3rd Norwegian Graduate Student Conference in Linguistics and Philology

Abstracts

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(How/when) does language change in healthy older adults?

Loraine Obler

CUNY – City University of New York

While much of language processes remain constant through older adulthood, lexical retrieval, sentence processing and some aspects of pragmatics decline with advancing age. The question of interest is the extent to which these language changes are due to changes in language regions of the brain per se or whether they are secondary to changes in cognitive abilities underlying language. In this lecture I point out indications that language networks may themselves be impaired while decline in various types of memory and executive function appears to contribute to poorer language and communication performance in the domains of deficit as well.
Language processing (comprehension and production) and language change do not happen in a void, but through grammars being acquired, used and reanalyzed during the course of an individual’s life time. The research presented here defends our model, the Featurally Underspecified Lexicon (FUL), which claims that variation in speech can be resolved by assuming that the representation of words is phonologically sparse. The assumption is that privative underspecified feature representations, which can account for a number of asymmetries typical and pertinacious in synchronic and diachronic phonological systems, are also responsible for asymmetries for word recognition. Nevertheless, certain phonological processes such as dissimulations presuppose full specification. In terms of cross-linguistic phonological typology, asymmetric phonological representations lead to asymmetry in alternations and are predicted to have different consequences in processing, which in turn, would lead to asymmetry in change.

The hypothesis we entertain is that the two types presuppose different representations: assimilations can be accounted for as feature-spreading, possibly invoking underspecification, while dissimilations must assume full specification. These representational-cum-process assumptions make asymmetric predictions about on-line processing and resolving of such variations. The talk will present a phonological sketch of the model along with evidence from a series of psycholinguistic and neurolinguistic experiments from German, English and Bengali.
Language mixing and its importance for theories of grammar

Terje Lohndal

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Einar Haugen (1953) put the heritage language American Norwegian on the international research stage, in particular in studies of language contact. With the new Corpus of American Norwegian Speech (CANS; Johannessen 2015), American Norwegian has regained a prominent role, this time most notably in theoretical linguistics. In this talk, I will consider recent work based on CANS that has studied aspects of the grammar of American Norwegian, in particular focusing on code switching/language mixing. A range of different mixing patterns will be documented and given a formal analysis. The data will be argued to provide support for a specific formal analysis which crucially distinguishes between the abstract syntactic structure and its morphophonological realizations. I will also discuss the role of multilingual data such as American Norwegian in advancing our models of humans’ grammatical competence.
I start by pointing out a deep problem of grammatical research that is rarely addressed: That we want to understand Human Language but have only particular languages to observe, and that we cannot simply transfer analyses and categories from one language to another. Nature could help us by restricting the possible building blocks of grammar to a few dozen or a few hundred (as it helps us in chemistry by restricting the number of elements), but linguistics currently has no promising research programme that would give us reason for optimism in this regard – grammatical structures seem to be similar to lexical structures in that they allow an open-ended and highly variable range of features and categories, which need to be described in language-particular terms. But languages do not vary randomly in their grammatical structures, and we want to formulate the limitations and also ultimately explain them. This can be done by a set of artificial comparative concepts, which are not claimed to correspond to “nature’s joints”, but merely serve the practical purpose of allowing comparison, just like the symbols of the IPA. I will discuss some grammatical universals of argument coding (e.g. differential object marking) and propose explanations for them which do not make reference to natural kinds, but to much more general principles of efficient behaviour. The concrete programme that follows from this view is not to aim for a Mendeleev-style “table of linguistic elements”, but to propose a set of standard comparative concepts for grammar, like Paul Passy’s IPA symbols, which have served the discipline so well.
In this paper, I use experimental data from a picture naming task to study the definiteness marking of speakers of Heritage Norwegian. The results show that these speakers have non-target-like definiteness marking in modified definite NPs.

**Background:** Heritage languages are languages acquired naturally as first languages by children, while they are not the dominant language of the national society (Rothman 2009:156). The last decades, heritage languages received much attention in linguistic research. The study of many different heritage languages is important for a proper understanding of them (Benmamoun et al 2013). American Heritage Norwegian (AHN) is especially interesting and relevant in this respect. While much research focuses on 2nd generation immigrants (Montrul 2012), the current speakers of AHN are 3rd or 4th generation immigrants (Johannessen & Salmons 2012). Besides, the current speakers are the last generation, which means that the language is dying and there is a need to study the variety before it is lost.

**Phenomenon:** This paper focusses on performance of AHN speakers with regard to Compositional Definiteness (CD). CD is found in Norwegian NPs, where definiteness is expressed with a suffix on the noun (1a), but with both a suffix and a prenominal determiner when the noun is modified (1b).

(1) a. `hest-en` ‘horse-DEF.SG’ “the horse”
   b. *(den) hvit-e hest-en `DEF.SG white-DEF horse-DEF.SG’ “the white horse”

Since monolingual Norwegian children need a relatively long time to acquire CD (Anderssen 2007), and modified definite structures are not very frequent (Dahl 2015:121), the question rises how heritage speakers behave with respect to CD. Research on spontaneous speech (collected in the Corpus of American Norwegian Speech (CANS), Johannessen 2015) has shown that many speakers use patterns that are deviant from homeland Norwegian (Anderssen & Westergaard in press).

**Experiment:** This paper presents results from an experimental study to complement the studies on spontaneous speech. In a picture naming task, participants are asked to name the pictures they see on a computer screen (which elicits indefinite NPs, (2a)) and are then asked which picture disappeared (which elicits definite NPs, (2b)).

(2) a. `en grønn bil` `INDEF.SG.M green car’ “a green car”
   b. `den grønn-e bil-en` `DEF.SG green-DEF car-DEF.SG.M’ “the green car”

Twenty speakers participated in the experiment conducted during fieldwork in the US in fall 2016.

**Results:** The responses are analysed as either target-like or non-target-like (i.e. grammatical or ungrammatical in homeland Norwegian). The results of the 13 participants analysed so far show that none of the participants performs at ceiling and that there is large variation between speakers. Two speakers never produce CD when it is obligatory, 3 speakers score 1-25% target-like, 5 speakers perform 26-50% target-like and 2 speakers perform >50% target-like (highest score: 72%).

Different types of deviations are found. All of the 13 speakers do leave out the prenominal determiner in all or some of their utterances, while only 2 speakers leave out the suffix in some of their utterances. Those speakers also produce utterances without the prenominal determiner.

**Conclusion:** These results clearly show that the production of CD of speakers of AHN deviates in systematic ways from that of homeland speakers. Besides, the prenominal determiner turns out to be the most vulnerable element.

**References**


Eirik Tengesdal:

Empirical evidence of preaspiration and voiceless lenes in the Norwegian dialect of Bjerkreim

This paper examines the plosive system of three speakers of the dialect of Bjerkreim. It concludes that the speakers have systematical preaspiration and voiceless lenes, suggesting distinctive [± aspiration].

**Introduction:** The plosive system of the dialect of Bjerkreim has previously been analysed as having voiceless lenes (/b, d, g/ [p, t, k]) (Christiansen 1976: 182). Word-initial fortes /p, t, k/ are postaspirated [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ], as is common in Norwegian and many other languages. Surprisingly, it has also been claimed to have postaspirated fortes (/p, t, k/ [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ]) in the distinctive positions word-medially and word-finally (Oftedal 1947: 235) – which is uncommon in Norwegian – instead of regular voiceless, unaspirated [p, t, k]. Thus, Oftedal (1947: 235) claims that the words kattar (‘cats’) and katt (‘cat’) are realised as kʰattʰa and kʰattʰ. However, this paper argues that his assertion is likely incorrect, offering evidence for a plosive system in which kattar and katt are realised with preaspiration, viz. kʰaattʰa and kʰaattʰ. The present author’s native speaker impressionistic observation led to the suspicion that preaspiration and voiceless lenes do occur in Bjerkreim. The systematical preaspiration is thus at odds with Oftedal’s (1947) claim that asserts postaspiration in its stead. Variation of the actual preaspiration is to some degree anticipated.

**Research questions:** Based on Oftedal’s (1947) claims, this study set out to attest and describe preaspiration and voiceless lenes instrumentally and thus more objectively. In order to establish the phenomenon systematically, it is important to examine the relevant and common contexts. The main research questions in the present study are thus 1) whether fortes in the dialect of Bjerkreim are systematically postaspirated word-initially and in stressed syllables, and postaspirated word-medially and word-finally. Furthermore, 2), whether lenes are systematically voiceless word-initially, word-medially and word-finally.

**Methodology:** Elicited speech in the form of reading a word list and the fable The North Wind and the Sun aloud, together with spontaneous speech, was collected from 3 speakers of the Bjerkreim dialect (age 58, 59, 90; 2 women, 1 man) during fieldwork in the municipality of Bjerkreim. The elicited word list data were analysed with a qualitative perspective using the speech analysis program Praat (Boersma and Weenink 2015). The analysis included sound file segmentation, TextGrid annotation and IPA transcription.

**Findings:** The findings show that there is indeed evidence that supports the claim of systematical preaspiration and voiceless lenes. Through acoustic and auditory analysis, 1) preaspiration was attested in /p, t, k/ word-medially and word-finally, respectively in the fortis VCV (e.g. [fʰamʰtʰa] matta ‘mat’) and V:C (e.g. [fʰuːpʰal] Opel contexts, and in the VC context ([fʰurʰʔɛ] rykk ‘tug’). The preaspiration is clearest in contexts with short vowel. There seems to be a variation continuum that ranges from regular preaspiration to preaffrication related to the degree of emphasis, viz. [pʰ, tʰ, kʰ] (i.e. from regular preaspiration, via weak homorganic frication to preaffrication). As expected, postaspiration word-initially (e.g. [fʰoːpʰoː] pā ‘on’) and in stressed syllables (e.g. [fʰuːcʰɤː] rekyl ‘recoil’) was attested. Further, 2) voiceless lenes /b, d, g/ were attested in all the corresponding contexts (e.g. [fʰoːpʰoː] bāt ‘boat’ and [fʰnːaːkʰaː] gnaga ‘gnaw’).

**Proposal:** This paper argues that the phenomena preaspiration and voiceless lenes together form a system that has distinctive [± aspiration], as opposed to normal [± voice]. It is proposed that weak homorganic frication and preaffrication are possible manifestations of preaspiration. Through phonemic analysis, the preaspiration is proposed to be a feature of the plosives as opposed to an independent phoneme like /h/, yielding the following plosive system for the dialect of Bjerkreim presented in table 1:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Allophones</th>
<th>labial</th>
<th>laminal</th>
<th>dorsal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unaspirated plosive phonemes</td>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>/ɡ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allophones</td>
<td>[p]</td>
<td>[t]</td>
<td>[c, k]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aspirated plosive phonemes</td>
<td>/pʰ/</td>
<td>/l/</td>
<td>/kʰ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Allophones</td>
<td>[pʰ]</td>
<td>[tʰ, kʰ]</td>
<td>[cʰ, kʰ]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word position</td>
<td>w-i</td>
<td>w-m &amp; w-f</td>
<td>w-i</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Proposed plosive system for the Bjerkreim dialect, with selected distributed allophones.

**Conclusions:** The aim of the study was to refute Oftedal’s (1947: 235) distinctive postaspiration claim and to corroborate Christiansen’s (1976: 182) voiceless lenes claim by means of collecting and analysing empirical data acoustically. The present findings support the assertion that the dialect of Bjerkreim indeed has systematically preaspirated fortes and voiceless lenes in the distinctive positions investigated.

**Selected references:**


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**Additional References:**


Joselyn Ann Marie Brooksbank:  
The Effectiveness of Parental Discourse Strategies in Heritage Language Maintenance: Why Do Parents Prefer Less Effective Strategies to More Effective Ones?

