

한국영어학회 2019 가을 학술대회

주제: 영어학 연구와 교육의 과제와 전망

발표논문·초록집

일시: 2019년 11월 09일(토) 오전 09:30 ~ 오후 5:50

장소: 사이버한국외대 사이버관 3층

주최기관: 한국영어학회

후원: 사이버한국외대 영어학부 /

[L2 대화 상호작용에서의 화행의 신경 역학 연구팀]

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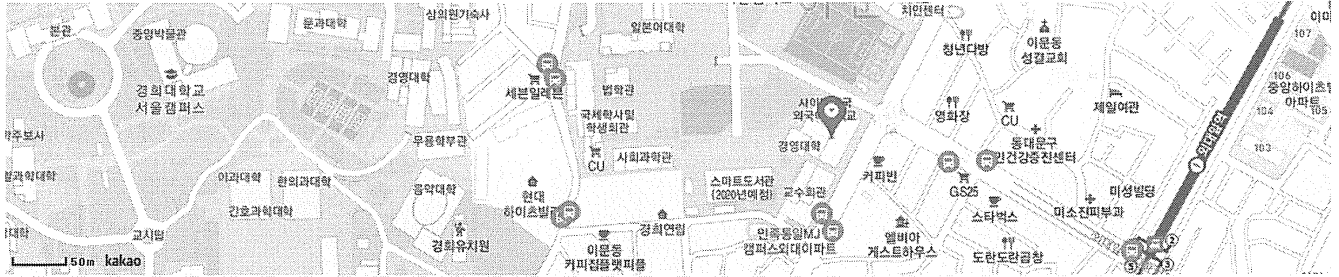
시간	순 서			
09:30~09:50	등 록			
09:50~10:00	개회식 사이버관 3층 소강당1 개회사: 박 명 관 (한국영어학회 회장) / 환영사: 조 기 석 (학술대회 대회장)			
10:00~10:40	통사의미론 Invited Talk-(1), 사이버관 3층 소강당1: 좌장 김선웅 (광운대) 문 귀 선 (한성대) Focus and Island Sensitivity			
10:40~11:20	음성·음운론 Invited Talk-(2), 사이버관 3층 소강당1: 좌장 윤영도 (동국대) 박 한 상 (홍익대) 모음 공간의 인지지형도			
11:20~12:00	언어처리 Invited Talk-(3), 사이버관 3층 소강당1: 좌장 김은아 (서울대) 윤 흥 옥 (제주대) Word predictability is not all: Additionnal effect of semantic similarity modulated by context constraint			
12:00~13:00	점 심			
13:00~13:40	코퍼스 언어학 Invited Talk-(4), 사이버관 3층 소강당1: 좌장 김종복 (경희대) 이 승 아 (이화여대) Verb agreement in English pseudo-clefts: A corpus-based investigation			
13:40~14:00	한국영어학회 총회			
	영어 문법화 좌장: 엄수진 (한국외대) 소강당1	통사·의미론 좌장: 박동우 (한국방송통신대) 309호	음성·음운론 좌장: 윤영도 (동국대) 310호	영어교육·응용언어 좌장: 정영한(인하공전) 311호
14:00~14:25	이성하 (한국외대) I say OK but read my mind: On discourse functions of 'OK'	강아름 (고려대) Polarity sensitive item, contextual restriction and determiner: the case of English "wh-ever" and Korean "KU-wh"	Jing Wu (청주대) A comparative study on prosodic focus in English and Korean	신민채, 이준규 (한국외대) The Effect of Spoken Formulaic Sequences on L2 Fluency : focusing on Advanced EFL Learners
14:25~14:50	이현숙 (장안대) A grammaticalization study on 'except' and 'excepting'	정희련 (서강대) The Syntax of Nominalizations in English and Korean	손가연 (광운대) Development of Laryngeal Contrasts and Multi-parametric Control	이소희, 이준규 (한국외대) The Effects of Implicit Instruction on L2 Learners' Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of Resultative Constructions
14:50~15:15	백정혜 (삼육대) On grammaticalization of complex prepositions from nominal sources	정원일 (동국대) Korean English L2ers' sensitivity to information structure: An ERP study	유혜정 (단국대) Stop productions in Karen, Korean, and English	표지훈 (한국외대) University Students' Perceptions and Incorporation of Mitigation Strategies in

				Peer Response to L2 Writing through Asynchronous Computer-Mediated Communication
15:15~15:40	예선희 (중앙대) From the complex clause to the bare clause of the 'as if'-Construction	조기석 (사이버한국외대) VP Ellipsis: New Licensing Conditions in terms of Alternative Syntactic Structure	이용철, Jun Liu, Jing Wu (청주대) Prosodic marking of focus by Korean learners of Mandarin Chinese	정채관 (인천대) 국내 오류분석 연구 동향
15:40~15:50	휴 식			
	영어 문법화 좌장: 이현숙 (장안대) 소강당1	통사·의미론 좌장: 박종언 (동국대) 309호	음성·음운론 좌장: 이용철 (청주대) 310호	응용언어·영어교육 좌장: 정채관(인천대) 311호
15:50~16:15	엄수진 (한국외대) On the development of discourse markers from visual and auditory verbs in English	송상현 (고려대) & 오은정 (상명대) On Korean Speakers' Knowledge of Unaccusativity in English	Yasir Aslam (광운대) Assuring the production of sound /L/ in English and Urdu bilingual speakers	김태국 (인제대) 한국영어학회에 게재된 코퍼스 기반 영어 교육 연구 초록의 어휘 특성과 동향 분석
16:15~16:40	유근희 (한국외대) On historical development of the English lexeme 'under'	이주원 (전주대) 'Persuade' vs 'Convince': A Corpus-based Study	윤영도 (동국대) Production of the English voiced alveopalatal fricative by Korean speakers: With focus on gender and correction effect	민주영 (호서대) 해외 오류분석 연구 동향
16:40~17:05	박효진 (한국외대) Grammaticalization of 'somewhat' and 'somehow'	김정수 (경희대) Collexeme analysis for verb-class-specific constructions: The case of conative away 'at/on' constructions	Jun Liu (Liaocheng University & 청주대) Prosodic focus of Korean learners of English	홍선호 (서울교대) 한국학습자의 관사 생략 오류에 관한 미명시형 분석
17:05~17:30	최인영 (한국외대) On Grammaticalization of 'Near', 'Around' and 'By'	임서원 (한국외대) Intersubjectification of discourse markers	안미연 (한경대) Perception of Allophonic Cues of English /l/	신정아 (동국대) 딤러닝과 영어학/영어교육 연구 방향
17:30~17:40	연구윤리교육: 2019년 교육부 미성년 공저자 논문 등 관련 특별감사 결과 요약, 소강당1 정 채 관 (인 천 대)			
17:40~17:50	폐회식, 소강당1 폐회사: 김 종 복 (학술대회 조직위원장)			

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대학위치



버스로 오시는 길

- 간선버스: 261, 147, 130, 273
- 지선버스: 1222

지하철로 오시는 길

- 지하철 1호선 외대앞역(구 휘경역) 1번 출구

외대역 1번출구에서 오시는 길

한국영어학회 2019년도 추계 학술대회

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대회장: 조기석 (사이버한국외국어대학교)
위원: 지인영 (한국체육대학교) 백경숙 (한양여자대학교)
김효영 (국민대학교) 송경숙 (동의대학교)
심창용 (경인교육대학교) 이종근 (목포대학교)
위혜경 (단국대학교) 윤영은 (이화여자대학교)
한은주 (서울여자대학교)

프로그램위원회

위원장: 정채관 (KICE)
위원: 강은경 (상명대학교) 윤영도 (동국대학교)
김연승 (공주대학교) 이주경 (서울시립대학교)
문안나 (인하대학교) 채서영 (서강대학교)
박동우 (한국방송통신대학교) 황보 영식 (성결대학교)
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한수미 (한림대학교) 김영우 (IGSE)
손가연 (광운대학교) 김지혜 (한국교원대학교)
윤태진 (성신여자대학교) 김수연 (세종대학교)
채명희 (조선이공대학교) 김용명 (안동대학교)
윤정희 (경상대학교) 김인영 (한양여자대학교)
송상헌 (고려대학교) 이용철 (청주대학교)
오은정 (상명대학교)

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Focus and Island sensitivity

문귀선(한성대학교)

1. Outline

- (i) Contrastive fragments vs non-contrastive fragments in terms of Island sensitivity
 - Non-contrastive fragments are island insensitive. Why?
Introduce Moon's(2018) choice function approach, arguing against Merchant's(2001, 2004) repair by ellipsis approach
 - Contrastive focus fragments are island sensitive. Why?
Argue that focus movement yields an island violation, evidenced by Erlewine and Kotek's(2018) Tanglewood constructions
- (ii) Propose that contrastive fragments have a null focus operator corresponding to the overt focus operator *only*.
- (iii) The consequent conclusion is that although QR is also the same covert movement, it is not restricted by island constructions because it has no PF-effect. However, the focus covert movement exhibits the PF effect and thus is subject to island constraints.

2. Contrastive and non-contrastive fragment data

Fragments can be divided into contrastive and non-contrastive ones depending on the properties of a fragment and the correlate licensing it. Contrastive fragments are themselves contrastively focused and they require a contrastively focused correlate. Non-contrastive fragments can carry a new information focus rather than a contrastive focus and their correlate should not be contrastively focused. The main issue which has attracted a lot of discussion in the literature is concerned with their behavioral difference with respect to island sensitivity as shown by the data below.

2.1 Data exhibiting island insensitivity of non-contrastive fragments

- (1) A: I heard that Abby is likely to get mad if Ben speaks to one of the guys from your syntax class.
B: Yeah, John. (Adjunct island)
- (2) A: I heard that Irv and a certain someone from your syntax class were dancing together last night.
B: Yeah, Bill. (Coordinate Structure Constraint)
- (3) A: I heard they hired someone who speaks a Balkan language fluently.
B: Yeah, Serbo-Croatian. (CNPC with a relative clause)

2.2 Data exhibiting island sensitivity of contrastive fragments

- (4) A: I hear that Abby is likely to get mad if **BEN** speaks to Mary.

- B: *No, BILL.
- (5) A: I heard that Irv and **JOHN** were dancing together last night.
B: *No, BILL.
- (6) A: Abby speaks the same Balkan language that **BEN** speaks
B: *No, CHARLIE.

For instance, the correlate one of the guys licensing the fragment John in (1) is an indefinite NP which locates in the adjunct island and the fragment answer, John does not stand in contrast with any element in the antecedent clause. The elliptical non-contrastive fragment is generally assumed that it can be moved out of the adjunct island in the literature (Merchant 2001, 2004, 2008, Fox & Lasnik 2003, Boskovic 2011, B-S Park 2009 etc.). Nonetheless it is well known that (1B) is acceptable. However, (4B) where the correlate, **BEN** licensing the fragment is a definite proper noun with a contrastive focus and locates in the adjunct island, is not allowed as a felicitous response to the antecedent utterance.

3. The Repair Approach (Merchant 2001, 2004)

I first argue that the generalization on the island repair (Merchant 2001, 2004), which is simply based on the dichotomic analysis of contrastivity of correlates, cannot provide a complete account for the fragment data in terms of island sensitivity.

- (7) A: I heard that Abby is likely to get mad if Ben speaks to one of the guys from your syntax class.
B: Yeah, John_i [~~*I heard that Abby is likely to get mad if Ben speaks to t_i from your syntax class~~].
- (8) The Complex NP Constraint (CNPC) with relative clauses
A: I heard they hired someone who speaks a Balkan language fluently.
B: Yeah, Serbo-Croatian_i [~~*I heard they hired someone who speaks t_i fluently~~].

4. Choice functions and non-contrastive fragments

Refuting the generalization according to which the island violation can be repaired by ellipsis in the case of non-contrastive fragments, whereas it cannot in the case of contrastive fragments, I propose that island insensitivity of non-contrastive fragments can be induced not by the repair-by-ellipsis strategy but by choice functions triggered by indefinite correlates (Moon 2018), and thus that since there is no movement involved, the island-escaping effect results in as can be seen in (9).

- (9) A: Ben left the party because someone wouldn't dance with him.
B: Yeah, BETH it ~~was~~ t. (CS available)

- a. $\exists f[\text{CH}(f) \wedge (\text{Ben left the party because } f(\{x: x \text{ is a person}\}) \text{ wouldn't dance with him})]$
- b. There is a choice function f such that Ben left the party because a person f selects wouldn't dance with him.

Accordingly, the derivation of (1B) can be illustrated as in (10) under the assumption that (i)Barros et al's(2014) non-isomorphic short source strategy can apply to non-contrastive fragments and that (ii) non-contrastive fragment answers provide new information in the same way as answers of wh-questions do. Therefore, a contrastive focus cannot be put on them as shown in (11).

(10) B: Yeah, it is John. (Apply Cleft short source, no movement and deaccent 'it is')

(11) A: What did John buy yesterday?

B: *The CD he bought t.

B': \checkmark He bought the CD. (No movement and deaccent 'He bought')

5. Contrastive fragments: focus movement

5.1 Presupposition Inheritance in Corrective Fragments

Contrastive fragments are only felicitous if their correlate is contrastively focused as stated in (12). Their main function is to correct the focused element uttered in the antecedent clause as shown in (13). From the semantic point of view I argue that corrective fragments contrary to the non-elliptical counterpart can inherit the propositions presupposed by the antecedent clause due to the fact that elided clauses must be 'e-GIVEN.' However, the longer answers such as a VP-ellipsis answer as in (14B) and a putative full sentence answer as in (14B') do not have such property (Moon 2015).

(12) Felicity condition on contrastive fragments (Griffiths & Liptak 2014)

Contrastive fragments are only felicitous if their correlate is contrastively focused.

(13) A: The PIZZA was cold.

B: No, the STEAK.

(14) A: The PIZZA was cold.

B: No, the STEAK was. (VP-ellipsis answer)

B': No, the STEAK was cold. (Full sentence answer)

5.2 e-GIVENNESS as an Identity Condition

The elided clause of the corrective contrastive fragment is identical to all clausal material other than the contrastively focused element in the putative antecedent clause. The identical part corresponding to the presupposition inherited from the antecedent clause can be considered as a background according to Krifka's(2006) proposal.

Merchant (2001, 2004) proposes a constraint called e-GIVENNESS such as (15) to account for the captured identity which is going to be elided at the end. The e-GIVENNESS is defined on the basis of Schwarzschild's(1999) definition of GIVENNESS¹⁾ and Rooth's (1992a) focus- based condition.

- (15) a. A clause may be elided if it is e-GIVEN.
 b. A clause E counts as e-GIVEN iff E has a salient antecedent A and, modulo \exists -type shifting,
 (i) A entails F-clo(E), and
 (ii) E entails F-clo(A)

(16) F-closure

The F-closure of α , written F-clo(α), is the result of replacing F-marked parts of α with \exists -bound variable of the appropriate type (modulo \exists -type shifting).

- (17)a. John ate [_F a pizza]. — No, [_F a hamburger].
 b. Antecedent: \llbracket John ate a pizza \rrbracket = John ate a pizza.
 c. F-closure of antecedent: F-clo(A) = $\exists x$. John ate x
 d. Elided clause: \llbracket John ate t \rrbracket = John ate x
 e. F-closure of elided clause: F-clo(E) = $\exists x$. John ate x

(17) demonstrates that F-closures of antecedent and elided clause are in a mutual entailment relationship, that the identical clause ' $\exists x$. John ate x' meaning John ate something is e-GIVEN, and thus that it can be elided. Hence the corrective contrastive fragment remains as a felicitous remnant.

Therefore, my first claim is that since the e-GIVENNESS condition requires the identity relation between the antecedent and the elided site, Barros et al's(2014) non-isomorphic short source strategy cannot apply to contrastive fragments.

5.3 Focus movement

My second claim is that contrastive fragments are derived by overt movement exhibiting the PF effect and thus that the focus movement results in the island sensitivity in both the narrow syntax and LF levels. I am going to propose that there exists a null focus operator corresponding to *only* in the highest position of the structure which triggers the movement of focused elements

5.3.1 Tanglewood constructions: Evidence for the null focus operator

Erlewine and Kotek's(2018) propose that Tanglewood constructions like (18) always involve covert movement of the focused constituent to a complement position of the

¹⁾ Definition of GIVENNESS (Final Informal Version; Schwarzschild 1999): An utterance U counts as GIVEN iff it has a salient antecedent A and:

- a. if U is type e, then A and U corefer.
 b. otherwise: modulo \exists -type shifting, A entails the Existential-F-Closure of U.

attracting operator *only*.

(18) Tanglewood (Kratzer 1991:830)

Context: Imagine now you are angry at me and start voicing the following accusations.

“What a copycat you are! You went to Block Island because I did. You went to Elk Lake Lodge because I did. And you went to Tanglewood because I did.” I feel you exaggerate and reply:

“I only went to [Tanglewood]_F because you did Δ ”.

Paraphrase: Tanglewood is the only place x such that I went to x because you went to x .

(19) Semantics for two-place *only*

$$\llbracket \text{only} \rrbracket = \lambda a \lambda \beta: \beta(a). \forall y \in C [y \neq a \rightarrow \neg \beta(y)]$$

(20) Interpretation of I only went to [Tanglewood]_F using (19)

a. LF: $\text{only}([Tanglewood]_F)_{=a} (\lambda x . \text{I go to } x)_{=\beta}$

b. Presupposition: $\beta(a) = \text{I go to Tanglewood}$

c. Assertion

$$\begin{aligned} & \forall y \in \{\text{Tanglewood, Block Island, Elk Lake Lodge}\} [(y \neq \text{Tanglewood}) \rightarrow \neg \beta(y)] \\ & \Leftrightarrow \neg \beta(\text{Block Island}) \wedge \neg \beta(\text{Elk Lake Lodge}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{it is not the case that [I go to Block Island]} \wedge \text{it is not the case that [I go to Elk Lake Lodge]}$$

The semantics of *only* is given in (19) where *only* as a two-place predicate presupposes the truth of its prejacent (the combination of its first and second argument) and asserts that, for all alternatives to the first argument in set C , if it is not equal to the stated (prejacent) value of the first argument, its combination with the second argument must be false.

5.3.2 Semantics for the null contrastive focus operator

I propose that the contrastive fragment constructions also contain the null contrastive focus operator. However, the semantics is given as in (21) where it presupposes that there is at least one thing x which makes the second argument true. The presupposition is different from that of Tanglewood constructions.

$$(21) \llbracket \emptyset_{\text{only}} \rrbracket = \lambda a \lambda \beta: \exists x \beta(x). \forall y \in C [y \neq a \rightarrow \neg \beta(y)]$$

(22) A: John ate a PIZZA for dinner on his way home.

a, LF: $[\emptyset_{\text{only}}]([PIZZA]_F)_{=a} (\lambda x. \text{John ate } x \text{ for dinner on his way home})_{=\beta}$

b. presupposition: $\exists x \beta(x) =$ There is at least one thing x such that John ate x for dinner on his way home.

c. Assertion: $\forall y \in C [y \neq a \rightarrow \neg \beta(y)]$

The only thing John ate for dinner on his way home is a PIZZA in the

set C of alternative things.

B: No, a HAMBURGER [~~John ate t for dinner on his way home.~~]

a. LF: $[\emptyset_{\text{only}}]([HAMBURGER]_F)(\lambda x. \text{John ate } x \text{ for dinner on his way home})$

b. presupposition: $\exists x\beta(x) = \text{There is at least one thing } x \text{ such that John ate } x \text{ for dinner on his way home.}$

c. Assertion: $\forall y \in C [y \neq a \rightarrow \neg\beta(y)]$

The only thing John ate for dinner on his way home is a HAMBURGER in the set of alternative things .

However, when a focus constituent resides inside an island domain like (23) where it locates in the relative clause domain. (23B) is ruled out due to the violation of island constraints as a result of the focused constituent movement.

(23) A: Abby speaks [the same Balkan language that BEN speaks.]

B: *No, CHARLIE [Abby speaks the same Balkan language that t speaks.]

The grammaticality of (23A) can attribute to the covert focus movement with pied-piping. In order to save (23B) the corresponding overt focus movement with pied-piping is necessary. It thus indicates that Griffiths & Liptak's (2014) scope parallelism in ellipsis needs to be met.²⁾

6. Further consequence and conclusion

I claim that focused constituents are island sensitive in both narrow syntax and LF levels because they can undergo the overt focus movement in the contrastive fragment answer data where a null focus operator triggers focus movement, and the covert focus movement evidenced from Tanglewood constructions where the focus operator *only* attracts the focused element to its complement position. A further consequence can be drawn that although QR is also the same covert movement, it is not restricted by island constructions because it has no PF-effect. However, the focus covert movement exhibits the PF effect and thus is subject to island constraints.

