The Linguistic Society of Hong Kong

Annual Research Forum 2016

Programme Handbook

Saturday 3 December 2016
The Education University of Hong Kong
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Close of forum
Transportation: Getting to EdUHK (Tai Po)

**Free Shuttle busses from CUHK**
To facilitate your transportation, we have arranged for **FREE** shuttle busses to take you to/from EdUHK from **CUHK University Station** (see map below). The journey is about 20 minutes. Alternatively, you may taxi from University station (taxi area noted on map).

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Departing at **8:40, 8:50 and 9:00**

**EdUHK to CUHK**
There will be three free shuttles returning to CUHK from EdUHK in the evening:
Departing at **17:40, 17:50, 18:00**
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Development of Cantonese Writing Tradition in the Past Two Centuries

Shin Kataoka, Fanny Li, Andy Chin, Lau Chaak Ming, Cheung Hin Tat
In this presentation, I will give a short overview of evidential systems in Mongolic. Evidentiality shall here be defined as “the representation of source and access to information according to the speaker’s perspective and strategy” (Tournadre & LaPolla 2014). Restricting our attention to evidential suffixes, we can identify four types of evidentiality systems in Mongolic:

I. In the ancestor language Middle Mongol (Brosig 2014), evidentiality is restricted to the past tense, and for perfective forms shows a threefold distinction between statements marked as epistemically unproblematic (1a), statements marked as known to the speaker through her own senses (1b), and statements based on inference or hearsay (1c). The system is still employed in the Mongolic languages spoken farthest away from the Middle Mongol heartlands such Kalmyk Oirat (Goto 2009, Skribnik & Seesing 2014) and, presumably, Moghol in Afghanistan (Johanson 1974).

(1) (a)  kee-be ‘he said’ (SH §156)
         (b)  kee-lee ‘he said (and I heard these words myself)’ (SH §189)
         (c)  kee-jüüy ‘[he] said (at the allied camp, so I learnt it from others)’ (SH §160)

II. In Qinghai Oirat (Oyunceceg 2009) and its former contact variety Khalkha (Brosig 2015, forthcoming), a twofold evidentiality distinction was innovated for ongoing events in the present tense. In Khalkha, it runs between information that the speaker can access during the time of speaking (2a) and information that s/he learnt earlier (2b). For past events, there is a threefold distinction between established, immediate sensory and immediate inferential evidence.

(2) (a)  exel-jii-n start-PROG-IMM.PRES ‘it is starting (which I am observing)’
         (b)  exel-jai-gaa start-PROG-EST.PRES ‘it is starting (now, as I know from experience)’

III. In the Southern Mongolic languages of Qinghai (Slater forthcoming) and presumably in the neighboring Eastern Shira Yugur (Brosig & Skribnik forthcoming), we find a binary tense-independent distinction between participatory and non-participatory evidence. In (3a) and (3c), the assertor (the speaker in declaratives and the addressee in interrogatives) is a
participant of the event, which consequently gets marked as participatory by \(-ba\). In (3b) and (3d), the assertor is not a participant of the event which consequently receives non-participatory marking in \(-jiang\) (or its variant form \(-ji\)).

(3) (a) \(bi\ \ri\-ba\) \(\text{‘I came.’}\) (b) \(qi\ /\ gan\ ri\-jiang\) \(\text{‘You / she came.’ [speaker might have seen it]}\)
(c) \(qi\ \ri\-b\-u\?) \(\text{‘Did you come?’}\) (c) \(bi\ /\ gan\ ri\-ji\-nu\?) \(\text{‘Did I / she come?’ (Slater 2003: 194, 198)}\)

IV. In the Mongolic languages of Manchuria and Southern Gansu, evidential suffixes are entirely absent.

These findings are notable insofar as time of acquisition of information (Tournadre 2008) has only been considered as a factor in Tense-Aspect-Mood-Evidentiality systems in general (Dahl 2013) or in the type of tenseless evidentiality system found in Greater Tibet (e.g. Tournadre & LaPolla 2014), but its existence in tensed systems of Central Asia has not yet been established. The other neglected factor that this study shows with some prominence is the relevance of the existence of neutral markers for the function of evidential systems, a problem first investigated by Mushin (2001) that has, however, not been entered into existing typologies such as Aikhenvald’s (2004) where a simple two-term system as found in Turkish would be classified exactly into the same category as the three-term system of Khalkha.

References


The Relationship of Syntactic and Semantic Aspects of Postverbal Particles and Their Preverbal Counterparts in Hong Kong Cantonese

Cheng Siu Pong 鄭兆邦
The Hong Kong Polytechnic University

The major focus of this thesis is to offer supplementary principles for the theory of discontinuous constructions. It indicates that semantic “redundancy” is embodied in the intensional variation. For the two elements acting upon the same target, the more specific one is at a higher hierarchy level than the more abstract one. This is known as the “Hypothesis for ‘Redundant’ Elements” with regard to the theory of discontinuous constructions. In the case of Cantonese, the postverbal elements are more abstract and have a wider scope of reference, whereas the preverbal elements are more specific and their reference is more direct. For example, postverbal lai4, zyu6, zaa3, ze1 and gam3zai6 are more abstract than their preverbal counterparts: lai4 indicates the past time, and the corresponding zing3waa6 and ngaam1ngaam1 indicate a past time point; zyu6 indicates a stative time interval, and zaam6si4 offers a duration for this stative interval; zaa3 and ze1 are restrictive in various dimensions, and zing6hai6 indicates restriction in the denotative sense; gam3zai6 approximates on the state of dynamic and stative predicates, and caa1m4dol approximates on the stage of achievement of dynamic predicates. As for the syntactic implications, it is argued that the preverbal elements are hierarchically higher than the postverbal elements, but they do not necessarily form a phrase in the strict sense. However, within an island exhibiting locality, they have a fixed hierarchical relation. This is because the reference of the more abstract element cannot be determined before the reference of the more specific one is determined. Intensional variation between the preverbal and postverbal elements relates to their syntactic nature. The preverbal element is an adjunct. In accordance with traditional accounts, the postverbal element is the head of a functional phrase indicating relations. In line with the recent theories, the postverbal element is a predicate in the broad sense. The recent proposals explain from the typological perspective the emergence of extensive postverbal elements in Cantonese, which is a reflection of the broader cross-linguistic variation. Semantic differences between preverbal and postverbal elements can be translated as the
differences between adjuncts and heads or predicates. The ultimate goal of this thesis is to highlight the certainty of the resulting complementation effect. The postverbal elements offer the missing sense for the preverbal ones, and the preverbal elements specify the underspecified reference of the postverbal ones: Зинг3ваа6 and Зам6си4 indicate the time, whereas Зааи1, Зинг6хай6 and Caалм4доль indicate the focus. The co-occurrence of Cantonese preverbal and postverbal elements alleviates the necessity for the listeners to infer from outside the language. From the informational point of view, the discontinuous constructions reduce the burden of interpretation.
Towards an Understanding of Ergative Case Marking

\(^a\)Cathryn Donohue  \(^b\)Mark Donohue

\(^a\)The University of Hong Kong \(^b\)The Australian National University

We discuss variation in the appearance of the ‘ergative’ case in Bumthang, a Bodic language of central Bhutan (described in van Driem 1995). In this paper, we report on fieldwork from the variety spoken in Ura, in the south-east of the language’s range. In particular, we focus on the ergative case and suggested analysis for how to determine ergative case usage as outlined in Donohue & Donohue 2016. In the context of other Himalayan languages, we discuss how the findings bear on other Himalayan languages and situate the analysis in the literature discussing other languages that show variability in the use of the ergative case, not uncommon in the Himalayas (e.g. Chelliah & Hyslop 2011).

We discuss how the variation in ergative marking varies due to information structure differences (topic, or anti-topic), as well as differences in tense/aspect, lexical aspect, and animacy. While each of these factors have been shown to be important in determining the use of ergative case in other languages described as showing split ergativity, Bumthang shows us that at least in some languages, all these factors are important in understanding the use of the ergative case marker. We discuss these results in a typological context with a focus on south Asian languages.
The Acquisition of the English Present Perfect by Speakers of Cantonese: L1 Influence vs. Universal Learning Mechanisms

Robert Fuchs, Valentin Werner, Sandra Götz
Hong Kong Baptist University, University of Bamberg, University of Gießen

Theories on the acquisition of tense and aspect make different predictions regarding the acquisition of the Present Perfect (PP) by learners of English as a foreign language: Proponents of the “L1-influence position” (e.g. Bulut 2011) state that the process can be influenced by the existence of parallel structures in the learners’ first languages (L1s). If the L1 has a structure similar in form and/or function to the English PP, acquisition is facilitated, and even overgeneralization to non-target contexts may occur (Collins 2002). By contrast, other observers (e.g. Klein 1995; Klein, Dietrich & Noyau 1995; Bardovi-Harlig 2000; Housen 2002a) argue that universal learning mechanisms irrespective of the learners’ L1 are at play. Thus, all learners should show comparable rates of PP uptake.

Previous research suggests that PP usage is an area where even advanced learners struggle (Housen 2002b; Klein 1995). This was supported by a recent study relying on corpora of L1 German learners of English of various proficiency levels (Fuchs, Götz & Werner in press). Although German has a structure that is morphologically identical to the English PP, learners consistently underused the PP in English except for the most proficient learners at university level. The results of Fuchs, Götz & Werner provide some first evidence against sizeable L1 influence in the acquisition of the PP. However, learners with an L1 that does not have a PP-like structure might struggle even more with the PP. This would suggest that acquisition of the PP is generally challenging, but mediated by L1 influence.