Using transcribed longitudinal data from six Spanish-English bilingual children (aged 1;8 to 3;3) from the Perez CHILDES corpus, this paper examines the parental discourse strategies (PDS) used to influence the children’s use of Spanish in a minority context.  
PDS (Lanza, 1992; 1997/2004; a.o.) are situated within the language socialization framework (Ochs & Schieffelin, 2011; a.o.) and are part of the fields of family language policy and minority/heritage language maintenance (Curdt-Christiansen, 2013; King & Fogle, 2013; King & Lanza, 2017; Schwartz & Verschik, 2013). In this study, parental utterances in the transcripts were coded using Lanza’s five original PDS (3 - 7), as well as two additional strategies (1 & 2):

1. modelling
2. translation request
3. minimal grasp
4. expressed guess
5. repetition
6. move on
7. adult code-switch

Children’s utterances were coded by type (minority language, majority language, code-mixing, or resistance/emotional response) and were linked to the PDS used by the parents. Drawing on Lanza’s work, it was predicted that higher-ranked PDS in the hierarchy above would be more successful in causing the children to respond in Spanish (the target language) than lower-ranked ones. These predictions were borne out by a quantitative analysis of the data at the group level, with some variation at the individual level, providing general support for Lanza’s Parental Discourse Hypothesis. However, it was found that the more successful strategies were used less frequently by the parents while the less successful ones were more common. This apparent contradiction is explained within family language policy by conflicting pressures on parents to promote the use of the minority language while also preserving harmonious family communication. This explanation was further supported by qualitative examination of some of the resistance/emotional responses within the larger discourse, highlighting young bilingual children’s role as important agents capable of negotiating their own language socialization.

References


Is the High tone in Somali really culminative? Evidence from loanword adaptations

This paper examines how Norwegian loanwords are tonally adapted by native Somali speakers. It concludes that culminativity is not synchronically productive in Somali.

**Background** The High tone in Somali has been analyzed as **culminative** [2, 3], which means that there is only one High tone per word. This holds true in simplex words, such as *gūr* ‘house’ and *wīl* ‘boy’. However, complex words show different tone patterns depending on the morphemes involved: Plural forms have one High tone, and it is realized on the suffix, as in (1). On the other hand, when the remote definite article *kiī* is added to a noun, both the stem and the article have a High tone (2). While words such as *wīlkiī* look like exceptions to culminativity, they have been analyzed by [1] as consisting of two Prosodic Words (PWords). The difference in structure can be illustrated as in (3–4) (adapted from [1]).

(1) *wīl* ‘boy’ + -āC → *wīlāl* ‘boys’
(2) *wīl* ‘boy’ + *kiī* → *wīlkiī* ‘the (remote) boy’
(3) ([(wīl)(āl)])PWord
(4) (wīl)]PWord(kiī)]PWord

**Core questions and methodology** While the account in [1] may be an accurate description of the data (and perhaps of the origin of the system), it does not necessarily reflect native speakers’ mental representation of it. It is based on the assumption that culminativity is real, but there is not a priori reason to do so. The problem is circularity: Culminativity is assumed to apply within a domain (the PWord) which is defined based on the same culminativity. Hence, it may be an artifact of the linguistic analysis. Native data alone cannot tell us whether culminativity is psychologically real and synchronically productive. For that, we need to see whether it extends to novel words. The main research questions in the present study are thus how loanwords are tonally adapted, and whether culminativity applies to loanwords as well. Spontaneous speech from 9 native speakers of Somali (age 30–65, 4 women, 5 men) was collected during fieldwork in Oslo. The participants are all native speakers of Somali and late learners of Norwegian, and use both languages every day.

**Results** The results show that Norwegian loanwords are tonally adapted in three main ways:

1) In some cases, tone is assigned in accordance with the the native Somali patterns, i.e. to the final or penultimate mora of the stem (see [3] for details). An example is *[hēlsa]-ha* from Norwegian *[ˈhɛɭsə]*, ‘health-M.DEF’. This word has initial stress in Norwegian, which is ignored in the output form. 2) In other cases, tone/stress of the Norwegian input form is preserved as a High tone, in a location where it violates the native Somali patterns. An example is *[misfɔʂˈtoːɭ̩sə]* ‘misunderstanding’. 3) Crucially, both strategies may apply in different locations within the same word, resulting in words with two High tones: *[uţaalá-ha]* < *[ˈuːˌtɑːlə]* ‘pronunciation-M.DEF’. More examples are listed in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Somali</th>
<th>Norwegian</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Norwegian orthography</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[naʃuⁿālætejåtar-ka]</td>
<td>[nəʊˈjuːnəˌlætər]</td>
<td>national.theater-M.DEF</td>
<td>nasjonalteater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[natuɾfæɡ-ga]</td>
<td>[nɔ*tuɹ.rˌfoʊɡ]</td>
<td>sciences-M.DEF</td>
<td>naturfag</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[sɑm̩buər-ka]</td>
<td>*[ˈsom buər]</td>
<td>roommate-M.DEF</td>
<td>samboer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[sɪkmɛɭiŋ-ka]</td>
<td>*[ˈsyːkəˌmɛɭiŋ]</td>
<td>sick.leave.letter-M.DEF</td>
<td>sykemelding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ʃəɾəstå-ha]</td>
<td>*[ʃəɾəˈɾɑːsta]</td>
<td>boyfriend-M.DEF</td>
<td>kjæreste</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Proposal** This study shows that loanwords in Somali may have more than one High tone (e.g. *uţaalá-ha*), even when they lack the structure needed according to previous accounts of the native data (e.g. the remote definite article *kiī*). The fact that culminativity does not extend to novel words suggests that it is not synchronically productive. This finding has implications for how the native phonology of Somali is described: Two High tones do not imply two PWords. We propose that words like *wīlkiī* have been analyzed by speakers as single words, as illustrated in (5). The result is a new system in which words may have more than one High tone, even without the internal structure needed by previous accounts (6).

(5) (wīl)]PWord(kiī)]PWord → (wīlkiī)]PWord
(6) (sǎm̩buər)]PWord

**Conclusions** Loanword adaptations can inform our analyzes of phonological systems, because they may reveal patterns that are not obvious from the native data alone. We show that loanwords in Somali may have more than one High tone, even when they lack the structure that is necessary according to previous accounts of the native data. This suggests that the culminativity ascribed to the High tone in Somali is not synchronically productive. This finding poses problems for previous accounts of the native phonology of Somali: It illustrates that more than one High tone does not imply more than one word.

Linn Iren Sjånes Rødvand:

The definite suffix as a gender clue – evidence from American Norwegian

This paper examines the gender system of American Norwegian. The conclusion is that the definite suffix should be treated as a potential gender clue.

**Previous accounts.** Traditional Norwegian dialects have three genders, expressed in articles, adjectives, demonstratives, and personal pronouns referring to inanimates (abbreviated PPI). Two recent papers – Johannessen & Larsson (2015) and Lohndal & Westergaard (2016) – have discussed the status of gender in American Norwegian (AmN) by considering noun phrase-final agreement in CANS (Corpus of American Norwegian Speech). Both papers take Hockett’s (1958: 231) definition of gender as point of departure: “Genders are classes of nouns reflected in the behavior of associated words.” Still, the two papers reach different conclusions. Lohndal & Westergaard (2016) – who explicitly reject that the singular definite suffix could indicate gender – conclude that the gender category in AmN is vulnerable. Johannessen & Larsson (2015), on the other hand, argue that gender is retained since they treat the definite suffix as an exponent of gender.

**Methodology.** The research reported in this paper was conducted in 2016–2017, and investigates the gender system in AmN by looking at the indefinite article and the personal pronoun, in addition to the definite suffix. The data were collected during fieldwork in the American Midwest, using elicitation tasks consisting of pictures depicting items corresponding to the three grammatical genders. In total, the analysis includes data from 25 speakers between the age of 58 and 92 (average: 79 years), most of which are 3rd or 4th generation immigrants. This paper contributes to a broader understanding of gender in AmN in two ways. Firstly, the personal pronoun has not been investigated as a gender agreeing element in AmN before. Secondly, this is the first time the gender system in AmN can be investigated at the level of the individual, since the elicitation method ensures more data on each participant than what is found in CANS. By focusing on the individuals, these data shed new light on the relation between the definite suffix and the gender system.

**Findings.** Arguably, the gender system has to be analyzed at the level of the individual. In doing so, great inter-individual differences are revealed. However, none of the speakers perform at random, indicating that speakers have at least relics of the original three-gender system. As many as 11 of the 25 participants clearly have retained the original system and show little or no difficulty with grammatical gender. They thus produce target-like examples like (1). 4 more speakers have retained all the original gender distinctions, but these speakers are less target-consistent. For the remaining 10 speakers, there are some alterations to the original system. For 7 speakers, there is no longer a separate feminine PPI. 5 of these speakers prefer the masculine PPI han for referring to feminines, see (2). The 2 other speakers prefer the neuter PPI for reference to feminines. Additionally, these speakers use the masculine article across-the-board, see (3). The last 2 speakers have developed a new, semantically based pronoun system, using the neuter det in reference to all inanimates, cf. (4).

\[
\begin{align*}
(1) & \text{ ei}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_F \cdot \text{ ei}_M \cdot \text{ han}_F \cdot \text{ ei}_N \cdot \text{ dør}_N \\
(2) & \text{ ei}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_N \cdot \text{ han}_M \\
(3) & \text{ ei}_M \cdot \text{ dør}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_N \cdot \text{ det}_N \\
(4) & \text{ ei}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_F \cdot \text{ dør}_N \cdot \text{ det}_N.
\end{align*}
\]

Importantly, however, no one is using only one article and only one PPI in reference to all genders. Moreover, the use of definite suffix is to a great extent target-like for all speakers.

**Discussion.** It has been argued that the definite suffix is only a declensions class marker and thus completely detached from gender. This results in a very covert gender system in Norwegian. If this is the case, it is quite surprising that the original gender system has been retained through at least 4 generations. Even the most attrited AmN speaker, with more than 60 years of disuse of Norwegian, shows relics of the three-gender system. For some speakers, the gender distinctions seem to only be maintained in the PPI. I argue that the best way to explain the retention of such gender distinctions, is by saying that the speakers use the definite form as the basis for classifying nouns into genders. If we accept the definite suffix as a gender clue, the evidence for the gender system in Norwegian will be pervasive. We can thus expect the gender system to be quite robust.

**Conclusion.** In spite of great inter-individual differences, there is no sign of a complete restructuring of the gender system, nor a break-down of gender altogether. I argue that the best way to explain this overall retention is by referring to the target-like use of the definite suffix, in line with Johannessen & Larsson (2015), and contra Lohndal & Westergaard (2016).

**Selected references.**

Anastasia Kharlamova:
One or Many Phonetic Systems? A Study of Affricates in the Spontaneous Speech of Bilingual Aromanians

This presentation deals with spontaneous speech phonetics as illustrated by cases of bilinguals. The ultimate aim is to determine whether a bilingual speaker has a single phonetic system or rather one system for each language; at this stage we are in the process of studying specifically the matter of affricates. Currently, we are using data collected from Albanian-Aromanian speakers in Elbasan, Albania.

Aromanian is an Eastern Romance language spoken in several Balkan countries south of the Danube. It generally holds little prestige, and all speakers are bilingual. Our informants from Elbasan have preserved Aromanian as their heritage and part of their culture, but their main spoken language is Albanian.

We have gathered audio materials (answers to a phonetic questionnaire, reading, as well as spontaneous monologues and dialogues) in Albanian and Aromanian in September 2016 and August-September 2017. The questionnaire was developed to reflect the most frequent positions of affricates in a lexeme.

Standard Albanian has six affricates: [ts], [dz], [tʃ], [dʒ], [çç], and [ʝʝ]. Aromanian is believed to have four: [ts], [dz], [tʃ], and [dʒ]; however, in our materials we have also found occurrences of [t’s’], [d’z’], [çç], and [ʝʝ]. The latter two are most probably the result of Albanian influence and seem to signify that the affricate system in a bilingual’s brain is “unified” for both languages.

However, the most common positions for affricates are different in Albanian and Aromanian. In Albanian, affricates usually occur in the middle of a word (e.g. lexoj ‘read’), while in Aromanian they mostly are in the beginning (e.g. ñer ‘sky’) or in the end, often as a result of palatalization which in Aromanian is a frequent marker of plural forms (e.g. fraţi ‘brothers’). Therefore, we can suppose that the speakers have different pronunciation for each case and view them still as cases from two different languages. This suggestion has been proved as we have discovered that Aromanian affricates are always pronounced more palatalized, since palatalization is much more prominent in the latter and is considered phonological.

Finally, we should mention the Turkish borrowings which are the main source of the affricate [dʒ] (e.g. xhami ‘mosque’). Our informants stressed the fact that the word sounds “the same” in both languages. It is true not only for lexemes that are marked culturally (as Aromanians are Orthodox, it is clear that they should view Islamic terminology as foreign), but also for common words with no markedness – e.g. xham ‘glass’.

To sum it up, we now assume that, at least regarding affricates, Aromanian bilinguals have two different “sets” of Albanian and Aromanian sounds. The exceptions are relatively late loanwords that seem to be viewed as something outside of their languages’ consonant system.