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<Abstract>

모음 공간의 인지 지형도(Perceptual geophysics of the vowel space)

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음성에는 의사소통에 필요한 언어적, 준언어적, 비언어적 정보가 들어 있다. 그 가운데서도 모음은 모음의 안정 구간을 통해 모음의 음가를 파악할 뿐만 아니라 모음의 전이 구간에도 자음의 인지에 필요한 정보가 들어 있기 때문에 음성 인지에서 가장 중요한 연구 대상이다. 그래서 모음 공간이 어떻게 조직되어 있고 기능하는가는 음성 인지에서 가장 중요한 관심사였다. Peterson & Barney(1952)를 시작으로 Liljencrants & Lindblom(1972)을 거쳐 수많은 연구를 통해 모음 공간의 음향적인 그리고 인지적인 모형화가 이루어져 오늘에 이르고 있다. 이 연구는 20세기에 꽃피웠던 음향음성학의 끝자락에서 그리고 뇌과학과 인공지능 등 새로운 연구방법론의 모색이 활발한 시점에서 모음 공간에 대한 연구를 정리하고 그 바탕 위에 모음 공간의 지형도라는 개념을 제시하고자 한다. 모음 공간의 지형도는 F1과 F2를 축으로 하는 모음 공간에 빈도라는 새로운 축을 추가하여 모음 공간을 보다 간단하게 그리고 보다 실제 인지에 가깝게 나타내는 방법이다. 말레이시아어와 인도네시아어, 다구르어와 투바어, 치템보 등의 언어를 대상으로 한 연구를 소개하고 그 의의와 함축적 의미를 살펴본다. 이 연구는 모음 음소의 출현, 범주의 구분, 언어 발달, 외국어 학습, 언어 변화 등 다양한 주제들을 토론하는 장이 될 수 있을 것으로 기대한다.

Word predictability is not all: Additional effect of semantic similarity modulated by context constraint

Hongoak Yun

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We investigate how the degree to which a context constrains the words that could occur in a sentence affects the processing of the word that does occur. Roland et al. (2012) found that processing was facilitated when target words were more semantically similar to word alternatives that could have appeared. Because this effect is independent of word predictability, it suggests that comprehenders may have separate expectations for words and more general semantic features.

We found that semantic similarity between a target word and its semantic cohort has a stronger effect on processing when the context provides fewer constraints on what may appear in the target position. Alternatively, the effects of semantic similarity become weaker as the context becomes more constraining. The effect of contextual constraint on the degree to which semantic similarity affects processing has important implications for models of processing. Roland et al. (2012) suggested two possible causes for the semantic similarity effect: spreading activation between the representations for the words that comprehenders were anticipating, and the possibility that expectations for words and expectations for semantic features could have independent effects on comprehension difficulty. Our results suggest that the nature of comprehenders' expectations may vary with the degree of contextual constraint. In a highly constraining context (i.e., low entropy), there is no effect of semantic similarity, and comprehension difficulty appears to be primarily determined by the predictability of the target word. If the target word is expected, it is easy to process. If the target word is unexpected, it is difficult to process. On the other hand, in a less constraining context, semantic similarity and predictability both influence processing. Not only are more predictable words easier to process, but so are words that are more similar to the other members of the semantic cohort. Words are most difficult to process when they are both unexpected and semantically distant from their semantic cohort.

One possible explanation for why contextual constraint modulates the influence of semantic similarity for unpredictable words is that in a highly constraining context, comprehenders may be expecting specific words, and face difficulty when the expectations turn out to be wrong. In a less constraining context, comprehenders may have less specific expectations – anticipating semantic features in common between a set of possible words (in addition to, or as an alternative to anticipating specific words). Thus, they face less difficulty when the target word turns out to be something other than the most likely word – as long as the target word shares some level of semantic similarity with the other likely possible words. Overall, our data suggests that word predictability, semantic similarity, and contextual constraint all have an impact on language comprehension.

Verb agreement in English pseudo-clefts: A corpus-based investigation

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Pseudo-cleft constructions that contain a plural post-copular noun phrase (NP) have received relatively little attention from a corpus-based perspective. Descriptive and pedagogical grammars draw attention to the fact that constructions of this type exhibit variation between singular and plural verb agreement.

- (1) What we want *is/are* some of those cakes. (Swan 2005: 106)
(2) What is needed *are* additional resources. (*or more colloquially* ... needed *is* ...) (Hewings 2005: 80)

However, Swan (2005) and Hewings (2005) hold diametrically opposed views on the degree of formality of this grammatical alternation. Swan (2005: 106) remarked that although “[a] *wh*-clause is normally considered to be singular [, ...] a plural verb is sometimes possible before a plural noun in an informal style.” On the other hand, Hewings (2005: 80) noted that “a plural verb is preferred in more formal contexts.”

In order to resolve these conflicting opinions, this study examined the entire British National Corpus (BNC) by addressing the following research questions:

- (3) In pseudo-clefts that contain a plural post-copular NP, what is the distribution of singular and plural verb agreement in the corpus?
a. Does the distribution differ across written and spoken registers of the BNC?
b. Does the distribution vary among the eight text classes of the BNC?

An analysis of the present-tense copulas in the relevant pseudo-cleft constructions reveals that singular agreement is the predominant choice. However, in academic prose, the most formal register, the plural copula occurs slightly more frequently than the singular copula. While academic prose consistently favors the plural copula, this result is

not strong enough to be statistically significant. However, the result agrees with Hewings’ (2005: 80) claim that “a plural verb is preferred in more formal contexts”, as in “What is needed are additional resources”.

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영어 문법화

A grammaticalization study on ‘except’ and ‘excepting’

Hyun Sook Lee (Jangan University)

1. Introduction

In English, there are different types of prepositions. Quirk et al. (1985: 665-671) divide the prepositions into the simple prepositions and complex prepositions. According to Quirk et al. (1985), the simple prepositions are classified into two types: monosyllabic prepositions such as *at*, *by*, *for*, and *from* and polysyllabic such as *before*, *behind*, and *below*. They divide complex prepositions into two-word sequences, such as *apart from*, *due to*, *instead of*, and three-word sequences, such as *in terms of*, *in front of*, and *in addition to*.

Apart from the two kinds of simple prepositions of monosyllabic and polysyllabic prepositions, Quirk et al. (1985: 667) separately define marginal prepositions as prepositions with verbal affinities such as *barring*, *concerning*, *given*, etc.

In English prepositions, there are prepositions to indicate ‘exception’: *except*, *excepting*, *barring*, *saving*, *excluding* as well as *apart from* and *aside from*. The prepositions *except*, *excepting*, *barring*, *saving*, *excluding* are derived from verbs and belongs to the marginal prepositions with verbal affinities according to Quirk et al.’s classification. Among ‘exception’ prepositions, we would like to study ‘except’ and ‘excepting.’ According to Collins Cobuild Advanced Learners’ English Dictionary, *except* and *excepting* are defined as below:

- (1) *except*: prep. to introduce the only thing or person that a statement does not apply to, or a fact that prevents a statement from being completely true.
- (2) *excepting*: prep. to introduce the only thing that prevents a statement from being completely true.

Related examples are in (3) and (4) as below.

- (3) a. They all came *except* Mark
b. I had nothing on *except* for my shorts.
c. I didn’t tell him anything *except* that I have a boyfriend.
d. Our shoes were the same *except* mine was purple.
- (4) a. *Excepting* Mondays the museum is open daily.
b. Everybody must observe the law, not *excepting* the king.

In examples (3~4), *except* and *excepting* are employed to indicate the exception. The prepositions haven’t drawn much interest from the researchers, but they definitely show the grammatical change from the lexical words to the functional words. Therefore, they

deserves to be shed light on although they are periphrastic. This study intends to fill the research gap. The purpose of the study is to describe diachronic change of exception prepositions *except* and *excepting*. Synchronically, the frequencies of *except* and *excepting* will also be analyzed to identify their usage in a quantitative perspective.

2. Diachronic changes

Discussing the development of connectives, Heine (1997: 59) groups particular types of adpositions by source: N-adpositions, A-adpositions, and V-adpositions. N-adpositions are grammatical forms that owe their genesis to the grammaticalization of head nouns in genitive constructions; A-adpositions are derived from adverbs; V-adpositions are derived from verbs according to Heine (1997: 59). Our focus prepositions *except* and *excepting* are derived from the verb *except* and can be classified to V-adpositions.

V-adpositions have transparency in their grammaticalized forms. The change from the source to the grammatical function is traceable in prepositions *except* and *excepting*, and the prepositions keep the source meaning. Examples are excerpted from the Oxford English Dictionary (OED).

(5) a. *except* as a preposition

Alle shal deye..*Excepte* one~liche of eche kynde a couple

[A. x. 169 *out-taken* Eihte soules and of vche beest A couple].

(1377 W. Langland Piers Plowman B. ix. 140)

b. *except* as a conjunction

Then there came..men of estate out of the good Townes of Flaundrys, *except* out of Gaunt there came none.

(1569 R. Grafton Chron. II. 260)

(7) a. *excepting* as quasi-preposition. The present participle of the verb used absol.: = 'If one excepts'.

Al the irland men ar sklavis til hym *excepan* ane certan that kepis them sel on the strait montanis.

(c1550 Complaynt Scotl. (1979)xi. 75)

b. *excepting* as simple preposition. 'With the exception of, except.'

All young persons, *excepting* my self.

(1618 J. Hales Let. 29 Nov. 10 in Golden Remains (1659))

c. *excepting* as conjunction.

The copy is perfectly accurate, *excepting that* the accents are omitted.

(1894 N.E.D. at *Excepting* Mod.)

3. Frequencies

In this section, we would like to identify the frequencies of *except* and *excepting* with the help of Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).

SECTION (CLICK FOR SUB-SECTIONS) (SEE ALL SECTIONS AT ONCE)	FREQ	SIZE (M)	PER MIL	CLICK FOR CONTEXT (SEE ALL)
SPOKEN	7,430	116.7	63.64	
FICTION	19,841	111.8	177.40	
MAGAZINE	9,326	117.4	79.47	
NEWSPAPER	7,667	113.0	67.85	
ACADEMIC	7,767	111.4	69.72	
1990-1994	11,124	104.0	106.96	
1995-1999	10,156	105.4	96.16	
2000-2004	9,132	102.9	88.71	
2005-2009	8,734	102.0	85.59	
2010-2014	8,316	102.9	80.81	
2015-2017	4,569	62.3	73.33	
TOTAL	52,031			SEE ALL TOKENS

<Figure 1 Frequency of except>

- (8) We often had my mother's social causes in the form of women bums and female cons staying with us, but Mom didn't like for anyone else to help her do the dishes *except* Cello, no matter how many had been at the dinner table.
(2017. *Black Deutschland* COCA Source-FIC: Black Deutschland)

SECTION (CLICK FOR SUB-SECTIONS) (SEE ALL SECTIONS AT ONCE)	FREQ	SIZE (M)	PER MIL	CLICK FOR CONTEXT (SEE ALL)
SPOKEN	24	116.7	0.21	
FICTION	75	111.8	0.67	
MAGAZINE	43	117.4	0.37	
NEWSPAPER	30	113.0	0.27	
ACADEMIC	79	111.4	0.71	
1990-1994	49	104.0	0.47	
1995-1999	57	103.4	0.55	
2000-2004	51	102.9	0.50	
2005-2009	35	102.0	0.34	
2010-2014	37	102.9	0.36	
2015-2017	22	62.3	0.35	
TOTAL	251			SEE ALL TOKENS

<Figure 2> Frequency of excepting

- (9) As Cheyfitz explains, an Indian residing on a reservation is " constrained to live under the colonial regime of federal Indian law without the constitutional guarantees of U.S. citizenship, *excepting* the right to vote in U.S. state and national elections "
- (2011 Actually Existing Indian Nations. COCA)

<Table 1> Tokens of exception prepositions

<i>except</i>	<i>excepting</i>	<i>except for</i>	<i>barring</i>	<i>excluding</i>	<i>saving</i>	<i>apart from</i>	<i>aside from</i>	<i>other than</i>	<i>but for</i>
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26,453	103	16,018	1,837	2,814	4	7,076	5,144	21,184	8,346
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Among the prepositions denoting exception, *except* is the most frequently used, which is specialization.

4. Grammaticalization

In this section, the change from verb to preposition in *except* and *excepting* will be explained in term of grammaticalization.

The first attestation of *except* as verb is in 1393. Its etymology is French *excepte-r*. The verb *except* means ‘to take or leave out’ or ‘to exclude.’ *Except* as preposition was first attested in 1377. According to OED, in Middle English, in the construction like its synonym *out-taken*, *except* might precede the noun (Decategorialization). Also, *except* is used as conjunction, which was first attested in 1569.

As for *excepting*, its first attestation as preposition was in 1550 and its conjunctive use was attested in 1894. The formation of *excepting* in the present participle form is affected by analogy. Analogy operates along paradigmatic organization. Usually the present and past participle constructions have reference to some element in the main clause, but “in imitation of the so-called Latin ‘*ablatus absolutus*’, [that is, the ablative absolute case as it is taught to modern day students of Latin] the constructions could also be used absolutely with a subject of its own” (Fischer 1992: 364). According to Fischer (1992: 364), it occurred a few times in OE but became more common towards the end of the ME period, partly also under the influence of French.

5. Conclusion

In this study, *except* and *excepting* are investigated with a grammaticalization perspective. The change from verb to preposition in *except* is decategorialization. In formational change from *except* to *excepting*, analogy play the role. The statistic investigations reveal that *except* is the most frequently used preposition to denote exception.

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(The) Oxford English Dictionary - http://sproxy.hufs.ac.kr/5b74a2d/_Lib_Proxy_Url/www.oed.com/ (accessed in Oct, 2019)

On Grammaticalization of Complex Prepositions from Nominal Sources

Baik Junghye (Sahmyook University)

This paper attempts to explore the historical development and the semantic-functional contrast of the English complex prepositions *in addition to* and *in need of* derived from nominal sources from a grammaticalization perspective. The relationship of nouns to preposition is genetic (Givón 1971, Heine 1989, Kahr 1975, Meillet 1985[1912]) on the one hand, and unidirectional from the lexical item to the grammatical one on the other. Prepositions derived from nominal sources are grammatical forms that owe their genesis to the grammaticalization of head nouns in genitive constructions. The complex or phrasal prepositions *in addition to* and *in need of* also fall within this case, in which they have evolved from the nominal elements *addition* denoting 'an augmentation' and *need* 'necessity or requirement', respectively. From a morphosyntactic perspective, the two forms are considered typical complex prepositions (henceforth CP) which consist of the pattern [simple preposition-any noun-simple preposition], i.e. PNP-construction (Hoffmann 2005) as a single chunk. The two PNP-construction prepositions *in addition to* and *in need of* as units of grammar, based on a synchronic analysis, also show the fact that they are the items including the 30 most frequent complex prepositions in English (Hoffmann 2005: 23). Considering the semantic aspect of prepositions, they appear to have an opposite relationship. *In addition to* as a CP develops into an additive marker that has the meaning of the English preposition 'besides' on the one hand, while *in need of* becomes as a caritive case marker used to express the lack or absence of something, on the other hand. Of particular interest with reference to the complex prepositions here is that the grammatical elements consisting of semantic contrast show

different frequency occurrence, i.e. *in addition to* signifying an additional concept is exhibits far much higher frequency than that of *in need of* signifying 'without'. With this respect, it is postulated that humans tend to perceive and conceptualize the world based on their canonical positions and positive experiences, rather than negative ones.

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From the Complex Clause To the Bare Clause of the 'As If'-Construction

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1 Introduction

CAU

- Contemporary meanings of the complex conjunction *as if*
- Clausal types of the complex conjunction *as if*
- Diachronic evolutions of the *as if* construction
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- Pragmatics of the *as if* construction
- Collocational properties of the *as if* construction

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2 Grammaticalization

CAU

2.1 Contemporary semantics of the the complex conjunction *as if*

A. in a way that makes it seem that something is true or that something is happening:

- (1) a. Beckworth shook head as if to say 'Don't trust her'.
 b. Mrs Crump looked as if she was going to explode.

B. used to emphasize that something is not true or will not happen:

- (2) a. She said she'd never speak to me again. As if I cared (=I do not care at all).
 b. 'Don't try any funny business, now.' 'As if I would.'

C. As if! (spoken & informal)

- (3) He asked if I'd go out with him. As if! (=it is extremely unlikely that I would go out with him.)

¹ Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English: <http://global.longmandictionaries.com/ldoce6/dictionary>

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2 Grammaticalization

2.2 Diachronic analysis of the complex conjunction *as if*

CAU

(Visser 1963-73: 923-924; Declerck 1992: 222-223; López-Couso & Méndez-Naya 2012a: 322-323 & 2012b: 177; Briton 2014: 107-108)

A. The combination of *as* (similarity) + *if* (hypotheticality) in the 13th c.
(Visser 1963-73; López-Couso & Méndez-Naya 2012a)

(4) Als þof his wiperwin he war. (OED, 1300 *Cursor M.*)

(5) As if my yeare were wast, and woxen old. (OED, 1579 Spenser)

B. Adjunct clause (comparison/manner) in Late Middle English

(1) a. Beckworth shook head as if to say 'Don't trust her'.

C. Complement clause (following *be*, *look*, *seem*) in Early Modern English

(1) b. Mrs Crump looked as if she was going to explode.

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2 Grammaticalization

2.2 Diachronic analysis of the complex conjunction *as if*

CAU

D. Monoclausal in the mid sixteenth c.

- derived from complement clauses, not adjunct clause.

- elided matrix of *it is as if*-construction (Declerck 1992: 222-223)

- elided matrix of *it is/seems/appears/looks as if...*, etc.

(López-Couso & Méndez-Naya 2012b: 181)

(6) As if one should phantasy to praise a Gose before any other beast...

(OED, 1553 T. Wilson)

E. Bare complementizer in the early twentieth c. in American colloquial speech (Briton 2014: 96)

(7) Maybe he'll come up and speak to us.' 'Oh, as if! Contradicted Laura.

(OED, 1903 Norris *Pit*)

5

3 Pragmatics

CAU

A. Stance of the *as if* complement clause

- with evidential verbs (*appear, feel, look, seem, sound,*)

(1) b. Mrs Crump looked as if she was going to explode.

(2) a. She said she'd never speak to me again. As if I cared (=I do not care at all).

b. 'Don't try any funny business, now.' 'As if I would.'

(3) He asked if I'd go out with him. As if!

B. Insubordination (Evans 2007)

- *as if*-monoclauses involving loss of the matrix clause
- convention
- reanalysis/implicature

(2) a.

b.

6

3 Pragmatics

CAU

C. Pragmatics of the *as if* independent subordinate clause and bare complementizer

- illocutionary force
- exclamation

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4 Collocations

CAU

A. The dummy element *it* in collocation with *as if*

	COCA			BNCweb		
	pronoun	frequency	MI	pronoun	frequency	MI
1	it	10737	2.95	it	2595	2.80
2	me	1512	2.55	her	588	2.46
3	he	1323	0.36	me	213	2.20
4	him	1303	2.44	him	220	2.02
5	her	1103	1.14	his	407	1.49

<Table 1: Pronoun collocates on the 1-3 windows on the left of *as if* in COCA & BNCweb >

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4 Collocations

CAU

B. *Be* and evidential verbs followed by *as if*

	COCA			BNCweb		
	verb	frequency	MI	verb	frequency	MI
1	was	4084	1.94	looks	472	7.07
2	's	2805	0.94	sounds	130	6.82
3	felt	2385	6.06	sounded	100	6.72
4	looked	2220	5.71	looked	751	6.04
5	feel	1496	4.95	felt	460	5.66
6	is	1334	0.04	look	399	4.76
7	looks	1151	5.51	seemed	202	4.67
8	look	916	3.34	feel	198	4.51
9	said	893	1.33	looking	100	3.49
10	seemed	857	5.00	was	906	1.54

<Table 2: Verb collocates on the 1-3 windows on the left of *as if* in COCA & BNCweb >

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4 Collocations

CAU

C. The results from A and B imply that the frequency of the complement clause is the highest among the clausal types of *as if*.

