Using Corpora for Helping Sudanese EFL Tertiary Students with the tasks of Arabic-into-English Translation: Moving Beyond Bilingual Dictionaries and Intuition

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Corpora have increasingly been used in the field of translation and translator education. Indeed, as through monolingual, parallel and comparable corpora, translation teachers and students can gain insights into the nature of the target language and see what strategies expert/professional translators adopt to deal with typical translation problems (Hunston 2002; Pearson, 2003; Bernardin, et al, 2003; Bernardini, 2004). This paper, with reference to a Sudanese EFL tertiary level context, argues that using corpora in teaching and learning translation can be more beneficial tool for translation teachers and students to use than solely relying on bilingual Arabic-English dictionaries and intuitions. The paper shows some exemplary classroom activities of this corpus-based approach for helping translation teachers to raise their students’ awareness about the typical translation problems they may encounter when translating from Arabic into English. Some of these problems can be summarised as follows: synonymy issues in translation into the target language (propositional meanings vs. expressive meanings), the choice of the appropriate equivalent in the target language, semantic prosody and translation as well differences in collocation and collocation patterns between the source and target language. The illustrative examples for the activities proposed have been drawn from the British National Corpus (BNC) (monolingual target language corpora), LDC Arabic news stories and their parallel English translations (parallel corpora), and Al-Jazeera and BBC websites (comparable corpora). On the other hand, the paper discusses the potential problems and limitations with the use of the proposed approach. The paper presents some pedagogical implications for translation teachers and students as well as for Arabic-English dictionaries’ designers/compilers to consider the benefits of corpora and thereby drawing on them when designing/compiling dictionaries.
References


The pronunciation goals of International Language School students of English:
the relevance of the Lingua Franca Core

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Jenkins’ (2000) proposal for a Lingua Franca Core for pronunciation of English as an international language has invigorated the debate on appropriate models of English to be taught. This presupposes that learners do not wish to emulate a native speaker model of pronunciation (RP/GA etc). The present study will examine the views of learners in a UK International Language School, looking at the extent to which their pronunciation goals reflect either traditional NS models (Scales et al 2006) or ‘L1-accented’ pronunciation (in line with the Lingua Franca Core, which accepts non-native-like pronunciation provided it does not impede comprehensibility).

According to research on the acquisition of L2 phonology (e.g. Flege 2003), a realistic pronunciation goal would be what I call ‘an L1-accented user’, whereas aiming for native-speaker-like pronunciation of English may be an idealistic goal. The psychological role of the ‘ideal L2 self’ (Dörnyei 2005) may contribute to these native-speaker-like pronunciation goals.

The aim, then, is to evaluate the match/mismatch between students’ views and current academic discussion: on the perceived desirability of various pronunciation models and the extent to which students’ pronunciation goals are realistic. Common themes across learners from different L1 backgrounds will be investigated, as they represent a reasonably typical sample of International Language School students (of the type found in the UK/US/Australia etc.), and it is beyond the scope of this study to undertake a comparison of different L1 groups’ views.

Contrary to Jenkins’ proposal for a Lingua Franca Core model, research (e.g. Scales et al 2006) suggests that many learners have NS accent as their goal (note that in this study, all respondents have travelled to the UK to study English intensively for over 6 months), but respondents are unable to articulate their reasons for this preference. By using qualitative interviewing, I hope to shed more light on reasons for this preference, and how respondents articulate their pronunciation goals. Jenkins (2007) similarly undertakes a qualitative analysis of views on the Lingua Franca Core, which looks at the views of teachers, rather than learners (as in the present study).

The research questions can be summarised:
- What attitudes do learners have towards the British English model?
- What feelings do learners have about their own pronunciation? (current)
- What goals do learners have for their own pronunciation? (future)
- Are students clear about their goals? (e.g. RP/a role model)
- Are students realistic about their goals? (i.e. ‘L1-accented user’)

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Experimental Approaches to Spanish Stress Assignment

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Spanish stress placement attracted the attention of many linguists, such as James Harris (1969, 1983, 1995), Iggy Roca (1988, 1991, 2005), Jon Aske (1990), Timothy Face (2004), and Mark Waltermire (2004). In their research, they have followed one of the two main approaches: the generativist or the psychological. The former aims to explain the way words are stressed by postulating rules which generate such forms. In this approach it has been suggested that Spanish stress placement presents marked and unmarked patterns depending on both the syllable structure of the word and on where stress falls. The main weakness of this framework is found when the proposed rules fail to account for particular stress patterns which are then labelled as exceptional cases or aberrations.