References:
Isabel Nadine Jensen:
The Bottleneck Hypothesis in L2 Acquisition: Knowledge of syntax and functional morphology in L2 English

We present experiment results that challenge the Bottleneck Hypothesis (e.g. Slabakova, 2008), and argue that this necessitates a refinement of the model. In a nutshell, the BH argues that functional morphology is the most problematic part of L2 acquisition, as it is the bottleneck of the entire acquisition process. Acquisition of core syntax and universal semantic and pragmatic properties, on the other hand, proceeds with less difficulty. The current study builds on Jensen et al. (2017), who found that Norwegian L2 learners of English struggled considerably more with subject-verb agreement than with SVO word order in non-subject-initial declarative clauses, even at advanced stages of acquisition.

In the current study, two experimental conditions were used to test knowledge of core syntax: Verb movement across an adverb in subject-initial declarative clauses (example (2)) and verb movement across the subject in non-subject-initial declaratives ((1)). Two other conditions tested knowledge of functional morphology: Local subject-verb agreement ((3)) and past tense marking ((4)).

Norwegian is a verb-second (V2) language, i.e., the finite verb always moves to the second position of main clause declaratives. In contrast, the verb stays in the VP in English (with some exceptions) (see examples (1) and (2)). The learning task for Norwegian speakers of L2 English is to unlearn the V2 rule. Westergaard (2003) demonstrated that this is difficult for Norwegian learners at an early stage and that unlearning movement across subjects ((1)) happens earlier than movement across adverbs ((2)). With respect to morphology, English marks overt subject-verb agreement with the suffix -s on present tense verbs when the subject is 3rd person singular. In contrast, Norwegian does not have overt subject-verb agreement (example (3)). Past tense marking, on the other hand, does not represent a mismatch between Norwegian and English, as both languages mark the past tense, as exemplified in (4).

Off-line knowledge of these conditions was tested by means of an untimed acceptability judgement task in which the participants were asked to rank sentences on a 4-point Likert scale. 1 meant completely unacceptable and 4 meant completely acceptable. The BH predicts that the participants make fewer errors with verb movement than with subject-verb agreement and past tense marking and Westergaard (2003) predicts that movement across adverbs is more challenging than movement across subjects.

A total of 25 native Norwegian speakers in two age groups participated in the study: 4th graders (N = 15) and 8th graders (N = 15). All participants had Norwegian as their only L1. Their proficiency was measured based on a standard Oxford proficiency test.

The results showed that subject-verb agreement was more problematic than verb movement, as predicted by the BH. They also demonstrated that identifying ungrammatical verb movement across adverbs was more problematic than movement across subjects, as predicted by Westergaard (2003), and past tense marking. The fact that past tense morphology is less difficult than movement across adverbs is problematic for the BH, as syntactic operations should be less difficult than functional morphology. This suggests that L1 transfer plays a role in determining what is difficult in L2 acquisition.

Examples:

1. A. I går åpnet jenta en presang fra faren sin.
   B. Yesterday the girl opened a present from her dad.
2. A. Jenta spilte alltid fotball med broren sin.
   B. The girl always played soccer with her brother.
3. A. Lisa/Lisa og Per liker/liker å lese bøker om hester.
   B. Lisa/Lisa and Peter likes/like to read books about horses.
   B. The girl played piano with her friend last week.

References:


Animacy and genitive variation in Swedish – s-genitive vs. prepositional phrases

In the gradual development from Old Swedish towards more analytical contemporary Swedish the basic means of expressing possession, i.e. the genitive case, had been superseded by different possessive expressions. The two most commonly used possessive expressions in Swedish are the s-genitive and prepositional phrases. The construction with the s-genitive stems from one of the inflectional endings of the genitive case, i.e. the ending -s (Norde 1997). The analytical construction with a prepositional phrase (=PP) most likely developed around the same time as the genitive case began to falter and the whole inflection system started to collapse.

Even though the two expressions, i.e. the s-genitive and the possessive PP, may be used interchangeably in certain cases (e.g. Annas son ‘Anna's son’ vs. sonen till Anna ‘the son of Anna’), the choice between the synthetic and the analytical construction is not entirely contingent. As shown in the examples 1 and 2 the interchangeability is not always possible or it is at least dubious, especially when it comes to partitive genitives and inanimate possessors. In the example 2 the use of the s-genitive is grammatically correct, but it is definitely less frequent.

(1) SV taket på huset (2) SV ? husets tak
   roof-DEF on house-DEF roof
   EN ‘the roof of the house’ EN ? ‘the house’s roof’

The genitive variation in English has been researched by many scholars (e.g. Altenberg 1982; Jucker 1993, Rosenbach 2005), yet to my knowledge no similar research has been conducted on genitive variation in Swedish. As demonstrated by e.g. Rosenbach (2005; 2008) and Hinrichs & Szmrecsanyi (2007) there is a considerable number of constraints that affect the choice between the s-genitive and PPs in English. Among these constraints animacy of the possessor seems to be of a considerable importance, as well as the weight of the phrase and givenness (definiteness) of the possessor phrase.

The aim of this paper is to present a case study on the variation of two possessive expressions in contemporary Swedish, i.e. the s-genitive and the prepositional phrase, with the focus on the constraint of animacy. As demonstrated in Kreyer (2003) and Rosenbach (2008) animacy rather than in binary values (± animate) can be presented on a scale that denotes the degree of ‘personality’, i.e. a scale advancing from ‘human’ through ‘animal’ and ‘collective’ to ‘inanimate’ referents. The aim is to see how the animacy scale influences the choice of the possessive construction in Swedish. The hypothesis is that the Swedish s-genitive will strongly favour human and animate possessors. The semantic variable of animacy will also be shown in interaction with two other variables, i.e. the definiteness of the possessor and the principle of ‘end-weight’, according to which the longer or ‘heavier’ of the two phrases in the possessive construction will follow the shorter one.

The objective of the study is to see how the constraint of animacy interacts with the remaining two constraints, a multivariate analysis using a method of Logistic Regression will be conducted. The study will be based on the corpus of contemporary Swedish texts, such as novels (obtained via e.g. Project Runeberg), newspaper texts (e.g. Aftonbladet, Forskning och framsteg, Språkbruk) and blog texts. The different genres represent to some extent different registers of written Swedish, extending respectively from the literary register to colloquial use of language. The corpus consists of ca 60 000 words. The present case study constitutes a vital part of my PhD research project.

References


We Agreed to Disagree:

Subject-Verb (Dis)Agreement Patterns in L2 English of Norwegian learners

This paper presents results of a Ph.D. project with a focus on English interlanguage produced by young Norwegian learners. Agreement errors are quite common in this learner population despite the relatively high fluency and complexity of their texts (usually B1-B2 on the CEFR scale). Similar error analyses have been performed on both Norwegian and Swedish data produced by university students of English (Johansson, 2008; Thagg Fisher, 1985), but there is very little data available on younger learners. The data used in this paper consist of written texts of 185 Norwegian 15-16-year-olds, each followed for one school year. The texts are compiled into a corpus (430 000 words) which is screened for subject-verb agreement errors. Found instances of the erroneous agreement are further analyzed based on the type of subject (pronominal, full NP with/without post-head material, coordinated NPs, clause as subject) and the type of verb (BE or other) to uncover possible error patterns in the interlanguage.

Learners of English often have problems with marking of the third person singular in the present tense (Cook, 2008). Young children acquiring English as their first language also acquire the third person -s as one of the last inflectional morphemes (Radford, 1990). However, both these learner groups normally omit the morpheme in the contexts where it is required before they learn the correct use. Young Norwegian learners, on the other hand, over-produce the third person -s in all persons in both singular and plural. Out of the agreement errors detected in this learner corpus, about 45% are occasions of an erroneously used plural verb (omission error) while 55% are occasions of an erroneously used singular verb (overgeneralization error). Furthermore, this overgeneralization pattern seems to prevail even after ten years of English instruction, and there is no improvement recorded during the collection period of the current sample. Recurring patterns of non-standard syntax can have several explanations. They could be part of the general acquisition process, the result of a transfer from L1, or performance errors. These options are explored by comparing the data to other learner corpora (ICLE, Granger, Dagneaux, Meunier, & Paquot, 2009; and ICCI, Tono & Díez-Bedmar, 2014) and an acceptability judgment study on Norwegian learners (Jensen, Westergaard, & Slabakova, 2017).

References

Heine and Kuteva (2002) list several grammaticalisation paths which have as their starting point a lexical item whose meaning is similar to the English verb say. One of these is the development into a conditional marker which is a cross-linguistic tendency attested in languages such as Lahu, Tamang, Ga and Baka (Heine and Kuteva, s.v. SAY > (3) CONDITIONAL). It seems that a similar development can also be seen in English, with examples such as [1], [2] and [3].

[1] Say you're in bed at home or in a hotel and you hear a mosquito buzzing around, what are you going to do? (Corpus of Contemporary American English 2015)

[2] Say you're a jogger who wants to run at night, but you aren't sure you'll be safe. (Corpus of Contemporary American English 2015)

[3] Jeb felt it wasn't the way he'd go courting, himself, say he was interested in any one girl. (OED s.v. 'say, v.1 and int."

[3] is collected from OED (s.v. ‘say, v.1 and int.’), which describes a similar usage of say as “suppose or assume to be the case”. The dictionary explicitly classifies say here as a transitive verb which takes the following clause as object, and states that the clause expresses “a hypothetical case or an assumption”. I intend to argue, however, that say in this capacity no longer functions as a verb, but rather as a conditional subordinator. Declerck and Reed (2001) mention several similar subordinators in Present Day English (PDE) such as let's say, supposing and suppose, but do not include say in their list. Neither do any of the grammars of PDE I have consulted. Overall, no literature I'm aware of mentions say as a conditional subordinator, despite the fact that there are clear examples of this use in PDE, as [1] and [2] above illustrate. The aim of this study is to show that say has become grammaticalised into a conditional subordinator. I wish to trace the development of the phenomenon, as well as look into the distribution in PDE. To do this, I will make use of several corpora, namely Corpus of Middle English Prose and Verse; Penn-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Early Modern English; Corpus of Contemporary American English; and British National Corpus. I will be working within the framework of grammaticalisation theory, that is the functionalist approach, as in Hopper and Traugott (2003).

Considering that the first usage attested in OED is from 1596, my working hypothesis is that this development started in early Modern English (eModE). To confirm this, I intend look at data from the Middle English (ME) period to see whether there are any ambiguous cases to be found. Any such cases, either in ME or eModE, might show where reanalysis began, and as such could help explain what might have motivated an alternative interpretation. I also wish to find out whether the development of say is linked with or separate from the very similar let’s say.

References:


Corpus of Contemporary American English 2015 [https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/]

Over the last decade, Spanish has established itself as the most chosen foreign language in Norwegian secondary and upper-secondary schools (Øksenvåg, 2017). Furthermore, Spanish is one of the most studied foreign languages in Norwegian universities, second only to English (Øksenvåg, 2016). Such prominent position in the linguistic landscape of the country has made the acquisition of Spanish an important driving force towards multilingualism in Norway, a fact that has attracted the attention of researchers to the processes involved (e.g. Hoel Olsen, 2014). Our contribution looks at some of the conceptual challenges involved in the addition of Spanish to the repertoire of native speakers of Norwegian who have already acquired English as a second language. We are especially interested in how these three languages interact in the learner’s mind and in the crosslinguistic influence (CLI) effects of such interaction. More specifically, we want to explore the possible conceptual transfer (CT) phenomena (cfr. Jarvis, 2016) experienced by learners during their production of L3 Spanish. We present the first results of this empirical investigation which looks at learners’ production of narratives in L1 Norwegian, L2 English, and L3 Spanish, and at how it compares to the production of control groups of native speakers of English and Spanish. The evidence found points to some major cognitive challenges for the expression of target-language-like patterns of selection and linearization of conceptual content, such as, for example, the construal of motion events. Our results are in line of what has been documented in the performance of L2 Spanish by native speakers of other satellite-framed languages (cfr. Cadierno, 2004).

References


The art of the unsaid – exploring the use of hedging strategies in spoken conversation

Pragmatic competence is a prerequisite for successful communication. One aspect associated with pragmatic competence is that of hedging. Hedging can be explained as a rhetorical strategy that reduces the force or truth of the whole or parts of an utterance (Kaltenböck et al, 2010) and can in principle take on any linguistic form. Irrespective of its form, failing to use it appropriately, may lead to severe communicative problems and one can be perceived as impolite, blunt and rude.

