Wednesday 7 July

8:00		**Registrations Open** Building 35 Room 212		
	Papers (39A-201)	**Papers** (39A-208)	**Papers** (39A-209)	
9:00	Li	Harkins & Lissarrague	McConvell & Bowern	
9:30	Allan	Zuckermann & Walsh	Meakins	
10:00	Rodríguez Louro & Kempas	Disbray (1)	Hoffmann	
10:30	Verstraete, D'Hertefelt & Van linden	Jefferies	Mushin	
11:00		Morning Tea		
11:30		**Plenary 1: Michael Walsh (Joint with ALAA)** Abel Smith Lecture Theatre (Building 23)		
12:45		Lunch		
		(Meeting of Heads of Linguistics Programs)		1:45
	Papers (39A-201)	**Papers** (39A-208)	**Papers** (39A-209)	(14-219)
2:15	Peters	Au Yeung	Lin	Joint
2:45	Al-Gahtani	Vaughan	Her	ALS/ALAA
3:15		Levisen	Wang	Colloquium
3:45		Afternoon Tea		
	Papers (39A-201)	**Papers** (39A-208)	**Papers** (39A-209)	
4:15	Sibly	Cleary-Kemp	Modi	
4:45	Sullivan	Palmer & Evans	Guillemin	
5:30		**Welcome Reception and Book Launches** Forgan Smith Foyer		

Thursday 8 July

	Papers (14-216)	**Papers** (14-217)	**Papers** (14-219)
9:00	Mulder	Douglas & Stirling	Round
9:30	Panel on the National Curriculum	Eades	Mailhammer
10:00		Rixon	Koch
10:30		Morning Tea	
11:00		**Plenary 2: Mary Laughren** Building 24 Room S304	
12:30		Lunch (Meeting of ALS Executive)	
	Papers (14-216)	**Papers** (14-217)	**Papers** (14-219)
2:00	Travis & Torres Cacoullos	Liu	Post
2:30	Martin	Simpson	Clendon
3:00	Pensalfini	De Busser	Cutfield
3:30		Bowden	Evans
4:00		Afternoon Tea	
4:30		**ALS Annual Gneral Meeting** Building 14 Room 116	
7:00		**Conference Dinner** St Leo's College	

Friday 9 July

	Papers (14-216)	**Papers** (14-217)	**Papers** (14-115)
9:00	Abakah	Bin Towairesh	McGregor
9:30	Viljoen	Al-Zahrani	Willis
10:00	Abakah & Ofori	El-Hankari	Baker
10:30		Morning Tea	
11:00		**Plenary 3: Jeff Siegel** Building 24 Room S304	
12:30		Lunch	
	Papers (14-216)	**Papers** (14-217)	**Papers** (14-115)
1:30	Treis	Collins	Walsh
2:00	Andrews	Wylie	Hendery
2:30	Schalley	Allen	Disbray (2)
3:00	Thieberger	Ishihara	Nash
3:30		**Afternoon Tea & Closing Remarks**	

Wednesday 7 July

9:00 (39A-201) Semantics. Chair: Karen Sullivan

9:00 *Hannah Li (University of Auckland)* On aspect in Modern Mandarin Chinese – A corpus-based study from a discourse perspective

9:30 *Keith Allan (Monash University)* The semantics of the perfect progressive in English

10:00 *Celeste Rodríguez Louro (University of Melbourne) & Ilpo Kempas (Seinäjoki University of Applied Sciences, Finland)* Perfect usage and change in two varieties of Argentinian Spanish

10:30 *Jean-Christophe Verstraete, Sarah D'Hertefelt & An Van linden (University of Leuven)* Atypical deontic and evaluative meanings in Dutch complement insubordination

9:00 (39A-208) Language Revitalisation. Chair: Sarah Cutfield

9:00 *Jean Harkins (University of Newcastle) & Amanda Lissarrague (Many Rivers Aboriginal Language Centre)* Grammar meets ethics: difficult choices in endangered language renewal

9:30 *Ghil`ad Zuckermann (The University of Queensland) & Michael Walsh (The University of Sydney)* `Give Me Authenticity or Give Me Death!'???: Challenging the Imprisoning Purism Prism and Endorsing Hybridity and Multiple Causation in Aboriginal Language Reclamation

10:00 *Samantha Disbray (Northern Territory Department of Education and Training, University of Melbourne)* Long Term Storage and Access Project: Indigenous Languages and Cultures in Education Collections

10:30 *Tony Jefferies* The newly-discovered fieldnotes of Caroline Tennant-Kelly: their value for Australian Linguistics

9:00 (39A-209) Coverbs and Australian Languages. Chair: Harold Koch

9:00 *Patrick McConvell (Australian National University) & Claire Bowern (Yale University)* Separability of coverbs as a factor in levels of lexical borrowing: a Kimberley comparison

9:30 *Felicity Meakins (University of Queensland)* The development of asymmetrical serial verb constructions in Gurindji Kriol

10:00 *Dorothea Hoffmann (University of Manchester)* Where to, from and through? On the distribution of Path in Motion Descriptions in Jaminjung and Kriol

10:30 *Ilana Mushin (University of Queensland)* A closer look at Garrwa verbs

11:30 (Building 23) Plenary 1: Michael Walsh (Joint with ALAA) (University of Sydney)

Future directions for Australian Indigenous languages: local and global perspectives

1:45 (14-219) Joint ALS/ALAA Colloquium

1:45-3:45 *Convenor/Chair: Helen Moore (University of New South Wales)* Learning Standard Australian English: what do we mean?

2:15 (39A-201) L2 Learning. Chair: Peter Collins

2:15 *Hugues Peters (University of New South Wales)* Characterisation of the interface between the lexicon and syntax: the second language acquisition of a grammatical word by Jamaican learners of French

2:45 *Saad Al-Gahtani (University of Melbourne)* Sequence organization and L2 learners

2:15 (39A-208) Phonology and Sociolinguistics. Chair: Ghil'ad Zuckermann

2:15 *Kai Yin Gigi Au Yeung (University of Queensland)* Language attitude towards Cantonese and Mandarin among Cantonese migrants in Brisbane

2:45 *Jill Vaughan (University of Melbourne)* The Irish language in Australia: sociocultural identity in diasporic minority language use

3:15 *Carsten Levisen (University of New England)* "Folk sociolinguistics" and the semantics of identity: An exploration of language concepts in everyday Danish

2:15 (39A-209) Chinese Grammar and Discourse. Chair: Jane Simpson

2:15 *Yi-An Lin (Hsuan Chuang University, Taiwan)* A Force Phrase in Chinese Nominal Domain

2:45 *One-Soon Her (National Chengchi University, Taiwan)* Distinguishing Classifiers and Measure Words

3:15 *Jianxin Wang (University of Auckland, New Zealand)* High frequency contrastive connectors in English and Chinese: A genre-based comparative study

4:15 (39A-201) English Semantics. Chair: Susan Douglas

4:15 *Anne Sibly* Stroke, caress and fondle: the language of love?

4:45 *Karen Sullivan (University of Queensland)* Bright thinkers and dim bulbs: Experimental evidence that intelligence is metaphorically understood as brightness

4:15 (39A-208) Papuan Language Contact. Chair: John Bowden

4:15 *Jessica Cleary-Kemp (University of California, Berkeley)* Patterns of lexical borrowing in Saliba, an Oceanic language of Papua New Guinea

4:45 *Bill Palmer (University of Newcastle) & Bethwyn Evans (Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology, Leipzig)* Austronesian-Papuan contact in southern Bougainville

4:15 (39A-209) Grammar and typology. Chair: Ghil'ad Zuckermann

4:15 *Yankee Modi* Cut verbs in Tani languages

4:45 *Diana Guillemin (Griffith University)* Marking Definiteness or Specificity, not necessarily both: an economy principle

Thursday 8 July

9:00 (14-216) English National Curriculum in Australia. Chair: Allan Dench

9:00 *Jean Mulder (University of Melbourne)* Grammar in the school curriculum: Why should linguists care?

9:30 Panel: *Jean Mulder, Kate Burridge & Doug Absalom*

9:00 (14-217) English and Sociolinguistics. Chair: Diana Guillemin

9:00 *Susan Douglas & Lesley Stirling (University of Melbourne)* Pretend play narratives and social understanding in autism

9:30 *Diana Eades (University of New England)* Language ideologies and courtroom talk

10:00 *Sascha Rixon (University of Melbourne)* Multiple requests: A comparison of initial and subsequent request formulations in general practice consultations and facilitated workshops

9:00 (14-219) Australian Languages, Phonology and Kinship. Chair: Brett Baker

9:00 *Erich Round (Yale University)* Tone and Grammar in Akan

9:30 *Robert Mailhammer (Australian National University)* Retroflexion as a transitional feature in Amurdak and other Iwaidjan languages

10:00 *Harold Koch (Australian National University)* The diachronics of Arandic kinship terminology

11:00 (24-S304) Plenary 2: Mary Laughren (University of Queensland)

Changes in grammatical case marking in Australian languages: triggers and consequences

2:00 (14-216) English phonology. Chair: John Ingram

2:00 *Catherine Travis (University of New Mexico, James Cook University) & Rena Torres Cacoullos (Pennsylvania State University)* The interaction of general and local patterns in discourse: Pitch accented *I*

2:30 *Marjolaine Martin (Laboratoire Ligérien de Linguistique – Tours, France)* Lexical Stress of Multicategorial Words and Exceptional Disyllables in Australian English

3:00 *Rob Pensalfini (University of Queensland)* Not In Our Own Voices: Accent and Identity in Contemporary Australian Shakespeare Performance

2:00 (14-217) Austronesian Languages. Chair: Jean Mulder

2:00 *Kun-Long Liu (Australian National University)* Topic Constructions in Squliq Atayal

2:30 *Jane Simpson (University of Sydney)* Word order, information structure, grammatical function and voice in Karo Batak

3:00 *Rik De Busser (La Trobe University)* Causative and associative morphology in Takivatan Bunun

3:30 *John Bowden (Jakarta Field Station, Max Planck Institute for Evolutionary Anthropology)* Metathesis in Helong

2:00 (14-219) Australian Languages and Deixis. Chair: Patrick McConvell

2:00 *Mark W. Post (James Cook University)* The rise, fall and maintenance of topographical deixis, from the Eastern Himalaya to Far North Queensland

2:30 *Mark Clendon* Evidentiality in Worrorra

3:00 *Sarah Cutfield (Australian Institute of Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander Studies)* The 'Unfamiliar' Demonstrative in Dalabon

3:30 *Nicholas Evans (Australian National University)* Being so fathered and so husbanded: achieving reference with Iwaidja kinship verbs

Friday 9 July

9:00 (14-216) Africa and Phonology. Chair: John Ingram

9:00 *Emmanuel Nicholas Abakah (University of Education, Winneba – Ghana)* Tone and Grammar in Akan

9:30 *Melanie Viljoen (La Trobe University)* A Language with Only One Vowel? – The Vowel System of Buwal: A Central Chadic Language of Cameroon

10:00 *Emmanuel Nicholas Abakah & Kwaku Ofori (University of Education, Winneba – Ghana)* Tonal Processes in Effutu and Larteh

9:00 (14-217) Arabic and Berber. Chair: Rob Pensalfini

9:00 *Abdullah Bin Towairesh (King Saud University, The University of Queensland)* My Father, I Am Your Father: The Use of Address Inversion in the city of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

9:30 *Mohammad Ali Al-Zahrani (University of Queensland)* Hijazi Negative Particles and their Interaction with the HA Modals

10:00 *Abdel El-Hankari (University of Queensland)* The clitic system in Berber: solving the puzzle

9:00 (14-115) Australian Languages. Chair: David Nash

9:00 *William B. McGregor (Aarhus University)* Establishing discourse referents in Gooniyandi narrative

9:30 *Daniel Willis (University of Queensland)* Walmajarri's Split-Wackernagel Clitic System

10:00 *Brett Baker (University of New England)* Towards a unified analysis of noun incorporation in polysynthetic languages

11:00 (24-S304) Plenary 3: Jeff Siegel (University of New England)

Why is it so hard to learn a second dialect? The case of Australian English

1:30 (14-216) Typology and Technology. Chair: Ghil'ard Zuckermann

1:30 *Yvonne Treis (La Trobe University)* Switch-reference in Kambaata and other Ethiopian languages

2:00 *Avery D. Andrews (Australian National University)* Gluing (SVC-type) Complex Predicates

2:30 *Andrea C. Schalley (Griffith University)* A computational toolset for collaborative typological research

3:00 *Nick Thieberger (University of Melbourne, University of Hawai'i at Mānoa)* EOPAS - streaming linguistic data arising from fieldwork

1:30 (14-217) English and Japanese Grammar. Chair: Keith Allan

1:30 *Peter Collins (University of New South Wales)* Agreement patterns in existential constructions in the New Englishes

2:00 *Peter Wylie (Macquarie University)* Two functional conceptions of grammar and lexicon

2:30 *Wendy Allen (University of Melbourne)* Dysphemism in Australian political discourse: the tactical use of humorous metaphor

3:00 *Shunichi Ishihara (Australian National University)* An Empirical Study on Idiosyncrasy: Use of Fillers in Japanese Monologues

1:30 (14-115) Contact and Australian Languages. Chair: Bill McGregor

1:30 *Michael Walsh (University of Sydney)* Voices from the north: Asian influences in Australian languages

2:00 *Rachel Hendery (Australian National University)* "The bush people, they speak proper English, and the beachfellas, they just communicate by their language": Quantifying variation in Palmerston Island English.

2:30 *Samantha Disbray (Northern Territory Department of Education and Training, University of Melbourne)* More than one way to catch a frog: Introducing new referents in children's narrative in an Indigenous contact language

3:00 *David Nash (Australian National University)* The smuggled budgie: revisiting Australian English copied from Australian languages

Plenary 1: Michael Walsh

University of Sydney

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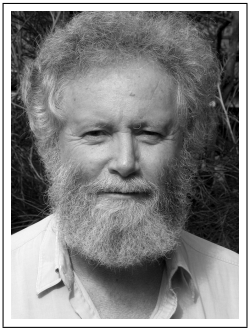
Future directions for Australian Indigenous languages: local and global perspectives



Over the last 30 years there has been unprecedented activity in connection with Australian Indigenous languages. Particularly in the south-east much of this activity has involved language revitalization but here and elsewhere languages have been deployed in novel ways in diverse arenas including education, media, the arts and law. Some of this activity will be reviewed and considered in terms of prevailing slogans and ideologies like, for instance: "Most of the languages are dead and anyway what's the use of them?" I will try to indicate how some of this renewed interest positively affects peoples' lives. With this background an attempt will be made to look into the future - to see how Australian Indigenous languages will fare in the next 30 years and how they may prosper. Along the way Australian Indigenous languages will be compared and contrasted with the growing interest in Indigenous languages worldwide.

Plenary 2: Mary Laughren

University of Queensland

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Changes in grammatical case marking in Australian languages: triggers and consequences

The core grammatical cases recognized in Australian languages are typically labelled as Nominative, Accusative, Dative, Ergative and Absolutive. Linguists have traditionally categorized cases into a range of types, e.g., syntactic, inherent, grammatical, semantic, morphological. I will draw on some of the insights behind these distinctions in examining attested examples of changing case marking systems in some Pilbara languages (e.g., Panyjima and Ngarluma), in Gurindji, Warlpiri, and Jingili, and in Tangkic languages. My focus will be on the interplay between case marking, case type and case assigner and the syntactic and pragmatic contexts in which different combinations of these features may occur as I try to discern what triggers a change in case-marking and what further change it may lead to.

Plenary 3: Jeff Siegel

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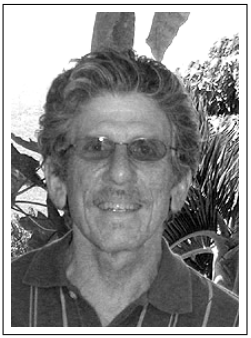
Why is it so hard to learn a second dialect? The case of Australian English



Many immigrants from other English-speaking countries adopt to the Australian way of life but very few learn to sound Australian. Most remain easily identified as, for example, British or American. On the basis of a meta-analysis of research on learning a second or additional dialect, this paper presents some explanations for the difficulty of second dialect acquisition (SDA) as opposed to second language acquisition (SLA), focussing on the acquisition of Australian English. The most obvious explanations are linguistic – a consequence of the similarity of the second dialect (D1) to the first dialect (D1). It is well known that negative transfer occurs more readily between typologically similar language varieties and that it is difficult for learners to keep such varieties separate. Also significant is the fact that SDA concerns mainly phonological acquisition. According to various theories of SLA, if the sounds of a second language (L2) are too similar to those of the first (L1), learners may not be able to perceive the phonetic differences and therefore will be unable to establish the separate phonetic categories needed to acquire the L2. Biological factors also come in here – the sensitive period for native-like phonological acquisition is only up to seven years of age, and after then, it is very unlikely. On the other hand, sociolinguistic explanations appear equally as important. These are concerned mainly with the close relationship between a dialect and social identity, and the attitudes of both D2 learners towards the dialect and of the D2-speaking community towards dialect learners. The paper discusses widespread views of authenticity, the "true self" and ownership with regard to dialect. Then it shows how these views make it difficult for learners to change their dialect, and also cause speakers of a dialect to react negatively to learners' attempts at speaking it. The paper concludes that it is the interaction of these linguistic and sociolinguistic factors that causes the difficulty of SDA in Australia and elsewhere, and presents some of the implications this has for learning the standard dialect in formal education.

Joint ALS/ALAA Colloquium

Convenor/Chair: Helen Moore (University of New South Wales)

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Learning Standard Australian English: what do we mean?

This colloquium explores what might and should be understood in advocating for support in Australian schools for speakers of non-standard English varieties who are learning standard Australian English.

Part 1: Standard Australian English: the Correct Educational Goal?

Susan Butler (Macquarie Dictionary, University of Sydney)

I discuss what is meant by Standard Australian English by drawing from the Macquarie Dictionary in regard to aspects of lexicon, usage and pronunciation. It emerges that 'standard' is code for a prestige form of Australian English accepted in certain social situations. I argue that, although it is good that Australian English is accepted as a reality, as is also the goal of assisting students to gain competency in it, the use of 'standard' creates unnecessary confusion in educational contexts.

Pam Peters (Macquarie University)

Standard Australian English (SAE) is often proposed as the target variety for English language learners and speakers of other English varieties in Australia. This paper raises some linguistic problems in making SAE the pedagogical target for these learners, whose needs may differ according to their mother tongues and/or their different varieties of "settler" and "indigenised" English.

Discussant: Jeff Siegal (University New England)

Part 2: Standard Australian English in Aboriginal & Torres Strait Islander Educational Contexts

Ian Malcolm (Edith Cowan University)

Teaching and testing that recognise only standard English implicitly attribute this variety to Aboriginal English speakers as their "language" – with negative consequences for both learners and educators. The educational task assumes a foundation that may not exist, confirming for many learners the impenetrability of non-Indigenous ways of structuring knowledge and that schooling is irrelevant.