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4 Collocations

CAU

D. The frequency of the bare complementizer *as if*

	COCA			BNCweb		
	punctuation	frequency	MI	punctuation	frequency	MI
1	.	28(49)	-	!	0(1)	-
2	!	15(17)	-	.	1(3)	-

<Table 3: Punctuation collocates on the 1 window on the right of *as if* in COCA & BNCweb >

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4 Collocations

CAU

E. 10 frequent POSs followed by *as if*

	BNCweb		
	Tag	Observed collocate frequency	MI
1	VVD	2787	2.0791
2	VVZ	882	1.8154
3	VVN-VVD	238	1.7059
4	VVD-VVN	198	1.5546
5	VVZ-NN2	55	1.5202
6	PNP	4823	1.4572
7	VVG-AJ0	101	1.2729
8	VDZ	56	1.2284
9	VBD	984	1.2206
10	VVB-NN1	167	1.1144

<Table 4: POS collocates on the 1-3 windows on the left of *as if* in BNCweb>

AJ0: Adjective, **NN1**: Singular common noun, **NN2**: Plural common noun, **PNP**: Personal pronoun, **VDB**: The finite base form of the verb DO (*do*), **VDD**: The past tense form of the verb DO (*did*), **VDG**: The *-ing* form of the verb DO (*doing*), **VDZ**: The *-s* form of the verb DO (*does*), **VVD**: The past tense form of lexical verbs, **VVN**: The past participle form of lexical verbs, **VVZ**: The *-s* form of lexical verbs

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4 Collocations

CAU

F. 10 frequent POSs preceded by *as if*

	BNCweb		
	Tag	Observed collocate frequency	MI
1	VHD	2555	3.5839
2	VBD	4482	2.8964
3	VBN	951	2.8611
4	VHN	58	2.1492
5	PNX	210	1.8034
6	VDD	203	1.57
7	VDG	40	1.5477
8	PNI	436	1.5437
9	VVG	1789	1.53
10	VVN	2524	1.3106

<Table 5: POS collocates on the 2-5 windows on the right of *as if* in BNCweb >

PNI: Indefinite pronoun, **PNX**: Reflexive pronoun, **VBD**: The past tense forms of the verb BE (*was. were*), **VBN**: The past participle form of the verb BE (*been*), **VHD**: The past tense form of the HAVE (*had, 'd*), **VHN**: The past participle form of the verb HAVE (*had*), **VVG**: The *-ing* form of lexical verbs

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5 Conclusion

CAU

- Insubordination works on the development from the complement clause to the monoclaus.
- Inference works on the development from the complement clause to the monoclaus.
- Pragmaticization works on the development from the monoclaus to the bare complementizer.
- POS collocates show that hypotheticals are dominant.
- In-depth study awaits for the collocational analysis of the monoclaus *as if*.

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CAU

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15

"I say OK but read my mind": On discourse functions of OK

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Discourse markers (DMs) present interesting aspects of situated language use and diverse motivations behind discourse strategies. Even though traditional research has focused on a more textual level, e.g. Schiffrin's (1987: 276) definition of DMs as 'sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk, more recent research shows diverse cognitive and discursive motivations that operate behind the development of such DMs.

DMs are generally accepted to be polyfunctional, whose functions are largely dependent on their usage context (Brinton 1996, Fischer 2006, Rhee 2019). The variability of function is such that it is not unusual for a DM to perform seemingly opposite functions, e.g., agreement and emphatic negation of *kulssey* (Rhee 2015) and approval/affirmation, discontent, and suspension of *coha* and *twaysse* in Korean (Rhee 2019). Such DMs are found across many languages, and *OK*, the most widespread Americanism, is one that carries such multifunctional, seemingly contradictory functions. This discourse marker has received much attention from discourse analysts (e.g. Beach 1993, Condon 2001, Kim 2008, Gaines 2011, Vickers & Goble 2011, Suh et al. 2016, Lee 2016, Hart et al. 2017, Looney et al. 2017, Lee 2019, among others). The DM *OK*, (and its spelling variant *okay*) along with its relatives *That's OK*, *It's OK*, *Okey dokey* and the reduplicative *OK*, *OK*, etc., carries acceptance/approval, mild and polite refusal, discontent, tentative acceptance, and even temporary suspension of an argument for strategic reasons. Drawing upon the historical and contemporary corpus data, this paper presents the developmental paths of the forms and their widely-diverging functions in discourse from grammaticalization and discursive-analytic perspectives.

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On the development of discourse markers from visual and auditory verbs in English

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1. Introduction

The use of discourse markers (DMs) is thought to be universal across languages (Fraser 2006) and is particularly prominent in colloquial and informal registers (Östman 1982, Fraser 1990, Watts 1989). DMs develop from diverse sources and carry various functions (Rhee 2019; Koo 2018). A notable aspect of vision and audition in language is that the lexemes denoting visual and auditory perception often develop into DMs across languages. This paper focuses on the development of such DMs from a grammaticalization perspective (Eom 2007a,b, Jung 2011).

2. Data: DMs from Visual and Auditory Terms

2.1 DMs from Visual Terms

English visual terms do not exhibit prominent grammaticalization in general. There are instances of complex prepositions (*under the eye(s) of, in front of someone's eyes, in view of, with a view to, with regard to, in regard of, regardless of, with respect to, regarding, etc.*; Hoffmann 2005, Yac 2018) and connectives (*seeing, considering, etc.*; Lee 2011), most of which are only weakly grammaticalized. However, visual terms have developed into DMs more productively, including such as *see, let's see, let me see, I see, you see, and look*, all derived from the verbal sources *see* and *look*. Obviously the body-part term *eye(s)* does not exhibit any sign of developing into a DM.

[*see*]

The DM *see* has a number of discursive functions, attention-attraction, hesitation, challenging or challenging, etc. The DM *see*, from the imperative construction, is often used for attracting the attention of the interlocutor, as is exemplified in (1), taken from Aijmer (2010: 167):

- (1) a. I got it yesterday didn't I? Yeah, I need another one. *See* I'm a nice bloke aren't I? She doesn't answer. (39704)
- b. Ah, right *see*. Let me just get my jacket first and I'll be with you. (34901)

The DM *see* is also often used as a hesitation marker. The DM used in this function has a characteristic prosody of trailing at the end, thus signaling reluctance or reservation toward the statement or assertion being presented, as exemplified in (2):

- (2) A: I think he's done a terrible job in that position. If it were up to me I'd fire him.
 - B: *See*, I don't know if I'd go that far.
- (Strassel 2003: 6)

[*see; you see*]

When the DM *see* is used with a rising intonation, it marks the speaker's charging/challenging attitude. Charging/challenging is often associated with a question in that question is an inherently impositive speech-act (Rhee 2014, 2016). This instance of *see* is a phonologically reduced form of *you see*, which also carries the same function, which in turn was derived from *do you see?*. The challenging can be in friendly terms rather than aggressive terms, depending on the given situation, as exemplified in (3):

- (3) a. And then someone was shooting at us, and Fearless did some impossible maneuver, and the gunman was disarmed, and Fearless was there smiling, saying, "*You see?* I told you it was all right." (Fear of the Dark, COCA)
- b. These men. These men are running down the aisle toward me. " # "*See*, I told you that you can attract men. *see*, men are running down the aisle for you. Talk to these men. (Extrapolation, COCA)

The DM *you see* is also often used as a preface to an explanation about something. The DM in this function also carries confidentiality in "through-arguments" (Chaume 2004, cf. Schiffrin 1987: 279). It is also largely interchangeable with the DM *you know* derived from a verb of cognition closely related to the verb of perception, thus

Ball (1986) noting the functional similarity between the two DMs. The usage of the DM *you see* is exemplified in (4):

- (4) a. Like, *you see*, that's a hard question. (Eom 2007b)
 b. I can't afford to go out, *you see* I lost my job last week. (Eom 2007b)

[*I see*]

The DM *I see* is among the most frequent vision-derived DMs in contemporary English. It carries the function of agreement with or acceptance of newly presented information by the interlocutor. Thus, this DM signals the change of the speaker's epistemic states or stance, as exemplified in (5):

- (5) # "I'm Andrew; who are you?" he'd replied. # "Lee. I live here." # "No you don't; I do." # "On this farm, I do." # "*I see*. So Anne's your mother?" # "Uh-huh." # "But Anne told me her daughter's name was Lilly." # The girl screwed up her face in disgust." I hate that name. " # "*I see*." # "What are you doing here? (Water, Stone, Heart, COCA)

[*let's see; let me see*]

The DMs *let's see* and *let me see* often function as a filler, when the speaker is in the process of formulating his or her epistemic stance or in lexical search appropriate for the context. The speaker can gain time for response or stance formulation. Furthermore, they often accompany other hesitation markers for their functional affinity such as um, hum, well, etc.

- (6) a. You're from Tunbridge Wells. That's - *let's see* - south of London? (Eom 2007b)
 b. That will take a total of um *let's see* total of seven hours. (Eom 2007b)
 c. "What about these boot prints over here: what can you tell about these guys?" "I don't know; *lets see*. These tracks here are from a male run ning, just the toe of his shoe leaves a print, takes all his weight. (Sewance Review, COCA)
 d. VICTORIA-KIRBY# Yes. All right. So first up, we've got best mascara. This is Covergirl Total Tease. This is nine ninety-nine. The key here is the

brush. HODA-KOTB# *Let's see. Let me see.* VICTORIA-KIRBY# So you've got one side here that's just sort of normal mascara. It gives you kind of a length and volume.

- e. A: When should we meet next time?
 B: *Let me see....* How about Tuesday? (Eom 2007b)

[*look*]

The DM *look* is the only DM derived from the verb *look*. The DM is often used with an exclamation mark, thus suggesting its origin in an imperative construction. Brinton (2001) investigates the diachronic development of *look*-forms in the history of English. The DM's functions largely consists of attention attraction, a function of "interlocutor management" (cf. Rhee 2019), and information management, e.g. reference or transition (Chaume 2004). Ball (1986) notes that the speaker uses this DM to set his/her own point "which might otherwise get overlooked amongst other more important matters. The speaker's point or idea is usually relevant if it were not so, it would be pointless to introduce it into the conversation. It may be necessary to interrupt the speaker." (Ball, 1986:140). This function is labeled as 'digression' in Chaume (2004).

- (7) a. Look, what's your name? (information management)
 b. I'm telling you, Vincent, just be cool... Look, I ain't threatenin' you. (reference)
 c. Look just keep talkin' to her. (transition)
 (Chaume 2004)

Chaume (2004: 851) also notes that as a marker of reference, the DM *look* "insists on a topic that has already been discussed but the speaker may feel that (s)he has not put his/her point convincingly or has not made him/herself clear. So the speaker goes back to the topic. The speaker adds a relevant illustration or corrects a possible misunderstanding by focusing attention on a particular point", thus a function of marking reference, as exemplified in (8), taken from Chaume (2004), a study based on the American film *Pulp Fiction* (Quentin Tarantino, 1994):

- (8) [Marsellus is said to have thrown a man out of the window because the man

gave him a foot massage. Vincent has just said that he would never give a man a foot massage, but he wants to make clear that this does not carry with it throwing a man out of the window.

ST: *Look*, just because I wouldn't give no man a foot massage (.....)
(Chaume 2004: 851)

2.2 DMs from Auditory Terms

The auditory terms recruited in the DM development are relatively more diverse than those of visual terms in the history of English. They include *listen* and a few others used in the historical times, e.g. *hear*, *hark*, *hearken*, *oyez*, *attend*, *hist*, *whist*, etc. However, the latter have fallen into disuse or only found in archaic texts, thus only noted in passing without addressing them in earnest in the present study. Therefore, the DMs from auditory terms are largely restricted to the verb *listen*.

The lexeme *hear* shows the development of the DM *Hear!* or its repeated form *Hear! Hear!* in Old English. The latter developed from *hear-him* (OED). According to OED, the DMs carried the function of approval marking, used to acclaim or cheer, as early as in 1727. More syntactic structures *Here ye!* and *Now hear this!* are also used for similar functions.

The verb *hark* 'to give ear, listen to, hear with active attention' was often used in an imperative form from around 1400 and its similar forms such as *hark ye*, *hark'ee*, *hark'ee*, *hark you*, *hark thee*, from around 1594 (OED), all of which became obsolete in contemporary English. A similar verb form *harken* (also its variant *hearken*, due to semantic similarity to *hear*; OED) had its imperative form *hearken to*, in analogy to the German imperative *Horch zu!*

The history of English also shows, according to OED, other lexemes of auditory perception, e.g. *oyez* (from Middle French *oyez*, *oyez* 'hear ye!'), a verb used as a call for silence and attention (thus a DM of attention attraction), attend 'to listen, to direct the mind, to watch over', an interjection or nominal *hist*, used 'to enjoin silence, attract attention, or call on a person to listen', and its variant *whist* (OED). However, since all these auditory forms are now obsolete and their DM functions are defunct, they lie outside our immediate interest.

[*listen*]

Unlike those briefly presented above, *listen* is a frequently used DM in Modern

English. Its major function is to attract the attention of the addressee, as is the case with the counterpart forms *see* and *look* in the domain of vision.

- (9) a. *listen* I'm gonna go back I happen to have some people waiting for practical training... (MICASE) (Eom 2007)
- b. there was something, okay li- yeah *listen* this isn't th- it's more clear in the in the short answer I think hold on... (MICASE) (Eom 2007)
- c. *Listen*, I'm still here (*The Real Thing*; Tom Stoppard 1982: 81)
- d. *Listen*, why don't we take a taxi? (Eom 2007)

The DM *listen*, also developed from an imperative construction, solicits the addressee's auditory attention to what is to be presented by the speaker. The attention attraction may be a preface to an offer or a suggestion as in (9d). The DM may accompany a proposition, but there is no clear syntagmatic cohesion, thus qualifying as 'parenthetical' (Thompson & Mulac 1991, Dehé & Kavalova 2009), comment clause (Brinton 2008), or 'thetical' from the process of cooptation (Heine et al. 2011, Kaltenböck et al. 2011, Heine 2013). Noting that this DM still exhibit the lexical meaning of intentional hearing, Van Olmen presents the following examples (incidentally similar function is observed in Dutch) (Van Olmen 2010: 3):

- (10)a. A: How do you stop your eyes reading what they're reading?
B: No no no. No.
A: Of course I'll send you know I'll send it to you. I really don't mind Y'ibin using them.
B: Because. No *listen listen listen*. No. No but *listen*. What I when I thought of it now I thought there's couple of the the letters that are very personal. (ICEGB: sla092.329-338)
- b. A: I'm not coming to the pub tonight. I'm going to Birkbeck.
B: Why not? You swot.
A: Oh yes I know. I have to swot. I'm not clever like you lot.
B: Anyway *listen*. So when are we going together then to do this revision? (ICEGB: sla090.014-022)

Still another candidate of DM involving audition is the idiomatic *lend me your ear(s)*, a famous line attributed to Mark Antony in the Shakespearean play *Julius Caesar*, as a request of auditory attention in confiding noteworthy information to be shared with the interlocutor. This, however, is rather a syntactic construction involving metaphor and metonymy, not in productive usage in contemporary English.

3. Discussion

The data presented above brings forth a number of intriguing issues from the grammaticalization perspective. Of these, the sentence type (imperative), interactivity (intersubjectification), and cross-linguistic comparison (universality) warrant our discussion.

3.1 Imperative Sentence Types

It is generally agreed upon that politeness is a universal across languages and cultures (Brown and Levinson 1987). Face-threatening acts (FTAs), thus, are avoidable in consideration of the discourse partners. In this respect, imperative sentences are best avoided since they are inherently impolite. Therefore, the development of visual and auditory perception terms into DMs through imperative constructions is an uncommon phenomenon.

Similarly, Van Olmen (2010) notes that *listen* achieves its pragmatic goals in a very direct way. Therefore, he concludes that it is less handy as interruption or attention-getting devices than *look* in actual discourse and more face-threatening than their visual counterparts. As the speaker is the issuer as well as the object of *listen*, this imperative has a tendency to be rather impolite and thus a threat to the interlocutor's negative face, i.e. his or her desire to do as he or she pleases.

One thing noteworthy, however, is that *see* and *listen* do not involve visible actions on the part of the addressee. In other words, whether the addressee is complying with the speaker's command to see/look or hear/listen is, at least in appearance, not straightforwardly noticeable. This is quite contrastive with other actions such as locomotion, locution, etc. which are visibly noticeable. Therefore, the imperatives involving these non-noticeable actions do not impose much burden on the part of the addressee.

3.2 Intersubjectification and Discourse Strategy

Language users have a common desire for engaging others for effective communication, especially when the interlocutor seems to be inattentive or the information to be presented is of special importance. Engagement of the discourse partner, therefore, is among the most important prerequisite for a speaker to obtain. In doing so, the speaker needs to consider the addressee's socio-cultural, epistemic, emotional states, a process of intersubjectification.

In this context, the DMs *you see* and *let's see* are prominent with respect to the discursive strategies of involving the addressee. The DM *you see*, for instance, makes reference to the addressee's perceptual and cognitive states, which by definition is not directly observable. By saying *you see* or *as you see*, the speaker is presenting the assertion as "evident and unchallengeable, without addressee's positive confirmation [and] the speaker is presupposing the validity of the claim[statement] as if it were supported by the addressee" (Rhee 2019b, with reference to the Korean DM *potasipphi* 'as you see'; cf. Koo 2008, Rhee 2014). In addition, the DM *let's see*, even though it is a propositional or hortative construction in form, is used when the addressee is not specifically involved in the action. For instance, when the speaker is in the process of formulating an utterance or information, the searcher of the lexical form or information is solely the speaker, not involving a joint action.

Therefore, the usage of this type of DMs exhibits rhetorical strategies of (feigned/forced) interactivity and addressee involvement (e.g. suggesting that the addressee is in alignment with the speaker) (Rhee 2019b).

3.3 Crosslinguistic observation

This study focuses on English DMs, but studies that investigate comparable phenomena in other languages point to the hypothesis that this type of DM development, i.e. DMs of perception lexemes through imperative constructions, seems to be a crosslinguistic universal or at least a near-universal. For instance, Bergs (2003) notes that the imperatives, *Look! Hear!* (also *Say!*) have pragmatic functions and that "*look* appears to be the cross-linguistically most common, followed by *say* and finally *hear*." (Berg 2003: 8).

Similar, though not identical, situations are attested with Spanish *escucha* 'hear!' (Romero Trillo 1997: 213); Italian *ascolta* 'listen' (Kleinknecht 2007: 101), Dutch *kijk* 'look' and *luister* 'listen' (van Olmen 2010). Korean DMs *poca*, *eti poca*, *poppsita*, etc., all developed from the hortative (like *let's see* in English) do not involve any

type of joint action but one on the part of the speaker only (see Rhee, forthcoming).

4. Conclusion

We have analyzed the development of DMs that originated from visual and auditory perception. This investigation shows that they came from imperative (and similarly, hortative/propositive) constructions and carry diverse functions but notably attention attraction, hesitation, charging/challenging, preface to upcoming exposition, agreement or acceptance, pause-filling, clarification, among others. It has been pointed out that the imperative forms, though inherently FTA, do not carry high level of face-threatening force, since such visual perception events are directly observable. Furthermore, the development can be characterized as instances of intersubjectification and rhetorical strategies involving feigned/forced involvement or engagement. Lastly, based on the observations in other languages, this type of DM grammaticalization may be a universal or a near-universal across languages. This conclusion, however, needs more research in other languages from comparative perspectives.

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On Historical Development of the English Lexeme ‘under’

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From Old English the English lexeme ‘under’ has been used as a preposition, with the meaning ‘under sky, heaven, or cloud.’ In Modern English the word is used for various functions and meanings across multiple categories. Since the initial meaning was related to the sky or god, the meaning of ‘under’ develops relating to authority, rulers, control of a person, group, or category. This change of meaning seems to have occurred due to anthropocentricity, which is a tendency to interpret states of affairs with respect to human-centeredness. When this tendency operates in semantic change of the meaning of a word, it changes meanings into those having direct relevance to humans, thus qualifying as an instance of subjectification (Rhee 2002, see also Traugott & König 1991). Egocentricity is another tendency that triggers similar type of semantic change, whereby speakers of language view things or interpret states of affairs with speaker-centeredness. Egocentricity changes meanings into those having direct relevance to the speaker (Rhee 2002).

Another notable aspect of semantic change, the lexeme extends the meaning relating to change of place to a position below or beneath something in more abstract or extended domains through such cognitive mechanisms as metaphor and metonymy (Lakoff & Johnson 2003, Heine et al. 1991). These mechanisms enable ‘under’ to be used with the meaning of below, less or fewer than a specified number (e.g. age) or amount, or below a certain standard or level.

Particularly noteworthy is the change in the word’s word classes, i.e. inter-categorical extension. For instance, the lexeme ‘under’ is attested in its usage as a preposition in the earliest historical record, and its functional domains are further extended into adverb, adjective, verb, and noun, in its chronological order. Interestingly, this constitutes a clear case of degrammaticalization (Heine & Kuteva 2007) and/or lexicalization (Kuryłowicz 1975 [1965], Brinton & Traugott 2005), i.e., a pattern not in consonance with the general directionality in grammaticalization.

This paper analyzes diverse aspects of the semantic and functional developments of the English word *under* from the view of grammaticalization theory and how the degrammaticalization and/or lexicalization occurs by conversion that does not comply with the principles and hypotheses proposed by the theorists of grammaticalization.

