DSNA-20 & SHEL-9 DUAL CONFERENCE

"Multilingual Approaches"
Conference Theme

5-7 June 2015
Pre-Conference Excursion 4 June

University of British Columbia
Department of English Language & Literatures

20th Biennial Dictionary Society of North America Meeting (DSNA-20)

&

9th Studies in the History of the English Language Conference (SHEL-9)

CONFERENCE HANDBOOK

Front page photo credit: http://www.ubc.ca/about/

Contents

DSNA-20 & SHEL-9 Delegate Discount with your name tag:
10% off on all food (incl. lunch) and beverages
6005 Walter Gage Road, 4 minutes' walk east of Buchanan A.
M-F 8-5pm, Sat 9-3pm. Closed on SUNDAYS.

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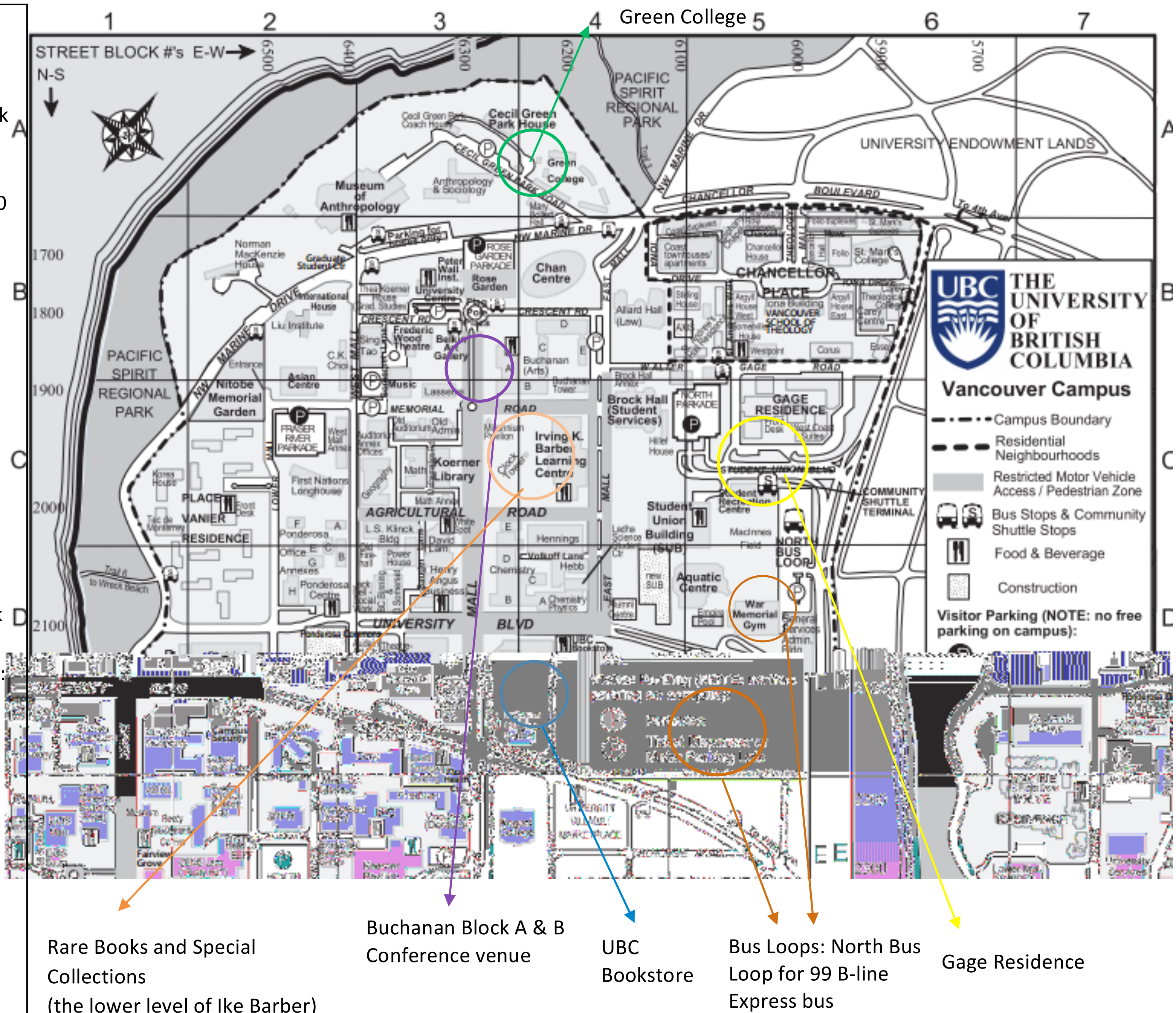
A classic Kitsilano coffee house (our caterer). A 20-minute bus ride from campus (99 B-Line), get off at Macdonald (<u>not</u> advised for lunch breaks). <u>OPEN 24/7</u>

Campus Map

Important points:

Buchanan A Upper Level: Registration, Book Exhibit & Coffee breaks
Buchanan B: Session rooms (adjacent to A, 50 metres around the corner inside the building)
Buchanan A Lower Level: plenary theatre A104, “Stir-it-up” Café.

Approximate walking times:
Buchanan A to Green College: 10 min. (800m)
Gage to Green College: 10 min (800 m)
Gage to Buchanan Block A: 6 min. (500 m)
Gage to North Bus Loop: 2 min (150 m)
Gage to Bookstore: 6 min (500 m)
Gage to Student Union Building (SUB), old and new: 3 min (200 m)



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THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA
OFFICE OF THE PROVOST AND VP ACADEMIC

Conference Registration (Buchanan A, Upper Level Atrium)

Thursday, 4 June 12:00-2:00 & 4:00-6:00
Friday, 5 June, 7:45-12:00, 2:00-6:00
Saturday, 6 June 8:00-12:00, 2:00-4:30
Sunday, 7 June, 8:00-10:00

Local Information

UBC Campus

The University of British Columbia's Vancouver campus is located at the western tip of the Point Grey Peninsula in the City of Vancouver. More than 400 hectares in size, the stunning campus is surrounded by forest on three sides and ocean on the fourth, and is a 30-minute bus ride from downtown.

Parking

Parking for guests staying on campus is $9, plus applicable taxes, per night per car. It is on a first-come first-served basis at the Gage Parking Lot, which is around from the Gage facility. Guests wishing to park here can arrange this when they check in. For those not staying on campus, please refer to this website: http://parking.ubc.ca/hourly-rates. The nearest facilities are the North Parkade and the Rose Garden Parkade.

Internet Access

Wireless internet access is available in most locations across campus, both indoors and outdoors, by choosing the "UBC Visitor" network from your wireless options. Once you have selected UBC Visitor, go to any webpage on the internet (which will be accessible) and agree to UBC's terms of use. The UBC wireless log-on page will appear. Provide your email address to continue and complete your session set-up.

Wireless internet is not offered in most residences, e.g. Gage. Rather, each room has a hardwired port to connect a laptop and all residences have designated Wi-Fi zones. A map of UBC Wireless coverage can be accessed here: https://it.ubc.ca/.../wireless-internet.../wireless-coverage

Emergency Phone Numbers

Vancouver emergency number for fire, ambulance, police	911
UBC Campus Security	604-822-2222

Local Services

ATMs (bank machines)

The closest ATMs are in the Old SUB (downstairs north entrance, Bank of Montreal ATM), Old SUB, (upstairs, next to the Outpost, Vancity Credit Union ATM), and inside the Scotiabank (between Shopper's Drugmart and Mahoney's pub on University Boulevard, just west of Wesbrook Mall).

Pharmacies (on campus)

I.D.A. University Pharmacy	604-224-3202

5754 University Boulevard, hours: Monday to Saturday 9 am – 8 pm; Sunday 10 am – 6 pm

Save-on Foods **604-221-5999**
5945 Berton Avenue, hours: Monday to Friday 9 am – 9 pm; Saturday & Sunday 10 am – 6 pm

Shoppers Drug Mart **604-228-1533**
5950 University Boulevard, hours: Monday to Sunday 8 am – 10 pm

Copying

There are several campus locations to print or make photocopies. These include:

UBC Libraries **604.822.6375**
Photocopiers are located in all branches of the UBC Libraries. Visit the UBC Library website for a list of library branches, locations, and hours. The closest copiers are in the Ike Barber Learning Centre, with copy shops in UBC Village (Copiesmart, Staples). Website: hours.library.ubc.ca.

Staples Business Depot **604-221-4780**
101-2135 Allison Road
www.staples.ca
Hours: Monday to Friday 9 am – 7 pm; Saturday 10 am – 6 pm; Sunday 11 am – 6 pm

Shopping

There are several places on campus to buy food and snacks, souvenirs, send mail, and other gift items. These include:

UBC Retail Postal Outlet **604.822.8196**
The UBC Retail Post Office is located in the "UBC Village" in the back of the Pharmacy. Walk 200 m East at the corner of University Boulevard and Wesbrook Mall (you'll see the Pharmacy on the right).
Hours: Monday to Friday 9 am – 8 pm; Saturday 10 am – 6 pm; Sunday noon – 4 pm

The UBC **604.822.2665**
6200 University Boulevard
Summer hours: Monday to Friday 8:30 am – 4 pm. Closed Saturdays and Sundays.

Places to Eat on Campus

NOTE: Food options may be more limited than usual due to the transition from the Old SUB to the new SUB. Please check the Food Services website, www.food.ubc.ca. Note: No posted hours with a particular restaurant/food outlet, means that the venue has not yet opened.

There are many (rather hidden) places to eat on UBC campus, including many outlets of UBC Food Services. You'll find descriptions, as well as locations and hours at www.food.ubc.ca. Vegetarian and vegan options are generally included in almost all places, though there are no specialized outlets as such. Several food outlets include:

New SUB (Student Union Building):

At present (25 May) the following outlets in the New SUB are scheduled to be open by 4 June. Please check www.food.ubc.ca to verify these hours.

Flipside (on the lower concourse)
A classic hamburger joint.
Hours: Monday to Friday 7:30 am – 10 pm; Saturday 11 am – 10 pm; closed Sunday

Grand Noodle Emporium (on the lower concourse)
Serving classic Chinese take-out along with other Asian-style offerings.
Hours: Monday to Friday 10 am – 7 pm; Saturday & Sunday 11 am – 5 pm

Lowercase (on the lower concourse)
A quick grab-and-go place with sandwiches, snacks and drinks.
Hours: Monday to Friday 7 am – 4 pm

Palate (on the main concourse)
Healthy, local and seasonal food and drink to go.
Hours: Monday to Friday 7 am – 7 pm; Saturday 9 am – 3 pm; closed Sunday

Peko Peko (on the main concourse)
Offers sushi and Japanese food including ramen, tempura and bento boxes.
Hours: Monday to Friday 10 am – 7 pm; Saturday 11 am – 3 pm; closed Sunday

Pie R Squared
Great pizza restaurant with high-quality pizza, with vegan and vegetarian options available.
Hours: Monday to Friday 10 am – midnight; Saturday & Sunday 11 am – 10 pm

Uppercase
Offers a wide selection of baked goods, savoury snacks, and gluten-free and vegan treats.
Hours: Monday to Friday 6:30 am – 10 pm; Saturday 8 am – 6 pm; closed Sunday

In the old SUB (status as of 25 May):

It is uncertain which food outlets in the old sub will remain open. Please call first. There are (were):

Subway (upstairs): sandwiches, salads and soups	**604.822.3461**
Blue Chip Cookies (upstairs): legendary, student-run	**604.822.6999**

Food outlets, pubs and restaurants on University Boulevard

The Boulevard Coffee Roasting Co.	**604.827.4488**

www.theboulevard.ca
Hours: every day 7 am – 7pm

Mahony & Sons 604.827.4444
An Irish-style pub experience, with lunch and dining options. Licensed.
www.mahonyandsons.com
Hours: Monday to Wednesday 11 am – midnight; Thursday to Friday 11am – 1am; Saturday noon – 1 am; Sunday noon – 11pm

In the University Village (*located on University Boulevard*), you will find: an International Food Court (downstairs, next to and below McDonald's), Chinese food, Japanese food, Maurya Express (curries), McDonald's, Pearl Fever Bubble Tea House, Vera's Burgers, Starbucks, and Pita Pit.

One More Sushi 604.228.9773
Dalhousie Rd (2nd floor) 222-2155 Allison Rd
Hours: Monday to Friday 11 am – 3pm, 5 pm – 10 pm; Saturday noon – 10 pm; closed Sunday
Fine and affordable sushi dining. Serves wine and beer.

Food outlets in the David Lam Research Centre (on Main Mall, next to Koerner Library)
Triple O's 604.822.3256
Original burgers, fries and shakes. Enjoy the patio of this classic BC family restaurant.
Hours: Monday to Sunday 11 am – 7 pm

Tim Hortons (*watch for long queues, but enjoy a Canadian experience) 604.822.3256
Some claim that Canadianness is somewhat epitomized in the Tim Hortons coffee & doughnut chain. Founded by Toronto Maple Leaf player Tim Horton in 1964.
Hours: Monday to Friday 7:30 am – 7 pm

Bento Sushi 604.822.3256
Sushi made fresh daily on site by skilled chefs. Also serving rice bowls, noodle bowls, salmon and chicken dishes.
Hours: Monday to Friday 11 am – 7 pm

Qoola 604.822.3256
Organic, creamy frozen yogurt and smoothies. Also served are healthy wraps, salads and sandwiches.
Hours: Monday to Friday 11 am – 7 pm

Other great places to eat

Great Dane Coffee (conveniently located between the Gage Residences and Buchanan buildings)
6011 Walter Gage Road 604.558.2190
A favourite of some English department members.
greatdanecoffee.com
Hours: Monday to Friday 8 am – 5 pm; Saturday 9 am – 3 pm; closed Sunday

Show your DSNA/SHEL tag on Friday and Saturday at Great Dane Coffee to receive a 10% discount!

Stir It Up Café **604.822.2002**
Buchanan Block A
Your closest food outlet. When open, enjoy soups, sandwiches, paninis, bubble tea and baked goods.
Summer hours: Wednesday & Friday 8 am – 3 pm

Koerner's Pub **604.827.1443**
Although the address is 6371 Crescent Rd, the main entrance is on West Mall – when walking from Buchanan past the Rose Garden, *the last driveway before you hit NW Marine Drive.*
Hours: Monday to Wednesday 11:30 am – 9 pm; Thursday to Friday 11:30 am – midnight; closed Saturday & Sunday

South Campus

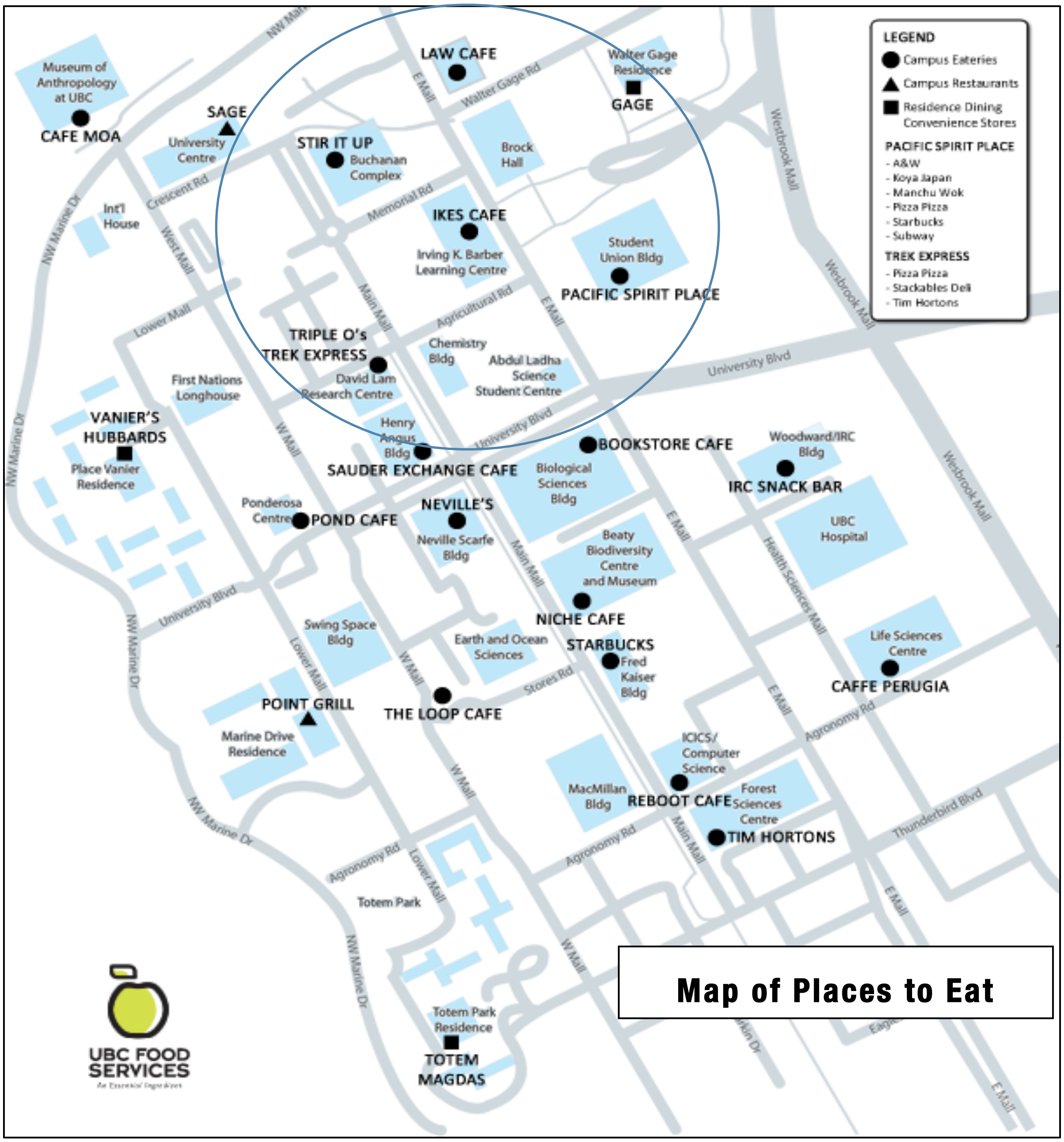
There are a number of food outlets located in the south campus (not shown on above map). These are approximately a 25-minute walk away (2 km from Gage Residence) or 5 minute bus ride from the conference venue and thus impractical for lunch, but a great option for the evening (you will need to purchase tickets at Shopper's Drug Mart [ask for a book of ten one-zone tickets and share] or pay exact fare, adults $2.75). From the UBC Main Bus Loop, take the 25, 33, 43, 49, or 480 bus, travel 4 stops and get off at WB w 16 Ave NS Wesbrook Mall (next to the Save-On-Foods). These buses arrive and leave frequently, <u>but not frequently enough for our lunch breaks</u>.

Biercraft 604.559.2437
3340 Shrum Lane, Wesbrook, www.biercraft.com/wesbrook-at-ubc/
Hours: Monday to Friday 11 am – midnight; Saturday & Sunday 10 am – midnight
A new favourite with local residents and students alike

Doughgirls Comfort Kitchen and Bakeshop 604.333.5474
3322 Shrum Lane, www.doughgirlsbakeshop.com
Hours: Monday to Saturday 8 am – 6 pm; Sunday 9 am – 5 pm

Menchie's Frozen Yogurt 604.558.1622
3358 Wesbrook Mall, self-serve chain for frozen yogurts, sold by weight.
Hours: every day 11:30 am – 10 pm

Togo Sushi 604.222.9288
3380 Shrum Lane, Monday to Saturday 10:30 am – 8 pm; Sunday 10:30 – 8 pm



Travel Information

Bus and Skytrain information www.translink.bc.ca
(A one zone ticket is $2.75, exact change required, or purchase a book of ten one-zone tickets (Zone 1 Faresaver) for $21.00 from Shopper's Drug Mart, corner of University Boulevard & Wesbrook Mall).

Via Rail	www.viarail.ca
BC Ferries	www.bcferries.com
Vancouver International Airport	www.yvr.ca

Taxi Service
A taxi from Vancouver Airport to UBC costs approximately $30 – $40 CAD and takes about 20 minutes. These are not set rates. Give the address of your residence or "UBC Gage Tower, next to the bus loop" as a location. Option: tipping may be done at 10-15% extra.

Taxis:

Black Top Cabs	603-731-1111
MacLure's Cabs	604-731-9211
Vancouver Taxi	604-255-5111
Yellow Cab	604-681-1111

Public Transport from Vancouver Airport to UBC Campus:
It is possible to take public transportation from YVR (the airport) to UBC with a 2-zone bus ticket (you can buy your ticket from a ticket vending machine at the airport station). Take the **Canada Line Skytrain** from the airport, heading north towards **Waterfront Station** (take only trains that show that destination on the displays). Get off at the stop titled **Broadway-City Hall**. Leave the Canada Line building and transfer onto the **99 B-Line UBC** bus headed west (bus stop located on the north-west side of street). Hold on to your ticket, as it will grant you a 90-min transfer between buses and skytrain vehicles. Take the 99 B-Line to the final stop, the **UBC North bus loop.** Walk to any on-campus accommodation.

On the way back to the airport, take the 99 B-line from the UBC North Bus Loop to Cambie Street (stop "Broadway City Hall" and take a southbound train marked "YVR Airport". DO NOT take trains to "Bridgeport". It is again a two-zone ticket, but this time without a $5 surcharge (which applies to airport arrivals towards downtown).

Refer to www.translink.ca for additional details or planning travel in Vancouver by bus.

Things to do on Campus

The UBC Vancouver campus hosts a number of attractions and opportunities for you to explore, including museums, galleries, gardens and performing arts. Some highlights to consider while you are here (see http://attractions.ubc.ca/ for more ideas):

* **Rose Garden Viewpoint:** Walk west from Buchanan to Main Mall. Turn north and you'll see the flagpole with the Maple Leaf flying. Just behind it is the Rose Garden Viewpoint, with nice views of Bowen Island and the Sunshine Coast, towards Whistler Mountain Resort (2 ½ hours by car).
* **Museum of Anthropology:** The Museum of Anthropology at UBC is world-renowned for its collections, teaching, public programs, and community connections. It is also acclaimed for its spectacular architecture and unique setting on the cliffs of Point Grey. The museum houses over 38,000 ethnographic objects and 535,000 archaeological objects, many of which originate from the Northwest Coast of British Columbia.
    - http://moa.ubc.ca/
* **Nitobe Gardens:** The Nitobe Memorial Garden is a traditional Japanese Tea and Stroll garden and considered to be the one of the most authentic Japanese gardens in North America and among the top five Japanese gardens outside of Japan. The Nitobe Garden includes a rare authentic Tea Garden with a ceremonial Tea House.
    - http://www.botanicalgarden.ubc.ca/nitobe/
* **Pacific Museum of the Earth**
    - http://pme.ubc.ca/
* **Beaty Biodiversity Museum**
    - http://www.beatymuseum.ubc.ca/
* **UBC Botanical Gardens**
    - http://www.botanicalgarden.ubc.ca/
* **Morris and Helen Belkin Art Gallery:** With a focus on the Canadian and British Columbian avant-garde, Vancouver's post-War art history, and emerging local artists, the Morris and Helen Belkin Art Gallery at UBC holds the third-largest public collection of art in the province with some 3,250 works of art dating from the eighteenth century to the present.
    - http://www.belkin.ubc.ca/
* **Spanish Banks and Locarno Beach:** The westernmost tip of Spanish Banks is a 30 minute walk down the road and boasts nice views of the Burrard Inlet, the Northshore Mountains, Bowen Island and the Sunshine Coast. Poorly served by bus, though it is a great **destination for a not-too long run/jog (about 2 km, 1 ½ miles**, but with a significant climb on the way back)
    - http://vancouver.ca/parks/rec/beaches/
* **Pacific Spirit Regional Park:** Another great place for a run on a forested path. Trails start c. a 5-minute walk east of the UBC Village on 10th Avenue/University Boulevard.
* **Wreck Beach:** A 30 min. walk from Buchanan, with many steps down the embankment. This beach is Vancouver's clothing optional beach. Many people run the stairs for exercise (fully dressed). Some bathe in swim suits.
* **Tower Beach:** Accessible by descending Trail 4 behind the Museum of Anthropology, this beach is often overshadowed by its busier neighbour, Wreck Beach. However, Tower is no less beautiful. Gorgeous rain forests and an unobstructed view of the mountains are contrasted by graffitied WWII bunkers keeping solemn watch over the ocean. Tower Beach is great for long walks or quiet moments of reflection.

Things to do in Vancouver

Metropolitan Vancouver also has many attractions (refer to www.tourismvancouver.com for more). Some of these include:

- **Stanley Park: If you were only to make one stop in Vancouver, this would probably be the one. It's an understatement to say that Stanley Park is beautiful: at 1,000 acres and only blocks from downtown Vancouver, it's a place to get outside and soak up Vancouver's blessed setting: mountains as a backdrop, vast stretches of water, trees that seem to shoot up into the sky and just keep on going. Reserve at least half a day to spend time there as the area is vast. Walk around the Stanley Park Seawall, c. 9.5 km, for a scenic (but long) walk.**
- **Hike the Grouse Grind: For the fit, the famous Grouse Grind hike is a must-do for outdoor enthusiasts. Your legs might hate you afterward, but the views from the top are incredible. The record is under 28 minutes. If you are in the prime of your life and active, plan for 1h 15 min if you climb swiftly. Do not attempt if you're not exercising regularly. There is another, less crowded older and longer route (BCMC trail), which the organizing chair can describe to serious hikers. Walking is free, though many hikers like to pay the $10 for the gondola ride down.**
- **Historic Chinatown: Located just south of Gastown (see next point), is fairly compact, comprising only a few blocks. Pender and Gore/Main Streets is the present-day centre. The New Town Bakery (with Café) on Pender near Main is famous for astonishingly well-priced and excellent Chinese sweets and pastries. Eat in or take out.**
- **Gastown, including the Steam Clock at the corner of Water and Cambie Streets: An entry point to Gastown in what is now "Waterfront Station", a subway (known as "Skytrain" in Vancouver), Seabus and bus terminal that used to be the terminus of the Canadian trans-continental railway line (Canadian Pacific). More information can be found at www.gastown.org.**
- **Davie Street: The main street of Vancouver's most vibrant gaybourhood. Today Davie Street is a diverse neighbourhood that is positively gay-affirmative.**
- **English Bay and Beach: Accessible by foot from the north end of Burrard Bridge or Granville Street Bridge. Vancouver's original swimming beach with plenty of street life.**
- **Granville Island: A sandbar under federal jurisdiction that was transformed into a centre for small artist shops, theatres, restaurants and a big indoor market. A favourite for locals and tourists alike. Bus 84 from UBC Bus Loop.**
- **Commercial Drive: Formerly known as "Little Italy/Portugal" this diverse, bohemian neighbourhood is home to students, writers, artists and other bohemian types. Many different restaurants offer make this a great place to grab an authentic ethnic meal. Café Deux Soleil (Commercial and 4th), not to be confused with the nice Café du Soleil further north on Commercial, offers what might be called breakfast in an alternative arts venue. Too many good places to list here, which include real Italian grocery stores and delis, such a Santa Barbara (Commerical & Charles) and the People's Co-op Bookstore: Vancouver's oldest non-university bookstore (that one is the UBC Bookstore on campus). Founded 1945 by communist-leaning pacifists, the store was blacklisted in the 1950s by governmental anti-communist crusaders. They surely would appreciate your visit: http://bcca.coop/news/one-vancouver's-oldest-bookstores-marks-new-chapter. Small but interesting. 99 B-line runs direct to the terminus at "Commercial Drive" (c. 1 hour).**

FEATURING: Dr. H. Rocke Robertson Dictionary Collection

University of British Columbia, Special Collections and University Archives Division

History
In 1989, the collection was donated by its creator Dr. H. Rocke Robertson, UBC's first Professor of Surgery (1950-1959) and founding member of DSNA.

Description
Gathered over thirty-five years, the collection includes two incunabula (pre-1500) and about seventy-five works from the 16th and 17th centuries; the balance were published in the 18th and 19th century. Some rare items in the collection are the first four editions of Samuel Johnson's dictionary (1755-1773); the first edition of Noah Webster's An *American Dictionary of the English Language* (1828); a fragment of the *Catholicon* (1460), an encyclopedic dictionary and the first secular book to be printed in the western world; and a first edition of the *Encyclopaedia Britannica* (1771), published in Edinburgh.

Languages
Primarily English, as well as some ancient Greek, Latin, Italian, French, Spanish, bilingual and polyglot dictionaries.

Holdings
Over 500 dictionaries; some early encyclopedias.

Bibliographic Access
The collection is catalogued online. Library of Congress subject headings and classification are used. A descriptive catalogue (see below) was published by the UBC Press in 1989.

Physical Access
The collection is in Rare Books and Special Collections (RSBC), which is open to the public. For further information visit: http://www.library.ubc.ca/spcoll/.

Opening Hours: RBSC will be open only from 10 am until 4 pm only on Thursday and Friday. Closed on Saturday and Sunday (summer hours).

Exhibit and Tour (Friday 2-2:30 and by appointment):
A special exhibition of the Collection has been organized for DSNA-20 & SHEL-9, entitled "Settling the Language: Dictionaries and Language Change, 1490 to Today". Grant Hurley, a graduate of UBC English, has curated the exhibit for his work with SLAIS (School of Library, Information and Archival Studies). A tour is scheduled for Friday at lunchtime, and Grant is able to offer additional times on Thursday & Friday. Contact him at gehurley AT MTA.CA to make arrangements. Delegates are free to visit the exhibt anytime on their own during opening hours on Thursday and Friday (closed on weekends).

The Rare Books and Special Collections Division is located in the I.K Barber Learning Centre, located next to the red arrow on the map below:

Schedule and Program Overview

Please find the conference program on a separate insert in your registration packet. Last-minute updates can be found on the conference website http://events.arts.ubc.ca/dsna-20&shel-9/

Important Dates/Times:

Conference Opening:
Friday, 8:20 am, A104, by Prof. Anne Gorsuch, Deputy President of UBC

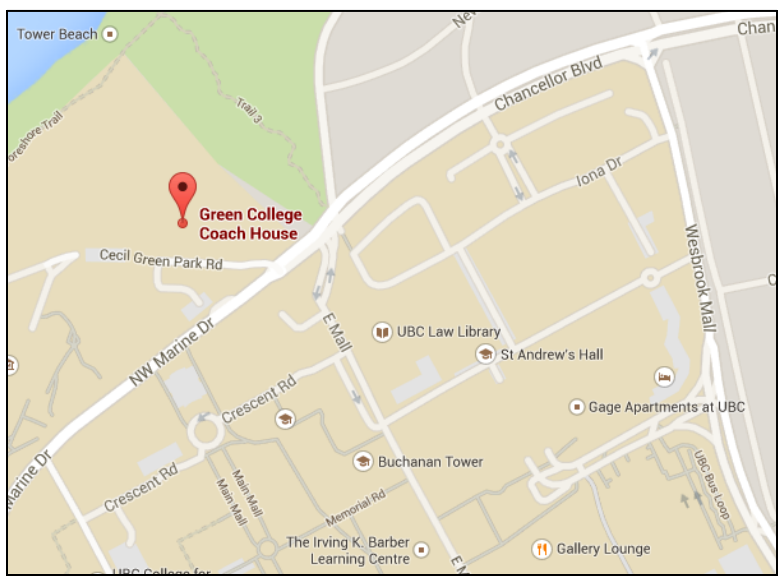
Dictionary Collection Tour:
Friday, 2-2:30 pm (see p. 16)

Reception at Green College, Reception Rooms: Friday, 7 pm

Banquet at Green College, Great Hall: Saturday, 7 pm

DSNA & SHEL Business meetings: Sunday, 2-3:30 (see program)

Conference closing: Sunday 3:30 pm



Plenary Speakers

Nikolaus Ritt
Vienna University

Language change as cultural evolution: from theory to practice

During recent decades the view gained ground that language change can be understood as an evolutionary process that follows Darwinian principles, even though it unfolds in the cultural rather than the biological domain (see e.g. Croft 2000; Ritt 2004; Kirby 2012; McMahon & McMahon 2012). This talk will briefly sketch the theoretical rationale of the approach, but will focus more strongly on some concrete problems in the history of English which can be addressed productively with methods developed for the study of biological and/or cultural evolution.

One case study will report on an experiment designed to test whether speech accommodation may have been causally involved in the grammatical obligatorification of the English determiners *the* (< OE *se* DEM) and *a*(*n*) (< OE *ān* NUM) (Smith et al. 2013). Two other studies will present a new method of exploiting corpus data for simulating virtual language histories and comparing them to the ones that have actually come about. It will be shown how this method can shed new light on phonology-morphology interaction in the domain of morphotactics (Dressler & Dziubalska-Kołaczyk 2006, Dressler, Dziubalska-Kołaczyk & Pestal 2011), and help to explain, for example, the allomorphy involved in regular plural formation (as in *dog*+[z] vs. *cat*+[s] vs. *hors*+[ɪz]) (Prömer, forthc. 2015), or the emergence of finally devoiced past tense forms such as *spilt* (< *spilled*), or *burnt* (< *brenned*).