The current study aims to provide more insight into this aspect of pragmatic competence by exploring hedging strategies of native speakers of Norwegian in spoken conversation. The overall hypothesis is that speakers prefer hedging strategies with the purpose of building or maintaining interpersonal relationships with their interlocutors. The study aims to answer these following research questions:

RQ1: Are hedging strategies attenuating the illocutionary force more frequent than other strategies in spoken conversations by native speakers of Norwegian?

RQ2: Are there any differences in the use of hedging strategies across conversation types, i.e. between strangers, acquaintances, friends and family?

The study is a part of a larger project looking at hedging strategies in a cross-cultural perspective.

Politeness is the chief motivation behind the use of hedging strategies in spoken language (Nikula, 1997). Hedging is seen as a negative politeness strategy, which helps reduce the threat to the hearer’s negative face (Brown and Levinson, 1978/89). Thus, by using hedging strategies to attenuate the force of the utterance, a speaker may avoid imposing on the hearer. In order to determine the type of hedging strategies that are used and for what purpose in the current study, the threefold classification system proposed by Caffi (1999) will be used.

The current study is timely as little research has been done on the way politeness is reflected in the Norwegian language (Fretheim, 2005). There is also a need for studies of hedging in light of recent developments in the field of linguistics, i.e. the growing interest in using corpora to study pragmatic phenomena (Romero-Trillo, 2014). Furthermore, there is a need for research on spoken language as there are still relatively few projects devoted to spoken corpus linguistics (Adolphs and Carter, 2013).

To investigate the abovementioned research questions, the function-to-form approach, a method associated with the emerging field of corpus pragmatics, will be applied (Aijmer and Rühlemann, 2015). This method involves searching for orbiting forms surrounding certain speech acts. Here, the face-threatening act of refusing will be used as a framing device, searching for the direct refusal strategy nei to see whether it co-occurs with hedging strategies. The conversation data will be extracted from two corpora, the Norwegian part of the Nordic Dialect Corpus and the Norwegian Speech Corpus.

Preliminary findings suggest that direct refusals collocate with various words and phrases commonly associated with hedging functions, e.g. pragmatic particles such as altså, vel and jo, and that speakers use such words to mitigate the illocution (Caffi, 1999). Thus, hedging on the illocutionary force of an utterance seems play an important role in spoken conversation.


NoTa-korpuset = Norsk talespråkskorpus – Oslodelen, Tekstlaboratoriet, ILN, Universitetet i Oslo: http://www.tekstlab.uio.no/nota/oslo/index.html

Jessica Pedersen Belisle Hansen:

**Non-verbal indication of trouble in video mediated, interpreted hospital meetings**

In this presentation, I will explore the use and uptake of non-verbal indications of trouble in video mediated interpreted hospital meetings. Meetings between Norwegian speaking medical staff and patients and next-of-kin who speak other languages than Norwegian, constitute multilingual hospital settings in which interpreting is provided through video technology. In two excerpts from two separate video interpreted hospital meetings, the interpreters, who are not present at the ward with the other participants but participate in the interaction through video technology, attempt to initiate repair non-verbally. Although the interpreters’ non-verbal signals could in both cases be quite noticeable, these non-verbal expressions of trouble go without receiving displays of uptake from the other participants. In both cases, the lack of uptake from the other participants affects the further progression in the interaction.

In an increasingly diverse population, interpreting is necessary to provide equal health services and to ensure communication in the meetings between medical professionals and patients and next-of-kin. Video technology is increasingly used to provide interpreting in Norway, seeing that Norway is a wide-spread country, and using technology can cut travelling time and expenses. It has furthermore been suggested that video technology should be used in 50% of all interpreting assignments in Norway by 2023 (NOU 2014:8, 2014). Video technology gives the parties, in this case the interpreter on the one side and the participants present in the ward, on the other, mutual visual access to each other and is thus considered to be a better means of providing interpreting than the telephone (NOU 2014:8, 2014).

Although video interpreting is in use in hospital settings, there are still few studies exploring the consequences that the asymmetric nature (Arminen, Licoppe & Spagnolli, 2016) of video communication has on the interpreted interaction. The participants, seeing that they have visual access to each other, assume that their standpoints are interchangeable and that the other participants perceive them and their surroundings as they themselves perceive this (Arminen et al., 2016).

This presentation builds on the methodological and theoretical framework of Conversation Analysis. While Seo and Koshik (2010) have shown how gesture unaccompanied by verbal initiations can be used to initiate repair, my preliminary findings show that although the interpreter produces non-verbal yet prominent indications of trouble hearing what has been said, their non-verbal signals receive no uptake from the other participants. This indicates that the interpreters although not co-present with the other participants, assume that non-verbal indication of trouble or attempts to initiate repair are efficient as if they were co-present. While the non-verbal indications of trouble receive no uptake from the participants, the lack of uptake does have consequences for the further interaction. This calls upon further discussions as to **how** the interactants use the visual access to and digital representations of each-other when organizing interpreted interaction through video technology.


Philology as a method of tracking cultural exchange

In this presentation I want to focus on a broader philological analysis of the MS De La Gardieske Samling Nr. 4-7 (Uppsala Univ. Libr.), which contains exclusively translated literature. Two texts have my special attention at this point: Pamphilus Saga (Latin: Pamphilus, de Amore) and Elis saga ok Rósamundu (Old French: Elye de Saint-Gilles). Pamphilus Saga (PS) was translated in or around Bergen in the second half of the 13th c., from a Latin text very popular throughout most of Europe from the 11th through 13th c. The Old Norse text is in prose, whereas the Latin is in a metric form. Research on PS is scarce and by no means exhaustive, in parts even inconclusive. A full study of the provenance of PS has never been done, but I have been able to identify several points in the text that can be used as markers when comparing the Old Norse to different versions of the Latin text. Based on how the translator worked, features of morphological and syntactical structure, as well as peculiarities of the Latin meter, I was already able to dismiss two of the most widely used Latin editions as potential originals for the translation into Old Norse. I will show these and how I intend to identify the MS that comes closest to a supposed original for the translation.

Elis saga ok Rósamundu is translated from Old French and is considered as a possible inspiration for the genre of the Riddarasögur. The French original belongs to the genre of the chansons de geste, which is somewhat similar to the Germanic Chivalric Literature (cf. the German Minnelieder-tradition). The influence of Old French literature on Old Norse literature has been studied extensively but not exhaustively. The French impact is also not what I find most striking with this pairing. Rather the influence that may have been transmitted through the chansons de geste from even further away. There is strong evidence for considerable Arabic influence on the chansons de geste and what I want to find out is if any of that made its way into the Old Norse domain.

I will give a short outline of how all this places the MS DG4-7 in a broader European and even trans-European context, show the problematic aspects of categories like 'European' when dealing with Medieval MSs and demonstrate how philological methods can be used to track and visualize cultural transmission across time and space as well as challenge common (mis-)conceptions of culture.

Literature (excerpt):


Metacognitive awareness, or an awareness of what one is doing during reading, is an important factor in successful reading, and especially important when reading in a second language where unfamiliar vocabulary and phrases can present additional challenges to understanding (Block, 1992).

Researchers and educators have expressed concern that students who study in a second language might be at a disadvantage compared to native speakers. Given that many non-native English speaking students around the world read English language texts at university, it is important to understand how these students cope with the amount of reading required of them in a second language and how much they understand of what they are reading. Research has found that L2 reading is associated with higher levels of metacognitive awareness than L1 reading, and this awareness has been interpreted as a method of coping with the additional challenges of L2 reading (e.g. Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001).

This paper reports results from a study that investigated Norwegian university students’ levels of metacognitive awareness when reading academic texts in Norwegian (L1) and English (L2). Norwegians have some of the highest levels of English language proficiency in Europe (Bonnet, 2004) and are expected to read and understand academic English texts at university without assistance. Responses to a questionnaire including a 30-item survey of reading strategies (as a measure of metacognitive awareness) and self-ratings of reading proficiency in both languages were collected from 316 students at a Norwegian university. Results indicate that, despite rating their reading proficiency as significantly higher in L1 than L2, participants did not report using reading strategies in L2 at a significantly higher rate overall. The main differences in strategy use in L1 and L2 reading were reported to be reading more slowly ($p < 0.05$) and using resources such as dictionaries ($p < 0.01$).

Compared with previous research on other student populations around the world (e.g. Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001), the Norwegian students in this study reported remarkably low levels of metacognitive awareness for L2 reading, possibly indicating that they do not approach reading in English as L2 reading or feel that they should not need to use additional strategies to cope. Despite this, the students in this survey did not, on the whole, regard reading in English and Norwegian to be equally easy. Questions about reading experiences indicated that students felt they read more slowly and understood less when reading in English than in Norwegian. The high reported use of slow and careful reading as a strategy for coping with L2 reading could go some way to explaining results of previous research showing a much slower reading rate for Norwegian students reading in English (Busby, 2015; Hellekjær, 2005).

Regression models confirmed a positive link between reading strategy use and self-ratings of proficiency for both languages, although the association was particularly strong for L2 reading, indicating that reading strategies play an important role in reading proficiency. The role of experience (years of university study completed) and correlation with academic achievement and self-reported reading speed and ability will also be discussed in relation to the reported reading strategy use.

References


What are heiti and how do they work?

Nature and functions of skaldic poetic synonyms

Skaldic poetry of the Viking Age is a fascinating and complex genre: for the uniqueness of its diction it has been considered one of the first examples of elite poetry in medieval European literatures, one which enjoys a liminal and controversial status between the domains of orality and literacy, subject both to strict traditional canons and to the modern concept of original creation. Skaldic diction is most generally known because of the enigmatic circumlocutions called kenningar (sing. kenning), that enrich skaldic stanzas with evocative chains of images.

A somehow more neglected element of skalds’ repertoire is the so-called poetic synonym (old norse heiti), that constitutes the actual fundamental unit for kenning formation. Indeed, despite the relatively limited number of kenning types, synonymic substitution enables poets to obtain an almost inexhaustible source of word variation (Variationsmöglichkeit) to such an extent that - differently than in the case of formulaic poetry - a kenning is hardly to be found, in the exact same wording, more than once within the skaldic corpus.

Besides this important functional role, heiti are interesting linguistic items with regards to their lexical nature. Almost every kind of word can be used by poets as a heiti: archaisms almost run out of use in prose and in everyday language, neologisms created ad hoc, names of mythological creatures, speaking names, epithets, and nicknames describing their bearer, technical terms belonging to specific jargons, etc. This extremely heterogeneous material interacts in fascinating ways with the semantics of the kenning in which it is employed and, more generally, with the meaning of the whole stanza.

While it has often been maintained that the choice of heiti was merely dependent on the formal context of the verse, with little regard to their lexical meaning, and while there are indications that this is true in some contexts, equally strong evidence from case studies seems to support the idea that the selection of a specific heiti might be crucial for the shaping of the whole stanza, in, for instance, ofljóst formation. Skalds’ usage of words is often subtle: puns, semantic ambiguity, etymological exploitation of a word’s meaning are recurring phenomena in skaldic verses, suggesting that a great deal of attention was paid to the choice of kenning constituents. This claim will be illustrated through a linguistic and semantic analysis of a number of skaldic stanzas.


id. (2014a), ‘Mythological Names in dróttkvætt Formulae I: When is a Valkyrie like a spear?’, Studia Metrica et Poetica 1.1, 100–139.

Abstract: Left Dislocation in L2 English

This presentation will be based on my master's thesis, where I investigated potential L1-effects at the syntax-discourse interface in L2 English, specifically L1-transfer of information status properties of Left Dislocation (LD). According to the Interface Hypothesis (IH) (Sorace, 2003), L2-learners are prone to L1-influence at interfaces between different linguistic domains, even at advanced stages. LD is a syntactic construction that requires the coordination of syntactic and pragmatic knowledge, thereby representing an interface at which L2-learners may be vulnerable to influence from their L1.

The study involved three groups of participants, namely a group of L2 speakers of English whose L1 was French, and one whose L1 was Norwegian, as well as a control group of native speakers of English. A total of 96 participants were included in the study, each group consisting of a minimum of 25 participants. The French and Norwegian participants were university level students of English, while the control group of native speakers of English mainly consisted of Americans and Australians in their mid-twenties and thirties.