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Grammaticalization of *somewhat* and *somehow*

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1. Introduction

Adverbs *somewhat* and *somehow* are the combination of adjective *some* and interrogative marks-*what* and *how*. Oxford Advanced learner's dictionary defines *somewhat* and *somehow* as below.

(1) Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary

- a. Somewhat *adv* 1. to some degree; synonym: rather; example: *I was **somewhat** surprised to see him; What happened to them remains **somewhat** of a mystery.*
- b. Somehow *adv* 1. in a way that is not known or certain, example: *We must stop him from seeing her somehow; **Somehow or other** I must get a new job.* 2. for a reason that you do not know or understand, example: ***Somehow**, I don't feel I can trust him.; She looked different **somehow**.*

Synchronically, their meanings are opaque and abstract. While syntactic constructions turn into a word via grammaticalization, the noun in the constructions tends to lose its own semantic and categorial features. *Somewhat* shows this change. By the way, there are very rare cases that items belonging to secondary category transfer into primary category (degrammaticalization). Although *somehow* did not make categorial change, it underwent a unique change.

The paper first covers the definition of adverb, and discusses whether adverb is grammatical item. And then, it examines grammaticalization paths of *somewhat* and *somehow* in section 3. Grammaticalization principles such as divergence, decategorialization, and degrammaticalization are handled in section 4. Lastly, section 5 summarizes and discusses the paper.

2. The definition of Adverb

Since there are abundant meanings of adverb that can be utilized, and functions of it are complex as well as subtle, a lot of researchers have had difficult time defining what adverb is. Ernst (1984) claims that the study on adverb should be done based on the following three conditions.

- (4) 1. No real progress can be made until INDIVIDUAL adverbs are studied in depth, including their possible positions in a sentence, different semantic and pragmatic

characteristics, etc.; and until a large NUMBER of adverbs has been studied in this way.

2. There is a high correlation between the meaning of an adverb and its possible positions in a sentence; therefore, a grammar should maximize the extent to which, in formal terms, position is an automatic consequence of meaning.

3. The occurrences of an adverb in different phrasal categories – VP, AdvP, AP, NP, PP, S and others – should be treated as different instances of “the same” adverb, and the various components of a grammar should be constructed so as to make this possible.

Namely, each adverb item needs to be analyzed in depth, and categorized subcategorized according to the features they have.

The origin of the term *adverb* dates back to ancient Greek. Priscan and Thrax made the first term referring to the items qualify verbs and define the term as below (Micheal 1970:73).

(5) AD-verbium: an indeclinable part of speech used to amplify or qualify a verb.

We can see that they defined adverb in narrower way than today. Adverbium is from Latin and it is the compound noun of ad+verbum. *Ad* comes from the Latin word expressing addition and *verbum* means verb. Its functions are confined to only **verb** modifiers and other items other than verb such as adjectives, phrase, and the entire sentence were not considered.

Overtime, the ranges of adverbs have been widened. The Oxford dictionary defines adverb as a word or phrase that modifies or qualifies and adjective, verb, or other adverb or a word group, expressing a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner cause, degree, etc.

Park (2002:3) categorizes it into three two groups according to whether it is derived, or not.

(6) 1. Primary adverbs: the items which is originally adverb, not derived ones. (ex. never, quite, often.).

2. Secondary adverbs: the items which are derived from other word classes, or are compounded. (ex. beautifully, afterwards, simply, sometimes)

When it comes to the semantic aspects of adverb, it can be defined as the words that can be answered to the wh- questions; the questions including *where*, *when*, *how*, *how much*. Let us look at the below examples.

(7) a. A: When will you meet Kate?

B: I will meet her *tomorrow*.

b. A: How tall is James?

B: He is *very* tall.

Tomorrow, and *very* in the above example are the adverbs that can be answered to the wh-

questions. However, there are too many adverbs which don not satisfy the above rules. The number of adverbs corresponding to the rules is too many to call them exceptions.

3. Is **ADVERB** grammatical item?

Adverb has unique natures that other open class words do not have. Rhee organizes its features as follows (1998:38-39). Firstly, adverbs have very abundant functions. Word class that adverbs modify ranges from verb, adjective, adverb, pronoun, to sentence. Adverbs seem closely related to function words in that they are used as propositions as well, and that conjunctive adverbs and adverb have common grounds. Secondly, the forms of adverb also show the relations with both categories. For instance, *yesterday* in the sentence 'Yesterday was Tuesday' is used as noun, while *yesterday* in the sentence 'I met her yesterday' is adverb. By the way, there are countless adverbs which have the same form as closed class word such as aboard, about, within, without and so on. Thirdly, there are a variety of subcategories in adverbs and it is difficult to find the common ground that all subcategories share.

Although adverbs show the features that open class words have, some adverbs are products of grammaticalization. The below examples are from Rhee (1998).

(8) Conceal > secretly Twi

As we can see in (a), adverb *secretly* comes from verb *conceal*. Originally, *conceal* denotes the specific action that someone hide something. In the process of grammaticalization, its meaning is bleached and it must have lost the characteristics of noun (decategorialization). Based on the grammaticalizational phenomena, adverb is a product of grammaticalization. Let us see a list of the major means employed for the expression of case functions according to their relative degree of grammaticalization-the leftmost end of (9) marks the initial stage of grammaticalization and the rightmost end the terminal stage (HCH 1991: 169).

(9) lexical > (adverbs >) adpositions >case affixes >zero

Although adverb is positioned at the left side, it still requires movement from lexical stage to the next stage.

4. Grammatical paths

4.1 Somewhat

As for the etymology of *somewhat*, it used to be the compound word of the adjective *some* and *what* which is pronoun, adjective, and adverb. Until the end of the 16th century, this word had been written either as one word or as two. According to OED, *somewhat* used to be attested as noun in the early stage. Let us take a look at the following example.

(10) ?c1200 Summ whatt icc habbe shæwedd 3uw. Till 3ure sawle fode.

(11) 1819 Narrating somewhat of Don Juan's father.

(10) is the very firstly attested sentence in OED, and (11) is the last one in it. The noun *somewhat* has the meaning of 'A certain amount, especially in the way of statement, information, etc.' and it was frequently written with of, and concerning. When it comes to the meaning, noun and adverb have conceptually similar meaning, but the meaning of noun *somewhat* seems more specific than adverb *somewhat*. As you can see in (11), *somewhat* is situated in the position of objective. *Somewhat* in this sentences is the synonym of something, so the sentence can be translated as "describe something about Don Juan's father". And as you can see in (10), *somewhat* was written as two words in the early stage.

(12) a1627 Nothing lives but has a Ioy in some-what.

(13) 1681 May be presumed to contain somewhat excellent.

(14) 1654 Pretty Somewhats they would meane, but sure They understand not themselves any more than I do.

(15) 1685 Several men would be great, if they wanted not a somewhat, without which they never attain to the height of perfection.

In the first sentence, you can see the noun *somewhat* used with hyphen. The first noun followed by adjective is firstly attested in the late 1600s. And we can see that indefinite articles a was situated in front of somewhat when it was singular and plural mark -s was also used when it was plural through the last two sentences. There is no record of *somewhat* used as noun from 20th century. It is assumed that *somewhat* stopped functioning as noun from that time.

From now on, let us see *somewhat* used as adverb.

(16) ?c1200 Þær þurh wass sene þatt he þa. Summ whatt bigunnenn haffde. To lefenn o þe laferdd crist.

(17) 1600 Somwhat before the play began.

The first example is the firstly recorded sentence including adverb *somewhat*. In the sentence, *somewhat* has the meaning of 'In a certain degree or measure; to some (slight or small) extent; slightly, a little; rather.' In the early stage, *somewhat* used to qualify only verb. Additionally, it shows that somewhat was used as two words even when it functioned as adverb. And *somewhat* started to qualify prepositions from the late of 15th century. There are a few examples that somewhat qualifying prepositions as (17). However, this kind of usage was not common, and it disappeared soon.

Somewhat modifying adjectives and adverbs is attested in the late 1300s.

(18) c1515 His coloure was sum what pale.

(19) 1851 If..we Are counted somewhat deeply in their debt.

Somewhat in the first example qualify the adjective, pale, and the second one modifies the adverb, deeply. These are the most commonly used type today. There are various forms of *somewhat* until the late 1600s: some what, some-what. From 18th century, they are fully compounded to one word. Furthermore, all different spellings such as somewhat, somwhatt, sumwhet, sumquatt were unified to somewhat.

4.2 somehow

Compared to *somewhat*, *somehow* has relatively short history. Online Etymology dictionary says that *somehow* is the combination of some and how. A noteworthy fact is that *somehow* was used as a part of the phrase before used as an independent word. It was firstly attested in 1660s.

(20) 1664 An Act..was made ready, but somehow or other was missing.

(21) 1775 Some how or another, Green chatted me into tolerable spirits.

(22) 1741 A Hint that might some-how be improved.

(23) 1861 The *Royal New York Gazette* somehow ceased to be published.

(24) Do you think you could manage somehow to slip it in?

(25) It was somehow obvious that he had spent time in prison.

Somehow was used in the phrase ‘somehow and other’, which mean ‘in some way not yet known.’ Since the middle of 18th century, the slightly derived form *somehow and another* began to be attested. When *somehow and another* appeared, *somehow* started to be attested by itself and, still, had the same meaning as *somehow or other*. And these phrases are still utilized in modern English. The last two sentences are the examples of Modern English. In the third and fourth sentences, *somehow* is used as an independent adverb, and both modifies only verb. Overtime, its functions as qualifier have been expanded as written in the last two examples.

As far as functional and formal aspects are concerned, *somehow* was a part of the phrase *somehow or other* in the very beginning stage and the phrase is still used today. Originally, *somehow* was written as two words and had various forms such as *some how*, *some-how*, *somehow*. Since *somehow* became an independent word, it has functioned only as adverb and it has not undergone any word class change.

Grammaticalization of *somewhat* and *somehow*

We can see that the adverbs *somewhat* and *somehow* have undergone grammaticalization based on the diachronic analysis. Originally, *somewhat* did not function as adverb and had a

different meaning compared to the meaning used now. While somehow was adverb from the beginning, it could not be used independently.

The first meaning of *somewhat* is a certain amount and it is used as only noun. Subsequently, *somewhat* acquired the new meanings, *a certain undefined or unknown thing* (noun), and *rather*(adverb) in order. The old meaning do not disappear and different meanings are used in the same period. *somewhat* doesn't function as noun anymore. It shows that *somewhat* underwent **divergence**.

(26) 1801 Exasperated at somewhat his antagonist had said.

(27) 1812 She somewhat smiled.

As shown above, both sentences are written in 19c. While *somewhat* in the sentence (1) can be replaced by a noun phrase *a certain amount*, *somewhat* in the sentence (2) cannot because its adverb which qualifies verb. And being adverb, it means 'slightly, rather'. Therefore, *somewhat* is a good example of divergence in that different meanings of a word are diversified and used in the same period.

When lexical word is turned into grammatical item, it loses the features of primary categories such as noun, and verb. Instead, it comes to show the features of secondary categories. This phenomenon is called decategorialization. Grammatical change shows **cline** as follows.

(28) Noun/verb>>adjective/adverb>>adposition/conjunction/pronoun/reference

In the early stage, when meaning 'a certain undefined or unknown thing, quality, amount', *somewhat* was preceded by indefinite article *a* and suffix *-s* was added when it was plural. However, its meaning got **bleached**, and got relatively abstract meaning. As its grammatical category got changed into adverb, article is not used anymore. Furthermore, *somewhat* can be positioned freely as general adverbs. This phenomenon shows that *somewhat* seceded from noun.

Somehow shows an unusual change. It can be described as the following scheme.

(29) 1. Form: somehow or (an)other >> some how, some-how, somehow >> somehow

2. Meaning: In some manner or by some means not understood or defined (meaning maintained)

As mentioned, *somehow* used to be a part of the phrase *somehow or other*. All of sudden, it became independent and started to be used alone. In general, independent words come to get fixed at a certain position, and they are tied to the words around them. Overtime, speakers use the fixed expressions so much that they function as one word in the end. Heine(2002:4) claims that grammaticalization is a unidirectional process, that is, it leads from less grammatical to more grammatical forms and constructions(Unidirectionality). In this case, however, the direction of the change is opposite from general grammaticalization

(degrammaticalization). It is the case of change from a dependent to an independent word.

5. Summary and Discussion

To sum up this study, *somewhat* and *somehow* are the results of grammaticalization. Before we deal with this topic, we discussed whether adverbs are grammatical item. Although adverbs have many features in common with lexical words, they show the natures of function words. Therefore, this paper regards adverbs as grammatical items.

As for *somewhat*, after *some* and *what* were combined, it used to function as noun. Overtime, relatively specific meaning (something) become more abstract (semantic bleaching). Furthermore, it got diverged to noun and adverb (diverge). After both noun and adverb were used for a while, *somewhat* stopped being used as noun (decategorialization).

Somehow has relatively short history compared to *somewhat* and did not experience categorial change. An interesting about *somehow* is that a part of the phrase became independent and started to be used by itself. The direction of this movement is opposite of the general grammaticalization direction (degrammaticalization).

Both *somewhat* and *somehow* are the grammaticalized forms of interrogative marks. We can see the similar phenomena in Korean as well.

(30) 1-1. Ne saeng il I eon je ji?

1-2. When is your birthday?

2-1. Eon je jeon yeok han beon muk ja.

2-2. Let's have dinner sometime (in the future).

Eon je (when) in the sentence (1-1) functions as interrogative pronoun. But, in the sentence (2-1), eon je means sometime (in the future) and functions as adverb. As pronoun eon je have been used more and more, its meaning has undergone **subjectification**, which is a semantic change process whereby the original meaning becomes increasingly based in the speaker's subjective belief state or attitude toward the situation. (Traugott 1989: 35). As a result, it functions not only as pronoun, but also as adverb.

This paper supposes that there are more languages which show similar type of change -the change that interrogative marks become adverbs. Based on this paper, Comparing and contrasting them can be conducted.

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Online Etymology Dictionary (<http://etymonline.com>)

On Grammaticalization of *Near*, *Around* and *By* in English

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1. Introduction

- Lakoff & Johnson (1999:139) insist that “most of our understanding of time is a metaphorical version of our understanding of space”.
- This means humans understand temporal concept ‘time’ in association with locative concept ‘space’ by instinct. Humans tend to schematize similarity SPACE and TIME in their mind unconsciously.
- In English, there are a lot of words indicate both ‘space’ and ‘time’. Among words, ‘Near’, ‘Around’, and ‘By’ have both spatial and temporal meaning and they can be used as preposition, adverb, and adjective etc.,
- This paper looks correlation between spatial and temporal meaning of ‘Near’, ‘Around’ and ‘By’, and how other meanings are generated with SPACE and TIME concepts.

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2. Near

2.1 Semantics

2.1.1 Present Day English of ‘Near’

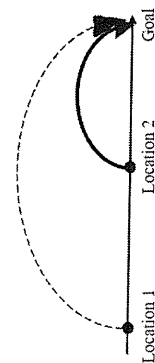
- (1) At, within, or to a short distance or time > Adverb
- (2) Close to > Preposition
- (3) Not far distant in time, place, or degree > Adjective
- (4) Almost happening : narrowly missed or avoided > Adjective
- (5) Closely related or intimately associated > Adjective

2.1.2 Source Meaning of ‘Near’

(4) Spatial Meaning

- a. Verb of motion: nearer or closer to a place, point, or person (First attested in OE)

No *near* Athenes wolde he go ne ryde.



(c1385. Chaucer Knight's Tale 968)

‘He would not walk or ride any *nearer* to Athens.’

- b. At a nearer distance with a smaller interval, in space or time. (First attested in OE)
Than sir Launcelot strode *neer* sir Gawayne and doubled hys strokis. (a1470. T. Malory Morte Darthur (Winch. Coll. 13) (1990) III. 1220)

‘And then Sir Launcelot strode *near* Sir Gawain and doubled his strokes.’

- c. At a short distance; in close proximity (First attested in c1225)

Ga nu *near* & nim him. (c1225. St. Juliana (Bodl.) 335 (MED))

‘Come now near and take him.’

- d. Close to, within a short distance of a place, thing or person in space. (c1300)

He wule come þe *ner*, And bidde þe pleie at þe escheke. (c1300 ▶ (c1250) Floris & Blancheflur (Cambr.) (1966) I. 34)

‘Then he will come *near*, and ask/offer you play with him at chess.’

(5) Temporal Meaning

- a. At a nearer distance, with a smaller interval, in space or time (First attested in OE)

- b. Nearer in space or time; nearer at hand (First attested in OE)

Sothli now oure heelthe is *near* than whanne we bileueden. (c1384. Bible (Wycliffite, E.V.) (Douce 369(2)) (1850) Rom. xiii. 11)

‘Truly now our health(salvation) is *nearer* than when we believed’

- c. Close to a point in time; approaching (First attested in c1300)

Setting out the table for dinner; for it was *near* one o'clock. (1833. H. Martineau Brooke & Brooke Farm (ed. 3) ii. 1)

- d. Of time (close at hand), event (about to happen) and person: close in time (First attested in a1400)

‘I trust my hour is *near*.’ (1816. J. Wilson City of Plague i. ii. 114)

(6) Psychological Distance

- a. Nearer in kinship or relationship (eOE)

Nis Eðelmode enig meghond *neor* ðes cynnes ðanne Eadwald, his modar his broðar dohtar. (eOE. (Kentish) Charter: Eadwald & Cynēþryð (Sawyer 1200) in F. E. Harmer Sel. Eng. Hist. Docs. 9th & 10th Cent. (1914) 10)

‘There is anyone *nearer* of kin to Aethelmod than Eadwald, whose mother was his brother's daughter’

- b. Close to (a thing or person) in resemblance or achievement (First attested in c1300)

Their language..is *nearer* the Latine, then the Italian. (1632. W. Lithgow Totall Disc. Trav. ix. 387)

'Their language is *nearer* the Latine, then the Italian.'

- c. Narrowly achieved, barely effected (c1475)
- d. Close to, almost at or approaching a state or condition (First attested in c1480)
I apprehended myself to be *near* death. (1736. J. Wesley Wks. (1830) I. 100)
- e. Intimate with a person (First attested tin 1488)
Under Heavens Cope, There's none as I so *near* the Pope. (1660. T. Hall Funebria Floræ Verses sig. G2)
- f. Closely connected by kinship or friendship (First attested in 1491)
He was so *neere* of the blood of king Richard. (1569. R. Grafton Chron. II. 420)
'He was so *near* of the blood of king Richard.'
- g. Close to appearance or correspondence (1547)
The hollow parts must be covered with a colour the *nearest* in appearance to gold. (1758. R. Dossie Handmaid to Arts I. 382)
She comes *near* again to the excellence of her first performance. (1820. Examiner No. 654. 686/1)

3. Grammaticalization

3.1 Grammaticalization Principle

- (1) Layering
- (2) Divergence
- (3) Persistence
- (4) Context-induced Reinterpretation
- (5) Overlap

3.2 Grammaticalization Mechanism

- (6) Metaphor
- (7) Metonymy
- (8) Generalization
- (9) Subjectification

4. Around

4.1 Semantics

4.1.1 Present Day English of 'Around'

- (1) In a circle or in circumference > Adverb

- (2) On all or various sides : in every or any direction > Adverb
- (3) In close from all sides so as to surround > Adverb
- (4) With some approach to exactness : APPROXIMATELY > Adverb
- (5) About > Adjective
- (6) Near > Preposition

4.1.2 Source Meaning of 'Around'

(6) Spatial Meaning

- a. In every direction from a central point (First attested in c1330)
The fontaine, where they sat *arounde*. (1579. E. Spenser Shepheardes Cal. June 60)
'The fountain, where they sat *around*.'
- b. Along the circuit of surface (First attested in c1390)
All their heads *around* with chaplets green of cerial-oak were crowned. (1699. J. Dryden Chaucer's Flower & Leaf 229)
- c. In a position or positions on the circumference, edge, or border of (First attested in 1475)
Sometimes the embryo is coiled *around* the outside, in the form of a ring. (1857. A. Gray First Lessons Bot. iii. 15)
- d. In the immediate vicinity of (First attested in 1591)
We sat up all night...and kept a strong guard both in and *around* the house. (1792. Let. 9 May in J. Priestley Appeal to Public on Riots Birmingham (1793) App. xviii. 193)
- e. In every direction from (a central point); towards every side of (First attested in 1667)
The air *around* and above us was.. clear. (1860. J. Tyndall Glaciers of Alps i. §11. 84)

(7) Temporal Meaning

- a. Throughout the whole period (First attested in 1714)
There was a variety show that ran all the year *around*. (1904. Galveston (Texas) Tribune 25 Sept. 3/4)
- b. Of a recurrent or due event or time: so as to arrive or happen (First attested in 1753)
When spring came *around*, it was the intention of the owner to have it..planted with flowers. (1844. Campbell's Foreign Semi-monthly Mag. Jan.

