

The Second Scandinavian Ph.D. Conference in Linguistics and Philology in Bergen

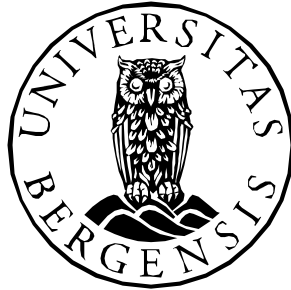
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Abstracts



IN BERGEN

The Second Scandinavian Ph.D. Conference in Linguistics and Philology



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Are all languages equally complex?

It is often assumed that if a language is complex in one area (e.g. in its morphology), this is automatically compensated for by lesser complexity in another (e.g. in the syntax). Lately, however, this assumption has been contested by, among others, John McWhorter, although there has so far been few or no attempts to make systematic comparisons of pairs of languages with respect to complexity. Here, I will try to give my own view of the controversy. First, I will discuss the problematic notion of complexity and how it can be defined and possibly measured. Second, I will review current ideas about the relationship between language contact and complexity. Third, I will compare two North Germanic languages, Swedish and Elfdalian (*älvdalska*, Älvdalen Dalecarlian), the latter being a vernacular spoken in Älvdalen (province of Dalarna, Sweden), probably the most “deviant” North Germanic variety in (Mainland) Scandinavia. Simplifying things somewhat, we are dealing here with a high-contact language (Swedish) and a low-contact language (Elfdalian), and I intend to compare them on a set of phonological, morphological, and syntactic parameters. I will argue that the differences in complexity are consistent enough across components of grammar/phonology to make it possible to claim that Elfdalian is indeed more complex than Swedish.

Odd Einar Haugen
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Looking behind the written language

Since Saussure, linguists have been almost unanimous in the view that the spoken language has priority over the written language. It would be difficult to contest this claim in the light of the numerous languages which still lack a writing system. On the other hand, it is well known from modern languages that there can be a considerable gap between the spoken and the written form of a language. English, for example, has a rather deep orthography, in which the rules for deriving the spoken forms are many and in some cases, especially for proper nouns, conflicting. But even for comparatively orthophonic languages, like Finnish, the gap between speech and writing should not be underestimated. Per Linell has made a thought-provoking study of this in his recently updated and extended book, *The written language bias in linguistics* (2005).

For historical language data, it is of utmost importance to grasp the nature and peculiarities of the orthography of a language. If the orthography is misunderstood, the understanding of the phonological processes of the language may be equally wrong. The study of written language has often been understood on analogy with spoken language, so that the concepts of phoneme, allophone and phone are mirrored in a corresponding hierarchy of grapheme, allograph and graph. It is a somewhat surprising fact that Nordic scholars have contributed so actively to this field,

beginning with the graphemic studies by Sture Allén (1965), and continued by e.g. Terje Spurkland (1991) and, very recently, in a doctoral dissertation by Lasse Mårtensson (2007). In this tradition, the study of writing has been understood as a discipline in its own right, *graphonomy*, but there is as yet no agreement as to its position relative to the phonological level. Some scholars will claim that the grapheme, the basic concept of graphonomy, is an autonomous concept, while other scholars argue that the grapheme can only be understood in a relational context.

In my talk, I will use the traditional discipline of paleography as a kind of Archimedian point. In my understanding, paleography is an *etic* discipline, on a par with what has been termed graphetics, while graphonomy is an *emic* discipline. I will use examples from Medieval Nordic sources in discussing this view, but I do not presuppose any great familiarity with these texts.

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Against a Generative Lexicon

The division of labour between the Lexicon and the syntactic/computational component of grammar has long been an important debate in the field. In this talk, I compare contrasting views of the lexicon as presented in work by Pustejovsky, Borer, and Levin and Rappaport-Hovav. However, unlike Goldilocks, I do not conclude that one of these views is 'just right'. Instead I find them all lacking, and argue that the right answer to this question depends on what we mean by the lexicon and how it is shared between general cognitive principles vs. principles specific to language (still open questions). In the spirit of constructive debate in this area, I then propose and argue for a specific view of the lexicon different from those above--- one which deprives the Lexicon of its status as a linguistic generative module, but treats it as an important epiphenomenon of the arbitrary associations between form, sound and content. I try to show that this view can do justice both to the demands of syntax and the demands of common sense.

Fahad Al-Mutairi

Minimalism and the road towards the natural sciences

The Minimalist Program encourages us, as linguists, to approach language in the same way as biologists and physicists, for instance, approach their own object of study. This methodological orientation relies on the supposition that the subject matter in these fields share an essential property. Be it an atom, T-cell, or I-language, they all belong to the category of “unnatural objects”. Although the idea might sound appealing, it is certainly not without its cost. By comparing the fifty-year-old research program of generative grammar to mature sciences with at least five centuries of development, one can appreciate the enormous challenge awaiting linguists working within a biolinguistic framework. In an attempt to facilitate such a comparison in a way that will contribute to an understanding of the goals of linguistics, the main objectives of the present work are to 1) illustrate the general features of model construction and experimentation involved in the natural sciences; 2) find out to what extent these features are present in the practice of generative grammarians; 3) highlight the growing tendency within generative grammars towards reduction/unification with the natural sciences; 4) identify some of the difficulties in achieving this reduction or unification; and, 5) suggest some proposals concerning this ultimate goal.

To do this, I first give some examples to illustrate the deductive system underlying theory construction and experimentation in the core sciences. Second, I examine the particular sense in which notions such as “theorem”, “evidence” and “prediction” are used in the field of linguistics, comparing this to the roles these notions play in the natural sciences. I then focus on two major shifts in the history of generative grammars: the inauguration of the biolinguistic approach to language, and the emergence of the minimalist program. Finally, I adopt a critical approach to key meta-theoretical assumptions on which minimalist perspectives rest, such as the “Galilean Style”, and to central concepts of this approach such as “Perfection” and “Optimality”. The discussion of the foregoing issues leads to the following remarks.

I maintain that while “controlled experiments” in the strict sense are absent in linguistics and other related fields such as neurolinguistics and psycholinguistics, a limited “controlled investigation” is nevertheless present. I also argue that explicitly and coherently formulated statements concerning the postulates, theorems and general laws within the overall make-up of theories in generative grammars are either absent, implicit or inconsistent. Moreover, I propose that while experiments concerning linguistic phenomena rely on inconclusive evidence based solely on correlations between variables, the theoretical framework still lacks predictive power. I also argue that the so called “Galilean Style” as understood by Chomsky is based on a subjective and partial interpretation of Galileo’s work, and that the Minimalist Thesis makes inappropriate teleological assumptions in determining the properties of the Faculty of Language. Finally, I maintain that the removal of conceptual barriers (in the Chomskyan sense) is a necessary but not sufficient condition for the reduction/unification of linguistics with the natural sciences.

In conclusion, insofar as the ultimate goal is to go “beyond explanatory adequacy” and, eventually, bridge the gap between linguistics and the advanced sciences, I suggest that the Minimalist Program should 1) work towards the construction of a theory with a solid deductive structure, where all major postulates, theorems deduced, and general laws are explicitly stated; 2) abandon teleological

explanations; and, 3) continue to implement theoretical concepts borrowed from the more advanced sciences.

Getahun Amare

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Argobba Verb Morphology

Argobba, the South Ethio-Semitic language, has very complex verb morphology. The verb morphology is basically root based. In other words, the morphosyntactic property of verbs (perfective, imperfective, jussive, gerundive etc.) is determined by the arrangement of consonants and vowels. The consonantal skeleton forms a root. It is assumed that the roots carry the basic meanings of the verbs. The vowels are inserted between the radicals to form different verbal stems. On the basis of the number of consonants or radicals a verb can have; the verbs of the language are classified as bi-radical, tri-radical, and quadri-radical verbs.

In Argobba, what is derived by the verb formation process is the verbal stem not the verbal word. Hence, in strict sense, the verb derivation is the verb stem formation. The verbal stems are derived by vocalic insertion, affixation and compounding.

The verbs are thus derived not simply by concatenation of affixes but also by non-concatenative derivational process one of which is infixation. That is, verb derivational process takes place root internally by inserting vowel between radicals. In the process of such root internal derivation, arrangement of radicals as well as the kind and number of vowels inserted between the radicals differ along with the difference in the verbal stem forms to be derived. The prototypical tri-radical type A perfective, imperfective, gerundive, jussive and imperative verbal stems, for instance, are derived in a template like $CV C_1 C_1VC-$, CVC_1C_2- , $CVCVC_1C_1-$, $-C_1C_2VC$ and $CVCVC-$ respectively.

In addition to vocalic insertion, different verb stems are derived by affixing different morphemes to different bases. The bases are mainly derived verbal stems and the derivative morphemes are uniformly prefixes. The affixes *a-*, *as-*, *t-*, *b-*, *n-* and *r-* are identified as verb derivative morphemes in the language. The *a-* and the *as-* morphemes are attached to different verbal stems to derive causative verbal stems as well as to derive actual verb stems from potential forms. Besides, the *a-* morpheme also derives the ajutative stem being attached to a base having the form $-C_1 C_1 a CC C-$. The *t-* morpheme is used to derive passive, reciprocal and reflexive verbal stems. The morpheme attaches to different transitive base stems to drive the respective verbal stems. In the derivation, the // in *t-* is truncated and the /t/ assimilates to the first radical of the base stem except in cases where the initial radical is /h,,/. The morphemes *b-*, *n-* and *r* uniformly combine with quadri-radical potential stem forms to derive an actual intransitive verbal stem.

The third means of verbal stem derivation is compounding. The first element in the compound is categorically unspecified and commonly has CVC_1C_1- form. The second element is however the verbal stem *al-* ‘say’ and *gar-* ‘do, make’ for

intransitive and transitive verbal stem derivation respectively.

In sum, Argobba verbal stems are mainly derived by infixation, affixation and compounding. It seems that the verbs have root, stem and word levels.

Nazareth Amlesom
University of Bergen, Norway

Object Symmetry/Asymmetry in Tigrinya Applicative Constructions

This paper will analyze symmetry and asymmetry behavior of objects in Tigrinya applicative constructions. Crosslinguistically there has been identified two types of applicatives, namely symmetric and asymmetric. In symmetric applicative the verbal object (VO) and the applied object (AO) display similar syntactic properties, whereas in the asymmetric applicative only the AO shows primary object syntactic property. Within the LFG (Lexical-Functional Grammar) framework there exist extensive studies that investigate the asymmetry property of objects in Bantu applicative constructions (Bresnan, J. and Moshi, L. 1993; Alsina A. and Mchombo, S., 1993; Harford, C. 1993). Outside Bantu languages, little work has been done to describe the properties of objects in applicative constructions. Likewise, there haven't been any studies that investigate Tigrinya applicative constructions. The applicative phenomenon is a very pervasive morphosyntactic operation in Tigrinya. Tigrinya displays a mixed property of its objects in applicative constructions. Tigrinya appears to be an asymmetric language with respect to recipient applicatives where both arguments with theme and recipient, or theme/patient and locative thematic roles show primary object behavior when subjected to certain syntactic tests. On the other hand, with respect to beneficiary and instrumental applicatives only VO, that is the object with the theme thematic role reveals primary object property. This type of asymmetry seems to be different from what is observed crosslinguistically, which in many cases it is the AO which reveals primary object property. Therefore, this paper aims to explain this variation and to suggest a single parameter of variation for the two types of applicatives found in Tigrinya in order to facilitate the mapping of syntactic function to their respective semantic roles.

Nana Aba Appiah Amfo
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Noun Phrase Conjunction in Akan: the grammaticalization path

In a number of languages, including Hausa (Chadic), Ga (Kwa), Ewe (Kwa), noun phrase connectives tend to have comitative verbal origins. Akan (Niger-Congo, Kwa) is no exception. However the dialectal variation that exists at present in the area of noun phrase conjunction is quite significant. In the Fante dialect the grammaticalization process of the form *nye* from comitative verb to noun phrase connective is not quite complete, this is evidenced by the amount of verbal morphology still present with the use of this linguistic item. Even though there is hardly any verbal inflection when this form is used in the positive polarity, in negative utterances *nye* is ungrammatical without the negative prefix and it takes on other tense-aspect affixes such as the completive aspect. On the other hand, the lack of

verbal inflection on its Asante counterpart is an indication that in this dialect the form *ne* has completely evolved into a coordinating connective. Thus whereas the Fante utterance in (1) is acceptable with the negation morpheme on both ‘verbs’, the Twi version in (2) is only grammatical without any morphological marking on *ne*.

(1) Kweku n-nye no n-te.
Kweku NEG-COM him NEG-stay
‘Kweku doesn’t stay with him.’

(2) Kweku ne no n-te.
Kweku CONJ him NEG-stay
‘Kweku does not stay with him’

This paper attempts to trace the grammaticalization path of the noun phrase connective, highlighting the significant dialectal differences existing between two major dialects: Fante and Twi. These differences are not just restricted to the morphology of these lexical items, but they are also reflected in their semantics and pragmatics. The paper suggests that whereas the evolution from verb to connective is complete in Twi, the Fante form *nye* still functions essentially as a comitative verb. It is thus not surprising that Twi has a single lexical item for the purpose of conjoining noun phrases. This allows for a high reliance on contextual information in determining whether a noun phrase conjunction in Twi is comitative or coordinative. On the contrary, the Fante speaker has a choice between two lexical items, *na* and *nye*, when conjoining noun phrases, with the latter having a specialized comitative function. In tracing the grammaticalization path, it is noted that, for Akan, the origin of the noun phrase connective goes beyond that of a comitative verb to an identificational copula verb. Thus Akan could be added to Stassen’s (2000, 2003) list of languages, including Korean, Choctaw and Classical Mongolian, which may have derived their noun phrase connectives from the verb ‘to be’.

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Multiscriptal Literacy in Eritrea: Acquisition and Use of Ge’ez, Latin and Arabic Scripts in Society and School

As a result of its mother tongue policy, Eritrea offers elementary schooling in the nine different languages of the ethno-linguistic groups of the country. These languages, originating from different language families, are written in three writing systems (the full Latin alphabet, the consonantal-alphabetic Arabic script and the syllabic Ge’ez script) that differ in the representation of linguistic units, in graphic form and in orthographic complexity. Within one national curriculum, children learn two to three languages and scripts. This sociolinguistic reality offers a unique opportunity to conduct an interdisciplinary (educational-linguistic and socio-cultural) comparative

study on multiscriptal literacy acquisition and use. The study deals with four aspects of literacy in Eritrea: use, instruction, skills and learning processes. It uses multiple research methods such as survey, expert interview, document analysis, quasi-experimental study and ethnographic techniques.

In our contribution, we will primarily discuss the results from a sociolinguistic survey, conducted with 670 adults, focusing on relationships between respondents' uses and attitudes regarding literacy and background factors such as religion, gender, ethno-linguistic identity and education. Regarding the uses of literacy, we look into a variety of social domains such as work, home, leisure, religion and citizenship. Secondly, on the basis of the classroom studies that we are conducting, we will discuss similarities and differences in instruction methods in teaching the three scripts. Finally we will briefly go into comparing learning processes and into evaluating literacy skills in Ge'ez, Latin and Arabic.

Jonathan Brindle

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Rethinking the identification of noun class and gender: evidence from Chakali

Recent studies on nominal classification have proposed that the notion of *noun class* and gender should be fused (terminologically) since they both refer to the same grammatical construct (typologically). The claim receives empirical support in Corbett (1991); Aronoff (1994); Maho (1999); Senft (2000); Corbett and Fraser (2000); Corbett (2006), among other works. The fusion results in a term called gender (Corbett, 1991) which is defined solely on agreement. That is, a language has gender *iff* the language shows systematic covariation of grammatical forms. Other scholars however have claimed their non-synonymy (Reynolds, 1989, pg 38) or rejected gender altogether (Amidu, 1997, pg 5). The paper presents a support for the distinction between gender and *noun class* by providing data from the language Chakali (ISO/DIS 639-3: cli.), an endangered and poorly documented language of Ghana, in which both grammatical constructs seem to be at work. First, Chakali has five domains in which agreement can be observed (antecedent-anaphor, possessive-noun, numeral-noun, demonstrative-noun, quantifier-noun). The feature shared is HUMAN, dichotomizing the lexicon of nominals into a set a of signs that are HUMAN-marked and b the complement of that set (i.e. GE NDE R a v b). Second, Chakali nouns are classified according to which NUMB E R suffixes they take (i.e. pairs of *sg* and *pl* forms). I refer to this classification as 'noun class' following the traditional terminology. Chakali has five noun classes. Crucially, I will show that (i) "humanness" is cross-classified in the noun classes due to the loss of the semantically-based assignments, and (ii) that while *ba*;3 . P L . HUM+ (omnipresent in the phylum) is the only surface form of targets, *ba* is not one of the suffixal forms of any noun classes. The relevance of the present work lies in the observation that a linguistic system can display at some stages both *gender* and *noun class* and that these two sorts of classification work on their own. In a related vein, Tchagbalé (2006) shows the statuses of the feature GE NDE R in three Gur languages (Tem, Koulango and Moore) and discuss the role played by "les affixes du substantif" in each language. However Tchagbalé does not explicitly make a distinction between *gender* and *noun class*, something that seems to be in order for Chakali and possibly other languages at a similar stage.