To test this hypothesis, the present paper investigates the use of the PP by Cantonese-speaking learners of English from Hong Kong and mainland China, since Cantonese does not have a structure that is morphologically similar to the PP (although it has a functionally similar structure, Dahl & Vellupillai 2013). In order to track the acquisition process across a range of proficiency levels, we rely on corpus data from learners covering the span from primary school to the end of university (from the ICCI, ICLE and LINDSEI corpora), and conduct a pseudo-longitudinal study. Expanding on previous research, we measure the frequency of the PP (1) in competition with the Simple Past (SP) and (2) in contexts where indefinite and definite time adverbials favour or disfavour, respectively, the use of the PP in English.

Findings indicate that school-age L1 Cantonese learners highly underuse the PP (PP ratio of
between 1 and 5% depending on proficiency level). L1 German learners also underuse the PP (PP ratio of 2 to 12%), but not as much as L1 Cantonese learners. However, we can trace an increase in the frequency of usage with the learners’ level of proficiency. On this basis we conclude that a mediating influence of the learner’s L1 can be assumed, which weakens with increasing proficiency. On a more general note, we aim to show in which way the study of corpus data can contribute to the refinement (and empirical underpinning) of competing theories in the acquisition of expressions of temporal relations.

**References**


Indexing Speaker Stance Through Postnominal Possessive Markers in Mongolian

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This paper investigates the expression of speaker stance by means of postmodifying possessive clitics in Central Mongolian. The focus is on how different first and second person forms encode subjective evaluation, intersubjective awareness and manipulative intent. The study is based on different spoken and written corpora supplemented by elicitation.

In Japanese, utterance-initial personal pronouns fulfill frame-setting or identificational functions, whereas they fulfill emotive or attitudinal functions in utterance- or NP-final position. This distinction is grammaticalized in Mongolian possessive markers, with free prenominal forms specialized for identificational purposes and postnominal clitics often used for attitudinal functions. In particular, the postnominal possessives are used to signal the speaker’s familiarity with the possessee.

Table 1. Paradigm of possessive pronouns in Central Mongolian

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1SG</th>
<th>2SG</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>1PL</th>
<th>2PL</th>
<th>2SG.HON</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prenominal</td>
<td>min-ii</td>
<td>čin-ii</td>
<td>en/ter</td>
<td>bidn-ii</td>
<td>man-ai</td>
<td>tan-ai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postnominal</td>
<td>=min’</td>
<td>=čin’</td>
<td>=n’</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>=maan’</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The range of attitudinal functions varies for different person forms. First person singular min’ as in (1), first person plural maan’ (in its basic use), and second person honorific singular tan’ express affective notions such as intimateness, solidarity and deference with/for a real possessee. Among these notions, intimateness is speaker-centered, while solidarity may and deference must explicitly take the addressee into account as well.

(1) eež-iiŋ=min’ zurag en bai-n.
mother-GEN=1SG.POSS>STC picture DEM.PROX AUX-DIR.PRES
‘The picture of my [dear] mother is this one.’

First person plural maan’ (in its extended use) and non-honorific second person singular čin’ not only focus on intersubjective awareness, but they also manipulate it. Maan’ is used to familiarize the addressee with the “possessee” (ter uls-uud=maan’ ‘those people [that we are

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talking about’), while čin’, due to the speaker authority it conveys, imposes the speaker’s stance onto the addressee as in (2). It also forms part of a number of conjunctive devices (such as yumčin’ thing=STC ‘because’).

(2) A: “Our people are becoming increasingly professional in the current situation, too.”

B: araG=güi, en=čin’ glabalčlal. urd=(a)n’ tiim yum bai-d[ag]-güi

means=NEG DEM.DIST=STC globalization before=DEF like.that thing AUX-HAB.PTCP=NEG

bai-say bai-h=güi=yüü?

AUX-EST.PST AUX-FUT.PTCP=NEG=Q

‘That’s inevitable, this is globalization. Before we didn’t have anything like that, did we?’

What can thus be observed is a cline from forms that always express the notion of possession and the quality of speaker attitude towards the possessee (1SG.POSS, 2SG.HON.POSS) to forms that are used as intersubjective consensus-building strategies in discourse (1SG.PL.POSS, 2SG.NON-HON.POSS) and thus show a much greater potential to express intersubjective stances.
Blow and Bloom – The Sound Symbolism of Labials and ‘Release’

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Cross-linguistically, morphemes that stand for ‘to blow (wind),’ ‘flower,’ and ‘to let go (i.e. to seize to hold),’ tend to include an oral labial onset and/or onglide in the first syllable. From 25 languages, I have collected morphemes that represent ‘to let go of,’ ‘to blow,’ and ‘flower.’ Each language is the largest of the 25 largest language families in the world (based on Ethnologue 19th Edition). Morphemes that have oral labial onsets/onglides in the first syllable and in bold type. Part of the data is shown below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family/Language</th>
<th>‘to let go’</th>
<th>‘to blow’</th>
<th>‘flower’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Indo-European/ Spanish</td>
<td>solt-</td>
<td>sopl-</td>
<td>flor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sino-Tibetan/Mandarin</td>
<td>faŋsi</td>
<td>tʃhuisel55</td>
<td>xwa55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result is that 39% of ‘to let go’, 54% of ‘to blow’ and 37% of ‘flower’ morphemes have an oral labial onset (or onglide) in the first syllable. This statistical result suggests that labial onsets may be symbolically related to these meanings.

Are these three meanings related to each other? I suggest that they all share the schema of release. When we blow air, we release breath from our mouths. And when a flower blooms, it opens from a contracted state, similarly to hand aperture, and releases pollen and aroma. Some sign languages visually represent this similarity: in Korean, Hong Kong and French SL, the word for ‘flower’ involves the motion of opening hand that imitates a blooming flower.

Cross-linguistic observation of phonesthemes support the association between these meanings and labial onsets. Onset phonesthemes that include labials express meanings such as: explosion: Japanese /p-/ (Hamano 1998), English /b-/ (Magnus 2001) and /fl-/ (Drellishak 2006); opening and spreading out: Amharic /br-/ (Ayalew 2013); releasing: Amharic /fn-/ (Ayalew 2013); corporal ejection: English /bl-/ (Argoud 2010); and flowers: English /bl/ (Drellishak 2006).

References:


Unifying Relatives and Related ‘Gapless’ Structures in Late Archaic Chinese

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Traditional descriptions of Late Archaic Chinese (LAC) commonly recognise at least two uses of the functional morpheme zhi, i.e. as a genitive marker (e.g. in (1a)) and as a relative linker (e.g. in (1b)) (see Pulleyblank 1995 among others). We recognise a third use of zhi, which is pretheoretically ambiguous between the two aforementioned uses, as in for instance (1c).

(1) a. shengren zhi zheng
    sage ZHI governance
    ‘The sages’ governance’

   b. hao ming zhi ren
    like fame ZHI people
    ‘People who like fame’

   c. xiaoti zhi yi
    filial.piety-fraternal.submission ZHI duty
    ‘The duties of filial piety and fraternal submission’

Drawing on textual evidence, in particular from Mencius, we argue that [NP-zhi-NP] expressions such as (1c) may have been reanalysed as involving a relative clause structurally identical to that in (1b). This can be linked to the occurrence of copular-less nominal predicates around the LAC period, which thus gave rise to a new class of relatives. This also explains the existence of ‘self-referring’ (in Zhu's 1983 terminology) [NP-zhe] structures, which are in fact relatives formed on a par with (1c). The appearance of the [suo ... zhi-NP] and [suo ... zhe] structures can be straightforwardly explained along similar lines.

As for apparently gapless LAC structures where suo and zhe take on a subordinating function, such as (2a) and (2b) respectively, we consider them to be instances of free relatives. These structures relativise on adjuncts to create NPs, which commonly function as sentential topics.

(2) a. Yi zhi suo qi...
    one GEN SUO lift
    ‘When the One came into existence. . .’

   b. Bu fu ting zhe...
    NEG again straight ZHE
    ‘If it no longer straightens…’
    (taken from Harbsmeier 1981)

As a first step towards analysis, we hypothesise that the relative linker zhi and the functional morpheme zhe in LAC instantiate the same functional head, the latter being chosen for insertion in the context where no overt following complement is present. (We leave open the exact status of F.)
(3) \[ F \rightarrow \text{zhi} / \_\_ \ X P \]
\[ \rightarrow \text{zhe} \]

References


A Corpus of Cantonese Connected Speech on a Shoestring
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This work reports on the construction of a corpus of connected spoken Cantonese. The corpus aims at providing an additional resource for the study of modern (Hong Kong) Cantonese and also involves different controlled elicitation tasks which will serve different projects related to the phonology and semantics of Cantonese. The corpus offers recordings, phonemic transcription, Chinese characters transcription and will offer a narrow phonetic transcription layer as well. The corpus will be distributed under the CC-BY-SA 4.0 International license. Apart from the linguistic insights to be gathered from the recorded data, the construction of the corpus is also innovative in that it uses out of the box software to facilitate and cheapen the cost of the transcription.

Previous works on Cantonese corpora include Leung and Law’s (2001) *The Hong Kong Cantonese Adult Language Corpus* (HKCAC), Luke and Wong’s (2015) *The Hong Kong Cantonese Corpus* (HKCanCorp) and Chin’s (2015) *Linguistics Corpus of Mid-20th Century Hong Kong Cantonese*. These corpora were either phonetically transcribed with IPA, phonemically transcribed and glossed with parts of speech or transcribed with Chinese characters. Although they are precious resources, these corpora are not annotated in the same way, and their size is not suited to some recent data-intensive developments in the field of NLP. Our corpus thus come as an additional resource for such usages by providing 13 hours of natural connected Cantonese speech. Besides providing additional data, one aim of our corpus was to elicit the realization of specific tonal sequences and other discursive features in natural connected speech. In order to do so, the project replicated part of the setting used in the HCRC MapTask corpus (Anderson et al., 1991). The material in the corpus thus corresponds to conversations between two participants with asymmetrical roles: the Instructor and the Receiver. Both participants were given maps with various landmarks and names indicated in Chinese characters. The maps given to the participants differed in some controlled aspects (the choice of landmarks and the names of some landmarks). The instructor’s map showed a path that the Receiver had to replicate on his map following the instructions given verbally by the instructor. The participants were unable to make eye-contact, but otherwise were free to communicate in any way they wanted. Each participant was recorded using two Sony PCM-D100 recorders and the data was saved in wav format.

