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**Keynote Speaker:**  
**John Baugh,**  
**“Linguistic Diversity  
and  
Discrimination”**

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## **(In)sensibility to Syllable Weight in Valencian Stress and Nickname Formation**

**Antonio Grau Sempere, University of Evansville**

Traditionally, it has been held that that the sound systems of languages are consistent regarding sensitivity to syllable weight (among others, see Hayes' *Metrical Stress Theory*). That is, in quantity sensitive languages the content of syllables is an important factor in their phonology; by contrast, in quantity insensitive languages, the content of syllables is not relevant. Furthermore, Hayes treats quantity sensitivity as a parameter, which means languages are either sensitive or insensitive to quantity, but they cannot be both at the same time. This paper shows that this all-or-nothing conception of weight (in)sensitivity is too rigid and does not account for languages, such as Valencian Catalan, that do manifest contradicting quantity patterns in their phonology.

Section 2 of this study analyzes the role of syllable weight in stress assignment and truncation, a process of prosodic morphology (McCarthy and Prince 1986, 1990, 1991, 1995), in Catalan and claims that one of its major regional varieties, Valencian Catalan, shows a conflicting weight pattern, that is a quantity sensitive (QS) non-verbal main-stress system and a quantity insensitive (QI) prosodic morphology, mainly involving stress and truncation. On the other hand, the rest of Catalan dialects are consistent in the use of weight in their main non-verbal stress assignment and prosodic morphology.

This study also argues in section 3 that a constraint-based model (Optimality Theory, henceforth OT, Prince and Smolensky) is able to accommodate contradictory weight patterns such as the ones found in Catalan. Finally, section 4 offers a summary of this paper.

## **I'd Like to Buy ə Schwa: A Corpus Approach to Vowel Reduction in American English**

**Matt Benton and Liz Dockendorf, UT Arlington**

It is well known in both linguistics and TESOL applications that most unstressed vowels in American English can be reduced to schwa in connected speech. This has led some to claim that schwa is the most frequent vowel in American English. However, making a quantification of these claims is often difficult since the schwa is not explicitly orthographically represented.

This study uses approximately one hour of audio from American Broadcast news that has been transcribed into a text corpus. The main corpus is also tagged for phonemes and their durations. The audio files contain the speech of 58 speakers; of which, 38 had a large enough individual contribution that phoneme duration could be measured across approximately 4 complete sentential units. Two smaller corpora (about 4-9 minutes of audio) of spontaneously produced dialogues (2 M and 2 F speakers) were added to the base corpus. All of the files have been split based on individual speakers to give a set of sub corpora that consist of the transcriptions of 42 speakers.

This project is in two parts. The first part consists of using concordancing tools (such as WordSmithTools and others) to give quantitative support to the previous claims about vowel reduction as well as analyzing the use of schwa in non-content words.

The second part of this study involves aligning the tagged corpora with the Carnegie Mellon University (CMU) Pronouncing Dictionary. This dictionary is a "machine-readable pronunciation dictionary for North American English that contains over 125,000 words and their transcriptions." This dictionary lists the "prescriptive" way that a word should be spoken in isolation along with listing both major and minor stresses. The phoneme set is the same as the tagged corpora, with the exception of phonemic sounds like schwa or flapped /t/ or /d/ (since these sounds would not occur in carefully produced speech). Using this comparison, it is then possible to create lemma-type groupings of the same word pronounced in multiple ways for a comparison of the effect of the environment in which a word is used in context.

These two methods together allow for the study of weak vowel elision (rather than just reduction), vowel to vowel assimilation, as well as other phonological processes that are typically thought to occur in connected speech due to the rhythm patterns of English (but may not occur in isolated words).

The application of this study could be considered three fold. First, using a process as common as English vowel reduction, this study shows that phonological problems can be investigated with corpus methodology. Second, by comparing and analyzing the difference between more naturally occurring data spoken in context with "isolated-context" dictionary data we show that connected speech phonological issues deserve attention in the areas of computer speech processing as well as TESOL applications. And third, this study is a starting point toward researching other forms of prosodic features using corpora of transcriptions of natural occurring audio data that is appropriately tagged for phrase level phonological studies.

withdr awn

## A Contrastive Study on Apology Strategies by the Chinese and Americans

Jinping Zhu, University of Florida

An apology is an important speech act and communicative strategy targeting at redressing an offence. Bergman and Kasper (1993) found that the closer the interlocutors were, the more likely the offender was to expressly assume responsibility for the offensive act. This can be true for apology situations in the U.S. However, in Chinese cultural, this is not always the case. Besides social distance and status, Chinese people consider the concept of *mianzi* (face) and their apologetic responses are also influenced by the Chinese culture and tradition. Wierzbicka (1985) argues that linguistic differences are due to “aspects of culture much deeper than mere norms of politeness and are associated with cultural differences”.

