Perceptive Images of the Concepts Happiness and Harmony: A Comparative Analysis of Data from Russian and English Corpora

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This research is based on the methodology of conceptual metaphor theory (Lakoff and Johnson 1980, 1999; Lakoff 1987; Johnson 1987; Kövecses 2005, 2008, 2013; Gibbs 2006, 79-122; etc.). A particular issue that the author addresses is perceptive images of abstract concepts (Glebkin 2012, 87-100; Glebkin et al. 2014). From this perspective the main task of research is a detailed description of a system of perceptive images representing a class of abstract concepts or a particular concept. It is worth noting that such a trajectory is opposite to a traditional one, which focuses on various aspects of the path from a primary metaphor to abstract domains that this metaphor represents.

The gist of this paper is a comparative analysis of Russian and English concepts. Two pairs of concepts are analysed: happiness vs. счастье and harmony vs. гармония. The choice of these particular concepts follows the fact that the class of abstract concepts expressing feelings is commonly used and is obvious for both languages, which makes it simple to find exact parallels. The result of corpus analysis is two pairs of perceptive images. Comparison represents some interesting results, e.g., in English harmony can be measured in terms of quantity (there can be much less harmony and lack of harmony) while in Russian it cannot. However, in Russian harmony can be described with human features, while in English there are no such examples. The differences in perceptive images for similar concepts in two languages can be explained by cross-cultural differences: concepts of feelings in Russian are more emotional in comparison to rational ones in English.

References
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Contemporary Japanese incorporates words of different origin: *wago* – native words, *kango* – Chinese origin words, and *gairaigo* – words borrowed from the languages other than Chinese. This results in the increase of near synonymic pairs and rows of different, especially among adjectives. Most recently, Bordilovskaya (2012) has illustrated that Japanese has a tendency for homogeneity of origin of adjectives and nouns used in collocations, i.e. *gairaigo* adjectives are significantly more often found in collocations with *gairaigo* nouns rather than *wago/kango* nouns. In addition, the corpus search has revealed another tendency: *gairaigo* adjectives were frequently used with *gairaigo* nouns not only in grammatical collocations, but also in a compound-like form.

In this case study, by the means of corpus analysis we test 2 patterns of *gairaigo* adjective + *gairaigo* noun combinations, and investigate which type (grammatical or morphological) is more common. We have selected 12 *gairaigo* adjectives: howaito ‘white’, burakku ‘black’, reddo ‘red’, ierō ‘yellow’, buraun ‘brown’, pāpuru ‘purple’, hotto ‘hot’, yangu ‘young’, rongu ‘long’, shōto ‘short’. Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese corpus (BCCWJ) was searched for 2 combinational patterns: Type 1: Morphological Collocations (*gairaigo* adjective + *gairaigo* noun); Type 2: Grammatical Collocations (*gairaigo* modifier + -no/-na connectors + *gairaigo* noun). The result are in Table 1.

Table 1. The Distribution of Type 1 and Type 2 Combinational Patterns of *Gairaigo* Adjectives Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>Gairaigo</em> adjective</th>
<th>Type 1 Morphological Collocations</th>
<th>Type 2 Grammatical Collocations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>howaito (‘white’)</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>burakku (‘black’)</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddo (‘red’)</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ierō (‘yellow’)</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buraun (‘brown’)</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāpuru (‘purple’)</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gurē (‘grey’)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pinku (‘pink’)</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hotto (‘hot’)</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>yangu (‘young’)</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rongu (‘long’)</td>
<td>318</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shōto (‘short’)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 1, Type 2 *gairaigo* grammatical collocations are outnumbered by Type 1 morphological collocations in 9 cases out of 12, for *howaito*, *burakku*, *reddo*, *ierō*, *buraun*, *pāpuru*, *hotto*, *yangu*, *rongu* and *shōto*, i.e., some *gairaigo* adjectives are more often used in a compound-like form, than in collocations using -no/-na connectors. These results can give new insights into the constraints of the use of *gairaigo* adjectives in Contemporary Japanese, and contribute to the better understanding of the differentiation between native and borrowed near synonyms.
Cognitive semantics argues that differences in the range and elaboration of metaphor and those of metonymy show cultural differences in conceptualization (Kövecses 2000). However, studies on cultural variations in the conceptualization of emotion have focused mainly on differences of metaphor and have not paid much attention to those of metonymy. This is partly due to the speculation that metonymy will not demonstrate significant cultural differences because it directly reflects physiological phenomena, which human beings commonly experience when they feel emotions, as conceived in Kövecses (2000).

This research aims to show that metonymy also reveals meaningful cultural differences, through comparing the sadness metonymy of pain in one’s heart, its elaboration, and its use in English and Korean. In describing the results of this research, the ideas that metonymy is characterized as highlighting components (Köch 2001) or attention/perspective change towards components of a frame (Talmy 1996 and Bartsch 2002) will be incorporated.

Observing related data from dictionaries and corpra reveals English and Korean cultures share the same frame of pain-in-heart with the processes of causing pain, feeling pain, response to pain, and remaining wounds (Table 1). To compare their uses, a fiction corpus from BNC (16,033,634 words) and one from Sejong (7,096,265 words) are utilized: From potential data, which was collected by searching related lemmas occurring with heart in the same sentence and with the minimum frequency of 6, data was selected (English: 254, Korean: 614) and classified into one of the four components.

Frequency by component (Figure 1) shows that the two cultures exhibit both similarity and difference in their preference of highlighting components of the frame: Both cultures highlight the feeling pain component most and the causing pain component next; Korean highlights the feeling pain and wound components to higher degrees than English does, and English perspectivizes towards the causing pain and the responding components more often than Korean does. Examining the expressions of the components revealed that Korean has more diverse pain tokens than English does and also has a distinctive wound token of ‘mot’ (nail), and that the English causing pain component also connects with the additional component of bleeding (eg. My heart bleeds for her), which Korean doesn’t. The results show Korean culture pays more attention to introspective responses to sadness than English culture does, and the latter to more outward ones than Korean.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components of Frame of Pain</th>
<th>English Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Causing Pain</td>
<td>Her voice was needle-sharp and her words pierced Sophia’s heart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling Pain</td>
<td>I can taste the liquor in my throat, which I drank to still the pain in my heart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responding to Pain</td>
<td>The pain in Jake’s face was making her heart weep.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wounds</td>
<td>It would take much more to heal the wounds to her heart.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

References

*A unit consisted of a word and a postposition
This paper reports on a corpus-based investigation into naming preferences in Belgian Dutch and Netherlandic Dutch for fourteen clothing terms. The study (Daems et al., accepted) is a follow-up of Geeraerts et al. (1999), in which soccer and clothing terminology from 1950, 1970 and 1990 was analysed as an indicator of standardisation in Dutch. This study extends the clothing corpus with new, comparable data from 2012 collected from magazines, to represent standard language, and shop windows, as a substandard register. Focusing on lexical uniformity, we rely on the onomasiological measure of lexical variation designed for the aforementioned study, which calculates the differences in lexicalization preferences for a given concept in the two regions. For example, Table 1 shows the concept OVERHEMD ‘(dress) shirt’, which can be lexicalized by hemd, overhemd and shirt. The degree of uniformity between Belgian Dutch and Netherlandic Dutch can be measured in terms of overlapping lexicalization preferences (summing the smallest relative value for each term: (19+0+7) = 26%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERHEMD (MAN)</th>
<th>Neth.Dutch</th>
<th>Belg.Dutch</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hemd</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>93%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>overhemd</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shirt</td>
<td>69%</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 - Lexicalization preferences for OVERHEMD (MAN)

The present-day material is compared to the uniformity levels obtained by Geeraerts et al. (1999), which shows new insights on the linguistic situation in the Low Countries. The diachronic convergence between Belgian Dutch and Netherlandic Dutch confirmed in the original study seems to have come to a halt in 2012. Furthermore, the recent data suggest that the distance between the lower register shop windows and the standard language in magazines remains largest in Belgian Dutch.

