An Intelligent Environment for Constructive Writing Support

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Software is often used to assist writers. Generally, assistance is corrective, whether spell-checking in word processors, or syntax-checking for language learning. An alternative approach is presented: an intelligent environment to help users author material based on a narrative (or rhetorical) structure together with a supporting set of evidence. The goal is to constructively assist the composition process: as the user writes, monitor progress and offer suggestions for evidence to include, or thoughts to pursue, rather than critiquing errors. This approach can thus be helpful to both beginners (to help get started) and experts (to help collect and organize research material.) The environment combines methods from computer-assisted language learning and computational linguistics to provide support for writing. One example of a technique from computer-assisted language learning that may prove useful for general writing support is the presentation of a variety of examples specific to the task at hand, providing models for the student to follow. Another is the presentation of a variety of lexical choices along with not only their meanings but also their connotations (*brisk* vs. *chilly* to describe the temperature – both describe cool weather but *brisk* has a more positive connotation.) One example of a technique from computational linguistics that may prove useful for general writing support is the automated analysis of writing with the goal of pulling up related facts – for example, if the opening sentence of the narrative is "In the autumn of 1989 I was in Berlin" then the environment could pull up supporting information about the fall of the Berlin Wall – a salient event – as well as maps of Berlin, historical weather information, and so forth. This approach should also be useful in a wide variety of domains, including creative nonfiction such as memoir or travel writing, scientific writing such as laboratory reports in biology or chemistry, and writing exercises for second language learning.

Perceptions of the best varieties of Spanish: Mexican-Americans in Western Colorado, prestige, stigma and linguistic insecurity

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From the 1970s onward, researchers have studied Spanish-speakers' perceptions of theirs and other varieties of Spanish. These investigations have looked at reactions to Spanish in comparison to Catalan (Pieras-Guasp 2002), to Spanish-English code-switching (Anderson 2006), to Spanish in comparison to English (Ryan and Carranza 1975), and a recent study investigated the perceptions of educated Spanish-speakers from various countries toward regional dialects (Montes-Alcalá 2007). Nevertheless, no study has looked at how Mexican-Americans in Colorado perceive dialectal variation in Spanish. The present study seeks to fill this gap by concentrating on what Mexican-Americans in Western Colorado consider to be the most prestigious and most stigmatized varieties of Spanish.

While many of the previous studies have been carried out using indirect methods—such as the Matched-guise Technique—to determine participants' perceptions of linguistic variation in Spanish, no research has been carried out applying the Perceptual Dialectology framework, in which participants are asked to explain where differing varieties of Spanish are spoken, what makes these varieties different and which are perceived as the best and worst dialects. A natural outcome of the use of this framework in the present study is the ability to determine to what extent the Mexican-American community in Western Colorado suffers from linguistic insecurity. Likewise, the results of this study make it possible to surmise the linguistic legacy these Mexican-

Americans will leave for future generations, for language change and language attitudes are "profoundly influenced by folk beliefs about language, particularly beliefs about the status of language varieties and the speakers of them" (Preston 1999: xxiv).

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Final Suffixes in Shoshoni

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In Shoshoni, a Central Numic language of the Uto-Aztecan family, verbal suffixes encode information about tense, aspect, and modality. These suffixes have been classified as either "pre-final" or "final" depending on their relative position following the verb stem. One final suffix appears on nearly every verb, and combinations of final suffixes are common. But which suffixes co-occur and, in what order, has not been previously examined. In this paper I provide a description of tense, aspect, and modality combinations for the final suffixes of Shoshoni. These include aspect-aspect combinations, aspect-tense combinations, and aspect-modality combinations. In addition, I argue that two aspect suffixes, previously described as "final" ought not be so classified. An important benefit of reclassifying these suffixes is that it allows a previously unrecognized order among the final suffixes to emerge. My results are based on the analysis of 95 narrative texts in Shoshoni with interlinear glosses and translations provided by the Preservation and Dissemination of the Gosiute/Shoshoni Materials in the Wick R. Miller Collection Project at the University of Utah's Center for American Indian Languages. Of the ten suffixes examined, eight are aspectual, one is a future marker, and one is a modal expressing obligatoriness. Of the eight aspectual suffixes, there are three imperfectives, two perfectives (usually called "completives"), one perfect, one stative, and one suffix which is neutral with respect to aspect.

The Shoshoni forms are listed below:

Aspect Suffixes	*Tense Suffix*	*Modality Suffix*
Imperfectives:	Future -to'i	Obligatoriness -nekki
Habitual -te(n)		
Iterative -yu		
Progressive -penni		
Perfectives:		
Slow -nu		

Momentary -kwa
Perfect   -pe(h)
Stative   -kante
Neutral   -na

The following suffix combinations were found:

Aspect-Aspect	Aspect-Tense	Tense-Aspect	Aspect-Modality
nu-na	nu-kwa-to'i	to'i-te	nu-nekki
nu-kwa	kwa-to'i	to'i-kante	kwa-nekki
kwa-te	kwa-to'i-kante	to'i-na	
kwa-pe	kwa-to'i-te	to'i-pe	
kwa-na			
yu-pe			
yu-na			
te-na			
pe-kante			

These combinations reveal the following relative order among the suffixes:

-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7
-nu	-kwa	-yu	-to'i	-te	-pe	-kante
						-penni
						-na

Although no combination contains more than three of these suffixes, all combinations respect the above order. For example, in all combinations with –kwa, the only suffix to precede it will be –nu (i.e., if -nu occurs in that particular combination); any other suffixes will follow it. The final slot, 7, may be filled by one of the three suffixes listed above. Whenever one of these suffixes appears, it is the last suffix in the sequence. It follows from this that they do not co-occur on the same verb stem.

This order has perhaps been obscured in the past by treating two other aspect suffixes as final suffixes. These are: -ki, glossed as continuous/repetitive and –ka, glossed as a stative. These suffixes combine regularly with all but two of the above suffixes (-penni and –kante) but their relative position is not fixed; they occur both before and after a number of suffixes. More important for the claim that they should not be classed with the other final suffixes is the fact that these two suffixes also regularly occur before suffixes identified above as "pre-final".

Psychological and social factors affecting second language dialect acquisition

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One way of understanding the degree to which second language (L2) learners are able to integrate into an L2 speech community is to determine whether they can and do acquire features of the ambient dialect. Research in native language dialectology has shown that some ethnic groups acquire the dialect features of their general community (i.e., Nguyen & Anderson), while others do not (i.e., Laferriere, 1979). Reasons why they do or do not participate in a dialect are mainly sociological (i.e., speakers consciously or unconsciously set themselves apart from mainstream speakers (Labov, 1994), or belong to different social networks (Milroy, 1987)). However, it is unclear whether L2 learners are able to acquire features of a specific dialect and whether sociological or

other factors may influence their ability and desire to do so.

Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine whether native Spanish speakers are able to acquire features of Utah English and what factors affect their doing so. Native Spanish speakers who arrived in Utah between the ages of 6 and 14 who had lived in Utah for an average of 7 years were chosen to participate because they were young enough to have had sufficient opportunities to associate with both native Utahans and members of the extensive Latino community. L2 learners of Utah English were examined because Utah English has tense/lax vowels merging to lax vowels before /l/ (e.g.., feel/fill both pronounced as *fill*), which is somewhat difficult for native Spanish speakers to acquire since Spanish lacks tense vowels.

Participants were asked to produce words containing Utah features as well as participate in other tasks which examined both sociological factors (attitudes towards Utah and Utah speakers, number of Utah versus Latino friends, and feelings towards integration in the English versus Latino community) as well as psychological/individual differences factors (length of short term memory, ability to imitate, age of arrival to Utah, length of and amount of exposure to Utah English).

Preliminary results of this study suggest that both psychological and sociological factors influence native Spanish learners' ability to acquire features of Utah English, including age of arrival to Utah and amount of contact with native Utahans. However, neither of these two factors completely explains why some learners are able to acquire features of Utah English—it appears instead that attitudes toward and access to the mainstream community seem to play the greatest role.

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The Texas German Dialect Archive

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This paper presents the Texas German Dialect Archive (TGDA), an on-line multimedia archive that contains 500 hours of interview recordings (including transcriptions and translations) with more than 225 speakers of current-day Texas German. The first part gives a historical overview of the development of the Texas German community, starting with the settlement of the first German immigrants in Texas in the 1830s. It then discusses the establishment of the German-belt throughout central Texas, where the different donor dialects coming from Germany eventually evolved into Texas German. Before World War I, Texas German language communities were able to maintain their language through German-speaking schools, churches, newspapers, and social organizations. Partly due to the English-only laws passed during World War I, German became stigmatized and was not taught in schools anymore. By the 1950s, the last German newspapers and regular church services ceased to exist. At the beginning of the 21st century, there are an estimated 8-10,000 speakers of Texas German, who are all 60 years and older. Since Texas German has not been passed on to younger generations since the late 1940s, it will most likely die out within the next 30 years.

Part two of the paper describes the workflow of the Texas German Dialect Project, which aims to document and archive the remnants of Texas German. Its mission goals are (1) to preserve the Texas German dialect as it reflects the rich cultural and linguistic traditions of its residents; (2) to gather basic research information about linguistic diversity in order to understand the nature of language variation and change; (3) to provide information

about language differences and language change for public and educational interests; and (4) to use the material collected in research projects for the improvement of educational programs about language and culture. The first stage of the project involves recording sociolinguistic interviews (open-ended questions) and elicitation/translation tasks with the remaining fluent speakers of Texas German. The second stage consists of digitizing the interviews. Then, they are edited, transcribed, and translated with the help of computer-based annotation software. Finally, the interviews are stored in an on-line database in combination with 35 metadata variables (e.g., speaker data (age, gender, education, etc.), interview data (location, time, length), etc.) that can be used to search the database for interviews.

Part three of the paper discusses how the Texas German Dialect Archive (http://www.tgdp.org) is currently used for linguistic research on new-dialect formation, language contact, and language death. Since the open-ended sociolinguistic interviews contain a wealth of information on the history and cultural practices of the Texas German community, the archive is also of interest to historians and anthropologists. We also show how the different types of interview data (open-ended interviews, elicitation/translation tasks) have been used for classroom and homework assignments in Germanic Linguistics classes. Finally, we discuss how the archive has been used for community outreach programs throughout central Texas.

Rising intonation contours and turn-taking in Australian English conversation

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In most varieties of English, an intonation contour with a high phrasal tone and a high boundary tone appear only with canonical yes-no questions, as in example (1) (Ayers Elam and Beckman 1997, Pierrehumbert and Hirschberg 1990). However, research on Australian English has shown that in this variety, the high-rise intonation contour is often used with declarative statements (Guy et al. 1986, Guy and Vonwiller 1989). This use of a rising intonation with a declarative statement is illustrated in example (2) in which the speaker, an experienced player of the particular game being described, attempts to familiarize the game to an inexperienced player.

(1)   Do   prunes   have   feet
            L*   L*   H H%   (Pierrehumbert and Hirschberg 1990:292)
(2)   It's sort of a game, right, you play with a tennis ball
                                                            L*   H H%   (Guy et al. 1986:26)
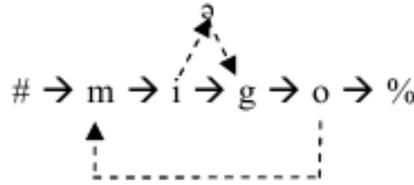
Although researchers have claimed that in Australian English the high-rise intonation contour has the function of an interactive device, appealing to an interlocutor for signs of comprehension or agreement (Guy et al., 1986 and Fletcher et al., 2002), there have been no studies to date which have taken into account the turn-taking system and noted the type of response provided by the interlocutor after such an contour is used.

In this paper I analyze 3,400 intonation units (16,500 words) drawn from a corpus of spontaneous Australian English conversation collected in Melbourne. Each intonation unit (IU) was analyzed for the type of intonation contour used (falling, rising, or continuing) and whether or not it was followed by a speaker change. In addition to this, the IUs which were uttered with rising intonation were further analyzed according to the DuBois et al. (1993) methodology to determine whether their function was substantive or regulatory in terms of discourse management.

The results of my work indicate that approximately 30% of the IUs occurred with the high-rise intonation contour, and of these 30%, only about half were responded to by an interlocutor. Furthermore, the majority of the IUs uttered with a high-rise intonation provided the discourse with substantive content and are not merely regulatory backchannels. Example (3) illustrates the frequency with which the rising

contour is used, as the speaker uses the contour four times within a single turn.

(3)   I'm finished   in the gardens   so I've got one day a week free freed up
                H-H%   H-H%   H-H%
        so I can concentrate on study next term   (tortured films: 161-164)
                                        H-H%

      My work indicates that the rising intonation contour is more frequent in conversation than had
previously been found by other researchers (cf. Guy et al. 1986) and I argue that because of the frequency
with which the high-rise intonation contour occurs in Australian English conversation, it shows evidence
of having undergone a process of conventaionlization, and is therefore often unlikely to be responded to
by interlocutors as it is a routine way of speaking. In conclusion I demonstrate how this work supports a
functional view of language change in which frequency and rountinization play a large role in the emergence of
linguistic structure.

Accounting for the Phonology of Reduplication: Precedence vs. Morphological Doubling

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      Much research in morphology and phonology has concentrated on the representation of phonological
effects in reduplication. Particular attention has been paid, on the one hand, to cases of
"underapplication" and "overapplication" of phonological processes in the reduplicant and, on the other
hand, to cases of "backcopying" of a reduplicant-targeted process onto the base. Two models that have
been proposed to account for these phenomena are Morphological Doubling Theory (MDT, Inkelas and
Zoll 2005) and Precedence Theory (PT, Raimy 2000). PT has been advocated by some because it easily
accounts for backcopying effects (Raimy 2000), but criticized by others for its lack of constraining
mechanisms (e.g. Downing 2001, Nevins 2002). In this paper, I argue that PT cannot serve as a viable
theory of morphophonology by showing that its account of phonological effects in echo reduplication is
endlessly complex, suffering from paradoxes and lost generalizations that arise out of its formalisms.
MDT, however, does not encounter these problems.
      Drawing on examples of reduplication in Kinnauri, Limbu, English, and Kannada, I first present the
basics of a PT account of fixed segmentism (e.g. Kinnauri migo 'eye' > migo-məgo 'eye or similar things',
where some segment in the reduplicant is fixed according to language-specific rules) and melodic
overwriting (e.g. English breakfast > breakfast-shmeakfast, where some pre-specified phonological
material 'overwrites' part of the reduplicant). In Figure 1, it can be seen that a number of principles must
be adopted to go from '#' (beginning of word) to '%' (end of word) correctly (i.e. for the linearization of
this structure to result in the attested form), since there are at least four different paths from '#' to '%'
(resulting in məgo, migo, migo-məgo, and məgo-migo). First, there must be a preference for maximizing
link traversal to motivate going through a reduplication 'loop' link in the first place (Link Maximization);
at the same time, links must not be traversed needlessly, lest linearization end up in an infinite loop (Link
Economy). The links must also be ranked so that when linearization comes to a fork in the road, it will
take the path leading to the attested form (Link Priority). Finally, for the correct path to be taken at all
junctions, linearization must be granted the ability to "look ahead" and see what sorts of side paths come
up later on.
      Despite these provisions, however, there still remain conflicts between PT representations and
principles of how they are linearized. In certain cases, the theory must also resort to representations that
obscure the real structure of the reduplication (e.g. affix reduplication in Kannada). Finally, the allowance
of both look-ahead and principle ranking in PT – a move that eliminates a "blind" process of linearization
– essentially turns linearization into a parallel processing mechanism with Optimality Theoretic
provisions that run counter to the derivational spirit of the theory. I conclude that the formal problems of

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PT outweigh any advantage it may have in empirical coverage and that MDT is the more promising theory of reduplication.

Figure 1. PT representation of fixed segmentism in Kinnauri migo 'eye' > migo-məgo 'eye or similar things'

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Using Split Function of Feature Checking and Movement on Code-Switching Research: Evidence from Amis-Chinese

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Although many hypotheses have provided insight into the mechanisms behind codeswitching (CS), most of them are based upon studies of language pairs in which one is almost always Indo-European. This study, analyzing CS of Chinese (Sino-Tibetan) and Amis (Austronesian) with elicited data, demonstrates that most current CS hypotheses fail to interpret CS phenomena outside the context of Indo-European languages. This study also presents that a new view of feature-checking within the Minimalist Program is essential for CS analysis.

The results show that most previously-proposed hypotheses cannot explain Amis-Chinese CS. Example (1) rejects the government constraint (Di Sciullo, Muysken, Singh, 1986) which argues that a governor and that which it governs must be drawn from the same language. Example (2) contradicts the functional head constraint which claims that what a functional head directly governs should be in the same language as its functional head (Belazi, Rubin, and Toribio, 1994). Example (2) also contradicts the Matrix Language Frame model whose main idea is that matrix language guides the morphosyntactic construction of CS (Myers-Scotton, 1993, Jake, Myers-Scotton, Gross, 2002). In (2) all later outsider morphemes do not conform to the matrix language, whether the matrix language is Amis or Chinese. If Amis is the matrix language, the Amis case marker (late outsider system morpheme) should co-exist; if Chinese is the matrix language, voice marker whose form is determined by tense, mood, and aspect (Wu, 2007) should not occur with the Chinese verb.

Additionally, the agent/actor, in either an actor-voiced (4) or undergoer-voiced (3) sentence, exhibits resistance to switching, either with or without the case marker. However, a switch in other theta-role positions does not demonstrate this phenomenon, as shown in (1). It seems that Amis-Chinese CS is affected by the grammatical constructs of the two languages themselves, corresponding to the Minimalist Approach (MacSwan, 1999, 2005). I also argue that to correctly interpret the phenomena of Amis-Chinese CS under Minimalist Approach, one must recognize the recent update of Minimalist Program: movement is done to satisfy the presence of the OCC feature (occurrence, in Chomsky, 2006). If

movement is motivated by feature-checking, ungrammatical word order will be rendered in Amis. For instance, if a theme raises up for nominative case, it will raise over the subject and the verb, resulting in incompatible word order. This problem can be solved if the functions of movement and feature-checking are split. To interpret (1), I argue that the undergoer voice1 marker ma- is introduced in the inner aspect (Travis, 2006) when there is a +telicity feature (Wu, 2007), which also detransitivizes the verb (Lin, 1995) and binds the agent with a genitive case. I assume there is no OCC feature in Amis to promote argument to Spec-IP and T with uninterpretable phi-features finds Theme as the goal for agreement.

   To conclude, I have shown the inadequacy of previously-proposed CS models in analyzing Amis-Chinese CS. Additionally, I also have shown that to analyze CS under the Minimalist Approach, one must incorporate the split functions of movement and feature-checking.

(1) ma-stol   nu   tosiya ningra   *wǒ de   chē*
    UV-break   Gen car   3rd.Poss   1st. poss car
     'His car hit my car (and my car was damaged).'
(2) *na   tai   chezi   ma-chun huai le*
    that   classifier car   UV-hit-break Asp
     'That car was broken.'
(3) **ma-stol   *(nu)   tā   de   chē*   ku   tosiya ako
    UV-break   (Gen) 3rds Pron poss   car   Nom   car   1st poss
     'His car hit my car.'
(4) **limeraay *(Ku)   měi   ge   fù qī*   tu   wawa   ira
    AV:love   (Nom)   every CLF   father   Acc child   3rd poss
     'Every father loves his child.'
1
  Abbreviation: AV: Actor-voiced; UV: Undergoer-voiced; Nom: Nominative; Gen: Genitive; Acc: Accusative; Pron: Pronoun; Poss: Possessive; CLF: Classifier

An Analysis of the Motivations for Borrowing in the Spanish of New Mexico

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When two languages are in contact the aspect of the language that is most affected by that contact is the lexicon. Borrowings, and specifically nouns, constitute the majority of examples of this contact. The reason, or motivation, for the borrowing of words is an important topic in the study of language contact. Early research (Weinreich 1964) suggested that borrowing is based on lexical need. Speakers in contact situations face new information and situations on a regular basis and in some cases may need to borrow words in order to communicate in this new environment. Poplack, Sankoff and Miller (1988) however, found that for Canadian French lexical need only plays a minor role in the motivation for borrowing. In New Mexico, Spanish speakers are in constant contact with English and as a result borrow frequently. Espinosa (1914-15) claims that for the Spanish of New Mexico the borrowing of English words "…has not been a case of fashion, luxury in speech, neglect of Spanish or mere desire of imitating the language of the invaders, but an actual convenience and necessity (p. 246)." This would indicate that lexical need is the primary motivation for borrowing English words in New Mexico Spanish. This paper is an analysis of 840 different lone English-origin nouns extracted from semi-guided sociolinguistic interviews of thirty bilingual speakers residing in New Mexico. Each noun was placed within discrete semantic categories and coded for linguistic and social factors. The borrowed nouns come from a variety of semantic categories including predictable categories like technology, medicine, and education for which lexical need would be the expected motivation. However, borrowings also came from semantic categories like numbers, dates, and familial terms for which

there should be no lexical need. If adequate terms exist in the recipient language then why are corresponding donor language forms borrowed? The results indicate that lexical need does play a role in the motivation for borrowing but that insufficient differentiation, the subtle cultural and linguistic differences between the donor and recipient language word (Weinreich 1964), is an important factor that conditions the motivation for borrowing.

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Panel: Natural Language Processing Activities in the Southwest

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This panel discussion will cover three related areas of Natural Language Processing (NLP) before opening for a discussion between the panel and the audience. A subfield of linguistics and artificial intelligence, NLP covers automatic generation and understanding of natural human languages. The panelists have expertise in different areas of NLP and will provide the audience with an overview of some very exciting developments across the NLP subfield. The panel will begin with an examination of a possible rapprochement between statistical and knowledge-based approaches to NLP, then provide a review of linguistic findings from applying Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA) to predict the results of behavioral questionnaire studies before going into more depth with an examination of increasingly rich annotations as a driver of NLP advancement.

The past two decades have seen marked divergence between statistical and rule- or knowledge-based approaches to language processing, often with an unfortunate failure to communicate between the communities associated with them. Recent research in the biomedical domain carried out in Colorado, Bethesda, and the Netherlands suggests that a rapprochement between the two, mediated by conceptual approaches to language processing, is both possible and fruitful. Data that both supports and apparently disconfirms the hypothesis that such a rapprochement is possible will be presented, and a strategy for realizing it will be discussed.

Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA), while generally considered a bag-of-words approach with no part-of-speech information (POS), has been shown to provide a good starting point to NLP. For some classes of problems, LSA has been shown to perform almost as well as human experts. After providing an overview of LSA, this presentation will show how LSA has recently been used to extract semantically driven variance from behavioral questionnaire studies, suggesting the need for new validation measures.

Arguably the driving force behind NLP advances, work on rich annotations have seen significant advances the last few years. The creation of annotated corpora has led to major advances in corpus-based natural language processing technologies. Most notably, the Penn English Treebank has proven to be a crucial resource in the

recent success of English POS taggers and parsers, as it provides common training and testing material so that different algorithms can be compared and progress be gauged. Later work on the Proposition bank adds a layer of predicate-argument information, or semantic role labels, to the syntactic structures of the Penn Treebank. After providing an overview of research on rich annotations, this presentation proceeds from a belief that developing features that capture the right kind of information is crucial to advancing the state-of-the-art in semantic analysis.

