GLAC 21
The Twenty-First Germanic Linguistics Annual Conference

Organizing Committee:

Laura Catharine Smith  
(German and Russian, BYU)

Teresa Bell  
(German and Russian, BYU)

Don Chapman  
(English Language and Linguistics, BYU)

Tonya Kim Dewey  
(German Studies, University of Minnesota, Morris)

Andrea Ramsey  
(Conferences and Workshops, BYU)

With very warm thanks to: Jessica Bryan, Dan Dewey, Conrad Dugger, Dirk Elzinga, Randall Jones, Deryle Londoasdale, Aaron Norman, Marc Pierce, Zeb Pischnotte, Alyssse Purcell, Mike Putman, Dorian Roehrs, Catia Shattuck, Daniel Taylor, Mel Thorne, and Miranda Wilcox.

Special thanks to Allison Schreiber for designing the GLAC-21 logo.
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<td>“Latin Loanwords in Old Frisian and the Problem of Relative Chronology”</td>
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<td>Lisa YAGER: (Univ. of Wisconsin—Madison)</td>
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<td>Lisa YAGER: (Univ. of Wisconsin—Madison)</td>
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<td>Rob HOLLOW: (Univ. of Wisconsin—Madison)</td>
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<td>Katrin FUCHS: (Univ. of Texas—Austin)</td>
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<td>Christine GARDNER: (Penn State Univ.) Word Duration in Conversational Speech in Second Language German</td>
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<td>Shawn L. NISSEN, Lisa D. ISAACSON, Teresa R. BELL &amp; Laura Catharine SMITH</td>
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<td>Mary O’BRIEN: (University of Calgary) focus in German: Acoustic and auditory findings</td>
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<td>John SCOTT &amp; Isabelle DARCY: (University of Indiana) The efficacy of using electropalatography to quantitatively describe lingualpalatal contact patterns in German</td>
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<td>Paula FENCER: (University of Connecticut) Why Dutch men need to get high. The syntactic distribution of impersonal pronouns</td>
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<td>9:30–10:00</td>
<td>Martje WIJERS: (Ghent University) The complexity of subordination in Second Language Acquisition. A case study on subordination in Swedish as a foreign language</td>
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<td>Dorian Roehrs (Room: Elm) Pronominal Syntax</td>
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<td>Jessica LaFern BRYAN:</td>
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<td>Patricia WILEY:</td>
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<td>Solveig BOSSE (East Carolina Univ.) &amp; Michael T. PUTNAM (Penn State Univ.)</td>
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<td>Johannes KNAUS:</td>
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<td>4:45–5:15</td>
<td>Matthew BOUTILIER:</td>
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<td>Patterns of Extraposition in German Regional Language</td>
<td>Shannon DUBENION-SMITH (Western Washington Univ.)</td>
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<td>Icelandic Quirks: Testing Linguistic Theories and Language Technology</td>
<td>Thorhallur EYTHORSSON (University of Iceland)</td>
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<td>Recent developments in Germanic historical syntax</td>
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<td>The Assertional Force of V2 Clauses in German</td>
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<td>Attitudes towards German language and culture in comparison to other languages and cultures</td>
<td>Bradley MCCANN, Spencer FRAME, Jon MAHONEY &amp; Laura Catharine SMITH (Brigham Young University)</td>
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<td>Twin Sons of Different Motherlands: Lyricism in the Writings of Robert Walser and Kajii Motojirō</td>
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<td>Prosodic Allophone Dates back to the Early Middle English</td>
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<td>Auf dem Holzweg: Repairing Garden Paths and Other Parsing Difficulties in German</td>
<td>Gerald SNOW &amp; Deryle LONSDALE (Brigham Young University)</td>
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<td>Unlocking Modern German through the Second Sound Shift</td>
<td>Robert CUSICK &amp; Tashina OSMAN</td>
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<td>A New Approach to Vowel Visualization</td>
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<td>Developing the German ACTFL Reading Test (ART) Items</td>
<td>Randall JONES &amp; Randall LUND</td>
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<td>Teaching fluency in the classroom as a component of second language proficiency</td>
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<td>Views from the Outside: Actions from the Inside</td>
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<td>The Unbroken Treaty: Learning Language through Role-play</td>
<td>Thomas LABORDE &amp; David HUENLICH</td>
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<td>Oy Veh! What’s Your Shpiel, Mentsh? Bringing Yiddish into the Classroom</td>
<td>Aaron NORMAN &amp; Justin PARK</td>
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<td>The merits of different forms of written feedback in beginning German university classes</td>
<td>Daniel TAYLOR</td>
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<td>Divorcing proficiency from seat time: Reinvisioning the German curriculum at Timpview High School</td>
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**Teaching Expo Posters**

Saturday May 9, 2015
Friday May 8 Plenary
11:15–12:15 | Amphitheater

Rolf H. Bremmer
University of Leiden

Abstract

Latin Loanwords in Old Frisian
and the Problem of Relative Chronology

To date, the Latin loans in the early phases of the Frisian language have remained a much unexplored field. Kluge’s important contribution on Latin and Romance loans in Germanic in Paul’s Grundriss der germanischen Philologie (1901) contains not one example from the Frisian evidence. In 1921, Holthausen (1921) published a long list of Latin and Romance loans in Old Frisian, but without any comment on, e.g., chronology or distribution. Yet, the number of Latin loans in Old Frisian is considerable and quite a few of these are early, because they show evidence of having gone through the early sound changes that turned West Germanic into Old Frisian. However, a number of Latin loans are problematic. Although they must have been borrowed after the conversion, yet phonologically they would appear to be early, e.g. ompel ‘sanctuary lamp’, Ondreus ‘Andrew’, tselke ‘chalice’. Such loan words raise questions concerning the validity of relative chronology and the vitality of sound-laws. My paper elaborates on Dekker’s (2000) informative survey of the field.

References


About Rolf H. Bremmer

Rolf H. Bremmer Jr (1950) studied English Language and Literature as well as Old Germanic Studies at Groningen and Oxford. In 1987 he earned his doctoral degree at Nijmegen with a thesis called The Fyve Wyttes. A Late Middle English Devotional Treatise, Edited from BL, MS Harley 2398, with an Introduction, Commentary and Glossary (Amsterdam: Rodopi, 1987). He worked as assistant professor English at Nijmegen from 1979 to 1986. He then moved to Leiden University, where he now holds the chair of English Philology. Since 2002 he has also been, by special appointment, professor of Frisian Language and Literature at Leiden. In 1994 he was Erasmus professor of Dutch History and Culture at Harvard University. Bremmer has published widely in the field of, especially, Old English and Old Frisian, including An Introduction to Old Frisian. History, Grammar, Reader, Glossary (Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins, 2009; repr., with corrections, 201
Abstract

Validating Multiple Varieties in the L2 Classroom

In second language (L2) education, sociolinguistic competence is typically considered the most challenging of the four components that make up communicative competence. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the ability to interpret sociolinguistic variation, and to use language appropriately in social and situational contexts. Not only is the development of this capacity perhaps incompatible with the constraints of the L2 classroom, but the very concept of variation also puts into question the native speaker model, still central to L2 instruction and assessment. Not surprisingly, variation poses a “pedagogical problem” in the L2 classroom, one that is unlikely to be solved through particular L2 materials or textbooks. In my presentation, I will focus on developing teachers’ sociolinguistic awareness as fundamental to validating multiple varieties in the L2 classroom. Specifically, I will draw on Backward Design, in particular the six facets of understanding, for integrating the notion of sociolinguistic varieties and variation into teacher education.

About Johanna Watzinger-Tharp

Johanna Watzinger-Tharp received her Ph.D. from the University of Texas at Austin in Applied Linguistics, and is currently Associate Professor at the University of Utah with a dual appointment in Languages & Literature and Linguistics. She also serves as Associate Dean for Interdisciplinary & International Programs in the College of Humanities. Her research focuses on the intersections of variation in language, L2 methodology and teacher education and, more recently, on Utah dual language immersion program demographics and academic achievement.
Abstracts of Papers
One man’s singular is another man’s plural: A look at Nuremberg’s diminutive suffix system

Mary Allison
University of Wisconsin-Madison

Located in an area bordering North Bavarian and East Franconian dialect regions, Nuremberg formed a dialect that cannot be fully attributed exclusively to one region or the other. High levels of demographic movement, and those sociological factors influencing these shifts (immigration, population turnover, etc.), provided the setting necessary for the process of koinéisation (in the sense of Kerswill and Williams 2000) and the development of a unique linguistic area. This paper focuses on the development of Nuremberg’s diminutive suffix system in the early modern period. Based on modern dialects, we know that the diminutive suffixes settled out as follows.

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<th>Dim pl. suffix</th>
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<td>East of isogloss</td>
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<td>-la</td>
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<td>Nuremberg</td>
<td>-la</td>
<td>-la</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the midst of dialects with distinct singular and plural diminutive suffixes, Nuremberg has developed a system that does not mark the singular plural distinction. Nuremberg is located along an isogloss separating two such systems (as illustrated in the table) (Maurer 1972: 101-2). When one applies both isoglosses, the Nuremberg area forms an island. In Nuremberg’s dialect area, we see the –la diminutive suffix applied to both singular and plural forms.

Traditional grammars have focused on a phonological explanation of the development of the diminutive suffixes, referring to a weakening of an original –lein suffix, but give little explanation as to why or how varying suffix systems came about (Gebhardt 1907, Moser and Stopp 1978).

This paper has a different focus and draws connections between the development of urban koine and sociohistorical factors, using informal correspondence as a data source. I argue that the development of the new koine, including its diminutive suffix system, corresponds to population shifts. During the early modern period high numbers of immigrants entered the city, which in turn allowed it to maintain its population despite a “chronic excess of deaths relative to the number of births” (De Vries 1984: 178). During the early modern period this constant renewal of the population from various areas brought with it an influx of speakers from multiple dialect areas, which had varying diminutive suffix systems. This influx provided heterogeneous input from which young learners had to create their own individual grammars.

References

Stylistic Fronting and Related Constructions
in the Insular Scandinavian Languages
Ásgrímur Angantýsson
University of Iceland

This paper reports on the similarities and differences between Stylistic Fronting (SF) and related constructions in Icelandic and Faroese. As originally pointed out by Maling (1980), Stylistic Fronting in Icelandic is most typically found in embedded clauses with a “subject gap”:  

(1) a. Þetta er mál sem hafur verið rætt um
       This is a matter that has been discussed about
       SF

b. Þetta er mál sem rætt hafur verið um
       This is a matter that has been about

   c. *Þetta er mál sem það hafur verið rætt um
       This is a matter that EXPL has been discussed about

‘This is a matter that has been discussed’

(2) a. ?Ég held að hafi verið rætt um málið á fundinum
       I think that has been discussed about the matter at the meeting
       SF

b. Ég held að rætt hafi verið um málið á fundinum
       I think that has been about the matter at the meeting
       SF

   c. Ég held að það hafi verið rætt um málið á fundinum
       I think that EXPL has been discussed about the matter at the meeting
       Expl

(3) a. Þeir sem hafa verið í Ósló segja að…
       Those that have been in Oslo say that

b. Þeir sem í Ósló hafa verið segja að…
       Those that in Oslo have been say that
       PP fronting

   c. *Þeir sem það hafa verið í Ósló segja að…
       Those that EXPL hve been in Oslo say that
       Expl

A comparison of the a-examples indicates that some subject gaps can be left empty while others preferably need to be filled. Sentences (1b) and (2b) are typical examples of SF. The c-examples show that expletive insertion is not always an alternative to SF. Example (3b) features SF-like movement of an XP within an embedded clause which has a subject gap (for an overview, see Thráinsson 2007).

Contrary to the claim that “any category can become an expletive” (Holmberg 2000), it is argued that stylistically fronted elements and overt expletives are not equivalent. In both languages, expletive insertion is preferred over SF in complement clauses, but in Faroese, unlike in Icelandic, expletive insertion is preferred over SF in adverbial clauses and relative clauses as well. In most cases, fronting past participles is easy in Faroese (at least in relative clauses), as it is in Icelandic, but fronting verbal particles and prepositions seems to be heavily restricted in Faroese, unlike in Icelandic. It turns out that younger speakers of Icelandic do not like embedded SF as much as older speakers do. This could be interpreted as an ongoing change in the language. However, it must be taken into account that these constructions are more common in written language and in a formal style of speech; thus the older informants are perhaps more likely to accept features of ‘elevated’ style, even though they are being asked for judgments about their own usage in the spoken language. The overall data presented and discussed in the paper suggest that the possibility of SF is partly conditioned by the clause type and the nature of the element fronted by SF and partly by lexical/idiomatic factors.

References


The topic of this paper is the status of Faroese among the Scandinavian languages, in particular with respect to verb placement in embedded clauses. Adv-Vfin order (V3) is the default word order in all types of embedded clauses in Faroese. In this respect Faroese is very different from Icelandic, where V2 (meaning simply ‘the finite verb in second position’) is always the default order in subject-initial embedded clauses. But it is also different from Danish, where V2 is always heavily marked in all types of subject-initial embedded clauses.

There has been considerable controversy in the linguistic literature about the nature of the V2-order in Faroese embedded clauses: Is it the result of a V-to-T movement (as is typically assumed for Icelandic) or is it a root phenomenon, i.e. movement to the CP-domain (commonly referred to as V-to-C). Heycock et al. (2012) argue that both kinds of Vfin-Adv order can be found in Faroese embedded clauses and this paper provides further evidence for that claim. On the one hand there is V-to-C and hence there is very clear evidence that assertion plays a role in the distribution of V2-order in subject-initial complement clauses in Faroese: If the complement proposition can be interpreted as the main assertion of the utterance then V2 is usually fine, but if the matrix predicate expresses the main assertion then V2 is heavily degraded in most cases. Here there are some similarities to Embedded topicalization (ET): ET gets positive judgments in the assertive complements of *siga* ‘say’ and *halda* ‘believe’, as well as in the complement of the semi-factive predicate *finna útav* ‘discover’, but almost nobody fully accepts it in other types of embedded clauses. These results are even clearer with respect to Hooper & Thompson’s (1973) classification of predicates than comparable results for ET in Icelandic, where the acceptance rate of ET in complements of predicates of classes C and D was much higher.

But embedded V2-orders in Faroese cannot all be attributed to V-to-C since they are also accepted, by some speakers at least, in clauses where ET is completely impossible, such as relative clauses and indirect questions (clauses that have no root properties). This suggests that V-to-T is also a possibility in Faroese. Some versions of the so-called Rich Agreement Hypothesis (e.g. Bobaljik and Thráinsson 1998) would then predict that transitive expletives should also be possible in Faroese and this prediction is borne out. It is demonstrated, however, that speakers who distinguish tense and agreement morphemes most clearly in their speech are neither more likely to accept transitive expletives nor V2-orders in various types of embedded clauses than speakers who do not distinguish tense and agreement morphemes as clearly. The relevance of this for different versions of the Rich Agreement Hypothesis is discussed in the paper and a possible scenario for the historical development of embedded clause word order in Faroese is presented. In short, it is maintained that while the V2-order in embedded clauses is on its way out in Faroese, presumably because of diminishing morphological support and partially ambiguous syntactic evidence, the language has not yet reached the Mainland Scandinavian state in this respect and has developed a system of its own.

References

An Empirical Classroom Study on the Efficacy of Using CG to Teach German Case to Intermediate Learners
Carlee Arnett
University of California-Davis

The theory of Cognitive Grammar (CG) can be used to account for a number of syntactic structures in a variety of languages in a way that is useful to L2 students (De Knop et al. 2010, Tyler 2012 and many others). This paper presents the results of a classroom study conducted over a 10 week period assessing if a CG presentation of the case system in German leads to better student production on a post-test and delayed post-test than the instruction provided in the intermediate textbook, Denkmal.

Following Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory (1978), true acquisition of any structure can only be successful for learners if there is a tool that can help evoke the required images and processes from the present inherent linguistic data and sort the information in such a way that eases the learning process. Therefore, the proposed analysis suggests looking at cases as one whole entity rather than scattered grammatical units and offers a visual description of the case system.

In Week 3 of instruction the students were given a pre-test comprised of three sections. The first was to label the case of German nouns, the second was to fill in the correct definite article in the blank and the third is to write a five-sentence paragraph to a picture that encourages the use of all four cases. The treatment occurred in Week 4 over a three-day period. On day one the students are given schemata to represent the four cases and sample sentences. On day 2 the students receive a quick review and then write sentences to the schema that they are given in groups and individually. On day 3 the students draw their own schemata to sentences they are given and conclude the lesson by drawing their own schema and having a partner write the sentence or writing the sentence and the partner draws the schema. The students were given a post-test in Week 8 similar in format to the pre-test and a delayed post-test after a three month interval.

By examining the effects of the proposed case explanation method in a test group and comparing the results with a traditionally-instructed control group, the study attests that the CG-based explanation of the German case system resulted in improved performance on the post-test and delayed post-test. Although not all of these results are statistically significant, all students in the treatment group improved on recognizing case, filling in the blanks with the correct article and the use of case in the free writing portion.

References
The perception of German vowels by North American English learners of German

Erik Arnold  Kyle Baird  Darrel Lau  Laura Catharine Smith
Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University

The importance of perceptual ability for someone learning a second language (L2) has been well established by various studies (e.g., Bohn & Flege, 1990; Polka, 1995; Sheldon & Strange, 1982; Wode, 1996). Some research (Bohn & Flege, 1990; Flege & Lui, 2001; Flege & Mackay, 2004) has shown that the amount of experience a person has with their L2 affects their ability to perceive the sounds used in that language. In short, learners with more language experience in an L2 have been found to be better able to perceive sounds in that language. Of particular interest to the current study, York (2008) investigated the role of experience in perception of German rounded vowels, by American English (AE) learners of German. He found that the AE learners with more German experience were able to perceive the German rounded vowels more accurately than learners with less experience, with the exception of /u:/ and /ʊ/. The current study sought not only to confirm York’s findings, but indeed to determine if the same conclusions would hold if both the unrounded and rounded German vowels were tested.

To this end we asked similar questions to those posed by York: 1) does level of experience play a role in the perception of German vowels and 2) what are the patterns of misidentification when the rounded and unrounded vowels are considered? To answer these questions we tested the perception, i.e., identification, of sixty-six subjects enrolled at a large private university. Fifty-nine were native speakers of North American English who were learning German and 7 were native German speakers. Subjects were divided into five groups according to the level of German classes in which they were enrolled: 100-level, 200-level, 300+ level with no substantial residence in a German-speaking country, 300+level with substantial residence, and native speakers. The tokens used in the identification task presented via Qualtrics were real and nonsense words created from the 15 German vowels in four phonetic environments: \textit{b\_te}, \textit{b\_ne}, \textit{b\_le}, and \textit{b\_re}. The following consonant was varied to determine if some environments impact identification more than others. Words were presented individually (and randomly) via headphones. After hearing each word, subjects were instructed to select which word they thought they had heard from 15 choices presented on the computer screen.

Results were analyzed in terms of both accuracy and patterns of responses. As expected, the native group had the highest mean accuracy for all vowels, followed by the 300+level (with residence), 300+level (no res), 200-level, and 100-level. A series of ANOVAs were run revealing that experience does play a significant role in the perception of L2 vowels; as experience increases, perceptual ability increases. The 200-level and 300+(no res) groups were frequently “hinge” groups that did not differ from the groups immediately below or above. General trends in the (mis)identification patterns were also observed. In general, tense and lax vowels were misidentified respectively as their lax and tense vowel counterparts, or they were misidentified as their rounded or unrounded counterparts. A similar pattern of misidentification was seen with short vowels. These results support those found by York (2008) revealing common trends across the perception of rounded and unrounded German vowels.
Shaping the norm: Language change and variation  
in 19th-century Icelandic and the emergence of a linguistic standard  
Haraldur Bernhardsson  
University of Iceland

The Icelandic language underwent considerable standardization in the course of the 19th century. This development was partly fuelled by rising political nationalism in Iceland the early 19th century which initiated a long-standing struggle for the independence from Danish rule. Through series of societal changes, the Icelandic language gradually assumed a variety of new roles as the language of printed media, public schools, administration, and ultimately as the national language of a sovereign state. This change of status affected the language itself. As the language assumed the role of the official language of Iceland, a linguistic norm for public use had to be defined. In cases of linguistic variation, questions were bound to arise as to which variant should be selected for use in printed media, in schools, etc.

This paper is part of a larger research project titled “Language Change and Linguistic Variation in 19th-Century Icelandic and the Emergence of a National Standard”. The project has constructed two corpora of written texts from the 19th century, one of over 1,600 private letters and the other of newspapers, journals and other printed materials, which make it possible to examine this language standardization.

This paper focuses on the development of the linguistic norm as manifested in the first novel printed in Icelandic, Jón Thoroddsen’s Piltur og stúlka. It first appeared in 1850 and immediately enjoyed immense popularity. In a second edition of the novel released in 1867, the author not only modified the orthography, but also made numerous changes of expression, mostly replacing a young linguistic variant with a more archaic one. The two editions of Piltur og stúlka thus provide a valuable opportunity to study the emergence of a new linguistic norm for Icelandic. The linguistic variants in question can be compared with Jón Thoroddsen’s language as it appears in his private letters, as well as the language of many of his contemporaries in hundreds of private letters. The second edition of the novel was widely read and undoubtedly played an important role in instituting a new linguistic norm for Icelandic.
A constructional analysis of
Texas German *mit* (‘with’)

Hans C. Boas
The University of Texas at Austin

Recent years have seen an expansion of constructional approaches into a broad range of linguistic fields. However, relatively few analyses have focused on issues of language contact from a constructional perspective (see Pietsch 2010 and Höder 2012 for exceptions).

To overcome this dearth of constructional research on language contact, this paper offers a constructional analysis of semantic and syntactic change of the preposition *mit* (‘with’) in Texas German (TXG), a new-world dialect spoken in central Texas for more than 150 years (Boas 2009). Part one of the paper gives a brief overview of the history of Texas German, including its contact with English. Part two presents the corpora that form the basis for this paper, namely Gilbert’s (1972) *Linguistic Atlas of Texas German*, which shows the distribution of multiple features of TXG, and the Texas German Dialect Archive (Boas 2006, Boas et al. 2010, http://www.tgdp.org).

Part three discusses the semantic and syntactic changes that *mit* has undergone in TXG over the past 100 years. I first discuss case reduction of *mit* (dative is replaced by accusative or oblique case, e.g. *Da ham se mit die Kinder gespielt* (‘There they played with the children’)) in different contexts, highlighting the interaction of phonological and semantic factors, which trigger the re-alignment of the distribution of cases found with *mit*. Next, I discuss the distribution of cases with pronouns following *mit* (e.g. *Ich hab viel Deutsch mit ihn gesprochen* (‘I talked a lot of German with him’)). Then, I discuss a set of re-lexified English idiomatic expressions, in which the structure and meaning of English idioms remains intact, but the individual parts are now all German words (e.g. *war Freunde mit uns* (‘was friends with us’), *er war mit das deutschen Baptisten* (‘he was with the German Baptists’), *die Stadt nimmt na Masse Geld rein mit die tourists* (‘the city takes in a lot of money with the tourists’)). Finally, I offer a constructional analysis of the changes of *mit* over the past 100 years, showing how the notion of grammatical construction is a useful analytical tool for accounting for the interaction of syntactic, semantic, and phonological factors. I argue that the different properties of *mit* can best be accounted for within a constructional network (Boas 2011) linking the various senses and uses of *mit* with each other. In this context I also address the influence of English, which appears to play a supporting role in semantic and syntactic change.
The Historical Phonology of German(ic) */sk/  
David Bolter  
Indiana University  

In historical linguistics, it is frequently acknowledged that many sound changes of the type /A/ > /B/ can be decomposed into a sequence of smaller steps, i.e. /A/ > /A1/ > /A2/ > /B/. The change /A/ > /B/ is thereby understood to be phonetically gradual. As a representative example, the change of French /ka/ > /ʃa/ must be broken down into /ka/ > /ʃa/ > /ʃ/. The first change represents the shift of a velar stop into a post-alveolar affricate, which later simplifies to the post-alveolar fricative /ʃ/. Furthermore, Labov’s (1972:275) Uniformitarian principle states that “the forces operating to produce linguistic change today are of the same kind and order of magnitude as those which operated in the past five or ten thousand years.”  

This paper presents a phonological account of the development of the Proto-Germanic */sk/ sequence into the daughter languages. The focus is on the reflexes of */sk/ in New High German (NHG), although the facts from Low German, Dutch and Swedish will also be discussed, which are summarized in the table in (1).  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NHG</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Dutch</th>
<th>Swedish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>/ʃ/</td>
<td>/sx/ and /s/</td>
<td>/ʃ/ and /sk/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It will be argued that the change */sk/ > /ʃ/ in NHG requires four discrete stages: /sk/ > /sx/ > /ʃx/ > /ʃʃ/ > /ʃ/, where /ʃʃ/ represents a velarized postalveolar fricative. These stages involved four sound changes: Spirantization, Height Assimilation, Coalescence and Simplification, respectively. It will be shown that each of these historical stages is attested in a modern variety of Germanic. For instance, the /sx/ stage derives support from Dutch and the /ʃx/ stage from a particular variety of Low German spoken in the district Olpe, as described by Arens (1908). I argue that even the relatively exotic /ʃʃ/ stage can be supported by the sound transcribed in Swedish as /ʃ/, which I view as equivalent to /ʃʃ/. Furthermore, each of these stages are motivated by principles of phonological theory, as well as the articulatory properties of the sounds in question.

Although earlier treatments of */sk/ > /ʃ/ also rely on intermediate stages, mine differs from these other proposals, since it considers the evolution of */sk/ > /ʃ/ within the larger framework of Historical German Phonology. In so doing, I determine the time frame of the four discrete stages and I ultimately argue for a chronology of the changes significantly later than most other accounts e.g. Braune and Reiffenstein (2004: 140, §146) and Paul, Moser and Schröbler (1969:119, §113). It will be shown that */sk/ was not /ʃ/ at the time of NHG Open Syllable Lengthening (OSL), since vowels are not lengthened in this position, i.e. NHG has [fiʃə] NOT *[fiːʃə], and therefore the sound /ʃ/ must have been attained after the OSL (12th-14th centuries), implying that /ʃx/ was heterosyllabic at the time of OSL.

