

An Analysis of Formation of Completive and Continuative Tense Markers In Hausa Language

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Hausa is used extensively in commercial, governmental and educational spheres, and in the mass media. There are several Hausa language newspapers and book publishing is active. Both the Koran and the Bible are available in Hausa. Many radio stations, both African and international, broadcast in (mainly Kano) Hausa including the BBC World Service, Voice of America, Deutsche Welle, China Radio International and Radio Moscow. The Nigerian Constitution officially recognizes Hausa as a national language. A number of universities in Nigeria and Niger offer undergraduate and postgraduate degree courses in Hausa, and there are also specialists in Hausa language. Regionally-based Hausa dialects display variation in phonology, lexicon and grammatical morphemes. In this paper we will formulate an analysis of completive and continuative tense markers in Arewa Hausa.

Hausa marks tense differences by different sets of subject pronouns, as a reason of the fact that a subject pronoun must accompany every verb in Hausa, regardless of whether the subject is known from previous context or is expressed by a noun subject. Therefore, there are separate sets of subject pronouns for either completive or continuative tense forms.

In this sense, we aim to prove which syntactic units completive and continuative tense markers inflect and how completive and continuative tense markers constitute syntactic units in Hausa by giving sentences varying in terms of tense/subject pronoun to the informant¹.

¹ In this study, we conducted the data from an informant whose name is Jibril Abubakar. He is 23 years old Nigerian student—a native speaker of Arewa Hausa—in Computer Science & Engineering Department at Hacettepe University. Before he came to Ankara, he was living in Abuja, the capital of Nigeria. His tribe, Baehausa, is located in the northern part of Nigeria.

The Thetic Character of Exclamative Sentences

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Exclamatives are classified as a sentence subtype since they do not seem to appear in all languages (Sadock & Zwicky, 1985; König & Siemund, 2007). They are also viewed as related to declaratives, the difference being that exclamatives express emotion whereas declaratives do not (Sadock and Zwicky, 1985: 162; Alonso-Cortés, 1999: 3995). In spite of this very broad definition, some authors have taken a more restrictive approach by considering that exclamatives “relate to a scale or dimension and identify an extreme value” (König & Siemund, 2007: 316).

Both functionalists (Michaelis & Lambrecht, 1996a; Michaelis & Lambrecht, 1996b; Michaelis, 2001) and formalists (Zanuttini & Portner, 2003) have taken this more restrictive approach in defining exclamatives. Zanuttini and Portner confine exclamatives to sentences that have a *WH* operator without being questions. The functionalist approach, on the other hand, considers that declaratives and exclamatives share the codification of a proposition taken to be true: “the propositional content of exclamations is knowledge presupposed. Topicality presuppositions concern the assumed statuses of referents as topics of current interest in the discourse” (Michaelis, 2001:1043). This construal of the relationship between declaratives and exclamatives is illustrated in the following examples:

- (1) The nerve of some people! (Michaelis, 2001: 1039)
- (2) What a good time we had! (Michaelis and Lambrecht, 1996a: 385)

The aim of this paper is to challenge the assumption that exclamatives are related to declaratives in the sense that they codify a proposition taken to be true or that they perform a scalar statement, as Michaelis claims. Moreover, I propose that exclamatives are not related to all declaratives but exclusively to the declarative-subset described by Sasse (1987) as the non-predicative thetic statement. According to this author, “the combination of a new subject and a new predicate cannot yield a subject-focus constellation.” (1987: 572) Indeed, exclamatives always present the property of the subject as new information (at least in their prototypical uses). The facts that both sentences could be presented as new information, and that the word order in (2) can be considered an instance of desubjectivization, lead us to consider exclamatives not as predications but as instances of thetic statements.

Thetic statements perform the recognition of some event or situation (Sasse, 1987). This recognition is more coherent with the expression of emotion that traditionally has been related to exclamatives.

On the other hand, exclamatives cannot be reduced to a declarative subtype since their orientation differs. Exclamatives are speaker-oriented because what is expressed is that the speaker’s expectations are exceeded by the situation (which leads exclamatives to their conventionalization as compliments, for example). On the contrary, declarative thetic statements are oriented toward the addressee, since the information they convey is presented as new from the addressee’s perspective (Sasse, 1987).

