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

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National Research University Higher School of Economics

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 end 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
Grammatical and Morphological Collocations of Gairaigo in Contemporary Japanese
Anna Bordilovskaya
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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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gairaigo 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.
The conceptual nature of rhetorical effects in legal and diplomatic discourse: Syrian and Libyan conflicts as case studies

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Image schematic notions are considered to be essential to human imagination and reasoning (Turner, 1991; Oakley, 2005). This pilot study aims to apply Force Dynamic theory (Talmy, 2000) to the legal and diplomatic rhetoric as continuity to previous studies about the application of this analytical tool to the political and economic rhetoric (Turner, 1991; Dishong, 2004; Oakley, 2005) and critical discourse analysis (Hart, 2011). This piece of research will tackle the United Nations Security Council’s (UNSC) management of the recent Syrian and Libyan conflicts during their first three years (2011-2013).

Security Council Resolutions (SCRs) are not often considered to be ‘self-contained’ in a way that their intent is based on other important documents (Wood, 1998, p.87). That is why the corpus of each case includes not only the SCRs but also their appropriate reports from the Secretary General (SG) and the Security Council’s presidential statements (SCPSs). The Syrian corpus is made up of 4 SCRs, 2 SGRs and 4 SCPSs. The Libyan corpus includes 8 SCRs, 6 SGRs and 3 SCPSs. The difference in the number of documents issued for every conflict reflect the variance in managing conflicts by the SC even though they share the same background to some extent. The analysis of UNSC rhetoric through the Talmyan framework should provide answers to the following threefold objective:

- First, how are tactical aims, events and discourse actors conceptualized in relation to one another in the SGRs and SCPSs?
- Second, how are they construed later on in SCRs? In other words, to what extent do the force-dynamic indicators, that are present in SG’s, “[…] reflect-producer’s construal of the scene as a force interaction and prompt for the text-consumer [Security Council (SC)] to conceptualize the scene in the same way […]” (Hart, 2011, p. 275).
- Third, do the different members in the UN under study follow the same strategies when dealing with these two conflicts which share almost a similar background?

References
Highlighting Components of a Frame: A Comparative Study of English and Korean
Yoonsun Cho
Chonnam National University

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 corpora 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 ece/s) 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 '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
What to wear today?
Convergence and divergence in Dutch clothing terminology
Jocelyne Daems
Quantitative Lexicology and Variational Linguistics (QLVL), KU Leuven

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.]
Allomorphy: Old Concept, Big Data, New Model
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Many key concepts that modern linguistics operates with were first introduced in the Structuralist Era, the time when linguists believed in clear-cut oppositions and privative features and did not have access to large electronic corpora. Today, when we apply these Structuralist concepts to linguistic data, which is gradient in nature, we encounter a gap between the data and our theory. I argue that it is now high time to update the old classical linguistic concepts with regard to 1) big authentic data and 2) new robust methodology of qualitative and quantitative analyses. I demonstrate this idea by looking at the concept of allomorphy, crucial for understanding the morpheme and the asymmetry between form and meaning. I will draw much attention to the role of semantics in the allomorphic relationship form which has been largely underestimated.

The absolute idealistic understanding of allomorphy that prevails in modern linguistics depicts this phenomenon as an Aristotelian category (Taylor 1995: 23; Lakoff 1987: 161), a category with clear-cut boundaries defined by binary features and internally unstructured. The traditional definition narrows allomorphy down to a mere variation of form where the meaning remains constant and variants are distributed complementarily (Haspelmath 2002: 27). This model leaves no space for an intermediate zone of membership and rules out all ambiguous cases that might to some degree belong to this category. My findings show that even clear textbook examples of allomorphy exhibit semantic differences and distributional overlap, suggesting that violations of identical meaning and complementary distribution are not uncommon properties of morpheme variants. In this paper I will briefly discuss the origins of this concept, reveal its drawbacks, and elaborate an alternative usage-based model of allomorphy in terms of Cognitive Linguistics.