Syntactic Linguistic Variation in Academic Speech

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Responding to Schilling-Estes's (2002) call for investigations of performative speech events in order to understand the performance of identity, this research examines the speech of university professors during their lectures in terms of intra-speaker speech style-shifting. Using the speaker-design approach to style-shifting (Coupland 1984, 2001; Schilling-Estes 1998), the contribution of this study is to demonstrate that the switching of the speaker's styles are evident within the short time span of the university lecture and are related to the various roles with which the speaker affiliates during the lecture.

The corpus of academic speech studied includes lectures videotaped by the researchers as well as transcripts from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Speech. Data from this large corpus is analyzed at the syntactic level to identify the most salient linguistic variables that define the different speech styles.

Based on the speech style paradigm of speaker creativity in anthropology and sociolinguistics, speakers adjust their styles of speech to reflect their memberships in communities, whether these communities are academic, profession, or personal. So speakers constantly vary their speech to reflect which sides of their personalities they are emphasizing. This research identifies the communities of practice most prevalent in the university classroom and the speech styles that correspond to these styles. Analysis of lecturers' use of these speech styles provides clues to identifying important lecture content and making contributions to other members' affiliations that are considered relevant in the classroom context.

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Estrategias de cortesía y gestión de imagen en entrevistas con jóvenes caribeños

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El estudio de la cortesía verbal es uno de los tópicos de mayor interés en la pragmática actual. Varios investigadores de este fenómeno (concentrados en torno al programa EDICE: Estudios del Discurso de Cortesía en Español) afirman que , en una interacción comunicativa, los participantes tienen unos deseos de imagen que se caracterizan de acuerdo con aspectos socioculturales de su propia comunidad. Estos deseos de imagen se relacionan con el rol o los roles que los hablantes están representando en una situación comunicativa dada, de forma que el deseo de imagen es completamente dependiente del rol desempeñado, estando este, al igual que la imagen, definido social, cultural y situacionalmente. La actividad de cortesía surge, por tanto, cuando un hablante confirma la imagen de su interlocutor en relación con el rol o los roles que está representando en esa situación, al tiempo que confirma la suya, también en relación con su rol. En este marco, básicamente, se considera que el comportamiento cortés trata de alcanzar una situación de *equilibrio* (Nieves Hernández Flores) entre la imagen social del destinatario y la del hablante, de forma que ambas se vean beneficiadas en algún grado.

En este trabajo, me propongo estudiar las estrategias de cortesía y la gestión de la imagen entre los hablantes jóvenes cultos de tres comunidades caribeñas insulares : La Havana,Cuba; San Juan, Puerto Rico; y Santo Domingo, la República Dominicana. Para ello, me valgo del corpus de entrevistas sociolingüísticas realizadas entre 1991 y 1997 por Iris Yolanda Reyes Benítez, siguiendo el modelo de las muestras recogidas con anterioridad para el Corpus del Habla Culta de las Grandes Ciudades Hispanas, auspiciado por la ALFAL (Asociación de Lingüística y Filología de la América Latina).

The Phonetic Context of American English Flapping: Quantitative Evidence

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The phonetic context in which word-medial flaps occur (in contrast to [tʰ]) in American English is explored. The analysis focuses on stress placement, following phone, and syllabification. In Experiment 1, subjects provided their preference for [tʰ] or [ ] in bisyllabic nonce words. Consistent with previous studies, flaps were preferred before stressless syllables and [tʰ] before stressed syllables, however, the following phone also exerted a small degree of influence. Experiments 2 and 3 tested whether [tʰ] or [ ] are associated with a particular syllable position in bisyllabic words. They demonstrate that [tʰ] is favored in onsets, while [ ] is not consistently placed in either the onset or coda, nor is it generally ambisyllabic. These findings contradict analyses that posit syllable division as a conditioning factor in the appearance of [tʰ] versus [ ]. Experiment 4 examined the pronunciation of 480 multisyllabic words from the TIMIT corpus.   VCV was seen to favor [ ], while VC V favored [tʰ]. In addition, flaps tend to be followed by syllabic sonorants and [tʰ] by tense vowels. Because the following phones that influenced [tʰ] and [ ] in Experiment 4 differ from those that were significant in Experiment 1, more research is necessary into the effect that following phones have on the appearance of [tʰ] and [ ].

Honk if you see an utterance: Bumper sticker pragmatics

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Pragmatics is notoriously difficult to define partly because definitions tend to be theory specific. Nevertheless, most agree that the object of pragmatic analysis is the utterance. As Leech (1983:14) writes: "we can correctly describe pragmatics as dealing with utterance meaning…" As such, utterance should be independent of any theory, and most pragmaticists treat it this way (a notable exception is Grice (1989: 216), who defines it according to meaningNN). As long as we restrict attention to face-to-face, two-participant language events, the term functions adequately without elaboration; however, once we turn to

more peripheral language events—in this case bumper stickers—we must make some theoretical decisions as to how we interpret the term.

I begin with a survey of definitions for utterance, examining disagreements with respect to the length of utterances and the relationship between sentence and utterance. Linguists have also disagreed about medium. Although some have argued that utterances must be spoken (e.g., Bloomfield 1926, Harris 1951, Hurford and Heasley 1983), most pragmaticists recognize written utterances. For this paper, I assume that utterances can occur in any language medium.

Where scholars seem to widely agree is that utterances are examples of language use. That is, they are used to communicate. Thus, an utterance presupposes a sender and a receiver (interestingly, Jespersen (1924) and Grice (1989) both allow for utterances that lack a receiver). Because most studies have focused on face-to-face, two-participant conversations, this aspect of the definition has not generated much discussion (though cf. Bakhtin 1986 and Clark 1996). However, if we examine non-canonical utterances, the presupposition becomes complicated. Consider (1), which should be understood as a token of a mass-produced set of bumper stickers:

1. I may look funny, but I'd kick your ass on Jeopardy.

If every utterance has a "genidentity" (Bar-Hillel 1970), that is, if "every actual utterance is spatiotemporally unique" (Lyons 1977:570), then does each bumper sticker in the set represent a token of the same utterance? Or should we treat each token separately? If so we must separate the author of (1) from the presupposed sender, viz. the driver. Moreover, there are certain to be multiple receivers during the lifetime of (1). Since (1) is received on more than one occasion, does it represent more than one utterance?

A corollary to the lattermost question is whether a bumper sticker message always represents an utterance when it is received. For example, (2) is only felicitous on a moving vehicle, while (3) is only felicitous on a parked vehicle.

2. The closer you get, the slower I go.
3. This is not an abandoned vehicle.

Do they count as utterances even when they are infelicitous?

I will not propose to answer these questions; rather, I will demonstrate that how one answers them has consequences for how one analyzes language use. If utterance is to be the common pre-theoretic basis for pragmatics, then we need to examine more closely how we use the term.

La interacción discursiva en el aula en el proceso de aprendizaje de una lengua extranjera: español en Estados Unidos e inglés en México

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En esta ponencia se analizará la interacción discursiva en el contexto de un salón de clases en donde se imparte una lengua extranjera, delimitándose al español en Estados Unidos y al inglés en México, tomando la UANL y la Texas State University, San Marcos, como lugares en donde se recabó la muestra.

Se tienen como objetivos:
- Describir la interacción discursiva en el aula durante sesiones de clase de lengua extranjera en los lugares especificados.
- Comparar el diálogo que tiene lugar en ambos países en el proceso de enseñanza de una lengua extranjera, clasificándolo como rutina discursiva tradicional o comunicativa.

Se contextualizará este trabajo en la llamada cultura fronteriza, aunque las grabaciones no se realizaron específicamente en la línea fronteriza, sí se llevaron a cabo en un máximo de 150 millas al norte o sur de ésta.

En el aula se llevan a cabo procesos de comunicación entre alumno-alumno o entre alumno-profesor. La

comprensión de estos intercambios discursivos depende de qué tan compartidas sean las una serie de características cognoscitivas a las que hace alusión Van Dijk. Estas "nociones primitivas" o "preconstruidos" corresponden además del orden representativo psicológico, a una gran dimensión sociocultural. El discurso está dotado de nociones, relaciones y propiedades con otros objetos discursivos a los que constituye o depende, y, como lo propone la Escuela de Neuchâtel, este tipo de preconstruidos son de índole lingüística; pero los preconstruidos están, además, relacionados con otros contenidos implícitos que se remiten al campo de lo extralingüístico, lo precodificado y utilizado por una sociedad. (Rodríguez 296)

Mediante el análisis de una interacción es posible analizar las intenciones de los hablantes y su comprensión de parte de los interlocutores, así como el comportamiento verbal y su variación conforme cambian objetivos, metas contextos; así como los mensajes explícitos e implícitos que pudieran alentar o desalentar las relaciones sociales entre los participantes (Koike 11)

En el aula donde se enseña un idioma extranjero, se requiere la participación activa de los estudiantes, por lo que los roles emisor-receptor están continuamente variando. Sinclair y Coulthard en 1975 utilizaron la interacción verbal en el salón de clase como datos para realizar análisis del discurso. Afirmaron que el lenguaje en el salón de clase era relativamente simple y constituían un tipo más estructurado de discurso que la conversación diaria. (En Melamah 45)

Se realizaron cuatro horas de videorabación: dos en Estados Unidos y dos en México, mismas que se tomaron como punto de partida para efectuar los análisis. Se presentarán ejemplos y se trabajará con el método BIAS (*Brown Interation Analysis System*) en donde se analizan los roles discursivos de profesores y estudiantes y con formatos diseñados para este fin, se revisan dichos roles en clase, obteniendo las tendencias en cada caso.

Además se realiza un análisis para determinar qué tan tradicionales o comunicativas resultan las rutinas discursivas en las clases de español e inglés.

Después de haber analizado diferentes aspectos relacionados con el discurso en el aula y sus actores, resulta claro que hay una gran cantidad de interrogantes y aspectos que esperan ser abordados por los investigadores desde diferentes perspectivas. El presente proyecto pretende abordar la realidad áulica desde la interesante perspectiva del análisis del discurso.

Word order in Spanish clause construction: pragmatic and discourse factors

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This research describes and analyzes the Spanish of Puebla, Mexico, based on a corpus collected for these purposes, whose goal is to add adequate descriptive studies of Puebla Spanish. We examine of word order (WO) in clauses in Puebla Spanish. Previous works (Valdez, Fidelholtz y Marcos 2004 and Valdez in process) on 'free word order' in Spanish clearly indicate the necessity for greater depth, considering not only structural aspects of WO, but semantic elements (principle verb type) and pragmatic-discursive ones (focalizing elements or discourse function of the matrix sentence), and aspects of relative frequency of structures and words. Our data come from two projects which collected data from lower-class speakers in Puebla and adult speech from current Puebla City speakers; and data from an associated project on children from about 4 to 12, acquiring Spanish. In Spanish, all possible word orders (here we refer to orders of the principal clause elements) in many sentences occur and are completely grammatical. Nevertheless, some occur more often than others, and there are contexts

where certain orders simply do not occur. In such cases, speakers consider that they would be ungrammatical. Our goal is to explain these cases and others, while sorting out the syntactic, pragmatic, frequency and semantic factors which bear on this question. We start by determining the grammatical sites and the pragmatic contexts which propitiate one or another word order, and how often each factor occurs in different usage environments of the language. The child study has examined speech with the subject before or after the verb. The observations here reinforce our interest in a coordinated study of both adult and child speech. It is clear that some syntactic factors can influence word order; likewise, it seems clear that the semantic and pragmatic-discursive features we mentioned can have an effect, specifically on the position of the subject.

Usually 'canonical order' is taken as the most common order of elements in a given construction in a language (although there is a clear tendency to think and speak about this order as the most common *because* it is canonical). We consider canonicity and try to relate it with the factors we identify which influence word order: how uses to which we put language influence its form.

'WO' is not used in the literature 100% consistently; it is usually used with reference to some or all of the following:

Subject (S), Verb (V), Direct Object (O) and sometimes (IO). Other verb arguments (adverbial phrases, etc.) don't seem to have the relative stability, interlinguistic or even the positional stability in a single language, that S/O/V/IO seem to have in most languages. Limiting ourselves to the three most common arguments in studies (S-V-O) there are six possible orders. But there are 3 principle orders in world languages: SOV, SVO and VSO. The other 3 orders (VOS, OVS & OSV), are a decided minority. The six Spanish orders have a frequency of occurrence that more or less corresponds to the order they are mentioned here. Works make a dichotomy between languages with 'free word order' (Latin) and 'rigid word order' languages (English). A high correlation has been noticed between 'free order' and high degree of morphological indication of the function of each argument. Supposedly, greater indication of such function (eg case morphemes), implies greater liberty this argument has to move within the canonical order. So Latin has case morphemes and free word order, while English lacks case morphemes and has a relatively rigid word order. Still, although Spanish lost most of its case endings on nouns, it continues to be considered basically a 'free word order' language, including by us. Specifically, very often when the pragmatic and syntactic predictions for word order are in conflict, the pragmatic interpretation is chosen by speakers of Spanish, which goes against the generally accepted, and even presupposed, wisdom by most researchers on this topic, who point out that in general in Spanish the six possible orders are all completely grammatical, as in the following sentences (although this is true for the sentences considered in isolation):

a)   Juan invitó a María.   SVO
        Juan a María invitó.   SOV
        Invitó Juan a María.   VSO
        Invitó a María Juan.   VOS
        A María Juan invitó.   OSV
        A María invitó Juan.   OVS

We see the samewith intransitive verbs, obviously with fewer arguments: 2 possibilities:

b)   Juan cantaba.   SV
        Cantaba Juan.   VS

both are grammatical in isolation; nevertheless, there are obvious differences in their relative frequency of

occurrence in discourse, as in the transitive cases. Some orders (OVS, OSV) seem forced and it is difficult to determine when they might ever be required.

Often changes of order are associated with emphasis or focusing (Kiefer 1967) and we examine the question in this respect of canonical order, which is just the most common order, which leads to apparent circular reasoning which we also examine to determine if there is independent evidence of the canonical order, and its relation to 'scrambling'. There are limits to scrambling. 'Mental' verbs such as *considerar*, for example:

c)   i)   (Yo) considero a Juan un imbécil/genio/amigo.
        ii)   *?(Yo) a Juan considero un imbécil/genio/amigo.
        iii)   (Yo) a Juan lo considero un imbécil/genio/amigo.

That is, at least for this class of verbs, scrambling requires an extra particle before the verb to make the S grammatical. The earlier cases do not require this. We investigate the implications of these facts. (Is it really an O? A syntactic fact? Do pronouns change the facts here?) We will look at 'universal' order as a possible explanation for some of the facts we uncover, as well as the morphological composition of the verb. We examine the notion of 'free variation' in this respect, and try to find conditioning factors (semantic or pragmatic) We compare adults to children, although by the ages we look at (4-5 up), children's abilities are almost on a par with those of adults.

Orthography, Phonology, and Dialect Variation in an Endangered Language Community: Issues in Standardization among the Tohono O'odham

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The adoption of a standard orthography can have major implications for any community, but may be particularly important in an endangered language community. In fact, researchers do not agree on whether orthographies and literacies are necessarily positive moves for endangered languages. Hinton (2001) notes that while writing systems assist in prestige, empowerment, documentation, and the development of practical uses (school essays, journalism), they provide problematic technical issues, deconextualize language and language arts, demonstrate how some aspects of a language are not easily captured by writing, and may provide challenges in communities which do not believe in writing a language.

In this paper, I present examples from the Tohono O'odham community which demonstrate how orthographies may be problematic and tricky in this particular endangered language community. The Tohono O'odham Nation has adopted a standard orthography, but the two published dictionaries (one out of print) appear in different writing systems. Literacy is difficult for speakers to attain because their sources are inconsistent, and they differ from the primary pedagogical text (Zepeda 1983), which does use the official orthography. Even the standard orthography and printed materials may be points of contention in the community; too many speakers feel that it does not represent their own dialect. Consensus for language documentation and revitalization in the community are hampered by disagreement over the official orthography. Officials at the local tribal college discuss how community members confront them on failing to create dictionaries for all the dialects; momentum thus moves away from working on the language.

An additional problem is presented for second language learners of O'odham by the disconnect of the orthography with its phonetic and phonological patterns. The orthography is modeled on English (Latin alphabet), despite the presence of preaspiration of voiceless stops, vowel length, vowel devoicing, consonant length, and a central high unrounded vowel phoneme. These features are not present in English (or if they are present, are not used in the same way), and thus present challenges for learners of the language, as there are few

audio resources for this audience.

This paper has implications for moves to standardize endangered languages and for creating revitalization materials. Additionally, I show how phonological knowledge can be employed to develop effective audio materials necessary for the revitalization endeavor.

Panel:Learning about Diversity and Language Attitudes in Undergraduate Service-Learning: Undergraduates Speak

Moderator/Organizer: Colleen Fitzgerald
Participants: Katelyn Anderson, Rayond Baeza, Courtney Edwards, Stephanie Franco, Holly Hightower, Naval Patel, Sarah Rockwell, Charlie Wickremasinghe, Mattie Wilson, and Holly Yeary

The participants all tutored in the Texas Tech University ESL/Literacy Service-Learning Initiative. In this Initiative, undergraduates tutor ESL in the community in teams of tutors. During this undergraduate educational experience, they made use of reflective, survey, internet data, and other tools to develop their own learning projects. This panel presents the results of their projects, demonstrating how service-learning can provide opportunities for student-driven investigation of questions of diversity, language, multiculturalism, and language attitudes.

This offers an opportunity for instructers to see students discussing their own learning outcomes and assessment in projects they chose to do as a result of their service-learning experience. Research on service-learning show it increases students' sense of civic engagement. Concrete projects from students show how their experiences tutoring and reflecting lead to a variety of fruitful avenues of research.

Google as a Concordance for Language Usage

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Although published grammars, dictionaries, and other reference books provide a great amount of useful information regarding grammar and vocabulary, especially about clearcut issues, they do not answer all language usage questions, especially involving gray areas, that language students, linguistic researchers, and non-native language instructors may have. In this paper, I will show how the Google search engine, as a reflection of actual language usage, can be used as an important tool in finding answers to questions concerning syntactic and semantic subcategorization and lexis. Most of the data presented will concern Spanish, although the principles discussed will be broadly applicable across languages that any significant number of web pages are written in.

In the area of syntactic subcagorization, some distinctions, such as transitivity vs. intransivity of verbs, are clearly indicated in reference materials for some languages. However, one often cannot find more detailed subcategorization information for verbs, such as which prepositions they may or must govern (1) and whether nominal complements should be definite or indefinite (2), and subcategorization information for other lexical categories, such as nouns (3) and adjectives (4), is often entirely missing in reference materials. Even when such information is available, precise semantic distinctions between various correct options may be unclear.

    Do you say X, Y, or both to mean Z ?
    (1) padece cáncer vs. padece de cáncer   'suffers from cancer'
    (2) mirar televisión vs. mirar la televisión   'to watch TV'
    (3) miedo a las abejas vs. miedo de las abejas   'fear of bees'
    (4) listo para salir vs. listo a salir   'ready to leave'

One can use the relative number of hits of each variant (in quotes) on Google to determine which variant(s) are allowed, and if both occur, which, if either, is significantly more common.

Google also allows for non-native speakers to research some issues of vocabulary and morphology that cannot be resolved by consulting dictionaries or grammars. For example, one can search on Google to see whether or not a compound or other expression (5) can be calqued from one language to another, to find highly-specialized vocabulary (6), e.g. by searching on a known related word(s) or expression(s) to bring up relevant webpages, and to see which derivational affixes are allowed with a particular root (7).

(5) Can you say X to mean Y?
   a. libertad de expresión 'freedom of expression'
   b. fuera de orden 'out of order'

(6) How do you say X in Spanish?
   a. foster home   [could search on *cuidado temporal nino*]
   b. DMV   [could search on *vehículos licencia*]
   c. three strikes law   [could search on *"tercer delito" California*]

(7) Do you say X, Y, or both, to say Z?
   a. involucración vs. involucramiento   'involvement'
   b. matamiento vs. matanza   'killing'

As part of this paper, I will explain Google search syntax, including advanced functions such as limiting searches to webpages in particular languages or from certain countries, to enhance results and avoid pitfalls.

Referent Tracking through the Fourth Person in Navajo: A Corpus-based Approach

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In many Athabaskan languages such as Navajo, the grammatical category of person marks participants in the first, second, and third person roles. These markers can occur as free or bound morphemes, the latter of which occur within the complex syntactic system of affixation, prefixing to nouns, verbs, and postpositions. Within this system of pronouns, an alternation occurs between the markers *yi-* and *bi-* in transitive clauses with multiple third-person participants. An example from Willie (2000) demonstrates the alternation between *yi-* (1) and *bi-* (2) below:

(1) *yiztał*
'He kicked her.'

(2) *biztał*
'She was kicked by him.'

Contemporary research has discussed this alternation in much detail (i.e., Hale, 1973; Willie, 2000; Aissen, 2000); however, an alternative marker, occurring in the same prefix position, has received much less attention—that of the fourth person pronominal prefix as seen in Willie's (2000) examples (3) and (4) below:

(3) *jiztał*
'He [that person] kicked her.'

(4) *haztał*
'He kicked her [that person].'

The appearance of the subject marker *ji-* in (3) and the object marker *ho-* (represented as the allomorph *ha-* in (4) above), signal the introduction of the fourth person. This paper will briefly discuss the multiple uses attributed to the fourth person and then investigate more specifically the referent tracking function of this pronoun in the context of authentic language texts in the genre of Myths and Folklore.

Generally, the fourth person pronominal marker is used in place of a third-person actor to avoid speaking directly about a person, to show deference to another actor, to claim a lack of knowledge about another person, to refer to an unspecified third person, to clarify ambiguity, or to track the most important participants through a story. Previous research has claimed that this last function tracks participants in order of importance according to a hierarchy based on animacy; however, as observed by Thompson (1996), previous research done on these pronominal prefixes in Athabaskan languages has been based on short, de-contextualized examples, which cannot provide a comprehensive analysis of the functioning of these markers. According to Biber *et al* (1998), using corpora to investigate issues of language structure in use can provide insights about language that are not readily apparent from small samples of data. Therefore, in order to identify which character receives prominence as determined through fourth person referent tracking, a corpus of approximately 50,000 words of authentic Navajo oral and written texts was created.

Using Rothery and Stenglin's (1997) Narrative Analysis framework, a concordance of fourth person pronominal markers was compiled and each instance in the genre of Myths and Folklore was analyzed and attributed to a particular character in the story, which yielded very interesting results. As narrative analyses offer "a window to world view" and "a foundation for grammatical description" (Mithun, 1999: 281), the results of this paper will be discussed with the aim of contributing to the documentation of Navajo language history, description of the language structure, and creation of heritage language-learning materials.

So, solo and *solo que* as Subordinators in Chicano Discourse

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It has been shown that idiosyncratic syntactic and semantic characteristics of Mexican American dialects of Spanish are not always the direct result of English-language contact. These more subtle differences often result from the communities' isolation from monolingual areas in which linguistic norms are reinforced by social infrastructures of government, education, media, and commerce.