Jakelin Troy (University of Canberra)

In NSW Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander students continue to experience educational disadvantage because the varieties of Aboriginal English and other 'contact languages' they use are not formally recognised, let alone dealt with effectively. I consider the development of NSW Pidgin and other contact language and English varieties and their implications for NSW schools.

Denise Angelo (Far North Queensland Indigenous Schooling Support Unit)
Many language varieties are currently spoken as vernaculars by Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander peoples. I will discuss these varieties – such as dialects, creoles, mixed and traditional languages – in terms of their differences from standard Australian English and the issues they present for curriculum, assessment and pedagogy.

Adriano Truscott (DET WA)
Despite the good intentions of teachers and education systems, speakers of Aboriginal English continue to be taught standard English using monocultural methods. These are often based on assumptions of linguistic deficiency and social impairment on the one hand, and the dominant group's cultural superiority on the other hand, ignoring empirical linguistic research and what is known to be effective pedagogy. I document the former approach in practice in an upper primary class in WA, and question the common classroom and system perception of what English really is.

Discussant: Diana Eades (University New England)

Abakah

Emmanuel Nicholas Abakah (University of Education, Winneba – Ghana)

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Tone and Grammar in Akan

This paper is an investigation of grammatical use of tone in the Akan language. It focuses on grammar induced tonal perturbations in the language as well as grammatically significant cessation of tonal perturbation in the language.

It will be demonstrated in the central portions of the paper that tone plays a major role in the grammar of the Akan language. For instance, verbal inflections are not invariably executed by segmental alternations and/ or extensions as obtained in the schoolbook grammars but are often brought about by tone replacements even as the underlying segmental melodies of the verb do not undergo any alternation at the phonetic stage. Moreover, clausal divergences in the language as well as tense/aspect and mood distinctions are often the direct result of tonal alternations only, with the lexical segmental melodies of the clausal stretch playing no role in the change.

Furthermore, it will be established in this paper that the associative morpheme in Akan has both segmental and tone melodies in all the dialects but the two are not linked at the underlying level of representation. Thus, whereas the segmental component is toneless, the tone component, a floating high tone (H), is segmentless, that is, it has no segmental support underlyingly. However, at the phonetic level, the segmental and tonal constituents of the associative morpheme may be linked by an association line in some of the Akan dialects. In other dialects the associative floating H may be donated to the nominal prefix of the possessed NP whereas in yet other dialects the said floating H may be donated to the initial tone-bearing unit of the possessor noun root. Tone sandhi and non-sandhi rules that are grammatically significant in Akan will also be painstakingly explored in this paper.

Abakah & Ofori

Emmanuel Nicholas Abakah & Kwaku Ofori (University of Education, Winneba – Ghana)

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Tonal Processes in Effutu and Larteh

Effutu and Larteh are both members of the Guan language group spoken by about 6,000 and 7000 people respectively in southern and south-eastern Ghana respectively. Whereas Effutu is spoken in the coastal town of Winneba and its surrounding villages, Larteh is spoken on the Akuapem ridge in the south-eastern part of Ghana. These two languages are genetically related with some inconsequential incidence of intelligibility between them.

In this paper we will examine the similarities and dissimilarities obtaining between the Effutu and the Larteh languages within the context of tonal processes. The paper therefore, focuses primarily on two basic tonal processes of tone sandhi and nonsandhi rules. The tone sandhi rules will cover tone spreading, tone raising, tone lowering, downstep and downdrift, paying some attention to the distinction between downstep and downdrift, the use of which terms apparently causes a lot of confusion in the tonal literature. Nonsandhi rules, on the other hand, will be cast within the realm of tone copying, tone polarization, tone dissimilation, tone replacement, tone simplification and tone absorption.

The grammatical dimension of the role which floating tones play in these two languages within the context of tonal processes will also be studied in this paper as well.

Al-Gahtani

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Sequence organization and L2 learners

Keywords: pragmatics and conversation analysis.

In recent years, a growing number of studies on speech acts have adopted a more holistic approach when examining interactions in which a request is performed (e.g. Al-Gahtani & Roever, 2010; Schegloff, 2007; Taleghani-Nikazm, 2006). Moving away from the CCSARP coding scheme (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989), primarily designed to examine data collected by Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs), these studies have examined both natural and interactive data from a Conversation Analysis (CA) perspective. Despite these developments, however, these studies have predominately centred on NS's interactions in languages such as English. As a result, further work on sequence organization in interactions produced by L2 learners and in languages other than English is needed.

The present study thereby examines the sequence organization in participants' interactions on making requests performed by L2 learners of Arabic, whilst also investigating the influence of learners' proficiency on sequence organization. There were 166 participants (aged 18 to 25), divided into five groups: beginner, low-intermediate, high-intermediate, advanced and Arabic NS. The participants were recorded while asking an administrator to reschedule the timeslot of a subject or postpone an exam date. Drawing from Schegloff's (2007) work, the data of this study was analyzed in terms of the production of: pre-expansions, pre-pres, insert-expansions and post-expansions.

The results reveal that whilst pre-expansion appeared across all groups, its rate of occurrence increased with the increase of proficiency level. Likewise, only high-level learners and Arabic NSs tended to produce multiple pre-expansions. Although the occurrence of the pre-pre was infrequent across the corpus, its use also increased with learners' proficiency. Two types of insert-expansion were found in the corpus: post-first insert-expansion and pre-second insert-expansion. Somewhat unexpectedly, learners' proficiency was seen to influence the production of insert-expansion; symptomatic of the administrator's tendency to perform post-first insert-expansion with low-level learners, and use pre-second insert-expansion with high-level learners and Arabic NSs. Two kinds of post-expansion were also observed: minimal and non-minimal post-expansion. The former was used rarely by low-level learners, but frequently among high-level learners and Arabic NSs. The latter, however, seldom appeared in low-level learners despite being occasionally produced by high-level learners and Arabic NSs.

It can be concluded therefore that learners' proficiency does play a key role in sequence organization. The more proficient the L2 learners are, the more likely they are to extend the interaction and be capable of producing different aspects of sequence organization. In addition, the occurrence of all aspects of sequence organization by Arabic NSs is indicative of their universality.

Allan

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The semantics of the perfect progressive in English

This paper offers a semantics for the English perfect progressive; a construction that has been largely ignored in the literature. I examine the origins and meanings of the progressive and the perfect in English. I affirm that the progressive is indeed an aspect and the perfect a tense, even though the perfect does have some aspectual traits (cf. Jespersen 1924; Bull 1960; Comrie 1976; McCawley 1971; Bennett 1981; Carlson 1981; Mourelatos 1981; Bybee, Perkins and Pagliuca 1994). The default meaning of the progressive is that the activity (event) denoted by the predicate in the scope of the progressive operator PROG is incomplete at the temporal deictic centre indicated by the tense used in the clause. The perfect is a retrospective tense, a past tense **P** relative to whatever time point is indicated by the deictic centre for the clause, be it **P**, **N**, or **F** (respectively, semantic past, present, and future). Given these assumptions there is no conflict or contradiction whatsoever in the concatenation perfect-progressive, HAVE + *been* + V*ing*, such as would seem to arise if the perfect is analysed as an aspect. The account to be given is more accurate and more succinct than those given in, for instance, Bennett 1981; Carlson 1981; Filip 1999; Krifka 1992; Meulen 1995; Portner 2003; Vlach 1981.

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Allen

Wendy Allen (University of Melbourne)

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Dysphemism in Australian political discourse: the tactical use of humorous metaphor

Schäffner (1996) and Chilton and Schäffner (2002) claim that political discourse will be analyzed successfully if the details of political behaviour and those of linguistic behaviour are shown to be related. Politics is normally adversarial and confrontational; fundamental messages of much of politicians' discourse can be simplified to: *I am good* and *My opponent is bad*. The politically strategic function of delegitimisation of political oppositions is served by linguistic strategies of verbal conflict, through which speakers seek to establish their party as stronger, more reliable, authoritative, trustworthy and credible while representing their opponents as the opposite (Jacquemet 2006). Such strategies include use of dysphemistic linguistic tactics like metaphoric insults comparing the opposition with animals, attacking their moral character, or their rationality and sanity (Allan and Burridge 2006). Animal metaphors play an important role at an emotional and subjective level; their use is often humorous, sometimes affectionate, but most often abusive, expressing dislike or contempt (Spence 2001). A speaker using such terms intends negative connotations to be associated with the referent and used in a political context it delegitimizes the person referred to.

Jucker (2000) distinguishes three distinct roles in any speech act of verbal aggression: the speaker who utters the verbal aggression; the addressee to whom the utterance is primarily directed; and, the target of the aggression, which may or may not be the addressee. Political insults are invariably uttered for the benefit of the overhearing audience, i.e. to gain the support of the voting public (Ilie 2001; Ilie 2004). The tactical value of humorous insults is manifold: ambiguity in the humour shields the user from critique, allowing purported truths to be both said and not said ("I was only joking") while simultaneously displaying verbal dexterity to the audience, creating solidarity between the laughers (Hodge and Mansfield 1985; Blake 2007) thus enhancing the positive face of the speaker while attacking the positive face of the opponent. This paper will discuss ways in which Australian politicians talk dysphemistically, yet humorously about their opponents and the structure and function of the political insults they use. Data is presented from interviews and media releases from the 2004 and 2007 Australian federal election campaigns and parliamentary interactions.

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Hijazi Negative Particles and their Interaction with the HA Modals

The research in the vernacular varieties of Saudi Arabic is minimal though there are systematic differences between the Standard Arabic (SA), which is the official language of Saudi Arabia as well as of most of the Arabic World, and the spoken varieties. To illustrate this, this paper examines the morphosyntactic properties of the negative particles in Hijazi Arabic (HA) (a dialect descended from Standard Arabic and spoken in the Western Province of Saudi Arabia). Benmamoun (1996, 2000) argues that there are only two underlying negatives in Standard Arabic *laa* and *maa*. The other negatives, *lam*, *lamma*, *laata*, *lan*, and *laysa* are all inflected variants and suppletive forms of the negative particle *laa*. This diversity is the result of their different uses with respect to their syntactic properties. On the one hand, the negative particles *laa*, *maa*, and *laysa* can come with both nominal and verbal sentences while the negative *laata* is particular to nouns denoting time. The negative particles *laa*, *laysa*, *lam*, *lamma* and *lan* are restricted to the imperfective form of verbs. This paper argues that while the load in SA is on the negative laa and its variants, it has shifted from *laa* into *maa* and its variants in HA. I show that in HA *maa* has two allomorphs (*muu*) and (mee) where the allomorph (*muu*) has been derived from the constituent of the negative particle *maa* and the singular masculine pronoun *huu*, i.e., *maa huu*, before the deletion of the consonant /h/. Likewise, the negative allomorph (*mee*) has been composed from the negative *maa* and the singular feminine pronoun *hee*, i.e. *maa hee*, before the /h/ deletion. Yet, *muu*, but not *mee*, has been frozen to be the unmarked negative for masculine and feminine subjects. I also show the ways in which the HA negatives, *maa*, *laa*, *muu* and *mee* do interact with the MPs *laazim*, *laabud*, *yajib*, *yibgha l-*, *Daroori*, *almafrooD*, (necessity MP), *yimkin* and *mumkin* (possibility MPs). The HA negatives may head the entire clause to negate the whole proposition or they may follow MPs to negate their complements.

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Gluing (SVC-type) Complex Predicates

Andrews and Manning (1999) proposed a variant of LFG within which they could analyse a variety of (SVC-type) complex predicates in a single consistent framework. A distinctive characteristic of this framework is that the various conventional 'levels' or 'projections' of the grammatical structure were not conceptualized as distinct parts of the structure, connnected by correspondence relations, in the manner of standard LFG, but rather as 'selections' from a richer, comprehensive feature-structure, produced by patterns of attribute-sharing. Although the framework seemed sufficient to treat the analytic problems presented to it, it does not appear to have yielded much in the way of followup work.

Here I will show how glue semantics (Dalrymple 2001, Asudeh 2004, and various other works), a component that was included in the framework but not much developed, can address the basic problems that Andrews and Manning found with the standard 'locational projection' LFG architecture, and allow a much more conventional LFG syntactic analysis of certain SVC-type complex predicates, such as those of Tariana (Aikhenvald 2003), to provide a reasonable account of their semantic interpretation. For example, these two sentences:

(1) a. *ma (wa-wa wa-dana) wa-yarupe=nuku*
let's 1PL-read/play 1PL-write 1PL-thing=TOPIC
'Let's read and write up our language!' (symmetric SVC, coordinate structure semantics)

b. *ka:ru-ka nuha (nu-a=mahka nu-hyã=niki) piri=nuku di-a=pidana*
fear-DECL I 1SG-give=RECPAST:NONVIS 1SG-eat=COMPLT 2SG.son=TOPIC 3SGNF-say-REMPAST:INFR
'Being afraid, I let (the fish) eat your son, he said.' (asymmetric SVC, causative semantics)

will have essentially the same form of c-structure and f-structure, differing mostly in the form of semantic composition that glue specifies them as undergoing.

(2) below is an example of the form of f-structure that is proposed for (a):

(2)

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{SUBJ} & \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Pro'} \\ \text{PERS} & \text{I} \\ \text{NUM} & \text{SG} \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{OBJ} & \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Fish'} \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{OBJ2} & \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Son'} \\ \text{POSS} & \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Pro'} \\ \text{PERS} & \text{II} \\ \text{NUM} & \text{SG} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} \\ \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Give'} \end{bmatrix} \right. \\ \left. \begin{bmatrix} \text{PRED} & \text{`Eat'} \end{bmatrix} \right\} \end{bmatrix}$$

Roughly following the approach of Nordlinger and Sadler (2008) for NP-structure, the entire f-structure is a set, whose members have different PRED-values, one for each SVC-member, with the arguments as 'distributive' attributes of the entire set, shared between its members. The principles of glue semantics manage various problems, such as those connected to the Completeness and Coherence Constraints, that would beset this analysis in standard LFG without glue.

The ambition is that this approach will make it easier to combine explicit syntactic and semantic analyses of these and similar constructions, providing better support for further work than the Andrews and Manning framework appears to have done.

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Language attitude towards Cantonese and Mandarin among Cantonese migrants in Brisbane

Comparison between the last two National Australian Censuses (1996 and 2001) shows a huge intergenerational language shift among the Chinese migrant community. It has been suggested that this shift was possibly due to migrants' language attitude towards the English language and the Chinese language; families have a high preference for English and Mandarin over Cantonese because of their pragmatic role in the mainstream society (Clyne & Kipp 2006). In order to investigate this possibility, this paper provides a qualitative analysis of speaker attitudes towards this shift among the Cantonese migrant community in Brisbane.

The study uses questionnaire data, individual interviews and focus groups to capture language attitudes towards Cantonese and Mandarin among the Cantonese migrants. Results from this study suggest that although most of the subjects agreed that Mandarin is more useful in the job market, Cantonese is still highly favored by most of the migrants. This is in part due to the time and resource limitations that subjects encountered when learning or sending their children to learn Mandarin. Most of the subjects are drawn back to learn Cantonese or simply give up learning any of the verities of Chinese.

Additionally, the role that Cantonese plays in the Chinese family structure and the Cantonese identity also support the maintenance of Cantonese among Cantonese migrant families in Brisbane. The Chinese family structure emphasizes on the filial piety and family continuity; as one of the subjects commented, "Although I can speak English. . . because I'm a Cantonese, my father and my mother are also Cantonese, so my son has to communicate with me and his grandparents in Cantonese." However, results also show that the role that Cantonese plays in the Chinese family structure and the Cantonese identity becomes weaker among the young generation. This weakened role of Cantonese could possibly be one of the factors that led to the intergenerational language shift found in the census data.

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Towards a unified analysis of noun incorporation in polysynthetic languages

It appears to be universally the case that in languages with noun incorporation (NI), the incorporated noun (IN) is restricted to a subset of grammatical or thematic roles, typically theme, but also instrument, and location. Agents appear to be universally restricted from incorporated position, as in (1). Derivational accounts of noun incorporation (e.g. Baker 1988, 1996) make a virtue of configurationally-assigned argument positions to account for the restriction. Lexical theories have no straightforward way of accounting for this restriction in a non-stipulative fashion. Recent formal semantic accounts (beginning with Szabolcsi 1997 and van Geenhoven 1998) have developed new lines of analysis, based on the scope properties of INs. In these models, incorporated nouns are crucially non- referential, property-denoting (rather than individual-denoting) arguments, bound by existential quantification within the VP. These authors show that several characteristic behaviours common to noun incorporation follow from this analysis. We extend this analysis in a number of ways, using data mainly from the Gunwinyguan (Australian) language Wubuy, also known as Nunggubuyu. We show that the semantic approach can account for some or all of the distributional properties of INs with respect to argument structure and proposition type. In particular, it can account for the occurrence of IN subjects in existential ('thetic') intransitive propositions (in BGW as well as Wubuy), as in (2), while incorporation is restricted in other kinds of intransitive predicates, notably 'individual-level' ones (such as 'fire is hot'). We show that this also accounts for the failure of INs to be the subjects of generic propositions referring to kinds (as in 'Kangaroos eat grass'), because of several interacting factors. We also extend the analysis to incorporation into adjectives, not commonly a focus of incorporation discussions, and show that the distribution of N-Adj incorporated words follows from the analysis of verbs. In particular, N-Adj words can only be referential (3), they cannot be propositional unless thetic. Finally, we elaborate on the DRT model to enable more flexibility in the referential properties of INs, while maintaining the core intuition that noun incorporation is associated with loss of referentiality or discourse salience.

(1) Mayali (Evans 2003: 473)

Bi-yau-nguneng *ginga*
3/3h-child-eat.PP crocodile
'The crocodile ate the child' (Not: 'The child ate the crocodile.')

(2) Wubuy (Heath 1980: 361)

*ngi-**munku-mun=galangi*** *nguynju=a-yangi,* *ngarra-waayin*
3FEM-REDUP-foot=be.visible like=NEUT-what FEM.TOP-emu

`(They (people) went along heading for billabongs, short billabongs. They looked, and) there were the footprints of them (emus). A whole lot. Emus.'

(3) Wubuy (own fieldnotes)

bani-ranga-mang *na-dagu* *na-ranga-dunggal*
2sg/MASC-stick-get.FUT MASC-that MASC.TOP-stick-big
na-midi
MASC.TOP-palm.sp

'you get that big palm'

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My Father, I Am Your Father: The Use of Address Inversion in the city of Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Keywords: Address terms. Address inversion. Saudi Sociolinguistics.

Address inversion involves addressing someone with a term that expresses the speaker's role in a dyad rather than the addressee's, e.g. a mother calling her child *mama* (mother), an uncle calling his nephew ʕ*ammo* (uncle). The use of address inversion can be found in many languages around the world including Turkish, Bengali, French, Italian, Russian and Arabic (Braun 1988). This phenomenon has also been referred to in the literature by other names including "Reverse Role Vocatives" (Rieschild 1998) and "Bi-polar Address Terms" (Yassin 1977).