6. By

6.1 Semantics

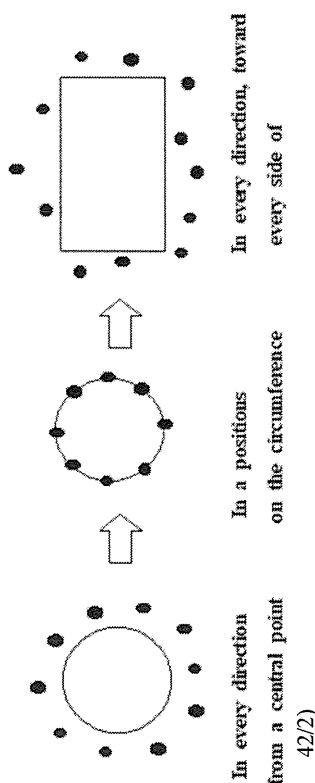
6.1.1 Present Day English of 'By'

- In proximity to : NEAR > Preposition
- Into the vicinity of and beyond : PAST > Preposition
- Through or through the medium of : VIA > Preposition
- Not later than > Preposition
- Being off the main route : SIDE > Adjective
- Something of secondary importance; a side issue > Noun

6.1.2 Source Meaning of 'By'

(1) Spatial Meaning

- Direction or vague localization; In the region or general direction of (First attested in c893)
One sort *by* east, an other *by* west, did rise. (1556. J. Heywood Spider & Flie lx. 101)
- At the side or edge of, in the vicinity of, near, close to, beside. (First attested in 898)
Three of their biggest Ships lay *by* the Walls. (1725. D. Defoe New Voy. round World i. 72)
- In the presence of, at the house of, beside, with, in possession of, about (a person) (First attested in a1300)
We haue an aduocate *by* the father, Christ Iesus. (1541. R. Barnes Wks. (1573) 347/2)
'We have an advocate *by* the father, Christ Iesus.'
- By the side of, In addition to (1330)
- In comparison with, in proportion to (First attested in 1340)
Twenty-six years ago..we were in a pleasant situation..*by* what we are at present. (1729. Let. in R. Wodrow Corr. (1843) III. 448)
- Beyond; Contrary to, Against (First attested in 1460-70)
By the expectation of many..the Parliament did ryde and end upon Fryday. (1650. J. Row & J. Row Hist. Kirk Scotl. (1842) 366)
'*By* the expectation of many the Parliament did ride and end upon Friday.'
- A secondary or subsidiary object, course, or undertaking; a side issue; something of minor importance: chiefly contrasted with main (First attested in 1567)
This critic was right in the main, but not by the *by*; in the general, not in the particular. (1823. I. D'Israeli Curiosities of Lit. 2nd Ser. II. 176)



- Time or a period of time: so as to pass or elapse (First attested in 1769)

By the time six months came *around* the company had nothing to show for its efforts. (2011. I. H. Buchen Executive Intelligence xxv. 209)

(8) Non-Purposive Meaning

- Aimless, lack of purpose (First attested in 1550)
I saw the clouds going *around* and *around*. (1835. 16th Ann. Rep. N.-Y. Inst. for Instr. Deaf & Dumb 1834 App. 57)
- Indiscriminately (First attested in 1596)
I shall be just eating *around*. (1927. E. Wallace Hand of Power xlv. 215)

5. Grammaticalization

5.1 Grammaticalization Principles

- Layering
- Divergence
- Persistence
- Context-induced Reinterpretation
- Overlap

5.2 Grammaticalization Mechanism

- Metaphor
- Metonymy
- Generalization
- Subjectification

h. Apart from, away from (First attested in 1600)

Surely we're *by* ourselves, to speak this open blasphemy. (1832. Blackwood's Edinb. Mag. 32 644)

(2) Temporal Meaning

a. In the course of, at, in, on (the time or date of an action or event) (First attested in 1000)

Where he used to wander many a morning *by* sun-rise, and many an evening *by* moonlight. (1797. Philanthrope No. 23. 177)

b. Completion of the time required assigned for the performance of an action; On or before, not later than; within (First attested in 1375)

We parted and came *by* noon to Lesina. (1682. G. Wheeler Journey into Greece i. 24)

c. During, for (a space of time) (First attested in a1500)

By the space of three yeeres, I ceased not to warne euery one. (1611. Bible (King James) Acts xx. 31.)

'*By* the space of three years, I ceased not to warn everyone.'

(3) Medium

a. With live: introducing both the food and the means of obtaining it (First attested in 971)

As I do liue *by* foode, I met a foole. (a1616. W. Shakespeare As you like It (1623) ii. vii. 14)

'As I do live *by* food, I met a fool.'

b. Indicate part as medium for action applied to the whole (First attested in OE)

Her little Boy offers to pull me *by* the Coat. (1711. J. Addison Spectator No. 12. ¶2)

c. Indicate means of identification: by the name of (First attested in c1000)

That anarchy which goes *by* the name of the German Empire. (1796. G. Morris in J. Sparks Life G. Morris (1832) III. 98)

d. Introducing the instrumentality: = by means of (First attested in c1000)

He at last died either *by* poison or madness. (1769. O. Goldsmith Rom. Hist. II. 475)

e. Intermediate or subordinate agent viewed as the medium or channel (Old English *purh*) (First attested in a1300)

God sente to saul *by* samuel þe prophete. (1393. W. Langland Piers Plowman C. iv. 417)

'God sent to saul by samuel the prophet.'

f. Principal agent (First attested in c1400)

It was among the articles which John was compelled *by* the Barons to sign. (1849. T. B. Macaulay Hist. Eng. I. 31)

g. Manager (as licensee) of public house, etc (1841)

This is the Valiant Soldier *by* James Groves. (1841. C. Dickens Old Curiosity Shop i. xxix. 256)

7. Grammaticalization

7.1 Grammaticalization Principles

(1) Layering

(2) Divergence

(3) Persistence

(4) Context-induced Reinterpretation

(5) Overlap

7.2 Grammaticalization Mechanism

(6) Metaphor

(7) Metonymy

(8) Generalization

(9) Subjectification

8. Conclusion

8.1 Near

a. Psychological > Spatial/Temporal

[QUALITY > SPACE/TIME]

b. Adverb(14c.) > Preposition(15c.) > Adjective(1849)

8.2 Around

a. Spatial > Temporal > Non-purposiveness

[SPATE > TIME > QUALITY]

b. Adverb(13c.) > Preposition(13c.) > Adjective(14c.) > Verb(1522)

8.3 By

- a. Spatial > Medium > Temporal
[SPACE > QUALITY > TIME]
- b. Preposition/Adverb(Before 12c.) > Noun(1567) > Adjective(14c)

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영어 통사·의미론

Polarity sensitive item, contextual restriction and determiner: The case of English “wh-ever” and Korean “KU-wh”

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The main goal of this paper is to investigate the pragmatic contribution of Korean *ku* ‘the/that’. Our main data deals with the cases where *ku* combines with bare wh-indeterminates and anti-specific wh-indeterminates (i.e., Free Choice Items, Negative Polarity Items, Referential Vague Items). Given that the semantic properties of *ku* is associated with definiteness (C. Lee 1989 a.o.), the occurrence of *ku* with wh-indeterminates would result in an identifiability mismatch: because anti-specific wh-indeterminates are inherently intensional, and they cannot have ostensive denotation or refer back to anaphoric reference. Surprisingly, however, as shown in (1), *ku* is compatible with wh-indeterminates *nwukwu* ‘who’, with FCI *nwukwu-na* ‘anyone’, with NPI *nwukwu-to* ‘no one’, and with RVI/NPI *nwukwu-rato* ‘someone or other.’ They all give rise to intensified reading:

- (1) a. Ku nwukwu-ka oass ulswuiss-ta. Bare wh-indeterminate
 KUever who-Nom came possible-Decl
 ‘It is possible that someone, whosoever he is, came in.’
 b. Ku nwukwu-na/nwukwu-to/nwukwu-rato i il-ul
 KUever who-NA/who-TO/who-RATO this job-Acc
 ha-lswuiss/lswuep-ta.
 do-possible/impossible-Decl
 ‘Anyone whosoever can do this job.’ FCI
 ‘Anyone cannot do this job at all.’ NPI
 ‘Someone or other, whosoever he is, can do this job.’ NPI/RVI

It motivates the proposal that the meaning of *ku* is not associated with the core property of definiteness but with an intensified content. In this paper, I focus on the contribution of the emphatic *ku* in (1) in terms of pragmatic perspective. The main concern is to figure out how the intensified reading arises.

Previous literature: Thus far, the function of emphatic *ku* has been simply described as “emphatic demonstrative” (C. Lee 1995) or “intensifier” (Suh 2002) without any further elaboration. Further, although the study on intensifiers has mainly focused on the modifiers of gradable predicates (i.e. degree modification:

Kennedy & McNally 2005), Korean emphatic *ku* has restricted syntactic distributions and disability to modify gradable adjectives. Accordingly, a novel explanation is called for.

The hallmark properties of *KUever* are: i) modal flavor of indifference/ignorance; and ii) weak polarity. First, *ku* introduces a presupposition of variation over the denotation of the *wh*-indeterminates across possible worlds. This variation is construed as either ignorance or indifference, depending on the modal base. An epistemic modal base yield ignorance, and a counterfactual modal base yields indifference. The effects can be achieved by application of the emphatic *ku* functioning as a vehicle of presupposing the minimal difference from the world of evaluations. Second, the emphatic *ku* is sensitive to weak polarity where it appears in nonveridical contexts (Giannakidou 1995 et seq.) such as questions, conditionals, imperatives, and modals verbs, whereas it cannot occur in episodic context (3):

- (3) (**Ku*) *nwukwu-ka* *o-ass-ta*.
 KUever *who-Nom* *come-Past-Decl*
 ‘intended: Someone, whosoever he is, came in.’

My proposal is that pragmatic contribution of the *ku* can be characterized in terms of *wh-so-ever*. Specifically, with the full range of phenomena that correlate with the occurrence of *wh*-indeterminates, the implicature triggered by *ku* contributes counterfactual/epistemic entailment. The similar uses of the definite article can be found in typologically unrelated languages. In Greek, for example, the definite article *o* co-appears with free choice words *ophosdhipote* ‘any’ and forms *o ophosdhipote* ‘just any’. The use of *o* adds the “just” component and this is parallel to Korean. I also show that the counterfactual/epistemic entailment of *ku* cannot be understood as a domain widener (*pace* Lazaridou-Chatzigoga 2007).

Conclusion. In this paper, I suggest a novel function of Korean *ku* in terms of the trigger on the modal flavor of indifference/ignorance. Whereas *ku* can combine with *wh*-indeterminates, the definite *ku* exhibits more constrained distribution compatible with nouns only. We can therefore view *ku* as a separate lexical item with this sortal restriction on its arguments.

The Syntax of Korean Nominalization

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This dissertation focuses on the status and the occurrence of Korean phrasal nominalizations, and proposes that it can be projected in two different positions, either above TP or ν P. When the nominalization appears with a nominative subject, the nominalizer merges into n which takes TP as its complement, while when it appears with a genitive subject, the nominalizer n takes ν P. This is based on the discussions about asymmetric patterns observed in case and transitivity of the verb. Adopting Alexiadou & Grimshaw's (2008) diagnostic, I examine whether the Korean phrasal nominalization is a complex or a simple event nominal, and argue that Korean nominalizations are complex event nominals, regardless of case of the subject. I also argue against Burzio's generalization by presenting nominalization with genitive subject, in which accusative case is impossible, as supporting evidence. Instead, I suggest Moulton's (2004) defective ν , which tolerates the absence of accusative case on the object, as an alternative analysis. Finally, I propose that there are restrictions in reacting only when a nominalizer have a certain environment with respect to the case on the subject, transitivity of the verb, and type of nominalizer. In particular, if the nominalizer directly attaches to ν P, it is restricted in its subcategorizational property. Also, I propose syntactic differences between *-ki* and *-(u)m* nominalization constructions in Korean by suggesting that they are in complementary distribution.

Korean English L2ers' sensitivity to information structure: An ERP study

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Cowles, Kluender, Kutas, and Polinsky (2007) found two types of ERP response in answers to *wh*-questions. One is that all words in focused position showed a large positivity understood as characteristic of sentence-final elements, and in fact the sentence-final words of the sentences containing them did. They suggested that focused elements might trigger integration effects, like those in sentence-final position. The other is that inappropriately-focused referents showed a right negativity relative to appropriately-focused ones. They suggested that this N400-like effect was elicited by comprehending structurally-encoded focus cues and discourse-level restrictions. Along the line of Cowles et al (2007), we are also to investigate ERP responses to violations of information structure (IS) in answers to *wh*-questions in Korean English speakers, where focus structure is incorrectly aligned in 'it'-clefts.

To this aim the experimental materials for our ERP study consisted of 60 sets with two types of stimuli (congruent and incongruent), adopted from Cowles, et al. (2007). Each trial contains a set-up context with the introduction of three discourse participants, and then a *wh*-question consisting of one participant as an agent and two participants as an undergoer of an event, and a target sentence that was constructed as an *it*-cleft, with its pivot marked for focus with a congruent or incongruent participant, schematically represented below.

- (1) set-up: A queen, an advisor, and a banker were arguing over taxes. Who did the queen silence with a word, the banker or the advisor?
- (2) congruent target: It / was/ the banker/ that/ the queen/ silenced/.
- (3) incongruent target: It /was/ the queen/ that/ silenced/ the banker/.

Twenty Korean English L2ers with a high level of English proficiency participated in this experiment. ERPs were measured at the critical phrase (a cleft pivot: 'the banker' or 'the queen') and all the following expressions (i.e. words/phrases) in a sentence. We found that, first, all the expressions in cleft-pivot focus position registered a large positivity. Likewise, the final expressions in the congruent condition recorded a positivity at posterior region, but those in the incongruent condition didn't. Second, the expressions in cleft-pivot focus position in the incongruent relative to the congruent condition elicited widespread P600. The word immediately after the pivot (e.g., 'that') in the incongruent relative to the congruent condition elicited an N300, and the sentence-final expressions in the incongruent relative to the congruent condition evoked a sustained negativity.

We take the results in this experiment to indicate that the N400 evoked at the cleft pivot in the incongruent condition reflects a violation of IS called for by the congruence between the preceding *wh*-question and its answer in a given context, and the P600 at the same position is a signature of syntactic integration difficulty due to

the misfit of a non-focused constituent in a syntactic position reserved for focused expressions. At the same time, we suggest that the sustained negativity at the sentence-final elements in the incongruent condition is a neural correlate of increased syntactic complexity owing to the IS-wise mis-alignment of syntactic constituents.

An Alternative Syntactic Structure and VP Ellipsis

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The purpose of this paper is to discuss syntactic structures of English sentences in generative grammar, point out some problems, and provide a new alternative version of syntactic structure. Current generative grammar represents syntactic structure of sentences in terms of categories and postulates tense as an independent syntactic constituent from verbs. The new syntactic structure will be offered which is comprised of six fundamental syntactic elements. They are Comp, Tense, Neg, Link, Aspect, and Predicate. Empirical evidence will be offered for such composition of syntactic elements. In three significant respects, the new alternative syntactic structure will be more advantageous than the previous syntactic structures. First, the alternative syntactic structures postulate tense as an independent syntactic element from predicates and thus non-predicate tensed verbs such as *be*-verb or *have*-verbs will be further decomposed into tense and verb. The non-predicate tensed verbs are tense themselves. This will dispense with extra verb raising of the non-predicate verbs to Tense. Second, straightforward and uniform licensing conditions will be specified for the ellipsis of predicate verbs and non-predicate verbs in terms of the new syntactic structure. This can be a better alternative to Lasnik (1999)'s hybrid approach to verbal morphology, which accounts for the ellipsis of predicate verbs and non-predicate verbs by two different licensing conditions.

On Korean Speakers' Knowledge of Unaccusativity in English

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The unaccusative-unergative distinction is presumably universal, but languages vary as to the syntactic and morphological reflexes of such a distinction. Given the cross-linguistic variation, a learnability problem naturally arises for the L2 acquisition of unaccusativity. This talk addresses Korean speakers' knowledge of unaccusativity and unergativity in L2 English. More specifically, this talk will address the questions of (1) whether Korean speakers are sensitive to the unaccusative/unergative distinction in English; and (2) whether they are able to distinguish unaccusatives from transitives. In order to investigate the two questions, we employed the toolkit OpenSeame and used a 5-point Likert scale. 173 adult Korean speakers (31 beginners/ 59 intermediates/ 31 advanced) participated in the study. Three types of verbs were employed in the task: unaccusatives, unergatives, and transitives. Each type was represented by seven verbs, which were selected based on frequency analyses of learner corpora. Korean learners' knowledge of unaccusative-unergative distinction was tested, using diagnostics such as overpassivization, causativization, and compatibility with a purpose clause. This talk also considers two semantic properties, telicity and animacy, which are frequently argued to be associated with unaccusativity/unergativity.

Persuade vs. Convince: A Corpus-based Study

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This is a preliminary corpus study on the syntax and (lexical) semantics of the English verbs, *persuade* and *convince*. These two verbs are known as typical subject-to-object control verbs in English (e.g. *Bill persuaded/convinced him to build a supercomputer* vs. *#Bill persuaded/convinced there to be a supercomputer in the lab*). It seems that they have a very similar (or almost the same) meaning, and some syntactic distributions of the verbs appear to overlap. Then the naturally arising question is: What are the differences and similarities between the two control verbs? I would like to discuss some findings of the syntactic and semantic properties of *persuade* and *convince* based on empirical data extracted from the COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English). I also discuss some differences and similarities between *persuade/convince* and the Korean counterparts *seltukha/naptuksikhi*.

Collexeme analysis for verb-class-specific constructions: The case of conative *away at/on* constructions

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It has been well noted in literature that certain transitive verbs can undergo the conative alternation, as exemplified in (1) (Levin 1993; Adams 2001; Ghomeshi and Massam 1994; Dixon 1991; Kim 2018):

- (1) John hammered (at/on) the nail.

As shown here, transitive verbs like *hammer* can have their conative alternants. Syntactically, the direct object in the transitive construction is realized as a PP headed by *at* or *on* in its conative counterpart. Semantically, although early studies on this topic (Guerssel et al. 1985; Pinker 1989; Levin 1993: 41-43; Frense and Bennet 1996; Van der Leek 1996) have proposed that only those verbs that have meanings of both motion and contact can participate in the conative alternation, subsequent studies have provided examples that contradict with the view resorting heavily on these two meaning components and pointed out that they need to be classified into sub-types (Broccias 2003; Perek 2014; Kim 2018).

Interestingly, there are also transitive verbs that can participate in the conative *away at/on* alternations, as demonstrated below:

- (2) a. John rubbed (away at) the counter.
b. John chewed (away on) a piece of straw.

Overall, much less attention has been paid to the conative *away at/on* constructions as in (2) than the conative *at/on* constructions as in (1). For instance, the conative *away at* construction has been mentioned just as a subtype of the conative *at* construction (Bolinger 1971; Bresnan 1982; Lombardi 1984; van der Leek 1996; Jackendoff 1997; McIntyre 2001; Broccias 2003). In addition, the conative *on* construction has been only briefly described as a variant of the conative *at* construction and there has been no independent work focusing on the conative *away on* construction.

To fill the research gap, this study aims to examine what the verbs that occur in the conative *away at/on* constructions most frequently tell us about grammatical properties including their core meaning(s). In particular, it looks into what kinds of verbs can occur in the conative *away at/on* constructions and how similar and different the verbs that can participate in the two constructions. In doing so, this study makes use of authentic corpus data extracted from the COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English) and adopts the collexeme analysis

methodology, using *Coll.analysis* 3.5.1, an R program coded and provided by Stefan Gries, with the one-tailed Fisher-Yates exact test to compute association strength (Stefanowitsch and Gries 2003).

The results show us a variety of interesting linguistic properties of the constructions under discussion. First, overall, the verbs that participate in the conative *away at/on* constructions can be broadly classified into four sub-classes depending on main meanings of the verbs: *ingest*, *cut*, *hit*, and *touch*. Next, the conative *away at* construction occurs much more frequently than the conative *away on* construction and more verbs license the former than the latter. In addition, some verbs display different meaning/usage preference patterns in the two constructions. For instance, most examples with *saw* involve the actual meaning of *cut* in the conative *away at* construction; on the other hand, most examples with the same verb involve an extended figurative meaning in the conative *away on* construction (e.g., He opened a clasp knife and *sawed away at the ropes binding Jan*, vs. ... his mother *sawed away on a violin*).