I challenge the traditional idealized model of allomorphy by confronting it with comprehensive data on 15 Russian aspectual prefixes: RAZ-, RAS-, RAZO-, S-, SO-, PERE-, PRE-, VZ-, VOZ-, O-, OB-, OBO-, U-, VY-, IZ-. I present the overall results of seven case studies of these prefixes that illustrate different degrees of closeness of mutual relations that prefixes can have. In particular, I examine non-trivial cases that do not fully satisfy the traditional criteria of identical meaning and complementary distribution. I show that prefix polysemy and multifactorial conditioning of prefix distribution make it difficult to assess these criteria understood in absolute terms. Moreover, I present cases of semantic dissimilation of allomorphs and overlap in distribution that violate these criteria. The data analyzed is collected from the Russian National Corpus (www.ruscorpora.ru; 4,718 verbal lexemes) and two linguistic experiments (11,138 subject responses).

In the light of my findings I propose that allomorphy is broader than its traditional understanding. It is a gradient phenomenon which can be best captured in terms of a radial category structure. I take Cognitive Linguistics perspective and elaborate an alternative usage-based model of allomorphy. According to this model, allomorphy is a scalar relationship between morpheme variants – a relationship that can vary in terms of closeness and regularity. In this paper I explain what is to be taken as Prototypical Allomorphy, Standard Allomorphy, and Non-Standard deviations. I propose additional criteria for allomorphy and advocate the use of statistics in analyzing linguistic variation. Statistical modeling makes it possible to measure semantic similarity and divergence and distinguish robust patterns of distribution from random effects. Quantitative methods turn the concept of allomorphy into a measurable and verifiable correspondence of form-meaning variation. The model of allomorphy I propose is flexible enough to handle non-trivial cases where morpheme variants develop differences in meaning and are distributed by interacting and conflicting factors.

Non-Standard Allomorphy is largely unexplored terrain. This talk opens up new directions for future large-scale research. I would like to invite other linguists to collaborate and to explore non-standard allomorphic relations in other languages.

References
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 synchronous-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+że and others, dating back to the *aže, jže, *da že, *a ono or a no / nb are Slavic; azhe, izhe, dazhe, ano are marked in the Old Russian language. The conjunctions a/žh/no, i/žh/no, da/žh/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, 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 to 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 are 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-particle clusters are used in dialect speech: a/žh/na/k, a/žh/ni/k, a/ažh/ni/t, a/žh/ni/o/li, i/žh/na(y)/k, i/žh/na(y)/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/žh/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
Eötvös Loránd University

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 saš 'pimply', lit. 'someone who has to get married soon'), the environment (řivežen 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 řivtěmka '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: řivštš '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 avatiks 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, aparo 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' + vařa 'hole', sukaodar 'boil on the armpit' < suka 'female' + odar 'udder', pińeodar 'boil on the armpit' < pińe 'puppy' + odar 'udder' (Šokša) and pińeň cēčeť 'style' < pińeň 'puppy’s' + cēčeť '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.
On Dynamic Construal in Cognitive Linguistics: Cognitive Simulations of Movement as Instances of Mental Imagery in Fictive Motion Processing, an Eye-Tracking Study

Alena Holubcová
Masaryk University, Brno (Czech Republic)
Humanities Lab, Lund (Sweden)

This study combines findings from cognitive linguistics and mental imagery. With the help of the eye-tracking methodology, it examines the relationship between summary/sequential scanning, coined by Langacker, and fictive motion (sentences as in *The road is winding through the valley*, as coined by Talmy). In relevant literature (Croft & Wood, 2000) and (Croft & Cruse, 2004), both summary/sequential scanning and fictive motion are presented as theories of dynamic construal.

Available evidence (Matlock 2001, 2004) suggests that fictive motion processing elicits cognitive simulation of movement in our brains. It is theorized that because of this simulation of movement, people react slower to fictive motion statements after they hear a story including movement in a cluttered terrain, travel over long distances, or movement with a slow travel rate; as opposed to faster reaction to fictive motion statements after they hear a story including movement in an unobstructed terrain, travel over short distances, or movement with a fast travel rate.