An intriguing reflection of this type of syntactico-semantic feature is evident in discourse contexts in which consequence is expressed. Such contexts, called *locuciones consecutivas* in a contemporary grmmar of Spanish (Campos 1993), in monolingual dialects of Spanish use subordinators such as: "*luego, así que, por consiguiente, pues, por lo tanto, de manera que, de ahí que, así pues,* etc." (p. 54), all roughly glossed as, "for that reason; as a consequence". In one contact dialect, however, these subordinators also include *so, sólo*, and *sólo que*. The following example is from a 17-year old bilingual from a large Texas city: *Y so, no quería dos, **so** los, **so** los quité.*

This study examines the type and variety of subordination for clauses of consequence, i.e., *locuciones consecutivas*, in a bilingual, urban speech community in which Spanish is a receding language. In monolingual grammars of Spanish, *sólo* 'only' may serve to mark an exception to a proposition, e.g., S*ólo Juan llegó.* 'Only Juan arrived' or *No comimos, sólo bailamos.* 'We didn't eat, we only danced.' Similarly, *sólo que* introduces a clause that presents a caveat, i.e., 'it's only that;' for example, *Tienes razón, sólo que no vino él; vino ella*. 'You are right, except [for the fact that] he didn't come; she did.' In this bilingual community, however, the semantic functions of exclusivity and exceptionality are not expressed when these words are used as subordinators expressing consequence. Also, the subordinator **so**, which is found in monolingual English, is exploited by the bilingual speakers considered here, who use it equally in Spanish, English, or code-switched discourse. Of

interest is how the grammars of English and Spanish converge in this particular syntactic function despite the apparent semantic bleaching of the Spanish forms.

The data for this study come from one-on-one, tape-recorded interviews conducted in a Mexican American speech community in Texas. Written compositions of local bilingual university students may also be used to supplement the interview data. This research, qualitative in focus, will illustrate this usage and will test the hypothesis that these three forms are, indeed, used as functional equivalents of those presented in Campos. It will also suggest, after Silva-Corvalán (1994), that a single form serving the same function in the productive repertoire of bilingual speakers is extremely functional in that serves to lessen cognitive load.

Dos caras del mismo cuento: La creación de la narrativa oral por estudiantes bilingües

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Este estudio contrastivo examina las narraciones orales de tres hispanohablantes de herencia que utilizan español e inglés en su habla cotidiana. Se analizan seis narrativas en total, tres en inglés y tres en español, con la meta de identificar las diferencias y similitudes entre las narraciones de ambas lenguas. El estudio se enfoca específicamente en el hispanohablante de herencia como narrador de historias informales ante un público bilingüe. En este contexto, el participante bilingüe puede utilizar su amplio repertorio de conocimientos lingüísticos y culturales de cada lengua.

Para examinar la formación de la narración bilingüe, el estudio distingue seis componentes de la narrativa descritos por Silva-Corvalán (2001): el compendio o resumen, la orientación, la acción compleja, la evaluación, la resolución y la coda. Este tema le da primordial importancia a la acción compleja y la evaluación.

Se propone como la primera hipótesis, que las narrativas en este estudio muestren ciertos rasgos del bilingüismo en cada lengua, representados por términos léxicos, expresiones idiomáticas, y referencias de la cultura mexicana. Aunque posibles similitudes aparezcan en las dos formas de narrativas impartidas por los mismos narradores, se propone que existen componentes en la forma narrativa que suelen cambiarse con el uso de inglés o español. Por consiguiente, la segunda hipótesis indica que la narrativa presentada en español tiene una mayor cantidad de episodios entretejidos en la narración que aparezcan como cláusulas de evaluación. La tercera hipótesis concuerda con el posterior; se propone que el discurso del narrativo en inglés tiende a ser más directo, enfocándose en el resultado o en la solución del evento más que en un relato que evalúa u opina sobre lo sucedido. De acuerdo con una forma directa, se propone que los cuentos en inglés lleguen a una conclusión con menos elaboración de evaluación que en español. Por consiguiente, se considera que las narrativas en español sean más elaboradas y detalladas que en inglés. El estudio examina estas hipótesis y se analizan las estructuras verbales frente la forma narrativa para establecer una mayor comprensión de los enlaces que se forman entre la lengua y la cultura en la narración del hispanohablante de herencia.

The Discourse Marker *vet* in Ixil Mayan

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Vet is a discourse marker in Ixil Mayan which is used to topicalize and focus the arguments of an utterance. This paper considers tokens of *vet* extracted from four different occasions of natural Ixil discourse, two of them tellings of stories based on picture storybooks, and two of them from group meetings. The instances of *vet* are coded for co-occurrences of subject, tense/aspect, verb type, transitivity, clause type, word order and part of speech of the word immediately preceding and following the *vet*. Results show that *vet* has a variety of functions matching definitions of epistemic discourse markers (e.g., Brinton 1996, Schiffrin 1987, Traugott 1997,): emphasizing or topicalizing arguments, focusing new or salient information, and expressing epistemic stance.

Vet is often used as a second place clitic, following the verb in this VSO language. According to Ayers (1991: 150), *vet* "means something like *ya, entonces,* or *luego*. It is used after the verb or before or in place of the directional that follows the verb " [our translation].

Our data suggest that when *vet* does not follow the verb, it serves to emphasize subsequent arguments as in Example (1) in which the speaker stresses the fact that these are Marta's actual words - even though they came by way of tape and computer.

1.   A **vet** vi yol ak Martae' b'a ta' tzib'a mal **vet** tzitza**.** Aa ve te' b'a ta' el naj **vet** ch'ul a kuxh imoole' maj ku dibujo va la q'al tel ivatz.
     It's Marta's words that are written here. That's what came out [on the tape]. It's like some pictures that we're going to see [on the computer] and we're going to ask them to make us copies.

Where *vet* does follow the verb, as in example (2), it is often used to emphasize an important activity or related set of activities, in this case emphasizing the speaker's point about one woman's writing ability.

2. Pero ni vil **vet** vitzt'i
    Pero ya veo la letra de ella
     But now I see her writing

    va ke' cheel il lab'ile' ni txol **vet**ake'
    ahora y ya puede ella
    and now she can do it.

In picture storybook retellings, *vet* is used preceding new information, as in example (3):

3.   Koxhle' **vet** naj.
      Un patojo ya esta durmiendo/acostado.
      Now a boy is lying down.

      Inaj ile'; kat imuj luj **vet** tib'.
      Allí está él; ya se escondió.
      There he is; now he is hiding.

      Vet is also lexicalized as an intensifier in emphatic fixed phrases such as *kuxh vet*, as in the first clause of example (3), and is often used to intensify negative utterances.

Vet is thus used in a variety of functions, both adverbial and pragmatic, and appears to be following the path of grammaticization for discourse markers outlined by Traugott (1997).

La interpretación de falsos cognados en un dialecto de contacto

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Este trabajo presenta un análisis del léxico en un dialecto fronterizo del español de los Estados Unidos. En un estudio sistemático de la comunicación escrita, se analiza la interpretación de falsos cognados. El español y el inglés en contacto han dado origen al dialecto denominado TexMex que es utilizado por hablantes de herencia en Laredo, Texas (Pletsch de García, 2002). Una característica de este dialecto es el empleo de falsos cognados. Se sabe que estas palabras provocan mucha confusión entre los estudiantes de lenguas extranjeras. Sin embargo, este estudio demuestra que los hablantes fronterizos tienen la capacidad de interpretar estas palabras correctamente, sea con su significado en español estándar o con la connotación que han adquirido a partir de su falso cognado en inglés.

El presente estudio investiga la capacidad de procesar falsos cognados con sentido dialectal en un contexto oracional. Los individuos elegidos para el estudio fueron 22 estudiantes universitarios de una clase de español avanzado a nivel 4000. En el experimento, se les presentaron dos textos en español. Uno contenía palabras que tienen falsos cognados en inglés, pero aparecían usadas en su sentido estándar en español (e.g., tengo que asistir a clase = tengo que presentarme a clase). En el otro texto, esas mismas palabras exhibían usos más compatibles con el significado de su falso cognado en inglés (e.g., tengo que asistir a clase = tengo que atender la clase). Se buscaba ver si alguno de estos dos usos presentaba dificultades de interpretación para los participantes. Se encontró que los hablantes de español fronterizo aceptaban ambos significados y que generalmente no tenían problemas para interpretarlos correctamente, incluso en contextos ambiguos. El objetivo de la presente investigación fue establecer si la existencia de falsos cognados entre el español y el inglés provoca dificultades de comprensión para los estudiantes, hablantes de herencia del dialecto fronterizo con poca formación académica en español estándar.

Estudios anteriores han determinado diferentes factores que originan la dificultad que presentan los falsos cognados para los estudiantes de español como segunda lengua. Frantzen (1998) señala que una dificultad en seleccionar la traducción correcta de la mayoría de los cognados falsos estriba en su naturaleza dudosa. Por ejemplo, los estudiantes jamás confunden pan = *bread* porque sus significados no se pueden superponer. En cambio, la palabra "grado" es un falso cognado dudoso y se utiliza como sinónimo de calificación o nota por su parecido formal y también semántico con el vocablo en inglés *grade*. La naturaleza dudosa estriba en que "grado" significa cada una de las secciones en que alumnos se agrupan en las escuelas y por lo tanto tiene cierta relación semántica con la palabra inglesa.

Los resultados de la investigación reflejan las características lingüísticas de los estudiantes universitarios en la comunidad fronteriza. En Laredo, muchos falsos cognados tienen dos significados, uno idéntico al del español estándar y otro dialectal, interferido por el significado de la palabra inglesa. En general no se sucitan confusiones semánticas en la interpetación de estas palabras resultado de la convergencia.

The Tropic Heart of Variation

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Although the tropes of conceptual metaphor and metonymy are usually associated with lexical items or constructions and their meanings, they also play a foundational role in the structuring and use of sociolinguistic variation. This paper describes two aspects of this — the default metaphorical relation between the variant *forms* of two lects and the metonymic relation between forms in a lect and the sociolinguistic meanings they convey. Some consequences of these characterizations of variation are also discussed.

For sociolinguistic variation to exist without preventing communication within communities, a synchronic, live metaphorical mapping must exist between forms in the vernacular lects of language users and forms in other lects that users have in their active or passive repertoires. A conceptual metaphor is a mapping between two domains which preserves structure.

Consider the case of the prototypical kind of variation, phonetic variation. In each lect, the phonological

domain within which the phonetic elements and their relations to one another (e.g. contrast, allophony) exist is also a *conceptual* domain: semantic relations hold among them such as contrast, semantic inclusion, etc.; the fact that words may refer to these elements (e.g. *vowel, voiceless fricative*) reflects their meaningful nature. In phonetic variation, the source domain of the metaphor is the user's own vernacular lect and the target domain is another lect. The metaphor maps phonetic elements (e.g. particular segments) from the source domain to corresponding elements in the target domain. This mapping preserves structure in several ways. First, two elements which have a particular phonological relation in the source domain (e.g. contrast) will by default be mapped to elements which have the same phonological relation in the target domain. Moreover, elements which figure in particular (non-varying) lexical items will be mapped onto elements which figure in the same way in corresponding lexical items in the target lect.

The structure-preserving nature of metaphor correctly predicts the general regularity of sound change and variation. This is what enables real users in real language communities to understand the huge number of lects in use within their community. Such metaphorical mappings between lects provides working hypotheses in learning variation for both children in acquisition and adults dealing with previously unencountered lects of languages they know. It allows rapid deployment of successful hypotheses about the contextual meaning of utterances in new lects and through that, acquisition of non-phonetic kinds of variation.

Lexical, morphological, and syntactic variation are characterized by similar cross-lect metaphors but with fewer variants.

Metonymy figures in a more traditional way. In particular situations or with particular users, complexes of phonetic, morphological, etc. variants systematically co-occur. This co-occurrence supports the metonymy that establishes the conventional sociolinguistic meaning of those variants. In a usage-based linguistic theory (e.g. Langacker's Cognitive Grammar), this is merely a special case of the general process by which conventional meanings of all linguistic forms are established. Co-occurrence restrictions in sociolinguistics are thus consequences of the shared context of different particular sociolinguistic variants, whether phonetic, lexical, morphological, etc.

The Mental Representation of Spanish yo

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Within the River Plate region of Argentina and Uruguay, the voiced post-alveolar fricative phoneme / / (realized as a palatal fricative and/or a palatal lateral in other varieties of Spanish) is in the process of devoicing (Lipski 1994). The project within which the present study belongs seeks to identify the lexical diffusion patterns in this devoicing process. After a pause the most frequent words show more devoicing than less frequent words. In general, the most frequent words with the segment in an intervocalic context show less devoicing than less frequent words. The major exception to this intervocalic tendency is the ultra-frequent yo 'I', which accounts for 47% of the data. In comparison to the other word-initial intervocalic words, yo devoices slightly more frequently, a result that presents a problem to a model that predicts more frequent words to devoice less frequently.

The present study uses usage-based phonology (Bybee 2001) as its framework to study the variation in the devoicing of / / in the word yo. Research within this framework has shown that words can vary in pronunciation on the basis of the collocations in which they appear (e.g. Jurafsky, Bell, & Girand 2002; Scheibman 2000). Since the token of / / in yo occurs at a word boundary, it occurs in an alternating environment and the sound change may be subject to a process of lexicalization as described by Bybee (2000). On the basis of a corpus study, the purpose of this research is to improve our understanding of the mental representation of yo to better understand the devoicing of / /.

This study uses a corpus of approximately six hours of sociolinguistic interviews of speakers of Spanish from Buenos Aires, Argentina. All instances of the / / phoneme were extracted from the corpus. Each token was analyzed in the acoustic analysis program Praat (Boersma & Weenink 2006) to determine whether the segment had been voiced by the speaker. For the present analysis the tokens of all words

other than yo were excluded. The preceding segmental context was coded in order to determine the phonetic environment in which the segment appears. Additionally, the words preceding and following the token word were recorded to analyze collocation effects.

The results of this study show that the pronunciation of / / in yo is not random and that there are clear effects on the pronunciation based upon the collocations in which it appears, indicating that these collocations form part of the mental representation of yo. However, the relationship between the frequency of the collocations and the pronunciation of yo is unclear. The collocation yo no shows a lower rate of devoicing than other forward collocations, despite the fact that it appears in post-pausal environments, an environment that favors devoicing, more frequently than other forward collocations. Collocations preceding yo show similarly puzzling behavior, as there is a general trend for higher frequency collocations to show more devoicing, when they would be expected to show less devoicing since they are in an intervocalic environment.

A Study of Young Men's Cooperative Discourse

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In the few decades since initial groundbreaking work by Robin Lakoff in language and gender began in the 1960's, an impressive number of textbooks and edited volumes have been produced to facilitate its study. Branching out from impressionistic generalities and interpretations of male vs.female speech from a white, middle class, North American point of view, the field is now international and sensitive to local influences regarding various aspects of male-female speech differences. Methods have become increasingly empirical and rigorous for sounder conclusions. One problem that continues to challenge researchers--in this field particularly-- is the observer's paradox: how to determine how people really speak when they are not being observed, even while a researcher is observing them, either directly as a participant or indirectly via recordings.

The current study investigates interactional cooperation in the discourse of three young men who form a tight friendship group in an urban area. The problem of the observer's paradox is circumvented by drawing on a tape recording made from a naturally-occurring conversation at the home of one of the young men. One of the researchers was the proverbial "fly on the wall". The sister of one of the participants, she was present during their conversation but was not a primary interlocutor. As such she was privy not only to the conversation but also to the friendship patterns among them that could explain their interpersonal dynamics.

Cooperation in this tape-recorded conversation, from which discourse excerpts were taken for analysis, is defined in several ways. Interactionally, these young men share the floor amicably, overlapping and latching onto previous turns without blatant or discontinuous interruptions. In terms of cohesion, scaffolding is evident among the participants by means of supportive comments related to the topic of the speaker who has the floor. And in terms of cooperative story-telling, a narrative initiated by one speaker has elements interjected by a second speaker without evidence of friction or inappropriateness. All the while that cooperation is shown on the discourse level, elements of male-gendered language are evident in taboo language and mild swearing.

This study presents insight into the everyday discourse characteristics of young middle-class men who are friends. It shows that they conduct their conversations cooperatively and that their interaction is usually free of the competitive posturing and insults often reported for this group. Importantly, the "rapport" said to be true of girls and women's speech is also found here, showing that they have more in common than not.

The Effects of Second Language Learning on the Perception of Direct and Indirect Speech

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This study explores how second language (L2) learners perceive indirect and direct written teacher feedback. Studies that have examined the comprehension of indirect speech suggest that it is more difficult to interpret than other kinds of speech (Champagne, 2001) and that more mental processes may be needed to do so (Holtgraves, 1999). Several studies suggest that females are more prone to produce indirect speech and males direct (Macaulay, 2001). Few studies have examined how different genders comprehend indirect speech or the effect of gender on the comprehension of indirect speech by adult native speakers. One area where comprehension is vital is in teacher written feedback on student compositions. Males and females may interpret teacher's comments differently (Kolb, 1975; Roberts, 1991; Cleary, 1996), and may favor either direct or indirect speech more. If stereotypical speech patterns are in fact accurate, it may be that females are better able to interpret indirect written teacher feedback than are males, even in a second langauge .

This study builds on research that demonstrated that all participants, regardless of gender, were better able to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the paper when the feedback was direct. Males were also more likely to guess that indirect teacher comments were written by a female teacher. Female students were in some instances better than male students at interpreting direct, not indirect, comments. Direct versus indirect speech was more of a factor in a students' ability to understand teacher feedback than was the student's gender (Hansen & Baker, 2007). This study takes a second look at these results and compares these results to what L2 learners of English perceive for direct and indirect speech. Learners often misunderstand their second language because meaning is more than its component parts (Kubota, 2003). Second language learners often need explicit instruction to understand meaning due to inconsistencies in cultural stereotypes (Rings, 1992). Indirectness can be one of these inconsistencies and is more problematic in written feedback due to the absence of the speaker. First language attitudes about directness may influence a second language learner's ability to understand written teacher feedback. Understanding the perception of directness in a second language learner's mind is essential in better classroom instruction.

Data was collected from native English and ESL university students. ESL students were recruited from university writing classes to control for English language proficiency. Each participant was asked to complete the survey on the supplied computer. Participants were given three essays that differed in whether the feedback was direct or indirect. Segments of these essays appeared one at a time with an attached teacher comment. Participants answered questions after each segment appeared. Questions included: what grade the student earned, what the strength or weakness was, the gender of the teacher and their reasoning for choosing that gender and how experienced the teacher was. Response times were calculated for how long the reader took to read each segment and how long it took to answer the individual questions. The results show that both the L2 learners were less able to understand indirect speech than were the native English speakers although both groups took longer and were less accurate in responding to indirect comments by teachers. L2 learners, however, were less likely to ascribe indirect speech to female teachers. Results suggest that L2 learners may struggle with indirect comments on student papers and may be less able to recognize the speech acts associated with them.

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Which factors determine lexical attrition in Texas German?

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This paper deals with the vocabulary retention and loss among current speakers of Texas German (TxG), which is in its last generation of fluent speakers and critically endangered (Guion 1996, Boas 2003). We look at the phenomenon of lexical loss within this specific language contact situation and detail its implications. The first part of the paper reviews a number of proposals that address lexical developments in language death situations, in particular the dramatic reduction in a speaker's active vocabulary (Ruoff 1973, Holloway 1997, Wolfram 2002).

The second part of our paper explores the speech of both *fluent speakers*, those who are fully competent in the language, and *semi-speakers*. The latter are typically characterized as "informant[s] who, though he or she has some ability in the language or dialect, could not be considered to be a completely fluent or 'fully competent' speaker of the dying language or dialect" (Dorian 1977: 30). Lexical loss can be attributed to various aspects like age, gender, domains, and attitudes. Therefore, in order to test for these factors, we analyzed the speech of the ten oldest and the ten youngest speakers in the online Texas German Dialect Archive (www.tdgp.org). We focused on recordings of elicitations (English sentences translated into TxG) and examined 94 different terms within 59 sentences. These 94 terms fall under the various categories of household, nature, religion, education, food, etc. When tallying the number of mistakes to observe lexical loss, we did not include established borrowings which are now a part of TxG (Eikel 1954, Gilbert 1972, Boas 2006). Furthermore, new word coinages were not counted as mistakes because it is unclear if they are part of the dialect or representative of lexical simplification and thus indicative of lexical loss. However, paraphrases, code-switches, and non-attempts were tallied as they are considered a notable aspect of lexical loss (see Andersen 1982). A few examples that demonstrate the role of the abovementioned aspects include:

c) **Paraphrasing**: *Wenn die Winter ieber is* [lit: when winter is over] for *spring* (sp.# 106)…
ci) **Domains**: *Female speaker # 80 was one of few speakers to be able to translated the term "pillow cases" (Q16) into Texas German. She also knew more Standard German words like Laden (Q29) [lit: store] for the grocery, Geschirr (Q24) [lit. dishes] for dishes, and Gemisegarten (Q21) [StG: Gemüsegarten; lit: vegetable garden].*
cii) **Age**: The older speakers as a group out-preformed the younger group by an average mistake ratio of 17.3:27.6.
ciii) **Frequency**: Specific terms like *mare* (German: Stute: 0 speakers) and *stallion* (German: *Hengst:* speakers (#89 and #34) were almost completely lost.

The third part of our paper summarizes our analysis coupled with each speaker's biographical information. This combination provides a source to understand the socio-cultural background that seems to play a role in lexical loss. Finally, while it is clear that the speakers of TxG demonstrate a level of lexical loss, it is impossible to make definitive statements as to the causation. Age, attitudes, domains, and frequency all play a role in an individual's continued ability (or lack thereof) in the dying dialect, but it appears that lexical loss or lexical retention is much more personal and none of these factors can be said to be the sole cause; however, more

research is needed to rule out each factor conclusively.

Lexical-phonological structure in second language acquisition

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Second language (L2) learners often must learn to perceive and produce novel L2 phoneme contrasts (e.g., native speakers of Japanese typically exhibit difficulty with the English /l/-/r/ contrast). Although research indicates that these difficulties can be overcome to some extent with exposure to the L2, it is not known what consequences this kind of learning has for the phonological structure of the L2 lexicon. For example, in addition to learning to perceive and produce the English /l/-/r/ contrast, native Japanese speakers learning English must develop the ability to encode the English words 'lead' and 'read' contrastively in memory. In this paper I discuss the findings of two experiments designed to investigate the role that knowledge of words' orthographic forms has on learners' ability to establish contrastive lexical representations in the L2.

In the first experiment, which uses eye-tracking technology, Dutch-English bilinguals learned English nonword labels for nonobjects; some of the nonwords contained /E/ and some /ae/ (the English /E/-/ae/ contrast is difficult for native Dutch speakers). Half of the subjects were exposed to auditory forms and pictures only, while another set of subjects was additionally provided spelled forms of the words (the letters 'e' and 'a' differentiate /E/ and /ae/ words). At test, only subjects who received orthographic information during the word learning phase exhibited visual fixation patterns (looks to pictures) that reflected contrastive lexical representation for words containing /E/ and /ae/, suggesting that knowledge of the orthographic forms provided these learners with information about the contrast that they were not able to determine from the auditory signal alone.