This paper examines the use of address inversion in the city of Riyadh and documents the different structures and functions for this practice. The data on the use of address inversion in this region comes from questionnaires, focus groups, the analysis of a Saudi television show, and the observation of natural speech. The forms used for address inversion in Riyadh include: 1. Basic Kinship terms (KT), 2. Child-talk kinship terms, 3. Kinship terms diminutives and 4. The "wa-ana-KT" compound.

Speakers in Riyadh use these forms in different contexts that range from expressing affection and admonishing gently to giving instructions and parental advice. The choice between the basic kinship terms and the child-talk kinship terms is usually based on the age of the addressee. This distinction can bee seen in the following examples:

(1) Hala **Abu-i**, . . . wayne alʕial
Hello **my Father** (son), . . . didn't you bring your children?
(a father, early sixties, to his son early thirties, greeting him when he came to visit)

(2) xalas ya **baba** aʤles
Ok **baba** (my son), set down
(a father, late twenties, addressing his son. 5 years old, asking him to stop being rowdy and set down)

The "wa-ana-KT" compound, however, is more likely used in the contexts of giving instructions, advice and warnings.

(3) estah ʕala waʤhek **wa-ana-abu:k**
You should feel ashamed **and-I-am-your-father**
(an elderly Father, to his son, early thirties. The son has missed a prayer at the mosque and the father is angry at him) Tash 16-1

(4) yallah **wa-ana-abu:k** reh gaomah
Come on **and-I-am-your-father**, go wake him up
(an elderly father , to his son, early thirties, asking him to wake his brother up) Tash 16-1

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Metathesis in Helong

Metathesis is a phonological process whereby the expected linear ordering of sounds is reversed under certain circumstances. Metathesis has traditionally been seen as a phonological process which occurs only sporadically in speech errors and child language, or as a more or less random historical process. Recent work by authors such as Blevins and Garret (1998), Hume (2004) and others points to the fact that metathesis occurs far more widely than traditionally thought.

The Timor region is an area where many languages have productive metathesis. Productive metathesis has been reported in (amongst other languages) Uab Meto (or 'Dawan') (Steinhauer, 1996) and Leti (van Engelenhoven, 1996). Helong, spoken in the immediate vicinity of Kupang city, is another Timor region language with highly productive metathesis. In Helong, words from virtually every open syntactic class may undergo metathesis. In this paper, I describe the main features of metathesis in Helong and argue that current strictly phonological approaches for dealing with the phenomenon are not rich enough to deal with a language like Helong, where the conditioning factors for metathesis need to include syntactic features as well as strictly phonological ones.

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Patterns of lexical borrowing in Saliba, an Oceanic language of Papua New Guinea

There has been much pursuit of universal constraints on the outcomes of language contact, but little consensus. One statement that has proven to be robust is that nouns are more easily borrowed from one language to another than any other word class, especially verbs (e.g., Moravcsik 1978; van Hout and Muysken 1994). This paper reports the findings of a study that explored some of the reasons for this tendency in Saliba, an Oceanic language of Papua New Guinea that has had extensive contact with English for many decades. Various factors have been invoked to account for the borrowability of nouns over verbs. The so-called "need hypothesis" (e.g., van Hout and Muysken 1994:42) claims that one of the primary motivations for lexical borrowing is "to extend the referential potential of a language," and following from this, that "since reference is established primarily through nouns, these are the elements borrowed most easily." Another suggestion in the literature is that the morphological complexity of verbs acts as a barrier to their being borrowed (e.g., Winford 2003:48-50). A related observation is that verbs, unlike nouns, are "structure building" – they determine the argument structure of the predicate, and assign case to nominal elements – and that this makes them more difficult to integrate into the syntax of the recipient language. Paradigmatic "boundness" (or the lack thereof) has also been cited as an explanation for the ease of borrowing nouns over other word classes (Winford 2003:51; van Hout and Muysken 1994:55). These explanations can essentially be divided into two categories: (i) **need** (nouns are borrowed because speakers need to refer to new things); and (ii) **complexity** (nouns are borrowed because they are conceptually or morpho-syntactically simpler than other word classes).

The study reported in this paper is based on a lexicon of Saliba, comprising approximately 2000 items, and a text corpus. Of the 2000 lexical items, 135 are clearly borrowed from English. These borrowings were collated and coded for various values, including part of speech in the recipient language, semantic classification (i.e. whether the lexeme evokes a concrete thing, an event, a property, a state, etc.), and "newness" of the thing or concept denoted. The results show that nouns are indeed more easily borrowed into Saliba than verbs: 87% of borrowings are nouns; 9% are verbs. I argue that for Saliba, there is no evidence that morpho-syntactic complexity favours borrowing of nouns over verbs. On the other hand, the fact that borrowed nouns tend to refer to new things (87% of borrowed nouns), does support the "need hypothesis". In contrast, the semantic distribution of borrowed verbs is not explained by a necessity based account, since only a few borrowed verbs denote new states or activities. I argue instead that verbal borrowing arises in contexts of code-switching, where social indexing (so-called "prestige"), rather than need for increased referential potential, is the driving force.

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Evidentiality in Worrorra

Evidentiality in Worrorra is part of the meaning of a verbal form-class I will call Inferential. Inferential verbs constitute a distinct mood, analogous to indicative, optative and counterfactual.

MOOD	FUNCTION
Indicative	actualized events
Optative	projected events
Inferential	averted events
Counterfactual	unactualized events

These four moods show varying degrees of event actualization or reality status, from indicative, in which events happen (realis), to counterfactual, in which events do not happen (irrealis). In between are two more irrealis moods; optative, in which an event does not happen but is expected to happen at some future time, and inferential, in which an event does not happen although it nearly happened (avertive reality status). This set defines a scale of actualization, from indicative through optative and inferential to counterfactual. The semantics of avertive modality involve irrealis meanings well suited to framing inferential logic, including hypothesizing. Mid-way between non-actualization and projection, logical inference is grounded in the preconditions for event actualization.

Inferential verbs may convey irrealis meanings, but they are in many ways the opposite of counterfactual irrealis verbs: they may be used to affirm or assert a proposition's validity on the basis of evidence. One of the most intriguing features of this morphology is the wide range of uses to which it is put; inferential verbs are found in three quite distinct functions. In modal use they signal avertive reality-status, and a root-modal frustrative mood. In evidential use they index a source of evidence for an utterance's propositional content. And in their syntactic role they signal that the clause they head is subordinate to another, matrix, constituent. These three ultimately quite distinct functions are united by a common formal means of expression.

Four kinds of evidential meaning may be distinguished:

Non-firsthand:	(i) antecedent general knowledge
	(ii) inference from stated antecedents
Firsthand:	(iii) immediately apparent evidence
	(iv) mirativity

Any evidential clause may involve one or more of these meanings at the same time: they are not mutually exclusive, in fact they often entail and support each other in the invocation of evidence. It is important to note the discourse function of evidential marking in Worrorra: evidentials are used to support propositions rather than to qualify them.

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Agreement patterns in existential constructions in the New Englishes

A number of recent studies have investigated variable agreement patterns in existential there-constructions with a plural NP (displaced) subject, as in: *There 's/are three bridges across the river* (e.g. Walker 2007; Starks and Thompson). It has been argued that the number variation in the verb in such cases is determined by both social constraints (including gender, age, socio-economic status, and ethnicity), and by grammatical constraints (including determiner type, distance between the verb and the NP, present/past tense selection, and verb contraction). The influence of regional variation has been largely overlooked, and in some cases even denied (e.g. by Walker, who claims that regionally-determined variation is minimal, and that variable agreement in existentials is a 'vernacular universal' conditioned by language-internal factors).

The present study utilizes the resources of the International Corpus of English (a set of parallel one-million-word corpora representing the speech and writing of a range of World Englishes) as a source of data. Comparisons are drawn between the nature and extent of variable agreement in existentials in three 'Inner Circle' Englishes (British English, American English and Australian English), and a number of New Englishes of the 'Outer Circle' (Singapore English, Philippine English, Hong Kong English, Indian English and Kenyan English). The discussion of findings will invoke Schneider's (2003) evolutionary model for postcolonial societies as a framework for ascertaining the 'evolutionary' status of the Englishes examined.

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The 'Unfamiliar' Demonstrative in Dalabon

Keywords: Demonstratives, Dalabon, Australian languages, Indefinite Article

In this paper I describe the semantics and functions of the 'unfamiliar' demonstrative in Dalabon (Gunwinyguan, non-Pama-Nyungan). Demonstratives function to assist the addressee to identify a referent, prototypically by 'pointing' to the referent in the speech situation, discourse or the shared knowledge of the interlocutors. Australian languages are remarkable for their reliance on the 'recognitional' or 'identifiable' demonstrative to appeal to the addressee's ability to identify a referent (Himmelmann 1996, Evans 2003, Stirling and Baker 2007, Nicholls Submitted, Cutfield Forthcoming). Dalabon has a pair of non-spatial demonstratives: the identifiable *kanh* and the 'unfamiliar' *nunh*. Dalabon speakers use *nunh* to signal to the addressee that the referent will be somewhat problematic for them to identify (e.g. it is non-visible or is not easily distinguished in the physical space of the speech situation). In contrast with traditional expectations that demonstratives should point to their referent, the 'unfamiliar' demonstrative in Dalabon points to the potential co-ordination problem (Clark 1996:62) of referent identification. Demonstratives with these semantics are not described for Australian languages (or cross-linguistically), though I suggest that 'immediate' demonstratives in other non-Pama-Nyungan languages (e.g. Heath (1984) for Nunggubuyu, Merlan (1994) for Wardaman) may have similar semantics to the Dalabon unfamiliar demonstrative. Demonstratives which do not have spatial semantics are commonly understood to be on a grammaticalisation path towards becoming definite articles (Diessel 1999:128). In the case of the 'unfamiliar' demonstrative however, a different question must be asked: 'Is this demonstrative grammaticalising into an indefinite article?'. I attempt to address this question in my paper.

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De Busser

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Causative and associative morphology in Takivatan Bunun

Bunun dialects have two sets of prefixes that express different forms of multiple agency. Both have been attested in other Austronesian languages in Taiwan, for instance in Thao (see Blust (2003a)). A first group has an initial consonant p- and its reflexes in other Austronesian languages have been widely and unambiguously associated with causative morphology (Adelaar & Himmelmann (2004:170)). A second set has initial k- and, in Takivatan Bunun, expresses a variety of meanings that all centre around the notion of joint action. The interpretation of equivalent affixal sets in other Austrosian languages has been fraught with controversy (see e.g. Zeitoun & Huang (2000) and Blust (2003b)).

In this talk, I will investigate the functional-semantic delineation of these morphemes and argue that they can all be subsumed under the functional category joint action or joint participation. I will try to relate these meanings to differences in syntactic behaviour. In other languages, similar morphemes have typically been associated with valency-changing operations. I will argue that this is not the case for the Takivatan dialect of Bunun, and that causative and associative morphology is functionally but not syntactically analogous to similar morphology in other languages.

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Disbray (1)

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Long Term Storage and Access Project: Indigenous Languages and Cultures in Education Collections

Through its thirty year history of Bilingual Education (and 'Two-Way') programs in some schools, and also part-time Indigenous Language and Culture (ILC) programs, the Northern Territory Department of Education and Training has been the most prolific single producer of print and audio visual materials in Indigenous languages in Australia. These collections are of national significance. Both their continued use and safe keeping are a national imperative. The collections document language, pedagogy, local historical, cultural and ecological knowledge, and also make up part of the history of education in the Northern Territory, and particularly Aboriginal people's involvement in this history. The collections are made up of a wide range of objects; printed books, teaching resources, audio, visual and audio- visual materials, plus periodicals, such as local newsletters and calendars, and extensive collections of correspondence.

In 2009 the need to establish long term storage and maintained local access to materials was identified, and a scoping project, with a pilot project in one community, was established. This paper reports on the nature and breadth of the collections and the progress of this project.

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More than one way to catch a frog: Introducing new referents in children's narrative in an Indigenous contact language

The study presented in this paper focuses on reference from a developmental perspective. It was carried out among speakers of an English-based Creole variety, Wumpurrarni English, spoken in the Tennant Creek region of the NT. Children's developing ability to manage reference to characters in discourse, i.e to introduce, maintain and switch reference, is a later acquired skill (Berman and Slobin 1994; Hickmann 2003). The participants in the current study are children aged between five and thirteen years of age.

The findings reveal age-related patterns regarding children's developing ability to manage reference, and the strategies that children engage to create a cohesive stretch of discourse, bearing out developmental findings in other languages. In addition, this study details linguistic means and strategies available in Wumpurrarni English to manage reference. However, as some children in the study choose to style-shift and narrate in Standard Australian English, the study also reveals some interesting findings about children's perceptions of Standard English, providing a window into the additional demands that speaking this variety places on children, and highlighting differences between Wumpurrarni English and Standard Australian English.

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Pretend play narratives and social understanding in autism

Pretend play has been considered a 'zone of proximal development' for children's social understanding (Lillard 1993). Though relatively unexplored in linguistic studies, pretend play provides a unique context for investigating children's narrative abilities, as the construction of stories in the context of pretend play is a complex cognitive task. Early research documented an absence of pretence in children with autism (Kanner 1943). However, more recent research has found that children with autism do indeed engage in both elicited and spontaneous pretend play (Jarrold, Boucher & Smith 1996).

Carpendale and Lewis (2004) point out that while the overall amount of pretend play has not been found to correlate with social understanding and the ability to reason about beliefs (generally considered to be atypical in children with autism), there is an association between children's false belief recognition with joint proposals, and explicit role assignments to themselves and others in pretend play. In the study of autism, the pretend play literature has been focused on symbolic representation (Jarrold 2003), with less attention paid to the role-playing aspects of pretend play and collaborative narrative production that have been noted in the developmental literature.

We examined a corpus of 30 hours of videotaped free play interaction involving 5 children with autism aged between 3;6 – 7;2 and an adult. This corpus contains 34 pretend play narratives, ranging from simple stories to elaborate stories containing causally linked episodes with a central theme, and 30 pretend play sequences. We approached the data from a broad conversational interaction perspective by examining the contexts of the narratives to determine whether the children seek to recruit the engagement of the adult into their storytelling. Our focus was on the ways in which children interactively managed the construction of the pretend play narratives with respect to the role of the other participant: for example, did the child assign a role in the pretend play narrative to the adult? We also considered the extent to which the adult actively participated in the construction of the narrative. We hypothesised that children with autism would engage in symbolic representation during pretend play, but would not seek to engage in collaborative storytelling. We found that very few of the stories were collaborative, with only one of the five children engaging in collaborative play. The children often actively discouraged collaboration using a range of linguistic and nonlinguistic strategies, during the online production of the story and through metacommunication outside the story.

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Language ideologies and courtroom talk

Over the course of about three decades, sociolinguistic research has documented a number of specific ways in which defendants and witnesses are controlled, coerced and manipulated through the rigid and asymmetrical discourse structure of courtroom hearings. This research focuses mainly on interactional constraints as well as the linguistic structure of questions. More recently, sociolinguistic research on courtroom talk has broadened beyond question-answer pairs and lexical choice, and our understanding of the mechanisms of power and control is benefiting from work originating in critical theory, linguistic anthropology and narrative analysis.

In this paper I focus on the role of language ideologies in the ways in which people are restricted in telling and retelling their story in the legal process, as well as the ways in which legal decision makers evaluate these stories. Language ideologies can be defined as taken-for-granted assumptions about how language works. For example, one of the language ideologies which underpins the central courtroom practice of cross-examination is the assumption that the best way to find out if a person is honest in their account of what happened is by asking repeated questions (the ideology of repeated questioning).

Drawing on the work of Eades (2008a, 2008b, 2010), Ehrlich (e.g. 2001, Matoesian (2001) and Trinch (e.g. 2003), this paper will discuss four language ideologies which play an important role in courtroom hearings: the ideology of inconsistency, the ideology of decontextualised fragments, the ideology of narrator authorship, and the ideology of repeated questioning. I will conclude with some remarks about the ways in which these language ideologies can be instrumental in the failure of the legal system to deliver justice.

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The clitic system in Berber: solving the puzzle

Keywords: Berber, clitics, roots, prepositions, verbs.

The verbal system in Berber (Afroasiatic) is generally formed by combining a bound lexical root with tense. The language has also the clitic pronoun system which allows lexical arguments to be dropped freely while their contribution to the clause is recovered from the presence of these clitics as in (1):

(1) a. *Nunja* *th-sRa* *th-i-sira* *i-* *yma-s*
Nunja 3F.SG.NOM-buy.PERF F-PL-shoe DAT- mother-3SG.GEN
Nunja bought his mother shoes

b. ***th****-sRa-****s-thnd***
3F.SG.NOM-buy.PERF-3SG.DAT-3F.PL.ACC
She bought them for her

In (1a) the sentence makes use of a ditransitive verb whose arguments are the subject, object and dative. An alternative way of producing the same sentence is by using clitics as substitutes for lexical NPs as in (1b). These clitics agree with nouns they license in person, gender, number and Case. While this agreement pattern is generally true for all verbs, the system is not as straightforward as the data in (1) suggest. Berber has another set of (what appears to be) verbal roots having the meaning of BE or HAVE but do not necessarily follow the agreement pattern outlined in (1). Consider the data in (2-4):

(2) *a-rgaz* *aqa-****th*** *g-* *w-Rza*
M.SG-man be-3M.SG.ACC INESS CS-river
The man is in the river

(3) *th-xinshi-t* *ta* *thagh-****s*** *th-i-nifi-n*
F-bag-F DEM.F.SG have-3SG.DAT F-PL-pea-PL
This bag has peas in it (there is peas in this bag)

(4) *Ra-****khum*** *rfrus* *attas*
have-2M.PL.DAT money lots
You have a lot of money

The three roots, unlike other ordinary verbs, vary in their selection: $\sqrt{}$*aqa* selects object clitics as in (2) while $\sqrt{}$*thagh* and $\sqrt{}$*Ra* select dative clitics as in (3-4). This is somewhat odd in the sense that object and dative clitics license the lexical subject. Note that a similar behaviour was also observed in Murrinh-Patha (an Australian language) by Walsh (1996a) and Nordlinger (2009).

Previous treatments of this phenomenon were limited to claiming that these roots are verbs (Ouhalla 1988) but no account was provided as to the oddity of the agreement they display. In this talk, the claim that these elements should be analysed as verbs is disputed. The three roots all fail to inflect for tense and cannot combine with auxiliaries, this can only be possible if a genuine verbal copula is introduced which takes over the role of the verb. Furthermore, the root $\sqrt{aqa}$ is banned from negative and interrogative clauses. This suggests these roots are sensitive to environments which are typically verbal. On this ground, I argue that they behave more like preposition particles. The root + clitic undergo pied-piping to a higher functional category (negation or WH- element). This behaviour is indeed similar, if not identical, to the pied-piping of prepositions. As for the type of clitics these roots select, this is not highly unusual given that kinship nouns and also prepositions, when their complement is a pronoun, subcategorise for object and dative clitics. Therefore, the agreement discrepancy may be explained by the fact that object or dative clitics are simply used to fill the function of a complement when the latter is a pronoun.

