

Buckeye East Asian Linguistics Forum 6

Friday, 18 October 2024



<http://u.osu.edu/beal/beal-forum/>



THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

Buckeye East Asian Linguistics Forum 6

Friday, 18 October 2024

The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

A virtual event via Zoom

Program Book



THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY

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General Information

1. Online Registration

<https://u.osu.edu/beal/beal-forum/2024-2/registration/>

- Register by Sunday, 13 October 2024.

2. Buckeye East Asian Linguistics Forum 6 (BEAL Forum 6)

Date: Friday, 18 October 2024 (Eastern Daylight Time (EDT))

Place: Virtual event via Zoom, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

The Buckeye East Asian Linguistics Forum 6 (BEAL Forum 6) provides a platform primarily for graduate students to articulate and exchange ideas on their research findings with forum participants. It is a one-day event with keynote lectures and students' presentation sessions. Before the COVID-19 pandemic, students' presentation sessions were all posters. However, we had 15-minute presentation sessions via Zoom instead in BEAL Forum 4 (Spring 2021), and we had done likewise in BEAL Forum 5, and this time as well. The BEAL Forum is an excellent opportunity to present one's research in a public arena and to receive comments individually. The Forum is intended to showcase regional research activities in East Asian linguistics. The event is free and open to the public.

As in the case of previous BEAL Forums, as part of this event, a Proceedings volume will be published through Ohio State University's Knowledge Bank, a service of The Ohio State University Libraries.

Commentators:

Following the additional activity initiated in BEAL Forums 4 and 5, besides keynote speakers, this year's event includes the inviting of several OSU alumni and a visiting scholar to serve as commentators, to provide feedback to the presenters. Invited to participate as commentators are:

- Fang-yi Chao (University of North Carolina at Charlotte)
- Qianping Gu (OSU/Southeast University, Nanjing)
- Akiko Kashiwagi (Oakland University)
- Sun-Hee Lee (Wellesley College)

BEAL Forum 6 is free and open to the public, although registration is required in order to obtain the Zoom link.



THE OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY



**The 6th Buckeye East Asian Linguistics Forum
(BEAL Forum 6)**

Friday, 18 October 2024

Venue: Virtual event via CarmenZoom
Time Zone: US Eastern Daylight Time (EDT)
Registration: Free and open to the public, but online registration required

8:45-9:00 am	<p align="center">Welcome & Opening Remarks (Main Room) <i>Ai-Ling Lu, GREALL President, OSU</i> <i>Professor Mark Bender, Chair, Department of East Asian Languages and Literatures, OSU</i></p>
9:00-10:20 am	<p align="center">Plenary Session 1: Keynote Speaker (Main Room) Chair: Professor Mineharu ("JJ") Nakayama (OSU) Timekeeper: Yan Li</p>
	<p align="center">Professor Momoko Nakamura Kanto Gakuin University "Inter-indexical Gender in Japanese Translation"</p>

Parallel Session A. 10:25-11:45 a.m.		
	Session A-1 (Breakout Room 1)	Session A-2 (Breakout Room 2)
	Chair: Paul Ueda (OSU) Timekeeper: Savanna Eggens Commentator: Qianping Gu (OSU/Southeast U.)	Chair: Ka Fai Law (OSU) Timekeeper: Xuan Ye Commentator: Fang-yi Chao (U. of North Carolina)
10:25 am	Ka Hin Ng (Chinese University of Hong Kong) On Rhetorically-flavoured Sentences: A Case Study of Cantonese	Yu Tazaki (Ohio University/Nanzan University) Lexical-Semantic Approach to Unaccusative Mismatch in Japanese
10:45 am	Yunqi He, Aijun Huang, Likan Zhan, & Fuyun Wu (Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, and Beijing Language and Culture University) The Acquisition of the Quantification Function of Chinese Classifiers: An Eye-Tracking Study of Young Mandarin Children	Marc Yi Fei Yeo (National University of Singapore/National Institute of Education) North Korean Words in English – Present and Future
11:05 am	Adæmrys Chihjen Cheng (University of Ottawa) What are Localizers in Taiwanese? A Semantic Point of View	Yuika Inami (The Ohio State University) Syntax of Japanese Slang NAU
11:25 am	Liumao Zhong (Stony Brook University) Unaccusatives with Double Themes: Late Assignment of Theta Role	Yuyang Han (The Ohio State University) Explorating Sentence Structure, Rhythm, and Storytelling in Dialectal Writing: A Case Study of the Shanghai Dialect Novel <i>Fanhua</i> 繁花
11:45 am - 1:00 pm	~~ LUNCH BREAK ~~	

1:00-2:20 pm	Plenary Session 2: Keynote Speaker (Main Room) Chair: Professor Robert Levine (OSU, Linguistics) Timekeeper: Yan Li
	Professor Sun-Hee Lee Wellesley College “Unpacking the Building Blocks: A Corpus-Based Exploration of Korean Lexical Bundles”

Parallel Session B. 2:25-3:25 p.m.		
	Session B-1 (Breakout Room 1)	Session B-2 (Breakout Room 2)
	Chair: Saori Wakita (OSU) Timekeeper: Yuyang Han Commentator: Sun Hee Lee (Wellesley U.)	Chair: Xuan Ye (Indiana U. Bloomington) Timekeeper: Siyuan Dong Commentator: Akiko Kashiwagi (Oakland U.)
2:25 pm	Xiaolin Niu (University of Washington) Analysis of Partial Success and Filed Attempts in Mandarin Change-of-State	Ka Fai Law (The Ohio State University) Establishing a Unique Artist Identity in the Entertainment Industry: A Case Study of a Japanese Female Singer
2:45 pm	Eunjin Lee (University of Utah) English Listeners’ Perception of Korean Laryngeal Contrasts Among Word-initial Stops and Talker Variability	Paul Ueda (The Ohio State University) Taigi Writing and Mandarin Influence
3:05 pm	Rina Minyoung Oh (University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa) Constructing Solidarity in an L1-L2 Korean Conversation Group	Yuki Hattori (The Ohio State University) L2 Working Memory and Speech Generation – Does Response Time Matter?
3:25 pm - 3:30 pm	~~ Break ~~	

3:30-4:50 pm	<p align="center">Plenary Session 3: Keynote Speaker (Main Room)</p> <p align="center">Chair: Professor Zhiguo Xie (OSU)</p> <p align="center">Timekeeper: Yuyang Han</p>
	<p align="center">Professor Qianping Gu Southeast University, Nanjing</p> <p align="center">“Telicization of Resultative Morphemes in Mandarin Chinese”</p>
4:50-5:00 pm	<p align="center">Closing Remarks (Main Room)</p> <p align="center"><i>Paul Ueda, GACL President, OSU</i></p> <p align="center">on behalf of the BEAL Forum 6 Organizing Committee</p>

Plenary Session Abstracts

(Main Room)

Inter-indexical Gender in Japanese Translation

Momoko Nakamura
Kanto-Gakuin University

Japanese translators construct gender by assigning different speech styles to the speech of non-Japanese characters. In this talk, Nakamura first shows that the speech of non-Japanese white women is often translated into stereotypical Japanese women's language. Such translations serve to naturalize the reserved, polite femininity associated with Japanese women's language as if it is shared by women all over the world. Second, the speech of non-Japanese casual men is translated into a peculiar informal style used only by non-Japanese men. Such translations, by dividing Japanese and non-Japanese masculinities, work to sustain the hegemonic status of the polite Japanese masculinity.

Short Biography: NAKAMURA Momoko, Ph.D. is Professor of English at Kanto Gakuin University in Yokohama, Japan. Her recent publications include *Kotoba ga kawareba shakai ga kawaru* [Language Changing Society] (2024), *Jibunrashisa to Nihongo* [Identity and Japanese] (2021), *Gender, Language and Ideology: A Genealogy of Japanese Women's Language* (2014), *Shinkeigo "maji yabaissu"* [New Honorifics "Maji yabaissu"] (2020), and *Onna kotoba wa tsukurareru* [Constructing Women's Language] (2007, Received the 27th Yamakawa Kikue Award). She has edited several volumes and special issues on language, gender, and sexuality including special issues of *Gender & Language* (2020) and *East Asian Pragmatics* (2021) and translated *Language and Sexuality* by Deborah Cameron and Don Kulick (2003) into Japanese.

Unpacking the Building Blocks: A Corpus-Based Exploration of Korean Lexical Bundles

Sun-Hee Lee
Wellesley College

The identification of grammatical functions and distributions of formulaic expressions or lexical bundles is crucial for understanding the cognitive building blocks of languages and identifying linguistic properties of specific registers or genres. Over the past two decades, corpus-based studies led by Douglas Biber and his collaborators have significantly contributed to the examination of lexical bundles in English, making them a major topic in linguistics, second language acquisition, and language pedagogy. This presentation focuses on a corpus-based investigation of Korean formulaic sequences, using a refined combinatoric morphemic bundle approach aligned with agglutinative typological properties.

Short Biography: Dr. Sun-Hee Lee, Professor of Korean at Wellesley College's East Asian Languages and Cultures department, specializes in corpus linguistics, learner corpora, and discourse analysis. She has authored numerous publications on Korean grammar, corpus analysis, and learner language. Her research focuses on corpus-based analysis of media, gender, and personal narratives, alongside learner corpus research.

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Telicization of Resultative Morphemes in Mandarin Chinese

Qianping Gu

Southeast University, Nanjing

Empirical findings have shown that the counterparts of dynamic verbal predicates across languages exhibit variations regarding their aspectual interpretations, in particular, a culmination reading that is expected for accomplishments predicates (e.g., *drink a glass of water*) does not always obtain for all languages. For these languages that exhibit non-culmination accomplishments, they usually implement additional grammatical forms to telicize the predicates, ensuring endpoints obtained for the denoted events. (Mandarin) Chinese is one such language. In this talk, I focus on a productively used construction in Chinese known as Resultative Verb Compound (RVC, 动结式), which was discussed in previous studies as a grammatical form comparable to culmination-entailed accomplishments. The inventory of the resultative morphemes is fairly large and thus it is impossible to exhaust them all in this talk. Instead, I will focus on three resultative morphemes that are commonly used for describing consumption events, namely, *-wan* (完), *-diao* (掉), and *-guang* (光). While presenting some intuitively available semantic readings associated with each of the three morphemes, I will also show how we may analyze the telicization effects they bring out in a formal semantic framework (i.e., the homomorphical approach by Krifka 1989, 1992, 1998), capturing their nuances in forming event structures that give rise to culmination entailment.

Short Biography: Professor Qianping Gu received her BA in English and an MA in Applied Linguistics from Southwest University (China), an MA in Linguistics from The University of Manchester, and her PhD in Linguistics from The University of Texas at Austin, with a major in Syntax & Semantics and a minor in Language Documentation. Her main research interest is semantics. She investigates lexical aspect mainly out of general linguistic theoretical concerns (syntax, semantics, and pragmatics) but also looks into the acquisition of lexical aspect in additional language acquisition. In addition to the investigation of standard Mandarin Chinese (Putonghua), she is also interested in other Chinese varieties.

Parallel Session A-1 Abstracts

(Breakout Room 1)

On Rhetorically-flavoured Speech Acts: A case study of Cantonese

Ka Hin Ng

The Chinese University of Hong Kong

Hong Kong Cantonese, henceforth referred to as Cantonese, boasts a comprehensive array of sentence-final particles (SFPs). The SFP *aallaa4* is particularly notable as it accompanies declaratives, interrogatives, and imperatives to enforce a rhetorical interpretation. This phenomenon is well-documented in previous works such as Tang (2015), as exemplified in sections (1), (2), and (3).

