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The moving adverb moves; and, having moved, moves on.” Adverb placement in L1 Arabic, L2 English and L3 French
Patricia Balcom, Université de Moncton

The preferred position for temporal adverbs in Emirati Arabic is SAVO, but SVAO, SVOA and ASVO orders are acceptable. The unmarked order is SAVO in English and SVAO in French. For adverbs of quantity and manner the preferred order in Emirati Arabic is SVOA, but SAVO, SVAO and ASVO are also acceptable. Only SVOA is grammatical in English, and only SVAO in French. To tap what Fassi Fehri (1993: 13) called the “transportability” of adverbs in Arabic a picture-description task was developed. Participants were asked to write up to three sentences describing nine labelled images using all of the words on the image. The task was administered to the same learners in the three languages.
Results showed that while the participants demonstrated transportability on the Arabic task, with an average of 8.3/9.0 responses with 2 or 3 responses, in English the average was 4.0/9.0 and in French 2.0/9.0. With temporal adverbs, the variety of responses was due to more than one position for adverbs in Arabic and English. This rarely occurred in French. With quantity and manner adverbs, in Arabic many second and third responses were due to word order of the Subject, Verb and Object, with the Adverb typically in clause-final position (e.g. SVOA, VSOA, and OSVA). This did not occur in English or French.
Freer adverb placement with temporal adverbs in English is likely due to input in the L2 rather than L1 transfer. Transportability in the L1 and freer adverb placement in the L2 did not transfer to the L3 at the earliest stages, and research with more advanced learners is necessary to see if there is L1 or L2 transfer at subsequent stages in development.

Variation and change in Gaspé English
Charles Boberg
McGill University

This paper reports on the first-ever linguistic study of the variety of English spoken by about 10,000 people in the Gaspé region of eastern Quebec, which is 86 percent French-speaking. An on-line survey was used to gather data from 200 participants on 58 phonological, grammatical and lexical variables, drawn mostly, for comparative purposes, from earlier research on Canadian and Quebec English. The analysis, focusing on data from the 124 participants who still live in the Gaspé region, produces a complex linguistic portrait of the community. It displays a unique mixture of Canadian, Quebec, Maritime and rural features, reflecting its location near
the boundary between Quebec and New Brunswick, with evidence of both convergence with and divergence from Quebec English as spoken in Montreal. For instance, Gaspé English displays both Maritime features, like some hot for real(ly) hot, brook for creek, sneakers for running shoes, scribbler for notebook and bookbag for backpack, that would not be found in Montreal; and Montreal features, like all-dressed (pizza) and dépanneur, that would not be found in Atlantic Canada. While some features of Quebec English are receding over apparent-time, like the merry-marry distinction (TRAP v. DRESS before /r/) or the words see-saw and soft drink, which are being replaced by the general Canadian terms teeter-totter and pop, others are increasing in frequency, like the Gallicisms chalet for cottage, guichet for ATM, trio for combo, stage for internship, and cash for cashier. In fact, several of these Gallicisms are now more frequent in Gaspé English than in Montreal, suggesting that the more complete immersion of Gaspé speakers in a now overwhelmingly francophone environment is an important element of the mechanism of lexical transfer between French and English in Quebec.

Gendered language in job advertisements and its effects on job application
Cheryl Anne Cleland
York University

Could language be a reason why certain jobs continue to be male dominated fields? A study conducted by Gaucher, Friesen and Kay (2011) determined that gendered language exists in job advertisements and suggested that the masculine language in advertisements for male dominated professions deters females from applying to such jobs. The study however did not determine if the presence of gendered language actually has any effect on potential job applicants, which this paper sought to answer. As women are largely the instigators for linguistic change, I hypothesized that both males and females would show a preference for masculine gendered language, which would indicate that gendered language does not contribute to female underrepresentation in jobs. To test the hypothesis, gendered job advertisements were created and given to participants via a survey. Participants were asked to state which advertisements they would choose to apply to, which would demonstrate whether participants had a preference for language directed towards their gender. The analysis of the data revealed that males have a preference for masculine language, and contrary to the hypothesis, that females have a preference for feminine language. Males chose to apply to the masculine worded advertisements the majority of the time (47%), as did females with the feminine worded advertisements (50%). Participant responses also indicated that certain professions are considered to be inherently masculine or feminine. Further, the data revealed that the masculine worded advertisements were preferred overall, suggesting a connection
between status and male-gendered language in the workplace. This study revealed that males and females do have a preference for language directed towards their gender, which supports Gaucher et al.’s suggestion that the gendered language of job advertisements is a possible explanation as to why women are underrepresented in certain professions.