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Being so fathered and so husbanded: achieving reference with Iwaidja kinship verbs

Iwaidja (Iwaidjan, N.T.) has been known for some time to be one of the small minority of languages in the world which use verbs to express kinship relations (Evans 2000): from the root martyarrwun 'be father of', for example, we can form rimartyarrwun, lit. 'he is father to him'. Most of the time these verbs are used as referring expressions, interpreted as a sort of headless relative clause. But determining the referent is ambiguous, since the pivot can be constructed from

- subject (i.e. (the onei such that) he i is father to him , i.e. his father)
- object (i.e. (the one j such that) he is father to him i, his son)
- dyadic conjunction (i.e. the group such that one is father to the other)

in addition to (in some cases) references to a subset of plural subjects, as when awunbani 'they two sit, i.e. husband and wife' can refer to one spouse as well as to the conjoined set.

How is reference achieved worked out in such cases? This is far from always being clear in natural discourse, and elicitation can produce confusing results. This paper reports the results of a naturalistic elicitation method which requires speakers to give individual scene descriptions and then construct a narrative description.

The results of this study show that (a) there are a number of constructional conjuncts to form dyadic conjunct readings (b) subject vs. object readings remain ambiguous in individual scene descriptions, but once the same situations are described as part of a continuous narrative, the propositus is always taken to the the main character, and the other argument the referent.

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Marking Definiteness or Specificity, not necessarily both: an economy principle

Keywords: definite article, definiteness, determiner, semantics, specificity, syntax, typology

An analysis of the Mauritian Creole (MC) noun phrase provides evidence that the post-nominal Specificity marker *la* is a 'last resort' means of licensing the null definite determiner in certain syntactic environments. Based on this analysis, I venture the proposal that languages that have a definite article, such as English and French, do not require to overtly mark Specificity, thus complying with the economy principles of the Minimalist Program (Chomsky 1995).

Definiteness and Specificity are assumed to be different categories of meaning that must find expression in natural language. The feature Specificity is associated with both definite and indefinite noun phrases. In the case of definites, it is discourse related, and in the case of indefinites, it relates to a 'presupposition of existence'. I equate Specificity with 'Referentiality' and claim that both (in)definite specific NPs serve to refer (as opposed to denote).

My syntactic analysis is within Chomsky's (1995) Minimalist framework and a Formal Semantics (Partee 1986), both of which stipulate legitimate operator variable constructions. The noun phrase, like the clause, is analyzed as an articulated structure, where functional projections are instantiated in order to realize semantic features, such as Definiteness, Specificity, Number, etc. I provide evidence that the highest projection in the Determiner Phrase (DP) is the Specificity Phrase (SpP), and is the nominal equivalent of the Complementizer Phrase (CP), while the Definiteness Phrase (DefP) is equivalent to *v*P.[1] Phrasal movement of DefP to Spec,SpP is akin to clausal operator movement to Spec,CP. Both CP, which hosts the Topic Phrase, and SpP are discourse related.

A derivation by Phase analysis (Chomsky 2001b) clearly demonstrates the need for an overt Specificity marker when the edge of a phase is a null element, or an 'empty category', which requires licensing by an overt lexical head. A Specificity marker must project to license the null definite determiner. Phrasal movement of DefP to Spec,SpP is the only possible option, given that, under the Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC) (Chomsky 2001a), the head noun, which is in the internal domain of Def^{o} is no longer accessible to further syntactic operations. This analysis complies with Campbell's (1996) observation that the checking of the feature

[1] *v* stands for 'the light causative verb' which projects above V.

Specificity necessarily involves operator movement to a specifier position. Hence the DP final position of the Specificity marker in MC (and the occurrence of suffixes in other languages that mark Specificity, e.g. Turkish).

This paper represents the early stages of a comparative study of definiteness and specificity marking, and my claim warrants further cross-linguistic research. Some of the languages that lack a definite article include Chinese, Japanese, Malay, Russian, Turkish, as well as the creole languages of the Caribbean. My analysis provides evidence of the mapping of form and function, and of parallel structures of DP and CP. My claim has implications for the typology of languages with respect to the marking of Definiteness and or Specificity.

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Grammar meets ethics: difficult choices in endangered language renewal

Keywords: Endangered languages, Language maintenance, Language renewal, Language policy

For a traditional Aboriginal language to meet the needs of its modern inheritors, many choices need to be made about reconstructing grammatical forms that were not documented when the language was still in full daily use; providing new lexical items for new concepts and experiences; and fulfilling contemporary speech functions that did not occur, or were not documented, in the past. Ideally these choices should be made by Aboriginal communities well informed about their traditional language, what is and is not documented and remembered, and what principles can guide sound decision-making in these situations. In reality, linguists, elders and language workers are often under pressure to respond quickly to communities, schools, and outside bodies that do not understand the nature of the choices involved, or their possible long-term effects on the language and the community. This paper examines two specific case studies from current work in NSW coastal languages, and the ethical issues that they raise, with the aim of stimulating ongoing conversations among endangered language workers about such issues, in the light of principles already emerging through similar work in Australia (e.g. Amery 2003, 2008; Troy & Walsh 2008) and elsewhere (Liddicoat & Baldauf 2008; McCarty et al 1997; Walsh 2002).

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"The bush people, they speak proper English, and the beachfellas, they just communicate by their language": Quantifying variation in Palmerston Island English.

Palmerston Island is a tiny island in the Cook Islands group, approximately 600 metres across, and with a population of only 54. It was settled in the mid-1800s by William Marsters from Northern England, and his three Cook Island wives. The inhabitants today are the descendants of William Marsters and consider themselves to be English. They speak a dialect of English that has phonetic features that can be traced to Northern England, and also phonetic and grammatical features that are common in Polynesian Englishes of the region and L2 English in general, as well as features unique to Palmerston. Most current Palmerston Island inhabitants, however, speak only English and no other language.

The island has been extremely isolated - there is no regular transport to or from it, and it is 400 km away from the closest other inhabited island. In the lifetime of current inhabitants, there have been decades-long periods with no outside contact at all. There is one satellite telephone/internet connection, which is rarely used. There is no television or radio connection with the outside world.

In the last five or six years since offshore moorings were built, around 30 yachts visit in total each year for a few days each, and detailed records of these are kept. This means that it is possible to (a) record every local speaker of Palmerston Island English, and (b) track all external influences on the language. All of these factors mean that Palmerston Island an almost unprecedented opportunity for studying language variation and change in small mixed-origin communities.

This paper is based on data I collected during fieldwork on Palmerston Island in 2009. I recorded all adult speakers on the island but one. (The one exception is blind, deaf and senile.) In each case I recorded three contexts: highly structured elicitation tasks, natural conversation with me, and natural conversation with other Palmerston Island English speakers. The recorded speech shows large amounts of variation (phonetic, morphological and syntactic), not only conditioned by the three different contexts, as we might expect, but also varying greatly from speaker to speaker within the same context.

In this paper I will present the various factors that appear to condition the inter-speaker variation, including education-level, age, gender, and social group membership. I will discuss the complexities of variation when all of these factors are at play, as well as accommodation, hypercorrection and various degrees of fluency in multiple dialects and/or registers.

Most importantly, I will demonstrate how methodological considerations when collecting and analysing data can (a) help the researcher to differentiate between linguistic accommodation to outsiders and other variation and (b) allow the identification of those speakers who accommodate least (i.e. have the least difference between elicited speech, researcher-directed conversation and peer-directed conversation). These two tasks are essential not only for research on Palmerston Island, but in any region where speakers are multi-dialectal, multilingual, or where the linguistic variety under examination is part of a creole continuum.

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Distinguishing Classifiers and Measure Words

Whether classifiers (C) and measure words (M) can be meaningfully distinguished in Chinese has been a controversial issue, reflected also by the drastic discrepancy in the inventories of classifiers previously proposed. In this paper we fully justify this distinction from linguistic as well as mathematical perspectives. The two formal tests, i.e., *de*-insertion and adjectival modification, that proponents for the C/M distinction proposed previously, have been shown to be unreliable. However, based on the insight that M, but not C, constitutes a barrier to numeral quantification and adjectival modification, we refine the previous two tests and come up with much more reliable and accurate formulations (Test A, B). We also restate *ge*-substitution as a heuristic (Test C) and observe that temporary measure words are often restricted to the number *yi* 'one' (Test D).

Test A: Numeral/Adjectival Stacking
(1) If [Num X Num Y N] is well-formed, then X = M, X ≠ C, and Y = C/M.
e.g., 一箱十個蘋果, 一箱十包蘋果 vs. *一顆十包蘋果, 一顆十粒蘋果
(2) If [Num A-X N] = [Num X A-N] semantically, then X = C and X ≠ M.
e.g., 一大顆蘋果 = 一顆大蘋果 vs. 一大箱蘋果 ≠ 一箱大蘋果
(3) Given antonyms A_1 and A_2, if [Num A_1-X A_2-N] is semantically well-formed, then X = M and X ≠ C.
e.g., *一大顆小蘋果 vs. 一大箱小蘋果
(4) If [A-X *de* N] is semantically equivalent to [A-N], then X = C and X ≠ M.
e.g.,大顆的蘋果 = 大蘋果 vs. 大箱的蘋果 ≠ 大蘋果

Test B: *De*-insertion
Test: [***yi*** M/*C *de* N]
e.g., 一箱(的)蘋果 vs. 一顆(*的)蘋果

Test C: *Ge*-substitution
Test: If [Num_i X N_j] = [Num_i *ge* N_j] semantically, then X = C and X ≠ M.
e.g., 十粒蘋果 = 十個蘋果 ≠ 十箱蘋果

Test D: *Yi*-restriction
Test: If [Num X N] is well-formed *iff* Num = 1, then X = M and X ≠ C.
e.g., 一頭白髮 vs. *三頭白髮; 一片苦心 vs. *五片苦心

We further employ the Aristotelian distinction between essential and accidental properties as well as the Kantian distinction between analytic and synthetic propositions to characterize the C/M distinction: C is semantically null; M is semantically substantive. Precisely, C indicates an essential property of the noun, and can be paraphrased as the predicate concept in an analytic proposition

with the noun as the subject concept; M indicates an accidental property in terms of quantity, and can be restated as the predicate concept in a synthetic proposition with the noun as the subject concept. Given this characterization, M can be demonstrated to be more of a content word, thus open to innovations, while C is more a function word, thus forms a closed set resistant to innovations.

Finally, extending the mathematical multiplication basis of classifiers, proposed by Au Yeung (2007), we reveal another crucial C/M distinction: C is the multiplier 1 and 1 only, and M a multiplier other than 1, or ~1.

Mathematical Distinction of C/M
Given [Num X N], X = C *iff* X =1; otherwise, X = M.
e.g., 五**張**餅 = 五 **x1** 餅 = 五餅 vs. 五**打**餅 = 五 **x12** 餅 ≠ 五餅
二**條**魚 = 二 **x1** 魚 = 二魚 vs. 二**對**魚 = 二 **x 2** 魚 ≠ 二魚

This mathematical interpretation of C/M further explains why C may be optional, while M is obligatory, and also why C is semantically null and thus transparent to numeral quantification and adjectival modification, while M is not. Finally, we demonstrate that, under this mathematical interpretation of C/M, English in fact lacks C/M altogether, given the fact that its multiplier is restricted to 1 and grammaticalized as the nominal suffix -s and thus no longer part of the numeral.

Distinction between Chinese and English
Chinese: [Num X N], X=1 (C) or ~1 (M)
English: [Num X N], Num>1 and X=1 (***-s***); e.g., 3x1 book = 3 ***-s*** book = 3 books

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Where to, from and through? On the distribution of Path in Motion Descriptions in Jaminjung and Kriol

This paper deals with the distribution of path in motion events in two Australian languages, namely Jaminjung, a highly endangered Non-Pama-Nyungan Language and Kriol, an English-lexified Creole both spoken in the Victoria River area in the Northern Territory.

Ever since Talmy (1985, 2000, 2007) introduced the existence of verb-framed and satellite- framed languages on the basis of the distribution of manner and path expressions in languages, the typology has been subject of debate. One major issue concerns a number of languages which seem to fall outside the typology in, for example, expressing path information in more than one lexical item within a clause. It has been observed by Schultze-Berndt (2007) that Jaminjung seems to fall outside the Talmy-typology. The language expresses (restricted) path information in an inflecting verb (*-uga* in example (1) and manner (*mingib*) as well as additional path information in an uninflecting coverb (*burduj*) accompanying the verb:

(1) *mingib=bung* *gang-kuga* *burduj*
crawl=RESTR 3SG>1SG-take.PST go.up
'he took us up crawling'
(ES08_A04_06_0256)

The concept of path is obligatory in any motion description (Slobin, 1996). However, languages differ regarding the degree of detailed path description in discourse (Ibarretxe- Antunano, 2009). A thorough analysis of path description in discourse must consequently be based on three complementary areas. First, the verb phrase can be distinguished in terms of 'minus- and 'plus'-ground clauses depending on the number of bare verbs (fall) or verbs with a satellite indicating the direction of movement (*fall down*) and verbs that additionally are complemented by a ground phrase (*fall into the river*) (Slobin, 1996). Jaminjung seems to prefer minus ground phrases. However, plus-ground expressions are also possible as in example (2).

(2) *buru-biya* *yirr-angga* ***kul-bina*** ***janggagu***
return=NOW 1PL.EXCL-go.PRS school-ALL up
'let's go back, up to the school!'
(ES08_A13_01tt.045)

Secondly, and moving away from the verb or clause alone as the unit of analysis, what Slobin (1996) calls a complex path or journey including milestones or subgoals and additionally optional trajectory (*along a road*), is taken into account. Such constructions are extremely rare in Jaminjung and a trajectory is never included in a single verb phrase. These restrictions, however, can also be accounted for by Bohnemeyer et al.'s approach of a typology of motion event segmentation which classifies languages according to their ability to include source and/or goal and/or trajectory into a single motion event clause (Bohnemeyer et al., 2007). An example is (3).

(3) ***<tharrei>-ngunyi=biyang*** *bunburr* *bu-rrara-m* *langiny*
there-ABL-NOW take.off.multiply 3PL-come-PRS wood
yina-ngunyi ***ngiya-bina=biyang***
DIST-ABL here-ALL-NOW
'from there they come out, from these trees to here'
(ES97_A03_01_102/103)

Finally, motion event granularity looking across clauses identifies the frequency of path complements mentioned in discourse independent of the availability of complex clauses. Jaminjung seems to elaborate on a high number of such path segments.

This paper aims to further investigate the distribution of path in Jaminjung using a number of Frog Story narrations (Mayer, 1969) as well as natural narratives by different speakers. Additionally, Kriol equivalents will be analysed and comparisons between the two languages drawn.

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An Empirical Study on Idiosyncrasy: Use of Fillers in Japanese Monologues

The current study empirically investigates "to what extent we are idiosyncratic" in selecting certain words rather than others. We focus on the use of fillers in Japanese speech in this study as some literature impressionistically reports some preferred choices of fillers amongst different speakers. We attempt to answer the question "to what extent we are idiosyncratic" by investigating how well we can correctly identify the speech samples uttered by the same speaker as they are from the same speaker, and recognise the speech samples produced by the different speakers as they are from different speakers, purely based on the individual's selection of fillers. These same speaker and different speaker recognitions should be accurately performed in proportion to the degree and consistency of individuals' idiosyncrasy. The current study also looks into the idiosyncrasy in the light of gender differences.

The idiosyncratic nature of word selection by speakers (and writers in written communication) has been studied from various perspectives. This includes: analysis of speaking styles of political leaders (1), identification of the authors of literary works (2), detection of plagiarism (3) and enhancing the performance of automatic speaker recognition (4). As for Japanese fillers, there are some previous studies which impressionistically report some preferred choices of fillers amongst different speakers (5, 6, 7). However, to the best of our knowledge, there aren't any studies which empirically investigates the degree and consistency of the idiosyncratic selections of fillers. As for fillers and gender differences, it is not difficult to find some papers which reports some gender differences in, for example, the frequency of the use of fillers and types of fillers (7). However, again, to the best of our knowledge, no studies have been conducted in order to investigate the gender differences in terms of the degree and consistency of idiosyncrasy.

We selected the non-contemporaneous speech (262 speakers x 2 sessions = 524 speech samples) from the "Corpus of Spontaneous Japanese" which contains a large number of monologues, and conducted a series of speaker recognition tests. Two types of tests are involved in speaker recognition: one is same-speaker recognition and the other is different-speaker recognition. Out of 524 speech samples, 262 same speaker comparisons and 136,764 different speaker comparisons are possible. Two experiments were conducted: In the first experiment, all speech samples were pooled together, regardless of gender, for a speaker recognition test, whereas in the second experiment, speaker recognition tests were con-

ducted separately for males and females.

We will report from the first experiment that the accuracy of same speaker recognition and that of different speaker recognition can be higher than 80%. That is, the fillers carry good information about individuals' idiosyncrasy. From the second experiment, we will further report that the speaker recognition performance is better in the males than the females by about 10%. We will also report that the selection of fillers is more consistent for the male than the female speakers, resulting in better speaker recognition performance for the male speakers.

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The newly-discovered fieldnotes of Caroline Tennant-Kelly: their value for Australian Linguistics

Late in 2009 my friend and colleague Kim de Rijke and myself, Tony Jefferies, undertook a car journey to northern New South Wales that brought to fruition a long and painstaking search. At the end of that drive we took possession of the papers and effects of Caroline Tennant-Kelly, an anthropologist whose name is well-known to many in anthropology but whose work, by and large, was too little known.

Of especial significance in Tennant-Kelly's long and varied career is her work among Aboriginal people, notably those resident at Cherbourg Mission, but also Fraser Islanders and the people of Burnt Bridge Mission, Kempsey and Wreck Bay on the N.S.W. south coast.

To understand the nature of the work Tennant-Kelly performed at these places one needs to understand her influences: these are, on one hand, Radcliffe-Brown, Raymond Firth and A.P. Elkin, the last her supervisor and academic mentor at Sydney University, and on the other Margaret Mead, whom Tennant-Kelly had met and befriended and who would remain her greatest anthropological influence. In short, this divided Tennant-Kelly's interests between the more usual kinship, totemism and social organisation concerns of the former (with a special focus on Elkin's interest in the 'contact' of Aboriginals and Europeans), and the concerns of womanhood, puberty, child-rearing etc. that were Mead's interest.