References
Daems, Jocelyne, Kris Heylen & Dirk Geeraerts. Accepted. ‘Wat dragen we vandaag: een hemd met blazer of een shirt met jasje?’. [Accepted for publication in Taal en Tongval.]
Perception of Non-Native Errors: How Native Speakers of German Judge and Comprehend Erroneous German Produced by Native Speakers of Russian

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Numerous studies are devoted to the issue of the perception and evaluation of non-native errors. Many have attempted to establish a hierarchy in error gravity by referring to the deviations at different linguistic levels, i.e. phonology, morpho-syntax, lexis. However, only a few have taken into account the frequency aspect (Albrechtsen et al. 1980). The present project investigates the effect of errors on native speakers’ perception, considering the interaction between different linguistic levels and frequency, and with regard to salience. The frequency types of error occurrences analyzed within the study are, e.g. density and frequency of use. In particular, these types can be defined as a certain number of deviations of different kinds in one unit of text [density], and the frequency of the feature containing the deviation in usage of native speakers [frequency of use] (James 1998). The main hypotheses to be tested are that e.g. errors in high frequency items evoke a negative judgment in the listener: however, they are less likely to impair comprehensibility than in low frequency items, since in the top-down process of oral comprehension frequently occurring units are more predictable and therefore more recognizable (Diessel 2007; Bybee 2007).

This study can be located within the usage-based approach drawing on the assumption that actual language use and how it is processed can affect listener's mental representation of language (Ellis 2007). The ongoing data collection is conducted by means of sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic methods (Garret 2010). Different audio stimuli representing the above-mentioned frequency and error types are compiled using the verbal-guise technique (Giles / Powesland 1975). The stimuli are presented to 200 native speakers of German who rate them according to the personal traits of the speaker and the speech itself. The subjects also perform a multiple-choice comprehension task.

The stimuli were based on an analysis of a corpus of 35 half-hour interviews with Russian speakers of German. The analysis revealed which errors they are most likely to make, for example overproducing the pronoun “es” with verba dicendi. The error types were tested regarding their salience in a web-based perceptional experiment with 65 participants before being applied to compile the stimuli. Syntactical errors were shown to be quite salient, whereas some phonetic deviations seem to be scarcely noticeable, e.g. in comparison to an absent glottal stop, the verb in 2nd position received a significantly higher probability (p < 0.001) of being recognized. In order to determine the quantitative constraints for the frequency types, a further perceptional test was undertaken with 50 subjects. This survey provided information on how different error ratios are perceived and processed, i.e. 17% of erroneous tokens in one text are judged as a large error quantity leading to comprehension difficulties. The average rating of a text with 17% error-token ratio was significantly higher (p < 0.001) than the average rating of a text with 12% error-token ratio.

References
In contrast to the standard language, which in the past two centuries the number of conjunctions with differentiated meanings (for the reason that, по той причине что, etc.) has been increased, in the dialect speech the conjunctions, which have simple structure, are stored and formed. Some of them, particle conjunctions, are developed as a result of agglutination of the ancient elements - particles *li, *le, *bo, *že and others under the influence of the phonetic law of Wackernagel [1].

In this paper we consider structural and semantic characteristics of 2-5-component clusters from the position of synchronic-diachronic approaches, their genetic relations and areal distribution in the Slavic languages: the facts of Russian North dialects are compared with the data historical, etymological, interpretive dictionaries, also the data Middle-, Southern and other Russian dialects recorded in the dialect dictionaries are attracted to analyze.

Dialect conjunctions with n-, ž-particles (azhno, izhno, dazhe, aino, etc.) form semantic group: basic meaning no-particle is adversative, že-particle are adversative and conclusive.

The study shows that two-component clusters like a+aže and others, dating back to the *aže, jže, *da že, *a ono or a a no / nъ are Slavic; azhe, izhe, dazhe, ano are marked in the Old Russian language. The conjunctions a/zh/no, i/zh/no, da/z/no, a/i/no and the like consisting of three components are known in the Russian language, mostly in modern dialects. Wide areal distribution of dialect conjunctions azhno, izhno, aino and izhne, izhnu, azhnu, azhne and others indicates their antiquity. Perhaps they were used in the Old Russian language, in colloquial speech (they are not recorded in the historical dictionaries of the Russian language, with the exception of azhno, which is marked in the ancient written materials from the XV century. The presence of particle no in the conjunctions, which almost is not observed in ancient sources as a standalone unit, is important; apparently its fusion with two component clusters azhe, izhe, ai was in ancient times. T.M. Nikolaeva indicates that the formation of lexemes was carried out around XVI century by agglutination method.

The Dictionary of the Russian language in the XVIII century notes that only vernacular conjunctions dazhe, azhno were used at this time. The remaining conjunctions (2-3-component clusters) are not recorded in the dictionary, hence they functioned in colloquial dialect speech.

In modern Russian the using dazhe, azhno are limited stylistically: azhno commonly used in the illiterary colloquial speech, dazhe - in a literary colloquial speech. In the Modern dialect speech dazhe and azhno are polisemantic: the range of meanings of the conjunction azhno is expanding compared to the lexemes of the Old Russian language, the number of meanings of the conjunction azhno are reduced; dialect conjunction izhno is polisemantic. The range of meanings of 3-component dialect clusters is broader than the ancient 2-component units.

Not only three, but four-particlers clusters are used in dialect speech: a/zh/na/k, a/zh/ni/k, a/zh/ni/t', a/zh/ni/lo/i, i/zh/na(y)/k, i/zh/na(e)/t'. 4-component conjunctions are not fixed in the historical dictionaries. They were formed in the later period and were used in dialect speech. Changes in the semantic of conjunctions with the accession of the fourth component are not happening. The 5-component cluster a/zh/no/li/cha is fixed in the end of XIX - the beginning XX century in the southern dialects.

So, in dialect speech, including the dialects of the Russian North, there is preservation of ancient etymologically unmotivated particularal lexemes. Dependence of semantic volume of lexems are observed of their structure.