References
(Morpho)syntactic and semantic properties of the PD progressive aspect construction

Solveig Bosse  Michael Putnam
East Carolina University  Pennsylvania State University

Pennsylvania Dutch (PD) has developed a complex system of marking the progressive aspect (1) unlike any other variety of German. Based on field data from native PD-speakers in Kishacoquillas Valley (i.e. Big Valley), Pennsylvania and Holmes County, Ohio we describe and analyze this unique strategy. Following Felser (1999), we explore the notion that the an-morpheme (and its allomorph am) is an aspectual scope marker.

PD uses the morpheme an in combination with a copula construction to indicate progressive aspect. The positioning of the progressive morpheme is (relatively) free, as can be seen in ditransitive constructions below: the progressive marker may occur once in any of the positions indicated in (1a) or twice (1b-e). When it occurs twice, it may precede 2 elements out of the verb and its complements (1b-e), but not an adjunct (1f), and must be located in the midfield (1g). The progressive marker may not occur more than twice (1h).

1)  a. Der Santa Claus is an die Kinner an Presents an gevve.
   the Santa Claus is PROG the kids PROG presents PROG give
   ‘Santa Claus is giving the kids presents.’
   b. Der Santa Claus is am die Kinner an Presents gevve.
   c. Der Santa Claus is am die Kinner Presents an gevve.
   d. Der Santa Claus is die Kinner an Presents am gevve.
   e. Er is an die Kinner in die Stub an Presents gevve.
   he is PROG the kids in the room PROG presents give
   ‘He is giving the kids presents in the room.’
   f. *Er is die Kinner an in die Stub an Presents gevve.
   he is the kids PROG in the room PROG presents give
   *‘He is giving the kids presents in the room.’
   g. *An die Kinner is sie an Kuch backe.
   PROG the kids is she PROG cake bake
   ‘She is baking the kids cake.’
   h. *Der Santa Claus is am die Kinner an Presents an gevve.

We propose that the an-morpheme is a head-final functional head that attaches to the left periphery of verbal events as the lexicalization of aspectual information as in (2):

2)  ...[AspP [VP v [VP ....]] an]

The aspectual marker heads the aspect phrase and through steps of incorporation also the infinitival verb. In addition, we advance the proposal that an functions as a scope marker. Analyzing the obligatory an as aspectual complementizer for the smallest event while allowing for an optional scope marker an to mark the maximal event for aspect, enables us to account for the flexible positioning as well as the restrictions on the occurrences of the morpheme: the restriction in number follows from only the minimal and the maximal progressive event possibly being marked while the restriction to preceding obligatory elements only is due to the basic event structure which does not include adjuncts. Lastly, the constituency facts follow from the marker being related to marking events/event structure; therefore, not being expected to form a constituent with an individual verbal complement. In short, the PD progressive marker an receives a coherent syntactic analysis under our proposal.

References
Non-Standard Syntax in Wisconsin Standard High German: Evidence from Lester W. J. “Smoky” Seifert’s Recordings

Joshua Bousquette  Guido Rohmann
University of Georgia Freie Universität Berlin

This presentation examines non-standard syntactic structures in Wisconsin Standard High German (WSHG). Drawn from Professor Lester W. J. ‘Smoky’ Seifert’s corpus of recorded German speech (1948-1949), six speakers identified as speaking ‘High German’ and employing a standard-like four case nominal morphology nevertheless exhibited non-standard structures, including prenominal periphrastic possessive constructions (PPPs) in place of canonical (genitive) possessives in both main and subordinate clauses; and the use of resumptive subject pronouns. Both such constructions employ a similar external argument structure, the left dislocation of which is a departure from the Standard German verb-second (V2) surface word order. Assuming that syntactic structures are the parts of grammar least easily transferred between languages (van Coetsem 1988), we conclude that these non-standard syntactic structures are most likely a substrate imposition from non-standard varieties into Standard German, rather than a structure incorporated into standard speech. By extension, such analysis supports a bi-dialectal diglossia in 1940’s Wisconsin, in which non-standard European varieties of German were acquired naturally in the home, while Standard German was acquired primarily through social institutions – notably churches and schools.

PPPs characteristically involve a pre-posed possessor (DP) followed by a possessive pronoun heading a DP, with an NP complement, as in the example Mein Vater sein Grossvater kam mit der Familie hierüber ‘My father’s grandfather came over with the family’ (Schumann 1A, 138-139). Crucially, this possessor XP, mein Vater is derived as an external argument. The Standard German genitive -s is derived by raising a nominal complement to a specifier position; mein Vaters Grossvater ‘my father’s grandfather’ is derived from an underlying structure: Grossvater meines Vaters ‘(the) grandfater of my father’.

Similar PPP structures also appear in subordinate clauses, but the external possessor here results in a non-standard, doubly-filled comp filter (DFCF, Chomsky & Lasnik 1977). In the example Das ist die Frau, der ihre Tochter hier war ‘That is the woman, whose daughter was here’ (Artz 2A, 15), the subject occupies the canonical head position (C), which causes the finite verb to remain in situ (3). The external argument der then occupies Spec,CP, as in the textbook DFCF example Ich frage mich, was dass Hugo liest ‘I ask myself what Hugo is reading’ (Kathol 2001: 55). These non-standard constructions appear alongside standard use of the genitive, as well: Das sind die Kinder, deren Mutter so krank ist ‘Those are the children whose mother is so sick’ (Richard Ahrendt 1A, 181); that speakers command both non-standard and standard structures is also consistent with an account of bi-dialectal proficiency in a diglossic community.

References

Old High German exhibits two competing endings to mark first-person plural verbs: a simple form in -\textit{m} (or -\textit{n}), which occurs in the preterite indicative as well as the optative, and a long form -\textit{mēs}, found predominantly in the present indicative (Braune 1886). The long ending is not attested in any other dialect of Germanic. I draw data from an Old High German corpus to shed light on the question of whether the long form -\textit{mēs} might historically represent a cliticized pronoun *\textit{wīz}, OHG \textit{uuir}.

Cliticized elements, especially pronouns, have the tendency to be reanalyzed as inseparable components of verbal morphology (Hock 1986). Early Germanic examples of pronouns being incorporated—partly or totally—into inflectional endings are abundant: independent reflexive pronouns yield passive endings -\textit{mk} and -\textit{sk} in Old Icelandic (Barnes 2007), and Runic examples such as \textit{ek erilaz sawilagaz haieta} exhibit reinforcement of the 1SG pronoun \textit{ek} even where its doublet \textit{eka} has been suffixed onto the clause-final verb (Antonsen 1975). Furthermore, post-V2 effects of subject-pronoun cliticization are widely regarded to account for the 2SG verbal ending -\textit{st} in OHG (and in West Germanic generally), continuing older -\textit{s} (Somers 2011).

I present data from a selection of Old High German texts, compiled via TITUS and the “Project Graff” database (Luiten et al. 2013), and analyze the data in order to tease out whether preference for the long ending -\textit{mēs} correlates with either V2 sentence structure or the omission of a separate subject pronoun, as these conditions are central to the question of whether the long ending represents a clitic subject pronoun that became reanalyzed as a component of the 1PL present indicative ending. In the resulting discussion I explore how this hypothesis can be evaluated in light of the corpus evidence, while taking into account its phonological ramifications.

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Teachers Observing Teachers: 
Factors That Contribute to Critical Thinking in Peer Coaching
Jessica LaFern Bryan
Brigham Young University

Many university language programs draw on undergraduate as well as graduate students to conduct their courses. These student instructors do not always have adequate pedagogical preparation or experience. Past research suggests that conducting peer observations followed by a group reflection on basic teaching practice would help teachers become more aware of their own teaching. This research aims to investigate whether peer coaching followed by peer reflection meetings increases instructor effectiveness and confidence, as well as whether it is the observations or the reflections encourage teachers to think more critically and improve their teaching.
This paper investigates the phonological properties Canadian Plautdietsch (PDT) input-output relations of plural and adjective vowel alternations. Umlaut in Standard German is defined as the feature [+front] becoming [+front] in morphological contexts such as pluralization, adjective degree derivation, etc (Wiese 1996). Most phonological analyses of umlaut hold system-wide predictiveness between the input-output features of vowels (Trost 1991, Chapman 1994, Wiese 1996). PDT is a variety which does not conform to this definition because (1) all outputs of umlaut are not [+front], (2) there are often multiple output specifications not found in the input, and (3) some alternations are not featurally motivated and are best understood as synchronically opaque reflexes of diachronic developments.

Standard German, and many Low Germans, preserve rounding, height, and length of input vowels only altering the feature [+back]. Some Low Germans have morphologically sensitive umlaut wherein the derived word’s morphological status will influence various features of the input (c.f. Saas 2010, Durrell 1990, Schönfeld 1990, Lindow et al 1998, Fehringer 2003, Chapman 1995). In PDT there are 4 sub-classes of alternations which are morphologically and phonologically sensitive. The only common quality is that outputs are [-back, -round].

Group A contains nouns with high vowels /yː/, /ʊ/, /uɐ/, and /əʊ/, /yɐ/. Except for /ye/, the outputs always maintain their length and become /iː/, /ɪ/, /iɐ/, and /əɪ/ respectively (e.g., [hys]-[hiːzɐ] ‘house(s)’, [vʊlf]-[vɪlv] ‘wolf(s)’, [vʊɐt]-[viɐdɐ] ‘word(s)’, [vəʊlt]-[vəɪlɐ] ‘forest(s)’). The diphthong /ye/ does not participate in these regular alternations as it developed from MLG ō and alternates with /eː/ (e.g., [byɐk]-[beːcɐ] ‘book(s)’).

Group B contains nouns with non-high vowels /aː/, /ɔ/, /ɔʊ/, and /oː/. The outputs of B are primarily phonologically sensitive to other segments in the root. Roots with nasals following the vowel alternate with /ɛ/ (e.g., [ʃtɾaːŋk]-[ʃtɾɛɲ] ‘rope(s)’, [lɔʊnt]-[lɛndɐ] ‘countr(y,ies)’, [kɔnst]-[cɛNSTə] ‘art(s)’). Roots with consonant voicing alternations are always Vμμ and front (e.g., [waːç]-[weəj] ‘way(s)’, [rʊt]-[ɾɛdə] ‘wheel’, [hɔf]-[hev] ‘yard(s)’, [nɔt]-[nexd] ‘seam(s)’). The Vμμ is a diphthong before a [-nasal] dorsal segments (e.g., [trax]-[treʃ] ‘trough(s)’, [nɔrɛɡ]-[nɛʃl] ‘nails’). In all other cases, the alternation will result in /aː/ (e.g., [ˈɑpl]-[ɑpl] ‘apple(s)’, [pɔst]-[pɑst] ‘mail(s)’).

Group B has several exceptions to these rules such as the quality /e/ in the alternation [hɔlt]-[hɛltɐ] ‘wood(s)’, [bɔʃ]-[bɛʃɐ] ‘shrub(s)’ and the development of a long /e/ in the alternation [ʃtɔk]-[ʃteːk] ‘stick(s)’.

Group C contains nouns which mostly had historical length alternations but did not have umlaut. This set always has Vμμ in the derived form, but also includes qualitative changes (e.g., [dɑʃ]-[dɔvɛ] ‘day(s)’, [ʃʃɛp]-[ʃʃɛp] ‘ship(s)’, [hɑm]-[hɑmɐ] ‘hen(s)’). Group B has acquired some members which originally developed as Group C patterns (e.g. [ʃɾɔt]-[ʃɾɛdə] ‘board(s)’).

Group D is a morphological gang of adjectives. Group D mostly alternates with /e/ in historically open syllables and /aː/ in closed syllables, but subsequent changes have altered the quality and syllabification (e.g., [ʊlɛ]-[ɛl] ‘old(er)’, [hɛʃ]-[hɛʃ] ‘high(er)’, [lɑŋ]-[lɑŋ] ‘long(er)’, [ɡɾɔt]-[ɡɾat] ‘big(ger)’, [ʃʊn]-[ʃʊndə] ‘hard(er)’, [klɑm]-[klɑnde] ‘small(er)’). The existence of these 4 patterns are evidence that PDT displays a non-canonical umlaut system, and in turn warrants an expansion of synchronic umlaut typology.
This presentation argues two points: first, that the stages traditionally reconstructed for the High German tenues shift (Braune 1874, see Wilmanns 1911, Prokosch 1933, Nordmeyer 1936, Penzl 1971, Mettke 1983, Paul 1989, and Goblirsch 2005) may have been phonologically abrupt. Rather than having been realized as a series of imperceptible changes, as the Neogrammarians suggested, affrication and spirantization may have actually occurred in discrete phonological steps (see Kiparsky 1988 and 1995). Variation between each of the stages was probably imperceptible, but the distinctive phonological changes probably occurred rather abruptly. Second, I claim that perceptual ambiguity in weak position (post-vocally for old simplex stops) is responsible for the absence of affricates there in the textual record and in modern German dialects.

As Ohala (1992: 246-47) argued, the allophones of a given phoneme do not capture the full range of phonetic variability available for it. Listeners, he noted, subconsciously correct phonetic variation all the time. In other words, when listeners hear a sound that is phonetically close enough to a given phoneme, they perceive the sound as equivalent to the phoneme itself. When this kind of “perceptual normalization” (see Kuhl 1991, Sendlemeier 2000, and Yang 2006) fails, i.e., when listeners fail to adjust for minor variations in the speech that they hear (hypo-correct), phonological change can occur. In the case of the tenues shift, once /p/, /t/, and /k/ became aspirated, their constriction duration could have gradually shortened. Listeners would have corrected what they were hearing (unconsciously), so that their perception of the sounds in question remained /p, t, k/. Once perceptual normalization broke down, /p, t, k/ were re-categorized as /pf, ts, kx (x)/, setting the distinctive component of the shift in motion.

This kind of perceptual account helps capture the reason for the absence of affricates in weak position (with the possible but unlikely exception of kraith-forms in Luxembourg, which are probably the regular development of old geminates; see Simmler 1974 and Schützeichel 1976). If there was not a salient perceptual distinction between affricates and fricatives in weak position in Old High German, scribes may have tended to represent either sound as a fricative in writing. Eventually, speakers may have ceased to pronounce affricates in that position.

Modern Liverpool English provides compelling evidence that affricates and fricatives may exist in near free variation post-vocally. For the Liverpool shift, Honeybone 2001 reported some preference for one process over the other in certain positions; for example, spirantization of /t/ and /k/ was more common word-finally and medially after stressed vowels, whereas affrication was more common medially before stressed vowels. Nevertheless, both processes were possible in all positions (Honeybone 2001: 238). Although Honeybone’s reconstruction of the process parallels the traditional reconstruction of the High German tenues shift (with affrication before spirantization), from a synchronic perspective it appears that affricates and fricatives exist as doublets. It is possible that speakers of Liverpool English do not distinguish the two sounds perceptually, just as speakers of pre-Old High German may have failed to distinguish /pf, ts, kx/ from /f, s, x/ post-vocally for old short stops.
Rent is only “die halbe Miete”

Nickolas de Carlo
UCLA Department of Germanic Languages

This study observes the diachronic development of NHG Miete spanning Gothic, OS, OHG, and MHG. The changes over time show a shift in direction of payment, from a heavenly gift from above, as in the Gothic:

faginod in jainamma daga jah laikid, unte sai, mizdo izwara managa in himinam
Rejoice ye in that day, and leap for joy: for, behold, your reward is great in heaven
Luke 6:23

And then to a lowly payment from below:

“Die Frau hatte ihre Miete mehrere Monate nicht bezahlt.”
“The woman hadn’t paid her rent for many months.” ZCA11/APR.00042 Zeit Campus, 19.04.2011, S. 66 (Via COSMAS II)

Semantic change is then mapped out via componential analysis of the word, based off of four earlier readings (now non-existent in standard German use):
1) a reward
2) a payment
3) a wage
4) a bribe

These four variables are, in turn, marked for direction of giving (top-bottom, bottom-top), whether the received item was desired, and why it was given. Semantic change is viewed from both a semasiological and onomasiological standpoint according to Geeraerts (1997).

To rent something instantly assumes a payment in a particular direction—namely, from the person requiring the item to the person owning it. The rent itself is a form of bottom-up payment. In New High German, the case is no different. Miete instantly assumes the same unidirectional payment structure and a hierarchal relationship between the individuals involved.

Duden defines Miete as “(particularly for apartments and the like) The price someone pays for the temporary use of something, particular facilities, or items”. Thus, the current reading of Miete is not polysemous. One can easily translate this lexeme with “to rent” without much questioning. Testing this, I made use of the COSMAS II online corpus, which corroborated the assumption of Miete’s monosemy.

On the face, Miete appears to be a mundane word. The German expression, nur die halbe Miete sein, however, cannot be translated as “only half of the rent.” More eloquent renderings would be along the lines of “to be one side of the coin” or “to be only half of the battle.” Miete must then have had other readings, which could have allowed for this translation. Yet in New High German, there are none, save for this one expression. For if the English translations awaken battles and coins, there may be a valuable meed1 in looking into the history of this unassuming word.

1 As in Shakespeare’s Richard III, Act 1, Scene 3: “And for his meed, poor lord, he is mew’d up.”
Emergent Grammar:
The Case of the German Double Present Perfect
Valentina Concu
Purdue University

While the question about the meaning of the German present perfect is still widely debated in German linguistics (Schumacher 2006, Lombardi 2008, Concu 2015, forthcoming), relatively few scholars have examined the meaning and the function of the double present perfect (Buchwald-Wargenau 2012). Furthermore, the issue of the particular cognitive processes that underlie its development is still not adequately addressed. In my paper I attempt to fill these gaps presenting evidences from written data from different historical periods. I will also apply a complexity-theory and emergent grammar approach, in which speakers are considered active agents involved in the creation of new grammar structures.

The double present perfect is formed by the combination of the auxiliary haben/sein, plus
the past participle of the main verb and the past participle of the auxiliary (gehabet/gewesen): hat vergessen gehabt
‘has forgotten had’; ist gefahren gewesen ‘is gone been’ (Leuschner, Mortelmans & De Groodt 2005). The double present perfect started to be used in the 14th century (Leuschner, Mortelmans & De Groodt 2005, Buchwald-Wargenau 2012), when the present perfect was undergoing “categorization”, which is “the expansion of contents in which a construction can occur” (Bybee 2006). Using a corpus of texts written in German between 850 and 1800, Kuroda (1999) tracked the growth in frequency of the present perfect. The earliest attestation in the corpus is in Otfrid’s Evangelienbuch (ca. 865) in which it occurs 50 times. The frequency is higher in each subsequent text in the corpus, including 250 times in Gottfried’s Tristan (ca. 1210), 300 times in Fortunatus (ca. 1509), and 400 time in Goethe’s Die Leiden des jungen Werthers (1774). I argue that, this growth in frequency allowed the reanalysis of this construction and, in particular, of the auxiliary verbs haben and sein, whose past participle started to be added, to the present perfect like in (1), in order to modify its original meaning. The meaning expressed by the present perfect, which is claim or a negotiation (Weinrich 1964, Slobin 1994, Schumacher 2006, Welke 2009, Concu 2015 forthcoming,) is modified and almost neutralized by the past participle gehabt, like shown in the comparison between (1) and (2):

(1) Zuerst must er is thun, want is der konig wolt hab gehabt
   First must he it do, what it the king wanted has had
   First, he must do, what the king has had wanted
   (Pontus und Sidonia, 15th century)

(2) Zuerst must er is thun, want is der konig wolt hab*
   First must he it do, what it the king wanted has
   First, he must do, what the king had wanted

I propose that, the cognitive processes accountable for the development of the present perfect, (Slobin 1994, Concu 2014 forthcoming), in which an adjectival structure (eigan/habên and uuesan + past participle) was re-analyzed by the speakers and used to express claim and negotiation, were also involved in a similar way in the development of this construction. In conclusion, this paper combines a diachronic analysis with a complex systems perspective, as described by Hopper (1998), Slobin (1994), Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008) and Bybee (1994, 2007, 2010). The data on double present perfect in the history of German provide general support for a cognitive explanation to the development of this structure and emphasizes the key role that speakers play in the development and reanalysis of grammatical structures over time.
Validating the Reading Proficiency Exam

Troy Cox  Randall Jones  Randall Lund  Ray Clifford
Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University

Description

Creating valid reading proficiency assessments requires (1) understanding the levels of the ACTFL Reading Proficiency Guidelines, (2) choosing passages that represent those levels and (3) writing level appropriate questions. This presentation will summarize how this model was applied to a German reading test administered to over 150 students and share the empirical statistics that were used to determine the extent to which reading passages/questions aligned with the guidelines.

Content

The most commonly cited research reports on reading proficiency have noted that beginning readers are able to get some meaning from difficult texts, and based on that observation they have concluded that there is insufficient empirical research to support the difficulty hierarchy represented by the Reading guidelines. Others have criticized the Guidelines, because they do not adequately describe the development of reading skills.

This research and development project looked not just at the characteristics of texts at each level, but also at the comprehension tasks associated with those levels. The resulting alignment of the author purpose, text characteristics, and reader comprehension tasks formed a separate Task, Context, and Accuracy (TCA) ability construct for each level. When tests based on these level-specific TCA constructs, were administered to college students, their scores indicated that there was a clear hierarchical increase in difficulty associated with the ACTFL proficiency levels. While previous projects have been completed in a number of languages (e.g. Arabic, Chinese, English, French, Spanish, and Russian), a German test has yet to be reported on.

This presentation will summarize how the test development model has been applied in reading proficiency test creation of other languages and then how that model was applied to the German reading test. Rasch IRT analyses of actual test results will be displayed to show how scores on aligned Reading comprehension test items do in fact cluster by level, and the level specific results build a difficulty hierarchy that parallels the levels of the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines.

Participants will understand:

• Proficient reading requires more than getting the main idea.
• The difficulty hierarchy described in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines is based on each level’s unique constellation of TCA elements.
• Tests based on the Reading Guidelines are providing statistical validation of the hierarchical nature of those Guidelines.
The Stuff that Dreams Are Made Of: Semantic and Constructional Change in the Development of Proto-Germanic *draum-
Tonya Kim Dewey
University of Minnesota, Morris

The verbal reflexes of the lexeme dream are attested in at least three different meanings (‘have a vision while asleep’, ‘express joy’, and ‘imagine’), and with three different cases marking the experiencer argument (accusative, dative, and nominative) in the early Germanic languages. This paper examines the link between semantic shift and changes in argument structure using *draum- as a case study, arguing that the less volitional ‘have a vision while asleep’ meaning is the only one compatible with non-nominative experiencer marking.

Old English and Old Saxon show evidence of a shared innovation, in that Proto-Germanic *draum- underwent a semantic shift from ‘have a vision while asleep’ to ‘express joy’. This semantic shift was accompanied by a change in argument structure, so that the experiencer argument became marked with the nominative rather than the original accusative, i.e. the original case marking was incompatible with the new meaning. However, in both Old English and Old Saxon, the lexeme eventually shifted back to its original meaning ‘have a vision while asleep’, at least in part due to contact with a language in which the shift to ‘express joy’ never happened (Old Norse-Icelandic in the case of Old English, and Old High German in the case of Old Saxon). The semantic shift is again accompanied by a change in argument structure, so that the experiencer argument again is found with oblique (accusative/dative) marking rather than nominative marking.

In the history of German as well we see both semantic and constructional change for this lexeme. The semantic extension of *draum- from ‘have a vision while asleep’ to ‘imagine’ is accompanied by a change in the case marking of the experiencer/cognizer argument from accusative to nominative, again tied to an increase in volitionality with the new meaning. Variation between dative and accusative with this lexeme, on the other hand, is due to larger scale phenomena in the language rather than any semantic shift.
Paper Presentations

**Verbs these days:**

**Verbal derivation in contemporary German**

Christine Evans

University of Wisconsin-Madison

This paper examines patterns of derivation in verbal neologisms in contemporary German. Synchronic processes of verbal derivation are well documented in German grammars, and much attention has been given to the prosodic, syntactic, and semantic distinctions between (inseparable) prefixes and (separable) particles (Biskup, Putnam, & Smith 2011, Erben 2006, Olsen 1996). In one of few quantitative studies, Kuroda (2007) demonstrated diachronic changes in the effect of particular prefixes on valence. The relative productivity of these derivational processes, however, remains largely unexplored. Using a corpus of neologisms, I analyze the distribution of morphemes and discuss how active processes of verbal derivation align with previous descriptions of German and known diachronic developments.

As a primary data source I utilize the website Wortwarte.de, a public directory of new words that have appeared in articles and reader comments from a set of online publications. In a pilot analysis of 169 verbs, 51.5% of verbs were formed through the addition of a verbal particle and 24.9% were formed through prefixation. Suffixation was the least frequent means of forming new verbs, and the suffix –ieren accounted for over half of such cases. The productivity of verbal particles is highlighted by the appearance of six particle verbs with the base googeln. The most common particles were zurück-, hoch-, nach-, and weg-, though a total of over forty different particles were used. Only two particles were English loans: out- in outputten and ghost- in ghostwriten. Moreover, the notion of verbal prefixes as a closed class (e.g. Olsen 1996) is challenged not only by the use of foreign prefixes de- and re-, but by the appearance of Germanic morphemes such as fremd as inseparable, e.g. in fremdempören. A polycentric approach (Dressler 1977, Benware 2004) is employed to discuss the distribution of prefixes and particles, particularly in comparing examples such as the following:

1) Ich priorisiere bestimmte Themen – teilweise überpriorisiere ich diese sogar ganz bewusst.
2) Der original Satz wurde mit schwarzer Spraydosenfarbe übergespritzt.

The quantitative results identify derivation via the addition of particles as the primary source of new verbs and establish a baseline for characterizing the productivity of particular affixes and derivational processes in novel verb formation. Furthermore, the distribution of individual elements as separable or inseparable morphemes contributes to our understanding of how various linguistic factors, notably prosody and semantics, are involved in derivation.