Generally, it will be shown that evolutionary thinking can enrich historical language studies not only by suggesting fruitful metaphors but by motivating the use of new tools for addressing problems that are difficult to solve by established philological and linguistic methods.

Croft, William. 2000. *Explaining language change: An evolutionary approach* (Longman linguistics library). Harlow, England and New York: Longman.

Dressler, Wolfgang U. & Dziubalska-Kołaczyk, Katarzyna. 2006. Proposing Morphonotactics. *Wiener Linguistische Gazette* 73, 69–87.

Dressler, Wolfgang U., Katarzyna Dziubalska-Kołaczyk & Pestal, Lina. 2010. Change and variation in morphonotactics. *Folia Linguistica Historica* 31, 51–68.

Kirby, Simon. 2012. Language is an Adaptive System: the role of cultural evolution in the origins of structure. In Maggie Tallerman & Kathleen R. Gibson (eds.), *The Oxford handbook of language evolution* (Oxford handbooks in linguistics), 589–605. Oxford, New York: Oxford University Press.

McMahon, April M. S. & Robert McMahon. 2012. *Evolutionary linguistics* (Cambridge textbooks in linguistics). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Prömer, Christina, forthc. 2015. Final fricative voicing and the emergence of the English plural allomorphy. Master Thesis. University of Vienna.

Ritt, Nikolaus. 2004. Selfish sounds and linguistic evolution: A Darwinian approach to language change. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ritt, Nikolaus & Christina Prömer, in prep.. Middle English coda phonotactics, schwa loss and past tense formation.

Smith, Kenny, Olga Fehér & Nikolaus Ritt. 2013. Eliminating unpredictable linguistic variation through interaction. In P. Bello, M. Guarini, M. McShane & B. Scassellati (eds.), *Proceedings of the 36th Annual Conference of the Cognitive Science Society*. Austin, TX: Cognitive Science Society.

Charlotte Brewer
Oxford University

Mapping the OED: The changing record of the English Language

In 2015 the *Oxford English Dictionary* will be fifteen years into its first ever revision and coming up to the halfway mark in its rewriting of every single entry in the original work. Now is a good moment to take stock of the changes being made to its record of the English language. This talk surveys some of the transformations underway in the new dictionary - e.g. in its use of quotation sources, its representation of different periods in the history of the language, its introduction of significant new scholarship on etymology, and not least its use of new technology - and discusses the revolutions taking place in how we use this great work and how it is made. It also considers the role of the *OED* in relation to English language lexicography more widely.

Colette Moore
University of Washington

Sociopragmatics in Middle English manuscripts

Dialect studies have long provided tools for understanding variation in Middle English manuscripts -- helping us to analyze the relationship between place, speakers, and texts. In recent years, though, the fields of sociolinguistics and pragmatics have begun to introduce new kinds of methodologies for making sense of the relationships between speakers; models like the "community of practice" have risen to complement models of geographic variation. These kinds of methodologies have not yet been integrated into conceptions of variation in Middle English manuscripts, and they can assist us in thinking about the roles of scribes, the place of writing, and the development of 'incipient standards' in English.

Individual Abstracts

by Last Names

(Workshops & Demos listed separately)

Disclaimer: the presenters' individual reference styles were preserved for the purposes of this *Handbook*, resulting in minor format inconsistencies.

Arleta Adamska-Sałaciak
Adam Mickiewicz University

Continuity and change in the making of a bilingual dictionary

The Kościuszko Foundation Dictionary (KFD), the only bilingual dictionary with Polish and English featuring the American variety of the language, first came out in 1959 (the English-Polish volume) and 1961 (the Polish-English volume). It was subsequently reprinted fourteen times – most recently in 1995 – with the content completely intact. Finally, in 2003, *The New Kosciuszko Foundation Dictionary* (NKFD) appeared, in two printed volumes accompanied by a CD. Though originally intended as a simple update of KFD, it ended up being an entirely new dictionary, linked with its predecessor mainly through the title (a consequence of the continuing patronage of the New York-based Kosciuszko Foundation) and its focus on American English. With around 133.000 main entries, it was at the time, and still is, the most comprehensive English-Polish, Polish-English dictionary in existence. In the summer of 2014, work began on a new edition, which is going to be published exclusively in digital form.

The present paper looks in some detail at the two lexicographic projects: the compilation of NKFD in the late 1990s – early 2000s and the work being done at present on the second edition. Although a period of little more than fifteen years separates the two, to the people involved it feels like half a lifetime. There are, arguably, some objective reasons for this subjective impression. Among those with the most direct impact one can mention: the markedly different nature of the lexicographic challenge; the massively increased availability of sources; the significantly improved technical tools; and the unique qualifications of the current team of lexicographers. Less directly relevant factors include a noticeable shift of attitudes toward lexical borrowing among Polish linguists and language pundits. As a consequence, a less puristic, more liberal view is now emerging of what is admissible as a (Polish) headword and/or equivalent in a bilingual dictionary. The Anglicization of Polish lexis, its reflection in language corpora, and its representation in dictionaries, including the one under discussion, thus constitutes the paper' minor, secondary theme.

Anita Auer
University of Lausanne

An alternative history of language standardisation in England: The urban vernacular of York, 1400-1700

For a long time there existed a general consensus that what became the written Standard English language developed from the Central Midland dialect, which was propagated by the Chancery clerks (based on Samuels 1963; see also Ekwall 1956, Fisher *et al.* 1984). This traditional view, which was convincingly challenged by Wright (ed. 2000) and Benskin (2004), also attributes an eminent role to London as the national seat of government and justice in shaping the Standard form. While the metropolis does undoubtedly play an important role in the standardisation processes (Wright ed. 2000; Nevalainen & Raumolin-Brunberg 2003), the role of other major regional centres with high levels of literacy and text production has to date largely been ignored. The recently launched research project " Emerging Standards: Urbanisation and the Development of Standard English, c. 1400-1700", focuses on an alternative history of language standardisation in England by considering the roles that regionals centres, notably York (North), Bristol (Southwest), Coventry (West Midlands), and Norwich (East Anglia), played in the emergence of written Standard English.

The aim of this paper is twofold: First, I want to briefly introduce the Emerging Standards project and also focus on the empirical data on which the study will largely be based. Second, I will illustrate the approach taken in this project by presenting a case study related to the City of York during the period 1400-1700. The focus will be on language variation and change in two very different text types, notably the city's civic records and the letters written by members of the York Merchant Adventurers. The interpretation of the data will also consider socio-economic information and thus different migration and contact scenarios.

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SHEL

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The rivalry of verbal synonyms in the culinary recipes of the 14th and 15th century

The linguistic situation in the Middle English period was complex, with three languages (Latin, French and English) playing a crucial role depending on such factors as register, medium, context and language user. Latin was the written language of high status, French was the official language both written and spoken, and English was the language of low status used in informal, spoken contexts (see for instance Crespo 2000). Additionally, one should not forget that, apart from the three languages being present in various areas of language, it was in the Middle English period that a great number of Scandinavian loanwords, which had been borrowed after the Scandinavian invasions, surfaced in the written English sources (e.g., Miller 2012; Moskowich 1993).

The aim of the proposed paper is to analyze the multilingual situation found within one text type, i.e. the culinary recipe. The recipe as a text type has already been analyzed by a number of scholars, for instance Görlach (1992, 2004) or Carroll (1999). They all agree that one of the distinctive features of the genre is the use of verb (or verbal structures) - an issue already investigated by the present author on the example of the verbs *fry*, *roast* and *bake* (see Bator 2013). In the present paper our attention will be put on the following verbal triplets: *take ~ nim ~ recipe* (= 'to take'), *mess ~ serve ~ dress* (= 'to serve'), *boil ~ seethe ~ parboil* (= 'to cook'), etc. The analysis is to reveal the differences among the synonyms, such as the semantic shades of meaning of the verbs, the syntactic variety of their use, or the dialectal distribution. The study is also to reveal whether any of the languages mentioned above dominated the semantic area.

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SHEL

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Determining a corpus of Middle English 'music' nouns: a lexicographic study

This paper presents the conclusions of a lexicographic study aiming at determining a corpus of Middle English 'music' nouns. This goal is attained through two complementary approaches involving the examination of (a) Middle English dictionaries, and (b) an already existing corpus of Old English 'music' nouns.

The former approach consists in determining the terms in question via both onomasiologic and semasiologic procedures. If an onomasiologic study yields three synonyms of *music*, they are additionally and independently screened semasiologically to prove the existence of their 'music' reading. This approach will rely on both generic dictionaries (e.g. *HTE*) and music dictionaries (e.g. *DMEMT*). The semasiological approach covers the concepts of semantic change and lexical fields which are relevant to the terms under question, cf. Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk (2007: 143) who maintains that the field theory can be used to determine the polysemy of a term.

The latter approach involves a follow-up analysis of an already existing proprietary corpus of Old English 'music' nouns which are checked in view of their plausible permeation into Middle English. Arguably, it is only natural for a word to linger into subsequent period(s) with obvious alterations in orthography and semantics.

Ultimately, the study is to pinpoint the semantic prototypes of the concept MUSIC in Middle English following the tenets of cognitive linguistics, cf. Geeraerts (1997: 207). For instance, the most frequent, i.e. prototypical, Old English 'music' nouns are represented by the tokens of the lemmas DREAM, GLEE and SOUND.

The nouns in question do not represent the entire semantic field of MUSIC as they are only supposed to denote 'music' as such (in the case of polysemous nouns, 'music' is one of the meanings). Consequently, terms referring to musical peripheral readings, e.g. 'instrumental music' or 'musical entertainment' are excluded from the present study; cf. Whatmough (1957: 76) who concedes: "It has long been realized that around a nuclear meaning a number of peripheral meanings may cluster, e.g. *spring*, of which all the varieties of meaning appear to be peripheral to the single meaning of 'jump, leap, bound'".

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SHEL

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OE auxiliary *onginnan* as "intend"

OE *onginnan* "begin" is a verb of motion that auxiliation puts on the semantic move. While language contact, particularly with French, was once considered a factor, even in Old English the aspectual qualities of the auxiliary forms of *onginnan* have received attention in the development of several semantic and pragmatic models of grammatical change. As early as *Beowulf* (e.g. verses 244, 498) certain instances of this verb in the preterite and followed by an infinitival complement are glossed as "sometimes pleonastic" and "probably a colorless auxiliary, like MnE *do*" (Fulk 2008, Ogura 2002). Parallel instances have been adduced from poems including *Andreas*, *Juliana* and *Guthlac B*, as well as examples in the prose, including the *West Saxon Gospels*. I will argue for a more inclusive look at more ambiguous examples such as *Maldon* 261 and 265, where editors have been visibly unsatisfied with glossing the auxiliary as "begin," but have not extended the possibility that the auxiliary in this context has undergone subjectification and come to mean "intend" or "resolve," a cross-linguistically attested path of change for aspectual verbs.

Germanic pragmatic conventions arguably account for the auxiliary bearing this meaning. The Old English examples, coming from potentially the earliest as well as later stages of the language, have particular significance in establishing an early textual intermediate point on the pathway towards the development of a future sense, which appears in English only later, and most clearly in the present tense. Additionally, the long co-existence of auxiliary *onginnan* "intend" in widely distributed early medieval texts alongside the change of state or motion sense is in accord with the invited inference theory, whereby new meanings can become codified pragmatically. Recent studies of grammaticalization and ambiguity in historical texts (Moore 2007, Nöel 2009). and the idea of "soft trigger" presupposition (Abbott 2006) contribute to the understanding of what Traugott (2012: 170) characterizes as microclimates that account for different stops on the forking paths that Bybee et al. (1994:270) trace cross-linguistically from motion > intention [motion with a purpose] > future.

Natasha Chenier
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Dictionary Joyce: A Lexicographical Study of James Joyce and the Oxford English Dictionary

The similarities between James Joyce's *Ulysses* and the *Oxford English Dictionary* are numerous and striking: both texts aim to encapsulate the meaning of nearly everything in the English-speaking world. Both are epic in scope to an unprecedented degree. Both make countless references to other works, and explicitly absorb much of the preceding literature. Of course politically, the works are vastly different. Due to the pervasive opinions of the time, to which language scholars were not immune, the *OED*'s scope was limited to what was considered reputable literary language. While the *OED* aimed to document the (morally acceptable) established lexis, Joyce aimed to challenge and redefine it; he broke with tradition in frequently using loan words, as well as radically re-defining many of the standard words he used. He also invented entirely new ones. Moreover, he used English words to describe taboo subject matter. While the *OED* was (and still is) perceived as the gatekeeper of respectable English, Joyce used English in *Ulysses* to write about extramarital sex, adulterous public masturbation, and analingus, which is why the text was effectively banned from most of the English-speaking world until the mid-1930s. Joyce's liberalism with language and subject matter excluded him from the *OED* for several decades. Despite their differences, the first part of this paper aims to suggest that the writing of *Ulysses* was in many ways inspired and assisted by the *OED* (indeed, we know from his notebooks that Joyce used the*OED* as a creative tool while writing both *Ulysses* and *Finnegans Wake*). Equally of interest as Joyce's use of the *OED* and other dictionaries in his writing process is the *OED*'s representation of Joyce. While the first edition of the *OED* (1928) does not cite James Joyce, nor, to our knowledge, does its 1933 supplement, *OED*2 (1989) adds over 1,800 Joyce citations. Whereas *OED*3 (2000-) currently features 2,408 Joyce citations, many of those from *OED*2 have been removed. Joyce is an example of the changeable place of modernist literature in the *OED*. While the first part of this paper looks at Joyce and his creative process in connection with the*OED*, the central focus of the second part is the *OED*'s treatment of Joyce (and/or lack thereof) over the course of three editions and more than a century.

Andrew Cooper
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Non-Germanic names in Old English poetry

Personal names, along with numbers and some other elements, allow for no variation in vocabulary choice in translation. In Old English poetry, warrior class names like *Beowulf* typically comprise two common nouns compounded into a single word, ie. *bēo* (bee) + *wulf* (wolf) = *Beowulf*. In these names, as in other compounds, each component carries a stress on its root syllable, the first of which can contribute to alliteration. These two syllables can then contribute to foot and verse structure (as described by Kendall 1991). Non-Germanic names cannot conform to this, as they cannot be analysed for internal morphemic structure. This talk explains the analysis developed by the author to address this discrepancy.

All the names used in this study have a Latin source, for example Lat. An.'drē.as (Grk. - Ἀνδρέας) and 'Ā.bra.ham (Heb. - אברהם). It has always been assumed that Old English phonology gives each of these names a primary stress on its first syllable, according to its usual phonology. However, this paper shows that *Andreas* can be shown to also have a secondary stress on its second syllable and *Abraham* to have an underlying secondary stress on its final syllable which is only metrically active when made medial by the addition of an inflectional suffix, as shown in the following examples (where / indicates primary stress, \ secondary stress and x unstress).

(1). / \ x x x x / \ x
ellþeodigra, þone ic Andreas "Andreas" l.1175
foreigners.GEN.PL DEM.ACC I Andreas

Example 1b shows that *Andreas* can be the last word in a metrical b-line because it occupies two verse feet, the first of which shows 0-alliteration with a verse foot in the a-line. The postulated secondary stress on the medial syllable reflects the penultimate stress in Latin.

(2). a. / x x / x x x / x \
Abraham wīde, oðþæt ellenrōf "Genesis" l.1782
A.NOM widely until courageous.SG

b. / x \ x x / x \ x
ellenrōfe, and Abrahame Genesis l. 2036
courageous.PL and A.DAT

In 2a, *Abraham* has only one stress and must be accompanied by another nominal to satisfy footing constraints. In 2b, the addition of an unstressed inflectional ending means that a minimum half-line size of 4 syllables is met. *Andreas*- and *Abraham*-types represent two possible ways to address trisyllabic names. These examples, along with *Cain, Sarah, Caesar* and others, mostly from the *Genesis* poem and the catalogues of kings and peoples in *Widsith,* are used to demonstrate that non-Germanic names are not metrically similar to commonplace compounds or Germanic names. An Optimality Theory analysis is used to address constraints of the phonology of the borrowed items, involving vowel quantity, syllabic structure and secondary stress, which allows for the metrical features of non-Germanic names to be effectively predicted in the same way as Germanic names.

These findings allow verses with these names to be reliably incorporated into analyses of OE verse, such as the author's current study of word order phenomena in OE verse of which this study is a contributing part.

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Mark Davies
Brigham Young University

Advanced lexicographical research with the new Wikipedia Corpus

One of the challenges in lexicography is accounting for domain-specific lexis, such as words and phrases that are found primarily in microbiology, aviation, publishing, Buddhism, or thousands of other domains. General purpose corpora (such as the BNC or COCA) rarely have enough data for any one specific domain, and even the data from large 5-15 billion word corpora like those from Sketch Engine is often not large enough for a particular topic. Often the only option is to create multiple specialized corpora, but this can be difficult and time-consuming, especially for hundreds of different topics.

Wikipedia is an obvious source of data for this type of domain-specific lexis, since its 4,000,000+ articles contain data for an extremely wide range of domains. There are at least two problems, however. The first is how to quickly and easily create "sub-corpora" for different domains. The second problem is how to identify keywords in these domains, or compare the frequency across different domains.

In January 2015 we released the freely available Wikipedia Corpus, which contains nearly two billion words in more than four million articles. The corpus architecture and interface allow for many advanced queries, which should greatly facilitate lexicographical research. The following describes just a portion of the functionality in the new corpus, in terms of lexicographical research.

- Via the web-based interface, users can search article titles, links from articles (all of which are stored in a database), and the frequency of specific words and phrases in articles to quickly and easily create domain-specific sub-corpora. For example, in less than one minute each, they could create 100,000- 1,000,000 word corpora of articles related to optics, hip-hop music, Islam, or thousands of other domains, and they can then use the web-based interface to store these customized corpora for subsequent queries.
- They can search for any word or phrase (including lemmas, part of speech, and synonyms), and see the frequency across the specialized corpora that they have created (e.g. the word *stress* in 5-6 virtual corpora dealing with psychology, or in 8-10 different virtual corpora related to engineering).
- They can find collocates or see re-sortable concordance lines for any given word or phrase in any of these domain-specific corpora. For example, in an [Electrical engineering] virtual corpus, the most frequent collocates of *signal* (noun) are *processing, digital, analog, continuous, sound, converted,* and *discrete-time*, whereas in a [Railroad/Railway] virtual corpus, the top collocates of *signal* are *overrun, light, box, semaphore,* and *danger*.
- Finally, in less than one second they can generate keyword lists for any of these specialized corpora, including multi-word expressions. To give a couple of simple examples, the top nouns (ranked by raw frequency) in a virtual corpus dealing with [Fungus] are *species, plant, spore, disease, host, cell,* and *mushroom*, while the top adjectives (ranked by "relevance", using a measure similar to log likelihood) in a corpus of [Economics] include *heterodox, marginal, capitalist, monetary, aggregate,* and *optimal*. Of course, more complicated searches (including multi-word expressions) are also possible.

This new corpus will facilitate lexicographical research on hundreds and thousands of specialized domains, in ways that simply have not been possible before this time.

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A large corpus-based study of the historical development of [Noun+Noun] sequences in American English

Noun+noun constructions are a topic of particular interest in the study of English, for a number of reasons. From a semantic perspective, there is a wide range of meanings that hold between the two nouns. For example, the relationship can be one of composition (N2 made from N1; *tomato sauce*), purpose (N2 used for N1; *pencil case*), identity (N2 = N1; *member country*), content (N2 is about N1; *algebra test*), objective (N1 object, N2 process; *egg production*), subjective (N1 subject, N2 process; *child development*), time (*Sunday School*), location (*corner cupboard*), institution (N2 = institution for N1; *insurance companies*), partitive (N2 = part of N1; *cat legs*), or specialization (N1 = specialization of animate N2; *gossip columnist*). Even for a given noun, there can be a wide range of meanings. For example, *olive oil* is oil made from olives, *shale oil* is oil found in shale rock, *body oil* is either oil found on bodies or it is used to moisturize bodies, *baby oil* is just used in the care of babies (but is not made from babies), and *snake oil* has a more metaphorical meaning.

In this presentation, we will focus on the historical development of the [Noun+Noun] construction in the last 200 years of American English, using two large corpora: the 400 million word Corpus of Historical American English (COHA), and the 155 *billion* word Google Books (BYU) corpus.

We will first consider several different methodological issues. We will show how (perhaps not too surprisingly) a very large corpus such as the 400 million word COHA can provide much more robust data than what is available from much smaller corpora. We will also briefly consider how – with the right tools – we can extract data from the 155 billion word American English dataset of Google Books, in ways that would never be possible with the standard Google Books interface. Finally, we will consider how "crowd sourcing" tools like Mechanical Turk allow us to categorize tens of thousands of different Noun+Noun pairs (in an accurate fashion, as well), in ways that would not be possible with a small group of researchers, and we will see how this facilitates fine-grained analyses of the large amounts of data.

In purely quantitative terms, we will show how the [Noun + Noun] construction has grown in overall frequency since the early 1800s. We will also use COHA data (supplemented by the 450 million word Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and the 1.9 billion word corpus of Global Web-Based English (GloWbE) to consider the relatively recent rise of even longer strings (e.g. *grade point average* (3), *asbestos hazard emergency response* (4), *brain longevity stress impact index* (5), *job partnership training act eligibility guidelines* (6), *underground storage tank petroleum product cleanup fund* (7), or *head start family child care home demonstration project* (8)). And we will consider frequency by genre, and show how the construction has spread between the genres of academic, newspaper, popular magazines, and fiction over time.

Perhaps most interestingly, in terms of our understanding of semantic change, we will consider how the construction has spread from one semantic class to another, using the data from tens of thousands of different types (and millions of tokens). We will see how it was primarily limited to composition in the earliest periods (e.g. *iron skillet*, *corn meal*), and how it has acquired new uses even in just the last 40-50 years, and we will suggest some preliminary explanations for the historical trajectory between these different uses.

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DSNA

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Representing overlapping patterns of polysemy in bilingual dictionaries

Polysemy often poses problems for the dictionary representation of word meaning because the discrimination of senses is seldom clear-cut. For bilingual dictionaries, the challenge is particularly difficult because patterns of polysemy associated with cross-linguistic equivalents display differing degrees of what has been called "overlapping polysemy" (Alsina & DeCesaris 2002; Boas 2009). Overlapping polysemy occurs when cross-linguistic equivalents share a literal sense and some, but perhaps not all, extended senses. The polysemy of a word rarely coincides with that of a word in another language because the derived senses associated with a given word are the result of a combination of internal and external forces in a specific language, and thus the potential for differences across languages is very high. Partial coincidence of patterns of polysemy, however, is not rare because many languages share metaphors. In the context of bilingual dictionaries, recognizing and representing correctly the complexity and varying degrees of overlapping polysemy is particularly important to the user if the dictionary is used to produce text in a non-native language.

In this paper we consider the treatment in bilingual dictionaries of two small sets of words in English and their equivalents in Spanish (and, to a lesser extent, in French and Italian) which display varying degrees of overlapping polysemy. One set of words (*avalanche*, *flood*, *mountain*, *storm*, and *stream*) consists of nouns the literal sense of which refers to a natural phenomenon; these nouns are commonly display an extended sense in prepositional phrases (e.g. *an avalanche of publicity*, *a storm of protest*, *a stream of visitors*). The other set of words studied consists of verbs (*cultivate, fabricate, forge, plow, sift*) that are used in conjunction with direct objects belonging to very different semantic classes (e.g. *cultivate the* <u>*land*</u> vs. *cultivate the* <u>*arts*</u>; *forge* <u>*iron*</u> vs. *forge a* <u>*career*</u>). Corpus evidence is used to show how the equivalents of these words exhibit complex patterns of sense extension. For example, while Spanish noun *inundación* is the most frequent equivalent for *flood*[n] in the literal sense, *inundación* is not used in the derived sense exhibited by *flood* in *flood of complaints* (which in Spanish would be *una avalancha de reclamaciones* or *un diluvio de reclamaciones*), although the derivationally related verb, *inundar*, does exhibit this extended sense (e.g. *nos han inundado de reclamaciones* 'we have been flooded with complaints'). Entries from several dictionaries are compared and although we show that large comprehensive bilingual dictionaries usually (but not always) point to the use of non-derived senses in their entries, the information is rarely complete and the examples provided often do not include the most frequent collocates. Finally, we suggest ways of incorporating these partial parallelisms into dictionary entries.

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SHEL

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Input, homogeneity, and stuff (like that)

Canadian English (CanE) presents the textbook example of dialectal homogeneity (Chambers 2006), with its undifferentiated urban structure attributed to the Loyalists (Bloomfield 1975; Avis 1973). That is, CanE homogeneity is argued to derive from source input (cf. Zelinsky's 1992 *First Effective Settlement*; Mufwene's 1995 *Founder Principle*), and not from subsequent leveling or convergence. The emphasis on the founders is well-motivated by Canadian historical demographics: the Loyalists drove westward expansion. At the same time, recent sociolinguistic research indicates (1) that the social evaluation of dialect features may 'over-rule' input forms, effectively changing the overall character of local language (e.g. Philadelphia; Labov et al. 2013), but also (2) that homogeneity itself is sociolinguistically desirable (Chambers 2012). Since the development of the Loyalist hypothesis, large diachronic corpora of regional CanE varieties have been constructed, enabling direct testing of founder effects.

We operationalize a well-studied discourse-pragmatic variable known to be undergoing change—*general extenders* (GEs), as in (1)—to contrast two geographically disparate regions of Canada with similar input and overtly Anglo-English roots. With its multitude of variants and its known regionally-variegated profile, the GE system is a dialectologically optimal candidate for regional variation to have developed (cf. Tagliamonte 2012 on intensifiers). We therefore examine the trajectory of GE variants over the *longue durée* in an attempt to untangle their evolution in CanE.

(1) a. I can remember learning how to use a lathe *and stuff like that*.
b. They would fly in fresh meat *and so on like that*.
c. Draft horses *and whatnot*. Dairy cows *and things*.

Our data represent 120 years of language use in two regions of Canada: Southern Ontario (ONT) (Denis 2015; Tagliamonte 2006) in the east and Greater Victoria, British Columbia (VIC) (D'Arcy 2014) in the west. We follow the methodology of Cheshire (2007) (among others); more than 5000 GE tokens from 202 speakers are considered.

The broad trend is regional parallelism. In both ONT and VIC, *and stuff (like that)* rises across the twentieth century, becoming the dominant variant. However, there are three critical points of contrast. First, *stuff* arrives later in VIC (c. 1910) than ONT (c. 1880). Second, in ONT *stuff* enters a system rife with many low frequency variants. In VIC, the innovative variant enters a more restricted system. Third, shorter *and stuff* leads the way in VIC, while in ONT longer *and stuff like that* does.

These results suggest historically different starting points and different paths of change that ultimately converge on a similar synchronic state. In this case, convergence, not input, is responsible for homogeneity. Notably, the rise of *stuff* may be part of a broader, global trend (cf. Cheshire 2007; Pichler & Levey 2011). Although regional linguistic differences are known to evolve within homogeneous dialects (Schneider 2007; Trudgill 2004), our results suggest that the future of CanE will be defined by the competing motivations of homogeneity, regionalism, and the seemingly unavoidable spread of 'mega-trends' (Tagliamonte et al. submitted).

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SHEL

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Beggars can't be choosers: the multi-source origin of mental secondary predicate constructions

This paper investigates the origin and internal developments of the secondary predicate construction from Old English to Late Modern English. Secondary predicate constructions (SPCs) consist of a "Verb + NP + XP"-sequence, with the Verb licensing a predicative relation between the NP and XP:

1. I [found]**Verb** [Ly Gordon's manners]**NP** [as pleasing as they had been described]**XP**. (Jane Austen, *Letters*, 180x)
2. I [would not call]**Verb** [Science alone]**NP** [a Liberal Education]**XP** (…). (Alexander Bain, *Education as a science*, 1878)

While SPCs in Present-day English often contain 'mental' verbs of cognition opinion as in *I consider/ believe/ judge him a fool*, this subtype of the SPC was fairly infrequent up until Early Modern English. In fact, it appears that mental SPCs in Old English rarely contained verbs whose primary semantics were mental (henceforth: 'core' mental verbs), but were largely made up of a mix of verbs derived from different semantic classes, and all with additional, non-mental uses in the SPC construction. Examples include verbs of perception (3), possession (4), impersonal verbs (*geþyncan*), verbs of communication (*tellan*), (pseudo)-causative verbs (*healdan*) and core mental verbs (*ongietan*) (see appendix).

3. He [ðone mon]NP [micelne & haligne]XP **[gemette]**Verb. (He found the man great and holy,YCOE, *Bede's History of the English Church*) (gemettan)
4. (…) [se]NP [wæs **hæfd** & wened]Verb [fram mannum mycelre arfæstnesse]XP. (… who was considered and deemed of men someone of much honour, YCOE, *Gregories Dialogues (C)*) (habban)

In Middle English the set of mental verbs is further enriched with verbs of non-mental origin (e.g. *hold, find*). It is only from Early Modern English onwards that an increase in SPCs with core mental verbs can be observed (e.g. *I reckon her guilty/She considered him her friend*), although here, the influence of the French lexicon points to a language external source for the mental SPC.

The influx from different verb classes making up the SPC supports recent claims that language change may derive from multiple sources at once, rather than occurring through direct descent within a single constructional lineage (Van De Velde, De Smet & Ghesquire 2013). It is the aim of our paper to identify these multiple sources for the mental type of the SPC, and how they have contributed to creating a full-fledged and productive 'mental' branch of the construction in ModE.

Evidence for this multi-source-hypothesis is provided through a corpus analysis of SPCs in the *York-Toronto Helsinki Corpus of Old English Prose* for Old English and the *Penn Corpora of Historical English* for Middle English to Late Modern English. The results not only help untangle the internal developments of the Secondary Predicate Construction, but also shed light on the mechanisms of language change driven by multiple sources in general.

Van de Velde, F., De Smet, H. & L. Ghesquière. 2013. On multiple source constructions in language change. *Studies in Language* 37(3), 473-489.

Distribution of source constructions of the mental SPC in OE	
Perception verbs	afunden (1), gefindan (4), gemetan (16), onfindan(1), geson (2), gexian (3)
Communication verbs	tellan (3)
(pseudo)-Causative verbs	gewyrcan (2), healdan (5), lætan (6)
Possessive verbs	habban (8)
Impersonal verbs	geþencan (4)
Core mental verbs	belifan (1), cunnan (1), deman (4), eahtian (1), gecnawan (2), gelifan (11), oncnawan (9), ongietan (34), onmunan (2), talian (17), tocnawan (2), truwian (1), wenan (6), witan (44), wundrian (2)
	TOTAL (193)

DSNA

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Microstructure of a scientific monolingual dictionary in Haitian Creole

Over the past century, Haitian Creole has seen much advancement in its spoken as well as its written usage. The last 40 years have been particularly fruitful in the recognition of Creole as one of the nation's official language, along with its increase usage in the different fields including the educational system (Hebblethwaite 2012a).

This advancement includes the usage of the language in multiple published written documents, which supports its diffusion in the subjects of linguistics, literature, social science, religion, agriculture and lexicography (Védrine 2004). One of the attestations of this accomplishment is the production of multiple dictionaries in the language.

Though Creole has multiple dictionaries, most of them are bilinguals. These documents are therefore, more useful to multilingual than to the majority of the Creole speakers of Haiti. Additionally, despite the abundant works created in Creole, major gaps still exist in its usage in scientific documentation.

In order to further the intrumentlization of Haitian Creole, this paper presents a meta-lexicographical analysis of Haitian Creole focusing on the publication of a print and online monolingual dictionary on agriculture and the environmental sciences. It also presents the conception of a comprehensible microstructure of this dictionary focusing on its accessibility and usability of for the community and scholars alike.

In his bilingual dictionary, Valdman states that « It would be both presumptuous and unwise for lexicographers not to consult preceding works » in the production of their dictionaries (Valdman and al. 2007). This paper seeks to show that though each dictionary needs a microstructure that is particular to its needs, consulting previous works contributes immensely in the furthering of the process of creating new lexicographical works.

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SHEL

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Bilingualism vs. Semi-Communication in Language Contact and –Change: are the Vikings to Blame for Morpho-Syntactic Simplifications in Mediaeval English?

This study addresses the role of language contact in language change, especially grammatical change. Its object of study are the manifold structural simplifications English underwent from Old (OE) to (later) Middle English (ME), with a particular focus on the development of English gender: in OE, modifying determiners and adjectives marked grammatical gender, as did third-person-singular pronouns (cf. (1)); from (later) ME onwards, only the pronouns expound natural (sex-based) gender (cf. (2)).