References
Metaphors and blending in Erzya and Šokša Mordvin disease names
Flóra Hatvani

The Erzya Mordvin language belongs to the Finno-Volga branch of the Uralic language family. The biggest Mordvin (Erzyas and Mokšas and Šokšas) communities live in Mordovia, but there is a Mordvin diaspora in other regions of the Russian Federation. Within the Finno-Ugric language communities the process of assimilation is advancing considerably and this holds especially for the Mordvins. The diseases names are really good examples of how the original – and motivated – expressions are disappearing from the spoken language.

In this talk I will discuss the Erzya and Šokša Mordvin disease names with respect to their motivation in a cognitive semantic framework. I will also compare the Erzya data with Šokša Mordvin examples. The data comes from my own fieldwork in 2013 and 2014.

Most of the Erzya disease names are motivated and often based on metaphors. The disease names are largely dependent on the cultural background ('venčamo porazo šaš 'pimply', lit. 'someone who has to get married soon'), the environment ('řivežeň tol 'chickenpox', lit. 'fox's fire') and the religion/beliefs in the Erzya language community.

Several disease names are based on conceptual metaphors, for example řivťemka 'herpes, rash' or pačkľivkst 'boil', which are instances of a BODY = CONTAINER metaphor type since they denote the disease as coming out of the human body. The verbs also have this kind of orientation: řivtiťi 'become pimply, will be a boil' lit. 'come out'. The Hungarian disease names display the same pattern: kiütés 'rash', kinővés 'boil'. Nevertheless, the opposite direction is also found, but occurs only in curses: Aparo orma potmozo sovazo lit. 'bad disease would enter to his/her stomach'.

Some disease names are based on another conceptual metaphors: DIRTY/UGLY = BAD/IMMORALITY for instance avańks orma 'syphilis, venereal diseases' lit. 'dirty disease', amazij orma 'heart attack, syphilis, venereal diseases' lit. 'ugly disease'; as well as DARK = BAD/DEATH for instance raužo orma 'fatal diseases lit. 'black disease'. On the other hand there are euphemisms which denote the same diseases: paro orma 'fatal diseases' lit. 'good disease', večkemań orma (Šokša) 'venereal diseases' lit. 'love's disease'. These metaphoric terms are interesting because most of them are polysemic (for example, apano orma 'cancer, syphilis, heart attack, paralysis, long lasting fatal disease, sudden death disease, not curable disease'). However, it should be mentioned that the Mordvin speakers usually use the Russian term if they want to specify the disease.

There are some disease names which can be analysed as instances of blending: sarazmukorvařa 'wart' < saraz 'hen' + mukor 'bottom' + vará 'hole', sukaodar 'boil on the armpit' < suka 'female' + odar 'udder', pińenodar 'boil on the armpit' < pińe 'puppy' + odar 'udder' (Šokša) and pińeń čečej 'stye' < pińeň 'puppy's' + čečej 'spleen'. In this case the new concept/disease name is a combination of its elements. In my poster I will exemplify the conceptual integration of these disease names with figures.
A matter of taste: Comparing Turkish, French, and English winery tasting notes

Christina Hostetler
Ball State University

Wine tasting, to those within the wine culture, is more than simply the sense of taste. In fact, experiencing wine involves a fusion of inputs from different senses, combined with some sophisticated processing in the brain. Sense in many respects is relative, so that even though a group may experience the same wine, they may in fact experience from different perspectives. However, it has been claimed that through practice, experts develop the ability to distinguish subtle yet distinct aromas and flavors that novices or non-expert (Moore & Charling 1988).

Many descriptions of wine have been designed as guides for both novice and expert wine enthusiasts, yet the literature has expanded in the last half a century to include observations of wine from multiple perspectives, especially philosophy and cognition (Brochet & Dubourdieu 2001). One of these perspectives has been linguistic analysis of the language used to describe wine. Some studies have focused on lexical choice in wine descriptions (Brochet & Dubourdieu 2001, Lehrer 1983). Other studies have considered the

While in many ways, the research on wine descriptions is extensive, the current study sought to compare wine descriptions from different cultures in the areas of lexical and rhetorical structures. The study considers previous research studies such as the studies by Normand (1998) and Brochet & Dubourdieu (2001) that have focused on the lexical items used in tasting notes in French and English. By comparing French, English, and Turkish wine tasting descriptions, the current study adds to the previous research by not only adding a different language and culture, but also adding the syntactic and rhetorical structures. Data was collected from Turkish, French, and American wineries’ online descriptions of their wine. Both a white and red wine varietal was collected from each winery and translated into English. The translations were then analyzed individually using measures for rhetorical and lexical structures previously used in similar studies then compared both quantitatively and qualitatively. Emphasis was placed on the metaphorical meaning of the words.

The results show that while within the overarching wine culture, there are similarities in individual lexical items and rhetorical structures, distinct metaphorical structures in each language also surface. The universal rhetoric and lexicon of wine descriptions reflects the universal structures established by those in the wine community that have developed an accepted identity of their own. Whereas the unique metaphorical descriptions and subtle cultural specific references create distinctions between the wine descriptions based on language and nation. The hypothesized reason for these distinctions is the connection between wine production and cultural values.

References
Pretty Little Chunks of Language: A usage-based approach to teaching formulaic language to young L2 learners

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Following a study which showed that young learners in primary school benefit from learning English as a second language based on cognitive linguistic theory (Kersten 2010), this poster provides a first tentative outline of and invites feedback on a study that is designed to explore the role of formulaic sequences (Wray 2002) in second language development from a usage-based perspective.

As studies have shown, L2 learners do use “conventionalised ways of saying things” (Smiskova et al. 2012), but not always in the same way native speakers would. Although native-like selection of multi-word units is not necessarily the only goal of second language development, a good command and extensive knowledge of formulaic language have been shown to aid, for example, fluency in the L2 (Wood 2010).

For example, some advocate that collocations should be explicitly taught, including explicit comparison with the learners’ L1 (Nesselhauf 2003), while other state that awareness raising and semantic and structural elaboration (Boers & Lindstromberg 2009) may be used to foster chunk knowledge and use in learners.

Most studies and recommendations on teaching chunks of language focus on intermediate or advanced learners and often include a period of immersion in the target language community or bilingual education programmes (see Boers & Lindstromberg 2012 for a review of studies since 2004).

The aim of the proposed study is to investigate the possibility of fostering the development of formulaic language in the early stages of second language development and in a non-immersion setting. This has implications for the ways of teaching chunks of language, following methodologies suitable for young learners. In addition, the way data are collected has to be adapted accordingly.

Suggestions for the above will be made and example of potential teaching material will be given.

References
Metaphorical Patterns of HEART AND HEAD in English and Chinese: a Corpus-based Study

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The embodiment thesis views the more abstract target domains of cognition (mind) as based on concrete source domains such as the human body (parts). The study takes the interactive view of embodiment and offers a corpus-based and comparative analysis of various conceptualizations of the body (parts), the HEART and the HEAD, for inner life experiences in English and Chinese. The primary aim is to reexamine the role of the body in abstract conceptualizations by exploring body and culture as groundings of metaphor. The second aim is to address the critical methodological issues about systematic identification of linguistic and conceptual metaphors in natural data from large-scale corpora.