Where, we might ask, does linguistics find a role in all this? When Tennant-Kelly undertook her first significant fieldwork at Cherbourg in 1934 anthropology was in some areas still in the early days of its development as a discipline. And, in many ways, the Americans, namely through Sapir's relationship to Boas, were much further advanced in the integration of anthropology and linguistics. Undoubtedly, Radcliffe-Brown and his colleagues were conscious of the necessity to gain a firm grip on the language of the people the anthropologist intended studying. However, wide knowledge of phonemics, the use of the International Phonetic Alphabet, and so on, were still some years away. This can be seen in the linguistic component of Tennant-Kelly's fieldwork. Obviously, there has been some instruction in phonemics and the sorts of sound to expect in Aboriginal language, but, when we consider Tennant-Kelly was at the level of an undergraduate student, we cannot be too surprised if we find no great level of sophistication in the linguistic component of her work.

For the most part, Tennant-Kelly's linguistics consists of wordlists, or, on occasion, short sentences. There is no doubt she was fulfilling one of the objectives set for her

by her mentors: to gain some knowledge of the language. These wordlists seen objectively represent only a modest advance on the lists of the pioneer 19th century linguists such as Curr and Howitt. Like them, and many others, she could be thrown by the unusualness of some of the sounds she encountered. Nevertheless, Tennant-Kelly's linguistic work has considerable value for the researcher, linguistic and anthropological, today. It adds enormously to our knowledge of east coast languages, which all too often were poorly recorded or have come down to us in attenuated form. This is particularly true of certain semantic domains, such as kinship, where her information is a vital addition to our knowledge. Lastly, there are Tennant-Kelly's observations of the role language played in these societies. The paper will consist of a general description of the collection, the background of the research, and the value, in detail, and in general, of this newly- discovered heritage to linguistics and linguistic anthropology.

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The diachronics of Arandic kinship terminology

The paper will present the kinship terminology of the Arandic languages as it evolved through time. It will attempt to formulate for the first time (necessarily in sketch form) a comprehensive diachronic picture of kinterms in a subgroup of Australian languages, and is therefore a test of whether this is a feasible undertaking. Discussion will include: terms inherited into Proto Arandic from Proto Pama-Nyungan (or high-level subgroups/areas within Pama-Nyungan); terms unique to Proto Arandic and presumed to be innovations; terms innovated in the Proto Aranda and Kaytetye branches; terms borrowed into Arandic languages, with indication of the source of each; terms borrowed out of the Arandic languages, with indication of the destination of each; terms created by wordformation strategies (reduplication and compounding) within the Arandic languages; the obscuring of transparent derivational or inflectional structure; semantic changes within Arandic kinterms, with indication of their motivation by language contact and pragmatic factors; loss of terms.

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"Folk sociolinguistics" and the semantics of identity: An exploration of language concepts in everyday Danish

Keywords: sociolinguistics, lexical semantics, language and identity

Danish is commonly described as extraordinarily uniform and homogenous, compared with neighbouring languages like Norwegian, Swedish and German (Kristiansen 1998; Kristiansen & Jørgensen 2003, Pedersen 2005). The modern Danish speech community stands out in the Northern European region as an extreme case of language standardisation (Kristensen 2003; Østergård 2006).

This paper explores the "folk sociolinguistic" terminology of this unusual society, and investigates how linguistic, national and ethnic identities are co-construed in Danish language and discourse. Inspired by Cliff Goddard's recent works on the lexical semantics of language in everyday English, (Goddard 2009, forthcoming), this paper extends cross-linguistically to a study of everyday Danish language concepts. Tracing the historical discourses of the Danish standardisation movement, which grew out of a peculiar Danish adaptation of Herder's philosophy of language (Gregersen 2002), this paper shows how Danish words reflect Danish "folk sociolinguistic" ideas.

For each "folk sociolinguistic" term, I will provide a detailed semantic explication, based on evidence from historical discourses, and contemporary linguistic corpora, mainly KorpusDK, an online corpora of 56 million Danish words (http://ordnet.dk/korpusdk). Employing the NSM framework (Natural Semantic Metalanguage) for analysis (Goddard & Wierzbicka 2002; Goddard 2008, Bromhead 2009), the following Danish words will be analysed and compared:

(i) The contemporary concept of *sprog* roughly, "national language", and (ii) the now defunct concept of *mål* (old spelling *Maal*), "local ways of speaking": It is hypothesised that the modern concept of *sprog* emerged from Danish ethnonational discourses and superseded the old, pre-nationalistic concept of *mål*. It is argued that the rise of *sprog*, and the fall of *mål* reflect a new ethnonational conceptualisation of ways of speaking, which emerged in 19th century Denmark.

(iii) The concept of *rigddansk*, literally, "empire Danish", and (iv) the concept of *dialekter* literally "dialects": *Rigsdansk* became a key concept in the creation of a Danish national identity, and a spearhead for the standardisation ideology. It relates to the concept of *dialekter*, which, in Danish "folk sociolinguistics" are believed to be regional varieties of the national language.

The paper concludes with a discussion of the discrepancy between language concepts in everyday language and in sociolinguistic terminology.

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On aspect in Modern Mandarin Chinese – A corpus-based study from a discourse perspective

This research involves the study of aspect in Modern Mandarin Chinese from the late 1960s to today. By focusing on Smith's (1991, 1997) two-component aspect theory, we shall examine Chinese from both the situation aspect and viewpoint aspect; in this way, we will be able to fully understand the aspectual system of Mandarin Chinese.

As an aspect language, Mandarin Chinese has played a pivotal role in the development of general aspect theory (cf. Xiao & McEnery, 2004). Nevertheless, some confusion exists regarding the study of aspect in the Chinese language. Previous literature (Chao, 1968; Li &Thompson, 1981; Yip & Rimmington, 2004; Halliday & McDonald, 2004) shows that there are inconsistencies in categorisation and disagreement on aspect markers. In addition, there is a neglect of situation aspect, which is unmarked and associated with the inherent temporal meanings of verbs. Using the theoretical tools advanced by scholars such as Comrie (1976) and Smith (1985, 1991, 1997) and Halliday's functional grammar (1985), we have re-analysed the Mandarin Chinese aspect system, taking into account both situation aspect and viewpoint aspect expressed by aspect markers. The inclusion of situation aspect is important for a complete account of the aspect system, because as we have shown, situation aspect can provide explanation for the compatibility or incompatibility of aspect markers and verbs. With respect to viewpoint aspect, we propose a classification of six viewpoint aspects, assigning them to two general categories of the perfective and imperfective respectively, with three aspectual categories in each, as shown below:

Three perfective aspectual categories:

- The actual aspect (verbal -le, sentential le)
- The experiential aspect (-guo)
- The delimitative aspect (verbal reduplication)

Three imperfective aspectual categories:

- The inchoative aspect (-qilai)
- The durative aspect (zai, -zhe, ne)
- The successive aspect (-xiaqu)

Not all six aspects identified above were similarly recognised in previous studies (Dai, 1997; Xiao & McEnery, 2004) and the forms zai-and –zhe, which are considered separate aspects by some scholars (Xiao & McEnery, 2004; Halliday & McDonald, 2004), are both treated as durative with complementary meanings, functions and distributions. The result of our new classification appears to be a tidier and symmetrical system. Furthermore, our research has corrected some misleading conclusions found in literature. For example, the common feature about verbal –le in previous literature is that scholars excessively emphasize the final stage of the situation, while our findings show that it can also indicate the beginning and the middle stages of the situation (cf. Comrie, 1976). With regard to the aspect marker –guo, it is commonly recognized that it refers to the past experience; yet our data shows that the main reason for mentioning the past experience is to connect the experience with the event the speakers are talking about at the time of utterance: that is, to explain or illustrate the current situation. Also, we have found that the functions of verbal reduplication have close relationships with the time that the action takes place, which is not stated explicitly in previous literature. All these findings are important to Chinese linguistics, and will also contribute significantly to a pedagogical grammar on Mandarin aspect system.

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A Force Phrase in Chinese Nominal Domain

Since Rizzi (1997) it is generally assumed that at the leftmost of the clause there is a Force Phrase (ForceP), which encodes illocutionary force, such as declarative, exclamative, interrogative or imperative. Given the parallelism between clauses and nominal phrases, this paper investigates the internal structure of Chinese nominal phrase and suggests that at the left periphery of nominal domain there is a functional projection, namely DForceP, which encodes illocutionary force in the same way as Rizzi's (1997, 2004) proposal of ForceP in the clausal domain. More specifically, I propose that the head of DForceP, which can be optionally lexicalized by an overt particle in Chinese (i.e. *ne* as in (1) or *mā* as in (3)), carries an interpretable (Force) feature, which can be specified as (declarative), (exclamative), (interrogative) or (imparative) according to contexts. Examples of exclamative nominal expressions can be found in (1), whereas examples of interrogative nominal expressions formed by Wh-words can be found in (2). In addition to the interrogative nominal expressions formed by wh-words, there are other types of interrogative nominal expressions, namely the *yes-no* interrogative nominal phrase and the disjunctive interrogative nominal phrase. Examples are provided in (3) and (4) respectively. In addition to exclamative and interrogative nominal expressions, there are imperative nominal expressions, which are used to issue an order or request as their counterparts in the clausal domain. Examples can be found in (5). The fact that nominal phrases with phrase-final particles can appear in subject positions as shown in (6) indicates that these particles are attached within nominal expressions but not clauses. Given the fact that the particles appear in the phrase-final position, I propose that there is obligatory XP-raising to the top-most left periphery of nominal phrases in Chinese, which is parallel to the obligatory XP-raising to the top-most left periphery of the Chinese clause.

(1) **Exclamative:**

(DegP	*hǎo*	*jīngcǎi)*	*yì*	*chǎng*	*yǎnjiǎng*	*(ne)*
	very	fantastic	one	Cl	speech	(Particle)

'What a fantastic speech!'

(2) **Interrogative**:

(DP	*jǐ)*	*ge*	*rén*	*(ne)?*
how	many	Cl	person	(Particle)

'How many people?'

(3) *yī ge rén (mā)?*
one Cl person (Particle)
'One person?'

(4) *chá háishì kāfēi (ne)?*
tea or coffee (Particle)
'tea or coffee?'

(5) **Imperative**:

a. *(During a surgery) Surgeon: shǒushùdāo*
Scalpel
'Give me the scalpel.'

b. (In a seafood department)
Customer: guīyú bàn jīn, xuěyú yì jīn
Salmon half 600g, Cod one 600g
'Give me 300g of Salmon and 600g of Cod.'

(6) *nà ge nushēng a shì wǒ xīn tongxué*
that Cl girl Particle copula my new classmate
'That girl is my new classmate.'

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Topic Constructions in Squliq Atayal

Keywords: topic constructions, Squliq Atayal, internal topics, external topics

This research aims to analyse the syntactic structure of topic constructions in Squliq Atayal, one of the Austronesian languages in Taiwan. Sentence topics in this language are placed in the sentence-initial position and followed by the topic marker ga'. They can be divided into two types: internal topic and external topic. Internal topics are associated with a missing argument of the predicate. Even though there are four voices in this language, Actor Voice, Patient Voice, Locative Voice and Benefactive Voice (see Huang 1993, 2000 and Rau 1992), no matter what voice inflexion the predicate carries, only the grammatical subject can be topicalised. Besides, they functions as a new topic in discourse, being both anaphoric and cataphoric. As for external topics, there is no missing argument in the comment part, and they are only semantically related with the rest of the sentence, such as the possessor-possessed relationship and the superset relationship. External topics do not permit a co-referential pronominal argument in the comment part, but they can be co-referential with a genitive pronoun to express the possessor-possessed relationship. Moreover, temporal adverbials and adverbial clauses are always followed by topic marker ga' in this language, so that they make the sentence coherent with previous discourse. From the viewpoint of functionalism, these topic constructions form a continuum in terms of the connection between topic and comment: from a prominent argument, as suggested in Reinhart (1982) and Gregory & Michaelis (2001), to the modifier of the whole event.

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Retroflexion as a transitional feature in Amurdak and other Iwaidjan languages

Most descriptions of Australian Aboriginal languages posit a series of retroflex consonants. However, some analyses suggest alternative interpretations as clusters or autosegmental features with the syllable as domain of operation (see Evans 1995: 735ff for an overview of retroflexion in Australian languages). For a number of languages, the fact that retroflex consonants can occur word-initially (see the data in Hamilton 1996), does suggest that there are in fact retroflex consonants, but this may not be an adequate analysis in all cases.

This paper proposes that retroflexion in Amurdak and other Iwaidjan languages is a feature that is primarily associated with the phonetic effects resulting from the transition from the vowel to the following retroflex consonant (see Hamilton 1996, Birch forthc.). This transition is phonetically identical to a retroflex approximant, which is a necessary part of stop articulation. Now, the phonetic realisation of retroflex consonants in Amurdak can resemble that of a sequence of a retroflex approximant plus alveolar stop/tap/nasal, and expectedly there is no phonemic contrast between the two. In fact, approximants are not tolerated in coda position at all. I will argue that retroflexivisation can be captured as potentially detachable feature varying in realisation between retroflex approximant plus alveolar consonant and retroflex consonant. In phonetic terms this manifests itself in a longer transitional process in the first case, which, due to its prominence has the potential to be reanalysed as a sequence in the historical development. For palatal consonants such reanalyses are well-known, e.g. the development of new diphthongs in Middle English as a result from glide accretion before palatals.

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Lexical Stress of Multicategorial Words and Exceptional Disyllables in Australian English

Keywords: Australian English, lexical stress, phonology, word-stress assignment, graphophonemics

Phonological descriptions of Australian English rarely contain comments on word-stress assignment in that particular variety of English. In 1965 Mitchell and Delbridge wrote: *"Very few differences in word-stress between English and Australian speech may be observed."* After them, authors such as Bernard in 1981, Sussex in 1989, Taylor in 1989, Turner in 1989 and Butler in 2001 confirmed their remark. However, the lists of examples given by these authors only add up to approximately thirty items.

In this study I seek to explore word-stress assignment in Australian English in a more systematic way in order to find whether the variations between Australian English and British English and/or American English are idiosyncratic or follow a specific pattern. This analysis will focus on multicategorial words and exceptional disyllables (bearing lexical stress on the last syllable) since lexical stress is often unstable in those words when one compares the diverse varieties of English. It is unsurprising that most of the examples given by the authors belong to those classes if one does not take into account compound words and words of three or more syllables which will not be taken into consideration in the present work.

Indeed how are words like *address*, *finance*, *garage* or *research* stressed in Australian English? One can note that both British and Australian speakers will stress the final syllable of the verb *baptize* when American speakers will usually stress the first one. Are those differences between the three varieties exceptional or more frequent than it seems? Is there a specific distribution of word-stress assignment for multicategorial and exceptional dissyllables in Australian english? Moreover, how are loan words of native australian languages such as *belah*, *bendee* or *marloo* stressed? Can the stress patterns usually found in english be applied to these specific items?

This study is first and foremost a dictionary-based one and uses the transcriptions given in the *Macquarie Dictionary* for Australian English and those present in the *Longman Pronunciation Dictionary* for the British and American varieties of English. When necessary the study will be completed with oral data and/or information regarding the frequency of the item at stake.

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Separability of coverbs as a factor in levels of lexical borrowing: a Kimberley comparison

Complex verbs – consisting of a coverb carrying the main lexical meaning with one of a small set of light verbs – are a feature of a large number of Australian Aboriginal languages, both Non-Pama-Nyungan and Pama-Nyungan (cf. Schultze-Berndt 2000, McGregor 2002). The morphosyntax of such complex verbs varies between languages as to the separability of the coverb from the verb. In some languages, such as Bardi, Gooniyandi and Worrorra, the coverbs are tightly bound to the left of the verb (tight-nexus); in others (including Wagiman and Gurindji) the position of the coverb is variable and it may occur separated from the verb or alone (loose-nexus). Further typological differences are also found when comparing the role of coverbs and light verbs in different languages (Bowern 2008, 2010a). The hypothesis here is that the presence of loose-nexus verbs elevates the level of lexical loans, since separable coverbs are more easily borrowed, and the use of complex predicates as a vehicle for loaned verbs has been noted elsewhere in the world (cf. Wichmann & Wohlgemuth 2008). The languages compared are those along the Pama-Nyungan/Non-Pama-Nyungan border in the Kimberley of WA and neighbouring parts of the NT. These languages display great differences in the number of loanwords from neighbouring languages, from approaching 50% (Gurindji: McConvell 2009; Mudburra: Black 2007) to between 7% and 15% (Nyulnyulan languages; Bowern 2010b) . These languages also vary along the scale of separability of coverbs, and we test the prediction that loose-nexus coverb syntax correlates with high borrowing (cf. McConvell and Schultze-Berndt 2001). Then we examine whether the high borrowing regimes are predominantly explained by the complex verb morphosyntax or whether there are also other powerful factors in the explanation of levels of borrowing involving geography and demography.

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Establishing discourse referents in Gooniyandi narrative

This paper focusses on one aspect of doing reference in Gooniyandi, namely the strategies available for introducing new referents – those not previously mentioned – into narrative discourse. These strategies fall into four main types, for some of which subtypes are distinguishable:

a. use of a presentative clause

b. use of an NP on its own intonation contour, separated from the remainder of the clause

c. use of an NP in the same intonation contour as the remainder of the clause

d. NP-ellipsis, i.e. no NP, and at most a bound cross-referencing pronominal in the verb

There is a range of minor strategies in addition, including NP discontinuity and optional case-marking, which will also be identified and briefly discussed. The main point of the paper is to identify the motivations for using one strategy rather than another. It is suggested that the strategies can be hierarchised on a significance scale from (1) to (4), reflecting their relative markedness and correspondingly the relative importance of the referent entity in the plot. This follows as a consequence of pragmatic principles applied to the relative sizes of the linguistic units involved. Finally, I situate the establishment of new referents in the context of other aspects of doing reference, namely tracking already introduced items, and the strategies for introducing places into narrative.

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The development of asymmetrical serial verb constructions in Gurindji Kriol

Gurindji Kriol is a mixed language spoken in northern Australia. It is derived from Gurindji, a Pama-Nyungan language, and Kriol, an English-lexifier creole language. Kriol provides the grammatical matrix for the verb structure, as defined by the use of Kriol tense and mood markers such as *bin* and *garra*. Nonetheless Gurindji-derived coverbs are commonly found in the verb position:

(1) *dat warlaku bin* ***kutij*** *nyantu-rayinyj-ma. (GK)*
DET dog PST **stand** 3SG-ALONE-DIS
'The dog stood on his own.' (CE: FHM014: Picture-match game)

Although is Kriol-like in structure, in many cases the verb structure appears to follow the Gurindji complex verb structure more closely with a two-part verb. In and, *kutij* (stand) is accompanied by a PUT verb which creates a bivalent structure. In Kriol, the transitive marker is used to change the valency of intransitive verbs, see . This Kriol structure is not possible in Gurindji Kriol.