(1) Đá ðæt wíf geseah, ðæt hit him næs dyrn
When that.NEUT woman.NEUT saw that it.NEUT him not-washidden

‘When the woman saw that she was not hidden from him’ (The Gospel of St. Luke in Anglo-Saxon, ed. Bright 1893: 38)

(2) Wedde nat a wiffe for hir inheritaunce
Wed not a.UNI woman for her.FEM inheritance

‘Don’t marry a woman for her inheritance’ (Benedict Burgh’s Cato Major, ed. Förster 1905: 320)

Both starting- and end-point of English gender development are hence easily defined, also studies investigating it abound, however there is no prevailing opinion – let alone a consensus – regarding how and why English so radically reduced its gender system both in assignment and exponence. Rather, the many studies have produced "remarkably contradictory results" (Stenroos 2008: 451). This might be due to older publications (e.g. Körner 1888; Lindelöf 1893; Ausbüttel 1904; Landwehr 1911; Philippsen 1911; Morsbach 1913[1926]; von Glahn 1918; Ross 1936) generally not differentiating between NP-internal and -external exponence and often showing room for improvement regarding the documentation of methodology and results, while more recent, larger-scale ones, such as Curzan (2003), Jones (1988), or Markus (1988) typically cover too large an area and/or divide the database into rather too fine time slices, thus obfuscating general coherent patterns as well as local developments occurring at different times and places (cf. Stenroos 2008: 451).

As for other morpho-syntactic phenomena, case underwent a similarly profound simplification from the OE four-case system (plus remnants of an instrumental) to a residual subject/object/possessive distinction in pronouns and a genitive/non-genitive distinction in noun-phrases in use ever since late ME. Plural essentially lost six of its seven allomorphs to the *–s*-plural (cf. e.g. Hotta 2012). Many, if not most of these simplifications also display a discernible north-south vector (cf. e.g. Lindelöf 1893: 299-302; Hotta 2012: 112).

It is well-known and generally undisputed that Viking settlement names were very numerous, but at the same time confined to the Danelaw area, i.e. northeast of a line drawn from London to Chester (cf. e.g. Stenton 1942; Cameron 1969: 75-86, 1971; Richards 1991: 33-36; Loyn 1994: 82-89; Crawford 2003: 59-60). It is similarly well-known and undisputed that English borrowed quite a few words from Old Norse (ON), in particular basic terms of high frequency (cf. e.g. Hofmann 1955; Peters 1981; Thomason & Kaufman 1988; Townend 2002; Pons-Sanz 2007, 2013; Lutz 2012). By contrast, there is much discord in the research community regarding the influence of ON on the structural/grammatical changes English underwent in the later Middle Ages: outspoken affirmers (e.g. McWhorter 2002; Townend 2002) face equally vehement deniers (e.g. Thim 2012; Lutz 2012) of this notion.

As a contribution towards overcoming this impasse, the present paper appraises multiple lines of evidence from numerous linguistic and non-linguistic disciplines, which pertain to the demographic situation in Viking-Age England. These disciplines comprise history, archaeology, molecular genetics, art history, 'saga studies', and onomastics of settlements, places, landscape features, and persons, all providing converging evidence for substantial Scandinavian influence in the Danelaw area. Further, an assessment of structural similarities and differences between OE and ON suggests that the former have been rather larger than the latter, so that the OE-ON contact situation is much more likely to have based on semi-communication (cf. e.g. Haugen 1966; Braunmüller 2001) and accommodation (cf. e.g. Trudgill 1986; Giles et al. 1991) than on bilingualism and interpreters.

In sum, the present study concludes that OE-ON contact facilitating or even instigating grammatical simplifications is a distinct possibility, but no matter of course. A meticulous analysis of chronicle materials forces to conclude that the simplification of English gender very likely was sped up and possibly even started by this contact.

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DSNA

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Canadianisms in Canadian desk dictionaries: scope, accuracy and desiderata

The present paper explores "Canadianisms" in Canadian desk dictionaries. The *Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles* (Avis et al. 1967) defines Canadianisms not only as words, expressions and meanings native to Canada, but also as those that "are distinctively characteristic of Canadian usage though not necessarily exclusive to Canada" (xiii). This definition calls for a descriptive approach that is at the base of most Canadian desk dictionaries.

The present paper focuses on three Canadian desk dictionaries that comprise the apex of the lexicography of contemporary Canadian English to this day. These are the *Gage Canadian Dictionary* and the *ITP Nelson Canadian Dictionary* from 1997 and the *Canadian Oxford Dictionary* from 1998. All three dictionaries appeared at a time of intense competition on the small Canadian market and were direct competitors in what can be called the "Canadian dictionary war". At the time, Gage Ltd. published what is de facto the fifth edition of the Senior Dictionary, while ITP Nelson and Oxford University Press issued newly adapted and Canadianized dictionaries.

Based on an examination of all terms, meanings and expressions labelled "Cdn." in these three dictionaries, we deduct the working principles of what comprises a Canadianism in each case. It will be shown – with the benefit of hindsight – that not all terms labelled "Canadian" are actually Canadianisms in any meaningful way. It will also be shown to what degree these dictionaries include highly specialized uses – ranging from Canadian military abbreviations to highly localized place names – while lacking some bona fide Canadianisms. Regionalisms, which are characterized by their limited geographical use in a given national context and/or by their cross-border use, are particularly interesting cases. More than just associated with a given region, regionalisms can help define national varieties in some contexts. For instance, the term *runners/running shoes* serves as a Canadianism west of Quebec, yet in Atlantic Canada *sneakers* is the dominant form, just as in much of the USA (Berger 2005). It will be argued that existing "errors" in the Canadian desk dictionaries are the result of the standard methods of quotation file and corpus linguistics, which only suboptimally produce evidence on the lexis of a non-dominant variety of a language (Clyne 1992), such as Canadian English.

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SHEL

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The evolution of the English genitive: Predicting diachronic change in noun modifier use

Diachronic change in the use of genitive noun phrases—where one noun modifies another noun—has been an object of great interest in recent years. Most studies of genitive constructions have focused on two structural variants: the *'s*-genitive (e.g., the family's car) and the *of*-genitive (the car of the family). These genitive constructions are traditionally associated with a relationship in which one noun possesses another noun. However, in actual use, genitives can be used to express various other relationships between nouns (e.g., attribute: *<u>Martha's courage</u> failed her.*; defining: *I live in <u>the city of Lahore.</u>*). When we consider this full set of meaning relations, it becomes apparent that there is actually a third structural variant that should be compared to the *'s*-genitive and *of*-genitive constructions: pre-modifying nouns (e.g., the family car). While many previous studies have investigated the use of the 's-genitive and the of-genitive (see, e.g., Kreyer, 2003; Rosenbach, 2002; Hinrichs & Szmrecsanyi, 2007; Szmrecsanyi & Hinrichs, 2008), only a few previous studies have included pre-modifying nouns as a third genitive variant (see also Biber, Egbert, Gray, Oppliger, & Szmrecsanyi, forthcoming; Rosenbach 2006, 2007).

One common finding in all of these studies is that English genitives are undergoing significant diachronic changes. However, there are still many unanswered questions about the nature of these changes because the vast majority of these studies take a variationist rather than a text-linguistic approach. In simple terms, variationist research investigates proportional preferences, whereas text-linguistic research investigates rates of occurrence in texts (see Biber, 2012). While findings from variationist studies are useful for learning about the reasons authors or speakers prefer to use a particular genitive variant, this approach necessarily ignores a large number of genitives in the corpus that are coded as non-interchangeable. In contrast, the text-linguistic approach accounts for all cases of genitives in the analysis, regardless of interchangeability, allowing the researcher to investigate the factors that predict the use of each genitive variant across the texts in the corpus.

In this study, we take a text-linguistic approach to describing diachronic changes in the use of *'s*-genitives, the *of*-genitives, and pre-modifying nouns in ARCHER (A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers) across three registers (News, Science, and Personal Letters). Our findings reveal significant changes in the use of these three variants over time. We use a series of multiple regression analyses to explore the role of other variables such as register, type-token ratio, and noun use. The results of these analyses show that time interacts with register, and that linguistic variables such as type-token ratio are strong predictors of genitive use. In addition to revealing new findings about the use of nominal modifiers, we demonstrate how the variationist and text-linguistic approaches are complementary and equally important approaches to studying linguistic variation.

SHEL

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Wher alle interpreten or expownen? On Middle English near synonyms of the Romance borrowing *TRANSLATEN:* A corpus study with focus on *expounen*, *interpreten, transposen* and *rendren*

The paper is part of a longer study whose ultimate aim is to precisely map all synonyms denoting 'transfer between languages' in order to establish both central and marginal verbs within the domain *TRANSLATE* in the history of English.

Nearing the end of the Old English period, the language saw thirteen different terms referring to the process of translation. After the Norman Conquest, that multitude of OE native verbs got reduced to *wenden*, last attested in this meaning at the beginning of the 13th century. For the next hundred years, a few general native terms would fill in the transitional void, occasionally acquiring the meaning 'to translate', cf. "tæfore hafe icc **turrnedd** itt Inntill Ennglisshe spæche," (c1200, *The Ormulum*), or "Alfred **wrat** þa laȝen on Englis," (c1275, *Layamon Brut*), until, finally, the language borrowed a specialized term, i.e. *translaten* (F.-L., Skeat). The verb entered English with the meaning of 'transferring, changing, replacing' (cf. MED), and in the 14th century it acquired the literal meaning 'to translate' (MED, Skeat), marginalizing or eliminating older forms (cf. previous studies).

The present study focuses on other Romance borrowings reinforcing the domain in the 14th century, namely:

- Fr. ***expounen*** 'to give a version in another language, to translate' (*OED*, *MED*, first attested in this meaning in c1380);
- Lt / Fr. ***interpreten*** 'to translate' as in 'in writing' (*OED*, *MED*, c1384);
- Fr. ***transposen*** 'to change into another language; to translate; to transfer' (*OED*, *MED*, a1393); and
- Fr. ***rendren*** 'to reproduce or express in another language' (*OED*, *MED*, c1400).

Even though in Middle English the domain is occupied mainly by borrowings, and no native verb denoting 'to translate' is attested in the central position, certain native forms still exhibit this meaning in their peripheries, cf. single instances of ***drauen*** ("Ut of latin ðis song is dragen on engleis speche," 1325, *Genesis and Exodus*), and ***taken*** ("þe ebrue storie to han taken [L tradidisse] to latyn tunge," a1382, *Wycliffite Bible*). Thus, the paper also aims at a close analysis of contexts in which the native and foreign verbs are attested. This should lead to establishing patterns of their distribution and help provide a potential explanation for the native terms yielding ground to more specialized Romance borrowings. Whenever possible, the interpretation of the results takes into consideration the provenance of texts, their register, and possible scribal code-switching.

The list of synonyms under scrutiny is compiled based on the *Historical Thesaurus of the Oxford English Dictionary* (HTOED), the linguistic illustration comes from the *Middle English Dictionary* (MED), and *Oxford English Dictionary* (OED), supplemented with statistical data from prosaic and poetic texts collected in the *Innsbruck Corpus of Middle English Prose* (ICAMET) and the *Corpus of Middle English Prose and Verse* (MEC).

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DSNA

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The Language of Land Grabs

This paper proposes to examine the play between denotation and connotation in the new words and expressions being used in the Russian press, to describe ongoing events associated with Ukraine – and beyond. This proposal, intended for the Conference of the Dictionary Society of North America, initially arose out of extensive reading of Russian-language sources following the recent events in Ukraine: the ousting of the pro-Russian Ukrainian president, the Russian takeover of the Crimea, and the Russia-fueled unrest and war in eastern Ukraine.

The Russian press contains a large number of new words and expressions associated directly with the Ukrainian question. However, the new words/expressions go beyond the Ukrainian situation and are related as well to Russian views toward the West. There is new vocabulary related to Europe, such as *Geiropa* or 'gay Europe' instead of the neutral *Evropa* 'Europe'; a recently published book uses *Geiropa* in its title. Many new words are connected with the United States; Americans are *pindosy* (the term requires explanation and cannot be translated with a simple equivalent) and the United States is *Pindostan.* While most of the new words express anti-Western views, some indicate a more liberal and anti-Putin perspective. Certainly, authors are cuing the readership as to their intentions; the authors are using both *denotation* and *connotation* to influence their readers' understanding.

Merriam-Webster online defines *denotation* as: "a direct specific meaning as distinct from an implied or associated idea." As an illustrative example it gives: "The definition provides the word's *denotation*." This is a good example because, indeed, dictionary definitions rarely give us a word's connotation. *Connotation* is (again, from Merriam-Webster online): "an idea or quality that a word makes you think about in addition to its meaning." *Denotation* is what a word means, and *connotation* is how a word makes people feel; denotation is usually more stable, connotation can evolve more quickly. A changing connotation may or may not cause permanent change in the lexical meaning (denotation) of a word. Merriam-Webster defines *junta* as: "a council or committee for political or governmental purposes; *especially*: a group of persons controlling a government especially after a revolutionary seizure of power."

When a Russian author uses the word *khunta* to describe the Ukrainian government in Kiev or the pro-Russian gunmen in in the eastern Ukrainian city of Slavyansk, the connotation that the government is not legitimate is conveyed.

When today's Russian Press uses 'junta,' 'patriot,' 'Russophobia,' 'totalitarian dictatorship,' 'anti-Russian actions,' and 'criminal' to describe ongoing events, there is play both with the words' denotation and connotation. Today's events in Ukraine have commonalities with the 2008 Russian seizure of Abkhazia, an area of northwestern Republic of Georgia; to the extent possible articles from that period will also be examined for comparison.

DSNA

Edward Finegan
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"Sex" and "Gender"—in College Admission Applications and in Dictionaries

On her application for admission to a nursing program in a private religious university, a pre-operative transgendered student checked "female" in the box seeking information about "gender" even though her birth certificate identified her as male. The student was admitted to the program on a scholarship but, once the university recognized the facts, it suspended, expelled, and excluded the student from campus for fraud. The student sued, arguing that *gender* and *sex* do not mean the same thing: that "gender" refers to a social or cultural construct, not biological sex, and that a query about "gender" on a college application allowed applicants to check the box with which they self-identified. In other words, in this case, identifying herself as female was legitimate and not a fraudulent report. The legal proceedings that followed highlighted the fact that dictionaries treat the terms *sex* and *gender* in different ways. Beyond that, online dictionaries like Merriam-Webster's that ask questions like "What made you want to look up *gender*?" and post users' answers demonstrate that users, often prompted by discussion university classes in cultural studies and social science, are unclear about these lexical items and curious as to possible semantic differences between them.

As a means of assessing how valuable is reference to dictionary entries in addressing the legitimacy of the student's choice on her application and the university's accusation of fraud, this paper examines how several established, reputable dictionaries treat *sex* and *gender*, and it also examines Urban Dictionary's treatment of the words. The paper argues that, in understanding and resolving such disputes, substantial value resides in consulting both established, reputable dictionaries and those that are crowd-sourced. It also compares the value of formal usage notes such as those in the *American Heritage Dictionary* with direct access to popular understandings as displayed by user's definitions and stated reasons for looking up a word.

Olga Fischer
University of Amsterdam/ACLC

The role played by analogy in grammaticalization: The case of English HAVE-*to* compared to Spanish TENER *de/que*

In line with similar developments involving a possessive verb like HAVE, where HAVE in combination with an infinitive (or past participle) grammaticalized from a full verb into an auxiliary, it has usually been taken for granted that English HAVE-*to* represents a regular case of grammaticalization. Thus, Brinton (1991), Krug (2000), and Łęcki (2010) all more or less accept three developmental stages for the change from: *I have*[*a book*[*to recommend*]] to *I*[[*have to recommend*]*a book*]. In this scenario, the grammaticalization of HAVE-*to* proceeds along a unidirectional path of pragmatic-semantic change with bleaching of possession first, followed by the development of obligative colouring, and with word-order change and rebracketing forming the final stage of the development.

Fischer (1994) challenging the traditional view, argued that the word-order change should be seen as a cause rather than result. This in turn was challenged by Łęcki. For this talk, I will first show that Łęcki's counter-examples to Fischer (1994) are not strong enough to uphold the traditional semantic-pragmatic view of the development. Next I will argue that Fischer's word-order change also cannot be the only cause for the changes involving HAVE-*to.* To come to an understanding of what happened, we need to look not only at the construction itself undergoing change, but also at the synchronic circumstances under which the change took place, i.e. at other constructions that may have played a role in the process. Word order will still be seen as important since, due to the loss of Verb-second, verbal forms came to be fixed in position providing a structural analogy for interpreting HAVE-*to*-inf. as a unit. In addition, however, the new construction was supported analogically by other constructions, notably constructions involving the noun and verb *need*, and the existential use of the verb HAVE. These developments all helped to establish the necessity meaning that HAVE-*to* acquired (rather than e.g. future meaning, another possibility), which the traditional account cannot really explain.

It is of interest to compare English HAVE-*to* to what happened in Spanish with similar source constructions, i.e. TENER *de/que* + infinitive (*tener* 'to hold/have'), because these also grammaticalized into modal auxiliaries of obligation. Does this indicate that grammaticalization processes involving similar source constructions indeed follow similar (universal) pathways (as argued e.g. in Haspelmath 1989, and cf. Heine and Kuteva 2002)? To some extent the Spanish development resembles the one in English in that the fixing of word order to SVO plays a role in both languages, but it is also clear that the analogical circumstances are completely different (involving confusion between a number of different TENER- and HABER-constructions), and that there are also important syntactic differences with respect to pronominal clitics and adjectival inflexions (for the data Olbertz 1998 and Cornillie 2007 were used). The conclusion will be that in Spanish, too, it is the synchronic analogical circumstances that explain the specific path that grammaticalization has followed.

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Jaclyn Fiscus
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Before Translingualism: Bidialectal Curricula Informing Perspectives on Students' Right and Translingualism

Many see the "Students' Right to Their Own Language" (1974) as the landmark moment for students' language rights; it is widely considered the beginning of the Conference on College Composition and Communication's (CCCC) involvement in language policy, and the catalyst for the CCCC's more liberal policies about language use in the classroom (Smitherman 1999). This presentation analyzes two bidialectal curricula "The Psycholinguistics Reading Series: A Bi-dialectal Approach" (1968) and "The Psycholinguistics Oral Language Program: A Bi-dialectal Curriculum" (1969) that pre-date SRTOL to illuminate the historical conversations that spurred the creation of SRTOL. Qualitative analysis for both curricula is taken from the teacher manuals because they contain both the lesson plans and the metacommentary of how to implement the curriculum, which gives a better understanding of how the texts were taught. This presentation provides excerpts of these documents to prove that the intention of the curricula is to practice unidirectional code-switch from AAVE to SAE—a problematic method of the curricula and one of the main reasons that SRTOL was published. Given the current debate about whether code-switching or translingualism should be promoted in schools, this presentation discusses the shortcomings of the code-switching approach, but also considers some of the promising pedagogical implications of this curriculum that may be useful in designing practical applications of translingualism. Generally, an examination of these documents raises questions about the effectiveness of teaching grammar without asking students to be metacognitive about the rhetorical effectiveness of their meaning-making choices; these questions can help us rethink current calls for more methodological approaches to translingualism.

Pierre Fournier
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Stress in French Loanwords in English: Two Dictionary-Based Views

Few quantitative studies about the word stress assignment of French loanwords in contemporary English are to be found. The first part of this study is based on the creation of a representative corpus of French loanwords, with typical French endings, attested in Daniel Jones' dictionary: the *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary* (18th edn). The primary stress location in British and American English is then investigated. It appears that the variety of English is a determining parameter in the stress assignment of French loanwords as well as the distinction between common nouns and proper nouns. The introduction of French loanwords into the English lexicon deeply reshaped the English phonological system. The particular case of stress patterns in French loanwords illustrates the stress conflicts between Romance and Germanic principles in English. The contemporary trend suggests that the French final demarcative stress which was reproduced in English by a final lexical stress is better preserved in American English than in British English. In British English, it appears that the French origin factor is counterbalanced by other criteria. However, the French origin parameter seems to be the key factor for word-final stress patterns in

American English. These preliminary conclusions are drawn thanks to the data which is attested in the *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary*. The second part of the study aims to compare these results with the stress patterns which are found in John C. Wells' dictionary: the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* (3rd edn). Do the stress patterns extracted from Wells' dictionary confirm the preliminary conclusions? The underlying question involves the reliability of dictionary sources. This synchronic analysis of two major reference works in English pronunciation finally includes a diachronic dimension with the comparison of the stress patterns of French loanwords in the first (1990) and the third editions (2008) of the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary*, as well as between the fourteenth revised version (1991) and the eighteenth edition (2011) of the *Cambridge English Pronouncing Dictionary*. Are the stress patterns subject to variation across such a short period?

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DSNA

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First Citations and First Occurrences: How Sensitive to Language Change were 19th and 20th century American Dictionaries?

One of the most celebrated battles between prescriptivists and descriptivists has been over the publication of the Merriam-Webster's 3rd edition (MW3) (Morton 1994; Ottenhoff 1996). An unfortunate residue of that battle has been a public perception that MW3 was attempting to do something new in trying to document the language rather than protecting it. *The American Heritage Dictionary*, for example, was created as a reaction to the aims of MW3, and William Morris, its editor, claimed that a dictionary should instead offer "sensible guidance toward grace and precision which intelligent people seek in a dictionary" (Morris 1969, vi).

With such a view of lexicographical history, it would be easy, as it was for us, to assume that dictionaries would be rather conservative in citing new words for the first time. Indeed, Bryan Garner, editor of a leading usage handbook, lists a word's newfangled feel as reason for objecting to its propriety (Garner 2009). A word would have to be well established before a dictionary would record it, we assumed, and dictionary entries for new words would lag by several years the occurrences of those words in print throughout the nineteenth and earlytwentieth century. Our initial aim in this study was to ascertain just how much dictionaries lagged in documenting new words. We chose a word formation process, namely conversion, that has generated a number or prescriptive pronouncements (e.g. *contact*, *impact*, *dialog*) and using the Corpus of Historical American English (COHA) (Davies 2009), we developed a corpus-based measure of a word's established status in the lexicon. We then compared the corpus data to the citation history of words throughout 12 dictionaries published since Webster's 1828 edition, in roughly ten-year increments. This comparison showed that rather than lag established use, dictionary citations routinely anticipated it for new words formed by conversion. More interesting, the first citations in dictionaries routinely came as early as the first occurrences in the COHA corpus. This evidence suggests that not only have American dictionaries been quick to incorporate new uses of words, but that dictionary editors have been finely tuned to developments in the language. Somehow, editors with their citation slips were able to capture change in the empirical record as accurately as today's large-scale, representative corpora. This is not to say that corpora are not a welcome tool for lexicography, but rather that if these results turn out to be the same for other types of word-formation, pre-corpus methods such as citation slips still deserve a fair amount of respect for their empirical accuracy.

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SHEL

R. D. Fulk
Indiana University

Free nominal compounding in early English: an overview

One of the least-studied differences between Old English (OE) and early Middle English (ME) is the different treatment of compounds in the two. There is a high incidence of nominal (and adjectival) compounds in OE that do not occur in prose, where, with few exceptions, only lexicalized compounds occur. For example, OE *bealocwealm* 'baleful death' and *hyge-mēðe* 'weary of mind' are true nonce-compounds that occur only in verse, whereas *ealdormann* 'chief' is found in texts of all types. By contrast, in regard to Middle English, it is remarkable that non-lexicalized compounds like the former are exceedingly rare in texts recorded after the Norman Conquest. Unlike in Old and Middle English, in modern English, new compounds tend to be lexicalized precipitately (e.g. *stonewall* and *hophead*), and free compounding produces multi-component strings like *digital data management emergency plan* and *employee pass program payment option*, comparable to formations in other modern Germanic languages, e.g. New High German *der Donaudampfschifffahrtsgesellschaftskapitän* 'the Danube Steamship Navigation Company captain' and Danish *multiplikationsudregningstabelshæfteopbevaringsreolsproduktionsfacilitet* 'production facility of storage shelves of boxes for notebooks for the calculation of multiplication tables'. Accordingly, this paper has several aims, one of which is to identify the differences in compounding patterns in early English and Modern English. Another is to document the decline of nonce-compounding over the course of the Old English period and into the early Middle English era. Such documentation is complicated by the requirement that true compounds be differentiated from other bi- and multi-morphemic formations, as determinable on the basis of generic context (poetry vs. prose), metrical treatment, constituent types (free morphemes vs. derivational affixes), and type of juncture between the compounded constituents (inflected vs. uninflected). For example, OE *mancynn* 'humankind' is plainly a lexicalized compound, occurring very commonly in prose, its second constituent *-cynn* being allowed in weak metrical positions in verse, and its first constituent uninflected. A further aim of the paper is to explore the linguistic implications of the diachronic abandonment of free compounding over time. Is it due to the reduction of stress levels on syllables without primary stress assumed for late Old English and early Middle English, or might other factors have come into play? Since nonce-compounding is effectively confined to poetic texts in Old English, the possibility that deterioration of poetic traditions played a role must be taken into account and weighed against purely linguistic factors. The history of free compounding thus offers a noteworthy opportunity to examine the interplay (and the interdependence) of the linguistic and philological domains in language change. Finally, a further aim of the paper is to consider what can and cannot be known about compounds preserved only in written records of a pre-modern language, by comparison to the range of variables that contribute to the analysis of compounding in Present-Day English, which include phonology (e.g. Vogel 2010), morphology (e.g. Ackema and Neeleman 2010), syntax (e.g. Harley 2009) and semantics (e.g. Lieber 2009).

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SHEL

Emily Furner

Definitions and Meaning: an Exploration of When Words Become "Accepted" into American English

Nicknamed "the editing Bible", the *Chicago Manual of Style* contains 1026 pages of editing rules. However, the manual does not have a rule for when a new word requires an in-text definition and when it does not, even though it is normal for editors to provide glosses for unknown words. The purpose of this study is to explore the time frame of the process for a new word to drop its gloss using the *Google Books American English* corpus as my research instrument. I hypothesized that words will take about three years after their birth in the English language before they appear 90% of the time without their gloss in the corpus. However, I also predicted that words that are born from 1980 to now will have a shorter time on average that they are defined due to the prevalence of the Internet and global technology.

The *Google Books American English* corpus (GB) is organized by decade from 1810–2000s. I chose ten nouns that came into the English language during each decade represented in GB because nouns are the most frequently glossed part of speech. Words were chosen through the Oxford English Dictionary's (OED) Advanced Search function set to find lexical innovations that came into the language in the middle of each respective decade. I searched for each word in GB to find the first few occurrences of the word and recorded what kind of definitions (or *glosses*) accompanied the new word, noting the date of each occurrence. Then, I found the first year of publication when the word is used 90% of the time without a definition by analyzing corpus data.

The difference between these two dates (appearance in the lexicon and 90% non-defined) was interpreted as the time span that the word needed to become sufficiently "known" enough to not need a gloss. I averaged the ten words' time frames to find the normal time frame needed, by decade, for a word to become "known." I then compared these time frames between decades to see if more recent decades have shorter time frames for words than past decades. The time frames of all the words were also averaged in order to find the average time frame overall a word takes to drop its definition in the American printing world. I also compared the data between registers to see if register was a significant factor affecting the time frame.

A secondary outcome of my study was examining the typology of glosses of the selected word list set. In my pilot study for this project, I found four main types of glosses that occurred with a new word. They were: *relative clauses*; *appositions*; *"or" phrases*; and *following sentences*. In looking at when these specific types of glosses in the corpus were used with new words, I was able to trace words and their definitions through the years, paying attention to the specific situations where one gloss was used over another.

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Peter Gilliver

Oxford English Dictionary

The quotation collectors: a conspectus of readers for the *Oxford English Dictionary*

Throughout the history of the *Oxford English Dictionary* its editors have invited contributions from the public. Anyone, throughout the English-speaking world, could help by reading, and sending in quotations from, texts. This openness to external contributions became a key factor in the *OED*'s success, forming the bedrock of evidence on which the Dictionary is based. Those who have read for the *OED* over the last century and a half make up an enormous and fascinatingly varied group of people, among whom there are many whose individual contributions have had a discernible influence on the Dictionary's content; some, indeed, have contributed so voluminously that different parts of the Dictionary can be seen to reflect their reading choices—though of course the volume of quotations contributed is not necessarily a reliable indication of how useful the quotations will be found by the lexicographer. My paper will make use of published and archival sources to examine the work of a selection of these individuals, chronologically spread out over the whole history of the project from its beginnings to the present day. As with all those diverse groups of people who helped shaped the Dictionary in other ways, many individual readers would make worthwhile subjects of study in their own right; while I hope to be able to present some of the more interesting biographical details they can also be used collectively as a lens through which to view the changing nature of the Dictionary and its methodology over time, considering such issues as the choice of texts read, and the interplay of individual tastes with general ideas about canonicity.

SHEL

Peter J. Grund
University of Kansas

"answearinge her in noe vndecent manner": Describing and Evaluating Speech Events in Early Modern English Witness Depositions

When discussing forms and functions of speech representation, previous research has focused on two things: the reporting expression (*say*, *report*, *claim*, etc.) and the different modes of representing speech (direct speech, indirect speech, free indirect speech, etc.). However, language users who represent a previous speech event or depict fictional speech often add other markers that describe the previous or depicted speech event. Although such cues often contribute significant information about the nature of the speech event and about how language users want the speech representation to be interpreted, they have received very little attention in previous studies (cf. Clark & Gerrig 1990; Oostdijk 1990; de Haan 1996; Thompson 1996).

My investigation charts the use of various markers to describe the nature of represented speech in witness depositions in Early Modern English, drawn from *An Electronic Text Edition of Depositions, 1560–1760*, or ETED (Kytö, Grund, & Walker 2011). I focus on the linguistic realization of speech descriptors (e.g., adverbs, prepositional phrases, etc.) and their semantic properties, such as marking manner and intention (e.g., "in verie dispitefull & raging & railing manner," "smilingly"), or "hedging" (e.g. "or words to the like effect"). I also explore the pragmatic, contextual importance of such descriptors, correlating the usage with the type of court case, scribal usage, and type of speech representation mode. Drawing on research into stance in Present-Day English (Hunston & Thompson 2000; Englebretson 2007), I argue that many of the speech descriptors are evaluative and hence play an important role in the deponents' or the scribes' positioning of the reported speech as relevant and significant evidence for the case at hand.

My study thus contributes to the recent, growing body of research of the forms and functions of speech representation in the history of English (see e.g., Moore 2011). Emphasizing the evaluative nature of speech descriptors, I demonstrate that aspects of speech representation were essential stance resources in historical periods, as they have been shown to be in present-day contexts (e.g., Holt & Clift 2007).

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Walter Hakala
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The Right to Define: Religion and Authority in late Nineteenth-Century Urdu Lexicography

The history of lexicography in South Asia reflects the many forms of multilingualism that prevail throughout the region. Part of this legacy of multilingualism is the ethnic diversity of the lexicographers who helped establish vernacular languages as linguistic vehicles capable of conveying much of the literary and political authority of so-called cosmopolitan languages like Arabic, English, Persian, and Sanskrit. With the nineteenth-century rise of linguistic nationalism, languages became increasingly tied to nationalist political ends. Coincident with this hardening of the ethnic and linguistic boundaries was the rise of lexicography as discipline distinct from other forms of literary production. Many of these developments can be attributed to the influence of European lexicographers for whom the compilation of dictionaries was intimately connected with other colonial projects like the census which served to establish categories of identity that persist to this day. Moreover, apprenticeships with European lexicographers became a form of institutional accreditation that served to differentiate amateur from professional lexicographers. The papers included in the proposed DSNA panel on South Asian lexicography will examine the reception of dictionaries produced by figures who, associated with the "wrong" linguistic, religious, socioeconomic, or national identity, have been dismissed as unqualified or otherwise lacking credibility as lexicographers.

The obscure career of Chiranji Lal, the Hindu author of an important nineteenth-century Urdu dictionary *Makhzan al-Muhawarat* ('A Store-House of Idioms'), is the focus of this paper. Despite his lengthy apprenticeship with S.W. Fallon, a prominent British educational official, folklorist, and lexicographer, Chiranji's useful dictionary has languished alongside the contemporaneous and more illustrious *Farhang-i Asafiyah*, compiled by Sayyid Ahmad Dihlavi. Sayyid Ahmad, like Chiranji Lal, was from Delhi and had apprenticed with Fallon. Sayyid Ahmad, however, differed from Chiranji Lal in that he could claim descent from an elite Muslim family. An early review of *Farhang-i Asafiyah* prepared by the prominent Urdu poet Altaf Husain Hali declared two conditions to be requisite for the compiler of a "national" dictionary of the Urdu language: the author must be from Delhi, where the purest form of the language is spoken, and he must be Muslim. In the midst of the increasingly communalized linguistic environment of late-nineteenth-century northern India, Hindu lexicographers like Chiranji could no longer fit neatly into the emerging Islamicized Urdu literary culture, a sociolinguistic situation that Christopher King has described as the shift from Urdu = Muslim + Hindu and Hindi = Hindu + Muslim to Hindi = Hindu and Urdu = Muslim.