The study I present takes the psychological or “patterns-in-the-lexicon” approach which maintains that Spanish stress placement is not rule-governed but is rather a lexical property of the words. Its main objectives were a) to find an unmarked pattern for antepenultimate stress in trisyllabic words, which other studies have failed to propose so far, b) to find evidence to affirm that complex onsets contribute to stress being assigned to the antepenultimate syllable. In order to pursue the matter, I elaborated a set of disyllabic and trisyllabic Spanish nonce words, all nouns, using the possible syllable-type combinations for Spanish. The nonce words were combined with ten real Spanish words whose last consonant was omitted, and then divided randomly into two questionnaires. Seventy-six native speakers were asked to assign stress to these words. Another questionnaire was devised with nonce words used in a contextualized sentence and presented to forty-six participants.

The results obtained in this study, offer further evidence to a) explain not only the unmarked patterns in Spanish (final and penultimate stress) but also the marked and/or “exceptional cases” of stress in the antepenultimate syllable, b) suggest that
complex onsets have some effect on default antepenultimate stress in trisyllabic words, and c) suggest the Spanish system as working on the basis of analogical extensions in terms of stress placement.
Yod-dropping on the East Anglian Periphery

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Dialect supralocalisation, the process through which differences within regional varieties are reduced, has been widely reported by researchers such as Milroy et al (1994), Cheshire et al (1999) and Williams and Kerswill (1999). Processes of dialect levelling via supralocalisation have thus been presented as a means of explaining the appearance of numerically dominant London dialect features in varieties across the south-east of England.

It has been widely reported that a number of varieties of English such as those in parts of Canada (Clarke 1993, Chambers 1998), the US (Clifton 1959, Pitts 1986), and England (Przedlacka 2002) do not realise the palatal glide /j/ when it occurs before /u:/ and after coronals (see examples 1-3).

1. tune [tu:n]
2. duke [du:k]
3. news [nu:z]

However, varieties of English in East Anglia, and to some extent the East Midlands, omit the glide after all consonants (e.g. 4-10) and only feature /j/ in syllable onsets when the glide is not preceded by another consonant (e.g. 11) (Trudgill 1974, 2004, Foulkes and Docherty 2007).

4. music [mu:z]/sevensansinv
5. beauty [bu:ʃi]
6. few [fu:
7. cute [ku:ʃ]
8. view [vu:]
9. puke [pu:k]
10. huge [hu:ʃ]
11. ewe [ju:]

Wells claims yod dropping in East Anglia is ‘very widespread’ (1982: 338) and this feature is often highlighted as one of the principal defining and differentiating characteristics of this variety (e.g. McArthur 2002: 66). However, given the influence that varieties of South-East England are beginning to have on East Anglian English (see Trudgill 1983, 1986, Britain 2005), it is not surprising perhaps that yod dropping has become a candidate for attrition, especially at the margins of the core East Anglian dialect region.

In addition, a relatively recent change labelled by Wells as “yod coalescence” (1982: 247-248; see also Altendorf and Watt, 2004; Przedlacka 2002; Ryfa fc), which causes /j/ to palatalise, is affecting some of the contexts in which yod dropping can be found in East Anglia, most notably preceding /t d/ (e.g. 12-13).

12. tune [tu:n]
13. duke [du:k]

In this paper, we examine change in the use of yod dropping and yod coalescence across apparent time in three locations in the East Anglian periphery. These are the Fens in the north-west of East Anglia, along with the urban centre of Ipswich and the rural community of Mersea Island in the south-east. Our aims are to investigate

a) to what extent yod dropping is undergoing attrition;

b) whether the attrition of yod-dropping is following the contemporary south-eastern model;

c) the extent to which coalescence has penetrated these communities; and
d) the social and linguistic constraints on the variation in each location.

Our results show that, while in the south-eastern communities of Ipswich and Mersea Island, yod dropping is indeed undergoing rapid attrition, it is highly maintained in the Fens, even among younger speakers. However, what is replacing East Anglian yod dropping does not appear to coincide with the contemporary south-eastern model. In addition, coalescence, while relatively infrequent in the Fens, has been making major inroads into the urban and rural south-east. We conclude, therefore, that our results show dialect supralocalisation, and levelling cannot fully account for the changes in progress taking place in these peripheral locations.
Assessing the Writing Process

Muhammad M. Abdel Latif

Assessing students’ composing processes has become the subject of much research in the writing area. This workshop addresses the different methods and instruments used for assessing the writing process. Four types of the writing process data sources are reviewed: one is used for collecting introspective data (the think-aloud method); two are employed for obtaining retrospective data (the interview and the questionnaire); one is used for gathering behavior protocols (observation); and one focuses on performance data (text analysis). Drawing upon examples from the literature, the workshop briefly describes how to collect writing process data and analyze it using these methods and discusses their strengths and weaknesses.