In the second experiment, three groups of native English speaking subjects learned a set of auditory nonwords along with pictures indicating their "meanings" in a fictitious language and were later tested on their memory of the words via auditory word-picture matching (listening) and picture naming (production) tests. While all three groups of subjects heard the same auditory stimuli and saw the same pictures, the groups differed in the written forms of the words that they saw. Some participants were presented with written forms for the auditory labels that were consistent with English spelling conventions (e.g., the spelled form 'doful' for the auditory form [dofəl]), while others were presented with written forms that were not consistent with English spelling conventions (e.g., the spelled form 'dofulp' for the auditory form [dofəl]), and a third group of participants was presented with no written forms. Performance at test indicated that while there were no group differences in subjects' overall ability to remember the auditory forms of the words, subjects who had seen written forms that were not consistent with English spelling conventions exhibited confusion about the phonological forms of words that reflected the words' spelled forms (e.g., saying [dofəlp] instead of [dofəl]). The findings of these two experiments together provides evidence for a relationship between orthographic and phonological representations for L2 words in the learner lexicon, with implications for both L2 vocabulary and pronunciation teaching.

Recent Trends in Heritage Language Use in the Southwest

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The American Southwest (defined as the states of Arizona, California, Colorado, New Mexico, and Texas) has a rich non-English linguistic heritage. Chronologically the indigenous American languages were spoken first in this region; next came the Spanish language, and then English along with many others.

The goal of this presentation is to shed light on the following topics:

(1) the current heritage language situation in the Southwest, and

(2) the English-language ability of these heritage language speakers.

The United States 2000 Census has revealed a complex and a changing heritage language situation with contemporary immigration patterns heavily influencing the use of heritage languages for this region. The current linguistic situation reveals both similarities and dissimilarities. Though Spanish predominates as the main heritage language spoken in each of the five southwestern states, considerable variation exists within the region especially in regard to native American and Asian heritage languages. While about one in five residents nationwide speaks a heritage language at home, the number of these speakers in most of the Southwest is noticeably higher

The number of heritage language speakers who speak English very well, (more than one-half of the total), has increased. Similarly the number who speak English with at least some difficulty has also increased. The statistics therefore indicate that more heritage language children need to learn English as rapidly as possible. In a nutshell, the 2000 Census data basically confirm the continuation of linguistic trends from the preceding decade. Reacting to this urgent need for increased English-language instruction, the states have taken different stances such as divergent models of bilingual education, monolingual English acquisition, and the English-Only movement.

The Feminine Tendency of English Loanwords in Texas German

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Clausing (1986) provides a thorough overview of theories on the mechanisms which assign gender to English loan words borrowed into American German dialects. One feature given particular attention in Clausing's review is the *feminine tendency*, that is, a propensity for loan words to be assigned feminine gender (designated by the definite article *die* (as opposed to masculine *der* or neuter *das*)). While the studies draw data from a wide array of American German dialects, none refer to the Texas German corpora of either Eikel (1954) or Gilbert (1972). Nor has more current research addressed this theory with data from the Texas German Dialect Archive (2007). Using data collected within the past five years, this paper demonstrates that indeed a feminine tendency does exist, particularly among the last surviving generation of Texas German speakers.

The first section of this paper reviews past research on the feminine tendency, which addresses either American German in general or one dialect in particular (for Pennsylvania German see Reed, 1942). The most popular reason put forward for this tendency is the correlation with the pronunciation of *the* and *die*. These studies have been variously assailed for small sample sizes (Springer, 1943), incorrect analysis of the *the/die* correlation, and a simple lack of evidence (Seeger 1971). Clyne (1975), based on data from Australian German, uses a sociolinguistic approach to try to resolve the issue while partially supporting the *the/die correlation*. It suggests that those from established immigrant German communities, as opposed to recent immigrants, have little recourse to Standard German and to the possible lexical equivalents from this language that could otherwise inform a gender choice for loan words.

The second part of this paper discusses the Texas German data, which seem to reflect the characteristics

of Clyne's proposal. I accessed the Texas German Dialect Archive (Boas 2006) to conduct a full-text search in the transcripts of open-ended sociolinguistic interviews with more than 80 remaining speakers of Texas German. My analysis of the data suggests that Texas German speakers who no longer have access to Standard German have begun to use the feminine gender to designate 2/3 of the sampled loan words (e.g. *die car, die fussbowl, die country, die claim*). Moreover, many German words which are non-feminine in Standard German are also assigned *die* in Texas German, such as *die Krieg, die Pastor, die Opa, die Ball* (all are masculine in the standard). This phenomenon runs counter to Eikel's (1954) claim that gender assignment in Texas German is identical to that of Standard German. It also shows that there is very little or no corresponding tendency with respect to over-generalizing the masculine or neuter genders in present-day Texas German. As such, my analysis of the assignment of feminine gender to nouns in Texas German illustrates the still-fluid nature of the variety.

The third part of the paper addresses the possible causes leading to the widespread use of *die*: (1) a syncretism of genders that originates in the German donor dialects brought to Texas; (2) the emergence of a new "common" gender; and (3) the collapse of the grammatical gender system. Whichever dynamic is at work, the apparent increases in variation and simplification seem to provide evidence of language obsolescence. Additionally, such change may support a hypothesis that the relative stability of Texas German over the past 50 years (see Boas, forthcoming) is now threatened.

A preliminary acoustic analysis of the Comanche vowel system

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Comanche belongs to the Numic branch of the Uto-Aztecan language family. It is an under-documented moribund language (some revitalization efforts are under way), and so far as I know, there are no published studies on the acoustics of the Comanche sound system. This research is designed to fill part of that gap in the literature, and it provides acoustic evidence that the 'high' central vowel of Comanche is, in fact, not a 'high' vowel but something closer to schwa – similar to /e/ in terms of vowel height.

For this research, I have been working with Mr. Sam DeVenney, a native speaker from Lawton, Oklahoma. Mr. DeVenney was raised in a Comanche=L1 environment by his grandparents and is one of the youngest remaining native speakers. He is also a Comanche language teacher and an official tribe historian. The data described in this paper come from elicited English to Comanche sentence translations made in Fall 2006 and continuing through to the present.

Comanche has a complicated vowel system with six vowel qualities, contrastive length distinctions, and voiceless vowel allophones (see Canonge 1957 for arguments for the phonemic status of voiceless vowels). There is some disagreement about the quality of the vowel allophones; Charney (1994) proposes /i, e,   , a, o, u/ where Robinson and Armagost (1990) suggest / / in place of / /. In this paper, I provide a preliminary acoustic analysis of the Comanche vowel phonemes /i, e,   , a, o, u/.

The vowels have been analyzed with Praat (Boersma and Weenink 2007). For each of the 300 vowels measured (to date), Praat calculated the average F1-F3 formant values for the 50ms surrounding the mid-point of the vowel (determined by eye). The data are as shown in Table 1 below. (Formant values are rounded to the nearest 10Hz, and since the data in Table 1 come from elicited translations, the number of vowel tokens available for measurement is not identical.)

Table 1: F1-F3 formant values for Comanche vowel phonemes

	i	e		a	o	u
F1	380	530	520	620	470	420
F2	1980	1850	1640	1460	1320	1420
F3	2810	2600	2620	2610	2590	2700

One interesting observation is that the vowel represented in Charney (1994) as / /, a high, central, unrounded vowel, has an acoustic profile that would be better represented by schwa. That is, in terms of vowel

height (first formant values), /ə/ is closer to the mid vowels /e/ and /o/ than it is to the high vowels /i/ or /u/. This does not appear to be the characteristic of a single speaker either, since recordings of a female speaker of Comanche (available through the UCLA Phonetics Lab Archive; I sampled 60 vowels) indicate an F1 of 600Hz for /ə/, 580Hz for /e/, and 450Hz for /i/. This suggests that the Comanche vowel system might be more accurately represented by the phonemes /i, e, ə, a, o, u/.

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La auto-evaluación como fuente para ubicación y aprendizaje

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El ubicar hispanohablantes de herencia apropiadamente en cursos de español concierne a maestros y administradores de departamentos universitarios debido al aumento en las cifras de estos estudiantes y a sus circunstancias particulares de adquisición del idioma. Pocos exámenes de ubicación miden con confiabilidad las habilidades lingüísticas de estos estudiantes. Igualmente existe una carencia de currículo en cursos de español que se ajusten a las necesidades específicas de hispanohablantes.

Por lo tanto, esta investigación analiza si estudiantes hispanohablantes de herencia matriculados en cursos de español pueden autoevaluarse correctamente. A base de una primera investigación que indicó que la auto-evaluación puede servir para ubicar hispanohablantes de herencia matriculados en un curso de nivel intermedio, se investigó la auto-evaluación como fuente para el aprendizaje. Para este segundo estudio se tomaron en cuenta los objetivos de un curso avanzado para diseñar una rúbrica de auto-evaluación a la cual respondieron 24 de estos estudiantes. La maestra evaluó a los estudiantes en su clase usando la misma rúbrica.

Los resultados indicaron que la mayoría de los estudiantes hispanohablantes de herencia que terminaron sus estudios en la preparatoria en los Estados Unidos sobreestimaron sus habilidades en español. Los estudiantes que estudiaron hasta la secundaria en México subestimaron o estuvieron de acuerdo con la evaluación de la maestra.

-El estudio sugiere la necesidad de que se investigue una muestra más amplia para determinar si estos resultados se confirman dado que estudio previos han indicado que estudiantes sí tienen la capacidad de autoevaluarse con cierto grado de confiabilidad.

Creating a Toolbox Project for Tohono O'odham

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A revitalization effort is currently underway to help preserve and revive Tohono O'odham, a Uto-Aztecan language with 8,005 speakers residing in the south-central portion of Arizona and southward into the Mexican border. In order to facilitate a successful revitalization effort, we are creating educational resources using the

linguistic documentation tool, Toolbox, from SIL. With this program we are constructing a digital database capable of providing a searchable glossary of terms as well as a basic interlinear translation of the three published and available O'odham texts in the standardized orthography. In this paper we discuss some problematic aspects in creating this database, as well as possible solutions and final results.

Our current work includes entering texts into SIL's Toolbox in order to build a digital dictionary. Several problems arise with this input process. Some of these texts that had already been digitized arrived as PDF documents using a proprietary font. This font included O'odham as well as IPA glyphs in its Unicode Private Use Area, meaning that the data would not display correctly without this same proprietary font. A Perl script was created to convert the proprietary-use IPA code points to standard IPA code points in Unicode. Further, this script added the necessary Toolbox Standard Format Markers to the now raw Unicode text data. This last step enabled the raw text to be cleanly imported into Toolbox, where interlinearization could then begin.

During the interlinearization process we encountered several character recognition problems with the official orthography which we solved by adopting an orthography made up of both Mathiot and Saxton representations for the glottal stop, and retroflex */s/* and */d/*. We also experienced issues with the software's ability to recognize and correctly parse O'odham's complex morphological structures. Some issues we encountered were the software's restriction on the designation of the place of affixation for dictionary entries, defined unbound morphemes being used to gloss bound morphemes as well and the inability of the software to correctly recognize unbound morphology from the text line. Building a dictionary from a text is not impossible, just more inefficient than we had originally expected. As we continue to work with the software, these problems will be easier to anticipate and we will be able to predict and prevent them.

Upon the completion of this digital dictionary and database of texts, we hope to facilitate easier interlinearization of O'odham texts, produce several digital records of O'odham stories and create an online dictionary. Our project will benefit the linguistic community by increasing the availability of resources in and on the language, but more importantly this project will benefit the O'odham people, who will be able to use these resources to increase their own access to native texts and to increase the materials available for education in O'odham for the community. This project will be a major contribution for the current and future revitalization efforts of the O'odham language.

Repetition in formal discourse in Ixil Mayan.

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Repetition, or grammatical parallelism, is a common rhetorical strategy in numerous Mayan communities (Bricker, 1974, Norman, 1980, Brody 1986, 1994, Johnstone 1994, García et al 2005). The strategy has been noted specifically in ritual speech (Norman, 1980, Bricker, 1974), and in conversation (Brody 1986, Tedlock 1987, García et al 2005). We report on the use of grammatical and lexical repetition and parallelism in formal discourse in Ixil Mayan. In summer 2006 and winter 2007 the researchers elicited and videotaped narratives from 30 native speakers of Ixil Mayan in the town of Nebaj, El Quiché, Guatemala. Concurrently, a number of these sessions were transcribed with the help of this group. Participants met with the researchers in pairs, and were asked to talk about important events in their lives. Some speakers had made appointments for their sessions up to a week in advance and therefore had a significant amount of time in which to consider and prepare their narratives. The speakers had agreed to allow other Ixil speakers access to their videotaped sessions for the

purpose of transcription, and also to allow researchers in the United States to view the tapes and have access to the transcribed data. Thus, the participants were aware that they were speaking to a potentially large audience, and that their speech would be heard by other members of their community. Given this context, a number of speakers produced what we consider to be 'formal speech'. That is, the elicited narratives are not conversational, but directed mainly at sharing information and experiences with an audience that provides limited immediate feedback. However, these texts also can not be considered 'ritualistic', insofar as they do not constitute a repeated social or cultural event. Nonetheless, we observed lexical and syntactic repetition to be a dominant pattern in a number of these narratives. The example in (1) contains two instances of syntactic parallelism. 'We hid' is repeated 3 times in lines (a), (d) and (e), the latter two instances syntactically identical but for the object of the preposition. Syntactic parallelism is also present in lines (b) and (c), where 'looked for' surfaces twice in the passive voice. In addition to syntactic parallelisms we analyze examples of lexical and semantic parallelisms. We demonstrate that the tradition of rhetorical repetition found in other Mayan communities is robust in Ixil formal speech even without expectation of interlocutors. Functionally, repetition allows immediate identification of formal register by other native speakers, and serves to identify and highlight recurrent major themes of the narrative.

(1) a. kat   mujul vet   o'
        COMP hide   already 1PLABS.
        'we hid'
     b. nu   ku-**chuk-puj**   vet-e'
        incomp.1PLERG-look-PASS already-phrase.enclitic
        'we were being looked for'
     c. paal vet   o'   **chuk-puj** tu ku-kab'al
        child already 1PLABS look-PASS in 1PLERG-house
        'the child was looked for in our houses'
     d. kat   mujlu vet   o'   tu chuuj
        COMP hide   already 1PLABS in temescal
        'we hid in the temescal'
     e. kat   mujlu vet   o'   tu pe'
        COMP hide   already 1PLABS in corral
        'we hid in the corral'   (PdP 7/23/06 1:36)

Utterance Final Even and Conventional Implicature

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In recent linguistic literature, conventional implicature has been established as a speaker-oriented comment on an at-issue entailment (i.e., what is said) and it is produced by a lexical item, in interaction with other modules of grammar, in particular, phonology. It has also been shown that this meaning is distinct from both presupposition and conversational implicature (Potts 2005).

The paper reports on a newly emerging linguistic phenomenon in which the positive polarity item (PPI) *even* occurs utterance-finally, carrying a hitherto unknown type of conventional implicature. To illustrate, consider (1). (Here and throughout, capitalization indicates stress.)

(1) A: Who all came to the party?
     B: Well, Mary came, Sue came, and ... JOHN came **even**!

(2) B: Well, Mary came, Sue came, and ... **even** JOHN came!

Comparison between B's utterances in (1) and (2) reveals that utterance final (UF) *even* and its pre-focal counterpart have different felicity conditions: While the *even* in (2) suggests that the speaker already realized at the party that John came as well, the *even* in (1) implicates that the speaker just realized, while speaking, that John also came to the party. In this regard, UF *even* contributes the meaning of an utterance modifier such as *actually*, or *come to think of it*, in addition to the existential and scalar implicature of the more typical PPI *even*. That is, B's utterance in (1) roughly means '**Come to think of it**, John **also** came, which was **rather unlikely**.'

UF *even* can also be used to indicate the speaker's desire to broaden the topic of discourse. This is exemplified in (3), in which speaker B implicates that the information she gathered from the workshop made her realize that, in order to write a better abstract, she will have to change the topic of the paper itself, before changing anything in the abstract. Note that, given the discourse context, moving the *even* to a pre-focal position, as in B', induces infelicity.

(3) **Context**: At a workshop on abstract writing:
    A: So what kind of things would you like to change in your abstract?
    B: Actually, I was thinking about changing THE TOPIC OF MY PAPER **even**.
    B': #Actually, I was **even** thinking about changing THE TOPIC OF MY PAPER.

Our corpus data, personal observations, and surveys show that the use of UF *even* is rather robust among American English speakers, in particular, among the younger generation. Moreover, it is realized as *sogar* 'even' in German. We have also found that speakers' use of UF *even* is rather creative but it is still based upon its original meaning as a PPI *even*. That is, the existential and scalar implicature of a PPI *even* is still invariably detected in UF *even*.

The fact that UF *even* derives from PPI *even*, despite its enriched semantics, suggests that any lexical item with a multidimensional meaning has the potential to produce conventional implicature. This makes an interesting prediction on the rise of conventional implicature in a language or across languages.

A variationist analysis of aspect: *estuvo mal* **vs.** *no estaba mal*

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This quantitative analysis of the Preterit *estuvo* and Imperfect *estaba* verbs of Spanish examines the "conflict of interest" of lexical and grammatical aspect that is instantiated by stative verbs, such as *estar* 'to be'. According to formalistic linguistic theory, every verb contains grammatical aspect, which is the morphological marker on the verb, and lexical aspect, the inherent meaning of the verb. In Spanish past tense system, the morphology of the verb determines the grammatical aspect (i.e. whether it is Preterit or Imperfect), and these morphological endings bring about their own implications. Perfective markers in the past have been theorized to express an event in its totality, whereas imperfective makers portray an event without reference to a closed timeframe.

In regards to stative verbs, and following Vendler's classification (1967) of lexical aspect, these verbs intrinsically indicate a lack of a finite beginning or end, do not require mental or physical energy, and are sustained for a period of time. In other words, stative verbs naturally convey the duration of a situation. Therefore, it would be logical to conclude that stative verbs can only be used in the imperfective marker due to such nature. However, as it is commonly observed in natural discourse, and supported quantitatively in the present analysis, the stative verb *estar* is used not only in instances of the Imperfect, but also the Preterit. As a result, this conflict site is the basis for the present investigation: what are the exact contributing factors for determining whether the stative verb *estar* is used in the Preterit? In order to obtain an illustrative answer to this

question, a variationist approach was used to investigate the form-function relationship of *estar* and aspect.

This analysis was based on the corpus of *El habla de la ciudad de Madrid*, which is composed of 23 interviews conducted by Esgueva & Cantarero (1981). Comprised of a total of 257 tokens of *estar* in the past tense, the data were divided into social and linguistic factor, and subsequently examined by variable rule analysis (Goldvarb). The social factors (i.e. sex, age, occupation) proved not to have a significant influence on this aspect of language variation in Madrid dialect of Spanish. Of the linguistic factors analyzed, person, the presence of a locative, priming effect and temporal determinant resulted as significant contributions to the use of the Preterit *estar*, whereas collocation group and style did not. Hence, it is concluded that only internal, linguistic factors contribute to determining the frequency of application of Preterit or Imperfect forms of the stative verb *estar*.

Expressing motion with component part prepositions in Tlacolula Valley Zapotec

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Motion verbs in Tlacolula Valley Zapotec such as *byèe'py* 'went up' and *bye'eht* 'got down' can be intransitive (1). These verbs can also occur with an adjunct phrase that specifies either the goal (2a) or source of the motion (2b). In (2) these phrases start with the component part preposition *loh* 'on', related to 'face'. Omitting the preposition results in ungrammatical sentences (3).

1. a. Bèe'ecw   b-yèe'py.   'The dog went up'
        dog   PERF-go_up

    b. Bèe'ecw   b-ye'eht.   'The dog got down'
        dog   PERF-go_down

2. a. Bèe'ecw   b-yèe'py   **loh**   **me'es**.   'The dog went up on the table'
        dog   PERF-go_up   on   table

    b. Bèe'ecw   b-ye'eht   **loh**   **me'es**.   'The dog got down from the table'
        dog   PERF-go_down   on   table

3. a. *Bèe'ecw   b-yèe'py   m**e'es**.
            bad with any meaning; e.g. cannot mean 'The dog went up on the table'

    b.   *Bèe'ecw   b-ye'eht   **me'es**.
            bad with any meaning; e.g. cannot mean 'The dog got down from the table'

However, while *loh* is required in (2), it is not expressing the direction of the motion, which seems to be completely conveyed through the verb. The same pattern can be seen in (4), with the component part preposition *làa'any* 'in', related to 'stomach'.

4. a. Chi'c   b-iahahb   mìi'iny   **làa'any**   **x:-ca'ch**   **bzêiny**
        then   PERF-fall   child   in   POSS-horn   deer
                'Then the child fell into the deer's antlers'

    b.   R-bèe'   bùunny   lango'ost   **làa'any**   **zu'aht**
        HAB-take_out   person   lobster   in   egg

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pahr      ch-ìi'llèe'     g-a'u          bùunny=ih. (Munro and Lopez, in prep.:119)
for       IRR-can         IRR-eat        person=3DST
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      'One has to remove a lobster from its shell in order to be able to eat it'

      I argue, that in constructions such as these, which are based on both elicited data and data from narratives, that the component part preposition functions to map a [THING], such as *me'es* 'table' onto a [PLACE] and that motion verbs such as *byèe'py* 'went up' and *bye'eht* 'got down' can take locational [PLACE] adjuncts. Whether this [PLACE] adjunct is interpreted as the goal or source of the motion, then, depends on the motion verb itself and not on the component part preposition.

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The Encoding of Definiteness, Specificity and Referentiality in Chinese Nominal Phrases

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Compared with English and other Indo-European languages, (in)definiteness in Chinese languages can be exhibited with bare nominals due to the lack of articles; however, as Progovac (1998) maintains that the projection of Determiner Phrases (DPs) is a property of Universal Grammar (UG), it is reasonable to argue that Chinese nominal expressions have a projection of DP with null determiners in the argument positions at all times (cf. Li 1999, Cheng & Sybesma 1999) and share the same mechanism of encoding definiteness, specificity and referentiality with Indo-European languages. This is contrast to Cheng and Sybesma's (1999) assumption that Chinese and English have different encoding mechanisms. They believe that definiteness is encoded by the function head, classifier, in Chinese whereas it is encoded by the D head in English. However, what I assume is that there is only one functional projection in the nominal phrase which is responsible for the encoding of definiteness. I propose that the head of DP is the source of the [definite] feature whereas the head of light noun projection (nP)[1] is the source of the [referential] feature. The basic syntactic structure that I postulate is schematised as DP>Num(er)P>Specific(ity)P>nP>NP. Each functional projection above NP carries one interpretable feature and several uninterpretable features related to the other functional projections. For instance, the D head is composed of an interpretable [definite] feature and the uninterpretable [number], [specific], [referential] features. According to Chomsky's (2001) Probe-Goal theory, the interpretable feature under each functional head interacts with the uninterpretable feature under other functional heads through the operation Agree. For example, the D head with the interpretable [definite] feature and the unvalued uninterpretable [referential] feature serves as the Probe, while the n head with the interpretable [referential] feature and the unvalued uninterpretable [definite] feature serves as the Goal. The interpretable [definite] feature on D matches and deletes the unvalued uninterpretable [definite] feature on n by Agree, whereas the interpretable [referential] feature on n matches and deletes the unvalued uninterpretable [referential] feature on D by Agree. In contrast to Cheng and Sybesma's (1999) analysis which assumes different mechanisms of encoding definiteness and referentiality for Chinese and Indo-European languages and proposes two different syntactic structures for Cantonese and Mandarin, the current model provides a more unified account and requires less language-specific mechanism.