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Michael Hancher
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Advertisements in Dictionaries

A neglected aspect of book history and bibliography, neglected even in Gerard Genette's *Paratexts: Thresholds of Interpretation* (1987; transl. 1997), is advertising in books. This presentation will consider the evolution of advertising in a particular kind of book—British and American dictionaries—from a very modest beginning in the fifth edition of Thomas Blount's *Glossographia* (1681) to the contemporary efflorescence of advertising in Merriam-Webster Online (http://www.merriam-webster.com/). This evolution will be foregrounded against a background of changing practices of advertising in books generally, including a period in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries when, in Great Britain, such advertising was nominally subject to taxation. Some attention will be paid also to shifting dictionary definitions of *advertisement* and related terms, and to the changing pragmatics of advertisement and advertising in dictionaries: advertisement as representation; advertising as commercial branding; advertisements as offers to sell a publisher's other books (through booksellers); and advertisements as subscribed and purchased by third parties to sell unrelated goods. Special attention will be paid to the intrabook and, now, online advertising practices of G. and C. Merriam Co., long the leading American publisher of dictionaries.

Kristin Hanson
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Literary Representation of Linguistic Change: Formal Variation in the Alliteration of Seamus Heaney's *Beowulf*: A New Verse Translation

Seamus Heaney (2000, pp. xxviii-xxix) describes his verse form in *Beowulf*: A New Verse Translation as follows: "In one area, my own labours have been less than thorough-going. I have not followed the strict metrical rules that bound the Anglo-Saxon *scop*. I have been guided by the fundamental pattern of four stresses to the line, but I allow myself several transgressions. For example, I don't always employ alliteration, and sometimes I alliterate only in one half of the line ... In general, the alliteration varies from the shadowy to the substantial, from the properly to the improperly distributed."

Heaney's judgmental account of his labours is somewhat mischievous. He does not replicate the verse form of his original but instead invents a linguistically well-defined verse form of his own. In this paper I develop a generative account of this alliterative form. First, I show that although the syllables that carry the alliteration are not defined by a metrical form, nor even always stressed, they are always linguistically prominent in some well-defined way, such as being word-initial, that likewise conditions linguistic alternations and changes as in, for example, the English hypocoristic formations *Patt*y, *Tricia* from *Patricia* (McCarthy & Prince 1988):

(1) a. the chief they <u>r</u>evered who had long <u>r</u>uled them (31)
 b. he is truly <u>n</u>oble. This is <u>n</u>o mere (250)

I then use this generalization to show that the segments that carry the alliteration are sometimes only similar rather than identical:

(2)	a. Shield was still thriving when his time came	(26)
	b. they shouldered him out to the sea's flood,	(30)
	c. Might resist and beat off sudden attacks	(174)
	d. Nobody tried to keep him from going	

These similarities are not in any systematic way reducible to spelling, to Ulster English neutralizations or characteristics (Kallen 1992), or to perceptual confusability in the onset positions relevant to alliteration (Minkova 2003). Collectively, however, they are similar in ways that define trajectories along which linguistic alternations or changes take place (Steriade 2009) as in, for example, not only the variant pronunciations of *schedule* with [s] or [S] but also the developments explaining the correspondences of Grimm's Law like [k] and [g] in *acre, agriculture*.

In this way, I suggest, Heaney's alliteration conveys a sense of the linguistic history of the language of his translation, in a subtle version of the effect of the lexical choices like the Anglo-Saxon *thole* retained in Ulster English which he discusses in his introduction. At the same time, it remains a well-defined form capable of ranging, just as he says "from the shadowy to the substantial," allowing him to create expressive effects which make his poem compelling as it moves back and forth between straightforward narrative and intense lyricism.

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Donca, Steriade. 2009. The phonology of perceptibility effects: the P-map and its consequences for constraint organization. In Kristin Hanson & Sharon Inkelas (eds.), *The nature of the word: studies in honor of Paul Kiparsky*. Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

McCarthy, John & Alan Prince. 1998. Prosodic morphology. In Andrew Spencer & Arnold Zwicky (eds.), *Handbook of morphology*, 283-305. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.

SHEL

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Metrical Alternation in *The Fortunes of Men*

In the study of Old English poetics, scholars tend to look at the meter of a given poem, or the overall tradition, as a whole unit.[1] Rarely do they pick out a single line or verse and demonstrate the importance of the metrical pattern in that unit.[2] The lack of attention is hardly surprising and generally justifiable:

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[1] See for example A. J. Bliss, *The Meter of Beowulf*, revised edn. (Oxford: Blackwell, 1967); B. R Hutcheson, *Old English Poetic Metre* (Cambridge: D. S. Brewer, 1995);Haruko Momma, *The Composition of Old English Poetry* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1997); and Tomas A. Bredehoft, *Early English Metre* (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 2005).

[2] Exceptions tend to be in places where the meter is particularly interesting in relation to the content, as when the demonstrative *þas* must receive stress in even though it comes directly before the word it

Old English poets mix the different verse types as a rule, actively avoiding too much repetition, so it is difficult to say that a given type-D pattern in the midst of other types is particularly significant, even though a type D could be considered a weightier verse than ones that do not contain secondary stress.

In some poems, however, the alternation in the metrical patterns can be more significant and therefore possible to interpret. An example of one such poem is *The Fortunes of Men*. This poem is interesting because it is a wisdom poem that relies heavily on traditional gnomic statements and diction,[3] and yet also has relatively long explanations or even short narratives that go along with the statements. The contrast creates distinctive metrical patterning because gnomic statements can be highly stylized, so they stand out metrically from the more narrative moments. Furthermore, the poem has a small number of hypermetric verses, four to be exact, which can also be clearly distinguished from the material around it. By using multiple distinguishing metrical characteristics, the poet composed a work in which individual metrical patterns are significant.

In this paper, I analyze how the poet uses metrical alternation to elucidate and emphasize the major themes of the poem. The repeated gnomic diction creates the aphoristic backbone of the poem, which stands out due to the meter, onto which the other material is attached. The hypermetric lines use this same gnomic diction, but give this one moment in the poem a heightened significance because of the increased length in the line. Thus the poet can expand on and explore any of the themes while still keeping the gnomic purpose foremost in the audience's awareness.

DSNA

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Evaluating the Potential for a Standard Spanglish

Any discussion of Spanglish as an emergent linguistic form requires an investigation of its origins and potential definitions. Spanglish deserves attention as various processes of legitimization occur around it. In this essay, I examine an early attempt to standardize the language and evaluate the degree of success for a dictionary project that focuses on a mixed language. I acknowledge that this mixing is a site of agency for various generations of Latinos living in the United States—it allows individuals to retain their first language while still engaging with the language of access in border spaces in the US. However, Spanglish has many critics coming from both the English and Spanish speaking communities. Many scholars, such as Ardila (2005), Fought (2006), and Otheguy & Stern (2011), do not have a consensus on its status as a language, as opposed to a dialect or other linguistic variation. Though, despite its status, it remains a linguistic form that remains loaded with creative and social potential. I focus on *The Official Spanglish Dictionary*, written by Bill Cruz & Bill Teck (1998), to determine what form a standardizing effort with Spanglish may take. The authors are writing from a uniquely Cuban-American perspective and are

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modifies in "*geond þas weorold*" (*The Wanderer* 58b), suggesting that the poet is making an implicit distinction between *this* world and the next.

[3] Gnomic diction can be characterized by specialized use of the verbs *sceal* and *beon*, often in the subjunctive; see Marie Nelson, "'Is' and 'Ought' in the Exeter Book Maxims," *Southern Folklore Quarterly*, 45 (1981): 109-121; Carolyne Larrington, *A Store of Common Sense : Gnomic Theme and Style in Old Icelandic and Old English Wisdom Poetry* (Oxford: Clarendon Press, 1993); and Paul Cavill, *Maxims in Old English poetry* (Cambridge: D. S. Brewer, 1999).

very clear that this version of Spanglish is reflective of their cultural and regional perspective. Nonetheless, this text is an attempt at standardization of a language that had to this point resisted even a concrete definition. Cruz & Teck believe that their dictionary still leaves the door open for other Latino communities to create their own works on colloquial Spanglishes. It was the first of several projects that sought to codify aspects of this language across communities—including Ilan Stavans' own Spanglish dictionary (2003). Such work has the potential not just for establishing communities, or solidifying them, but also for redefining what these language communities are to those outside of the unique border spaces that produce Spanglish varieties. I argue that Cruz & Teck's work is a strong first attempt at descriptive dictionary and is a fruitful place to start with a process of standardization that might influence wider usage and establish a public perception of Spanglish as legitimate.

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Cruz, Bill & Bill Teck. 1998. *The Official Spanglish Dictionary*. New York: Fireside.

Fought, Carmen. 2006. Talkin' with mi Gente (Chicano English). In Walt Wolfram & Ben Ward (eds.), *American Voices: How Dialects Differ From Coast to Coast*, 233-237. Malden, MA: Blackwell.

Otheguy, Ricardo & Nancy Stern. 2011. On So-Called Spanglish. *International Journal Of Bilingualism* 15(1), 85-100.

Stavans, Ilan. 2003. *Spanglish: The Making of a New American Language*. New York, NY: Harper Perennial.

SHEL

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Obligation/(logical) necessity expressions: A diachronic study based on personal communication texts

The firm establishment of emergent modals in the obligation/(logical) necessity domain (e.g. Collins 2009: 33) presents an interesting case for examining the relation between core modals and emergent modals. So far, historical studies have focused mainly on a small set of modal forms with obligation/(logical) necessity meanings, notably, *must*, *have to*, *(have) got to*, and *need to* (e.g. Smith 2003; Mair 2006; Close & Aarts 2010; Johansson 2013), and they generally show that emergent modals *have to* and *need to* are superseding core modal *must*.

To complement previous historical studies on obligation/(logical) necessity modality, the present study will take a wider view, including a number of lexical modals as well as core modals and emergent modals (see Appendix), and make a preliminary attempt to track the historical development of the obligation/(logical) necessity system in English. The aims of the present study are to address the following questions: (1) Is there any frequency change to the obligation/(logical) necessity system under investigation? (2) Is there any change in pattern of use within the system? (3) If there is, what direction does it point in?

The data used for the present analysis are drawn from spoken and written personal communication genres (i.e. drama and letters) from ARCHER (*A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers*). It will be shown based on the present data that the obligation/(logical) necessity system under investigation has witnessed a slight increase in use over time; however, there has been an overall movement towards the use of less imposing expressions, typified by an ascendency of objective obligation *have to*, an increasing use of main verb *need*, and a general decline of deontic *must*. Overall, the present results seem compatible with socio-psychological motivations commonly invoked to account for restructuring within obligation/(logical) necessity modality, such as "democratization" (Leech et al. 2009: 114-6) or "a decline in forms expressing strong commitment" (Close & Aarts 2010: 78).

Appendix. Forms included for the present study

Category	Forms
Core modals	*must*, *need (aux)*, *ought (to)*, *should*
Emergent modals	*be supposed to*, *(had) better*, *(have) got to (gotta)*, *have to*, *need to*
Lexical modals	*be bound to*, *be certain*, *be compelled to*, *be essential*, *be forced to*, *be obliged to*, *be requisite*, *be sure*, *be (un)necessary*, *be vital*, *certainly*, *compulsion*, *compulsory*, *definitely*, *doubtless*, *inevitably*, *necessarily*, *necessity*, *necessitate*, *need* (n), *need* (v), *needs* (adv), *no doubt* (adv), *obligation*, *obligatory*, *require*, *requirement*, *surely*, *undoubtedly*

ARCHER-3.2 = A Representative Corpus of Historical English Registers version 3.2.

1990–1993/2002/2007/2010/2013/2016. Originally compiled under the supervision of Douglas Biber and Edward Finegan at Northern Arizona University and University of Southern California; modified and expanded by subsequent members of a consortium of universities. Current member universities are Bamberg, Freiburg, Heidelberg, Helsinki, Lancaster, Leicester, Manchester, Michigan, Northern Arizona, Santiago de Compostela, Southern California, Trier, Uppsala, Zurich. Examples of usage taken from ARCHER were obtained under the terms of the ARCHER User Agreement.

Close, Joanne & Bas Aarts. 2010. Current change in the modal system of English. In Ursula Lenker, Judith Huber & Robert Mailhammer (eds.), English Historical Linguistics 2008: Selected Papers from the Fifteenth International Conference on English Historical Linguistics (ICEHL 15), Munich, 24–30 August 2008. Volume I: The History of English Verbal and Nominal Constructions, 165–181. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Collins, Peter. 2009. Modals and Quasi-modals in English. Amsterdam: Rodopi.

Johansson, Stig. 2013. Modals and semi-modals of obligation in American English: Some aspects of developments from 1990 until the present day. In Bas Aarts, Joanne Close, Geoffrey Leech & Sean Wallis (eds.), The Verb Phrase in English: Investigating Recent Language Change with Corpora, 372–380. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leech, Geoffrey, Marianne Hundt, Christian Mair & Nicholas Smith. 2009. Change in Contemporary English: A Grammatical Study. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mair, Christian. 2006. Twentieth-century English: History, Variation, and Standardization. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Smith, Nicholas. 2003. Changes in the modals and semi-modals of strong obligation and epistemic necessity in recent British English. In Roberta Facchinetti, Manfred Krug & Frank Palmer (eds.), Modality in Contemporary English, 241–266. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

SHEL

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The Emergence and Diffusion of the Diatonic Stress Pattern in Modern English: A Synchronic and Diachronic Approach

This paper makes an inquiry into the question as to how and why the diatonic stress pattern, as represented by PDE *récord* (n.)/*recórd* (v.), came into being in the late sixteenth century and then diffused slowly but surely across the lexicon of noun-verb alternating disyllables. Historical studies made so far on the topic have regarded the development of the diatonic contour as a typical example of lexical diffusion (a term coined by Wang), and the present author's empirical findings agree with them on the view. Previous investigations, however, have largely focused on the question which words turned diatonic at a time or another in Modern English, but almost failed to address the question how and why they turned diatonic when they did, or the actuation problem, to borrow Weinreich et al.'s phrase. In my previous attempts to solve the problem I proposed a number of linguistic and historical motives behind the diatonic stress shift, and I find two of them possibly promising enough to deserve closer examination. One, synchronically and linguistically oriented, is an extrametricality account from metrical phonology, while the other, diachronically and historically oriented, is a likely impact of the great influx of Latinate loanwords on the morphological and metrical structure of English words.

According to an extrametricality account, the diatonic contour of *tórment* (n.) and *tormént* (v.), for example, could be explained as triggered in conformity of an extrametrical rule that specifies that the final syllable of the noun be excluded from metrical counting whereas the counterpart of the verb be counted in. Despite its theoretical potential, however, it remains unclear how effective such a metrical account holds for the schedule of diatones newly developing in time. In other words, the question is to be asked how the synchronic and theoretical account can be reconciled with diachronically changing facts. Harnessed by the historical database of diatones that I have culled from Modern English dictionaries and other references over the past years, I will approach the problem by examining whether there is any correlation between the metrical structure of words that turned diatonic and the time when they did. Evaluating the possible effect of Latinate loanwords on the diatonic stress shift will be another concern in the present study. I will attempt to sort out an enormous number of Latinate loanwords that flowed in the English lexicon around the sixteenth century in order to gain an insight into the diachronic process of their feeding into new diatones.

Phillips, Betty S. 1984. Word Frequency and the Actuation of Sound Change. *Language* 60, 320–42.

Phillips, Betty S. 2006. *Word Frequency and Lexical Diffusion*. Palgrave Macmillan, Basingstoke.

Sherman, D. 1975. Noun-Verb Stress Alternation: An Example of the Lexical Diffusion of Sound Change in English. *Linguistics* 159, 43–71.

Wang, William S-Y. 1977 [1969]. Competing Changes as a Cause of Residue, *Language* 45, 9–25. (Rpt. in *Readings in Historical Phonology: Chapters in the Theory of Sound Change*. In Philip Baldi & Ronald N. Werth (eds.), Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State University Press, 236–57.)

Weinreich, Uriel, William Labov & Marvin I. Herzog. 1968. Empirical Foundations for a Theory of Language Change. In W. P. Lehmann & Yakov Malkiel (eds.), *Directions for Historical Linguistics*, 95-188. U of Texas Press.

SHEL

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Does a Slingshot Sling Shots?
Difficulties in Identifying English Cutthroat Compounds

Cutthroats are agentive and instrumental exocentric verb-noun [V+N] compounds that name people and objects by describing their function (i.e., a cutthroat is a person who cuts throats). They are composed of a transitive verb and its direct object. Cutthroats are freely productive in Romance languages, which have a V.O. (verb-object) structure and are left-headed. English, which is V.O. and right-headed, has slight native productivity (Clark et al, 1986) that has been amplified and augmented by French borrowings (e.g., *coupe-gorge* and *wardecorps*). English has been slowly producing new cutthroats since the 1200s up through 2015, mainly in the form of nonce personal insults. Most cutthroats are obsolete slang, but about 40, including *pickpocket*, *pinchpenny*, *rotgut*, and *spitfire*, are commonly known in Modern English.

Gast (2008) compiled a database of "over 400" cutthroat compounds. Using his references, Hughes (2012) created a separate database with 483 cutthroats. In subsequent research, that list expanded to 815 compounds, 50 of which (*slingshot*, *bundletail*, *rattle-head*, etc.) currently lack the evidence to be definitively classified as cutthroats.

Classifying the structure of a compound in any language is more complicated than it appears, especially when the evidence is only available in dictionaries, where there is little context. The two constituents in a compound can have any possible relationship, but lack the syntactic markers (which are available in larger phrases and sentences) to show it. There is no formula that determines how compound components relate to each other. Languages rely on features such as headedness, gender, case, and word class markers to guide their readers to the intended meaning.

The English language does not feature gender, case, or a regular use of word class markers. This has resulted in high productivity of synthetic compounding patterns such as [N+V+er] and [V+ing+N], which use suffixes to compensate for the ambiguity unleashed by homonyms and zero derivation. Headedness, then, is the only reliable attribute in the pursuit of understanding English compounds. However, cutthroats are exocentric, and therefore headless.

How, then, is it possible to find 815 compounds from a rare pattern, and positively identify them without the benefit of syntactic markers? The answer lies in taking advantage of the restricted tendencies of English cutthroats, namely the semantic clumping of certain verbs, nouns, and topics.

Some topics such as criminals, misers, drunks, and children's games appear again and again, while many others have never been observed. Verbs also clump (*break*, *turn*, *make*, *lack*, *kill*), with the top 11 verbs accounting for 150 compounds alone. Nouns recur as well, the most common being *water*, *penny*, *devil*, and *nothing*.

Locating cutthroats is a difficult task on its own, since the topics covered within the pattern are not found in standard dictionaries or in well-documented fields such as law, religion, or medicine. Instead, cutthroats are memorable vulgar insults, occupational surnames, and regional terms for plants and animals. Therefore, any document in English with ties to the vernacular may be a source of forgotten cutthroats, and can be explored using the following method:

With the OED Online as the starting point, the 260 known verbs in the pattern are searched in reference materials such as dictionaries of criminal cant and surname databases. Synonyms of those verbs are also searched, often resulting in new finds. In digital databases, where searches are not limited by alphabetical listing, new cutthroats may also be found using common nouns and topics. Progress is made by alternately pursuing leads from each of these three clusters. In one example, *kill-priest* (port wine) led to *strangle-priest*, *strangle-goose*, *saddle-goose,* and *saddle-nag*. The high productivity of [kill+N] and compounds related to the clergy led to a search of other [strangle+N] compounds, then [V+goose] compounds, and finally [saddle+N] compounds. Research continues in this manner, constantly expanding and strengthening the web of cutthroat verbs, nouns, and topics.

With each new connection, more cutthroat candidates are rediscovered, and the membership of previously indeterminate cutthroats can be decided. The current list of questionable compounds will likely increase with further searches, then contract as new data integrates them into the pattern. Further work can be done by seeking new cutthroats, analyzing the expanded database, and exploring Romance cutthroats, all in an effort to advance the understanding of this shadowy footnote of English morphology.

Bauer, L. (2008). English Exocentric Compounds. (English version of Les composés exocentriques de l'anglais). In Dany Amiot (ed.), *La composition dans une perspective typologique*, Arras: Artois Presses Université, 2008, 35-47.

Clark, E.V., Hecht, B.F, and Mulford, R.C. (1986). Coining complex compounds in English: affixes and word order in acquisition. *Linguistics*, 24. Mouton de Gruyter.

Gast, V. (2008). Verb-noun compounds in English and German. Available at: http://userpage.fu-berlin.de/~gast/home/papdf/v-ncomp.pdf (Accessed 13 Mar 2014).

Hughes, B. (2012). *From Turncoats to Backstabbers: How Headedness and Word Order Determine the Productivity of Agentive and Instrumental Compounding in English.* Unpublished master's thesis. University of York, York.

Moyna, M.I. (2011). *Compound Words in Spanish: Theory and History*. John Benjamins Publishing Company. Amsterdam.

Tuggy, D. (2003). Abrelatas And Scarecrow Nouns: Exocentric Verb-Noun Compounds As Illustrations of Basic Principles of Cognitive Grammar. *International Journal of English Studies*. 3(2). 25-61.

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The grammatical status of *however*

Popular grammar books have long admonished their readers for using conjunctive adverbs as coordinating conjunctions, and nowhere more than in the case of *however.* But the very force of this prescription suggests that the rule is far from intuitive for many users of Standard English: examples of *however* taking on a syntactically coordinating function (equivalent to *but)* are not difficult to find, nor are they limited to unedited sources. The *Harvard Review*, for instance, recently announced on its submissions webpage that "Writers at all stages of their careers are invited to apply, however, we can only publish a very small fraction of the material we receive." Is prescriptivism clouding our view of a linguistic change in the grammatical status of *however*?

Drawing on data from the Corpus of Contemporary American English and the Corpus of Historical American English, this paper critically examines *however*'s traditional status as a conjunctive adverb. We argue that the apparent "confusion" about whether it can serve as a clausal coordinator may be closely related to its increasing preference, over the past century-and-a-half, for clause-initial placement.

A comparative analysis of *however* with other conjunctive adverbs—on the level of both large scale sentence-placement patterns, and the rules by which these word classes continue to be explained by grammarians—shows that *however* is not alone in its potential for a mixed function. Descriptive grammars of the last twenty years have granted conjunctive adverbs other than *however* the ability to act grammatically as coordinating conjunctions or coordinators. Huddleston and Pullum (2002), for example, categorize *so* and *yet* as connective adverbs that also "may be regarded as marginal members of the coordinator category" (1319), a categorization dependent largely on the terms' sentence placement. There is substantial evidence, then, that the "ungrammatical" uses of *however* are not the syntactic outliers that they are so often presented as being—as they are, even by Huddleston and Pullum. This paper presents the hypothesis that *however* is following a historical trajectory similar to the "marginal coordinators" *so* and *yet*, whose mixed function is now accepted as standard; and it explores the extent to which shifting patterns in sentence placement preferences—as a result, perhaps, of colloquialization— may be a determining factor in the changing grammatical function of such terms.

Huddleston, Rodney & Geoffrey K. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

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A diachronic and synchronic research on the changing of uniformed expressions from *those who* to *those that*

This study investigates the following points from diachronic and synchronic perspectives: (i) why does the usage of *those that* imply to people and how is the usage established? and (ii) historically, when was the usage initiated?

According to the descriptions of dictionaries published in Europe and Northern America and previous research on the usage of *those who* and *those that*, *those who* is defined as being used to address people and *those that* is used to address things. For example, Jespersen (1954: 99) describes that "many writers would now use *those who* in speaking of persons, and *those that* in speaking of things (where *those which* is also possible, though not natural)." Descriptions of the phrase *those who* in dictionaries and previous research reveal that *those who* is used in the following syntactic patterns: (a) *those who* works as a subject (e.g., *Those who* could not walk were left to die by the roadside. (*MED*[2])), (b) the pattern, *there are* + *those who* (e.g., There are *those who* disapprove of all forms of gambling. (*LDCE*[6])), and (c) *those who* acts as the object of a preposition (e.g., The council will show no leniency towards *those who* break its law. (Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 1510)).

(i) Data obtained from contemporary English corpora report that the usage of *those that* implies people and that this usage has the same syntactic patterns as those of *those who*. In addition, *those that* has other syntactic patterns; for example, *one of those that* and the object of a verb (e.g., Remember *those that* have died of AIDS. (COCA)). Furthermore, *those that* also simultaneously denotes people and things (e.g., Most agree that indigenous communities and peoples are *those that* demonstrate historical continuity (and have occupied land) before colonization or invasion, ... (COCA)). The conclusion of this study elucidates why *those that* is used to refer to people is due to the working of *that* as a relative pronoun. If an antecedent includes either people and things on one hand or people and animals on the other hand, then *that* is chosen as a relative pronoun. The grammatical rule applies to *those that*; hence, *those that* is used to imply people. Consequently, *those that* is a uniformed expression to denote both people and things.

(ii) Data obtained from historical corpora (COHA and Modern English Collection) show that the usage of *those that* implying people appeared before the establishment of the prescriptive grammar (around the 1760s). Certainly, the usage of *those that* implying people has been observed since the 1760s, but the frequency of usage is relatively high before the 1760s than that observed after the 1760s. In other words, the usage of *those who* implies people and *those that* implies things has been established because of the prescriptive grammar.

This study historically demonstrates that *those that* functions in its original manner (i.e., implying people), because functioning of the prescriptive grammar is weakening and *those that* implying people is not a new but an old expression.

COCA: The Corpus of Contemporary American English.
COHA: The Corpus of Historical American English.
Huddleston, R. & G. K. Pullum. 2002. *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Jespersen, O. 1954. *A Modern English Grammar on Historical Principles* PART III – Syntax. Vol 2. London: Routledge.
LDCE[6]: *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English.* 6th edn. 2014. London: Longman.
MED[2]: *Macmillan English Dictionary*. 2nd edn. 2007. Oxford: Macmillan Education.
Modern English Collection.

DSNA

Ilan Kernerman
K Dictionaries

An overview of multilingual projects at K Dictionaries

K Dictionaries (KD) first became involved in multilingual lexicography in 2000, with an English dictionary featuring 21 language versions of Password semi-bilingual English learner's dictionary (GlobalDix, 2001, Kielikone). The GlobalDix spine consisted of an English monolingual learner's dictionary, featuring in addition translation equivalents for each sense of the entry. By joining several language translations around the English lexical item users had access to different languages simultaneously, and with the aid of smart digital applications it became possible also to look up any language pair via the English intermediary – with the inherent drawback that looked-up items could comprise only *translations*, not "real" *headwords*. KD has continued to update this resource over the years, offering it in cooperation with partners worldwide for various media and language combinations. A new version including 2,000 new English entries and their translations in all current 43 languages is being launched.

The up-to-date English multilingual dataset now serves as a base to extract a reverse bilingual index for any of the languages to English, and edit it, i.e. turn the word and phrase translations into L1 headwords and revise their links to the appropriate senses of the English entries. Then, the new headword connects by its specific English match to all other languages, producing a semi-automatically generated multilingual glossary for any language to the others (40+/40+). Since the translation from one language to the others is made indirectly, via the original English link, there are bound to be imprecisions. This approach may resemble how Google Translate (GT) brings numerous languages together via their English core, yet GT seems to apply mainly statistics and NLP features to full texts, whereas the KD process relies on precise word sense disambiguation to help obtain higher accuracy.

Another ongoing project regards KD's global series, juxtaposing several bilingual versions of a full L1 core to create a multilingual dictionary, like the English one above (but including translation also of the examples of usage). Next, it is possible to inter-link the multilingual sets of this series to each other and develop multi-layer / multi-language networks, by associating the translation of a given language to its corresponding L1 entry and thereby to all other translations of that entry, and so on and so forth. For example, (i) the Japanese translation of the Spanish dictionary is connected to its corresponding Japanese L1 entry and (ii) from there to translations of the Japanese entry in more languages, e.g. German, then (iii) to the relevant German L1 entry and (iv) its translations in other languages, etc.

SHEL

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Expansion of sonorants in English and German

The point of departure for the analysis of sonorants expansionist behavior is their active participation in three apparently unrelated phenomena: syllabic consonants, vowel syncope and bogus clusters, e.g. Eng. *faculty* [fækl;®ti], *factory* [fæktri], *butler* [bʌtlə] and Ger. *Laden* [lɑːdn;®] 'shop', *Segnung* [zeːgnʊŋ] 'blessing', *Gnade* [gnɑːdə] 'grace', respectively. It is pointed out that all these structures have the same trigger – sonorants in weak positions. These findings allowed us to look at another process involving sonorants, that is, liquid vocalization, from a different perspective. Thus, the chief aim of this paper is twofold: to explain the process of liquid vocalization in the history of English (German) and some accompanying vocalic developments and to explore the internal structure of liquids taking part in the process. In order to achieve the aim we look at some historical processes in which liquids are the leading actors. Thus we discuss the historical liquid vocalizations together with vowel developments in the pre-liquid position such as raising, lowering, lengthening or diphthongization. Finally, we address the questions concerning the distribution, representation and interaction of liquids with the preceding vowels and explain the intimate relationship between the context and the process of liquid vocalization. The central claim of the paper is that both the internal structure of liquids proposed here and the weak position they happen to occur in are responsible for various historical developments including linking and intrusive liquids. The analysis is couched in Element Theory (Backley 2011) and the CVCV model

(Lowenstamm (1996), Scheer (2004) Cyran (2010)) and is based on the data from two languages: English and German.

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DSNA

Elizabeth Knowles
Oxford Dictionary of Quotations

Guarding even our enemies and the triumph of evil: actual and supposed 18th-century voices in 20th-century politics

This paper will reflect on how quotations function within the language, and consider some of the challenges presented to a dictionary of quotations in how best to represent the relevant linguistic evidence. These questions will be pursued through two case studies, with particular reference to the appeal of a "famous name" called in support of an argument or political position.

Two apparent voices from the 18th century which may be encountered today both in print and online, are the assertion (in slightly varying forms) that "The only thing necessary for the triumph of evil is for good men to do nothing," attributed to the writer and politician Edmund Burke (1729–97), and the adjuration that "We must guard even our enemies against injustice," supposedly the words of his contemporary and rival, the author and revolutionary Thomas Paine (1737–1809).

In each instance, it is possible to point to a passage in the writings of the given author which might be the starting point for what is now with us as a "famous saying." Where Burke is concerned (and the attribution has been sought with particular vigilance) no contemporary record of the form of words with which we are now familiar has been traced; there is also a surprising chronological gap before the current version emerges and establishes itself.

The case of Paine is different, in that we can both point to a very similar expression of thought in his own writings, and identify what looks to be the significant alteration. In 1948, the British writer Graham Greene wrote to his friend V. S. Pritchett that "You remember Tom Paine's apothegm, 'We must take care to guard even our enemies against injustice.'" He was to return to this saying a few years later against a background of the Cold War and the rise of McCarthyism, and in fact it seems to have become a favourite reference of his own.

This paper, tracking the usage history of both items, will note what a dictionary of quotations should make explicit, and highlight any specific questions relating to either item which still remain to be answered.

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Time in Language Change: Suggestions from Simulation

In this paper we offer the results from our completed research program on computer simulation of language diffusion, highly suggestive findings about how the process of linguistic change may operate. Computer simulation is the only practical way to model linguistic diffusion. We have successfully simulated diffusion with a cellular automaton, which uses update rules with respect to the status of its neighboring locations to determine the status (whether a linguistic feature is used or not) at a given location. Throughout hundreds of generations we can watch regional distributional patterns emerge. In so doing we model human interactions, as speakers talk or write to each other and change their behavior based on that of their neighbors. We validate our results by comparison to actual linguistic data from survey research: we always observe clustered patterns in the survey, and we know that our simulation is successful if similar clusters emerge from the cellular automaton. We can also replicate another aspect of the complex system of speech as we observe it in survey data, nonlinear quantitative distributional patterns. After substantial experience with the simulation, we have observed that time has a special role in the process of change in the complex system of speech, in three different ways:

1. The relative ages of locations (how many consecutive generations a location has been live) always occur in a nonlinear distribution, with the most one generation old, then many two generations, then small numbers of older locations. This suggests that the persistence of features, not just use of features, is important in language diffusion. Persistence is what accounts for the creation of long-term stable clusters of locations.
2. Inclusion of a random factor overturning decisions from the rules of up to .06% (6 decisions in 10,000) slows down the process of cluster formation, but more than .06% randomness throws the simulation into a chaotic (everchanging) condition where no stable clusters form. This suggests that proximity, not random decisions by speakers (who can decide to use features for any number of reasons), controls language diffusion. However, inclusion of a small random factor, given enough time, preserves nearly all of the long tail of infrequent responses in the nonlinear distribution that we always see in survey data, and so it is necessary to include random decisions by speakers to model real data successfully.
3. When variants fill the grid, they rapidly increase in number of locations up to about 4000 locations (c. 50%), then hit a plateau where the number of locations only rises very slowly. Persistence in the plateau stage produces stable clusters. The simulation thus has a life cycle for all surviving variants: constant motion across the grid, smaller temporary clusters for up to 250 iterations as a variant builds density across the grid, and (in addition to smaller temporary clusters) larger stable clusters after a variant reaches 50% density, a process that make take 1000 iterations. This suggests that features in actual speech may also show a life cycle, i.e. common use across wide areas, temporary small areas in which particular features become very common for a time, and stable, potentially large areas in which features are persistent for long periods. This finding urges caution of making generalizations about historical patterns.