Apologizing strategies derive from culture-specific values and attitudes.

This paper attempts to analyze and contrast the apology strategies applied by the Chinese speakers who are currently in China and American English speakers in the U.S. This paper looks at the difference of apology strategies and the influence of situation and cultural norms. This study focuses on how the native speakers of Chinese and Americans realize apologies, whether gender, social distance and status affect their apologies, as well as the insight that can be gleaned to understand the cultural values and norms. Two group of subjects, one consisting of 20 native Chinese speakers the other 20 American English speakers, participated in this study. There were 10 females and 10 males in each group. They are in different majors respectively from universities in China and the U.S.. All of the subjects were adults between the ages of 21 and 30. The methodology used in this study was a discourse completion task (DCT). It was an open-ended questionnaire including six situations. Every situation contained a very clear description that might involve an apology. The situations represented different social domains and interlocutor role relationships in terms of social distance and relative social status, and differing degrees of severity of the offense. The subjects were asked to put in whatever they would say in reaction to each of the situations.

It was found that a number of factors may influence speaker’s apologetic behaviors, such as the personal perception of the degree of the severity based on the culture and traditional expectations (Chinese perception of *mianzi*), age, gender, familiarity, and social status of the two participants, which supplements the current politeness theory. Cross-cultural pragmatics is a broad new field. To understand the culture-specific apologizing strategies in Chinese would help ESL/EFL teachers design appropriate text materials and activities so as to boost students to produce culturally appropriate speech acts such as an apology. This study will be beneficial for ESL/EFL teachers to have a better cultural understanding of the two different countries. This research would also help them better understand the mistakes Chinese students make in their communication in the second language from the sociolinguistic and cultural perspective.

# withdr awn

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## The Possession of Catalan Unaccusativity

Ricard Vinas de Puig, Purdue University

Many scholars (Perlmutter 1978, Burzio 1986, Van Valin 1990, Dowty 1991) have long claimed intransitive verbs are divided into two predicates: unergative intransitives and unaccusative intransitives. I claim and demonstrate that in Catalan such distinction is of a structural nature. This paper shows that only the argument of unaccusatives can be c-commanded by a Possessor Dative (PD); the argument of unergatives cannot. Besides, I expose some of the problems related to the previous unaccusativity tests for Romance languages in general and for Catalan in particular.

Some scholars (Hualde 1992, Rosselló 2002, a.o.) claim that the Catalan clitic *en* can only target internal arguments and, therefore, can only co-occur with unaccusative verbs. Yet, works by different authors (Gràcia 1989, Cortés and Gavarró 1997, Mackenzie 2006) and recent field research conducted for the present work contradict that hypothesis and provide evidence that the clitic *en* can refer to both arguments, thus being orthogonal to the issue of internal argumenthood (1a-c). In example (1a) *en* refers to the argument of an unaccusative, as expected. However, *en* can also refer the (external) argument of an unergative (or a transitive verb used intransitively) (1b) and to the external argument of a transitive with an overt internal argument (1c).

This paper shows that other tests previously applied to Catalan are also problematic. I expose some of the problems related to the telicity test (Van Valin 1990, Dowty 1991) and the participial absolute test (Legendre and Sorace (to appear)), since stative unaccusatives are not telic and do not entail a change of state (2).

In this paper, I propose a reliable, alternative structural unaccusativity test. This proposal adapts the claim by Landau (1999), Kempchinsky (1992), Borer and Grodzinsky (1986) according to which PDs can only refer to internal arguments. I demonstrate that in Catalan the possessive reading is only obtained when the dative refers to an internal argument possessee (3a-c). Conversely, PDs yield an ungrammatical structure when referring to an external argument possessee (4a-b).

I then apply this analysis to other types of Catalan verbs. The tests shows how variable behavior verbs only allow PDs when they act as unaccusative; when they act as unergative verbs, their argument cannot be co-indexed with a PD. Measure verbs show an interesting behavior: the PD test shows that these predicates assign accusative case (5a) and have two internal arguments (5b) (they do not project an external argument).

The PD analysis presented in this paper demonstrates the structure nature of the distinction between unergative and unaccusative intransitives. Since PDs target only internal arguments, this analysis can be extended to other predicates (experiencer verbs, among other) to reliably determine the structural nature of their arguments.