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Cross-Cultural Refusals in American English and Mandarin Chinese

As Kasper (1990) noted, there is a need to conduct more studies to address potential inter-lingual variation to obtain a better understanding of cross-cultural aspects of speech act performance. This study investigated refusal strategies used by adult Mandarin-Chinese speakers in Taiwan and American English speakers, and to explore the effect of the type of initiating acts (e.g. refusals to requests or refusals to invitations) on their strategy use. Forty American English speakers and forty Mandarin Chinese speakers participated in this study. The study was carried out using Discourse Completion Tests (DCT) embedded with three refusal situations. Participants were asked to write down how they refused, and their responses were coded and analyzed based on the taxonomy proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). Refusal strategies can be classified into Direct and Indirect main categories. In the latter case, eleven substrategies were included. The results showed that Americans (325) and Taiwanese Mandarin Chinese speakers (256) differ significantly in terms of overall frequency of refusal strategies. For both groups, indirect strategies were a preferred choice for making refusals, which seem to support the universal claim in the literature. Secondly, cross-cultural variations can be found in the use of the subcategories of indirect refusals. While Mandarin Chinese speakers in Taiwan use more apology (e.g. I am sorry) to refuse indirectly, Americans have higher frequencies in offering alternative, setting conditions for future/past acceptance and dissuading interlocutors to make indirect refusals. In terms of the effect of the type of initiating acts on refusal strategies, both groups show sensitivity to different types of initiating acts, and the highest frequency of overall refusal strategies (i.e. direct refusals plus indirect refusal) or the use of indirect refusal can be found in a refusal to a request situation, followed by refusals to an invitation; the lowest frequency is in a refusal to someone's suggestion. Although there was no significant

difference in the use of direct refusals, we found that a higher use of direct refusal in invitations than in requests, or in suggestions for both groups. The reason might be due to the fact that issuing and accepting an invitation places speaker (S) and hearer (H)'s face at risk. For an inviter to issue an invitation, he presents his positive face to the invitee for an approval. So, if the invitee refuses to accept the inviter's invitation, the inviter might feel losing face. On the other hand, to accept an invitation is face-risking and the invitee may be seen as being greedy. Therefore, a higher frequency of direct refusal is found in invitations (e.g. Gu, 1990; Zhang, 1995). Significant differences can be found in substrategies of indirect refusals for Americans and Taiwanese as well. Using apology and reasons are frequent in a refusal to requests than in invitations or suggestions for both groups. However, American people tend to set condition for future promise to refuse indirectly of a request whereas Taiwanese Mandarin speakers tend to use avoidance in refusing a suggestion.

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Aspect in French deverbal nouns

Aspect is mostly discussed with regards to the category of verbs and indicates the internal temporal structure of an event. For example, an inchoative aspect express the start of an event; the progressive that an event is ongoing; the terminative the end of an event. In French, the inchoative aspect is normally associated with the prefix *en-* as in *s'endormir* (to fall to sleep), the suffixe *-ir* as in *verdir* (to become green) and with different auxiliary verbs. A typical example of the latter is the expression *se mettre à* or *en* ('to begin') added to a noun like in *se mettre à l'oeuvre* (to begin the task) and in *se mettre en route* (to get going, take off), or added to a verb like in *se mettre à parler* (to begin to talk). In my ongoing PhD-project I examine, among other things, inchoative aspect conveyed in a certain type of French deverbal nouns. I focus on nouns that are built around a common feature, i.e. the noun *mise* and the preposition *en*, where *mise* is the nominalization of the verb *mettre*. This nominal structure can thus be expressed as <DET *mise en* NP>, signifying a multilexical noun that has a *determinative*, the feminine noun *mise*, the preposition *en* followed by a noun phrase NP. In this paper I will show how some nouns of this type seem to convey an aspectual value similar to that of the verbal expressions *se mettre à* and *se mettre en*.

Preliminary studies indicate that inchoative aspect in the nominal structure <DET *mise en* NP> is related to the type of noun occupying the function as NP. More precisely this seems to be the case when NP is represented by a deverbal noun and in particular those containing one of the suffixes *-age*, *-ment*, or *-tion* that are typical in French for denoting movement. To my knowledge there seem to have been little or no study on this particular nominal form in recent years. In my opinion, this may be related the way <DET *mise en* NP> is perceived: not as a noun, but as a *nominalization* of a verb and thus intrinsically a verbal form. By this I don't mean to dispute the fact that there is a link between *mise* and *mettre*. However, being a well-used and a very typical French lexical structure, there may be more to say about the nominal structure <DET *mise en* NP> than what is stated in French dictionaries: every *mise en...* derives from a verbal equivalent *mettre en...*

Impersonal Passive in Kestaninya

The objective of this paper is to investigate the impersonal passive in Kestaninya, one of Gurage languages. Kestaninya belongs to the South-Ethio-Semitic languages. SOV is the basic word order in the language. The verb shows agreement with both the subject and the object NPs.

The fact that impersonal passive construction does not allow the promotion of the active patient object to the passive subject, it is often considered as a typical feature of intransitive verbs which lacks patient object argument in their active form (Comrie 1977, Kroeger 2004). But in Kestaninya the data revealed that the language makes extensive use of impersonal for the expression of the passive regardless of verb type. In the following examples the (a) sentence shows the active sentence and the (b) or both (b) and (c) sentence/s presents its impersonal passive counterpart/s.

1. (a) bayoč-i dərs dərəs-mun
 boys- Def. dance dance-3.m.pl. SM
 'the boys danced (the dance)'
- (b) dərs dərəs-ut
 dance dance-3.m.s. SM
 'dance was danced '
2. (a) gerəd-i yə- anggac'-i wək'k'-at-ut
 girl-Def. ACC-cat-Def. hit-3.f.s. SM-3.m.s.OM
 'The girl hit the cat'
- (b) anggac'-i wək'k'-ot
 cat-DEF hit-3.m.s.SM
 'The cat was hit '
3. (a.) Kassa yə -Zennu ?əwjə wod-ə-nat
 Kassa PRE.-Zennu news tale-3.m.s.SM-3.f.s.OM
 'Kassa told news to Zennu'
- (b) (ye)-Zennu ?əwjə wod-wat
 Zennu news tale-3.f.s. SM
 'Zennu was told news '
- (c) ?əwjə wod-ut
 news tale-3.m.s.SM
 'news was told '

We saw in the above examples that like that of Latvian and Classic Arabic (Kroeger 2004), the passive agent cannot be expressed at all. In the impersonal passive expression the grammatical structure gives emphasis for the action performed rather than the actor or the receiver of the action.

As it appeared in (3 a & b), active sentences with ditransitive verbs has two impersonal passive counterparts. Both the indirect and direct objects has emphasised and marked for their agreement in (3a) and (3b) consecutively. In all the above examples, the object suffix pronouns are added to the verb form for the expression of the logical subject of the impersonal passive.

In general this paper discussed main changes in the assignment of grammatical relations, the morphological affixations and some other issues related to impersonal passive construction in Kestaninya.

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Linguistic analysis of advertising texts of technology products in French and Finnish markets

This study focuses on advertisements of technology products in French and Finnish markets. The objective is to study how the relationship between the advertiser, the consumer and the technology product is textually organised in two different cultural contexts. Consumers experience to diverse extends fear, uncertainty and doubt towards new or improved technology products and the possible benefits they might offer (Mohr, 2001). Therefore, the ability to communicate comprehensively the features and benefits of the technology products is of particular importance in their advertising. The importance of language as part of effective advertising message has been acknowledged in marketing literature (Agrawal, 1995; Hite *et al.*, 1990; Melewar *et al.*, 1999), however, little is known in general about the advertising of technology products in current literature (Singh *et al.*, 2001).

In this study global and local conditions of business meet with one another; products can be purchased all over the world but their advertising and selling takes place via local media in local languages and consumer markets. Different linguistic units can function as linguistic strategies intended and constrained by restrictions, rules or norms of the specific communication situation (Charaudeau, 2002), which applies also to the advertising texts. Various linguistic means come into play between the advertiser and the consumer such as the choice of pronouns and the degree of formality (Mühlhäusler *et al.*, 1990; Pires, 2004; Smith, 2004), the apparent uniqueness of the consumer (Myers, 1994), the use of adverbs (Garric, 1996), and cultural sensitivity (Six, 2005). Hence, this study centres at the linguistic strategies used in advertising texts of technology products to build the relationship between the advertiser and the consumer as well as the consumer and the technology product.

This study is based on a French stream of discourse analysis – theory of enunciation, *théorie de l'énonciation* (Benveniste, 1982; Fisher, 1999; Kerbrat-

Orecchioni, 1980; Maingueneau, 1981, 1994, 2000). A specificity of the ‘French tendency’ in discourse analysis is to focus on the characteristics of linguistic units in addition to their discursive functions (Maingueneau, 2002), thus combining in the analytical approach the communication situation and textual organization.

The corpus is formed by of advertising texts of technology products (e.g. mobile phones, digital cameras, camcorders, CD and DVD players, photocopiers) from France and Finland between 1991 and 2005. The French corpus has been collected from two magazines *L’Express* and *Le Nouvel Observateur* and the Finnish corpus from several monthly reviews *Helsingin Sanomat kuukausiliite, Talouselämä*, and *Tekniikan Maailma*. The preliminary results indicate for example that a different role is attributed to the consumer in the French and the Finnish advertisements which accentuates their divergent relationships with the technology product. The French advertisement creates an impression of the product acting on behalf of the consumer offering services. By contrast, in the Finnish advertisements the consumer is given a distinctive role as an active user of the product.

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[Constricted Glottis] in T3 in Beijing Mandarin

How many phonological features do we need to represent the third tone (T3) in Mandarin? The most substance free approach will be Yip (2002)’s proposal, which represent the 214 as a single feature L. I argue that this seemingly substance free phonology leads to unnatural phonological process in T3 Sandhi. Phonological features are what phonological constraints/rules are operating with. A set of features HL and [constricted glottis], looks as if they were substance ‘non-free’, leads to more elegant phonological process; therefore, should be considered as part of phonological features. Substance free should not be associated with the amount of phonetic information, less feature than necessary is just as bad as using phonetic features as phonological features.

Despite the acoustic experiment result (Kong 2001), the phonation feature [creaky] T3 in Beijing Mandarin has been considered as a co-articulation effect or an enhancement effect, but not as a phonological feature (Yip, 2006). However, we should consider phonation type creaky voice as a realization of the phonological feature [constricted glottis] that links to the level tone L in T3.

T3 Sandhi 214→35/_214 (in cyclic T3S, the first step of this Sandhi operation) is a tonal sandhi operating under non-unified syntactic conditions. I ignore the ones, listed in Chen (2000), that have to be operated under certain syntactic condition.

If the phonological representation for T3 (214) were HLH (Yip 1980, Duanmu 1990, among others), and the T3 Sandhi is a pure phonological operation, then HLH+HLH →LH HLH violates the OCP constraint (Obligatory Contour Principle, Leben 1973, McCarthy 1986, Yip 1988, 1998, 2002). Because nothing helps with explaining why after dissimilation, we arrived at deleting the remote H and left with two adjacent HH.

Yip (2002)'s proposal for considering T3S as L+L→LH.L is also not preferable. First, it looks like an insertion of H, which looks like as if T2 is more complex than T3. But the phonetic reality is just the opposite: T3 has a longer duration than T2 and it has a creaky voice that T2 doesn't. The mapping of phonetics to phonology will become problematic. Secondly, the phonology elegance is established on the sacrifice of phonetic reality/perceptual clue, which leads to a puzzle: why the 'simplex' T3 is acquired late. Above all, no other phonological process in this language requires H insertion.

T3 having an extra [constricted glottis] feature: T3= {LH, [constricted glottis]}, T2={LH} (i.e. T3⊃T2). The reason for the LH in T3 is lower than that in T2 (LH (T3)=24, while LH(T2)=35) is due to co-articulation effect of the larynx lowering in producing a creaky voice.

[c-g] is segmental features associated with L. Therefore, it explains why OCP only operating on [c-g].

I propose a constraint OCP [C-G]. It predicts the inexistence of LL in Mandarin and triggers T3S. The present modal also gives birth to other tones in Beijing Mandarin. T1 (55) is a HH and doesn't have any [c-g] associated with it. T2 (35) is LH without [c- g]. T4 (51) is a pair of <H, L-[c-g]>.

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Semantic Mirrors and Connectives

In this paper I will report from an ongoing PhD project on French argumentative connectives and how the "Semantic Mirrors" method is used on a French-Norwegian parallel corpus to extract semantic knowledge about these connectives. The "Semantic Mirrors" method has been used on a number of word categories, but to my knowledge it's never been used on connectives. The main goal of this part of the project is to identify as many as possible of the logical-semantic instructions the selected connectives can have. Using this method, another goal is to find out if the "Semantic mirrors" method can be useful in the study of these words.

Every connective has a finite set of inherent logical-semantic instructions. Logical-semantic instructions should be understood as a connective's inherent instructions. These instructions indicate how to find and interpret its arguments as well as how the combination of the arguments should be understood. In this context *argument* refers to the semantic content of the text sequences that the connective is linking.

This part of the study is carried out in several stages. First the French-Norwegian/Norwegian-French translations in the OMC-corpus (see <http://www.hf.uio.no/ilos/OMC/>) are used to compare the instructions of the French connectives and the instructions of their Norwegian translations. The OMC-corpus is then used to find French translations of the Norwegian connectives identified in stage one. This procedure will be repeated three times. Finally the instructions of the original French connective are compared with the instructions of the connectives in the French translations. This comparison will shed light on why some connectives may be substituted in one context but not in others. I follow a hypothesis according to

which the original French connective and each of the mirrored French translations are likely to have at least one logical-semantic instruction in common. These results will serve as a starting point to further qualitative studies on the logical-semantic instructions of the selected connectives.

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'Canté' and 'he cantado' in the spoken language of La Paz, Bolivia.

The vast majority of Spanish grammars that give an account of the so-called standard Spanish are based on observations of Spanish as it is spoken in Spain. Consequently, Latin-American variants of Spanish are virtually excluded as grounds for developing a theoretical framework for Spanish grammars. In my Ph.D. dissertation I will focus on verb tenses in particular, since it has been observed (Quesada Pacheco, Lope Blanch, Moreno de Alba) that a considerable number of them vary greatly in usage and hence in temporal and aspectual content throughout the Spanish-speaking world. I will make use of a linguistic corpus of spoken Spanish from La Paz, Bolivia and analyse the aspectual and temporal contents of the various verb forms that appear there.

What I propose to present at the Ph.D. conference in June are the results of a preliminary analysis of the opposition between the two Spanish verb tenses *el indefinido*: 'canté' (I sang) and *el pretérito perfecto compuesto*: 'he cantado' (I have sung) in La Paz. The latter verb form in particular displays clearly disparate temporal and aspectual senses throughout the Spanish-speaking world, specifically with regard to oppositions between Spain and Latin-America (temporal meaning in Spain, and aspectual meaning in Latin-America), but also within the Latin-American continent (Quesada Pacheco, 2003).