- (1) Context: X and Y discussed who went to Taiwan for a conference, given that there is only one quota for their school. X said Mary, but Y said Peter. It turned out that Mary posted photos taken in Taiwan to instagram. X said to Y:

Peter heoi3 toi4waan1 aallaa4.

Peter go Taiwan SFP

“Peter went to Taiwan, huh.” (=Peter did not go to Taiwan.)

- (2) Context: X and Y discussed who went to Taiwan for a conference, given that there is only one quota for their school. X said Mary, but Y said Peter. It turned out that Mary posted photos taken in Taiwan to instagram. X said to Y:

bin1go3 heoi3 toi4waan1 aallaa4?

Who go Taiwan SFP

“Who went to Taiwan? Huh?” (=Mary did not go to Taiwan.)

- (3) Context: the mother (X) thinks eating a lot of fries is not good, but she sees that her son (Y) has already eaten many fries. The mother then says to her son:

nei5 zoi3 sik6 syu4tiu2 aallaa4!

2.SG again eat fries SFP

“Try eating more fries, I dare you!”

This presentation delves into the felicity conditions can license the rhetorical nuance of *aallaa4* across various clause types. I incorporate the discourse model of Farkas and Bruce (2010) along with subsequent studies, including Malamud and Stephenson (2015), to explore this inquiry. The formalization of the felicity condition for declaratives, as in (4), outlines that speaker X aims to update proposition p to the common ground, as in (4i), whereas speaker Y seeks to update $\neg p$, as in (4ii). This scenario results in a discourse crisis, as in (4iii). Moreover, strong contextual evidence q suggests that if q is true, then p is true. X anticipates Y will deduce the same if q is evident to Y, as in (4iv). Consequently, it becomes probable that p is true and $\neg p$ is false. This allows X to assert *aallaa4*, which ostensibly claims $\neg p$ but actually coerces Y into acknowledging p , thereby updating p to their shared common ground (4v).

- (4) The felicity conditions of (2), where $p = \llbracket \text{Mary went to Taiwan} \rrbracket$ and $q = \llbracket \text{Mary uploaded photos taken in Taiwan to Instagram} \rrbracket$.

(i) X: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup p\}$.

(ii) Y: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup \neg p\}$.

(iii) $T_{X-Y} = \text{DISCOURSE CRISIS}$

(iv) $q \in CG_{X-Y}$, where $q \rightarrow p$ in X's reasoning.

- (v) $\neg p$ -*aal1aa4* declarative: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup p\}$.

The interrogative form's felicity condition, as seen in example (5), mirrors that of declaratives but differs in updating the common ground to either $\{CG_{X-Y} \cup p\}$ or $\{CG_{X-Y} \cup \neg p\}$ in (5v). The alternative $\{CG_{X-Y} \cup p\}$ is highlighted (Farkas & Roelofsen, 2017) due to q , creating a rhetorical question, and upon Y's confirmation, p is updated to the common ground.

- (5) The felicity conditions of (2), where $p = \llbracket \text{Mary went to Taiwan} \rrbracket$ and $q = \llbracket \text{Mary uploaded photos taken in Taiwan to Instagram} \rrbracket$.
- (i) X: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup p\}$.
 - (ii) Y: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup \neg p\}$.
 - (iii) $T_{X-Y} = \text{DISCOURSE CRISIS}$
 - (iv) $q \in CG_{X-Y}$, where $q \rightarrow p$ in X's reasoning.
 - (v) *Aal1aa4* interrogative: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup p, CG_{X-Y} \cup \neg p\}$.

The imperative case, discussed in example (6), adopts Kaufmann's (2016) framework, proposing that imperatives are modalized propositions influenced by a modal base (gc) and an ordering source (fc). Cooperative interlocutors opt for optimal actions (Davis, 2009), which is evident when Y continuously eats fries, deemed legitimate by Y, as in (6i). However, considering information r within the modal base and criteria q within the ordering source, as in (6ii) and (6iii), X concludes that $\neg \square^{fc,gc} p$, implying Y should cease eating fries, as in (6iv). The juxtaposition of $\neg \square^{fc,gc} p$ and $\square^{fc,gc} p$ leads to a discourse crisis, prompting X to employ *aal1aa4* with the imperative, which ostensibly suggests $\square^{fc,gc} p$ but aims to update $\neg \square^{fc,gc} p$ into the common ground, as in (6vi).

- (6) The felicity conditions of (3), where $p = \llbracket \text{Y eat Fries} \rrbracket$, $q = \llbracket \text{It is not good to have too much fries} \rrbracket$, $r = \llbracket \text{Y has already eaten some much fries} \rrbracket$.
- (i) $\square^{fc,gc} p \in DC_Y$
 - (ii) $r \in g_c$
 - (iii) $q \in f_c$
 - (iv) $\neg \square^{fc,gc} p \in DC_X$
 - (v) $T_{X-Y} = \text{DISCOURSE CRISIS}$
 - (vi) *Aal1aa4* imperative: $PS_{X-Y} = \{CG_{X-Y} \cup \neg \square^{fc,gc} p\}$.

From examples (4) to (6), this study identifies consistent felicity features of *aal1aa4* across all clause types: (i) its inapplicability in out-of-the-blue contexts, (ii) its usage only amidst a discourse crisis with the speaker maintaining belief despite the crisis, and (iii) its always inducing a rhetorical flavor due to the mismatch between locutionary and illocutionary forces. This presentation posits that declaratives and imperatives, akin to interrogatives, can be rhetorically flavored and unified into a single pragmatic schema. This schema further indicates that a contradictory proposition is essential for licensing rhetorically-flavored sentences, enhancing our comprehension of their pragmatic nature.

Furthermore, the study may contribute to ongoing research at the syntax-pragmatics interface concerning rhetorical questions. While researchers like Han (2002), Choi (2022), and Tang (2022) argue that a rhetorical question invariably necessitates an answer with inverted polarity, Hill and Miyagawa (2024) present a counterargument. They claim that the key to licensing rhetorical questions lies in the [+evidential] feature within CommitP. The evidence from *aal1aa4*-wh-

rhetorical questions, which do not permit a negative polar response (i.e., a null response), supports Hill and Miyagawa's (2024) proposal.

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The Acquisition of the Quantification Function of Chinese Classifiers: An Eye-Tracking Study of Young Mandarin Children

Yunqi He¹, Aijun Huang², Likan Zhan³, Fuyun Wu²

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The quantification function of Chinese classifiers is to designate a specific unit of measurement (Au Yeung, 2005). This function involves two principal semantic dimensions: singularity and unification. The singularity dimension of a classifier denotes a single counting unit (see (1) in Figure 1b). It features the similar quantificational meaning to the classifier-noun construction with a preceding numeral *yi* ("一", meaning "one") (see (2) in Figure 1b). The unification dimension of a classifier then refers to the type of counting unit associated with that classifier. For example, the classifiers *ge* and *wan* (bowl) differ in unification by denoting two different counting units, as demonstrated by the contrast between examples (1) and (3) in Figure 1b.

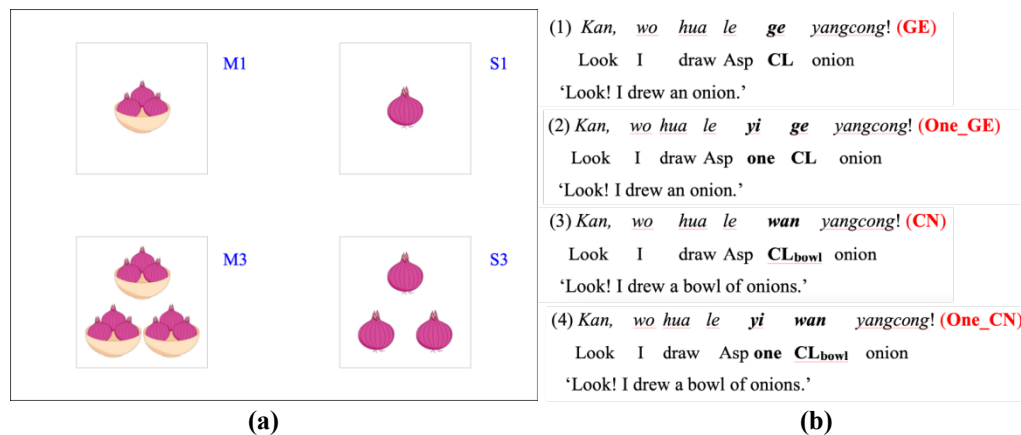


Figure 1 An example of test pictures with wan and onion (Blue tags were not shown in the test.)

Prior behavioral studies have demonstrated that by the age of four, Mandarin-speaking children have already grasped the quantification function of various types of classifiers, including individual classifiers, collective classifiers, and container classifiers (Huang, 2009; Huang & Lee, 2009; Li et al., 2010; Duan, 2011). Despite abundant research, there still remains a significant gap in the understanding of the acquisition process for this quantification function. Crucially, few studies have explored the relationship between the two dimensions. This gap is particularly conspicuous in the lack of thorough empirical research on real-time language processing.

This study employed the visual world paradigm (Cooper, 1974) to investigate the sensitivity of Mandarin-speaking children to the quantification function of classifiers. The study focused on one individual classifier "个" (*ge*, which also serves as the general classifier in Chinese) and five container classifiers (CN) ("碗" (*wan*, bowl), "盒" (*he*, box), "盘" (*pan*, plate), "袋" (*dai*, bag), and "盆" (*pen*, basin)). A total of sixty-three children, aged between 2 years and 8 months to 6 years, from Shanghai, China, participated in the study. Additionally, twenty-one college students were included as a control group (Table 1).

Table 1 Participant information

Age Group	Children			Adults
	3-year-old	4-year-old	5-year-old	
Number of participants	20	20	21	21
Averaged age	2.9	4.0	5.0	20.6
Age range	2.7-3.4	3.6-4.5	4.6-6	19.3-25.4

Each test item contained a picture with four areas of interest (AOIs) labeled S1, M1, S3, and M3 (Figure 1a), and four sentence conditions: *GE*, *One_GE*, *CN*, and *One_CN* (Figure 1b). The minimal pairs "*GE* vs. *CN*" and "*One_GE* vs. *One_CN*" were designed to contrast the unification feature. The minimal pairs "*GE* vs. *One_GE*" and "*CN* vs. *One_CN*" differ by the presence/absence of the numeral *yi*. Consequently, in the *GE* and *One_GE* conditions, the target AOI was *S1*, whereas in the *CN* and *One_CN* conditions, the target AOI was *M1*.

We have two important findings. First, children's acquisition of the quantification function for individual classifiers occurs before that for container classifiers, and the development of understanding classifiers' singularity and unification appears to be relatively independent. As Figure 2 demonstrates, our findings reveal that three-year-old children did not exhibit sensitivity to the quantification function of either individual or container classifiers. However, this sensitivity is observed to increase with age. Four-year-olds began to show an understanding of the singularity and unification associated with the general classifier *ge*, as evidenced by significant differences in proportions of fixations at S1 compared to M1 (purple area) and S3 (pink area) in the *GE* and *One_GE* conditions. For container classifiers, however, children already showed sensitivity to unification by the age of three, but sensitivity to its singularity did not emerge until the age of five, as indicated by significant differences in proportions of fixations at M1 compared to S1 (purple area) and M3 (yellow area) in the *CN* and *One_CN* conditions.