The results also demonstrate that the conative *away at/on* constructions each do not seem to attract a particular class of verbs that characterizes their core meanings. Thus, more informative properties are observed from the results when we look at verb-class-specific constructions independently. For instance, they indicate that with ingest verbs, *eat* is the strongest collexeme in the conative *away at* construction followed by others with a bit-by-bit manner meaning like *nibble*, *gnaw*, and *chew*, while those with an anti-bit-by-bit manner meaning such as *munch* and *chomp* are strongest collexemes in the conative *away on* construction.

The aforementioned findings, therefore, suggest that it is worthwhile exploring properties related to collexemes based on verb-class-specific constructions with authentic corpus data and statistical tests and that way we can make important observations that simple introspection-based studies are likely to miss out.

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On the Development of Discourse Markers from Verbs of Cognition in English

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1. Introduction
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3. Methodology and Research Gap
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 - 4.1 Cognitive Verbs
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1. Introduction

- The main focus of this paper is based on the fact that various verbs of cognition (e.g. *guess, think, believe, know*, etc.) have grammaticalized into discourse markers.
- A study conducted by Thompson and Mulac (1991) mentioned *think* and *guess* (account for 90%) are the most frequently occurring verbs in their data from recorded conversations between university students.
- However, according to frequency of cognitive verbs from MICASE, COCA, the most frequently used cognitive verbs are *know, think, believe, understand, and guess*, and these selected verbs are the main focus of this paper.
- MICASE and COCA showed the asymmetric use of pronoun subjects (i.e. *I, you*) with these verbs and it is founded that the different **degrees of certainty** of cognitive verbs play a key role on the use of pronouns.
- Aside from a preference for a certain subject, the **degree of certainty** is highly related to other phenomena: a development into **epistemic markers** and politeness strategy. Lastly, the choice of a pronoun subject affects the degree of intersubjective meaning for discourse markers (e.g. *I think, I guess, I believe, I know, you know*).

2. Preliminary

- **Cognition** is "the mental action or process of acquiring knowledge and understanding through thought, experience, and the senses". It encompasses many aspects of intellectual functions and processes such as attention, the formation of knowledge, memory and working memory, judgment and evaluation, reasoning and "computation", problem solving and decision making, comprehension and production of language. Cognitive processes use existing knowledge and generate new knowledge.

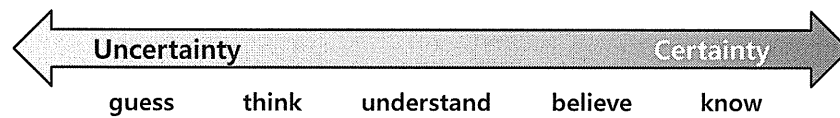
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cognition#cite_note-1

- **Verbs of Cognition**

Verbs that denote human cognitive activities includes *think, guess, believe, know* etc. (Rhee 2001).

e.g. *remember, believe, surmise, hypothesize, conceive, reckon, judge, ponder, regard, deem, suppose, presuppose* etc.

- **The Degree of Certainty Hypothesis**



- While the degree of certainty of cognitive verbs has not been discussed that much, many meaningful comments were made regarding discourse markers which are originated from these verbs.
- Kang (2015) states that evidential markers form a hierarchy by strength of 'dis-assertion' .
- Östman (1981) said in his book *You know* that *I think* or *I guess* indicates that the speaker is **uncertain** while *you know* implies that the addresser knows, presupposes that the speaker does have knowledge of the particular propositional context.

know

- to have information about something in your mind
- **to be certain**
- to be able to do something
- to have spent time with someone or in a place so that the person or place is not new to you.

Cambridge Dictionary Online

- Cambridge Dictionary defines '*know*' as '*to be certain*' .
It clearly shows that '*know*' means the highest degree of certainty among the selected cognitive verbs.

3. Methodology and Research Gap

- Data analyzed for this study come from Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).
- Criteria used for First Analysis
 1. Frequency
 2. Semantic purity
 3. Discourse marker

consider

verb
UK ˈkɒnsɪdə / ˈkɑːnsɪdə / US ˈkɑːnsɪdə / ˈkɑːnsɪdə



to spend time **thinking** about a possibility or making a decision:

surmise

verb (T) - formal
UK ˈsɜːmɪz / ˈsɜːmɪz / US ˈsɜːmɪz / ˈsɜːmɪz

to guess something, without having much or any proof:

• I **surmise** **(that)** the robbers have fled the country.

<https://dictionary.cambridge.org/ko/%EC%82%AC%EC%A0%84/%EC%98%81%EC%96%B4/imagine>

- The first analysis is on the frequency of the cognitive verb. I analyzed the token frequency and percentage of the use of sixteen cognitive verbs on two corpora and narrowed these verbs down to six verbs (i.e. *know*, *think*, *believe*, *understand*, *remember*, *guess*).
- Secondly, I have analyzed pronoun subjects (i.e. *I*, *you*) which combine with selected verbs above.
- Research Gap on Interrogative structure
In this study, interrogative structures (e.g. *do you think*, *do you know*, etc) are not excluded on this data. Regarding the fact that interrogative forms have a different function and take a 'you' in general, they need to be distinguished.
However it does not affect the result of one of the main idea on this paper regarding the asymmetric use of pronoun subjects with cognitive verbs, and rather, excluding interrogative structures is expected to make even a larger gap between the two pronoun subjects, *you* and *I*.

4. Corpus findings and discussion

4.1 Cognitive Verbs

	know	think	believe	under- Stand	remem- ber	guess	consider	wonder	suppose
Token # in MICAS	11549	6785	347	635	889	832	158	126	149
% in MICAS	53.8 %	31.6 %	1.6 %	3.0 %	4.1 %	3.9 %	0.7 %	0.6 %	0.7 %
Token # in COCA	936545	730315	168842	119119	108651	59459	59785	40220	18201
% in COCA	41.1 %	32.0 %	7.4 %	5.2 %	4.8 %	2.6 %	2.6 %	1.8 %	0.8 %
	regard	conceive	hypo- thesize	reckon	ponder	deem	surmise	total	
Token # in MICAS	24	9	0	0	0	1	0	21504	
% in MICAS	0.1 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	100 %	
Token # in COCA	21156	2275	9765	1600	1938	947	552	2279370	
% in COCA	0.9 %	0.1 %	0.4 %	0.1 %	0.1 %	0.0 %	0.0 %	100 %	

Table 1. Frequency of the Cognitive verbs in Corpora

¹ Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English

² Corpus of Contemporary American English

- Among various cognitive verbs mentioned above (e.g. *remember*, *believe*, *surmise*, *hypothesize*, *conceive*, *reckon*, *judge*, *ponder*, *regard*, *deem* etc), this study is focused on the five selected cognitive verbs, *know*, *think*, *believe*, *understand*, and *guess* as they are the most frequently used cognitive verbs based on the frequency exhibited on Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA).
- It is noteworthy that not all the most frequently used verbs develop into discourse marker (i.e. *remember*), therefore, *remember* is not a concern of this paper despite a high frequency on corpora.

	know	think	believe	under- Stand	remember	guess
Token # in MICAS ¹	11549	6785	347	635	889	832
% in MICAS	53.8 %	31.6 %	1.6 %	3.0 %	4.1 %	3.9 %
Token # in COCA ²	936545	730315	168842	119119	108651	59459
% in COCA	41.1 %	32.0 %	7.4 %	5.2 %	4.8 %	2.6 %

Table 2. Frequency of the selected verbs from Corpora

¹ Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English

² Corpus of Contemporary American English

4.2 Pronoun Subjects

MICASE	know	think	believe	understand	remember	guess
I	903	4028	110	89	122	646
you	7016	656	20	50	94	17
COCA	know	think	believe	understand	remember	guess
I	108953	359646	34327	16100	23756	42245
you	405883	92073	10325	6015	8394	413

Table 2. Frequency of the use of *I* and *You* with selected cognitive verbs

- This table shows the asymmetric use of pronoun subjects with 6 cognitive verbs.
- That the meaning of certainty plays an important role when it comes to the pronoun–verb combination. since verbs meaning low level of certainty, *think*, *believe*, *understand*, *remember*, and *guess* tend to take *I*, a first person singular. However, *know* does not exhibit this preference.
- I suggest two possible hypothesis on this phenomenon on the next slide.

4.2.1 Epistemic meaning of cognitive verbs.

- Epistemicity involves the speaker's evaluation, judgment and degree of commitment attached to the truth–value of a piece of information, (De Haan, 2001, 2005; Mushin, 2001; Nuyts, 2005).
- Traugott (1987) mentioned that there are subjects to express epistemicity, or degree of speaker commitment. A number of researchers have pointed out that speaker commitment can only be asserted for the speaker by the speaker (*I*), or queried of the addressee by the speaker (*you*).
- Rhee (2001) states that verbs of cognition have grammaticalized into epistemic markers since they exhibit semantic residue of the source items which make direct reference to the sources of the human construal of the world affairs.
- To sum up, cognitive verbs have developed into epistemic markers, taking *I*, a first person singular pronoun.

English inflectional language	Discourse Marker (via <i>that</i> -deletion)	I think, I guess, I believe, I know, You know...
Korean agglutinative language Verb-final language	Sentence Final Phrase (via main clause ellipse) (Rhee 2012)	-겠, -(으)ㄴ 것 이, -(으)ㄴ/ㄹ 것 같-, -(으)가/나 보-, -(으)ㄴ/ㄹ 모양 이, - 대/래/재, -다/라/자/냐 (고 하)-등 (Kang 2005)


< Cognitive verbs into Evidential markers >

- Cognitive verbs have grammaticalized into evidential markers despite the considerable variability of evidential systems according to linguistic character or classification. (Regarding this, many studies were conducted by Aikhenvald & Dixon, 2001; Anderson, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986; Cinque, 1999; Delancey, 2002; Faller, 2002; Garrett, 2000; Givón, 1982; De Haan, 1998, 2001; Ifantidou, 2001; Izvorski, 1998; Johanson & Utas, 2000; Kratzer, 1991; Mayer, 1990; Mushin, 2001; Palmer, 1986; Papafrago, 2000; Speas, 2004; Willett, 1988)

4.2.2 Politeness strategy

- A preference for a certain subject pronouns is highly related to politeness, as well. Firstly, using *I*, a first person singular pronoun sounds more polite compared to *you*, a second person singular pronoun since direct designation by mentioning '*you*' can be a strong Face Threatening Act.
 - (a) You sit down. vs. ∅ Sit down.
 - (b) You didn' t send me a package.
 - (c) I didn' t get a package.
 - (d) A package hasn' t arrived.
- These examples above show that avoiding '*you*' is a politeness strategy to reduce face threatening level.

- Secondly, a speaker avoids a Face Threatening Act based on dis-assertion, therefore, *I think, I guess, I believe* explicit linguistic manifestation of the fact reducing the forces of assertion. (Brown & Levinson, Rhee 2001, Kang 2015)
- While many of cognitive verbs show, *I*-preference, *know* exhibits a different feature by taking '*you*' more often and this is due to the original meaning of *know*. Since *know* is a verb of a high degree of certainty and assertion, *know* cannot meet politeness needs when it is combined with '*I*'.
- *I know* vs. *you know*

less polite  more polite	2nd-person singular referent <i>You think, you guess</i>	1st-person singular referent <i>I know</i>
	1st-person singular referent <i>I think, I guess</i>	2nd-person singular referent <i>You know</i>

- Östman (1981) states that human interaction and cooperation is governed by the two aspects of Face-Saving and Politeness.
- Therefore, *I*-preference which is regarded as a more polite form is conventionalized cross-linguistically. (e.g. *Yo creo* in Spanish, *Eu acho* in Portuguese)

4.2.3 Discourse marker and Intersubjectivity

- **Intersubjectivity**

- Rhee (2012) mentions in his paper that subjectification and intersubjectification as follows: subjectification is the speaker's evaluative judgment and intersubjectification is more interpersonal and emotive interactions (Rhee 2012).
- Given the fact that communicating with others entails general intersubjectivity (Traugott 2010), discourse markers basically have intersubjective meaning since they are used in discourse situations between interlocutors.

- **Pronoun subjects of Discourse Markers and Intersubjectivity**

Huspek (1989) pointed out different functions between pronouns in discourse markers, '*you know*' and '*I know*' as follows:

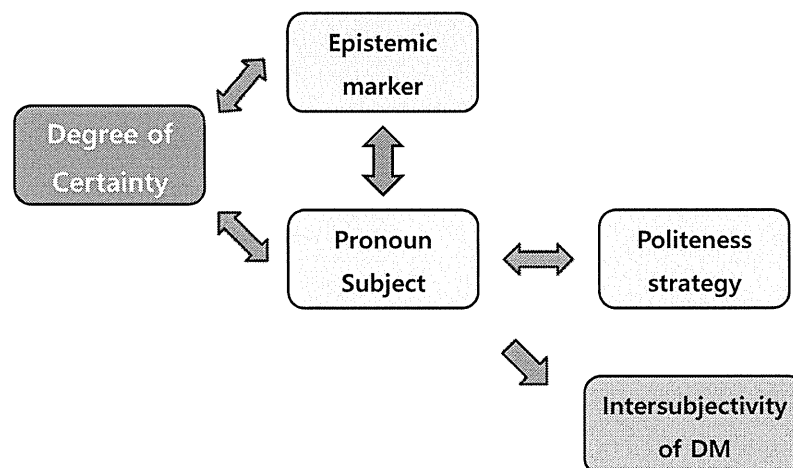
"the '*you*' of '*you know*' is other-oriented (sociocentric) and the '*know*' functions to exempt the speaker from specifying context and, thus, from fully elaborating meaning. The '*I*' of '*I think*' is individuated (egocentric) and the 'THINK' is aimed at a relatively high specification of context needed for fully elaborated meaning."

- Rhee (2019) also points out intersubjective meaning of an Korean discourse marker, '*asitasiphi*' (*as you know* in English).

"In its development into discourse markers, the role of intersubjectification (e.g. making reference to the addressee's cognitive states) as well as rhetorical strategies of (feigned/forced) interactivity and addressee involvement (e.g. suggesting that the addressee is in alignment with the speaker) is prominent.

- When using *you know*, the speaker usually has a goal beyond a partaking in an interaction. And by introducing the *you know*, the speaker communicates (Östman 1981).
- To sum up, we have reached the conclusion that a cognitive verb *know* tends to take *you* for its subject and when it is combined with *you*, *you know* has strong interactive functions.

5. Conclusion



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영어 음성학·음운론

A comparative study on prosodic focus in English and Korean

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This study adopted a production experiment to explore whether there is a systematic difference in marking prosodic focus between English and Korean. In the production experiment, this study employs three sentence positions (including sentence-initial focus, sentence-medial focus and sentence-final focus) and two focus types (broad focus and discourse-new focus) to study focus in both languages. Target focus types were elicited a Q&A dialogue. Six native speakers of American English and six native speakers of Seoul Korean were tested. The results showed that overall, prosodic marking of focus was clearly expressed in all focus positions in each language. However, a crucial difference was detected between the two languages. In Korean, unlike English, the pitch peak by prosodic focus was always highest regardless of focus positions within a sentence. This supports the view that a prosodic phrase is inserted before focus. When prosodic focus occurred sentence finally, it actually canceled the effects of both pitch declination and a final falling contour at the end of a sentence. Taken together, prosodic marking of focus is not universal across languages. Instead, it is expressed differently according to a language's prosodic structure.

Development of Laryngeal Contrasts and Multi-parametric Control

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This study investigated how Korean toddlers' perception of stop categories develops in the acoustic dimensions of VOT and F0. To examine the developmental trajectory of VOT and F0 in toddlers' perceptual space, a perceptual identification test with natural and synthesized sound stimuli (Table 1) was conducted with 58 Korean monolingual children (ages 2–4 years).

Table 1. Synthesized stimuli used in the perception experiment.

	Natural production	Synthesized stimuli				
F0 at vowel onset of /pal/	≈ 200 Hz	215 Hz	230 Hz	245 Hz	260 Hz	275 Hz
F0 at vowel onset of /kɔŋ/	≈ 220 Hz	235 Hz	250 Hz	265 Hz	280 Hz	295 Hz

Multi-level quantitative analysis reveals that perceptual accuracy is higher for fortis and aspirated stops than for lenis stops, and that between 2 and 4 years of age, there is significant interaction between the child's age (in months) and successful perception of lenis stops ($p < 0.001$), suggesting that significant phonemic development has occurred in the F0 dimension (Table 2 and Figure 1). The results also indicate that when VOT differences were amplified more than F0 differences, the toddlers more correctly perceived the stimuli across the target age. In the experiment with synthesized stimuli, 6-step F0s were presented to the toddlers. Toddlers' perceptual F0 sensitivity decreased with age, resulting in stable and consistent phonemic categorization of lenis and aspirated stops. Still, no clear categorical perception was found during the age of 2 to 4 years (Figure 2). Therefore, it is suggested that children's perception system for Korean stop contrasts begins to develop mainly in the VOT dimension and serves to distinguish fortis or aspirated stops, while F0 has not developed enough to allow for consistent phonemic categorization of lenis stops before 4 years of age.

Table 2. Output of the mixed-effects logistic regression model for the effect of age on children's correct perception of stop contrasts, with lenis as the reference category.

Random effects:				
Groups	Name	Variance	Std. dev.	
child_id	(Intercept)	2.652e-17	5.15e-09	
Number of obs.: 768, groups: child_id, 48				
Fixed effects:				
	Estimate	Std. error	z value	Pr (> z)
(Intercept)	−2.00	0.69	−3.30	< 0.001 ***
<i>Age</i>	0.10	0.02	5.66	< 0.001 ***
<i>Fortis</i>	0.63	0.24	2.59	0.01 **
<i>Asp</i>	1.07	0.31	3.41	0.001 ***

Notes: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

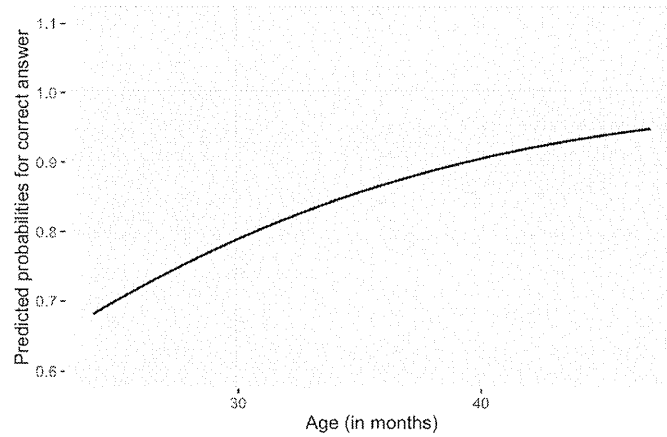


Figure 1. Relationship between children's age and correct answers depicted with a logistic curve for all responses.

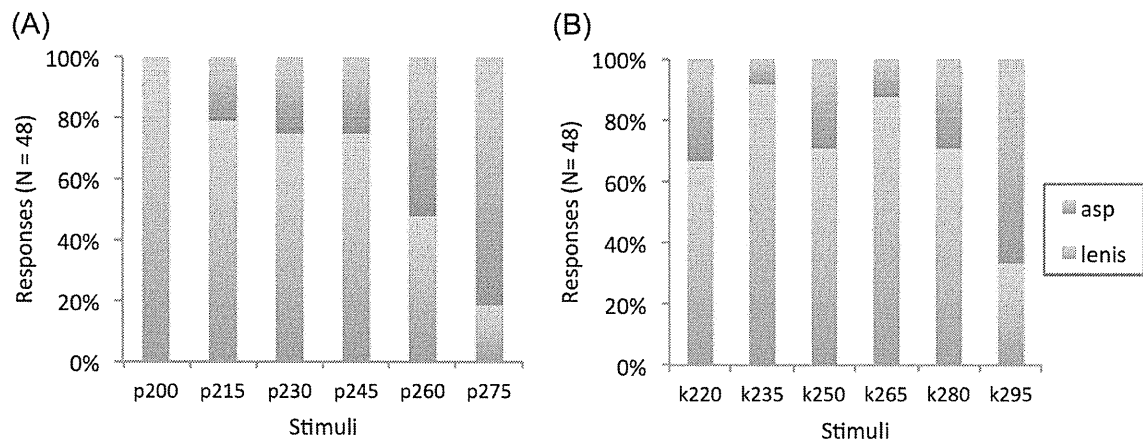


Figure 2. Results of the identification of synthesized /p/ (A) and /k/ (B) by toddlers.

These findings provide the mastery ordering among Korean stop contrasts due to the perceptually salient phonetic parameter, VOT, and suggest that the acquisition of lexical tonal features might be delayed compared to that of segmental features in the Korean stop system.