Another original aspect of our work is how our data was transcribed. The transcription of the spoken data was done by relying on the Google Cloud Speech API which offers a robust automatic transcription software environment. While not originally designed to transcribe
large amounts of data, we developed a python script which allows it. The accuracy of the software were evaluated by comparing the automatically transcribed data with manually transcribed ones. Preliminary results indicate that the accuracy is high and the main errors found so far are the omission or misidentification of sentence-final particles and nonce words. Given these results, we recommend researchers who have limited funding to jump start the laborious and time-consuming task of transcription with this free tool, and the transcription can be fine-tuned manually and corrected if necessary in the step that follows.

References
Japanese Demonstrative Prefix A-: Uttering the Unutterable

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As is well known, in Japanese there are three demonstrative prefixes ko-/so-/a- which form various bound morphemes. Previous studies of ko-/so-/a- were focusing on how to use them as deictic use and non-deictic use. In the analysis of non-deictic use, there are a lot of studies about how to recognize a- as an anaphor and construct the relationship between an anaphor a- and its antecedent. Nonetheless, we are, sometimes, difficult to judge whether or not a- is an anaphor. In some case, a- is used without any antecedent supporting that makes the listeners do not understand the meaning of a- mentioned by the speakers.

To explain these phenomena, we argue that a- is possible to use for uttering some unutterable context, even though there is no antecedent in the conversation. A- is used in the situations that the speaker is either inability to retrieve a lexical item, or avoiding saying specific utterance. Similar to English placeholder ‘you-know-WHAT’ ‘WHAT-d’you-call-it’ (Enfield, 2004) and Chinese wh-placeholder ‘shenme’(Cheung, 2015), a- may provide a function to avoid the use of some taboo words or certain words which may cause embarrassing between the interlocutors. Speakers may also use a- to substitute some contents so as to avert being censored. Furthermore, speakers are able to conceal their intentions by using are deliberately.

Reference:


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2 Some scholars (Kuno 1983, Kinsui 1999) used the term ‘anaphoric use’ instead of non-deictic use.
Learning Chinese (Cantonese) as a second language is of paramount importance to Non-Chinese speaking (NCS) students if they are to survive and succeed in Hong Kong. Many of them face a daunting task of mastering two second languages (Cantonese and Written Chinese) that are linguistically very distinct from their native languages. The logographic nature of Chinese characters further complicates the issue. Students lack the phonological awareness to distinguish all Cantonese speech sounds, which makes it even harder, especially for those who started learning Chinese at a later age, to associate speech sounds with the written forms.

In fact, the gap between sounds and orthography can be bridged by introducing an auxiliary writing system that has a strong sound-to-grapheme component. LSHK Jyutping, given its wide acceptability and availability of tools and materials, was the definite choice.

With both teaching and research goals in mind, an intervention programme of 13 lessons (35 minute per lesson, 1 lesson per week) was designed and first tested in January 2016. Cantonese sound system (Jyutping as an auxiliary spelling system, Cantonese sound inventory and syllable structure, etc.) were introduced through games and worksheets. Lessons were later moved to the computer room so that students could practise what they had learned immediately. They were asked to type in sentences or passages extracted from their Chinese textbook as a practice.

Students were assessed twice during the intervention (in Week 1 and 13) on their ability to enter Chinese characters. After dividing the students into three groups (upper, mid, lower) according to their homework performance, we found that students from the upper group were able to type in Jyutping at a speed that is faster than using the mouse and writing pad software, but the same effect was not observed in the mid and lower group. As predicted, linguistic background played an important role; some issues (e.g. aspiration sounds) are very likely to be related to learners’ native language(s). This supports our view that knowledge about NCS-students’ language background is crucial to successful Chinese teaching.

The design of the intervention programme, teaching materials, issues that we have identified, strategies employed and findings from the 1st and 2nd round of intervention will be reported.
It is hoped that this project will be further refined for other NCS classrooms, and hopefully, on a broader scale, it will give further insight into how linguists can contribute to language teaching for NCS students.
A great deal of research indicates that near-synonyms take up the majority of lexical errors made by second language (L2) learners of Chinese (Li & Wang 1987, Luo 1998, Liu 2007, Li 2010). Part of the reason can be attributed to a rather general or even circular definition provided by most reference materials. Given that manner adverbs signal the manner in which an action is carried out, the misuse of manner adverbs may result in unfavorable social consequences. Therefore, this study aims to investigate how near-synonymous manner adverbs can be distinguished in terms of their collocational variations. Two particular case studies are presented, including毅然 and斷然, and 故意 and刻意.

In the two case studies, various linguistic cues are utilized in search of distinctive semantic features. In the first case,毅然 and斷然 are examined in terms of [± trigger]. If the events modified by毅然 or斷然 are more frequently preceded by conjunctions of cause-and-effect such as 因, 於是, 所以 etc. or 後-related temporal nouns such as 之後, 後來 etc., these actions are triggered by a cause event with the modifier (i.e.毅然 or断然) being [+ trigger].

As in the case of故意 and刻意, they can be distinguished in terms of [± attainability] and [± semantic prosody]. Attainability refers to the property of an event modified by a manner adverb, denoting whether the event stands a higher chance of being successfully carried out or not. This feature can be uncovered by the conjunctions of transition (e.g. 雖然, 儘管) in the pattern of “雖然/儘管 AGENT 故意/刻意……・(但)……”. The more frequent an adverb co-occurs with these conjunctions in real usage, the greater likelihood that the event modified by the said adverb will more unlikely to turn out as what the agent expects. And hence, the attainability of the adverb is lower.

As for semantic prosody, the negation marker 不是 serves as a linguistic cue for the investigation. When the negation marker precedes 故意 or刻意, it negates the intention of the event modified by that adverb. These events are usually negative in nature, which is why users tend to weaken the intention behind. The semantic prosody can thus be unveiled by the co-occurrence of 不是 and the two adverbs.

To differentiate near-synonyms in terms of collocation variations, various linguistic cues are used to uncover deep-level semantic information. Results suggest that function words such as conjunctions can also be of great values in distinguishing near-synonyms, as opposed to the
perceived wisdom that only lexical words such as nouns serve the purpose.

**References**


Processing Cantonese Classifiers by Mandarin Speakers:  
An Eye-tracking Study  
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Chinese has a rich set of nominal classifiers which collocate with nouns in sentences. The classifier-noun collocation is not random. Previous studies have shown that native speakers of Chinese predict the upcoming noun based on the classifier they hear or read. In Cantonese, classifiers can quantify a noun without any numerals and demonstratives. The ‘bare classifier phrase’ ([CL-N], e.g. zil bat ‘CL pen’) has a definite reading when appearing in a pre-verbal subject position, whereas Mandarin does not typically allow [CL-N] in the same position (Li & Bisang 2012). Previous studies have shown that second language (L2) learners demonstrate predictive understanding in real-time processing as native speakers do in some areas, albeit to different extents (e.g. Lau & Grüter 2015). This study investigates whether Mandarin-speaking learners of Cantonese are able to predict the upcoming noun based on the classifier they hear through an eye-tracking experiment.

Adopting the Visual World Paradigm (e.g., Altmann & Kamide, 1999), we asked native Mandarin speakers with relatively low L2 Cantonese proficiency (n = 17) to look at four pictures depicting different daily objects while listening to Cantonese sentences with [CL-N] in the subject position. Their eye-gaze patterns were recorded and compared with those of native speakers of Hong Kong Cantonese (n = 18). Participants also completed two general cognitive ability tasks (to measure executive function and working memory) and a post-experiment classifier-noun collocation test. Results show that the L2 speakers were able to fixate onto the target noun 300 milliseconds after the offset of the classifier, regardless whether the classifier-noun collocation resembles their L1 Mandarin or not. Although L2 speakers performed poorer than the native speakers in the post-experiment classifier-noun collocation test, their performance in the eye-tracking experiments was not statistically different from the native speakers. This finding supports the proposal that native and non-native processing are not fundamentally different when the task involves establishing and checking local, rather than long-distance dependency, in this case, within the determiner phrase (DP). Nevertheless, the delayed anticipatory looks at the target nouns found in both native and non-native speakers give rise to questions with regard to the primary function of Chinese classifiers in real-time processing and point out new directions for future research.

References  


Phonetic Cues for Meaning Differentiation in Sentence Final Particles: 
The Case of lu in Cantonese
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Many studies on sentence-final particles (SFP) have noted that one SFP may initiate multiple speech-acts/ functions, but limited empirical studies have been done for these claims. For example, sentence (1) below can be interpreted as a command or an advice depending on how the SFP is realized. A few studies have suggested that differences in tone [1], duration [2] and vowel quality [3] are cues for differentiating speech-acts/ functions; but experimental data supporting such claims are still lacking.

The current study attempts to fill this gap by examining a newly emerging SFP – lu (噜), which carries two distinct functions [4] – lu₁ is used in statement to assert a change of state of an event (e.g. sentence (2) below); lu₂ is only compatible with stage-level predicate to make an inclusive imperative (e.g. sentence (3) below).