In the present study, participants were listening to a set of stories with long and short distance scenario, which were each followed by a fictive motion statement designed so that it reflects both theories of dynamic construal. The task was to decide whether the information in the statement agrees or disagrees with the information in the story. Participants’ eye movements “to nothing” (blank screen paradigm) were recorded while they were listening to the stories, and while they were pressing the buttons in response to the statements. After the experiment, participants filled a questionnaire (OSIV-Q) examining their object, spatial and verbal imagery.

The measures analysed include response time to the statements, fixation dispersion (examining the area of the screen covered by fixations in all the target stories) on the background of the OSIV-Q scores – since people with high spatial imagery scores tend not to move around with their eyes much when there is “nothing” to look at; and comparing the absolute saccadic direction of all the saccades during the relevant time span from the part of the story mentioning the movement on the road, with the saccades recorded during answering the relevant statement.

References:
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
Fibromyalgia and its metaphors: a corpus-based study

Sondos Ibrahim
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This poster reports the findings from a corpus-based study into the metaphors used to describe the experiences of patients diagnosed with the chronic pain condition fibromyalgia. Fibromyalgia is a condition which is notoriously difficult to diagnose and is typically characterized by a patient’s assertion that ‘everything hurts’ (Wolfe et.al. 2010). It is estimated that approximately 5% of the UK's population will develop fibromyalgia at one point during their lives, with diagnosis most likely between the ages of 25 and 50; approximately 90% of fibromyalgia-sufferers are female (NHS Choices). Despite widespread clinical research into the condition, there is currently no known cause and no known cure.

Although pharmacological interventions may aid a fibromyalgia-sufferer to cope with their pain, talking therapies and support groups are often prescribed by clinicians to assist with improved quality of life. The last five years have witnessed a surge of clinical interest in metaphor-studies, particularly in the applications of metaphor research for improved patient wellbeing. It is in this context that the present study applies conceptual metaphor theory to the discourse of fibromyalgia-sufferers on online forums and in two large corpora. The forum for the UK Fibromyalgia Association is the leading online peer-support group for sufferers of fibromyalgia in the UK. Searches were conducted for fibromyalgia is *, FM is *, my fibromyalgia is *, my FM is * and (my) pain is * for a sample of forum posts. These were then compared to similar data from the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Global Corpus of Web-Based English (GloWbE) to compare the descriptions of pain and fibromyalgia in various English varieties. This study therefore builds on research conducted by Semino (2010) into the conceptual metaphors of pain to evaluate the extent to which fibromyalgia-sufferers describe their experiences online in similar terms. Although my results display parallels with those identified by previous studies into pain metaphors (e.g. Kövecses 2008) with pain described as fire, a tormenting animal or a sharp object – my results suggest that fibromyalgia-sufferers identify most closely with metaphors of warfare and fighting –metaphors traditionally aligned with cancer discourses. The present study therefore foregrounds the relationship between chronic pain and terminal illness.

This study, so, aims to pave the way for further inquiry into the impact of metaphorical expressions on patient-clinician interactions and to assist with the communications training of healthcare professionals in the future.

Selected 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
Metaphors for Protest: The Persuasive Power of Cross-Domain Mappings on Demonstration Posters

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Heated public debates can encourage citizens to make use of creative linguistic means like metaphors in order to express their point of view effectively. Political communication is regarded as an interdisciplinary sub-field of linguistics and social sciences, however, researchers in this area mostly focused on the language and communication strategies employed by politicians and people in power (KLEIN 2010). The language use of ordinary citizens has received less attention, even though an examination of this part of the discourse can not only shed light on the people’s attitudes towards the elites, but also enhance our knowledge and understanding of the mechanisms of political protest in general.

