, can take on the meaning ‘only if’ when it precedes a necessity condition clause as in (1). Our previous research (X & Y 2014) has revealed that historically, the modal marker bìxū had acquired a deontic meaning in main clauses before it developed a clause linkage function in subordinate clauses.

(1) 约不得，bìxū tāmen biáotài shuō bùzài xūyāo wǒ, wǒ cái néng dào qiūqiūdui.
in a word must they state say no longer need me ADV can go other team

‘In a word, only if they state that they no longer need me, can I go to other teams.’ (CCL Corpus)

Intriguingly, we can observe parallel phenomena in Japanese and Korean which are typologically unrelated to Chinese. The Japanese deontic modal marker nakerebanaranai is an analytical double negative expression literally meaning ‘won’t happen if (it) doesn’t exist’ as in (2). This expression derives from a conditional construction of the form ‘If p isn’t true, q isn’t true’ through the partial reduction of the main clause (Katō 2013). Nakerebanaranai is semantically a negative necessity conditional just like bìxū in (1). Korean, in contrast, has a ‘synthetic’ marker encoding a necessity conditional, i.e. -(a/e) ya as in (3). When -ya connects with a predicate (e.g. hata ‘do’), the combined expression functions as a deontic modal marker as in (4).

(2) Asu-no kaigi-ni shusseki
    tomorrow-GEN meeting-DEST attend NEG-COND-get-NEG

‘You must attend the meeting tomorrow.’

(3) Casik-ul kac-kose-ya piloso pwumo-uy unhyey-ul a-n-ta.
    child-ACC have-CONJ-COND parents-GEN kindness-ACC know-PRES-DECL

‘Only if you have a child, you first know the kindness of your parents.’

(www.naver.com)

(4) Nayil-un ilcic ilena-ya hay-yo.
    tomorrow-TOP early get up-COND-do-POL

‘You must get up early tomorrow.’ (Korean-Japanese Dictionary

(SHOGAKUKAN))

The three languages show some intriguing parallelisms and contrasts in terms of the shared marking of deontic modality and necessity conditionals. Chinese and Korean deontic modal markers both encode ‘positive’ necessity conditionals, while Japanese involves negative conditionals. Chinese modal marker bìxū first acquired a deontic meaning in main clauses and then developed some textual function in subordinate clauses. In contrast, Japanese deontic modal marker nakerebanaranai derives from the necessity conditional sentence. Korean patterns with Chinese in developing ‘synthetic’ necessity conditional markers. At the same time, it patterns with Japanese in terms of the developmental pathway from a necessity conditional to deontic modality rather than vice versa.

References
The mode of objectification/subjectification and its role in the shaping of narrative strategy in literary texts

Magdalena Zyga
University of Szczecin, Poland

In his essay concerning the phenomenon of subjectification and objectification Langacker (1985) makes brief remarks on the role of these in literary text, especially with respect to the (stylistic) effect of the degree of subjectification/objectification on the perception of the attitude, of the (emotional) distance between the observer and the observed (Langacker 1985: 138-140). These speculations, especially with respect to literary texts in languages other than English, have, to the best of our knowledge, scarcely been pursued further by linguists thus far. The only article pertinent to the issue in question is the one by Magdalena Filar (2007), who focuses on the effects of subjectification/objectification in a poem by Wisława Szymborska and the rendering of these mechanisms in translation of the piece into German and English. The afore-mentioned gap in research was an impulse for the examination of the role of subjectification/objectification (mode) in the German novel Irre [Crazy] (1983) by Rainald Goetz and the English novel Falling Man (2007) by Don DeLillo.

The aim of the paper is to examine possible effects that the mode of conceptual subjectification and objectification – perceived as stylistic figures – may have in the shaping of narration. We argue that the use of person reference in the afore mentioned texts cannot be interpreted taking into consideration linguistic rules of deixis alone (cf. Mey 2010: 790). Instead, the mechanisms of objectification/subjectification with the use of e.g. personal pronouns are employed to express and modify the distance between the conceptualizer (speaker) and the object of conceptualization as well as to communicate the role switch between the narrator and the character, the switch of the vantage point or deictic centre (see also: Freeman 2000: 266) of the textual world (Mey 2010: 791), of the conceptual universe presented in a given text. Moreover, we posit that the mechanisms described by Langacker are, in the examined texts, used as narrative device to make it difficult for the reader to reconstruct “the type of reality that is evoked in our minds during reading” (Semino 1997: 1) or, in yet other words, to challenge the recipients’ conclusions concerning the reality referred to by a given text. In our analysis we shall also take into consideration other selected discursive devices which reinforce the effects attained by the mode of objectification/subjectification employed in the afore-mentioned novels.

References