We examined two repetitions of lu₁ and lu₂ from ten native speakers of Cantonese (seven females, three males; aged 20-29). These recordings were analyzed from three aspects: duration, pitch, and vowel quality. In terms of duration, paired samples T-tests show that lu₁ (M = 329.38ms, SD = 121.73) is significantly longer than lu₂ (M = 227.95ms, SD = 81.60); t(19) = 3.36, p = 0.003 (two-tail), but the duration of the rest of the sentence do not differ significantly between the two conditions. In terms of pitch, females on average use higher pitch for lu₁ than for lu₂; but males did not show such difference. There is no difference in pitch contour between the two variants of lu either. In terms of vowel quality, both laa and lo variations are found, but lu₂ is more frequently realized as lo than lu₁ is, while laa is associated with lu₁ only.

Our study complements previous works on Cantonese SFP by providing experimental evidence for the claim that meaning differentiation of SFP is phonetically cued. Specifically, our findings show that the two meanings of lu which cannot be syntactically distinguished, possess different phonetic properties with regard to vowel quality, pitch and duration. The most stable cue among the three is durational contrast: lu₁ signaling a change in state of an event is longer in duration than lu₂ signaling a suggestion.

(1)拎起枱啦。
   ling1 hei2 zoeng1 toi2 laa1
   lift-up   CL   table SFP
   ‘Lift up the table!’

(2)好嘢！做晒啲功課噜 [5]。
   hou2 je5 zou6 saai3 di1 gung1fo3 lu3
   yeah   do-all those homework SFP
   ‘Yeah! (I) have done all the homework.’

(1)拎起枱啦。
   ling1 hei2 zoeng1 toi2 laa1
   lift-up   CL   table SFP
   ‘Lift up the table!’

(2)好嘢！做晒啲功課噜 [5]。
   hou2 je5 zou6 saai3 di1 gung1fo3 lu3
   yeah   do-all those homework SFP
   ‘Yeah! (I) have done all the homework.’
Let’s watch a movie!


[2] 張洪年。2007。《香港粵語語法的研究》。香港：中文大學出版社。

[3] 鄧思穎。2015。《粵語語法講義》。香港：商務印書館。


A large body of research has posited the role of individual differences on the effect of memory systems and cognitive factors to predict second language learning development and success. Working memory and declarative/procedural memory have received a large amount of attention in L2 research separately. However, the interaction between short-term and long-term memory has rarely been focused.

This study investigates how the relationship of working memory, declarative memory and procedural memory as individual differences affects L2 attainment under different learning conditions for bilingual adults in Hong Kong. Participants completed the assessments on working memory, declarative memory and procedural memory at the beginning and at the end of the experiment. They were divided into explicit and implicit groups based on their language proficiency level, and subsequently learned an artificial language. They received both comprehension and production training on the artificial L2. The L2 grammatical development was assessed in three sessions of the experiment.

Results indicate that the short-term memory and long-term memory systems play particular roles at different stages of L2 acquisition, and the dynamic memory systems accounted for a large amount of variance in the L2 learning processes. Procedural learning ability predicts L2 development at early stages under explicit condition, whereas working memory predicts L2 development at the early stages and declarative/procedural memory predicts syntactic development at the later stages of acquisition.

The findings are consistent with the results of Morgan-Short et al. (2014) and Alptekin & Erçetin (2013), which show that working memory is responsible to facilitate or restrict the learning in declarative memory and procedural memory, and the interactions between working memory, declarative memory and procedural memory should be taken into account in understanding L2 skill acquisition. It is to be noted that the neural-based memory systems have their specific positions during the L2 acquisition stages across explicit and implicit training conditions.

Perception of Allophones of Moraic Nasal N by Japanese, Cantonese and Mandarin Speakers

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Previous researches have shown that adults’ performance on non-native language (NNL) is affected by the knowledge of their first language (L1). Similarities and dissimilarities between L1 and NNL are important cues to predict performance on perceiving NNL. But how does L1 influence the perception of NNL remains controversial.

The present research uses Japanese moraic nasal N to test speakers with different L1 (Japanese, Cantonese and Mandarin). Three languages are very different in nasal phonetically and phonologically. In Japanese, moraic nasal N refers to the nasal in coda position. Due to the regressive assimilation of the following segments, moraic nasal N has three allophonic variants: [m], [n] and [ŋ], forming three nasal contrasts [m]-[n], [n]-[ŋ] and [m]-[ŋ]. In Cantonese, all three nasal sounds are distinctive. But in Mandarin, only /n/ and /ŋ/ are distinctive in coda position. All speakers go through an AXB discrimination test to see sensitivities on the three nasal contrasts. The main finding is that the Cantonese group performs much better than the Japanese group in all three contrasts while the Mandarin group fails to do so.

The present perceptual models, Perceptual Assimilation Model (PAM) and Speech Learning Model (SLM), successfully predict that the Cantonese group has perceptual advantage over the Japanese and Mandarin group in the [m]-[n] and [m]-[ŋ] contrasts. The advantage is due to the fact that these two contrasts are distinctive in coda position in Cantonese. But the finding that Mandarin group has poor performance on the [n]-[ŋ] contrast may disagree with the present perceptual models. Cue weighting strategies among different languages may be used to explain why the Mandarin group fails to perform as well as the Cantonese group.
Rhoticity in China English

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Rhoticity in China English has never been given the final word (Demirezen 2012, Wei & Lu 2013). As all the varieties of English in the world, dialects in China can be roughly divided into two categories in terms of rhoticity: rhotic Northern mandarins and non-rhotic Southern dialects. The present research investigated the rhoticity in China English and expected to know whether the rhoticity in L1 has an effect on the rhoticity in L2 – English in this case.

This research selected 14 subjects - half of the subjects speaking rhotic L1 namely Northern mandarins, while the other half speaking the non-rhotic ones namely Xiang, Cantonese and Wu. The data was recorded from two tasks – a word elicitation task containing 102 English words with five vowels /ɑ/, /ɜ/, /ɔ/, /ɪə/, /ɛə/ and the schwa /ə/; and a spontaneous speech task requiring the subjects to give a 2-minute impromptu speech on a given topic.

The results show that: 1) China English is generally rhotic. 66.16% of all the /r/ tokens are pronounced rhotic, which is significantly larger than the non-rhotic pronunciations (p = 0.00038); 2) 76.99% of the /r/ tokens in English are pronounced as rhotic by rhotic L1 speakers, while 55.48% pronounced by non-rhotic L1 speakers. The difference between the two groups is significant (p = 0.036); and 3) some vowels are more easily to be pronounced as rhotic in China English: 97.10% of /ɜ/ are pronounced as rhotic, and only 43.98% of /ɔ/ are rhotic.

The findings of this research support that the characteristic of rhoticity in native languages can be transferred to L2 – English. This is also reported in other English varieties such as Spanish English and Brazilian English.

References
A Study on the Perception of Cantonese Vowel Length Contrasts by Mandarin Speakers

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The study investigated the perception of three pairs of Cantonese vowel length contrasts /a:/ and /ɐ/, /ɛ:/ and /ɛ/, /ɔ:/ and /o/ by native speakers of Mandarin. The Cantonese vowel length has received a great deal of investigation, but its L2 acquisition study is still a gap to fill. Considering vowel length contrasts do not exist in Mandarin, the study investigated how native phonological knowledge affects the L2 acquisition of phonological contrasts. The Speech Learning Model and the Perception Assimilation Model were used to predict the results. Based on the vowel quality differences, poor discrimination by L2 learners was predicted for the low vowel pair /a:/ and /ɐ/, and good discrimination for the two mid vowel pairs /ɛ:/ - /ɛ/ and /ɔ:/ - /o/.

The study conducted a perception experiment, whose participants were Mandarin native speakers from northern China with varying amount of Cantonese experience, namely naive listeners with no Cantonese exposure, inexperienced learners with less than 1-year exposure, and experienced learners with over 5-year exposure. An AXB discrimination task was used to assess their perception, and their discrimination accuracy and reaction time of the task were analyzed.

The experiment data showed that the accuracy of the discrimination increased along with the Cantonese experience accumulated. The results revealed that amount of L2 experience influenced the perception accuracy of Cantonese vowel length contrasts by Mandarin native speakers, especially at the initial stage of the acquisition process. Moreover, the learners can fairly easily discriminate the differences between the Cantonese vowel length contrastive phones in minimal lexical contrasts, which partially conformed to the SLM and PAM-L2 predictions that were based merely on the vowel quality differences. The results also revealed the weakness of these two models in not considering prosodic aspects of L2 acquisition.
當說話者因為語用因素而不欲說明某詞，或是一時說不出原本要說的詞，便會使用佔位詞（placeholder）。佔位詞佔上句法位置，能夠充當句法成份，而它所替代的詞是可以補回來的（Hayashi and Yoon 2006）。在以往的文獻中大抵從三個方向研究佔位詞：一、佔位詞的句法（Cheung 2015；Amiridze, Davis & Maclagan 2010 等）；二、甚麼詞能用作佔位詞（Hayashi & Yoon 2006 等）；三、佔位詞對大腦語言學的啟示（Davis and Maclagen 2010）。