References
Can we build a corpus of Canadian English automatically from the Web?
Paul Cook
University of New Brunswick

Corpora are the primary source of evidence in modern lexicography, with bigger corpora generally being better if other factors are kept the same (Atkins and Rundell, 2008). The need for large corpora, along with the high cost of manually creating conventional corpora | such as the British National Corpus (BNC, Burnard, 2007) | has led to a range of research into automatically building corpora from the Web (e.g., Baroni et al., 2009), including projects focused on building domain-specific corpora (Baroni and Bernardini, 2004), corpora of specific genres (Dillon, 2010), and corpora representing specific varieties of English (Murphy and Stemle, 2011). Such projects have been successful in that the resources produced have been used in lexicographical projects (e.g., Atkins, 2010). However, little work in this area has focused on Canadian English. In this talk I will discuss recent work on automatically building a web corpus of Canadian English Using a publicly-available Web crawl, I built English corpora of roughly one billion words each from top-level domains for countries in which English is an official or majority language, .au, .ca, .uk, and .us, corresponding to Australia, Canada, the United Kingdom, and the United States, respectively. In this talk I will present statistical analyses demonstrating that these Web corpora are measurably similar to more-conventionally constructed national corpora, such as the BNC and the Strathy Corpus, for the corresponding country. These measures are based on keyword analyses (Kilgarr, 2009), variations in spelling, and frequencies of terms known to be particular to these varieties of English. Taken together these findings suggest that a web corpus from the .ca domain can cautiously be used as a source of lexicographical evidence for
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Canadian English. This is an important finding given that a very large corpus of Canadian English is not currently available.
I will conclude by discussing the potential application, and challenges, of using such a corpus for discovering previously undocumented Canadianisms.

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1http://www.queensu.ca/strathy/


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Morphosyntactic features and the scope of contrast
Elizabeth Cowper          Daniel Currie Hall
University of Toronto    Saint Mary’s University

This talk takes a preliminary look at how morphosyntactic features can be understood to participate in contrastive hierarchies of the sort applied to phonological features by Dresher (2009). As argued by Cowper & Hall (to appear), contrast is key to the interpretation of morphosyntactic features, but can these features usefully be described as dividing some sort of inventory in the same way that phonological features divide phonemic inventories? We propose that the relevant inventory in morphosyntax is the inventory of (functional) lexical items (Lis). Like phonemes, Lis are characterized by features that group them into natural classes (syntactic categories) and determine their behaviour in the grammar. As with phonemes, the features that distinguish Lis exhibit different scopal relations in different languages. For example, Cowper & Hall (2014) propose that in English, the feature [Discrete] is contrastive only among nominals marked as [Non-Atomic], where it serves to distinguish plurals from mass nominals; in Mandarin, on the other hand, [Discrete] has wider scope, distinguishing all count nominals from mass ones, and [Non-Atomic] is not used at all. This is analogous to the cross-linguistic variation in the phonological representation of voicing described by Avery (1996): some languages mark voice contrastively only on obstruents, while in other languages all voiced consonants pattern together. We will discuss this and other parallels between the two domains, and some of the questions that this line of inquiry raises.

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The Dictionary of Cape Breton English: From after to Zombie
Bill Davey
Cape Breton University

Traditionally, compiling a dictionary consists of two main stages: collection and definition. This paper examines these two processes as they apply to the Dictionary of Cape Breton English, with greater attention given to the defining stage. Before gathering words and senses, the editor(s) must determine the scope of the dictionary and the principles for collection. As a regional work, the Dictionary of Cape Breton English defines words and senses that are “native” to Cape Breton Island or are “distinctively characteristic” of the Maritimes and Atlantic Canada (cf. Avis xiii). Quotations illustrating the meaning of these native and regional words were gathered from published works, archival sources, tape recordings, and surveys. This presentation examines three aspects of the definition process: selecting headwords from the collected data, defining the word according to evidence collected, and sifting through quotations to find those that not only illustrate the meaning of the word but also provide glimpses into the social context from which the words derive. The paper concludes with a brief classification of the largest groups of words defined. Like the Dictionary of Newfoundland English (1990) and the Dictionary of Prince Edward Island English (1988), the Dictionary of Cape Breton English gives special attention to technical words used in local industries. Fishing, mining, and steel making were essential parts of the economic and social history of Cape Breton Island and have contributed to the common vocabulary found outside of the industry. Words from fishing and coal mining form the two largest groups, followed by words referring to entertainment, food, religion and beliefs, music, and weather and ice.

