GLAC-25

The Twenty-Fifth Germanic Linguistics Annual Conference

May 3–4, 2019

Iowa Memorial Union, Old Capitol Museum,
& Stanley Café-Hancher Auditorium

The University of Iowa
Iowa City, IA

GLAC is the annual conference of the Society for Germanic Linguistics.
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Conference Organizers:
- Sarah Fagan - Department of German, Department of Linguistics
- Bruce Nottingham-Spencer - Department of German

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- Department of Linguistics, University of Iowa
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- International Programs, University of Iowa
- The Stanley-University of Iowa Foundation Support Organization
- Max Kade Foundation

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- Elena Gavrusa
- Becky Gonzalez
- Samuel Jambrović
- Kirsten Kumpf Baele
- Beth Mellinger
- Merry Powell
- Jorge Ramos
- Jerzy Rubach
- Christine Shea
- Rebecca Tritten
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<td>9:00-3:00</td>
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<td>Valéria Molnár</td>
<td>The passive in the Germanic and Finno-Ugric languages – a typological and historical approach</td>
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<td>Joshua Bousquettes</td>
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<td>Carlee Arnett &amp; Ferran Suñer</td>
<td>How can concept-based approaches to grammar be made more accessible to L2 learners?</td>
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<td>Brian Wilt</td>
<td>Poetic periphrastic verbal forms: An analysis of the <em>Innsbrucker Osterspiel</em></td>
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<td>Andreas Jäger</td>
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<td>See list of nearby restaurants at back of program</td>
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### Coffee Break

Big Ten Lobby (Third Floor, IMU)

### Session 9

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How can concept-based approaches to grammar be made more accessible to L2 learners?

Carlee Arnett, University of California, Davis
Ferran Suñer, Université Catholique de Louvain

Concept-based approaches to grammar teaching generally adopt the cognitive linguistic view of language and presents grammar as a conceptually motivated system that is rooted in embodied experiences (e.g. force, dynamics, space, etc.) and other principles of human perception (figure-ground). Although the potential benefits of concept-based explanations for the visualization of grammatical principles in the context of foreign language teaching has been amply described, empirical classroom-based research so far has not been conclusive about their pedagogical added value, especially when compared to form-based approaches (cf. Niemeier 2017). In this vein, previous studies suggest that considerable attention must be paid to many other factors affecting the successful implementation of such concept-based approaches in the classroom: On the one hand, concept-based explanations need a presentation mode that allows for an adequate illustration of the embodied nature of grammar and brings the learners’ attention to the relevant aspects of the material (e.g. multi-media animations, cf. Roche & Suñer 2016). On the other hand, the presentation of such concept-based explanations should be supplied by learning activities that adequately foster conceptualization processes as well as the internalization of functional meanings (Williams et al. 2011, Lantolf 2007). In fact, the solely exposure to cognitive linguistic notions does not automatically make learners actively engage in a process of meaningful learning and develop the respective conceptual categories (Tyler et al. 2011).

Consequently, the present paper reports on a study which aims to investigate the usefulness of multimedia animations and the potential of learning activities based on sociocultural theory (Lantolf 2007) to leverage a concept-based approach to teaching the German passive. To this end, forty-nine first-year students of German were divided into two groups: the experimental group worked with a concept-based explanation of the German passive by means of multimedia animations and performed tasks that aimed to foster the relevant conceptualization processes; a control group was presented with a form-based explanation and completed tasks that set out to analyze the syntactic features of the German passive, whereas the meaning of the German passive was discussed in class without any further pedagogical support. The results of the posttest show that the students in the experimental group significantly outperformed those in the control group, especially in the tasks where the passive was tested in larger contexts. Furthermore, the comparison of the essays written by both groups of L2 learners with those written by a group of German L1 speakers reveals that the students in the experimental group and the L1 speakers made use of the different subtypes of passive constructions in a similar way. Taken together, the results show that the combination of multimedia animations and learning activities based on sociocultural theory offers an intriguing venue for leveraging the effectiveness of such concept-based approaches.
Normalization of language contact data
Margaret Blevins
The University of Texas at Austin

In order to conduct systematic comparative research, language variety data must be processed in such a way that they can be compared to one another, e.g., via systematic annotation (cf. Boas 2016: 38-40). I argue that normalization is an important part of systematic annotation of language variety data. While individual projects have developed their own normalization systems, e.g., Unserdeutsch (Götze et al. 2017), a standardized approach to normalization does not exist.