(2) ***put-im*** ***kutij*** *nyila ojij (GK)*
put-TRN stand that horse
'Stand the (toy) horse up! (CR: FM054.A: Conversation)

(3) ***kutij*** *ngu=rna* ***yuwa-ni*** *(Gurindji)*
stand CAT=1SG.S put-PST
'I stood it (the coolamon) up.' (VD: FM07-050: Description)

(4) ***sid-im-ap*** *doldol, go-an. (Kriol)*
sit-TRN-up doll, go-on
'Sit the doll up, go on!' (Disbray 2008: PD: SD009:75)

Nonetheless, it is clear from that the Gurindji Kriol verb structure does not pattern neatly with the Gurindji structure. A Gurindji-derived coverb can occur as a main verb in a Gurindji Kriol simple clause, whereas in Gurindji an accompanying inflecting verb is always required.

In this paper I suggest these two part verb structures in Gurindji Kriol can be described as *asymmetrical serial verb constructions* (Aikhenvald 2007). I will demonstrate they are a product of the more restricted Kriol serial verb construction developing and expanding under the influence of the Gurindji complex verb (Meakins 2010). The formation of this construction was a part of the more general genesis of the mixed language which was derived from code-switching (McConvell and Meakins 2005).

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Cut verbs in Tani languages

Tani languages (Tibeto-Burman, North-East India) display a rich system of bound modifiers which combine with verb roots to form a single grammatical verbal stem. This system is fully productive and enables formation of huge numbers of verbs with high semantic complexity and specificity. In this paper I will examine the formation of cut verbs, primarily in the Eastern Tani languages Padam, Pasi and Milang. To keep the database to a manageable size, I will limit the set of verbs chosen to those expressing MANNER and RESULT. Following a description of the Tani system of cut verbs, I will then briefly review the diverse set of constructions used to realize similar functions in other languages, including resultative complements, adverbial modifiers, and serial verb constructions. Finally, I will suggest that the plethora and specificity of cut verbs in Tani languages is a result of two factors: the rich structural possibilities enabled by Tani verb stem formation and the cultural experiences of Tani language speakers in interaction with their environment.

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Grammar in the school curriculum: Why should linguists care?

The draft K – 10 and 11-12 Australian National Curriculum for English embraces not only a return to the explicit teaching of grammar but also both a strong commitment to teaching grammar in context and the inclusion of a distinct strand of knowledge about language. The paper begins with a synopsis of the grammatical framework and connections to broader understandings of knowledge about language encoded in these curricular documents. This is followed by a critical assessment of the grammatical framework.

It is shown that while the 1960's saw the widespread abandonment of 'traditional' grammar from the English curriculum in Australia, the UK, and the US, it is this approach to grammar that has become entrenched as the dominant conceptualisation of grammar in education. As studies by Huddleston (1989), Collins et al. (1997) and Horan (2003) have found, and my experiences with teachers have corroborated, it is this traditional conception of grammar that is almost universally held by teachers and is the main inspiration for the metalanguage used in describing English. At the same time, the last fifty years of linguistic scholarship have produced many advances in our understanding of language and of the grammar of English in particular. However, with the exception of systemic functional grammar to some degree, a model of grammar that is informed by modern linguistics does not seem to have found its way into school education. It is argued that, while for the most part academic linguists have not been particularly concerned about engaging with this issue, it is critical that we do.

The return to the explicit teaching of grammar in the Australian National Curriculum for English provides a unique opportunity to engage with the challenge of elaborating an approach to grammar that is both relevant to the needs of school learning and draws on the insights of modern linguistics. Key issues in developing such an educationally meaningful grammatical framework include: first, meeting teachers where they are with what they need (Denham and Lobeck 2010) by, wherever appropriate, building upon rather than replacing the metalanguage of traditional school grammar; and second, showing that the study of grammar is so much more than just 'correct usage' by making explicit how a diverse range of metalinguistic awareness can support the acquisition of skilled language use.

The paper concludes by outlining one approach to providing materials to support teachers in furthering their understanding of the grammar of English and in developing their skills in grammar teaching pedagogy as they prepare to implement the Australian National Curriculum for English.

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A closer look at Garrwa verbs

Garrwa verbs are typologically unusual in the Australian context: they are an open class that does not inflect for common verbal categories such as tense aspect and mood, nor do they take agreement morphology. This makes them look superficially like the uninflecting open class known as 'coverbs', found in some languages of the area (eg Jaminjung - Schultze-Berndt 2000; Jingulu - Pensalfini 2003). But languages with coverbs also have a closed set of inflecting verb forms working together as 'complex' predicates. There are no such inflecting verbs in Garrwa. The majority of Garrwa verbs by far end in /*-Cba*/, although there are a significant number of verbs which do not have this ending.

Garrwa verbs do however take category specific suffixes associated with the formation of complex sentences (purpose (PURP), sequentiality (SEQ), same subject (SS) and different subject (DS) simultaneous actions, and an 'infinitive' (INF) form), so it is not true to say they are a class of uninflected forms. Allomorphic variation across different verbs has led to the analysis of several conjugation classes, each based in part on the final sequence of segments in the verb root (eg. *-jba*, *-mba*, *-nyba*, *-ba*, and *Æ*) matched to particular allomorphs of the suffix. Belfrage (1992, 2003) argues for five classes (J,M, *Æ*, RRI, N), but was unable to determine any semantic or grammatical motivation for the assignment of verbs to each conjugation class. The table below provides examples of the different allophones for four of Belfrage's classes.

In this paper I take a closer look at the morphology of Garrwa verbs, using a much

yabimba 'make' (M-class)	*jilajba* 'walk' (J-class)	*ngaraba* 'drink' (*Æ*-class)	*nyindu* 'cry' (N-class)
yabimbiji 'make-PURP'	*jilaji* 'walk-PURP'	*ngaraji* 'drink-PURP'	*nyindunki* 'cry-PURP'
yabimbijiwa 'make-SEQ'	*jilajiwa* 'walk-SEQ	*ngarajiwa* 'drink-SEQ	*nyindunkiwa* 'cry-SEQ'
yabimbijina 'make-SS'	*jilajina* 'walk-SS'	*ngarajina* 'drink-SS'	*nyindunkina* 'cry-SS'
yabimbikurri 'make-DS'	*jila(j)kurri* 'walk-DS'	*ngarakurri* 'drink-DS'	*nyindunkurri* 'cry-DS'
yabimbikanyi 'make-INF'	*jila(j)kanyi* 'walk-INF'	*ngarakanyi* 'drink-INF'	*nyindukanyi* 'cry-INF'

larger corpus than was available to Belfrage. Here I show that the morphological properties of subclasses reflect a far more complex picture than what has been identified so far for Garrwa. For example, Belfrage's RRI class is shown to consist of complex stems consisting of a bare verb root + a productive causative stem morpheme *-rri-* to which the inflections suffix (eg. *jungku* 'sit' ~ *jungku-rri-j-ba* 'set down). This requires a reanalysis of what consitutes a verb root and a verb stem in Garrwa. I also examine the productivity of each class and show that only a subset of verb subclasses consitute an open class synchronically. These results allow for the development of hypotheses concerning the origins and development of the Garrwa system, given its typological peculiarities.

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The smuggled budgie: revisiting Australian English copied from Australian languages

Keywords: borrowing, loan adaptation, Australian English, Indigenous languages, etymology

The English bird name 'budgerigar' was adapted from one or more NSW language and became established (in various spellings) from the late 1840s, this much is clear. There are several recurrent accounts of its origins. The published etymologies can be summarised as involving one or both of two source words:

a. *budyiri*, former NSW Pidgin, 'good' (spelled *budgery*, *boojery*, etc)
b. *gijirrigaa*, Kamilaroi (Gamilaraay), 'budgerigar'

in these combinations:

- (A) compound of *budyiri* with: *gaar* 'cockatoo' (OED, Morris 1898) or 'bird' (Chisholm) or 'little' (popular) or *gaan* 'food' (popular)
- (AB) alteration of *gijirrigaa* influenced by *budyiri* (Ramson 1966, 2002, American Heritage, AAWE 2 though 'unlikely')
- (B) misapprehension of *gijirrigaa* (Ramson 1964, AND, AAWE 1, Random House, Dixon 2008)

Further light is now cast on the origins by zoological sources (I) overlooked by etymologists (II), and by additional 1840s newspaper references, which together indicate that Morris' (1898) 'Law of Hobson-Jobson' has applied, as in (AB) above and with further contribution from a poorly attested Wiradjuri (?) synonym *badyirigang*, so that multiple sources can be seen to have merged in *budgerigar*. Thus Ramson's (2002:17-26) 'three feasibilities' of etymology are corroborated (chronological, geographical, logical), and accounting for a loanword needs to draw on the particular circumstances (sociolinguistics, history) of its introduction and popularisation. The etymological treatment of a number of Australian English words originating from Australian languages requires amplification along these lines.

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Austronesian-Papuan contact in southern Bougainville

The Northwest Solomonic (NWS) Oceanic languages of Bougainville and the Solomon Islands display numerous innovated morphological and syntactic characteristics highly atypical of Oceanic. These have been assumed to reflect contact with Papuan languages. However, while linguistic effects of Papuan-Austronesian contact have been explored in some Oceanic regions (Thurston 1987, Ross 1996), there has been little detailed research on this in NWS.

The most aberrant NWS group is Mono-Uruavan (MU) (Torau, Uruava, Mono-Alu), whose languages have adopted numerous highly atypical features for Oceanic that have been described as typically Papuan, including verb-final clauses, postpositions, and Possessor+Possessum order. However, no attempt has been made to link these with particular Papuan languages. We investigate the hypothesis that they can be attributed to contact with neighbouring Papuan languages of the South Bougainville family (SB) (Nasioi, Nagovisi, Buin, Motuna).

Drawing on on-going primary research in SB and MU, we compare in detail several innovated features of MU with structures in SB languages. We find that the innovated MU clause order A+OBL+O+V (1a) corresponds to the order in SB (1b); that several common NWS prepositions occur as postpositions in MU (2a), corresponding to postpositional marking in SB (2b); that MU has innovated a postpositional distinction between locative and ablative also found in SB; and that the order Possessor + Possessum (3a) again corresponds to SB (3b). These right-headed structures are consistent with contact with SB, although it is not clear whether the changes took place in Proto-MU or more recently, or which SB language(s) are the source.

Finally we find that two MU languages, Torau and Uruava, display a highly unusual system, unique in Oceanic, of marking possessum number on a possessor-indexing particle (4a). This is also found in Nasioi (4b) but not in other SB languages, and both Nasioi and Torau use the suffix *–na* to mark singular. Torau and Uruava are in contact with Nasioi, while the third MU language, Mono-Alu, which lacks this innovation, is not. We conclude that this is a more recent development resulting specifically from contact with Nasioi.

We conclude that these findings support a hypothesis of contact-induced change in MU under the influence of SB over a long period of time.

(1) a. *Kanega* *sa-na* *famata* *ang* *talaiva* *elua* *ma mamaifa*
old.man GP-3SGP village LOC women two PL chiefess
A OBL O
i-fun-i-ri.
3SGS-hide-TR-3PLO
V

'The old man has hidden in his village two chiefly women.' (Mono-Alu)

b. *Oi-ko* *kuuruu-nno* *sikireu-nno* *tii-ko*
DEM-EMPH owl-COMIT k.o.bird-COMIT ART.F-EMPH
A
hoo-nno *no-ngu* *hoo* *pau* *noi*
ART.M-COMIT one-COMIT ART food some
OBL O
ru'k-u-'-ni.
cook-3O.3A-DL.RMPST-DP
V

'The owl and the sikireu with some (other birds) also cooked some food.' (Motuna)

(2) a. *Ruma=**ia*** *popo=no-na.*
house=LOC exist=IPFV-3SGS

'He is in the house.' (Uruava)

b. *Pava* ***ko*** *oto'-maung.*
house LOC be.2/3S-PRS.HAB

'He is in the house.' (Nasioi)

(3) a. *batafa* *ifa-na*
woman sister.in.law-3SGP
PSSR PSSM

'the woman's sister-in-law' (Mono-Alu)

b. *tata* *ba-urin*
elder.brother 3SGP-son
PSSR PSSM

'my elder brother's son' (Nasioi)

(4) a. *a-di-**na*** *gareni* *a-di* *gareni*
POSS-3PLP-SG garden POSS-3PLP garden
'their garden' 'their gardens' [Torau]

b. *naning* *ba-ka-**na*** *danko* *naning*
man.SG 3SGP-POSS-SG spear man.SG
'the man's spear' 'the man's spears' [Nasioi]
*ba-ka-**ni*** *danko*
3SGP-POSS-PL spear

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Not In Our Own Voices: Accent and Identity in Contemporary Australian Shakespeare Performance

This is a cross-disciplinary study combining the methodologies and questions of Sociolinguistics and Performance practice. It explores the use, or lack of use, of Australian accents in contemporary Australian productions of Shakespeare's plays, and discusses the underlying implications of the findings.

The paper demonstrates that Standard British English (SBE) accents are still defaulted to as the norm for non-comic characters in contemporary Australian productions of Shakespeare's plays. Searching for any critical or analytical discussion of this in the literature on Australian drama and in drama criticism, very little mention of accent is found at all. Where accent is discussed, it is typically to note the apparent incongruousness or inappropriateness of an Australian accent in a Shakespeare production. There appears to be a prevalent belief that the Australian accent somehow inherently lacks tonal and acoustic qualities required to perform Shakespeare's heightened text.

The paper then presents the results of a study conducted to test this hypothesis, involving an acoustic analysis of actors performing the same piece of text in General Australian and Received Pronunciation. Claims of greater tonal range in RP as compared to GA are not supported by the data.

The paper then discusses all the findings to argue that, far from being a quaint historical hangover, it is actually detrimental to the development of an authentic Australian voice on the classical stage, and represents a persistence of the – probably unconscious – colonial attitude that Australians are not worthy of heightened dramatic language. SBE remains the default for Australian productions of Shakespeare, even where they are not ostensibly set among the English upper and upper-middle classes, the only people for whom SBE is a native accent. This is less often due to choice than an unconscious defaulting to SBE when Australians speak Shakespeare.

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Characterisation of the interface between the lexicon and syntax: the second language acquisition of a grammatical word by Jamaican learners of French

This presentation investigates the interface between syntax and the lexicon in the interlanguage grammar of learners of a foreign language, by analysing the development of a specific grammatical word - the French preposition "pour" (for, in order to) (Cadiot 1991) - in a longitudinal corpus of oral productions of nine Jamaican learners of French.

It is framed within the central minimalist assumption that lexical items are purely bundles of grammatical and semantic features, and that syntactic objects generated by the core computational system are nothing more than rearrangements of an initial array of lexical features (Chomsky 1995, 2000). Such an assumption has interesting consequences for second language acquisition as this process now reduces to the task of acquiring or resetting the values of the abstract morpho-syntactic features of functional categories, and discovering their language specific morpho-phonological realizations (van Hout 2003; Lardière 1998, 2000).

As Jamaica is characterised by a diglossic language situation (DeCamp 1971), this micro- study attempts to tear apart the respective influence of Jamaican Creole (JC) and Standard Jamaican English (SJE) in the acquisition process. I will argue that (some of) the properties of that preposition, notably when used as a non-finite complementizer such as the complement of adjectival predicates (hard, important, etc.), or the complement of desiderative verbs (want), as shown in (1) and (2), can be adequately accounted for by assuming a process of transfer of morpho-syntactic properties from the JC "fi" (Bailey 1966; Durrleman-Tame 2008; Winford 1985), that are crucially distinct in many respects from the corresponding SJE "for".

(1) a. *c' est très important* ****pour*** *(= de) apprendre une technique*
it is very important to learn a technique. (Peters 2009, p.103)

b. *i haad* ***fi*** *sel dem so.* (Bailey 1966, p.124)
it's hard to sell them so.

(2) a. *je ne désire pas* ****pour*** *(= 0) engager l'attention des autres étudiantes*
I do not wish to draw the attention of other students (Peters 2009, p.104)

b. *jan waan* ***fi*** *mek moni.* (Winford,1985, p.603)
John wants to make money.

Each learner at a time, I will examine how non-target uses are progressively eliminated in oral production and how learners' interlanguage grammars move towards the standard target language forms. The present study, therefore, answers White's (2003, 36) appeal "to probe quite intricate properties of the interlanguage representation, in order to understand the nature of the grammar that the learner creates to account for the L2."

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Post

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The rise, fall and maintenance of topographical deixis, from the Eastern Himalaya to Far North Queensland

"Topographical Deixis" refers to a distinct type of 3-term deictic system in which referents are located *upward of, downward from or on the same level as* a deictic centre. Such systems are, perhaps unsurprisingly, primarily found in languages spoken in mountainous environments, and can be manifest in several areas of the grammar and lexicon, including in demonstratives, locative postpositions, directional modifiers, and motion verbs. One particularly noteworthy feature of systems of topographical deixis is the types of transformations they can undergo when the context in which a language is spoken changes in some way which is salient to speakers and contributes to a shift in their patterns of environmental interaction. In the present paper, we will look at two strikingly parallel case studies of the maintenance and loss of systems of topographical deixis, in two genetically unrelated language groups whose contextual circumstances happened to develop in very similar ways: the Tani (Tibeto-Burman) dialects of the North East Indian Himalaya and the Dyirbal dialects of Far North Queensland.

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Multiple requests: A comparison of initial and subsequent request formulations in general practice consultations and facilitated workshops

Keywords: Institutional talk; conversation analysis; requests

There have been relatively few interactional studies of the design of turns in which requests are made. Recent conversation analytic studies of request turn design have focussed on a comparison of the different syntactic forms that speakers use to make requests in both everyday and institutional settings. These studies have argued that when making requests, the form a speaker chooses embodies the speaker's displayed orientation of their entitlement to make the request and have the request granted, and/or any contingencies associated with the granting of the request (Curl & Drew 2008; Heinemann, 2006). This is achieved not only through the form of the request, but also through elements internal and external to the clause in which the request is embedded, that serve to modify the request.

Rather than concentrating on the form of requests, we focus in this paper on multiple formulations of the same requests within their sequential environment. Using the methodology of conversation analysis, this paper compares initial and subsequent formulations (i.e., reformulations) of requests in two institutional settings, namely general practice consultations and facilitated workshops. We consider requests from the interlocutor with institutional authority in the interaction, that is, the doctors and facilitators. These are located in instructing sequences in which instructions are given to patients/participants for tasks to be performed either inside or outside of the interactional episode (i.e., "internal" versus "external" directives respectively; cf. Mulholland, 1994).

Multiple formulations of the one request occur either in the same turn (e.g., in a "formulating summary" (Button, 1991) that initiates the closure of an instructing sequence in a facilitated workshop), or in different turns (e.g., in a reformulation of treatment recommendations in a general practice consultation). While most subsequent request formulations are at the same level of directness or more direct than the initial formulations (and there may be a change from the use of a "contingent" to a "non-contingent" form), we will also report on cases in which subsequent request formulations are less direct than the initial formulation, particularly through the use of an isolated directive if-clause (e.g., "if you could..."; cf. Stirling, 1998). We will discuss the sequential and other interactional factors that appear to affect the form of initial versus subsequent requests.