References


http://www.heritage.nf.ca/dictionary/.
How does variation in production interact with perception? A look at differences in light and dark /l/ in Newfoundland English
Paul De Decker, Sara Mackenzie, Rosanna Pierson
Memorial University of Newfoundland

This talk provides a preliminary report on a study of the production and perception of allophones of /l/ across dialects of Newfoundland English. The realization of this phoneme is often described as being conditioned by syllable structure: light /l/ occurs in onsets and dark /l/ occurs in codas. There is also significant dialectal variation in the nature and distribution of these allophones (e.g. Carter & Local 2007). In Newfoundland English, varieties spoken in Irish settled areas have been described as having light /l/ in all positions (Clarke 2010, Paddock 1982) while other varieties display allophonic variation conditioned by syllable structure (Paddock 1982).

The fact that the alternation between dark and light /l/ in production is determined, in part, by the location of syllable boundaries means that this variation provides a potentially valuable cue to listeners attempting to determine the location of linguistic boundaries in perception. Previous work has shown that listeners do make use of this distinction in segmenting the speech stream into words with dark /l/ being a cue to word-final position (e.g. Lehiste 1960, Nakatani & Dukes 1977, Mackenzie et al. 2012).

Our study aims to investigate the realization of /l/ across varieties of Newfoundland English. Using stimuli from previous work (Mackenzie et al. 2012), we elicit the production of /l/ in a variety of contexts in order to determine the relevant morphological and prosodic factors conditioning the distribution of dark and light /l/. We are collecting both articulatory (i.e. ultrasound) and acoustic data from speakers of different ages and from different regions of Newfoundland in order to determine the range of variation that currently exists in the province, and to investigate how a speaker's production interacts with their performance on a perceptual task, the segmentation of nonce strings. The design of this study enables us to 1) document regional variation in Newfoundland and 2) investigate the question of how the distribution of dark and light /l/ that speakers show in production relates to their ability to use this distribution as a cue to the location of word boundaries in perception.

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Lecture pragmatique des comptes rendus critiques d’ouvrages en linguistique

Bernard Mulo Farenkia
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Le compte rendu critique est un genre textuel dont la fonction est de présenter une « nouvelle » publication « scientifique » et d’en évaluer la pertinence en termes d’apport de « nouvelles » connaissances dans une discipline donnée. Compte tenu de sa visée évaluative ou critique, ce genre discursif représente un risque pour la face de l’auteur de l’ouvrage évalué, celle de l’évaluateur, et, dans une certaine mesure, celle de la communauté scientifique. Conscients de ce risque, les évaluateurs déploient diverses stratégies linguistiques pour échafauder un compromis entre la critique positive ou négative et le ménagement des faces impliquées. La communication portera sur les procédés mobilisés pour émettre des jugements de valeur dans un corpus de 30 comptes rendus critiques d’ouvrages en linguistique. Nous nous limiterons aux procédés tels que la caractérisation adjectivale (ex. « son talent est inaltérable, le texte excellent et sa recherche exemplaire »), verbale (ex. « La bibliographie (...) plaira à l’esprit désireux d’en savoir davantage »), nominale (ex. « On constate par contre une certaine confusion (...). En plus de ces quelques incohérences (...), on observe d’autres manques »), les figures de style : la métaphore (ex. « l’ouvrage (...) constitue une mine d’informations »), l’hyperbole (ex. « voilà donc un ouvrage qui n’appelle aucune critique »), les actes de langage (la recommandation (ex. « La lecture de cet ouvrage (...) est donc à recommander vivement à tous »).

Depuis toujours, les politiciens ont le souci de soigner leur image publique. L’avènement de la télévision a contribué à amplifier l’importance de cette image des politiciens et à développer des stratégies de communication précises notamment lors des débats politiques. L’étude de ces débats a intéressé différents domaines de la communication, et plus récemment le domaine de l’analyse conversationnelle qui l’aborde de façon multidimensionnelle, en tenant compte à la fois du contexte et des différentes strates de la communication, verbale, paraverbale et non verbale.