**References**


This paper deals with VP fronting which occurs to a limited extent in Old Icelandic poetry. I argue that although this phenomenon is an exceptional poetic device in the context of Old Icelandic, it is nevertheless important for a more general linguistic analysis of the language, involving a complex interplay of syntax, meter and information structure.

VP fronting is well known from modern Germanic languages, e.g. German, Mainland Scandinavian and English, as in (1).

(1) John wanted to read a book and read a book he did

The VP, consisting of a main verb (V) and an object or some other type of complement or adjunct (O), does not occur in its base position at the end of the clause; rather, it is fronted (topicalized) to the beginning of the clause, to the left of the subject and a finite auxiliary. On the other hand, VP fronting does not occur in Icelandic at all, neither in the modern language nor in Old Icelandic prose (Rögnvaldsson 1995, Thráinsson 2007). Various other types of fronting occur in Icelandic, however, e.g. Stylistic Fronting, targeting subparts of the VP (Maling 1980).

Furthermore, VP fronting is almost totally absent from Old Icelandic alliterative poetry, both the Poetic Edda and skaldic verse, the latter being notorious for its “free” word order. The only exception, to be focused on here, is found in poetry composed in a type of traditional meter called ljóðaháttr (“ballad meter”), consisting of two-line stanzas with two lifts and one line with three lifts. Recent corpus-based research (Greinir skáldskapar) has revealed that there are more than twenty examples of VP fronting in the Poetic Edda, as in (2), and more cases are found other ljóðaháttr poetry outside of the eddic poems.

(2) a. Höfuð höggva / ek mun þér hálsi af (Skírnismál 23,5)  
   head-acc hew I will you-dat neck off
   ‘I will cut the head of your neck’

b. Upp líta / skal-at-tu í orrosto (Hávamál 129,6)  
   up look shall-not-you in battle
   ‘You shall not look up in battle’

Occurring only to a limited degree, VP fronting is nevertheless clearly a characteristic of this particular type of poetry, a special device of its poetic syntax. Thus, even though VP fronting is not a feature of “normal” Old Icelandic syntax, its presence in the poetry constitutes independent evidence in favor of a VP constituent in the language, a matter that has been of longstanding debate (Rögnvaldsson 1995, Faarlund 2004). The word order in the fronted VP almost exclusively shows OV word order, with the object (or complement or adjunct) phrase (O) alliterating with a following word. This state of affairs is remarkable in light of the fact that otherwise the VP alternates between OV and VO order in Old Icelandic (Rögnvaldsson 1996, Hróarsdóttir 2000). The preference for OV order in the fronted VP can be taken as evidence for the preservation of an ancient word order pattern in the poetic texts.

Finally, the question arises if a motivation for the VP fronting in Old Icelandic poetry can be identified. I conclude that it is indeed possible to pinpoint the empirical conditions under which VP fronting occurs, as they involve the interaction of syntax, meter and information structure which are general characteristics of the ljóðaháttr poetry.
Why Dutch men need to get high.
The syntactic distribution of impersonal pronouns
Paula Fenger
University of Connecticut

**Introduction:** Impersonal pronouns such as Dutch men or English one express generic or existential readings (Siewierska 2011; Cabredo Hoffher 2010; Weerman 2006). The English/Frisian pronoun only expresses generic readings, whereas the Dutch/German type can also express an existential meaning. The second type, however, is syntactically more restricted. This paper shows on the basis of four languages (English, Frisian, Dutch, German) that men/man can only occur with nominative case, whereas one can occur with accusative.

**Novel data:** I show that in passive constructions, where the pronoun is an internal argument moved to subject position, both generic and existential readings are allowed in Dutch/German (contra Cinque 1988; Egerland 2003), if the context is clear enough (in (1), if there is hair on the floor at the barber). An existential reading is still disallowed with English/Frisian, (1b).

(1) a. *Men is hier goed te grazen genomen* [Dutch]
   imp is here good to graze taken ‘someone is being handled rough’

b. *One is shaved bald.* [(British) English]

Moreover, in ECM/AcI constructions, where the pronoun is a thematic subject receiving accusative case, men/man is ungrammatical, whereas one is grammatical with a generic reading. Both Frisian and German will trigger a suppletive form, which only allows a generic reading, although the German nominative form allows generic and existential readings and the Frisian nominative only a generic reading.

a. *Der Bahnhofswärter sieht *man/einen immer in die Ferien fahren.* [German]
   The station master sees IMP_man/IMP_einen always in the holiday go

b. *The station master always sees one leave for the holidays.* [(British) English]

**Proposal:** The new properties, together with the ones noted in the literature, point towards an analysis where case restricts the syntactic distribution rather than the thematic role (as proposed by Egerland 2003; Hoekstra 2010). To account for the semantic difference, I follow Egerland (2003) and Ackema & Neeleman (2014) in saying that men/man lacks structure. However, their claim that man lacks phi-features is problematic, since it establishes relations that require phi-features on the subject, such as binding. Therefore, I assume that one patterns with a DP and man/men with a NP. Cardinaletti & Starke (1999) propose that the lack of functional structure forces a pronoun to move to a functional projection at S-Structure. Being a weak pronoun, man/men needs to move to a functional position. The subject position is the most likely option; there it will receive nominative. Having more structure, one is not restricted to nominative case and can occur as subject or object and in ECM/AcI constructions. Moreover, in this proposal the nom/acc suppletion in German (man-einen; Krazer 1997) and Frisian (men-jin) is different in nature. In Frisian, there are two phonological forms for one syntactic (DP) structure. For German on the other hand, there are in fact two different syntactic structures for impersonal pronouns: a NP that can only occur in nominative and a DP that occurs in accusative. This analysis predicts that there are languages or varieties that have both a DP and a NP pronoun in nominative position. It seems that Swedish is such a language, since it has both the man and the one form in nominative.
A closer look at the analogical spread of the High German consonant shift
David Fertig
University at Buffalo (SUNY)

A number of recent studies of the High German consonant shift (the shift of fortis stops – p, t, k – to affricates – pf, ts, kx – and later in some cases to fricatives) have posited an important role for analogy in the spread of the shift beyond its prosodically motivated origins after short vowels to other environments: after long vowels; after consonants; in geminates; and word-initially (e.g. Davis, Salmons and Iverson 1999; Davis 2008). This talk takes a close look at how this development might have proceeded in light of what we know about the distribution and frequency of the various relevant environments.

The study is based on a new xml database, currently containing about 160,000 words of Old High German. Using as a foundation the Old High German portion of the Referenzkorpus Altdeutsch, now accessible through Annis (https://korpling.german.hu-berlin.de/annis3/ddd), the database incorporates extensive morphological and segment-by-segment (morpho)phonological annotation, making it possible to investigate complex patterns of alternation and variation quantitatively. A portion of a token of the word ūfsezenti (aufsetzen, pres. partic.), for example, is represented as in (1):

(1) <stem affix="uf-”>
  <seg VC="V" str="s”>û</seg>
  <seg VC="C”>f</seg>
  <stem lemma="sezzen”>
    <seg VC="C”>s</seg>
    <seg VC="V” str="s”>e</seg>
    <seg VC="C”>z</seg>
    <seg VC="X”>j</seg>
  </stem>
</stem>

The studies mentioned above maintain that the vowel-length alternations in the paradigms of many strong verbs (as in modern German reiten-geritten, schießen-geschossen) were key to the analogical spread of the shift. Other work has stressed the importance of singleton-geminate alternations (cf. modern sitzen-gesessen) (Denton & Davis 2009). My findings provide a clearer picture of how these alternations could have contributed to the spread of the shift and suggest that as well, including: vowel-length alternations in derivationally related words (e.g. sprëchan–sprāhha); possible vowel-length variation in certain high-frequency items such as ūf/ūf; sentence-sandhi patterns in pronominal forms with a relevant consonant in word-final position (dar3, (h)wa3, i3); and perhaps even certain parallel alternations that had arisen in proto-Germanic as a result of the first consonant shift (cf. English seek-sought).

References
**Quid hobbita cum scripto?**  
**Pre-Old English, palaeontology and the “small data” problem**  
Martin Findell  
University of Leicester

“Pre-Old English” (pre-OE) is a conventional (though not unproblematic) label for the Germanic language of the early Anglo-Saxon period (c.400-650/700), attested only in a small number of short runic inscriptions and a few other sources. In handbook accounts of pre-OE, the lacunae in our knowledge of the language have been filled by phonological and grammatical reconstruction; but reconstruction is designed to describe the input and output states of regular change, and so obscures the synchronic variation from which regularity emerges. Sociolinguistic methods, though designed to accommodate this variation, require substantial quantities of data. In order to arrive at a better synchronic description of pre-OE varieties, the paucity of the data must be recognised and addressed.

The small size of the pre-OE dataset creates a problem of generalisability for attested phonological innovations: does the appearance of, for example, a phonemic umlaut vowel /ø:/ on the seventh-century disc brooch found at Harford Farm, Norfolk (Hines 1991; Penn 2000), allow us to regard the production of this text as a general *terminus ante quem* for the phonologisation of *i*-umlaut, or does it represent an innovation restricted to a smaller geographical area, a particular social group, and/or certain types of linguistic activity? Without a larger dataset in which to contextualise individual texts, there is no obvious way to identify patterns and arrive at a meaningful synchronic description of the language varieties represented in these texts.

It may be helpful to compare the problem of pre-Old English with similar “small data” problem cases in other fields, such as the ongoing controversy surrounding hominin remains found at the Liang Bua cave on the island of Flores, Indonesia, in 2003 (Brown et al. 2004). These remains have been widely reported as evidence of a new hominin species, *Homo floresiensis* (referred to in the mainstream media as “hobbits”); but most of the diagnostic characteristics of this proposed species were only represented in a single specimen (LB1, an adult female who lived c. 18000 years ago). Critics have argued that the same features could also be explained as the result of LB1 suffering from one or more developmental disorders such as Down syndrome (Henneberg et al. 2014). The controversy surrounding LB1 is, then, one of generalisability which has useful parallels with the pre-OE problem.

**References**


9th Century Orthographic Activism:
Gustav Michaelis’ Efforts to Improve German Spelling
Matthias Fingerhuth
University of Texas at Austin

The 1901 emergence of an orthographic standard for German that transcended state borders is the ultimate result of the efforts of scholars, teachers and administrators over much of the 19th century. Schlaefer (1980) has described this development and identified three major factions in the debate on orthographic codification. These are: (1) advocates of a usage-oriented codification that did not involve far reaching reform, (2) proponents of a reform that incorporated principles from earlier stages of German, and (3) champions of more far-reaching reforms aimed at a more coherent correspondence of pronunciation and orthography.

Gustav Michaelis was one of the leading figures advocating such a decisive reform of German orthography towards a closer equivalence of letters and sounds. Although ultimately unsuccessful, he was a very active participant in the contemporary debate. His activism spans roughly three decades from the 1850’s on and involves work as an editor and publicist as well as activism like the design of new characters and the collection of expert opinions (Michaelis 1854; 1876).

The efforts of Michaelis and like-minded reformers so far have been largely neglected by subsequent scholarship on the emergence of the orthographic standard (Schlaefer 1980; Nerius & Scharnhorst 1992). This talk fills this gap. It describes Michaelis’ work embedded in the context of the orthographic discourse of the period and the development towards the standardization of German orthography.

I provide an outline of his envisioned orthographical reforms that include changes in the marking of vowel length or the design of new letters for »ch« and »sch« sounds. While Michaelis advocated the use of these letters, it remained limited to his own publishing and was not used by a broader public. Focusing on his work as editor and contributor of the Zeitschrift für Stenographie und Orthographie, I investigate how he tried to aggregate the contemporary debate on orthography and employed high-profile scholars for his cause. This provides a new angle on the debate that preceded the orthographical conferences in 1876 and 1901 and locates it outside of the academic and pedagogical discourses that are dominant in work on the history of German orthography.

References
The focus of this paper is on discontinuous “split” and/or “distance doubling” pronominal adverbs in spoken German of the type presented below:

\[ \text{A: } \text{Wann ist dein Vortrag auf dem Kongress?} \]
\[ \text{B: } \text{Da kann ich mich nicht dran erinnern.} \]

Fleischer (2002) gave a thorough account of the distribution of this phenomenon across various German dialects. Negele (2012) built on Fleischer’s work by providing corpus-based empirical support for the recognition of 'da...dran', 'da...von' and other pronominal adverb variants in the description of the standard language. My goal in this paper is to take the investigation of these pronominal adverbs in spoken German one step further by investigating the pragmatic features of the communicative contexts in which they occur.

An early functional account of this structure was offered by Behaghel (1932: 249) and reiterated by Elspaß (2005: 41). Under this analysis, the initial 'da'-element serves as a quasi-deictic marker at the left edge of a clause to refer back to previously mentioned information (e.g., the time of the presentation), while the utterance-internal element ('dran in the example above) is a verbal complement and thus points toward the right verbal bracket at the end of the clause. Elspaß follows Behaghel in describing the initial 'da' as “anaphoric”, yet he also describes it as “topical”, an information structural term that Elspaß does not explore in depth. This paper will do just that and examine the ramifications of information structure for syntax, on the example of pronominal adverbs in German.

The data for my study are drawn from recent interviews made with German speakers throughout the Federal Republic for the Regionalsprache.de (REDE) project at the Deutscher Sprachatlas Marburg. In these interviews, one especially clear case of the effect of information structure on syntax is the appearance of empty prefields due to topic drop, as in the following excerpts from informants R3 and RJUNG1 from Regensburg:

\[ \text{I: } \text{Können Sie sich noch daran erinnern, ob sie Schwierigkeiten gehabt haben beim Lernen des Schriftdeutschen?} \]
\[ \text{R3: } \text{Nee, } \emptyset \text{ kann ich mich nicht dran erinnern.} \]
\[ \text{(R3_Interview 5:43, emphasis added)} \]
\[ \text{RJUNG1: } \text{Wahnsinnstelle eigentlich, aber } \emptyset \text{ muss man sich ja für bewerben [...] (RJUNG1_FG 14:53, emphasis added)} \]

Based on multiple cases of topic drop like in the first example, I conclude that the initial 'da' in a split or distance doubling pronominal adverb is a functional topic marker that can be optionally left unexpressed when the topic referent is in the highest state of “accessibility” (Givón 1983) but is usually expressed when the topic is less identifiable. The 'da'-element on the pronominal adverb, expressed as 'da' or 'd’', is an optional grammatical marker of the PP-object. The 'dr’'-element on pronominal adverbs with vowel-initial prepositions is a compulsory phonetic/phonological marker that helps define the left edge of the phonological word. For cases like the second example, I conclude that the topic marker is also left unexpressed due to being highly identifiable; however the 'da' on the pronominal adverb is optionally left unexpressed since the prepositional element already has a well-defined left edge. Furthermore, the data from the interviews will indicate that since both split and distance doubling pronominal adverbs are based on the same cognitive principles, their geographic distribution may be more variable than previously thought.
Word Order in Dependent Clauses in Texas German

Katrin Fuchs
University of Texas at Austin

In this paper, I analyze the word order of dependent clauses in Texas German (TxG), in order to determine if TxG exhibits a different word order than Standard German. Louden (1988) convincingly demonstrates that subordinated clauses in Pennsylvania German tend to follow the SVO pattern. If TxG shows a similar tendency, it needs to be determined, if the differing word order is a change due contact with American English, or if the deviation from the Standard German word order stems from internal causes. In Standard German, the finite verb moves in subordinated dependent clauses to the end of the sentence. Duden (2006: 877) gives the following example:

(1) Anna erkundigt sich, wie sie am schnellsten nach Köln kommt.
Anna asks [for] herself, how she the fastest to Cologne gets.
‘Anna asks, how to get to Cologne as fast as possible.’

Texas German, on the other hand, sometimes shows in the following pattern:

(2) …weil er hat Angst gehabt nach die Schule [1-51-1-5-a]
because he has fear had after the school.
‘because he was scared of school.’

(3) …dass die konnten ein bisschen mehr Englisch verstehen. [1-2-2-9-a]
that they could a bit[dim.] more English understand[Inf.]
‘that they were able to understand a little bit more English.’

As can be seen in this example, the finite verb moves to the second position and the word order changes towards an SVO pattern.

In my analysis, I focus on three subordinating conjunctions, weil ‘because’, dass ‘that’, ob ‘if, whether’, and the subordinating question word wo ‘where’. Following weil, SVO order occurs, while ob and wo trigger SOV order, as in the standard. Dass exhibits a mixed picture. I then address the question of whether a deviation from Standard German usage happens due to language internal or external factors. The results point to the internal factor of syntactic grammaticalization while an enforcement of the change through the language contact can also not be excluded.

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**Templaticity in German and West Germanic**

Jessica Funtanilla  
Joseph Salmons  
University of Wisconsin – Madison  
University of Wisconsin – Madison

Good (2011) defines a linguistic template as an “analytical device used to characterize the linear realization of a linguistic constituent whose linear stipulations are unexpected from the point of view of standard approaches to linguistic analysis.” This definition captures how templates are used across domains, raising the possibility of investigating “the ‘templaticity’ of an entire language” (2011:743). In this paper, we show that German and other West Germanic languages are templatically organized to an extent not widely appreciated, in (prosodic) phonology, morphology and syntax, both synchronically and diachronically.

In morphology, patterns previously discussed as templatic include inflection (plurals) and derivation (diminutives, croppings). We account for how these patterns fit Good’s categories for classifying templates: order/length, foundational component, hierarchical structure, obligatory/optional, fixed/elastic, and open/specific. We also supplement the existing list of templates by adding ‘linking elements’ (Fugenelemente). These were once morphologically conditioned (based on genitive or plural endings, Michel 2010) but have begun to pattern templatically. Left constituents of compounds (non-heads) end increasingly over time in trochaic feet with schwallable second elements. Beyond prosody, other patterns of German/West Germanic templaticity would include the syntactic ‘verbal frame’ and the morphological CVC templates around which ablaut was traditionally structured in strong verb. We show how these developments fit into Good’s templatic categories.

In short, German and West Germanic evince a surprisingly broad set of templatic phenomena across all types of morphology which lack unity along morphological, lexical or historical parameters. This reflects the diverse ways that templates have arisen in Germanic such that learners and users have made independent associations about especially prosodic structures and particular morphological forms over time. These associations increasingly correlate one particular prosodic structure, a trochee ending in a schwallable, making them highly variable across Good’s categories, with a diverse set of inflected, derived or compounded structures.

**References**


While changes between styles of speech are automatic for native speakers, second language (L2) speakers may not be taught about or notice differences between speech styles, which can lead to L2 speakers sounding too formal or casual in the wrong setting. One of these differences is word duration, which is generally longer in clearer or more formal speech and shorter in more casual speech (Picheny et al., 1986). This is complicated by the fact that the duration of a spoken word also depends on many other factors both at the word-level (e.g., number of syllables, frequency in the language) and discourse-level (e.g., frequency in the discourse) (Baker & Bradlow, 2009). Fowler and Housum (1987) found that the previous mention of a word in a conversation often affects a word’s duration. In subsequent research, the previous mention effect was found to apply to content words but not function words (Bell et al., 2009). Although previous research on word duration has been primarily focused on the native language (L1), one of the few studies on L2 word duration found that, in read speech, Korean-English L2 speakers and Chinese-English L2 speakers made less of a distinction between content and function words than L1 English speakers (Baker et al., 2011). Baker et al. also found that the L2 speakers who produced the greatest durational distinctions between content and function words were perceived by native speakers to have the most native-like speech. These results demonstrate that L2 speakers may struggle with durational changes and that word duration is an important factor for accentedness. The current study expands on this research by looking at whether the previous mention effect extends to conversational speech and whether such duration effects are affected by frequency, repetition, and word class by analyzing conversational speech from L1 and L2 German speakers.

In order to address whether these word-level and discourse-level factors have an impact on word duration in L2 conversational speech, L1 German speakers and advanced English-German L2 speakers were recorded having a conversation for approximately 30 minutes with a native German speaking confederate. The participant and confederate were each provided a calendar and were instructed to make appointments together, although previous engagements on the calendars often prevented them from being able to easily make an appointment. These previous engagements created more negotiation and conversational turns, and facilitated the production of the target words for the study. Preliminary results for L2 German conversational speech suggest that previous mention does affect word duration for L2 German speakers for content words. These results may indicate that L2 speakers are able to use the discourse-level cue of previous mention, which shows an ability to process and produce language that is specific to the discourse itself, in spite of the higher processing costs associated with L2 conversational speech.

References
Epenthesis, metathesis and breaking:
What we can and cannot know about early Germanic rhotics
Rob Howell
University of Wisconsin, Madison

The plethora of phonological changes involving rhotics in early Germanic demands an explanation, yet we face formidable challenges in interpreting the cause(s) and phonetic conditioning of each. The proximate problem resides in fact that the typical graphemic representation of rhotics is uniformly <r> in our early attestations, yet we know that within closely related dialects rhotics can be pronounced radically differently, ranging from lower sonority apical or uvular trills and taps to a variety of approximants and even near-vowels. Complicating the situation is the fact that contextual variants of rhotics can be radically different phonetically even within a single dialect. The question, then, is what to make of this complicated situation given the scant graphemic assistance at our disposal.

Following Howell (1991a, 1991b) this paper argues that the Uniformitarian Principle and the analysis of the behavior of rhotics in documented modern dialects of West Germanic can help us to understand the phonetic quality and the behavior of rhotics in the early Germanic dialects. Early Germanic developments for which we have graphemic evidence, such as r-metathesis (e.g., WGmc *hrosa ‘horse’ > MDu ors, OE hors), vowel epenthesis (WGmc *berga ‘mountain’ > OHG (Alemannic) bereg) and breaking (WGmc *werka ‘work’ > OE weorc) are shown to have modern equivalents for which we have better phonetic data. The fundamental generalization that emerges from this analysis is that less-sonorous rhotics (trills and flaps) come to reside in syllable onsets while more sonorous rhotics (approximants and vocalized) tend to develop in syllable codas.

Evidence for the instability of –rC– and –Cr– clusters is present in earliest Germanic, where the same environments yield diametrically opposed results: PGmc *†arb•n ‘need’ : Runic †arab∞ : OE †earf (Antonsen 1975: 88). The Runic example resolves the apparent phonotactic instability of the PGmc *-rC- cluster by inserting an epenthetic vowel, in turn resulting in the movement of the rhotic to syllable-onset position. In the Old English example, the *-rC- cluster is retained and the coda-r is reduced to an a-like vocalized form with a transitional vowel between the root vowel and the reduced rhotic. In each instance, extensive evidence will be introduced to show that these two resolution of –rC– clusters are massively attested in West Germanic dialects.

References
“You don’t speak it right!”: Yiddish and Pluricentricity

Neil G. Jacobs
Ohio State University, Emeritus

Pluricentric languages are seen as those languages which have separate, significantly distinct, and competing standardized varieties (e.g., Standard American Broadcast English as opposed to British standard models). Much of the focus has been a reflection of geopolitical realities; thus, the title of Clyne’s important 1992 study is: Pluricentric languages: Differing Norms in Differing Nations. At a common-sense level this makes sense, since standard varieties typically are specialized varieties which serve macro-functions in the society, and are very often supported, enhanced, propagated, enforced, by the apparatus of a government, school system, media, language academy and other authoritative institutions, etc. When a variety has gained enough traction in the society—in education, high-level discourse, official communications, etc.—it is typically with the help of these support networks. (The latter, in turn, develop a vested interest in perpetuating the status quo.) The pluricentric approach has been useful in expanding linguists’ toolkit in looking at different varieties of the “same” standard language beyond the strictly dialectological; e.g., Ammon’s 1995 study of German in Germany, Austria, and Switzerland.

The present paper looks at Yiddish in the context of pluricentricity. Yiddish, as is well known, is a language that has universally lacked a nation-state, and which has universally been spoken as a minority language across many countries—and indeed, continents. Nevertheless, the history of Yiddish is one showing the repeated emergence of models which have gained traction as normative varieties, both among the leadership of (segments of) the community and at the popular level. These normative models have very frequently been in competition with one another, overlapped, contributed to one another, often in ways similar to the nation-state pluricentric languages. The goal of this paper is two-sided. On the one hand, I examine Yiddish from the perspective of pluricentricity, to see what can be gained from this perspective in consideration of the Yiddish situation. On the other hand, I explore what light can be shed on the pluricentric approach from the perspective of Yiddish. In some ways, it is precisely the less-secure situation of Yiddish—geopolitically, demographically, socially, etc. (as opposed to, say, German in Germany, Austria, or Switzerland)—which makes the Yiddish normative models clearer points for discussion of the claims of pluricentric-language research.

The paper focuses on the following. First, I provide an historical overview of Yiddish normative varieties (see Jacobs 2005, for summary), and place these in the context of pluricentricity. Second, I examine data examples from current research on Hasidic Yiddish and the development of normative varieties in those (plural!) Hasidic speech communities; this is based on findings in recent anthologies edited by Aptom & Hansen (2014), and Aptom et al (2012). Third, I discuss the role of normative models among semi-speakers of Yiddish. This paper argues that a pluricentric approach is useful for consideration of Yiddish, as well as ways in which consideration of Yiddish can serve to modify or limit some of the claims of the pluricentric approach.
Identity and Language:
Jewish speech in contemporary Germany
Esther Jahns
Universität Potsdam

This paper discusses the in-group speech of contemporary German Jewish communities in Berlin and its impact on their identity as Jews and answers the question where to locate it within the continuum of Jewish languages.

Since the 6th century B.C., Jewish communities have been living more or less permanently in a multilingual environment. Eventually, a triglossic pattern emerged in the various exiles with clear functions for the respective languages: Hebrew-Aramaic remained the sacred language for religion, the territorial languages were used for the communication with non-Jews and quite often on the basis of the territorial language a third language developed which served as a vernacular and in-group speech (Spolsky & Benor 2006). In linguistics the latter are often labeled ‘Jewish languages’ and have been investigated since the first half of the 20th century also from a comparative perspective (mainly under the name of ‘Jewish intralinguistics’).