English, French, and Norwegian differ with respect to the information status of discourse referents that LD can encode (Donaldson, 2011; Faarlund, 1997; Prince, 1997, 1981). While English and Norwegian LD predominantly encode new information, evoked information occurs very frequently in French LD. It was therefore anticipated that native speakers of French would exhibit a preference for evoked referents in LD in their L2 English, while native speakers of Norwegian would show preferences similar to those of the L1 speakers of English regarding the information status of referents encoded in LD. Furthermore, as LD is an extremely frequent phenomenon in French compared to English, it was expected that L1 speakers of French would show an overall higher acceptance of LD in their L2 English compared to L1 speakers of English.

Participation entailed acceptability judgment of a total of 24 target sentences containing LD in English, where the degree of newness of the referent in the LD had been systematically manipulated (Prince, 1981). In addition to the target sentences, there were 56 distractor sentences, and all sentences were presented in semi-randomized order.

The results showed that there was no significant difference between the groups regarding overall acceptance of LD; thus, overall frequency in the L1 does not seem to influence acceptability ratings in the L2. However, a significant difference within each group regarding the acceptance of different referent types in the LD was found. In the French group, there was a preference for evoked referents over new referents in LD, while the control group and the Norwegian group displayed the opposite pattern of preference. This suggests that L1-effects exist at this particular aspect of the syntax-discourse interface in speakers at relatively advanced levels of proficiency. Thus, the results obtained are compatible with the predictions of the IH.

Selected References


Abstract for NoSLiP 2018

Keywords: lexical typology; phrasal lexemes; compounding; word-formation

Steve Pepper:

Towards a typology of nominal lexical systems:
Noun-noun compounds and their functional equivalents

As Kibrik (2012) points out, lexical typology has so far mostly confined itself to local domains (e.g. colour terms) and needs now to begin posing more general questions. Kibrik himself proposes “an integral typology of verbal lexical systems”. In a similar vein, the present paper proposes an integral typology of nominal lexical systems and offers, as a first step, a typological perspective on the formal and semantic diversity of binominal lexemes. These can be informally characterized as noun-noun compounds and their functional equivalents.

The concept of binominal lexemes corresponds closely to Rainer’s (2013) notion of relational adjectives and their competitors, the core competence of which he identified as being “the expression of complex concepts consisting of two nominal concepts that are linked by some relational concept”; the competitors in question include genitives, noun-noun compounds, prepositional phrases and attributivizers – along with “other more dedicated derivational patterns”. It also corresponds precisely to Štekauer’s (1998) onomasiological type 3, and more roughly to Bauer & Tarasova’s (2013) concept of adnominal nominal modification and Levi’s (1978) notion of complex nominals.

This paper presents a typological perspective on binominal lexical constructions based on an empirical study. The data set consists of lexical items that represent 100 meanings (selected on a principled basis) from 100 languages belonging to over 80 genera, collected via online databases, dictionaries and questionnaires. Concepts cover a range of semantic domains, including body parts (e.g. NOSTRIL), natural phenomena (e.g. RAINBOW) and man-made artefacts (e.g. RAILWAY). The lexical items that represent these concepts exhibit a wide formal variety, as demonstrated by the following examples, all of which combine the concepts IRON and WAY (or more broadly, THING) to denote the meaning RAILWAY:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>compound</td>
<td>DEU Eisen.bahn</td>
<td>[iron.way]</td>
<td>genitive</td>
<td>KAP kil.o.s hino</td>
<td>[iron.OBL.GEN way]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prepositional</td>
<td>FRA chemin de fer</td>
<td>[way PREP iron]</td>
<td>pertensive</td>
<td>PLT lala.m.by</td>
<td>[road.PER iron]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relational</td>
<td>RUS želez.naja doroga</td>
<td>[iron.ADJZ road]</td>
<td>construct</td>
<td>HEB mesilha.t barzel</td>
<td>[track.CON iron]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>izafet</td>
<td>TUR demir yol.u</td>
<td>[iron road.3SG:POSS]</td>
<td>derivation</td>
<td>SLK želez.n.ica</td>
<td>[iron.ADJ.NMLZ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The presentation describes the formal and the semantic diversity revealed by the study. Two typologies are presented – the one formal (cf. Koptjevskaja-Tamm’s 2002 taxonomy of possessive noun phrases), the other semantic (using a set of semantic relations developed by Bourque 2014) – and the challenges posed by the non-discrete nature of such classifications are considered. The talk will also present a semantic map (Haspelmath 2003), created by plotting the formal and semantic types in a two-dimensional “motivational grid” (Koch 2001), that inter alia provides empirical evidence of how certain semantic relations (e.g. SOURCE, COMPOSITION and CAUSE) “bleed” into one another.

References


Hanna Solberg Andresen:

**With bilingual eyes. The conceptualization of motion events in bilingual children**

**Background:**
In this paper I will present my work on conceptualization of motion events in bilingual children. Research on event construal of motion events show that the way speakers of typologically different languages select and organize the information is rooted in language-specific patterns of grammaticization (von Stutterheim and Nüse 2003). A fascinating example is the finding that speakers of non-aspect languages tend to encode event endpoints in a goal-oriented motion events to a larger degree than do speakers of aspect languages. Seeing the same short video-clip, speakers of English L1, for example, tend to focus more on the ongoingness of an event: "Two women are walking down the road", whereas German L1 speakers tend to have a more holistic perspective of the event: "Zwei Frauen laufen auf einem Feldweg Richtung eines Hauses" (See fex. Schmiedtová 2011, Stutterheim and Nüse 2003).

**Puzzle:**
But what happens when children grow up learning two languages with different perspective, or conceptualization, of the same event? Will they acquire two different conceptual systems, one for each language (as is the case for fex. morpho-syntax (see f.ex. De Houwer 2009)), or will they build their own, bilingual preference?

**Method and research questions:**
While earlier research has focused on adults, my PhD-project (in progress) bring in data from Norwegian-English bilingual children, aged 7-10 years. A set of 60 video-clips is used to elicit verbal data, eye-tracking data and a memory data. The participants consist of three groups: English-Norwegian bilingual children (n=25), monolingual Norwegian (n=25)/ monolingual English (n=25) children (control groups), to shed light on these questions: Will bilingual children with different aspectual systems in their respective languages choose a different perspective when describing goal-oriented motion events in the two languages? To what degree do they mention the potential endpoints in the two languages (verbal data)? And to what extent do they allocate visual attention to the endpoint vs. the ongoing event (measured with eye-tracking)?

**Discussion:**
In my work I show how the bilingual children use their respective languages, and discuss whether they actually separate the two language systems or rather build their own preference as compared to monolingual children. At the same time I present new insights in how the children's event construal differs from the adult reference group's constructions and thereby yield insights in the complexity of the construction. While leaning on Slobin’s thinking-for-speaking-hypothesis (1996), I will show how my findings also contribute to bridge the gap at the intersection of the old language–thought-debate and research on bilingualism and transfer.

**References:**


This paper is a study of the vowel systems of four Korean speakers from Seoul and four from Pyongyang. It concludes that they all differ from traditional descriptions, but in different ways.

Background: The vowel system of Korean is usually represented as a quadrangular system with three degrees of sonority or opening/aperture and three to four degrees of timbre or backness (e.g. Lee and Ramsey 2011: 262-265), illustrated in (1) with (theoretical) rounded front vowels in brackets.

(1) Front | Back
---|---
Unrounded | Unrounded | Rounded
Close | /i/ | /u/ |
Mid | /e/ | /ø/ |
Open | /ə/ | /a/ |

This system, however, is found in neither Seoul nor Pyongyang today. In fact, investigating the pronunciation of four speakers in each city leads to the discovery of interesting contrasts that do not seem to have been mentioned in the literature on Korean before. While most sources mention the merger of /e/ and /ɪ/ (e.g. Lee and Ramsey 2011: 195), the questionable inclusion of /y/ and /ø/ (e.g. Sohn 2001: 53), and even the tendency for /o/ to turn into /u/ in some words in Seoul (e.g. Sohn 2001: 69-70), none of them mention the unusual systems found in the two Korean capital cities.

Working Hypotheses: Conversations with Seoulites reveal that many of them think /o/ and /u/ may have merged in the north. However, interviews with guides in Pyongyang suggest that both /o/, /u/ and /e/, /ɪ/ are still distinguished there. In addition, an informal test study indicated that /o/ and /u/ were pronounced with the same sonority in Seoul. These observations lead to the following working hypotheses: 1) Pyongyang speakers distinguish /e/ and /ɪ/, 2) Pyongyang speakers do not distinguish /o/ and /u/, and 3) Seoul speakers distinguish /o/ and /u/ by timbre rather than sonority.

Methodology: Recordings of four speakers from each city were run through the phonetic analysis program Praat. Thirty instances of each vowel phoneme were analyzed and their first three formant values recorded in a spreadsheet. The F1 and F2 values were then plotted onto a chart oriented in the same way as the common vowel quadrilateral. This made it easy to look for unexpected results, such as the occasional F2 being interpreted as F3 by Praat, as well as not only how large an area each vowel is allowed to cover, but also how they relate to each other in sonority and timbre.

Findings: All eight informants lack /y/ and /ø/ and distinguish /o/ and /u/, but while they differ in Seoul, they only differ in timbre in Pyongyang. The Seoulites are very similar to each other, and they all distinguish /o/ and /u/ by timbre rather than sonority. The Pyongyang data is more diverse. Three informants tend to have /u/ as sonorous as /i/, and two tend to distinguish /e/ and /ɪ/. The other informants are similar, but /u/ is more open, maybe due to frequent reduction. In addition, two of them have /e/ and /ɪ/ as possibly distinct phonemes. However, this /ɪ/ is located where we would expect /e/ to be, and /ɪ/ is between the close and mid vowels. The oldest informant does not distinguish /e/ and /ɪ/, as illustrated in (4). The surprising system with /e/ between the close and mid vowels is shown in (5).

(2) Front | Back
---|---
Unrounded | Unrounded | Rounded
Close | /i/ | /u/ |
Mid | /e/ | /ɪ/ |
Open | /ə/ | /a/ |

The other informants are similar, but /u/ is more open, maybe due to frequent reduction. In addition, two of them have /e/ and /ɪ/ as possibly distinct phonemes. However, this /ɪ/ is located where we would expect /e/ to be, and /ɪ/ is between the close and mid vowels. The oldest informant does not distinguish /e/ and /ɪ/, as illustrated in (4). The surprising system with /e/ between the close and mid vowels is shown in (5).

(4) Front | Back
---|---
Unrounded | Unrounded | Rounded
Close | /i/ | /u/ |
Mid | /e/ | /ɪ/ |
Open | /ə/ | /a/ |

Conclusion: This study set out to document how the traditional Korean vowel system has changed in Seoul and Pyongyang. It found that /e/ and /ɪ/ have merged in speakers from both cities, though some Pyongyangers also seem to distinguish them—perhaps on purpose. In Seoul, /o/ has been raised to the same height as /u/, while in Pyongyang, there seems to be a tendency to lower /u/ to the same height as /i/. This leads to the typologically rare distinction of three back vowels by F2 alone.

Selected References:
A genre approach to teaching literacy in classes with many second language learners

Many pupils who are still in the progress of learning Norwegian as a second language, struggle to develop disciplinary literacy, i.e. the ability to read and write academic texts in different subjects. It is therefore vital that teachers in all subjects have the tools and knowledge to teach literacy in a way that benefits all pupils. The purpose of my project is to study how teachers in elementary school apply a genre approach to writing instruction to meet the needs of diverse pupils, especially second language learners.

A genre approach to literacy is based on sociocultural theory, systemic functional grammar and a theory of school genres. In providing explicit knowledge about the social functions, structures and stylistic properties of text types commonly used in school, it has the potential to address linguistically based social and economic inequality. Typical features of a genre approach to literacy are scaffolding and talk about texts, using a systematic approach known as “the Teaching Learning Cycle”.

I am doing a qualitative, explorative case study based on ethnographically inspired fieldwork. The observed classes (year 2, 4 and 6) are diverse in the sense that the pupils have different linguistic and social backgrounds, with a majority of second language learners and pupils with a low SES background. I investigate how teachers use modelling and co-construction as a preparation to support individual writing. My main focus is on what the teacher does: the tasks she gives, how she manages talk about texts, how she applies metalanguage and how she differentiates the scaffolding of different pupils.

One preliminary finding is that a genre approach to literacy encourages the development and use of metalanguage for talking about the linguistic properties, structure and functions of texts, which constitutes a useful tool in literacy education. Another preliminary finding is that a genre approach to writing instruction makes differentiation possible in large heterogeneous classes. A third preliminary finding is that it enables adapted language education for pupils from language minorities to take place within the setting of the mainstream classroom.