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Towards a definition and classification of formulaic language for treatment within computer-assisted translation

KEYWORDS: computer-assisted translation tools, formulaic language, idiomatic expressions, idioms, technical translation

Though much literature has appeared on idioms and idiomatic expressions in the past few decades, the related (but not equivalent) concept of formulaic language, as defined by Wray (2002), has received scarce treatment by comparison. The few authors who have written specifically on formulaic language have not elaborated upon its incidence in technical texts, let alone its subjection to computer-assisted translation tools, as defined by Quah (2006). Therefore, our central research question is the recognition of formulaic language by CAT-tools.

The first component of the research question is to try and define what a formulaic expression is. In order to be able to identify such expressions in technical texts, our working definition includes five parameters, by which a potential sequence might be recognized as formulaic: prefabrication, frozenness in word order, restricted exchangeability of component words, conventionalization and non-compositional meaning. These five parameters will be discussed in more detail and it is expected that, for a sequence to be considered formulaic, it would ideally follow all of these parameters, whether to a greater or lesser degree.

The second component is to establish a possible typology of formulaic expressions, from the specific point of view of CAT. Our working classification takes into account the main problems in computer handling of formulaic expressions and the fact that the component words may not be found in adjacent positions within the sentence. It will also take into account that computers deal differently with a whole sentence than with a portion of a sentence, and that some formulaic expressions, like wet paint or handle with care, are pragmatic in nature.

The method followed to test the usefulness of our definition and classification was to search for potential formulaic expressions in an electronic English-Spanish 'purpose-built' parallel corpus of technical texts of just over 400,000 words in total. This represents about 20 weeks' work for a translator based on a professional average. It will be shown that one of the results of this study is that in a corpus of this size formulaic expressions occur relatively frequently and that, by applying our working definition and classification, borderline expressions were able to be included in our database (as formulaic) or excluded (as general language expressions) in a considerably accurate way compared to what we would have expected had such procedures not been followed.

The results should ideally determine which characteristics of CAT are essential for the treatment of formulaic language and which features, if any, are missing. Finally, it is expected that this will not only lead to improvements in the overall quality of the translation - and production - of technical texts, but also that it will represent another step towards the full representation of such an elusive and remarkably complex phenomenon as formulaicity.

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Poetic pronouns: textual functions of the French ON

In this talk I will present an analysis of the pronominal semantics in *L'excès – l'usine* by the French author Leslie Kaplan, a poetic text¹ exploring the experience of factory work. Linguistically, the text is characterised by an important frequency of the French personal pronoun ON² and the aim of my analysis is to explore the contribution of ON to the text seen as a whole, as well as the range of semantic values of ON used in this particular text.

I will argue that *L'excès – l'usine* is characterized by an interaction between the use of personal pronouns and the textual representation of spatial structures. In a more general sense the analysis of this text could be an illustration of the mutual influence of linguistic micro phenomena, such as pronominal semantics, and linguistic macro phenomena, such as textual representation of space. This hypothesis is investigated by a two-way movement: firstly the semantics of the French pronoun ON is used as an entry point to examine its role in the construction of structures governing the text as a system, more specifically the spatial structures at work in the text, secondly the text is seen as a global context governing local features such as personal pronouns.

This analysis will then be considered in relation to the semantics of personal pronouns in general. Their semantics is traditionally analysed in terms of reference. I will argue that this analysis is insufficient and that it needs to be complemented by contextual and interpretative approaches. Furthermore, I will claim that the notion of context should be extended to the text and the genre. The semantics of pronouns then, should in my view be analysed in the context of textual genre.

Selected references

- Fløttum, K., K. Jonassen & C. Norén (forthcoming) *ON - pronom à facettes*.

¹ Although ON has been analysed previously in the perspective of the influence of the textual genre (see for example Fløttum, K., K. Jonassen & C. Norén) the study I will present is, to my knowledge, the first on the use of ON in poetry.

² The semantics of ON ranges from the personal (corresponding to the English *I/we*) to the indefinite (corresponding to *one*). For more on ON as well as a review of existing literature, see Fløttum, K., K. Jonassen & C. Norén (forthcoming).

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De-constructing a construction: A generative analysis of the early Irish 'passive.'

This paper aims to provide an analysis of the early Irish so-called passive construction. In the on-going discussion on the status of passive as opposed to impersonal constructions (see Maling & Sigurjónsdóttir 2002 and Blevins 2003), the passive is seen as a construction where the external argument of the clause is in some sense prevented from appearing as the subject. In this light, the early Irish 'passive,' as presented by Thurneysen (1998), seems ambiguous, leading e.g. Müller (1999:18-19) to see it as a mixed passive/impersonal inflection.

The following examples illustrate this: In the active clause in 1), the object 'me' is expressed by the infix pronoun -m-, while the verbal ending expresses the third person plural pronominal subject. In the 'passive' clauses in 2) on the other hand, the patient is expressed in the verbal ending in the third person, but with an infix pronoun in the first and second person. Example 3 illustrates a 'passive' of an unaccusative verb.

- 1) ní-m-charat-sa
 NEG-1SG-love.3PL-EMPHATIC
 'they do not love me'

2)

no-m-charthar PARTICLE-1SG-love.PASS 'I am loved'	no-t-charthar PARTICLE-2SG-love.PASS 'you are loved'	carthair love.PASS.3SG 's/he is loved'
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- 3) tíagair cuccu (Müller 1999:18)
 go.PASS to.them
 'someone goes to them'

If we choose to see language as a mental object, language changes can be seen as instantaneous, in the sense that they take place when a child acquires a different grammar than the generation before her. It follows from this view that there are more than one change involved in the early Irish 'passive' and its gradual shift towards an impersonal construction. This paper proposes to deconstruct in this light the construction as described above, and look at how its ambiguous state as a mixed passive/impersonal is brought about by other changes in the language, such as developments in the pronominal system (Müller 1999:18-19, Hansson 2004:22). Such an investigation, done in the framework of Lexical-Functional Grammar (LFG), will both contribute to our understanding of early Irish, which in terms of syntax has been largely overlooked, and it will provide a basis for further study of the diachronic development which resulted in the modern Irish impersonal construction.

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"The glossing of the verbal arguments in the Códice Emilianense 60"

This paper discusses whether the marking of verbal arguments in *the Códice Emilianense 60* reflects syntactico-semantic factors. The findings may contribute to establishing the typology of verb alignment in Late Latin/Early (Ibero-)Romance.

It has been claimed (Plank 1985) that in the development from the accusative-nominative pattern of Latin to the neutral pattern of the Romance languages, Late Latin went through a stage of an active-inactive pattern, i.e. a pattern in which the subjects of the unaccusative and the unergative intransitives were coded differently according to the level of activity in the subject. The inactive subjects of unaccusatives were coded as objects and received the accusative case. The active subjects of unergatives were coded as subjects of transitive clauses and received the nominative case. This paper studies the glossing of verbal arguments in the *Glosas Emilianenses* with this hypothesis in mind.

The *Glosas Emilianenses* are the earliest known example of Ibero-Romance, as they probably date from the 11th century. Some of the glosses are declinations of the Latin relative pronoun *qui* that either glosses the arguments already present in the text or introduce new ones. Several places in the text the arguments are glossed in an unexpected way according to Classical criteria. The aim of the paper is to analyse whether the glossing is influenced by syntactico-semantic factors, such as split intransitivity, or whether other functional or formal features are decisive. It is argued that the glosses cannot merely be explained as marking case or syntactic function of the argument. It is further argued that the glosses may be interpreted to indicate the existence of an active-inactive pattern, albeit on the verge of disappearing.

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Proving Macro-Areal Relationships using a Genetically Stratified Language Sample for Basic Word Order Typology

One of the most pressing question in linguistic typology today is the status of areal and macro-areal relationships. Macro-areal relationships may be defined as areal relationships that extend to continent size areas and are thought to be rooted in prehistoric contact. On the world-level, current opinion follows various admirable works by Dryer, who was perhaps the first to back up the existence of macro-areal

relationships with evidence. However, this position can be strengthened, because Dryer used a particular selection of macro-areas (the continents of the world), his sample was not complete in the sense that it did not feature members from each known language family in the world, and, in fact, it was not a sample at all in the orthodox sense, i.e. it did not select languages at random but selected languages whose description was accessible and then divided those into strata posteriorly – this could have areal implications!

We will propose a new, more rigid, methodology and show that macro-areas exist, at least when it comes to basic word order. A genetically stratified sample was constructed as follows. One language was sampled at random from each attested language family in the world. The genetic classification used is that of Hammarström (2006). It features 346 attested families, 47 of which were judged not to be described (in publication) enough to assure their basic word order. Also lack of published data meant that 26 languages had to be substituted for their linguistically nearest neighbour. Results are in Table 1.

To assess the existence of areal relationships, first, all the NODATA entries are pragmatically disregarded. This leaves 299 sampled languages. For each such language l , and each $1 \leq i \leq 299$, define its nearest *neighbour set* $N_{Ni}(l)$ as the i languages of the sample (including l), closest to l by geographic bird distance. (Each such set $N_{Ni}(l)$ represents a potential sprachbund centered at l .) Now, for each i , we may measure how much the observed N_{Ni} 's in the world differ from the expected distribution of the 299 observed word-order points, if they were given a random spread onto the world. This difference is statistically significant ($p < 0.001$) for exactly $2 \leq i \leq 71$. Since these differences can't be explained as being due to genetic inheritance, at least not by such genetic relations that can be discovered by the comparative method, they suggest that areal relationships are real and that they can extend to larger-than-continent-size areas.

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	Africa	Eurasia	M Amer.	N Amer.	Non-Papuan Oceania	Papua	S Amer.	Total
SOV	13 41.9%	24 80.0%	3 21.4%	25 44.6%	7	54 65.8%	51 49.0%	177 51.1%
SVO	11 35.4%	3 10.0%	2 14.2%	2 3.5%	4	12 14.6%	14 13.4%	48 13.8%
NODATA	2 6.4%	2 6.6%	2 14.2%	5 8.9%	4	13 15.8%	19 18.2%	47 13.5%
NODOM	0 0.0%	1 3.3%	1 7.1%	13 23.2%	12	2 2.4%	3 2.8%	32 9.2%
VSO	5 16.1%	0 0.0%	2 14.2%	7 12.5%	0	1 1.2%	5 4.8%	20 5.7%
VOS	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	2 14.2%	2 3.5%	1	0 0.0%	3 2.8%	8 2.3%
OVS	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 7.1%	0 0.0%	1	0 0.0%	4 3.8%	6 1.7%
VSO/VOS	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 7.1%	1 1.7%	0	0 0.0%	3 2.8%	5 1.4%
SOV/OSV	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0	0 0.0%	1 0.9%	1 0.2%
OSV	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0	0 0.0%	1 0.9%	1 0.2%
SOV/SVO	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 1.7%	0	0 0.0%	0 0.0%	1 0.2%
	31 (4.4%)	30 (4.3%)	14 (2.0%)	56 (8.0%)	29 (4.1%)	82 (11.8%)	104 (15.0%)	346

Table 1: Basic word order statistics from a genetically stratified 346 language sample. It is a true sample in the sense that one language was selected at *random* from each stratum (family), except for 26 switches (see text). NODATA means that there was not sufficient published data in order to assess the word order of the given language, or any other language of that family (a lot of these are extinct poorly attested isolates). NODOM means that there was sufficient data on word order in the given language, but that there was no one/two order(s) that could be considered dominant on grounds of pragmatics or frequency.

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The Significance of 'Doing Bad' Linguistically

This paper aims to propose a way of understanding a certain linguistic practice found among young people in the city of Trondheim. Qualitative interviews with 24 Trondheimians aged 17–19 have revealed that a number of adolescents with native competence in Norwegian occasionally code-switch into what I call a *stylised (multi-)ethnolect*. The majority of the informants report that some of their peers at times use a speech style with features that indicate non-nativeness, even though they master a 'proper' Norwegian. This *crossing* (cf. Rampton 1995) into what is generally conceived of as a 'corrupt' or 'bad' Norwegian, is greatly frowned upon by some of the interviewees, whereas others speak of this conduct as a valuable tactic in certain contexts.

During the last decade studies in several urban speech societies have described this rather unanticipated linguistic demeanour (cf. Bijvoet 2002, Cutler 1999, Dirim & Auer 2004, Kotsinas 1992, *inter alia*), and there are more than a few suggestions on how it should be understood. In this paper, I will, by drawing on findings from my qualitative study, argue that the verbal 'doing bad' may be comprehended as part of a *street literacy* (cf. Cahill 2000) – an everyday competence that constitutes a highly valued cultural capital particularly in the urban street culture. My analysis is supported by recent sociological research (Sandberg 2005) which has found that symbols indicating *foreignness* are widely used by adolescents on the streets of Oslo in their *performing* or *self-staging*. By displaying features that connote a discourse of 'dangerous immigrants', the actors make themselves less exposed to fights and insults. In a social environment where reputation and image is of crucial significance, the stylised ethnolect is one of the key 'props' in the process of staging oneself as potentially belligerent and threatening. I thus conclude that speaking 'badly' might be seen as a strategy in the everyday negotiations of social positions and powers on the streets.

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Norsyg - a Norwegian syntax-based grammar

In this paper I present an implemented HPSG grammar for Norwegian, Norsyg (Norwegian syntax-based grammar). The grammar has been build during my period as a PhD student, and covers a wide range of syntactic phenomena such as basic clause structures, passive, presentation, coordination, raising and control, long distance dependencies, valence alternations and light pronouns. The grammar is implemented with the LKB system (Copestake 2000), which is a grammar engineering platform for implementing typed feature structure grammars, such as HPSG grammars.

The grammar has approximately 1200 types, a handwritten lexicon of 1486 entries and an automatically generated lexicon of 78817 entries. (The lexicon is derived from the Norwegian computational dictionary NorKompLeks (NKL).) The grammar has 53 syntactic rules and 49 inflectional rules.

Norsyg can be seen as consisting of three components. First, it employs a preprocessor, Ersatz, which by utilizing regular expressions recognizes numbers, email addresses and URLs, and separates punctuation marks. Second, it has an unknown word mechanism that assigns a general nominal type to the words that are not in the lexicon. And third, the grammar itself, which builds a parse chart of the strings that come through the first two components, and accepts as complete parses the structures that unify with one the four specified roots, and span over the whole string of words.

Norsyg has been tested on the 1000 first sentences of the collection of Norwegian sentences in the Leipzig corpus (<http://corpora.informatik.uni-leipzig.de/download.html>), where it parsed 28% of the sentences. The grammar has also been tested on a Wikipedia article (about operative systems, 219 sentences). The results of this test are given in Table 1, and show that the grammar parses 71 (32.4%) of the sentences. A manual check reveals that 16 of the parsed sentences did not get the appropriate analysis, which means that the grammar gives a correct analysis to 55 of the 219 sentences (25.1%).

'operativ-06-11-27-30000-2' Coverage Profile				
Aggregate	total items #	distinct analyses #	total results #	overall coverage %
$65 \leq i\text{-length} < 70$	1	0.00	0	0.0
$40 \leq i\text{-length} < 45$	3	0.00	0	0.0
$35 \leq i\text{-length} < 40$	3	0.00	0	0.0
$30 \leq i\text{-length} < 35$	8	0.00	0	0.0
$25 \leq i\text{-length} < 30$	22	0.00	0	0.0
$20 \leq i\text{-length} < 25$	27	86.00	1	3.7
$15 \leq i\text{-length} < 20$	41	143.67	9	22.0
$10 \leq i\text{-length} < 15$	57	88.10	20	35.1
$5 \leq i\text{-length} < 10$	40	8.38	29	72.5
$0 \leq i\text{-length} < 5$	17	1.17	12	70.6
Total	219	47.86	71	32.4

(generated by [incr tsdb()] at 29-nov-2006 (18:39 h))

Figure 1: Test of Norsyg on a Wikipedia article

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Syntactic and pragmatic properties of subordinate clauses in Old and Middle English

In this paper I will discuss the word order of subordinate clauses in Old English (OE), in particular with respect to the following questions:

1 What word order patterns do OE subclauses exhibit?

There exist numerous references to subordinate clause word order in OE (cf Smith 1893; Barrett 1952, Quirk & Wrenn 1957; Kohonen 1978; Bean 1983; Mitchell 1985; Traugott 1992, Davis & Bernhardt 2002), most of which point to the tendency for subordinate clauses to display SXV order, ie final position for the finite verb. To my knowledge, however, Barrett, Kohonen and Davis & Bernhardt are the only ones who have investigated OE subclauses empirically. Their studies are all based on a limited number of texts from religious prose. Apparently, therefore, there is a lack of quantitative studies on word order in OE subordinate clauses across different text types.