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[1]   n is lexically realized as the classifier in Chinese languages.

Phonologic and Semantic Influence of L1 and L2 in L3 learning

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Recent research has demonstrated that both the first (L1) and second (L2) language influence the storage, retrieval, and learning of a third language (L3), although which language has the most influence may differ dramatically across languages and situations (Ringbom, 2001). In particular, some studies have shown that the L1 influences the learning of the L3 more than L2 does (i.e., Ecke and Hall, 2000), while others suggest that the L2 exerts a greater influence (Cenoz, 2003). These discrepancies may occur because different aspects of language acquisition and different L1s and L2s have been examined in different studies. To overcome at least some of these limitations, in this study I examine how L1 and L2 priming affect both semantic and phonological retrieval of an L3 by native English and Spanish learners of French.

In particular, two groups participated: native English speakers with Spanish as L2 and French as L3 and native Spanish speakers with English as L2 and French as L3. Subjects had a high level of proficiency in their second language and an intermediate level of proficiency in their third language. Participants were asked to perform an L3 (French) lexical decision task which was primed by semantically or phonologically related words either in the L1 or L2 (i.e., either English or Spanish). The semantic priming stimuli were words semantically and the phonological priming stimuli were non-cognate phonologically related primes across the L3 and the L2 or L1. Audio clips were used instead of visual stimuli to reduce the effect of orthography on retrieval. Both native English and Spanish speakers participated in order to determine if degree of similarity of the L1/L2 to the L3 affects retrieval accuracy. Both phonological and semantic priming were examined to see if the level of linguistic feature examined also relates.

Preliminary results suggest that, for semantic primes, there is a greater influence of the L2 than the L1 (i.e., a reduced response time for the L2 than L1), regardless of whether the L2 was English or Spanish. For phonological priming, results seemed to be related more to the similarity of the L1/L2 to the L3. These results support the hypothesis that a learners' L2 plays a greater role in its transfer into a third language than does the L1, but only for semantic priming. These results also suggest that similarity of the L1/L2 to the L3 plays a limited but important role.

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Habla y estereotipos femeninos en el teatro mexicano

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Numerosos investigadores del habla femenina mencionan que es difícil establecer (una forma de habla típicamente femenina) la mayoría de ellos propone hablar de estereotipos de habla femenina, esto es, un conjunto de rasgos lingüísticos que socialmente se les atribuye a las mujeres (R. Lakoff, 1975; Martín Rojo, 1996). Dichos rasgos lingüísticos se presentan en diversos niveles del habla: 1) léxico: las mujeres

usan los eufemismos que son palabras que se utilizan para evitar una palabra vulgar (Lozano Domingo, 1995) y los disfemismos que son palabras o expresiones que se consideran mal sonantes, pues designan las partes del cuerpo tanto femeninas como masculinas; 2) Interjecciones: manifiestan la alegría, la ironía, la obviedad, la sorpresa, el miedo; 3) El uso de diminutivos: las mujeres en su habla los utilizan con diversos tonos discursivos pues sirven para ironizar despreciar, expresar cariño, etc. ; 4) Prefijos: re- y rete-; 5)Superlativos como padrísimo y riquísimo; 6) intensificadores como "tan" y "muy" ; 7) Acortamientos léxicos; 8) Adjetivos; 9) Vocativos, entre otros.

Esta investigación analiza qué tanto se reproduce los rasgos lingüísticos que socialmente se le atribuyen, por distintos analistas, a las mujeres. De esta manera se observará el habla femenina de tres grupos de mujeres mexicanas: prostitutas, esposas y jóvenes. El concepto de estereotipo sociolingüístico es el siguiente: "Conjunto de atributos semánticos subjetivos que suelen atribuirse a un referente, por parte de un grupo de hablante" (Córdova 2003: 77).

El corpus consta de 18 obras de teatro publicadas entre los años 50 al 2003 y escritas por autores originarios de distintas regiones de México, de las cuales se extrajeron rasgos característicos del habla femenina mexicana.

En mi corpus encontré que las prostitutas y las jóvenes en su habla utilizan más los disfemismos que los eufemismos. Entre los disfemismos encontramos aquellas palabras para designar partes del cuerpo masculino y femenino, actividades fisiológicas y el producto de éstas, así como las relaciones sexuales: teta, chichi, pito, mear, cagar, coger, etc. Con lo anterior vemos como se rompe el estereotipo de que todos los grupos femeninos usan sólo eufemismos.

En contraste las esposas usan más los eufemismos que los disfemismos para referirse a las actividades fisiológicas, partes del cuerpo y relaciones sexuales, por ejemplo: "el bat en su lugar" , "la lanza por delante", "pajarito", "pistolita", "hacer el amor", etc.

Habla y estereotipos femeninos en el teatro mexicano.

A Preliminary Comparison of Japanese Flap /r/ and North American English Post-stress /t, d/

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In 1972 Monnot & Freeman[2] compared American English speakers' realizations of post-stress intervocalic alveolar stops with Spanish single-tap /r/ and found that, acoustically speaking, the two were virtually the same. That is, they corroborated the idea that speakers of American English learning Spanish are better-off using 'd's for the Spanish rhotic as opposed to the sound they might normally associate with the symbol 'r' in English ([®]). The notion that a single speech sound in phonetic terms, the flap ([|]), can wear multiple phonological hats (/r, t, d/) is an intriguing one that begs the question: Are the two really the same in terms of their acoustic properties?

This paper reports on the results of a preliminary comparative acoustic analysis of flaps in North American English (NAE) and Japanese (JNS), a language whose single liquid phoneme is an apical flap. Four female speakers of each of NAE and JNS were asked to repeat three sentences (Table 1) structured around a word containing an allophonic (NAE) or phonemic (JNS) flap between the vowels /{a A}, i/. Duration and intensity were measured for 9 overlapping intervals of time throughout the production of intervocalic flaps (Figure 1).

Findings from 48 (24 English, 24 Japanese) tokens suggested that flaps are indeed quite similar across the two languages, but not entirely the same. Visual examination of spectrograms suggested both groups of speakers produced 3 basic varieties of flaps: 1) stop-like flaps with release bursts and relatively longer stricture durations, 2) proto-typical flaps without release bursts but where formant patterns were briefly interrupted, and 3) approximant-like flaps with no interruption of formant patterns but with decreased amplitude during the articulatory stricture. Both the NAE and JNS groups produced stop-like realizations 50% of the time with

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[2]   Monnot, M., Freeman, M. (1972). A comparison of Spanish single-tap /r/ with American /t/ and /d/ in post-stress intervocalic position. In: A. Valdman (ed.) *Papers in Linguistics and Phonetics to the Memory of Pierre Delattre*. The Hague: Mouton, 409-416.

roughly equal proportions for the remaining two types. Average stricture duration was also similar, however a difference was observed between either group's flaps in terms of intensity. Those in NAE tended to have more energy (amplitude) prior to the formation of the articulatory stricture while JNS flaps had proportionately higher energy (relative to the following /i/) during the offset of the articulatory stricture. The tentative conclusion suggested by the results, then, is that NAE flaps are 'front-heavy' while those in JNS are 'back-heavy,' as determined by which side of the stricture has proportionately more energy.

Position and the presence of subjunctive in purpose clauses in heritage Spanish

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Studies show a decrease in the use of subjunctive favoring the indicative by younger generations of US-Spanish heritage speakers (e.g. Lantolf 1978; Floyd 1983; Ocampo 1990; Gutiérrez 1994; Silva Corvalán 1991, 1994, 2000). Contact with English might explain this, since heritage speakers learn both languages (almost) simultaneously, but are usually more English-proficient. This might be the result of incomplete acquisition of (the semantics of) subjunctive, since English becomes the dominant language soon; together with lack of use/exposure to Spanish, heritage speakers' use of the subjunctive might resemble that of intermediate L2 Spanish learners.

However, Silva Corvalán (1994) shows how, regardless of generation, the subjunctive is common in specific structures, e.g. purpose clauses. Therefore, a study was conducted to determine what elements can justify the higher retention of the subjunctive in this particular adverbial structure in heritage Spanish. Specifically, the study wanted to test whether the position of the subordinate clause played a role. Iconic order facilitates processing (Noordman and de Blijzer 2004:41), so it was hypothesized that the heritage speakers would perform like monolinguals speakers of Mexican Spanish in terms of preferred position of the subordinate clause (i.e. postposition, since it favors a more iconic interpretation of the temporal sequencing between the two clauses), as shown in Herrera Lima (1991), and modal choice (i.e. the subjunctive, due to its 'futurity' meaning which reinforces the logical temporal sequence). Purposive adverbials is one of the contexts in which the subjunctive is first acquired (Blake 1983), so heritage speakers might have had more time to internalize the semantics of the subjunctive better and be less affected by 'incomplete acquisition.'

Following Silva Corvalán's (2000) generational classification of heritage speakers, our study was conducted with heritage speakers of Mexican descent from the Southwest. All groups took a written production questionnaire, a grammaticality judgment task, and some participants volunteered for an interview. Results were compared to those of monolingual Mexican Spanish speakers and advanced Spanish L2 learners.

Despite the group effect within the heritage speakers' groups, they showed a similar tendency to the monolinguals in the oral data and the use of subjunctive in written production, despite the differences in percentages (96.95% preposed and 98.78% postposed for the monolinguals, 72.26% in preposed position and 71.57% in postposed for New Mexico). Position of the subordinate clause did not seem to play a role for any group. Differences with the L2 groups are attested in the written production task (L2 learners use the subjunctive less, e.g. 62.06% for preposed structures and 62.94% for postposed in written production) and oral data. However, similarities between these two groups are more obvious with the analysis of attitudinal data: they both accept the presence of the indicative in purpose structures more than the monolinguals. Nevertheless, the findings for the production data support the claim that there are some differences between heritage speakers/L2 learners in how their (internal) linguistic systems are configured. The heritage speakers' sociodemographic background, and some exposure to/use of Spanish in their daily lives might have contributed to it.

Linguistic and Cultural Gains in a Short-Term Study Abroad Program

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Increasingly, government and educational institutions are turning to study abroad programs as one of the

primary means of providing students with important cross-cultural and linguistic skills. However, most students participate in short-term programs lasting approximately two months while the benefits of such programs remain largely unstudied.

The purpose of this study was to examine the cultural and linguistic learning that takes place in short-term programs abroad. To measure changes in oral skills, the researcher created an innovative instrument in which native speakers rated clips of student speech in the target language from before and after their time abroad.

Results indicate that students generally experienced small, but significant improvements in their oral language skills, despite the brief nature of their program. However, as found in previous research, students varied greatly in the amount of progress made in oral language skills and cultural sensitivity while abroad. Additionally, the instrument created to measure growth in oral language skills showed high reliability. These results provide support for students' participation in short-term study abroad programs and suggest that short-term programs can play a useful role in language study.

Finding Our Way: A Comparison of the Morphosyntax of Spatial Terminology in Elicited Discourse Data

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The act of performing functional morphosyntactic exploration might feel similar to attempting to read the human mind; simply listing the examples one uncovers in either natural, elicited, or textual discourse gets one to thinking of searching for treasure, or breaking a code, or, even, testing humans for extra-sensory perception. Little wonder that many scholars have chosen to abandon the search for evidence of the link between the concept and the expressed gesture, sound, or word (Munteanu, 2003). Still, others have persevered in this interdisciplinary area (Bloom, Peterson, Nadel, & Garrett, 1999), taking great care and using multiple techniques (Levinson, 2003; Svorou, 1994, among others) as they grow closer to discovering how language is linked with thought through scholarly investigations of language in use.

As an example of this type of investigation, this paper suggests that looking at the tokens of spatial terminology occurring in natural language use as part of an elicited task of wayfinding (direction-giving) discourse will offer a more intimate glimpse of how the usage of the language reflects the intentional thought of the speaker. There may be no direct way to observe the "structures and processes inside the system which intervene between perception and behavior", but "the functional dimension of language, however, is part of the observable behavior,…[and] just as one can observe the structural features of language in use, one can also observe… the purposes for which these linguistic structures are used" (Nuyts, 2000, p. 3). One of the structural purposes of language in use is to communicate a location in space – to map one's personal position or orientation or to offer directions to a location.

Drawing from the relationship between situating oneself in space and one of Lakoff and Johnson's primary metaphors – "the Location Event-Structure Metaphor" which consists of submetaphors, the first of which is "States are Locations" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999, p. 179), we can extend this metaphor into real life experience – that of drawing an actual map, a very observable behavior/event. Map drawing is a visual manifestation of an internal image, and "visual situations provide a perfect opportunity to do so, due to the correlation between visual and mental experiences of certain kinds and to the inter-subjective nature of visual experience and related behavior…"(Johnson, 1999, p. 160). Map explaining offers a similar opportunity for cultural or experiential background to become observable through the performance of the map task (Anderson et al, 1991).

This paper provides a comparative look at elicited spatial language from participants who use English as both their first and second language and the spatial language in corpus linguistics by providing a morphosyntactic comparison study between each of three newly generated elicited wayfinding discourse samples from the author's pilot study as adapted from previously recorded and transcribed data of the Map Task Corpus (Anderson, 1991).

Identity, Motivation and Attitudes connected with Spanish-English Bilingualism in the United States

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The present paper discusses findings on motivation, attitudes and effects on identity related to bilingualism in the U.S. Through a pilot study conducted with native-born English speakers (ES) and Spanish-speaking immigrants (SS) in the Denver area, I analyzed attitudes toward bilingualism and toward those newcomers from other countries who don't speak the standard English of this country. Attitudes of Spanish-speaking immigrants toward the necessity of learning English were also studied. The majority of the ES group reported having encountered negative attitudes toward non-English speaking immigrants. Respondents described these attitudes as "prejudice, impatience, frustration, ignoring y marginalizing". However, in the SS group, while approximately 50% reported experiencing negative attitudes, 35% described experiences with positive and supportive attitudes, and 15% reported having experienced neither positive nor negative attitudes.

Second, I explored the effect of achieving bilingualism on one's identity. This includes the effect on identity both of the Spanish-speaking immigrant living in an English-speaking community as well as that of the U.S. born English-speaker studying to learn Spanish or having already achieved a competent level of Spanish. Whereas the ES learning a second language is admired and congratulated for his/her intelligence or diligence, in past decades, the maintenance of Spanish in immigrant families, although their command of English may be strong, was commonly related with poverty. This language loyalty resulted in negative repercussions, as Aparicio notes in his anecdote about a judge telling a woman who spoke Spanish at home with her five hear daughter that she was abusing the child and sentencing her to a life as a maid (2005). Yet, due to the expanding Spanish-speaking population and the improvement in socio-economic status, we are seeing a trend toward language and culture maintenance as well as positive effects on identity of being bilingual and using both languages.

I also attempted to analyze motivations and/or pressures that push an individual to do what is necessary to achieve communicative competence in a second language. For the ES group, the majority of responses reflected the desire for better communication in the workplace and/or for personal growth. In contrast, the SS group clearly reveals an instrumental motivation of improved career opportunities.

The final purpose of the study was to understand attitudes of both ES and SS groups toward Spanglish. Many of the ES group had limited knowledge of Spanglish, but those who were aware of it saw it as amusing and in some cases inevitable. On the SS side, there is almost a universal antipathy toward Spanglish and a strong association with a lack of culture or education.
Reference

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"No Face": The Interrelationship of Characters in Junot Díaz's Narrative

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The present paper is a discourse analysis of the narrative "No Face" from the book "Drown" by the Dominican–born writer Junot Díaz, one of the present top writers in the United States. The story is about an adolescent boy whose face is severely damaged due to an attack by a hog in his childhood. He wears a mask to cover his injuries.

I use two approaches for my analysis: Bal's (1991) theory of focalization and King's (1992)) approach to character analysis. Bal proposes that readers imagine a character by listening to the voice of the narrator, but they "see" a character through the eyes of the focalizer. The narrator and the focalizer are often the same

narrative agent. When a character in a narrative begins his/her discourse, the role of narrator/focalizer is yielded to this character. King proposes that narratives always contain five major elements: 1) characters, whose actions and relationships with other characters are extremely important in a narrative. 2) vectors, or the ideas and feelings exchanged between characters; 3) the power source which is the driving force behind the ventures of the character; 4) the physical context which prevents or helps characters to achieve their goals; 5) the denouement is the reason why the story is told, comparable to Labov's (1972) Evaluation.

After considering every clause in the narrative that includes direct speech, it is evident that No Face is the object of focalization of all the other characters. Some of them insult him: "What the hell are you doing? You haven't started eating cats, have you? ", and they threaten him: "You ever been a girl before?" No Face wishes to be invisible but people notice him immediately in the street. From observation of the other clauses in the narrative, it appears that No Face is afraid to be hurt..He is afraid when some boys attack him and he is afraid for the operation that will restore his face. However, his inner strenghth allows him to survive: "He says STRENGTH and the fat boy flies off him…" No Face continuously talks to himself for encouragement:.He also knows that he is unbeatable when he runs because "Nobody's faster." Although some characters threaten No Face, he is protected by other characters in the story, such as Father Lou who teaches him English which he will need up north where he will go for his operation. Even though there seems to be hope for a better future, No face fears that nothing will change.

The application of the two theories present a sharp picture of a boy with his daily struggles and feelings. Bal's theory shows him as the center of the picture. King's approach shows the rest of the picture: his interaction with other persons in his poor neighborhood in the Dominican Republic.

English-only and Native Language Revitalization

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At the time of European contact there were between 300 and 600 indigenous languages in the U.S. and Canada. Currently there are 210, all of which are considered endangered. A recent trend has been to reverse this language shift by teaching a new generation of speakers in immersion classrooms. This effort for language revitalization has seen a concurrent increase in the Official English movement, a movement that started in the mid-eighties. Official English is geared towards new immigrants, particularly Spanish-speaking. It is a movement that has been criticized by virtually all organizations of linguists, teachers, and most Native tribes. Although there is a large amount of documentation available on Official English, there has been little discussion of the impact that it has on Native Language revitalization. This paper examines this impact and argues that, despite protests and disclaimers to the contrary, the Official English movement does indeed harm efforts to maintain indigenous languages; in fact, this recent trend towards linguistic assimilation is a continuation of language attitudes that have led to the near-extinction of Native American languages. Despite the fact that many Official English proponents are not concerned with (or even think about) Native American languages, their very movement comes from a long and harmful tradition of assimilationist ideology. If Official English continues unchecked, it will eventually harm language revitalization programs in two specific ways. First, it will spread and reinforce mistaken assumptions about the role of English in fostering national unity; such assumptions breed ignorance about and suspicion towards desperately-needed programs that promote pride in traditions and languages outside of the English mainstream. Second, Official English legislation can have a direct impact on funding bilingual programs that have the greatest chance of reversing language shift among Native communities. The potential for 'English-only' attitudes and laws to have a real impact on the ability of Native peoples to maintain their languages is illustrated by case studies from Arizona, Oklahoma, and Alaska.

E-mail or *correo electrónico*? Computer- and Internet-related terminology and the preferences of native Spanish speakers

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An earlier study examined the frequency of computer- and Internet-related linguistic borrowing in the Peninsular Spanish language press over four weeks. It found 361 different computer- or internet-related borrowings of all types, including loanwords, loan translations, semantic extensions, and loan blends. The results showed that all borrowings that appeared only once over four weeks (56%) vastly outnumbered those that were in widespread use (5%). The data included 134 assimilated and unassimilated loanwords, only five of which were widespread: *Internet*, which appeared 284 times, *e-mail* (136), *web* (88), *software* (34), and *CD* (22). The current study reports on interviews in which 26 native speakers of Peninsular Spanish were asked about their familiarity with thirty high and low frequency computer- and Internet-related loanwords attested in the Spanish press and on Spanish language websites. All interviews were tape recorded with the permission of the participants, and subsequently transcribed. Participants included 14 males, and 12 females, ranging in age from 10 to 51, who spoke some variety of Peninsular Spanish, and had varying levels of English proficiency and familiarity with computers and the Internet. The interviews consisted of two parts. Participants were first asked to listen to descriptions of each term (e.g. a mouse) (all definitions from the Glosario básico inglés-español para usuarios de Internet at http://www.ati.es/novatica/glosario/buscador/buscador_gloint.html) and to name the object, concept or person if they could. Following this, they were shown a list of the 30 loanwords, and were asked to give a brief definition of each term that they knew or had seen. While a number of participants reported that their use of the loanword or its Spanish language equivalent (e.g. "password" vs. *contraseña*) depends on the language of the webpage visited and/or the language in which the topic is being discussed, results show, with overwhelming consistency, a marked preference for Spanish language terminology such as loan translations (e.g., *salvapantallas* instead of "screensaver"), synchronic creations (Otheguy (1991) (e.g. *pirata* instead of "hacker") and semantic extensions (e.g. *ratón* instead of "mouse") rather than the use of (un)assimilated or partially assimilated loanwords, even among native speakers who reported a knowledge of English. Only where a loanword is significantly shorter than its Spanish language equivalent (e.g. "mail"/"e-mail" vs. *correo electrónico*), is there a marked preference for the English word. My results echo those of Piñol (1999), who analyzes some recent lexical innovations in Spanish Internet language, and points out that there is an increasing tendency for Spanish to find or create expressions that conform to Spanish linguistic patterns, rather than continuing to simply use English terminology.

American Attitudes Toward Six Varieties of English in the USA and Britain

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Since Giles' (1970) attitudinal study on British attitudes toward regional British varieties of English, much research has been done on examining how listeners rank varieties within their own country. Less research (Coupland & Bishop, 2007; Bayard, *et al*, 2001) has been done to ascertain how people from one country respond to other nations' varieties of English, and when these comparisons are done, usually only one variety (whichever is considered the standard for a particular country) is used. One exception to this is Hiraga (2005), who asked British listeners to judge both US (American) and British regional varieties of English, finding that while participants favored RP above all American varieties, they favored the American standard (Network American) over regional British varieties. They also tended to favor urban accents (both the American and British) over rural accents.

This study replicates Hiraga's approach, but does so using American college students to determine if Americans have similar perceptions of American vs. British and rural vs. urban varieties of English. It was hypothesized that, as shown in previous research, Americans would favor RP over other varieties, both British and American. However, it was hypothesized that, unlike Hiraga's British participants, American participants would rate urban varieties above rural varieties of American English, but would not have similar prejudices for British varieties since Americans may not be familiar with regional varieties of British English.

Three varieties of American English and British English—one variety representing the standard (Network American, RP), a rural accent (Alabama, West Yorkshire), and an urban (NYC, Birmingham) variety for each country—were played for 46 American college students and a survey was administered. Participants rated the varieties based on 10 traits of status ("successful," "educated," etc.) and solidarity ("friendly," "comforting," etc.) using a seven-point scale. Participants also noted where they thought each speaker was from.

Results show that participants ranked Network American and RP highest on status characteristics, but ranked Network American lowest and RP highest on solidarity characteristics, suggesting that Americans find the British standard the most prestigious. They also tended to rate rural varieties over urban ones for solidarity characteristics and urban over rural for status characteristics. These results demonstrate that Americans were able to recognize and have opinions about British regional varieties, and that they attach the same biases towards them as did the British participants in Hiraga's (2005) study, regardless of whether they could accurately identify the variety or not.