## Examples

- (1) a. En<sub>i</sub> van arribar dos<sub>i</sub>.  
*en* go-PRES-3pl arrive-INF two  
 ‘Two (of them) arrived.’
- b. On en<sub>i</sub> mengen dos<sub>i</sub>, en<sub>i</sub> mengen tres<sub>i</sub>.  
 where *en* eat-PRES-3pl two *en* eat-PRES-3pl three  
 ‘Where two people eat, three (people) can.’
- c. [De tots aquells antics alumnes]<sub>i</sub>, tres<sub>i</sub> en<sub>i</sub> van acabar la carrera.  
 of all those alumni three *en* go-PRES-3pl finish-INF the degree  
 ‘Three of all those former students actually graduated.’
- (2) \*Un cop viscuda, la vam enterrar.  
 Once live-PPART-3sg-fem 3sg-Acc-fem go-PRES-1pl bury-INF  
 ‘Once (she had) lived, we buried her.’
- (3) a. El nen m<sub>i</sub>’ ha ratllat el<sub>i</sub> cotxe.  
 the boy 1sg-Dat have-PRES-3sg scratch-PPART the car  
 ‘The boy scratched my car.’
- b. Només m<sub>i</sub>’ ha arribat una<sub>i</sub> maleta  
 only 1sg-Dat have-PRES-3sg arrive-PPART-3sg one suitcase  
 ‘Only one of my suitcases has arrived.’
- c. Encara li<sub>i</sub> viuen les<sub>i</sub> flors.  
 still 3sg-Dat live-PRES-3pl the flowers  
 ‘Her flowers still live.’
- (4) a.# El<sub>i</sub> nen m<sub>i</sub>’ ha ratllat el cotxe.  
 the boy 1sg-Dat have-PRES-3sg scratch-PPART the car  
 ‘My boy scratched the car.’
- b.# Li<sub>i</sub> somriu el<sub>i</sub> comptable.  
 3sg-Dat smile-PRES-3sg the accountant  
 ‘Her accountant smiles.’
- (5) a. No m<sub>i</sub>’ els<sub>j</sub> pesa la<sub>i</sub> maleta, trenta quilos<sub>j</sub>.  
 Neg. 1sg-Dat 3pl-Acc weigh-PRES-3sg the suitcase thirty kilos  
 ‘My suitcase doesn’t weigh thirty kilos.’

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## Linguistic analysis of humor and character building in *Friends*

Naomi Lan, UT Arlington

“A cheerful heart is good medicine.” (Proverbs 17:22) It can heal people from hurt and give hope to them. It can also nourish people’s mind, soul and outwardly to the body by looking at the lighter side of life. It has power to fight against depression and pessimism. One way to generate a cheerful heart is through humor. Using the linguistic term proposed by Austin (1962), humor is an illocutionary force expressed through paralinguistic elements such as intonation and gestures, and language use such as jokes and riddles. A humorous utterance would naturally develop a cheerful heart. To see how it works and why, however, we’ll need to look into the linguistic evidence in the conversation. In this paper, I will apply the “General Theory of Verbal Humor” proposed by Attardo & Raskin (1991) to analyze humor in the pilot show of *Friends* to see how the language use bears humorous effect, which works on both the hearers in the show and the audience like us, but with different perlocutionary manifestations. After examining, I found that most humorous effects appear at surface in plain statement or question, but nevertheless a conversational implicature under the Cooperative Principle (Grice, 1975). The “unusualness” of conversational implicature echoes what Atkinson (1992) described about humor. “Direct” speech is usually less likely to create humorous effect unless there are paralinguistic factors or the speaker uses it intentionally to create the effect. For example, with the special intonation and facial expression, Joey’s famous line, *How are you doing?* becomes more than a common greeting but an implicature of an interested courtship. Again it shows humor is not about the forms, but the manipulation and interpretation of the underlying meaning of an utterance. Furthermore, I conclude that the humorous language use expressed by the six characters reflects their mentality and it can be an indicator of their personality. Also there is a gender difference. The males in the show tend to use commentary type of humor in their language. The females, on the other hand, tend to use more cooperative type of humor.

## **What Plays a Crucial Role in the Maintenance of Heritage Language by Korean Immigrants in the United States?**

**Jihye Moon, University of Maryland, College Park**

This study aims to account for a wide range of individual differences in the maintenance of heritage language among Korean immigrants in the United States. It has been hypothesized that three factors might have played a decisive role in their level of proficiency in Korean morpho-syntax: age at immigration, use of heritage language at home, and ethnic identity. There have been many studies on whether age matters in second language learning, but not many studies have investigated the age effects on the maintenance of the mother language. Thus, the present study attempts to provide systematic explanations as to what plays a crucial role in preventing immigrants from losing their heritage language. The range of heritage learners to be tested in this study is limited to children of Korean immigrants, born in the United States and those who immigrated to the United States before puberty, no later than at age 15. The participants will be given a brief interview followed by an in-depth questionnaire concerning their language background and their ethnic identity. The amount of heritage language use at home is rated 1-5, which is further divided into 15 categories based on how much Korean language has been used by the participants and their mothers as a medium of communication at home throughout their lives. On the other hand, the ethnic identity of the heritage learners is measured by the East Asian Ethnic Identity Scale (EAEIS) which is composed of three scales including family values, ethnic pride, and interpersonal distance. A grammaticality judgment task will then be given about grammatical items that are known to be fully mastered by child native speakers of Korean, but considered to be challenging for non-heritage learners of Korean. The results of the experiment will show if there are any significant effects of age at immigration, use of heritage language at home, and ethnic identity, or their interaction on the performance of the learners on the task. Furthermore, the findings of this study will have implications as to what leads to a successful maintenance of a heritage language by children of immigrants and immigrant children, of other ethnic origins.