Due to controversies concerning the defining characteristics of Jewish languages and the diminishing distinctiveness of these languages compared to their co-territorial counterparts in the 21st century, scholars like Myhill (2004) claim that there are no new Jewish languages. However, Benor (2011) and Lebenswerd (2013) show in their respective studies about American and Swedish Jews that these communities make use of a “distinctive Jewish linguistic repertoire” as Benor (2008) puts it. This repertoire is not as distinct from the co-territorial language as Yiddish is from German or Judezmo from Spanish.

While Myhill (2004) asserts that a Jewish language, i.e. the in-group speech within a Jewish community was never considered a main constituent of the Jewish identity (but the sacred language was), sociolinguists in general (Tabouret-Keller & Le Page 1985) do assume that the everyday language is a main factor in constructing and expressing identity and researchers in the field of Jewish intralinguistics in particular consider the distinctive linguistic repertoire of Jews a means to “... index their identities as Jews and as certain types of Jews” (Benor 2011).

Based on interviews conducted with personalities of Jewish life in Berlin and following Benor’s concept I provide evidence that German Jews in contemporary Germany - in combination with other stylistic resources - 1) make use of a distinctive Jewish linguistic repertoire comparable to American Jews and 2) that this repertoire is central to their identity as a Jew.

References
Lexical stress and morphological structure in second language German.
A neurolinguistic study
Johannes Knaus
University of Calgary

EEG studies on word stress in various languages (e.g. Domahs et al. 2008 on German and Domahs et al. 2012 on Polish) have applied an experimental paradigm using shifts of main stress (e.g. *Bikini or *BikiNI instead of Bikini) which could successfully show that native speakers differentiate qualitatively and quantitatively between the correct and each incorrect pattern.

The current study exploits this experimental design to shed light on the question how second language (L2) learners process word stress information of morphologically complex words. Specifically, this study addresses differences between native speakers and L2 learners in word stress processing and the influence of cognate suffixes that either differ in stress position in the first language (L1) and L2 or not.

To this end, twenty native speakers of English with intermediate proficiency in German took part in a neurolinguistic study utilizing event related potentials (ERPs). Morphologically complex German words with different stress patterns were presented visually and auditorily, embedded in an invariant carrier sentence. These words were presented with correct (A) or incorrect (B) main stress:

(A) Er soll nun ÄsTHEtik sagen.   (B) Er soll nun ÄstheTIK sagen.
‘He is supposed to say aesthetics now’

Participants had to judge whether the word was stressed correctly or not.

Moreover, all words exhibited cognate suffixes that influenced stress position. Either the position of main stress was identical in German and English (e.g., Ästhetik and aesthetics) or not (e.g., Eleganz and elegance).

Preliminary findings indicate that ERP effects showing up in the L2 data are comparable to the studies on L1 speakers (cf. Domahs 2008), reflecting how easy prosodic mismatches are detectable for the participants. The results of the study provide us with new insights into the role of word stress information for second language learners.

References
**Working on constructions: A historical picture of the German affixoid \(-\textit{werk}\) and the merits of a constructionalization analysis**  
Douglas Lightfoot  
The University of Alabama

Affixoids prove useful in the literature on word-formation, morphology, and language change in highlighting the dynamics of full words transitioning toward derivational affixes. Suffixoids such as German \(-\textit{werk}\) synchronically display certain morphosyntactic and semantic features of both full words and bound forms. In 10th century Old High German Bavarian we find the bound form in (1) as well as unbound \textit{uuerah} ‘work’ (‘Werk’, ‘Arbeit’).

(1) \textit{poum-uuerahes}  
tree-works ‘(natural) construction made of trees/wood’

Two and three centuries later in Middle High German, we see an expansion of the semantic possibilities for the suffixoid \(-\textit{werk}\) in its bound incarnation as in (2), all the while retaining its core semantics of ‘work’ when in free form.

(2) \textit{vor-werc}  
‘outworks or projection from a fortification’

Old High German \(-\textit{uuerah}\) indicates a naturally occurring phenomenon, and the Middle High German example displays an extension that can include artificial constructs of a certain degree of complexity. Usages culminate in examples such as Modern Standard German \textit{Pumpwerk} ‘pumping station’, thus signaling a heightened degree of technological sophistication that can no longer be accomplished with simple “handwork” or individual manual labor, but also a separate semantic track is established early on in dialectal examples arguably at least as early as Middle High German with the somewhat related concept of \textit{collective} as in (3) and (4).

(3) \textit{Dierns-wark} ‘girls (collective)’
(4) \textit{därme-werk} ‘intestines’

The affixoid \(-\textit{werk}\) has thus held that morphosyntactic status since at least the Old High German era through the present, and although it retains much of its lexical semantics, the trajectory strongly mimics grammaticalization phenomena and the development of derivational suffixation (formal fusion with a gradual bleaching of semantics, the expansion of host forms, and distinct conceptual patterns).

This work utilizes the classic affixoidal progression of \(-\textit{werk}\) (Erben 1959; Henzen 1965; Wilmanns 1922) to highlight the pros and cons of a constructional approach rapidly gaining currency (Hüning & Booij 2014; Traugott and Trousdale 2008, 2010) vs. the lexicalization-grammaticalization scalar framework associated with grammaticalization studies (Brinton & Traugott 2005; Hopper & Traugott 2003).
Eye Movements when Reading
German as a Second Language

Steven G. Luke Laura Catharine Smith Teresa R. Bell Troy L. Cox
Brigham Young University Brigham Young University Brigham Young University Brigham Young University

Most assessments of reading skill in second language learners assess comprehension for text after it is read. Such measures reveal the end result of the reading process, namely how well students are able to understand the content and meaning of the text, but tell us very little about what happens during the reading process. Eye-tracking is a useful tool for investigating the moment-to-moment processing of text that can be used to study what second language learners do (and do differently) during reading (Dussias, 2010; Roberts & Siyanova-Chanturia, 2013). In other words, eye-tracking allows researchers insights into how readers are gathering information from the text and what aspects of reading are most difficult for them.

In this study, using passages taken from the Reading Proficiency Test currently being developed for ACTFL, we used eye-tracking to investigate: How second-language learners of German read differently in German than in their L1 (English) and how text and task complexity influenced the learners’ reading behaviors in real time. All participants were students of German currently enrolled in German classes. They were asked to read texts and answer questions based on these texts. Eye-tracking data were collected during the process to determine how students scanned the texts while reading. The online version of the ACTFL was used to rate their proficiency.

Results demonstrate that learners are much slower and less efficient readers in their second language. Importantly, proficiency significantly influenced eye movements in reading, especially for more difficult texts. These findings help clarify what second language readers are doing in real time and how language proficiency influences the way learners approach the reading task.

References


**Arabic-English bilinguals use more ablaut past tenses than monolinguals:**
*a case of morphological convergence with implications for the history of Germanic*

Robert Mailhammer

The MARCS Institute, University of Western Sydney

A hypothesis on the origin of the Proto-Germanic strong verb system proposes that contact-induced change with Punic played a key role as bilingual speakers restructured Pre-Proto-Germanic over-applying ablaut in functional and systematic terms (see Vennemann 1998: 42 et passim). This paper tests its pivotal assumption, namely that bilingual speakers with a Semitic language in their repertoire can latch onto ablaut phenomena in another language of their repertoire, and over-apply the use of ablaut in a process of convergence (Muysken 2013). The preliminary results confirm this assumption: Arabic-English bilinguals produce significantly more English ablaut past tenses than English monolingual speakers.

The data for this study come from a replication of a production experiment with English nonce past tense forms (Albright & Hayes 2003). This paper reports on the first experiment with 18 Arabic-English bilinguals, who were almost twice as likely to produce an irregular past tense than the monolingual participants in the original experiment in Albright & Hayes (2003: 155-8), see Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participants/Production Probability (mean)</th>
<th>Regular past tense</th>
<th>Irregular past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic-English</td>
<td>0.799075952**</td>
<td>0.164807302**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English (A &amp; H 2002)</td>
<td>0.910948276</td>
<td>0.089051724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results are statistically significant (p=1.88E-07 and p=0.0194). Given that most irregular formations in Albright & Hayes (2003) are ablaut formations, we compared the mean production probability of ablaut past tenses in Arabic-English bilinguals to the production probability of irregular forms in Albright & Hayes (2003), see Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Production Probability (mean)</th>
<th>Ablaut past tense (A-E bilinguals)</th>
<th>Irregular past tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.186978815</td>
<td>0.089051724</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We interpret the increased production probability of ablaut past tenses in Arabic-English bilinguals as the result of convergence: speakers exploit the fact that ablaut can express TAM in Arabic and tense in English and over-apply ablaut in the production of nonce past tenses in English. In this they are sensitive to phonological root structure in forming analogies, and this could be another convergence effect, as phonological root structure is also criterion used to delineate inflection classes in Arabic (strong vs. weak verbs).

The results carry significant implications for the hypothesis that the system of the Germanic strong verbs originated in a scenario of language contact involving speakers of Punic, as it demonstrates its plausibility by application of the Uniformitarian Principle. However, it is also significant for contact linguistics more generally as a contribution to a typology of convergence phenomena, given that this is neither a case of straightforward matter replication (ablaut is not transferred from Arabic to English) nor pattern replication (the ablaut patterns of Arabic and English are different). This suggests that convergence is indeed a gradual phenomenon, and that it cannot simply captured as replication or transfer.

**References**


The High German Consonant Shift as Lenition
Jeannette K. Marsh
Baylor University

In the scholarly literature on the High German consonant shift (HGCS) there is a long tradition of positing aspiration of West Germanic */p, t, k/ as the raw material from which the first OHG affricates /pf, ts, kx/ developed (Braune 1874, 1887; Prokosh 1939; Iverson & Salmons 1995; Davis & Iverson 1995; Iverson & Salmons 2003; Honeybone 2002). It is therefore problematic for such aspiration-based accounts that the HGCS applied first and with the greatest regularity in those environments in which aspiration is typically weakest: in post-tonic intervocalic and word-final positions after vowels and sonorant consonants. Conversely, word-initial pre-tonic position—where aspiration should have been strongest—was one of the least favored environments for shift such that only */t/ in this position shifted across all High German dialects, while */p/ and */k/ had a much more regionally restricted distribution (as seen in S. Rhine Frk. zehhan, but pledan, korna). While as a result of this wrinkle scholars have downplayed the role of aspiration in the proposed affrication stage of the shift, no unified mechanism of the shift has been proposed that can account for the shift across phonological environments. In this paper I argue that lenition was that mechanism, weakening the West Germanic fortis stops first to affricates and ultimately to fricatives in certain positions. The lenition was fostered by the economy of gestural magnitude and timing that occurred in post-tonic environments and was inhibited in those where prosodic conditions and need for clarity would have prevented such reductions.

Affrication has been a controversial stage in proposed trajectories of consonantal weakening, but recent work has argued that whether affrication is a case of fortition (as has often been claimed) or of lenition depends on a holistic analysis of the process’s input, including its prosodic position (Buizza & Plug, 2012; Honeybone, 2001, 2002; Szegetvari, 2008; Ségéral & Scheer, 2008). Phonetic studies have shown stop closures to become shorter and less complete in intervocalic and foot-medial positions, resulting in loss of aspiration and potential affrication, spirantization, and approximation (Kingston & Diehl, 1994; Van Son & Pols 1999; Lavoie, 2002). Such reduction in the magnitude of articulatory gestures is a classic example of lenition and is an element of Bybee’s (2012) definition of the process itself. Lenition, as viewed in this paper, is a natural process of economy of gestures and timing that tends to affect sounds in less prominent positions before applying to those in more prominent ones. Thus lenitions in the magnitude of gestures are cross-linguistically most common in intervocalic, word-final, and post-sonorant positions that follow the main stress, the very environments in which the affrication of pre-OHG */p, t, k/ began. Lenition’s progression through these environments to include the geminates, and in a successive process of further weakening of affricates to fricatives, was inhibited in word-initial positions, where the pre-tonic stop occlusions were strongest and therefore resisted reduction.

Finally, I account for the segmentally conditioned exceptions to the HGCS through the interplay of leniting tendencies, articulation, and the perception of new articulatorily based production variants. These include the variable inhibition of affrication after sonorant consonants (uuerc/h), scale(h), dranc(h)), the near lack of affrication after fricatives (luft, stein, naht, skedan, huwipaln), and the complete blocking of the shift of */t/ before */r/. Palatal environments are shown to have interacted with lenition as well, fostering affricated releases of the West Germanic geminates and of singletons in all positions, which bolstered the impact of shifting variants in both number and degree. Lenition was responsible for the core shift of singletons to affricates after short vowels and played a role in virtually every stage of the HGCS thereafter.
Parallelisms in the Affective Use of –eth in Middle English and Verbal –s in AAVE
David Mitchell
The Ohio State University

In many varieties of African American Vernacular English (AAVE), present tense –s inflection follows a pattern somewhat different than is seen in Standard English. For instance, the –s marker varies between –s and –ø in all persons and numbers of the present tense paradigm (table 1).

Table 1. Variation between –s and –ø throughout the present tense in AAVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Inflection</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/he</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Y’all</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They</td>
<td>need(s)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This variation has been linked to habitual aspect, narrative contexts, and stativity as favoring –s inflection. However, a recent study of verbal –s in Ohio AAVE revealed its potential use as a marker of affect as well. Moreover, some interesting parallels surfaced in connection with the use of verbal –s in Ohio AAVE and the third person singular present tense marker, –eth, in Middle to Early Modern English. For instance, both –eth and verbal –s went through a rapid decline in frequency and there is evidence that both show signs of expressive use after this decline (Fasold 1972; Gries and Hilpert 2010; Labov 1968; Pitts 1981, 1986; Schneider 1989; Stein 1987; Wolfram 1969).

The results of a study on verbal –s, using 25 AAVE speaking participants, provide evidence that it is indeed used as a marker of affect in Ohio AAVE. Participants were recruited and asked to read 24 hypothetical scenarios, 12 of which contained what I call dramatic, i.e., they contained highly emotional content. The other 12 scenarios were non-dramatic. Each scenario was followed by two possible follow-up sentences: one containing an –s inflected verb, the other uninflected. Based on the context provided by each scenario, participants had to choose the most appropriate follow-up sentence. Results showed that Ohio AAVE speakers found –s inflection significantly more appropriate when the scenario was dramatic than when the scenario was non-dramatic.

In the course of this investigation, parallels were noted with Middle English –eth. The -eth marker declined in frequency during the late 1600s as the third singular –s marker began to take over. A brief review of past literature identifying grammatical and social constraints on –s/-eth variation will be presented along with evidence of affective use of –eth, via Stien (1987), who analyzed corpora spanning from the 15th to the 17th century.

Evidence from these two unrelated phenomena supports the claim that unconventional linguistic material, be they words, morphemes, or phonemes can be used to demonstrate affect, and that outgoing morphemes serve as candidates due to their fading frequency of use (Joseph 1994; Stein 1987; Wescott 1957).
Integration of vowels in English loans in American Norwegian

David Natvig
University of Wisconsin–Madison

A number of studies have investigated the relationship between phonological contrasts and second language phenomena (i.e. Brown, 1998). Early research in L2 acquisition and integration concerns the relationship between same, similar, and dissimilar between L1 and L2 (cf. Eckman, 2004), arguing that the phonemes that are the same in these languages will be adapted in L2, and that language-specific or universal repair strategies are employed for the similar and dissimilar phonemes. Data from Haugen (1953) indicate that in English loanwords into American Norwegian, each English vowel corresponds to a set of possible Norwegian vowel candidates. In this paper, I argue that the Norwegian vowels selected for integration are best analyzed through the hierarchical phonological structure of Norwegian vowel contrasts (Dresher, 2009).

The proposed structure builds on the contrastive analysis of underspecified dimensions (Avery and Idsardi, 2001), based on language-specific phonological properties (Dresher, 2009). I argue that the sets of viable vowel integration in American Norwegian follow from the hierarchical relationship of vowel phonemes. Following Lahiri and Reetz (2002), distinctive features that match the input are activated as viable candidates, as well as any dominated features that are not mismatches. However, vowels with distinctive features that do not match the input are ruled out.

I argue that loanword integration is not simply a comparison of phonetic features of like and unlike segments across inventories, but that categories are predictably selected with respect to L1 phonological structure (cf. Eckman and Iverson, 2015). This analysis provides additional evidence for underspecified hierarchical contrasts in phonology, as well as for the predominance of abstract L1 categories in processing L2 input: the categories of the L1 grammar guide the perception of speech sounds (Brown, 1998:40; Flege, 1995).

References


The efficacy of using electropalatography to quantitatively describe linguopalatal contact patterns in German

Shawn L. Nissen Lisa D. Isaacson Teresa R. Bell Laura Catharine Smith
Brigham Young University Brigham Young University Brigham Young University Brigham Young University

Advances in instrumentation and computer technology, such as electropalatography (EPG), have allowed second language (L2) instructors and learners the opportunity to use new and innovative methods to help individuals improve their communication. EPG or dynamic palatometry is a computer-based tracking system designed to provide real-time visual bio-feedback of how the tongue is contacting the palate during speech. The instructional use of this technology has increased recently, in part due to a device produced by SmartPalate International© that is relatively thin and available at a lower monetary cost than previous EPG technology. Anecdotal evidence and a limited number of small-scope studies have reported positive results when EPG is used in L2 instruction; however the efficacy of using EPG to facilitate speech production for L2 learners has yet to be fully examined empirically. The initial stage of evaluating the use of EPG for L2 learning is to establish native models of linguopalatal contact on which future student learning can be based.

Thus, this study collected acoustic recordings and EPG data from the speech productions of six native German speakers (3 male and 3 female). Real German words produced in isolation and in a carrier phrase, as well as a series of nonsense words, containing speech sounds with linguopalatal contact, e.g., ch sounds, and high vowels i and u, were targeted in this study. Prior to the collection of data, each participant engaged in 20 minutes of conversation with the pseudopalate in place to allow for motor adaptation to the EPG device. The elicited speech samples were then recorded by an external microphone at a sampling rate of 44.1 kHz with a quantization of 16 bits, which was time-locked to the EPG contact patterns being simultaneously recorded by a separate computer. Using custom-designed Matlab programming, the EPG contact patterns for each sound target were subsequently described quantitatively through a series of palatal regions and contact maps. These measures were used to calculate the geometric shape, symmetry, and area of linguopalatal contact during the production of each sound. The activation level of each EPG electrode was also used to calculate a three-dimensional perspective of the contact patterns. These data were averaged across the duration of a sound to provide a static interpretation of the contact pattern.

In this paper we present results of this preliminary investigation demonstrating how EPG contact patterns vary for the German consonants under discussion. These findings provide the baseline against which the pronunciation of learners of German can be compared. The study paves the way for using this technology in the foreign language classroom.
Bavarian German L-Vocalization and Vowel Dissimilation

Erin Noelliste
Indiana University

In certain varieties of Bavarian German (BG), there is a productive process of L-Vocalization, which often occurs in conjunction with an independent process of Vowel Dissimilation. The two representative examples in (1) show both rules applying. L-Vocalization converts an underlying /l/ to the high front non-syllabic [ɪ̯] when it is in the syllable coda. This alternates with a syllable-initial [l] in the morphemes spiel- and fehl-. ‘.’ indicates the syllable boundary. The data in (1) also show the effects of Vowel Dissimilation: the [ɪ̯] produced by L-Vocalization causes a preceding front stem vowel to change into the back vowel [u]. For example, in the word spielen, the underlying vowel /i/ (which surfaces as [i] in the word Spieler) is realized as the back vowel [u] before [ɪ̯] (from /l/). Since the change from front vowels like /i/ and /e/ to the back vowel [u] is triggered by a front vowel ([ɪ̯]), I analyze that change as a dissimilation.

(1) L-Vocalization and Vowel Dissimilation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phonetic Representation</th>
<th>Standard German</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ʃpuɪ̯n ~ ʃpi.ə]</td>
<td>spielen ~ Spieler</td>
<td>‘to play ~ player’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[fuɪ̯n ~ fe.ə]</td>
<td>fehlen ~ Fehler</td>
<td>‘to err ~ mistake’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In this paper, I will present data sets illustrating the regularity of L-Vocalization and Vowel Dissimilation. The data were collected during the 2013-14 academic year in Styria, Austria and Dachau, Germany. I will discuss the current state of the above-described rules, giving alternations like the ones in (1) and an analysis of these data. One theoretical contribution of this paper concerns the status of dissimilations in the literature. While it is often argued that dissimilations are irregular and diachronic (see, for example, Hock & Joseph 1996), my analysis will show that BG has a regular synchronic rule of dissimilation. Following authors such as Yip (1988) and Hall (2008, 2009), I analyze BG Vowel Dissimilation as a repair to a feature-specific OCP constraint, specifically *[-back] [-back]. In this paper, I will also discuss the status of L-Vocalization for speakers who vocalize /l/ intervocally. For example, those informants have the output form [ʃpu.ə] for the word Spieler, even though the underlying /l/ is parsed in the onset. That pronunciation is generally produced by older generations and is considered more archaic by younger generations. My data show a unique snapshot of the BG dialect transitioning from ‘older’ to more modern forms.

1 The BG infinitive morpheme /-n/ does not surface as [ən], as in Standard German (SG); rather, this morpheme is realized as the (non-syllabic) nasal [n] in BG. Thus, while a word such as spielen would be two syllables in SG, it is only one in BG.

References


**Focus in German:**
**Acoustic and auditory findings**
Mary Grantham O’Brien
University of Calgary

Information structure (IS) is the means by which a speaker modifies an utterance to meet the communicative needs of a hearer (Prince, 1981, p. 224). German speakers typically use prosodic and/or syntactic cues to focus (i.e., highlight) the most important information within an utterance. The current study concentrates on the prosodic cues—primarily pitch—used to make particular information stand out within an utterance. Consider the responses in (1) and (2) below. Although their content is the same, the relative prominence assigned to the subject and object in the two responses differs.

(1) A. Wer wirft den Ball?  
   B. Der Junge wirft den Ball.

(2) A. Was wirft der Junge?  
   B. Der Junge wirft den BALL.

Previous research investigating the prosodic marking of IS in German has shown native speakers to be relatively consistent in their prosodic cues to mark focus and givenness (e.g., Féry et al., 2010). Research performed on English-German second language (L2) learners indicates that these non-native speakers are less consistent in their use of prosodic cues (e.g., O’Brien & Féry, in press). The goal of the current perceptual study is to determine whether English-German L2 learners explicitly differentiate the meaning of sentences that differ only in their prosodic cues to mark focus.

Participants were 12 English-German L2 learners with intermediate proficiency in German. They were asked to listen to a short story like in (3), from Féry et al. (2009).

(3) a. An der Empfangstheke des Krankenhauses lehnen ein Arzt und eine Krankenschwester.  
   b. Die Uhr zeigt fast zwei.  
   c. Der Arzt befragt gleich die Krankenschwester / die Patientin.

They heard up to the word ‘gleich’ in sentence (3c) and were asked to determine how the story should proceed. Féry et al. (2009) showed that native German speakers were able to make use of acoustic cues to determine whether the sentence should be completed with given (‘die Krankenschwester’) or new information (‘die Patientin’). Preliminary results indicate that L2 learners had difficulty in completing the task. The study provides insights into our understanding of the significance of acoustic cues and the extent to which they are perceived by L2 listeners.

**References**


The traditional view of the history of linguistics in North America (e.g. that presented in Newmeyer 1996) tends to hold that Neogrammarian ideas were largely discarded in North America during and after the First World War, in favor of a more indigenous approach rooted in the study of Native American languages (American Structuralism), which itself was later put aside in favor of generative approaches to linguistics (especially Chomskyan linguistics). This paper reappraises this version of the history of the field, drawing on three test cases to do so: Leonard Bloomfield, Edward Sapir, and Warren Cowgill. Despite the chronological issues involved, as Bloomfield and Sapir belong to an earlier scholarly generation than Cowgill, they each exhibit a different approach to Neogrammarian ideas, thus making them appropriate case studies for this paper.

Bloomfield was trained extensively in Germanic and Indo-European linguistics, and remained true to his scholarly roots and methodological grounding for the rest of his career, despite the later shift in his research focus away from Germanic linguistics and philology. Bloomfield successfully synthesized Neogrammarian principles with more current theoretical ideas, as in his brilliant confirmation of an earlier reconstruction of the Proto-Central-Algonquian phoneme system based on the application of the Neogrammarian hypothesis to newly-obtained Swampy Cree data (Bloomfield 1928). Sapir’s early training was in Germanics, but he published very little in Germanic linguistics and by the time of his Ph.D. had abandoned this Neogrammarian background in favor of an anthropological approach to linguistics (as can be seen clearly in works like Sapir 1921). Finally, Cowgill remained firmly committed to a strictly Neogrammarian model of language and linguistics, retaining the principles and methodology instilled in him during his time as a student to the end of his life, as shown by works like Cowgill (1960). Thus, while Sapir moved beyond Neogrammarian ideas, and Bloomfield combined them with later developments, Cowgill adhered firmly to them. These test cases indicate that although interest in the Germanic languages in North America did slacken somewhat after around 1918, some American linguists remained true to their scholarly roots and methodological grounding, showing that there is another version of the history of the field that should be investigated in more detail.

References

Parasitic consonants in Bitburger Platt German

Zebulon Pischnotte
University of Utah

Bitburger Platt, spoken in the Eifel region of western Germany, exhibits several phonological differences from Standard German. One of the major features of this dialect is the presence of parasitic consonants. Specifically, these appear as ‘intrusive’ [k] segments that immediately precede word-internal alveolar stops, while the preceding vowel or diphthong simultaneously undergoes compression, yielding pronunciations such as [hekt] (Std. heute ‘today’) and [wektəɐ] (Std. weiter ‘further’). Historically speaking, this occurs before sounds that can be traced to an intervocalic West Germanic *d, as with the sounds in the aforementioned words (*hiude and *wiːder, respectively).