Language maintenance and shift in post-Annexation rural California

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This paper analyzes language maintenance/shift in rural southern California during the second half of the 19th century. It is based on 200 personal letters exchanged by the diverse population living in or around a rancho, which allowed for the introduction of social and occupational variables in the study. It was found that the Spanish-to-English shift was piecemeal and remained incomplete in 1900. Social factors such as generation, class, gender, and occupation resulted in varying degrees of language contact and in different rates of shift.

Language maintenance/shift among speakers of Southwest and immigrant Spanish has been analyzed through census data, language atlases, surveys, and participant observation (Aguirre 1982, Amastae 1982, Bills 1997, Bills *et al*. 1995, Coles 1991, Floyd 1992, Hidalgo 1993, Hudson-Edwards and Bills 1982, Pearson and McGee 1993, Pedraza 1985, Potowski 2004, Silva-Corvalán 1994, Solé 1990, Zentella 1997). However, because most of those studies focus on the 20th century, we still know little about how the process operated before that. This is particularly true for California, whose Hispanic past has been overshadowed by its recent Spanish-speaking immigration.

To complete this picture, the study focuses on correspondence exchanged between 1854 and 1900 by the Couts-Bandini family of Rancho Guajome, near San Diego. This family, composed of an American, his Spanish-speaking wife, and their children, was chosen as representative of the social transformations affecting the landed elite. Letters were classified by author into three groups: (1) from family members, (2) from rancho workers, (3) from neighbors and acquaintances. I considered the writers' language choices and competency, in particular, bilingualism, language mixing, and loss.

I found that within the family, intergenerational correspondence was in each parent's native language. The children exhibited cyclic bilingualism. Initially they showed interlanguage errors in English, but as they were sent away to educational institutions, they started to show code-switching, borrowing, attrition and convergence in Spanish. The older children achieved biliteracy, but the younger ones couldn't or wouldn't write in Spanish. On the other hand, letters from rancho workers had virtually no English or contact-induced features in Spanish. Finally, letters from neighbors reflect social, ethnic, and linguistic diversity. Those written by older

rancheros showed no traces of English influence; like farm-hands, they were highly Spanish-dominant. Letters from Luiseño Indians offer a rare glimpse of their Spanish, peppered with features attributable to indigenous language contact. Finally, new linguistic varieties of Spanish were introduced when institutions such as the Catholic Church sent their bilingual representatives from outside the area.

To sum up, this sociohistorical analysis shows that a complex combination of factors resulted in uneven levels of maintenance and shift. Ranching favored retention, since it provided little opportunity or need for English. Yet, groups expecting to achieve prominence in American California made efforts to learn the language, sometimes at the expense of Spanish. The significance of this study lies in its application of the findings of synchronic studies to shed light on the past.

Specifying Animate Grounds with Chickasaw Relational Nouns

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Chickasaw, a Muskogean language of Oklahoma, uses relational nouns (RNs) to specify locations, as in

- Ihoo-at   chokka'   tikb-<u>a</u>   híkki'ya.
  woman-nom   house   front-acc   be.standing
  'The woman is standing in front of the house.'
- Holisso   apootak-<u>a</u> ta'osso   kil-aa-hoyoosh-tok.
  book   side-acc   money   1pI-loc-look.for-pt
  'We found the money next to the book'

Tikba' 'front'   and *apootaka'* 'side'   are component part nouns rather than prepositions: they take nominal case marking and are arguments, not adjuncts (Munro 2006, Lillehaugen and Munro 2006): thus, *híkki'ya* 'be standing' subcategorizes for a locational object   , but *hoyoochi* 'find' is not, so its RN object must be licensed by the applicative prefix *aa-*   . Out of context, phrases like *chokka' tikba'* 'the front of the house' and *holisso apootaka'* 'the side of the book' have concrete reference, but in the sentences above speakers understand them to specify locations, like prepositional phrases, e.g., with *ihoo* 'woman' the figure and *chokka'* 'house' the ground in   .

Thus, RN phrases are syntactially and morphologically similar to inalienably possessed noun phrases, and the nouns before them (*chokka'* 'house'   and *holisso* 'book'   ) are like possessors. Since the RNs themselves refer to component parts of (generally) inanimate objects rather than animate beings, RNs with animate possessors (e.g. *satikba'* 'my front', *ihoo apootaka'* 'the woman's side') strike speakers as somewhat anomalous. While the use of these phrases to specify location relative to animate grounds is not impossible, speakers greatly prefer the more complex construction in   - :

- Ihoo-at   aa-híkki'ya-li-k<u>a</u>   tikb-<u>a</u>   híkki'ya.
  woman-nom   loc-be.standing-lsI-cmp.ds   front-acc   be.standing
  'The woman is standing in front of me (...in front of where I am standing).'
- Ihoo-at   aa-bínni'li-to-k<u>a</u>   apootak-<u>a</u>   chipota   kil-aa-hoyoosh-tok.
  woman-nom   loc-be.sitting-pt-cmp.ds   side-acc   child   1pI-loc-find-pt
  'We found the child next to the woman (...next to where the woman was sitting).'

The animate referents 'I' and 'woman' are not the syntactic possessors of the RNs in   - , nor are they the actual grounds. Rather, the actual ground relative to which location is specified is where these animate referents assume a particular position. This restriction seems at first to follow from the fact that the RNs are used most felicitously with inanimate possessors: the positional clauses are certainly inanimate. But the positions of the animate referents do not, in fact, have fronts or sides, so there is no concrete referent for the complex relational noun phrases and, indeed, it is hard to see what it would mean for a clause to be a possessor.

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This case provides a new example of how component part locatives extend their usage beyond simple metaphor in order to express a full range of locational notions (cf. Lillehaugen and Munro 2006, 2007, Lillehaugen 2006).

Abbreviations: acc : accusative, com : complement, ds : different-subject, loc : locative, nom : nominative, pt : perfective/past; 1, s, p, indicate pronominal references; I is an agreement class.

Acordarse versus *Recordar*: Spanish Predicate Structures as Cognitive Models

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The English verb "to remember" can be translated to either the Spanish *acordarse* or *recordar*, which are often referred to as synonyms. The major difference between the two verbs is that, morphologically speaking, one verb (*acordarse*) is reflexive while the other (*recordar*) is not. However, in actual usage, there exist great differences in the manner in which speakers discriminate their oral or written expression of the concept of memory. Both Fernández de Bobadilla Lara (1996) and Nicita (2002) have made inroads into the links between these two verbs and what they say about linguistic cognition, as well as problems inherent to choices concerning translating a single English verb into one of two verbs in Spanish. For Fernández de Bobadilla Lara, one of the major differences is that, while *recordar* is durative in nature, *acordarse* tends to be more punctual, sudden or involuntary. For Nicita, who analyzes the more ubiquitous *acordarse*, there is greater distribution both in person and in tense/aspects, and with some exceptions, *acordarse* is shown to be gaining ground in usage. In Lakoff's (1987) cognitive model, certain verbs create "mental space" when invoked and determine how they are used by speakers. In choosing to use *acordarse* over *recordar* or vice-versa, a speaker creates a mental space and, at the same time, the structure that will dictate when and how to fill this space with one verb or the other.

What are speakers conveying when using these verbs, especially when choosing one verb over another? The present study examines these two verbs in their "mental space" in an attempt to confirm or refute the cognitive model theory insofar that the results and analyses of the corpus reveal speakers' motivations and other cognitive factors involved. Twenty recorded conversations with native speakers were analyzed for their use of *acordarse* and *recordar*. By a ratio of almost 9:1, *acordarse* was found to be the preferred verb over *recordar* in almost all predicate structures. If *acordarse* actually does create "mental space" different than *recordar* in cognition, then the two cannot be considered side-by-side synonyms that seek to convey the same idea of memory. One verb seems to be replacing the other for the majority of users. It was found in the corpus that tendency to use one verb over another was connected with type and category of memory expressed, tense/aspect and person and geographic region of the speakers. It was also found that there exists far more possibilities upon which speakers in natural speech rely in order to express "remember," such as *tener recuerdos* ("to have memories") or even *recordar* as the reflexive *recordarse*. Shedding light on the underlying motivations for proclivity of use of one verb over another has implications for teaching methods and curriculum development for Spanish as a Second Language (SSL) and Spanish as a Foreign Language (SFL) programs, both in the US and abroad.

Convergencia lingüística en los calcos fraseológicos: innovación estructural y semántica

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Este artículo trata sobre la transferencia léxica en el español hablado en la ciudad de Nueva York. Según autores

como Weinreich (1979) o Silva-Corvalán (2001: 273) la transferencia supone la *incorporación de rasgos de un idioma a otro, con una consecuente reestructuración de los subsistemas involucrados*. Entre los fenómenos más comunes de transferencia léxica, y bajo diferentes tipos de taxonomías, encontramos los préstamos (ej. *basement, boila*) y los calcos – ya sean de una sola palabra (ej. *registrarse* con el sentido de 'matricularse' del inglés *register*) o de un grupo de palabras (ej. *jugar la guitarra*).

En este estudio, siguiendo la tipología propuesta por Otheguy y García (1988), se analizan calcos fraseológicos del tipo *llamar para atrás*, *máquina de contestar* o *último nombre*. Según Otheguy y García (1988) y Otheguy (1993, 1995), calcos como el anterior *llamar para atrás* o *máquina de contestar* deberían ser considerados como innovaciones comunicativas en vez de novedades lingüísticas. Es decir, constituyen usos nuevos pero no alteran el sistema lingüístico *per se*. Sin embargo, en este trabajo se argumenta que expresiones como las anteriores representan cambios sistemáticos en la lengua ya que suponen nuevas colocaciones – combinaciones de palabras que se distinguen por su alta frecuencia de uso – almacenadas en el léxico mental del hablante bilingüe. De este modo, y tras revisar varias clasificaciones de calcos fraseológicos, se propone una revisión del análisis de este tipo de expresiones considerando también otras clases de innovaciones de carácter semántico. Para esta investigación se muestra el análisis de un corpus de treinta entrevistas con informantes de los principales dialectos hispanos hablados en Nueva York.

Mantenimiento del español: el bilingüismo en Denver, Colorado

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Este proyecto es un intento de añadir al cuerpo de estudios sobre el español en el sudoeste información sobre la población única y creciente de Denver, el condado más poblado del estado de Colorado. El centro hispanohablante de Colorado hoy día es Denver y sus alrededores. El crecimiento del conteo, densidad y lealtad (medidas concebidas por Hudson et al. 1995) de hispanohablantes y de bilingües en el condado se muestra por la utilización de datos del censo de 2000 y de la Encuesta Americana de las Comunidades de 2005 (American Community Survey). Se comentan las causas externas de pérdida específicas a Denver, pero los factores que conducen al mantenimiento del español son de mayor importancia. Para haber bilingüismo hay que contar con el mantenimiento de la lengua étnica. La situación de desplazamiento de lenguas maternas al inglés en la que se encuentran los Estados Unidos hace que la generación bilingüe, con todas sus competencias variables del bilingüismo, tenga la responsabilidad de transmitir la lengua minoritaria a sus descendientes para propagarla. Sus esfuerzos, actitudes y habilidades son tan importantes para este intento como la comunidad en la que viven. Entrevistas hechas con miembros de familias bilingües de Denver ayudan a exponer actitudes e intenciones del bilingüismo dentro de la estructura familial. Además de los esfuerzos de la familia, los factores dentro de una comunidad pueden apoyar el mantenimiento. Así, basándose en el articulo de Lynch (2000) sobre "la ciudad bilingüe," Miami, se presentan condiciones favorables para el bilingüismo que posee Denver: la inmigración, las comunidades diversas, la visibilidad del español, el mercado, los medios de comunicación y la educación bilingüe. La pregunta central alrededor de la que se forma el proyecto es si Denver ofrece un ambiente viable para el mantenimiento del español y del bilingüismo. Es un punto de vista optimista pero también realista. Por supuesto existen pérdida y desplazamiento del español al inglés en Denver. Sin embargo, hay gran resistencia a la hegemonía del inglés y mucho apoyo a favor del valor del bilingüismo español-inglés.

Mexican Americans and Puerto Ricans in the same community: Their language attitudes towards their linguistic varieties of Spanish

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Studies have demonstrated the role of language attitudes in language variation and change (Almeida 1994; De Granda 1979; Garcia 1988; Labov 1966/1982). In previous studies that consider the ethnographic make up of hybrid communities, the speakers select the identities to be represented depending on the needs of the context (DeGenova & Ramos Zayas 2003, Padilla 1947, Padilla 1985, Pérez 2003, Potowski & Matts, 2007 [forthcoming], Rosaldo & Flores 1997, Rúa 2001). Research within the field has considered the outcome of dialect contact in vocabulary (Zentella 1990), in personal subject pronouns (Otheguy & Zentella [forthcoming], Otheguy et al 2005) and phonology (Ghosh-Johnson 2005). However, a detailed study of language use and attitudes of speakers of one Spanish dialect towards speakers of a different variety of Spanish across different generations in a Spanish– English bilingual community has not been considered.

I explore if language attitudes influence the speakers to maintain two Spanish dialects separate or if they converge their linguistic varieties within the community. I correlate their attitudes with their linguistic behavior regarding /r/ in syllable final position as both dialects differ in their use. Mexican American Spanish is a variety that preserves the use of [r]. Puerto Rican Spanish differs from MAS. Lateralization is a characteristic of the latter variety of Spanish, but not of the former.

The data were collected from questionnaires completed by the participants from the two different groups. The responses were matched with speech samples collected through word lists, paragraph reading and informal conversations from the same participants.

The data collected demonstrate that earlier tensions between the two groups affect the Mexican Americans in the community and prevent them from converging with PRS. MAS speakers are avoiding lateralization. Instead, the Mexican Americans maintain their usage of [r] in formal and informal speech styles. Thus, MAS in Lorain diverges from PRS in the articulation of [r] in an effort to signal a different identity.

Puerto Ricans in Lorain perceive MAS as a different variety undesirable to be acquired. These perceived differences influence the phonology of PRS. PRS in Lorain does not converge with the MAS pronunciation of [r] in syllable final position.

Neither group shares the same patterns of use for [r], despite the fact that both groups have lived in the same community for many decades. I argue that extralinguistic forces have conspired to maintain the two Spanish dialects separate within the community. Their language attitudes have a more powerful influence than their linguistic interactions.

Code Switching in Spanish Language Classrooms: A comparative view between native and non-native Spanish-speaking instructors

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Code switching (CS) between Spanish and English is a phenomenon that is prevalent in many communities where these two languages are in contact. It has been subject to many studies examining both the sociolinguistic factors which trigger CS as well as the linguistic features, characterizing exactly where in utterances CS is more likely to occur. However there has been little studied on the occurrence of CS in the speech of teachers in classes where Spanish is taught as a second language.

This paper is divided into two principal sections: (1) the examination of the structural aspect and (2) the sociolinguistic aspect. Throughout the two sections, I make a thorough comparison between CS in a classroom where the instructor is a native speaker of Spanish and one where the instructor is a nonnative speaker. Data from recorded transcripts is presented qualitatively in order to show differences and/or similarities between each instructor. One of the most striking differences is the type of CS demonstrated by the respective instructors:

while the native speaker of Spanish used CS emblematically and intrasententially, not favoring one type more than the other, the nonnative speaker's CS was almost always emblematic in nature. These two primary categories of CS refer to the types defined by Poplack (1980). The data also demonstrates that CS in the classroom occurs for very different reasons than what is witnessed in other settings, such as communities where the CS stems from a shared bilingual culture and identity. Within the classroom, however, CS can be triggered by linguistic insecurity, topic shift, socializing functions, emotional expressions, and/or repetitive functions.

Panel Session: Spanish in the U.S. Research as a Living Legacy: Making Connections

Organizer: Susana Rivera-Mills
Participants: Glenn Martinez, Juan Antonio Trujillo, Daniel Villa

Research on Spanish in the U.S. continues to expand and create great interest among the academic community. Though many areas within this topic continue to be studied and findings are disseminated through conference presentations and academic publications, the dissemination of current sociolinguistic and linguistic knowledge with regard to Spanish in the U.S. tends to be limited to academic circles. At a time when Hispanic population is at an all-time high, immigration across the Mexican border is a hot political topic, bilingual education is under attack, and educational policies all but ignore the sociolinguistic needs of this particular population, it is of the utmost importance that we as researchers go beyond academic circles and share our findings with the non-academic communities we serve.   To this end, the purpose of this roundtable discussion is to promote a conversation among scholars regarding the importance of making connections beyond the academic community. At the same time, concrete examples of what can be done and is being done to make connections will be presented by sociolinguists who have been active participants in this area.

Modo y modalidad en las oraciones completivas entre estudiantes de nivel intermedio de español como segunda lengua

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Al describir la categoría de modo, los autores señalan que es un medio gramatical representado en la flexión del verbo (Gili Gaya, 1982; RAE, 2000; Hernández Alonso, 1996; Porto Dapena, 1991). En general, sus descripciones hablan de un subjuntivo y un indicativo únicos, como unidades bajo un binarismo exclusivo (irrelidad/ realidad; objetividad/ subjetividad; actualidad/ virtualidad), aceptando implícitamente que presentan reglas de coocurrencia también únicas.
Los modelos de enseñanza del modo en español se rigen con estos parámetros de por medio (M. Cortés et al, 2002; A. Álvarez et al, 2003; R. Gómez, 2006), así que se enfocan en producir grandes listados de predicados regentes según su estructura sintáctica y además se han concentrado en las relaciones de temporalidad entre subordinada y oración principal con una correlación preestablecida: "El tiempo en que se conjuga el verbo de la oración subordinada depende del tiempo de la oración principal. Consulta el cuadro de concordancia indicativo-subjuntivo". Aquí un ejemplo:

Verbo principal	*Verbo subordinado*
pretérito de indicativo	
copretérito	
pospretérito	pretérito de subjuntivo
antepospretérito	
antecopretérito	

Así que un conjunto de "reglas fijas" para los modos y la semántica de los predicados regentes son la base de una visión muy general sobre sus regularidades. Sin embargo, el profesor de lengua se encuentra en dificultades al tratar de explicar bajo que mecanismos opera la subordinación en la oración compleja si los libros de texto del español obedecen todavía a conceptos tradicionales. Por un lado, la función que realizan los modos se torna confusa debido a que no presenta un vínculo con la categoría semántica de modalidad (Palmer, 1986; De Haan, 2004); por otro, hace falta una reconsideración del dominio conceptual que mantiene el sistema de modos español.

Por eso, se consideran las modalidades deónticas y epistémicas como ejes de una escala gradual en donde se describe el funcionamiento de la correlación que establecen las categorías formales y las semánticas (Iturrioz, 1986). De manera que aceptamos que la distinción del significado modal se encuentra en los lexemas de las oraciones principales así como en la modalidad gramaticalizada de las oraciones subordinadas, pues juntas conforman un tipo específico de cláusula que expresa la intención del hablante en el contexto de una situación de habla (J. Bybee, 1985).

Para este estudio de adquisición de español como L2, se recopiló un corpus de 48 muestras a partir de cuatro pruebas diferentes entre nativos del inglés de los niveles intermedio bajo y alto. Las pruebas son ejercicios estructurados con oraciones sueltas; también un texto y una redacción a partir de una carta de consulta, estas dos últimas ofrecen mayor dificultad debido al contexto. Intentamos demostrar que la noción tradicional de modo necesita revisarse, además de que los significados modales de los lexemas no pueden encajonarse en criterios semánticos unitarios. Los ejemplos del corpus:

a) Vas a decirle que lo *pienses* mucho porque la amas.
b) A lo mejor tú *veas* moros con tranchetes.
    civ) Creo que también es necesario que *hablar* con tu esposo y le *preguntas* que está pasando con tu amiga.
      d) Es importante que *habla* con ambos.

How the complexity of oral speech compares in authentic vs. simulated-authentic video

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The comprehension of learning materials by second language learners is vital to the success of language programs (Collentine, 1998; Faerch & Kasper, 1986).). The proposition of using video in the classroom has also triggered important debates for teachers and researchers, such as the types of videos that should be used, and how to appropriately match a video to a learner's level of linguistic ability (Chung, 1999; Baltova, 2000; Garza, 1996). This study examines two types of video, one made for a French target audience (known as authentic video) and the other made for high-school and college language learners (known as simulated-authentic video). Of great interest to the researchers was how these two different media types vary in terms of syntactic complexity. This study also discusses which of the syntactic complexity measures which are available to researchers helped the most when interpreting the results, and in reliably representing this type of oral data. The various measures that were used to paint the complexity picture in this study included T-units, AS-units, a frequency analysis, type/token ratio, and speech rate. These were chosen because they have been found to be the best indicators of complexity in speech data. By considering the syntactic and semantic characteristics of this oral speech data, it was concluded that the video created for use by language learners (simulated-authentic) was actually more complex than the authentic video. A discussion of the implications of these results and the possibilities for future research has also been included, to help in better understanding how complexity impacts second language acquisition.

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The Last Alsatian Cowboy: Case Maintenance in Texas Alsatian

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Varieties of Texas German are in crisis and have been declared moribund (Guion 1996; Fuller and Gilbert, 2003; Boas, 2003): they are not expected to survive into the second half of this century and are exhibiting structural signs of attrition. One of the structural changes which has been well-documented is the reduction of the case system (Eikel 1954; Gilbert 1972).

However, our research on one of these varieties, Texas Alsatian, in the small community of Castroville, Texas, presents data to the contrary. Although it initially seems to exhibit case reduction, it is, in fact, an instance where the case pattern of the donor dialect has been maintained. This can be established due to a unique opportunity to identify the donor dialects of many fluent speakers in Castroville with a particular village in the Alsace, which is almost impossible in most other Texas German communities due to lack of immigration data on the first generation of immigrants. Unlike Standard German and many of the Texas German donor dialects of central Germany which are patterned on a three-case system of nominative, accusative, and dative, Alsatian is marked with only a two-case distinction between the nominative and accusative/dative:

Definite article (*masc*) *der Mann* 'the man'	Nominative	Accusative	Dative
Alsatian dialect	**d'r** Mann	**d'r** Mann	im Mann
Texas German	**der** Mann	**den** Mann	**dem(n)** Mann
Standard German	**der** Mann	**den** Mann	**dem** Mann

An example of this patterning can be observed in the following excerpt from a Texas Alsatian speaker who calls himself "the last Alsatian cowboy" (#18-202, www.tgdp.org):

> Vergess nia   das Tal, wo   dü harkummsch, un' d'r   Cowboy.
> *forget   never the valley where you come from,   and the.*ACC *cowboy*
> 'Never forget the valley you came from, and the cowboy.'

This paper will first examine past research by Eikel (1954), Gilbert (1972), and Salmons (1994), who substantiate the general loss of case in Texas German. Then, it provides an overview of the current status of case

syncretism based on data available from the Texas German Dialect Project (Boas 2006). It will conclude with a comparative analysis of the definite and indefinite article case-marking patterns of Texas Alsatian speakers in order to describe the unique maintenance of the original donor dialect brought and transmitted by the first-generation Alsatian immigrants to Castroville, Texas.