有別於前人做法，本文從共時及歷時的角度釐清香港粵語中三個佔位詞的語義： 「咩」、「盛」和「啲啲」。我們認為這三個詞都經歷了語法化，而且它們所取代的詞性不同，取代的方法也有差異。「咩」除了可用作無指代詞外（例 1：啲咩時咩都要讀咖嗎。（OUCCC）），還可以作佔位詞用（例 2：咩咩咩咩啲啲乜？乜乜靜苑啲啲呢，咪好大。（OUCCC））。根據 Chor and Lam (2015)，「咩」可取代名詞、動詞、形容詞和副詞，其語法化過程應是：無指代詞 > 佔位詞。「啲啲」可用作指示詞（例 3：你有冇去過香港啲啲廟呀？（OUCCC）），也可作佔位詞用（例 4：仲有佛敎，回敎，基督教啲啲。）（OUCCC）。指示詞作佔位詞用的現象在其他語言中也可見，例如日語的 ano, are，韓語 ku-ke, ce-ke 及漢語「這個」、「那個」（Hayashi & Yoon 2006）。比較有趣的是，粵語的佔位詞「啲啲」置於名詞（N₁）之後，取代另一組名詞（N₂…Nₙ），用以表示 N₂…Nₙ 所指涉的與 N₁同屬一類，意思上類似英語的 and the like。以例 4 為例，「啲啲」取代了與「佛教」、「回敎」、「基督教」的同類，即其他宗教，例如天主教。「啲啲」還可用作指示代詞（例 5：如果同中國啲啲比呢，西方啲啲呢又真係差啲。）（OUCCC）、無指代詞（例 6：我最驚啲啲啲。）。我們認為「啲啲」從指示詞虛化成佔位詞，其語法化過程為：指示詞 > 指示代詞 > 無指代詞 > 佔位詞。「盛」本是形容詞，解作「興旺，繁盛，豐盛」等等（周無忌等，2015），但也已經語法化成無定指的佔位詞（例 7：甜蜜蜜有無睇過呀，三更呢？仲有梅蘭芳呀啲啲呀。咁多經典無人講？（HKGolden.com））。「盛」會進入並列句式「有 XP 有盛」、「又 XP 又盛」、「XP 呀盛」。跟「啲啲」不同，「盛」取代的除了名詞，還有動詞（例 8：又叫又跳又盛），形容詞（例 9：又高又盛）和副詞（例 10：講到又大聲又盛）。而且「盛」取代的詞組可以跟前一個連接的詞組所指涉的屬同類（見例 7）或不同類（例 11：

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3 The Open University of Hong Kong Contemporary Cantonese Corpus (OUCCC) 是為左靄雲博士 2014-2016 年 RGC(FDS)研究項目”Epistemic modulation and speaker attitude in Cantonese: A discourse-pragmatic perspective” (UGC/FDS16/H07/14)的階段性成果。
佢又畫畫又大叫又盛，我都唔知佢做乜。

更有趣的是，「咩」、「盛」、「嘅嘛」可以共現。我們認為三者共現的基本語序是：「咩...盛...嘅嘛」。佔位詞「嘅嘛」不能出現在「咩」之前，除非作代詞用(例 12：佢想要嘅嘛咩呀)。雖然有點囉嗦，但「盛」可在「咩」之前，(例 13：佢又叫又盛又咩)或之後(例 14：佢又叫又咩又盛)。「盛」可以出現在「嘅嘛」之前(例 15：佢就係想又車又盛嘅嘛咩)但不能出現在「嘅嘛」之後(例 16：佢又叫又車要樓嘅嘛咩嘅嘛)。按照前段對「咩」、「盛」、「嘅嘛」的討論，我們就能解釋三者共現的規則：「咩」和「盛」都可以取代不同的詞類，所以相互的次序不受限制，「盛」和「嘅嘛」之間卻存在取代方法的差異，尤其後者選擇性地取代同類事物，所以「盛」首先出現，並以其殘餘的詞彙意義表達所取代項目很多，然後才有「嘅嘛」進一步指出所取代頂目與句子中說明的項目都屬同類。

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當代日語中五種常見道歉用語的文本統計分析

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本文從2009到2013年間的四部題材各不相同的日本電視劇（以下簡稱“日劇”）中選取了共計465個出現了上述五種道歉用語的片段，並將這些片段按照三個不同的維度進行了統計，以得出不同的道歉用語在不同場合中的使用情況。這三個維度包括了道歉行為發生的原因、道歉行為對象之間的親疏和上下位關係以及日劇題材對道歉用語出現頻率的影響。在探討道歉行為發生的原因這一部分，本文將道歉行為發生的原因按“有無過錯”來進行分類，並對“過錯”這一概念進行了討論。而在道歉行為對象的親疏關係和上下位關係方面，本文則主要參考了三宅和子（1994）提出的關係矩陣（即把上下位關係分成“高、低、平”三個等級，把親疏關係分成“內、外、旁”三個等級，由此進行組合得出七個類別即內高、內平、內低、外高、外平、外低和旁）。在這一部分中本文還通過統計結果反駁了一個和道歉用語相關且頗為常見的認識，即“有些道歉用語的使用有性別的傾向”。而在最後一個維度即相關日劇題材的部分當中，本文也統計了這四部不同題材的日劇中不同道歉用語的出現頻率，並擬將此作為對前面分析的補充。

通過上述三個維度進行統計和分析，本文得出了有關這些道歉用語的使用場合及語用功能相對於詞典上的釋義和一些日語教材及語法書上的描述更加準確的歸納。而且由於引入了過錯及相關概念，並且通過關係矩陣將使用場合標簽化，得出的結果也較易轉化成自然語義元語言形式的腳本，並在此基礎上與
其他語言相似場景中使用的道歉用語背後的腳本進行比較，以深化對這一重要會話慣例的跨語言語用學研究。


This paper examines unaccusatives as they appear in the Southern Min dialects of Chaozhou, Hui’an and Taiwanese. It has been noted by several scholars (Chen 2011; Chen & Yap 2012; Lin 2011; Matthews, Xu & Yip 2005; Xu 2007) that some unaccusative sentences in these languages, as in (1), bear morphosyntax typically associated with passive constructions, as in (2). The constructions in (1) are curious because they appear to show one-place unaccusatives surfacing with two arguments. Furthermore, when these morphemes are present, the sentence carries an adversative reading. The current paper explores these constructions and the various analyses from the literature and attempts to form a unified analysis of the phenomenon.

(1) a. tsañ hue k'eʔ i si k'uu. (Chaozhou)
Cl flower Pass 3sg die RVC (Matthews, Xu & Yip 2005)
‘The flower has died.’
b. hue¹ khɔ⁵-⁴ i¹ si³ khu⁰. (Hui’an)
flower give 3SG die PVC (Chen & Yap 2012)
‘The flower died.’
c. hit⁴ lui² hue¹ hoo⁷ i¹ si²-khi³ a⁰. (Taiwanese)
that CL flower ADVS 3SG die-go PRT (Lin 2011)
‘The flower has died.’

(2) a. puŋ tsu k'eʔ naŋ boi k'uu lau. (Chaozhou)
Cl book give person buy RVC Prt (Matthews, Xu & Yip 2005)
‘The book has been bought already.’

c. sã¹-khɔ⁵ khɔ⁵-⁴ hɔ⁷ phaʔ⁴ tam² khu⁰. (Hui’an)
clothes give rain hit wet go (Chen & Yap 2012)
‘The clothes got wet in the rain.’
d. gua² tiann⁷ hoo⁷ i¹ me⁷. (Taiwanese)
I always PASS 3SG scold (Lin 2011)
‘I keep being scolded by him.’

References


Aspects of Cantonese Phonology Among Teenagers of South Asian Descent in Hong Kong

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More than 60,000 inhabitants in Hong Kong (HK) are of South Asian descent, whose native languages are primarily Urdu, Hindi, and/or Punjabi. Although knowledge of Cantonese, the dominant language in HK, is paramount for economic mobility, a large percentage (~60%) does not speak Cantonese well. However, very little research has been done to systematically compare their native languages and Cantonese, to identify problem areas for these students.

The present study is concerned with the Cantonese spoken by teenagers of South Asian descent in HK, focusing on three aspects of Cantonese phonology that have significant functional loads: onset aspiration ([p t k] vs. [pʰ tʰ kʰ]), unreleased stop coda ([p̚ t̚ k̚]) and the [a]/[aa]/[aː] distinction. We carried out perception and production experiments with 47 native speakers of Urdu and/or Punjabi (23 females, aged from 12 to 18) in Form 1 to Form 5 at a government-aided secondary school in HK.

Subjects participated in an AX discrimination task, deciding whether a pair of Cantonese monosyllables was same or different; the pair was either identical or differ by one phonological feature. Subjects also completed a picture-naming task; each picture was accompanied by the corresponding Chinese character and English gloss to facilitate production.

Unexpectedly, accuracy of aspiration production is near 100%, while discrimination is around 80%. This could be due to the use of simple words in the experimental materials. On the contrary, production accuracy of unreleased codas is only around 50% and their discrimination accuracy is over 80% for identical pairs but around 40% for minimal pairs. The diminished performance on final unreleased stop discrimination and production is consistent with performance of native speakers (Law et al. 2001). The production of [a]/[aa] was analyzed acoustically in terms of vowel duration, F1, and F2. Results revealed that [aa], relative to [a], is produced with increased duration and F1 and decreased F2, similar to those produced by native speakers (Jin & Zhang, 2013). The accuracy of [a]/[aa] discrimination is around 84% for same-word pairs and 70% for minimal pairs. Our preliminary results suggest that, given enough exposure, many of the teenagers of South Asian descent in HK can acquire Cantonese features.

References

Since first introduced by Y.-H. Huang (1984), the blocking effect of long-distance anaphors has long been treated exclusively in connection with Chinese *ziji*. The canonical view on blocking effects has mainly been concerned with the mismatch of person features between potential candidates, as shown in (1) and (2).

\[(1)\] Zhangsan, zhidaos Lisi dui \(ziji_{ij}\) mei xinxin.

‘Zhangsan knows that Lisi has no confidence in him/himself.’

\[(2)\] Zhangsan, juede \{wo /ni\} dui \(ziji_{ij}\) mei xinxin.