If exclamatives are speaker-oriented thetic statements, then we could expect them crosslinguistically to appear grammaticalized from expressions of disbelief. The examination of the examples given in (Michaelis, 2001) proves that this is, indeed, the case.

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Negotiating interpersonal relationships in Korean telephone conversations: Balancing involvement and independence

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Despite the existence of abundant literature on telephone openings, research on closing telephone conversations has been scarce. In response to the limitations of the previous studies, this study investigates Korean telephone conversation closings between intimates in non-institutional settings. Specifically, it explores how Korean speakers who are intimate friends but have not communicated for a while negotiate interpersonal relationships, within the framework of conversation analysis (CA) and politeness theory.

Forty informants (20 callers and 20 answerers) participated in this study. All participants were Korean. The age of participants ranged from early 20's to 30's. All participants were either college students or bachelor's degree holders. Callers and answerers were always of the same gender. Ten calls were made by women and ten calls by men. All the calls were made to the answerer's phone. The telephone conversations were recorded in the callers' residences.

The closing sequences of telephone conversations have been identified with pre-closing, leave-taking, and terminal exchanges in American telephone conversations. (Schegloff and Sacks, 1973) The findings of this study show that Korean speakers use similar sequences composed of pre-closing, leave-taking, and terminal exchanges. However, it also shows some differences in that they rarely exchange the explicit terminal exchange *annyeong* (goodbye), but prefer to use other strategies, such as long turns of agreement tokens, repetitions, and leave-taking strategies. These tactics indicate that closing sequences in telephone conversations are face-threatening acts (FTA) so that each participant must save each other's face through sufficient negotiation before hanging up the phone. In addition, avoidance of saying *annyeong* (goodbye) can be a candidate for an off-record strategy in that it is supplanted by long turns of agreement. Therefore, the strategies used indicate the basic undertone of negative politeness even in intimate relationships.

Article omission in Indian English and discourse universals: A study of online discussion forums

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English has become a global language and many varieties are now a common feature in the discussion of World Englishes. Indian English has evolved from its British influences to an indigenized contact variety today. Indian English has developed an article usage that differs from the English-as-a-native-language (ENL) varieties. This study aims at explaining the omission of articles by Indian English speakers in online discussion forums. Online discussion forums are asynchronous conversations posted on the internet. For this study, 9342 words of data were gathered from Indian online discussion forums in 2009. Data was selected from forums filtered for domain addresses based in India and India-specific content. This study compares the results of article omission in spoken discourse studied by Sharma (2005) to the results obtained from online discussion forums. The study attempts to identify differences between these text types by their use of the zero article.

Ionin et al, (2008) have shown that English language learners (ELL) tend to omit articles if their L1's do not have explicit article systems (as in Indo-Aryan and Dravidian languages). However, they observe that there is no clear correlation between article omission and L1 transfer. Other studies (Sharma, 2005; Sand 2004) on contact varieties of English have shown that article use tends to match the distinctive features of linguistic universals actuated by the language contact process. Sharma's (2005) study on spoken Indian English argues that article use is based on universal discourse principles. This study works from that hypothesis and uses Prince's (1992) scale of assumed familiarity to describe the relative givenness of the NP within the online discussion forum discourse.

The high frequency of evoked and inferable references--two of Prince's categories of known NP types--concur with Sharma's findings that evoked NP types have the highest rate of article omission. This means that articles occur less frequently when the referents of NPs are most assumed to be given.

Examples:

Inferable NPs

- 1) Anyone looking for \emptyset *developer's job* in Washington DC Metro area, please PM me. (the NP is related to the theme of the discourse)

Evoked NPs

- 2) Please give me details about ICFAI 360 degree flexible program. How is \emptyset *programme structure*.

But unlike Sharma's (2005) study on spoken Indian English, this study does not find all categories of Prince's scale represented. The study concludes that article omission decreases in variety as the text type proceeds from the most informal text type (spoken conversations) to the most formal (informational text types) with online discussion forums occurring between this spectrum. As a corollary, the study also hypothesizes that universal discourse principles are more likely to be actuated in the informal text types.