Today, this phenomenon is geographically confined to a very narrow strip of territory in the Moselle-Franconian regiolect, stretching from Bitburg westward over the border into Luxembourg. Dialects to the south and east of Bitburg have a simplex [d] in this environment; to the north, in the sparsely populated Schneeifel, it is a simplex [k]. Veith (1995) accounts for the presence of [k] before alveolar stops as a “compromise” between these northern and southern zones. However, another explanation is needed to better account for all sound changes involved.

Andersen (1988) discusses parasitic consonants in other German dialects and Germanic languages; for example, some Hessian varieties also exhibit intrusive [k] in words such as Faust ‘fist’ and Eis ‘ice’ ([fukst] and [eks]). Crucially, these consonants are only seen after after what were historically long vowels or diphthongs. The parasitic [k] can be seen as a way of compensating for loss of the second mora, preserving the heavy nature of the stem’s syllable. This explanation accounts for the data from Bitburger Platt, where intrusive [k] is also found only after historically long syllable nuclei.

The most common reflex of intervocalic *d in surrounding areas (and the Moselle Franconian regiolect) is [d], and this sound is becoming increasingly common in Bitburg as well (as is the Standard German [t]). Bitburg is a town where many (if not most) residents are undergoing or have recently undergone a transition from a home-based, agrarian lifestyle to one requiring a commute to an urban center and more contact with non-locals. Such a transition has been shown by other studies (Hofmann, 1963, Besch, 1981, Lenz, 2003) to go hand-in-hand with language shift, specifically a shift from the use of base dialects (basilects) to regional colloquial varieties that lie on a continuum between the base dialect and the standard and exhibit features of both.

Using a corpus of recorded conversations, this study addresses the following research questions:

1. Do participants exhibit intrusive [k] in intervocalic position?

2. Does the frequency of intrusive [k] occurrence correlate with age and/or gender?

Preliminary results indicate that at least some forms with intrusive [k] are used by all participants, with a slightly higher rate of occurrence in the older generation. However, in tokens not exhibiting [k], males prefer the non-standard variant [d] and females, the standard [t].
Linearisation of possessives in Gothic
Artūras Ratkus
University of Vilnius

This paper explores the adnominal placement of Gothic possessive pronouns (meins ‘my’, þeins ‘your’, unsar ‘our’, etc.) and genitive case forms of personal pronouns (NOM.SG. is ‘he’, si ‘she’, ita ‘it’) in an effort to determine whether the faithful Gothic translation of the Greek New Testament permits any insights into the linearisation of possessive attributes in Gothic.

Central to the discussion of Gothic syntax is the problem of which “original” Greek text should be used as a comparative reference for Gothic. Although it has long been known that the Gothic translation of the New Testament is based on a Byzantine Greek text (see Miller 2015 w. lit), comparative Gothic research has utilised anything from Streitberg’s (2000) hybrid reconstruction of the Greek Vorlage to the classic Alexandrian text of the Greek NT by Nestle and Aland et al. (2012). In this paper I argue in favour of comparing Gothic with the Majority Text of the Greek NT (Robinson and Pierpont 2005), which represents a consensus text of a number of Byzantine manuscripts. At the same time, any deviations from the Byzantine Text should be compared with the Alexandrian NT, pre-Vulgate Latin (Jülicher 1970 and Vetus Latina Database) and Latin Vulgate NT (Weber and Gryson 2007).

A comparison of the Gothic text with the above sources makes it possible to isolate Gothic deviations from the original text(s) and assess the nature of the deviations in an effort to establish whether they represent idiomatic Gothic. Thus in 98% of examples the linearisation of Gothic attributive possessives matches that of the original text(s), with 72% of attributive possessives favouring post-position, and 28% attested in pre-position to the head noun. Naturally, these figures generalise over the tendencies of Greek (and Latin) and say little about the syntactic preferences of Gothic. The remaining 2% of examples represent two types of deviation: (1) deviations of linearisation and (2) deviations of substance. Examples of the first type illustrate differences in the adnominal positioning of the modifiers (cf. 1Tim 5:23 Goth. saunte þeinaizo ‘lit. infirmities your’, Gk sou astheneias ‘your infirmities’), and in examples of the second type Gothic attests adnominal modifiers unattested in either Greek or Latin (cf. 2Thes 3:17 ana allaim [aiπίσταδεμ meinaim] ‘lit. in every epistle my’, Gk en pasē epistolē ‘in every epistle’, Lat. in omni epistola ‘in every epistle’). In 72% of the Gothic deviations the modifier is attested to the right of the noun. Overall, at 2%, the number of Gothic deviations from the Greek and Latin texts is insufficient to suggest beyond a reasonable doubt that the deviations represent idiomatic Gothic. However, the evaluation of each example on its own merits carries a tentative suggestion that the preferred position of possessive modifiers in Gothic may have been in post-position the noun.

References
Dental Hygiene: 
Rebooting an Etymological Crux 
Paul T. Roberge 
University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill and Stellenbosch University 

“The origin of the dental suffix [of the Germanic weak preterite] and associated problems of conjugation (endings) are the most debated topic of Gmc. grammar,” wrote Eduard Prokosch some seventy-six years ago (1939:194). Notwithstanding the production of a significant and learned body of literature since then, we are still far from a complete solution of the problem. The obstacle to a better understanding of this massively discussed phenomenon is conventionally attributed to the extraordinary diversity and complexity of the inflectional patterns attested in the daughter dialects and the opacity of what could call Ingredient X (the term is from Smith 2015 in a wholly unrelated context), which designates a Proto-Indo-European morpheme from which the Germanic weak preterital suffix is derivable. Ingredient X is conventionally thought to obtain from a periphrastic construction containing the verb ‘to do’ (PIE *deh₁-) or from a verbal adjective (participle) in *-to-. Ingredient X and its subsequent development should conform to the phonological facts and should also be compatible with what we know about early Germanic morphological and syntactic structure. Yet, we are no closer than we were in Prokosch’s day to an unimpeachable identification of Ingredient X and a reconstruction of the factors that gave rise to what is arguably the hallmark innovation that sets off Germanic from its Indo-European parent language and from its sibling dialects.

The main obstacle to gaining a better understanding of the origin and development of the Germanic weak preterite is not a contradictory and disconnected body of factual evidence but rather a paucity of restrictive theory. Specifically, a “Galilean” approach to this etymology is indicated, one that does not seek gross coverage of the data but makes radical abstractions and idealizations that are deductively removed (perhaps far removed) from the problematic data (Botha 1988:6–7).

The general category of weak verbs with a dental consonant in the suffix is due to language contact between (pre-) Germanic, Celtic, and substratal groups in the North Sea habitus from roughly the mid-first millennium b.c.e. Ingredient X is a serial completive meaning ‘finish, done’. The specific inflectional classes, however, were not immediately fixed and became established only during the development of the different Germanic dialects, as Meillet (1949:162) correctly surmised.

References
Indefinite quantifiers and case in Old English

Dorian Roehrs
University of North Texas

Christopher D. Sapp
University of Mississippi

A search of the York-Toronto-Helsinki Corpus of Old English Prose (YCOE) reveals that OE indefinite quantifiers fall into three groups.

First, ælc, gehwelc, nan, and sum occur with a N or Adj in concord (1a). In the partitive construction, there is a dependent DP in the genitive (1b).

(1) a. nan man
    none.NOM man.NOM
b. nan þyssera yfela
    none.NOM these-GEN evils-GEN

Note that these quantifiers are adjective-like in inflection (2a) and distribution (2b).

(2) a. nanne (acc.masc.sg), nanum (dat.masc.sg), nanre (dat.fem.sg), nanra (gen.pl)
    cf. godne, godum, godre, godra ‘good’
b. anum gehwylcum gelyfedum men
    one-DAT.PL each-DAT.PL weak-DAT.PL men-DAT ‘every single weak man’

We propose that these adjectival quantifiers are in Spec-CardP (cf. Julien 2005). Following adjectives and Ns are in Spec-AgrP and under N, respectively (3a). In contrast, the partitive DPs are the complement of a lexical N, which assigns genitive but is elided (3b):

(3) a. [CardP gehwylcum Card [AgrP gelyfedum Agr [NP men]]]
b. [CardP nan Card [NP Þyssera yfela]]

Secondly, all dependents of awiht, naawiht, naathing, sumthing, etc. occur in genitive:

(4) a. wolberendes awiht well-bearing-GEN some-thing.NOM
b. aht þara sarra wunda
    some.ACC the-GEN sore-GEN wounds-GEN

These are bi-morphemic, consisting of a quantifier (a-, na-, nan-, sum-) and a semi-lexical noun (wiht or thing). We propose that the quantifier is a clitic in Card, and the semi-lexical noun is under N. As cardinal numerals assign genitive in OE (Mitchell 1985), we assume that a-, na-, etc. assigned genitive to Spec-CardP (5).

(5) a. [CardP wolberendes [CardP a- [NP Þiwiht]]]
b. [CardP t₁ [CardP a- [NP -ht]]] [DP þara … wunda]

Assuming that semi-lexical nouns cannot build full extended projections (cf. Grimshaw 1991), an AgrP is not projected in (5a), ruling out adjectives in concord. Furthermore, the presence of a semi-lexical N rules out the occurrence of a lexical N in concord. DP dependents cannot be integrated into the matrix nominal as they are too big, nor can they receive genitive case as the complement of semi-lexical thing/wiht. Thus we propose that DPs are embedded in Spec-CardP like other genitive dependents of these quantifiers, but move to the right by adjunction (5b).

Thirdly, some OE examples like nanum eorðlicum þinge ‘no earthly thing (dative)’ seem to contradict our generalization that bi-morphemic, denominal quantifying expressions occur with the genitive. We maintain that such examples involve a free, adjectival quantifier (often inflected) and the lexical N thing, thus are derived just as in (4a).

Note that this continues into Modern English no good thing(s) alongside the bi-morphemic indefinite: nothing(*s) good.

References

Toward the dialectology of Viking-age Scandinavian  
Michael Schulte  
University of Agder

It is almost 40 years ago since Einar Haugen’s *The Scandinavian Languages* appeared. This pioneering work was criticized for its almost variation-free construct of Common Scandinavian in terms of a proto-language (see e.g. Ohlsson 1978, Barnes 1997). In Haugen’s report, Viking-age Scandinavian displays less variation than modern Icelandic.

On this background, I take a fresh look at several dialectal features and their distribution in the Viking Age. In order to grasp the chronological dimension, I operate with three subphases: 1. the early Viking Age (750–850), 2. the mid-Viking Age (850–950), and 3. the late Viking Age (950–1050). My chronological starting point around 750 is based on the archeological evidence (viz., the emergence of mercantile centers such as Birka, Ribe, and Staraja Ladoga), and the emergence of the younger futhark. Note that the Ribe cranium, ca. 725–750, is the first known inscription written with a 15/16-rune system.

I scrutinize the following features (based on phonological and morphological rules) that commonly show up in the research literature:

- **Ph1**: ū/ō-isogloss: *brū* : *brō*, *kū* : *kō*, *gnūa* : *gnōa* etc.
- **Ph2**: monophthongization (in conjunction with vowel opening)
- **Ph3**: mutation: *i/-* and *u/-* mutation
- **Ph4**: breaking, in particular *w/-*breaking: OSw. *siunga* < Proto-Norse *singwan*
- **Ph5**: *h/-*dropping word-initially before vowels: e.g. *alsten* = *Hallsten* U771
- **M1**: determinatives: runic *þina* ~ *þansi*, *þau* ~ *þaun* ~ *þausi* etc.)
- **M2**: medio-passive (reflective) *-sk* ~ *-s*

There is only one salient feature which supports the notion of an east/west-split in the early Viking Age (phase 1), viz. Ph1, while several other east/west-features must be relegated to phases 2–3 or to the later Middle Ages. This claim is corroborated by the runic evidence, e.g. sk-verbs such as Runic Swedish *hafask fyrrir* on the Forsa rune-ring from Hälsingland. A scrutiny of the runic evidence follows.

Under this focus, two features are particularly revealing: Ph2 and Ph5. I argue that *h/-*dropping is a sociolinguistic variable that occurs across the whole area of Scandinavia in phases 1–3 and beyond. On the sociolinguistic dimension of *h/-*dropping in English, see Hebda (2012: 247, with references).

I take a fresh look at the main criterion for an east/west-split which is Ph2. My focus rests on different monophthongization tendencies all over the Scandinavian area, in particular the competing transitions /au/ > /o:/ and /au/ > /o:/ as evidenced by place-names and runic inscriptions. Recent research by Elmevik (2011) and Källström (2014) stresses the possibility that the monophthongization /au/ > /o:/ arose independently in central areas of Scandinavia.

To sum up, the discussion clearly but succinctly indicates a scenario of high-scale variation, particularly in phases 1–2 of the Viking Age, with a series of concomitant levelling processes. As the paper shows, the notion of an early east/west-divide as suggested by the genetic tree-model runs counter to a variationist account and it is valid only within the scope of very few isoglosses.
Position-sensitive perceptual assimilation of German dorsal fricatives by L1 English pre-learners: The initial state for acquisition of an L2 phonological alternation

John H.G. Scott  Isabelle Darcy
Indiana University  Indiana University

This is the first study of German consonants by L1 English listeners in the perceptual assimilation (PA; [1]) experimental paradigm. The study investigates L2 acquisition of the voiceless palatal and velar fricatives [ç] and [x], which are not phonemes in most English varieties. Acoustically similar sounds and common substitutions by L1 English learners of German ([hʃk]; [2]) were included as response options. Unlike most PA studies, which tend to control for prosodic position, this study innovatively examines position-sensitivity in L2 phonology by testing multiple prosodic positions: syllable onset, coda-final, and coda-nonfinal.

576 randomized monosyllabic stimuli containing the German consonants [ç x h k ʃ p ŋ] were balanced for vowel ([a] vs. [e]) and presented in blocks by prosodic position of the target consonant in initial or final (CVC) or penultimate (CVCt) syllable frames. Participants were adult L1 American English speakers (N=12) with little to no exposure to languages containing [ç] or [x] phonemes in their inventories (i.e., naïve cross-language listeners). In each target position, participants chose the best fit from six English category responses available (e.g., “h as in hay”, “k as in kite”, “sh as in shoe”, etc.) and rated the target sound on a 7-point goodness-of-fit (GF) scale (1 = “very bad example”; 7 = “very good example”).

Perceptual assimilation response profiles for [ç] and [x] were distinct from [h] and from each other globally and distinct from the same German phone in the other prosodic environments. For example, initial-position PA of German [x] to English orthographic <h> was categorical (99.2%; MeanGF = 4.64), whereas PA of German [ç] was distributed between English orthographic <h> (58.6%; MeanGF = 4.18), <sh> with higher GF (33.3%; MeanGF = 4.18), and <ch> (7.0%; MeanGF = 2.20). In coda positions, both [x] and [ç] showed higher rates of PA to English orthographic <k> and <ch>. For [x], this was at the expense of PA to English <h>; for [ç], at the expense of <sh>. In penultimate position before [t] in the coda, both [x] and [ç] showed higher rates of PA to English <k> ([x]: 20.9%; [ç]: 17.8%) with higher GF than to <h>.

A mild depression of GF occurred when [ç] and [x] and adjacent vowel frontness / backness mismatched; this was driven by the initial position (i.e., [ça], [xe]). Although German has phonological regressive Dorsal Fricative Assimilation, this unanticipated result is consistent with a phonetic progressive assimilation effect in perception. This indicates that universal or L1 phonetic perceptions interact with acquisition of this German alternation at early learner stages.

This snapshot of pre-learners’ initial state provides a baseline for predictions about L1 English L2 German learners’ acquisition of the novel categories [ç] and [x] and, in turn, the phonological alternation between them in the target language.

References


OE ‘hawk’ in the Exeter Book Riddle 19, *Cherogillus animal* of Codex Sangallensis 913 and Early English Glosses

Douglas P.A. Simms
Southern Illinois University Edwardsville

All treatments of the runes in *Riddle 19* on folio 105r of the Exeter Book Codex (see most recently Bitterli 2009, Niles 2006, Muir 2000, but also Pinsker & Ziegler 1985, Williamson 1977, Krapp & Dobbie 1936, Trautmann 1915) have taken the word *haofoc*, written backwards in runes, as a unique spelling of ‘hawk.’ The dialectal, paleographical, and philological circumstances which could account for the unique spelling *haofoc* need to be addressed, as they suggest a form with either Second Fronting or a failure to retract Common OE æ. By situating the specifics of the spelling, we might gain more insight into the runica’s dialect of origin.

As a point of comparison, Codex Sangallensis 913, a *vademecum* dated to approximately the last quarter of the eighth century (ca.780–90), contains also a unique spelling of OE ‘hawk,’ namely *haebuc*. The several OE terms found in the *Cherogillus animal* (ff. 139–45), for example *giig, dob fugul, raredumlae, ualuchaebuc*, and *greshoppae* reflect spellings which should significantly antedate Cod.San.913, indicating copying from an earlier source gloss. Furthermore, the few clues regarding the source dialect of these words appear mixed, at times indicating a dialect with Second Fronting, but lacking velar umlaut. The spelling *ualuchaebuc*, moreover, differs in spelling from that of the Épinal-Erfurt glosses (*uualhhebuc* and *uualhhaebuc*, respectively), suggesting the copying from a different line in the Continental glossary clad.

In order to account for the spelling *haofoc* in Exeter Book Riddle 19, we are faced with a number of orthographic, phonological, and paleographic problems. We might account for some of the difficulties in suggesting that the runica here represents transliteration out of the roman script, and that error in transmission comes from an earlier version with Second Fronting, though with modernization of medial –b– through –f– (similar to *agof* in Riddle 24).
Peer vs. teacher based oral corrective feedback in the foreign language classroom

Lieselotte Sippel  
Pennsylvania State University

Carrie N. Jackson  
Pennsylvania State University

A broad body of research has provided evidence for the effectiveness of oral corrective feedback (CF) in foreign and second language classrooms (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Chu, 2013; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Sheen, 2010; Yang & Lyster, 2010). Most studies have looked at oral CF provided by a teacher (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, & Erlam, 2006; Sheen, 2010; Yang & Lyster, 2010). Recent studies have also investigated the effects of oral CF provided by peers under the assumption that peer CF could be advantageous as students are not only receivers of CF, but also CF providers (Chu, 2013; Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Sato, 2013; Sato & Lyster, 2012). However, peer CF is still under-investigated, and no study to date has compared the benefits of oral peer CF directly to teacher CF.

The present study examined the effects of oral peer and teacher CF on the acquisition of the present perfect tense in L2 German using a pretest-posttest design. The study was administered in four intact German language classes at an American university. Participants were 59 classroom learners of German with low-intermediate to intermediate proficiency. Thirty-one participants were assigned to the peer CF condition and 28 participants were assigned to the teacher CF condition. The peer CF students were trained how to provide CF to each other at the beginning of the treatment, and the teacher CF students were provided CF by a teacher. The two-day instructional treatment consisted of retelling the plots of the German short movies Kleingeld (‘Small Change’) and Schwarzfahrer (‘Black Rider’) while being provided CF from peers or the teacher, depending on the condition to which participants had been assigned. The participants completed a pretest, an immediate posttest, a delayed posttest and a debriefing questionnaire. All tests consisted of a picture-cued oral production task and an untimed grammaticality judgment task.

Results indicated that participants in both CF conditions significantly improved on grammatical accuracy, as measured by the oral production task and the grammaticality judgment task. Statistically, there was no clear advantage of one CF condition over the other, but descriptive results showed that the peer CF treatment produced longer-lasting effects at the time of the delayed posttest, indicating a small advantage for peer CF. These findings suggest that peer CF can be effective even with less proficient learners, and that students who provide peer CF may benefit not only from receiving, but also from providing CF. At the same time, debriefing questionnaires revealed that although the peer CF students enjoyed the instructional treatment more than the teacher CF students, they also considered the feedback less helpful than the teacher CF students, and some of them felt uncomfortable when they had to correct their peers. These findings point to the importance of explicitly discussing the benefits of peer CF with L2 learners before implementing it in foreign language classrooms.
Are there verb-final declaratives in Old High German?
Katerina Somers
Queen Mary University of London

The primary goal of this paper is to establish whether there is evidence of verb-final (Vfinal) declaratives in the history of German. As we know, the Vfinal declarative is not a feature of Modern Standard German, which exhibits a complementary distribution of complementizer and finite verb:

a. Anna… hat ihn gestern bei der Arbeit gesehen.
   Anna aux him yesterday at work seen-PART

b. Ich weiß,… dass ihn Anna gestern bei der Arbeit gesehen hat.
   I know that him Anna yesterday at work seen-PART AUX
   ‘(I know, that) Anna saw him at work yesterday.’

To some extent, the OHG data mirror the syntactic patterns we see in Modern Standard German, with verbs often appearing in second position (V2) in the absence of a complementizer and final position when a subordinator is present. Yet, there are also clauses in OHG in which the finite verb is in final position, but no lexical subordinator is present:

c. Er uns ginádon sinen ríat
   he us mercy his meted
   ‘He meted out to us his mercy’ (L 27, Offríd)

The question of the status of such clauses and the level of significance we should accord them is an open one. On the one hand, works such as Lenerz (1985) argue that the Vfinal clause with no subordinator was a productive and native pattern in earlier forms of German, a direct descendant of the SOV declaratives of PIE and Proto-Germanic. On the other hand, analyses such as Eythórsson (1995) and Axel (2007) argue that leftward movement in main clauses developed far earlier than others assume, and so it is unlikely that the Vfinal declarative would be a widespread phenomenon in the Germanic daughter languages. Clauses like c. are downplayed in such analyses—characterized as rare occurrences or purely the product of extragrammatical factors.

In my paper I will test the assertion that there is little to no evidence in OHG of a native placement of the verb in final position in the absence of a subordinator. My dataset draws from the poetic Evangelienbuch, which is known to show a good number of these clauses, all of which are immediately discounted because of the work’s poetic meter. My goal is to rehabilitate the Otfridan Vfinal clause (with no subordinator) as a genuine ninth century German construction by 1) establishing the rates of frequency for different clause types and 2) showing that rhyme and meter alone are not enough to account for all attestations of Vfinal placement. Finally, I will discuss how the existence of these clauses might influence our basic models of OHG syntax.

References
Pennsylvania Dutch (Pennsylvania German) is a North American language that closely resembles the German dialects of the central Rhine region in its core phonological and morphosyntactic structures, despite widespread bilingualism in English among its speakers. In its syntax, Pennsylvania Dutch behaves like most varieties of German: the underlying order of verbs and their complements is verb-final, and there is a surface asymmetry between main and subordinate clauses. Main clauses are finite-verb-second (V2) and are generated by the rightward movement of the finite verb to [C,CP]. This movement may be blocked by an overt complementizer, such as (d)ass ‘that’, in the [C,CP] position, yielding a subordinate clause with a finite-verb-final (VL) structure.

Interestingly, in spoken varieties of European German the complementizer dass may introduce both VL and V2 structures. The same variation is found in Pennsylvania Dutch. Compare (1)–(3) below.

(1) ich glaab , [ dass sie eppes gutes mit ihm duh kennde ] (VL)
(2) ich glaab , [ sie kennde eppes gutes mit ihm duh ] (V2)
(3) ich glaab , dass [ sie kennde eppes gutes mit ihm duh ] (dass + V2)

‘I know (that) they could do something good with him’

In this paper I focus on dass + V2 structures in Pennsylvania Dutch, or the type shown in (3). In analyzing this structure in European German, Freywald (2009) proposes the existence of a functional π-Phrase (π standing for ‘parataxis’) that is marked with the illocutionary feature [assertive] and has dass as its head, as shown in (4):

(4) [πP CP1 [π’ [π[ASSERT] dass] CP2 ]]

I will weigh the implications of this analysis and propose an alternative account that suggests that dass + V2 in Pennsylvania Dutch, and by extension perhaps also in spoken European German, is more likely an instance of straightforward coordination, with dass behaving like a conjunction such as und ‘and’. Central to my analysis is the observation that the second clauses in (1), (2), and (3) above, while semantically dependent on the preceding matrix clause, are not embedded syntactically.

The data from this study are drawn from an emerging corpus of more than 460 texts produced by Frank R. Brunner (1835–1908) that appeared in the Reading Adler newspaper between 1876 and 1908. A comparison of Brunner’s language with that of his contemporaries as well as modern speakers of Pennsylvania Dutch shows that structures such as (1), (2), and (3) have long been highly productive. Further, the influence of English on Brunner’s native language appears to have played no role, since core Palatine German-inherited clausal syntactic structures that differ from English remain completely intact.

References

On the uses of Middle English *borough*

Ann-Marie Svensson  
University of Gothenburg

Jürgen Hering  
University of Gothenburg

In literature from the Early Middle English period, i.e. the 12th and 13th centuries, *borough* is the firmly established word for both British and non-British urban settlements, but in texts written later than 1300, *borough* decreases dramatically, and is replaced by *town*, originally ‘enclosure’ or ‘houses on the enclosed land’ (*The Oxford English Dictionary* (*OED*)), as the frequently used word for ‘urban settlement in general’ (cf Svensson, 1997).

English *borough*, from Germanic *burg-s*, derives from the same root as the Common Germanic verb *berg-an*, ‘to shelter, protect’ (*OED*), and the Old English noun, like for instance German *burg* or Swedish *borg*, originally denoted ‘a fortified place of defence’. As these fortified places developed as centres for trade and administration, more urban connotations were attached to the word. The Modern English spelling, *borough*, used in the following discussion, is one of the many spelling variants current in Middle English, ca1100 - ca1500.

The 13th century was a period of social and economic changes in society. The places called *borough* developed certain privileges that separated them from the rest of the country; trade was expanding, which led to the growth of small places called *town* that developed as market places and were separated from the surrounding countryside, but also from the more dignified boroughs (Reynolds 1977). However, even if the specialization of *borough* may have been the main reason for the decline of the word in texts of a general nature, other factors cannot be totally disregarded. Thus, there were more derivatives than ‘fortified place’ from Germanic *berg-an*, ‘to shelter, protect’, and the following interpretations of Middle English *borough* were possible (cf *OED*): ‘animal dwelling’ (Modern English *burrow*), ‘hill’ (Modern English *burrow*) and ‘pledge, security’ (Modern English *borrow*). This polysemy may have led to ambiguity, and 14th- and 15th-century speakers and writers may have avoided the word in general contexts.