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# Variation within the Fur Verbal Paradigm: An Optimality Theory Approach

Ashley Lober, UT Arlington

Since little analysis has been completed on the language of Fur, there is much to be explored. One of areas that poses a challenge in this language is the verbal paradigm because it is filled with variation; this variation is found in (but is not limited to) the verb-stem (i.e., suppletion—with both metathesis and deletion), the person-prefixes (i.e., subtractive morphology—including both null and consonant person prefixes), and the tense-suffixes (variation with the vowels within a tense) among other processes (e.g., assimilation, etc.). Consider (1), the conjugated verb ‘to cut’, which illustrates some of these characteristics<sup>1</sup>:

- |     |  |   |
|-----|--|---|
| (1) | a. Ø-and-a<br>1sg-cut-perf<br>‘I cut’    | d. k-and-a<br>1pl-cut-perf<br>‘we cut’                    |
|     | b. j-and-a<br>2sg-cut-perf<br>‘you cut’  | e. b-and-a<br>2pl-cut-perf<br>‘you (pl) cut’              |
|     | c. Ø-bet-a<br>3sg-cut-perf<br>‘s/he cut’ | f. k-and-ajeel<br>3pl-cut-perf, pl [+human]<br>‘they cut’ |

Because of the amount of variation, focus in this paper is narrowed to analyzing the verb-stems. Previous analysis of the verb-stems has only been conducted by Jacobi (1990), who uses a more traditional approach, i.e., formal rules are employed and those rules are ordered. For example, Jacobi accounts for the surface form of the verb-stem *-ful* ‘to untie’ in (2) as a two-step rule (first applying a rule for metathesis and then applying a rule for deletion) (3):

- (2) ‘to untie’  
-ful- → C<sub>pre</sub> -\*ufl- → C<sub>pre</sub> -ul-

- (3) C<sub>pre</sub> + C<sub>1</sub> + V<sub>1</sub> → C<sub>pre</sub> + V<sub>1</sub> (C<sub>1</sub>)

This paper reconsiders Jacobi’s analysis by using an Optimality Theory (OT) approach—an approach that allows the variation (i.e., the metathesis and deletion) to be accounted for in a simpler, more elegant manner than the rule-based approach. It is found that by 1) providing underlying forms for the stems and 2) by ranking a series of constraints, motivation for the variation in the verb-stems of Fur can be accounted for.

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<sup>1</sup> I do not discuss the function of tone in Fur during this paper, so I have not included tone in any of my examples.

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## Re-evaluating ergativity in Eskimo-Aleut: evidence from Iñupiaq

Linda Lanz, Rice University

I demonstrate that while Iñupiaq, an endangered Eskimo-Aleut language of northern Alaska, is arguably morphologically ergative, it displays no evidence of syntactic ergativity. Previous studies of Eskimo-Aleut languages have focused on morphological ergativity; indeed, Eskimo-Aleut languages are often touted as cardinal examples of ergative languages (Seiler (1978), Siegel (1997)). Iñupiaq has the ergative morphological marking—namely, case marking and verb agreement—described for Eskimo<sup>2</sup> languages as a whole, as shown in (1) and (2):

- (1) aḡnaq-∅      niḡi-ruq  
woman-ABS      eat-3S. INDIC. INTRANS  
“The woman is eating.” (source: fieldwork data)
- (2) aḡna-m      akpik-∅      niḡi-gaa  
woman-ERG      salmonberry-ABS      eat-3S. 3S. INDIC. TRANS  
“The woman is eating a salmonberry.” (source: fieldwork data)

However, the issue of syntactic ergativity in most Eskimo-Aleut languages has been largely unexplored. Bok-Bennema (1991) states that Inuit lacks any indication of syntactic ergativity. Using other criteria, however, other scholars (Manning (1995), Aldridge (2005)) claim that some Eskimo-Aleut languages—or often simply ‘Eskimo’ or ‘Inuit’, with no reference to which language(s) in the family this refers to—are syntactically ergative. Aldridge, for example, claims that ‘Eskimo’ as a whole subgroup is syntactically ergative based on data from two Eskimo-Aleut languages, Yup’ik and West Greenlandic (akin to declaring that because Hindi is morphologically ergative, all Indo-European languages are as well).