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Prosody in Chinese talk show: from interactive perspective

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The study aims to explore how prosody plays in Mandarin Chinese, a tone language. Prosody is realized in the interaction between interlocutors. Within the framework of interactive perspective, the prosody at turn transition and how interlocutors orientate to the prosody are examined in the talk show extracted from YouTube-Broadcast Yourself. The result indicates that: (1) in smooth conversation most turn transition occurs at a syntactic completion point, sometimes accompanied by pause or soft volume (2) at a syntactic incomplete point, hesitation or repetition is a legitimate turn transition point (3) what determines a speaker's overlap as competitive or not is the combination of high pitch and loudness (4) when facing noncompetitive overlaps, the turn occupant continues without changing the prosody or speaks with loudness to show the continuation of prior interrupted turn (5) when facing competitive overlaps, the turn occupant might respond with diminuendo loudness to yield the turn or respond with the combination of rising pitch and fast speed or the combination of high pitch and loudness to compete for the floor (6) prosody plays a similar role in Chinese as in other languages

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Is There “Rhythm” When The Beat Changes?

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It’s been argued that languages fall into at least two different classes of rhythmic typologies (stress-timed or syllable-timed) (Pike 1945). Not only is this idea prevalent in general linguistic theory, it is presented regularly in materials for TESOL pronunciation (There are subtle comments in Orion (1997: 45) and more definitive claims in Avery and Ehrlich (1992: 118, 37)). While these TESOL type materials are most likely teaching what is considered “normative” rhythm, it may not always be the same as what happens in speech in real context i.e. “non-laboratory” or “non-classroom” speech.

In a past study, my colleagues and I were not only able to look at differences between two languages thought to be examples of syllable timed or stress timed languages and show that there was a statistical difference *between* them, but we also found a clue that showed potential differences *within* each language (2007). The difference being that when language data is divided into the aspects of gender and genre, languages might also differ in their relative rhythm category. According to Russo and Barry, one of the key issues in research of speech rhythm is that of having sample that is big enough (speaker base), deep enough (amount of spoken data), and a broad enough (“enough different styles of speech”) (2008)

This current study furthers that line of thinking by looking at several different types of English data based on the genre aspect. Using computer tools to record, segment, and measure the acoustic properties of the data, this study aims is to show the any differences between highly rhythmic speech on one end, with what is potentially highly “un-rhythmic” data on the other end of the potential spectrum. “Highly rhythmic speech” would be speech samples like military cadences and “spoken” songs, (e.g. Johnny Cash’s “A Boy Named Sue”, portions of Charlie Daniels Band’s “The Devil Went Down to Georgia”, and “The Distance” by Cake). “Highly un-rhythmic speech”, then would be defined as speech that is more impromptu and relies on situational events to occur before it can be spoken (e.g. sports announcers cannot generally comment on the action until it happens and may have a tendency to get more excited skewing the normal expected rhythmic patterns). The underlying, potentially even cognitive, difference between these two extremes is that one is more scripted, practiced, and maybe even mnemonic. As such, it might be easy for one to speculate that the speech would be highly regular versus the un-rhythmic data, which would be highly spontaneous and thus likely to be less regular.

Comparing these two ends with previously analyzed data will help to give a better definition to what would be considered speech rhythm timing (also called speech-timing pattern) of English. In addition to helping define the relationship between what might be considered “musical rhythm” with what might be considered “speech rhythm”, this study also helps define the boundaries of the “Target rhythm” of English, and helps fill voids in the speech rhythm research by adding additional genre samples.

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The Diagnostic Potential of the Genre Analysis Studies

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A lot of international students from EFL (English as a Foreign Language) backgrounds go to English speaking countries to do a post or under graduate degree. Studying in a university would necessitate the need to understand and produce certain academic or non academic genres. In order to demonstrate their generic abilities and consequently their proficiency of the subject matter, the students have to produce sound, error free and consistent genres that are being used in the discourse community where they belong.