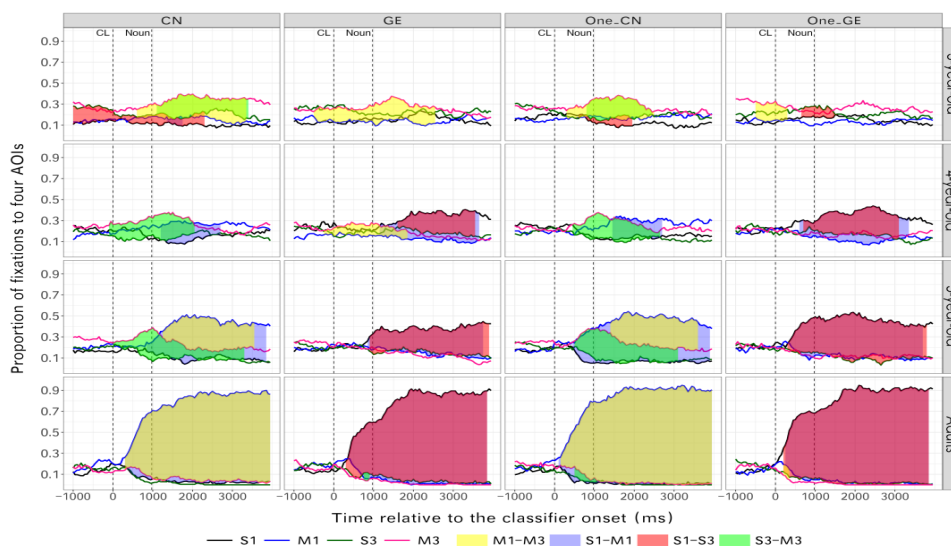


Figure 2 Proportion of fixations to four AOIs of different age groups (Shaded areas indicate time periods with significant differences in Generalized Additive Mixed Models analysis)

The other important finding is that the acquisition of the singularity feature seems to be independent of their mastery of the numeral *yi*. For adults, the Chinese numeral *yi* significantly

increased their gaze towards the target AOI ($Est_{GE-One_GE} = -0.77, t = -4.03^{***}$; $Est_{CN-One_CN} = -0.71, t = -3.87^{***}$). However, this effect was not consistently observed in children aged three or four. For example, fixations to the target AOI of 4-year-old children were significantly more in the One_GE condition than the GE condition ($Est_{GE-One_GE} = -0.45, t = -3.15^{**}$). But in the testing of container classifiers, the presence of the numeral *yi* ‘one’ did not help them anticipate the coming classifier to denote the target M1 area ($Est_{CN-One_CN} = 0.24, t = 1.7, p = 0.52$). This was probably because the four-year-old had not yet acquired the singularity of container classifiers, as there was no significant difference between M1 and M3 (yellow area in Figure 2). Taken together, our experimental data suggest that the singularity function is more likely an inherent characteristic of Chinese classifiers.

To conclude, the present study delved deeper into the developmental trajectories of Chinese children's acquisition of individual and container classifiers, focusing specifically on their quantification functions. The results indicated that the quantification function of the general individual classifier *ge* was fully acquired at the age of four, followed by container classifiers at the age of five. The two dimensions of quantification, singularity and unification, developed independently during the acquisition process. Prior to the acquisition of singularity, the presence of the numeral *yi* did not exert any anticipatory effect on its subsequent classifier, suggesting that singularity is an inherent aspect of Chinese classifiers.

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What are Localizers in Taiwanese? A Semantic Point of View

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The syntactic category of localizers (e.g., Mandarin) has been considered to be adjectives, adverbs, nominal suffixes, postpositions, particles, pronouns or light nouns (see Huang et al. 2009; Liu 1998). This work mainly sheds light on Taiwanese localizers and proposes that a localizer, such as *tíng* ‘top’, denotes a semantic type of $\langle\langle e, t \rangle, e \rangle$, and signals a definite facet of a location. This alternative analysis furthers to claim that a localizer serves as D (cf. Yang 1991; Lien 1999; Chiu 2014 for the analyses of clitics, particles and postpositions).

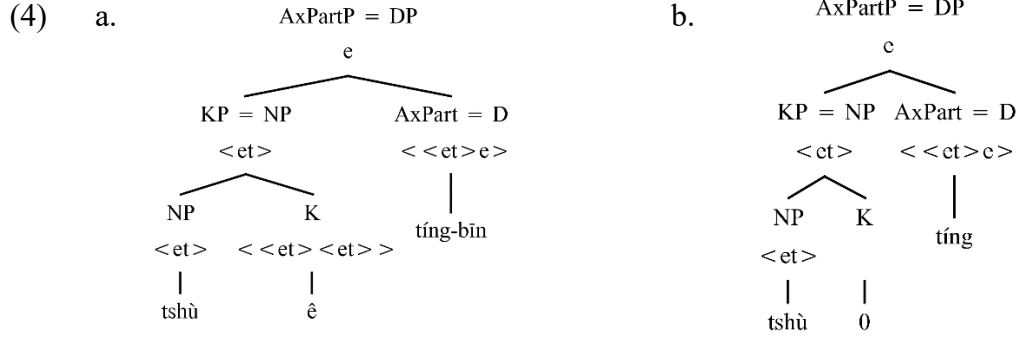
In Taiwanese, a monosyllabic localizer *tíng* ‘top’ cannot exist alone as a DP with a referential interpretation (1). In contrast, a disyllabic localizer *tíng-bīn* ‘top’ can serve as a DP (2).

- (1) a. **Tíng* *ū* *tsit-tsia* *niau-á*.
 top have one-CL cat
 b. *Tshù* *tíng* *ū* *tsit-tsia* *niau-á*.
 house top have one-CL cat
 ‘There is a cat on top of the roof.’
- (2) a. *Tíng-bīn* *ū* *tsit-tsia* *niau-á*.
 top-face have one-CL cat
 ‘There is cat on top (of the roof).’
 b. *Tshù* *tíng-bīn* *ū* *tsit-tsia* *niau-á*.
 house top-face have one-CL cat
 ‘There is a cat on top of the roof.’

A localizer can generate an inherent location, specifying definiteness, contrary to a bare noun *tshù* ‘house’, indefiniteness, i.e., of $\langle e, t \rangle$. One of piece of evidence, following Cheung (2016: 130) results from that a localizer is incompatible with a unit word phrase (3a), in contrast with (3b). Interestingly, a DP is incompatible with a unit word phrase (3c), as well.

- (3) a. *[DP [NumP sann-tòng [LocP tshù *tíng/tíng-bīn*]]]
 three-CL house top/top-face
 Int: ‘the facets of three houses’
 b. [DP [NumP sann-tòng [NP tshù]]]
 three-CL house
 ‘three houses’
 c. *[DP [NumP sann-tòng [DP hit tshù]]]
 three-CL that house

Accordingly, a localizer can bind a location, where it functions as D, such as English *the*. Since each localizer has its own facet, each facet of location is specific. It makes a referential property generate an inherent reading. The syntactic structure, following Svenonius (2008) and the semantic denotation are manifested in (4) respectively, where AxPart of AxPartP refers to a localizer and K of KP refers to the optional genitive particle *ê* ‘of’. *ê* is a vacuous functor as it is either optional or meaningless. The semantic type of *ê* is of $\langle\langle e, t \rangle, \langle e, t \rangle \rangle$ (4a).



When a localizer is monosyllabic, the genitive particle \hat{e} is prohibited in such that $*tshù \hat{e} tíng$; KP is not required. Recall that in (1b) and (2b), both AxPartPs can serve as DPs in the grammatical subject positions, this study proposes that AxPartP projects DP because it can be supported by (2a) that a bare AxPartP itself can occur alone in the grammatical subject position for there is a covert location in any context where it refers to something that is already familiar at the current stage of the conversation in that (*tshù*) *tíng-bīn ū tsit-tsiah niau-á* ‘There is a cat on top of the house’.

Taking the analysis together, the denotation of a localizer, such as *tíng*, is depicted in (5a), where in any given context, the function whose domain is those $\langle e, t \rangle$ functions f which assign true (=1) to exactly one entity, and which for all such functions f , yields that unique entity y such that $f(y) = 1$.

- (5) $\llbracket tíng \rrbracket^c = \lambda f: f \in D_{\langle e, t \rangle}$ and there is exactly one $x \in C$ such that $f(x) = 1$, the unique $y \in C$ such that $f(y) = 1$.

When an AxPartP like *tshù tíng* ‘on top of the roof’ is conveyed, it is referred to the unique location from C that satisfies *tshù* ‘house’. In other words, there are many house-facades in the word (D_e), the AxPartP *tshù tíng* can be conveyed in a context exactly when the set of contextually relevant entities (C) contains one and only one house-facade that the context refers to. To be simplified, τ binds the definite referential property, as modified in (6).

- (6) a. $\llbracket tíng \rrbracket^c = \lambda P [\#\{x \in D_e \mid P(x)\} = 1 \mid \tau P] = \lambda P \tau x P(x)$ in C
 b. $\llbracket tshù tíng \rrbracket = \llbracket tíng \rrbracket (\llbracket tshù \rrbracket) = \lambda P [\tau x P(x)] ([\lambda y [TSHÙ(y)]] = \tau x [\lambda y [TSHÙ(y)(x)]] = \tau x [TSHÙ(x)]$, of type e .

To sum up, this study has manifested that the localizers (AxParts) serve as D, specifying a unique location, and are of type $\langle \langle e, t \rangle, e \rangle$. This study also shows that the part of speech of Taiwanese localizers should be one kind of Ds. The future work will investigate the AxPartP with a numeral classifier phrase or a determiner, as seen in (7), where the AxPartP may involve a type-shifting operation, from e to $\langle e, t \rangle$. Also, the study looks at the asymmetry between (1a) and (2a), semantically.

- (7) Hia gōo-ê tshù tíng/tíng-bīn lóng ū tsit-tsiah niau-á.
 those five-CL house top/top-face Q have one-CL cat
 ‘There is a cat on each top of those five houses.’

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Unaccusatives with Double Themes

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Background: It has been a long debate whether theta roles are encoded in syntax (Hornstein 1999 etc.) or in LF (Heim & Kratzer 1998, Marantz 2009, Myler 2014 etc.). For the former, theta roles are formal features, checked during the course of syntactic derivation; for the latter, theta roles are semantic components, assigned in LF according to its syntactic environment. A critical difference is that the latter allows allophony-style variations in theta roles. This work finds a concrete example of thematic variation which gives support for the LF view of theta roles.

Issue: In this work, I focus on a special sub-type of Mandarin external possession, defined by their distinct preference to body-part possessums (1b). What is special in them is that, compared with the possessor-internal (1a), possessor externalization transitivizes the unaccusative and renders the possessor a theme of the verb.

- (1) a. Aniu de yan xia le. b. Aniu xia le yan.
Aniu POSS eye blind PRF Aniu blind PRF eye
'Aniu's eye becomes blind.' 'Aniu's eye becomes blind.'

Evidence for the theme role is that when the possessor is external, the possessum must be a body-part expression.

- (2) a. Aniu de laoshi xia le. b. *Aniu xia le laoshi.
Aniu POSS teacherblind PRF Aniu blind PRF teacher
'Aniu's teacher becomes blind.' 'Aniu's teacher becomes blind.'

A notable property of body-part expressions is that they are lexically transitive in the sense that what happens to the part also happens to the body -- when Aniu's eye is blind, Aniu is also blind. As a result, what appears to be a body-part requirement on the possessum is more accurately understood as an emergent theme role on the possessor, as it is the possessor that displaces. This body-part requirement is absent when the possessor is internal (1a) vs (2a), but it is necessary when the possessor is external (1b) vs (2b). That is, possessor externalization renders the possessor with a new role of theme. Why?