Using data I gathered during fieldwork in 2006 and 2007, I tested for syntactic ergativity in Iñupiaq, utilizing a more comprehensive set of criteria such as syntactic pivot, relativization, coordination, subordination, etc. Word order could not be used because Iñupiaq basic word order is SOV (if anything), and only verb-medial languages can exploit word order to mark ergativity. In every test, Iñupiaq displayed canonical nominative-accusative behavior. Example (3), for example, shows that the syntactic pivot in Iñupiaq is nominative-accusative.

- (3) aḡna-m      qiñiḡaa      i ḡ iḡaq-∅ qaiḡaruq  
woman-ERG      see-3S. 3S. INDIC. TRANS      baby-ABS      cry-3S. INDIC  
“The woman sees the baby and [the woman] cries.”

Here the woman is the subject of both verbs; it cannot be the baby who was crying. Although *qaiḡaruq* ‘3S cries’ is intransitive, its subject is not the absolutive argument of the transitive verb—as we would expect if Iñupiaq exhibited an ergative syntactic pivot—but the ergative-marked argument. Furthermore, subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, and obliques can be relativized in Iñupiaq, and the arguments which relativize indicate nominative-accusative syntactic behavior. From these and other tests (omitted here due to space considerations)

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<sup>2</sup> Here by ‘Eskimo’ I refer to the Eskimo subgroup of the Eskimo-Aleut family, including both the Eskimo and the Inuit branches (i.e., the entire family save Aleut). Iñupiaq itself belongs to the Inuit branch.

I conclude that Iñupiaq is morphologically ergative but syntactically accusative, regardless of whether other members of the Eskimo-Aleut family are syntactically ergative or not.

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## **Language Maintenance Factors: A Case study of the Neo-Aramaic Language as an Endangered Language in Iraq**

**May George, University of Arizona**

Language maintenance means preserving the language for communication. For any language to survive, it needs two things people who speak it and value it in everyday life. There are necessary conditions for the preservation of a language. A language should have a role in the society. In addition, there needs to be a desire to speak it. Language is affected by the speaker choice. If the community has no need to speak the language, it will be very difficult to maintain it. Elder people are primary sources of language. Parents can play an active role in maintaining the language. They can use stories or songs to help their children to learn the language. Institutions can have a great impact on the community. These institutions include organizations, workshops, and clubs which can reinforce the importance of maintaining the mother tongue. As a result, these factors can contribute in maintaining the language. Stadler (1983) believed that “the importance of a particular language in a society is a desire in larger part, from the attitudes shown towards it” (p.9). Attitude is defined by Lewis (1981) as a cluster of perceptions that can possibly lead to a bias. Attitude is cognitively embedded; it is what a person thinks about the language and the relation to the language (p.262). Language behavior is an important index of attitude and it has several forms for example, the choice of school and the preference of one language over the other in different social situations.

### **The Neo-Aramaic Language**

The Aramaic language is an old language of a Semitic origin. Records of the Aramaic Language go back to 3000 B.C. The word Aramaic comes from the word Aram. The fifth son of Shem, the firstborn of Noah. The Aramaic Language was used in Mesopotamia and spread to other countries (Younan, 2000). Today a modern variety of the Aramaic Language is called the Neo-Aramaic is used in Iraq, Syria, Lebanon, U.S., Canada, Australia, and Sweden. The Aramaic Language is used in liturgical masses and at home. There are few schools that teach the language in the north of Iraq where the most Christians live. Less than one million Christians live in Iraq who speak the language. Most of them immigrated due to the war situation. Both the Chaldean and the Assyrian who speak the language are trying to maintain their identity and their culture.

Is Aramaic Language an endangered language? Christians who speak the language are leaving Iraq and they are scattering all over the world. There is now thin representation of people who migrated outside the country and are still using the language. The elder people are dying, and the parents are only the source of the language, while their children adopted the language of the country they live in. Finally, there is a fear that language will disappear within a few decades and the two million people living aboard will decline tremendously leaving only a few hundreds who speak it. In this case, the Aramaic Language will be endangered and will die and remain only in books and transcripts.