Ethnic Identity, Language Attitude and Language Choice among Japanese Brazilian Guest Workers in Japan

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Today, more than 300,000 Brazilians reside in Japan. They are the third largest resident alien group in Japan, after Koreans and Chinese. The majority of them are descendants of Japanese that immigrated to Brazil in the early 20th century. Now they have migrated "back" to their ethnic homeland, Japan, to work as unskilled laborers. Although they are of Japanese descent, most were born and raised in Brazil, and speak Portuguese as their first language. They are largely called *dekaseguis*: the Japanese origin term that refers to the people who temporarily leave their hometown to earn money. Contrary to the term, they typically stay in Japan much longer than they initially plan. In fact, many have raised their children in Japan. *Dekasseguis* have complicated ethnic identity, being considered as "Japanese" in Brazil and "Brazilian" in Japan (Tsuda 2003). Their linguistic experience is also complicated. Japanese, which used to be their heritage language, is now the language for economic survival. In some case, their Japanese born children do not speak Portuguese. In addition, English, which is strongly believed to be a key to the economic success, also plays role in their language choice.

Citing continuing study about Japanese Brazilian, which started in the summer of 2003, this paper aims to describe the interplay among transforming ethnic identity, language ideology and language choice. It explores the Japanese Brazilians' understandings about social meanings of Japanese, Portuguese and English, and how the understandings interplay with their linguistic practice. The data have been collected through a preliminary questionnaire survey with 99 replies, interviews with 20 participants, and ethnographic observations both in Japan and Brazil.

The results from the questionnaire and the interview indicate that in Brazil, about 40% of participants had studied Japanese typically because of their parents' intention to maintain the language of their ethnic origin. However, about 90% of participants answered that Portuguese was the dominant language at home in Brazil, while only 2% indicated that it was Japanese. The statistical analysis showed that there was significant correlation between their ethnic identity as descendents of Japanese and self-accessed proficiency in Japanese. From the interview and participant observation, it became clear that there is a gap between their expressed wish to preserve the Japanese language and the reality in which the language is being lost. One of the factors that accelerate the shift is popular favor for English as a language of international communication.

After the participants' migration to Japan, many of them learned and improved their proficiency in Japanese. However, most of them still spoke Portuguese dominantly at home in Japan. The results also revealed new motivations for learning Japanese, that is, economic survival. As to the language of their children, more informants expressed a preference for English than for Japanese or Portuguese, considering that English would enable their children to explore a broader world.

Metaphor and Phonological Reduction in English Idiomatic Expressions

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In Gibbs & O'Brien (1990), an oft-cited paper on the role of metaphor in constraining the meanings that speakers associate with idioms, the authors report a series of experiments in which participants were asked to describe the mental images which they associate with common figurative idioms. A systematic comparison between subjects' responses for idiomatic expressions and subjects' responses for closely related literal expressions (for example, 'spill the peas' was the control item corresponding to 'spill the beans') revealed that subjects' responses to questions were markedly more consistent for the idiomatic expressions than the literal ones, as well as that, within a group of idioms sharing a particular figurative meaning but differing notably in their surface forms (for example, 'blow your stack' and 'hit the ceiling'), subjects' responses showed a high degree of consistency. The authors interpret these results as strong support for the proposition that the meanings associated with idiomatic expressions are predicated upon the metaphors which underlie them, and that these metaphors, far from being dead, are quite active in the on-line processing of idiomatic expressions.

As a follow-up to this study, the experiment reported here seeks to uncover a phonological correlate of the same phenomenon. Using the same stimuli that are used in the study described above, the experiment monitors the performance of the idioms and controls by 20 participants who were asked to read the items aloud. The duration of verbs internal to the utterances were measured, it being hypothesized that the metaphor underlying the idiomatic expressions licenses a reduction of elements internal to idiomatic expressions. It was moreover hypothesized that the observed reduction in duration should be demonstably beyond that which would be expected from frequency alone, with positive results taken as support of the hypothesis only if several statistical analyses demonstrate that idiomaticity has a role beyond that of frequency (as measured using the Switchboard corpus) in causing reduction. The hypothesis that words internal to idiomatic expressions are reduced in duration is confirmed, and this is taken as further support for Gibbs & O'Briens' findings that metaphors are active in the on-line processing of idioms.

A corpus-based study of declining preterite usage in Texas German

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One morpho-syntactic development that has been well-documented in modern German dialects is the decline of the preterite, the more formal of the two past tenses in German (see Hooge (1983), Rowley (1983), Nützel (1998), Abraham and Conradie (2001), and Rosenberg (2005)). In the first part of my paper I give a brief overview of how the perfect tense is slowly replacing the preterite not only in the old-world dialects of the German-speaking countries, but in the new-world dialects of the German *Sprachinseln* ('speech islands') as well.

The second part of the paper discusses previous research on Texas German (TxG), which is one of the new-world dialects for which the loss of the preterite has been documented. For example, Eikel's (1967) study of New Braunfels German investigates the use of preterite by speakers of three generations. While only half of the oldest generation of speakers uses the present perfect more often than the preterite to express a past event, nearly 60% of the second generation and a full 100% of the third generation use the present perfect more often than the preterite. Gilbert (1972) notes that his New Braunfels area speakers employ both past tenses but that the present perfect is the more commonly employed of the two. Adopting a diachronic methodology, Boas (2006) takes recent data from speakers from the same locale and compares it with the Gilbert data to determine whether the preterite has lost ground over the last 30 years. He finds the comparison inconclusive, since the frequency of certain forms increased while the frequency of others decreased. This variation leads Boas to suspect that preterite usage among the last generation of fluent TxG speakers may be item-based, that is, that some verbs tend to appear in the preterite form more often than others.

The third part of my paper expands the work of Boas (2006) by applying a synchronic approach to a wider range of TxG native speakers. To achieve this goal, I analyze recordings from more than 60 informants from across the central Texas German belt. More specifically, I accessed the recordings of open-ended sociolinguistic interviews as well as elicitation tasks (translations of English sentences into TxG) through the publicly accessible Texas German Dialect Archive (Boas 2003). In so doing, I intend to come to more definitive conclusions about the status of the preterite in TxG.

I first identify the preterite forms of the 10 highest frequency full lexical verbs in German in the TGDA and compare these preterite forms with the present perfect forms of the same verbs. I then discuss whether speech context provides insight into why the preterite form of the verb *kommen* ('to come') is so prevalent among a large number of informants. Based these insights, I argue that while a majority of the highest frequency full lexical verbs do not take the preterite marking in TxG, several (i.e., *kommen* ('to come'), *gehen* ('to go'), and *wissen* ('to know')) appear stable in the speech of a significant number of native Texas German speakers.

Language Policies, Attitudes and the Case of Texas German

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As various scholars (Cárdenas, 1984; Padilla, 1991; Piatt, 1986) have noted, ignoring a child's native language abilities, as frequently happens in educational contexts where the goal is to teach the standard language, also disparages his or her culture and identity. How do language policies affect feelings of language and identity? In what ways are language attitudes affected by the implementation of language policies?

This paper approaches these questions with the situation of Texas German in mind. Texas German is a variety of German spoken in central Texas. Starting in the 1840's, waves of German immigrants came to the Texas Hill Country. The geography of the region and its status as "frontier" led to relative isolation and allowed these immigrants to maintain their language and culture (Boas, 2006). The advent of the World Wars led to anti-German sentiments throughout the country and caused a rapid shift from the Texas German variety to English. As most of the speakers of Texas German are currently age 60 or older, the language will become extinct in the coming decades. How do the remaining speakers feel about this prospect? Why do they think it is happening? What are their attitudes towards and about Texas German? How do they feel about English? What do they think about the language used in schools? Do they think there should be more services available in Texas German?

I randomly sampled the biographical questionnaires of 30 speakers from the Texas German Dialect Project (Boas, 2003), a project that seeks to record samples of Texas German to preserve it in archive form. I compared the answers to 16 questions about feelings and opinions toward Texas German.

An examination of opinions and attitudes of these speakers reveals that they still have a great deal of affection and pride for their language and identity as Texas German speakers. Language policies, while effectively eradicating the language in education and many everyday contexts, did not erase the positive feelings of the speakers sampled here.

Along with pride and affection, there is also a common theme of practicality. Comments made outside the answer choices reveal that present day speakers, while they do wish their children and grandchildren learned Texas German, also realize that Standard German or Spanish might be more practical in terms of opportunity. Practicality is also apparent in opinions of education: heritage language instruction should be an option but shouldn't be compulsory.

Besides reflecting pride for Texas German and practicality towards preservation efforts, these opinions suggest that past language policies and the political current of the early 20th century had a great effect on the transmission of Texas German to younger generations. They also suggest a desire for current language policies to address the

heritage of Texas German in local schools and in public arenas like radio and television.

Interaction Between Motivation and Autonomy in Second Language Learning

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Considerable research in the area of second language learning reveals that emotions play an important role in language acquisition. Tomkins (1970) states that human beings are always experiencing some sort of emotion in varying degrees, and strong emotion can disrupt cognitive and physiological processes. This may account for the fact that some language learners perform better when they experience positive emotions such as motivation and enthusiasm.

Motivation is considered to be one of the more important affective factors that determines success in learning a second language. Autonomy is another characteristic of a successful language learner. According to Littlewood (1996), an autonomous person is "one who has an independent capacity to make and carry out the choices which govern his or her actions. This capacity depends on two main components: ability and willingness" (p. 428). In the belief that educators might benefit from understanding how motivation interacts with autonomy in language learning, a study was set up to explore this topic.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from two intact first-year French classes at a large university. The students completed questionnaires on motivation and autonomy at the beginning and at the end of the semester which revealed how motivated and autonomous they were in their language learning experiences. They also wrote journal entries and participated in a one-on-one interview with the researcher.

The results of a Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test showed that there was a statistically significant reasonably high correlation between students' levels of motivation and autonomy with p=<.001 both at the beginning and at the end of the semester. Describing motivated behavior is a challenging task because it inevitably includes some characteristics of autonomous behavior. These results support the view that while motivation and autonomy are separate constructs, they have a strong interface between them.

"You want sell?": Fictitious, fictional, or what else?

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1. The study of fictional Indian language in motion pictures (FIL) is a well known topic whose study has systematically been confined to unveil undercover views of Native Americans racial stereotypes. Our research shows that FIL contains explicit and irreplaceable information about how humans perceive consciously their own language.
2. FIL was developed from 1930-1960 (Price 1973), covering the period between silent movies and the politically correct innovation of using real Native American Languages (NAL's), *a la* Mel Gibson. Departing from the characterization of FIL in Meeker (2006), it is shown that FIL is a universal representation of the least understandable language, labeled here as "Minimal Language".
3. Spanish translations of FIL show that differences found when contrasting English and Spanish are based on parametric variation and are always insensitive to genuine NALs. The cultural characterization of Native Americans, as introduced by FIL —"*hablar como los indios de las películas*"—, although it adds a stereotype to the Hispanic tradition; from the linguistic point of view, it only reinforces a universal projection of Minimal

Language as proven by the ability of Spanish speakers to invent FIL or by the coinage of alternant labels such as "*hablar como Tarzá*n".

4. The topic of how to represent the languages of native inhabitants of North and South America in motion pictures and/or literature is old (Arguedas 1956, Craig 1991, Leechman & Hall 1955, Miller 1967). The introduction of actual American Indian speech in dialogs ends the fictional period. Following our approach, *Peter Pan* (1952) is a good example of FIL but *Pocahontas* (1995) is not. Spanish translations provide additional support to this since actual "Indian" lexical items such as *squaw*, *wampum* (*The Last of the Mohicans*) *Injun* (*Maverick*), *tepee* (*The Indian in the Cupboard*) [and Mocking 'Indian' suffix *–'em*: *scalp'em*, *take'em*, (*The Three Stooges*), turn-*'em*, teach-*'em* (*Peter Pan*)] are, as expected, lost in translation.

5. In spite of Minimal Language (ML) not being a real language, it introduces accurate information about mental representations of (unconscious) speaker's language as shown by its systematic deviations from standards. The lack of intuitions about phonological properties of NALs confines "Indian" PF properties to suprasegmental features: longest pauses, monotonic pace, oratory style, word edge separation (Meeker 2006). Morphosyntax is the richest area speakers are aware of: lack of tense, deletion of grammatical elements (subjects, determiners, auxiliaries, modal particles, copulas, interrogative markers, substitution of pronouns by nouns, mixing functional pronouns, and lack of contractions.

6. Spanish FIL also supports our analysis with traits unavailable in English. For example, pronominal verbs (inexistent in English) loose their pronouns, pronominal substitutions are more restricted due to the avoidance of weak pronouns (weak *me* cannot replace strong *yo*). Lack of modal particles is replaced by lack of tense: *mí no poder...*

7. Our research has developed its corpus from movie scripts and transcripts, TV serials, literature, internet, newspapers, and chat rooms.

All in all we conclude that FIL, motivated originally by racial attitudes, possesses the dimension of making aspects of universal knowledge of language come to the surface.

Command Spanish: A communicative approach?

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Differences in categorization make racism, classism, languagism or any other form of discrimination possible. Eckert and McConnell-Ginet note that "belonging to the marked category is generally far more consequential for a person's life opportunities and sense of self than belonging to the … default category" (2003: 250). Thus, speakers of certain languages and language varieties tend to be categorized in such a way so as to be manipulated (consciously or unconsciously) for the benefit of the unmarked group. When speakers of the unmarked language need to learn a marked language, it should be required that the product be professional and non-discriminatory. In fact, the methodology used to teach a marked language potentially indicates how the language and speakers are perceived. The learning of Spanish in the US has many methodologies, but perhaps the least studied is Command Spanish, which has been touted as "promoting better communication between Spanish-speakers and non-Spanish-speakers in the workplace." The present research looks behind this facade to ascertain what this methodology really provides; our investigation reveals serious limitations.

A description of the characteristics of the method—its promotional advertisements, teaching materials, number of contact hours, and pronunciation practices—uncover the inadequacies of this teaching philosophy. Although the elimination of the "tedious grammar instruction" is announced as one of the prized incentives of this methodology, the lack of grammatical analysis eliminates the ability to produce pronominal, temporal, and aspectual variation, thus failing to provide anything beyond those phrases 'acquired' through rote memorization. The efficiency of the method is also damaged by the unconscious promotion of English grammatical constructions filled with Spanish lexical items.

The acclaimed benefit of the use of English orthography to teach Spanish pronunciation has two serious limitations. Because of the discord between the two languages, this methodology will never be able accurately represent those Spanish sounds that are inexistent in English. This lack of phonetic awareness promotes the idea that learning the marked language is only a matter of approximation.

A serious limitation of Command Spanish is the potential social discrimination which this method promotes. The inability to move beyond pre-classified questions, wherein the learner is only able to understand set responses (yes/no, true/false) or guided information among other restricted responses, discriminately filters what the 'interlocutor' can contribute. This attempt to teach another language without taking into consideration the linguistic contributions of the interlocutor, discloses the promotion of social inequality. Likewise, the inexistence of other Command Languages where other professional needs would be required as well (i.e. Hmong, Korean, Cantonese among many others) makes Command Spanish a suspicious case. If multilinguistic economic motivations are not what drive this methodology, what does?

In all, the orientation of this methodology promotes unilateral communication, and thus objectifying the Spanish-speaker. This methodology not only perpetuates social inequality, but also converts the Spanish-speaker into a witness of his own marginalized existence.

An Investigation of the Factors affecting the Heritage Language among Generations of Chicanos on the South Plains of Texas

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In recent years increasing attention in research has been given to the maintenance and shift of heritage languages among ethnic minorities in the United States, with Chicanos being no exception. This mixed methodology study utilized a heuristic phenomenological approach to investigate the three constructs of family, ethnic identity and education as they relate to the past and present language experiences of Chicanos in the South Plains region of Texas. The focus of this study was on Chicano adolescents, and on the factors that have impacted the maintenance or shift of the heritage language of this group.

Because this study was unique to a certain geographical area, it will contribute to the body of knowledge available regarding heritage language maintenance and shift. Furthermore, this study examined language patterns across generations within the same family. While much attention in previous studies has been paid to language shift over generations, few studies prior to this have examined that shift as it occurs within individual families. The constructs of family, ethnic identity and education on which this study focused will provide answers regarding the relationship between Spanish language maintenance and shift in relation to the forces at work in our everyday lives, and will make us more aware of the consequences of our daily practices and policies.

The issue addressed by this research is not only one of language. It is a complex intermingling of language, ethnic identity, and institutions such as the school and family that have had some role in helping to either maintain or eliminate the Spanish language in Chicano families. This study will provide more data, information, and knowledge regarding the concepts of family, education, and ethnic identity, and the relationship of each of these to heritage language among Chicanos on the South Plains. The knowledge gained in this study will serve to further inform educators, parents, and community members about the effects of past and current policies and practices on the maintenance or shift of the Spanish language among Chicanos over generations in this geographical area, that they may make educated decisions on language policy and socialization according to their long-term goals in the linguistic development of future generations. By helping to achieve a greater understanding of the forces at work in the daily lives of Chicanos that contribute to either the maintenance or

shift of the Spanish language, this research can add to the knowledge that has been acquired thus far regarding minority language patterns and the linguistic legacies that these groups pass on to subsequent generations.

A corpus analysis of Spanish locational adverbs

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The Spanish 'locational' adverb system consists of five terms: *aquí, acá, allí, allá* and *ahí*. These are traditionally divided into two sets, those ending in *i* and those ending in *a*. The difference between these two sets is not well understood, though it is generally proposed that the *i*-series indicates location or precise location, while the *a*-series indicates movement or approximate location . In terms of the distal notions expressed, the five terms are typically analyzed as consisting of terms indicating location close to speaker (*aquí, acá*), close to hearer (*ahí*), and distant from both (*allí, allá*) or two proximate, one medial and two distal locational terms .

In this paper, we present an analysis of the use of these terms in a corpus of 100,000 words (approximately 10 hours) of conversational Colombian Spanish, which presents a total of 1,000 tokens of the adverbs. Two major findings are presented. First, it is shown that these terms cannot be divided neatly into two sets, as the two proposed sets do not behave homogeneously. Second, the terms do not represent three degrees of distance, as *ahí* is moving away from the notion of distance to express a range of other meanings . It is argued that the key to understanding the distribution of these terms is through their use in discourse and the constructions they enter into.

For example, *aquí* is often used as a general locative in expressions such as *está aquí / aquí hay.* It is no doubt from here that the interpretation of 'location' or 'precise location' has arisen. *Acá* and *allá* often occur in the collocations *para acá / allá* and *por acá / allá*, and hence their association with motion and approximate location. The meanings that have been attributed to the adverbs thus derive not from the adverbs alone, but from the constructions in which they most frequently occur.

Allí, on the other hand, is used rarely (just 42 times in the corpus), such that no clear patterns emerge, as it appears to be being taken over by *ahí*, the overwhelmingly most frequent adverb, occurring close to 400 times. *Ahí* is, however, moving out of the spatial system: less than one half of its uses represent a spatial sense, and when it is used with a spatial meaning, rather than expressing mid-distance, it tends to express a more general locative notion. It enters into a range of set constructions, including *por ahí* as an approximative; *ahí mismo* in both a locative and temporal sense; *ahi sí* and *ahí está* as emphatic agreement markers; and so on.

In sum, it is shown that these adverbs are developing in different ways, in accordance with the constructions in which they most frequently occur, and that they can be most insightfully analyzed from a usage-based perspective.

The role of gender in lexical purification: The Valencian scenario

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This study deals with gender-related patterns in the increasing Castilianization of Valencian, a dialect of Catalan spoken in eastern Spain. For more than two decades, the local government has been trying to reduce the proliferation of lexical borrowings from Castilian Spanish (also known as Castilianisms) by promoting Catalan replacements.

75 native speakers of Valencian (37 female, 38 male) self-reported on the degree of Castilianization of their vernacular. More specifically, these subjects were presented with a list of 60 lexical Castilianisms and then were asked to indicate which Castilianisms they used during verbal exchanges with familiar interlocutors who were familiar with the standard (and therefore, more Catalanized) variety of Valencian. To the right of each Castilianism on the list, a cell was left blank so subjects could indicate if they used the Catalan replacement instead.

Results do not reveal any gender differentiation in the subjects' use of Castilianisms as opposed to the standard, non-Castilianized equivalents. Put differently, female subjects are not spearheading a change from Castilianisms to more standard lexical replacements. These findings cast into doubt Labov's (2001) claims regarding women's leading role in language change and in the use of prestigious forms. Explanations to these results as well as suggestions for future studies will be discussed.

El voseo en los negocios en Buenos Aires

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En esta ponencia se analiza el uso de las fórmulas de tratamiento en varios lugares de trabajo en Buenos Aires, Argentina. Los pronombres usados en Buenos Aires incluyen *vos* y *usted*. El uso del pronombre *tú* está muy reducido, ya que *vos* es de uso general para el tratamiento informal en el español porteño. El tipo de voseo que se emplea en Buenos Aires lleva las formas verbales *hablás, comés, escribís*, juntas con el pronombre *vos*, o sea, el voseo "completo", pronominal y verbal. Claro que se emplea el *usted* con sus formas verbales correspondientes (*habla, come, escribe*).

Por medio de amigos y colegas, me puse en contacto con gente que me permitiera visitar su lugar de trabajo. Les expliqué que enseño un curso de español para los negocios, que necesitaba aprender más sobre la cultura del trabajo en Latinoamérica, y que quería ver lo práctico, lo normal, lo cotidiano. De esa manera, pude pasar unas horas observando las interacciones en lugares de trabajo, tomando apuntes, y hablando con algunos empleados. El proyecto de investigación se realizó en los años 2000 y 2005. En 2000, pasé dos días en una empresa de tarjetas de crédito, un día en un centro de fotocopias, otro en una oficina de ventas de boletos en rebaja para eventos, y otro en un quiosco (una tienda pequeña que vende dulces, bocadillos, bebidas y cigarrillos). En 2005, para adquirir un corpus más grande, visité una librería/juguetería; el centro de fotocopias y la cafetería de un colegio/una universidad; un salón de belleza; una oficina de control de colectivos (autobuses); una empresa de logística (transportes); el comedor de un hotel de cuatro estrellas; la oficina de unos contadores públicos; y un centro de Internet.

Los resultados indican una preferencia por el tratamiento informal (el voseo pronominal y verbal), especialmente entre los empleados que llevan algún tiempo trabajando juntos. Entre los profesionales, se usa el *usted* hasta que se haya establecido cierto grado de confianza. Se prefiere el *usted* también con los desconocidos (incluso conmigo), con los interlocutores mayores, con los empleados de rango más alto, y a veces de mujeres a hombres mayores. Los variables que favorecen el trato informal o formal en situaciones laborales aparecen en la tabla siguiente:

	Informal (*vos*-Buenos Aires)	Formal (*usted*)
Edad del interlocutor	Igual o menor	Mayor
Sexo del interlocutor	Igual, esp. entre mujeres	Opuesto
Profesión del interlocutor	Igual o más baja	Más alta
Rangos relativos de los interlocutores en el trabajo (jefe/empleado, profesor/estudiante)	Mismo o más bajo	Más alto
Trabajar con/ser colega del interlocutor	Sí	No
Conocer al interlocutor hace unas semanas/meses/años	Sí	No
Ser amigo/a de amigo/a del interlocutor	Sí	No
Si el interlocutor es cliente	No	Sí
El tipo de negocio	Fábrica, oficina, taller	Atención al público, empresa financiera
El tema bajo discusión	Cotidiano, social	Contratos, acuerdos, cotizaciones, precios
Hablar por teléfono	No (antes de identificarse el interlocutor)	Sí
Estilo personal (el comodín)	Según el individuo	Según el individuo

Interpretation of modals in Brazilian environment

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This study deals with some aspects of the modals within English classes taught in Portuguese by Brazilians; that is to say the factors that determine their different interpretations.In order to show such factors the process of deontic modality is seen in teacher´s statements (commands and explanations) used by high school teachers from public and private institutions from Brazil. These institutions use the Grammar translation method for the first and second grades of high school and reading based-approach for the third grade.In such methods grammar is taught through the medium of the learner´s nature language.In this concern, focus will be given to syntactic, semantic and discursive-pragmatic aspects.