References

ELAN (EUDICO Linguistic Annotator) is an annotator that can be used by linguists deriving from different disciplines, since it allows the user to create, edit, visualize, and search annotations for video and audio data (ELAN manual, 2007:30) without being bound to any specific types of annotations. This workshop aims at familiarising attendees with some key aspects related to ELAN as well as allowing them to create their own transcription conventions and templates based on an example given.

Precisely, this workshop will initially provide an introduction to ELAN outlining the way ELAN functions by offering a theoretical analysis of the key aspects that attendees will have to put into practise during the second half of the workshop. Introduction to the creation of transcription conventions will also be provided.
This workshop is addressed to postgraduate students (taught and research) and members of staff and will introduce them to the use of computational tools for Natural Language parsing and generation. In particular, we will be using a dialect of Prolog (SWI-Prolog), a programming language designed for language processing to demonstrate the basics of parsing and generation using a fragment of context-free English grammar. As a result of attending the session, participants should be able to:

- have a grasp of the basic SWI-Prolog syntax and semantics
- familiarize themselves with the demo parser interface and parse and generate sentences based on a given fragment of English grammar
- Modify the existing fragment adding their own rules and lexical entries
- Identify some of the advantages of the use of computational tools for Natural Language parsing and generation.
Plenary Workshop on SPSS

Claire Batterham

This workshop is designed for students who are required to do quantitative data analysis as part of their research, or plan to do so in the future. The workshop focuses on experimental data and aims to illustrate the use of appropriate statistical tests (ANOVAs and their non-parametric alternatives), along with the situations in which each test should be applied. Manipulation of data within SPSS will also be covered briefly, looking at, for example, how to aggregate data for participant and subject analyses. Students will have the opportunity to practice these skills themselves using data provided during the session.
Describing and “explaining” the pronominal clitic switch in Standard Modern Greek

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In Standard Modern Greek (SMG) the order of pronominal verbal clitics when they appear in the preverbal position (with the finite forms of the verb) is fixed in the sense that the genitive clitic has to precede the accusative one in all cases. When the pronominal clitics are attached to a “non-finite” form of the verb (the imperative or the gerundive) the order between the genitive and the accusative clitic can switch, without affecting the meaning. Quite recently linguists working in the syntactocentric model of Minimalism have proposed accounts that aim to offer an explanation of the clitic switch in SMG (and it slack in some other varieties of Modern Greek, such as Cypriot Greek). Specifically, Terzi (1999) offers a fully syntactic account of the positioning of clitics with respect to the main verb and the possibility of the clitic switch. Boskovic (2005), on the other hand, attempted an explanation of the clitic switch in the case of the imperatives combining syntactic movement with phonological spell-out, analyzing the presence of the clitic switch as the result of the spell-out of different copies of the pronominal clitics. The difference of these accounts with respect to lexicalist or morphological ones is that besides the description they appear to offer an “explanation” of the data. The purpose of this paper is to argue against the advantage that the syntactocentric approaches claim and to show that they offer no better explanation of the facts than their lexicalist counterparts (e.g. Luis 2004; Miller and Sag 1997; Monachesi 2005). On the other hand, it will be shown that a lexicalist, construction-based approach has the potential to capture the idiosyncracies observed and provide a descriptively more adequate account. The issue of explanatory adequacy will be briefly mentioned in the light of the discussion in Culicover (1999) and Culicover and Jackendoff (2005).

References

Irrealis Mood and the Distribution of Embedded Null Subjects

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How to explain the distribution of obligatory control PRO subjects in control constructions has been a major issue in generative syntax. In the null Case theory, it is assumed that only tensed nonfinite T can check null Case of PRO, which contrasts with raising clauses lacking tense. However, cross-linguistic data show that PRO also appears in finite subjunctive complements in some languages. Finiteness of the clauses is, therefore, not necessarily a key feature in determining the distribution of PRO. In order to reconcile this cross-linguistic difference of the distribution of PRO, Landau (2004) suggests that PRO is an elsewhere case for pro/DPs in that PRO appears only if embedded C/T are not specified for both [+Tense][+Agr]. In this paper, I will investigate another possibility by looking at Japanese which inherently lacks Agr, and deduce from the data obtained that the mood interpretation is paramount in determining the distribution of PRO, but whether tense and agreement play a key role varies across languages.