Our use of a simple cellular automaton in a successful simulation suggests how we might better understand the survey and other data we have already collected. Unexpected findings about persistence, the impact of random choices, and the lifecycle of change suggest how we might understand the process of change in the history of English (or any other language) better than we can with other models.

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Dictionary users' strategies in looking up multi-word expressions

Dictionaries tend to be organized around small chunks of language. For alphabet-based languages, this usually means orthographic words, which thus get elevated to lemmatic status. This organizing principle tallies rather well with the slot-and-filler view of language, but raises problems for larger chunks, variously known as multi-word expressions, multi-word units, or multi-word items, which have to be 'attached' to the lemma of one of the component words.

This property of dictionaries may make it hard to find multi-word expressions. When dictionary users try to locate a multi-word expression in a dictionary in a comprehension situation (typically reading), they first need to decide which element of the phrase to look up. Some dictionaries have specific consistent policies regarding the placement of multi-word items, a frequent one being under the first content word of the expression, as e.g. in the *Macmillan English Dictionary* (Rundell 2007: ix). Dictionary users, however, follow their own strategies, which may or may not coincide with the lexicographers' policy.

User look-up strategies with regard to multi-word expressions have been investigated in a number of studies: Béjoint (1981), Tono (1987), Bogaards (1990, 1991, 1992), Atkins and Knowles (1990), Atkins and Varantola (1998), and, most recently, in Lew (2012). This last study based its findings on the most extensive sample multi-word expressions so far (36), and identified lexical frequency as the main factor predicting users' preferences (with the less frequent words being preferred), followed by part-of-speech (with a preference for nouns, then adjectives, verbs, adverbs and prepositions). By contrast, the position of the word within the expression did not seem to play a role in the users' choices, which raises questions about the usefulness of the common policy of lemmatizing multi-word expressions under the *first* content word.

One limitation of virtually all the above-cited studies of users' look-up strategies has been that the multi-word expressions were presented explicitly as such to study participants. Simplifying somewhat, participants were in effect told "here is a multi-word expression; under which component word would you look it up?". But in a real-life situation, multi-word expressions are not normally marked in the text as such. In effect, readers may face a comprehension problem without realizing that what they are dealing with is a multi-word expression. Therefore, a study has been designed in which target multi-word expressions to be looked up were immersed in sentential contexts, but without explicitly identifying them. It is hoped that such a design has greater validity than one based on *a priori* multi-word expressions presented out of context. Data on look-up preferences have been collected from a large sample of 156 Polish learners of English, half of them being university students majoring in English, the other half attending high school. I would like to present the results of the new study at the DSNA 2015 conference. Also, practical lexicographic and didactic implications for paper and digital dictionaries will be offered.

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DSNA

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The Goals and Scope of Etymological Dictionaries

There is a curious discrepancy between the state of the market and the state of philological education in Europe and America. As an academic subject, historical linguistics is almost dead on our campuses. An English major can graduate without being exposed to a single line of "old literature." The same is true of German, French, and Spanish majors. Terms like *ablaut*, *umlaut*, and so forth almost never make it to our syllabi. Grammaticalization is a busy industry, but students, unless they specialize in linguistics, have no idea of what that process involves. At the same time, etymological dictionaries keep appearing in a steady stream. The most noticeable contribution to our etymological library is the Leiden series, but there is a relatively recent Norwegian etymological dictionary, and Seebold keeps revising "Kluge." More special etymological dictionaries, for example, of adjectives—Indo-European (the entire corpus) and Frisian (a tiny fragment of Indo-European)—have been published within recent memory. This activity raises the question about the genre and goals of etymological dictionaries. (I am leaving out of consideration the fringe: dictionaries purposing to show that all words of English go back to Arabic or Hebrew or that the words of all languages are traceable to Russian. Such dictionaries are not too rare, but they are material for psychiatrists and should not bother us).

Two tendencies can be observed in this matter. Seebold's revisions illustrate one of them: the book is commercial, so that it should be not too thick and "popular." The Leiden series represents the opposite trend: its dictionaries have been written for specialists, and Brill, notorious for its exorbitant prices, will sell enough copies to libraries to break even. On another plane, Seebold is interested in the history of the forms current in the modern language, while the authors of the Leiden series look upon their volumes as studies for a prospective Indo-European dictionary, which is expected to supplant Pokorny. Their goal is to reconstruct the most ancient form of every word. Unexpectedly, both types have some important features in common.

In my presentation, I will look at the genre of an etymological dictionary as a whole, with its unavoidable tension between "etymology" and "the history of words" (*histoire des mots*) and draw some pessimistic conclusions about both types. I will also discuss the embarrassing question: "Who needs etymological dictionaries?" This question is not futile and, among other things, it has some interest in the context of the revision being undertaken by the etymological team of the *OED*.

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Occam's Razor and Etymology

Etymological riddles are often hard, but correct solutions are almost always simple. The more complicated the solution, the lower the chance that it is right. A case in point is the history of attempts to find the origin of the word *wife*/*Weib*. Some suggestions concerning it are so intricate that one can dismiss them as unrealistic sight unseen. But, as a general rule, the etymologist faces several equally or almost equally plausible hypotheses and has no way of deciding which one is the best (this is the opposite of having to defend the least appealing of several unattractive conjectures). Rather than presenting all the choices as possible and concluding that the word's origin is unknown, the researcher should in some cases use Occam's razor and eliminate unnecessary complications. To illustrate this procedure, the history of Engl. *qualm* can be used.

The main facts are as follows. Engl. *qualm*, first recorded in the sixteenth century, meant 'feeling of faintness or sickness'. German *Qualm*, an obvious cognate, means '(a thick) smoke, vapor'. Alongside *Qualm*, there is German *Qual* 'torment, pain, agony', historically the same word without the suffix *-m*. The German Standard borrowed *Qualm*, which, like its English congener, surfaced in texts only in the sixteenth century, from Low German. Most probably, Engl. *qualm* came from the same source. The origin of *qualm* ~ *Qualm* does not seem to present any difficulty; with regard to both phonetics and semantics, Old Engl. *cwellan* 'to kill' provides a good starting point for a convincing etymology. The question could be considered closed but for the existence of Old High German *twalm* 'thick vapor, stupefaction', that is, a close synonym, almost a twin of *Qualm*. It so happens that in some German words *tw-* changed to *qw-*, as in *Quark* < *tw-*, so that the question arises whether **kwalm* is an old word or an alteration of **twalm*. Therefore, dictionaries of English and German, which refuse to make a choice, call *qualm* and *Qualm* nouns of obscure origin.

This is a classical situation for using Occam's razor. *Twalm* has a solid etymology. The difficult approach suggests that we analyze both words (*twalm* and *qualm*) together and emphasize uncertainty. The simpler approach separates them. Dragging **kwalm* into the history of *twalm* is a typical superfluous move that has to be eliminated by Occam's razor. There were two independent verbs: **dwellan* and**kwellan*; two nouns corresponded to them: *twalm* and **kwalm*. Their similarity may have resulted in some confusion, but this circumstance need not concern the etymologist. To conclude, *qualm*/*Qualm* are not words of obscure origin; each has a reliable etymology of its own. A similar case is the history of the color name *brown*, with its spectrum of outwardly incompatible senses: 'brown', 'shining', and 'violet'.

Does it follow that the simplest etymology is always the best? Certainly not. Occam's razor, like any other razor, is a sharp instrument, whose use requires experience and caution.

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A survey of online Salish dictionaries

The Salish language family consists of about 23 indigenous languages found in the U.S. Pacific Northwest and in British Columbia. The languages feature complex morphosyntax with relatively simple lexical roots undergoing extensive (mostly derivational) morphology (Czaykowska-Higgins & Kinkade 1997). Salish languages are all severely endangered, though some are the target of robust revitalization efforts. One active thread is the development of tools to assist in Salish language preservation, documentation, and acquisition.

A few online dictionaries exist for Salish languages, exhibiting a wide range of content types and presentation formats. This talk illustrates salient features of these dictionaries, relating them to research in online dictionary typologies (de Schryver 2003; Kasar 2008). Also addressed are the challenges faced by lexicographers compiling dictionaries for these languages due to their morphosyntactic complexity.

Then the discussion centers on a new online bilingual dictionary for Lushootseed, a Salish language. In the final stages of development, it will be deployed on the Web in 2015. The content was derived from legacy typesetting data for the printed version (Bates et al. 1994) and subsequently encoded according to state-of-the-art best practices including the Text Encoding Initiative XML dictionary format (TEI 2014). We document the tools and methods employed in this process as well as the difficulties encountered.

The dictionary delivers content to users via browser-based support using the Google Web Toolkit and attempts to strike a balance between traditional content and a more flexible delivery platform. We describe the structure of each entry and how entries are accessed and displayed. Also addressed are various issues of copyright, privacy, data integrity, web hosting, and considerations for future development. Mention may also be made of possible strategies for distributing the browser source code to any interested parties.

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SHEL

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On the haps and mishaps of happenstance expressions as a source of epistemic adverbs in English

Over the last few years the notions of evidentiality and epistemicity and their expression in various languages have attracted the attention of scholars working in different frameworks (cf. the 2009 special issue of *Functions of Language* and Marín-Arrese et al. 2013 for a couple of examples). Our ongoing research project is concerned with the origin, development, and current use of a group of evidential and epistemic expressions in English, and thus far has dealt with a number of epistemic/evidential parentheticals (e.g. *it seems*, *looks like*; López-Couso & Méndez-Naya 2014a, b, c) and with the epistemic adverb *maybe* (López-Couso & Méndez-Naya 2014d). The present paper represents a further step in this project by exploring the history of *perhaps* and related adverbs, which to our knowledge have not yet been discussed in detail (but see Doherty 1987 and Pahta et al. 2011).

In Present-day English, *perhaps* is one of the most salient epistemic adverbs expressing possibility, together with *maybe* (Huddleston & Pullum et al. 2002: 176). According to the OED, *perhaps* originates in the phrase *per haps*, a combination of the Latin or Anglo-Norman preposition *per* 'for, by' and the Scandinavian noun *hap* 'occurrence, chance' (see OED s.v. *perhaps*, adv. and n.). Interestingly enough, *perhaps* is not the only epistemic adverb which has its source in happenstance expressions of this kind. On the contrary, the notion of 'occurrence, chance' seems to have been a very fruitful source of expressions conveying the notion of possibility in the historical records. Examples include *perhap(s)*, *mayhap(pen)*, *uphap*, *perhappen*, among others (cf. (1) and (2) below).

(1) Othir men write that on Johannes Patricius schul a mad this Cherch in tyme of Liberi the Pope; **Perhap** [vr. **Up hap**] this Pope mored it, or arayed it, as he ded many othir. ((a1464) Capgr. *Chron.*(Cmb Gg.4.12) 85; MED s.v. *per-hap* (adv.))

(2) There is a thing, you know not on **may hap**. (1575 W. Stevenson *Gammer Gurtons Nedle* v. ii. sig. Eiv; OED s.v. *mayhap* adv.)

In this paper we shed light on this particular source of epistemic adverbs in English, by (i) providing the inventory and timeline of happenstance expressions which, over time, came to convey the epistemic notion of possibility; (ii) exploring the similarities and differences between these forms at various levels (e.g. structural, stylistic, and genre-based); and, finally, (iii) looking into the mechanisms involved in their development (e.g. can they be regarded as instances of grammaticalization and/or subjectification?).

Given that, with the exception of *perhaps*, these happenstance adverbs are low-frequency items, our analysis is based primarily on the standard historical dictionaries (OED, MED) and their quotation databases, complemented with data extracted from various historical corpora.

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OED = *Oxford English Dictionary* Online. Oxford University Press. <http://www.oed.com>

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Grammaticalization in progress and word-formation: Mismatches in the derivation of Old English strong verbs

According to Hiltunen (1983) and Ogura (1995), among others, the pure Germanic prefixes *ā-*, *be-*, *ge-*, *for*, *on* and *tō* have gone through a process of semantic bleaching and are largely interchangeable in Old English. Brinton and Traugott (2005) remark that, due to the loss of semantic content of the pure prefixes, they are gradually replaced by spatial prepositions and adverbs throughout a process of grammaticalization that results in the expression of telicity by spatial preverbs. Against this background, the aim of this paper is to answer the following question: what is the effect of this process of grammaticalization on the formation of derivatives based on the strong verb? The relevance of the question lies in the fact that, as Kastovsky (1992) and others claim, the strong verb is the starting point of lexical derivation in Old English. Type (as opposed to token) analysis is carried out of the data provided by the standard dictionaries of Old English (Bosworth and Toller 1973; Sweet 1976; Clark Hall 1996) as presented by the lexical database of Old English *Nerthus* (www.nerthusproject.com). Given that the formation of strong verbs is prefixal, as in *swīcan* > *beswīcan* 'to deceive', the scope of the paper is restricted to prefixation. The inventory of preverbs is based on Kastovsky (1992) and Lass (1994). A total of 1,025 prefixed strong verbs and their nominal and adjectival derivatives are taken into account. In order to identify mismatches form-function in lexical derivation, pairs of partial synonyms of nouns and adjectives are analyzed, like *onstyrednes* / *styrung* 'movement' and *forðrǣsted* / *geðrǣsted* 'contrite'. Such pairs comprise morphogically related words that share a strong verb lexemic root. Two types of contrast arise: between a simplex and a complex word, as is the case with (1), and between two complex words, as happens in (2):

(1) *blāwung* / *ablāwung* 'blowing'
clȳsung / *beclȳsung* 'enclosure'
galend / *ongalend* 'enchanter'

(2) *cīdung* / *ofercīdung* 'chiding'
ðreodung / *ymbðreodung* 'deliberation'
fylgend / *æfterfylgend* 'follower'

The contrast between preverbs can be identified in the initial position of the word, as in (1) and (2), or in the intermediate one, as in (3), but always reflects the alternation in the bases of derivation, as in *unwæscen* / *unāwæscen* 'unwashed' (*wascan* / *āwascan* 'to wash'):

(3) *unāgunnen* / *unbegunnen* 'without a beginning'
unāwriten / *ungewriten* 'unwritten'
unāstyred / *unonstyred* 'unmoved'

Examples (1), (2) and (3) represent mismatches in lexical derivation. The conclusions go along two lines. In the first place, the interchangeability of the prefixes causes form-function mismatches in lexical derivation. Secondly, the typology of mismatches includes convergent derivation, which holds when a semantic category has exponents in two derivational paths of a lexical paradigm and redundant derivation, which takes place when there are two exponents of the same semantic category in a given derivational path.

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Thematic options in diachrony: on text types, targets and clause design in Early Modern English medical texts

The analysis of medical writing along the history of English may help us understand the development of the language of science and its contribution to the process of construing and communicating knowledge. Framed within a larger project on the variation and textual characterisation of English in its recent history, the present study aims to analyse instances of medical writing from a Systemic-Functional perspective (Berry 1995, 2013; Fries 1995; Ghadessy 1995; Halliday & Matthiessen 2004, 2014, among others). The theoretical assumption that the context of culture defines the potential of language as a system, at the same time that "plays a significant role in determining the actual choices" (Halliday 2009: 55) made by speakers, underlies the analysis.

The data come from the electronic corpus of Early Modern English Medical Texts (over two million words of medical writing from 1500 to 1700;see Taavitsainen & Pahta 2011), and CorpusTool (O'Donnell 2013) is used for the annotation of the texts and subsequent quantitative analysis of the annotated corpus.Approaching texts written from ca.1550 to ca.1700, and addressed to three different types of target audience (i.e. learned, unlearned and intermediate), the study focuses on thematic options and thematic choices made by the writers, as well as on the relation between such choices and the target audiences of the texts at issue.In this attempt to detect possible relations between text-type, target audience and Theme, different notions of Theme are considered, namely, Theme as the first group or phase with some function in the experiential structure of the clause (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014), and Theme as everything up to, and including, the Subject (Banks 2008; Berry 1995, 2013, among others).

As expected, the findings point towards differences in how texts addressed to learned and unlearned audiences represent the world and organise the messages. Despite unmarked Themes being predominant in the texts analysed, when paying attention to the distribution and features of marked Themes, significant differences are attested among texts addressed to different target audiences. Expectedly enough, interpersonal components tend to be absent from Adjunct and Complement Themes, given the descriptive, explanatory and didactic nature of the texts under analysis, which are not dialogic in any case. The few interpersonal elements attested appear in texts addressed to learned and intermediate audiences, in keeping with the increase of involved-production devices (mostly interpersonal adverbials) in (formal) early and late Modern English scientific texts (Biber 1988, González-Álvarez & Pérez-Guerra 1998). Quite on the contrary, a high frequency of textual elements is attested in

multiple marked Themes, especially in texts addressed to unlearned audiences, where their linking and explanatory nature may help writers to transmit messages as clearly as possible.
The consideration of two notions of Theme enriches this analysis of early modern medical texts, and helps in the attempt to detect connections between (i) text-type, (ii) Theme, its typology and its experiential content, and (iii) thematic distribution and progression (Ghadessi 1995).

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SHEL

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"We object-verb investigate in this paper": on OV in the recent history of English

Whereas verb-object (VO) is the unmarked design of the predicate in Modern and Present-Day English clauses, in older stages of the development of the language surface object-verb (OV) was the preferred option at least in certain syntactic contexts. The literature provides different explanations for the development OV>VO in the history of English. Some of them are couched in the generative tradition and tackle internal mechanisms of the language – for example, Wurff's (1997) distinction between object overt/covert movement, Trips' (2002) account in terms of competition between two different co-occurring VO/OV grammars, Biberauer and Roberts' (2005) EPP-based explanation, McFadden's (2005) and Fischer and Wurff's (2006) explanation on the basis of Case marking, and Pintuz's (2005) changes affecting the Head Parameter. Other studies focus on the structural contextual variables which ease and lead the drift – Ingham (2002) or Koopman (2005), among others.

The frequency of OV predicates is significant in Old and Middle English, and Moerenhout and Wurff (2005: 83) provide empirical evidence that OV patterns are attested until 1550 "but then appear to dwindle away" and, more importantly, that their patterning is highly systematic in the sixteenth century.

This paper deals with OV in Modern (and Present-Day) English and, from a corpus-based perspective, explores the variables that account for such a marked pattern in the recent history of English. The data are retrived from two electronic parsed corpora, the Penn-Helsinki Parsed Corpus of Early Modern English (1500–1710, 1,737,853 words) and the Penn Parsed Corpus of Modern British English (1700–1914; 948,895 words). The syntactic tagset used by the compilers include the tag NP-OB*, which identifies the objects and thus allows for the automatic retrieval of both the OV and the VO examples. In an attempt to check whether the OV patterns are also systematic or not in the later periods, the data will be thoroughly revised and analysed by paying attention to variables such as processing optimality (à la Hawkins 1994, 2004), information structure (principles of the sort 'given before new' and 'end focus') and structural symmetry in correlative constructions.

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Moerenhout, Mike and Wim van der Wurff. 2005. Object-verb order in early sixteenth-century English prose: an exploratory study. English Language and Linguistics 9/1: 83–114.

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DSNA

Peter E. Meltzer

In Defense of the Hard Word

[Note: In 2010, I wrote the second edition of *The Thinkers Thesaurus—Sophisticated Synonyms for Hard Words* published by Norton. They requested that I write a third edition, and that is coming out in December. Orin Hargraves has written a lovely Foreword to the third edition and Erin McKean has praised the book as well. My proposed abstract is derived lengthy essay from that book called "In Defense of the Hard Word."]

These days, in matters of vocabulary, to use a word that is not understood by the lowest common denominator of society is almost to be seen as politically incorrect or offensive. We are so bombarded by the mantra of "write clearly and simply" that to use any words that are not readily known by all is to be labeled elitist or pretentious or bombastic. Well-known commentators such as the recently deceased James Kilpatrick has been waging a one-way war against William F. Buckley—or more precisely his vocabulary—for years.

The dumbing down of our collective vocabularies did not come about just by circumstance. In the age of emails and text messaging and Twitter, letter writing is becoming a lost art. We are also constantly exhorted to avoid using hard words by those who would teach us how to write. Studies cited in Harpers

Index for show that the average number of words in the written vocabulary of 6 to 14-year-old American children has gone from 25,000 in 1945 to 10,000 in 2000.

One of the primary problems with those who tell us to write clearly and simply is that it requires us to draw an arbitrary line as to what words are or are not appropriate. But who sets the standard? The answer of course is that, since no two people have the same lexicon, no one person can set the proverbial "reasonable person" standard. Nevertheless, the bias against hard words is fairly well entrenched. Many people, even those with very broad vocabularies—have a knee-jerk bias against words which are unfamiliar to them, since those words fall on the wrong side of their own "reasonable person" standard. As William Buckley stated: "We tend to believe that a word is unfamiliar because it is unfamiliar to us."

The purpose of my abstract is to defend the hard word through the PowerPoint presentation of numerous examples of words which are neither obsolete nor archaic but yet which are not known to most people, even those as erudite as the typical DSNA member. These words would be shown in actual usage--taken from current books, magazines and newspapers-- as opposed to examples invented by me. The concept is that even though there are thousands of words in the English language which are unfamiliar to most of us and yet which are the perfect words for the occasion, as well as often being an economical means of expression because the typical "hard word" is often a more concise way of expressing a particular thought or idea.

I believe that DSNA members would find my presentation to be entertaining and informative. It will encourage even such an august group to not be afraid of using the appropriate hard word in the appropriate circumstance.

SHEL

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On the rise of the ordinal number *first* in Medieval English

In most Indo-European languages the first two numerals display suppletion in their cardinal and ordinal forms, e.g. Latin *unus/primus – duo/secundus*, Old Church Slavonic *edinъ/prъvyi – dъva/vъtoryi.* Like other early Germanic languages, Old English had a number of variants for both 'first' (e.g. *forma, fyrmest, ærest*) and 'second' (*oþer, æfterra*), none of which was morphologically related to the cardinal numbers *an* and *twegen/twa* respectively (cf. Campbell 1959: §692, Mitchell 1985:§222, *OED* s.v. *first* and *second*).

According to the *Dictionary of Old English*, the rare word *first*, etymologically speaking the superlative formation on the stem 'fore-', had only 9 adjectival and 11 adverbial occurrences vs. hundreds of uses of the other synonymous words in the whole Old English corpus. Most of the OE occurrences of *fyrst* are attested in the late Old English period, especially in the Manuscript E of the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle* (*The Peterborough Chronicle*). Although the word appears to have a regular native form, we believe that the sudden increase of its use in early Middle English was owing to the heavy influence of Old Norse, which had an identical word: the adjective *fyrstr* and the adverb *fyrst* (Gordon 1957). The Scandinavian factor in the quick spread of the ordinal number *first* in Middle English is not taken account of in any of the major English historical dictionaries (*OED, DOE, MED*).

In the course of Middle English *firmest* and *er(e)st* fell out of use. The demise of the latter is parallel to the replacement of the adverb-preposition-conjunction *ere* with *before* (cf. Molencki 2007). By 1400 *first* had become the standard ordinal number corresponding to the cardinal *one*. Interestingly, more or less at the same time the Romance loanword *second* replaced the numeral *oþer* when it meant 'second of more than two' (cf. *AND* s.v. *secound*; Mustanoja 1960: 306). In the paper we will trace the rise and spread of the ordinal number *first* in both lexicographical and corpus databases.

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DOE= Dictionary of Old English – http://www.doe.utoronto.ca

MED= Kurath, H. & S. M. Kuhn (eds.). 1956-2002. *Middle English dictionary.* Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, available online at http://ets.umdl.umich.edu/m/mec

OED= Oxford English Dictionary Online – http://www.oed.com

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DSNA

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The Case of the Missing Attributions: Tracking the Source of *OED*'s Sources on South Asia

Among the inventory of English words etymologically traced to South Asia, the pattern of overlapping information, particularly in quotational evidence, between the early fascicles of the *New English Dictionary* (commonly referred to as the first edition of the *Oxford English Dictionary*, or *OED1* [Murray et al. 1884–1928]) and Henry Yule's Anglo-Indian dictionary, *Hobson-Jobson* (Yule and Burnell 1886) suggests that *OED1*'s editors were drawing a significant proportion of information directly from a set of *Hobson-Jobson* page proofs (Nagle 2014). Although the importance of these page proofs was acknowledged in the preface of *OED1*'s second fascicle, *OED1* included information from *Hobson-Jobson* even in its first fascicle (A-ANT), without attribution and prior to any acknowledgment of a reliance on *Hobson-Jobson* (see Table 1). This failure to acknowledge the source of so much information is surprising in light of the overt attribution, from the very start of the first *OED1* fascicle, of quotational evidence drawn from seven other dictionaries, and given *OED1* editor James Murray's very clear sentiments about lexicographers' use of others' work without acknowledgment (e.g., Gilliver 2010; Ogilvie 2010; see also Murray 1977, 48–49). Research in the archives of Oxford University Press indicates, however, that the initial lack of acknowledgment of *Hobson-Jobson* may have been inadvertent: Murray and his staff appear to have been using information from *Hobson-Jobson* submitted by Edward Brandreth, a barrister and former member of the Indian civil service, who eventually would work as a volunteer subeditor for *OED1* (Gilliver 2000). Brandreth's quotation slips include no indication of their proximate source. This paper sheds light on the relationships between *OED1*, Brandreth, and Yule, and shows evidence supporting the conclusion that Brandreth's omission of complete source information on his slips is largely responsible for the delay in fully acknowledging Yule's contributions to *OED1.*

TABLE 1. RATES OF ATTRIBUTION OF MATCHING QUOTATIONS BY *OED1* PART (FROM NAGLE 2014)

Part	# of shared words	# of matching quotations	Ratio of matching quotes to shared wds	# of attributed quotations	% of matching quotes attributed
I. A–ANT	28	33	1.18	0	0%
II. ANTA–BATTEN	46	49	1.06	4	8%
III. BATTER–BOZ	31	23	0.74	15	65%
IV. BRA–CASS	74	87	1.18	70	80%
V. CAST–CLIVY	66	98	1.48	80	82%
VI. CLO–CONSIGNER	22	31	1.41	22	71%

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DSNA

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English Loans in Acadian French Lexicography: The case of the *Dictionnaire du français acadien*

Le dictionnaire du français acadien [The Dictionary of Acadian French, DFA], compiled by Yves Cormier in 1999, is the first dictionary on Acadian French (AF) that provides etymological, geographical, and frequency information, in addition to illustrative quotations, for Acadianisms in a single text. Acadianims are defined here as words, expressions, or even meanings that are, or have been, in usage in Acadian regions and that are not part of the Standard French French (SFF) lexicon (Cormier 1999, 24). The DFA draws upon Poirier's *Glossaire acadien* [Acadian Glossary] (1928, republished in 1993) and Boudreau's *Glossaire du vieux parler acadien* [Glossary of Old Acadian Speech] (1988), and novel corpus work on AF. The target language is in a normative French, and the source language and the illustrative quotations are, of course, in the Acadian French (AF) dialect. But, occasionally, knowledge of English is presupposed, and to make full use of the DFA and its features its readers must be bilingual. The English names for flora or fauna are sometimes given in the definitions to complement their SFF equivalents, and English loans appear frequently in the illustrative quotations along with sporadic, untranslated English dialogue.

Although preponderant in the illustrative quotations and occasionally found in the metatext, namely in the extraneous glossing of fauna and flora in English, the presence of the English language in the DFA lies in tension with the dictionary's treatment of English loanwords and attitude toward the influence of English on AF. With the exception of a rare few, most of the English loans that appear in the illustrative quotations are not recognized as potential Acadianisms and lack their own entries. They are simply accompanied by brief glosses in parentheses in the quotations themselves and no more is said about them. An overly restrictive inclusion policy of English loanwords includes only those with attestations from the nineteenth century or before, with only a couple exceptions (Cormier 1999, 25). This policy assures that their treatment is beyond the predetermined scope of acceptable AF and implies that that more recent English loans are merely anomalies or nonce loans, the result of code-switching that should be discouraged. Especially in comparison with the clear favouring of Acadianisms of French origins, the distaste for English loans, understood as signs of Acadian assimilation, is evident.

I argue that the DFA's treatment of English loans ignores the widespread use of more recent English loans in contemporary AF and may have, if not checked, a negative influence on a budding AF lexicography and perceptions of AF more broadly. Drawing on the work of King (2000), Poplack and Dion (2012), and the DFA's own English loans in its illustrative quotations this tension with English will be made apparent.

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SHEL

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The Partitive Genitive with *fela* and *feawe* in Medieval English

This paper investigates the partitive genitive with *fela* 'many' and *feawe* 'few' in Old and Middle English. Although the history of the English genitive has been treated in varying ways by Thomas (1931), Yngve (1975), Nunnally (1992), Seppänen (1997), Koike (2006), Rosenbach (2002), and Allen (2008), and the phenomenon of the medieval English partitive genitive itself has been sketched by Mustanoja (1960) and touched on by Marckwardt (1970) as well as outlined by Mitchell (1985), who references a few early, brief accounts such as that by Schrader (1887), many details of the use and eventual loss of the partitive genitive in medieval English times remain to be established. Newman (2012), a recent empirical study of the Old and Middle English partitive genitive with higher numerals, addresses this need in part. The present investigation builds on that work and attempts to detail and explain still further the demise of the English morphological partitive genitive (its plural regularly marked by -*a* in Old English and -*e* in Middle English).

In order to do so, the paper analyzes, across Old and Middle English dialects, instances of partitive genitive plural constructions containing *fela* and *feawe*, two words known to have governed this genitive when they functioned as nouns, and it attempts to corroborate relevant conclusions in Newman (2012) by determining whether analogical modeling based on relative token frequency may have helped foster the disappearance of the morphological partitive genitive. That is, whether higher token frequency nouns occurring with *fela* and *feawe* were targeted by lower token frequency nouns occurring with the two lexemes, and whether the resultant modeling was on nouns not marked for partitive genitive plural by nouns marked for partitive genitive plural, furthering the loss of that genitive (cf. Bybee 2007 on such frequency effects).

As a natural corollary, the study also considers the medieval history of *maniȝ* 'many' to examine two related proposals by Marckwardt (1970): one, that *fela* became obsolete because the partitive genitive it governed became so; and two, that the frequency of *maniȝ* increased in Middle English- that is, relative to the frequency of *fela*- and that this event was also causal to the progressive obsolescence of *fela*.

Taken together, the studies mentioned here indicate that the slow loss of the English partitive genitive occurred roughly from 900 to 1200. Accordingly, the text materials examined date from that Late Old English-Early Middle English period, and they represent all of the major dialects of the period. Among them are the Northumbrian *Lindisfarne Gospels*, dated to c. 950 (MS Cotton Nero D. iv), the West Saxon *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, dated to c. 1050 (MS Cotton Tiberius B. iv), the East Midland *Peterborough Chronicle*, dated to c. 1150 (MS Bodley Laud Misc. 636), the West Midland *Lambeth Homilies*, dated to c. 1200 (MS Lambeth 487), and the *Bodley Homilies*, dated to c. 1175 (MS Bodley 343). The dates and dialects of the manuscripts are confirmed in Laing (1993).

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Laing, Margaret. 1993. *Catalogue of Sources for a Linguistic Atlas of Early Medieval English*. Cambridge: D. S. Brewer.

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SHEL

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Articulatory Conditionings on Middle English /h/-dropping

According to Schlüter (2003, 2009), the phonological process on ME /h/-dropping is attributed to vocalic onset, indicating no friction on the glottis (cf. Lass & Laing 2010 on the related idea). It might be true in connection with recognizing the feature on the elision and with filling the empty onset with the resyllabification, but, foremost, this phenomenon itself blends the weak forms of the Germanic roots *his*, *her*, *habbe* with the /h/-less loan words such as *honest(e)*, *houre*. Note that the difference of the origins is more explicitly reflected in a variety of subdifferences: the basic words vs. the loan words, the weak syllables vs. the stressed syllables, prosodic weakening vs. lack of the original form, the underlying /h/ vs. the underlying vowel-initial, etc. The present paper seeks to claim that this variant is regarded as intrinsically distructured and sporadically gradient and that the production made at laryngeal and air flow account for the native and loan lexemes, respectively.

When making the /h/ sound, air flow passes throughout the glottis. This implies that the point of the articulation is not so clear as the one on other fricatives and that it may not become the state of the vibration. For /h/, the friction fails to occur in particular when weakly articulated. It occurs in the syllable-initial or, otherwise, foot-initial positions. The lenition as the consonant loss, thus, takes the counteractive process against the fortified sound. The ME weak forms *his*, *her*, and *habbe* turn out to entail the phonetic feature at the glottal fricatives.

The other case stems from sequential effects on /h/ + a vocoid. The occurrence of the friction is caused by the relative energy of the vocoid. The narrow posture leads to the loss of the friction, instead of conveying it. The sequence high front vocoid + palatalized rhotic in *(h)irchoun* 'hedgehog' (commonly /h/ deleted) gives rise to, if any, the weak friction. In contrast, the friction in *hautein* 'high class' (commonly /h/ pronounced) is clear. It should be paid attention to that the /h/-dropping in the stressed syllable other than the /hw/ cluster makes the rare distribution within the same shifts and has the more marked status than the counterpart in the weak forms.