‘Zhangsan thinks I/you have no confidence in myself/yourself/*him.’ (Pan 2001: 280)

According to Pan (2001), the intervening first and second person subjects in (2) block long-distance binding of *ziji*, but a third person potential antecedent cannot, as in (1). However, a closer look reveals more complicated situations, as shown in (3) through (5).

\[(3)\] Zhangsan, renwei wo zhidaos Wangwu xihuan \(ziji_{ij/k}\).

‘Zhangsan thinks that I know that Wangwu likes *him/*me/himself.’ (Cole et al. 1990: 19)

\[(4)\] Ni shuo Zhangsan chang piping \(ziji_{ij}\).

‘You said that Zhangsan often criticized *you/himself.’ (Huang and Tang 1991:277)

\[(5)\] Mama shuo jia chuqu-de nüer yijing hui qu \(ziji_{ij}\)-de jia le.

‘Mother said that the married daughter had already gone back to her home Asp’

(Liu 1999: 39)

The blocking effect in (3) is triggered by the third person *Wangwu*, not the first person pronoun *wo*. The embedded *ziji* in (4) is bound by the third person intervener. This paper claims that third person interveners may serve as a blocker. The lower subject *nüer* ‘daughter’ in (5) can only be the antecedent for *ziji* and thus blocks long-distance binding *mama* ‘mother’.

In addition, the first person pronoun in (6) does not induce blocking, but this sentence is completely acceptable because *ziji* in the embedded clause here acts as a logophor with the scope of the attitude verb.
(6) Zhangsanš shengpa wo y chaoguo ziji i, suoyi bu tiba wo.

Zhangsan worry I surpass self, so not promote me

‘Zhangsan, was afraid that I might surpass him/*myself, so he did not promote me.’

In order to account for these cases, I propose that the blocking effect in long-distance binding, at least in East Asian languages, is not observed in logophoric locus, but exists instead in empathy locus. Assuming this is the correct approach, Huang and Liu’s (2001) logophoric treatment of blocking effects is no longer valid since their account cannot explain why the blocking effects take place without the mismatch between person features, based on Kuno’s (1972) direct discourse analysis, not only in Chinese but also in Korean and Japanese.

**Selected References:**


Park, Hyunjun. 2016. Long-distance anaphors and the blocking effect revisited: An East Asian perspective (PACLIC 30)
Development of Computerized Vocabulary Tests in Cantonese and Hong Kong Sign Language for Young Children Between the Age of 18 and 30 Months

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This paper presents our recent effort in developing two computerized vocabulary tests in Cantonese and Hong Kong Sign Language (HKSL) for young children between the age of 18 and 30 months. This is part of our ongoing project that aims at documenting the Cantonese and HKSL vocabulary development of a group of hearing toddlers who are learning HKSL as a second language in a baby crèche.

In the literature, there has been sporadic evidence suggesting that sign language learning can enhance the spoken language development of typically developing hearing children at a pre-school age, no matter whether they are learning sign language as their first language (e.g., Orlansky and Bonvillian, 1985) or second language (Daniels 1994). In our current research project, we aim at investigating the bilingual vocabulary development of a group of hearing toddlers between the age of 18 and 30 months who are learning Hong Kong Sign Language in a baby crèche. To do so, we need language assessment tools that can effectively tap the linguistic knowledge of these young children. The two traditional methodologies for investigating early vocabulary development of children under the age of 2 are the MacArthur-Bates Communicative Development Inventories (MBCDI, 8 to 30 months old) and receptive experiments that employ the preferential looking technique. MBCDI is a questionnaire with a long list of vocabulary. Parents go through the list and decide if their children can understand them or use them in appropriate contexts. However, one criticism frequently raised against the MBCDI is the unreliability of parental reports. While preferential looking is generally accepted to be an effective methodology of tapping the knowledge of young children, one downside of it is the efforts needed to set up the experiment and the time spent in coding the gaze data. In view of these problems, some researchers have proposed to develop computerized comprehension tests with the touch-screen technology to complement these two traditional methods (Friend & Keplinger 2003). In this kind of test, young children would hear the target word, and are told to touch the correct picture on the screen. A correct attempt would trigger a reinforcing auditory signal. It is suggested that this methodology works well with kids as young as 16 months.

In this paper, we will present how we have developed two computerized receptive
vocabulary tests, one for Cantonese and one for Hong Kong Sign Language, basing on Friend & Keplinger (2003). We will discuss the process of item selection, test design, stimuli presentation, and the initial results of our trial run conducted in the baby crèche.

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What Do You Mean By Contrast In Syntax?

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The present experiment-based study suggests that contrast in syntax be evaluated as not merely a matter of either-or (i.e., dichotomous) distinction but also a matter of degree. Undoubtedly, contrast is one of the most important notions on which linguistics studies have been grounded, but a consensus seems to have yet to be reached concerning its definition, role, and difference in semantic weight carried by different types of contrast. Particularly, such issues have been less explored in the area of syntax as compared to phonology.

Syntactic contrasts, on the one hand, relate to categorical grammaticality that involves binary distinction. Because ungrammaticality means that the sentence violates one or more constraints in a language, an ungrammatical sentence is ideally non-existent in the language and as such, native speakers in principle haven’t encountered the ungrammatical sentence. The opposite holds for grammatical sentences. In such a context, syntactic contrasts have often been assessed as a matter of directionality: Which sentence sounds good and which sentence does not? From such a view, contrast can be defined as something detectable in a direction of either ‘good’ or ‘bad’. This dichotomous approach based on introspective judgments has been widely employed as a default tool in syntax.

Syntactic contrasts, on the other hand, can reflect continuous acceptability of human language sentences, which exists along a mental spectrum from the ‘least acceptable’ to the ‘most acceptable’. When talking about contrast in a given minimal pairs, syntacticians often use diacritics to show the degree of acceptability of the ‘bad’ sentence, such as ‘?’, ‘??’, ‘?*’, ‘*?’, and ‘*’. This convention implies that syntacticians also acknowledge that not all contrasts are necessarily accessed as an either-or distinction. Given that not all (un)grammatical sentences sound equally good or bad, need arises that contrasts should also be posited as strength of a constraint that cause the difference in acceptability judgments. From such a view, contrast is measurable on the continuum of acceptability (i.e., gradience). The degree of contrast can be measured by means of experimentally-grounded formal methods. In this talk, we argue that such a gradient view of syntactic contrasts are more informative, revealing a more variety of syntactic underpinnings in human language. On a more conceptual level, we will address the questions of why and when experiments are necessitated and what are benefits of considering gradience for syntax studies.
To substantiate the merits of the gradient view of contrast over the dichotomous view, the present study conducts a series of experiments within the context of Korean. The test items used in the current study are 289 sentence pairs randomly extracted from *Studies of Generative Grammar 1991-2014*. The experimental tasks include the two-alternative forced choice task, the binary yes/no task, and the 5-point Likert scale task. The analysis is four-fold: direction, position, distance, and intensity of contrast. First, the direction of syntactic contrasts is examined with respect to whether linguists’ judgments and naïve speakers’ judgments converge with each other, which shows that dichotomous distinction in syntax is not tangential to experimental methods. Second, the position of contrasts on acceptability continuum refers to a pattern analysis that represents absolute goodness of sentences: The ‘good’ and ‘bad’ sentence must absolutely sound good and bad to the vast majority of speakers. Third, the distance of contrasts pertains to strength of grammatical constraints: To what extent the contrasts are similar or different? This indicates the magnitude of difference in acceptability between two pairwise sentences. Finally, the intensity of contrasts measure judgment variation across speakers. This examines whether most naïve speakers agree with acceptability of a particular sentence and if not, it comes to estimate how much their judgments are scattered in terms of the gradience of acceptability.
This paper will attempt to address linguistic variation among thematic roles comparing Akan and Cantonese Serial Verb Constructions while noting constituency questions.

For the languages which display Serial Verb Constructions, they are often a closed class, meaning 1) it is rare for a new verb to be used in sequence with a verb relatively productive with regard to serial constructions, and 2) it is rare for a completely new combination of two verbs to become analyzed serially. Additional semantic information is also conveyed in serial verbs: thematic roles of objects, or newly rendered verb definition. Wong (2006) below gives a benefactive reading.

ngo5 waak6-gan2 zoeqgl kaal sungS bei2 keoi5
1SG draw-PROG CL card give to 3SG
'I was drawing a card for him (as a gift).'

It is thus important to establish a definition for Serial Verb Constructions from the literature to answer why these two verbs are not successive verb actions but one singular. In consideration of analyzed data borrowed from Ofiri (2006), this paper will build upon a useful working idea noted by Durie (1997): “The archetypal serial verb construction consists of a sequence of two or more verbs which in various (rather strong) senses, together act like a single verb.”

This sets parameters which will enable explanation of differentiation between true Serial Verb Constructions and sentences which use the same verbs but also complementizers or some other type of ‘co-ordinator’ (Ofiri, 2006) to license syntactic movements of verb object constituents. We see a notable difference here between Akan and Cantonese as while Akan may have a null-marked O₁ and O₂ that is nonetheless represented semantically, Cantonese may only have a null-marked O₂. Francis & Matthews (2006) do indeed examine a type of ‘extraction’ unique to Cantonese which permits raising objects from a coverb construction which may otherwise appear similar to Serial Verb Constructions.

In addition to comparing thematic role variation, this paper will also go on to compare
objects’ ability to move in the hopes that an Akan and Cantonese comparison can contribute to general dialogues on what exactly the constituents we see in Serial Verb Constructions are.