This study employs the Pragglejaz Metaphor Identification Procedure (MIP) for identifying linguistic metaphors, and the WordNet and SUMO method for identifying conceptual structures of linguistic metaphors. Two conceptual metaphors for mental life, HEAD/HEART AS A CONTAINER and HEAD/HEART AS AN OBJECT OF MANIPULATION, are found both in English and in Chinese. A difference seems to exist in terms of degree of saliency or conventionality of the shared conceptual metaphors, with HEAD AS A CONTAINER in English and HEART AS AN OBJECT OF MANIPULATION in Chinese as the most productive metaphor for mental life respectively. Both English and Chinese share the conceptual metaphors HEART AS AN OBJECT, HEART AS A CONTAINER, and HEART AS MOTION for emotional life. A difference seems to exist in terms of degree of saliency (or conventionality) of the shared conceptual metaphors, with HEART AS AN OBJECT in English and HEART AS A CONTAINER in Chinese as the most productive metaphor for emotional life respectively. The difference in saliency of the shared conceptual metaphors is a reflection of the relative preferential conceptualizations of body (parts) for inner life experiences in two different cultures.

In addition, cross-cultural variations in metaphor are observable in the “range of the target” that the two languages and cultures have available for the conceptualizations of the head and/or the heart. English uses two source domains, while Chinese selects five source domains to characterize mental life. HEART AS A LOCATION, HEART AS MOTION, and HEART AS LIGHT, are alternative metaphors for mental life in Chinese. English employs three source domains, while Chinese selects five source domains to characterize emotional life. HEART AS HEAT and HEART AS FOOD are alternative metaphors for emotional life in the Chinese language. The underlying reason is that the “range of the target domains” is extended in the Chinese language and culture, resulting in the cross-cultural variations in English and Chinese.

The overall claim of the study is that metaphor is a widespread phenomenon that occurs in the interactions of body, language, and culture. The methodological separation between identifying linguistic and conceptual metaphors has a clear advantage over the top-down approach that would start out from conceptual metaphors in the study of metaphor in language and thought.
Using Fables to Prompt Complex Speaking in Young Adults

Marilyn A. Nippold
University of Oregon

This study was designed to examine syntactic complexity in the spoken discourse of young adults. Two speaking tasks were employed, conversational and narrative. It was predicted that the narrative task would elicit greater syntactic complexity than the conversational task.

The participants were 40 adults (mean age = 22 years; range = 20-24 years) who demonstrated typical language development, based on norm-referenced testing using the Test of Adolescent and Adult Language-Fourth Edition (TOAL-4; Hammill, Brown, Larsen, & Wiederholt, 2007). All adults were native speakers of General American English, living in the western United States.

Each participant was individually interviewed using a conversational task, followed by a narrative task. The conversational task encouraged the participant to talk about common topics such as school, work, family, friends, and travel. For the narrative task, the participant listened to two Greek fables, retold each one in his or her own words, and answered a set of reflective questions about the stories.

Fables were used for the narrative task because they address complex topics about human beings, and therefore should be of interest to young adults. For example, the fables used in the present study – The Monkey and the Dolphin and The Mice in Council – prompted the participant to think about complex mental states including goodwill, trust, pretense, disgust, fear, pride, wisdom, and sacrifice.

After the participant retold a fable, the examiner asked questions that prompted reflection on the deeper meanings of the story. For example, for The Monkey and the Dolphin, the participant was asked to draw inferences (e.g., “Why did the dolphin ask the monkey if he was an Athenian?”), interpret an idiom (e.g., “Can you explain the meaning of the expression, to be in deep water?”), and think critically about the moral message it conveyed (e.g., “Do you agree with the moral of this story, that those who pretend to be what they are not, sooner or later, find themselves in deep water?”). It was expected that these questions, in addition to the story retell, would prompt the use of complex syntax. Syntactic complexity was measured by calculating mean length of C-unit (MLCU) and clausal density (CD) for each speaking task.

As predicted, MLCU was greater on the narrative task (mean = 11.89 words; range = 8.78-17.27 words; SD = 1.95) than on the conversational task (mean = 9.58 words; range = 5.64-13.44 words; SD = 1.61), a statistically significant difference ($t = 7.54$, $p < .0001$, $d = 1.30$) with a very large effect size. Additionally, CD was greater on the narrative task (mean = 2.28; range = 1.67-3.25; SD = 0.34) than on the conversational task (mean = 1.68; range = 1.05-2.25; SD = 0.26), also a statistically significant difference ($t = 10.63$, $p < .0001$, $d = 2.0$) with a very large effect size.

Syntactic complexity was especially high in response to the reflective questions. For example, the following C-unit, which contains 35 words and seven subordinate clauses, was produced by a 22-year-old adult as she explained why she agreed with the moral of the fable, The Monkey and the Dolphin:

And you know, I’ve actually heard stories about people who try to do things like lie about taking a sabbatical and take a job somewhere else and then it comes out in the newspaper.

The key message of this study is that tasks that prompt reflection on complex topics are more likely to reveal a young adult’s capacity to use complex syntax than are more traditional conversational tasks.
This paper gives an overview of the Constructicon-building effort within the Japanese FrameNet project, viewing the project as a practical implementation of the theories of Construction Grammar and Frame Semantics (cf. Boas 2010, Fillmore & Baker 2010, Fillmore et al. 2012). The paper argues that by understanding a Constructicon-building effort within a FrameNet-building project as a practical implementation of Construction Grammar and Frame Semantics, it becomes possible to define a division of labor between frame annotation and construction annotation. The paper furthermore proposes a new classification of grammatical constructions within a Constructicon, focusing on relations between grammatical constructions, “semantic” frames and “interactional” frames and on an analysis of Japanese constructions.

The Berkeley FrameNet project and its sister projects in Japanese, Swedish, and Brazilian Portuguese are describing the semantic and distributional properties of words, based on Frame Semantics. They have started to build the Constructicon, the registry of constructions in each language, as well, in order to describe the meaning of sentences as a whole. However, how to relate frames and constructions in these projects have been problematic. Following Ohara (2014a, b), this paper points out that as practical implementations of Frame Semantics and Construction Grammar, the syntax-lexicon continuum must be preserved in the FrameNets and the Constructicons. Thus, lexical units in the FrameNets and the constructions in the Constructicons should be kept parallel. Furthermore, the paper proposes that we can define: frame annotation as pertaining to frame-based meaning structures of lexical units and constructions; and construction annotation as consisting of syntactic annotation and frame-based and non-frame based meaning-structure annotation based on semantic and interactional frames.

The present paper proposes a new five-way classification of constructions, based on whether constructions evoke “semantic” frames or not and, additionally, whether “interactional” frames are involved or not. Whereas “frames” in FrameNets are “semantic” frames, that is, “script-like conceptual structures that describe a particular type of situation, object, or event along with its participants and props” (Ruppenhofer et al. 2010:5), “interactional” frames are meaning structures which cannot be characterized as consisting of participants and props (i.e., frame elements) but which are negotiated in interaction between the context and the speaker.