2 To what extent can word order patterns in OE be explained by pragmatic factors?

By pragmatic factors is meant first of all the information value (IV) of clause elements. Information value basically corresponds to the more widely used term givenness, meaning that an element with low IV has been mentioned in the preceding context, whereas a high IV element has not been mentioned previously.

Although several references have been made to the fact that word order in Old English is more susceptible to influence from the information value of elements than is the case in Modern English (see eg Firbas 1957; 1992, Jucker 1995, Bech 2001, Davis & Bernhardt 2002), quantitative studies exploring the nature and extent of this susceptibility are few and far between. The only such study taking subclauses into account is Kohonen 1978, which is based on a single OE text, viz Ælfric's Catholic Homilies.

In my analysis, elements are analysed as having either low or high IV. The main objective is to find out if and to what extent the IV of elements correlate with their p position in the clause in the various word order patterns.

The paper takes as its starting point empirical data used in my PhD project, data which indicate that subclauses in Old English may not be as predominantly verb-final as has previously been suggested. It is believed that the explanation for the word order variation observed must be sought partly in the information value of elements. My preliminary hypothesis, inspired by the ideas put forward by Pintzuk (1999), is that OE subclauses exhibit grammatical competition between two main word order patterns, verb-final and subject-verb. Further, I claim that the choice between these two patterns hinges largely on the pragmatic properties of clause elements.

Linguistic competency in an immersion class - a hybrid English or not?

Foreign language teaching has undergone a revolution with emphasis not only being placed on the pedagogical aspect of language, but also the role that each individual takes in order to enhance his/her progress, including learners' motivation and beliefs, which subsequently influence learning outcomes. "At its most basic level, motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something" (Harmer, 2001: p. 51). The type of motivation that students have when embarking on a language learning journey is important; it is nonetheless, not only governed by the individual but can also be influenced by external factors. For instance, society, significant others, teachers that impart the knowledge and methodologies employed. An argument put forward by Kohonen (2001: p. 2) is that, in order to learn a language, there are several vital governing factors that influence or result from emotions, and these arise from both a learner's personal and social environment. Thus, the aforesaid factors have a profound impact on a learner's linguistic attainment, though inconspicuous, are necessary qualities for learners to have, in order to develop the necessary linguistic proficiency (ibid.). These traits are not only shared by young learners but also by adult learners who come into a classroom with attitudes obtained from society: attitudes that have manifested over a period of time that may or may not be positive.

The role a teacher plays and the enthusiasm shown in a classroom will create a positive attitude, thus facilitating and motivating learners. Also the methodology employed should be conducive to learning. To quote Harmer (2001: p. 52):

... it is vital that both teacher and students have some confidence in the way of teaching and learning taking place. When either loses their confidence, motivation can be disastrously affected, but when both are comfortable with the method being used, success is much more likely.

In Shoaib and Dörnyei's (2005) research pertaining to adult students, they discovered that the highest de-motivating factors as envisaged by the subjects, were predominantly teachers and methodology.

In an immersion education programme, the research school where my longitudinal research took place, the choice to study in this programme has been a choice made entirely by the learners' parents. By enrolling their children in an English speaking class, it is regarded more as a social status rather than an informed choice. The parents view this as a way of providing linguistic skills in a high status language, the current global lingua franca, hence providing their children with more possibilities for future job prospects. Motivation results in success, therefore it is of significant importance that it is recognised and nurtured in order for learners to succeed. Living in a society with a whole plethora of gradations, it is an irrefutable fact that an individual's performance and ultimately motivation to learn a language, is largely affected in a positive or a negative way by several factors both in and outside the classroom. These factors vary from one individual to another and may include prejudices based on ethnicity, religious affiliations, peer pressure, relationships between learners and teachers, significant others and so on.

... the reality of classroom processes as experienced by learners themselves, for whom

wanting (or not wanting) to learn, or wanting (or not wanting) to speak the target language, is inextricably bound up with their relationships with their teacher and fellow learners, as well as significant others outside the immediate classroom context. (Ushioda 2003: p.90)

Parents could primarily play a vital role in nurturing this by implanting an idea early in childhood and then continually augment it in various ways like making trips to the country where the target language is spoken, establishing friends with native speakers of that language, and so on. As has been noted in numerous researches carried out, pertaining to French immersion programmes in Canada, the linguistic competence of Anglophone children attending these programs in contrast to their peers who had learned French as a subject in a mainstream school was inferior. Notwithstanding, some parents in the Canadian setting have been and continue to be instrumental to their children's linguistic development. As noted in my research, there are limited opportunities for the subjects to avail themselves of these possibilities so as to further enhance their linguistic competencies. An overwhelming majority of the children had never been to an English speaking country nor have they had contact with native speakers. Indeed, all the children come from non-English speaking backgrounds. Furthermore, their teacher is unaware of the culture which I believe is intertwined with language and she is not very confident in using English as a medium of instruction - a comment she conveyed to me personally. The only advantage and ample opportunities the learners have outside school are through the medium of television as all foreign programmes are not dubbed but subtitled. Thus, the language used by the learners is a variation of their own with linguistic features from their mother tongue, American English and pseudo Finnish/American accent - a type of multilingual hybrid. The learners have now realised that there is a disparity between their English and that of native speakers. Moreover, they are unable to convey their messages effectively i.e. let their voices be 'heard', nor are they able to understand a majority of spoken discourse on television without the aid of subtitles neither in normal conversation with a native speaker. Inasmuch as their parents regard the immersion programme as an opportune moment for their children, some learners consequently become despondent. Indeed, this apathy I believe is a key de-motivating factor that needs to be addressed as the linguistic proficiency of these children may be regarded as defective to a certain degree.

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Grammaticalization of temporality in second language learning

This study seeks to understand one of the most controversial topics in second language research (SLA): Cross-linguistic influence (also called language transfer or mother tongue/native language influence). Despite the massive empirical findings available, and despite the fact that most SLA researches acknowledge its effects upon second language acquisition, there exist no comprehensive theory that explains *when* and *why* this sort of influence takes place. In his state-of-the-art article, Terence Odlin (2003:467) stresses a *relativistic* approach in further studies of cross-linguistic influence. In my study, I answer Odlin's challenge and Dan Slobin's version of the linguistic relativity hypothesis is my theoretical point of departure.

Following Slobin (1996) our native language does not shape our thoughts, but it induces a special way of *thinking-for-speaking*. Thinking-for-speaking is the central core in Slobin's weakly relativistic hypothesis, and refers to the mental activity that goes on when producing a message. In the process of uttering, the native language speaker has to organize the experience in a way which both fit the communicative needs and the linguistic codes available in the language (Kellerman 1995: 138). Since the perceived reality can be described in different ways in different languages, the result is that the native language filters the way we perceive and talk about the world around us. This implies that different languages conceptualize experience differently, and that typological differences have cognitive implications. Identifying difficulties that learners have in acquiring a second language is one of the approaches Slobin regards as suitable for testing linguistic relativity (McNeill and Duncan 2000: 141). Certain linguistic differences between the learner's native language and the target language are not merely a question of different grammatical form or distribution, but involve a specific conceptualization. Studying cross-linguistic influence in this perspective corresponds to what Odlin (2005) labels conceptual transfer, and according to him, such studies are still at the exploratory stadium.

Temporality is one of the linguistic domains that entail such a specific conceptualization, and tense and aspect are held forward as examples of "thinking-for-speaking"-categories (Kellerman 1995: 140). In my project, I study the acquisition of the Norwegian tense-system in the interlanguage found in an electronic Norwegian learner corpus, *Norsk andrespråkskorpus (ASK)*. The Ask-corpus contains texts that are annotated for errors and the corpus also provides personal data about the learners. The main goal is to find out whether second language learners from typologically different languages, are bounded by their native language in their grammaticalization of temporality in Norwegian. The assumption is that the cognitive framework laid out by the native language, is to some extent unalterable, and that this will lead to error patterns that can be traced back to the typology of the native language. Norwegian is a tempus prominent language and aspect is not grammaticalized in the way that tense is. Both the preterite and perfect in Norwegian are important categories in the analysis of

the incorrect distribution of tense forms in the interlanguages. In order to predict the difficulties of different learner groups, thoroughly contrastive analyses have to be conducted to get insight into the way their native languages conceptualize temporality. The project is at the starting point, and in my paper I will focus on analyses and classification of temporality in Vietnamese and Somali. Furthermore, I will discuss predictions that can be drawn based on the contrastive analyses. Vietnamese and Somali are very different languages. While Vietnamese is an isolating language without inflectional morphology, Somali has a complex morphology and the temporal categories tense, aspect and mood are all grammaticalized.

This study represents a new direction in terms of cross-linguistic research. The contrastive analyses and the cognitive foundation underlying the research, will hopefully shed light of the complex matter of cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition. Moreover, it will conclude whether the theory of linguistic relativity can explain cases of transfer where explanations based on similarities, as the governing principle behind language transfer, fell short. This way, the study may both contribute to linguistic in general and to the study of factors that governs second language acquisition.

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Gender Issues in Oromo Proverbs

Keywords: Oromo, women, cultural violences.

This paper examines the cultural assumptions about women in relation to men in Ethiopian Oromo society as manifest in their *makmaaksa* 'proverbs'. For example a central assumption of proverb (1) is the acceptance of woman beating. Proverb (2) assumes such beating and as well the tradition in which a wife of one's brother is taken over as a wife upon his death. Proverb (3) reflects marriage by kidnapping girls and proverb (4) assumes the tradition by which girls undergo excision of the genitals and tonsils. In sum, the examples bring out assumptions behind the exercise of certain cultural practices, which reasonably might be considered violence against the women in the

society:

1. *Kakuun nadheenii amala; beekaani sanuu beekke gurra keessa kabala.*

Swearing by women habitual is; the wise man this knows and the ear on slaps.

‘As swearing by a woman is habitual, the wise man detects this and rightly slaps [her] on the ear.’ Or ‘Women are deceitful and men must punish them’

2. *Har`a dhaalee, har`a dhaane.*

Today he took her over; and today he beat [her].

‘Today he took her over the wife of his dead brother and on the same day he beat her’.

3. *“Oli jiroon na dide; gad jiroo natu dide; wal qixxeen wal dhabne; `aseenmaa natu dide; kennaa warratu dide; `utuu na butanii!” jette `intalli.*

The higher person me refused; the one that was lower I refused; with my equal, each other we could not find; elopement I refused; a proper marriage the family refused; if a man would abducted me I wish! said a girl.

“‘The higher person refused me; I refused the one that was lower; we could not find each other as equals; I refused elopement; the family refused a proper marriage; I wish he would abduct me!’ said a girl.’

4. *“Kaleessa dhaqna na qabani; har`a huuba qoonqoo na murani; ani qunxuraatti dhume!” jette `intalli.*

Yesterday my genitals they excised; today, my tonsils they clipped; with cutting finished I am’ said a girl.

“‘Yesterday, the parents mutilated my genitals; today, they clipped my tonsils; I am finished with cutting’” said a girl.’

There are a good number of such proverbs in the language, which makes the material valid as evidence of cultural assumptions.

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The state of Võro language and the effect of it on the acquisition of Võro as L1

It is still argued whether Võro, spoken in South-Estonia, is a dialect of Estonian or a distinct old Balto-Finnic language on its own. One is evident: since the beginning of 1990s, when all over the Europe the awakening of regional and minority languages took place, the status of Võro language has constantly risen as well. By now Võro language has reached mass media, schools, and public life.

On one hand the prestige of Võro is arising, but on the other hand the number of people speaking Võro abruptly drops from generation to generation. The number of speakers is considered to be approximately 40 000, but there can hardly be found more than a hundred children, who speak Võro as their L1. Because of the sociolinguistical situation, where the influence of Estonian is extremely strong, researching the acquisition of Võro language mostly means studying bilingual (Võro-Estonian) children.

The influence of Estonian is strong on all language levels – phonetic, grammatical and lexical. This is the reason why Võro language has become unsystematic: the same type of words or even the same word form can be used differently within the same text or even within the same clause.

The aim of the current presentation is to give an overview of the situation, where a child has to learn two closely related languages in an environment, where one language is strongly influenced by the other, and for this reason has become

unsystematic. The focus will be on phonological traits, which do not exist in Estonian, but are very intrinsic to Võro language:

- vowel harmony,
 - glottal stop,
 - rise of the mid overlong vowels.
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Syntactic variables in pupils' writings: a comparison of hand-written and PC-written texts

This paper presents preliminary results from a doctoral project whose aim is to compare the distribution of syntactic variables in pupils' texts that are hand-written and PC-written, respectively. The project studies texts written in Norwegian by Norwegian pupils. Not much research has been done on the syntactic properties of pupils' texts. Neither has the comparison of writing with text processing tools to hand-writing been a popular topic for research papers, although some work has been done on holistic text quality as a function of writing mode. Other forms of digital writing, such as SMS-ing, chat-group dialogues and email, have also been made subject to research. Results indicate that digital writing of these kinds may share some of the properties of prototypical spoken language; however, syntactic variables are to a very small extent taken into account in these investigations. The theoretical foundation of the project is therefore based on research on syntactic variation across different genres of spoken and written language. Biber (1988) and Halliday (e.g. 1989) suggest that time constraints on utterance production affect the syntax. Halliday claims that the increased time pressure results in less information dense and more syntactically complex constructions in speech (1) than in writing (2). Examples given for English are (ibid: 61):

(1) If you invest in a rail facility, this implies that you are going to be committed for a long term.

(2) Investment in a rail facility implies a long-term commitment.

Quantitatively, this typically results in more subordination, a lower type/token ratio and a lower lexical density. Biber's analyses have more nuances to them, but like Halliday, he correlates properties of similar kinds with spontaneous language production. Moreover, a study from the 1960's concludes that faster writing/typing modes correlate with variables often associated with speech.

My hypothesis is that in writing which takes place over a relatively short period of time, the keyboard, being the faster production mode, will produce texts which display properties which Biber assigns to the more spontaneous genres.

This paper presents preliminary results from a pilot project of 40 texts written by 20 pupils in grade 11. The pupils were given two assignments each, so that each pupil has produced one text in either mode and each assignment has resulted in 10 texts of either mode. Each text has been produced within a time frame of 180 minutes, not giving much time for text revision. The texts have been tagged for morphological and syntactic variables and analysed for a selection of the variables investigated by Biber,

among others. An important goal of the pilot has been to evaluate available tools for such tagging and analysis. The paper discusses the findings with respect to the theories on production rate referred to above.

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Grammaticalization – fact or fiction?

The study of grammaticalization, defined by Traugott and Dasher (2005: 81) as “the change whereby lexical material in highly constrained pragmatic and morphosyntactic contexts is assigned functional category status, and where the lexical meaning of an item is assigned constructional meaning,” has been a productive and interesting field in modern functional and cognitive linguistics. Unsurprisingly, however, no broad consensus has been reached on whether grammaticalization is a distinct linguistic phenomenon requiring its own theory, or simply a result of other linguistic phenomena (Newmeyer 1998: 232-259). Like many other questions in linguistics, one’s stance in regard to this particular question is usually determined by paradigm allegiance, which sometimes makes constructive criticism from “outsiders” difficult.

The theme of this paper is an investigation of the notion of grammaticalization in light of Old- and Middle English data on the so-called existential-there construction. Breivik (1997) proposes that the development of existential there in English is an example of grammaticalization and subjectification, as defined by Traugott whereby meaning is increasingly based on internal situations (e.g. evaluations, perceptions), meaning becomes more discourse based, and, finally, meaning tends to “shift towards the speaker’s subjective beliefs and attitudes” (Traugott 1989:34-35; in Croft 2003:263). However, as pointed out in Croft (2003: 271), and also implicitly in the quote from Traugott and Dasher above, it is now recognized by most researchers in this field that grammaticalization “applies to whole constructions, not just to lexemes and morphemes.” This should lead to a renewed attention to the question of the status grammaticalization as a distinct theory or a set of independent factors, based on the current research in construction grammar.

In the present paper an attempt will be made to demonstrate - based on the aforementioned data - that it is untenable to operate with a separate theory of grammaticalization. However, it will also be argued that fundamental assumptions, hypotheses, and insights of this field can be maintained within the scope of cognitive-functional theory.