Genre analysis studies have so far been concerned with the generic descriptions of various academic and professional genres in order to depict certain generic features such as the rhetorical move structure, lexical and grammatical characteristics of various genre exemplars written by the expert members of the discourse community where they belong. However the students are members of such communities, their writings have never been regarded as genre exemplars worth analyzing since they are regarded as novice or junior members of the community. My project would focus on the potentials of the genre analysis methodology to diagnose the problems that the novice writers encounter while producing a genre as part of their academic life in an English speaking country by analyzing the letters of appeal that the post graduate students write to the different offices in English in the University of Malaya, Malaysia.

Configuration of future time intervals measured by adverbials headed by *in* and *within*

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Consider the ambiguity in (1), which is clarified by the bracketing in (2) and the paraphrases in (3).

1. Bill will eat the sandwich in an hour
- 2.a. Bill will [eat the sandwich] in an hour
- 2.b. Bill will [eat the sandwich in an hour]
- 3.a. In an hour, Bill will [begin to] eat the sandwich
- 3.b. [Sometime,] Bill will take an hour to eat the sandwich

It is clear that this ambiguity arises from the availability of different time intervals that are measured by the temporal adverbial (TADV). Observe that in 1, the event time (ET) is “to the right” of the reference time (RT)¹. If the ET is “to the left”, as in (4), there are not different time intervals available to be measured by the TADV; thus there is no ambiguity. The unique interval measured by the TADV is the ET.

4. Bill has eaten the sandwich in an hour.

Similarly, it is the ET that is measured in (2b) and (3b). In spite of other possible labels (see, e.g., Copley, B. 2009. *The semantics of the future*. New York: Routledge), we will call the interval measured by the TADV in (2a) and (3a) the wait time (WT) to avoid adopting the assumptions and complications associated with other proposals. The WT is the period between the RT and the left endpoint of the ET, assuming that they are thus ordered from left to right.

It may appear that the WT must have a fixed duration when measured by a TADV headed by *in*, whereas it does not when measured by a TADV headed by *within*. In (2a), the event of eating the sandwich cannot begin until an hour has passed. In fact, what is constrained with *in* is the ordering of the left endpoint of the ET and the right endpoint of the WT. When the WT is measured by a TADV headed by *in*, the left endpoint of the ET cannot be ordered to the left of the right endpoint of the WT. However, when we replace *in* with *within*, no constraint on the ordering of these endpoints appears to be active. Consider (5):

5. Bill will [eat the sandwich] within an hour

Bearing in mind that the WT is measured (not the ET), it is clear that the event of eating can begin before an hour has passed, but the right endpoint of the WT is still the same measured distance from the RT, which coincides with its left endpoint. Clearly, the left endpoint of the ET can be ordered to the left of the right endpoint of the WT.

Conclusion. From this and further data, it appears that there is a constraint associated with TADVs headed by *in* that is absent in parallel TADVs headed by *within*. This constraint reflects the maximality that has been suggested to be a part of the lexical specification of *in*.

¹ For simplicity, I am assuming a punctual RT, and the RT coincides with the speech time in the examples given.

Pronouns of Address in French Language Online Personal Ads

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This project analyses the use of second-person pronouns of address “tu” (T) and “vous” (V) in online personal ads from Quebec and the Parisian region. This binary system of pronominal address is known for bearing both positive (solidarity for T and respect/politeness for V) and negative connotations (familiarity for T and distance for V). Furthermore, the social conventions governing their use are constantly evolving and subject to substantial variation across varieties of French (Vincent, 2001). Vincent (2001) notes a growth in the domain of T usage in contemporary Quebec society and, for this reason, van Compernelle (2008) suggests that “the T/V system operates within the context of online dating much as it would in many offline contexts” (p. 2073). In metropolitan French, however, “what one observes nowadays is not an absolute preference for tu but rather an emergent preference for symmetry in terms” (Morford, 1997, p. 14). This project then proposes a comparison of pronominal address forms in online personal ads from Quebec and Paris, hypothesizing that the use of T will be more frequent in Quebec ads than in their Parisian counterparts. Following the methodology used by van Compernelle (2008), this analysis details the use of T and V in 200 online personal ads on the site netclub.fr posted by heterosexuals living in the Parisian region. The Parisian patterns of T/V usage are compared with Quebec usage patterns documented by van Compernelle (2008). The results of this comparative study provide insight into how European and American varieties of French use a common pronominal address system differently to reflect similar socio-indexical meanings.