Having in mind that the deontic modulaty is manifested by lexical expressions and grammatical resources of significance, we opt to analyze the qualified enunciation exclusively by means of lexical, grammatical or in the process of grammaticalization items.

 A functionalist approach based on Dik (1989) and Hengeveld (1989) will be adopted, as we understand the linguistic expression intervenes in the relation that is established between speaker and hearer. In this context and taking the language as an intersubjective action into consideration, the linguistic expression produced by the speaker occurs due to the interaction that he has, his pragmatic information and the anticipation of what might be the addressee´s interpretation.On the other hand, the interpretation of the addressee occurs in function of linguistic expression, his pragmatic information and how he reconstructs the speaker´s intention.

Thus, considering that the modalizers constitute a satisfactory mechanism that serves the mental plan elaborated by the enunciator; that is, to cause a transformation in the pragmatic information of the hearer/ reader, this research aims at investigating how the linguistic prescription occurs through the use of deontic modality in the statements of commands and explanations of English teachers in Brazilian environment. To deal with the polysemic value of the modal verbs, the context is considered in order to analyze the meaning in terms of the view of modality that is agent-oriented, speaker-oriented, epistemic and subordinating, as showed by Bybee and Pagliuca (1994).

The Function of Discourse Markers in the Sermons of African American Television Evangelists

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In the context of the present day United States, many of the characteristics of oral cultures survive in the culture of African Americans. This paper investigates one area of African American culture that exhibits the importance that oral literature continues to have in the African American community. The sermons of traditional African American preachers exhibit the qualities of oral literature. This study looks specifically at the sermons of traditional African American preachers who not only deliver their oral literature to an audience that is physically and visibly present, but also deliver their sermons on television to an audience that is not physically and visibly present.

The purpose of this study is to investigate each preacher's use of specific religious expressions and analyze their functions within the context of the discourse. The results are then compared to those of Wharry (2003) in order to examine what differences, if any, the presence of the television camera makes in terms of the preachers' use of these specific discourse markers.

The sermons of four traditional African American television evangelists are transcribed and analyzed for each preacher's use of specific religious expressions ("Praise God", "Hallelujah", "Amen", etc.) and the function each expression serves in the context of the discourse. These sermonic expressions are placed into six categories: Textual Boundary, Spiritual Filler, Rhythmic Marker, Call for Response, Target Marker, and Multiple Roles. The transcriptions of the four sermons produce a total of 29 sermonic expressions. As in Wharry (2003), the textual boundary marker is employed most frequently, while the call for response marker is rarely used.

This study reveals one category of discourse marker not found in Wharry (2003). The category "target marker" was created for this study since the function of two discourse markers used by these subjects did not fit into the categories created in the previous study. Although the use of specific religious expressions varies from one preacher to another, the function these expressions serves does not vary greatly. The presence of the television camera did not have an effect on the use of these discourse markers; this is probably attributable to the fact that the sermon is a type of performance. If the presence of the camera truly does not affect the performance of the preacher, perhaps this genre of discourse is one that can be studied as naturally occurring language data.

La influencia del inglés en la prensa fronteriza mexicana

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Este proyecto presenta un análisis y clasificación minuciosos de los préstamos del inglés que se han colado en la prensa fronteriza mexicana del estado de Tamaulipas. Con este fin, se seleccionaron siete números de *El mañana*, un periódico que se publica en la ciudad de Reynosa, Tamaulipas y se distribuye a lo largo de la franja fronteriza en ambos lados del río Bravo/Grande. Posteriormente, se procedió a revisar detalladamente cada número para estudiar el impacto léxico, el proceso ortográfico de adopción, los campos semánticos que propician su uso y las categorías gramaticales a las que pertenecen, de acuerdo a los apartados del susodicho periódico. Los resultados arrojan luz sobre el impacto del inglés en esta zona lingüística y las medidas que operan en su adaptación al español periodístico de la frontera norte de México.

The Role of Articulatory and Acoustic Cues in Non-Native Vowel Categorization

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Competing theories of speech perception have proposed that listeners perceive non-native segments using either acoustic (Kuhl 1991, Kuhl & Iverson 1996) or articulatory information (Best 1994, 1995) of native segments. The present study investigates what kind of perceptual cues Japanese listeners use to process German vowels. Results from two perception experiments indicate that listeners use acoustic cues more than articulatory cues.

The first study examines the perceptual assimilation patterns of non-native vowels based on articulatory gestures. Best's Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM; Best 1995) predicts that non-native sounds are assimilated to the most similar native categories based on articulatory similarities. Moreover, it predicts assimilation patterns at phonological level but not allophonic level. That is, it does not predict different perceptual assimilation patterns when the phonological environment is different. To examine validity of PAM, Japanese listeners were asked to listen to naturally produced disyllabic nonsense words /CVC / with 14 German vowels in six consonantal contexts (b_b . b_p , d_d , d_t , g_g , g_k) and identify vowel categories from 10 Japanese vowels (i.e., short and long /a, i, u, e, o/). Results of the experiment reveals that similarities of articulatory gestures between native and nonnative languages do not fully account for Japanese listeners' perception. For example, German front rounded vowels /œ/ and / / were both perceived as Japanese back vowels such as /u/, /o/, and /a/. This pattern is not accounted for by articulatory-based models like PAM, since /a/ is maximally articulatorily distinct from front rounded vowels.

In the second study, the perceptual assimilation patterns of vowels based on acoustics were examined. In this experiment, 15 Japanese listeners were presented with 320 synthetic sounds that differ in first and second formant frequencies and duration, and they were asked to identify vowel categories from 10 Japanese vowels. This was done to determine acoustic values of listeners' perception of each Japanese vowel category. Another 15 Japanese listeners were presented with naturally produced German single vowels and identified vowel categories from 10 Japanese vowels to determined acoustic values of listeners' perception. It predicted that, if listeners use acoustic cues rather than articulatory similarities, perception of non-native vowels can be accounted for by overlaps of acoustic values of perceived native categories. Discriminant analyses were performed on data of synthetic sounds to categorize responses to 10 Japanese categories. Subsequently, discriminant functions (i.e., functions that show category boundaries) were applied to responses of German vowels in order to examine how non-native and native perception measured by acoustic values overlap. Results show that, in most cases, non-native vowels were perceived by Japanese listeners as predicted. Out of 14 German vowel categories, 13 categories were predicted as expected. That is, segments with the highest or second highest probability predicted by discriminant analyses matched with actual responses for non-native vowels.

In summary, acoustic cues may play a larger role than articulatory cues in non-native speech perception. Data indicate that use of articulatory features such as [back] and [high] may not be appropriate for non-native speech perception.

Rethinking Transfer: Perception and Production of Nonnative Contrasts

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In this paper, we explore the perception and production of non-native phonological units and the types of errors made by speakers when they are confronted with unfamiliar input, notably those traditionally

ascribed to transfer. Our discussion combines experimental evidence for the distinction between perception and production grammars, as well as the role of L1 interference upon each of these, with proposed Optimality Theoretic (OT, Prince & Smolensky 1993) formalizations of complementary grammatical modules. The paper proceeds in two sections, focusing on experimental evidence and on formal explanation of results, respectively.

In a first section, we review an experiment mimicking naturalistic language contact. Subjects (monolingual English and bilingual French-English) were confronted with vowel stimuli, including novel tokens (e.g. [y] for monolinguals and [barred u] for bilinguals). Subjects heard carrier phrases containing target nonce words and were asked to identify these using a forced response matrix. Speakers were then presented the words in isolation and asked to reproduce them orally. Task output was analyzed, noting error rates and productive adaptations for each group. Results support a distinction between perceptual and productive knowledge and the effect of these on putative errors. Monolingual speakers failed to accurately perceive novel contrasts, but were relatively successful at reproducing target vowels, whereas bilingual speakers typically perceived contrasts present in either French or English (e.g. /y/ vs. /u/), but sometimes failed to produce these; neither perceived nor successfully reproduced contrasts novel to both language (e.g. /barred u/ vs. /u/).

In a second section, we formalize the results of our experiment in complementary perception and production grammars. The former comprises constraints referring to the parsing of experiential (auditory) input and the categorization of contrast; interference concerns the transfer of L1 constraint rankings, reflecting speaker attenuation to L1 contrasts. The latter is formalized around phonetically-based constraints referring to phonetic patterns, the preservation of underlying (L1) featural information and effort minimization (Kirchner 1998, Steriade 2001, Hayes 2004); here, learned patterns of L1 production, expressed as constraint rankings, are shown to predict surface forms.

In a final section, we briefly address the disciplinary advances stemming from the present line of experimental and theoretical work, focusing on two language contact profiles: second language learning and creole formation. In the former, greater understanding of perception and production grammars affords more insight into the interlanguage dynamic; in the latter, formalization of distinct strata addresses the adequacy of explanatory models accounting for grammatical restructuring.

Usage and replacement of the preposition 'for' in Texas German

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This paper presents evidence of phonological variation of the preposition *für* ('for') in Texas German (TxG) and its overlap with the English preposition *for* based on the analysis of data from the Texas German Dialect Archive (TGDA, see http://www.tgdp.org). There are several notable differences in the phonological values of this preposition as well as syntactic and semantic conflations with the prepositions' English counterpart *for*. These phenomena are the results of several factors: First, dialectal variation in the donor dialects which make up Texas German can account for some of the differences in phonetic vowel values (Gilbert 1972, Wiesinger 1980). For example, front rounded *ü* versus back rounded *u* and also certain parallel usages of the German preposition *vor* ('before,' 'in front of') overlap dialectally and orthographically as the following data from the TGDA illustrate:

     (1) Denn musste die Futter machen for das Vieh. (1-7-1-18)[3]
       then must the feed make for the cattle
       'Then you had to make the feed for the cattle.'

Second, the lexical-semantic similarity of the prepositions *für/for* in German and English facilitates the process

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[3]   The combination of numbers identifies the file in the Texas German Dialect Archive.

of phonological, syntactic, and semantic conflation of these prepositions in TxG. Third, it is difficult to rule out that interference from English is not leading to transference (Clyne 2003) of *for* into the positions occupied by *für* or *fur* in less fluent speakers which may represent a replacement of the German-origin preposition in favor of the English preposition.

The paper is structured as follows: First, I provide an overview of the donor dialects of TxG. I then discuss the semantic, syntactic, and phonological properties of the prepositions *für, vor,* and *for*. Next, I address the distribution and usage of the three prepositions in the TGDA with contextualized examples illustrating the close overlap in meaning and form. This overlap is crucial in explaining the replacement of *für* with English *for* among a significant number of TxG speakers. Finally, I present evidence of two different English-origin semantic calques into TxG, namely *für sicher* ('*for sure*') and *for zu* ('*for to*'), and offer a brief discussion of the history of the English *for to for*+(split) *infinitive* construction as a calque into Old English from Scandinavian in order to demonstrate how a similar mechanism may be facilitating the calquing of *für sicher* in TxG. Example 2 shows the calqued usage of the *for to* construction, example 3 illustrates the use of the *für sicher* construction:

   (2)   Blos **for zu** schlachte **for zu** essen. (1-40-1-17)
            only for to butcher   for to eat
                 'You only butcher for eating.'

      (3)   Aber ich hab – ich kennt nichts **für sicher** sagen. (1-1-1-21)
               but I   have – I   know nothing for sure   say
               'But I can't say anything for sure.'

Translation as a Measure of L2 Competence: Evidence from Spanish Aspectual Acquisition

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The research question entails whether translation as an L2 methodology more accurately measures competence of aspect in Spanish (preterit and imperfect) than do grammatical judgment tasks. Translation as a methodology is a more reliable and more sensitive measure of degree of acquisition of this grammatical category than are approaches which merely elicit passive noncategorical linguistic skills. Whereas translation taps active linguistic responses, untimed grammatical judgment tasks draw upon more passive mental operations. Grammatical judgments often rely on binary choices ("correct"/"incorrect") such that a fifty percent likelihood for accuracy exists. Nonetheless, because translation is a more sensitive measure, particularized knowledge of distinctive morphosyntactic mapping across languages can be manifested. The fact that translation elicits distinctive morphosyntactic patterns is particularly relevant to aspect – it is inflectional in Spanish while lexical in English.

Participants consist of three groups of L1 English-speaking college students learning L2 Spanish, fifteen at each level (intermediate, beginning advanced, and moderately advanced). Native controls will be tested to establish norms for accuracy on both tasks.

The two tasks take place during forty minute separate classroom sessions. The initial task entails untimed grammatical judgment of preterit and imperfect use within a particular essay written by an anonymous student of the same level. The essay was chosen as a consequence of its moderate incidence of aspectual errors. The second task requires translation of a familiar excerpt from "Like Water for Chocolate," into Spanish. This text consists of an extensive past narrative; and because this story was integrated into the curriculum, it was moderately familiar to all participants, independent of level. The coding scheme differentiates error (nontarget) productions versus target productions of aspectual past forms. The standard for correctness is the mode of native

aspectual use for the respective item. An independent rater will code portions of the data. Relative frequencies of target and nontarget aspectual use will permit comparisons in performance across task type and across developmental levels.

It is expected: 1) that more advanced L2 students will exhibit higher proportions of target aspectual forms independent of task and 2) that performance distinctions between levels will be greater on the translation task than on the grammatical judgment task. The latter expectation is reasonable in view of the less sensitive nature of grammatical judgment tasks, together with their greater likelihood for random correct responses.

Lessons Conducted by Native English Speaking Teachers: A Case Study of Inexperienced ESL Tutors.

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Concerns are growing in the field of ESL teaching over the growth of inexperienced English native speakers seeking to teach, as evidenced by recent research (Samimy and Brutt-Griffler 1999; Maum 2002). This is an attitude about what it means to teach one's native language and possible misconceptions about this as a profession requiring skills. The present case study looks closely into the teaching attitudes of the inexperienced native English teachers (NETs). We investigated the attitudes of these NETs toward their own ESL teaching, teaching techniques and problems they face during teaching using observations, reflective journals, and interviews. Our findings reveal strong agreement among the iNETS that personality traits like open-mindedness were essential (versus training about teaching and language acquisition), with only half of the interviewed iNETS expressing a desire to learn more about grammar. Another difference emerged where iNETs grouped by preference of textbook versus authentic materials. These findings are important because they reveal that not all inexperienced teachers teach in the same way and that NETs can be successful if they have enough experience and proper training.

The participants in this study consisted of eight volunteer teachers. They enrolled in upper-level seminar, earning 3 hours honors or English credit for taking a service-learning course where they tutored ESL. Volunteer teachers met 80 minutes weekly with the professor, they taught twice weekly (3-4 hours total), and they completed readings and assignments. These eight volunteer teachers were teaching in two different sites, four in each site. Pre-service "boot camp" three hours of training in language pedagogy, structured language input, and communicative methods of teaching.

The two groups of tutors were very different in terms of teaching techniques. One group of teachers liked to follow a textbook and just had a conversation based on newspapers each time. This group of the teachers indicated that the biggest problem they had about teaching was they did not know how to explain grammar, the "why" questions, and what to teach. Also, they mentioned that they did not know what to do in the lessons sometimes because they did not have a regular text to follow This group of teachers expressed a desire for some grammar lessons in order to teach grammar to their students and more training sessions on activities.

Another group of teachers tended to use authentic materials, such as music, movies, novels, and pictures to teach their students. They did not follow a textbook. However, the main problem that this group of teachers faced was not having enough ideas for activities and not having enough of things to do before class ended. Instead of teaching through a book, this group of teachers created a lot of different teaching materials to teach each time. This group showed concerns on the kinds of activities to do with students, and the length of the lessons.

When being asked what they thought one would need to become an ESL teacher, almost every participant agreed that having an open minded and being friendly were the key points. None of them mentioned about having training on how to teach and how languages are learned would be necessary. In addition, all of them indicated the change from not being confident at all to being very confident in teaching after one semester of volunteer teaching. Although these tutors received the same training, it seemed that the concerns and teaching techniques of these two groups were very different. These findings are important because they reveal that not all

inexperienced teachers teach in the same way.

The interaction of metonymy and metaphor in verb-noun compounds in Spanish

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This study examines Spanish [V + N] compounds in terms of cognitive operations such as metonymy and metaphor. More specifically, it deals with the issue of productivity in relation to the semantic transparency of the [V + N] compounds that are based on metonymy or/and metaphor Metaphor is regarded as a conceptual mapping from a (concrete) source domain into a (more abstract) target domain (Lakoff 1987; Panther & Thornburg 2002). Metonymy, on the other hand, is a cognitive operation in which a mapping of the source onto the target is internal to one domain (Barcelona 2005; Ruiz de Mendoza & Peña 2005).

Spanish [V + N] compounds such as matamoscas 'fly swatter', limpiabotas 'shoeshine boy', and calientapiés 'foot warmer', encompass the meaning of an instrument or an agent that performs an action for a potential beneficiary. The semantic relation between this compound type and its associated predication is relatively transparent to the degree to which one can easily derive the meaning of novel compounds based on the combination of the two components. For instance, a compound matamoscas 'fly swatter' can be associated with the meaning of an instrument (or an agent) that serves to kill flies. Here, the original meaning of the predication is almost intact, as in X mata las moscas 'X kills the flies'. I argue that this compound type is metonymy-based, as the mapping of the source (e.g., an action of killing flies) onto the target (e.g., an instrument with which one kills flies) is internal to one domain. In other words, in compounds such as matamoscas and limpiabotas, the instrumental meaning of killing flies and the agentive sense of cleaning shoes are metonymically accessed from ACTION denoted by their respective predications. Those are cases of an ACTION FOR INSTRUMENT metonymy (e.g., matamoscas 'fly swatter') and an ACTION FOR AGENT metonymy (e.g., limpiabotas 'shoeshine boy'). Such metonymy-based compounds are semantically transparent, as both parts of the compound and the semantic relation between them are easily 'analysable and hence immediately transparent' (Dirven and Verspoor 1998:60). Therefore, I argue that such a transparency of meaning for the [V + N] compounds in Spanish referring to an agent or an instrument account for a relatively high productivity of such compounds.

On the other hand, somewhat more complex cases are compounds such as cumpleaños 'birthday' and pasatiempo 'pastime'. I propose that these are cases which involve a conceptual interaction between metonymy and metaphor, or more specifically, cases of a metaphor derived from metonymy. Cumpleaños 'birthday', for example, exhibits a domain-reduction based metonymy, that is, an EXPERIENCE FOR EXPERIENCER metonymy, which is a submetonymy of ACTION FOR AGENT. Then, the target of the metonymy (which is EXPERIENCER), in turn, serves as a source domain for the metaphor CAUSER EVENTS ARE AGENT. In the metaphor, the source domain has the scene of a person who ages, and the target has an event which causes the aging of a person, that is, a birthday. Given that the illustrated example of a [V + N] compound, cumpleaños 'birthday', involves both metonymy and metaphor, the meaning of the compound is less predictable than that of compounds involving only metonymy. In my view, this is why [V + N] compounds involving the interaction of metonymy and metaphor are relatively less productive than those involving only metonymy. The high frequency of the compound type involving only metonymy is due to the semantic transparency existing in this compound type, the consequence of which means that users are more aware of both the composite structure and the meaning of the components of the compound.

Native English speakers' perception of Arabic pharyngealization contrasts

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Arabic contrasts non-pharyngealized and pharyngealized consonants (*e.g.* /t/ vs. /t /, with a secondary pharyngeal articulation). These contrasts are manifested acoustically by native Arabic speakers primarily via manipulation of F2 onset and steady-state values for adjacent vowels—vowels adjacent to pharyngealized consonants have lower F2 values than those adjacent to nonpharyngealized consonants. Additionally, consonant duration, following vowel onset and steady-state F1 and F3 values, and burst duration have also been reported in the literature as relevant cues.

Because vowels adjacent to pharyngealized consonants tend to have lower F2 values than those adjacent to non-pharyngealized consonants, native English listeners may be able to exploit their sensitivity to English front-back vowel contrasts to detect Arabic pharyngealization contrasts. For example, the vowel in /t / may be perceived by English listeners as closer to English /æ/ and the vowel in /t / may be perceived as closer to English / /. This hypothesis is tested in the present study, which involved two tasks. In the vowel identification task, native English listeners identified Arabic vowels presented auditorally using English vowel categories. In the AXB discrimination task, subjects decided whether a second auditory stimulus (X), was more similar to the first stimulus (A) or the third (B). The results of the vowel identification task indicated differential vowel identification patterns for the Arabic vowels / / and /u/ in non-pharyngealized versus pharyngealized contexts, but not for the vowel /i/. For example, subjects perceived the Arabic vowel phoneme / / in non-pharyngealized contexts as English /ae/ 61% of the time and as English / / only 11% of the time, but as /ae/ 5% and as / / 83% of the time in pharyngealized contexts. The results of the discrimination task mirror those of the vowel identification task: Subjects exhibited more accurate discrimination of pharyngealization contrasts when the following vowel was /a/ or /u/ than when the vowel was /i/.

The findings of these two tasks provide evidence that native English listeners exploit their sensitivity to English front-back vowel contrasts to detect Arabic pharyngealization contrasts. Implications of this finding for Arabic language pedagogy will be discussed.

Early vs. Late Learners in Intrasentential Code Switching

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Significant research has been done regarding the influence of age of acquisition (i.e., the age at which one is exposed to a second language (L2)) on L2 learning (e.g., Johnson & Newport, 1989; Andrew, 2004). However, little research has been done regarding the effect that age of acquisition has on how bilinguals code switch and what rules govern this code-switching. Lipski (1985) suggested that early bilinguals (i.e., those who learned L2 in childhood) will engage in intrasentential switching while those who learned the L2 in adulthood (i.e., late bilinguals) will rarely do so. Others have found that not only do adults engage in code switching, but the age at which they acquired the L2 affects the type and frequency of code switching (e.g., Jisa, 2000). What is not known, however, is whether age of acquisition influences what code-switches are considered grammatically acceptable. Do early bilinguals accept intrasentential switches more readily than late bilinguals? Is there a particular age of acquisition at which bilinguals no longer accept intrasentential switches or does acceptability decrease as age of acquisition increases? The present paper examines how age of acquisition affects grammaticality judgments of intrasentential switching, specifically at the auxiliary + participle boundary (i.e., are walking) in Spanish-English code switching. Earlier research has found that late Spanish-English bilinguals determined switches between a phrasal boundary (terroristas han INJURED) to be less grammatical than

switches than at a phrasal boundary (terroristas HAVE INJURED).   In this study 15 early and 15 late native Spanish learners of English performed similar grammaticality judgment tasks with phrasal boundary and non-boundary switches with Spanish ir and andar, which differ in their likelihood to participate in auxiliary + participle constructions. Preliminary findings suggest that early bilinguals are more likely than late bilinguals to accept auxiliary + participle switches. These findings are examined in light of the previous research on code switching and age of acquisition.