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Applying Corpus Methodologies in the Study of Chinese Idioms

Keywords: corpus encoding; corpus interpretation; CSCHDQ;

The present paper sets out to discuss a very practical yet rarely discussed issue in Corpus Linguistics, namely the mutually constraining relationship between the levels of corpus encoding and the design of a corpus-based textual analysis. In contrast with what has been perceived as a paradigmatic relationship between technical preparation, e.g. corpus encoding, and the outline of a research scheme for the exploration of certain textual features, i.e. the prioritization of the latter over the former, it is argued in the current study that a successful corpus-based textual project entails a dynamic process in terms of the exploitation of encoded textual information and the development of a linguistically rich encoding system. The argument is pursued on the evidence coming from a corpus-based study of two modern Chinese translations of *Don Quijote* (1978 & 1995) (CSCHDQ), which in spite of the considerable technical limitations implied in building up a parallel Castilian-Chinese corpus at the current stage, has proved to be very successful in identifying and contrasting the phraseological patterns underlying the two Chinese sub-corpora of CSCHDQ. It is hoped that the methodological framework explored in the present paper regarding the interaction between corpus encoding and corpus interpretation will bring us novel and valuable insights into the integral nature of doing corpus-based textual projects.

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The word order of Old English and Old High German declarative clauses with respect to different text types

Linguists analysing word order in dead languages seem to be quite used to the idea that authentic prose texts constitute the only representative source of syntactic information. This is what our modern language intuition suggests: both poetry and translations are subject to different types of constraints that distort the syntactic structure and make the text less natural and less representative. As a consequence, it would be ideal if syntactic studies were based on authentic prose works. Yet, there is one problem that cannot be so easily solved: such sources very often do not exist. Some old languages happen to be relatively well codified, but this is not always the case, and the number of available texts is very often scarce. As a consequence, the choice is seriously limited and sometimes the only possible solution is to use every text that survived. The point is that linguists simply cannot afford to exclude certain texts on the basis of their form, because it would mean losing a substantial part of information about a given language.

Old English and Old High German are no exceptions, but their word order has

usually been studied on the basis of prose texts, if studied at all (Old High German is very much neglected in this respect). There is no work that gives a thorough statistical analysis of word order patterns in various text types, and only one book which compares Old English and Old High German syntax (Davis and Bernhardt 2002). The purpose of the present study is to fill in this gap. To be more specific, the project has three basic aims:

- to compare word order patterns in Old English and Old High German, taking into consideration different text and clause types;
- to see to what extent text type determines word order and check if this phenomenon is universal (similar behaviour in both analysed languages);
- to check what exercises a more powerful influence on word order at this stage of development of Germanic languages: text type or language itself.

Davis and Bernhard, in their pioneering work on West Germanic syntax, claim that Old English and Old High German should be considered dialects of the same language and that their syntax is virtually identical. The present study aims at examining this hypothesis in a more diversified sample of texts (Davis and Bernhard based their analysis on the Tatian Gospel translation and homilies of Ælfric). The whole corpus used for the purpose of the project consists of 3.600 clauses coming from Old English and Old High German poetry, authentic prose and translated prose.

This paper will present the results of the first stage of the analysis, concerning the word order of conjoined and non-conjoined declaratives clauses in Old English and Old High German.

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Fishing for words: the sociolinguistic significance of a word list

The historical sociolinguist is often faced with a lack of reliable social and linguistic information about the object of his study, the so-called ‘bad data problem’ (Labov 1994). While this is a genuine problem and it is important to be aware of the limitations it presents for research, it is even more important to make the best possible use of the little data that is available (Nevalainen 1999). That ‘bad data’ can sometimes give unexpectedly productive results is shown by a 30-item word list in the Norn language of Orkney and Shetland.

Norn, a West-Scandinavian language, ceased to be the community language in these two island groups north of Scotland in the 18th century, being replaced by Scots (Barnes 1998). As often in a situation of language shift, Norn had a significant lexical substratum influence on the majority Scots varieties in the islands, particularly in lexical sets to do with the traditional way of life.

The lack of more Norn lexical data from the 18th century has been blamed on the taboo-language of Shetland fishermen, a practice that outlawed and substituted certain lexical items when at sea (Rendboe 1984). In opposition to Rendboe, I will argue that the word list was collected thanks to (rather than ‘in spite of’) the taboo-language practice.

This reading of the word list's provenance allows for a dating of the language shift in Shetland that is consistent with earlier socio-historical and linguistic evidence (Smith 1996, Knooihuizen 2005). It also serves as a reminder of the fact that language shift and language death are gradual and domain-based processes, and that social practices play a key role in these.

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Estonian temporal, conditional and concessive clauses in grammaticalization chain

It is widely known that in languages the following changes take place: TEMPORAL > CONDITIONAL, TEMPORAL > CONCESSIVE, CONDITIONAL > CONCESSIVE (see e.g. Heine, Kuteva 2002: 319, 326). In my presentation I will show which structures in Estonian language have gone through these changes, and indicate how exactly these have taken place. Inter alia I would like to describe what remains between prototypical areas.

In Estonian language, both temporal and conditional clauses can be marked with conjunction *kui*. It is therefore clear that these two types of clauses are closely related to each other. This point of view is also supported by Traugott's (1985: 292) assertion that temporal words (especially temporal conjunctions) are the most ordinary source of conditional conjunctions. The following question arises: are there in Estonian more structures that originally have been considered as temporal structures but can also be used as conditional in meaning? Such could be for example gerundive construction.

The composition of the Estonian concessive conjunction *kuigi* is clear (temporal or conditional conjunction *kui* + emphatic modal particle *-gi*). In my presentation I will show that in this case it has been the change CONDITIONAL > CONCESSIVE rather than TEMPORAL > CONCESSIVE, and I will also focus on the area between conditional and concessive clauses – the concessive conditional clauses (especially on the scalar concessive conditional clauses).

Although the last example illustrated the change CONDITIONAL > CONCESSIVE, I am still interested in the change TEMPORAL > CONCESSIVE. Can we find this kind of change in the development of Estonian language?

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'The EU is not them, but us!' Collective identities in European political discourse

In the intergovernmental institutions of the EU, official delegates of the member states act as spokespersons of their national governments. In so doing they establish

public identities of their states in a context of EU politics. My paper analyzes collective identities in this setting as they are portrayed in speeches by presidents, prime ministers and ministers of foreign affairs speaking for Finland, Hungary and the United Kingdom in the European Parliament and the Council of the European Union. The objective of my research is to compare the linguistic characteristics of political speeches on EU integration from speakers of three different nations and explain these characteristics in terms of their social-political context. There has been no attempt in the past to produce such comparative descriptions of actual European political discourse. Thus, the results of this work will be useful not only to linguists but to a wider audience in Finland, Hungary and elsewhere.

I have built three corpora (each 25,000 – 30,000 words) of speeches delivered in English on the topic of the fifth enlargement round of the EU, one per each nation. I selected this topic for two reasons: on one hand, the three countries were positioned differently in this event as they have been members of the EU (or EEC) for different time periods, and on the other hand, this difference should have produced various mainstream and non mainstream voices, which could be easily contrasted. My approach to the research material could be described as being critical discourse analytic (see Fairclough, 1995 and 2003). Yet, my concept of identity is a dynamic one in the name sense as that expounded by Wodak (1999) and Krzyzanowski (2003). I consider identity the linguistic construction of membership in one or more social groups. As a discursive construction it should be interpreted against the speech situation where it performs a social or political function. When analyzing concrete linguistic constructions of identities, I use the theory of Transitivity worked out by M.A.K Halliday (1985). On my account of identity as a linguistic construction, different verbal structures indexed by different personal pronouns (as subjects, objects, etc. of the actions) indicate different identity positions depending on their Hallidayan 'process types' and 'participant types'. I consider discourses marked by first person plural (P1) the most representative of a speaker's collective identity as these discourses define what 'we' are and what 'we' do. Hence, this research focuses on three interconnected questions: (i) What do P1 pronouns refer to in the speeches? (ii) What kinds of collective identities do they refer to? (iii) What verbal processes are indexed in the speeches by the use of P1 pronouns in relation to the different collective identities established?

I have already tried out my methodology in a pilot research that covered ca fifteen per cent of the original research material. All of the results I received turned out to be statistically significant. I found that the majority of P1 pronouns referred either to the EU or to the nation state the given speaker represented. P1 pronouns referring to the nation occurred in the highest proportion in the Hungarian corpus, whereas those referring to the European Union had the highest rate in the Finnish corpus. I also found differences between the corpora in terms of linguistic responsibility expressed for the actions in the clauses. These differences, among other features, demonstrated that the 'we' group was the least responsible and the most passive in the Hungarian corpus, while the most responsible and the most active in the British corpus. On the basis of my preliminary results it seems that the different (power) positions that were assigned to each nation in the negotiations were reflected in the language use of the speakers concerning the use of verbs and first person plural pronouns. Therefore, to put it in Faircloughian terms, the order of the discourses in the analyzed texts appear to reflect the social order they are part of.

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Some remarks on the passive voice in written and spoken Scandinavian languages

In my presentation I will discuss some preliminary findings from a comparative study of the use of the passive voice in written and spoken Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish. Different aspects of the passive voice in the three Scandinavian languages have received relatively much attention among linguists. However, only few have taken a comparative approach, and even fewer have investigated into the relationship between written and spoken language in the Scandinavian context. But comparing the use of the passive both across the languages and across mode of communication (spoken versus written) is likely to increase our understanding of the passive voice in each language. Henrichsen & Allwood (2005), basing their study on 'frequency distribution', 'word type ranking' and 'distribution over parts of speech', show that Danish and Swedish are highly similar both within written and spoken language. However, they also find that there are large differences between the written and spoken language in both languages. The findings hold both with regard to frequency and word preferences. Their findings correspond well with a similar comparison between written and spoken English (Biber et al. 1999).

In a previous study, Laanemets (2004) compares the use of the passive voice in written Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian (Bokmål), finding no statistically significant difference between the uses of the passive voice on the overall level. However, looking at the use of the different passive voice constructions Swedish turns out to be significantly different from Danish and Norwegian.

I'm currently investigating the use of the passive constructions in spoken Danish, Norwegian and Swedish. Based on earlier studies (especially Engdahl 2000 and Laanemets 2004), I expect to find some differences in the use of the passive constructions in these languages. I suppose morphological passive (s-passive) to be used less frequently in Danish and Norwegian than in Swedish. Especially I do not expect to find any examples of morphological passive in the past and perfect tenses in Danish and Norwegian. As the morphological passive in Danish and Norwegian is often related to the formal language, rules and other similar genres, which are not the most frequent topics of an oral conversation, the relationship between morphological and periphrastic passives in Danish and Norwegian can be expected to show some differences compared to what is used in written language. This is less likely to be the case in Swedish, where the use of the periphrastic passive construction with 'bli' (become) is probably not determined by genre but by other, syntactic and semantic, rules (Engdahl 2000).

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Russian tuberculosis terminology

Background: Tuberculosis (TB) is an infectious disease transmitted from person to person by air. After the collapse of the Soviet Union the epidemiological situation worsened very quickly. International cooperation on TB control in Russia was activated. I have participated for several years in joint Finnish-Russian TB control projects and I came to notice that there are considerable differences in the two terminologies.

Research problem: Medical science is usually considered value-free, objective and international. However, there is considerable asymmetry in the Russian and Finnish TB terminologies. In my PhD thesis I employ the terminological approach to demonstrate the reasons for this asymmetry. Terminology and its standardisation have been a widely studied area in the Soviet Union and Russia, and medical issues have been dealt with, too. However, there are no terminological analyses of TB and TB terminology has not been standardised. Another question to be discussed is synonymy and near-synonymy. I will look at the different types of situations leading to synonymy. One particular instance of near-synonymy in medical texts is the coexistence of terms derived from ancient Greek and Latin, e.g. the terms *bacteria* and *bacilli*. These terms also reflect another feature of near-synonymy, the use of two different conceptual levels as *bacilli* is a subcategory of *bacteria* but often used as a full synonym. Traditionally at least Russian terminologists have seen synonymy as an undesirable feature in languages for special purposes. In non-specific usages of language the speaker/writer tends to choose a medium level in the concept hierarchy although there is a more specific word on a lower level that could be used. I will look at synonymous expressions to try to establish the motivations for their use in TB texts.

Material: Scientific material, methodological literature, TB legislation and normative guidelines on the all-Russian and local administrative levels.

Method: Terminology operates with four essential points of view: 1) concrete and abstract objects of a particular subject field; 2) their conceptualization by the subject field in question; 3) formation of terms to name these concepts; and 4) definitions to give an exhaustive description of the concept and the subsequent term. On the semantic level, I analyze the essential Russian TB terms, make concept hierarchies in tree structures and compare them with the subsequent Finnish ones. I will define the meaning of the terms using Russian dictionaries, encyclopedia and TB texts. The formal part of the study describes the different ways of term formation on the morphological and syntactic levels. I will also compile a glossary with translations into Finnish and English.

Contribution: In my study I employ the terminological approach to see how well it can serve to explain asymmetry between two national terminologies and the use of synonymy.

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Animacy and Canonical Word Order – Evidence from human Processing of anaphora

Previous studies have shown that canonical word order is processed faster than non-canonical word order (Menn, 1999; Kaiser and Trueswell, 2004; inter al.). In 2005, our group tested the processing time and accuracy for Norwegian SVO (subject-verb-object) and OVS (object-verb-subject) sentences. We also looked at sentences that were ambiguous in relation to word order. The results indicated that the research subjects (mainly university students and staff) had faster reaction times for SVO. In addition, this word order (SVO) was also the preferred word order for cases with ambiguous word order.

The task consisted of a context sentence and a probe sentence. The subjects were asked to answer if the probe sentences felt natural in the given context or not. Examples 1 and 2 demonstrate the set up of the test. The subjects accept the continuation in 1, but not in 2.

(1) a) Jens bevil get Anne lønn økning.			(2)a)Jens bevilget Anne lønnsekning.							
	<i>Jens granted Anne a pay rise.</i>					<i>Anne granted Jens a pay rise.</i>				
	b) Hun ble glad.							b)	Han ble glad.	
	<i>She was happy.</i>					<i>He was happy.</i>				

The initial results support Lyn Frazier’s *Garden Path* theory (Frazier, 1994), which states that only one syntactic possibility is tried at a time, and that the first option is to try the simplest structure first, in accordance with the Minimal Attachment Principle. Based on these principles, the choice of the syntactically simplest structure should not be influenced by its semantic content.

Our first experiment is currently being followed up by an experiment where we manipulate the semantic content, as well as the word order. Based on our hypothesis, we expect to see an effect of animacy for the initial object (O) in OVS sentences. The

effect for OVS is predicted to cause shorter reaction times for inanimate objects as compared to animate objects, which in turn are faster than human objects. The null hypothesis is that there is no such effect of the semantic hierarchy.

Comparing sentences that contain exactly the same words controls for word frequencies. We simultaneously control for differences between positive and negative responses. In order to do this we use a question, which sets up for disambiguating the word order of the following context sentences, after which we present a probe sentence that either is a natural follow-up from the previous context or is an unnatural continuation. This is presented in the experimental set up in table 1.

We test this effect by taking the difference between the b-sentences and the a-sentences (cf. table 1), and thus calculating the effect of setting up for an OVS or a SVO interpretation of the context sentence. Furthermore, we control for positive and negative answers as well as the verb in the probe sentence. We get the following differences (RT): (1b-1a) [*neg. den plystret*], (2b-2a) [*pos. hun plystret*], (3b-3a) [*pos. den bjeffet*] and (4b-4a) [*neg. hun bjeffet*]. The effect for the two negatives can be added together, and similarly for the positives, in order to get the effect of SVO or OVS for negative or positive answers. We expect that results for positive and negative responses will differ for these specific comparisons, and the ranking according to animacy will be reversed for positive vs. negative responses. It is to be noted that all lexical content is the same in each comparison. Hence, any purely lexical effect will be cancelled out, leaving us with a pure word order effect. This is being performed for three different categories corresponding to the semantic classes of the context sentence: inanimate vs. animate, animate vs. human, and human vs. human.