Literature: The literature offers two options. The external possessor base-generates in an addition theme head and controls into the object (Gueron 1985, Vermeleun 2005, Sim & Tomioka 2007 etc.), or the possessor raises to a theme head (Lee-Schoenfeld 2006, Rodrigues 2010/2023, Kato & Ordonez 2019 etc.).

- (3) a. [α_i APPL [V [t_i β]]].
b. [α_i APPL [V [PRO $_i$ β]]].

The control analysis does not apply here because it clearly over-generalizes. If (3b) is a correct analysis of (1b), (4) will also be predicted to be a well-formed structure.

(4) [α_i APPL [V [PRO_i β and μ 's v]]]

However, the fact is that the sentence (5b) out of the structure in (4) is ungrammatical:

(5) a. [Aniu de yan he Lili de yan] xia le.
 Aniu POSS eye and Lili POSS eye blind PRF
 b. *Aniu_i xia le [PRO_i yan he Lili de yan].
 Aniu blind PRF PRO eye and Lili POSS eye
 'Aniu's eye and Lili's eye are blind.'

As an alternative, (3a) proposes that the possessor is raised up. This correctly predicts (5b) as an island effect of raising out of a coordinate structure. However, it fails to explain the island effect in (6) where the insertion of an unstressed demonstrative *zhei* makes the structure unacceptable.

(6) Aniu xia le (*zhei) yan.
 Aniu blind PRF DEM.UNST eye
 'The eye of Aniu's becomes blind.'

According to (3a), any island effect is expected to result from the obstruction of possessor movement, since the possessor is the sole constituent that undergoes raising. However, the behavior of *zhei* goes beyond this prediction, as *zhei* is NOT a barrier to the possessor -- *zhei* allows the possessor to move beyond (7a&b).

(7) a. Zhei Aniu de yan(jing) jiushi haokan.
 DEM.UN Aniu POSS eye be beautiful
 b. Aniu zhei yan(jing) jiushi haokan.
 Aniu DEM.UN eye be beautiful
 c. *Aniu de zhei yan(jing) jiushi haokan.
 Aniu POSS DEM.UNST eye be beautiful
 'Aniu's eye is beautiful.'

Functional projections are higher than theta domains, so (7a) should be the base structure and (7b) the raised structure. Since *zhei* allows the possessor to move beyond in (7b), the island effect in (6) does not arise from blocking the possessor but something else.

Proposal This article notices an aligned movement in Mandarin DP-internal possessor displacement (8a-d) that possessors never move alone (8c&d); instead, they move together with the possessive head (8a&b).

(8) a. Yi-zhi Aniu de yan b. Aniu de yi-zhi yan
 one-CL Aniu POSS eye Aniu POSS one-CL eye
 'One of Aniu's eyes' 'One of Aniu's eyes'

- c. *Aniu yi-zhi de yan d. *de yi-zhi Aniu yan
 Aniu one-CL POSS eye POSS one-CL Aniu eye
 ‘One of Aniu’s eyes’ ‘One of Aniu’s eyes’

Therefore, I argue that the possessor externalizes together with the possessive head. Specifically, the possessive head incorporates into the unaccusative; because of an Agree relation between the possessor and the possessive head, forming a probe-goal union (Miyagawa 2009), the possessive head also moves to maintain the probe-goal union.

- (9) [_{VP} Aniu [∇] de=xia [_{DP} Aniu de yan]]

Immediately, (9) explains the island effect in (6). The insertion of *zhei* gives rise to island effect because *zhei* does not allow the possessive head to move beyond (10).

- (10) *Aniu de zhei yan.
 Aniu POSS DEM.UNST eye
 ‘This eye of Aniu’s’

It is the blocking of the possessive head that gives rise to the island effect in (6).

Discussion This proposal naturally explains the unaccusative transitivization as the possessive incorporation offers an argument position to the unaccusative (Kayne 1993), which allows its subsequent movement into the subject. Besides, it also explains why the external possessor takes on an additional theme role. A shared assumption in (3a&b) is that a new role requires a new head and the way they offer a new head is to base-generate it; by contrast, the current proposal argues that the relevant head is raised. The raising of a possessive head is capable of discharging a theme role in (1b) because the possessive head has a peculiar property of identifying with its complement in thematic content. Compare **Error! Reference source not found.a-d).**

- (11) a. Aniu de laopo b. Aniu de yan
 Aniu POSS wife Aniu POSS eye
 ‘Aniu’s wife’ ‘Aniu’s eye’
 c. Aniu de siwang d. Aniu de xiao
 Aniu POSS death Aniu POSS laugh
 ‘Aniu’s death’ ‘Aniu’s laugh’

As a possessor, *Aniu* is introduced by the possessive head, but its roles are different -- a participant of marriage, a body (vs a part), a theme and an agent -- depending on what the possessum is. That is, while *de* introduces *Aniu* as its specifier argument, the thematic role of the possessor is determined by its complement. The rule is the following:

(11) *Identification of the possessive head*

In a structure like [α de β_θ], where β bears inherent thematic content, the possessive head *de* identifies with β in terms of its thematic content. As such, *de* becomes a thematic head.

With the same identification, when *de* moves to a thematic head *xia* ‘blind’, *de* becomes thematically identified with *xia* ‘blind’ and consequently thematically marks its possessor argument as a theme role.

(12) [VP Aniu $de_{xia}=xia$ [DP Aniu de yan]]

Thus, the double role in *Aniu* arises from double thematic identification of the possessive head, in the verbal domain and in the nominal domain.

(13) [VP Aniu $de_{xia}=xia$ [DP Aniu de_{body_part} yan]]

If the current analysis is correct, the thematic assignment of the possessive head is strongly context-sensitive, exhibiting the allophony-style variation according to its syntactic environment. This supports the LF-view of theta assignment.

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Parallel Session A-2 Abstracts

(Breakout Room 2)

Lexical-Semantic Approach to Unaccusative Mismatch in Japanese

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Since the Unaccusative Hypothesis was initially proposed by Perlmutter (1978), the distinction between unaccusatives and unergatives have been extensively surveyed. Although many researchers have cross-linguistically found the convincing linguistic evidence for the split intransitivity, a puzzle remains concerning the distinction: some intransitive verbs exhibit both unaccusative and unergative behavior. One well-known mismatch in Japanese is observed in sentences with floating numerical quantifiers, which only unaccusatives, but not unergatives, allow, as in (1) and (2).

- (1) *Kodomo-ga (san-nin) [VP inu-to kooen-ni (san-nin) tui-ta]*
children-NOM three-CL dog-with park-to three-CL arrive-PAST
'Three children arrived at the park with a dog.'
- (2) *Kodomo-ga (san-nin) [VP inu-to kooen-de (?*san-nin) hashit-ta]*
children-NOM three-CL dog-with park-in three-CL run-PAST
'Three children ran in the park with a dog.'

When unergatives, especially manner-of-motion verbs (e.g., *hashi-ru* 'run,' *aruk-u* 'walk') appear with a goal phrase *-made* 'as far as,' they allow numerical quantifier floating (NQF), as shown in (3).

- (3) *Kodomo-ga [VP inu-to kooen-made san-nin hashit-ta]*
children-NOM dog-with park-as.far.as three-CL run-PAST
'Three children ran to the park with a dog.'

This study, therefore, aims to account for the mismatch found in Japanese unaccusativity by exploring a lexical-semantic approach.

According to Miyagawa (1989), NQF is possible with unaccusatives since the numeral quantifier (NQ) and its associate NP are in a mutual c-command relationship in VP; in contrast, NQF is impossible with unergatives since the subject NP associated with the NQ is generated outside VP and the NP has no chance to be c-commanded by the NQ. If this analysis is true, the subject *kodomo* in the unergative sentence (3) must have an internal argument to satisfy the mutual c-command relation with the NQ. The question that arises here is why the addition of a goal phrase allows unergatives to have an internal argument.

To explain this intriguing phenomenon, Tsujimura (1991), following Levin and Rapoport (1988), posits that unergatives, such as (3), behaving like unaccusatives in terms of NQF have the following event structure (the event structure (4) is slightly modified):

- (4) $[[x_i \text{ ACT}_{\langle \text{MANNER} \rangle}] \text{ CAUSE } [\text{BECOME } [y_i \langle \text{STATE} \rangle]]]$

The ontological type of a constant <RUN>, for instance, determines the associated event structure template, an upper subevent, and a lower subevent is augmented to give rise to a complex event (Rappaport Hovav & Levin, 1998).

Tsujimura's analysis, however, face a serious problem with transitive verbs having a coindexed subject and object, as in (5).

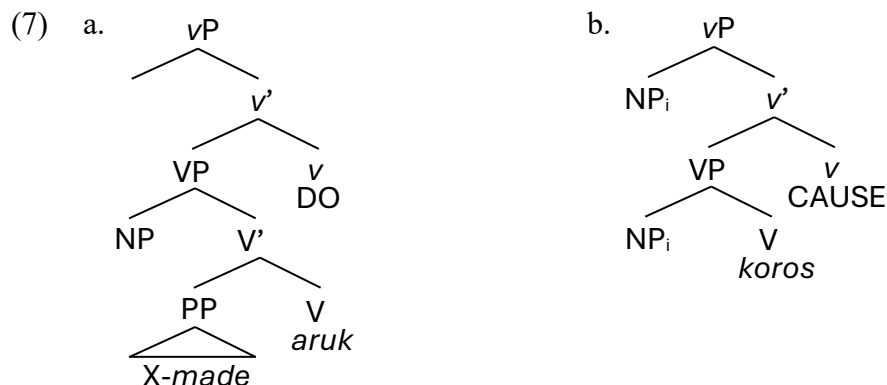
- (5) a. *Watasi-wa (*zibun-o) kooen-made arui-ta.*
 I-TOP myself-ACC park-as.far.as walk-PAST
 'I walked to the park.'
 b. *Watasi-wa zibun-de *(zibun-o) korosi-ta.*
 I-TOP by.myself myself-ACC kill-PAST
 'I killed myself.'

Although the sentence (5b) has exactly the same event structure as unergatives with a goal phrase, as illustrated in (4), it must have an overt object. Conversely, unergatives cannot have an overt object, as in (5a).

To approach this issue, I posit that unergatives with a goal phrase and causatives with a coindexed subject and object have such an event structure as (6b) and (6c), respectively.

- (6) a. [x ACT<MANNER>]
 b. [x_i ACT<MANNER>- BECOME [y_i <STATE>]]
 c. [[x_i ACT<MANNER>] CAUSE [BECOME [y_i <STATE>]]]

The two subevents in (6b) are considered a single simple event because 'x' in the upper subevent and 'y' in the lower subevent are coindexed and the two events uphold simultaneously (Levin & Rappaport Hovav, 1999). On the other hand, the event structure in (6c) is a complex event since it is lexically associated with causatives. According to the Argument-per-Subevent Condition (Rappaport Hovav & Levin, 2001, p. 779), "there must be at least one argument XP in the syntax per subevent in the event structure." Thus, unergatives with a goal phrase must have only one argument expressed in syntax, as observed in (5a), while causatives must always have two arguments, as shown in (5b). Following Levin and Rappaport Hovav (1995), I assume that an entity that both undergoes a direct change and is an immediate cause of the eventuality is represented as an internal argument. In other words, unergatives with a goal phrase such as (3) have an internal argument, and license NQF due to the mutual c-command relationship between the NQ and the internal argument. The syntactic representation of unergatives with a goal phrase and causatives with a coindexed subject and object are schematized in (7a) and (7b), respectively.



The lexical-semantic approach also accounts for a phenomenon that unergatives with a goal phrase in the *-teiru* construction allows a resultative interpretation as well as a progressive interpretation, as shown in (8).