Stop productions in Karen, Korean, and English

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Abstract

Sgaw Karen, one of the Tibeto-Burman languages, has been rarely studied. Sgaw Karen has three-way contrast in stop consonants: voiced unaspirated stops /b, d/, unvoiced unaspirated stops /p, t, k/ and unvoiced aspirated stops /ph, th, kh/. Only few studies have explored Sgaw Karen so far. Abramson (1995) and Thomas and Alves-Soares (2011) observed that stops in Sgaw are fully distinguished by VOT. Two native Sgaw speakers who immigrated to South Korea three years ago participated in this study. They have formally and informally learned English and Korean as a second language. This study replicated previous findings of VOT in Sgaw stop consonants and further examined F0 at the vowel onset, and then compared the results to those of their English and Korean stops to examine the L1-L2 interaction.

Keywords

Karen, Sgaw, stops, first language, second language

1. Introduction

Karen languages are a branch of the Tibeto-Burman of the Sino-Tibetan language family (Benedict 1972). Karen languages are spoken in Myanmar (Burma) and Thailand, and a large number of Karen speakers live in refugee camps situated along the Burma-Thai border. Karen people are one of the biggest groups of current refugees in the USA and Stratis Health¹ reported that more than 10,000 Karen people live in Minnesota alone in 2018. Besides the USA, they have migrated to Australia and Europe due to the ongoing wars with Burmese. A small primary school in Nhill, Australia started teaching Karen language because of the high number of Karen refugees (ABC Western Victoria 2015). Recently, Korea, a signatory to the UN convention, accepted eighty-six Karen people from December 2015 to July 2017 as part of a three-year resettlement program (Cho 2017).

There are at least twenty Karen languages but it is hard to estimate the number of the Karen languages because different sources come up with different data and there are also many dialects in Karen (Manson, 2011). There are two major dialects called Sgaw Karen and Pwo Karen. Sgaw Karen is an SVO language that is uncommon among Tibeto-Burman languages (mostly SOV) and is a tonal language with six contrasting tones (Watkins 2001, Naw 2011). Sgaw tonal systems in Myanmar, Thailand, refugee camps are different (personal communication with a Sgaw Karen speaker, Oct 10, 2019). Jones (1961), Burling (1969), Manson (2002, 2003, 2009, 2011), Abramson (1995) contributed to the studies in various linguistic aspects of Karen, but studies on Karen are very rare and still remain unexplored. This is a pilot study with only two Sgaw Karen speakers who live in Gyeonggi province. This study replicated previous findings of VOT in Sgaw stops and further examined F0 at the vowel onset, and then compared the results to those of their English and Korean stops to examine the influence of L1 on L2 and vice versa.

2. Language background

2.1 Sgaw Karen stops

Jones (1961) described the phonology of six Karen languages including Sgaw. According to Jones (1961), Sgaw has three types of stops: voiced unaspirated, voiceless aspirated, and voiceless stops. These three stops occur at bilabial and alveolar points of articulation but at velar point only voiced unaspirated and voiceless aspirated stops occur. Then later, Abramson (1995) has explored obstruents in Karen with his two students from Karen, who spoke Pho and Sgaw as the first language, respectively. He observed that there are three types of stops in Sgaw Karen along with Jones (1961) and found that the three types of stops are clearly separated by Voice Onset Time (VOT). Voiceless aspirated and voiceless stops were realized respectively with long and short VOT lags, while voiced unaspirated stop were realized with long VOT lead, as shown in Table 1.

¹ Stratis Health is an independent nonprofit organization that leads collaboration and innovation in health care quality and patient safety.

Table 1. Mean of VOTs of initial and intervocalic Sgaw Kreen stop consonants in isolated words, from Jones (1961) (Unbr is unbroken glottal pulsing)

	Initial			Intervocalic		
	/b/	/p/	/ph/	/b/	/p/	/ph/
Bilabial	-102	9	92	Unbr	16	80
Alveolar	/d/	/t/	/th/	/d/	/t/	/th/
	-121	13	94	Unbr	13	98
Velar		/k/	/kh/		/k/	/kh/
		10	96		14	109

2.2 English stop consonants

English has two types of stops: voiceless and voiced stops. In word initial position, voiceless stops are aspirated and voiced stops are partially devoiced (Lisker and Abramson 1964). VOTs of voiceless stops are longer than for voiced stops. VOT phonetically fully separates English voiceless and voiced stops as a primary cue. F0 of the voicing onset after voiceless stops is higher than that following voiced stops (Ohde 1980).

2.3 Korean stop consonants

Korean has three types of voiceless stops: aspirated, lax, and tense stops. Korean stops are separated by VOT and F0. In Lisker and Abramson (1964), VOTs are longest for aspirated stops, intermediate for lax stops, and shortest for tense stops. But, later Silva (2006) found that the VOT contrast between aspirated and lax stops collapsed in speakers born between about 1960 and 1980 and that F0 plays a role to distinguish the two stops. Therefore, VOT is the primary cue for distinguishing tense stops from aspirated and lax stops, and F0 is the primary cue for distinguishing the two stops due to the merged range of VOTs between aspirated and lax stops. From this change, ongoing tonal change in Standard Korean has been claimed (Silva 2006, Kim 2012, Schertz, Cho, Lotto and Warner 2015).

3. Method

3.1 Subjects

Two Karen male speakers participated in this study. One was 21 years old and the other 18 years old. Both speakers migrated to South Korea three years ago. They were high school students. They use Sgaw Karen as the first language (L1) and have learned English in a refugee camp as a second language (L2). After coming to Korea, they have learned Korean formally and informally as L2.

3.2 Recording and analysis

For this study, I designed a word list for Karen, English, and Korean. There were eight Karen words, nine Korean words, and six English words. So, twenty-three words were recorded by the Sgaw speakers three times in a carrier phrase 'This word is _____' in English, Korean, and Karen for a total of 138 tokens (2 speakers x 23 words x 3 times). They were recorded in three sessions, one for each language. Recording was made in their home using a Pyle-Pro PMHM2 Omnidirectional Head Worn Microphone and Praat (version 6.1.05) signal processing software (Boersma and Weenink, 2019). VOT and F0 were measured and analyzed using Praat. VOT was measured from the release of the closure to the onset of the following vowel, and F0 was measured at the vowel onset. For statistic analysis, Linear Mixed Effect model using lmer function of the "lme4" package and summary function (Bates, D., Machler, M., Bolker, B. and Walker, S., 2015) were used in the R (R core Team, 2019).

4. Result

Table 2 shows summaries of mean values for VOT and F0 of initial stops in Karen, Korean, and English.

Table 2. Means and standard deviations (in parentheses) of VOT and F0 of initial stops in Karen, Korean, and English

Language	Type	VOT (ms)	F0(hz)
----------	------	----------	--------

Karen	voiced unaspirated	-93(26)	160(19)
	voiceless	14(5)	166(16)
	voiceless aspirated	56(26)	186(7)
Korean	Tense	12 (6)	184(36)
	Lax	71(21)	145(14)
	Aspirated	80(23)	188(27)
English	Voiced	-29 (63)	136(12)
	Voiceless	71(22)	163(20)

The Sgaw Karen speakers significantly separated the three types of Sgaw Karen stops in terms of VOT ($p < 0.001$). The unaspirated voiced stops were fully voiced in the word initial position. Furthermore, the F0s of the aspirated voiceless stops were significantly higher than for those of the voiceless and unaspirated voiced stops ($p < 0.001$).

For Korean stops, the Karen speakers significantly distinguished Korean stops. They produced significantly shorter VOTs for the tense stops than for the aspirated and lax stops ($p < 0.001$) and they produced significantly lower F0s for the lax stops than for the aspirated stops ($p < 0.001$), as native Korean speakers generally do (Kim, 2012). The three Karen stops significantly differed from the three Korean stops by VOT and F0 ($p < 0.001$).

For English stops, the Karen speakers significantly distinguished the voiceless and voiced stops by both VOT and F0 ($p < 0.001$). The three Karen stops significantly differed from the two English stops by VOT and F0 ($p < 0.001$).

Summary and Discussion

The Karen speakers fully separated the three stops in Sgaw Karen in terms of VOT and this is consistent with Abramson (1995) and Thomas and Alves-Soares (2011). However, their VOTs of the aspirated voiceless stops were relatively shorter compared to the results of Abramson (1995). That would be because Abramson compared VOTs for the stops in isolated words while this study dealt with words in a carrier sentence. Karen speakers clearly distinguished the three stops in Korean and the two stops in English. Furthermore, they created distinctive stop systems for the three languages in terms of VOT and F0. The Speech Learning Model (SLM) (Flege, 1995) explains the age-related limits on establishing a new phonetic category for L2. SLM predicts that bilinguals cannot fully separate their L1 and L2 phonetic subsystems if they exist in a common phonetic space, and there will be a bidirectional influence. The greater phonetic dissimilarity of an L2 sound from any L1 phoneme is, the more likely it is that a new L2 category will be formed. Dissimilar L2 sounds are produced and acquired more easily than similar ones. Since Korean aspirated and tense (voiceless) stops are similar to Karen aspirated voiceless and voiceless stops in terms of VOT, it was expected that the Karen speakers may not distinguish them. However, they fully distinguished them using F0. It can be assumed that when they learned Korean, from the beginning they would perceive F0 differences between Korean aspirated and Karen aspirated voiceless stops, and between Korean tense and Karen voiceless stops. Or, they would gradually separate them using F0. The Karen speakers showed an influence of the L1 on their English. Their English voiced stops were influenced by their L1. They produced VOT lead for English voiced stops as they did for the unaspirated voiced stops in their L1. They always produced VOT leads for the voiced stops at the bilabial and alveolar place, but they often produced short VOT lags for them at the velar place. The VOT lags of the voiced velar stops would be due to Karen does not have a voiced stop at velar place. In this study, a comparison with native Korean and English speakers is not included. So further study needs to be one with Korean and English speakers to compare how Korean and English stops by the Karen speakers are different from counter partner in each language.

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Prosodic marking of focus by Korean learners of Mandarin Chinese

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We conducted a production experiment using phone number strings to examine whether Korean learners of Chinese produce a native-like prosodic marking of focus. We found that both advanced and intermediate groups did not produce clear prosodic effects of focus nor noticeable post-focus compression, when directly compared to Mandarin native speakers. This study demonstrates that both advanced and intermediate groups had a strong negative prosodic transfer, derived from their first language (L1), although this negative transfer is known to decrease as their language proficiency increases [1]. This study also suggests that due to the interaction between tone and intonation [2], focus prosody in a tone language is not quite easy to acquire for non-tonal language speakers. Finally, the current study underlines that, as established in previous studies (e.g., [3]), post-focus compression is hard to transfer between languages.

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Assuring the production of sound /L/ in English and Urdu bilingual speakers

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This paper illustrates an analysis of /L/ production by English-Urdu bilingual children. It is about to assure the production of laterals by three bilinguals English-Urdu children. The age of these children were 7, 9 and 12, and they belong to Islamabad city but they were all lived and studying in English. The aim of this study is to analyze the different parts of sound production by the addition of the different sound production studies happened in the past which contribute to bilingual phonological learning.

The bilinguals were taped in different language sessions with different interviewers. According to the contextual and dialectal point of view, /L/ sound was chosen due to the different patterns for clear and dark variants in its English and Urdu. Syllable-initial and syllable-final were chosen the examination of dark and clear alternations. The Experiment method was used to analyze the results. Results showed that bilinguals have developed separate /L/ production patterns for each of their languages that are similar to those of monolinguals.

Keywords: Lateral /L/, English-Urdu language, phonological acquisition, bilinguals, monolinguals.

Production of the English Voiced Alveopalatal Fricative by Korean Speakers: With Focus on Gender and Correction Effects

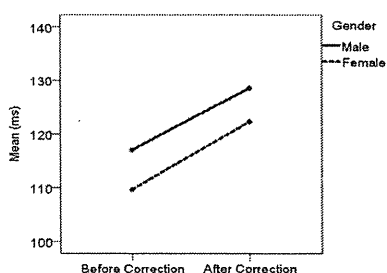
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Korean male and female college students produced the English alveopalatal fricative /ʒ/, which did not exist in the Korean phonemic inventory. They produced citation forms of many words that have the /ʒ/, including 'Asia', 'measure', and 'vision'. Then, they were trained by a native English professor for three weeks and produced them again. The current study analyzed the /ʒ/s contained in these three words before and after the correction/training. Acoustic properties such as frication noise duration and spectral moments were compared between male and female speaker. In addition, their correction effects were also compared.

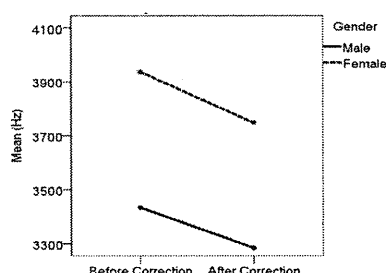
Based on statistical results obtained from a Two-way ANOVA, gender effect was significant in all of the acoustic properties such as frication noise duration (male > female), spectral peak location (male < female), center of gravity (male < female), dispersion (male > female), skewness (male > female), and kurtosis (male < female). The correction effect was significant in frication noise duration (before < after), spectral peak location (before > after), dispersion (before < after), and kurtosis (before > after), but not in center of gravity and skewness. The interaction between gender and correction was not significant in all of the acoustic properties.

Table 1. Statistical Results between Male and Female Subjects before and after Correction

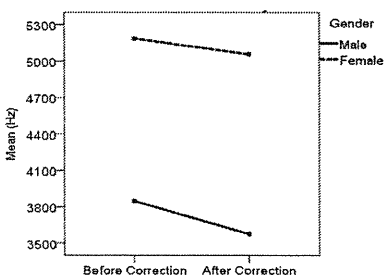
Acoustic Property	Gender		Correction		Gender × Correction	
	F	P	F	P	F	P
Frication Noise duration	5.104	0.025	16.043	0.001	0.035	0.853
Spectral Peak Location	42.155	0.001	5.157	0.024	0.066	0.797
Center of Gravity	38.743	0.001	0.795	0.374	0.105	0.746
Dispersion	28.884	0.001	12.319	0.001	2.621	0.107
Skewness	15.471	0.001	2.272	0.133	0.010	0.922
Kurtosis	15.524	0.001	11.861	0.001	0.574	0.449



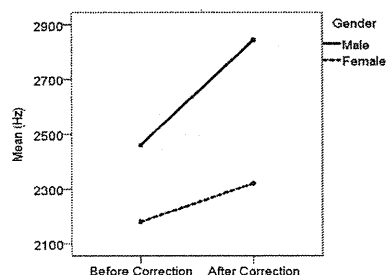
<Figure 1> Frication noise duration



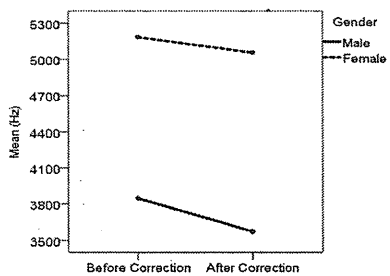
<Figure 2> Spectral peak location



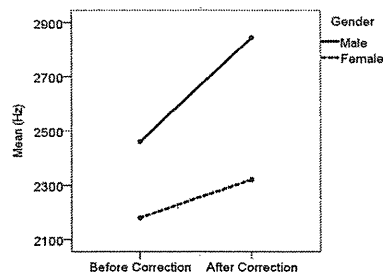
<Figure 3> Center of gravity



<Figure 4> Dispersion



<Figure 5> Center of gravity



<Figure 6> Dispersion

Previous studies such as Jongman et al. (2000), Maniwa et al. (2009), and Yoon (2018) illustrated the acoustic properties of English fricatives including /ʒ/ produced by English speakers. Among them, I compare the current study with Jongman et al. (2000) with respect to gender effects since it used the same experimental procedures with similar token words to those of the current study.

The results found in the current study, which investigated Korean speakers' production of the English /ʒ/, were in parallel with Jongman et al. (2000) in most acoustic properties. Frication noise duration (male > female), spectral peak location (male < female), center of gravity (male < female), skewness (male > female), and Kurtosis (male < female) showed the same patterns with statistical significance. But the result of dispersion was opposite to the current study (male > female).

The training/correction effect was investigated in the current study. After the training by the native English professor, frication noise duration became longer, and spectral peak location became lower, and dispersion became higher, and kurtosis became lower. They were all statistically significant. Center of gravity and skewness became lower, but they were not statistically significant.

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Prosodic marking of focus in Korean learners of English

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A production experiment was conducted using phone number strings to examine whether Korean learners of English produce a native-like prosodic marking of focus and a perception experiment using audio stimuli from the production experiment to test whether native listeners identify the corrected digits in focus. Korean learners of English were divided into three groups (advanced, intermediate, low) based on their English proficiency and were compared to native speakers. In the production experiment, we found that both intermediate and low groups did not produce clear prosodic effects of focus (i.e., increased duration, intensity, and pitch in the focus positions) nor noticeable post-focus compression, when directly compared to English native speakers. Advanced speakers yielded clear prosodic effects of focus in all the three parameters (i.e., pitch, intensity, and duration) and two of them (i.e., intensity and duration) were equivalent to native speakers' focus marking. However, their performance of PFC was not comparable to that of native speakers in terms of duration and pitch. The perception results demonstrated that the intermediate and low groups obtained an average identification rate of 11.4% and 12.3% respectively; the advanced group had the highest average identification rate of 81.3% among the three Korean learner groups, but still far lower than the native group's 97.2%. The results of production and perception are compatible with each other. This study demonstrates that both intermediate and low groups had a strong negative prosodic transfer, derived from their first language (L1), although this negative transfer is known to decrease as their language proficiency increases (Swerts & Zerbian, 2010). The current study also provides support for the findings in previous studies (e.g., Chen, Guion-anderson, & Xu, 2012), post-focus compression is hard to transfer between languages, and later acquired, later than on-focus expansion.

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Perception of Allophonic Cues of English /l/

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o. Outline

1. Introduction
2. Experiment
3. Conclusion

2

1. Introduction

- 1) Listeners' job in speech processing
 - Multiple sources of linguistic information available
 - decode the delivered speech signal by weighing/determining relevant information
- 2) Allophonic information as a cue of speech perception
 - Allophonic variation: phonetic/phonological realization
 - It coincides with a specific linguistic context
phonological (Cho *et al.*, 2014), **morphological** (Lee-Kim *et al.*, 2013) or **syntactic** structures (Cooper & Paccia-Cooper, 1980)

3

1. Introduction

- 3) Scott and Cutler (1984)
Alveolar flapping correlate to syntactic structure
Listeners use the allophonic information in identifying ambiguous syntactic structures.
 - 4) Nakatani and Dukes (1977)
allophonic realization of **word-initial voiceless stops** is a reliable acoustic cues for English listeners to identify ambiguous word boundaries.
- Language users incorporate the knowledge of subphonemic acoustic details to locate word boundaries

4

1. Introduction

- 5) Less attention on ...
whether the **presence of allophonic realization**
to **non-native listeners** serves **useful** cues

5

1. Introduction

- 6) Shoemaker (2014)
English allophonic variation by French-speaking learners
aspiration (*Lou#stops* vs. *loose#tops*)
prevocalic glottalization (*grape#in* vs. *grey#pin*)
- a. French listeners: **glottalization > aspiration**
→ **Not all** allophonic variations **equally contribute** to
listeners' decision but some phonetic details are
more **robust** cues than others.
- b. The **language-specific** property of French
hardly allows word-initial aspiration of voiceless consonants

6

1. Introduction

- 7) Assumptions from previous studies
- the **knowledge of L1** is transferred in perceiving nonnative
speech sounds
 - the role of **allophonic cues** vary depending on
the degrees of salience
- 8) **Current study**
How language users process
nonnative subphonemic (allophonic) acoustic **details**
when *two different sources of cues come into conflict*?

7

1. Introduction

- 9) Korean-speaking listeners' perception
on English lateral-involved sequences
(e.g., *feel#ease* vs. *fee#lease*)
- English two allophonic variations
- clear as an onset of the second component (e.g., *lease*)
- dark as a coda of the first one of the component (e.g., *feel*)
 - the lateral /l/ in *feel#ease* involves a dark variation
but /l/ in *fee#lease* is clear
 - Perception of the second component of the phrase
- as *lease* (#l) vs. as *ease* (l#)

8

1. Introduction

10) Effectiveness of the cue for English-speaking listeners

Nakatani and Dukes (1977)

English consonants /r/ and /l/ have distinctive allophones depending on their position in a word and that their allophonic variations strongly signal word juncture.

De Decker *et al.* (2014)

Newfoundland English listeners' lateral perception regarding darkness

9

1. Introduction

11) Research Questions

- English listeners sensitivity on *feel#ease* vs. *fee#lease*
Importance of the same source of information for nonnative Korean-speaking listeners?
- If different, how would the listeners resolve the ambiguity?
- Li transfer – Korean listeners would not be free from the influence of phonetic and phonological knowledge of Korean such as allophonic distribution of Korean /l/.
- How English allophonic variations are integrated in Korean-speaking listeners' English perception?
- How the listeners resolve the conflict when allophonic cues do not coincide with cues from word juncture in identifying word boundary?