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粵語會話「多謝」與「唔該」之言談語用功能

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由於收集和聘寫互動語言學的語料十分費時，非印歐語系的語言在互動語言學的文獻相對較少。Tao( in press)以漢語普通話記憶與遺忘的相關句式觀察其社會交際功能，研究發現有有關句式多出現於對話雙方對過去經驗的爭論和母子間對過去行為的爭論。部份研究更結合話題鏈、實驗語言學和影像分析漢語副詞如「因為」、「不是」和「沒有」的社會交際功能( Li, in press; Wang, 2008)。

本文嘗試以互動語言學(interactional linguistics)和會話分析(conversation analysis)的角度描述粵語表感謝的近義詞「多謝」( doje)和「唔該」(mgoi)於會話的功能。研究語料來自香港二十世紀中期粵語語料庫，並採用 Halliday(1994)的元語言(metafunction)三功能－「概念功能」、「語篇功能」和「人際功能」為分類架構。

本文檢視 240 筆的語料後，發現「多謝」和「唔該」在會話中各架構呈現出超越感謝的功能。「多謝」的概念功能為「向別人表達感謝的動詞」；語篇功能有「陳述感謝原因」；人際功能則有「回應他人的承諾」、「回應收到別人的邀請」、「歡迎回應」。「唔該」的語篇功能有「陳述不滿原因」；而人際功能則有「提出請求」、「回應他人的承諾」、「回應收到別人的承諾」、「回應作出邀請」、「回應收到別人的承諾」、「回應作出邀請」、「引起陌生人注意」。

在語篇上，「唔該」一般後接子句，進一步表達聽話者感到不滿的原因，使其成為訊息焦點，並有強調的語氣。在互動上，「多謝」和「唔該」同樣有「回應得到別人的承諾」的功能，但預期值則成為辨別兩者的主要特徵。因此，本文的觀察也支持 Yip & Matthews(2000)認為「多謝」適用於隱喻性禮物(metaphorical gifts)的觀點。另外，回應「多謝」和「唔該」的則分別形成「唔使多謝」和「唔使唔該」的衍生成話中的毗鄰應對(adjacency pair)，緊密聯繫話論轉換(turn-taking)。本文就研究結果討論關聯理論(relevance theory)和禮貌原則(politeness principle)在多功能言談標記的發展角色和推導作用。最後，本文認為「唔該」因主觀性(subjectivity)和交互主觀性(intersubjectivity)而處於語法化的階段。

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Intra-sentential Code-switching of Cantonese-English Bilinguals in Hong Kong: An Experimental Approach for the Evaluation of the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) Model

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Code-switching is quite a widely-recognised aspect of language use for the Cantonese-English (CE) bilinguals in Hong Kong (Li, 1996). Bacon-Shone and Bolton (2008:40) noted that intra-sentential code-switching involving the insertion of English words and phrases into Cantonese, the matrix language (ML), was the dominant form of code-switching found in Hong Kong. Previous studies related to CE code-switching focused only on the influence of sociolinguistic factors (e.g. Chan, 2009; Li, 2000). In face of this, this study aims at investigating CE code-switching from a psycholinguistic perspective, focusing on CE bilinguals’ online processing of code-mixed sentences.

Under the Matrix Language Frame (MLF) model (Myers-Scotton, 1997, 2013), it is predicted that the syntactic structure of the ML, i.e. Cantonese, will be preferred in bilingual CE speech (Jake, Myers-Scotton & Gross, 2002:72). Due to the absence of Cantonese-English corpora at present, we tested the MLF model through an experimental approach. Since Cantonese and English employ different morpho-syntactic rules in the expression of plurality of noun phrases (Chan, 2008), we ventured to examine which set of morpho-syntactic rules governing plurality expression CE speakers would prefer in a code-mixed sentence. By controlling the different conditions in the experiments (the OBJ NPs in four controlled sets of trials), we predict that the CE bilinguals will have a higher preference for code-switched sentences based on the morpho-syntactic rules of Cantonese, the ML, and dropping the functional element (the plural -s originated from English grammar) in the embedded English lexical item.

Hong Kong-born CE bilinguals were tested using a self-paced reading task. The test sentences were all in an SVO word order. An example set of test stimuli is presented below. Sentences (1) and (2), where the ML is Cantonese, differ in the morpho-syntactic rule in the expression of plurality, with the former adhering to the plurality rule of English and the latter obeying the rule of Cantonese. Sentences (3) and (4), the ML of which is English, were also constructed in similar fashion as (1) and (2).

(1) 富豪有好多 assets。(Cantonese/English; C/E)
It is revealed in the reading times and acceptability ratings that regardless of which morpho-syntactic rule of plurality is adopted in the sentence, participants’ reading time did not seem to differ significantly (possibly due to the spill-over effect). However, participants showed preference on following the Cantonese morpho-syntactic rules (i.e. no plural –s in NPs) based on their ratings. Such a result may have corroborated with the prediction of the MLF Model. Post-experiment interviews yielded that some participants were self-conscious that they preferred following the morpho-syntactic rule of the ML in intra-sentential code-switching, while some expressed that these sentences, following the MLF Model, “sounded more fluent” than other counterparts.

Serving as a pilot study, our findings demonstrated that CE bilingual speakers preferred to apply the ML structure in intra-sentential code-switching, as predicted by the MLF model.

References


The Acquisition of Cantonese Sentence-Final Particles by a Mandarin-speaking Child: From Monolingual to Bilingual

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This paper presents the results of a longitudinal study investigating a Mandarin-speaking child’s acquisition of sentence-final particles in Cantonese. By investigating the child’s development of sentence-final particles (SFPs) in both Mandarin and Cantonese, this study also examines the effect of cross-linguistic influence (CLI) and the conditions under which it happens. The concrete conditions and the direction of CLI still lack a uniform answer in the previous study.

In this study, the Mandarin data is chosen from Tong Corpus, aging from 1;7 to 3;4. After one-year intensive exposure to Cantonese, another 9-month longitudinal study was conducted at weekly or bi-weekly intervals to investigate the child’s L2 from 4;3 to 5;0. The results show that both the functional and phonological overlap in SFPs poses challenge in the child’s L2 acquisition process. Overlap in functions is proved to hinder the process more. CLI from L1 to L2 was found mostly in the group of SFPs with similar functions but different pronunciation. Among this group, the inclusive overlap in the functions poses the biggest difficulty for the child to tackle in acquiring his L2, reflecting by the child’s use of Mandarin ba consistently in all target place of Cantonese gwaa3. In terms of the partial overlap, such as ba and laa1, the target use of such Cantonese SFPs emerged late until the child approached his 5;0. Before that, Mandarin SFPs were used directly instead. For the complete overlap group, such as le and laa3, has been well acquired. It is also shown that SFP clusters in both languages show up late, except for some in highly frequent use of adults, such as Cantonese lei4 gaa3. Other factors affected the acquisition process are the input, frequency, and ambiguity existed in the particle itself.

Patterns found in this study will contribute to our understanding of how a monolingual Mandarin-speaking child becomes bilingual in both Mandarin and Cantonese. The findings also shed light on the vulnerable domains in child second language acquisition. There is no published child L2 Cantonese corpus. This study is the first that provided new L2 Cantonese corpus data to the field and the description of patterns will serve as the ground work for future investigation of how children acquire Cantonese in a bilingual context.
普通話新興句末語氣詞初探

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近年來方言語氣詞越來越受到學者們的關注，但對普通話語氣詞的認識較少，研究相對薄弱。大多數研究只集中討論“了、嗎、的、啊、呢、吧”等傳統語氣詞的句法及語義功能。值得注意的是，近年來隨着網上社交媒體的流行，這些口語化的普通話書面語中，出現了不少新興句末語氣詞。這些語氣詞的發音、書寫形式和功能等在現有文獻上大都沒有提及，但對普通話語氣詞系統的認識有重要的影響。有見及此，我們試圖通過對 148 篇微信(WeChat)社交聊天的研究，探討當代普通話語氣詞的真實面貌。本文要報告的新興句末語氣詞一共有 19 個，分別是單純語氣詞 10 個：“咩(mie)、滴(di)、哈(ha)、哇(wa)、呀(ya)、咧(lie)、哦(o)、咦(ey)、喲(yo)”；合音語氣詞 9 個：嘞(le)、啦(la)、嘠(da)、嘖(na)、喲(bei)、嘞(le)、嘠(da)、嘖(na)、喲(bei)、嘿(hae)。微信是中國當前最流行的網路社交平臺之一，最能反映當前社會的語言面貌。我們收集了自 2015 年 1 月 1 日至今，共計 508 條有效的微信會話語句。具體包含兩種形式：文字聊天和語音聊天。我們將主要通過分析文字聊天內容來總結用法、歸納意義，同時借助語音資料來探究新興句末語氣詞的讀音問題乃至聲調與意義之間的關係，並據此向傳統觀點“句末語氣詞無聲調或皆為輕聲調”發起挑戰。本文主要採用最小差異對比法和最大共性歸納法。對單個語氣詞逐一辨析，從交際者心理認知、話語功能、語用價值等多個角度對這些貌合神離的個體進行區分，句末附著語氣詞和省略前後的邏輯意義、語氣意義是否發生變化；運用關聯理論、禮貌原則和面子理論等，分析句末 FP1 與 FP2 在功能表達和情感宣洩上有何不同；FP3 與 FP1 是否都能應用在當前語境中，找出它們的最小差異。這為我們突破句子語氣對語氣詞意義和功能的遮蔽與制約提供了可能。在此基礎上，再借助最大共性歸納法，從句末語氣詞出現過的不同句法結構和交際語境中歸納出最一般的義項，然後回到語料庫中驗證，從而得到該新興句末語氣詞的語氣意義。再把與之相似的語氣詞們集合在一起，進行恰當地分類，概括出每組語氣詞的核心語義 (core meaning)，如：L-組表示各種狀態的變化，D-組表示肯定和確認等等。

關鍵詞：新興句末語氣詞、分類、核心語義、語用差異
圖一：研究對象及分組
Existential Quantification Over the Hamblin-set: Mandarin Connective haishi in Declaratives

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Mandarin alternative questions consist of two or more alternatives that are connected by haishi, as in (1). Generally, haishi is not used in declaratives. Another connective huozech is used in declaratives instead, as in (2).