Preliminary analysis suggests that OVS is faster if the initial O is inanimate, animate is slightly faster than human and human is the slowest for the OVS order. This supports our working hypothesis. If this tendency will be significant, it supports an idea that OVS is default for introducing inanimate objects (given the contextual set-up). Thus, if this holds, it will show that semantics *do* affect the default sentence structure. The number of subjects used so far, is too small to draw any statistically valid conclusions. Hence, we are currently performing the experiment with a larger group of subjects, results for which will be available in April 2007.

Table 1: The experimental stimuli

1a	SVO	NEI	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Kvinnen luftet hunden.	Den plystret.
2a	SVO	JA	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Kvinnen luftet hunden.	Hun plystret.
3a	SVO	JA	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Kvinnen luftet hunden.	Den bjeffet.
4a	SVO	NEI	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Kvinnen luftet hunden.	Hun bjeffet.
4b	OVS	NEI	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Hunden luftet kvinnen.	Hun bjeffet.
3b	OVS	JA	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Hunden luftet kvinnen.	Den bjeffet.
2b	OVS	JA	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Hunden luftet kvinnen.	Hun plystret.
1b	OVS	NEI	Hva luftet kvinnen?	Hunden luftet kvinnen.	Den plystret.

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On the Development of Swedish Supine

This paper deals with the development of the perfect in Swedish, with special regards to the differences between Swedish and the other Scandinavian languages. In modern Swedish, the verb form used in the perfect tense, the supine, differs morphologically and syntactically from the past participle. The supine in (1a) has a different ending than the neuter singular participle in (1b). The past participle incorporates particles, the supine never does, see (2). The supine is only used with auxiliary *hava* 'have', which may be dropped in subordinate clauses, see (3). The supine can appear with passive morphology, as in (4).

- (1) a. Jag har skrivit en bok.
I have written [supine] a book [c.sg.]
b. Han fick skrivet en bok.
He got written [n.sg.] a book [c.sg.]
- (2) a. Den är påskriven
It [c.sg.] is on-written [c.sg.]
'It is signed.'
b. Hon har skrivit på
She has written [supine] on
'She has signed.'
- (3) Jag vet att hon (har) skrivit brev.
I know that she (has) written [supine] letters
- (4) Huset har målats av en professionell målare.
the.house has painted-PASSIVE [supine] by a professional painter
'The house has been painted by a professional painter.'

The passive form of the supine first appears in Swedish by the end of the 17th century. At the same time, the first clear examples of ellipsis of *hava* can be noted. The changes seem to be linked to the loss of *vara* 'be' as perfective auxiliary in the 17th century (Larsson to appear, cf. Johannisson 1945, Platzack 1989). It should also be noted that Swedish differs from the other Scandinavian languages by having lost verb agreement, but retained passive participle agreement. The paper discusses how the changes are related to each other and to other changes in Swedish during the same period. The crucial question is whether the supine is to be considered a perfect participle or not (cf. the opposing views in Christensen & Taraldsen 1989 and Platzack 1989), and how the syntactic distinction between passive participles and perfect participles is to be understood.

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Linguophilosophic Parameters of English Innovations in the New Technologies Sphere

In the course of centuries the mankind has been fulfilling the attempts to represent the objective (as well as subjective) reality through language to the utmost. However, at the dawn of the XXIst century the human mind has progressed quality-wise in the ways and methods of reality perception. Needless to point out that one of the greatest achievements of the turn-of-the-century period is the so called virtual reality creation – the world parallel to the common one still intercepting with it in hundreds of thousand ways, driving the “material” reality more and more dependent on itself. The technosphere of the modern world, thus stands as an integral ontological entity, a unique environment demanding new ways of cognition and perception via complex philosophic, cultural and social approaches, providing alongside unlimited opportunities for human intellect and language development, as well as for their research [Crystal D., Davis E., Heim M., Levy S., Nardi B., Quinion M., Schneiderman B., Wallis G.].

The current study indulges into investigating the innovative aspects of the English vocabulary development processes in the sphere of new computer technologies. The primary supposition of the computer and technology-related word-stock terminological nature leads us into the impending necessity of the terminology as a specific lexical layer study. The dual systematization character of terminology determined the analysis of both linguistic (morphological and semantic) and external (categorical) paradigmatic parameters of computer terminology of the English language.

Linguistically the development of English computer terminology acquires an ambivalent character. Primarily, the sources of English computer vocabulary root in the conventional word-formation types, such as affixation, abbreviation and acronymy, telescoping, etc and semantic derivation. However, according to our research results, the enrichment process of the computer terminology of English incorporates the emergence of the word-formation ways and means, authentic for the given lexical

sub-system. Moreover, the progress of terminological system in the new computer technology sphere determines the new conceptual approach to the “word-formation element” notion. Our research results actualize the possibility to derive a unique element of word structure, designated as a *false morpheme*, the chief distinctive feature of the given unit being its freelance motivation.

The categorical paradigmatic parameters of English computer terminology are featured from the following perspectives: the terminological (lexico-semantic) perception of basic metaphysic dimensions of the technosphere (that being “space” and “time”) and the anthropologic terminological categorization of technosphere, thus both the anthropocentric and the sociocentric paradigmatics of English computer vocabulary being reflected.

It may be concluded that the “artificial” environment –*technosphere* –is acquiring more and more independency as far as the “parent” reality is concerned and establishes the basis for being considered a separate metalingual entity. Hence one of the prior ways TS fundamental categories are exposed is through the language (precisely by means of contributing to the modern English vocabulary) we may assume the natural language itself to find its realization in such “categoric” manner. Thus, the problem provides significant basis for further discussion.

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Decoding the Comics Code and Beyond

This presentation does not fall neatly into clear cut philological or linguistic domains; in fact, it is comprised of points first formulated in a literary paper on comics. However, the goal of this presentation is to define, or at least investigate the ‘grammar’ of comics, as well as the grammar of visual narratives in e.g. seventeenth century graphic satire. The example comic book that will be referred to throughout is *Watchmen* by Alan Moore.

This investigation is carried out in two different, yet overlapping discourses. First, there is a level of interpretation based on Peircian semiotics, in which the relations between units of Peirce’s tripartite sign system are investigated in use in comics. This is based, in part, on theories developed by Anne Magnussen. The second discourse deals with comics as language, with its own grammar, in which units in comics are compared with and treated as units of language, such as syntax, morphemes, word classes, etc. This part invokes groundwork laid by Neil Cohn. Both approaches will be discussed and compared, and I will indicate how I interchangeably make use of these while investigating my data.

The next part of the discussion, deals with the way time is conveyed and read in comics. My claim is that the temporal dimension of comics can much more fruitfully be compared with the synchronic (yet not static) way in which images are distributed in poetry, than with the diachronic nature of, say, films and other such visual media. My claim is that one may approach comics as a conceptual form of a singular spatial and temporal nature, which harbours an artistic potential that is unique in all of the arts.

This will be explicated further when a comparison is made with seventeenth century graphic satire (James Gillray). I aim to show that similar (although not identical) vocabulary and methodology may be pursued in order to investigate

narrative form in visual arts – especially those that, like comic books and Gillray’s engravings, make use of verbal and visual expressive techniques in tandem.

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Multi-Verb Constructions In Edo: A Typology

The following issues are discussed in this paper (CF Bower 2006):

- (a) Within individual languages, are there different types of multi-verb constructions and tests that clearly identify them?
- (b) How does each component of a multi-verb construction unify with other components of the clause?

The term multi-verb construction is applied to series of verbs that can head verb projections of their own in what appears at a first glance to be simple sentences with no overt marker of co-ordination or sub-ordination. Edo verbs bear very little verbal morphology and tense is represented mainly by tones on verbs and is marked on the first auxiliary/verbal element after the subject NP in a sentence. The tones serve a dual function, namely the representation of tense and transitivity of a verb. Past tense on an intransitive verb is marked as a high tone and on a transitive verb not followed by an object in-situ it is represented by a suffix –rV. Of interest is the fact that some multi-verb constructions will allow the suffixation of -rV to V1 while others do not license this suffix as shown in examples (1) and (2) below:

- (1) Òzó viéré fṓó (V + reanalyzed verb construction)
 Ozo cry+past-rV finish
Ozo finished crying
- (2) Òzó suá /* suárè Àmè dé (V(P) + V(P))
 Ozo push+past High tone /*push+past-rV Ame fall+past High tone
Ozo pushed Ame down

I identify four types of multi-verb constructions based on syntactic, semantic and inflectional tests. This is represented in table 1 below:

table1

CONSTRUCTIONS	OVERLAPPING EVENTS	ONE NEGATION MARKER	V1-V _N MUST HAVE SAME TENSE/MOOD	rV SUFFIX	AT MOST TWO VERBS IN SERIES	OBJECT SHARING	SUBJECT ORIENTED ANAPHOR MAY OCCUR BEFORE V2-V _N	RIGHT ADJUNCTS MAY OCCUR BETWEEN VERBS IN SERIES
V+ REANALYZED VERB	YES	YES	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO	NO
V(P) + V(P)								
Resultative	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO
Consequential	NO	YES	YES	NO	NO	YES	NO	YES
Covert-coordination	NO	YES	NO	NO	NO	NO	YES	YES
V+ MOOD CLAUSE	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	YES	NO	NO
V + INFINITIVAL CLAUSE	YES	YES	NO	YES	YES	NO	YES	NO

Interestingly in table 1 above, a correlation is seen to exist between the nature of clausal type, temporal interpretation and -rV suffixation (Ogie 2004). The suffix is not licensed in V(P) + V (P) multi-verb constructions. Manfredi (2005a) proposes that the non-licensing of -rV is due to the following prosodic constraint:

- (3) a. An inflectional pitch accent must be realized on a branching constituent within its phrase: by syntactic branching if possible, or by cv epenthesis (insertion of weak syllable) as a last resort.
 b. Foot parameter (Èdó): trochaic/right-branching i.e. *sw* or [HL].

I agree with Manfredi's treatment of -rV as presented in ((3)) and further propose that it describes the phonetic reflexes of the fact that -rV suffixation is licensed in part by the relationship between a verb's valence values and its qualitative valence values. My frame-work for representation is the NorSource grammar an implemented Head-Driven Phrase Structure Grammar (HPSG) grammar for Norwegian (Hellan 2003 and Hellan and Haugereid 2004).

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Lexical Innovations in Children's Acquisition of Dholuo: The Role of Linguistic Environment

KEY WORDS: Dholuo, Acquisition, Lexicon, Linguistic Environment, Nilotic

Studies in First Language Acquisition have tended to focus more on the well documented and well researched European Languages with little attention being paid to the systematic investigation of how African Children acquire their languages. Even when the acquisition of African languages has been studied, focus has been on

syntax, phonology and morphology and not much attention has been paid to lexical acquisition despite its centrality not only to language acquisition but to language in general.

This paper presents the findings of a study carried out to determine how Luo children acquiring Dholuo create new and non-existent words in order to fill the lexical gaps in their mental lexicon in, a bid to effectively communicate. Conversations with and between children aged between 3 to 6 years were recorded, transcribed, and analysed using CLAN programme. The study reports that the linguistic environment in which acquisition takes place plays a critical role in determining the nature, amount, and patterns of lexical innovations. Depending on the specific components of the linguistic environment at play in any given communicative situation, and children's reaction to such components, lexical innovation was also reported to be totally non-existent in certain cases.

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Identity in Second Language Socialization: Multiple Case Studies of Chinese Students' Socialization into Communities of a British University

Drawing on the Language Socialization Paradigm and the Community of Practice, this study aims to explore the complex interrelations between identity and second language acquisition by means of investigating the second language socialization process of the Chinese students into the communities of a British university. Two analytic foci are adopted in this investigation: one is literacy to deal with identities in academic writing, and the other is narrative to deal with identities in the lived experience of self. Multiple case studies is used to investigate their academic writing experiences in socializing or being socialized into communities with focus on their identity formation. This longitudinal study begins with ethnographic documentation of the previous and current English learning experiences in the six sampled Chinese student's everyday and /or classroom settings, and then follows their language development and socialization over a period of a year, during which every piece of their academic writing is to be collected and analyzed. Meanwhile, the students are interviewed regularly in one year to explore their participation experience and their changing sense of selves in communities of practice.

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On the prenominal placement of 'postnominal adjectives' in Old English


This paper aims to show that the label 'postnominal adjectives' is frequently used as a misnomer with reference to Old English (OE) adjectives which are not in fact postnominal. The discussion focuses on two types of OE constructions: the so-called 'CONJ+Adj' constructions, as in (1), and the so-called 'N+Dem+Adj' constructions, as in (2).

- (1) *se leofa cuma & se lufiendleca*
the dear.WK stranger and the lovely.WK
(2) *ungelæredne fiscere þone leasostan*
ignorant.ST fisherman the falsest.WK

According to the mainstream view, the surface placement of adjectives with respect to the noun is determined on the basis of the rule in (3).

	(3) <i>Mainstream Rule of Thumb</i> (for OE) -prenominal adjectives surface before the noun -postnominal adjectives surface after the noun
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This paper questions the rule in (3). It argues instead that adjectives such as *lufiendleca* in (1) and *leasostan* in (2) should be considered prenominal rather than postnominal because the position in which they appear is the so-called 'false postposition' rather than 'true postposition'. In this vein, it is proposed that (3) be replaced with (4).

	(4) <i>Alternative Rule of Thumb</i> (for OE) -prenominal adjectives can take 'weak' inflection in a given construction type -postnominal adjectives cannot take 'weak' inflection in a given construction type
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The rule in (4) is supported by the inflectional patterning of adjectives across Germanic languages. As the relevant facts show, the inflection of postnominal adjectives is the same as the inflection of adjectives in typically predicative positions (Kester 1996, Vikner 2001). This is taken to mean that postnominal adjectives are predicative in nature (Cinque 1994). However, the fact that adjectives in 'CONJ+Adj' and 'N+Dem+Adj' constructions in OE can take weak inflection (contrary to adjectives in typically predicative positions) suggests that adjectives in these two types of constructions are neither predicative nor postnominal. A syntactic account of 'CONJ+Adj' and 'N+Dem+Adj' constructions defended here works on the assumption that there is a one-to-one correlation between the position of OE adjectives and the relation which adjectives have with respect to the noun, i.e. that prenominal adjectives are attributive, whereas postnominal adjectives are predicative (Alexiadou 2001, Haumann 2003). In terms of structure, it is suggested that prenominal adjectives are best analysed as adjuncts to NP (Svenonius 1994), whereas postnominal adjectives are reduced relatives (Kayne 1994). Given such premises, it is argued that both 'CONJ+Adj' and 'N+Dem+Adj' constructions are base-generated as

coordinated structures and derived by deletion under identity, as shown in (5) and (6), respectively.

(5) [_{ConjP} [_{DP} se leofa cuma] [_{Conj} & [_{DP} se lufiendleca euma]]]

(6) [_{ConjP} [_{DP} ungelæredne fiscere] [_{Conj} {AM} [_{DP} þone leasostan fiseere]]]

‘CONJ+Adj’ constructions, as in (5), represent coordination, where two DPs are joined by an overt coordinating conjunction. ‘N+Dem+Adj’ constructions, as in (6), represent apposition, where two DPs are joined by a non-overt appositive marker. In both cases, the surface order is derived by forward deletion, which targets the nominal head in the final conjunct.

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Analytiska kausativkonstruktioner i ett svensk-nederländskt kontrastivt perspektiv.

I detta föredrag kommer jag att presentera resultaten av en kontrastiv studie om analytiska kausativkonstruktioner i svenskan och nederländskan. Inledningsvis kommer jag att ge en typologi över de språkliga uttrycksätten för orsaksförhållanden i båda språken. Dessa omfattar både verbala och icke-verbala konstruktioner. Till de verbala räknas bl.a. lexikala och analytiska kausativkonstruktioner, till de icke-verbala bl.a. konjunktioner och prepositioner. Därefter kommer jag att säga ett par ord om det empiriska materialet, nämligen SALT dut-swe korpusen. Denna parallellkorpus innehåller originaltexter på svenska plus deras översättningar till nederländska, samt originaltexter på nederländska och deras översättningar till svenska (både fiktions- och faktamaterial), totalt nästan 3 miljoner ord.