- (8) *Miki-wa moo gakkoo-made hashit-te-iru.*
Miki-TOP already school-as.far.as run-te-PRES
'Miki has already run to the school.' (Resultative)
'Miki is already running to the school.' (Progressive)

The ambiguity can be explained by assuming that the aspectual marker *-teiru* can be interpreted with either ACT or BECOME subevent. When *-teiru* is interpreted with ACT subevent, a progressive reading is obtained. When it is so with BECOME subevent, a resultative reading is possible.

To sum up, unaccusative-like behavior of unergatives is not because unergatives become unaccusatives, but because a goal phrase is associated with BECOME subevent which makes the unergative sentence compositionally behaves like unaccusatives.

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North Korean words in English – Present and future

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In 2010, North Korea joined the Internet by launching its first website that was accessible from the outside world. 13 years on, a state-controlled portal (<http://www.dprkportal.kp/>) containing 37 websites was made available abroad. These websites are accessible in English, enabling global English-speaking communities to access North Korean content and expanding North Korea's global communication. Using the enTenTen and GloWbE corpuses, Oxford English Dictionary (OED), and North Korean websites as data sources, this study examines the state of North Korean words in English by investigating lexical, semantic, and sociocultural/political features in three sets of transliterated North Korean words found online: 1) Those officialized in English dictionaries; 2) Those featured in global English news media but which are absent from English dictionaries; and 3) Transliterated terms in English versions of North Korean websites which are (generally) not used in English-speaking contexts outside North Korea.

Many of these words combine with English words to form compounds in a process of “lexical hybridization” (Rivlina, 2019). The selected words exclude single nouns and compounds that designate North Korean places, institutions, collectives of people, and dignitaries (e.g., *Moranbong* District, *Kim Il Sung* University, *Pochonbo* Electronic Ensemble, and Comrade *Kim Il-Sung*). The focus is on words which convey North Korea-specific concepts other than terms which mostly only have an onomastic function (e.g., *Pyongyang* Indoor Stadium indicates that the stadium is in North Korea's capital). The second set of words appear in global news but are not formally recognized through dictionaries. The third set contains words that could enter the global English lexicon as North Korea expands its digital presence and more netizens gain access to transliterated terms within English versions of its websites. This study has implications for understanding how lexical borrowings are absorbed into English through virtual technologies and the role of news media in such globalized processes (Clausen, 2003; Friedrich & de Figueiredo, 2016). This is situated within the framework of Global Englishes (Galloway & Rose, 2015). This study also contributes to the understudied area of English in North Korea. Global Englishes emphasizes the varied nature of English through its multicultural, multilingual speaker population. It consists of four threads – World Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, English as an International Language, and Translanguaging (Galloway, 2017). The presence of North Korean words in English demonstrates transnational linguacultural flows between North Korea and global English-speaking communities, as North Korean content becomes communicated across borders through English.

Firstly, I analyze North Korean words officialized in English dictionaries. *Juche* is the only North Korean term in the OED, which extensively documents Korean-origin words in English. *Juche* is North Korea's national ideology which promotes North Korea's ideological, economic, political, and militaristic self-reliance and legitimizes the dynastic rule of the Kim family, currently helmed by Kim Jong-Un. The dictionary notes that *Juche* is used in compound words as a premodifier of *idea* and *thought* (OED, 2023). The enTenTen (a corpus of 52 billion words from online texts in popular internet (e.g. .com) and Anglophone country domains (e.g., .uk)) and GloWbE (a corpus of 2 billion words from online texts in 20 Anglophone, Asian, and African countries) corpora present a more diverse picture, showing that *Juche* co-occurs with numerous words. Table 1 shows *Juche*'s top 10 noun collocates (for which *Juche* is a premodifier) in these two corpora based on frequency of mentions.

Table 1. Noun collocates of *Juche* in enTenTen and GloWbE

Collocates in enTenTen (frequency)	Collocates in GloWbE (frequency)
idea (466)	idea (153)
ideology (332)	philosophy (48)
Tower (126)	Tower (7)
philosophy (77)	ideology (5)
Korea (50)	revolutionary (2)
revolution (37)	sciences (2)
calendar (33)	Korea (2)
Rules (15)	revolution (2)
Bird (8)	revolutionaries (2)
Era (7)	curtains (1)

North Korean websites demonstrate more varied ways in which *Juche* is productively used in compounds, including: *Juche*-based, *Juche*-oriented, *Juche* iron, *Juche* orientation, *Juche* modernization, *Juche* farming method, *Juche* basis among others (Rodong Sinmun, 2024a, 2024b; KCNA, 2024). Although some of these other compounds are featured in global news media, these are often cited directly from North Korean sources.

This paper also explores North Korean words found in global English-language news which are excluded from dictionaries. Many such words appear in news articles worldwide. These are generally taken from North Korean sources and includes words like *Songun* (“military-first” ideology, which glorifies the army’s role in North Korean politics) and *Chollima* (“thousand-*ri* horse”, refers to a political movement to boost North Korea’s industrialization). Global news often contextualizes such words for global audiences. For instance, the BBC explains that *Chollima* in the term *Chollima* Movement refers to “an imaginary horse with wings which can run at least 400 km a day”, while the movement was North Korea’s attempt to reconstruct its economy after the Korean War (Coleman & Bhat, 2017). Tables 2 and 3 highlight nouns that both words modify in texts in the corpora. North Korean websites present other combinations like *Songun* era, *Chollima* age, *Chollima* era, and *Chollima* upsurge.

Table 2. Noun collocates of *Songun* in enTenTen and GloWbE

Collocates in enTenTen (frequency)	Collocates in GloWbE (frequency)
politics (152)	politics (47)
(idea) follower (12)	idea (23)
	era (14)
	revolutionary (9)
	Korea (5)
	revolution (3)

Table 3. Noun collocates of *Chollima* in enTenTen and GloWbE

Collocates in enTenTen (frequency)	Collocates in GloWbE (frequency)
movement (48)	steel (2)
statue (28)	horse (1)
	backline (1)

Global news also features lesser-known words like *Chongsanri* spirit and method (North Korean way of thinking and working – *Chongsanri* is a farm lauded for its agricultural techniques), and *Taeon* work system (North Korean economic management) (Kim, 1991).

Lastly, this paper also examines North Korean words in English-language texts in North Korean websites that are (generally) not used in English-speaking contexts outside North Korea. These are transliterated terms from documents or articles in North Korean websites. These terms are often not translated for audiences outside of North Korea, and include words like *aegukphul* (literally “patriotic grass”, a North Korean crop) and *hukposan* (literally “a tonic sprinkled on soil”, referring to a North Korean fertilizer) (Kim, 1988; Kim, 2024).

Despite the current minute influence of North Korean vocabulary on the global English lexicon, the existence of numerous transliterated North Korean words in the news (adopted from North Korean sources) suggests a future where North Korea’s global communication spreads more North Korean words among English speakers. The presence of transliterated but untranslated words which (usually) feature only in North Korean websites suggests an emerging source of North Korean vocabulary which could enter the English lexicon. The websites also present alternative compounds which may be popularized in future global news. Given the recent virality of North Korean propaganda (Yeung & Bae, 2023), this future does not seem improbable. Such a future emphasizes the polycentric and evolving nature of English in the global era, where it “is no longer a language belonging to a particular nation” but “out there open for creative input from various cultures and languages” (Ahn et al., 2023, p. 94).

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Syntax of Japanese Slang *Nau*

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1. Introduction

The current study investigates the syntactic behavior of the speech time marker *nau*, which has been developed on the Internet and used colloquially more frequently. Because it is originally from English *now*, it can indicate the time of the event (i.e., ‘current time’). For example, the younger generation uses *nau* as in (1) (both examples are from X), where *nau* behaves as a temporal adverbial.

- (1) a. Shinjuku NAU. ‘I am in Shinjuku now.’
 b. Ie-ni tu-ita NAU. ‘I have just arrived home.’

However, in some cases, *nau* appears with other temporal adverbs in a single sentence, such as:

- (2) a. Ima kishoo shi-ta NAU.
 ‘I woke up just now.’
 b. Kinoo-wa puuru-de yukkuri shi-ta NAU.
 ‘I took a good rest in a pool yesterday (now speaking).’
 c. 20-hun-go kitaku-s-uru NAU.
 ‘I am going to go home in 20 minutes from now.’

These examples above indicate that *nau* is a syntactically special element compared to other temporal adverbs. Then, how does *nau* syntactically behave? How is it realized when it cooccurs with other temporal adverbs in a single clause? It is argued that *nau* is responsible for marking the speech time rather than the event time in these instances. As being a speech time marker, *nau* appears higher in a clause structurally so that it takes a wide scope over the event time markers.

2. The event time vs. the speech time

The event time that refers to the time the event occurs is often marked with the tense of the predicate and with temporal adverbs. In contrast, the speech time, i.e., the time of the speaker’s utterance is independent of the time of the event. These differences are shown in (3/4a), where *rakugaki(-o) su-ru/shi-te-ru* ‘do a sketch’ indicates the event and the event time (indicated by the tense), and *nau*, with a different role, marks the speech time. To clarify their syntactic differences, consider (3) and (4). When *nau* is placed at either the sentence-initial (3/4b) and (3/4d) or final (3/4a) position, such sentences are grammatical because *nau* takes a wide scope over other temporal adverbs, *kore-kara* ‘from now’ and *asa-kara* ‘from the morning.’ In contrast, (3/4c) and (3/4e) are grammatically unacceptable because *nau* is under the scope of other temporal adverbs. (3/4d) are better, but no actual uses of them are found.

(3) NAU + -u verb sentence:

- a. [Kore-kara rakugaki s-uru] NAU.
 this.moment-from sketch(-ACC) do-NONPASTNAU
 ‘(I’m) going to start sketching from now.’

- b. NAU [kore-kara rakugaki s-uru.]
- c. *Kore-kara [rakugaki NAU s-uru.]
- d. ?NAU [rakugaki kore-kara s-uru.]
- e. *Rakugaki [kore-kara NAU s-uru.]

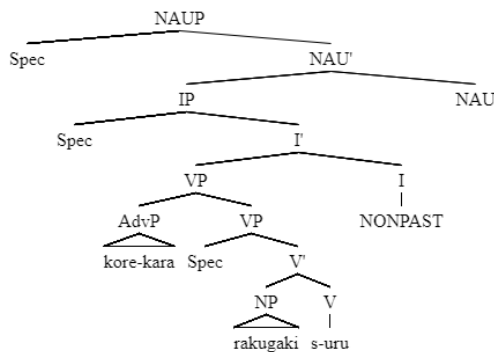
(4) NAU + -te iru verb sentence:

- a. Asa-kara rakugaki shi-te(i)r-u NAU.
 morning-from sketch(-ACC) do-PROG-NONPASTNAU
 '(I've) been doing a sketch from the morning.'
- b. NAU asa-kara rakugaki shi-ter-u.
- c. *Asa-kara rakugaki NAU shi-ter-u.
- d. ?NAU rakugaki asa-kara shi-ter-u.
- e. *Rakugaki asa-kara NAU shi-ter-u.