(1) Lin qu Meiguo haishi Riben?  (2) Lin qu Meiguo huoze/*haishi Riben.
Lin go USA  haishi Japan Lin go USA  or  Japan
‘Does Lin go to the U.S. or Japan?’  ‘Lin goes to the U.S. or Japan.’

The distinction between haishi and huozech seemed to be clear-cut. Some recent studies (Huang, 2010; Erlewine, 2014), however, present evidence that haishi and huozech are interchangeable in certain environments. In this study, we focus on one such environment that has not been discussed in past studies. Haishi can be used in a declarative when co-occurring with evidential markers that communicate uncertainty, such as haoxiang/sihu ‘It seems that’, as in (3). Huozech can also occur in (3).

(3) Lin haoxiang/sihu zhe zhoumo yao qu Meiguo haishi Riben.
Lin seem  this weekend will go USA  haishi Japan
‘It seems that Lin will go to the U.S. or Japan this weekend.’

Without haoxiang/sihu, the use of haishi is unacceptable, while huozech is still felicitous:

(4) Lin zhe zhoumo yao qu Meiguo huoze/*haishi Riben.

We propose that haishi is an alternative generator that collects two or more propositions and creates a set containing these propositions, as in (5). Hence, a question like (1) denotes a Hamblin-set containing two answers, i.e., p ‘Lin goes to the U.S.’ and q ‘Lin goes to Japan’. Unlike haishi, the disjunction huozech collects two or more propositions and creates a disjunction of the propositions, as in (6). Thus, the p-huozech-q construction denotes a single proposition p ∨ q, which is the right interpretation of declaratives like (2).

(5) [[haishi]] = λp1,λp2,..,λpn.p1,p2,..,pn, n⩾2.  (6) [[huozech]] =λp1,λp2,..,λpn.p1∨p2,..,pn, n⩾2.

By the definition of haishi in (5), the p-haishi-q construction in (3) encodes a set of alternatives, which would predict that the declarative (3) has the meaning of a question, i.e., a Hamblin-set. However, (3) is not a question. (3) expresses the speaker’s speculation that there exists one country, the U.S. or Japan, which Lin will visit. We can account for this non-interrogative reading of p-haishi-q constructions in declaratives by adopting the analysis of non-interrogative wh-phrases. Mandarin wh-
phrases can be interpreted as non-interrogative existential indefinites in certain environments, such as negation, if-clauses, modality environments, etc. (Cheng, 1991; Li, 1992, among others). Declaratives containing evidential markers is one of these environments. For example, the wh-phrase naer ‘where’ is interpreted as an indefinite ‘somewhere’ in (7):

(7) Lin haoxiang/sihu zhe zhoumo yao go naer.
Lin seem this weekend will qu somewhere
‘It seems that Lin will go somewhere this weekend.’

We propose that evidential markers which encode uncertainty such as haoxiang/sihu trigger existential closure (Heim, 1982) over their domain and hence introduce a non-overt existential quantification over the Hamblin-set introduced by haishi and wh-phrases. According to this proposal, (3) expresses the speaker’s speculation that there exists a country x, x is a member of the set {U.S., Japan} denoted by the p-haishi-q construction, and Lin will go to x this weekend. Without these evidential markers, the p-haishi-q construction still denotes a Hamblin-set, which contradicts with the semantics of a declarative. This is why haishi is not used in (4).

This study defined the alternative generator haishi and explained why haishi can co-occur with evidential markers haoxiang/sihu in declaratives. Further work is needed to formalize the interaction between haishi and evidential markers.

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Attitudinal Nominalizer(s) in Chinese: Evidence of Recursive Grammaticalization and Pragmaticization

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This paper examines the life-cycle of versatile nominalizers in Chinese, with special attention to how they develop into attitudinal stance markers. Based on cross-dialectal and diachronic data, we first identify a wide range of extended uses of nominalization constructions within the Sinitic language family, among them relativizing and subordinating uses, then trace how these dependent nominalization constructions are reanalyzed as independent finite structures. We first discuss examples involving Mandarin de and Cantonese ge for an overview of attitudinal nominalizers in contemporary Sinitic languages, then focus on attitudinal nominalizers zhe and ye in Old Chinese, with data from the recently excavated Guodian Manuscripts. Our analysis reveals a series of semantic and syntactic scope expansions that paves the way for nominalization constructions to be extended from referential uses to attitudinal uses. Our findings highlight the robustness of an (inter)subjectification process whereby nominalizers often combine with other particles at the right periphery to form complex sentence final mood particles, which have valuable implications for cartographic studies in diachronic syntax and also for diachronic pragmatics studies that focus on the interface between grammar and discourse—not only for Chinese, but for other languages with attitudinal nominalizers as well.

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This research is a corpus study on literacy practices in WeChat and WhatsApp communications. This research focuses on the identification and the comparison of the similarities and differences of linguistic features found in the texts in WeChat and WhatsApp communications produced by native Putonghua speakers with English as their second language and native Cantonese speakers with English as their second language. This research is done within the framework of New Literacy Studies and contributions of different factors in social and cultural contexts to the literacy practices in WeChat and WhatsApp communications are investigated.

Some linguistic features found in previous literature are retained and many approaches like the use of homophones, mode-mixing and code-mixing are thoroughly identified and categorized in recent WeChat and WhatsApp communications. Some linguistic features are found to be specific to the bilinguals from the Mainland and Hong Kong respectively. It is also found that the incentives and reasons behind the development of the same linguistic features of the two groups of bilinguals are different.

The investigation of the similarities and differences of literacy practices reveals the influences of the interaction of different spoken dialects, the popularity of the mass media and the Netspeak used in social media on the development of specific linguistic features. Other factors, including one's linguistic knowledge and cultural background formed in specific social and cultural contexts, the language policy of an education system of a country, occasional time constraint, technical constraints like the limitations of the inputting system, and situational social factors such as different social situations that the users are situated in, also contribute to the development of different distinctive literacy practices.
Abstract: Nanchang, the capital city of Jiangxi province, is located in the north-central Jiangxi province. The local dialect, Nanchang speech, is classified into the northern Gan, which is characterized for the complexity of its tone system. This complexity is caused both by the Middle Chinese tone splits and their categorization and the various phonation types, which also makes it difficult to determine the exact number of tone categories. Clear voice and breathy voice show up in Nanchang dialect (according to the data we have for now). Previously, it is believed that the voiceless aspirated onsets (Ciqing in Middle Chinese) are the cause of the split of Quanqing and Ciqing (Liu Lunxin 1999). Wang Caiyu and Zhu Xiaonong (2015) provide another explanation that “voiceless aspiration leads to a high pitch, but it may initiate the breathy phonation and the breathy rhyme carries low tones”.

Adopting the methods of experimental phonetics, we obtain parameters for aspiration and breathy voice, that is, VOT and H1-H2, and conduct statistical analyses. The results show that the more aspirated the voiceless onsets, the larger the H1-H2 value of the vowel, indicating the greater breathy extent of the vowel, but the contour of the pitch curves the voiceless-aspirated-onset tokens and the voiceless-unaspirated-onset tokens is the same for the two informants (LXQ & YL) who have relatively large positive H1-H2 value and VOT; while the less aspirated the voiceless onsets, the smaller the H1-H2 value of the vowels. Informant WCY has negative values for H1-H2, and also the smallest VOT and the VOT difference between the aspirated and the unaspirated is also the smallest, but the pitch curve contour of the voiceless-aspirated-onset tokens is different from the voiceless-unaspirated-onset ones. Meanwhile, the average pitch of the aspirated tokens is about 15 hertz higher than the unaspirated ones for informant YL, who also has the strongest aspiration, while for the other two informants, the pitch of the voiceless-aspirated-onset tokens are lower than the voiceless-unaspirated-onset ones for the first half and are somewhat equal for the latter half. The data of these three informants represent the different stages of the tone splits and recategorization in which the aspiration and breathy voice take effect.
Figure 1: pitch curve of Quangqing & Ciqing onset tokens

Figure 2: H1-H2 value for syllable 超

Figure 3: Duration VOT and rhyme

Bibliography:
Although Hong Kong is often described as a community of *trilingualism and bilinguality* (兩文三語), focus has been placed on the spoken form of Cantonese and its writing tradition receives relatively less attention. There are a number of related issues centering the writing tradition of Cantonese: Cantonese as a proper writing system, orthographic representation of Cantonese colloquial words, compilation of learning and teaching materials on Cantonese, etc.

While the earliest extant Cantonese text could be dated back to the late Ming dynasty, the late Qing dynasty became high time of the production of Cantonese materials as a large number of missionaries arrived in the southern coastal region of China. They compiled a lot of language materials on Cantonese such as textbooks, translation of the Bible, dictionaries, and religious stories for various purposes (Shin Kataoka). In mid-20th century, we witnessed the rise of literary works written in Cantonese such as 三及第 (Fanny Li). Around the same period, a significant number of Cantonese movies were also produced, among which some have been transcribed into corpora for research purposes (Andy Chin). In the past two decades, Cantonese has also been used in formal contexts such as when senior government officials giving speech, signaling the emergence of a high-register Cantonese in the speech (Hintat Cheung). Cantonese has also been one of the favorite languages learned by foreigners, and a number of Cantonese dictionaries and teaching materials have been compiled recently (Lau Chaak Ming).

All the above scenarios involve the orthographic representation of Cantonese. This panel aims to compare and discuss the changes of the representation system during the past two centuries, which can shed light on the future development of Cantonese.

*This panel will be conducted in Cantonese and English.*