In this paper I will investigate the emotional appeal and persuasive power of metaphorical mappings on demonstration posters used by opponents of the controversial infrastructure and railway station project Stuttgart 21 (S21) in Germany. The corpus consists of 110 posters and short texts which were used for the purposes of civil demonstration and protest between November 2009 and May 2012. The methodology I use is based on metaphor analysis as discussed in cognitive linguistics (e.g. LAKOFF & JOHNSON 1999). Concepts and findings from political science, especially research of protests (JASPER 1998), help support the poster’s core assumptions. The analysis yields insights into the conceptualisations and emotional attitudes of the protesters on the one hand, and allows to anticipate persuasive effects on the recipients on the other hand. The drastic metaphorical mappings include source concepts such as DEATH, ILLNESS, SUFFERING, PEST, DISASTER, SIN, DEVIL, HELL, DESTRUCTION and TERROR, see the following examples:

Stuttgart 21 Waterloo station, Stuttgart is bleeding, Final stop madness station, No amputation, Death zone S21, State terrorism of the German TalBahn

Selected 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

2 It is claimed that China Scholarship Council funds this research.
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.
Creating a meme: Conceptual Blending Theory and Internet memes

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Internet memes are recently emerged, multifaceted phenomena. Richard Dawkins introduced the term meme in his 1976 book “The Selfish Gene” to illustrate how cultural information is distributed (Dawkins 1989: 192). Research on the matter is primarily based on a quantitative analysis in regard to the effects and distribution of memes (Danung and Attaway 2008), the categorization and success of memes (Knobel and Lankshear 2007), the impact on pop culture (Levinson 2012), or the humorous aspects of memes (Piekot 2012). This study focuses on the construction of Internet memes and uses Conceptual Blending Theory (Fauconnier and Turner 2002) as the basis for observations. I arranged a Conceptual Integration Network (Fauconnier and Turner 2002: 47) for the phrase: “This thread is bad and you should feel bad” (Know your meme 2013). This type of phrase was coined as snowclone by Glen Whitman in 2004 (Pullum 2004). Snowclones are generic phrases or clichés which can be saturated with a new topic or idea while the basic structure of the phrase remains intact (Pollick). The meme is a reaction to the thread: “Why Do People Here Wait Until Girls Turn 18? and get so excited?” (bbd23 2009) The original phrase: “Your music’s bad and you should feel bad”, was first quoted in the Futurama episode “The Devil’s Hands Are Idle Playthings,” on August 10th, 2003. Snowclones of the phrase appeared around February 2009 (Know your meme 2013). The connection between a familiar concept and the inserted new context (Pollick) is made through metonymic relationships that are established among “elements in the blended space and elements in the inputs.” (Coulson and Oakley 2000: 187) In this case: a musician who is misplaying his instrument as part of a TV Show, and a person who posts a thread which is considered offensive. Conceptual Blending illustrates the link between these two concepts and the creation of new meaning. In the process of completion (Evans and Green 2006: 409), the gaps of the new concept are filled with additional background knowledge, provided by an image, gif or video that is part of the meme. This makes the meme more consistent, enhances salience and facilitates distribution.

References
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
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
Spatial opposition vs. visual accessibility and contrast: an experiment with Estonian demonstratives

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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 exphoric 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 exphoric 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 exphoric 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 exphoric demonstratives and to clarify the consistency of the exphoric 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
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
Representing irony in digital communication

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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)\begin{verbatim}
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
\end{verbatim}

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
A corpus-based approach to causative-passive ambiguities in the $\text{get} + \text{NP} + \text{past participle}$

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Since Lakoff (1971) pointed out the ambiguous readings of *John got his dishes washed*, the $\text{get} + \text{NP} + \text{past participle}$ has been discussed in relatively few studies (Ikegami 1989; Gilquin 2010; Emonds 2013) in contrast to the large amount of attention paid to the $\text{get} + \text{past participle}$ ($\text{get}$-passives). The aim of this paper is to provide corpus evidence for the semantic factors involved in the “transitive” $\text{get}$-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 $\text{get} + \text{NP} + \text{past participle}$.

From the BNC, 4528 samples of the $\text{get} + \text{NP} + \text{past participle}$ 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 $\text{get}$-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 $\text{get} + \text{NP} + \text{past participle}$: 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 adjectively in the co-reference.

References

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
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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 inflectional 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