Lors du débat des chefs de 2008 au Canada, une question particulière est venue chambarder le déroulement habituel du débat :

Bonjour. Vous êtes les leaders politiques du Canada et votre travail est de vous assurer du mieux-être et du bien-être des Canadiens, au-delà des chicanes partisanes. Dans ce contexte, pouvez-vous nommer au moins un bon coup ou une qualité de l’adversaire qui se trouve à votre gauche?

La question perturbe visiblement les chefs, qui s'agitent en bougeant sur leur chaise, se grattent ou encore signalent à l'animateur ne pas saisir la question...

En nous basant sur les théories développées sur la politesse en analyse conversationnelle (Kerbrat-Orecchioni, 2005 ; Brown et Levinson, 1987 ; Goffman, 1967), cette recherche originale a d’abord pour but de décrire les stratégies utilisées par les participants de ce débat politique national télévisé des chefs de 2008 au Canada. Comment les chefs se sont-ils pris pour répondre à cette question qui les met dans une position de double contrainte prononcée puisqu’ils devaient, selon la consigne particulière, flatter l’un de leurs adversaires en essayant tout à la fois de ne pas perdre de points en leur en donnant. Suite à l’analyse de leur intervention, la comparaison des résultats démontre l’utilisation de mécanismes communs et divergents à travers leur profil respectif.
Free Merge and minimality
Brandon J. Fry
University of Ottawa

It has recently been claimed that Merge applies freely in the sense that it is not triggered by selectional features; instead, Merge applies freely (equivalently, is triggered by edge features) and the generated syntactic objects which meet bare output conditions are interpreted at the interfaces (e.g. Chomsky 2004, 2007; Boeckx 2008; Chomsky 2008; Boeckx 2009, 2010; Ott 2010, 2011; Chomsky 2013, 2014). For example, Chomsky (2013) proposes that the reason for movement of the subject to the sister of TP is related not to an EPP feature on T but to the inability of the grammar to label the syntactic structure before this movement. This free-Merge view has a number of desirable consequences, such as the elimination of semantic features from the syntax (Chomsky 2004), the characterization of grammatical well-formedness as an interaction effect (Ott 2010), and the reduction of computational lookahead. However, it poses a problem for the traditional explanation of minimality effects on movement/internal Merge, according to which X, attracted/probed by Y, may move iff there is no Z such that Z could potentially be attracted/probed by Y, Y c-commands Z, and Z c-commands X. For example, in a passive dative construction, only the theme, and not the goal, may raise to the canonical subject position because it is the closest goal for the EPP feature on T.

Since this “intervention” explanation relies on the existence of an attractor/probe but there are no attractors/probes in the free-Merge approach, the explanation becomes unavailable in a free-Merge grammar. One important challenge for the free-Merge approach, then, is to capture such minimality effects on its own terms.

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Making a significant difference: Bilingualism and re-creation in Charles d’Orléans

Anne L. Klinck
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In the course of his twenty-five-year captivity in England during the Hundred Years War, Charles duc d’Orléans produced two similar sequences of lyric poetry, purporting to be a reflection of his romantic life, his suffering after the death of his first love, and his eventual finding of a second love. One sequence is written in French, preserved in Charles’ autograph manuscript (Paris BN fr. 25458), and one in English (in London BL Harley 682). Often regarded in the past as an inferior rendition of the French, and probably not translated by Charles himself, the English poems are now given more credit, and it is widely accepted that they are the work of Charles. We are looking at a very special kind of translation then—if it should be regarded as translation at all: the word tends to imply an authoritative original and an attempt to reproduce it. Usually the French has been regarded as primary, but increasingly scholars are realising this is an assumption that should not simply be taken for granted. One assumes that the French poems were directed at Charles’ French, the English at his English public. But it is worth noting that the now English-speaking upper class at this period usually knew French (the higher-status language) and, in some cases at least, possessed more French books than English. Thus, the
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Impetus behind the English version cannot have been a need to make the inaccessible accessible. Whatever the relationship between Charles’ French and English corpora, highly interesting differences in poetic technique are observable between them. It is the nature of these differences (often pointed to), and a possible explanation of their significance, that will be the focus of this paper.