According to Fujii (2006), control obtains in Japanese only when tense alternation between present and past is not permitted in the complement clause as in (1). In contrast, when there is tense alternation, control does not obtain as in (2).

(1) a. Hiroshi-wa [PRO_{i} nattoo-o  tabe-ru/*ta-koto]-o  kesshinshita.

   Hiroshi-Top nattoo-Acc eat-Prs/*Past-C_{koto}-Acc decided

   ‘Hiroshi decided to eat nattoo (fermented soy beans).’

b. Taro-wa [PRO_{i} ootoo-o   * nagu-ru/nagut-ta-koto]-o kookaishi-tei-ru.

   Taro-Top younger brother-Acc hit-*Prs/Past-C_{koto}-Acc regret-Asp-Prs.

   ‘Taro has regretted hitting his younger brother.’

(2) Hiroshi-wa [pro/Hanako-ga nattoo-o  tabe-ru/ta-koto]-o  soozooshita.

   Hiroshi-Top Hanako-Nom nattoo-Acc eat-Prs/Past-C_{koto}-Acc imagined

   ‘Hiroshi imagined that he/Hanako would eat/had eaten nattoo.’

There are also raising constructions in Japanese in which the complement clause describes the resultant state as in (3) (cf. Uchibori 2000).

(3) John-ga  [ t_{i} motto benkyosu-ru-yooni]  nat-ta.

   John-Nom more study-Prs-C_{yooni} become-Past

   ‘John has come to study harder.’

Accordingly, what becomes apparent from the Japanese data is that tense distinguishes the occurrence of PRO from that of pro/DPs, and the mood interpretation, i.e. whether the complement clause has an irrealis or realis interpretation, distinguishes raising from control.

As for English, I argue that the mood interpretation distinguishes raising from control in much the same way in Japanese, and the existence of agreement is crucial in differentiating infinitives from subjunctives such as The court ordered that he be detained.

Assuming that nominative Case of the subject is a reflex of interpretable features on T (Pesetsky and Torrego 2001), I argue that nominative Case is a reflex of mood and tense features in Japanese, and mood and agreement features in English. And PRO obtains when the value of mood feature is irrealis and T lacks tense/agreement features, failing to assign
nominative Case to the subject (hence T assigns default Case). When the value of mood feature is realis and T lacks tense/agreement features, no Case-marking occurs in embedded clauses and raising constructions are generated. (473)
Acquisition of Wh-questions: Syntactic Priming in Cypriot Greek

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Syntactic priming studies have shown that adults are more likely to use particular target constructions (e.g. passives) if they have heard a prime sentence with the same construction (Bock, 1986, 1990, 1992, Branigan, 2000, 2007). This effect occurred even when sentences contained different lexical material, suggesting that hearing or producing a sentence with a particular syntactic structure activates an abstract syntactic representation of this sentence and hence makes it more accessible for speech production. Children (aged 3;0-6;0) show syntactic priming when the same verb is involved in both prime and target (Huttenlocher et al 2004, 2007, Savage et al 2003). However, it is still debated whether children exhibit syntactic priming (i) when prime and target involve different verbs and (ii) when they only hear the prime, but do not repeat it.

This study examines subject wh-questions in Cypriot Greek which exhibits two word orders (Sub-wh-V and Wh-V-Sub). Both word orders can be combined with the particle embu (is-it-that) a dialectal constituent, resulting in 4 types of wh-questions (figure 1). 39 typically developing Cypriot Greek children (aged 3;1-6;5) were divided into 4 groups. Each group was presented with one of the four types of wh-questions, in three blocks. For each block, children heard 5 wh-questions (habituation prime) and had to repeat them (habituation target). Then, the experimenter presented the same 5 wh-questions sentences again (repetition prime) and the child had to repeat them (repetition target). Finally, the child had to produce a wh-question with a different verb (test target).

Children were more likely to use Sub-wh-V or Wh-V-Sub following a prime with the same word order, independently of the use of embu (see table 1). Moreover, with only one exception, they only used embu when it occurred in the prime. These priming effects already occurred at the beginning of the habituation stage, where children had not yet produced wh-questions themselves. And they persisted in the test phase, where new verbs were introduced. This suggests that young children employ abstract syntactic representations which can be activated independently of lexical items.

References:


(1) Pco milo / ti (emбу) troi i kopela?