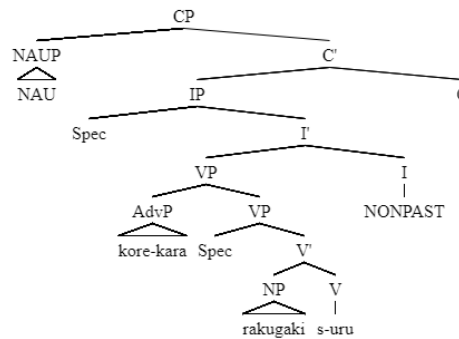
3. Syntactic analysis

To my knowledge, no previous studies specifically discussed the syntactic behavior of *nau*, but there are some studies regarding right dislocation; although it is unusual to put a temporal adverb at the end of a sentence in Japanese because of its head-final structure, some researchers argue that the Japanese language allows it in colloquial situations (Furuya 2020; Takita 2009; Yoshida & Harada 2018; among others). However, none of them explored the case of the temporal adverbs. Assuming that *nau* can establish its own phrase, different from the temporal adverbial phrase, the possible syntactic structures of (3a) and (3b) can be schematically written in (5). These trees show that the NAUP (NAU (speech time) Phrase) is higher than any other element in the sentence. In (5a), when NAU comes at the end of a sentence, NAUP projects all other elements in the sentence, while in (5b), when NAU is placed at the beginning of a sentence, NAUP is attached to the Spec position of the CP and NAU agrees with C. In short, when *nau* appears with the speech time marker, it must keep a wide scope over the other temporal adverb. This accounts for the well-formedness of the NAU construction when another temporal term appears in the sentence. For the other temporal adverb, *kore-kara*, I assume it comes to the VP adjunct position, according to Koizumi (1991).

(5) a. Structure of (3a): sentence-final



b. Structure of (3b): sentence-initial



Note that *nau* belongs to the main clause to have a wide scope over other temporal adverbs when there are two (matrix and embedded) clauses as seen in (6a) and (6b). When both *nau* and a temporal adverb are in the embedded clause like in (6c), the embedded clause is a direct quote,

i.e., a single sentence. There is no case where NAU modifies *s-uru* and *kore-kara* modifies *kak-u* except NAU is in a quoted clause while *kore-kara* is in the matrix clause.

(6) NAU in the two-clause sentence

- a. NAU [kore-kara rakugaki-o s-uru] to kak-u.
'I am going to write "I will start sketching from now" right now.'
- b. NAU kore-kara [rakugaki-o s-uru] to kak-u.
- c. [NAU kore-kara rakugaki-o s-uru] to kak-u.

In conclusion, the current structural analysis can explain the syntactic behavior of *nau* as a speech time indicator.

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Exploring Sentence Structure, Rhythm, and Storytelling in Dialectal Writing: A Case Study of the Shanghai Dialect Novel *Fanhua* 繁花

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Fanhua (繁花, Blossoms) is a novel written in Shanghainese, set against the backdrop of over 30 years of promoting Putonghua in mainland China. Initially written in Shanghainese, it is a dialect novel first serialized online for local readers who are fluent in the dialect. When it was later published as a single volume, the author made extensive linguistic improvements to make it accessible to readers nationwide. Its publication in 2013 sparked significant discussion among researchers (e.g., Mao, 2018; Liu, 2019; Yu, 2024). However, most current research has focused on Shanghainese's contribution to literature rather than its linguistic implications. This study offers a fresh perspective by examining the role of Shanghainese in sentence structure, rhythm, and narrative style. By analyzing the sentence structure, rhythm, and narrative style of this novel text, we found that the language used in this book was carefully designed by the author, particularly in the use of the sentence-final particle “吧” (ba), four-character expressions, and Storytelling style narrative.

Fanhua 繁花 was initially serialized and published on a local Shanghai website, starting in May 2011, catering primarily to readers in the Wu-speaking region of China. Subsequently, it was released in a single volume in 2013, garnering a nationwide readership. The author, Jin Yucheng 金宇澄, consciously refined the Shanghai dialect within the text to enhance comprehension for a broader audience, making the novel more accessible and suitable for written consumption (Zhang, 2014). Previous studies concentrate more on the dialect's contribution to the novel's literary nature. Mao (2018) indicates the use of dialect in the novel to enhance its folkloric qualities and vividly recreate the everyday life of the city's residents. Liu (2019) claims that this novel continues the tradition of using the Wu dialect and furthers a centuries-old literary practice. Yu (2024) suggests that using Shanghainese in this book imparts a defamiliarization effect and a unique aesthetic character, adding a layer of intrigue and artistic value to the novel.

In a linguistic analysis of the Shanghainese dialect used in this book, Zhang (2014) indicates that the author has carefully refined Shanghainese to make it readable for readers nationwide, retaining locally distinctive lexicons and making phonetic adjustments for balance. Shen (2017) notes that it employs a typical "*Chinese Accent*," which is reflected in the author's use of sentences of varying lengths and syllables that rhyme harmoniously staggered. Liu (2019) notes that this novel's writing process and language style inherit one of the classical literary genres, known as "*Huabenti* (话本体 Storytelling-style)."

This study examines the linguistic characteristics of the Shanghai dialect in the book, focusing on the sentence structure, rhythm, and narrative style in the novel *Fanhua*. While previous research has discussed these elements individually—such as sentence structure, rhythm, and the *Huabenti* (话本体) storytelling style—few have explored how they interact and to what extent they shape the novel's linguistic texture. By analyzing the use of the sentence-final particle “吧” (ba), alongside how syllabic patterns influence rhyme and how narrative style integrates with sentence structure and rhythm, this study reveals that short, fragmented colloquialisms characterize the language of *Fanhua*, which shows a typical *Chinese Accent* (汉语腔 *Hanyu Qiang*). The author's deliberate use of rhythmic language—marked by frequent four-character

expressions, the particle "吧" (ba), and a strong sense of rhyme—mirrors the features of the *Huabenti* (话本体 storytelling style). These three elements—sentence structure, rhythm, and narrative style—intertwine to create the novel's distinct dialectal flavor.

(1) 三天后，陶陶来电话，想与沪生合办小旅馆，地点是恒丰路桥，近火车站，利润超好。

Three days later, TaoTao reached out via phone, expressing a desire to collaborate with Husheng in establishing a small hotel near the railway station at Hengfeng Road Bridge, promising lucrative returns.

(*Fanhua*:3)

(2) 沪生一口回绝，心里明白，陶陶卖蟹，已经卖出不少花头，再开旅馆，名堂更多。

Husheng refused immediately, understanding that TaoTao sells crabs, has already sold many tricks, and then opened a hotel. The story will be even more.

(*Fanhua*:3)

In the two consecutive excerpts (1) and (2) from the novel *Fanhua*, the rhythmic harmony and flow within these two sentences are enhanced by the successive sets of four-syllabic phrases at their endings. This deliberate cadence reinforces the overall rhythm and contributes to the author's stylistic wordplay, creating a sense of unity between the sentences. The preceding sentences exemplify the neatness and consistency of the rhythm of the syllables within the sentence. The following excerpt (3) introduces a more varied and irregular rhythm, where syllables of differing lengths generate a dynamic and textured flow.

(3) 陶陶说，此地风景多好，外面亮，棚里暗，躺椅比较低，以逸待劳，我有依靠，笃定。

TaoTao said the scenery here is so good. Outside is bright, the tent is dark, and the lounge chair is relatively low so we can rest. I have to rely on it, so it is no problem.

(*Fanhua*:1-2)

(4) 做女人，打扮顶重要，吃到肚皮里，最实惠。

To be a woman, dressing up is crucial, and eating until satisfied is the most cost-effective option.

(*Fanhua*:2)

In excerpt (4), the author intentionally crafted a symmetrical rhythmic structure. The first half of the sentence consists of a three-syllable phrase followed by a five-syllable phrase, while the second half reverses this pattern with a five-syllable phrase preceding a three-syllable phrase. Overall, the author focuses on designing the rhythm, particularly the ending parts of sentences.

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Parallel Session B-1 Abstracts

(Breakout Room 1)

Analysis of Partial Success and Failed Attempts in Mandarin Change-of-State

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Telic expressions in English, such as “repair a computer,” typically entail a complete restoration of functionality, as shown in (1):

(1) I **repaired** the computer, and it functions well now/#but I failed.

In contrast, the Mandarin equivalent allows for interpretations of partial success or failed attempts, demonstrating the “incompletion effect” (Chief, 2007):

(2) Partial Success

Wo **xiu**-le zhe-tai diannao, dan mei xiu-wan.
I **repair**-PERF DET-CL computer but NEG repair-finish
'I **repaired** this computer but did not finish repairing it.'

(3) Failed Attempt

Wo **xiu**-le zhe-tai diannao, dan xiu baozha/duanlu le.
I **repair**-PERF DET-CL computer but repair explode/short-circuit PERF
'I **repaired** this computer but made it explode/short-circuit.'

Standard theories on verbal aspect (Dowty, 1979; Krifka, 1998) propose that telic predicates in the past tense entail result states, which does not adequately capture the current phenomenon. Previous research on the Mandarin incompletion effect has primarily focused on strictly incremental theme verbs (e.g., *chi* ‘eat,’ *jian* ‘build’) and has given limited attention to monomorphic accomplishments (e.g., *sha* ‘kill,’ *mai* ‘buy’). Additionally, there has been more emphasis on “partial success” than “failed attempts.”

This study investigates three main questions: I. What is the scope of the incompletion effect in Mandarin, and how can it be interpreted? Current analyses do not comprehensively account for which predicates exhibit this effect. Some studies argue that certain verbs inherently express incompletion, while others suggest that the semantic properties of nouns can affect the ability of creation verbs to convey incomplete readings (Soh & Kuo, 2005). In understanding this phenomenon, while some analyses argue that significant partiality is required (e.g., *kill* ‘sha,’ Koenig & Chief, 2008), in other cases, even minimal recognizable changes may suffice (e.g., *chi-le wu-ge pingguo* ‘ate five apples,’ see also Singh, 1991 on Hindi). II. What factors contribute to the incomplete interpretations in Mandarin? Previous studies have explored factors such as nominal properties, verb gradability, and the perfective marker *-le* ‘PERF’ (Smith, 1997; Soh & Kuo, 2005; Wu, 2005; Chief, 2007; Koenig & Chief, 2008; Tham, 2013). However, they do not provide a unified explanation. III. What insights can be drawn regarding aspectual categories and lexical semantics in Mandarin and other languages? By discussing these questions, this study seeks to offer a more comprehensive understanding of Mandarin accomplishments and their implications for broader theoretical frameworks.

This study proposes that the incompletion effect in Mandarin is observed across a range of accomplishment predicates. By applying aspectual diagnostics, it distinguishes accomplishments from other categories, demonstrating that their encoded incomplete meaning generally indicates any event stage progressing beyond the initial stage. Different comparison standards are used to clarify the semantic distinctions between partial success (progression beyond the starting point) and failed attempts (progression toward an induced endpoint).

The paper examines potential sources of incomplete readings, arguing that the incompleteness effect arises primarily from the properties of verbal predicates. A default, verbal-level partial operator is suggested, which maps a partially ordered set of eventuality stages to the most developed stage at the given reference time and world. This operator captures minimal change over time, with the partial interpretation varying based on specific measurements over eventualities. For monomorphemic accomplishments like *sha* ‘kill’ and *mai* ‘buy,’ the proper parts of event stages correspond to the ordered parts of the process an individual undergoes, independent of extra measure functions. The incomplete reading thus reflects a partial realization of actions toward an induced goal. For cumulative verbs, such as manner verbs and (strictly) incremental verbs (e.g., *chi* ‘eat,’ *jian* ‘build,’ *pao* ‘run’), smaller event stages correspond to smaller parts of the object, while larger stages map to larger parts. Therefore, partial meaning indicates that parts of the objects are created, consumed, or traversed. Scalar verbs and some dynamic adjectives (e.g., *re* ‘warm’ and *qing* ‘clear’, cf. Zhang, 1995), as degree achievements (cf. Dowty, 1979), relate eventuality stages to degree changes in the properties of individuals, requiring only a partial traversal on both scales. Conversely, to convey a sense of completion, Mandarin accomplishment predicates typically require resultative morphemes like *wan* ‘complete,’ *hao* ‘well,’ *guang* ‘up,’ or syntactic components such as goal PPs or measure constructions.