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Rodríguez Louro & Kempas

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Perfect usage and change in two varieties of Argentinian Spanish

The present perfect (PP) originated in Vulgar Latin to express result (Harris 1982: 47; Bybee & Dahl 1989: 72) and has since evolved into a form capable of encoding present relevance or 'anteriority' (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994). In Peninsular Spanish the PP has grammaticalised into an encoder of hodiernal past, as shown in (1).

(1) Hoy me **he despertado** a las 9 y media (. . .) y **hemos desayunado** un café con leche con tostadas. (Barcelona 2008)
'Today I have woken up at 9.30 am (. . .) and we have had coffee with milk and toast.'

Argentinian Spanish has been placed at an early grammaticalisation stage with the PP expressing durative situations including the speech time (Kubarth 1992; Squartini & Bertinetto 2000: 413). However, Rodríguez Louro (2009; 2010) contests this position suggesting that in Argentinian River Plate Spanish the PP expresses indefinite past reference. On the other hand, Kempas (2006a; 2006b) establishes that the Spanish of the Argentinian northwest contrasts sharply with the River Plate variety, showing a pattern of grammaticalisation similar to that of Romance and Germanic languages and exhibiting a more advanced evolutionary process than that of Peninsular Spanish.

In this research, we study two varieties spoken within Argentina: Santiago del Estero Spanish in the northwest (ASES) and the River Plate dialect of Buenos Aires and surrounding areas (ARPS). Data from two questionnaires administered to 177 speakers of ASES and ARPS show opposing trends for these Argentinian varieties: while that the PP is frequent in ASES (43% (523/1210)), it is limited in ARPS (14% (305/2191)). We also establish that:

- **Prehesternal and hesternal contexts** (example 2a/b) show a preponderance of Preterit use in ARPS (86% (489/570) while – contrary to canonical usage – the PP is used often with specific temporal adverbs in ASES (at 26% (156/591)).

(2) a. No es nuevo, me lo **compré** el año pasado para mi cumpleaños. (ARPS 2006)
'It's not new, I bought it last year for my birthday.'

b. Anoche **he salido** con Juan y María. (ASES 2009)
'Last night I have gone out with Juan and Maria.'

- **Hodiernal and recent past contexts** (example 3a/b) favour the Preterit in ARPS (89% (649/732)), while the PP is preferred in ASES (59% (367/619)).

(3) a. ¡Argentina recién **ganó** el partido contra Brasil! (ARPS 2006)
'Argentina just won the game against Brazil!'

b. Hoy **he ido** a la universidad. (ASES 2009)
'Today I have gone to the university.'

- Speakers show disparate usage across genres (i.e. the questionnaire and naturalistic interaction) in ARPS and conflicting attitudes (i.e. endorsement of local versus national standard) regarding their use of the PP across functional domains in ASES.

We discuss the differing usage patterns noted across genres and dialects and observe the centrality of attitudinal positions in grammatical development. We conclude by pointing out the importance of dialectal studies in researching language change.

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Round

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Tone and Grammar in Akan

Ken Hale first brought the phonology of Lardil's uninflected nominals to linguists' attention in the 1960s and since then certain properties of the data have led it to occupy something of a privileged position, in a cannon of data sets against which new theoretical proposals tend to be tested. The founding treatise on Optimality Theory (OT; Prince & Smolensky 2004(1993)) for example includes a considered account of Lardil's uninflected nominals. So too does Goldsmith's (1993) proposal for Harmonic Phonology, Lakoff's (1993) for Cognitive Phonology, Kurisu's (2001) for Realisation Morphology Theory and two of McCarthy's (2003; 2007) significant revisions of OT. This talk reviews what is so special about Lardil and then introduces an extension to the classic data set of Hale (1973) which will likely make Lardil yet more challenging for formal theoretical accounts.

The property of Lardil which has provided such interest for phonologists over the past twenty years is a tension that exists between phonological processes which yield to a neat explanation in terms of a need for forms to obey surface phonotactic generalisations, and one process which flies directly in the face of them. For example, Consonant Truncation in (1b) and Augmentation in (2) act to 'repair' forms which end in an illicit segment such as /p/ or which contain just one vowel mora, but Vowel Truncation in (1a) flagrantly generates final consonants like /p/, which are permitted neither in underlying forms nor in surface forms.

(1)		Underlying form	/jukarpa/
	a.	Vowel truncation	/jukarp/
	b.	Cons. truncation	/jukar/
			yukarr 'husband'
(2)		Underlying form	/jak/
		Augmentation	/jaka/
			yaka 'fish'

Formal phonological theorising of the past three decades has been greatly concerned with the possibility of deriving phonological processes partly or purely in terms of pressures that emanate from surface phonotactic generalisations. Lardil presents a particularly nice conundrum, because Vowel Truncation acts as if it were immune to such pressures. The Lardil data highlighted in the present paper put a new twist on an old problem.

First I introduce a small set of words which violate one of the key surface phonotactic generalisations which have been assumed to drive 'well behaved' processes like (1b), making those processes harder to account for. I then introduce a much

larger set which defies (1a), and which presents obstacles for accounts that seek to 'force' forms to undergo it.

Finally I consider issues of productivity. Processes like (1a,b) are active in Lardil and have been applied to loan words from English for example. Nevertheless, some of the challenging data identified in this talk can be shown to pre-date the diachronic emergence of modern Lardil processes such as (1a). Lardil thus has a long-established dual system of productive phonology, and any synchronic analysis will need to account for it all.

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Schalley

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A computational toolset for collaborative typological research

Linguists traditionally have published their research in book and paper publications. However, advances in technology enable new innovative electronic dissemination paths, coupled with an immediate reuse potential and electronic availability of both the data and its analysis.

In this paper, a new toolset will be presented which is being developed as part of the ARC Discovery project "Social cognition and language: the design resources of grammatical diversity". It is specifically tailored to typological work carried out by a group of researchers, and will be freely available once successfully tested and deployed in the social cognition project. One aim has been to develop a toolset that meets the needs of linguists both in terms of data entry (interlinear glosses) as well as in terms of searching/querying and reporting on the scientific information collated. Another aim has been to design a system that facilitates collaboration and allows multi-user contributions, including automatic integration of research results submitted at different stages in the project by different contributors.

For this toolset, a number of third-party open-source software solutions have been integrated, with only a limited number of specialised components created from scratch. The toolset's features include (with some yet to be fully implemented):

a. linguistic data entry via interlinear glosses that are parsed on the basis of the Leipzig Glossing Rules (with some additions as necessary for computational processing)

b. flexible querying and reporting, allowing for different research foci

c. an underlying ontology (network of cross-connected terms and concepts) as backbone structure, holding in the case of the social cognition project:

    1. linguistic data (linguistic examples, including potentially revisions of their analysis and annotations)
    2. analysis of the linguistic data according to the research focus (such as in our project the grammatically coded social cognition concepts)
    3. cross-linguistic structural information (grammatical coding – form and function)
    4. information on the language (family, size, vitality, typology)
    5. information on the geographic region (linguistic, political)
    6. information on the society (economy, religion, tradition)

7. information on source of the data (fieldwork, literature)

d. handling of multiple contributors – automatic integration of newly contributed material as far as possible – provided by server component, also enabling web-based access to the ontology, querying and reporting

e. suitability for offline work (e.g. in fieldwork situations), with data collated during offline work ready for contribution without additional effort

In addition to presenting this tool in its current stage of development and showing which research questions it is expected to be able to answer, I will briefly position it with regards to related software projects. Initial results of the project's data-driven approach to systematizing linguistically relevant social cognition concepts will be presented. I will also address why an ontology has been selected as backbone structure.

Sibly

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Stroke, caress and fondle: the language of love?

In the proposed paper, I will discuss the semantic structure of English verbs of physical contact. Contact verbs make up the largest of 15 core verb groups in Princeton University's lexical database of English (WordNet) and they are highly salient in everyday speech and writing. I will show that they share a common meaning structure, based on 'intention', 'manner', 'impact' and 'effect', which marks them as a coherent semantic class. I will focus mainly on three verbs denoting moving contact: *stroke*, *caress* and *fondle*. Corpus data has been used to identify the everyday patterns of each verb's use and the analysis and discussion will focus on the syntactic and semantic implications of these patterns; attention will also be given to social and historical factors that have influenced the way people think about the actions described by the verbs. The prototypical meaning of each verb will be identified, and will be explicated using the Natural Semantic Metalanguage (NSM). NSM uses reductive paraphrase to describe meanings in terms of universal prime concepts, allowing valid comparison of each individual meaning.

While "the big three" verbs *hit, beat* and *strike* (and their figurative extensions) are the most frequently used contact verbs in everyday speech and writing, English has many finely-nuanced verbs describing specific forms of contact. *Stroke, caress* and *fondle* are three of these, although dictionaries tend to treat them as (near) synonyms. As with other verbs in the class, their prototypical senses are all strongly grounded in the well-accepted semantic concepts of 'motion' and 'contact', expressed by the NSM primes MOVE and TOUCH. Nevertheless, I will provide evidence to show that each fills a specialized niche in the contact verb repertoire and that contemporary uses have emerged from a continuous process of lexical change and adaptation.

Simpson

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Word order, information structure, grammatical function and voice in Karo Batak

In Karo Batak[1], a Western Austronesian language of north Sumatra (Woollams 1996; Norwood 2001), word order in clauses differs markedly according to predicator type, including Agentive Voice (AV) (Woollams' 'Active', ex. 1,3a) (expressed by a prefix N or a causative marker), a passive (prefix *i-* or *ter-*Woollams' PASS, ex 3b), verbs with pronominal affixes (2a, 2b), unmarked verbs and non-verbal predicators. Notably, agents in passive and Objective Voice (OV) clauses are expressed as bare noun phrases, not as PPs (3b).

(1) AV

Aku ng.idah.sa ia ngisap
I ACT.see.PERF he smoke
I saw him smoking. Woollams 8.114a

(2) a. Pronoun (OV/Passive)

Ku.idah ia ngisap
I.see he smoke
I saw him smoking. Woollams 8.114b

b. Pronoun (3rdS)

idah.na biang
see.he dog
He saw a dog. Woollams 6.34

(3) a. AV

Bapa ngerdangken juma
Father ACT.sow field
Father was sowing the field. Woollams 3.2

b. Passive

Bagém juma ierdangken bapa
thus.EM.PH field PASS.sow father
In this way the field was sown by Father. Woollams 3.4

[1] Data comes from Woollams and Norwood, and some work with consultants.

Why should the majority of transitive clauses be headed by OV or passive verbs? This can be understood by reexamining the functions of AV and OV with respect to information structure. We propose that, aside from left and right dislocation, two positions specifically relate to information structure. Schematically:

(4)	XP	Z	NP
	+discourse prominent	Predicator	-discourse prominent

Clauses headed by intransitive verbs occur in both P S and S P order; P S is more common if there is no complement. Indefinite non-referential complements directly follow the verb, in the position of least discourse prominence, and the Subject may precede the verb or follow the complement. Thus the Subject may appear initially if it is being emphasised.

Transitive clauses headed by AV verbs normally have the order Agent Predicator Undergoer, although P U A is possible. Agentive voice gives extra prominence to the Agent (obligatorily if A is a WH pronoun or a demonstrative), and downplays the Undergoer, (e.g. indefinite objects). Clauses headed by OV or passive verbs normally have the order P A U, which suggests that there is no discourse emphasis on any participant. The Agent is not discourse-prominent (continuing topic, or indefinite). When the Undergoer is emphasised, it is normally fronted, giving the U P A order. However, a number of clauses headed by OV verbs have an Agent but no overt Undergoer or else one expressed as a prepositional phrase.

Thus, what unites AV and OV clauses is that they downplay different elements, rather than make elements prominent. AV downplays the Undergoer, while OV and Passive downplay the Agent. In turn this has consequences for discourse. Much narrative is carried forward by descriptions of actions by actors. If Agents are continuing topics in Karo Batak, then they will most often be pronouns attached to passive or OV verbs. This then accounts for the high frequency of passive and OV verbs in narrative.

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Sullivan

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Bright thinkers and dim bulbs: Experimental evidence that intelligence is metaphorically understood as brightness

Recent studies indicate that metaphoric correlations between domains have conceptual as well as linguistic effects. For example, the metaphoric correspondence between temperature and friendliness is not limited to linguistic expressions such as *icy stare* or *warm reception*, but also causes subjects to give lower estimates of room temperature following the recollection of a negative social experience, and encourages subjects to prefer a hot drink over a cold one after a simulated experience of social exclusion (Zhong & Leonardelli *in press*). Likewise, the correspondence between verticality and control appears in expressions such as *high status* or *he's under my supervision*, but also allows related word-pairs to be recognized more quickly when the more powerful member of the pair is presented above the less powerful member (for example, *captain* above *soldier*, or the name of a dominant character in a story above the name of a submissive character; Soriano & Valenzuela 2009). Similarly, the correspondence between importance and size is found not only in expressions such as *a big event* or *huge significance*, but also in our evaluation of the importance of concepts such as "passion" or "fidelity" depending on the font size in which these are written (Valenzuela & Soriano 2008).

The current study looks at the metaphoric correspondence between intelligence and the emission of light, which is theorized to underlie expressions such as *bright thinker* and *dim student*. In this study, subjects view a series of photographs of faces in which the backgrounds have been digitally lightened or darkened, though the faces themselves remain identical. Each subject sees a light and a dark version of each photo. The faces are randomized, but the two versions of each face never appear one after the other. Subjects rate how "intelligent" the person in each photograph appears, on a scale from 1 to 7. As predicted by the theorized metaphoric correspondence between intelligence and light-emission, subjects rate the intelligence of people with lightened backgrounds higher than they rate the same faces when they appear against darkened backgrounds. The people who appear surrounded by light seem "brighter", i.e., more intelligent.

This study adds to a growing body of work supporting the conceptual status of metaphor. Although the faces in this study are not described using metaphoric words such as *bright*, *brilliant* or *dim*, the level of light surrounding the faces nevertheless influences subjects' perception of the portrayed people's intelligence. The fact that a visual stimulus can affect the evaluation of intelligence, in the absence of metaphoric language, supports the hypothesis that metaphors are conceptual structures as well as linguistic phenomena.

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EOPAS - streaming linguistic data arising from fieldwork

EOPAS is a project based at Melbourne University that aims to provide an open-source framework for delivery of media linked to interlinear glossed text, allowing performances (in the form of linguistic narration, singing and so on) to be made more generally available than they currently are. While the content of the media to be delivered is scholarly research, the method employed is one that is already being developed for significant data sets elsewhere in the world (e.g., metavid.org), and the users are likely to be both scholars and the general community who have an interest in the diversity of the world's languages. With the development of HTML5 and the availability of the free and open-source media servers, we are seeing the possible uses of broadband-enabled media (audio and video) increase exponentially. In this talk I will demonstrate the working model and outline the workflow that can be used to add textual material to an EOPAS server.

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Travis & Torres Cacoullos

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The interaction of general and local patterns in discourse: Pitch accented *I*

The function of pitch accent in discourse is typically understood to be one of marking salient information, that is, information that is either new or contrastive (Chafe 1994; Wennerstrom 2001, inter alia). This would suggest that for first or second person pronouns (which represent given information), the primary motivation for pitch accent would be contrast, as illustrated in (1). In spontaneous conversational English, however, pronouns are commonly pitch accented when there is no notion of contrast evident, as in (2). (**I* indicates a pitch accented *I*).

(1) JOANNE: .. (H) I wanna go.
KEN: ***I'd*** like to go also, (SBCSAE Deadly Diseases)

(2) TAMMY: (H) Let me ask you one other thing.
.. Suppose that, (H) ***I*** wanna use this tape deck,
to record, ... um=, .. conversation=. (SBCSAE Tape Deck)

In this study, we present an empirical analysis of the linguistic conditioning of pitch accent on first person singular subject pronouns (*I*), based on distribution and co-occurrence patterns in American English conversation. We compare this directly with the patterning of first-person singular subject (*yo*) expression in Spanish (Torres Cacoullos and Travis Forthcoming; Travis 2007), which has been considered to be equivalent to that of pitch accented *I* in English (e.g. Otheguy 2004; Payne 1997).

Analysis of 3,000 tokens of *I* extracted from the Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English (Du Bois inter alia 2000, 2003, 2004, 2005) reveals that pitch accent shows some similarities and some differences with Spanish subject expression. *I* is pitch accented approximately one quarter of the time, while *yo* has been found to be expressed at a rate between 25 and 50% in Spanish, suggesting that both pitch accented *I* and expressed *yo* are the more marked forms. Both pitch accented *I* and expressed *yo* are favored in contexts where they are not coreferential with the subject of the preceding clause. Particularly intriguing is our finding that both pitch accented *I* and expressed *yo* are subject to lexical effects, with *I* rarely being pitch accented in collocations such as *I mean* and *I guess*, and accented significantly more than the average in *I (don't) know* and *I see*. For Spanish, we find *yo* showing very high rates of expression in collocations such as *yo creo* 'I think' and, like English, *yo (no) sé* 'I (don't) know'. And finally, both pitch accented *I* and expressed *yo* are subject to a structural priming effect, whereby each is favored in the environment where the preceding coreferential subject

was realized in the same way (either pitch accented or expressed). In this way, the general notion of contrast appears to interact with particular collocations as well as the local, on-line process of priming. It is the confluence of these factors that can offer the best account of pitch accents on *I*.

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Switch-reference in Kambaata and other Ethiopian languages

Kambaata is a Cushitic (Afro-Asiatic) language of South Ethiopia, which distinguishes between fully finite main clause verbs and less finite medial clause verbs; clauses are chained into paragraph-like units much like in Papuan languages. The less finite medial clause verbs are usually called "converbs" in African studies (Azeb Amha & Dimmendaal 2006). In Kambaata, converbs are marked, among other things, for switch-reference. The different subject-suffix *-yan* (DS) signals subject change between a converb clause and a subsequent clause on the same syntactic level; same subject-clauses are unmarked (PCO = perfective converb, ICO = imperfective converb):

kazammáan-u *lokk-a-kkí* *zuru'mm-áta* *ág-g*
this.year-M.OBL foot-F.GEN-2SG.POSS toe-F.ACC drink-2SG.PCO
dimb-ít *ub-b* *birqiiqq-itáni-**yan***
become.drunk-2SG.PCO fall-2SG.PCO toss.turn.on.ground-2SG.ICO-**DS**
gotíichch-u(...) *múrri-**yan*** *maakiim-í* *min-éen*
hyena-M.NOM cut.3M.PCO-**DS** doctor-M.GEN house-M.LOC
fayy-itéent
become.healthy-2SG.PVE

`(Earlier) this year, (when) you drank (alcohol), became drunk, fell down, tossed and turned on the ground (unconscious) (**DS**→), a hyena bit off (one of) your toe(s) (**DS**→) and you were treated (lit. became healthy) in the hospital.'

Switch-reference marking is very uncommon in African languages. Apart from some Bantu languages in Cameroon (Wiesemann 1982), only Omotic (Afro-Asiatic) languages and one Cushitic language in Ethiopia, Hadiyya, are so far known to have grammaticalised switch-reference marking.