The vocalic onset as claimed in Schlüter fails to capture gradual processes on two language-internal issues; (a) the /h/-dropping on the weak forms was already progressive in OE; (b) the reoccurrence on the content words was much earlier than that on the function words. In the case of the weak forms, the deletion of the /h/ came earlier, as in (a) and continuously occurred, as in (b). The biphonetic conditionings I posit make the better coverage than the previous single account in the sense of accounting for those gradient aspects. The weak turbulence features the common occurrence of the glottal fricative both in and ouside the English language. It is explicitly demonstrated in the functional weak forms.

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SHEL

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The emergence of the indefinite article: grammar change in English

An indefinite article *a* appeared later than the definite article *the* in English. The same thing happened in other languages (Abraham 1997, Lyons 1999). There is a marked asymmetry between definite and indefinite articles in their distribution among the world languages. The number of languages which have a definite article is 216, while the number of languages with an indefinite article is 102 (*The WALS Online* 2013).

The aim of this paper is to answer these questions: the reason of the later emergence of indefinite articles and the reason of their quantitative inferiority.

I claim that the later emergence is due to the fact that the ancestor of the indefinite article *a/an*, a numeral *an* 'one' in Old English (OE) did not contribute to grammaticalization, i.e., the emergence of an obligatory determiner system including articles. Generally, this grammaticalization is described as the process where OE demonstratives *se/seo* developed into the definite article *the* (Sommerer 2011). Like this, grammaticalization is usually assumed to be a process by which lexical words change into function words (Hopper and Traugott 2003).

However the source of the present-day central determiners (Quirk et al. 1985: 253), which occur in the same place as *the* or *a*, is not limited to OE demonstratives. The clitic *–'s* in *John's book* is also the determiner and the ancestor of this *–'s* is the genitive case ending *–es* in OE. *The*, *a* and *–'s* constitute the central determiner in Present-day English. They are a head determiner D, as described by the DP analysis (Abney 1987).

How did the OE ancestors of these three determiners contribute to the emergence of the determiner system? Did they contribute to the change equally? To examine their degree of contribution, I have split up the 65% texts of the YCOE into 5 different periods, and examined their frequencies. Interestingly, throughout the 5 periods, the ratio of the frequencies of *se/seo*, *-es,* and *an* is the same. Moreover, the *–es* construction, which comprises 'Noun-es + Noun' sequence like *Godes word* 'God's word' (cobede.o2), outnumbers the *se* construction. The former is as twice as the latter. The *an* construction is always around 3%.

Se and *–es* contributed to the grammaticalization and triggered the creation of a new space in the nominal phrase, while *an* was later grammaticalized in that space. This new space has become a head position, i.e. a determiner head D. Once a space is created in the nominal phrase, other elements can occupy the space, and they undergo grammaticalization there. While *se* and *–es* are driving forces of grammaticalization, *an* is parasitic on *se* and *–es.*

Based on this quantitative analysis, which is reinforced by the semantic analysis of 'indefiniteness' (Christophersen1939, Lyons 1999), I also propose testable criteria for deciding what element could be a driving force of grammaticalization, and criteria for the best. The proposed criteria also can account for the reason of the quantitative inferiority of the indefinite article. By showing that the indefinite article does not mark 'indefiniteness', we can clarify the true nature of the indefinite article, which has become an article without its own efforts.

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SHEL

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Dialect and Language Contact in Coventry, 1400-1600

By the late Middle Ages, Coventry had become the most important centre of trade in the West Midlands and is nowadays considered to have been the fourth largest city in England after London, York and Bristol (Lancaster 1975: 1). Due to both its size and its prominent role during events such as the Wars of the Roses, the city attracted many different people from all over England, notably also from different social standings, including members of the royal family, merchants, soldiers, farmers and various religious orders. It can consequently be stated that the city was a melting pot of different people from all over England. This means that dialect, and possibly also language contact, between these various people must have happened on an almost daily basis, which would have had an influence on the urban vernacular and its development.

While historical linguists often use dialect and/or language contact as explanations for linguistic change and only then try to make certain historical contact scenarios fit the linguistic data, the reverse approach is rarely taken, that is to scrutinize historical data, in particular socio-political and socio-economic data (prior to analysing linguistic data), in order to shed light on what kinds of contacts could have possibly occurred. In this paper, I will take the latter approach and will be concerned with determining migration patterns and possible (dialect/language) contact scenarios in Coventry during the period 1400–1600. The sources used for this study are both manuscript documents and, from 1476 onwards, printed documents from Coventry such as charters, wills, letters and mayoral registers. I will also briefly discuss the role of the West Midland dialect in existing standardization histories (from a linguistic point of view), as well as consider Coventry's place in these studies.

Ultimately, the findings of this study will allow me to determine exactly which people came into contact with the locals in Coventry as well as define the intensity of that contact. As pointed out by Thomason (2001: 70-1), the latter, ranging from casual to intense contact, has a prominent effect on which linguistic changes were possible and which were not. This approach will (a) help me explain the development of the urban vernacular within the socio-historical context, and (b) allow me to provide a more careful analysis of the linguistic data at a later stage of this particular project.

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Whose English is it Anyway?
Lexicographic Authority in Contemporary Sri Lanka

Long shunned as the language of the subaltern elite, English has recently resurfaced as an important language for official and commercial purposes in Sri Lanka. This has led to a growing interest in the way English is spoken on the island. In 2007, Michael Meyler, a British national who first came to Sri Lanka as an English language teacher, published the first dictionary of Sri Lankan English focusing on vocabulary that differs in some way from current "standard" British English. While some welcomed it as a first step into the documentation and standardization of an under-researched variety (Bailey 2010), others have highly criticized Meyler, a "community outsider," for promoting deviations from the international "standard," arguing that it will lead to language decay and bar speakers of Sri Lankan English from socioeconomic advancement (Perera 2008).

Adopting Cameron's (2012) concept of "verbal hygiene," this paper will argue that the popular discourse surrounding the status of Sri Lankan English and Michael Meyler's role in the debate reflects both camps' desire to impose social order on the world. While the more conservative forces try to maintain the status quo, where the "best" form of English is spoken by members of the upper class who tend to be educated abroad, those who want Sri Lankan English to be recognized as a variety in its own right want to empower the marginalized, but frequently fail to offer viable suggestions for how to bring about the change they want to see.

This paper will use the debate between the two parties to illustrate the attitudes about linguistic prescriptivism in Sri Lanka, discuss the challenges they pose for linguists and lexicographers, and make suggestions for how scholars can make more productive contributions to public discussions about language use.

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A Multilingual Approach to Late Modern English:
A Corpus-based Analysis across Genres

A multilingual approach to the history of English provides a new perspective into the linguistic practices of the past generations of English-speakers. One of the insights gained through the multilingual approach is an understanding of how speakers of English used multilingual resources in their meaning-making in various types of communicative tasks. Earlier research shows that multilingual practices, evidenced in the alternating use of two or more languages in one communicative situation, can be found in nearly all types of English writings from different historical periods (see e.g. Nurmi and Pahta 2011; Pahta and Nurmi 2006, 2010; Schendl and Wright 2011). While most previous research has focused on relatively small datasets allowing limited opportunities for generalization, the increasing availability of large electronic corpora from different historical periods of English makes it now possible to aim at a more systematic overview of the frequency and type of multilingual practices through corpus-based study. Our current focus is on providing baseline data, a necessary point of comparison for later identifying the specific practices of individual writers and, for example, their identity construction in specific contexts.

Our paper presents a data-driven, corpus-based analysis of the textual factors influencing multilingual practices in the Late Modern English period. The material consists of the 34-million-word multigenre *Corpus of Late Modern English Texts 3.0*, where the multilingual passages have been identified using a range of complementary automatic and semi-automatic techniques, including a new corpus tool, *Multilingualiser*, developed specifically for processing multilingual data. The data shows, for example, that there is no change in the baseline frequency of multilingualism over the Late Modern period, but that the use of specific languages and types of switching can be linked to genres of writing. We have expanded the basic text typological data assigned by the corpus compilers with variables such as the probable audience of each text (e.g. specialist vs. lay readers), and possible triggering elements for multilingual passages, such as co-textual references to foreign locations (e.g. novels taking place in France vs. those confined to England). The enhanced data allows us to present a fully evidence-based overview of (1) the frequency of foreign-language passages in written English in 1710–1920, (2) the variety of languages used in these texts in addition to English, and (3) the correlations and multifactorial traits between multilingual practices and textual features.

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DSNA

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The new science and new words in English and in dictionaries, ca. 1700

To mark the intersection of SHEL and DSNA and the beginning of a project charting the 'domains' of English in Early and Modern Britain, I will survey some relationships between scientific words and codifying works. I use the vague phrase 'codifying works' because scientific terminology necessarily questions how the 'dictionary' relates to the 'encyclopedia'.

I focus on the year 1700, an acknowledged watershed in the history of English and its lexicography. In 1702, John Kersey in his *New English Dictionary* established "the notion that a dictionary should as far as possible be an inventory of all the words of the language." In 1704, Isaac Newton wrote and published his *Opticks* in English, having published his *Principia* in Latin in 1687 (McArthur, s.v. "Dictionary" and "Latin").

My first aim is to synthesize the work that has already been done. The lengthy list of select references acknowledges my colleagues' achievements in the relevant fields of lexicography, science and scientific terminology, and Early Modern English.

By focusing on key words in scientific and in codifying works, I hope also to illuminate some relations between academic writing and encyclopedias and dictionaries, and perhaps more generally some relations between Latin and English. Because of Newton's reputation, I am interested in words he used in his writings, and whether and how these words appeared in near-contemporary codifying works. Although the 'advanced search' function of the *Oxford English Dictionary Online* identifies about 100 first citations of words and meanings from the works of Newton, the scientist is better known for his new work in fields with older words: fluxions (calculus), optics, and motion and gravitation. After learning more about how key concepts in these fields are referred to in Newton's Latin and English works, I will search for key terms in later dictionaries in order to trace whether and how they were codified. I will search these dictionaries through such resources as the *OED*, *Lexicons of Early Modern English* and *ECCO*. If these words are not in many near-contemporary dictionaries, they will still be in other publications on *ECCO*. Indeed, by tracing the dissemination of some of Newton's contributions outside if not within dictionaries, I hope also to learn how English functioned as a language of learning.

My preliminary findings suggest that 1700 was also a watershed for more vernacular dissemination of Newton's work. The *OED*'s almost 600 quotations from Newton's works generally are a useful starting point. Earlier dictionaries on *LEME* codify older but not scientific senses of relevant words, e.g. *fluxion*. In contrast, *OED* searches indicate that a few of Newton's Latin words from 1687 are codified in later dictionaries: Harris has the headword *Masse* (1704) and Kersey includes *inertia* in his 1706 edition of Phillips' *New World of Words*; the latter text also included Newton's recent use of the word *focus* in his English *Opticks* (1704). My initial research also suggests that codifiers like Raphson (1702) and Harris (1705-1710) drew as much on Newton's symbolic status as on his words (e.g. Menagarishvili 30-31).

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From *aaron's rod* to *zur*: Digitizing the card collection of the Dictionary of Newfoundland English

The *Dictionary of Newfoundland English* (*DNE*; Story, Kirwin and Widdowson 1982) is one of the most internationally acclaimed and best-known publications to emerge from the province of Newfoundland and Labrador. From the 1950s until the 1990s, the three *DNE* editors worked tirelessly to produce a dictionary organized along historical principles. The *DNE* second edition with supplement (1990) has been available online since 1999 (http://www.heritage.nf.ca/dictionary/). Under the management of Memorial University's English Language Research Centre (ELRC), the *DNE* Word-file Digitization Project aims to digitize the more than 100,000 word-files that went into the creation of the *DNE* and to make the data available to interested researchers. Digitization will also help to preserve the *DNE*'s primary and secondary source records.

The *DNE* collection consists of every word-file the editors of the *DNE* compiled while working on the publication. Each word-file contains an example of a local word in its actual usage, or a commentary on a word by the dictionary's editors and contributors. Some cards also show sketches and diagrams which help to define the word being investigated. About two thirds of these records are not represented in the published *DNE* entries, and constitute an essential source for future studies of the grammar and lexicon of Newfoundland English.

Since 2005, trained research assistants in the ELRC have been scanning each of these word-files and transcribing their contents into a searchable database. This phase of the project is nearing completion. A final phase will be to make the database available online to other researchers and interested parties. Scholars, in particular, will be interested in access to this raw corpus, collected from both textual sources and hundreds of oral interviews. The collection reveals a tremendous amount of variation in the local lexicon, grammar and pronunciation. This paper describes the collection and examines the digitization process, the methodology behind the process and the next steps for this one-of-a-kind collection.

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The pragmatics of abbreviation: negotiating between Latin and English in two manuscripts of Gower's *Confessio Amantis*

By translating the page of a medieval manuscript into a high-resolution colour image digital editing partially recreates what print editions dispensed with, namely the medieval reading experience. Part of that experience was mediation between distinct yet mutually dependent elements of the manuscript page: text and image, vernacular and Latin, letters and ideograms (symbols of abbreviation). Not unlike the medieval reader, the contemporary user of
a digitized manuscript becomes engaged in "the written text's linguistic content together with its visual appearance, including such details as its style of script, color of ink and layout on the page" (Rust 2013: 392). However, such "screen literacy" (cf. Kelly 2008) also envisages manners of interacting with

manuscripts unavailable for the medieval reader. 'Zoom-in' tools, annotated diplomatic transcriptions, or linked hypermedia, which prove indispensable for
the modern reader, tend to redefine the manuscript page as an assembly of distinct components (text, image, marginalia, etc.) rather than a sum of mutually dependent parts. This presentation 'zooms in' on Latin abbreviation symbols in two manuscripts of Gower's *Confessio Amantis* (Cambridge Trinity College MS R.3.2 and CUL MS Dd. 8.19) to investigate how the scribes use these non-alphabetic elements to negotiate between the textual (English vs. Latin) and the visual (layout, colour of the ink, type of script) layers of the manuscript page. Drawing on examples from the manuscripts under consideration, it will be argued that understanding abbreviating practices of the scribes requires 'zooming out' the manuscript page and looking at abbreviations as elements of the "visual text" (cf. Kendall et al. 2013). It will also be demonstrated how the scribes' usage of abbreviations allows the readers to construe the meaning of the text through internalising the physical organisation of the page.

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DSNA

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Of Gods and Dictionaries: American Baptist Missionary Women Lexicographers of the Nineteenth Century

Mrs. H. B. L. Cutter's *Vocabulary and Phrases, in English and A'sa'mese* was published by the American Baptist Mission Press of Jaipur in 1840. Prefaced by pronunciation and alphabet guides, the small dictionary describes about 2,500 headwords. The 102-page "Vocabulary" offers "English, A'sa'mese and Romanized" equivalents for nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections; while the 145-page "Phrases, Exhibiting the Principle Grammatical Peculiarities of the English Language, with the Corresponding Idioms in A'sa'mese" gives translations of simple phrases, such as "Where does this road lead?"; "I am tired of correcting this writing."; "I fear he will die, whatever medicines he may take."; and "Those who worship idols, will be sent to hell." (210, 231, 241, 248, all emphases original). Cutter's dictionary is remarkable for a number of reasons. Attributed to a woman, descriptive of Assamese, issued from an evangelical press in Jaipur, it plainly operates at the peripheries of nineteenth-century English language lexicography, the bulk of which was transpiring in commercial and scholarly centers (New York and London, New Haven and Oxford, Berlin and Paris) under the supervision of men who sought to describe an erudite English alone or in articulation to classical and modern European languages. But, of course, dictionaries were also important tools at the edges of English, far from England and the United States. Throughout the nineteenth century, agents of these Anglo governments and gods needed command of new languages to command new populations, and so we see an efflorescence of dictionaries and related language descriptions (grammars, pronunciation guides, linguistic treatises, and countless translations) in colonial locales. Jaipur's American Baptist mission was but one among many scenes of colonial lexicography, but it and the other American Baptist missions speckling southeast Asia were unique in at least two ways that I believe to be related. Firstly, these missions were the only site where dictionary making was regularly undertaken by women; at similar Christian missions elsewhere across the globe—in Africa, in territories throughout North America, in the Pacific Islands—dictionary making remained, mostly or entirely, the province of men. Meanwhile, American Baptist missionary women to southeast Asia—Stella Kneeland Bennett (1808–1891), Juliette Pattison Binney (1808–1884), Mary Jane Mead Clark (1832–1924), Harriett B. Low Cutter (1811–1883), Martha Howard Eveleth (1852–1916), Adele Marion Fielde (1839–1916), Eliza Grew Jones (1803–1838), Susan R. Stone Benjamin Ward (1822–1884)—made a number of general-purpose bilingual dictionaries of English and Sino-Tibetan or Indo-Aryan languages during the nineteenth century. In some ways, what is most extraordinary about Cutter's *Vocabulary and Phrases* is the very ordinary though rarely discussed occurrence it marks—of American women in southeast Asia making dictionaries. Secondly, the dictionaries made by women and issuing from Baptist missions in southeast Asia depart from the set of animating ideologies that were consolidating in the field of lexicography throughout the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. This paper surveys both the dictionaries made by American Baptist missionary women and their contributions to bilingual lexicographical thought.

DSNA

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Procedures and peculiarities in the elaboration of verb entry information for the Portuguese-English dictionary of verbs for Brazilian learners

Dictionaries are important for the foreign language learner, because they help, among other things, the acquisition of vocabulary and language use (Tarp, 2008, p. 47). Students of foreign languages, in general, choose bilingual dictionaries, (Hartmann, 1983) based on the imminent need to improve their knowledge and seek greater efficiency in learning. Bilingual Pedagogical Metalexicography reveals that dictionaries for production must provide information which are relevant to specific groups of learners and which will enable them to improve their language usage (Kromann et al. 1989). Dictionaries for production could be important and useful tools, especially during the writing activity, if they present information that are relevant for the learners. Complementary to this, when producing in the target language, a dictionary can help learners build up language knowledge and increase their repertoire, contributing to a greater efficiency in learning. This research is part of the project for the elaboration of the Portuguese-English Dictionary of Verbs (PEDV) for Brazilian learners. The elaboration of the PEDV is supported by FAPESP (Foundation for Research Support of the State of São Paulo, Brazil) and it is expected for publication in 2017. The PEDV is an innovative dictionary based on a contrastive linguistic approach, with emphasis on the needs of Brazilian Portuguese learners of English. A unique verb-entry-information pattern was carefully designed to meet learners' needs in language production (Zacarias, 2011). In this context, the aim of this paper is to present the foundation research that lead to the making of the PEDV. The main objectives are: (a) to present the specific features of a research analysis of existing Portuguese-English dictionaries, in order to provide lexicographical, morphological, synthetic and semantic-equivalent information for the PEDV A and B fascicles. The research in question is classified as an applied research, since it seeks to proffer solution(s). As for goals, it is exploratory (evidenced in the systematic observation of existing entries), as well as, descriptive in nature. Research procedures began with the identification of the most used verbs in Portuguese, based on bibliographical (Bay e Davies, 2008) and corpus review (http://www.sketchengine.co.uk/). This was followed by the conceptual analysis of verb entries in four Portuguese-English learner's dictionaries. This was validated with a monolingual Portuguese and a monolingual English dictionary. The peculiar features and relevance of the results were the focus of a more detailed study, which resulted in specific information for each verb entry.

DSNA

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Princeton University Society of Fellows

The Celestial Language in Persian Lexicography

In the middle of the sixteenth century, a man who called himself Azar Kayvan (1533-1618 CE) began to propagate a text entitled the *Dasātīr-i Āsmānī* ('The Celestial Regulations') as a work of divinely revealed scripture. The text was composed in a constructed language called the "Celestial Language" (*zabān-i āsmānī*) which Kayvan and his followers held to be the primal language of mankind, from which all the spoken languages of the world were derived. The text, together with a commentary composed in "pure Persian" without the use of Arabic loanwords, became the basis for a messianic movement in Iran and India tied to the event of the Islamic millennium. While the movement had mostly died by the mid-seventeenth century, in 1651, much of the constructed vocabulary of the *Dasātīr* was included in the compilation of the hugely influential Persian dictionary, the *Burhān-i Qāṭi'* ('The Clear-Cut Proof'), composed in the city of Golconda in the Indian Deccan. The *Burhān* proved to be an extremely influential dictionary, and consequently the language of the *Dasātīr* continued to be incorporated in later dictionaries. In this paper, I briefly trace the history of the Azar Kayvani movement before taking up debates about the language of the *Dasātīr* and its position in Persian lexicography during the nineteenth century. Well into the nineteenth century, the Indian poet Mirza Asadullah Ghalib (1797-1869) objected to the inclusion of the this vocabulary in the *Burhān* and wrote a treatise repudiating the text entitled the *Qāṭi'-i Burhān* ('Cutting the *Proof* to Shreds'), while at the same time nationalists in Iran began to advocate for the use of the language of the *Dasātīr* as a way of purifying the Persian language from the influence of Arabic. While the philological study of ancient Iranian languages in the nineteenth century ultimately proved that the language of the *Dasātīr* was in fact not an ancient but a constructed language, the vocabulary of the *Dasātīr* continued to be used by some Persian authors into the twentieth century, and isolated words remain in common use in the Persian language. Through an examination of debates of the position of the Celestial Language in Persian lexicography, I argue that during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, the Persian lexicon itself became a site of disenchantment and contested modernities.

SHEL

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"What Is Good English?": A Pragmatics View of Polite Language in Mississippi Freedom Schools

In 1964, U.S. Civil Rights activists organized in Mississippi to register African American voters in response to the extreme measures by which white leaders were keeping African Americans from registering to vote. Connected to this movement were the Mississippi Freedom Schools, which were created to address gross inequalities in educational opportunities for African Americans and to train students for civic engagement. In this presentation, which I consider to be primarily for SHEL, I discuss a case study of notes from a class Civil Rights activist Stokely Carmichael taught in a Waveland, Mississippi, Freedom School in 1965 that is emblematic of the politics of polite language and standardized English in the Civil Rights-era southern United States. Recorded by then-fellow SNCC field secretary Jane Stembridge, the notes describe a classroom conversation in which Carmichael prompts Freedom School students to consider not only what is "correct" English but also who decides what is "correct" and to what extent African American English (AAE) is a source of "embarrassment": the word, in various forms, is used six times in the recorded conversation.

I connect Carmichael's class to research in polite language and language attitudes, as well as studies of stigmatized U.S. dialects. As Watts (2011) observes, polite language and educated language were closely connected in 18th century England, and I argue that the mid-20th century southern U.S. was much the same, and that white citizens capitalized on this in order to further disenfranchise African Americans. After all, scholars of the Civil Rights era, such as sociologist Randolph Hohle (2013), have argued that the Freedom Schools, like the Student Non-violent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) that organized them and with which activists such as Dr. Martin Luther King Jr. were associated, worked to debunk negative stereotypes of African Americans by reinforcing "non-threatening" interactions. I suggest that the notes from Carmichael's class represent a linguistic reality of the Civil Rights movements in the Southern United States: African Americans confronting the conflation (by the white middle-to-upper class) of using AAE with being fundamentally "impolite" and thus unfit for full citizenship. Both the questions Carmichael asks his students and his students' frustrated replies suggest the limitations and losses of using "polite" white middle/upper class English to do the work of advancing civil rights. This situated, discourse-analytic examination illuminates the social implications of pragmatic models of polite language. After all, as Curzan (2014) argues, it is important to account for metalinguistic discussions of language and prescriptivism—even in our recent past—in our understanding of language history.

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Stembridge, J. 1965. *Stokely's Speech Class*. Retrieved from http://www.crmvet.org/lets/lstemb1.htm

Watts, R. J. 2011. *Language myths and the history of English*. New York: Oxford University Press.

SHEL

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The evolution of African American English(es): new evidence from the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries

While previous studies (Schneider 1989, Kautzsch 2002) on African American English (AAE) have yielded important insights into the evolution of this variety in the second half of the nineteenth and the beginning of the twentieth century, still very little is known about how English evolved among this community in the antebellum period. This paper sets out to report on new data from the Corpus of Older African American Letters, containing more than 1,500 semi-literate letters written by African Americans between 1763 and 1910. An earlier study on letters from this corpus provided evidence for the Northern Subject Rule and showed that there is relatively little regional variation in subject-verb concord in the 1880s and 1890s even in highly diverse sociohistorical settings (Siebers fc. 2015). Thus the question emerges whether this was the result of continuing homogenization and levelling in the course of the nineteenth century (cf.

Winford 1997:336) and if so, whether we find a similar degree of homogenization with regard to other features. Hence the main aim of this paper is to examine the amount of variability regarding subject-verb concord and past time reference with a focus on letters written in the first half of the nineteenth century. While the focus of this article will be on AAE, the results will also be compared to the Southern Plantation Overseer Corpus (Schneider & Montgomery 2001, Trüb 2006), which contains similar semi-literate letters and - both in terms of region and period studied - nicely matches the AAE data. Although it is generally agreed that the development of AAE is inextricably linked to that of Southern American English, still very little is known about the relationship of earlier forms of both varieties (this holds particularly true for the first half of the nineteenth century). According to Bailey (2001:53), this is among other reasons due to the lack of emphasis on the sociohistorical context of AAE and the absence of suitable data for both varieties. With the availability of the two corpora, it is hoped that such a much needed comparison sheds further light on the amount of "linguistic variability in earlier black-white sociolinguistic relations" (Schneider 2007: 268).

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Siebers, Lucia. fc. 2015. Assessing heterogeneity. In Anita Auer, Daniel Schreier & Richard J. Watts (eds.), *Letter writing and language change*, 240-263. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Trüb, Regina. 2006. Nonstandard verbal paradigms in Earlier White Southern American English. *American Speech* 81(3), 250-265.

Winford, Donald. 1997. "On the origins of African American Vernacular English – A creolist perspective. Part 1: Sociohistorical background". *Diachronica* 14(2), 305-344.

DSNA

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Dictionaries of Linguistics: A Lexicographic View

Perhaps more than any other discipline, linguistics seems to be a prime candidate for a specialized dictionary due to both its recent coming-of-age —from the nineteenth century but especially in the second half of the twentieth century— and its interest in words' functions and meanings. It is unsurprising then that in the English-speaking world alone, there exist no fewer than seven dictionaries, each with different numbers of editions, that are intended to be true dictionaries of linguistics, i.e. to provide definitions that encompass the many subfields of the discipline. There are also various encyclopedic and online dictionaries as well as a great number of even more specialized dictionaries dedicated to subfields such as sociolinguistics, historical and comparative linguistics, applied linguistics, stylistics, and probably least surprising of all, lexicography. Despite the number and variety of these dictionaries, there has been no study of their differences and similarities, their obstacles, their methodologies, and their reception. In this study, I compare four of the leading dictionaries of linguistics: Crystal (2008), Matthews (2005), Trask (1997), and Bussmann (1996). I describe some basic information about the macrostructure of each dictionary, including the number of entries and the country of origin, as well as any pertinent special features of the volume in question, e.g. whether it includes encyclopedic entries about people or places. I include a quantification of the number of entries per subfield for each of these dictionaries, comparing them with the coverage of other, earlier dictionaries of linguistics. I also compare the microstructure of each dictionary, particularly the structure of each entry and the treatment of homophony and polysemy. Lastly, I look at how well the dictionaries cover particular terms whose use diverges considerably across subfields, including lexicalization, reconstruction, and jargon. I conclude with a call for a corpus-based dictionary of linguistics that is compiled by specialists in different areas, for a more complete dictionary that reflects the field as a whole.

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Crystal, D. (2008). A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics, 6th edition. Cambridge, Mass.: Blackwell.
Matthews, P. H. (2007). The concise Oxford dictionary of linguistics, 2nd edition. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Press.
Trask, R. L. (1997). A student's dictionary of language and linguistics. London: St. Martin's Press.

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Change and Continuity: The Development of Burial Language in Early English

In Modern English, *grave* is a common lexeme used for an inhumation burial site. The noun *grave* derives from a common Germanic strong verb, which in Old English (OE) is *grafan* 'to dig' (*OED*, *grave*, n. and v.). During the Anglo-Saxon period, however, the use of OE *græf* as a noun indicating a place of burial is rare, with the *Dictionary of Old English* (*DOE*-Web Corpus) noting only six occurrences in secular and religious writings. The few remaining nominal examples in the *DOE* are used to gloss Latin words for *cave* or *tunnel*, to express *trench* or *ditch* in a Charter, or as a compound element in a place-name. The *Historical Thesaurus of English* (version 4.2. 2014) indicates that in addition to *græf* various words including *byrignes*, *eorþscræf*, *þryh*, *leger*, *lich-rest*, and *pytte* are used in OE to express the place of burial. In early Middle English (ME), loan words such as *sepulcher* and *tomb* (with the sense of excavation in earth or rock) are used more frequently in non-Latin textual contexts, and it is not until the early fourteenth century that *grave* resurfaces in the data, surviving to the present day.

Archaeologists and historians have written extensively on mortuary practices and the funerary landscape of Anglo-Saxon England, analyzing, among other features, burial mounds and monuments, grave goods and votive deposits, and unconsecrated and consecrated burial grounds. While this body of research illustrates changes in cultural practices associated with death and burial, minimal attention has been given to the language associated with these customs, particularly the place of burial. An article by Sarah Semple (1998) draws upon the use of burial terms such as *eorðscrafa*, *stan-beorh*, *hlæw*, and *leger* to discuss Anglo-Saxon attitudes toward prehistoric barrows. In a more recent study, Victoria Thompson (2004) includes a brief discussion on certain terms used for the grave and grave-furniture in her examination of Anglo-Saxon ideas about dying and death. Although Semple and Thompson address specific burial terms, the primary focus of each is not burial language and changes within this lexical field.

Therefore, my study uses both on-line corpora (i.e., *Dictionary of Old English*, *Middle English Compendium*, *Oxford English Dictionary*) and OE and ME secular, religious, and legal texts to examine the language used for inhumation burial sites in early English. In doing so, I identify and discuss lexical differences among the OE literary genres, differences between the burial vocabulary in verse and prose, and, finally, OE glosses of Latin burial terms. I then identify and analyze changes in burial language as the period transitions to ME, including the use of loanwords and the rise of *grave* and *grave* compounds. In addition to linguistic evidence, I also draw upon archaeological and historical evidence to discuss possible influences changing religious and cultural customs had on the development of burial language from Old English to Middle English.

DSNA

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Multiple equivalence in bilingual dictionaries: types and lexicographic treatment

The present paper construes multiple equivalence (ME) as a subset of cross-linguistic lexical differences. The author proposes a taxonomy of the types of multiple equivalence and the strategies of its treatment in bilingual dictionaries. In addition to the obvious interest this phenomenon has been commanding in lexicography (e.g., Zgusta 1971, Al-Kasimi 1977, Yong & Peng 2007), important direct and indirect contributions to the study of multiple equivalence can be found in various other intellectual traditions from ordinary language philosophy (most notably in Frege 1982 & Puttnam 1975), to linguistic anthropology (Goddard 2012), translatology (Pym 2009), and second language teaching (Kramsch 1993).

Based on bottom-up metadata gathering of more than 100 languages from bilingual dictionaries, linguistic monographs, and structured interviews with dictionary compilers and users, the author identifies the following types of multiple equivalence: ME in operators, entity-based ME, concept-related ME, tangled ME, scalar ME, zero-equivalence-based ME, and partial-equivalence-based ME (which includes application splits, organization splits, syntagmatic splits, network-based splits, frequency-based splits, and mental-imagery splits). One particular dictionary entry may contain more than one type of multiple equivalence. For example, there exists non-scalar multiple equivalence between American English *carburetor* and its three Croatian counterparts: *rasplinjač*, *karburator*, and *fergazer*, but these equivalents also feature a connotation difference (*rasplinjač* is considered bookish, *karburator* neutral, and *fergazer* archaic). There is furthermore a syntagmatic difference (*rasplinjač* is used in formal texts, the other two in informal texts), as well as a network difference: *rasplinjač* is a compound word, consisting of the prefix *ras-* 'distribute', the suffix *–ač* 'agent' and the stem *plin* 'gas /fluid/'. Its literal meaning is 'the agent of distributing gas' and, as such, it features a network link with the word *gas*, while other two words, being borrowings from French and German respectively, do not have such links (however there is awareness of them being borrowed).

The established types of ME do not correspond with the strategies of their lexicographic treatment. These strategies are rather influenced by the interplay of ME types and general lexicographic parameters, most notably the dictionary type, its lexical scope and size, target audience, microstructure, and rendering medium.

The author establishes the following types of valid lexicographic strategies (i.e., those that are successful in resolving multiple equivalence): enumeration, decomposition, paradigmatization, paraphrasing, specification, exemplification, co-textualization, contextualization, reconstruction, and cross-referencing. Each strategy exhibits a higher or lower degree of appropriateness for one or more established types of ME. The author also identifies the following typical problems in the treatment of ME (i.e., the divergences from the aforementioned valid strategies): strategy mismatch, vagueness, lack of explanation or specification, redundancy, underspecification overlaps, overspecification gaps, mislabeling, inadequate exemplification, language mismatch, inconsistent segregation, equivalent omission, and overinterpretation. Special attention is devoted to discussing the possibilities of automatic or semi-automatic detection of these problematic strategies.