This analysis suggests a fundamental difference in the lexical semantics of accomplishments between Mandarin and English. While English accomplishments have a clearly defined endpoint, their Mandarin counterparts feature only an induced endpoint, where the event simply progresses beyond its initial stage. This pattern is also observed in other Asian languages, such as Hindi, Korean, and Japanese (cf. Ikegami, 1985; Singh, 1991; Park, 1993), indicating the potential for a unified analysis of accomplishments across these languages. The study further highlights cross-linguistic distinctions in the acceptability of incomplete interpretations for different subtypes of accomplishments that may exist, as well as typological differences between these languages and languages like English.

Two further questions arise: I. Why can Mandarin accomplishments express both partial and complete realizations? For example, *chi-le wu-ge pingguo* ‘ate five apples’ can mean taking a small bite from each apple while still allowing for the possibility of consuming all five. This study considers full completion to be a cancellable implicature, and the semantic requirements for partial realization do not preclude complete interpretations. Additionally, in unmarked accomplishments predicates, complete interpretations are context-dependent. II. How can partial realizations be explained in English accomplishments, which typically encode a built-in endpoint? For instance, in English, certain incremental verbs and degree achievements allow for some degree of acceptability even when the endpoint is denied, as shown in (4):

(4) a. I **straightened** the rope, but not completely. (Hay et al., 1999)

b. ??I **ate five apples** at the Apple Exp but only finished four.

A tentative explanation is that these cases involve alternative mapping relations. In (4a), the proper parts of the event correspond to the process of the effort to straighten the rope rather than achieving complete straightness. Thus, the endpoint of straightening is not tied to the maximum degree of the rope’s straightness. In (4b), an alternative phrasing like “managed to eat” might better capture the intended meaning, where the endpoint is defined as taking at least a bite of each apple rather than consuming them entirely.

In summary, this study provides a unified analysis of unmarked accomplishments with incomplete interpretations in Mandarin, contributing to a deeper understanding of aspectual categories and lexical semantics cross-linguistically.

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English listeners' perception of Korean laryngeal contrasts among word-initial stops and talker variability

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Adult second language learners often have difficulty distinguishing novel phonological contrasts. The most recent study on English listeners' perception of Korean stop consonants (Lee, 2024) found that L1 English listeners have greater difficulty discriminating Korean lenis-aspirated contrasts than lenis-fortis and aspirated-fortis, as lenis and aspirated stops were perceptually assimilated to voiceless stops and fortis to voiced stops. While the findings on perception are consistent with Schmidt (2007), they partially differ from those of Nagle et al. (2023) in that Korean fortis stops were variably mapped onto English voiced and voiceless stops. Contrarily, a discrimination study (Kwon, 2014) found that English listeners had greater difficulty discriminating lenis-fortis contrasts than lenis-aspirated. Considering talkers systematically vary in production (Chodroff & Wilson, 2017) and this systematic variability influences L2 listeners' perception, resulting in a different contrast being difficult (Hayes-Harb & Barrios, 2024), a full characterization of the perception of Korean stops by English listeners required speech materials represented by multiple talkers.

The current study, building upon Lee (2024), investigates whether L1 English listeners' perception and discrimination of Korean laryngeal contrasts involving word-initial stops differ depending on the talkers. We repeat the procedure of Lee with speech materials elicited from two additional female talkers, who are L1 speakers of Seoul dialect. L1 English listeners with no prior experience in Korean performed in a perceptual assimilation and AX discrimination task. Data from Talker 3 revealed equivalent perception patterns observed in Lee (2024). However, it showed more accurate discrimination of /t-t^h/ than /p-p^h/ and /k-k^h/, while Lee observed more accurate discrimination of /k-k^h/.

Data collection for Talker 2 is ongoing; preliminary data showed unexpected perception between alveolar and bilabial stops. Overall, these findings highlight the influence of individual talkers on L2 listeners' perception and the importance of implementing multiple talkers when characterizing learners' perception of novel contrasts.

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Constructing solidarity in an L1-L2 Korean conversation group

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Despite a recent surge in global interest in Korean language and culture, little is known about how Korean as a Second Language (KSL) learners use Korean language and culture in social settings beyond traditional educational environments. While past research (Zimmerman, 2007) indicates that intercultural conversation groups offer unique opportunities for participants to engage in language practice while navigating cultural and L1 differences, the literature on intercultural communication in KSL contexts remains limited. The existing studies have predominantly examined KSL learners' social interactions and identity construction within the language socialization framework, often focusing on contexts like family, classroom, and Korean community settings (Lee, 2023). However, none of these studies aimed to look at these contexts as an intercultural space. Interculturality has been extensively investigated in previous L2 discourse studies, but it has not yet been examined in the field of KSL. Furthermore, the analysis of identities was largely confined to the ethnic identities of heritage language learners.

This ongoing study addresses these gaps by examining a 54-minute audio recording of an L1-L2 Korean conversation group at a university. The study participants consisted of three members and one representative of the Korean conversation group, all of whom were graduate students at the same university, specializing in language-related fields. These participants had formed friendships and interpersonal connections beyond the group, engaging in regular interactions outside of the conversation group, as will be evident in the excerpts.

Table 1. Participants' Information

Name	Gender	Age	L1	L2	Major/Degree	Role
Sohee	Female	30	Korean	English (advanced) Japanese (basic)	SLS (Second Language Studies) PhD	representative
Yuna	Female	25	Korean	English (advanced) French (Intermediate)	SLS MA	member, researcher
Lucy	Female	43	English	Korean (intermediate) Spanish (advanced)	SLS MA	member
Kyle	Female	23	English	Korean (intermediate) Japanese (advanced) Mandarin(intermediate) German (intermediate)	Japanese MA	member

The present study asked: 1) In what ways is the Korean conversation group intercultural in terms of the linguistic and discursive practices that participants use? 2) How do participants utilize the Korean language and other linguistic repertoires as resources, and for what purposes?

Audio recorded data were transcribed with conventions adapted from Hepburn and Bolden (2013). The participants were also asked to complete an online survey on 1) basic demographic information 2) language backgrounds and 3) participation in the conversation group. To be specific, they were asked about their motivations for joining the group and asked if there was anything they hoped to gain or achieve by participating in the group. Lastly, in a member checking session with all the participants, I validated my interpretations and asked them whether they could further explain what they were talking about at particular instances.

The analysis was guided by Goffman (1974)'s framing theory, which explores how members define the situation they establish in interaction. To understand how individuals expressed their alignments towards each other and transitioned between different participation roles in conversation based on how they were addressed by others, I employed Goffman (1981)'s footing and participation framework. I sought to identify patterns in discourse where participants identified frames and adjusted their alignments by examining contextualization cues such as codeswitching, repetition of phrases and words, laughter, intonation, and pitch.

The findings revealed that the common notion of novice-expert relationship in L1-L2 speaking groups was questionable as the roles played by Koreans and KSL learners were not binary. Instead, their intercultural differences became an affordance for fostering solidarity, as their shared schemas and identities were brought in to demonstrate alignment with one another. This study advances our understanding of recognizing L2 learners as proficient language users who can draw upon diverse linguistic and cultural resources to communicate effectively, rather than viewing them as inadequate language learners in need of extensive instruction.

Excerpt 1: Bringing in shared linguistic knowledge

- | | | |
|---|--------|---|
| 1 | Sohee: | 점심은 뭐 먹었나요?
jeom-sim-eun mwo meog-eoss-na-
yo?
<i>What did you have for lunch?</i> |
| 2 | Kyle: | 음:: leftover? 한국어로 뭐라고 해?
eum:: leftover? han-gug-eo-lo mwo-la-go hae?
<i>Leftovers? How do you say it in Korean?</i> |
| 3 | Sohee: | 남은 음식?
nam-eun eum-sig?
<i>Leftovers?</i> |
| 4 | Yuna: | [남은 음식.
[nam-eun eum-sig.
<i>Leftovers.</i> |
| 5 | Kyle: | [남은 음식.
[nam-eun eum-sig.
<i>Leftovers.</i> |
| 6 | Sohee: | 응응.
eung-eung.
<i>Yes.</i> |
| 7 | Kyle: | 먹었어요.
meog-eoss-eo-yo.
<i>I ate my leftovers.</i> |

- 8 Sohee: 응응. 뭐가 남아있었어요?
eung-eung. mwo-ga nam-a-iss-eoss-co-yo?
What were the leftovers?
- 9 ((they all laugh))
- 10 Sohee: ((laughs)) 너무 물어봐.
neo-mu mul-eo-bwa.
Maybe I'm asking too much.
- 11 Kyle: Salmon
- 12 Sohee: 오, 연어.
o, yeon-eo.
Oh, salmon.
- 13 Kyle: 연어.
yeon-eo.
Salmon.
- 14 Sohee: 응, 사 (ㄱ) ((laughs))
eung, sa-ke.
Yes, salmon.
- 15 Kyle: ((laughs)) 사 (ㄱ)
sa-ke.
Salmon.

In Excerpt 1, although the group leader Sohee demonstrates her institutional identity, she does not clearly position herself as a linguistic authority; Sohee, with a potential answer, seeks confirmation from another L1 speaker, Yuna, who played a more authoritative role in teaching Korean. Two learning frames occur in this excerpt but whereas the KSL learner actively seeks knowledge from the native speakers in the first learning frame, this does not happen all the time. But even in the absence of the “How do you say it in Korean?” question, L1 speakers are able to notice L2 speakers’ language choice (English) as a contextualization cue and provide the Korean word. Moreover, L1 Korean and L2 Korean speaker’s shared linguistic knowledge of a third language plays a role in blurring the lines between the L1 expert and L2 novice relationship within the group and brings out a collaborative playing with language frame, constructing solidarity among the group members.

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Parallel Session B-2 Abstracts

(Breakout Room 2)

Establishing a Unique Artist Identity in the Entertainment Industry: A Case Study of a Japanese Female Singer

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It has been widely agreed that language choices (including voice quality) and social identity are closely associated (e.g., Podesva 2015). Social identity is not fixed and is mutable depending on a speaker's language choice. Miyazaki (2002, 2004, and 2023) has shown that girls at a high school in Japan employed masculine first-person pronouns *ore* and *boku* in their social world to create new sets of indexicalities and non-traditional social identities. These girls considered their use of *ore* as cool, powerful, independent, and assertive, and *boku* to be gender appropriate, whereas they interpreted feminine first-person pronouns *watashi* and *atashi* as 'girly girly.' While much of the research on social identity (e.g., Dahlberg-Dodd 2019, Eckert 1998, Zhang 2005, and among the works of Miyazaki) primarily focuses on school, business settings, comics, and pop music; other professional settings such as the entertainment industry have not been documented.

This paper reports an ongoing case study of how the famous Japanese female singer and talent Ano-chan (あのちゃん) constructs a unique artist identity in the entertainment industry by employing a combination of different linguistic choices. This study aims to address two research questions: 1) What linguistic choices does Ano-chan employ to construct her unique identity? 2) What motivated her to make these linguistic choices?

This study employed quantitative and qualitative approaches and analyzed Ano-chan's speech style from the following four sources: (1) 10 episodes of the Japanese TV program Ano Channel hosted by Ano-chan, (2) 4 guest interviews, (3) 19 song lyrics written by Ano-chan, and (4) 2 live videos. The transcriptions of these resources were downloaded and closely examined. The study also consulted social media posts and news articles regarding her speech style.