I föredragets andra del kommer jag att fokusera på översättningsmönstren av de svenska och nederländska analytiska kausativkonstruktionerna utifrån det tvåspråkiga korpusmaterialet. Jag kommer att kartlägga hur de nederländska kausativa verben *doen* och *laten* översätts till svenska och hur de svenska kausativa verben *få*, *komma*, *ha*, *förmå* och *låta* återges i de nederländska översättningarna.

Kartläggningen görs med hjälp av ett antal olika översättningskategorier. Extra uppmärksamhet ägnas åt de fall där en analytisk kausativkonstruktion i källspråket inte motsvaras av en analytisk kausativkonstruktion i målspråket. I diskussionen av översättningarna tar jag också hänsyn till språkspecifika egenskaper och faktorer som är relaterade till textgenre och översättningsstrategier.

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Ce que and ce que are two different things

The disjoint subjunction *ce que* may introduce several different types of clauses in Modern French. Preceded by a preposition, it may introduce a complement clause, alone it may introduce an indirect interrogative clause or an independent relative. The two latter seem to form a semantic continuum, hence being difficult to distinguish.

It is my claim that the similarities between the *ce que* relative and the *ce que* interrogative are merely superficial (Muller 1996) and that an analysis of their

properties will reveal that they are realised on different levels in a syntactic tree analysis. I use a generative approach to demonstrate their internal structure, an approach which also leads the way to explaining some of the major differences in their behaviour.

Given these internal differences between the *ce que* interrogative and the *ce que* relative, it may be argued that they are in fact two different complementisers. Based on my analysis it is not possible to claim that the independent relatives and interrogatives constitute a syntactic continuum, a position that has been taken by several scholars (Härmä, 1979, Togeby, 1966, Jones, 1996, Buridant 2000).

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The influence of Path Shape on motion event encoding

The events we encode in language emerge by segmenting dynamic input data into meaningful units (concepts). The segmentation of the event sequence involves a decision where one event ends, and another one begins, and the creation of an event hierarchy, distinguishing main events and sub-events (Pustejovsky 1991). Levelt (1989) proposes a system, according to which conceptual units translate into language in three stages: (1) packing of the conceptual material into 'preverbal messages'; (2) linguistic encoding of the preverbal message; and (3) articulation. As languages sometimes demonstrate considerable differences in the events they encode, both in terms of what is considered an event, and what linguistic means are used to encode events (Talmy 2000; Bowerman et al. 2002.), an important question is, at what level in Levelt's system the differences emerge. The encoding of path shape in motion events is worth studying in this respect because it is based on perceptually salient spatial features, whose realization can be followed up throughout the encoding process with relative ease and clarity. Slobin (2004) suggests that there is a difference in 'habitual' path segmentation in the narration of motion events across languages, depending on the availability of language-specific morpho-syntactic means of high salience. My aim will be to see whether there are mutual influences between how path shape in motion event segmentation is conceptualized and how it is encoded in language.

This paper reports on how information about path-shape is packaged in terms of morpho-syntactic and lexical units in Norwegian. I will discuss data extracted from corpora, literary works, and dictionary definitions, as well as a pilot experimental study in which native speakers of Norwegian describe or segment non-verbally events of motion along trajectories of various shapes. This is part of a larger project aiming

to check for influence on the segmentation of motion events by the available lexicalization/ grammaticalization patterns in several languages.

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Dialectal Comparison of Negation in Chabacano

This paper studies the negation in three dialects of Chabacano. Chabacano is the common name for the different dialects of the lexically Spanish based Philippine creole with Austronesian substrate and adstrate. Zamboanga Chabacano (ZC) is spoken in the Southern Philippines, while Cavite Chabacano (CC) and Ternate Chabacano (TC) have small speaker communities on Manila Bay in the Northern Philippines and are closely related. The investigation of the creoles from the Asian and Philippine substrate area is relatively scarce, even though the data and comparison between different substrate groups can offer new information for the Creole studies. Earlier works on Chabacano present some information on the negation (Whinnom 1956 for CC, Forman 1972 for ZM, and Lipski 1988 in general), but no comprehensive presentation of the negative constructions or their possible sources has been offered. This paper gives a description and a dialectal comparison of negation in Chabacano. The examples are from spoken corpus collected in 2003 and 2006 if not mentioned otherwise.

Forman (1972) pointed out the Philippine substrate features for the ZC patterns in existential predications and verbal predications in perfective aspect. The Philippine languages make a distinction in negative particles between plain negatives and negatives of existence. This is reflected in the Chabacano patterns as well, as can be seen in the TC examples (1) and (2).

(1) *Nuái disipliná!*
NEG.EX discipline
There is no discipline!

(2) *No kjéri jo*
NEG want 1
I don't want

However, the verbal predications in perfective aspect in the Northern dialects differ from the ZC pattern, as in (3).

- (3) *no ja mordé kon bo el kolébra*
 NEG PFV bite OBJ 2 DEF snake
 The snake didn't bite you

The negative constructions with indefinites use the existential pattern with *nuái*, as in TC (4) and ZC (5) examples, or are directly derived from Spanish as in CC (6).

- (4) *nuái kjén di minjá kon bo*
 NEG.EX who CONT bother OBJ 2
 No one will bother you

- (5) *Nwáy ni úno ya-aparece*
 NEG.EX NEG one PFV.appear.
 No one appeared (Forman 1972:226, my glossing)

- (6) *No ya parece ninguno de ilos*
 NEG PFV appear no.one of 3.PL
 None of them appeared (Escalante 2005:119, my glossing)

The paper confirms the similarity of the negation patterns in the Chabacano dialects. It also shows some differences between the dialects in what comes to the use and frequency of these constructions. These can be traced back to the historical development of the dialects and the current contact situation with the adstrate languages. The paper challenges some earlier views of TC as the most conservative dialect of Chabacano (Lipski 1988, Whinnom 1956), especially concerning the use of the Spanish derived constructions of indefinites.

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Focus Marking in Koorete

In this study, an attempt is made to describe how focus is marked in one of the least-documented Ometo languages spoken in Ethiopia: Koorete. It has been discovered that focus in the language is not only determined pragmatically but also syntactically. In other words, in the majority of sentences in Koorete one component of the sentence should be obligatorily and overtly marked for focus. The language has two focus markers. The first one is *-ko* which is only used in declarative sentences. Hayward (1982) analyzes the element *-ko* as a copula marker. Contrary to his analysis, in this paper, it is argued that *-ko* is a focus marker morpheme. The second focus marker morpheme in the language is *-a* and this one is used only in interrogative sentences.

Furthermore, it has been noted that two types of verbal focus marking strategies are in play in the language synchronically. In the first case, the focus marker element is added directly to the main verb. In the other case, an independent verbal form is introduced into the verbal structure and the focus marker is added to it. The distribution of the two strategies is also described.

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Temporal adverbial phrases in the Russian language of the 17th century

The 17th century is an important period in the history of Russian. This era not only prepares the changes that occurred in the 18th century and determined the establishment of the Russian literary language, but it is also significant in comparison with other periods directly preceding those changes. Research on syntactic phenomena of the 17th century Russian language and their description and classification can be very challenging. Unlike research on complex clauses, analysis of simple sentences from a diachronic perspective can highlight the process of development of the component elements and forms that make a structural unity of the sentence and determine the principles of its organization. The results of the examination of adverbial phrases will identify the direction and the character of the semantic and structural changes that affected the development of different prepositional and non-prepositional case forms in Russian. The subject of our research is the analysis, description and classification of the temporal adverbial phrases in the Russian language from the 17th century. Temporal adverbial phrases during this period are combinations with nouns in the genitive or the instrumental, which do not depend on the separate elements in the clause, but on the whole sentence and have the special semantic purpose of expressing the time of the action. This study of such structures is based on secular texts of the 17th century, such as “Vesti-Kuranty” (1600-1668) and parts of the Novgorod Occupation Archives (1611- 1617). The language of these texts differs from colloquial Russian in that it is a written language that nevertheless lacked strict codification. A large number of temporal adverbial phrases in “Vesti-Kuranty” can be explained by the chronological character of the texts as “Vesti-Kuranty” is a translation of Western European news-reports. In terms of Jury Apresyan’s classification, adverbial phrases resemble a model of verb rection with strong semantic and weak syntactic relations [Apresyan 1974, 155]. The analyzing adverbial phrases are labelled temporal in accordance with the meaning of the whole construction like other adverbial phrases (causal, target, local and so on); their further classification also necessitates consideration of separate components of the structure. At the same time, their analysis from a diachronic perspective seems relevant as the expression of time varies considerably in modern Russian.

Several scholars have made observations on the lexical restrictions of the elements that are used in these phrases [Grannes 1986]. Nouns designate recurring intervals of time, such as names of parts of the day, week days, months, seasons. Among them there is a special kind of words that are termed as metawords; they are words that denote time units, for example hour, day, week, month, season. The meaning of time is included in the semantics of all these elements, which makes it possible to express

various time relations. Temporal phrases can have uncoordinated determiners in the form of other nouns with temporal meaning and function often as intonational units with them. It is also important that coordinated determiners of the nouns are expressed by demonstrative pronouns, numerals and some types of adjectives.

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Spatial terms in Japanese locative expressions

In this paper, I present a new analysis of spatial terms in locative expressions in Japanese. I claim that a certain class of spatial terms has a distinct categorial status both from regular postpositions, nouns and adjectives and hence needs to be assigned a new category Axial Part Phrase which is proposed by Svenonius (2006). An example of spatial terms in Japanese is given below:

- (1) Taro-ga basu-no mae-ni tatteiru
T-nom bas-gen front-in standing
'Taro is standing in front of the bus'

These spatial terms, at first glance, seem to belong to a nominal class due to the following facts: (i) they can be followed by a case-marker that typically marks a nominal constituent such as in *mae-o toota* 'passed in front of something', (ii) they can be coordinated by *to* that connects only nouns (Kuno 1973) such as in *mae to ushiro-ni* 'in front and behind', and (iii) they can combine with demonstratives such as in *sono mae-ni* 'there in front'.

Two diagnostics, however, show that spatial terms do not have some core nominal properties. First, argument NPs can license a floating quantifier in Japanese (Miyagawa 1988), whereas spatial terms cannot. Second, regular nouns combine with restricted adjectival modifiers, while spatial terms do not. These facts indicate that spatial terms cannot belong to the same category as regular nouns.

Furthermore, there are two syntactic diagnostics that indicate that (i) spatial terms have adjectival properties and (ii) they also have postpositional properties. Facts from *ma* affixation illustrate the point in (i). A derivational affix *ma* attaches to verbal adjectives and produces nominal adjectives with 'intensified' meanings such as *aka-i* 'red' and *ma-kka-na* 'really red'. This *ma* affixation is sensitive to a categorial status and not to the meaning of the word, since *akairo* 'red color', a nominal counterpart of an adjective *aka-i*, does not combine with *ma*: **ma-kkairo*. The fact that spatial terms combine with *ma* productively such as *man- mae* 'right in front' indicates that they have adjectival properties in this respect.

The second point in (ii) is shown by the fact that spatial terms combine with a certain class of degree modifiers. Zwarts and Winter (2000) observe that locative PPs can be modified by measure phrases such as in 'two meters behind the house'. In Japanese measure phrases such as *ni meetoru* 'two meters' combine with PPs but they combine neither with APs nor NPs. Like PP, spatial terms can be modified by

measure phrases. In this respect, they are more similar to postpositions than adjectives or nouns. All the diagnostics so far indicates that spatial terms in Japanese have both nominal, adjectival and postpositional properties, but they seem to belong to none of these categories properly.

I adopt a layered PP structure proposed by Svenonius (2005, 2006) and claim that spatial terms fall into Axial Part head, one of the functional heads in the layered PP. In the layered PP system, spatial PPs are decomposed into a series of functional phrases which comprises a Path head that expresses the relationship of the Path to the Ground, a Place head that expresses location, an Axial Part head that expresses the position of a Figure relative to a Ground represented by its relation to the Ground's axes, and a KP that represents Ground.

(2) [_{Path} to [_{Place} in [_{AxPart} front [_{KP} of the house]]]]

In the system in (2), Axial Part is a functional category that represents relational properties between the traditional P head and the Ground DP. The mixed properties of spatial terms in Japanese may represent the nature of Axial Part Phrase.

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Are English modals polysemous, or do they have a single meaning?

Modals have several distinct uses, and the question of whether they are genuinely polysemous or have a single abstract meaning is an issue that has long been debated in the literature. This problem is further linked to the question of the balance of semantics and pragmatics in the analysis of modality: theories which treat modals as monosemous tend to give them a skeletal semantics and make pragmatics and the context do more of the work of interpretation.

Papafragou (2000) is a recent example of an analysis of this kind which has a single abstract meaning for each modal. She criticises and rejects analyses of the English modals such as those by Palmer (1990) who treats them as ambiguous between unrelated senses, and Sweetser (1990) who treats them as systematically polysemous. In her analysis *may*, *can*, *must* and *should* each have a single meaning, with pragmatics accounting for the interpretations these words have in particular contexts. (2000:43)

Coates (1983: 14-18) on the other hand proposes that there are three types of indeterminacy which account for different modal meanings: *gradience*, *ambiguity* and *merger*. What is noteworthy is that it is *can* which Coates uses to illustrate *gradience*, and *should* which exemplifies merger, and genuine ambiguity is represented by *must*. In his book, Palmer comments however that the distinction between *gradience* and *merger* is arbitrary (1990: 22).

Modals have several distinct uses, and we propose here that the relationship between the various uses – and hence the answer to the monosemy-polysemy distinction - is different for different modal verbs. We will argue that the categorisation of modals in this way is not a necessary one. We will support this claim by the application of semantic and pragmatic criteria (based on Salkie [forthcoming]), which we will use to define modal properties. Our proposed criteria

for modality are: possibility & necessity, epistemic & deontic, subjectivity and modality strength. The criteria will have implications for the interpretation of different modals and for the relationship between their different senses. For example, when applying ‘subjectivity’ test as one of the criteria, we will argue that “subjective” modals like *may* (and *must*) have a different type of pragmatics to the “objective” modals like *can* (and *should*). We will show that with *can* different senses merge into each other, whereas with *may* they are clearly distinct. We note here that Groefsema’s (1995) emphasis on analysing *can* to argue against polysemy is not surprising, since it is harder to argue that *may* and *must* are monosemous. We will argue that *may* and *must* are more polysemous in nature than *can* and *should*.

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A study of a change – the Icelandic progressive

In the last few years Icelandic has experienced a great increase in the use of the progressive form *vera að* ‘be to’ and the infinitive of the main verb. Although to a large extent grammaticalized for the description of ongoing events, the Icelandic progressive has until now showed more restrictions than e.g. the English progressive, disallowing habitual meaning and the combination with nonagentive verbs. This seems to be changing, however. Using the progressive with verbs of perception, for example, enforces an active interpretation upon the verb: *sjá*, ‘see’, in (1a) means actually ‘observe’. In (1b) a habit becomes a temporary reading. Similar effects are found in English.

- (1) a. Við erum að sjá mikla aukningu í ferðamannaíðnaði.
 we are to see much increase in tourist-industry
 lit. ‘We are observing a large increase in the tourist industry’
 b. Hann er að eyða 50 000 krónum í bensín á mánuði.
 he is to spend 50 000 crowns in gasoline a month
 ‘He is spending 50 000 crowns a month on gasoline’

The so-called sports progressive describes an (iterated) activity over a certain period, often stressing the quality of the action. The hearer is placed “in the midst” of the event, instead of “outside” it with the simple tense, making the situation more dynamic:

- (2) Stelpurnar voru að skora mörk með löngum og djörfum sendingum.
girls-the were to score goals with long and bold passes
'The girls were scoring goals with long and bold passes'

The meaning of the progressive is often rather modal than aspectual. Especially states seem to become an emotive colouring rather than the dynamic, agentive reading found in English (cf. *He's being silly*). The sentence in (3) has a strong connotation of irritation by the speaker, but also indicates that he/she has been trying to understand.

- (3) Ég er ekki að skilja neitt í þessu.
I am not to understand any(thing) in this
'I do not understand any of this'

What at first was primarily found in sports reports and adolescents' language is rapidly gaining ground in other contexts and amongst older speakers as well. The fact that adults pick up forms to be used in particular contexts does not have to indicate a grammatical change (e.g. Lightfoot 1999). However, regularities in distribution and the fact that the recent uses of the progressive normally coincide with the basic imperfective meaning of the progressive aspect (exceptions from this are modal uses) could be an indication of a change in progress. A general inclination of progressive forms to develop into imperfectives is also a well known fact in typological research (see e.g. Bybee et al. 1994, Dahl 2000). There are indications that the Icelandic progressive might take this course as well.