Politique linguistique = politique de traduction? : pour une analyse du rôle de la traduction officielle au Nouveau-Brunswick

Matthieu LeBlanc
Université de Moncton

Au Nouveau-Brunswick (Canada), le français partage avec l’anglais le statut de langue co-officielle depuis la promulgation de la Loi sur les langues officielles du Nouveau-Brunswick en 1969. Aujourd’hui, plus du tiers de ses habitants ont le français comme langue maternelle. Cela étant, c’est l’anglais qui demeure la langue dominante, le français n’ayant pour ainsi dire jamais eu droit de cité avant les années 1970. Depuis lors, les progrès réalisés par les francophones ont été considérables, mais le statut du français, bien qu’il soit langue officielle, demeure quelque peu fragile. En l’absence d’un organisme central consacré à l’aménagement des langues, c’est la traduction qui, dans certains domaines, donne au français presque toute sa visibilité et ipso facto sa vitalité. Si la traduction s’avère indispensable, en revanche elle masque les rapports de force entre les deux langues et, par le fait même, entre les deux communautés. Le français étant peu employé comme langue d’expression par les francophones, il est à se demander si la traduction, si nécessaire soit-elle, ne fait que maintenir une illusion d’égalité entre les deux communautés, ce qui est quand même contraire à l’esprit de la Loi.

Dans cette communication, nous présenterons d’abord les résultats partiels de deux études ethnographiques réalisées dans des milieux de la traduction au Nouveau-Brunswick, la première entre 2005 et 2008 (réalisée dans un bureau de la fonction publique fédérale au Nouveau-Brunswick), et la seconde en 2012 et 2013 (réalisée dans trois agences et services de traduction au Nouveau-Brunswick). Dans chacun des cas, nous nous pencherons sur le rôle que joue la traduction – et par ricochet les traducteurs – dans un contexte où le français demeure la langue minoritaire. Dans un deuxième temps, nous présenterons les objectifs d’une recherche que nous amorçons sur la politique linguistique du gouvernement du Nouveau-Brunswick, notamment sur la place qu’occupent les deux langues officielles comme langues de travail dans la fonction publique provinciale et le rôle complexe qu’y joue la traduction. [320 mots]

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The language of quotations in Hong Kong Chinese newspapers

Anthony C. Lister
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Quoting direct speech is a problem for Chinese newspaper editors in Hong Kong, since while Cantonese, the language of the vast majority of the territory’s population, is completely acceptable in its spoken form, it has very low status when written, and has been normally reserved for pornography, working class material, popular songs and light entertainment. The standard written form of Chinese in Hong Kong is Mandarin, and spoken Cantonese is traditionally translated into Mandarin when written.

If a journalist wishes to quote Cantonese speech, s/he has the option of reporting it verbatim in the original language, which might be seen as denigrating the speaker, or translating it into Mandarin with the risk of sacrificing accuracy. Another option to avoid the problem completely and employ reported speech, which allows for summaries in Mandarin.

For this paper, a report of a speech in two different newspapers, the quality newspaper *Ming Pao* and the mass circulation *Apple Daily*, was examined to discover whether there was variation in the amount of Cantonese used in the quotations. One quotation which occurred in both newspapers was compared with an audio recording of the same passage on YouTube.

It was found that there was slightly less use of Cantonese in *Ming Pao* than in *Apple Daily*, though not as much as might have been expected. There was also a greater use of quotation in *Ming Pao* which again was not expected based on earlier research. Both results can probably be explained by the fact that the article in question was chosen specifically for the large number of quotations. It is also possible that the general increase in the use of written Cantonese, as noted by Don Snow, which started in the popular press is now spreading to the quality
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newspapers. However, comparison with the actual words recorded in the audio clip revealed that both newspapers still reduced the amount of Cantonese.

References:


Types of WH-questions in Japanese, with special reference to Speech Act Phrase
Chiba University of Commerce
Takeshi Oguro

Miyagawa (2012) observes that, in Japanese, the politeness marker -mas- is required in matrix WH-questions, while it is disallowed in the embedded context. He proposes that the complementizer ka must be selected by a head and that -mas- induces Speech Act Phrase (saP) (Speas & Tenny 2003), in which it is checked and whose head selects ka. Then, the obligatory presence of -mas- in matrix WH-questions is natural because it helps ka selected by Speech Act head (sa0). Its obligatory absence in the embedded context is also trivial because its presence would mean the presence of saP, which is not selected by a verb.