10

2. Experiment - Stimuli

- 5 pairs of English phrases recorded by a native speaker of English
- Acoustic properties (average): Dur & Δ F2-F1

#lease:	113 (ms)	992 (Hz)
feel#:	163 (ms)	657 (Hz)
- Cross-spliced dark vs. clear allophones

	Original		Manipulated	
	Sound 1	Sound 3	Sound 2	Sound 4
Phrase 1	<i>fee l_cease</i>	<i>feel_D ease</i>	<i>fee l_Dease</i>	<i>feel_c ease</i>
Phrase 2	<i>he l_cease</i>	<i>heal_D ease</i>	<i>he l_Dease</i>	<i>heal_c ease</i>
Phrase 3	<i>me l_cease</i>	<i>meal_D ease</i>	<i>me l_Dease</i>	<i>meal_c ease</i>
Phrase 4	<i>sea l_cease</i>	<i>seal_D ease</i>	<i>sea l_Dease</i>	<i>seal_c ease</i>
Phrase 5	<i>we l_cease</i>	<i>we'll_D ease</i>	<i>we l_Dease</i>	<i>we'll_c ease</i>

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2. Experiment - Methods

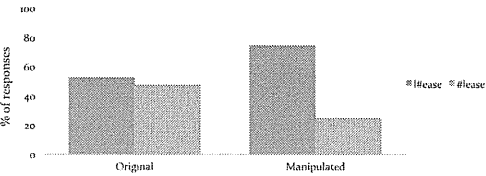
- Participants: 30 Korean-speaking listeners
- Tokens: 5 phrases x original/manipulated x 5 repetitions
- Condition: randomly played, one phrase at a time
- Task: to identify the second component of each phrase

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2. Experiment - Results

1) Response difference in Original vs. Manipulated

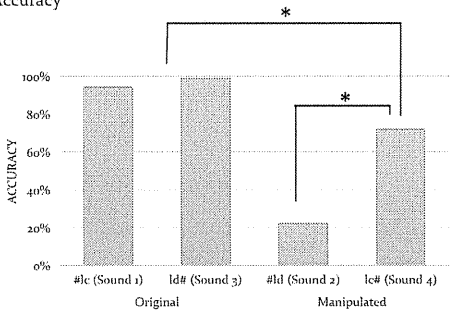
Set	Response		Total	χ^2 (p)
	#lcase	l#case		
Original	716 (47.7%)	784 (52.3%)	1500 (100%)	166 (0.00)
Manipulated	376 (25.1%)	1124 (74.9%)	1500 (100%)	



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2. Experiment - Results

2) Accuracy



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4. Discussion

- 1) Mean accuracies in #lc and l# vs. #ld and lc#
 - Listeners performed better when the darkness were appropriately placed depending on the word boundary
 - When it does not follow cues from the word juncture, their response was biased to perceiving the lateral as coda regardless of cues from word junctures.
- 2) Darkness of laterals are a strong cue to signal a word boundary for English listeners but not for Korean-listeners
 - Mapping the darkness of laterals onto proper English phonetic representation was helpful only in the original set.

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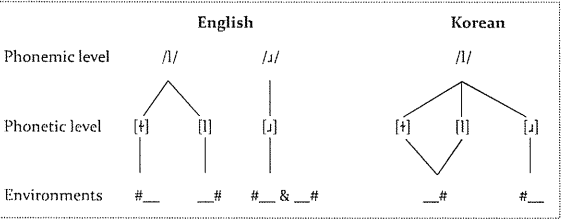
4. Discussion

- 3) Most of the listener's inaccurate responses were derived from their high responses toward dark laterals (i.e., coda percept) when consonant cues are not consistent with word boundary cues.
- 4) Then, why Korean listeners would parse laterals as codas rather than onsets when the two sources of cues were inconsistent?
 - Unlike English, the degree of the darkness of laterals is not allophonic information in Korean.
 - Korean has a phonemic /l/ and that [ɭ] appears as an allophone (Shin 2000, Oh 2018) of /l/. In Korean, the lateral liquid [l] appears on a coda while the central liquid [ɭ] on an onset position.

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4. Discussion

- 5) Korean listeners parse both dark and clear allophones as /l/ that typically occurs as a coda in the word-final position.
- 6) Whether the laterals are clear or dark, the listeners perceive both variations as a phonemic /l/ in a coda position, which results in more /#/ percept.



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4. Discussion

- 7) Conflicts between cues from two different sources conflict
 - Where the effect of the first language emerges
 - Phonological implement (Kingston, 2005; Coetzee, 2010)
- 8) When cues from the word boundary coincide with the expected acoustic details, phonemes and word boundaries are accurately determined (e.g., #l_C and l_D#).
- 9) However, when cues from different sources conflict, phonemic encoding fails (e.g., l_C# and #l_D)
 - phonological repair so that it follows phonemic constraints of Korean. (i.e., to parse laterals on codas only)

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Thank you

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영어 영어교육. 응용영어학

The Effect of Spoken Formulaic Sequences on L2 Fluency

: focusing on Advanced EFL Learners

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It is known that the role of fluency is to make an essential function for L2 oral performance, and it has been proved that fluency is a complex function of pauses and hesitations by speakers. Among temporal factors, speed and pauses are considered as an important factors in L2 literature. Some of the variables regarding speech mentioned in previous studies are length/quality of speech unit, such as pause length/frequency/duration/patterns, and mean length of silent pauses. This study focuses on formulaic sequences (FSs) in order to measure fluency in several reasons. Since there have been quite less study on pauses of FSs on L2 learners' speech with regard to significance of speech fluency, the purpose of this study is investigate the roles of pauses of FSs, not just the number or length of FSs in affecting fluency of our brain. 30 Korean learners of English with high level of proficiency performed a speech task, and the data were collected over one month. Results indicated that pauses of FSs were highly significant in L2 speech. This study has its educational implications in that the role of pauses in FSs has to be considered as one of the fluency measurements in L2 speech studies.

The Effects of Implicit Instruction on L2 Learners' Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of Resultative Constructions

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The present research examined the effects of implicit instruction on L2 learners' implicit and explicit linguistic knowledge without intending to learn. Moreover, this research investigated whether implicit instruction results in L2 learners' generalizable knowledge of acquired knowledge to untrained sentences. It compared two kinds of implicit instruction, input flood (IF) and input flood along with input enhancement (IF + IE) with boldfacing and underlining. By means of these different exposure conditions, in the training phase, learners were provided with 120 sentences with resultative constructions as input intended to facilitate acquisition without deliberate focus on target rules and were required to select a picture that matched a given sentence during instruction. The pretest-instruction-posttest design allowed the measurement of impacts of implicit instructions within and between each group. In order to measure learners' implicit and explicit knowledge objectively, reaction time (RT) and accuracy of a Timed Grammaticality Judgment Test (TGJT) served as measures of implicit knowledge while accuracy of an error correction test was used as a measure of explicit knowledge. To support and reconfirm whether the acquired knowledge was implicit or explicit, participants' awareness was measured via triangulation of questionnaires given after the training phase and posttests, verbal interview as well as subjective measures during pretests and posttests. The results confirmed that L2 adult learners are able to acquire implicit grammatical knowledge under implicit instruction while explicit grammatical knowledge is not developed in the same conditions. The measures of awareness revealed that awareness is not related to accuracy, supporting the finding that the acquired knowledge under implicit instruction is unconscious and implicit knowledge, not conscious and explicit knowledge. In addition, the research also verified that L2 learners are able to generalize their recently-acquired implicit knowledge to novel sentences with untrained verbs based on the same underlying structures. These findings suggest the need for implicit instruction for grammar acquisition of L2 learners and further, to acquire the generalizable knowledge transferrable to novel, untrained sentences. Furthermore, from a methodological perspective, triangulating measures of accuracy and awareness demonstrated the effects of implicit instruction more clearly, revealing the conscious status of L2 learners' knowledge from several angles.

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Incorporation of Mitigation Strategies in Peer Response to L2 Writing through Asynchronous Computer-Mediated Communication

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Peer response has widely been conducted in L2 writing classes to improve EFL students' L2 writing ability. It has been regarded as one of the face-threatening acts as it requires students to assess peers' L2 writing, showing some agreements or disagreements to each other. Relatively a few studies, however, have investigated mitigation strategies in peer response in L2 writing even though the strategies can serve the role of face-saving acts in peer interaction. This study aimed to explore the mitigation strategies in peer response to L2 writing through asynchronous computer-mediated communication at a university level, focusing on EFL students' modification of illocutionary acts through mitigation strategies in L2 peer response and its incorporation on their L2 writing. Qualitative data were gathered for ten weeks with 40 students who enrolled in an English writing course at B University. Their writing assignments and test scores were scored to examine if the L2 writing ability is improved. Online recordings of peer response, reflective journals, and interview data were also analyzed to explore the incorporation of mitigated peer feedback in L2 writing and what perceptions did the students have on mitigation strategies in peer response through ACMC. The major findings are as follows: First, the participants frequently incorporated mitigated feedback in their L2 writing. Second, the students showed positive perceptions of employing mitigation strategies in L2 peer response through ACMC. Finally, a proper instructional model for mitigation strategies in peer response and teachers' role with the suggestion for learner training are discussed for future research.

국내 영어 학습자 오류분석 연구 동향

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영어 학습자의 오류분석 연구는 영어 학습자의 말하기와 쓰기 결과물을 바탕으로 이루어진다. 국내 영어 학습자 오류분석 연구는 2000년을 기점으로 점차 증가하기 시작하였는데, 이전과 두드러지게 달라진 점은 2010년 이후 특히 ‘영어 학습자 코퍼스’(권혁승, 정채관, 20120) 개념을 도입하여 영어 학습자 코퍼스 기반 컴퓨터 보조 영어 학습자 오류분석이 퍼지기 시작하였다는 점이다. 본 발표에서는 과거에서부터 현재까지 국내 영어 학습자 오류분석 연구의 흐름과 특징을 요약하고, 향후 국내 영어 학습자 오류분석 연구의 지향점을 논의한다.

한국영어학회에 게재된 코퍼스 기반 영어 교육 연구 초록의 어휘 특성과 동향 분석

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디지털 기술과 컴퓨터 기술의 발전으로 영어학, 영문학, 영어 교육, 번역학 등 다양한 분야에서 코퍼스 기반 연구가 활발히 진행되어왔다. 대부분의 연구는 각 분야의 하위 영역 중 하나의 주제를 선정하여 분석하는 연구가 주류를 이루었다. 이런 연구는 각 분야의 연구를 풍성하게 하며 새로운 연구의 발판을 제공하기에 의의가 있다. 하지만 하나의 주제를 탐색한 연구는 각 분야 연구의 방향성 및 패턴의 도출 등 전체 연구를 조망하기에는 어려움이 있기에 각 분야 연구의 전체적 동향을 분석하는 것 또한 중요한 의미를 지닌다. 따라서 본 연구에서는 영어 교육 분야의 영문초록에 나타난 어휘 특성을 분석하고 이를 바탕으로 영어 교육 분야의 연구 동향을 분석하고자 한다. 이를 위해 2010년부터 2019년까지 10년간 *한국영어학회*에 게재된 코퍼스 기반 연구 중 영어 교육 분야 영문초록을 코퍼스화하였다. 이때 10년 기간을 5년 단위로 2개 기간으로 구분하여 분석하였다. 각 기간별 코퍼스 기반 연구 영문초록의 어휘 목록, 핵심 어휘 등 어휘적 특성을 살펴보고, 기간별 연구 주제, 연구 방법론, 키워드 네트워크 등의 분석을 통해 영어 교육 분야의 연구 방향성과 동향을 다각적 관점에서 살펴보고자 한다.

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해외 오류분석 연구 동향

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오류분석(error analysis)에서는 학습자의 언어 사용 혹은 중간언어(interlanguage)에서 나타나는 오류의 양상을 분석하여 언어교수학습 분야와 언어습득이론 연구에 기여하고 있다. 오류분석은 1960년대와 1970년대에 초기의 이론적 토대를 정립한 이래 30여 년간 많은 연구들이 수행되었고, 2000년대부터는 컴퓨터 및 자연언어처리(natural language processing, NLP), 기계 학습(machine learning) 등의 기술 발달에 힘입어 학습자 오류 코퍼스의 구축 및 오류태깅(error tagging), 자동 오류 탐지(automatic error detection) 분야로 확장되어 왔다. 오류분석의 이론과 연구방법론이 가지는 한계 및 그에 대한 비판에도 오류분석 연구는 꾸준히 지속되고 있는데, 오류 분석과 관련하여 언어교수학습 분야에서는 오류의 처치(error treatment)에 대한 연구들이 비중 있게 수행되고 있기도 하다. 오류의 유형을 분석하는 연구와 오류에 대해 어떠한 언어교수적인 처치를 제공할 것인가에 대한 연구는 상호 밀접한 관계에 놓이므로 오류분석 연구와 오류처치 연구는 서로 균형 있게 발전하는 방향으로 나아갈 필요가 있다. 본 연구에서는 2000년대부터 최근까지 해외에서 수행된 오류분석 연구들을 살펴보면 현재 오류분석 연구의 흐름을 파악하고 이를 통해 후속 연구 주제 등 향후 오류분석 연구의 방향을 조망하고자 한다.

영어학과 영어교육 등의 응용영어학 분야에서 오류분석 연구는 영어를 외국어 혹은 제2언어로 학습하는 학습자의 언어(learner language)를 분석의 대상으로 하기 때문에 다양한 모국어 화자들로부터 얻은 영어 데이터가 분석되어 왔다. 본 연구에서는 지난 20여 년간 해외에서 수행된 영어 학습자의 오류분석 연구들을 대상으로 해외 오류분석 연구의 동향과 특성을 분석하고자 하였다. 연구는 학습자의 언어 사용 모드에 따라 크게 말하기 오류를 분석한 연구와 쓰기 오류를 분석한 연구로 나누어 살펴보았다. 말하기 오류에 관한 연구는 쓰기 오류에 관한 연구와 비교할 때 양적으로 매우 적은 편이나 2000년대 초부터 영어 학습자의 구어 코퍼스를 구축하여 오류 주석을 넣고 코퍼스 상에서 오류 유형에 따라 학습자의 오류를 자동으로 탐지하는 기술을 적용한 연구를 볼 수 있다. 말하기 오류나 쓰기 오류 연구에서는 동사, 시제, 관사, 연어(collocation) 등의 사용이나 주어와 동사의 일치 여부 등에서 나타나는 특정 오류에 초점을 두어 오류를 분석한 연구들도 있고, 데이터에 나타난 다양한 오류들을 종류별로 분석하여 오류들 간 상대적인 비중을 분석한 연구들도 있다. 학습자의 모국어 배경은 한국어, 일본어, 중국어, 대만어, 몽골어, 태국어, 말레이시아어, 이란어, 아랍어, 체코어 등으로 아시아 지역에 주로 분포하고 있으며, 외국어로서의 영어(English as a Foreign Language, EFL)나 제2언어로서의 영어(English as a Second Language, ESL) 사용 환경에서 모두 오류분석 연구가 진행된 것을 볼 수 있다. 학습자의 영어 능력 수준은 초중급 단계부터 고급까지, 연령별 교육 수준도 청소년부터 성인까지 연구마다 다양하게 제시되고 있는데, 이러한 특성의 학습자들에게서 발견되는 오류들이 어떠한 방법으로 분석되었고 어떠한 분석 결과를 제시하고 있는지 오류분석 연구에 대한 메타분석 결과를 논의하도록 하겠다.

한국학습자의 관사 생략 오류에 관한 미명시형 분석

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한국 초등영어학습자들에게서 나타나는 문법적 오류 중에 관사구내의 관사 생략 오류에 관련하여 이러한 문법적 오류가 영어 모국어 아동들처럼 언어습득과 발달 과정에서 발생하는 자연스런 과정인지, 아니면 외국어 학습의 과정에서 모국어 문법의 영향에 의해 발생하는 언어간섭의 결과인지를 생성문법의 최근이론인 최소주의 관점에서 해석 해 보고자한다. 영어를 모국어로 사용하는 영어 모국어 아동들이 언어습득 과정에서 초기에 관사를 생략한 채로 명사구만 발화를 하듯이, 한국 초등영어학습자의 경우도 학습 초기에 발화 과정에서 관사 생략 오류를 빈번하게 한다.

- (1) Young native speakers of English (under the age of 2)

Car coming. Where top? On wall. Doll eat celery.

Spoon (reply to 'What's that?')

Radford (2006)

- (2) Korean primary school students learning English

a. The classroom is on __ 3rdfloor.

b. I want to be __ pilot in the future.

c. He is walking with __ puppy.

Park (2018, p.55)

위의 관사 생략의 오류를 언어습득 이론 중에 Schütze and Wexler(1996), Schütze (1997), Wexler, Schütze & Rice(1998)가 주장한 미명시형 분석(Underspecification Analysis)의 관점에서 살펴보고자 한다. 이 습득이론의 장점은 이러한 문법적 오류가 인간이 가지고 있는 언어능력(언어습득장치)의 연산체계의 운용과정에서 어떤 부분의 문제와 관련 된 것인지를 보다 근본적으로 설명해 준다는 점이다. 영어 모국어 아동의 관사구문 습득과 한국 초등학생들의 영어 관사구문 습득이 어떤 차이점이 있는지, 이 미명시형 분석(Underspecification Analysis) 이론을 통해서 설명 해 보고자 한다. 영어 모국어 아동과 영어를 외국어로 배우는 한국초등영어학습자의 관사구 구문의 구조적 특성과 차이를 제시 함으로써, 모국어 습득 및 외국어 학습 시기에 학습자가 가지고 있는 관사 구조의 상태를 언어학적 관점에서 이해하고, 이들이 생략 오류를 왜 하는지, 어떤 변화로 통해 수정 해 나가는지를 살펴보도록 한다.

기능어와 내용어의 결합에 의해서 형성되는 구구문구조(phrasal structure)의 내부 요소들과 문법적 운용 작용에 대한 이해는 관사와 같은 기능어의 습득과 학습은 어떤 과정을 통해서 이루어지는지에 대한 이해를 높여 줄 것이다. 이러한 관사구 구문의 구조적 이해를 통해 한국 초등영어학습자의 경우 관사와 같은 기능어 어휘를 어떻게 습득하는지 그 과정

이 이해가 될 것이고, 이를 기반으로 관사와 같은 기능 어휘의 교수·지도 관련 기본적인 방향을 제시 해 보고자 한다.

미명시형 분석 이론을 통한 관사구조 분석이 지니는 주요 의미는 모국어 습득과 외국어 학습 과정에서 이런 문법 오류가 인간이 가지고 있는 언어능력(언어습득장치)의 연산체계의 어떤 부분의 문제로 인해 비롯된 것인지를 근본적으로 설명을 해 준다는 점이다. 외국어교육에서 특정 주제 및 문법 관련 교수방법에 관한 연구도 물론 중요한 일이지만, 이런 교수 방법 연구 이전에 우선 되어야 할 것이 학습자의 언어능력 상태에 관한 정확한 진단일 것이다. 언어습득이론 관점에서 학습자의 영어 문법 오류 분석은 이런 학습자의 문법 능력 상태에 대한 이해이며, 학습자가 안고 있는 언어능력(언어습득장치)의 문제점에 대한 진단이다. 이런 진단을 기반으로 교사가 학습자의 문법 오류를 수정하는 올바른 교수·학습 방법의 방향을 생각해보고, 기존에 연구된 여러 교수·학습 방법들에서 적절한 것을 선정하고 활용 할 수 있는 능력을 갖추는 것은 매우 중요하다.

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최근 초등학교 교실에 인공지능(AI) 시스템을 활용한 영어 교육이 도입되고, 의사소통에 초점을 둔 영어 교육 등 초등 영어교육 내실화 방안이 추진되었다. 특히, 챗봇 데이터 및 다양한 종류의 대규모 영어 데이터에 대한 생성, 수집, 분석, 표현을 그 특징으로 하는 빅 데이터 기술의 발전은 새로운 영어 교육의 패러다임을 필요로 하게 되었다(김혜영외 4인 2019). 영어학 및 영어 교육의 연구에서도 이러한 기술의 원리와 기초를 이해하고 적용하는 연구가 필요하다. 본 연구에서는 언어 연구에서 활용할수 있는 딥러닝의 한 기법인 RNN 에 대한 기본적인 내용과 사례 연구를 소개하고, 영어학과 영어교육 분야에서의 딥러닝의 활용 가능성에 대해 논의하고자 한다.