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DSNA

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Caribbean Creole Lexicography: a History and Typology

Interest in lexicographic description of creole languages emerged as early as the middle of the 18th century. Thus, the earliest dictionary mentioned in literature, a dictionary of Sranan, Neger-Englisches Wörter-Buch, was compiled in 1783 by a Moravian missionary C.L. Schumann. In the 19th century, two more dictionaries of Sranan were published – Neger-Engelsch Woordenboek compiled by Paramaribo Creole lawyer H.C Focke (1885), and Deutsch-negerenglisches Wörterbuch, compiled by another Moravian missionary H.R. Wullschlägel (1856). These publications must have laid the foundations of Creole lexicography as such.

Caribbean is a linguistic Klondike. The uniqueness of Caribbean cultural history, of the way of life, and the languages could not but influence the development of lexicography.

The aim of this study is to investigate the history of the Caribbean creole lexicography and to develop a typological classification of the dictionaries compiled.

As "the delimitation issue of what counts as a creole language is a vexed one" (Muysken & Law 2001: 48) formal criteria were used in dictionaries selection: there had to be the words 'Creole'/'Kreyol'/'Patois' and 'Caribbean' in the title. Besides, we only selected dictionaries in which English is the language Creole lemmas are translated into or vice versa. We did not include dictionaries of Papiamentu/o as Ramon Todd Dandaré already presented the results of their analysis at the Mother Language Day Conference (Aruba, 2014).

The corpus comprises 68 dictionaries representing Creole languages of 8 countries of the region: Belize (1 dictionary), Dominica (2 dictionaries), Grenada (2 dictionaries), Haiti (50 dictionaries), Jamaica (3 dictionaries), St Lucia (3 dictionaries), Trinidad & Tobago (4 dictionaries), Virgin Islands (1 dictionary), and Caribbean in general (2 dictionaries).

The main method applied is that of dictionary criticism developed by R. R. K. Hartman. The following conclusions were drawn:

- Caribbean creole lexicography is characterized by positive dynamics with 1 dictionary published in 1940s, 7 dictionaries – in 1980s, 25 dictionaries – in 1990s, 21 dictionaries – in the first decade of the 21st century, and 14 dictionaries – in the period from 2010–2014.
- A notable factor is the beginning of the development of electronic lexicography.
- Dynamics of Caribbean lexicography correlating with the development of creole linguistics reflects the growing status of Creoles and their role in self-identification of Creole speakers.
- Development of terminography manifests the expanding of the Creoles domain.
- Dictionaries were compiled and/or published in the USA (35 dictionaries), Haiti, Belize, Dominica, Grenada, Jamaica, St. Lucia, Trinidad and Tobago, US Virgin Islands, Germany, Canada, and India.
- Typologically, both general (37) and specialized (32) dictionaries belong to the bilingual category. The category of specialized dictionaries is represented by learner's (19) and terminological (10) dictionaries as well as by 2 dictionaries of idioms and 1 dictionary of pronunciation.

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SHEL

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"The Great Type and Pattern of Negro Excellence": Genre, Audience, and Text Construction in J.R. Beard's 1863 Translation of *The Memoir of General Toussaint L'Ouverture*

Gideon Toury, describing the process by which translators negotiate linguistic and cultural differences in translating texts, notes that "Translators may . . . be said to operate first and foremost in the interest of the culture into which they are translating" (6). This process becomes even more complex when translators must account for not only geographical, but temporal distance, as is the case in the translation of historical documents. Translation is, as Torop and Osimo contend, "the creation of a language of mediation between various cultures" (383), wherein the translator must make conscious rhetorical choices that reflect not only the spirt and intent of the source text, but the sociocultural context in which the translator himself/herself operates. When the text in question is intended for public consumption, the translator must also take into account audience expectations and genre conventions.

To illustrate the uneasy tension between linguistic accuracy and marketability concerns in the translation of historical documents across time and sociocultural context, I examine J.R. Beard's 1863 English translation of *The Memoir of General Toussaint L'Ouverture*. L'Ouverture, the slave-turned-general who fought against slavery during the Haitian Revolution from 1791 until this death in 1803, was already well known as a historical figure in 1863. Though this memoir was marketed as an account of L'Ouverture's life "written by himself" (Beard 295), the document had by this point undergone multiple stages of editing, standardization, and translation (Girard 17). My aim in this paper is to examine how Beard's linguistic and rhetorical choices prioritize his audience's expectations and the political context of

19th-century England over the socio-historical context of 1803 Haiti. Because the primary motivation behind American slave narratives was to advocate for the abolition of slavery (Olney 154), I argue that Beard took care to reconstruct L'Ouverture's voice in a way that conformed as much as possible to his audience's expectations of a slave narrative, a genre to which the source text does not easily conform. I will pay particular attention to evidence of language standardization (e.g., the addition of punctuation not found in the source text), word choice and sentence structure characteristic of the 19th-century slave narrative (e.g., the use of "florid, sentimental, declamatory rhetoric" [Olney 164]), and generic structure (e.g., the addition of structural components not evident in the original).

Though the original French version of Louverture's memoir has been analyzed as an important document in the development of Haitian Creole (Girard 23-30), there is as yet no linguistic analysis of Beard's translation, the version most widely used by English-speaking historians today. This translation illustrates how translators and editors manipulate language to portray their subjects in a particular light even (and perhaps especially) in memoir, a genre typically thought to be composed solely by the subject himself or herself. It also reveals much about how audience expectations have operated throughout history to not only force conformity to established discursive norms and language ideologies, but to enforce social and political agendas through the adherence to and subversion of generic conventions.

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DSNA

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How do people use cross-references in online dictionaries?

The early years of the electronic dictionary age have created exciting opportunities for lexicographers to see how people really use their dictionaries in natural, daily lookups. Prior studies have had small sample sizes, and often focused on examining users' execution of defined tasks; this paper will use samples from a high-traffic online dictionary (76 million monthly unique visitors), to investigate the behavior of a large number of users "in the wild."

Commonly-used traffic analytics for other kinds of web publishing are not necessarily applicable to lexical reference: metrics like "time on site" and "engagement" are meaningful for a wide gamut of publishers, from newspapers to blogs, but the special nature of lexical reference suggests that a successful dictionary entry may see its user spending a minimal amount of time on site before returning to whatever they were doing pre-lookup.

Cross-references are an archetypal feature of dictionaries, but in electronic formats, every single word in a definition may be automatically linked to its own entry. Space-saving cross references from the print legacy almost certainly do users a disservice, but other kinds of informational or comparative cross-references may help inform users without overwhelming them with information. Server logs permit editors to observe the paths that users take from entry to entry in web dictionaries. This study will examine user behavior in a high-traffic web dictionary, Dictionary.com, and compare users' reception of explicit cross-references with alternative methods of navigation. What types of cross-references do users tend to click, and what sorts do they ignore? How might this influence future editorial revision and content presentation?

We will also characterize the usage patterns across platforms in an effort to glean how users tend to approach lookups differently on desktops, tablets, and mobile devices. Will this change how we think about cross-references as the user moves from one device to another?

SHEL

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"And it shal be helid by *corrosyues, confortatiues, repercussiues, mytigatiues*, and *strictories*…" – technical terms in medieval English medical texts.

The examination of the medieval medical lexicon reveals that Late Middle English period laid solid foundations for the formation of English scientific vocabularies, at least in the sphere of medicine (McConchie 1997, Norri 1992, 2004; Sylwanowicz 2009). Most Middle English scientific texts were translated from or derived from Latin or French treatises. As a result, it is not unexpected to find a large number of foreign terms in vernacular writings (Taavitsainen & Pahta 1998, 2004). The study of the medieval medical translations shows that their compilers employed various techniques in order to find adequate English words for the names of medical terms that represent various lexical fields.

A preliminary research of the material reveals that the texts analysed offer various ways of classifying the pharmaceutical substances. The prevailing humoral theory classified medicines into: hot, cold, dry and moist medicines. Medicines were also classified as those applied internally or externally (*ynward or outward* and *withyn or wythoute* medicines) or as simple and compound. Also, medicines could be grouped according to their dosage forms: liquids (e.g. *oil, sirup, oximel, drynk*), semi-solids (e.g. *oyntment, salue, unguent, uncture, emplaster*) solids (e.g. *pouder, pillule, suppository*), or according to their properties (e.g. *strong, sharp, easy, bitter, cleaning, mollificatiue, incarnatiue, repercussiue*). Within all categories we find terms of both Old English and Romance heritage. Hence, the aim of the paper is to show how the medieval translators varied in their choice of words, and to explain possible conditioning factors that influenced their choices. The analysis will be based on the examination of terms denoting the properties of medicines.

The data for the paper come from the *Oxford English Dictionary*, the *Middle English Dictionary* available online and the *Middle English Medical Texts* (MEMT), a computerized collection of medical treatises from c. 1375 to c. 1500. The MEMT is a comprehensive tool which provides a solid basis for studies focusing on one register of writing.

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Grammar in flux: Middle English as the cradle of the 'modern' absolute construction

The English absolute construction (AC) (1) is a non-finite construction which consists of two core elements: a (pro-)nominal subject and a predicate. The AC may, but need not, be introduced by a preposition; in the latter case it is called augmented (2-3). ACs express additional background information of an adverbial or elaborating nature (elaboration in (1), condition in (2) and anteriority in (3)).

1) *The girl was pale and intense, her expression revealing nothing*. (BNC, 1991)
2) ***With** you with us, they'll 've won the war before we've finished the movie*. (KU Leuven drama corpus, 1971)
3) *And, **after** mass done, every clerk went their* procession … (PPCEME, 1550s)

A preliminary study of the English AC from Old to Present-day English based on corpora such as YCOE, PENN and BNC has established that Middle English (ME) constitutes a turning point in the AC's history, as this period marks:

a. the emergence of new, quasi-coordinate ACs (replaceable by an and-coordinated
b. finite clause, as in (1)) (Author & Anonymous 2013)
c. the increasing range of predicate types (with the addition of AdjPs, AdvPs, PrepPs
d. and infinitives)
e. a boom in augmentor types (argued by Visser 1972 but so far not fully corroborated by the preliminary data)

The importance of these developments has been insufficiently recognized, partly due to data scarcity. In the available literature (Visser 1972, Kisbye 1991, Kohnen 2004, Ross 1893), the ME period is under-researched and the claims made are largely descriptive and based on a limited dataset. It is the purpose of this paper to revisit the above developments using a more extensive ME dataset drawn from corpora such as PPCME2, LEON, the Innsbruck Prose Corpus and LAEME. Specific attention will be given to:

i. the role of case loss and semantic bleaching of the AC's originally strong temporal meaning (Timofeeva 2010) in the emergence of quasi-coordinate ACs – addresses development (a)

ii. the role of semantic analogy in the development of novel predicate types; e.g. a past participle expressing a (resultant) state (as in, *'with swords drawn'*) may, in combination with the AC's subject nominal, allow replacement by an AdjP/NP/PrepP on the basis of their shared 'state' semantics (as in, *'her husband dead'*) – addresses development (b)
iii. the role of case loss and analogy with adverbial prepositional phrases in the expansion of augmentor types (2-3) – addresses development (c)
iv. the role of the emerging verbal gerund in the subsequent loss of most augmentors (in Modern English) as well as the reasons for the increasing frequency of the *with* augmentor (2) and its ultimate constructionalization (Traugott & Trousdale 2013) into a semantically empty AC-marker (Author & Anonymous 2014) – further addresses development (c)

It is expected that this study will lead to a better understanding of the mechanisms of change underlying the AC's development and that it will provide a crucial missing link in the development of the AC from Old English to Modern English.

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SHEL

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'think on roary and his powder dry': Nineteenth-century Irish English threatening notices

Throughout the nineteenth century, the rural midlands of Ireland suffered from agrarian violence by 'secret societies', whose membership according to contemporary sources consisted solely of the lower ranks of society. One of the aims of these so-called 'Ribbon' societies was to control the local labour conditions and settle rent and land disputes. Though there were indeed outbreaks of violence, the Ribbon societies predominantly used fear and intimidation to achieve their goals. One of their means of intimidation was the sending of threatening notices which were 'flying around Westmeath like Christmas cards in the 1860s' (Whehelan 2012). A collection of these threatening notices are kept in the National Archives of Ireland and provide a source of lower-order writing from nineteenth-century Ireland, hitherto unexplored for linguistic purposes. The collection consists of approximately 150 notices written between 1864 and 1870, predominantly in the county of Westmeath.

My paper, submitted for consideration at the SHEL-9 conference, will provide a brief exploration of these notices in terms of its *genre,* trying to answer questions such as: who sent and/or wrote the notices? who received them? what was their aim? The main aim of the paper, however, is an analysis of the *text-type* of the notices, looking at such linguistic variables as spelling, punctuation, use of personal pronouns, sentence complexity, etc (cf. Biber 2001; Nurmi & Palander-Collin 2008). Of particular importance in defining the text-type of these notices are the linguistic mechanisms for negotiating identity. The authors of these notices belonged to a 'secret' society which had the interests of the lower orders at heart. Therefore, they needed to construct a social identity which was indexical of this secret society a) in order to signal a collective rather than an individual threat, and b) to justify their actions to their peers. However, at the same time, they needed to avoid any features in their writing that would be indexical of their personal identity in order to avoid conviction by the authorities. Thus, it is hoped that my paper will shed light on strategies for negotiating social group identity and concealing personal identity in nineteenth-century Irish English threatening notices in particular, and the genre and text type of these notices in general.

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SHEL

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The Length of *y* in the Old English Adjective *dryge* ‘dry’

It is commonly assumed that the English adjective *dry* reflects Old English *drȳge*, with a long vowel *ȳ* in its root.[4] Contrary to this view, a short vowel is used in W. W. Skeat’s etymological dictionary of the English language (Skeat 1888) and a few other works (Vercouille 1898, Kemble 1843). A similar discrepancy may be observed in the Old and Middle English dictionaries: in J. Bosworth’s *Anglo-Saxon Dictionary* (BT), a short vowel is assumed in OE *dryg*(*g*)*e*/*drig*(*g*)*e* ‘dry’ and the related words. However, in the *Anglo-Saxon Dictionary Supplement* (BTS), all the short vowels of BT were changed to the corresponding long vowels. Long vowels are also assumed in Bosworth (1901, a shorter version of BT), CASD, as well as MED, where the Middle English form is presented as *drǖȝe*.

The phonological argumentation for these differing opinions is provided only very rarely, and the two major arguments for the reconstruction of the long vowel are 1) the long vowel in Middle Dutch *drūge* ‘dry’ (Heidermanns 1993), 2) presence of Old English manuscript forms like *dryggum* (dat. sg.), which were taken to indicate vowel length by Campbell (1959). Neither of these works considered the etymology of the word.

In this presentation, I would like to review the history and the etymology of the Old English adjective *dryge*, evaluating the existing etymological analyses and the phonological development of both *dryge* and its cognates in the other Germanic languages. I intend to demonstrate that the alleged evidence of Middle Dutch *drūge* is flawed, and that in early Dutch, this adjective still contained a short vowel. Likewise, Campbell’s hypothesis that the doubling of the consonant *g* in *dryggum* can indicate the length of the preceding vowel is most likely wrong, too, in spite of his additional examples (*anwigge* for the underlying *ānwīge* ‘combat’ [dat. sg.] and *astiggende* for *āstīgende* ‘descending’). In my presentation, I will offer a very different phonological analysis of these aberrant spellings, and provide additional support for

[4] Holthausen (1917), Sievers/Brunner (1942), Partridge (1958), Campbell (1959), Klein (1966), Onions (1966), Weekley (1967), Holthausen (1974), Barnhart (1988), Heidermanns (1993), Terasawa (1997), Kroonen (2013), OED.

my claims from Middle English, demonstrating that such spellings are not probative for the ascertainment of vowel length.

Finally, it must be noted that the studies favouring the reconstruction of the long vowel for OE *dryge* ignored related data that clearly exhibit short vowels, cf. Old Saxon *drucno/drokno* ‘dryly’ (adv.), Old High German *trokkan* ‘dry’, both of which ultimately reflect *n*-formations (probably **đrŭg̱nu-* < PIE **dhrugh-nu-*).

My conclusion is that the vowel in Old English *dryge* was short, and reflected an earlier **u*, which became fronted due to *i*-umlaut. The forms exhibiting long vowels, such as late Dutch *druuge*, *drooge* etc., or Old English *drȳgan* ‘(cause to) dry’, can be explained via later open syllable vowel lengthening (as in Dutch), or as being spelling variants of forms reflecting other types of derivation. Thus, OE *drȳgan* should be seen as a banal spelling variant of a historically expected **drīegan*, a derivative built in an altogether different way, and reflecting an entirely regular earlier causative **đraug̱ijan-* < PIE **dhrough-é□e-*.

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Semantic component of phraseological units from literary sources in online dictionaries

The aim of this paper is to thoroughly study the usability and efficiency of the semantic component of phraseological units (PUs) in online dictionaries. For the purpose of the study, a database was created consisting of PUs originating from literary works, ancient legends, fables and the Bible. These PUs were compiled using two print dictionaries of idioms, i.e., *Dictionary of Idioms and Their Origins* and *Oxford Idioms Dictionary for Learners of English*. In the *Dictionary of Idioms and Their Origins*, all the PUs that can be found in the Index of themes under the following headings were included: Idioms from ancient legends, Idioms from the Bible, Idioms from fables, Idioms from literature and Idioms from Shakespeare. The *Oxford Idioms Dictionary for Learners of English*, however, includes notes on the origin of some PUs, and only those stating clearly the literary source for PU were taken into consideration. The database of PUs obtained by taking account of the above criteria contains 141 PUs. Using the Google Search "define: …" query option, the PUs were sought in online dictionaries. Among the online dictionaries, the first three yielded by Google Search were taken into consideration. All the information found in these three dictionaries was copied into the database and investigated to be able to determine the type and usability of semantic information, especially from the point of view of a non-native speaker of English. The main aim of this research was to investigate what kind of semantic information can be found by users of online dictionaries – nowadays the type of dictionaries consulted by an increasing number of dictionary users. The focus was on the definition part of the dictionary entry, which is often confusing for various reasons: etymology used in place of a definition; definition and etymology included under different sense numbers or separated by a punctuation mark; definition, (example of use) and etymology merged; incorrect part of speech for the definition or misleading definition. Note and Usage notes sections are also discussed.

Last but not least, suggestions are made as to possible improvements in the structure of the dictionary entry and the inclusion of other types of information (e.g., definition as an obligatory information category; a strict demarcation line between the definition section and the origin section (if both are included); observation of the established order of information categories, i.e., definition, example(s) of use, etymology; the contents of the Usage notes section). These suggestions should contribute to the usability, intelligibility and user-friendliness of the dictionary entries for PUs in online dictionaries.

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Diasystematic information in MLDs: the user in focus

Labels in dictionaries provide information about restrictions and constraints on the use of certain words or senses in the contexts in which they occur or in relation to other words described in a dictionary. These restrictions and constraints are referred to as diasystematic information. The aim of this paper is to study labels used in five British monolingual learner's dictionaries (MLDs), i.e., OALD8, LDOCE6, COBUILD7, CALD4, MED2, and to establish whether the labels used are clear enough for the intended user to distinguish between them.

A comparison of the print edition and the electronic versions (CD-ROM/DVD-ROM and online dictionaries) of the same dictionary shows that some labels used in the dictionaries are close in interpretation. Among these labels, the labels *formal, literary* and *written* may pose some problems for advanced learners of English, especially if they are used together. Similarly, the labels *informal* and *spoken* appear in many MLDs but the explanations provided in the dictionaries may also not help the user to differentiate between them.

Sets of labels expressing opposing connotative values (*formal* and *informal*, *polite* and *impolite*, *spoken* and *written*) are also discussed and so are *idiom, saying, TM/trademark, abbreviation* and *written abbreviation*, which cannot be considered labels proper. The latter do not fall into any of the categories for the classification of diasystematic information because they give information on the type of lexical item or the origin of the lexical item.

MED2 is the only dictionary that lists subject-field labels. In OALD8, the only subject-field label enumerated in the list of labels is the generic label *technical*, but other subject-field labels are also used in the dictionary. The opposite extreme is the use of labels denoting sub-fields (e.g., *medical* vs. *anatomy*). If such labels are used, one would expect an explanation of the distinction between them.

Another feature characteristic of the CD-ROM of OALD8 is that the labels expressing diaintegrative information (e.g., from *French*) are found under Region. These labels are definitely not to be mixed with labels expressing diatopic information; thus it is not recommendable to list both groups of labels together. Consequently, dictionaries would benefit from theoretical classification of labels for their presentation in the front matter or in the electronic versions.

A general observation is that all MLDs list very different labels among what they call register or style labels, although they are far from being register or style labels, e.g., *dialect, rare, technical* (OALD8); *biblical, law, trademark* (LDOCE6); *abbreviation, female* (CALD4); *dialect, legal, military* (COBUILD7). This practice should be avoided and possible solutions are put forward in the contribution.

As opposed to print dictionaries, online dictionaries are the most deficient as regards information on diasystematic labelling as well as other metalexicographic information. To conclude, information about the restrictions and limitations provided by diasystematic information is vital for decoding and even more so for encoding. It should therefore be tailored to the users' needs and skills, so that users can use this type of information correctly and efficiently.

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OE without Short Diphthongs

There are two main reasons that "OE without short diphthongs" is a *desideratum*. First, short diphthongs are not known to exist in any living language, and are theoretically improbable: all known cases where two consecutive sounds can count as one involve egress from or ingress to a homorganic closure. The argument from parallelism, that just as long consonants and monophthongs imply short consonants and monophthongs, long diphthongs imply short diphthongs, founders on the fact that though all languages have short consonants and monophthongs the same is not true of short diphthongs. Second, it is a suspicious coincidence that "under-moraic" spellings, with two vowels somehow not representing two moras, occur in Irish of all periods (e.g. "gaib" = /gav^j/), and that OE is written in the Irish hand.

The basis of a solution was presented (very problematically) by Daunt (1939): Irish missionary linguists heard OE as having a sound system of the Irish type, with palatalized and velarized Cs (Quinn 1975: 5), and spelled OE in a spelling system of the Irish type, with front or back Vs serving as diacritics indicating front or back Cs (as in "gaib"). This interpretation of Old Irish spelling, though apparently a minority view these days, also seems best on internal grounds, since the main alternative, a mixed system with both 1) two kinds of secondarily articulated Cs and 2) short diphthongs, is no more attested than the traditional system with three kinds of secondarily articulated Cs that it aims to replace, on the grounds that the latter is unattested.

The two main questions are: 1) how written OE is to be interpreted *synchronically* without short diphthongs, and 2) how spoken OE developed *diachronically* without short diphthongs. The major sound changes are as follows. First, /-u/ > /-o/. This change was apparently motivated by contact with Brittonic, which did not have diphthongs in /-u/ but did have front vowels followed by unstressed /-o/, e.g. "Riothamus" (Jackson 1953: 305-7, 459-60). In later years, /ioC, eoC/ would sound to Irish ears like /iiC^ɣ, eeC$^{\text{γ}}$/, to Irish eyes appropriately spelled as "ioC, eoC", coincidentally reproducing native perception and thus masking foreign misperception. To later observers, seeing no problem with short diphthongs, the fact that long "io,eo" represented long diphthongs would imply that short "io,eo" represented short diphthongs. Second, /h-x/ split into /h, $x^{\text{γ}}$, x^{j}/, in accordance with phonetics, but with /x^{j}/ remaining before /t,s/ in peasant dialect. The motivation was that Brittonic had /h, $x^{\text{γ}}$, x^{j}/, with /x^{j}/ always before /t,s/ (Jackson 1953: 404, 517, 565). Third, /x^{j}/ > /$x^{\text{γ}}$/ in noble dialect, except when followed by umlaut conditioners. The motivation was hypercorrect reaction against overuse of /x^{j}/ in peasant dialect. Fourth, using "E" to mean any front V, /EE$x^{\text{γ}}$/ and /Eo$x^{\text{γ}}$/ fell together, probably (despite what the spelling seems to indicate to non-Irish eyes) as /EE$x^{\text{γ}}$/. The final *explanandum* will be the putative spelling system of "Pre-Mercian", developed probably by Maeldubh and Aldhelm at Malmesbury around 660. Three tables will show 1) how OE was misperceived by the Irish, 2) how OE, thus misperceived, was spelled by the Irish, and 3) how the resulting spelling system was itself misperceived, and altered where this appeared to be sensible, by the English. The result will be an interpretation of OE that does not suffer from the problems noted at the outset.

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DSNA

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A Typology of Defining Strategies Used for Color Terms

Color terms pose a challenge to lexicographers for several reasons. First, color terms rarely refer to a single shade; they more often signify a range. Additionally, speakers often disagree on the name of the color they are seeing. Berlin and Kay (1969) found that speakers do not consistently mark the boundaries of a color, even in their native language. When defining color terms, a lexicographer must decide: What scientific facts, if any, should be included in the definition of a color term? Is the information purely language-immanent, or does the definition rely on the reader's real-world experience? As many colors are named after objects, how independent is the color term from the object for which it was named? Given such difficulties, the ways lexicographers define color terms merit investigation.

Richard Robinson's, *Definition* (1954), is one of the few book-length examinations of defining. In it, Robinson gives seven methods of lexicographic definition, some or all of which appear in most dictionaries of western European languages. Robinson's explanations of the strategies in his typology do not, however, always apply to defining color terms. For example, synonym definitions for color terms do not fit Robinson's description. Whereas Robinson calls synonyms one of the most common defining strategies in general, they are very rare for color terms and typically provide readers with a less familiar word than the one they looked up. In the examples below, readers may not be more familiar with *Chinese red*, *cinnabar*, or *belleek* than with the terms *vermillion* and *champagne*:

Vermillion n. 2. A bright reddish orange. Also called "**Chinese red**," "**cinnabar**." (AHD1)
Champagne. 3: a pale orange yellow to light grayish yellowish brown — called also ***belleek*** (W3)

In addition, Robinson has the following to say about using his analytic method to define color terms:

> "It cannot be used to define 'blue' because no analysis of blue tint is known. It is known that blue is correlated with a certain wavelength (and this is often used to make a synthetic definition of the word 'blue'). It is known that every blue appearance can be analysed into a certain lightness and a certain richness of a certain tint. But the tint itself, any specific blue, has not been analysed and does not look like being so." (100)

This may be true for more "basic" color terms, such as *blue* and *green*, which are not shades of other colors, but what is to prevent a less familiar term like *lavender* from being defined based on its relationship to the superordinate term *purple*?

With the goal of examining color term defining techniques and comparing them to the strategies in Robinson's typology, I examined definitions in seven monolingual French dictionaries and five monolingual English dictionaries. Based on this survey, definitions of color terms employ three main techniques: Defining with Reference to the Spectrum of Visible Light, Defining with Reference to Relationship with Other Colors, and Defining with Reference to Objects.

DSNA

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How Botanical Lexicography can Support Indigenous Medicine

The World Health Organization encourages research on and development of medicinal plant use by indigenous communities. In order to qualify for this program, the plants themselves must be determined to be native, i.e. not naturalized, and there must be evidence of indigenous population knowledge about the plants' medical uses. In addition to botanical evidence for native origins, lexicographic analysis can provide support for the claim that certain plants have been used medicinally, with knowledge passing from indigenous into subsequent populations

In trying to determine which local plants might be further investigated for this program, both botany and lexicography are proving helpful. Although Trinidad & Tobago has many thousands of identified plant species, we chose to examine only plants with common names: approximately 2,500 common names for about 1,200 species. Botanical (especially determination of native origin) and lexicographic data (primarily common names and citations) were taken from the *Annotated Checklist of the Vascular Flora of Trinidad & Tobago* records (in preparation by collaborators from Oxford University under the U.K. Darwin Initiative and Yasmin Baksh Comeau, Curator of the National Herbarium of Trinidad & Tobago), together with the historical *Dictionary of the English/Creole of Trinidad & Tobago* (Winer 2009).

We analysed the data by means of a spreadsheet that included scientific species name, common name(s), language origin(s) of common name(s), whether the plant was deemed to be native, and whether or not the plant was known to be used medicinally. (There are some plants whose medicinal properties seemed not to have passed down to the transplanted population, e.g. the palm *Oenocarpus batua,* which is extensively used by the Amerindians in South America; in T&T there are records of it being used for weaving baskets but not medicinally.) All plants that fulfilled the two criteria of nativeness and medicinal use were kept on the list.

The order of settlement of populations in this Caribbean territory was more or less: Amerindians, Europeans (Spanish, French/French Creoles, and English/English Creoles), Africans, and East Indians; for our purposes, the "older" the population associated with a plant name, the better. Plants used medicinally are likely to have one or more synonyms, often from different languages. For example, *Urena lobata* is most commonly known today as *kuzen maho* (French Creole & Amer) but also as *aramina* (Amer?), *catbush* (Eng), *datwan* (Hindi), *dog pika* (Eng & Fr Creole), *pat chien* (Fr Creole) and *rigman tea* (Eng). The earliest reference to kuzen maho in print is in a botanical flora record from 1929; there are several subsequent 20th-century citations, many referring to medicinal uses. We took these two phenomena to indicate some kind of continued passing on of indigenous information to later populations.

This analysis will enable us to provide relevant groups within the country, and regional and international institutions with a list of plants for which further investigation would most likely be fruitful.

Winer, Lise (ed.). 2009. *Dictionary of the English/Creole of Trinidad & Tobago.* Montreal: McGill University Press.

SHEL

Laura Wright
University of Cambridge

Sunnyside

There is very little research on house-names, although they are ancient (*Heorot*), prevalent, and encode sociolinguistic information (*Buckingham Palace* v. *Dunroamin*). This paper traces the antecedents of the house-name *Sunnyside*, which occurs on houses in Britain, America, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. The British Royal Mail database returns 14,703 hits for *Sunnyside* in the UK today. In the London region, *Sunnyside* proliferated from 1865 only and was rare before then. I hypothesise that the naming-fashion was influenced by a seminal American *Sunnyside* belonging to celebrity author Washington Irving, which became the prototype for subsequent worldwide *Sunnyside*s from the mid-nineteenth century. However, the question as to why he named his residence *Sunnyside* remains.

In my paper I track Irving's antecedent to Scotland, where I have located *c.*100 tokens dating from the early sixteenth century, and I present an argument as to how Irving came across the name and why he should have liked it enough to bestow it on his pet project. My "Multilingual Approach" is one of cultural and language contact, between the Scots and Old Norse languages, and Northern European farming practices.
http://www.royalmail.com/find-a-postcode

DSNA

Shigeru Yamada
Waseda University

Advantages of the example sentence search function of the hand-held electronic dictionary

The hand-held electronic dictionary – a portable machine with over 100 reference and other works and electronically enhanced search functions – is a handy tool, especially popular in East Asia. The example sentence search is one of the most helpful functions. This function runs a simultaneous search across the relevant dictionaries (e.g, English-English and English-Japanese ones) included in the hand-held machine on the basis of entered keywords. In response, all example sentences including the keywords are turned up. The example sentence search function is useful in the following three ways. First, the function provides a quick route to meaning, because most example sentences in English-Japanese dictionaries are provided with their Japanese translations. Just by entering a few appropriate keywords, the user can get to the desired meaning – without the knowledge of the dictionary structure and grammar (e.g., parts of speech). The seven-step consultation process associated with the print dictionary proposed by Hartmann (2001: 89-92) can be greatly simplified with the reduced burden on the user. Second, the function helps the user to identify habitually occurring strings of words which are not given the status of phrasal verbs or idioms in the dictionary (e.g., "could be forgiven for thinking"). Third, the user can access the appropriate Japanese translations (those not immediately obtainable by adding up the meanings of words involved), looking at the examples culled from all English-Japanese dictionaries on the basis of requested keywords by the example sentence search function. Thus, the function enables the user to gain a deeper understanding of English. The first and third advantages are related to bilingualization. Several recent hand-held electronic dictionaries incorporate the *Oxford Dictionary of English*, which is integrated with *Oxford Sentence Dictionary* (consisting of one million example sentences). If bilingualizaion is extended to the million examples and the examples are subjected to the example sentence search function on the basis of both English and the user's L1, the scale and sophistication of dictionary consultation will be greatly enhanced. This presentation will explore the significant improvement and future potential of the search function in the electronic dictionary.

Hartmann, R. R. K. 2001. *Teaching and Researching Lexicography*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

Workshops, Demos

&

Workshop abstracts

Disclaimer: the presenters' individual reference styles were preserved for the purposes of this *Handbook*, resulting in minor format inconsistencies.

Sketch Engine Workshop

Presenter: Orin Hargraves

Sketch Engine is a corpus query system that has been used to construct dictionaries in many languages. It includes read-to-use corpora in over 60 languages, with billion-word corpora in all major world languages. It includes features that enable users to build their own corpora, or upload already assembled corpora for use in the query system. Sketch Engine allows you to see a concordance for any word, phrase or grammatical construction. One of its unique feature are word sketches, one-page, automatic, corpus-derived summaries of a word's grammatical and collocational behavior. Other tools include Sketch Diff, which analyzes the distinctions in usage between near synonyms, and distributional thesaurus information, which supplies a ranked listing of words whose contextual behavior is statistically similar to a target word.