Yokoyama (2013) observes that matrix WH-questions without -mas- are allowed under the rhetorical interpretation. He suggests that there are two types of ka, one being assertive and the other non-assertive and that only the latter needs to be checked/selected. Ordinary questions involve the non-assertive ka, which needs to be checked/selected, but rhetorical questions involve the assertive ka, which does not need to be, so they do not need -mas-.

I agree with Yokoyama in assuming two types of ka, but I depart from him and claim that the ka in the WH-questions without -mas- is negative because it can license a negative polarity item. I suggest that such questions involve a shortened form of a rhetorical question ending with mono ka.

I follow Miyagawa in assuming that ka needs to be selected, but I argue that, in addition to -mas-, mono also induces saP. I propose that mono is a modal element which reflects the speaker’s attitude toward the described situation and needs to be checked by Speaker in saP,
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which results in ka being selected by sa0. This approach correctly captures the impossibility of mono ka rhetorical questions in the embedded context.

References


People, persons, and individuals: Is the DSM dehumanizing?
McMaster University
Mackenzie Salt

The Diagnostic and Statistical Manual for Mental Disorders (DSM) describes the various mental disorders recognized by the North American psychiatric community, as well as how to diagnose and classify them. Due to the biomedical model used by psychiatry in North America, mental disorders in the DSM are described in terms of symptoms and presentation, but there is little focus given to the patient beyond this. Due to the nature of mental disorders however, namely the fact that you cannot have mental disorders without a patient to be affected by them, the description of the patient should also be considered. Depending on the language used to describe patients, this could create stigma around mental illness and its sufferers.

Using corpus linguistic methods, analyzing frequencies and concordances of words, the editions of the DSMs that were published from 1980 to the present were analyzed to determine how human beings are referred to and if there are any patterns to how these terms are used. In general in the DSMs, ‘person’ is used to refer to people without mental disorders while ‘individual’ was used to describe people with mental disorders. While these terms are not defined in the DSMs, the patterns of the usage are consistent and it is clear that there are implicit definitions being used. Finally, this paper argues that differentiating usage of ‘person’ and ‘individual’ creates a situation of distancing and dehumanization for people with mental disorders. This indicates that the stigmatization of people with mental disorders in society may at least partially reflect the way that language is used around the diagnosis of mental disorders. This is important because the DSM is also a staple in many social institutions beyond medicine:
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it is used to determine insurance and treatment coverage and it is used in education to determine academic accommodations.

Language policy in education: Minority official language in technical and vocational programs in Canada and Cameroon
Alain Flaubert Takam   Innocent Fassé Mbouya
University of Lethbridge   University of Douala

This study rests on the observation that students from technical and vocational programs generally underperform in their minority official language (MOL), more precisely as it comes to the language of their various trades. It aims at comparing the current policies and practices of MOL development in both countries in order to see how both countries’ experiences can be mutually informing, so as to ultimately come up with concrete proposals to make MOL development practices in technical and vocational programs more productive in both settings. It is noteworthy that while in Cameroon where English is the MOL, Francophone Cameroonians outnumber Anglophone Cameroonians by 8 to 2, it is rather French which is the MOL in most of Canada, French being the majority language of the province of Quebec. However, Canada, unlike Cameroon, is a federal country and so her ten provinces and three territories are autonomous in many respects. In terms of education, each province and territory manages its own education and curriculum through district school boards. This is not the case of Cameroon where a policy of Jacobinism or centralism is applied, even in education. To achieve its purpose, the study will at this initial stage focus inter alia on the analysis of the policies of official languages (OL) development in education in both countries, specifically regarding technical and vocational programs. As such, education orientation laws, MOL programs and syllabuses, possible MOL teacher training schemes as well as MOL teachers’ profile as obtains in both countries will be comparatively examined. The comparison, it is hoped, will reveal the fundamental causes of the overall poor performance observed.