This paper discusses the challenges inherent in constructing a normalization system for German contact variety data, and proposes solutions to these challenges.

For the purpose of this paper, I define normalization as the mapping of original transcribed utterances to a set of consistent, systematic representations. For example, the original utterances [ɑpfəl], [ɑpəl], and [ɑbəl] could all be mapped to the normalized orthographic representation <Apfel>. I argue that multiple increasingly-standard normalization layers are preferable to provide flexibility and make normalization decisions transparent (cf. GAT’s “Zwiebelprinzip,” Selting 1998). Each layer systematically reduces certain kinds of variation, e.g., orthographic, lexical, or syntactic variation. This paper explains why normalization of language contact data is a non-trivial task, and discusses challenges inherent in and benefits of creating and defining multiple increasingly-standard normalization layers, e.g., (1) and (2). The data for this paper comes from recordings of translation elicitations within the Texas German Dialect Project (Boas et al. 2010).

(1) Elicited translation of ‘The animal died out in the pasture’
   - Transcription: der animal ist dotgegangen in pastar
   - Normalization (lexical): der animal ist totgegangen in pasture
   - Normalization (lexical, standard German): der Tier ist totgegangen in Weide
   - Standard German translation: ‘das Tier ist auf der Weide verendet’

(2) Transcription: dat gleich ich nich
   - Normalization (lexical): das | that gleich ich nicht
   - Normalization (lexical, standard German): das gleich ich nicht
   - Standard German translation: ‘das mag ich nicht’

The goal of this paper is to propose a set of normalization guidelines for translation elicitation data that will make these data (a) more accessible, easy to compare, and transparent and (b) more suitable for further semi-automatic processing such as POS-tagging and lemmatization. This normalization system is as theory-overarching as possible to ensure that it is as useful to as many researchers as possible and can be used with a range of German contact varieties and data types (e.g., free conversations). This in turn can support research on language contact phenomena, e.g., patterns of variation across multiple speech contact situations.

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1 Standardized annotation systems for other aspects of language annotation include IPA for phonetic transcription (International Phonetic Association 1999), GAT for orthographic transcription (Selting 1998; Selting et al. 2009; Schmidt et al. 2015), and STTS for POS-tagging (Schiller et al. 1999; Westpfahl et al. 2017).
Forms and Functions of *genau* as a Discourse Marker in Monologues

Sofiya Bodnar, Indiana University-Bloomington

This paper deals with the forms and functions of discourse markers, in particularly *genau* (‘exactly’ or ‘right’). In recent years, *genau* has been studied quite differently from its original function as an adverb or adjective. In the existing literature various functions of *genau* have been presented, but in its function as a discourse marker the research has been limited. In this paper I analyze the different uses of *genau* in scripted as opposed to spontaneous speech. The analyzed recordings were made of native speakers, who presented their own papers in an academic setting.

In previous research (Oloff, 2017) the functions of *genau* as a discourse marker have been studied in context of everyday conversations, dialogues. Many usages of *genau* in monologues and dialogues overlap, which supports functions such as sequence-structuring, sequence-closing and its conformational usage in speech. These are clearly deviations from the use of *genau* as an adjective or adverb, however, a certain similarity to the original still remains: even in its function as a response particle and later as a discourse marker retains *genau* its precision. In its dialogical use, it expresses, an agreement to the statement prior made; in monologues it expresses that the sequence uttered was correct or went well as a type of self-affirmation:

(1)

01 wer ich bin=  
02 =also als welche pers-person ich mich positioniere  
03 ähm (.)  
04 *genau*  
05 darum ging es in der von mir vorgelegten arbeit(--)

Further functions of *genau* include termination of a unit, placeholders, initiation of one’s own speech (starting signal), and the repair function. Some of these do not appear in the context of dialogues, where the discourse marker is more removed from its original function as an adjective or adverb and merely used as a filler:

(2)