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***Nous* and *On* in Spoken French:  
Pragmatic Uses of Institutionalality and Distancing**

**Deborah King, UT Arlington**

Many linguists have noted the gradual restructuring of the pronoun paradigm in French—notably, the replacement of the first person plural form *nous* by the indefinite pronoun *on*. This use of *on* is particularly evident in the younger generation, but it occurs regularly in all sectors of society. Some see the replacement of *nous* by *on* as nearly categorical (Laberge & Sankoff 1980; Coveney 2000). However, these studies have based their conclusions primarily on informal conversations with individuals about their personal lives. By contrast, this study examined pronoun usage in interviews and speeches whose themes were political or business-related. After narrowing the focus to only those uses of *nous* and *on* which represented first person plural subjects, I found that these samples contained a *nous/on* ratio of roughly 50/50: much higher than that found previously. Furthermore, contrary to previous conclusions that the only distinction between the two is style (*nous* being a formal variant and *on* informal (Coveney 2000)), examination of the data revealed that many speakers may use *nous* and *on* in pragmatically distinct ways: *nous* to implicate institutionalality, *on* to implicate distancing. Considering that *nous* has a higher level of determinacy than *on* (Stewart 1995), it is not surprising that *nous* should be chosen when a speaker wishes to express solidarity and unity within a group. Likewise, *on* is the natural choice for a speaker trying to save face by distancing himself from his behavior. It should be noted that the considerations of institutionalality and distancing are sometimes in competition. In these cases, *nous* may be used to emphasize institutionalality even in a potentially face-threatening situation, while *on* may be used for face-saving purposes despite the institutionalality of the referent. However, the strong correlation between *nous* and institutionalality and *on* and distancing suggests style is not the only consideration in the choice of pronoun—that, in many cases, conversational implicature is taking place.

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## Mathematical Approaches for Analyzing Continuous Dynamic Vowel Tracts

Brett Benham, UT Arlington

This presentation will examine a number of mathematical approaches to more fully describe the characteristics of vowels than is traditionally done by measuring the vowel mid-syllable at a single point in time. Approaches include describing the entire vocalic syllable as an equation, nominating potential behavioral boundaries in a continuum, and predicting targets in vowel space.

In the field of Acoustic Phonetics, it has been traditional to characterize a vowel by measuring its formant pattern at the center of the syllable. The rationale for doing this is to attempt to avoid consonantal effects, which may distort the vowel formant pattern at the interface with a consonant. However, this technique of measuring only once creates a static model of the vowel.

Consider Peterson and Lehiste (1961), in which they compared the syllable nuclei of short “lax” monophthongs [ɪ ɛ ʌ ʊ] and long “tense” monophthongs [i æ a ɔ u]. The contrast they discovered was the ratio of three zones in the nucleus: onglide, target, and offglide. Lax vowel [ɪ] had ratio percentages of zones 29:47:24; whereas, tense [i] had ratio of zones 23:32:45. For lax vowels, 53% of the monophthong was dynamic gliding, and for tense vowels, 68% of the monophthong was dynamic. In both cases, more than 50% of the observed monophthongs were not static. Classification of syllables as steady-state monophthongs appears to be a result of pre-supposition, ignoring the dynamic nature of the majority of the observed syllable.

The practice of measuring only once is even less appropriate for investigating diphthongs.

Consider Gay's (1968) study of the American diphthongs [ɔɪ aɪ aʊ eɪ ou]. Gay observed that the five diphthongs can be grouped in three sets: 1) [ɔɪ aɪ] behaved similarly, having a steady-state:glide ratio of 30:70; 2) [aʊ] had a ratio of 15:85; and 3) [eɪ ou] patterned together with a ratio of 5:95. Clearly, a static model is not indicated by Gay's ratios, and furthermore, measuring the vowel once, in the middle of the syllable, would obtain a measurement somewhere in the glide transition and not necessarily be characteristic of any meaningful target in the structure of the vowel nucleus.

This presentation will focus on avoiding a single-point measurement technique, by capturing the entirety of the vowel's formant pattern, and then modeling the entire duration using mathematical models, such as arctangent and cubic polynomials. Acoustic data from spoken Russian, Korean and American English will be presented to illustrate these methods.

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## **The Language of Fur: An Explanatory Study on Fur Negation**

**Fatma Haidari, UT Arlington**

Fur, a Nilo-Saharan language, spoken in Darfur, a community of western Sudan and the focus of current conflict, is in some way helping the world to empathize with Darforians. Studies on Fur by Jakobi (1989), Beaton (1986), Jernudd (1983), Schadeberg (1981), Kutsch-Lojenga and Waag (2004), and other researchers have established a considerable literature on Fur. Still, little has been said about negation in Fur since most studies focus on morpho-phonological and phonological aspects of the languages. For example, the aspect of sounds and tones receives extensive observation from almost all researchers on Fur such as Jakobi (1989) and Kutsch-Lojenga and Waag (2004). Thus, this research aims to achieve two major goals: 1) explore the manner of Fur negation, and 2) make an emphasis on three kinds of negation, double negation, imperative negation with 'don't, and metalinguistic negation.