References


Introduction: This paper explores morphologically marked finiteness (FIN) and verb-second word order (V2), in North American Heritage Norwegian (HN), and a possible link between them. A theory put forth by Eide (2009), claims that in English the loss of the productive FIN-marking on main verbs of the weak inflection, has led to a categorical loss of morphological FIN, causing a subsequent loss of V2 in main clause declaratives. These developments separate English from other Germanic languages, e.g. Norwegian. In my work, I study morphological finiteness marking on verbs, and verb placement in main clause declaratives in the speech of speakers of HN, whose dominant language is English. In the present material, the link between FIN-morphology and V2 is not apparent, and both categories seem close to the relevant baselines.

Data: The survey is based on experimental data from 10 participants, who each produce approx. 15 main clause declaratives with topicalization. The participants show some variability with regards to production of V2. Three participants produce no non-baseline word order. A second more tenuous grouping of five participants, produce a majority of target-like syntax, but have non-V2 in 7%–33% of their sentences. The last two participants show idiosyncratic tendencies: One, Fargo_ND_01gm, produces non-target word order in 10 out of 15 instances (67%). The other, Coon_valley_WI_12gm has an unusually high amount of rephrased sentences. Only 6 out of the target 17 are relevant for the study. Only 2 of these 6 clauses (33%), however, are non-V2.

With regards to FIN-morphology, no participant shows a clearly non-baseline system. Firstly, there are no instances of unambiguously inconsistent or non-target-like use of the morphological forms, i.e. there is no use of an unambiguous infinitive for the present, perfect participle for the preterite or vice versa. Secondly, the observed verbal paradigms are almost formally identical to what is found in the baseline Norwegian dialects. One possible exception is the previously mentioned Coon_valley_WI_12gm.

Discussion: The results do not show a clear correlation between (absence of) FIN-morphology and (absence of) V2 in these experimental data. E.g., two speakers with no V2 violations, Sunburg_MN_03gm and Sunburg_MN_12gk, show different morphological FIN-systems: Sunburg_MN_03gm has a system with the FIN-distinction even in the least formally differentiated class (the a-class), whereas sunburg_MN_12gk has a system without the finiteness distinction in this same class. Indeed, there are Norwegian baseline dialects, notably from the Southern Gudbrandsdal area, which lack the morphological FIN-distinction in the a-class (Eide & Hjelde 2015: 78–79), where the status of V2 has never come into question. Sunburg_MN_12gk has some ancestral ties to the Gudbrandsdal area. Fargo_ND_01gm (with 67% non-V2), does not seem to have a morphological system markedly different from that of sunburg_MN_03gm, who has target-like V2. Coon_valley_WI_12gm produces a majority of V2 clauses, but has a low number of items.

I have not found other linguistic factors correlating with non-V2. Eide & Hjelde (2015), studying V2 in HN, report a higher degree of V2 violations when the topic is more syntactically complex. Fargo_ND_01gm, the participant with the most non-V2, does not show any such tendency. Furthermore, there is no apparent correlation between the type of topic (e.g. adverbial/object etc.) or the type of subject (e.g. pronominal/nominal) and the non-V2 syntax.

Conclusion: The finiteness and/or tense morphology appears to follow the baseline for most of the participants, possibly excepting Coon_valley_WI_12gm. This is in keeping with a reported tendency for tense morphology to be stable in heritage grammars, even though morphology can be vulnerable to change (Benmamoun et al. 2013: 141–144). Furthermore, my study shows that V2 (i.e. V-to-C movement) in main clause declaratives is relatively stable despite the fact that syntax pertaining to the CP layer is reportedly susceptible to change in heritage grammars (see e.g. Benmamoun et al. 2013: 148–149). My results are in line with Håkansson (1995), who shows that V2 is at baseline level in data from five heritage speakers of Swedish.

Abstract

The status of foreign language teaching in Norway - too little input and even less output?

The current paper will focus on how the target language (TL), Spanish, is used in L3 acquisition in Norwegian schools. This question will be discussed in light of relevant theories of the role of linguistic input and output in L2 and L3 acquisition, and theories of implicit and explicit learning. This paper is based on one of the research questions in my PhD-project, which is called “The status of language teaching in Norway” and addresses how the subjects Norwegian (L1), English (L2) and Spanish (L3) are taught in lower secondary school and upper secondary school. More specifically, the project focuses on grammar instruction, teaching methods and the use of the TL. 41 teachers have been interviewed about the role they ascribe to grammar instruction, and whether the methods they use in the classroom are primarily based on inductive or deductive approaches. The teachers have subsequently been observed in language teaching situations, and teaching plans and -material have been collected.

Selected references


What is a transparent gender system: A view from Icelandic

In research on the first language acquisition of grammatical gender, a distinction has been made between transparent and opaque gender systems. Transparency in this context refers to how predictive nominal endings are of gender assignment. Transparency of the target gender system has been claimed to be the main predictor of children’s learning process. First, children acquiring transparent gender systems have been shown to acquire grammatical gender earlier than children acquiring opaque gender systems. Second, children acquiring transparent gender systems go through a stage of overgeneralization on the basis of nominal endings – whereas children acquiring opaque systems do not (see e.g. Levy 1983, Miller 1986).

This paper asks the question of what makes a gender system transparent to the child learner using Icelandic as a case study. Icelandic has retained a 3-gender system from Old Norse that distinguishes between the Masculine, Feminine and the Neuter and is realized on nouns in both the singular and the plural. The Mainland Scandinavian languages, apart from rural dialects of Norwegian, have developed a 2-gender system that distinguishes between Common gender and Neuter and is realized on nouns in the singular only. Grammatical gender in Icelandic has been diachronically stable, whereas it has undergone systematic changes in the Mainland Scandinavian languages. The present proposal suggests that diachronic stability be taken as indicative of rule productivity. In the context of grammatical gender in the Scandinavian languages, rule productivity is taken to reflect how predictive nominal endings are of gender assignment. Icelandic is interesting in this regard, as it has retained a 3-gender system in spite of considerable syncretism between the gender classes. This raises the question of how much syncretism can a gender system tolerate to be considered. The present paper seeks to answer that question by quantifying the conditions under which a productive rule of gender assignment can be formed using the Tolerance Principle (Yang 2005, 2016):

\( \text{Tolerance Principle: A rule } R \text{ is productive iff } e \leq 6N = N/\ln(N) \) (Yang 2016)

The Tolerance principle (TP) quantifies the precise number of exceptions that a productive rule can tolerate before it becomes computationally less efficient than storing all of the lexical items individually. The TP was applied to a corpus of Icelandic child-directed speech (McWhinney 2000) to ask the question of whether it was in principle possible for the learner to form productive mappings between nominal endings and gender in Icelandic. The main results are that nominal endings in Icelandic were shown to be productive of gender assignment. However, nominal endings were only shown to be productive predictors of gender assignment if they were morphological markers. Thus, how the learner interprets the relation of the final sound to the stem would be predicted to be instrumental in forming productive mappings for gender assignment. These results have interesting implications for further research on the acquisition of grammatical gender and diachronic development of gender systems.

References


Alphabetic inscriptions in Scandinavia can provide us with an invaluable source on the long lasting effects of cultural exchange. This is highly relevant in our increasingly globalised world in which cultural contact is omnipresent. While runic inscriptions have received much attention in both linguistic and historical research, alphabetical inscriptions, however, have been largely forgotten.

The aim of this study is therefore to bring the epigraphic alphabetic writing tradition into focus and localise it within the larger Scandinavian spectrum, especially concerning its relation to runic inscriptions and manuscript writing. This is done with the help of Koch and Oesterreicher’s theoretical work on *schriftlichkeit* which challenges the dichotomy of orality and literacy by separating conceptual from material aspects. A text may be written but can contain elements associated with spoken language to a varying degree, and vice versa. (Koch & Oesterreicher 1985) Previous runological studies have shown that these distinctions can provide a more accurate understanding of evolution and adaptation in historical writing traditions (eg. Bianchi 2010, Bollaert 2016).

The study focusses on determining which aspects of the alphabetic inscriptions lean more towards our modern understanding of written language and which elements display a higher degree of orality. Comparing these results with runic inscriptions and manuscript examples can allow us to localise the alphabetic inscriptions within the wider spectrum of writing traditions in Scandinavia. Expected results are that alphabetic epigraphy largely reflects runic carving due to epigraphic constraints, but that instances of more distantal, prototypically written language use occur due to familiarity with alphabetic writing in other contexts such as prose literature or legal texts.


The demographic changes in Europe in the last three decades have led to an increase in the number of bilingual children (Armon-Lotem & de Jong, 2015). As these children have a different cultural background and a different first language (L1) they are often perceived as more challenging to assess. This is possibly due to the uncertainty that arises in terms of which learning prerequisites these children have within the educational system and how the available assessment tools and intervention can be appropriately adapted.

Various research have revealed overlapping profiles between the linguistic manifestations of second language (L2) acquisition and Specific Language Impairment (SLI). The need for appropriate assessment tools for identifying SLI in bilingual children is substantial, and Sentence Repetition (SRep) task have proven to be a good psycholinguistic marker of SLI (Armon-Lotem, de Jong, & Meir, 2015).

Language Impairment Testing in a Multilingual Setting (LITMUS) is a test battery consisting of various tasks that are comparable in various languages (Marinis & Armon-Lotem, 2015). We have developed a Norwegian SRep task with the intention of contributing to this test battery. We would like to present how this task was developed, emphasizing the role of increasing complexity of the sentences within the task. We would also like to present the piloting of the task on 62 participants from 1st and 2nd grade with Norwegian as their L1.

The results showed good internal consistency and strong inter-rater reliability. There was a significant difference between the age groups, where the children in 2nd grade had higher performance than the children in 1st grade. This indicates that the task can differentiate between developmental stages further implying that the task can identify SLI as well. In order to investigate the role of memory a digit span (DS) test was conducted. When comparing performance on the SRep task and DS test there was a correlation between the two, indicating that memory plays a role.

Plans for further investigations of error types, as well as the gathering of pilotdata on bilingual children and children with SLI will be discussed.

**Keywords:** SLI, bilingualism, sentence repetition, LITMUS, language acquisition

**References**


Rethinking the verbal phrase in deverbal nominalisations: corpus evidence vs. intuitive examples.

Deverbal or (alternatively, but somewhat inaccurately, referred to as) process nominalisations have been argued to contain a verbal phrase (VP) that acts as the basis for their syntactic derivation. Presented as evidence for such VP were postnominal adverbial modification and the anaphor do so, collectively discussed in Fu, Roeper, & Borer (2001). Fu et al. argue, among other things, that the VP in deverbal nominalisations is attested by the 'fact' that process nominalisations, e.g. explanation, can be (postnominally) modified by an adverbial, whereas underven nanals, such as trip, cannot. However, I will show that this as well as the other conclusions in Fu et al., which have been (tacitly) generalised and maintained in the literature since then, are inconsistent, on account of being based, I believe, on intuitive examples. I will argue that as such the arguments in Fu et al. do not provide a reliable account of the so far assumed linguistic nature of deverbal nominalisations and underven nanals. I will do so by providing corpus data from English, and, importantly, from Eastern Armenian, which will figure as a somewhat control language in my explanations. I will also subsequently offer, within the current syntactic frameworks, a new account of the derivation of deverbal nominalisations that will capture the new data I will present. My discussion, however, will not be the first to unveil the problems in Fu et al.; some substantial criticism has already been made by Ward and Kehler (2005). However, while Ward & Kehler predominantly favour a no-VP presence in deverbal nominalisations, my discussion - in the face of new empirical data - will not do so directly. Yet, one instance of convergence will be noted between my and Ward and Kehler's explanations.

The findings to be presented will have important theoretical implications for general linguistic theory.

Keywords: Deverbal nominalisation, adverbial modification, verbal phrase, syntax, corpora, Eastern Armenian, English.

Works cited


EVIDENCE FOR K-STATES/D-STATES DIVISION IN TURKISH

The aim of this paper is to examine whether Turkish data supports the division as Kimian states (K-states henceforth) and Davidsonian states (D-states henceforth) for stative verbs, as proposed in Maienborn (2003&2005&2008). I show that all the diagnostics in Maienborn (2003&2005&2008) do not work in Turkish as in German. Following from this, I suggest two new diagnostic tools which validate that Turkish maintains the proposed division: (i) a converbial suffix which forms an adverbial clause –(y)A…(y)A and (ii) a post-verb –(y)Adur, both of which convey similar aspectual information; i.e. durativity.