To summarize, by viewing Constructicons as implementations of Construction Grammar and Frame Semantics and thus by maintaining the syntax-lexicon continuum in Constructicons, it is possible to clarify the relations between constructions and frames. The paper argues that constructions can be classified taking into account not only “semantic” frames described in FrameNets, but also “interactional” frames, which are integral part of many constructions, at least in Japanese.

**Selected References**


Beat-like gestures use in different types of speech in American English.
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In studying multimodal communication, we focus on the way speech and gesture work together to create and convey a message. Parallel to the referential content, there is also a pragmatic aspect to the use of gesture which is to assist and regulate the delivery of this content. Beat-like gestures serve such a pragmatic purpose and have received relatively little attention in comparison to referential gestures. The present study concerns the use of beat-like gestures in different types of discourse in English; with beat-like gestures we mean any type of rhythmic body movement used to punctuate and reinforce speech. This study will focus on hand, head and eyebrow movements. Numerous studies have been conducted on the semantic relationship between speech and iconic gestures (McNeill 1992, 2000, Kendon 2004, Goldin-Meadow 2003), but few empiric studies (apart from McClave 1991, Loehr 2004, Loehr 2013) address the interaction between speech and beat-like gestures. McClave and Loehr found that the rhythmic up and down movements (called beats) tend to align with the nucleus of the intonation units.

This paper presents a gestural analysis of four types of discourse: political speeches, TV debates, teaching and spontaneous conversation. These four types could be seen as forming a cline from the most controlled type to the most spontaneous. For each type, 7 video clips of 1 minute each have been selected, representing altogether 1031 gestures for 28 minutes of video. The type of gesture, the alignment with accented syllables, as well as the amplitude and the intensity of the movement were annotated in ELAN. Amplitude was calculated thanks to a program created with the software MATLAB. The gestures were then put into three categories: small, medium and large. The annotation of intensity is based on the speed and amplitude of the movement.

Given the more public and emphatic nature of the controlled types of discourse in our data set, one expects more numerous, larger, more intense beat-like gestures and greater alignment with stressed syllables in more controlled speech.

The results confirm that, for all discourse types, beat-like gestures tend to align with the accented syllables in the corresponding speech, even though the alignment is not systematic. There is no evidence in the data that there is more alignment when the type of discourse is more controlled. Also, the results do not confirm the expectation of a lower frequency of beat-like gestures along the controlled-speech hierarchy suggested above (ranging from political speeches over TV debates to teaching). However, the data show a clear discrepancy between these three types of discourse on the one hand, and spontaneous conversation, on the other, in terms of quantity, size, and intensity of beat-like gestures. First of all, spontaneous conversation presents a lower total number of beat-like gestures. Secondly, speakers in all four types of discourse tend to use small gestures, yet the amount of large gestures is much lower in spontaneous conversation. The amount of high intensity beat-like gestures also appears to be lower in spontaneous conversation than in the other types of discourse.

In sum, there seems to be a difference between the way speakers use beat-like gestures when in spontaneous conversation on the one hand and in the three other types of discourse on the other, however it is not clear whether this is connected to the more or less formal nature of discourse. The next step for this study is to investigate the different functions of the types of discourse. Indeed, the differences could be linked to the more narrative function of discourse in spontaneous conversation and the more explicative and argumentative functions in the three other types of discourse.

References
Corpus Based Grammatical Order for Learning Contents Outline of Thai as a Foreign Language (Part 3: Modality markers)

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This present research is a study of the frequency of modality marker usage in Thai based on attested language data, the Thai National Corpus. It aims at analyzing the frequency of usage and variant grammatical functions of five modality markers, namely, “tong”, “khuan”, “naa”, “khong”, and “aat”. Specifically, this study identifies the frequency of occurrence as modality markers and the frequency of co-occurring patterns of the five modality markers in order to arrange the learning contents outline of grammatical topics on modality in Thai as a foreign language (TFL). The modality markers in Thai can be categorized into deontic modality markers (high-obligation “tong” and mid-obligation “khuan” / “naa”) and epistemic modality markers (high-conjecture “tong”, mid-conjecture “naa”, and low-conjecture “khong” / “aat”). These markers are versatile and can be used as auxiliaries preceding main verbs in sentences. It is found that their frequencies of occurrence as modality markers can be ordered from highest to lowest as follows; “tong” (0.96), “khong” (0.95), “khuan” (0.86), “aat” (0.85), and “naa” (0.40); and the frequency of the modality markers co-occurrence can be ordered from highest to lowest as follows; “tong” (1.00), “khong” (0.20), “khuan” (0.20), “aat” (0.20), and “naa” (0.20). From the frequency and cognitive syntactic/semantic analysis, “tong” is the most prototypical and “naa” is the most peripheral. The five modality markers are plotted into image schema and arranged in the TFL learning contents of a 150-hour-course per the following: “tong” introduced in 75th hour, “khuan” introduced in 110th hour, “aat” introduced in 120th hour, “khong” introduced in 125th hour, and “naa” introduced in 140th hour. From this arrangement of the modality markers, a L2 learner acquires concept of modality from centre to boundary.

References
Demonstratives are deictic expressions that help to identify the referent to the addressee in linguistic (endophoric use) or physical (exphoric use) context (Halliday and Hasan 1967). It is a widely held view that exophoric demonstratives are differentiated mainly on the basis of the location of the referent. In recent years there has been an increase of studies on the use of exophoric demonstratives and factors that affect the choice between proximal and distal demonstratives but mostly in Indo-European languages (e.g. English, Dutch) and with contradictory results. (e.g. Piwek et al 2008, Jarbou 2010). To the author’s knowledge, the use of exophoric demonstratives in Estonian has had little or no research attention. According to Pajusalu (2009), there are two possible demonstratives in Standard Estonian: see ‘this’ and too ‘that’ but distal too is used mostly in South-Estonian.

The aim of the study is to test the affective factors that are believed to have an effect on the choice of exophoric demonstratives and to clarify the consistency of the exophoric use of distal too. The hypothesis of the study is that the choice between demonstratives is not affected only by the location of the referent but by visual accessibility of the referent and need for contrast as well. To test the affective factors which are associated with demonstrative selection, an experiment was designed based on earlier research (e.g. Diessel 2006, Piwek et al 2008, Coventry et al 2008, Jarbou 2010). For eliciting data, stimuli of spatial opposition, visual saliency and contrast was used. Selection and usage of demonstratives was explored in an artificial interactional situation consisting of pairwise building of pre-determined figures out of Lego blocks. The Lego blocks were placed on a varying distance on a large table in front of the participants. Thus, enabling to identify whether the choice of the referent is affected by spatial opposition or other stimuli. Respondents were randomly allocated into pairs of instructors and builders. 24 pairs of 16-19 year old students from three secondary schools from different regions of South-Estonia were enrolled in the study. Video recordings were transcribed and coded by the author. Descriptive statistics and qualitative content analyses were used to interpret the findings. Preliminary results show that to indicate spatial opposition of referents, participants use proximal see ‘this’ for near referents and distal too ‘that’ for distant referents. For visually not salient referents, participants tended to use proximal see ‘this’ (even if the referent was distant), rather than distal too ‘that’, adding demonstrative proadverbs for location. To contrast the referents, participants used proximal demonstrative see ‘this’ and pronoun teine ‘other’. Thus, preliminary analysis suggests that not only the stimuli of spatial opposition play a role in selection of the demonstratives, but visual accessibility of the referent and need for contrast as well. The experimental approach used in this study proved to be effective in collecting linguistic data on spatial demonstratives and could be used for further comparative research among other Finno-Ugric languages and between Finno-Ugric and Indo-Germanic languages.