## **Personality in Society: Should Personality Typology Be Considered a Sociolinguistic Variable?**

**Katie Welch, UT Arlington**

Current sociolinguistic research is akin to gazing at a multi-faceted diamond. At best, the observer can only view a handful of facets at one time, never fully able to view all unique aspects of the gem in the same glance. Although sociolinguists continue to identify variables that inevitably influence the manner in which humans communicate in society, the discipline lacks the capacity to describe in one glance every factor at play in a conversation. Nevertheless, as sociolinguists we must continue the dialogue about which facets of culture and the self are integral to language production, even if that knowledge never produces a comprehensive sociolinguistic model.

In this paper, I continue the dialogue by positing that Jungian typology as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is one such sociolinguistic facet that cannot be ignored. Since the MBTI in itself is many-sided, I have chosen to narrow my research to the information-gathering node that is represented by the intuition and sensing traits. By analyzing conversational data produced by speakers of varying typology, I will demonstrate that intuition (N) and sensing (S) preferences are encoded in language and that these linguistic variations have direct social implications.

In this study, I will gather data from five to fifteen subjects who are native or near-native English speakers. In order to qualify for participation, the candidates must have graduated from high school, be literate enough to complete the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator without help, be previously unknown to at least one other participant, and be between the ages of 20-35 years. During the week of collection, all participants will be paired with a previously unknown individual and will be asked to participate in a five-minute, instant messaging conversation with this person. Both subjects will receive instructions from the researcher that they are to “get to know” the other person as they would if they met socially (for example, at a party) and wanted to initiate a friendship. After the conversation, the participants will take the MBTI to determine their personality typology.

I am expecting to find that the participants do, indeed, encode their intuition or sensing preference in their speech. I will specifically be looking for Ns to ask more “why” questions, while Ss should ask more “what” questions. These findings would be congruent with the MBTI, as Ns tend to ask “why” of the world around them and Ss tend to ask “what” of the world around them. While this categorization tends to be more metaphorical than actual, I believe that the data will show that the way these speakers conceptualize the world becomes apparent by the words that they use. In the same way, I propose that Ns will use more future-oriented language, while Ss will use less future-oriented language. These findings would also be congruent with the distinctive behaviors measured by the MBTI, since Ns tend to be more future-oriented and Ss tend to be more present or past-oriented. Lastly, I expect that these variations in wh-words and modality will occur more often in N – N conversation and in S – S conversations. I expect that both iNtuitive and Sensing types alike will modify their speech to more closely match the speech of the person with whom they are communicating. If this is indeed the case, we will have strong evidence to include intuition and sensing preferences as sociolinguistic variables that establish a person’s identity through language.

## The Semantics of Visual Perception Verbs in English

Soyeon Yoon, Rice University

In this study, I argue that the different meanings and conceptualizations of a word are revealed in the constructions where the word is used and also in the frequency of the constructions. The most basic assumption of this study is the Usage Based Model that the speaker's linguistic system is grounded in usage events (Kemmer and Barlow 2000). Speakers of a language make generalization and construct a schema of the language based on the instances of usage. Accepting this model, I investigated the different semantics of English visual perception verb *see*, *look*, and *watch*. I examined corpus data quantitatively and qualitatively and attempt to draw an abstract schema of the semantics of the synonyms.

For quantitative analysis, I categorized the verb occurring in the corpus data into several types according to whether or not it has a direct object, used as a passive form, or used with a particle, etc. I also examined the constructions of the complements and the semantics of the nouns that follow the verb. The frequency data in Table 1, which is a part of the whole analysis, shows the asymmetry of the distribution of the verbs. The fact that the usage of a passive construction in *see* is more frequent than in the other verbs shows that the action of *see* is less active than the others. Also, a clausal complement, whose content is mostly abstract idea shows that *see* can be extended metaphorically to cognition. I also claim that the relationship between the actor and the undergoer of *look* is rather schematic based on the fact that *look* can be used in both the intransitive construction and the particle construction (See Table 1). More specific relationship is determined by the construction where *look* is used. On the other hand, *watch* is the intentional and continuous action focusing on the change of the state. Refer to Table 1 showing that one of the frequent complements of *watch* is n+inf and n+ing which describe the motion of another entity.

More detailed qualitative analysis of the semantics of each complement construction and noun supports that speakers of English conceptualize the visual perception verbs in different ways. For example, the semantics of the complement supports the idea that *see* is used in the meaning of 'knowing' and 'understanding' while *look* and *watch* are more focused on the visual perception *per se*: they express an intentional action of visual perception that requires using eyes. The main difference of *look* and *watch* is that *look* does not imply continuous action and is related to the direction of gaze when used with a particle while *watch* is a continuous action focusing on the change of actions such as TV shows and sports games.

Consequently, the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the perception verbs in English show that the subtle semantic distinction of synonyms is reflected in the types of constructions where the words can be used and also in the different frequency distribution of the constructions.