The present study is based on the occurrences and uses of *borough* in ninety texts, prose and verse, written between ca1100 and ca1500, and discusses the following questions:

- How did a speaker of Middle English interpret *borough*?
- Was there a risk of misunderstanding so that speakers and writers avoided *borough*?
- Did ambiguity caused by the polysemy of *borough* contribute to the preference for other “town words”?

References


Summer camps are commonplace in the lives of American youth. Camps can come in all forms, shapes and sizes. In the United States, you can even find camps with specific themes, be it religious or nature-oriented. Each camp develops in a sense its own culture through the counselors and other staff who work the site and the youth and other participants who visit. Ultimately, summer camps are places for personal development and informal education, which is generally enjoyable for the participants. Dahl, Sehtre-Hofstad and Salomon (2013) present data about the experiences of participants at Concordia Language Villages (CLV), and they find that this language and culture camp offers many opportunities that the participants can enjoy. The informal learning environment is safe and open. Summer camp workers and youth use their imaginations, energy, and identities, which develop elaborate and dramatic “real” life experiences or theatrical events (Ellis, 1981). Concordia Language Villages, like other summer camps, rely on theatrical displays every day, and the entire camp is essentially a stage with all of the participants and staff as actors and actresses, which not only allows for but encourages self-expression in another language and culture. However, what culture is Waldsee staff trying to present for the villagers (campers)? What are the boundaries of what is culturally appropriate or culturally authentic that the Waldsee staff is trying to overtly or subconsciously enforce? In which parts of Waldsee camp life are more American or more of the central European culture?

This qualitative study is built on interviews lasting from 30 to 90 minutes about the counselors’ connection to, involvement in and thoughts about various aspects of the Waldsee culture. Eleven interviewees – all over 17 years old – are current or former Waldsee counselors. The interviews were conducted in person or via Skype beginning with basic information about Waldsee and leading up to their perceptions of Waldsee culture. The interviewees understand Waldsee as attempting to incorporate as much of the central European cultural diversity as possible into their programming, such as Swiss German Schwingen, Cologne’s Fasching and Turkish dance, without crossing the fine line of perpetuating central European stereotypes in the minds of young Americans. On the other hand, Waldsee attracts largely American youth and counselors, who ultimately bring their American culture to the camp, and the interviewees mentioned that the daily schedule, swimming and hiking are typical American ‘camp culture’. According to the counselors, influences from central Europe, all across the United States and the summer camp culture are interwoven at Waldsee; for example, the singing of songs around a campfire is thought of as being American, yet most of the songs are German folk and children’s songs. Likewise, each meal is presented theatrically in German so that everyone knows the German words for what is being served, but the cultural references for these skits are generally American, such as cheerleading or Jurassic Park. All counselors and all villagers play a vital role in the process of weaving cultural aspects from their own cultures into one new ever-changing camp culture, which all counselors and villager can claim as their own (Peterson, 2007), but the interviewees believe that each aspect of Waldsee camp life, each meal, each building, each activity, unites varying amounts of the American and Central European cultures and that this combination is what makes Waldsee unique and a wonderful learning environment for counselors and villagers.

References
Prosody and the German left periphery:  
Phonetic strategies for complying with V2  

John R. te Velde  
Oklahoma State University

Numerous studies (see survey in Schalowski 2014 and references) have investigated violations of the verb-second “rule” (V2) in German, often coming to the conclusion that verb-third (V3) structures can be generated when a combination of syntactic and semantico-pragmatic factors conspire to create a sentence frame left of the subject. In my paper I argue that an approach to V3-structures through the prosody and its interface with the syntax can account for a wider variety of data. My data come from Kiezdeutsch, varieties of Yiddish and Wisconsin German, and colloquial standard German; all give evidence of prosodic tools used for the restructuring of the left periphery without violating any principles that underlie V2-structures.

I do not investigate V3-structures of the type for which Müller (2005) proposes a fronted empty verbal head that projects a VP containing various elements. His analysis in turn does not account for the data investigated here which, as I argue, occur in structures that require prosodic effects such as pitch accent, falling/rising/steady intonation, pause and phonetic reduction for the recalculation of constituents. In (1), for instance, a temporal adverb combines with a (sometimes reduced) subject to form a single prosodic phrase as the first constituent:

(1) a. (Manchmal wir/p gehe auch in andre Städte …)  
sometimes we go also in other cities  
‘Sometimes we go to other cities too.’

b. (ʃpɛjtɛ-x/p zaxɔːgelɛrt mɛlki-n-a ki)  
later-I refl-have out-learned milking-a cow  
‘Later I unlearned how to milk a cow.’

Another phonetic tool used commonly in spoken usage for circumventing V2 is a prosodic restart, marked by a pause after a prosodic phrase that precedes the pre-finite-verb subject:

(2) a. (In de mintaym/p es iz geveyn zayer hays…)  
in the meantime it is been very hot  
‘In the meantime, it was very hot…’

b. (nɔx lɛɲgiɛrɛ tʃa:t)p m-ɔt giebɔrfn a zajgiɛmaxɛ)  
after longer time one-had needed a watchmaker  
‘After a longer period of time one needed a watchmaker.’

These two prosodic strategies differ significantly in nature and purpose: prosodic recalculation uses a reduction of phonetic content to create a single prosodic constituent out of two syntactic constituents. Prosodic restart, by contrast, triggers a recalculation of the clausal left edge. For this operation the left-edge element must be merged late and may not be part of the theta structure; hence, arguments are not allowed, unless a resumptive pronoun occurs (3a) or a single constituent is formed out of the subject and finite verb through phonetic reduction (3b):

the-dat H. him-dat would I never believe

b. vɛ́mən m’od gaŠon, vɛ́mən m’od aráŋŋawɔrfn libadɑɾɛjt  
the-ones one had shot the-ones one had in-thrown living  
‘Some were shot, others were thrown in alive.’

In cases of Contrastive Left Dislocation (CLD) like (3a), the prosody again signals the restart of the clause; hence, CLD also requires the integration of prosody and syntax.

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Intransitives in the history of English
Elly van Gelderen
Arizona State University

In this paper, I examine two changes involving intransitive verbs in the history of English. The first is the loss of purely intransitive verbs and the second is their change to copula verbs. I attribute the first to the availability of a vP-shell that favors light, labile, and transitive verbs and the second to an ambiguity that led to reanalysis.

As for the first change, Visser (1963: 97-135) offers a detailed argument that there is a decrease in verbs that are exclusively intransitive towards Modern English and an increase in labile verbs, e.g. boil, dry, and burn. I will examine 59 of the 223 verbs that Visser mentions as exclusively intransitive in Old English and track their changes, i.e. their loss (e.g. alearan ‘to flee’, bifian ‘to shake’) as well as their replacement by light verbs (e.g. alatian ‘become sluggish’) and addition of resultative particles (e.g. aberstan ‘burst out’) and their change to transitive verbs (cidan ‘quarrel’) and labile ones (e.g. dropian ‘drop’). Using a standard vP-shell (Larson 1988 and on), I will argue that Old English has a causativizing affix in its v(erb) as well as a transitivizing affix in ASP(ect), expressing lexical aspect. Due to the loss of these affixes, verbs end up not being marked for transitivity and are therefore labile (cf. van Gelderen 2011). Modern English then resorts to a strict vP-shell which favors transitivity in Modern English and the use of light verbs and resultative particles.

As for the second change, I’ll trace some of the changes from the intransitive verbs become and remain to copula verbs and then I will develop an explanation based on Visser’s (1946; 1963) insights using a PredP structure. The verb remain, as in (1), is borrowed from French in the 14th century. Its meaning in Latin is ‘stay behind’. The first instance of remain as a copula is as in (2) from 1513.

(1) Onely oo crow she hadde a-lyue remaynyng of that pestilence.
(2) Where remained behynd, the Lorde Ryuers the Kynges vncl.

Intransitives are often followed followed by a modification and the latter is ambiguous between modifying the (intransitive) verb or the subject nominal. Visser (1946: 65) notes that, even in the 16th century, certain adjectives could be used as adjective or adverb, as in (3). This ambiguity enables the reanalysis.

(3) Since which she was removed to Kimbolton, Where she remains now sick.

Copulas also often derive from intransitive verbs because intransitives are often accompanied by other material and this may make them ambiguous in terms of argument structure.
A Cross-Linguistic Survey of
Dative Shift in Dutch, English and German
Koen Van Hooste
Heinrich Heine University Düsseldorf

Dative shift is a well-known linguistic phenomenon that has been extensively studied in the literature (Pinker 1989, Rappaport Hovav & Levin 2008 amongst others). Dative shift involves a ditransitive verb whose two non-subject arguments undergo a change in syntactic status relative to each other: The PP expressing the indirect object becomes an NP in order to form a double-object construction. Consider the following example from Dutch:

(1) Peter gaf [het boek] [aan Jan] à (2) Peter gaf [Jan] [het boek]

This phenomenon seems to be limited to certain classes of verbs (Rappaport Hovav & Levin 2008): Several ditransitive verbs like give or hand allow it, whereas verbs like donate or expose do not. Many analyses are generative in nature or take a neo-Davidsonian approach. Groefsema (2001) turns to verb-specific contextual information coupled with one general constraint whereas Colleman (2009) analyzes the Dutch dative shift from a corpus-based perspective. I will present an account of the dative shift using the Role and Reference Grammar framework (or RRG) and highlight cross-linguistic differences between English, German and Dutch.

RRG (Van Valin 2005) is a monostratal framework based on Dowty’s concept of lexical decomposition. RRG couples such lexical decompositions with the two generalized semantic roles (macroroles) actor and undergoer. While actor selection is fixed, undergoer selection is not. Dative shift is analyzed in terms of variable undergoer selection. In (1) het boek is undergoer, whereas in (2) Jan is undergoer. Actors, by contrast, are never variable.

Based on an exploratory data set with English, German and Dutch data, I argue that dative shift is most productive in Dutch, whereas German allows for it least. The Dutch equivalents of give, hand, donate, expose and explain all allow dative shift. By contrast, German only allows dative shift with give (even then it is highly marked). I argue that Dutch undergoer selection with ditransitive verbs is primarily driven by pragmatics, rather than by semantics alone. Information structure patterns directly influence undergoer selection. In summary, in Dutch pragmatic information is directly reflected in the morphosyntax of core participants.

References
The complexity of subordination in Second Language Acquisition.
A case study on subordinate constructions in Swedish as a foreign language
Martje Wijers
Ghent University, Belgium

In the area of Second language acquisition (SLA), subordination ratio is often linked to complexity (see for instance Norris & Ortega, 2009). The idea behind this, is that the more frequently language learners use subordination, the more complex their language use is and the more advanced the learners are. Only at late stages of development, language learners are assumed to learn relations between clauses and structures that go across clause boundaries. However, this view on subordination ratio as a measure for complexity has recently been criticized (Norris & Ortega, 2009; Bulté & Housen 2012; Baten & Håkansson, 2015). Baten & Håkansson (2015) for example, argue that not subordination ratio is important in analysing language development, but rather the internal structure of subordinate clauses. In the current paper it will be suggested that it should also be taken into account that subordination and coordination are often presented as two strictly binary phenomena, even though typologists have shown that they can be seen as more gradual phenomena or as a continuum (see for instance Lehmann 1988, Croft 2001, Givón 2001, Cristofaro 2003, Cosme, 2008). The aim of this study is to analyze subordination as a more gradual phenomenon in the development of language learners, by investigating various types of subordination in the broadest sense. The study is carried out within the framework of Construction Grammar.

In this case study, longitudinal data from 20 Dutch speaking learners of Swedish as a Foreign Language are analyzed, starting from absolute beginners level. The data consists of free written assignments that are obtained at seven different points in time, over a time span of 1.5 years. In these texts, the use of coordinate clauses, various types of subordinate clauses and various structures in between, such as infinitival complement clauses and pseudo-coordination are examined. Based on the data, it is shown that subordination ratio indeed is too superficial a measure to determine complexity or learner development. The internal structure, the type of subordination and the semantic and syntactic bond between and within clauses and phrases are also important to take into account in order to arrive at a more nuanced view of complexity and learner development.

References
 Scalar Transitivity: Resolving Synchronic Variation of the German Verb Doublet *erschrecken*
Patricia A. Wiley
University of California, Los Angeles

In my paper I analyze the doublet *erschrecken* ‘to frighten s.o.’ / ‘to become frightened’ to resolve the claim made by reference works on the German language that the strong morphology of the verb *erschrecken* sometimes arbitrarily shows weak morphology. I argue that, counter to the claims, it is not a matter of morphological free variation, but one of varying degrees of transitivity of the weak verb form.

The phenomenon of verb doublets in New High German, which, starting in Middle High German, developed into having a strong and weak morphology as well as a variation in terms of transitivity, are a problem worthy of investigation. Their etymology is often sufficiently explained in reference works such as Kluge *Etymologisches Wörterbuch Der Deutschen Sprache* (2002). By contrast, reference works such as *Duden* (2001) do not shed any light on the verbs’ seemingly arbitrary morphological variation nowadays. In their 1980 article *Transitivity in Grammar and Discourse*, Paul J. Hopper and Sandra Thompson argue that, rather than being a purely syntactic feature, transitivity is a holistic and typologically universal agglomeration of morphosyntactic, semantic, and discursive features throughout a whole clause (251). These features, if found in the clause, without exception accumulate on one end of the HIGH/LOW Transitivity spectrum. The two authors present a typological analysis of more than 59 languages, excluding German. Based on this, the verb doublets are appealing candidates for an in-depth test of the framework in order find the motivation for their variation in discourse.

I carry out the investigation as a qualitative and quantitative analysis of corpus data extracted from the IDS Mannheim’s *Cosmas II* web corpus. My quantitative analysis examines 150 occurrences of each surface form of the strong and weak paradigms to determine their distribution and select the best candidates for the following qualitative investigation. I then examine the clauses and their context (7 preceding and following sentences) qualitatively in consideration of each of the ten Transitivity features postulated by Hopper and Thompson. The result is that the morphological variation of the strong verb is a misconception. Rather, the weak form shows scalar semantics: Its meaning ranges from an action transferred from a volitional agent to an individual and greatly affected patient (HIGH Transitivity), to a process internal to the patient/experiencer (LOW Transitivity). The latter can normally be expressed with the strong verb and this, I argue, causes the strong verb’s falsely assumed double entendre. Secondly, using the Transitivity Hypothesis in an in-depth analysis of natural data of a single language calls for a few modifications of features’ relations. Since they do not always uniformly show HIGH or LOW Transitivity, my suggestion is to attribute them with varying degrees of power. I am hoping extend my analysis to other verb doublets in the future in order to refine my insights, and hope to further discuss the implications of my findings for Hopper and Thompson’s Transitivity model.

References

The morphology of heritage languages, particularly Heritage German, is often described in terms of attrition and weakening (Schmid & Keijzer 2009, Schmid & Fägersten 2010). Research has focused on a loss of grammatical rules; however, data from Wisconsin Heritage German (WHG) suggests systematic restructuring of the case marking system. Differential Object Marking (DOM) (Aissen 2014) can provide insight into the leading factors for case marking in WHG. It posits that case marking in a given language is governed by the degree of definiteness and animacy. Jordens (1989) also found that the underlying semantics, specifically definiteness and animacy, had an effect on grammaticality judgments by German and Dutch immigrants. Using data from semi-structured interviews and translation tasks with WHG speakers, this study reveals systematic changes in the nominal case marking system of WHG as well as indications of avoidance of semantically dative forms.

The data in this study comes from semi-structured interviews with WHG speakers. The pilot study analyzes 328 nominal and pronominal tokens from two consultants, Delany and Otto. I categorized NPs and PPs based on definiteness, i.e. whether they were definite, indefinite or nonspecific (those without a determiner). I also recorded the frequency of pronominal forms according to case and number. I further noted any indications of potential avoidance of certain grammatical forms. Categorizations were made based on what would be expected in modern standard German, though I also address dialectal influence.

The data show that there is not an absence of case-marked accusative and dative forms. Both speakers produced several marked masculine forms. Of the definite masculine nouns, 2/8 accusative NPs contained the article *den* and 10/21 dative NPs contained a form of *dem*. The most paradigmatic in terms of case marking, the masculine forms were also used for some feminine and neuter nouns, though relatively infrequently (3/37 for feminine nouns, 1/14 for neuter nouns and 1/9 for plural nouns), e.g. ‘*im Schul die konnten leren nicht*’ and ‘*...sie hat Deutsch gesprochen mit ihren Mutter*’. Although the number of tokens with overt case marking was relatively small, almost all of these represented definite tokens (16/17). Strikingly, neither speaker produced any dative indefinite objects or a single indirect object. Furthermore, of the definite objects, all are either in a prepositional phrase or represent a dative possessive form, e.g. *dem Mann sein Auto*. This suggests that avoidance may be occurring and that these forms are circumvented in favor of an alternative structure. Of the 19 non-nominative pronouns that were identified, all but one displayed overt case marking. For the third person singular, both speakers used the pronoun ‘*mich*’ to express accusative and dative. Almost all (7/8) third person singular forms resemble each other with a dative-like ‘*m*’, i.e. *ihm, dem, ’m* and *wem*. This is similar to the English pronominal system, in which one pronoun represents both the accusative and dative cases. Since case marking is associated with objects that show a greater degree of animacy, e.g. personal pronouns, and definiteness, e.g. definite NPs, WHG seems to exhibit characteristics of DOM. The findings of this pilot study suggest a systematic reorganization of the case marking system rather than a loss of rules. I will expand this study to ten consultants to find whether a larger data set supports these initial findings.

**References**


Abstracts of Posters
Patient–health care provider interactions:
Use of and attitudes towards multilingual communications

Kyle Baird          Sarah Baird
Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University

Previous research has examined the provider-patient relationship and the effect of different first languages and culture on that relationship (e.g., Ferguson and Candib, 2002; Fernandez et al., 2004; and Wilson et al., 2005). Although most studies conducted in the United States have focused primarily on the interactions between English-speaking health care providers and Spanish-speaking patients, findings share a common set of threads. First, a relationship has been found between quality of communication and quality of care received by the patient (Ferguson et al., 2002; Fernandez et al., 2004). Second, aserguson and Candib (2002) note, race and ethnicity also correlate with quality of care given and received, suggesting there are often times when difficulties arise based on cultural differences. Fernandez et al. (2004) have found that the physician’s proficiency in the language and culture of the patient, in the case of the article, Spanish, correlated with the quality of care and empathy that patients felt they received.

In response to these studies, this study seeks to add insight by investigating a broader range of languages, cultures and contexts in both North America and German-speaking countries. In particular, we examine how health care providers, e.g., doctors, nurses, dentists, physical therapists, etc., patients and translators view the effectiveness of communication as well as how confident and comfortable they feel about the patient-provider relationship across cultural and linguistic barriers. The results will allow us to answer three questions: 1) to what extent does the country in which the interaction takes place play a role in the communication, 2) to what extent do the culture and language of providers and patients play a role in the communication, and 3) does the use of a translator actually help facilitate higher quality communication?

To answer these questions, respondents from German-speaking countries and North America answered a survey. Within each language, responses were further broken down into one of three categories: health care providers, patients, and translators. All had experience in cross-language communication within the health care field. Three different versions of the survey were created directed at each of the target groups. Each survey consisted of questions examining the patients’ ability to understand interactions with their providers and the providers’ ability to understand their patients, as well as questions regarding the comfort and confidence level of each group. The questions do not focus merely on language ability, but also on other factors such as cultural barriers and biases.

Preliminary results suggest that the language proficiency of both the patient and the provider plays a role in quality of communication. Although culture does have an effect, language ability seems to more profoundly influence the ability of the patient and provider to communicate. So far, results between countries show similar findings in that it is the language ability that most profoundly affects the ability of both parties to communicate. However, the greater prevalence of multilingual communication in Europe seems to be contributing to more confidence and comfort for providers and patients in their multilingual communications.
Research Posters: Friday

**Documenting, archiving, and teaching older Germanic languages at the Linguistics Research Center of the University of Texas**

Hans C. Boas          Todd Krause          Marc Pierce
The University of Texas at Austin  The University of Texas at Austin  The University of Texas at Austin

Most research in documenting and archiving languages over the past decade or so has focused on endangered languages (e.g. the papers collected in Seifart et al. 2012). While some researchers are interested in determining the best methods for collecting, managing, and archiving data, others are concerned with ethical issues, revitalization, and/or the teaching/learning of underrepresented languages. This paper describes a very different kind of documentation project, one focused on extinct languages and currently in progress at the Linguistics Research Center (LRC) at the University of Texas at Austin. It discusses how the lexicon, lesson plans, and texts from a variety of such languages are connected and used for research and teaching. Although the LRC project encompasses many of the early Indo-European languages, in this talk we focus on the early Germanic languages.

We first outline the two main current efforts to archive older Germanic (and Indo-European) languages at the LRC. The first of these is the assembly of lessons on the early IE languages, the Early Indo-European On-Line project (EIEOL). Each series provides a complete introduction to the study of a particular older Indo-European language, including original texts with word-by-word grammatical analyses and contextual translations, with a complete glossary, a base-form dictionary, and an English meaning index, and situates the language and text in its historical and cultural context. At this point, sixteen such series have been completed, three of which deal with older Germanic languages (Gothic, Old Norse, and Old English; a lesson series on Old Saxon is currently in preparation). The second main current effort is the assembly and annotation of a significant IE Lexicon consisting of Proto-Indo-European (PIE) etyma (lexical roots) indexed using Buck’s (1949) semantic fields. The lexicon contains a wide array of reflexes in more modern languages, with an emphasis on English words and their etymologies. Linguistic and semantic indices provide complementary windows through which to view the information and explore the reconstruction and transmission of IE culture.

We then review the workflow of the LRC. First, we address issues in assembling the EIEOL series and the lexicon based on a wide variety of existing resources (e.g. Pokorny 1959 and Watkins 2011). In the case of the lexicon, for instance, we show some sample PIE etyma and demonstrate how semantic fields index PIE roots by category and how they can be linked in the future to word uses in IE texts as well as the EIEOL lessons.

In the final section of the talk, we discuss some issues related to producing electronic materials for extinct languages (character sets, indexing, formatting, meta-data). We also highlight a number of techniques we have used in assembling these online materials, especially in order to resolve two major concerns: how to minimize issues resulting from the uses of different fonts and how to emphasize linguistics, not computer science, in preparing the EIEOL lessons and the IE lexicon.
This paper presents a case study of the development of the Plautdietsch (Pdt) idiom de Kjiep jäwe ‘to break up’ lit. ‘to give the basket. While this idiom is found in other Germanic languages, within the Mennonite community the idiom has developed into a cultural metaphor which differs significantly from other regions where the idiom is found. We propose that some of the Mennonite specific interpretations of the idiom most likely come from Slavic cultures. This analysis runs counter to a view prevalent in some Mennonite communities that Mennonites have largely avoided cultural influence of outsiders, aside from picking up a handful of loan words and cuisine.

The idiom jemandem den Korb geben ‘to give someone the basket’ and den Korb bekommen ‘to receive the basket’ makes use of the basic conceptual metaphor SOCIAL INTERACTION IS OBJECT EXCHANGE whereby the basket represents an item which is exchanged signaling refusal to engage in a relationship. Reference to baskets being used in this sense is first attested in the Manesse Manuscript from Zürich during Medieval times. The idiom in Standard German evokes the semantic frame Cause_change_personal_relationship, but different participants may be profiled by using either the verb geben or bekommen. In this frame den Korb is always the direct object of the exchange and marked in the accusative. This idiom is attested in many Slavic languages but some of these languages distinguish between transfer of an actual basket with accusative and a metaphorical basket by use of instrumental case leaving give and receive without a direct object (e.g., Czech and Slovak).

In Pdt communities, the word Kjiep ‘wicker bushel basket’ is used in the idiom to refer to break-ups and many speakers find it infelicitous to use the term Karf ‘basket’ unless one wishes to express an actual basket exchange. In Mexican Pdt communities, the word Kjiep is undergoing semantic shift to refer exclusively to break-ups. Some younger speakers report that the word Kjiep doesn’t actually mean ‘basket’, but the word Karf does.

The cultural practices and associations of breakups have also undergone subsequent developments in Mennonite communities which traveled through Poland to southern Ukraine. In the Manesse Manuscript (the oldest known image associated with this idiom), the basket referred to in the source domain references a basket capable of hoisting a person from one location to another. In Mexican and US Mennonite communities (both of which ultimately came from southern Ukraine), a diachronic metonymic sequence can be constructed in the source domain of what is being exchanged—1. basket → 2. item which holds basket in place (ribbon) → 3. anything which has the property of the ribbon. In the Mexican Mennonite custom, the ribbon must be a yellow ribbon, a color frequently associated with breakups in the community. We propose that the association of yellow with the idiom is most likely from Slavic culture, not other New or Old World cultures. Recent corpus studies of color terminology in English indicate that English speakers associate yellow with positive emotions, especially happiness (Steinvall 2007). Although in the history of the German language yellow is not always associated with positive semantic fields, there is no evidence that the color was specifically associated with breakups (Jones 2013). Slavic folklore has had a long history of negative associations with the color yellow and anything in the semantic field of yellow (Popovic 2007). Although the tradition is now fading among some Slavic groups, there is still negative associations with exchanges of yellow items, one of the most well known being irreconcilable breakups.
Patterns of Extraposition in German Regional Language
Shannon Dubenion-Smith
Western Washington University

This poster presents the results of a corpus study of non-clausal and clausal extraposition in German regional language, i.e., varieties and speech levels “below” the spoken standard language that extend upwards from base dialect to the regional accent on a vertical axis (cf. Schmidt/Herrgen 2011). Extraposition, as it is defined here, is the occurrence of constituents not in their canonical inner field positions, but rather in the prosodically integrated postfield (e.g. ich bin nach Berlin gefahren mit dem Zug). The majority of studies on extraposition in modern German focus on the spoken and written standard (e.g. Filpus 1994, Hoberg 1981, Lambert 1976, Vinckel 2006, Zahn 1991). A few studies examine extraposition in German regional language, dialect and regiolect (“substandard” or “colloquial speech”) in particular, yet each offers only partial insights: Brode 1970 investigates the whole German linguistic area, but only regiolects, Patocka 1997 considers only the Bavarian dialect area, and Westphal Fitch 2011 looks at both dialect and regiolect, but in only two regions and diagonally, i.e., she compares the dialect of one region to the regiolect of another with respect to extraposition.