References


Through the case study of metaphorical construction of the concepts of BUSINESS and ENTERPRISE, this paper integrates corpus linguistics and the evaluation theory to provide a framework for working out the evaluative meanings of conceptual metaphors with the help of the online corpus tool Wmatrix.

Firstly, metaphor vehicles are identified with the help of MIPVU from the collocates of target-domain words in the self-built corpus of business discourse so that conceptual metaphors used to talk about the concepts under study can be found directly. Secondly, more than one semantic tag, which is allocated automatically to each metaphor vehicle by Wmatrix, can be divided into two types. One type of semantic tag, based on the definition of the source domain of conceptual metaphors, can be regarded as the labels of source domains for metaphor vehicles in order to formulate conceptual metaphors. The type of semantic tag, based on the definition of the evaluation of the appraisal system, can be recognized as the specific attitudinal meanings of metaphor vehicles. Thirdly, the specific attitudinal meanings serve as triggers to the evaluative meanings in the appraisal system and thus the general semantic prosody for the corresponding conceptual metaphors.

It is found that the concepts under study are evaluated positively in terms of valuation and capacity, the evaluative meanings of conceptual metaphors can be understood as the more operational concept “register prosody”, and that the annotation of register prosody facilitates the emergence of the interface among corpus methods, metaphor analysis and discourse analysis.
Representational distinctions between active-voice, be-passive, and get-passive

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Active-voice and passive-voice are complementary sentence forms that are available when describing a transitive event. In English, the latter has two variants: be-passive and get-passive. Numerous attempts have been made in the literature to represent the syntactic and semantic differences between these forms, while maintaining their shared features (e.g. Fleisher, 2008; Haegeman, 1985). Theories have often been overly complex, with little agreement between accounts. However, the pvP Theory (Thompson & Scheepers, 2013) postulates a simple syntactic unit consisting of a “pv-Phrase” with an unpronounced head, and a PRO specifier. This pvP unit is shared by both be-passives and get-passives. The authors claim that this allows a clear representation of both the syntax and semantics of these two passive forms.

The pvP states that the get- and be-passive differ in one representational aspect (number of lexical verbs), and the be-passive differs from active-voice in one aspect (presence of pvP unit), while the get-passive differs from the active-voice in both of these aspects. Following this logic, we suggest that representational similarity will determine the pattern of changes in a paraphrasing task; that is, paraphrases requiring a change to only one aspect will be preferred over those requiring two. This interpretation is compatible with a ‘noisy-channel’ model of language comprehension (e.g. Gibson, Bergen, and Plantadosi, 2013). The pvP also states that the broader range of meanings present in get and absent in be will facilitate changes from get-passive to be-passive, rather than the other direction.

To test these predictions, we ran two experiments in which participants gave acceptability ratings for various passive sentences and were given the option of providing an ‘improved’ free paraphrase for each. In experiment 1, we manipulated passive-type (get vs be) and by-phrase (present vs absent), as in (1).

(1) The composer [was / got] seduced by the dancer
The composer [was / got] seduced

For experiment 2, in addition to the agentive by-phrase, we examining two further adjunct types (2).

(2) The composer [was / got] seduced by the dancer
The composer [was / got] seduced by the end of the session
The composer [was / got] seduced in a dark back lane

In both experiments we found that be-passives were rated as more acceptable overall than get-passives, and were also less likely to receive an improved paraphrase.

As predicted, be-passives were almost exclusively changed into active-voice, while get-passives were significantly more likely to be changed into be-passives than into active-voice. This pattern was present across both experiments and all adjunct types. The presence of an agentive by-phrase increased the frequency of changes into active-voice, though primarily for be-passives.

Most significantly, despite active-voice being the most acceptable form, get-passives are still preferentially changed into be-passives. This supports our prediction that it is the representational similarity - number of representational differences between forms - that constrains the ease of making a change: a change from get-passive to be-passive, or from be-passive to active-voice, requires only one attribute to be modified. Although a change from get-passive to active-voice would result in achieving the most canonical or acceptable form, such a change is more difficult, since two attributes must be modified.

If only surface elements were relevant when quantifying the differences between sentences, then changes either from be-passive to active-voice or from get-passive to active-voice would entail the same amount of processing, and therefore should be equally likely to occur. Since this was not the case, we suggests that the computational logic of noisy-channel models may extend beyond the surface structure of a sentence to unpronounced structural elements, including the pvP unit.

References
In comparison to spoken language, computer mediated communication (CMC), such as text messaging, lacks non-verbal cues that aid successful communication, for example, by minimising ambiguity. It is therefore important to consider the strategies of language users in CMC to compensate for this (Tossell et al., 2012). Irony is frequently used to communicate the opposite of what is said: if someone makes a boring suggestion, their friend might say, “Sounds exciting!” This opposition can give rise to ambiguity, making irony especially difficult to interpret in CMC.

A number of studies have examined the use of devices such as emoticons or punctuation to aid understanding in CMC. However, most studies have involved participants rating the appropriateness of a range of emoticons in certain contexts, or rating their emotional effect. There are currently few production studies examining which emoticons are used in given contexts, and it remains unclear which devices are used as indicators of irony, due to vague or conflicting findings (Carvalha & Sarmento, 2009; Derks, Bos, & von Grumbkow, 2007). Furthermore, much of the literature refers to irony generally, without distinguishing different types (e.g., criticism vs. praise). We address this in two experiments investigating emoticon production in ironic versus literal contexts, as well as in criticism and praise.

In Experiment 1, participants were presented with a document containing 48 short text message conversations (e.g., 1a,b) in which the final comment was ambiguous between a literal or ironic interpretation. They were asked to imagine these as conversations between themselves and a friend. Their task was to clarify their intentions as either being serious (i.e., literal) or ironic, without adding or removing words, with no explicit prompt to use emoticons. Filler trials were also included. The final comment was also either superficially positive (1a) or negative (1b). When used in an ironic context, the superficial polarity becomes reversed; that is, when intended ironically (1a) is interpreted as criticism, while (1b) is interpreted as praise.

(1) You: Are you busy later?
   Friend: Yes, I’m going to the guitar rehearsal for Sunday.
   You: (a) But you’re basically an expert already (b) Yeah, you really need the practice

Participants produced an extensive range of devices: more than 90 distinct emoticons. In line with several earlier studies (e.g. Carvalha & Sarmento, 2009), we found the most frequently used devices in ironic contexts were ..., :p and ;). More interestingly, the use of each was modulated by the polarity of the comment.