Wh-V-Sub

*Which apple/ what (is-it-that) eats the woman*

‘Which apple/ What is the woman eating?’

(2) i kopela pco milo / ti (emбу) troi?

Sub-wh-V

*The woman which apple/ what (is-it-that) eats*

‘Which apple/ What is the woman eating?’

**Figure 1**: Possible word orders in Cypriot Greek

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Habituation Prime</th>
<th>Habituation Target</th>
<th>Repetition Target</th>
<th>Test Target</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sub-wh-V</td>
<td>Sub-wh-V 94%(282)</td>
<td>Sub-wh-V 93.6%(281)</td>
<td>Sub-wh-V 92%(278)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 0.4(1)</td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 1.6%(3)</td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 0.4%(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 6%(18)</td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 1.3%(4)</td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 0.65%(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 4.7%(14)</td>
<td></td>
<td>Wh-V-Sub 4.5%(13)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Wh-V-Sub          | Wh-V-Sub 99.3%(283) | Wh-V-Sub 99.3%(283) | Wh-V-Sub 100%(285) |
|                   | Sub-wh-V 0.7%(2)    | Sub-wh-V 0.7%(2)    |              |

**Table 1**: General Priming results
The time-course of morphological processing in Japanese: An eye-movement study

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This study examines the details of processing morphologically complex words during reading. A recent eye-movement study on derived words in English provided evidence for distinct stages of processing derived words in English (Cunnings and Clahsen, 2008). This study contributes new evidence investigating two deadjectival nominalization suffixes in Japanese, -sa which is highly productive and semantically transparent, and –mi which is unproductive and semantically opaque. Two experiments were performed with groups of adult native speakers of Japanese, an acceptability judgment task to examine preferences for –sa and –mi forms in different semantic contexts and an eye-movement to examine on-line processing of these derived word forms.

The acceptability judgment task had four conditions, with two semantic context conditions for each of the two suffixed forms. The results revealed a clear difference between –sa and –mi forms: acceptability judgments of -mi forms were affected by the semantic context while this was not the case for –sa forms. This contrast indicates that –sa acts as a default form in Japanese whereas –mi forms are only acceptable in specific semantic contexts.

The eye-movement experiment revealed similar reading times in all four conditions during early stages of processing. However, in later measures a contrast between the reading times of –mi and –sa forms was found, with significantly longer reading times for –mi in the unexpected conditions than when –mi forms were semantically appropriate. For –sa forms, on the other hand, there was no such difference, replicating the results of the off-line experiment.

This most interesting finding from these experiments is that effects of the semantic context manipulation only appeared in later eye-movement measures suggesting that semantic context information is not processed immediately.
This study addresses the wider question of how different sources of information are accessed during sentence comprehension. The specific issue I examine is whether adult native speakers apply binding constraints immediately during anaphor resolution.

The visual-world paradigm involves tracking participants’ eye-movements over a visual display while they listen to sentences. As eye-movements are unconscious, and the auditory stimulus is not interrupted, it provides a more naturalistic setting than previous studies.

Materials in four conditions allowed us to study fixation patterns when the binding inaccessible antecedent matched, or mismatched, the gender of the pronominal; in both a reflexive condition (1a) and a pronoun condition (1b).

(1) a. Reflexive match/mismatch
Peter/Susan was waiting outside the corner shop. He watched as Mr Jones bought a huge box of popcorn for himself over the counter.

b. Pronoun match/mismatch
Peter/Susan was waiting outside the corner shop. He watched as Mr Jones bought a huge box of popcorn for him/her over the counter.

Results show that in the reflexive condition participants looked predominantly at the binding accessible antecedent, irrespective of whether the binding inaccessible antecedent also matched the gender of the reflexive. However, in the pronoun condition there was a significant difference between the gender match and gender mismatch conditions from 400-1800ms after the onset of the pronoun as participants looked at the binding inaccessible antecedent significantly more in the match condition than in the mismatch condition ($t = 3.03$, df = 205, $p = .003$ two-tailed). This led to a significant interaction between pronoun (pronoun/reflexive) and gender (match/mismatch) in the 400-1800ms time window ($F(1,194) = 5.82$, $p = .017$).

These results suggest that while binding principle A is applied immediately online, constraining the set of possible antecedents, principle B is not, allowing a gender matching but binding inaccessible antecedent to be considered. This may be because the resolution of reflexives involves purely syntactic mechanisms, while a variety of structural and pragmatic factors contribute to pronoun resolution.