Based on data from recorded and written texts, this paper will show that switch-reference marking is a very important grammatical feature of Kambaata. I will analyse in detail in which clause types switch-reference marking is obligatory and when switch-reference marking is suspended (e.g. in negative clauses or when subjects of adjacent clauses are in a part-whole relationship; switch-reference marking also skips over intervening clauses on a different syntactic level). Apart from converbs, purposive verbs are sensitive to subject change in Kambaata. The grammatical devices to mark subject change on purposive verbs, however, are different from that of converbs.

The Kambaata switch-reference system will be compared with that of Hadiyya (Sim 1989), that of geographically adjacent but genetically distant Omotic languages, e.g. Maale (Azeb Amha 2001), Wolaitta (Azeb Amha & Dimmendaal

2006) and Baskeet (own field notes), and that of other switch-reference marking languages discussed in the literature (e.g. Stirling 1993). I will argue that switch-reference marking in Kambaata (and Hadiyya) **converb** clauses is a contact-induced phenomenon and the result of a fairly recent grammaticalisation process triggered by neighbouring Omotic languages. Marking of subject change or continuity in **purposive** clauses, however, is shown to be widely attested all over Cushitic and thus considered to be an inherited feature of Kambaata.

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The Irish language in Australia: socio-cultural identity in diasporic minority language use

Keywords: language endangerment, language and identity, language attitudes, Irish, diaspora

This paper reports on research conducted within the Irish language community in Australia on constructions of socio-cultural identity among those learning and using the language. This study forms part of a broader research project aiming to provide a synchronic account of identity in Irish language learning and usage in Ireland and the Irish diaspora.

Many studies have addressed the current vitality of Irish as a minority language within Ireland (e.g. Ó Flatharta et al. 2009, Ó Giollagáin et al. 2007, O Néill 2005), however research on the status of Irish in the Irish diaspora is relatively scarce. It is estimated that 70 million people around the globe can claim Irish heritage and, while Irish ancestry may be distant for many, the Irish language is active in numerous communities, as documented in some limited research (e.g. Ihde 1994) and evidenced by the existence of numerous cultural and language groups. Data from the last two Australian censuses show a slight increase in Irish speaker numbers from 828 in 2001 to 918 in 2006, but the status of Irish in Australia is similar to the situation Ihde noted in the U.S., that is to say characterised by small pockets of native speakers that will vanish unless replenished by new immigration, and also by larger groups of language learners who in general will not reach a high level of Irish language competence.

The current study investigates the role of the Irish language in the construction of diasporic identity, as well as reporting on the role of diasporic language use in revitalisation efforts in Ireland. Research is conducted primarily through questionnaire-based interviews with learners and users of the Irish language in Australia, where information is elicited regarding informants' demographic, Irish language use, language attitudes, ethno-cultural activities, ancestry/migration history and personal identification, as well as the motivating factors in their language use. Identity in this study is viewed as a dynamic and emergent social construction, which relies on the negation and negotiation of the 'other' (Woodward 2002, Bucholtz and Hall 2005) and which, within the context of the diaspora, is subject to "necessary heterogeneity and diversity" (Hall 1993: 401) and heightened contingency, indeterminacy and conflict (Gilroy 1997). Ager's (2001) model of motivation in language planning, with components of motives, attitudes and goals/needs, provides a framework for accounting for motivating factors in language use.

Results demonstrate that established narratives and discourse within the Irish diaspora that tend to privilege the migrant, and especially the Irish-speaking migrant, as white, Catholic, nationalist, straight and working-class may not reflect the reality of the demographic, and that prevalent notions of diasporic nostalgia, with attendant phases of nationalism and the fetishising and repeating of the past do not provide a complete account of factors in Irish language use. Comparisons are drawn between identity constructs identified in this study and those established in other surveys conducted in Ireland and key areas of the Irish diaspora (Boston, U.S.A.; Newfoundland, Canada).

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Atypical deontic and evaluative meanings in Dutch complement insubordination

The aim of this paper is to analyse the form and meaning of complement insubordination in Dutch. Insubordination (Evans 2007) refers to constructions that contain markers typically associated with subordination, but that function as independent clauses. A Dutch example is (1), which uses a subordinator (*dat*) and has the verb-final word order typical of subordinate constructions, but otherwise functions as an independent clause.

(1) *Dat ze nog lang mog-en leven.*
that they prt long pot.prs.pl-pl live.inf
'May they live long!'

In this paper, we will focus on insubordination with the complementizer *dat*, and we will investigate the relation between its forms and meanings. We will show that the range of meanings expressed by such constructions is in the domains of deontic modality and evaluation, with very specific semantic values that are quite different from 'core' deontic or evaluative markers like modal verbs or adjectives.

Deontic types of complement insubordination, illustrated in (1), (2) and (3) can range from mediated orders (2) to wishes (1) and threats (3). These types show interesting variation in the role of the addressee in deontic expressions, which can be directly involved as the target of the threat, as in (3), indirectly involved as an intermediary for an order directed to a third person, as in (2), or not directly involved at all, as in (1). These distinctions correlate with specific formal choices in the constructions, like the use of event-initiating expressions in threats like (3), or the use of potential markers in wishes like (1).

(2) *Dat ze ze gerust meebreng-en.*
that they them just bring.prs-pl
'They should feel free to bring them along.'

(3) *Dat ze eens durv-en weg te lopen.*
that they prt dare-pl away to run.inf
'They shouldn't even dare to run away / They shouldn't even think of running away!'

Non-deontic types of complement insubordination, illustrated in (4) and (5), can range from expressions of critical opinion (4) to indignant exclamations (5). Again,

these types correlate with specific formal choices, like the use of the modal particle *maar* in (4) and the use of *even*-type scalar particles in (5). We will also show that there are constructions which share deontic and non-deontic features, like (6), where the verb of cognition following *dat* is semantically bleached relative to the expression of opinion. These constructions may form an intermediate type between the deontic and the non-deontic types, specifically types like (4).

(4) *Dat ze maar iemand anders stur-en.*
that they prt someone else send-pl
'They should just send someone else.'

(5) *Dat ze er zelfs aan denk-en vroeger te vertrekken!*
that they it.prep even on think .prs-pl earlier to
leave.inf
'I really can't understand that they are thinking of leaving earlier!'

(6) *Dat je maar niet denk-t dat ik het ga opgeven.*
that you prt not think.prs-sg that I it go.prs.1sg give.up.inf
'You shouldn't think I am going to give it up!'

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A Language with Only One Vowel? – The Vowel System of Buwal: A Central Chadic Language of Cameroon

Buwal is a Central Chadic language spoken by around 5000-10000 people in the Extreme North Province of Cameroon, West Africa. A number of Central Chadic languages could be analysed as having only one or two contrastive vowels. Buwal is no exception. Like many Central Chadic languages Buwal has a large inventory of consonant phonemes, having thirty-eight. These include voiced and voiceless plosives and fricatives, prenasalised plosives and nasals in the bilabial, alveolar, velar and labialised velar places of articulation. Unusual consonants cross-linguistically, although commonly found in languages of the area, include the voiced and voiceless alveolar lateral fricatives, the bilabial and alveolar implosives and labial-velar plosives.

Due to the high number of consonant phonemes, the contrastive role played by vowels is greatly minimised. This paper will argue that Buwal could be analysed as having the one vowel phoneme /ɑ/. This vowel has a number of surface realisations due to the effect of a palatalisation prosody which applies at the word level and local labialisation effects from labialised velar consonants.

Other surface vowels arise from the presence of an epenthetic schwa which is inserted between consonants and whose quality in the majority of cases is also modified by palatalisation and labialisation effects. Schwa insertion is a continuum ranging from non-existent or very brief to relatively clear, although always shorter than the full vowel phoneme /ɑ/. The location and the duration of the schwa are predictable from place and manner of the adjacent consonants, and from syllable structure. For example, in word medial heterosyllabic consonant clusters a schwa is never inserted between consonants of falling sonority. Where there is a rising sonority in such clusters a schwa is usually inserted except in particular cases such as where an obstruent is followed by a liquid. These types of clusters are also allowed word initially and could be considered as complex onsets. The function of schwa insertion is at times to aid in the perception of adjacent consonants and at other times to repair structures which are cross-linguistically marked.

The present findings will be compared with results from other central Chadic languages, which have also been argued to have a single vowel; and also from other languages which have been argued to have only two vowels (e.g. Arrernte, Kabardian and Marshallese) and epenthetic vowels (e.g. Kalam and Tashlhiyt Berber). The findings will also be discussed with relation to Hall's (2006) distinction between intrusive and epenthetic vowels, which concerns the broadly phonetic vs. phonological nature of vowel insertion.

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Voices from the north: Asian influences in Australian languages

It has been known for quite some time that there have been linguistic connections between Asia and Aboriginal Australia (e.g. Urry & Walsh 1981). In some instances the recognition of such input is quite obvious e.g. a word from "Macassan" appearing in some of the Yolngu matha varieties of northeast Arnhem Land: *rrupiya* 'money'. But documenting the lexical input from Asian languages has often been difficult because of the need to know a range of languages from a particular region in Asia as well as a range of languages from a particular region in Aboriginal Australia. In combining knowledge of Austronesian as well as Yolngu matha varieties of northeast Arnhem Land Walker and Zorc (1981) extended our awareness of Asian influence while Hosokawa (1987) used his knowledge of languages of the Broome area and Japanese to provide a richer account of Asian contact in that area.

In this paper I want to explore the many other sites in Aboriginal Australia with potential for ingestion of Asian language material, for instance, Japanese at the northern tip of Cape York, and, so-called "Afghans" in remote parts of South Australia. In addition, I would like to suggest a method that would at least partially automate the process of recognizing cognates from Asian languages that have passed into Australian languages.

More broadly it is worth considering what cultural and discursive effects may have resulted from Asian influences. These have been underestimated despite Asian contact sometimes having started earlier and having been more intense.

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High frequency contrastive connectors in English and Chinese: A genre-based comparative study

Keywords: contrastive connector study, connectives in English and Chinese, corpus-based connective study, usage-based language study

This paper is part of my on-going Ph. D research which compares the contrastive connectors in English and Chinese. It aims to examine eleven most frequent contrastive connectors in four genres of these two languages, whose usage covers more than 85% of the total contrastive connector usage in them. It explores the genre-related usage characteristics of these connectors by analysing random samples from the BNC (a large English corpus), containing 8820 actual usages of these connectors, and all the relevant samples from a smaller Chinese corpus (formed from LCMC and LLSCC), containing 3801 such usages. The four genres are spoken conversation, academic prose, newspapers, and fiction, frequently encountered in modern English and Chinese. A comparison of their usage is made based on detailed sample analysis regarding (1) their frequency and coverage, (2) their simple use vs. correlative /complex use (Biber et al 1999), (3) the clause order of the concessive structures, (4) their positioning and functions, and (5) the polysemous nature of some of them and genre preference by convention.

The findings to be reported suggest that the usage of these high-frequency contrastive connectors is genre-sensitive in both languages. While there are similarities in their usage, differences more often prevail, regarding especially in what meaning(s) a connector is used, what part of speech (POS) it plays, in what syntactic patterns it occurs, what positions it can take in a sentence or utterance, and what collocations it tends to form in a particular genre.

It reveals—in terms of similarity—that in both languages the overall frequencies of these connectors are genre-related, that fewer such connectors are used in conversation than in written genres, that sentence- medial position is the most frequent in written genres, that some of them can take the second initial position in the sentence with a double function: highlighting the initial element, especially the subject or adverbial, and signalling a contrast (Altenberg, 2002, 2006), and that their varied positioning seems to be related to the subtly different emphatic power they have. It also reveals—in terms of difference—that more such connectors are used in the four genres of English than in Chinese (the former is 1.4 times as much as the latter, which seems to be an evidence to support the claim of the explicitness of English and the implicitness of Chinese (Pan, 2004, Wang 2004, Cao, 1994)), that in English these connectors are dominated by but whose usage covers 65%, while in Chinese four of them, one in each genre, collectively total 65%, that English contrastive connectors tend to be used alone, while the Chinese ones tend to be used correlatively, that concessive sentences tend to differ in syntactic structure in these two languages, and that the positioning of these connectors in English sentences seems to be more flexible than in Chinese. Authentic examples will be provided in the full paper to illustrate and support the main findings, hopefully to deepen our understanding of this aspect in English and Chinese.

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Walmajarri's Split-Wackernagel Clitic System

McConvell (1996) introduced the term *Split-Wackernagel* for clitic systems where cliticisation can have multiple hosts. Many languages could be argued to have Split-Wackernagel clitic systems, but it is an especially notable feature of the Ngumpin group. In the Ngumpin group the dominant clitic host is the auxiliary, a distinct word, also called a *catalyst* or *base*. But there are alternatives: the host can be a verb, or regular second position cliticisation can occur. Looking at several languages McConvell showed that both syntactic and discourse-pragmatic factors are involved in these clitic system splits.

Walmajarri is a language of the Ngumpin group, whose grammar was documented by Hudson (1978). She described a mood system, where the auxiliary root morpheme, the verb tense system and the presence of a negative word combine to indicate the clause's mood. For two of these moods (imperative, hortative) there is no auxiliary root, and instead the auxiliary suffixes attach onto the clause's verb. Verb-less clauses also occur, often with the auxiliary. According to Hudson these are the only factors involved in Walmajarri's clitic system – no pragmatic factors are involved.

The data which Hudson used to describe the moods seems to be largely artifically constructed, using a few common verbs (*go* and *sick*) to illustrate each mood. The examples also appear in isolation, making discourse-pragmatic analysis difficult. But the corpus of narrative texts from Hudson & Richards (1976) show a much more complex story. Most surprising, clitics are seen attached to nouns. This evidence of traditional second position cliticisation proves the need for a reanalysis of the Walmajarri clitic system, while studying narratives makes discourse-pragmatic analysis possible.

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Two functional conceptions of grammar and lexicon

In this paper, I want to contrast two functional conceptions of language, focusing on the relationship between the grammar and the lexicon in each. Both were present in the original London school of linguistics, although only one has subsequently been developed into a linguistic theory, Halliday's systemic functional grammar, the other, Malinowski's, is perhaps more representative of views within the social sciences. This contrast also turns on that between two senses of the term `functional,' a weaker sense in which the grammar of a language is explained in terms of its meaning in a general sense, in terms of what lies outside as well as within language, and a, not unrelated, stronger or more pragmatic sense, which emphasizes specifically the importance of the purposes or intentions of language users and the need to coordinate them.

One of Halliday's most important achievements has been to generalize the paradigmatic holism, also to be found in Word-and-Paradigm (WP) morphology's prioritization of the word-form over the morph, to the level of the clause within a grammar. As in WP morphology, for Halliday, cumulative exponence (of multiple meanings by single forms) assumes a crucial importance in the grammar of a language because it allows speakers to mean more than one thing at a time when speaking.

This cumulative exponence is also clearly relevant to a functional account in the stronger pragmatic or teleological sense because it represents some measure of the potential economy and so efficiency of communication. Halliday has, however, been reluctant to develop this more pragmatic line of explanation. Instead, he has developed a holistic or paradigmatic functionalism which organizes grammatical functions into broader paradigmatic groupings called metafunctions which are distanced from the purposes or intentions of individual users.

The risk is that, while able to address certain complex forms of exponence, Halliday's paradigmatic form of holism is, nonetheless, essentially static. What I want to argue is that Malinowski's more pragmatically, and so dynamically, functional conception of language and its successors, which have been developed largely outside of linguistics, provides the more plausible conception of the role of grammar in relation to the lexicon because they are more able to motivate such relationships as concerned with coordination. This conception also suggests the possibility of further sources of cumulative exponence arising from alignments between the grammar and the lexicon which Halliday does not exploit.

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'Give Me Authenticity or Give Me Death!'???: Challenging the Imprisoning Purism Prism and Endorsing Hybridity and Multiple Causation in Aboriginal Language Reclamation

I must study politics and war that my sons may have liberty to study mathematics and philosophy. My sons ought to study mathematics and philosophy, geography, natural history, naval architecture, navigation, commerce, and agriculture, in order to give their children a right to study painting, poetry, music, architecture, statuary, tapestry, and porcelain.

(John Adams, 1735–1826, second president of the United States)

The main aim of this paper is to apply some perspicacious lessons applicable from the relatively successful Hebrew revival to the reclamation, maintenance and empowerment of Aboriginal languages and cultures. 'Language is power; let us have ours', wrote Aboriginal politician Aden Ridgeway on 26 November 2009 in the Sydney Morning Herald. Previous revival efforts have largely failed because they were not supported by a sound theoretical understanding of how successful language revival works. As pointed out by Thieberger (2002), decisions about the appropriate target for language maintenance programmes are too often driven by structural linguistics, where the supposed ideal is intergenerational transmission of the language with all its original structural complexity retained.

This paper will innovatively draw crucial insights from 'Modern Hebrew' (henceforth, Israeli – see Zuckermann 1999), so far the most successful known revival attempt of a sleeping tongue. Zuckermann's (2003, 2008a, 2009, 2010a-b) research on Israeli demonstrates which language components are more revivable than others. Words and conjugations, for example, are easier to revitalize than intonation, discourse, associations and connotations. Most importantly, **we should encourage revivalists and Aboriginal leaders to be realistic rather than puristic, and not to chastise English loanwords and pronunciation, for example, within the emergent language** (cf. Zuckermann 2008b).

Hebrew revivalists, who wished to speak pure Hebrew, failed in their imprisoning purism prism, the result being a multifaceted and fascinating fin-de-siècle Israeli language, both multi-layered and multi-sourced. This is of great relevance to Aboriginal language revival, in which various interest groups get hung up on slogans akin to 'Give me authenticity or give me death!', where the death, of course, ends up being the Indigenous language they wish to save from contamination.

Applying such precious conclusions from Hebrew will thus assist Australian revivalists in being more efficient, urging them not to waste time and resources on Sisyphean efforts to resuscitate linguistic components that are unlikely to be revivable.

While the results the endeavors we are proposing here have considerable value as a research enterprise, one can also consider them in terms of a cost-benefit analysis (Mühlhäusler & Damania 2004, Walsh 2008): Language revitalization contributes to social reconciliation, cultural tourism (Clark & Kostanski 2005), capacity building, and improved community health for Indigenous peoples (Walsh forthcoming B). In the process of language revival, many Aboriginal people will go from being dysfunctional to well-balanced, positive people. The benefits to the wider community and to Australian society are immense.

Reversing language shift (RLS) (Fishman 1991, 2001, Hagège 2009, Evans 2010, Walsh 2005, Zuckermann 2010a) is thus of great social benefit. Language revival does not only do historical justice but can also result in the empowerment of people who have lost their heritage and purpose in life. Some Aboriginal people distinguish between usership and ownership. There are even those who claim that they own a language although they only know one single word of it: its name. Consequently, some Indigenous Australians do not find it important to revive their comatose tongue. We, on the other hand, have always believed in Australia's very own roadside dictum: 'Stop, revive, survive!'

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