For ironic criticism, ... was the most frequently used device, and was used significantly more frequently than in ironic praise. The ... device was also the most frequently used in contexts of literal criticism. For ironic praise, :p was the most frequently used device, followed by ;), with both being used more frequently than in ironic criticism. Likewise, :p and ;) respectively were the most frequent devices in joking contexts, even displaying raw frequencies comparable to ironic praise.

In Experiment 2, we adapted the above design, removing the final comment and asking participants to provide a response that would clearly communicate their intentions as being ironic or serious. Again, there was no prompt to use emoticons. Despite allowing a more open-ended response, we found that emoticon use was almost as high as in Experiment 1, and that the usage patterns observed in Experiment 1 were replicated.

Of the huge variety of emoticons in use, a small set are used in facilitating the communication of ironic intent. The devices in this set are not used uniformly, instead they vary with the polarity of irony. Interestingly, the same device is used for both literal and ironic criticism; this suggests that ... is in fact a marker of criticism. It may be that case that ... marks out criticism indirectly, with participants using the device to ‘soften the blow’ of a critical comment. Nonetheless, use of ... clarifies that a superficially positive comment is intended negatively (i.e. ironically). Conversely, the most popular device in ironic praise (:p) is also the most popular when joking. If :p marks a joke, then participants may utilise it when to indicate that a superficially negative comment should not be taken seriously.

Irony should not be conceptualised as simply inverting the meaning of a sentence; its precise function differs depending on the given context. When irony is used for praise, it inverts the superficial
literal meaning, while aiming to be light-hearted, and hence less serious (or sincere) than literal praise. This is in line with the Tinge Hypothesis, which predicts that irony lessens a comment’s emotional impact (Dews, & Winner, 1995). Meanwhile, when irony is used for criticism, it inverts the superficial literal meaning, but still retains the intention to be critical.

References
Serial verb constructions (SVCs) play an important role in typological studies, but there is still no widely accepted definition of the construction (Paul, 2004). Aikhenvald (2006) proposes a definition from the perspective of form and semantics, but this sometimes poses analytical problems when distinguishing SVCs from other multiverb constructions.

This study argues that it is hard to define the notion of SVC consistently using traditional grammar-based descriptions as the basis for definition, because of considerable cross-linguistic variation in surface grammatical constructions. The authors therefore propose to apply a universal conceptual perspective. A cognitive-based analysis of multi-verb constructions (most of which are SVCs) in Mandarin Chinese has been carried out by Yin (2010), which made use of cognitive grammar but did not go further to propose a precise definition. Besides, a cognitively based approach to SVCs is less plausible if limited to the analysis of a single language.

In order to plug these research gaps, this study analyzes SVC from a cognitive-based perspective (Langacker, 2003). It treats SVC as a kind of conceptual extension from the trajector to the landmark within one event in certain languages that use two or more than two individual verbs to encode this extensional process. This definition works well for the traditionally labeled asymmetrical and symmetrical SVCs, in that the landmark of the former type is a static termination while landmark of the latter is dynamic with a potential of further extension. In fact realization of that potential extension would generalize multi events represented by other multiverb constructions (coordinate, subordinate, etc.), therefore this cognitive-based definition can also locate SVCs among the continuum of multiverb constructions.

The authors have tested this cognitive-based definition cross-linguistically on asymmetrical and symmetrical SVCs along with their detailed subtypes. This provides a firm empirical base on which to develop the proposals further.

References

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2 It is claimed that China Scholarship Council funds this research.
A corpus-based approach to causative-passive ambiguities in the get+NP+past participle

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Since Lakoff (1971) pointed out the ambiguous readings of John got his dishes washed, the get+NP+past participle has been discussed in relatively few studies (Ikegami 1989; Gilquin 2010; Emonds 2013) in contrast to the large amount of attention paid to the get+past participle (get-passives). The aim of this paper is to provide corpus evidence for the semantic factors involved in the “transitive” get-passive gradient based on the British National Corpus. The basic premise is that the verb groups of the concurrent past participles are not random, and the semantics of verbs in high frequency comprises parts of the semantics of the get+NP+past participle.

From the BNC, 4528 samples of the get+NP+past participle were retrieved and grouped into the five subclasses: disjoint reference (29.5%), active (co-reference) (54.7%), adjectival (10.9%), psychological (2.5%), and formulaic (2.4%) (cf. five subclasses of get-passives in Collins (1996)).

The disjoint reference, which has three participants to fill in the subject, the object, and (optional) by agents, is associated with the three semantic verb groups from the keywords of the past participles: service situations (haircut, medical treatment, purchase, delivery, repairs), seeking authoritative decisions (accept, approve, hear, sign, release), and violent situations (catch, kill, bite). The first two groups yield the indirect causative, with the subject’s stronger control over the event and the subject being positively affected from the event. The third group, with negatively affected subjects and their possessive pronouns in the object, induces the indirect passive.

The active (co-reference), which has the identical subject and agent, allows for transitive rephrasing using the two participants (you get it sorted out vs. you sort it out). The three dominant semantic verb groups of the past participles are daily activities (do, set up, wash, write), starting or finishing (start, finish), and solving problems (sort out, work out, clear up, organise, settle). Completion of the event is often emphasized by the particles up, out, and away. Together with the verbs of effort (try to, manage to) or modal verbs (have to, need to), get and the focused endpoint of the event can be perfectly named as the successful accomplishment (the term used for have Object pp. by Ikegami (1986)).

Two parameters resolve the ambiguous readings of the get+NP+past participle: three or two participants and the degree of the subject control over the event. When the subject has less control, the past participle is read passively in the disjoint reference and adjectivally in the co-reference.

References
Pedagogical Conceptualization of English Articles
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ESL/EFL textbooks traditionally present multiple rules for article use followed by fill-in-the-blank exercises. Relying exclusively on this approach is inadequate. First, exceptions to textbook rules are easily found in authentic discourse (Pica, 1983). Second, rules may presume learners’ ability to make difficult semantic distinctions not made in their first languages, such as the count/noncount distinction. Third, individual rules often seem arbitrary and unrelated. For example, why do some textbooks claim that no article (Ø) is used with both noun phrases that are the least definite and noun phrases that are the most definite? Why use THE with names of rivers but Ø for names of lakes? How could this rule for river and lake names possibly be related to the rule to use A for first mention and THE for subsequent mention?

Following Negueruela’s (2009) call for pedagogical grammars to explain language through meaning categories rather than rules, this poster details a conceptual framework for the English article system. The framework prompts teachers and learners to view the grammar of English articles as a series of conceptualizations to be experienced, not as a series of rules to be memorized. This approach falls squarely within a concept-based approach to language instruction (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006).

The framework relies heavily on nominal grounding (Langacker, 2008), frame semantics (Fillmore, 2007), and metaphor in grammar (Steen, 2007). At its core, the framework provides a three-way distinction: schematic images symbolize abstract conceptions for noun phrases headed by THE, A/SOME, and Ø. These images place a noun phrase within a comparison set and relate this set to a larger discourse frame. Countability and number are visually represented within the images.