To gain a better understanding of extraposition in regional language, across linguistic areas and varieties/speech levels, the present study examines nearly 11,000 clauses in 60 dialect and regiolect recordings of the Zwirner and Pfeffer Corpora (Institut für Deutsche Sprache) from the North Low Saxon, West Central German, and Bavarian linguistic regions. The results indicate the following: 1) The distribution of non-clausal vs. clausal extraposition differs markedly between regiolect and dialect, with a far higher percentage of clausal extraposition vis-à-vis non-clausal extraposition in the regiolects but nearly equal percentages in the dialects; 2) There is a statistically significant difference in rates of extraposition between regiolect and dialect; 3) For regiolects, there is no statistically significant difference in rates among regions, but for dialects a difference between Bavarian and West Central German/North Low Saxon obtains. Furthermore, the qualitative and quantitative patterns of extraposition vary according to what type of extraposition is considered (non-clausal, clausal, or both) and what is counted as cases of extraposition. A portion of the poster will be devoted to such methodological issues and their ramifications for future studies and cross-study comparisons.

References
Icelandic Quirks: Testing Linguistic Theories and Language Technology
Thórhallur Eythórsson
University of Iceland

Linguists working on Icelandic have brought to the fore a number of important empirical facts that at the time of their initial discussion in the theoretical literature were believed to be crosslinguistically very rare, even unattested. Among such “quirks” are the following syntactic phenomena:

- Oblique (“quirky”) subjects (Andrews 1976, Thráinsson 1979)
- Stylistic Fronting (Maling 1980)
- Long Distance Reflexivization (Thráinsson 1979)
- Object Shift of full NPs (Holmberg 1986)
- The Transitive Expletive Construction (Ottósson 1989, Jonas & Bobaljik 1993)

These phenomena provided a testing ground for various theoretical models because they contradicted conventional views on the nature of grammatical categories and syntactic structure; some even went as far as claiming that Icelandic is “not a natural language”. This pessimistic view was authoritatively examined and dismissed by Thráinsson (1996).

The present paper takes the issue one step further, by showing how the discovery of various linguistic structures of Icelandic has led to the recognition of similar facts in other (Germanic, Indo-European and even unrelated) languages, where they had previously gone unnoticed, or had at least not been problematized in terms of linguistic theory. For example, the insight that syntactic subjects can have a morphological case other than nominative was not generally acknowledged until after the oblique subject hypothesis had been proposed for Icelandic. As a consequence, earlier theories on the relation between case and grammatical function had to be revised. Thus, numerous descriptive facts from Icelandic have advanced theoretical linguistics, in that any model of natural language must take them into account.

In addition to their synchronic status, the syntactic phenomena listed above raise questions about the historical development of such “quirks”. On the one hand, Icelandic is known to be a “conservative” language that has preserved many archaic features; on the other hand, despite its relative stability, numerous innovations are known have taken place in Icelandic, including a number of syntactic changes. Fortunately, we are now in a position to be able to map, at least to a certain degree, the diachrony of Icelandic syntax from the earliest attested documents in the 12th century AD until the present day. This is in particular due to the existence of the Icelandic Parsed Historical Corpus (IcePaHC; Wallenberg et al. 2011), which is currently being put to use in work on Icelandic diachronic syntax. Among other things, this research tool is invaluable in distinguishing between archaisms and innovations in Icelandic syntax. A further corpus, Greinir skáldskapar (“Analyzer of Poetry”) (Karlsson et al. 2012), is particularly useful for the analysis of the syntax of the earliest poetic texts of Icelandic.

In conclusion, the above “quirks” present a challenge both to Linguistic Theory and Language Technology. This paper illustrates, by means of selected examples, how this challenge has been successfully met and how advances in linguistic research proceed in a constant interplay between description and theorizing.

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Recent developments in Germanic historical syntax
Thórhallur Eythórsson
University of Iceland

In this poster I concentrate on four areas which have figured prominently in recent work on Germanic historical syntax. All of them relate to the morphology-syntax connection from a diachronic perspective. The first case study presented here focuses on a phenomenon which has frequently been attributed to the loss of morphological case endings. This is “personalization” or Nominative Substitution, which consists in the replacement of oblique case marking of subjects by nominative case. Given that it occurs in the Insular Scandinavian languages (Icelandic and Faroese), which have largely preserved their case endings intact, in contrast to Mainland Scandinavian (and English), this change is argued to be an instance of a generalization of nominative as the unmarked case par excellence. I propose that this change involves morphosyntactic leveling, and it is not confined to Nominative Substitution.

The second topic concerns the so-called New Passive in Icelandic, which appears to have emerged from a reanalysis of the canonical existential passive with a postverbal NP. It is argued here that the locus of the reanalysis involves structures where the canonical passive and the New Passive cannot be distinguished morphologically.

While the above-mentioned issues clearly involve an interaction of morphology and syntax, the third type of change to be discussed here does not, at least not in any obvious way. This is the apparently rapid loss of OV order in Icelandic in the early 19th century. The wider theoretical context involves the validity of the Inertia Hypothesis (Keenan 1994, 2009, Longobardi 2001, Roberts 2007) which has found widespread recognition in the literature on theoretical diachronic linguistics (for a critical view, see Walkden 2012). It is universally agreed that syntactic change can be caused by phonological, morphological or lexical change, or by extra-linguistic factors like contact (either in the form of direct borrowing or more indirect influence). The question arises if syntax can change endogenously. According to the Inertia Hypothesis, syntax, by itself, is diachronically completely inert, and only changes under the influence of “external” factors such as phonology and semantics. It is, however, not entirely obvious to falsify this hypothesis, as it is extremely difficult to exclude some external influence as being the ultimate trigger of any particular change. However, I claim that the burden of proof is on the proponents of Inertia. With regard to the case under investigation here, I conclude that, as it can neither be attributed to loss of inflectional morphology nor in any obvious way to language contact, the demise of OV order in Icelandic is a potential challenge to the Inertia Hypothesis.

Finally, I turn to syntactic reconstruction, which has been a neglected area in historical and comparative linguistics. It has even been asserted that the reconstruction of syntax is not really possible given the special nature of syntax vis-à-vis other domains of grammar. I present arguments against this prevailing view, on the basis of empirical evidence both from nominal and verbal morphosyntax of Germanic. I suggest that syntactic reconstruction is not only a viable enterprise, but in fact a necessary part of historical syntax so that syntactic change can be modeled in a precise way. In particular, it is proposed that the tried and tested tools of the Comparative Method, in combination with the insights provided by the novel framework of Construction Grammar, can be applied successfully in syntactic reconstruction.
The Assertional Force of V2 Clauses in German
Taylor Mahler
San Diego State University

Though the claim that verb-second (V2) in embedded clauses in Germanic languages marks speaker assertion is fairly uncontroversial, the empirical evidence for this position is minimal. I present data from an experiment with native German speakers that bears on theoretical claims regarding the illocutionary status of embedded V2.

Meinunger (2006) argues that V2 clauses embedded in matrix clauses containing evidential predicates or verbs of thinking or saying are potentially interpretable as containing two speaker assertions. Thus, (1a), which embeds a V2 clause without a complementizer (nV2), potentially contains the assertions in (1b) and (1c):

(1) a. Dirk meint, Lara ist schwanger.
    b. Dirk meint, [proposition encoded by embedded clause].
    c. Lara ist schwanger.

However, because meinen (and other verbs of thinking and saying, as well as evidential predicates) can take complements in the subjunctive mood, (1a) could also be interpreted as (2):

(2) Dirk meint, Lara sei/wäre schwanger.

If (1a) is taken to mean (2), then the speaker can only be making one assertion, namely the assertion in (1b). The subjunctive interpretation suggests that the speaker is not taking responsibility for the truth of the proposition in the embedded clause, and thus is not asserting (1c). Because utterances like (1a) have the potential to be interpreted as subjunctive, they are ambiguous between containing one assertion (1b) and two assertions (1b) and (1c). Freywald (2009) suggests that the presence of dass in the embedded clause (a dV2 clause) as in (3) disambiguates between these cases, indicating that the speaker is asserting both propositions:

(3) Dirk meint, dass Lara ist schwanger.

The only behavioral evidence substantiating the illocutionary status of V2 as a speaker assertion comes from Catasso (2011). Although Catasso (2011) found that speakers associate dV2 clauses with speaker assertion, his experiment was methodologically problematic in that it drew participants’ attention to the goal of the study. Moreover, his study left in question the illocutionary status of nV2 clauses as compared to dV2 clauses. I report the results of a more methodologically-sound experiment designed to compare the illocutionary status of nV2, dV2, and verb-last (VL) embedded clauses. Participants read short discourses each containing a sentence that had an embedded complement clause in either nV2, dV2, or VL form. After each discourse, participants answered a comprehension question regarding the truth of the content in the embedded clause. After (3), for example, participants would read: Ist Lara schwanger?

After responding with either yes or no, participants indicated their confidence in their answer on a 5-point Likert scale. Throughout the task, the time spent reading the discourses, responding to the comprehension questions, and indicating confidence level were recorded. This varied set of measures provides a thorough picture of how German native speakers actually interpret complement clauses in each of their forms.

References
Attitudes towards German language and culture
in comparison to other languages and cultures

Bradley McCann    Spencer Frame    Jon Mahoney    Laura Smith
Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University  Brigham Young University

Research has shown that humans have preconceived notions either negative or positive towards individuals who speak other languages or speak with a foreign accent. Whether intended or not, these biases may cause people to respond unfavorably towards speakers of foreign languages (Durkin & Judge, 2001) or those with a foreign accent. Purnell, Idsardi & Baugh (1999) found, for instance, that ethnic accent alone resulted in discrimination towards those answering housing ads. Other studies have shown that attitudes can change and that interaction with foreign languages and speakers plays a role in those attitudes (Vincze & Harwood, 2013). By extension, some cultures are seen more favorably from the outset. For example, a recent study found that “people around the world now have more positive perceptions of Germany than of 49 other developed and developing countries” (Bainbridge, 2014). In our study, we sought to determine if this favorable rating for Germany in Bainbridge’s article would be reflected if listeners were asked to rate German speech samples as well as the German culture in comparison to other languages. Moreover, would the perceptions respondents had to the various cultures and speech samples be influenced by whether or not they had learned the languages they were rating?

To answer these questions, subjects were asked to complete a three part survey. In Part 1, subjects described their language learning background enabling us to assign subjects to groups. In Part 2, subjects heard a series of German, Russian, French, Arabic and Korean sentences presented in random order. Sentences were from “The Sun and the Northwind” recorded by 4 native speakers of each language who were university students. The shortest and longest sentences were used. Subjects thus responded to 40 sentences (=5 languages x 4 speakers per language x 2 sentences per speaker). Upon hearing each sentence, subjects were asked to rate the language conveyed by the speaker in terms of 8 personal traits (e.g., friendliness, educated, honesty, etc.) based on Hiraga (1999) and based on how difficult the language sounded to learn and how desirable the language was for the subject to learn. Since subjects were not informed of the language the speaker was speaking, subjects were also asked to write what language they thought they had just heard. For the final part, subjects were again asked to rate languages in terms of the traits used in the previous section. However, this time, they were given the names of the language to rate for each trait. To ensure we did not give away the languages used in Part 2, several more languages were added to the list to be rated, e.g., Spanish, Chinese, etc.

Ratings given for all traits in terms of the language recordings (Part 2) and when the languages were identified (Part 3) were tabulated and scores were compared for the languages common to both Part 2 and 3. Results were also analyzed in terms of whether or not the respondent had learned the languages being assessed. According to results, German was the most highly ranked language for all personal traits except Friendliness (where it earned 3rd place) when all subjects were added together (even when results were adjusted for uneven group size) and subjects were not informed of the language (Part 2). When learners were informed of the language they were rating, German dropped to second after French for Education. This supports the positive impression of Germany and Germans outlined in Bainbridge’s recent article. In all but two traits (shyness and work ethic), having learned a foreign language did result in more favourable impressions of the language in question than not having learned the language. The paper will present the results with an eye to how educators can capitalize on the favourable standing German is enjoying in the world to help with student recruitment.
Twin Sons of Different Motherlands: 
Lyricism in the Writings of Robert Walser and Kajii Motojirô
J. Scott Miller
Brigham Young University

My poster outlines some of the research I am currently undertaking comparing the narrative of two writers, the Swiss author Robert Walser (1878-1956) and the Japanese author Kajii Motojirô (1901-1932). I emphasize one particular similarity the two share in common: lyrical style. Although they are writing in two very different languages, they both demonstrate a remarkable mastery of their respective languages, in particular a lyrical style that is both evocative and difficult to translate. Nevertheless, both have garnered posthumous acclaim that suggests their use of style in the 1920s still resonates with readers today. I underscore the value of taking a comparative, macroscopic approach to reading world literature, emphasizing how such an approach can add something of value to the great global conversations exploring what gives great writing its expressive power.
The Prosodic Allophone Dates Back to the Early Middle English
Toshihiro Oda
Fukuoka University (Japan)

Prosodic allophones take place commonly in the contemporary varieties of English and make minor distributions in the other Germanic languages. The hierarchical categories foot or the higher ones are employed in this framework when syllabic account fails to be made, as in Jensen (2000). The allophone in the onset of an unstressed syllable that is realized in the stressed onset, for example, might shift from syllabic to prosodic. This paper investigates classical history of prosodic allophones and the origin on them is assumed to be the post-Conquest period. The conditionings of the shift on the /h/-droppings are in fact consistent in part with those on the modern successors: (a), (c) & (d), below.

Shifts on prosodic allophones have some features in common; (a) from syllabic to prosodic; (b) from lower to higher on prosodic allophones; (c) monophonetic and diphonetic bases each on syllabic and prosodic allophones; (d) universal account for the former and the additional language-internal one for the latter. The grammatical assumptions in this context are based crucially on the increases of the variants, rather than far across sound changes, with shorter periods (e.g. several decades, bicentenary), behind which the two-graded articulatory motivations make the constraints in the two senses. The grammatically core template to this claim is integrated with the typological generalizations (the narrow level of Universal Grammar), separated from true universals, in the realm of Blevins’ Evolutionary Phonology. The two features variant or change and short or long periods make the distinctions in analyzing the change-oriented sound systems.

The /h/-less variants consist of the prosodically weak forms on the pronouns his, her, the auxiliary verb (h) abbe and of the French loans like honest(e), hour(e). The prosodic conditionings differ between them; the former depend on each of the contexts with the lexemes; the pronouns and the auxiliary have their different uses due to the word order of a sentence. The loan words in the latter begin with the optional /h/ in the onset of the stressed syllables. This hybrid in the same allophones is illustrated to be prosodic. However, it makes the difference from the generalization on the prosodic allophones where all or the majority of the features other than the hierarchical units are consistent with each other.

In OE, ambisyllabicity holds to medial consonants and prosodic approach is not required to be made use of. This does not mean that the predominant disyllabic words made it solely sufficient, but rather the consistency on the account lies in the historical shift of the syllable structures. Given the assumption that the prosodic allophone originates in the early ME /h/-dropping, the shift from syllabic to prosodic proceeds between OE and early ME. In this sense, the hypothesis (a) is applicable, but in other sense, it is not. The dropping on the weak forms started in the OE period and the one on the loans in the 12th century (J. Milroy 1992). There should be the streamline from syllabic to prosodic, but the prosodic allophone comes first conversely. The partial difference of the shift is highly relevant to (d). The contextually weak forms stem functionally from laryngeal air stream. When air flow passes glottis weakly, the friction is unlikely to occur there. This phonetic effect has crosslinguistically more common distribution. The status on this glottal dropping on them continues up to the later stages. This means that the unmarked status of the phonetic conditioning is associated with the occurrence of the allophone.

For the prosodic allophones, many other features being kept in same conditions, the hierarchical rise makes them distinguished. In the sense like this, the /h/-dropping is off course. The underlying status of the /h/ (Crisma 2007) contradicts with the /h/-less loans. The native and loan lexemes take the different procedures on the derivation itself. The former undergo the weakening in the prosodic level and the loan word phonology is effective. The phonetic conditioning (c) partly holds true in this case. When the /h/-dropping shifts from syllabic to prosodic, the monophonetic conditioning shifts to the diphonetic ones. This functional shift conforms to the typological generalization made herein, but the universal and language-specific aspects do not match. This is closely related with one of the ideas on (a), illustrating paradoxically that the prosodic allophone occurs first.
Syntactic ambiguity and complexity pose challenges for the human sentence parsing mechanism during its incremental, on-line operation. Particularly problematic is the garden path construction (e.g. “The horse raced past the barn fell.”), where the parser makes a tactical error, reaches an untenable state in the analysis, and may or may not trigger and undergo a reanalysis phase (Fodor and Ferreira, 1998). Further problems are created by multiple center embedding of clauses (e.g. “The man the woman the dog bit likes eats fish.”) which, though often grammatical, exceed parsing capacities.

Not all situations are as challenging for the parser, though. Unproblematic ambiguities arise when the parser, though again making faulty assumptions, easily performs reanalysis (e.g. “The boyfriend gave her flowers to the lonely widow.”), where “her” is momentarily misconstrued as the indirect object.

Work on reconciling these observations with an incremental processing account has resulted in several approaches. Lewis (1993) proposes an architectural account for these phenomena that involves (i) a limit on active typed dependency relations, and (ii) a minimal snip/link regime for reanalysis (e.g. “The square table is large.” creates competing syntactic analyses: “square” as a noun and as an adjective, resolved by snipping “the” from the NP “the square” and linking it to “square table”). Though focused on English, his account claims cross-linguistic applicability and hints at its relevance for German and other languages. This paper pursues the Lewis analysis for German, which has apparently not yet been attempted.

Bader and Meng (1999) are at the forefront of German garden path research with their focus on subject-object ambiguities (e.g. “Maria erzählte mir von der Frau, die die Eltern angerufen (hat/haben).”) and their reanalysis (Meng and Bader, 2000). However, the topic of unproblematic ambiguity, multiple embeddings, and other problematic constructions is relatively unexplored for German. This paper presents new data in this area, and argues for the Lewis account in explaining processing ease vs. difficulty in German. If successful, it should allow for a computational investigation of German via cognitive modeling techniques as has been done so far for English (e.g. Lonsdale et al., 2013) and other languages.

References

Imitated vs. Read Pronunciation of German Vowels:
How First and Third Year Learners Differ

Jenna Andersen Aubrey Hatch Paul Tavake
Brigham Young University Brigham Young University Brigham Young University

Teachers frequently struggle to determine which methods are most effective to teach pronunciation (Hismanoglu & Hismanoglu, 2010; Jones, 1997). As part of learning the pronunciation of a second language (L2), students must learn to both mimic the pronunciation of new words as spoken by native speakers, including as the basis of pronunciation correction, and read new words that they may never have encountered before. Although realistically learners must be able to pronounce new L2 words based on either scenario, teachers are often left questioning whether imitation of native speakers leads to more native-like pronunciation than reading new words aloud, among the variety of other pronunciation teaching techniques that exist. Pronunciation research faces a similar conundrum: how will elicitation of pronunciation based on mimicry affect the pronunciation of L2 learners when compared with elicitation based on reading of either new (including nonce words) or familiar words (cf. Thompson, 2006; cf. also Vitevitch & Luce, 1998 for comparison of processing of real vs. nonsense words)? Or does the method of pronunciation elicitation impact the results of a study?

This study seeks to address this methodological question by examining whether learners of German have better pronunciation when they imitate tokens spoken by a native speaker or when they read tokens. Moreover, it asks whether experience with the language plays a role in how well subjects imitate and/or read? To answer these questions, native speakers of German were recorded producing tokens which included the high rounded German vowels /ʊː/, /ʊ/, /yː/, and /ʏ/ in four phonetic environments: b_te, p_te, g_te, and k_te. Ten first year and ten third year German learners were recorded producing these same tokens in two situations. First, they heard the German tokens produced by one male and one female native speaker and were asked to imitate the native productions. Second, the German learners were asked to read the tokens from flashcards. All tokens were normalized according to the Bark scale and analyzed acoustically for vowel duration, tongue height and tongue position in comparison to the natives mimicked in the imitation condition, or against an average of 4 natives for the reading condition.

The results of a Mixed Model Analysis showed that overall there was no difference in the learners’ pronunciation of the vowels when tokens were imitated versus read for either duration or tongue height or position. These results imply that pronunciation based on imitation or reading does not differ significantly and thus neither method may provide an overall advantage over the other. By extension, no significant difference was found in the pronunciation of these vowels by beginning and advanced learners. Consequently, experience did not lead to a significant advantage in the pronunciation of these vowels in either condition, imitation or reading. Significant interactions were found, however, between vowels and conditions based on vowel duration, tongue height and tongue position. These interactions will be discussed as will the significant role of phonetic environment, where vowels were produced differently after /g/. This finding is perhaps not surprising since this environment resulted in the real and frequent word gute ‘good, inflected’ which likely resulted in a rehearsed production. The paper closes with a discussion of implications for research and teaching.
This poster presentation introduces the German Frame-based Online Dictionary (G-FOL, http://coerll.utexas.edu/frames/), a frame- and construction-based (Fillmore 1982, Goldberg 1995) language resource for English-speaking learners of German that aims at overcoming the general disconnect between vocabulary and grammar in most pedagogical resources. First, to illustrate the problem, we take grooming verbs as a ‘test case’. They exhibit subtle semantic and grammatical differences, which are rarely obvious to the average foreign language learner. On the basis of these findings, we demonstrate how G-FOL employs the principles of FrameNet (http://framenet.icsi.berkeley.edu) to solve major didactic challenges identified in the case study.
The German language has deep roots in Texas. Starting in the 1840s a large immigration began from mid-western Germany and grew fast. Since then there have been many influences, like contact with native English speakers and educational language mandates, which have helped develop, define and then subsequently helped lead to the demise of these Texas German dialect language islands.

In our poster we will outline the origin and history of German immigration into Texas, the influences that contributed to the language, and its impending death with the accompanying causes. This poster also provides suggestions for teachers to introduce the topic in their classroom and to lead discussions and activities to familiarize students with the subject matter, including introducing teachers to resources available for classroom activities such as the Texas German Dialect Project website.
Unlocking Modern German Through The Second Sound Shift
Robert Cusick Tashina Osman
Brigham Young University Brigham Young University

The High German Consonant Shift or Second Germanic Sound Shift helped establish High German from the other West Germanic languages, laying the foundation for the modern German consonant system. Starting by early 7th century (cf. Iverson and Salmons, 2006) and continuing for the following two centuries, \( t \) shifted to \( [ts] \) or \( [s] \), \( p \) to \( [pf] \) or \( [f] \), and \( k \) to \( [kx] \) or \( [x] \), thus resulting in several of the key differences between German and English today. For example, modern German has the words Pfeife, groß and machen, whereas the respective English equivalents are Pipe, great and make. Subsequent changes such as a shift from \( d \rightarrow t \) (German Taub vs. English dove) and \( th \rightarrow d \) (German das vs. English that) also occurred.

This poster examines the Second or High German Consonant Shift in two ways. First, it provides an overview of the consonant shifts associated the High German shift and how the established High German as a distinct language from other West Germanic languages while also helping create dialect differences within the High German speaking area. Second, we introduce teachers to ways that they can help students unlock simple correspondences between English and German to facilitate language learning. Here we follow Wolff (1993) by calling on teachers to use this important set of consonant correspondences to help their students better identify cognates thereby improving language learning and comprehension. To this end, we provide a short lesson plan for teachers on how to incorporate the topic in their classroom.
Students’ Discrimination of German Contrasts after One Year of Dual Immersion: An Upcoming Study
Rachel Haynes
University of Utah

Immersion programs in the United States were initially conceived as a way to help English Language Learners (ELLs) integrate more easily into the language and culture of the US. Recently, some schools have begun implementing immersion programs that focus instead on helping monolingual English students acquire a second language. These programs encourage bilingualism by teaching language through content. In these programs, the target language is a medium through which other subjects are taught.

Support for immersion programs and their more content-driven approach to language instruction came from several theories during the late 1970s through the early 1990s, including work by Canale and Swain (1980), Krashen (1982), Cummins (1980), Swain, (1993), and Snow, Met, and Genesee (1989). These theories impacted views of L2 acquisition and, by extension, L2 pedagogy.

Dual language immersion is particularly beneficial to elementary-aged students. Although the theory that “younger is better” for acquiring a second language is a particularly contested one, a general consensus among studies is that younger learners, overall, are more likely to acquire nativelikeness in a target language than their older counterparts (Scovel 2000; Patkowski 1980; Flege, Munro and MacKay 1995; Flege, Yeni-Komshian and Liu 1999; Johnson and Newport 1989).

With the increase of immersion education programs, scholarship about immersion education programs has also increased. Most studies fall into three categories: the effects of L2 immersion on cognition and academic success, the effects of immersion programs on students’ social or sociolinguistic identities and attitudes, and the students’ linguistic development in the L2. My proposed study will seek to contribute to the body of quantitative research on language development of L2 students, specifically the sound perception of immersion students.

This poster presentation will detail past findings regarding immersion programs and explain the research design planned for my upcoming study. I will research the effects of immersion programs on L2 German students. I plan to collect data about German dual immersion students’ discrimination of German vowel contrasts with their non-dual immersion peers’ discrimination of the same vowel contrasts. The population will be the first grade classes at West Elementary school in Tooele. Participants will be between 6 and 7 years old. Testing will use an oddity discrimination task.