Data were collected through an experiment designed to test the native speakers’ judgment on the use of stative verbs with these morphological units. The results revealed that Turkish exhibits K-states/D-states division such that K-states are incompatible with both –(y)A…(y)A and –(y)Adur, as in (1) and (2), whereas D-states are compatible with these units, as in (3) and (4).

(1) *Pazar çantası on iki kilo gel-e gel-e yerden kalk-ma-di.
Carrier bag ten two kilo come-CONV come-CONV ground-ABL lift off-NEG-PAST
"*Weighing twelve kilos continually/repeatedly, the carrier bag could not be carried."
(lit. "*Weighing twelve kilos continually/repeatedly, the carrier bag did not lift off.)
Film two hour last-CONV-DESCV-IMPER.3P, we too go-CONV buy-REL-1PLPOSS-ACC handle-OPT.1P
"*Let the film last two hours and let's go and handle the things that we will buy.'

(3) Adam köşe-de bekle-ye bekle-ye yoruldu.
Man corner-LOC wait-CONV wait-CONV get tired-PAST.3P
"Waiting on the corner continually, the man got tired.'
Umbrella-1SGPOSS-ACC office-LOC forget-EVID.1P. You here wait-CONV-DESCV-IMPER-2P, I get-CONV come-OPT.1P immediately
‘Apparently, I have left my umbrella in the office. Keep waiting here, and I go and get it at once.’

The (un)grammaticality pattern which stative verbs exhibit implies that both –(y)A…(y)A and –(y)Adur show sensitivity to dynamicity feature of the verbs as well as durativity. Therefore, the dynamic-like nature of D-states allows for the occurrence of these units with D-states, whereas K-states do not.

Selected References


Particle verbs are a challenge to traditional theories of grammar because they have both morphological and syntactical properties (Müller, 2002). Among other phenomena, e.g. phrasal compounds and light verb constructions, they are either categorized as words that behave like phrases in some aspects (Stiebels & Wunderlich, 1992) or as phrases that hold some word-like properties (Lüdeling, 2001).

There are many reasons to classify particle verbs as syntactical objects. The main argument for that is their separability. Particle and verb are spread apart in V2-sentences and in case of past participles and zu-infinitives. Hence they show separability as well in syntax as in morphology. This is a valid argument against the wordhood of particle verbs.

On the other hand, there seems to be a very strong bond between the participle and the base verb. Particle verbs can function as a base for further morphological processes (anrufen (V) → der Anruf (N)). Topicalization of the particle is restricted and anaphorical references to the particle are highly marked. This is probably the reason why particle verbs are felt to be words (and not phrases) by most native speakers.

Many publications on such borderline phenomena vary the classical idea of the strict sequence morphology → syntax as a “one-way street”, e.g. through the modification of lexicalist theories. Other authors suggest models that do not differentiate between morphology and syntax any longer. In my opinion, none of these suggestions is adequate. Both approaches do not cope with the contradictory properties of the doubtful phenomena.

In accordance to recent work on grammatical gradience (e.g. Aarts 2004, 2007), I want to present a gradient solution for the analysis of German particle verbs on my poster. On this scale, prototypical particle verbs like aufgeben (‘to give up’) are located at the morphological end of the scale whereas non-prototypical ones like klavierspielen (‘to play the piano’) are arranged close to the syntactical endpoint.

References
How is genericity expressed in the Norwegian language?

Genericity is a grammatical and semantic phenomenon present in most languages but expressed in different ways. The most common understanding of the notion is such that it expresses a reference to kinds and species. Such sentences are called kind-referring sentences (see e.g. Pelletier 2010). Some researchers argue that the so called habitual sentences might also be considered generic. Habitual sentences describe a regularity or a habit of a given person or a group of people. In this paper I shall focus on both types of generic utterances as defined by Dahl (1975), Carlson and Pelletier (1995), Carlsson (2012) and Mari et al. (2013) among others.

As I have mentioned above, genericity as a language phenomenon might be expressed in different ways depending on the language group. In the Norwegian language, which belongs to Germanic languages, the phenomenon is expressed by the use of the article system as presented in the examples below:

- Is smelter ved 0°.
- Du må kunne stole på en venn/venner.
- De skriver stil om katten.
- Samler du på frimerker?
- Dinosaurene døde ut for 60 milioner år siden. (Kulbrandstad 1998:121; min framhevelse)

As we can see in the sentences above, generic references in Norwegian might be constructed with the use of all five noun forms, namely the bare noun, indefinite and definite singular noun forms, as well as indefinite and definite plural forms. Such a broad diversity and variety of choice might pose difficulties for language users (especially non-native speakers of Norwegian) when choosing between particular noun forms in generic contexts.

It is also worth mentioning that the phenomenon has not yet been fully described when it comes to Norwegian. Therefore, it might be difficult to determine to what extent the choice of a given noun form in a generic sentence is contingent on context, sentence's meaning and grammatical constraints. One can find only minor mentions of the problem in linguistic works (see for instance Dyvik 1979, Delsing 1993, Borten 2003) or Norwegian grammar books (such as Faarlund et.al. 1997 and Hagen 2002) but a detailed and corpus-based research on genericity in Norwegian is needed.

The purpose of this presentation is to show how genericity can be expressed in the Norwegian language. The pilot research conducted for this purpose was based on two tailor-made corpora. Each of the corpora consisted of short texts where generic references were easy to identify. The first corpus contained 25 Norwegian articles from STORE NORSKE LEKSIKON whereas the other consisted of 25 descriptions of bird species from a Norwegian atlas FUGLER I NORGE by Tom Schandy (1992).

The use of all noun forms in generic contexts in the corpora was analysed and presented in an overview. The preliminary results from this research let us see major tendencies in noun use in generic contexts in Norwegian. What is more, the analysed examples illustrate the complexity of the problem and open for new research possibilities, such as broader corpus analysis or surveys among native speakers of Norwegian. With my presentation I hope to pique the interest for the subject, as well as to contribute to the linguistic research on genericity in Norwegian.

References:
Impaired lexical abilities, and in particular word finding and naming problems, is one of the hallmarks of language decline in Alzheimer’s disease (AD). Word Association tests (WA) are often used to test language function in early dementia and can also be used to shed light on the influence of specific variables on lexical access.

The current study focuses on different WA tests and how they can help shed light on theories of the mental lexicon, lexical access in later life and AD, and how vocabulary tests can be useful as a diagnostic tool in the early detection of AD.

Controlled Oral Word Associations (COWA) are commonly used tests to measure spontaneous word production and verbal fluency. COWAs are among the most popular tests to assess language abilities in different (clinical) populations. There are two main types of COWA tests; Semantic and phonological fluency tests. In the semantic fluency test, participants are requested to name as many words they can belonging to a certain semantic category, and for the phonological fluency test participants will name as many words they can starting with a particular letter or sound. Both tests are time restricted. A recent Norwegian study found that semantic fluency tests are particularly relevant in early detection of dementia, and more so than phonological fluency tests (Rodríguez-Aranda et al., 2016).

Free word associations (FWA) are different in design to COWA tests, as the participants are given a cue word and asked to respond with their first association to that word. Research shows that patients with AD give fewer paradigmatic responses to cue words (i.e., words belonging to the same grammatical category; cue: book – response: newspaper) than speakers without dementia. The number of syntagmatic answers (cue: dress – response: red) are about the same for patients with and without AD. Finally, AD patients tend to give more idiosyncratic responses or no response at all compared to neurologically healthy people. These differences might be of diagnostic relevance (Eustache, Cox, Brandt, Lechevalier, & Pons, 1990; Pietro & Goldfarb, 1985).

In this paper, I will discuss some preliminary results from a study with participants with and without AD, the first of its kind in a Norwegian context. AD patients and young and old neurologically healthy controls were tested with one FWA and two COWA tests (semantic and phonological) together with a number of cognitive tests. Results were analyzed between and within participant groups. Preliminary results show that there is a great deal of individual variation in the responses, but there is a clear difference in word associations provided by the AD patients and controls, and between the healthy old and the young participants, indicating both age-related and disease-related changes in lexical access. Differences are found in both response frequency and response category patterns.

References:


In this paper I advocate a formal account of the role asymmetric phonological contrasts play in motivating neutrality to harmony processes, focussing on microvariation in Yoruba regressive/anticipatory RTR-harmony. Yoruba has an oral vowel series with four advanced /i, u, e, o/ and three retracted /ɛ, ɔ, a/ vowels—lacking underlying high retracted */ɪ, ʊ/ vowels. This asymmetric contrast is associated with a significant amount of cross-dialectal variation in Yoruba harmony behavior as illustrated by the Ekiti, Ile, and Standard Yoruba varieties below which display high vowel harmonic allophony, transparent skipping, and blocking of leftwards [RTR] spreading, respectively (1). This variation has attracted a lot of recent attention (Ọla Orie 2001, 2003; Nevins 2010; Hulst 2012; Dresher 2013), but no existing unified analysis satisfactorily motivates and explains all aspects of the differing Yoruba patterns, and this narrow variation has therefore significant consequences for our understanding of the organization and function of harmony processes.

(1) Varied vowel harmony patterns in three Yoruba varieties (Ọla Orie 2003: p. 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ekiti</th>
<th>Ile</th>
<th>Standard</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. ɔrʊko ɔrʊko orúko ‘name’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. ɛ̀lùbɔ́ ɛ̀lùbɔ́ èlùbɔ́ ‘yam flour’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. ɛ̀rùɛ́ ɛ̀rùɛ́ ewùrɛ́ ‘goat’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. ɔ̀ʃùpá ɔ̀sùpá òʃùpá ‘moon’</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the basis of this comparative study, I propose a new approach involving feature spreading within privative contrastive feature hierarchies (Dresher 2009). This model formalizes the role phonological representations play in harmony and neutral harmony. It assumes that phonological features are hierarchically categorized and that feature specifications are determined by cross-linguistically variable feature domains. As illustrated below using reversed [RTR] and [high] feature orderings, the necessity of classifying an asymmetric sound inventory into successive binary groups predicts a limited range of variation in feature specifications on [RTR]-unpaired high vowels which naturally motivates harmony variation consistent with the Yoruba patterns above.

(2) Example [RTR]-spreading with alternate [RTR]/[high] feature orderings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ife Yoruba ([high] &gt; [RTR])</th>
<th>Ekiti Yoruba ([RTR] &gt; [high])</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/è /lu /bó/</td>
<td>/è /lu /bó/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[ ] [high] [ ]</td>
<td>[RTR] [RTR] [RTR]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[RTR] ← ← ← [RTR]</td>
<td>[ ] [high]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>[è /lu /bó]</td>
<td>[è /lu /bó]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Abstract: Doing Brexit – An analysis of David Cameron’s and Theresa May’s speeches as Prime Minister before and after the Brexit vote

It is clear: Brexit is coming. Whether hard or soft, Theresa May’s “Brexit means Brexit” has proven to become reality. But which part did the former Prime Minister David Cameron and current PM Thersa May’s speeches play in this political outcome? In this paper, I argue that Brexit as presented in the speeches of “before-Brexit” PM David Cameron on 21 June 2016 and “Brexit PM” Theresa May on 02 October 2016 is a deliberate narration rather than an objective description of aims and outcomes.

In order to explore and compare features of the individual speeches, I explore narrating strategies with the help of a mixed-method approach. Individual specific markers are scrutinised within the qualitative analysis. A quantitative approach is used in order to compare the two speeches. With the help of a theoretically founded table, both speeches are compared. In this table, grammatical, morphological, or lexical features are subsumed under the following categories: UP, DOWN, NEUTRAL and FUTURE, NOW and PAST. The development of the categories UP and DOWN is based on the binary approach on metaphoricity in language as introduced by Lakoff/Johnson (1980). The temporal dimension of narrating Brexit is based on Lucius-Hoene/Deppermann’s concept of narrative identity and self-positioning (2004). Lakoff/Wehling (2016) provide the framework for the analysis of the political narration strategies in the given speeches.

I hypothesise that Cameron draws a overly positive picture for the future within the European Union, whereas May presents the current situation as EU-member state in a negative way.