Table 1. Quantitative analysis

type	See (% out of 500 hits)	Look (% out of 512 hits)	Watch (% out of 252 hits)
Intr	Total: 5.2	Total: 29.6 adj: 15.0 like n: 7.8	Total: 12.0 as+cl: 3.0
Tr	Total 76.6 clause: 12.4 n+ing: 3.8 n+inf: 1.8	Total: 2.9 clause: 0.4	Total: 70.0 n+inf: 17.0 n+ing:6.0 clause: 2.0
Part	Total 1.6 <i>through</i> : 1.0 <i>down</i> : 0.2 <i>into</i> : 0.2 <i>off</i> : 0.2	Total:62.8 <i>at</i> : 25.8 <i>for</i> : 9.6 <i>in/into</i> : 2.7 <i>back</i> : 1.8	Total: 9.0 <i>for</i> :3.0 <i>out for</i> : 3.0 <i>out</i> : 2.0 <i>over</i> : 1.0
Pass	15.0	1.2	3.0
N	0.4	5.0 ( <i>take/have a look at</i> : 3.1)	3.0 ( <i>keep a watch on</i> : 1.5)
adj	0	0.2	2.0
Dmark	1.2	3.3	0

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## Direct Object Marking in Classical Hebrew

Amanda Linerode, UT Arlington

Classical Hebrew contains a word, **וְ** (*et*), that is traditionally viewed, in both the traditional grammars and in the literature as a whole, as a definite direct object marker. According to the literature, *et* occurs before direct objects that take the definite article, are proper nouns, or that appear in the so-called construct state, which commonly indicates possessiveness.

However, it is not always the case that *et* occurs with definite direct objects; it often does not occur with definite direct objects, and there are some cases where the object is syntactically indefinite, yet occurs with *et*. *Et* also sometimes occurs preceding the head nouns of relative clauses. In the book of Ruth, *et* marks only about half of the definite direct objects, and occurs before approximately one-fifth of the relative clauses.

This paper investigates the extent to which discourse and pragmatic features motivate the writer's usage of *et* in Classical Hebrew texts.

In order to investigate the usage of *et*, while minimizing other factors such as language change and differences between genres, I chose to analyze a series of narrative texts that were written in approximately the same time period. I began with the text of the book of Ruth, before moving on to some other narratives written in approximately the same time period

The results of this research indicate that *et* marks the distinction between given and new information. The data suggests that the context of the narrative, including the cultural setting, is a strong motivating factor in determining givenness and whether and where *et* occurs.

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## **English in the Expanding European Union: Revisiting Berns' Evaluation of "The Twelve"**

**Jennifer Cramer, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign**

More than 10 years ago, Berns (1995) examined the nature, use, spread, and acquisition of English in the European Union (EU), applying the model of concentric circles of World Englishes (Kachru 1985) to Europe as a single sociolinguistic entity. The original model accounts for 1) how learners acquire English, 2) who provides the model for learning, 3) what place English has in language policy, 4) the history of how English arrived in the country, 5) the types of use, and 6) the amount of contact speakers have with native speakers of English. Berns found, however, that this widely-used model is not quite adequate in accounting for the situation in a unified Europe. She proposed a revised analysis to account for the then-twelve member union. In principle, her categorizations of Inner and Expanding Circle Englishes were comparable to those of Kachru; however, Berns extended the concept of the Outer Circle to emphasize its close relationship with the Expanding Circle, to better account for the status of English in Luxembourg, Germany, and the Netherlands.

But with rapid expansion in the EU over the past decade, the status of English must be re-evaluated to glean a better understanding of the linguistic situation, which has possible implications for EU language policy. In this paper, I consider Berns' adapted model of the concentric circles of European Englishes in analyzing the current linguistic situation in the EU. The analysis includes all current member nations.

Drawing on data from sources such as Görlach (2002), Petzold and Berns (2000), Davidson (1996), and other discussions of English in the newest EU member countries, the ultimate conclusion is that this model, while possibly appropriate for a twelve-member EU, lacks the ability to account for the patterns of use in Europe today. Countries like Malta and the Scandinavian countries pose substantial problems for the model. The situation in these countries does not seem to be strongly fitted to the descriptions provided for the static circles. I propose a new model, still based on the idea of the concentric circles model, which allows for varieties of English to be in transition between the circles.

The goal of this paper is to better understand the linguistic situation in the EU, which posits itself as a political and economic unit that puts emphasis on linguistic diversity. It also explores the spread of English in new (particularly Eastern European) member countries, where little has been written about the status of English. This paper serves as a tool for a more solid understanding of how Europeans are using English, which could lead to a better understanding of how to best approach language policy in the European Union, especially when further expansion is considered.

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