I expect the findings to show that the dual immersion students will be significantly more accurate in discriminating between difficult German vowel contrasts than their peers. My results will help determine the extent to which immersion programs enable native English speaking students to more accurately perceive German sounds.
A New Approach to Vowel Visualization
Harold H. Hendricks
Brigham Young University

Computer pronunciation feedback has traditionally relied on waveform modeling, where the student is shown both a waveform produced by a native speaker and the waveform recorded by the student. It is often difficult for the student to understand what the waveforms mean and what can be done to improve the match between them. What this project attempted to do was to develop another method of visual feedback that might better help the student understand how to produce vowels closer to the native pronunciation.

This poster will demonstrate an automated vowel evaluation program that first positions the student’s live vowel production in real-time on a simplified vowel chart. After the student has practiced the pure vowel, the student then records vowel production within words, again positioned on the vowel chart along with visual feedback for dipthongization, tongue position, lip position, and vowel duration. Prescriptive textual feedback is given for improvement. The test case for this program has been first-year German, but the program is not language specific.
Developing the German ACTFL Reading Test (ART) Items
Randall Jones       Randall Lund
Brigham Young University   Brigham Young University

The 2012 ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines describe five base levels of reading proficiency: Distinguished, Superior, Advanced, Intermediate, and Novice. This session will describe the development and validation of a German reading proficiency test that addresses four of these levels, all but Distinguished. The reading passages are all selected from current authentic German sources, e.g. newspapers, magazines, brochures, literature, announcements, etc. The passages are classified as Level 1 (Novice-Intermediate), Level 2 (Advanced), and Level 3 (Superior). They are also classified as to their genre: Arts & Entertainment, Business & Economics, Current Events & Political, Individual & Society, and Science & Technology. Multiple-Choice items are constructed based on Task, Context, Accuracy (TCA) ability construct. The items are then “trialed” using university students with a wide cross section of language proficiency.

After careful statistical analysis of the items as well as appropriate revision, an item bank is constructed that consists of a series of “testlets”. The five items in a testlet are at the same proficiency level, but reflect diversity as to their genre. Eventually the test is delivered as a computer-adaptive test over the Internet. Because of its structure, each test administered is unique (to a point) and it is criterion referenced, non compensatory, and curriculum independent. It is estimated that most students will be able to complete a test within 30-40 minutes.

The presentation will illustrate examples of test items at various levels and demonstrate how they are presented in a typical computer-administered test.
Teaching fluency in the classroom
as a component of second language proficiency
Simona Kopnická
University of Calgary

Fluency, that is spoken language that flows without interruptions or pauses, is often neglected in favour of other language components as reading, writing, listening and speaking that are being considered more important (Rossiter, Derwing, Manimtim & Thomson 2010; Simensen 2010). Although fluency falls under speaking skills, it is not taught in the second language (L2) classroom and teachers often confuse it with proficiency, that is, that a learner speaks grammatically and lexically accurately (Lennon 1990). Thus, a speaker can still speak fluently while being grammatically inaccurate. Due to the fact that our intelligence, social status and many other aspects are often judged based on how fluently we speak in our first language(L1) as well as in our second language (L2), this issue deserves further attention (Derwing, Rossiter Munro & Thomson 2004). The goal of the current study is to determine the extent to which fluency training has an effect on listeners’ ratings of speech fluidity.

Twelve intermediate-level university learners of German were provided with five sessions of classroom-based fluency training. An equal number of intermediate-level learners of German did not receive the fluency training. All students completed the same pre- and post-study tasks that included a narration (the “Suitcase Story”, which is commonly used in oral production studies) and a monologue. Twelve native German listeners rated fluency on a 9-point scale (1-extremely disfluent, 9-extremely fluent).

The research demonstrates the effect of fluency activities on learners’ fluency as rated by native listeners of German. This study establishes that a speaker can improve his or her fluency through classroom-based training.

References
Views from the Outside:  
Actions from the Inside 
Aliza M. Atkin Kroek  
Utah State University 

I borrow from the insight of German lyrical artists Bertolt Brecht and the rapper Alpa Gun to illustrate the struggles our students face with membership in the third space (Kramsch, 2009), that existence somewhere between two cultures, that comes with intercultural competence—to lay the context of the research. Against that background, and considering that pragmatics are less precise than other aspects of language use, what does research (Christ, 1991; Chun, 2011; Cloud, Genessee, & Hamayan, 2000; Ehrenreich, 2010; House, 2006; Kramsch, 2009; LoCastro, 2012; Marti, 2006; McCarty & Watahomigie, 1998) indicate are ways teachers can prepare students to effectively use language? How can they be prepared for the ways speakers native to other languages use language? How aware should students be made that, unlike grammar, successful pragmatic execution isn’t something that is entirely within their control? 

Some of the conclusions that I draw are that natives of power languages, need to take an active part in the world they wish to see created, not just demand that others change to their liking. They need to be bridge builders willing to cross outside their first view of the world to approach others. Of course because bridges join spaces and allow intercourse between those spaces, bridges lead to exchange, which means power language natives (just like natives of relatively less powerful languages) do not need to sell themselves out, and will have a marked influence on the larger world they cross into. 

Understanding of this topic is valuable to German teachers in the US (and generalizable beyond the context of that country) because of its relevance to the lives of their students (many of whom, as English speakers, are global power language natives) who may question the importance of the investment that will be required on their part to develop competence in a comparatively less powerful language. Directed towards an audience of speakers of the two powerful languages German and English, this paper explores the value of learning another language and developing intercultural competence particularly when one’s L1 is a globally powerful language. Pragmatic skill and intercultural competence need to be incorporated in language teaching, because sometimes knowing the words and structure of a language is not enough - there is something deeper to human language than just the use of words.
Taking cues from Barnard College’s *Reacting to the Past* series, we are developing a semester length role-playing game (RPG) for intermediate learners of the German language. Aside from a brief introductory period in the course as well as some time at the end for students to reflect on their experiences and the actual historical events, the entire course including grammatical instruction as well as oral and written assessment is fully contextualized within a game.

We will show a brief overview of our German-language RPG *The Unbroken Treaty*, which is staged primarily in the Wild West of 1840s Fredericksburg, TX a time when much of the immigration that established Texas’ strong German heritage took place. Drawing from history, the game immerses students in the aftermath of the German-Comanche Treaty of May, 1847, negotiated between John O. Meusebach and the local Comanche Chiefs with the help of the displaced Delaware Nation. We will show the materials used to divide students into various factions – each with its own set of goals, victory- and loss-conditions, and intrafaction struggles. If revealed, some characters’ secret pasts or shadowy motives can greatly affect the outcome of the game. No two semesters will play out exactly the same way, because our design allows for an emergent experience that gives students agency over how their own version of history plays out.

There are several goals we pursue with this project: firstly, we aim to provide a more communicative contextualization of the target language than textbook exercises can achieve. Similar to real life, the game incentivizes students to work in the target language both cooperatively and competitively with others to accomplish both short and long-term objectives. Further, the game couches lessons in a more palatable format: by giving students agency as to how each individual class session (and the overall story) plays out, they remain actively engaged and motivated for more of the lesson and more invested in their own language learning. Lastly, feedback shows that the historic content of the game matters more to American students than the narrative of a German national culture that permeates German language classrooms in the U.S.
Since Yiddish descended from German during the Middle High German period, it has inherited many of the features of German, including the shifted consonants \( t_s \) (as opposed to English \( t \)). Likewise it has similar suffixes, e.g., \(-heit\) and \(-ung\), as well as similar word order tendencies. Despite the additional influence of Slavic languages via contact with other Jews as they were pushed further east into Slavic countries and Hebrew through their religious heritage, Yiddish’ early German origins, especially its southern German origins, are unmistakable. Indeed, even its name meaning \( \text{Jüdisch} \) or ‘Jewish’ (German) illustrates the derounded vowel common in Southern Germany. As a consequence of Yiddish’ German heritage, learners of German often find themselves able to understand some of the Yiddish words, texts and language because of the similarities. Indeed, German continued to influence Yiddish up until the Second World War, while Yiddish in turn has brought new words into the English vocabulary, words that many speakers of English might incorrectly attribute to German. Our poster presents an overview of Yiddish’ history, demonstrating its close relationship with its source language, German.

To this end, our presents the history of the Yiddish-speaking people, from its early origins through the Holocaust up until more recent times. We also discuss some of the basic elements of Modern Yiddish in comparison to Middle High German as well as Modern German. This overview is intended to provide a background to Yiddish for teachers to help provide them with a cultural enrichment activity in their German classrooms. In addition to showing examples of written Yiddish, the poster also includes a lesson plan demonstrating how one could highlight the basics of Yiddish to students of German. Worksheets are also provided that introduce students to the Yiddish language and its relationship with German. Overall, we conclude that teachers can use Yiddish to enrich their students’ experience learning the German to help them see German as a key to unlocking yet another related language.
A Can-Do Approach to Learning:
How the Can-Do Statements Can Help You and Your Students
Laura Catharine Smith Jenna Andersen Aaron Norman Julia Ditzer-Norman Jake Sigafus
Brigham Young U. Brigham Young U. Brigham Young U. Brigham Young U. Alpine S. D.

The NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements help demystify for students what is needed to improve their language skills in concrete terms by shifting the focus from accuracy and grammar-driven language learning to proficiency based learning. Despite recent efforts to bring proficiency into the spotlight as a priority in language classrooms, many teachers continue to struggle connecting the grammar outlined in traditional textbooks with the proficiency requirements published by ACTFL. Unfortunately this also means that many students likewise believe that the key to improving their language skills is rooted in improving grammatical accuracy, increasing their vocabulary base and reading, writing and speaking “more” (strictly in terms of quantity) rather than in “more varied ways.” To this end, our poster aims to help teachers see how the Can-Do Statements can be integrated into class assignments and planning for courses ranging from introductory to college levels while helping students better understand in more concrete terms the role that language use plays in improving proficiency.

First, we provide an overview of the NCSSFL-ACTFL Can-Do Statements as well as suggestions for implementation of the statements into the classroom in terms of both classroom activities and assignments as well as for guiding curriculum planning and unit design. Examples are provided for assignments and activities that can be adapted for use in a wide range of classrooms and levels of language instruction from, e.g., German 1, up through college level language classes. The purpose of these activities is to help students understand in more concrete terms what types of things they need to be able to do with the language to increase their proficiency. This knowledge can further help teachers explain the application of grammar while also providing a means for implementing the grammar for proficiency purposes. In one such activity to be discussed, students are asked to review the Can-Do table and statements to assess for themselves what they feel comfortable doing with the language at present. By so doing, students are able to determine where they believe their language skills currently are. Next, students are asked to determine what types of new activities, interactions, etc. they will need to tackle to move to the next level in that particular modality. By providing a pathway to proficiency via what students can actually do with the language and grammar rather than based solely on grammar mastery, students are better informed of the expectations in terms of language use and not just grammar.

Based on feedback from informal surveys, we discuss the positive attitudes students have towards the Can-Do Statements. Students feel that the Can-Do statements demystify the process of improving their language skills across all modalities, reading, writing, listening, speaking, etc. Some have responded that this gives them the courage to branch out into activities they may not have otherwise felt comfortable doing because they realise that those types of activities and language application are necessary to move forward in proficiency.

Our poster concludes by outlining ways teachers can use the Can-Do Statements to guide their lesson and unit planning to provide more opportunities for students to apply their language skills towards proficiency. We demonstrate how similar activities can be modified according to the grammar being taught at the time while allowing teachers to better ground and contextualise their grammar teaching in activities that lead towards proficiency-based mastery.

The presentation is meant for current and prospective language teachers and instructors at all levels as well as language coordinators and those involved in curriculum planning to help these individuals find ways to better integrate the Can-Do Statements into their classrooms to help their students progress towards increased proficiency.
The merits of different forms of written feedback in beginning German university classes
Daniel Taylor
Brigham Young University

Second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have shown an interest in written corrective feedback (WCF) as early as the 1980s (Semke, 1984). But which forms of WCF are most effective in helping students learn? This question has become one of the more polarizing topics in the field of SLA. Some researchers (Polio, 2012) believe that teachers should provide lots of opportunities for students to see and learn from their mistakes, whereas others (Truscott 2007) favor minimal or no corrective feedback on student writing. A study in Brigham Young University German 101 classes is seeking to contribute to this discussion through a three-part study. First, students have already completed a pretest, consisting of a short writing prompt, a grammar-based test, and a questionnaire on student perceptions of German in general and of WCF. Now, for the next four weeks, students are divided into three groups and receive different feedback based on which group they are in. Group 1 receives correction on every error in writing. Group 2 receives no grammatical corrections and instead receives 2-3 sentences responding exclusively to the content of their writing. Group 3 receives this same content correction and also receives a short statement explaining how to avoid a pattern of errors for future writing. After a month of these forms of written feedback, students will complete the same three-part test. It is believed that Group 3 will show the most improvement on the test and on the writing assignment and will have the most positive attitude towards German and towards WCF. It has been previously observed that Group 2’s feedback lowers the affective filter in student writing (Semke, 1984), but doesn’t necessarily produce significantly higher results in grammatical accuracy. The goal of this study is to determine whether the content-focused feedback for Group 3 will lower the affective filter enough to allow these students to effectively process one grammatical correction per writing prompt. This study will have practical application to teachers who are interested in learning what forms of written feedback are most effective. This could prove particularly helpful if the most effective form takes less time for the teacher than more traditional forms of written feedback.
Divorcing proficiency from seat time:
Re-envisioning the German curriculum at Timpview High School
Stephen Van Orden
Timpview High School

The normalized structures of school and the traditional curriculum and do not always match the language acquisition needs of students or the pedagogical and methodological vision of second language teachers. In this poster session, I will introduce and explain my efforts to re-envision the German curriculum at Timpview High School by focusing on student progress along the ACTLF Proficiency Guidelines pathway. In order to create this focus, I changed my course sequence model and transformed my curricular focus.
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<td>Boutilier</td>
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<td>University of Wisconsin—Madison</td>
<td><a href="mailto:boutilier@wisc.edu">boutilier@wisc.edu</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bryan</td>
<td>Jessica</td>
<td>Brigham Young University</td>
<td><a href="mailto:samandjessica.us@gmail.com">samandjessica.us@gmail.com</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Burns</td>
<td>Roslyn</td>
<td>UC—Berkeley</td>
<td><a href="mailto:rosyn_burns@berkeley.edu">rosyn_burns@berkeley.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
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<td><a href="mailto:craig.callender@gcsu.edu">craig.callender@gcsu.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Chapman</td>
<td>Don</td>
<td>Brigham Young University</td>
<td><a href="mailto:don_chapman@byu.edu">don_chapman@byu.edu</a></td>
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<td>Clifford</td>
<td>Ray</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:RayC@byu.edu">RayC@byu.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Concu</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:vconcu@purdue.edu">vconcu@purdue.edu</a></td>
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<td><a href="mailto:troy_cox@byu.edu">troy_cox@byu.edu</a></td>
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<td>Darcy</td>
<td>Isabelle</td>
<td>University of Indiana</td>
<td><a href="mailto:idarcy@indiana.edu">idarcy@indiana.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>de Carlo</td>
<td>Nickolas</td>
<td>UCLA</td>
<td><a href="mailto:ndecarlo@ucla.edu">ndecarlo@ucla.edu</a></td>
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<td>Dewey</td>
<td>Tonya Kim</td>
<td>University of Minnesota—Morris</td>
<td><a href="mailto:tkdewey@morris.umn.edu">tkdewey@morris.umn.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Evans</td>
<td>Christine</td>
<td>University of Wisconsin—Madison</td>
<td><a href="mailto:cmevans3@wisc.edu">cmevans3@wisc.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Eythorsson</td>
<td>Thorhallur</td>
<td>University of Iceland</td>
<td><a href="mailto:tolli@hi.is">tolli@hi.is</a></td>
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<td>Name</td>
<td>First Name</td>
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<td>Fertig</td>
<td>David</td>
<td>University at Buffalo/SUNY</td>
<td><a href="mailto:fertig@buffalo.edu">fertig@buffalo.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Findell</td>
<td>Martin</td>
<td>University of Leicester</td>
<td><a href="mailto:mf181@leicester.ac.uk">mf181@leicester.ac.uk</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fingerhuth</td>
<td>Matthias</td>
<td>University of Texas—Austin</td>
<td><a href="mailto:fingerhuth@utexas.edu">fingerhuth@utexas.edu</a></td>
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<td>Ford</td>
<td>T. Clinton</td>
<td>University of Wisconsin—Madison</td>
<td><a href="mailto:tford3@wisc.edu">tford3@wisc.edu</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fuchs</td>
<td>Katrin</td>
<td>University of Texas—Austin</td>
<td><a href="mailto:k.fuchs@utexas.edu">k.fuchs@utexas.edu</a></td>
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<td>Funtanilla</td>
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<td>Gardner</td>
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<td>Hering</td>
<td>Jürgen</td>
<td>University of Gothenburg</td>
<td><a href="mailto:jurgen@hering.se">jurgen@hering.se</a></td>
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<td>Howell</td>
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<tr>
<td>Huenlich</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:david.huenlich@googlemail.com">david.huenlich@googlemail.com</a></td>
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<td>Isaacson</td>
<td>Lisa</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:lisa.isaacson@gmail.com">lisa.isaacson@gmail.com</a></td>
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<td>Jacobs</td>
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<td>Universität Potsdam</td>
<td><a href="mailto:esther.jahns@uni-potsdam.de">esther.jahns@uni-potsdam.de</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jones</td>
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<tr>
<td>Knaus</td>
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<td><a href="mailto:jaknaus@ucalgary.ca">jaknaus@ucalgary.ca</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Kopnicka</td>
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<td>Lau</td>
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<td>Brigham Young University</td>
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## Restaurant Guide for Downtown Provo (see map)

$ = under $10  
$$ = $11–30  
$$$ = $31–60

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restaurant</th>
<th>Address</th>
<th>Phone</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Price</th>
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<td><strong>Asian Restaurants</strong></td>
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</table>
| Banana Leaf                 | 409 N University Ave      | 801-205-7619   | Mon–Wed: 4pm–9:30pm  
Thur–Sat: 11:30am–9:45pm | $$    |
| Bombay House                | 463 N University Ave      | 801-373-6677   | Mon–Sat: 4–10pm | $$    |
| China Garden                | 225 W Center Street       | 801-373-7203   | Mon–Sat: 11am–9pm | $     |
| Demae Japanese Restaurant   | 82 W Center Street        | 801-374-0306   | Mon–Sat: 11:30am–9:30pm | $$    |
| Four Seasons Hot Pot        | 236 N University Ave      | 801-375-6888   | Mon–Thu: 11am–9pm  
Fri–Sat: 11am–10pm | $$    |
| Indian Palace               | 98 W Center Street        | 801-373-7200   | Mon–Sat: 11am–10pm | $$    |
| Lotus Garden                | 56 W Center Street        | 801-374-0753   | Mon–Thur: 11am–10pm  
Fri: 11am–10:30pm  
Sat: 12pm–10:30pm | $     |
| Osaka                       | 46 W Center Street        | 801-373-1060   | Mon–Sat: 11am–10:30pm | $     |
| Rice King                   | 278 W Center Street       | 801-818-2278   | Mon–Thu: 11am–9:30pm  
Fri–Sat: 11am–10pm | $     |
| Rice King Noodle            | 163 N University Ave      | 801-818-1028   | Mon–Thu: 11am–9pm  
Fri–Sat: 11am–9:30pm | $     |
| PhoPlus                     | 68 W Center Street        | 801-377-8808   | Mon–Sat: 11:30am–2:30pm | $     |
| Spicy Corea                 | 43 N University Ave       | 801-377-7330   | Mon–Sat: 11:30am–9:30pm | $–$$  |
| Thai Village                | 410 N University Ave      | 801-691-0922   | Mon–Sat: 11am–10pm | $$    |
| Wild Ginger                 | 366 N University Ave      | 801-691-1177   | Mon–Sat: 11am–9:30pm | $$    |
| **Diner, Grill, and Casual Dining** |                     |                |                                                |       |
| Black Sheep Café            | 19 N University Ave       | 801-607-2485   | Mon–Thu: 11:30–2:30, 5:30–9pm  
Fri–Sat: 11:30–2:30, 5:30–10pm | $$    |
| Bruges Waffles and Frites   | 42 West Center Street     | 801-377-3214   | Mon–Thu: 10am–10pm  
Fri–Sat: 9am–11pm | $     |
| Communal                    | 102 N University Ave      | 801-373-8000   | Tues–Fri: 11:20am–2:30pm, 5–10pm  
Sat: 9am–2pm, 5–10pm | $$$   |
| Gloria’s Little Italy       | 1 E Center Street, Suite 100 | 801-805-4913 | Mon–Fri: 11:30am–2:30pm, 4:30–9pm  
Sat: 4–10pm | $$    |
| Hot Potato Gourmet Fries    | 180 N University Ave, Suite 120 | 801-377-3214 | Mon–Thu: 11am–12:30am  
Fri–Sat: 11am–1am | $     |

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Restaurant Name</th>
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<th>Phone Number</th>
<th>Hours</th>
<th>Price</th>
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<td>La Dolce Vita Ristorante Italiano</td>
<td>61 North 100 East</td>
<td>801-373-8482</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 11am–10pm Sat: noon–10pm</td>
<td>$$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nate’s Diner</td>
<td>170 West 300 South</td>
<td>801-375-9074</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 6am–6pm Sat–Sun: 6am–1pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rocky Mountain Drive-In</td>
<td>43 South 500 West</td>
<td>Unlisted</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 11am–11pm Fri: 11am–1am Sat: 11am–midnight</td>
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<tr>
<td>Zeek’s</td>
<td>27 North 100 West</td>
<td>801-805-9208</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 11am–10pm Fri: 11am–10pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Slate</td>
<td>101 West 100 North</td>
<td>801-377-4700</td>
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<tr>
<td>Station 22 Café</td>
<td>22 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-607-1803</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 11am–10pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tommy’s Burgers</td>
<td>401 West 100 North</td>
<td>801-374-9733</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 11am–9pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Two Jack’s Pizza</td>
<td>80 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-377-4747</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 11am–10pm Fri–Sat: 11am–11pm</td>
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<td><strong>Latin American Restaurants</strong></td>
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<td>Brassas Mexican Grill</td>
<td>238 W 100 S</td>
<td>801-375-0240</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 9am–7pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>El Gallo Giro Mexican Grill</td>
<td>346 N University Ave</td>
<td>801-377-2571</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 8am–9:30pm Fri–Sat: 8am–10pm Sun: 8am–8pm</td>
<td>$</td>
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<tr>
<td>El Mexsal</td>
<td>325 S Freedom Blvd</td>
<td>801-375-3468</td>
<td>Unlisted</td>
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<tr>
<td>El Salvador Restaurante</td>
<td>332 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-373-5377</td>
<td>Mon–Tue, Thu–Fri: 11am–9pm Sat: 10am–9pm Sun: 10am–8pm</td>
<td>$$–$$</td>
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<tr>
<td>El Tropical Dominican</td>
<td>40 North 400 West</td>
<td>801-607-2534</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 10am–9pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Joe Vera’s Mexican Fiestaurant</td>
<td>250 W Center Street, Suite 100</td>
<td>801-375-6714</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 10am–9pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Los Hermanos Mexican Restaurant</td>
<td>71 E Center Street</td>
<td>801-375-5732</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 11am–10pm Fri–Sat: 11am–11pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Rocco’s Tacos</td>
<td>1 E Center Street</td>
<td>435-669-4252</td>
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<tr>
<td>Se Llama Peru</td>
<td>368 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-377-4792</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 11:30 am–9 pm Sat: noon–9 pm</td>
<td>$$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Taqueria El Vaquero</td>
<td>286 North 100 West</td>
<td>801-607-2149</td>
<td>Mon–Sun: 10am–9pm</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Cafés/Bakeries/Drinks</strong></td>
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<td>220 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-851-2200</td>
<td>Hours vary</td>
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<td>Enliten Bakery and Café</td>
<td>43 E Center Street</td>
<td>801-919-3838</td>
<td>Mon–Tue: 8am–9pm Wed–Sat: 8am–10pm</td>
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<td>Gandolfo’s</td>
<td>18 E Center Street</td>
<td>801-375-3354</td>
<td>Mon–Thu: 7 am–8pm Fri–Sat: 7am–9pm</td>
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<td>Guru’s Café</td>
<td>45 E Center Street</td>
<td>801-375-4878</td>
<td>Mon–Tue: 8am–9pm Wed–Sat: 8am–10pm</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Phone</td>
<td>Hours</td>
<td>Price</td>
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<td>Hruska’s Kolaches</td>
<td>434 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-623-3578</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 6:30am–sellout (noon)</td>
<td>$</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ivie’s Juice Bar</td>
<td>45 N University Ave</td>
<td>801-373-9935</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 8am–9pm</td>
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<td>Sat: 9am–8pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Juice ’n Java</td>
<td>280 West 100 North</td>
<td>801-375-5409</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 6:30am–9pm</td>
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<td>Sun: 8am–8pm</td>
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<tr>
<td>Nu Skin Café</td>
<td>75 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-345-2700</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 8am–5pm</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provo Bakery</td>
<td>190 East 100 North</td>
<td>801-375-8330</td>
<td>Mon–Fri: 7am–6pm</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sat: 7am–5pm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red Deli</td>
<td>227 N University Ave</td>
<td>801-375-7827</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 11am–4pm</td>
<td>$$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensuous Sandwich</td>
<td>163 W Center Street</td>
<td>801-377-9244</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 10:30am–8pm</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sodalicious (Sodas)</td>
<td>30 West 300 North</td>
<td>801-800-7317</td>
<td>Mon–Thurs: 7:30am–11pm</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fri-Sat: 7:30am–midnight</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starbucks</td>
<td>101 West 100 North</td>
<td>Unlisted</td>
<td>Unlisted</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subway</td>
<td>180 N University Ave, Suite 150</td>
<td>801-607-1032</td>
<td>Mon–Sat: 7am–10pm</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Taste</td>
<td>117 N University Ave</td>
<td>801-900-4061</td>
<td>Mon–Wed: 1–6pm</td>
<td>$$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Thurs: noon–8pm</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Fri: noon–9:30pm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Sat: noon–8pm</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>