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Linguistic changes brought by *Hinglish* in the media

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Hinglish is a mix of Hindi and English – a language heard on streets, schools and colleges and nearly everywhere targeted by youngsters in India. Use of *Hinglish* helps in introducing fresh metaphors and enhances rhyming in addition to helping to reach out to a wider cross-section of the population. This kind of code-switching in the form of *Hinglish* in bilingual advertisements has had a profound effect on the day-to-day speech of speakers in India. Interestingly, while the native tongue most often forms the matrix language in the advertisement slogans, a changing trend is embracing English rather than Hindi as the matrix language.

This paper will focus on two main claims – First, irrespective of the matrix language of the advertisements, the speakers incorporate the slogans into their speech and accept them as phrases present in their language. The extent of the acceptance is such that these slogans are woven into the speech of the speakers as if they naturally belong to Hindi, and are affecting the Hindi spoken by the youth especially. Secondly, in addition to changing spoken language, these advertisements are also affecting the written language. The interchange of Roman script and Devanagiri script in the advertisements is encouraging the use of Roman script for Hindi in day-to-day life. The acceptance of media influenced *Hinglish* illustrates that people are open to playing with multiple linguistic resources that are available to them and therefore they are willingly incorporating into their language these innovative forms.

Facilitated Production of Sentences with Cognate Meanings in Highly Proficient Bilinguals

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There is abundant evidence that lexical representations across languages are activated in parallel (Libben & Titone, 2009; Schwartz & Kroll, 2006; Schwartz, Kroll & Diaz, 2007; Schwartz & Arêas Da Luz Fontes, 2008; Tokowicz & Kroll, 2007). This cross-language activation has been observed in lexical decision paradigms as well as in sentence context. The present study aimed to extend said findings in a comprehension/production task.

In a recent study Arêas and Schwartz (in press) sought to address this question. In their study highly proficient Spanish-English bilinguals completed an un-timed sentence generation task in which they produced sentences for English homonyms that were also cognates with Spanish and for which at least one meaning was shared across languages (e.g., arm/arma). They found that when a meaning was shared across languages, it was more likely to be produced by the bilinguals even though they were performing an exclusively English task.

The present study is an extension of Arêas and Schwartz (in press). The findings in Arêas and Schwartz (in press) suggest that shared meanings are more readily available. The hypothesis of this study is that the facilitation of access to shared meanings will be reflected in improved accuracy in producing the meaning in a sentence, particularly for meanings that have relatively low frequency in English. In this study 19 highly-proficient Spanish-English bilinguals were presented with word pairs. The first word (W1) was an English homonym that was either a cognate with Spanish or a non-cognate control. The second word (W2) was a word that biased either the dominant or subordinate meaning of W1. Participants were then asked to write a sentence containing both words.

Error-rate data suggests that participants had significantly higher error rates for cognate homonyms for which the subordinate meaning was biased as opposed to cognates for which the dominant meaning was biased. This finding suggests that cognates are particularly vulnerable to cross-language competition from the dominant meaning.

Additionally a within-cognate analysis revealed that if participants encountered a homonym for which the dominant meaning was biased, they had significantly lower error rates as opposed to homonyms for which the subordinate meaning was biased.

The initial hypothesis was not supported; however, the findings in the present study reveal an additional factor to be included in future psycholinguistic research: the role of cross-language interference in production tasks. Prior to this study, cross-language activation facilitated, for example, lexical decision tasks because the conceptual representation is strengthened by the fact that the grammatical form of a word exists in both languages. In reading tasks, cognates facilitate NP attachment in syntactically ambiguous sentences. In this study however, the presence of cognates during the processing stage created interference and higher error rates during the production stage. In this manner, one can observe that facilitation due to cross-language activation in some tasks (e.g., lexical decision) does not necessarily transfer to facilitation in other tasks (e.g., comprehension/production).

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Figure 1: Error Rate Data for Cognates/Noncognates

Figure 2: Error Rate Data for Cognates