My findings show that Theresa May narrates the future of her country in vivid colours with the help of lexical means such as nouns and adjectives related to economic strength. She employs grammatical features such as the will-future which support her narration of a bright future. David Cameron, on the other hand, uses personal pronouns such as “we” and “I” in order to create the spirit of togetherness and personal involvement. In contrast to David Cameron’s speech, if-clauses cannot be found in Theresa May’s. Metaphors are an important means in both speeches. Cameron establishes the metaphor of the EU as protecting walls surrounding Britain through prepositions such as “in” and “out”, whereas May stages Brexit as a liberating act in various ways. In contrast to the hypothesis, it is David Cameron who argues from a present point of view, trying to convince voters by a realistic description of the current situation and possible consequences of Brexit, and Theresa May who draws an overly positive picture of a future outside the EU trying to legitimise her political position.

References:
Bror-Magnus Sviland Strand:
The Root Infinitive in Norwegian child language is an overgeneralisation of a non-finite structure already present in the speakers in- and output

For a number of languages, it has been reported that children go through a stage where finite clauses and root clauses with an infinitive (Root Infinitives or Optional Infinitives) interchangeably. (Clahsen, 1988; Jordens, 1990; Platzack, 1990; Pierce, 1992; Jonas, 1995, inter alia). In this paper we investigate the Norwegian Root Infinitives:

(1) jeg lese denne Anne, 2;04.02
I read.inf this.one 'I want to read this one'

In this paper/poster, the author(s) will look at Root Infinitives (RI) in a relation to three factors reported to be relevant for the phenomenon: (i) verb placement in relation to negation, (ii) wh-questions and topicalization, (iii) null subjects, and (iv) modality. Conforming with other languages, RI (i) follow negation (finite verbs in matrix clauses precede it in Norwegian), indicating that the verb has not been moved out of the vp (see appendix 1), (ii) the RI does almost never occur in wh-phrases and non-subject topicalisation, (iii) there are more null subjects in RI than in finite clauses, and (iv) RI tend to have a modal meaning.

The results will be discussed in light of previous explanations (e.g. Platzack, 1990; Wexler, 1998; Josefsson, 2002; Westergaard, 2017) and discard those in favour of an analysis RI as a grammatical structure in Norwegian Children’s grammar, and as an overgeneralisation of the prescriptive/jussive infinitive (example 2) which is abundantly available in the children’s in- and output (Johannessen, 2016):

(2) ikke klore da får mamma vondt (Present study)
not scratch.inf then gets mummy hurt 'don't cratch, that'll hurt mummy!'

The data are gathered from 15 recordings of spontaneous speech of 12 Norwegian two-year-olds, divided into two groups (eight recordings in 2;0–2;6 and eight recordings 2;6–3;0). All children were recruited from the Oslo area.

References
Abstract
Phraseology is a field of study whose main focus is to investigate the relationship between meaning and form. In the tradition of generative grammar and structuralism, grammar is regarded as “a system independent of lexis” (Hunston and Francis, 2000: 7). In this model, grammar serves as a superordinate system within which language can be used to create meaning, and language is constructed according to the rules and on the basis of a lexicon.

In the phraseological language description, lexis and native-like selection supersede the generic rules of syntax and grammar. Grammar and lexis are merged in lexicogrammar and is manifested in sequences of words rather than single-word items that may be filled into empty slots, and we talk about a *phrasicon* (collection of phrases) of a language rather than a lexicon (collection of single words). Meaning is to a large extent a result of form, and the two can therefore not be separated.

The investigation will be two-pronged. The first part will use data from the English-Norwegian Parallel Corpus to a) chart the translation paradigms of the verbs *love*, *like* and *enjoy*, b) analyse the level of correspondence between these verbs and the corresponding Norwegian verbs *elske*, *like* and *nyte*, and c) describe the lexicogrammatical features of the verbs in context in both languages. These results will further be compared to data from three other corpora with texts from native users in both languages using Gilquin’s (2000/2001:98-199) model of Contrastive Analysis (CA) of native language.

The second investigation will compare native and learner usage of English. Data will be extracted from a variety of corpora, largely applying Granger’s (1994) Integrated Contrastive Model as referred by Gilquin (2000/2001:98-101). Finally, these data will be compared to data from an elicitation test given to native and learner users.

In short, what this study seeks to answer are the following research questions:

1. What can the lexicogrammatical features and translation paradigms of three English-Norwegian verb pairs denoting feeling tell us about:
   a. The level of correspondence between the English and the Norwegian verbs in terms of meaning, usage and selectional preferences/collocations?
   b. The relationship between form and meaning in language construction?
2. Is there a systematic difference in how English native speakers and Norwegian learners use and understand these and semantically related verbs?

Preliminary searches with ENJOY yield interesting results, indicating a support for the notion that meaning is closely related to form and showing a mutual correspondence between ENJOY and NYTE of just below 30 %. The data will be further investigated and commented on at the presentation. At the conference in February 2018, only the first part of the larger project will have been conducted, presumably the analysis of the bidirectional translation paradigms of the three verb pairs in the parallel corpus.

Sources


Linguistic information is packaged in different ways depending on the background and the goal of a given discourse context. Information is in these terms structured by pragmatic aspects, typically in order to optimize the information transfer within the discourse. Considering this, in studies of historical linguistics, questions as how corpus languages attempt to achieve the needs of communicative explicitness in combination with stylistic expressivity are of major interest.

In my project, I examine the word order in Old Norwegian with respect to the influence of information structural constraints on syntactic variation and change, and its interaction with grammatical conditions. Since arguments that can be interpreted as theme or rheme do not necessarily appear at their designated unmarked positions, a maximum scope to position constituents is allowed according to whatever information-structural goal a language user wants to achieve. Information structure is thus defined as the relationship between the sentence constituents and the surrounding (con)text. It interacts with almost every other linguistic level and by this does not map onto syntax in any direct way. The autonomy of syntax and information structure is important both for syntactic modeling and for ideas about which order can be considered as basic for a language. Following this, my project has a strong pragmatic perspective (with a focus on text structuring mechanisms) and is hence not solely a study on syntactic mechanisms. This approach postulates one grammar for Old Norwegian with varying surface structures in contrast to theories adopting the Double Base Hypothesis.

References to modern Norwegian are placed in the context of syntactic change, where syntactic functions become increasingly associated with information-structural statuses and by this can lose their pragmatically value. Thus, information structure does not only induce changes on the level of clause structure, but can also affect properties of referring expressions like their lexical form or their syntactic behavior. Information structure is in this way an important link between grammatical and stylistic forms. My research, however, focusses mainly on a synchronous level (ON). Phenomena as scrambling, topicalisation or dislocation can be explained homogeneously with this approach and functional/pragmatic emphasis as expressions for communicative dynamic.

The aim of my project is to find out to what extent and in what way word order in Old Norwegian was governed by information-structural constraints.

In my presentation I want to discuss the methods I use to study the complex phenomena of information structure that involve a multi-modal annotation of a single text and show how the study of corpus languages in this field can revise theories of syntactic variation and change.

References:
Yngvild Næss Trøan:  
"In a world where you can be anything, be sexy":  
A social semiotic analysis of identity performance

In 2017, social media is an integrated part of people's lives, to the extent that it has become a place where people take part in activities that were previously conducted offline (Miller et al., 2016). For instance, Instagram offers a unique opportunity for self-expression, and has become a central location for identity construction and maintenance. At the same time, it has recently been highlighted that social media use, and Instagram in particular, may be harmful for mental health and body image for young people (Santarossa & Woodruff, 2017; RSPH & YHM, 2017). One popular discourse concerned with the body, is the fitness discourse. In order to understand the fitness discourse better, this paper examines the discursive identity performance by representatives of this group. As sociolinguistic inquiries that consider language to be the main mode for meaning-making may not sufficiently account for the multimodal nature of social media, this paper employs a social semiotic framework of analysis. Effectively, the paper not only sheds light on the semiotic affordances of Instagram as a platform for identity performance, but also on the particularities of social media fitness culture more particularly. Because of the centrality of gender and body in the fitness discourse, postfeminist media culture is used as an interpretive framework.

The analysis is grounded in a poststructuralist understanding of identity. A total of 16 Instagram posts from four different fitness entrepreneurs are analysed multimodally. Special attention is paid to the setting of the images, the position of the viewer, the ideational meanings of the body and image-text relationships. Although there were individual variations, certain trends revealed themselves. For instance, it appeared that this group of Instagram users reproduce dominant discourses about the body and femininity to a significant extent. These findings imply that postfeminist discourses flourish among the most popular fitness motivators on social media. This is problematic, as it creates a very limited idea of what a healthy, female body looks like. Effectively, there is a need to allocate more resources into teaching young people and other vulnerable groups about critical awareness in the digital age, in order to make them resistant and resilient to the pressure and expectations on social media.


Discontinuous Noun Phrases in German

The present study focuses on the phenomenon of discontinuous noun phrases containing a prepositional phrase, see examples (i)-(ii). This will be investigated in the fields of morphosyntax and pragmatics.

   ‘Rudi has read many articles about climate change.’

(ii) [Eine ähnliche Prognose]NP stellte die ZMP [für Kernobst, beste Kartoffeln]PP, … (M91TG/101.28150)  
   ‘A similar prognosis for pome, best potatoes, … provides the ZMP.’

Two corpora, the Deutsches Referenzkorpus and the Tigerkorpus, serve as data bases. Both are annotated corpora and contain German newspapers. This study relies on a corpus-driven approach; no previous theoretical assumptions are consulted, but will rather emerge with the analysis of the amounted data. This is in contrast to the research literature whereby a different methodology - the corpus-based approach - is mostly used (cf. De Kuthy 2002, Briskina 2010). This approach has a theory from the beginning and the data have the function to support this theory. The question then is whether or not both methods yield the same or contrasting results. First contradictions have already become apparent. For example, some studies propose that the verb and the noun have a special relation. This has been shown for creation and perception verbs (see Schmellentin 2006: 23). But there are also examples where the verb is an existential verb, see example (iii), which has no special relation to the noun and is semantically weaker than other verbs.

(iii) [Einen kuriosen Führungswechsel]NP gab es [beim TV Edigheim]PP.  
   ‘There was a strange change in the leadership at TV Edigheim.’

For the analysis, different factors are investigated, for example the kind of correlation between verb and preposition, extension of the PP or NP, function in the information structure and so on. Preliminary results indicate that there can be a difference between the two possible structures [NP_PP]: examples (ii), (iii) and [PP_NP]: example (i) of the discontinuous noun phrase. If the NP is at the beginning of a sentence it is mostly not extended by, for example, a genitive attribute. If the PP is at the beginning of the sentence, then just less than the half of the examples have an extended PP, in contrast to the other structure. In accordance with this observation, both structures will be analysed separately.

References:


Maud Westendorp:
Development and variation of non-V2 order in Norwegian wh-questions

Abstract
Across Norwegian dialects wh-questions show variation with respect to word order possibilities, with many dialects allowing non-V2 word order (e.g. *Hva du sa?* lit. ‘what you said?’). The acceptance of non-V2 orders varies considerably across dialects and further depends on the complexity and function of the *wh*-element. Many studies have attempted to explain this variation and the development of non-V2 wh-questions (a.o. Nordgård 1988; Lie 1992; Vangsnes 2005; Westergaard et al. 2012, 2017). The present study empirically investigates the synchronic distribution and the diachronic development of non-V2 wh-questions by examining synchronic data from the Nordic Syntax Database (Lindstad et al. 2009) as well as historical data (i.e. a sample of grammars of Norwegian, dialect descriptions and letters).

It is hypothesised that the synchronic variation between the dialects mirrors the diachronic development from V2 to non-V2 order. Additionally, in correspondence with Westergaard et al. (2017) I hypothesise that non-V2 word order first developed in subject *wh*-questions with the complementizer *som* in the verb-second position (e.g. *Hvem som kom?* lit. ‘who that came?’) and later spread to non-subject as well as complex *wh*-questions. On the basis of an apparent-time study of the synchronic data I show that there is indeed a diachronic connection between some but not all of the synchronic varieties, however no evidence was found in support of the hypothesis that non-V2 first emerged specifically in subject *wh*-questions. On the basis of historical sources, it is shown that non-V2 likely developed at the end of the 19th century in Central and Northern Norwegian. Furthermore, the emergence of non-V2 order is linked to the loss of the present tense marker -r on the finite verb allowing other elements to fill the verb-second position and gain the ability to lexicalise this position and remove the trigger for V2 resulting in the emergence of non-V2 word order. Combining the findings from the synchronic and the historical data, it is made clear that non-V2 word order started in simplex *wh*-questions which are shown to be most frequent and subsequently spreads to other types of questions which are gradually less frequent.

Keywords: verb-second, word order variation, *wh*-questions, Norwegian, dialect syntax

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