The framework is meant to serve as both a conceptual tool for learning (Kozulin, 2003) and a semiotic mediator (Valsiner, 2007) for individuals’ use of language. Teachers and learners may map disparate article uses to the framework’s overarching schema and thus cohere rules and exceptions into one seamless, meaningful, comprehensible system.

References
A Corpus-based Study of Chinese Non-basic Color Terms from the Perspective of Cognitive Semantics

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Color terms, as the products of human perception, categorization and encoding of color with natural language, are words and expressions denoting the color attributes of things, including hue, brightness and saturation and form a relatively independent yet dynamic lexical system of natural language, which were viewed as best-case argument for linguistic relativity prior to Berlin and Kay’s universalist tradition and remain one of the leading issues in the linguistic studies of the day. This paper makes a corpus-based study from the perspective of cognitive semantics of Chinese non-basic color terms, the subcategories of color terms, aiming to answer the following two research questions:

1. What are the representation forms of Chinese non-basic color terms?
2. What are the cognitive motivations involved in the naming of Chinese non-basic color terms?

The present study takes as its research methodology the combination of quantitative research and qualitative research. The data used are taken from Corpus of Chinese Language(CCL). It is found that the non-basic color terms, as subcategories of basic color terms, are formed in the cognitive process of transcategorization, and there are four main representation forms of non-basic color terms in Chinese: object color terms, proper noun color terms, color terms denoting degree, color terms denoting mixed color. It is also found that the major cognitive motivations of the Chinese non-basic color terms are metaphor, metonymy and conceptual integration.

The present study supports the new interpretation of Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis by Levinson(1997; 2003), namely, there is universality at the atomic level but differences at the molecular level in human languages. The non-basic color terms directly reflect how a speech community construes color experience as meaning and reveal the unique thinking mode of an ethnic group in getting to know things as well as the close relation between linguistic categories, cognitive capacity and ethnic traditions.

References
Processing of Inflectional morphology in L1 and L2 Japanese

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The processing of Inflectional morphology was a highly-focused issue during the last two decades in psycholinguistic. Previous studies in English demonstrated that the representation of English inflected words either via a single route or a dual route processing by using a rule-based computation or a whole-word recognition. (Marslen-Wilson, & Tyler, 1998; Pinker, 1999; Ullman, 2001) Differ from English studies, there is little agreement on the mechanisms of inflectional morphology processing in inflection-riched languages as a native language or a second language, and also on the exact roles of morphological regularity, orthographical similarity and other morpho-syntax factors. (Gor, & cook, 2010; Clahsen, Felser, Sato, & Silva, 2010)

In this study, we used a cross-modal priming paradigm to explore the processing of inflected verbs as well as the roles of morphological regularity, orthographical similarity in L1 and L2 Japanese, a language with complex morphological transformation system. Materials included regular/irregular inflected verbs, orthographically distinguished from similar to dissimilar by the criterion of Allen & Badecker (2002). Each verb will match three prime conditions, the regular condition (kimerareru - kimeru), the irregular condition (kimaru - kimeru), and the non-relative condition (sakkura - kimeru) as a control prime to compare the facilitation between regular and irregular conditions.

The result indicated that native speakers of Japanese revealed greater facilitation for regular inflections than irregular inflections, and were consistent with the dual-route system. In comparison, L2 Japanese learners performed regular inflections faster than irregular inflections only in high orthographical similarity conditions (kimaru - kimeru), but not in Low orthographical similarity conditions (ochiru - otosu). We account for this result in terms of the low distinction of regular/irregular inflective forms in Japanese. Unlike English, Japanese has a comparatively complex inflectional system, inflections ranging from regular to irregular according to some potential rules of affix types. (okutsu 1968; kageyama 2001) L2 Japanese Learners cannot grasp these potential rules as well as natives do, so they tend to overuse the regular rules to the irregular forms. For this reason, the difference of reaction times between regular and irregular forms was largely reduced, and decomposed ways are in charge of the L2 inflection processing. Overall, the finding suggested that inflective rules and orthographical similarity play an important role in processing of Japanese inflection in L2 learners.

References
The relation between metaphor and categorization has been an important issue in various research fields, including philosophy, logics, linguistics, and cognitive science. The role of metaphor in category extension is recognized as one of the basic tenets of cognitive linguistics and the Embodiment Philosophy. Studies on the role of metaphor in categorization have significant theoretical implications to our understanding of why metaphor is possible and how category can be fluid. Previous cognitive linguistic studies were merely based on descriptive data on concrete language forms, failing to systematically investigate the underlying mechanism. Hence, there still lacks a comprehensive theoretical framework to account for the role of metaphor in category extension. The present paper attempts to explore the process in which the metaphor topic and vehicle leap over the conventional categorical boundaries and join a common superordinate category as metaphorical categorization.

Two experiments were conducted to answer two questions:

1. What is the characteristic of the time course in which the metaphor vehicle obtains an abstract categorical referent in the course of metaphor processing?

2. What is the characteristic of the process in which the metaphor vehicle dynamically obtains an abstract categorical referent in a vitro diachronical setting?

The first experiment employed priming metaphor similarity manipulation. A 2 (metaphor prime type: attributive metaphor prime, structural metaphor prime) × 3 (target type: concrete literal, abstract categorical, unrelated) × 3 (target SOA: 375ms, 750ms, 1500ms) mixed design was employed. 30 pairs of metaphors was taken from previous researches or generated by the author herself. Each pair was designed to have the same vehicle yet different topics (e.g., “湖面-镜子” (lake surface-mirror) and “历史-镜子” (history-mirror)). It was intended that in each pair, one metaphor has attributive similarity between the topic and vehicle (e.g., lake surface-mirror) while the other had relational similarity (e.g., history-mirror). The participants were instructed to carefully read and figure out the similarity conveyed by the topic and vehicle pair, and make a key press as quickly and accurately as possible as to whether the target word was a meaningful Chinese word or not.

The second experiment adopted a diachronical paradigm. A 2 (similarity of word pair: attributive similar, structural similar) × 2 (learning type: repeated topic, variant topic) × 3 (probe type: abstract categorical, concrete literal, unrelated control) mixed design was used. Similarity of word pair and learning type were manipulated between subjects while probe word type was varied within subjects. The whole experiment consisted of two phases: a learning phase and a testing phase. The learning phase was taken as the manipulation of the diachronical process of the categorization in the vehicle, and the test phase in which a semantic priming paradigm was adopted was taken as the investigation into the abstraction level of the vehicle.

Through the two experiments, we found that the induction of the abstract schema at the later stage was due to the structure mapping at the earlier stage, and the time course of metaphorical categorization had the “first-alignment-later-induction” characteristic; and the induction of the abstract referent in the vehicle did not result from mere repeated memorization of the same topic-vehicle pair, but from repeated activation of the same schema between the same vehicle and various topics. We conclude that it is structure-mapping and schema induction that underlie the mechanism of metaphorical categorization.