01 also wir haben  
02 äh viel selbstpositionierung fremdpositionierung  
03 im gespräch  
04 die aber auch implizit und explizit sattfindet  
05 ähm  
06 *genau*  
07 und  
08 ähm  
09 das kann  
10 äh

**Keywords:** Discourse markers, monologues, *genau*, self-affirmation, filler.
Bavarian dialects of German are famous for their phonological processes involving laterals. The data for Bavarian l-vocalizations are well-known, but I will focus on a particular type of lateral conditioned vowel change within Bavarian: namely, l-rounding. In the southeastern varieties of Austro-Bavarian as well as some varieties of northern Bavarian, the lateral (and only the lateral) triggers a rounding of preceding front vowels viz. /vild/ → [vyld] wild (transcription to be refined below). The traditional dialectological research i.e. Kranzmayer (1956) described the latter change as being motivated by the fact that the lateral in these dialects was ü-haltig, for which he used the transcription λ (a Greek lambda). Thus, this λ, which had an inherent ü-like-quality to it caused a proceeding vowel to round in an assimilatory fashion viz. /viλd/ → [vyλd]. The problem with this transcription is obvious: what does ü-haltiges l really mean and why does it occur in certain Austrian dialects and not others? In this paper, I put forth two primary arguments. First, I argue that Kranzmayer (1956) is essentially correct in his attribution of the lateral as ü-haltig, where ü-haltiges l is to be identified as a retroflex lateral, transcribed in the IPA as /ɭ/. Second, I argue that the analysis of the lateral as retroflex allows us to understand the fundamental phonetic motivation behind the rounding in Austrian as well as its historical motivation.

First, ü-haltiges l is retroflex /ɭ/. Although the term retroflex was rarely used in the history of scholarship surrounding Austrian laterals, all the evidence points to this being how the historical literature understood these laterals. For example, Bauer, in his 1968 dissertation, took sound recordings of (his articulation of) ü-haltiges l and it is clear from this that the sound in question is to be categorized as retroflex, due to the lowering of F3 and F4 leading in to the lateral. In present-day literature on phonetics, Tabain et al (2016) found the acoustic properties of retroflex laterals in various Australian languages to involve a lowering effect of both F3 and F4.

Secondly, although retroflexion is often discussed in the literature as correlating with backness e.g. Hamann (2002), one can also observe a notable tendency toward vowel rounding as well. This is further supported by the fact that retroflex laterals are typified by a low F3. Low F3 is also the critical acoustic property that distinguishes front unrounded vowels from front rounded vowels. This cross-linguistic tendency can be observed in two Australian aboriginal languages, namely, Wembawemba and Wirgaia as well as in historical vowel developments in various Dravidian languages. With the identification of Austrian laterals as retroflex, we can fit those data into that same body of literature and the motivation for the process of l-rounding in Austro-Bavarian dialects becomes clear.

References

1 N.B. that he actually wrote ü-haltig, however many later scholars e.g. Moosmüller (1987) referred to this as ü-hältiges l.
Designing a visual questionnaire to study impersonalization in West Germanic

Recent research into impersonalization in Afrikaans, Dutch and English concluded that the methods used – corpus study, acceptability judgments and a completion task – were inadequate for determining the preferred impersonalization strategies for twelve different impersonal contexts, based on Siewierska & Papastathi (2011) and Gast & van der Auwera (2013). Corpora are problematic because some impersonal contexts are too infrequent for us to get sufficient numbers of instances and because we can only truly search for strategies in a deductive manner, assuming that all possible ways of expressing impersonalization have already been discovered. Furthermore, the test items for the completion and acceptability judgment tasks could only be worded in a way that led participants to fill out and assess a certain type of strategy, i.e. human impersonal pronouns. While all these methods can be – and were – helpful in drawing conclusions about strategies like ‘one’, ‘you’ and ‘they’ in specific contexts, they cannot tell us anything about the preferred way of conveying particular types of impersonalization (e.g. maybe ‘it is said that…’ instead of ‘they say that …’ for hearsay).