Sketch Engine is widely used among dictionary publishers, including Cambridge University Press, HarperCollins, KDictionaries (Israel), Macmillan, Oxford University Press, Le Robert (France) and Shogakugan (Japan). The national language institutes of the Czech Republic, Estonia, Ireland, Latvia, and the Netherlands, among others, use it for language research. Sketch Engine is also in use at universities around the world as a teaching aide and to assist in developing tools for the computational processing of language.

Attendees at the workshop will have full access to the corpora of Sketch Engine (normally available only by subscription). The workshop will provide an overview of the capabilities of Sketch Engine with a particular emphasis on its uses in lexicography. Attendees will have an opportunity to experiment with corpora in any of the available languages and to learn the various commands used to retrieve advanced corpus searches. Since many attendees of the workshop will already be familiar with the basics of Sketch Engine, the last half hour of the workshop will be used as a general information exchange in which users can trade tips, troubleshoot, and develop strategies for common problems in lexicographic research.

This is a software presentation. Delegates are free to participate, but are advised to bring their own laptop.

Pre-publication Demonstration: *DCHP-2*

Presenters: Baillie Ford, Alexandra Gaylie, Gabrielle Lim and Stefan Dollinger

This talk is a practical pre-release introduction to the Second Edition of *A Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles* (Avis et al. 1967), which is labelled *DCHP-2* (Dollinger et al. 2006–). Almost 10 years and 11,000 student hours in the making (Dollinger 2006), DCHP-2 is scheduled to appear in open access in the spring of 2016 (www.dchp.ca/DCHP-2, which is currently password-protected to facilitate the editing process). *DCHP-1 Online* (Dollinger et al. 2013) was released in open access in 2013 after lengthy copyright negotiations and forms the backbone to *DCHP-2*, including DCHP-1's 10,000 headwords plus some 1,000 new, utterly re-conceptualized and greatly enhanced entries. Unlike *DCHP-1*, *DCHP-2* is a born-digital project. It adheres to open access principles and, as such, will no longer produce paper copies. The present talk, presented by some of the most knowledgeable assistants to the project, all of whom undergraduate students, illustrates with many example entries the structural, conceptual and principled features that have informed DCHP-2. It will also show the basic functionality of the custom-made software tools BCE, DET and ling.surf (Dollinger 2010), which are available for not-for-profit researchers free of charge.

Avis, Walter S. (ed.-in-chief), Charles Crate, Patrick Drysdale, Douglas Leechman, Matthew H. Scargill, and Charles J. Lovell (eds.). 1967. *A Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles*. Toronto: Gage.

Dollinger, Stefan. 2010. Software from the Bank of Canadian English as an open source tool for the dialectologist: ling.surf and its features. In: *Joseph Wright's* English Dialect Dictionary *and Beyond: Studies in Late Modern English Dialectology*, ed. by Manfred Markus, Clive Upton and Reinhard Heuberger, 249-261. Berne: Lang.

Dollinger, Stefan. 2006. Towards a fully revised and extended edition of the *Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles* (DCHP-2): background, challenges, prospects. *Historical Sociolinguistics/Sociohistorical Linguistics* 6, http://ubc.academia.edu/StefanDollinger.

Dollinger, Stefan (ed.-in-chief), Laurel Brinton and Margery Fee (eds). 2013. *DCHP-1 Online: A Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles Online*. Based on Walter S. Avis et al. (1967). (Online dictionary) http://dchp.ca/DCHP-1/.

Dollinger, Stefan (ed.-in-chief), Laurel Brinton and Margery Fee (eds.). 2006–. *DCHP-2: The Dictionary of Canadianisms on Historical Principles Online.* Second Edition. http://dchp.ca/DCHP-2/.

DSNA MOOC Workshop: The DSNA and Lexicography Education

Convenors: Felicia Jean Steele, Michael Adams, and Donna Farina

Enthusiasm for MOOCs (Massive Open Online Courses) has grown tremendously in the last five years, although the full potential for the course format has yet to be realized. Educational corporations, funded by venture capitalists, in the United States have praised the format's potential as a "disruptive technology," but completion rates are generally low and corporations have yet to recognize their widely anticipated profits. Nonetheless, not-for-profit universities, particularly MIT, have successfully used MOOCs to extend their cultural impact. In the United Kingdom, a consortium of universities and other educational institutions, such as the British Library, British Museum, and British Council, have partnered together to offer courses. This model, which brings together universities and colleges with educational institutions who have not traditionally offered credit or credential bearing courses, suggests a path for professional societies who wish to extend their reach into public discourse about their fields.

Members of the DSNA know that public understanding of lexicography and lexicographers is not as accurate or as widespread as we would wish, even though dependence on dictionaries, in their printed and electronic forms, is nearly universal. Although the DSNA is an active and engaged professional society comprised of academic and professional lexicographers and publishers, we have few options for outreach beyond the efforts of our individual members. Members of the DSNA are currently in the planning stages of MOOC development, and wish to conduct a symposium session at the conference to solicit member feedback on our proposed syllabus and course design and to encourage further member engagement with the project. We also wish to discuss some of the economic issues related to any MOOC effort and the resulting credential (certificate of completion or professional development) that it might create for teachers or for potential future lexicographers. A MOOC would offer an opportunity to present our field to the public, to dispel myths about dictionaries and lexicography, and to extend the profile of the DSNA outside of our discipline.

Diachronic Phonology Workshop: Discontinuous, innovative, and reinvented patterns of phonological change in English

Convener: Donka Minkova

One way of characterizing any phonological process is in terms of its longevity within the history of a single language. The *terminus ad quem* for some diachronic changes in English is identifiable: the First Consonant Shift/Grimm's Law, I-Mutation, Homorganic Cluster Lengthening, etc. are examples of such *discontinuous* changes. For another set of processes it is the *terminus post quem* that can be established, e.g. Fricative Voicing, Long Vowel Chain-Shifts, Flapping, etc.; these are commonly described as *innovations*. Yet another set of changes appears to replicate, at least partially, earlier processes: such *reinventions* in English are Compensatory Lengthening, stress-related lenition as in Verner's Law and initial dental fricative voicing, cluster simplification, functional stress shifting, etc.

All patterns of diachronic phonological behavior are modeled either on the basis of the phonetic, structural, or usage/cognitive conditions that give rise to sound change, or on the basis of the 'external' sociolinguistic circumstances that allow them to spread through the community or the lexicon. Current studies of observable and testable processes in phonology seek ways of reconciling the various approaches by exploring the relationship between phonetic, phonological, statistical, and sociolinguistic information. The recent (as of October 2014) special issues of *Lingua*, vol. 142, (April 2014) on usage-based and rule-based approaches to phonological variation, or the 2014 issue of *Laboratory Phonology* on the relationship between the origin and spread of sound change, showcase the importance of hybrid models of variation and change. Many of our diachronic descriptions and accounts, however, fail to integrate the different sources of information in a coherent way. Moreover, the relative significance of the already identified triggers has not been fleshed out in relation to discontinuity, innovation, or reinvention of change.

The ambitious goal of the Workshop will therefore be to identify, contextualize, classify, analyze, and hierarchize factors of rise and spread, and relate them to the longevity of the reconstructed patterns of change. Among the external factors, multilingualism (SHEL 9's general theme) will be given special attention, both in early English, and in ongoing processes.

Questions addressed by the workshop participants can include, but should not be limited to, some of the following topics, preferably discussed in the context of specific case studies:

- How does the exposure to and production of non-native phonotactics influence the course of phonological change in Old, Middle, Early Modern, or Present-Day English?
- The role of multilingualism in making the internal triggers of change opaque, and ultimately contributing to the discontinuity of a particular pattern.
- How do Middle or Early Modern English phonological changes reflect the interplay between regional English(es) and loan phonology?
- Are there *any* truly innovative/unprecedented patterns of phonological change in early English and what are they?
- How do external factors, including multilingualism, figure in the reinvention of phonological patterns of change?
- Can externally-motivated processes be at odds with the structural properties of the system?
- What is the relationship between the type of phonological change (discontinued, innovative, reinvented) and the nature of the trigger, i.e., are internal or external triggers more likely to lead to a particular type of change?
- Is frequency equally important in all types of phonological change?
- Does our accumulated knowledge of diachronic patterns of change in English allow predictions about phonological developments in future Englishes?

Joan C. Beal and Ranjan Sen
University of Sheffield

'En[dj]uring [ʧ]unes or ma[tj]ure [ʤ]ukes?' Palatalization in eighteenth-century English: Evidence from the Eighteenth-Century English Phonology Database

The palatalization of alveolar consonants before LME /u:/ is still variable and diffusing in PDE. The OED gives several pronunciations for **mature**: e.g. /məˈtʃʊə ~ məˈtjʊə/, but provides only unpalatalized (/dj tj/) transcriptions for **endure**, **tune**, and **duke**, despite the common occurrence of palatalized (and yod-dropped) variants in many varieties of British English. Extensive variability is not recent in origin, and we can already detect relevant patterns in the eighteenth century from the evidence of a range of pronouncing dictionaries, e.g. Beal (1996, 1999) notes a tendency for northern English and Scottish authors to be more conservative. She concludes that we require 'a comprehensive survey of the many pronouncing dictionaries and other works on pronunciation' (1996: 379) to gain more insight into the historical variation patterns underlying PDE.

This paper presents preliminary results from such a 'comprehensive survey': the *Eighteenth-Century English Phonology* database (ECEP). Transcriptions of palatalization keywords are compared across a range of eighteenth-century sources in order to determine the internal (e.g. stress, voice, word-position) and external (e.g. prescriptive, geographical, social) motivations for the presence or absence of palatalization. The greater abundance of contextual and sociolinguistic evidence available for these later periods tends to present a fascinating, complex picture.

Beal, Joan C. 1996. The Jocks and the Geordies: Modified Standards in Eighteenth-century Pronouncing Dictionaries. In David Britton (ed.), *Current Issues in Linguistic Theory* 135, 363-382. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Beal, Joan C. 1999. *English Pronunciaton in the Eighteenth Century: Thomas Spence's 'Grand Repository of the English Language' (1775).* Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Beal, Joan C. 2012. "Can't see the wood for the trees?" Corpora and the study of Late Modern English. In Markus, M, Y Iyeiri & R. Heuberger (eds.), *Middle and Modern English Corpus Linguistics: a Multi-dimensional Approach*, 13-30. Amsterdam: Benjamins.

Dobson, Eric J. 1956. *English Pronunciation 1500-1700.* Oxford: Clarendon Press.

Ricardo Bermúdez-Otero
University of Manchester

The life cycle of High Vowel Deletion in Old English: from prosody to stratification and loss

In the absence of controlled psycholinguistic data, it is impossible to know precisely when High Vowel Deletion (HVD) ceased to be active as a synchronic phonological process in the grammar of Old English: just as a *lautgesetzlich* form may be lexicalized, the appearance of a non-*lautgesetzlich* form may reflect the restructuring of the underlying representation of a single lexical item while HVD remains active. The appropriate test for an account of the loss of the the HVD alternations, therefore, is whether or not it correctly predicts the relative chronology of the relevant analogical innovations.

In this paper I assume, following Nelson Goering (submitted), that HVD began its life cycle prehistorically as a single phonological process targeting high vowels in open syllables left unfooted by iterative left-to-right moraic-trochee parsing. When the length distinctions between unstressed vowels involved in Kaluza's Law were lost, *a*-stem inflection became stratified, and HVD concomitantly split into a stem-level process of apocope and a word-level process of syncope. Subsequent analogical innovations reflect input restructuring within this stratified grammar. This analysis accounts for the historically attested sequence of analogical changes in nom/acc.pl. forms of *a*-stem nouns, where *hēafodu*>*hēafdu* and *tungol*>*tung*(*o*)*lu* precede *wæter*>*wæt*(*e*)*ru*, and the rise of *wæteru* in turn precedes *word*>*wordu*.

Donka Minkova
UCLA

Sound change: predictable in origin and aleatory in diffusion

Part One: *Two case studies: the death and resurrection of [-ə], and the /hw/ - /w/ contrast again*
The empirical base: A survey of schwa-final nouns from OE to PDE (Figure 1), based on data from the OED, shows reduction and loss advancing steadily up to 1400-1450. Thereafter, newly generated /-ə/ (*burgh* /ˈbʌrə/, *thorough* /ˈθʌrə/), loan vocabulary (*aurora, gamma, magma, saliva, summa, supra*), and /-r/-loss in some varieties (*butter* /ˈbʌtə/, *doctor* /ˈdɒktə/) reverse the trend, so that the earlier phonotactic constraint against final schwa is no longer part of the PDE phonology.

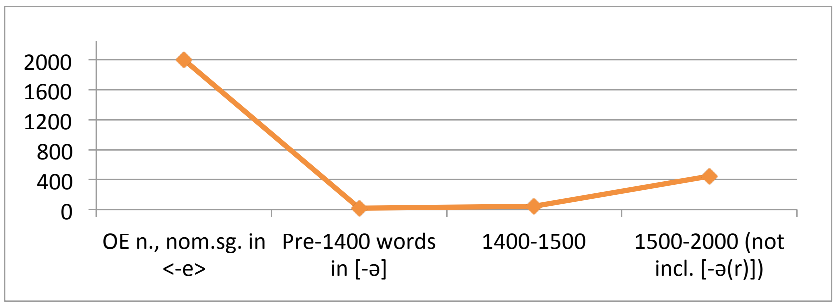

Figure 1: Final unstressed schwa in rhotic PDE

The /hw/ - /w/ contrast in English is shown in Figure 2. A series of system-internal factors trigger loss of the labio-velar segment /hw/: articulatory complexity; [h-]~Ø alternation, first in weak prosodic positions (*what, which, when*), and then in any onset position in the South; place identity of /ʍ/ and /w/; and the fact that /ʍ/ is isolated phonologically by being the only approximant that has a contrastive voice specification. Not surprisingly, some southern varieties of British English show uninterrupted lineage of /w/ in informal registers. The survival of the voiceless/aspirated labio-velar in these and in other varieties is conditioned by the principle of maintenance of contrast, by dialect contact, prestige, the effect of prescriptive spelling, and, possibly, by semiotic associations, as in *whip*, *whisk* < the bases *wip, wisk*. In spite of these deterrents, the simplification is ongoing, prompting a prediction of progressive marginalization of /hw/.

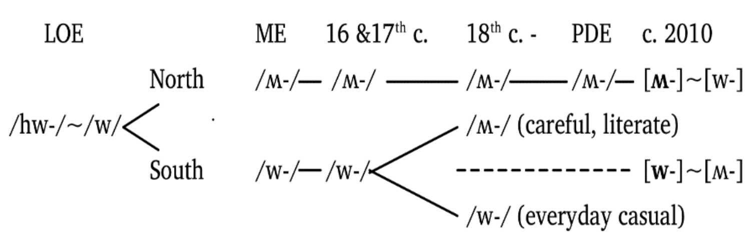

Figure 2: Variability of /hw-/~/w/ in the history of English

Part Two: General Discussion -- everyone invited to join in:
Suggested talking points:

- How does the exposure to and production of non-native phonotactics influence the course of phonological change in Old, Middle, Early Modern, or Present-Day English?
- The role of multilingualism in making the internal triggers of change opaque, and ultimately contributing to the discontinuity of a particular pattern.
- How do Middle or Early Modern English phonological changes reflect the interplay between regional English(es) and loan phonology?
- Are there *any* truly innovative/unprecedented patterns of phonological change in early English and what are they?
- How do external factors, including multilingualism, figure in the reinvention of phonological patterns of change?
- Can externally-motivated processes be at odds with the structural properties of the system?
- What is the relationship between the type of phonological change (discontinued, innovative, reinvented) and the nature of the trigger, i.e., are internal or external triggers more likely to lead to a particular type of change?
- Is frequency equally important in all types of phonological change?
- Does our accumulated knowledge of diachronic patterns of change in English allow predictions about phonological developments in future Englishes?
- More…

Betty Phillips
Indiana State University

The Role of the Individual in the Lexical Diffusion of Sound Change

Weiss (2014: 133), in discussing the Neogrammarian regularity of some sound changes, offers the explanation "that regularity is the result of misacquisition in the first language acquisition process. The priming of misacquisition is phonetic ambiguity, but the generalisation over some subset of phonetic environments where the ambiguity may be greater or lesser and in any case not identical, which is the essence of regularity, reflects categorisation dependent on phonological knowledge. This is the only place where regularity in sound change is to be expected." He sees irregularity in the historical record and in living languages as a result of "dialect mixture, intimate borrowing, or lexical diffusion." Similarly, Blevens (2004: 269) claims Labov (1994) "provides striking confirmation of regular sound change at the level of the individual, and lexical diffusion at the level of speech communities."

Many questions are left unanswered in Weiss's and Blevens' accounts, however. Is there really regularity at the micro level? And how could we identify such an individual or small group of individuals as Weiss suggests exist at the beginning of a sound change? At what age does the child become the adult "borrower"? If an individual has lexically diffused patterning, have they necessarily borrowed as adults? How would one know? And if lexical diffusion is a type of borrowing, as is implied, why are there different patterns of diffusion for different sound changes? This paper is an exploration of such questions.

Blevins, Juliette. 2004. *Evolutionary phonology.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Labov, William. 1994. *Principles of Linguistic Change*. Vol. 1: *Internal Factors*. Oxford: Blackwell.
Weiss, Michael. 2014. The comparative method. In Claire Bowern & Bethwyn Evans (eds.), *Routledge Handbook of Historical Linguistics,* 127-145. New York: Routledge.

Nikolaus Ritt and Andreas Baumann
Vienna University

Explaining the historical (in-)stability of stress pattern diversity in English

As is well known, the English lexicon has been characterized by stress pattern diversity at least since the Middle English period (see e.g. Burzio 1994, Minkova 1997, Ritt 2012, Sonderegger & Niyogi 2013): up to present times, pairs of words have been attested that are equivalent in terms of both phonotactic structure and morpho-syntactic category but can display both initial and final stress, e.g. *ho*ˈ*tel* – ˈ*lentil*, ˈ*envoy* – *i*ˈ*dea*, ˈ*research*N – *re*ˈ*search*N, or ˈ*access*V – *ac*ˈ*cess*V. Our presentation presents a hypothesis about the historical dynamics of stress pattern evolution that is based on the assumption that English words adopt those patterns that produce, on average, optimal rhythmic configurations when combined in actual utterances. We model the dynamics predicted by our hypothesis in evolutionary game theory (cf. e.g. Maynard Smith 1982, Hofbauer & Sigmund 1998) and demonstrate that our model generates interesting predictions, which fit the attested past evolution of English word stress at least crudely and have implications about its future direction. Specifically, our model suggests that the type of stress pattern variability attested in English depends strongly on the ratio of monosyllabic against polysyllabic word form tokens that occur in utterances. Only under some rather specific conditions – which are¸ however, likely to have held in post-Norman-Conquest English – stress pattern diversity can be evolutionarily stable and is predicted to decrease again once these conditions change.

Burzio, Luigi. 1994. *Principles of English stress*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hofbauer, Josef & Karl Sigmund. 1998. *Evolutionary games and population dynamics*. Cambridge: Cambridge Univ. Press.

Maynard Smith, John. 1982. *Evolution and the theory of games*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Minkova, Donka. 1997. Constraint ranking in Middle English stress-shifting. *English Language and Linguistics* 1. 135–175.

Ritt, Nikolaus. 2012. Middle English: Phonology. In Alexander Bergs & Laurel Brinton (eds.), *Historical linguistics of English*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton.

Sonderegger, Morgan & Partha Niyogi. 2013. Variation and change in English noun/verb pair stress: Data, dynamical systems models, and their interaction. In A.C.L. Yu (Ed.), *Origins of Sound Patterns: Approaches to Phonologization*. Oxford: Oxford University Press: 262–284.

HEL Workshop: Beyond the HEL Textbook—A SHEL Pedagogy Session

Convener: Chris C. Palmer

Following the tradition of past meetings, the 2015 SHEL-9 conference in Vancouver will feature a pedagogy session centered on discussions of methods and materials in the History of the English Language course. This year's theme, "Beyond the HEL Textbook," invites a focus on those aspects of teaching HEL that necessarily go beyond what our best textbooks and workbooks offer.

This session's presenters, altogether representing a broad range of university and curricular contexts, will discuss both challenges and solutions for teaching HEL content. Each presentation will last for approximately fifteen minutes, and there will be two periods of question-and-answer among presenters and session attendees. In addition, time will be reserved at the end of the session for a brief HEL materials workshop, in which session attendees will share original handouts, activities, and other ideas for teaching future versions of the HEL course.

Patricia Ronan° and Gerold Schneider*
°University of Lausanne; *University of Zürich

Adding Multimodality to the Teaching of Middle English Language Contact with Multimedia Capsules

Within the temporally restricted context of a lecture course on the History of the English Language, particularly at introductory levels, the teaching is often mainly concerned with transmitting information, and for this we can draw on a large number of good textbooks. The teacher will, naturally, also try to facilitate understanding of the material. There may, however, not be enough opportunities within the class to apply newly acquired concepts. In order to motivate students to apply the new concepts to data themselves, various forms of home-exercises may be provided, which will try to encourage students to engage actively with the material.

The proposed paper introduces a method of offering to students a self-study tool that combines the possibilities of transmitting information, fostering understanding and providing multi-modal exercises to apply their knowledge, namely multi-media capsules. The multi-media capsule used is the freely available Xerte capsule. On the example of an introductory lecture on language contact in Middle English it will be demonstrated how varied and comprehensive additional online learning environments can be created for students.

Xerte Project, http://www.nottingham.ac.uk/xerte/index.aspx.

Mary E. Blockley
University of Texas at Austin

The Affordances of Popular Histories

There's a peculiar symmetry in the use of sidebars in textbooks and in crossover-minded accounts for the general reader. For example, Millward's *Biography of the English Language* (1996) has anecdotal tidbits with titles like "On Your Feet" (about medieval footwear) and "Hidden Animals" (etymologies for *chenille*, *pedigree*, and four other words); Gramley's *History of English* (2012) has similar brief texts. Equally demanding books that are aimed instead primarily at a readership outside the classroom, notably

Lightfoot's *Development of Language* (1994) and Crystal's *Stories of English* (2004), use boxed material not for palate-cleansers and diversions, but to highlight the more specialized and technical arguments that undergird their assertions, placing them squarely in the narrative, or, as Crystal does, as inter-chapter "interludes," rather than submerging them as footnotes. For those of us whose students have much more experience with narrative than with philology, having them read books like Crystal (2004) and McWhorter's *Our Magnificent Bastard Tongue* (2009) may, like the "flipped" classroom, serve to give them a narrative context for detailed in-class exercises on topics such as Middle English dialects or the expansion of the auxiliary system, as well as introducing the daunting but ultimately time-saving technical vocabulary.

Felicia Jean Steele
The College of New Jersey

The History of the English Language: Textbooks and Challenges of Interdisciplinarity

HEL courses have long been "servants of two (or more) masters," providing students with a background in linguistics, so that they can meet certification standards set by NCATE or other education accrediting bodies, or offering students a background in literary history in programs that have abandoned broad surveys. At The College of New Jersey (TCNJ), courses in historical linguistics have an additional challenge. Both the History of the English Language (taught in the English Department) and Introduction to Historical Linguistics (taught in the World Languages and Cultures Department) meet institutional requirements as "history classes."

David Burnley's excellent reader (2000) provides a variety of sources to illustrate changes in English, but they are largely of interest to scholars of literature and language, rather than to historians. To supplement the textbook, the spring 2015 HEL course at TCNJ will be using a reader that illustrates significant moments in linguistic and cultural history, supplemented by exercises drawn from the texts that reinforce linguistic concepts. The presentation will report the results for this change in instruction, student responses to the reader, as well as the challenges facing the editor, particularly from Early Modern texts so frequently composed using short-hand.

Don Chapman
Brigham Young University

Place in History of the English Language

I began thinking about place in a history of the English language course as I prepared a course for a term abroad in the British Isles, and while I will share a few ideas on how to use historical sites to teach HEL, I will discuss more the implications of place relevant to any HEL course. One of the main uses of place in HEL narratives is to memorialize important events, which are often lumped together as 'external history.' But 'external history' itself comprises at least three different kinds of events: events in language planning (e.g. Johnson's dictionary), language contact (e.g. battle of Hastings), and language monuments (e.g. Shakespeare's works). A focus on events like these easily leads to the reification of both the history of English and the English language itself, because such events have a high degree of agency from actors, and the one variety of English most influenced by agency is 'Standard English.' Almost inevitably, events will be chosen that memorialize the history of only that variety. That may be a worthwhile aim, but whether we want to teach "the history of the English language" or "the history of the English language" is a question we should consciously confront.

Melinda J. Menzer
Furman University

"But Where Do the Real Rules Come From?" Research into the History of Prescriptivism in the HEL Classroom

To supplement the limited discussion of prescriptive grammar often found in history of the English language textbooks, students can do research focusing on the development and influence of a language authority or of a particular rule. Using both primary and secondary material, students research topics such as the 1961 *Webster's Third International Dictionary* controversy, the history and changing use of the apostrophe, or the more recent debates about the metaphorical *literally*. These projects not only add to their knowledge of more conventional HEL topics, they also give students insight into the prescriptive rules that have been such a large part of their education to this point.

Anne Curzan
University of Michigan

The Place of Prescriptivism in Teaching HEL

A course on the history of English can give students a more critical perspective on prescriptive grammar than almost any other course if we as instructors take prescriptivism seriously as part of the history of English and, therefore, a key part of teaching the history of English. This talk describes an approach to teaching HEL that foregrounds questions of language authority and standardization, introducing them early in the term and threading them through the assignments and the historical coverage of linguistic developments in English. The talk offers strategies for helping students use the *Oxford English Dictionary* and other dictionaries, as well usage guides from the past and present, critically in writing essays about the histories of words and of contested points of usage. It also suggests specific ways to tie discussions of dialects and the Internet's effect on English to current social and educational questions related to linguistic diversity, the teaching of English grammar, and ideologies of "correctness."

Literary Sources Workshop: The uses of literary sources and methods in historical linguistic analysis

Convenors: Alexander Bergs & Susan Fitzmaurice

This panel explores the ways in which historical linguists regard literary texts in historical periods as evidence for arguments about language practices and language change in different discourse communities in a range of historical periods. Of course, traditional histories of English until the second half of the twentieth century tended to be informed exclusively by studies of the literary language of canonical (literary) texts from Johnson's 'Golden Age' to the high Victorians. In the third quarter of the twentieth century, the discovery of nonliterary written sources and the creation of accessible corpora for close linguistic scrutiny made it possible to explore language practices and language change as evidenced in a wide range of registers, both literary and nonliterary. The re-evaluation of nonliterary sources as linguistic data in turn has underpinned the turn in historical language studies away from the standard language histories to the investigation of 'language from below' from a historical sociolinguistic perspective.

A question for this panel in this context is what value do literary texts have as evidence in historical language analysis? How can the consultation of literary sources inform the study of the history of the language in light of the availability of diverse non-literary sources? Do these questions generate different responses depending upon the specific historical periods studied; for example, are literary sources more important for the study of earlier periods than later periods? To what extent can literary sources be incorporated into historical sociolinguistic studies?

Another question is whether literary analytical methods can be appropriated in the exploration and investigation of earlier periods in the history of the language. For instance, in historical pragmatics work, how far can literary historical analysis help to illuminate the role of genre in the history of English registers? To what extent can literary historical analysis be employed in the work of historicising reading practices?

Panel members are asked to consider the uses and roles of literary texts and/or literary analytical methods in their own work on the history of the English language.

Beatrix Busse
University of Heidelberg

New historical stylistics, or why study literary sources in historical text analysis

For any historical linguistic analysis it holds true that 'no systematic apparatus can claim to describe a language if it does not embrace the literature also; and not as a freakish development, but as a natural specialisation of categories which are required in other parts of the descriptive system' (Sinclair 2004: 51). On the basis of my approach to new historical stylistics (Busse 2010, Busse 2014), this paper will illustrate the indispensable value of literary texts and the need to combine interdisciplinary methodology for the analysis of patterns of historical language usage, reading practices, dissemination processes etc.. At the same time, literary texts show that historical linguistic investigations are also in need of assessing functions as well as stylistics effects of linguistic patterns and their deviations in contexts – a necessary focus that is frequently neglected in historical linguistic investigations. To illustrate my approach, I will analyse two very different stylistic phenomena and their functions: a) expressions of vision, blindness and the in-between in late medieval literary and non-literary texts and b) speech writing and thought presentation in 19th-century narrative fiction and newspaper discourse. I will conclude by discussing to what extent it is useful to draw a distinction between literary and non-literary sources in a historical linguistic analytical framework.

Mark Faulkner
University of Sheffield

Historical Corpora, Literary and Non-Literary Sources, and the Transition from Old to Middle English

Most recent diachronic work on the transition from Old to Middle English makes use of one or more historical corpora. While some studies have contented themselves with taking the aggregate data from these corpora as in its entirety evidence for spoken historical English, others have attempted to use generic categorisations to group the texts these corpora contain in different ways. This paper offers a structural re-evaluation of these corpora and the kinds of research they have permitted, focusing particularly on issues of representativeness and the kinds of abstractions they encourage from the evidence. The paper will argue that researchers need to use such corpora with an awareness of not just linguistic but also philological (/literary) approaches to medieval texts, approaches that compass issues around dating, localisation, textual transmission and scribal practice. Above all, it will call for a method of corpus building that allows for much more uncertainty and flexibility in the metatextual data associated with texts in the corpus, so that texts whose value as evidence is most sure can be weighed more heavily than those whose reliability is less clear.

Susan Fitzmaurice
University of Sheffield

Rethinking the role of literary analytical methods in the study of the history of English letters

This paper explores the role of literary analytical methods in current approaches to the pragmatic study of genre and register in the history of the English language. Focussing on eighteenth century epistolary discourse, I examine the liminal space between the private and public, between (literary) letters and (non-literary) ego-documents. In doing so, I try to tackle the challenge of seeing how far literary historical pragmatics can help to illuminate the role of genre in the development of English registers in the period. At the same time, I discuss how possible it is to argue that literary historical analysis can profitably be employed in the work of historicising (letter) reading practices.

Graham Williams
University of Sheffield

Literary production and the performance of sincerity in medieval texts

This paper explores performances of sincerity in medieval Englishes, for which much of the richest data comes in literary form. Particularly for the early period, sincerity, or *sinceritas* ('cleanness' in Latin) is largely marked with Christian influence, even in culturally syncretic environments that blend native

Germanic and Christian ethos - for example, in *Guthlac* and *Andreas*. In these environments it is often difficult to demarcate to what extent cultural translation is happening and/or mixing with 'native' understandings. Thus one of the foremost questions for sincerity in the medieval period is to do with the extent to which literature serves as a 'progressive' medium in the sense that it not only records, but also sets as an agenda cultural, and therefore (ethno)pragmatic change. In other words, is the pragmatic dimension here a product of literary translation; a conscious choice for innovation; or a more nuanced source which involves layers of ethnopragmatic history? Here the literary perspective is key, and it is with especial reference to Old English writing that I will discuss issues to do with the pragmatic study of sincerity as a linguistic-ideological object in Anglo-Saxon England.

Alexander Bergs
Universität Osnabrück

What historical psycholinguistics can reveal about literary readings

We know very little about the production of (literary) texts in language history, and the further we go back in time, the worse this problem gets. How did writers like Wilde, Melville, Shakespeare, Chaucer or the anonymous Beowulf author(s) compose their texts? Were they written to be read, or to be read aloud, or to be learnt by heart? Were they conceptually oral or written? Formal or informal? And what was their intended audience or readership? With the advent of historical pragmatics and sociolinguistics, based on modern corpora and close readings, we have made some progress in answering these questions. However, some problems remain. So the present paper aims at offering yet another perspective on the production of historical texts. On the basis of findings and insights from modern psycholinguistics it explores the actual mental processes behind the production of what we see today. This specifically offers us a fresh perspective on issues such as orality and literacy, authorship, and audience design, as all these issues are intricately tied up with symptomatic psycholinguistic processes.

Andreas H. Jucker
University of Zurich

Eighteenth century drama and politeness theory

In the eighteenth century was the century, England’s higher social classes used politeness as an ideology to distinguish themselves from the lower social classes. Advancement was only possible with the appropriate language and behaviour. In this context, drama played an important educational function. On the basis of Richard Steele’s sentimental comedy “The Conscious Lovers” (1722) and George Lillo’s domestic tragedy “The London Merchant, or the History of George Barnwell” (1731) I shall analyse the politeness of the communicative act between the author and his audience and of the communication between the characters depicted in the play. Steele’s play tries to give an example of good behaviour to the audience through the exceeding politeness of the characters to each other, while Lillo’s play tries to domesticate the tragic in order to maximize its moral impact on the audience.

Presenter Index

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With thanks to all our on-site UBC student helpers

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Special thanks to Rebecca Shapiro, Dustin Grue, Margery Fee, Laurel Brinton, Sasha Gaylie, and Ian Hill for their feedback on (an) earlier version(s) of this handbook. All remaining errors remain the editors'.

Notes

Special thanks to the opening reception's "first-drink" sponsor

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