Pour une approche structurée d’enseignement de la paraphrase
Alexandra Tsedryk
Mount Saint Vincent University

Cette communication porte sur une étude-pilote effectuée récemment auprès des apprenants du français L2 des niveaux B1-B2 du Cadre européen commun de référence pour les langues à l’Université Western (London, Ontario). Le but de l’étude est de vérifier dans quelle mesure une approche structurée d’enseignement des stratégies de paraphrasage est efficace. Cette méthode repose sur les principes suivants : (i) une approche structurée basée sur une théorie
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linguistique et (ii) le choix de notions à enseigner et d’exercices de paraphrasage à la suite d’une étude empirique sur la compétence paraphrastique des apprenants des niveaux intermédiaire et avancé. Le cadre théorique adopté est la Théorie Sens-Texte (TST, Mel’čuk 1997, Kahane 2003, Miličević 2007).

Nous considérons les résultats préliminaires de l’étude : la proportion de paraphrases vs non-paraphrases dans le pré-test et le posttest, les non-équivalences sémantiques proposées par les étudiants lors d’une session de formation sur la didactique de la paraphrase et l’appréciation de la méthode par les étudiants.


Phonetically unexpressed subjects in Russian and discourse-syntax interface

Egor Tsedryk
Saint Mary’s University

This paper focuses on null subjects in Russian. Even though Russian is not a null subject language (Franks 1995, Lindseth 1995, Gordishevsky and Avrutin 2003, McShane 2005, Fehrmann and Junghanns 2008), it allows dropping the subject (and the object) if the latter can be retrieved from the context:

(1) a. Sveta1 eščë ne sdelala uroki2.
   Sveta.NOM yet not did.F homework.ACC
   ‘Sveta has not done her homework yet.

   b. 0/1 skazala, čto 0/1 sdelaet 0/2 kogda 0/1 pridët domoj.
   said.F that will.do.3SG when will.come.3SG home
   (She) said that (she) will do (it) when (she) will come home.’

I show that Russian resembles Germanic languages in that topics and left-dislocated XPs can block null subjects; e.g, in (2b) the subject cannot be dropped in front of a preverbal pronoun that is coreferential with the object in (2a).

(2) a. Gde ty povstrečal Svetu?
   where you.NOM met Sveta.ACC
   ‘Where did you meet Sveta?’

   b. *(Ja) eë povstrečal v restorane.
   I.NOM her.ACC met in restaurant
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‘(I) met her in a restaurant.’

Nevertheless, resemblance with Germanic languages is obscured by the fact that Russian is not a V2 language and its verb does not raise to Infl. Thus, not every fronted XP would create a blocking effect observed in (2b):

(3) (Ja) nogot’ slomala.
    I.NOM nail.ACC broke
    [Lit.: ‘A nail I broke.’]

The difference between (2b) and (3) is that the fronted object in (2b) is a given topic, whereas the object in (3) is part of the focus projection. This contrast indicates that structural position of the fronted XP plays a role in the blocking effect observed in (2b) but, at the same time, the information structure (theme-rheme partition) of the sentence should also be taken into account. In sum, subject drop in Russian corroborate a multifaceted interaction of grammar with the interfaces.

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Canadian English in the 21st Century: Contact, Continuity and Change

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The past fifty years have seen a substantial change in the demographics of English-speaking Canada, especially in its largest cities. Communities founded by American and British / Irish immigrants were subsequently expanded by widening immigration from Europe and, more recently, they have been augmented by immigration from increasingly diverse origins. This diversity has not only changed Canada’s ethnic composition, it has also created a much more multilingual society, raising concerns about the future of Canadian English. In particular, both popular discourse and sociolinguistic research have drawn attention to ‘ethnolects’, ethnically marked ways of speaking English, usually assumed to result from contact with other languages.
Abstracts

In an ongoing project at York University, we have been testing these claims by examining the distribution and sociolinguistic conditioning of a number of phonetic and grammatical features in the English spoken in Toronto by Canadians of different ethnic backgrounds. These studies have revealed significant differences among younger speakers in the occurrence and overall rates of use of these features, some of which might be considered ethnolectal. However, their English does not resemble the non-native English spoken by their first-generation parents and grandparents. Moreover, the linguistic conditioning of these features is largely parallel across all younger speakers, regardless of ethnic background, suggesting that they share the same underlying linguistic system.

The results of these studies are converging on the conclusion that ‘ethnolects’ serve as a means by which young people can retain the distinctive aspects of Canadian English while expressing their ethnic identity in a diverse speech community.