The present paper reports on an interdisciplinary research project aiming to develop a method, i.e. a visual questionnaire, to answer the question about preferred impersonalization strategies. The project involved two linguists, one lecturer in graphic design and fifteen final-year graphic design students. Each student was asked to illustrate two impersonal contexts as sequential art (e.g. an animated GIF or a comic strip) that could be used as a visual prompt in a linguistic questionnaire that tests the preferred impersonalisation strategies in the twelve possible contexts. They had to devise situations that could be visualized and met the contextual requirements of existential vs universal quantification, (non-)veridicality, (non)plurality and so forth. Thus, the students had to, for example, ask themselves: “What event can I illustrate (i) which does not involve all people on earth, (ii) but where the people involved are completely unknown to me and (iii) where I do not know how many people were involved (e.g. ‘they have found your bike!’)?” The students had no linguistic background, however, which is why we adopted a design thinking methodology that would structure their workflow to accommodate real-world testing of their proposed solutions. The students had to test their prompts by doing a pilot questionnaire with some participants and, if no relevant responses were obtained, adjust their illustrations after feedback.

The pilot study results make clear that, to get relevant linguistic replies, (i) all illustrations should be wordless (to avoid linguistic clues or bias toward particular impersonalization strategies), (ii) the use of people and the depiction of actions are essential, (iii) illustrations need to be able to operate on a digital platform, (iv) contexts which are harder to visualize require some written contextualization outside the illustration frame and (v) it is best if students devise their own contexts, based on the criteria provided. The success of this visual questionnaire as a linguistic research tool will also be evaluated in this paper.

References
This paper explores cross-linguistic and family specific properties of plural marking strategies in Plautdietsch (West Germanic). Plautdietsch plurals exhibit Multiple Exponence (ME), the use of multiple independent phonetic markers to convey the same semantic content. ME is commonly found in West Germanic plurals (e.g. Standard German Baum – Bäum-e 'tree(s)') and usually involves suffixation and umlaut. Plautdietsch has four exponents of plurality as shown in bold in (1).

(1) Suffixation: Plaunt [ploːnt] – Plaunt-en [ploːntn] 'plant(s)'
Vowel Change: Aupel [aʊpl] – Apel [aːpl] 'apple(s)'
Voicing: Braunt [brɔːnt] – Braun[nd] 'inferno(s)'
Palatalization: Sack [zaːk] – Sakj [zaːc] 'sack(s)'

This paper focuses on the first three exponents with respect to their optional and combinatorial occurrences. First, Plautdietsch has three plural suffixes –en, –s, and –a. Second, two historically independent vowel processes, umlaut and vowel lengthening, have merged into a unified alternation system due to the structural changes of the Plautdietsch vowel shift (Burns 2015). Third, the innovation of schwa apocope led to word final contrastive voicing (c.f. Brood 'brood' vs Broot 'bread'). It is typologically rare to have more than two exponents of ME at work in a given lexical or morphological class, e.g., plural system (Caballero and Harris 2010). This paper proposes that these properties arose due to a phonological system in flux. This study finds that both morphology and phonology are responsible for the presence or absence of ME.

Like many other German and Dutch dialects, Plautdietsch plurals require a trochaic foot at the rightmost edge. Falling within a cluster of North Sea dialects, Plautdietsch allows feet to be formed by either a trochaic foot [σσσ] or a heavy monosyllabic foot [H] (due to final schwa apocope). Roots and derivational suffixes can select for a specific plural affix (e.g. Lada – Lada-sch 'leather(s)', Lada – Ladr-a 'ladder(s)'; Komm – Komm-en 'bowl(s)', Komm-kje – Komm-kje-s 'bowl(s) dim'). Analysis of suffix type and alternation combinations found that suffixes are most likely to predict the co-occurrence of other exponents. The –s and –en do not allow vowel properties to change as shown in words with multiple plural forms (c.f. Daum – Dam/Daum-s 'dam(s)'; Fluss – Fliss-a/Fluss-en 'river(s)'). The –en and –s allow voicing alternations to occur, but the –en suffix has a higher rate of voicing (Owent – Owent-s/Owend-en 'evening(s)').

The existence of competing forms for some plurals arises from the prosodic equivalence of the plurals attesting to the robustness of an older prosodic system in the language. Both plurals for Daum “dam” [daʊms] and [daːm] form the structure [H]σ. Meanwhile, the addition of either –a or –en in [flɪ.sa] and [flʊ.snn] to Fluss 'river' aligns the plural with the prosodic shape requirements via [σσσ].