The result: Ano-chan makes two types of linguistic choices, changing her voice quality and the use of the masculine first-person pronoun *boku*, to establish her unique identity throughout her performing career.

This study found that Ano-chan's voice quality has been trained to establish a cute, innocent, and childlike persona. In addition, she uses only the non-traditional first-person pronoun *boku*. Her speech contains no trace of the traditional first-person pronouns *watashi* and *atashi*, nor the non-traditional first-person pronoun *ore*. Table 1 shows the results from the main sources.

Interestingly, this study also found that anxiety about public speaking and the feminine connotation of using the traditional first-person pronoun *watashi* were the major motivations for her change. Regarding questions about her changed voice, she admitted that she had a difficult time speaking with people. In a social media post, Ano-chan indicated that wanting to be neutral and surviving in the entertainment industry were the rationales for using *boku* instead of *watashi* and *atashi*. Furthermore, in a guest interview, she stated that using *boku* to refer to herself is "cool."

This study not only reveals the linguistic choices Ano-chan makes to construct her own identity, but also unveils the motivations for changing her voice and choosing to use the masculine first-person pronoun *boku*. The findings of this paper offer further insight into the field of social identity, highlighting an example of how language and identity are negotiated in the entertainment industry.

Table 1. The frequency of the use of pronouns in Ano-chan's speech.

Sources	<i>Boku</i>	<i>Ore</i>	<i>Watashi</i>	<i>Atashi</i>
10 TV Program Episodes (Ano Channel) オリジナルスムージーチャレンジ (Original Smoothie Challenge); 本格ストップモーションアニメ作り (Making Real Stop Motion Animation); 井口さんと歯を可愛くしよう (Let's make Mr. Ikuchi and his teeth cuter); etc.	126	0	0	0
4 Guest Interviews チェンソーマンの好きなキャラとは！？ (Which character in Chainsaw Man does Ano-chan like?); etc.	29	0	0	0
18 Songs written by Ano-chan F Wonderful World; 鯨の骨 (Whale Bone); AIDA; etc.	75	0	0	0
2 Live broadcast videos あののオールナイトニッポン (Ano's All Night Japan); etc.	139	0	0	0
Total	369	0	0	0

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Taigi Writing and Mandarin Influence

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The written form of Taigi has been subject to contested standards. During the period of Japanese Colonialization (1895-1945) and Nationalist Government Rule (1945-1987), Taigi was continually repressed in official standards in favor of the “national language” which was used by both governments to refer to Japanese and Mandarin respectively (Klötter 2005). While the period after martial law has been characterized by a shift from Mandarin-only to a Mandarin-plus model (Scott and Tiun 2007:58), it would be a mischaracterization to imply that these non-Mandarin varieties receive anywhere near equal treatment in Taiwan (Dupré 2014:403). In terms of writing, there are several competing standards, leading to the situation which Henning Klötter (2005:249) described as “polyorthographia,” meaning several writing systems being used interchangeably for representing the same language. In the case of Taigi, this means Chinese, Japanese Katakana, and romanization. This variation has been taken to be in a certain relationship with social meaning, such as what has been suggested by Heylen (2021:81). However, these previous discussions of Taigi writing were limited to the theoretical scope of Taiwan as a nation or a personal analysis of individuals or small groups. Few researchers have focused on “writing as a social practice” (Sebba 2007:26) with the broad Taiwanese public (one exception would be Chiung 2001, this study was primarily focused on the perception of romanization versus characters). The present study explores the orthographic practices of 38 individuals living in Tainan, Taiwan during a forced-writing activity as part of a larger project on Taigi orthography. Ages of the participants ranged from 19 to 78, with a mean age of 32.5 and a median age of 30. Gender distribution was roughly equal (Female: 19, Male: 16, Other: 3). The participant population was highly educated, with 31 individuals possessing a college degree—while this is a high percentage that potentially poses issues for the representability of the sample, this is also reflective of the relatively high rates of postsecondary attainment, as government figures estimate 46.5% of Taiwanese possess a bachelor’s degree or higher (compare to the 37.9% rate reported for the United States).

Participants were presented with an audio recording of three short example sentences in Taigi about a wide variety of topics. Participants were able to listen to the recording as many times as they would like and were asked to provide a written representation of these sentences in whichever manner best represented their normal practice. Consequently, there was a wide variety in the manners in which participants decided to respond. The majority of participants decided to type the characters into the response box using the *Zhuyin fuhao* 注音符號 input method, as is typical in Taiwan. Some participants requested a sheet of paper to handwrite the characters, as they were unable to comfortably type these characters on the computer. Finally, some other individuals requested either access to a special keyboard or to use the alphabetic layout to type their response. Given the previous descriptions of written Taigi, such as that discussed in Klötter (2005), the population appears to be roughly representative in the choice of methods.

However, when these responses are analyzed more closely, several important differences start to appear. Responses for each sentence were collected and then input to a word cloud generator to see the overall distribution of characters (see Fig. 1 for an example). Further analysis occurred on placed which displayed variation, such as the third person pronoun in sentence one. In the case of the third person pronoun, the extent of Mandarin influence on Taigi is revealed. While nearly all dictionaries for Taigi, including the government-approved version, promote the usage of the

character <伊>, the most common character was the Mandarin third person pronoun character <他>, or less commonly, the female variant <她>. This was seen even in the generation which received formal schooling in written Taigi since 2000. Overall, the results point to the still unstable status of written Taigi within Taiwanese society—despite the best efforts of both the government and local language activists. If neither intentional schooling in Taigi orthography nor the efforts of local activists to tie orthography to local identity are sufficient to spur widespread literacy in Taigi, one remaining question is how will the future of Taigi look? This study provides one of the only methodological surveys in which proficiency in Taigi orthography is collected, and as such presents important considerations for future standardization efforts. In summary, this presentation will provide more insight into popular writing practice for Taigi in Taiwan, as well as implications with standardization efforts and variation.



Figure 1. Word Cloud of Question 1

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L2 Working Memory and Speech Generation - Do Response Times Matter?

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Introduction: Working memory (WM) plays a major role in L2 language skills including speech generation. Working memory capacity (WMC) varies across individuals, and researchers have attempted to investigate whether or not higher WMC promotes L2 speech generation (i.e., Fortkamp, 2000, Mota, 2003, etc.). As a tool to measure one's WMC, Daneman and Green (1986) created the English Speaking Span Test (ESST), widely used in psycholinguistics. Hattori (2023) created a Japanese Speaking Span Test (JSST), reporting its functionality as comparable to the ESST. One of the issues with these tests is that there is no time limit, allowing participants to take longer response times (RTs) without penalty for their WMC scores. The current study investigates if one's RT is related to their WMCs, indicated by the speaking span test (SST) scores. The RT of each test (JSST and ESST) is compared with the corresponding SST score.

Design: Thirty-six English-speaking learners of Japanese participated in this study. Group 1 consists of eighteen participants, and they took both ESST and JSST. The rest of the participants belong to Group 2¹, and they only took JSST. In Experiment 1, ESST and JSST scores, and each test's RT in Group 1 were compared. In Experiment 2, both group's JSST scores and RT were compared. Fortkamp's (2000) ESST, which was modeled after Daneman and Green's (1986) original ESST, was used in this study. For both ESST and JSST, a word set was shown on the computer screen while each participant read it silently. At the end of the trial, the letter "Q" was shown on the screen. When they saw the letter "Q," they produced sentences with the target words they saw in the trial. Each RT was calculated based off the time between the introduction of "Q" and the first sentence produced.

Results: In order to investigate the effect of RT on Japanese learners' WMC, simple linear regressions were conducted. Experiment 1 revealed that: 1) ESST is a good indicator of JSST; 2) RT did not correlate significantly with ESST scores; and 3) RTs measured in ESST and JSST were significantly correlated. A simple linear regression model was found significant between ESST and JSST ($F(1, 16) = 22.314, p < .001, R^2 = .582$) which accounted for 58.2% of the observed variance in JSST scores. ESST score was a positive and significant predictor of JSST score ($B = .810, p < .001$), which suggests that we can predict a .810-point increase in JSST score for each one-point increase in ESST score (see Table 1). This means that if one's L1 WMC is higher, it is likely that their L2 WMC is also higher. In terms of RT in ESST, however, it was not a good indicator of ESST scores, meaning that just because participants responded faster does not mean they have higher WMC. Regarding RT in each test, a simple linear regression model was found significant between ESST RTs and JSST RTs ($F(1,16) = 9.165, p = .008, R^2 = .364$). ESST RT was a significant predictor of JSST RT ($B = 1.174, p = .3027$) (see Table 2). This indicates that learners who responded faster in ESST were also likely to respond faster in JSST. Based on the results from Experiment 1, it seems plausible that learners who responded fast did not necessarily have higher WMCs. Just because they responded to their first sentence in each trial faster does not

¹ Among those, four participants were native Chinese speakers living in the US at the time of the experiment.

necessarily predict that they can actually hold items, recall them, and create sentences with them efficiently and effectively (i.e., larger WMC).

Table 1. Summary of the Data Analysis: JSST and ESST

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	-2.990	12.048	-.248	.807
ESST	.810	.171	4.724	< .001

Table 2. Summary of the Data Analysis: JSST-RT and ESST-RT

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	1.587	1.754	.905	.379
ESST-RT	1.174	.388	3.207	.008

Experiment 2 revealed that JSST RT was not a good indicator of a JSST score, and larger RT differences in the SSTs do not lead to larger differences in WMC as indicated by L1 and L2 scores. As predicted, the effect of RT on JSST scores was not statistically significant (see Table 3). A significant linear regression model was not found ($F(1, 34) = 1.925, p < .174, R^2 = .054$), and RT measured in JSST was not a positive and significant predictor of JSST scores ($B = -.059, p < .174$). Furthermore, score and RT differences in each test (Group 1) did not correlate (see Table 4). This means that just because there is a difference in RTs between the tests, that does not necessarily affect learners' WMC. These results indicate that the speed of learners' responses does not affect their WMC measured by JSST, and RT is not a good indicator of WMC, as predicted.

Table 3. Summary of the Data Analysis: JSST-RT and JSST

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	9.705	2.207	4.398	< .001
JSST-RT	-.054	.042	.042	.174

Table 4. Summary of the Data Analysis: ESST-RT – JSST-RT and ESST – JSST

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
(Constant)	17.262	1.823	9.467	< .001
ESST-JSST	.436	.457	.956	.353

Conclusion: The current study compared SST scores and RTs in L1 English and L2 Japanese. The results showed that learners with higher WMC measured by ESST tend to have higher WMC in JSST, and learners who responded faster in ESST also responded faster in JSST. However, RTs in ESST did not correlate with ESST scores. In addition, WMC measured by JSST was not correlated with RT. This suggests that just because learners can quickly plan and produce responses, it does not necessarily mean that their WMC is higher in L2. RT should not be used as an assessment tool to measure WMC. The fact that learners who could respond faster in L1 also tended to respond faster in L2 merely means that their response tendency to SST was similar despite their L1 and L2 differences. Furthermore, the nature of RTs in the current study and other studies might differ. RTs used in perception studies are often participants' judgment times. This type of response differs from the RT used in the current study. In the current study, the time of creating the first sentence after looking at the word set was measured. While participants were able to utter the first sentence

quickly, that does not necessarily mean that the rest of the sentences they uttered were also processed and planned efficiently. Thus, RTs do not have a significant relationship with WMC.

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