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Orthographies in the New World Democracy: A Sociophonological Model

This paper suggests the new direction for orthography construction and reforms in a democratized society. It is directed towards the implementation of the new world democratic ideologies, reduction in inter and intra-lingual suspicion and conflicts as well as reduction in language and dialect attrition. Notably, the Universal Declaration of Human rights 1948, the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights 1996, the Declaration of Rights of Persons Belonging to National, Ethnic, Religious and Linguistic Minorities 1992, among others, specify the linguistic and cultural ideologies of the new world democracy which seek to assert the linguistic rights of individuals and communities. In pursuit of this ideology, dominant research efforts, among others, are directed towards identifying and vitalising endangered linguistic species. Although research addressing the implementation of these ideals is fast growing, little or no concern for orthographies in particular, is demonstrated; hence this paper. It demonstrates how the requirements of the new world democratic ideologies may be implemented in orthography development and management and reforms; in overt regard for the ethnolinguistic sensibilities of individuals and communities.

To achieve this, a sociophonological framework for orthographies is proposed in contradistinction to the traditional phonemic approach, based on the African experience. In this conception, we suggest contrastive social meaning as a basis for characterizing the significant sounds, the candidates for the graphisation, in place of sound-meaning contrast. It thus accounts for all properties of speech that bear social meaning, including socio-cultural identity for given dialect communities. In other words, in addition to those sounds which may be contrastive within the traditional minimal pair test, we also have those which in pronunciation enable a listener to identify the speaker as a member of a given historic regional community. With language and dialect communities as its domain, its outcome is democratic orthographies for the world's languages which are designed as close as possible to the spoken forms of language varieties and sociolinguistic equity, among others.

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Basic colour terms in two Finno-Ugric languages – Hungarian and Finnish

Starting with the classical study "Basic Color Terms: Their Universality and Evolution" by Berlin and Kay (1969), colour terms of many languages have been extensively examined. According to this theory, all languages contain basic colour categories, which number varies from two through eleven. The only Finno-Ugric language investigated in this study was Hungarian (erroneously classified as Altaic), which was considered to have exceptionally 12 basic colour terms instead of 11, including two basic terms for red: *piros* and *vörös*. This statement has lived a long life, cited in myriad of textbooks and studies, although no profound empirical tests with a sufficient number of native speakers had been conducted. The only Finno-Ugric language studied empirically with sufficient number of subject is Estonian, which has fully developed colour system with 11 basic colour terms (Sutrop, 2002). Finnic (Finnish, Estonian etc.) languages were studied by Koski in his monograph (1983). Although he supported the theory of Berlin and Kay, he unfortunately used only dictionary data and his intuition for discussing basic colour terms. He suggested that there are only 8 basic colour terms in Finnish and 10 basic colour terms in Estonian.

The novelty of this paper is that large number empirical tests have been conducted in Hungary and Finland. Based on these results, the basic colour term inventory has made in Hungarian and Finnish. I have relied on the hypothesis and theory of Berlin and Kay. However, to collect data, I have used the field method of Davies and Corbett. The field method offered by Ian Davies and Greville Corbett with which they have successfully studied the basic colour terms of Russian and several other languages (1994, 1995), consists of two tasks: a list task, where the subjects are asked to name as many colour terms they know, and, a colour naming task, where the subjects are shown 65 colour-squares, one square at the time, in a random sequence and asked how would they name each colour in their native language. The list task of Davies and Corbett has been supplemented with cognitive salience index by Sutrop (2002). In 2002 and 2003 I interviewed 125 native speakers of Hungarian in Budapest, Debrecen, Győr, Pécs, Dejtár, Ipolyvece, Balassagyarmat and Budaörs, Hungary. In 2005 and 2006 I conducted tests with 68 native speakers of Finnish in Helsinki, Turku, Espoo and Lempäälä, Finland. The collected data enables to conclude that:

- 1) There are exactly 11 basic colour terms both in Hungarian and in Finnish, as it is in the third most important Finno-Ugric language, Estonian.
- 2) The basic colour terms of Hungarian are *fehér* 'white', *fekete* 'black', *piros* 'red', *zöld* 'green', *sárga* 'yellow', *kék* 'blue', *barna* 'brown', *lila* 'purple', *rózsaszín* 'pink', *narancssárga* 'orange', and *szürke* 'grey'.
- 3) The basic colour terms of Finnish are: *valkoinen* 'white', *musta* 'black', *punainen* 'red', *vihreä* 'green', *keltainen* 'yellow', *sininen* 'blue', *ruskea* 'brown', *violetti* 'purple', *vaaleanpunainen* 'pink', *oranssi* 'orange', and *harmaa* 'grey'.
- 4) In Hungarian only *piros* is a basic colour term. The colour term *vörös* is not a basic colour term.

Thus, Hungarian is in line with the theory by Berlin and Kay and is not an exception. Analysing the best examples of colours in these languages, it can be seen that some of them are different (e.g. blue is darker in Finnish than in Hungarian).

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Discourse-Based Linguistic Research of Diplomatic Documents

Diplomatic documents reflect the country's foreign policy and international relations potential; linguistically, they present a wide range of research subjects in various fields of linguistics, including discourse-analysis and cognitive linguistics, as well as translation studies. Experimental material for this particular research was collected during the author's work at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the Russian Federation (Moscow), as well as on the official web-sites of present-day international organizations (UN, OSCE, UNESCO, etc.).

Having considered specific features of English-written diplomatic documents and their Russian translations, we have defined the following general linguistic peculiarities of diplomatic discourse: objectivity, generality, information capacity, logical and definite structure, clear contents and unambiguity, as well as the observance of diplomatic ethics.

Based on the peculiarities educed, we can speak about the following active speech devices employed in English-written diplomatic documents: 1) series of clichés and

standard constructions; 2) lexical and semantic groups of the notional parts of speech; 3) special (diplomatic) terminology; 4) foreign borrowings; 5) euphemisms; 6) contractions and abbreviations; 7) series of special symbols.

Syntactic characteristics of diplomatic documents allow us to speak about the complex syntactical system mostly aimed at the clear organization of the text. This makes diplomatic documents more logical and informative, and facilitates their better comprehension.

Pragmatic research of diplomatic discourse and the corresponding pragmatic characteristics of diplomatic documents reflect the high level of information capacity of diplomatic documents, as well as specific linguistic impact aimed at international cooperation, national and international issues.

When translating English-written diplomatic documents into Russian, the translator is to take into account the peculiarities listed above and follow certain discourse-based translation strategies:

- lexical and semantic translation (precise and adequate translation of terminology and common diplomatic clichés; careful observance of ethical norms and exceptionally precise wording);
- syntactic translation (equivalent translation of sentence structures and periods, aimed at a more logical and comprehensive translation);
- pragmatic translation (maintaining the pragmatic balance of the document, keeping the basic pragmatic functions and instruments of the original text).

The above data has formed the basis for our current research on the principles and peculiarities of diplomatic discourse and translation methods viewed in discourse theory. Further research on the subject will also include issues of multi-lingual translation (translating English-written diplomatic documents into Russian, German and French) and look at the role of diplomatic documents in creating the political and cultural image of a country.

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Acquisition of the English progressive by Norwegian children

In Norway, there is a strong emphasis on foreign language learning in school. In this connection, writing – along with reading, speaking, and listening – is seen as an important skill. However, to my knowledge, little systematic work has been done to investigate grammatical features of learner production, and even less within the framework of Cognitive Linguistics. An investigation like this will provide an opportunity to test CL theory within the field of language acquisition.

This paper presents preliminary analyses from my Ph.D. project on the acquisition of the progressive by Norwegian learners of English as a foreign language, as compared to that of same-age native speakers. The motivation for this comparative approach is as follows: There is little information on the developmental pathways followed by Norwegian learners acquiring this construction. Including a comparison with development in L1 speakers allows for the identification of both common developmental features and non-shared features that could shed light on the process of learning to make new grammatical distinctions.

I have chosen to investigate differences and similarities in L1 and L2 usage and development of the progressive construction, *be V-ing*. This construction was chosen because, in learning it, Norwegian L2 learners must restructure their construals of temporal contours in order to accommodate a different coding of aspectual information. In Norwegian, progressive aspect is not marked grammatically. If the type of aspectual information coded by the progressive is to be explicitly conveyed in Norwegian – which is relatively exceptional – this is done by adding some kind of lexical construction, often using a posture verb as in V+V constructions like *Jeg sitter og leser* (*I sit and read*) or *Jeg ligger og sover* (*I lie and sleep*). However, the examples below are more typical of what can be found in learner texts, and indicate that V+V constructions might not be carried over to the target language.

The puppy lie next to the boy when he sleep.

The boy sitt in has bedroom with has dog, and they see on the frog.

The data was collected at selected schools in Norway and the United States. There are four groups of subjects in total, two from each language group, ages 11 and 16.

The material was elicited through a procedure developed by Berman and Slobin (1994) using the so-called frog stories. The subjects were shown a picture story about a boy whose pet frog escapes and were then asked to write the story in their own words. The exercise was conducted online, and the texts are stored electronically.

This paper will present some preliminary results of this investigation, primarily from the youngest age groups. The initial analysis includes frequency of use and distribution of event types across groups (Croft 1998).

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Diphthong- Mid-Vowel Alternations in Egyptian Arabic

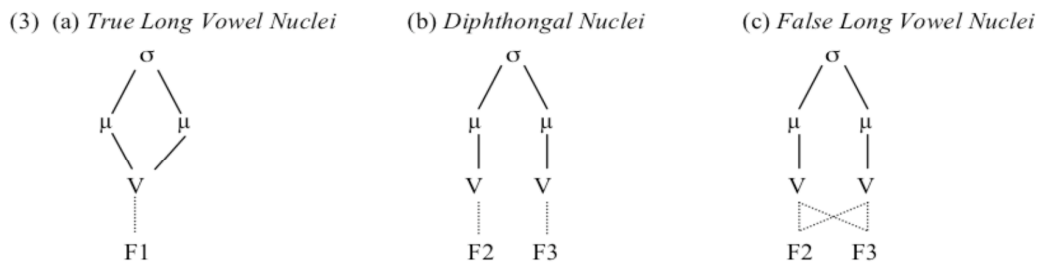
One of the least studied aspects in Arabic phonology involves the development and status of mid vowels and diphthongs in the modern dialects. To take an example, in Egyptian Arabic (EA) the long mid vowels [e:] and [o:] are claimed by most linguists to have historically developed from Standard Arabic (SA) diphthongs [aj] and [aw] respectively through monophthongization (Birkeland 1952; Broselow 1976; Gadalla 2000; Harrell 1957; Jastrow and Behnstedt 1980; Watson 2002, among others). This is exemplified in (1) below.

- (1) a. SA: [s^hajf] → EA: [s^he:f] 'summer' b. SA: [s^hallaj-na] → EA: [s^halle:-na] 'we prayed'
c. SA: [lawn] → EA: [lo:n] 'color' d. SA: [tawba] → EA: [to:ba] 'repentance'

On the other hand, the synchronic status of mid vowels and diphthongs in the dialects has been ignored in the literature. Three facts are particularly interesting. First is the absence of short mid vowels in EA - a markedness problem since long vowels should imply short vowels (Moren 1999). Second are the systematic exceptions to EA monophthongization in which diphthongs appear on the surface. Third is the fact that EA contrasts long mid vowels with these diphthongs in a specific morphological environment, as shown in (2).

(2)	a. [ʔ'awza]	'wanting (f.sg.)'	[ʔ'o:za]	'want (n.)'
	b. [ʔ'ajla]	'carrying (f.sg.)'	[ʔ'e:la]	'burden'

In this paper, I investigate the full complexity of the phonological and morphological behavior of mid vowels and diphthongs in EA and their correspondents in SA, by classifying the relevant forms under their respective type of consonantal radicals. In doing so, I propose that Egyptian Arabic morphology can be derived from the same underlying forms as Standard Arabic with the addition of dialect-specific phonological processes. I formulate these processes in terms of constraint interactions in the framework of Optimality Theory (McCarthy and Prince 1993; Prince and Smolensky 1993). The distribution of mid vowels and diphthongs are accounted for through the interaction of three groups of constraints argued for independently in the literature: general markedness constraints, general faithfulness constraints, and output-output faithfulness constraints. The output-output faithfulness constraints account for the morphologically conditioned EA diphthongs which contrast with mid vowels (2). I also show that the same underlying representations can produce the different EA and SA surface patterns by a minimal constraint re-ranking. While some diphthongs surface identically in both varieties, most SA diphthongs correspond to A long mid vowels. I argue that the appearance of long mid vowels in EA is the result of total assimilation of two adjacent vocalic root nodes. In other words, they are “false long vowels” as illustrated in (3c).



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Building a term collection for a specific domain - challenges and achievements

As part of my PhD project I am building a concept-based bi-lingual collection of terms in English and Norwegian from the domain ‘corporate governance’.

Corporate governance as a domain became the object of great interest in the aftermath of a series of high-profile business scandals which the world experienced during the years after the turn of the millennium. Steps were taken, in the form of legislation, regulation and the establishment of commonly accepted standards, in

order to increase the awareness of how businesses are directed and controlled in the best interest of the various stakeholders, and new literature has emerged on this and related subjects.

Terminological analysis, including analyses of concept contents, characteristics and relations will be part of the methodology to arrive at a collection of terms. Corporate governance being a fairly new domain as such, I expect that such analyses will lead to greater clarity and understanding of the concepts of the domain and how they relate to each other. This, in turn, could lead to a better understanding and increased consciousness of the mechanisms of corporate governance.

I also believe that a term collection could make a valuable contribution when it comes to understanding and translation of important texts from this domain.

When building a term collection some challenges should be expected. They include:

- The task of separating terms from non-terms
- Separating terms from the domain in question from terms from other domains
- Choosing the right level of detail for concepts (and thus terms) to be included
- Identifying lacunas, in one or both languages
- Dealing with new and undefined terminology

In my speech I will share some preliminary results with regard to findings and challenges, and provide examples from my collection of corporate governance term candidates.

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On the Phonetically Conditioned Rules

One of the central tasks in linguistics is to delineate systematic grammatical rules whether diachronic or synchronic. There are two kinds of rules: strong (**if** Condition - **then** Phenomenon) and weak (Phenomenon **when** Condition). The strong one tends to dominate in the research, but the weak one should not be neglected. Byway of demonstrating this point, I treat the Proto-Semitic noun stem CVCC (V=i, a, u) in Biblical Hebrew.

A) Usually CVCC→CVCεC; in the open syllable a→ε and i→e→a→ε in conformity with Philippi's law. Thus, the original CiCC and CaCC yield the same form CεCεC. There remain, however, some cases of CeCεC, where [e] was not influenced by the e→a shift. Previous attempts to explain these exceptions were unsuccessful [see Ben-David (1983), Revell (1985), Qimron (1986)]. It seems that [e] emergence is phonetically conditioned as follows:

- 1) when C₁ is a guttural (ʔ, ʕ, h, ħ, 31 nouns) ;
- 2) when C₁ or C₂ is a sibilant (s, ʃ, sʕ, 29 nouns, and possibly θ, 4 nouns);
- 3) when C₁ is n (12 nouns).

The only exception appears to be **rebesʕ** "crouch".

B) The plural form of CVCC and some other stems is CVCaCīm/CVCaCōt. In the construct state, it changes to CVCCē/CVCCōt. When in the singular V=a or i, in the plural construct V=a or i. It was previously suggested that the vowel in the plural is original (Kautzsch 1910: 90) or anaptyctic (Lambert 1946:189). It seems that here too there is a phonetic rule of [a] emergence:

- 1) when C₁ or/and C₂ is a guttural (ʔ, ʕ, h, ħ, 66 nouns);

- 2) when C₂ is l, r, n (liquids, but not m, 43 nouns).

Exceptions: **nəfəʃ-nafjot** "soul"; **ʃdemʕ-jadmot** "field"; and 6 other doubtful nouns.

The anaptyctic vowel is a better explanation for the phonetic conditioning of the first vowel.

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