While –en and –s restrict the occurrence of other exponents, –a has a tendency towards hyper-usage of all three strategies (e.g. Baunt – Benj-a 'band'). Lack of vowel alternations on the stem occurs primarily when the vowel is already front and unrounded. Voicing alternations is governed by a complex set of properties but is generally found in plurals which had final schwa in Middle Low German (which was lost due to apocope). The contrast between singular and plural is thus marked by the voicing contrast found in Middle Low German forms which have undergone apocope of schwa.

In sum, this paper shows that Plautdietsch exhibits a complex relationship between prosody and a segmental system undergoing massive changes. In spite of these changes, Plautdietsch still holds onto earlier properties which were once phonologically motivated.
A Qualitative Analysis of Listening Assessment Material for German as a Foreign Language

Valentina Concu
Purdue University

Abstract

In recent decades, many scholars have recognized the relevant role played by listening activities in learning a foreign language. (Rost, 1994). The shift to more communicative teaching approaches at the end of the 1970s has brought forth renewed interest for listening in general and consequently researchers have started to advocate for the use of more authentic language (Johnson & Morrow, 1981). However, despite these developments, the language presented to learners is still “just a poor representation of the real thing” (Gilmore 2007, p. 2). Furthermore, listening activities based on written texts “still persist in many language classrooms” (Vandergrift & Goh, 2012, p. 12). While these claims can be considered valid for the teaching of English as a second and as a foreign language, little research has been conducted on listening activities for German.

This study attempts to bridge this gap in the literature by analyzing the listening assessment material used for elementary and intermediate classes at a Midwestern university. These activities are compared with some recordings from the Datenbank für gesprochenes Deutsch (Database of Spoken German) as a means to determine their degree of authenticity. The analysis reveals a similar scenario to the one described by Gilmore (2007) and Vandergrift and Gogh (2012). A pedagogical approach that includes more authentic material is also suggested.
Frequency and the German(ic) verb: Class VII in modern German
Conni Covington, University of Georgia

Strong verbs in the Germanic languages show a tendency over time toward weakening. Several recent studies have shown a correlation between token frequency and rate of weakening, with the least frequent verbs regularizing at a faster rate (Lieberman et al. 2007, Carroll et al. 2012). This corpus study investigates the effects of token frequency on the weakening of class VII verbs from OHG into MGm. Analysis of the data suggests there is a frequency threshold of around 5/100,000 words, below which a verb is more likely to regularize.

The class VII verbs in PGmc formed the preterite through reduplication, but only Gothic retained this feature (haitan – haihait(un) – haitans, cf. Gm heißen ‘to be called’). Only fourteen reduplicating verbs are attested in Gothic. For comparison, the largest strong verb class in OHG is class III with 46 strong verbs, followed by class I with 37, by Carroll et al.’s count. Of the 16 non-reduplicating class VII verbs in OHG, German retains 11 as strong verbs, three have become weak since OHG, one was already weak in OHG (saian ‘sow’), and one shows fluctuation in the preterite today (hauen ‘hew’). Although the class VII verbs have a low type frequency, some of them have a high token frequency, and these frequent verbs did not weaken in German (Carroll et al. 2012:159). The frequency of use of these strong verbs, which are infrequent overall as a class, allows them to maintain strong verb status.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>OHG freq</th>
<th>MHG freq</th>
<th>% variation MHG</th>
<th>NHG freq</th>
<th>% variation NHG</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fallen</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>walten</td>
<td>9.11</td>
<td>10.82</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td>n/a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hauen</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>30.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>raten</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.63</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scheiden</td>
<td>11.39</td>
<td>31.21</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fangen</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>44.42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>schlafen</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rufen</td>
<td>9.93</td>
<td>22.51</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>5.89</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fallen</td>
<td>11.23</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>17.51</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laufen</td>
<td>6.02</td>
<td>24.55</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>21.91</td>
<td>0.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heißen</td>
<td>93.09</td>
<td>121.46</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>44.32</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>halten</td>
<td>11.39</td>
<td>19.41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>59.72</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lassen</td>
<td>33.04</td>
<td>184.67</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>114.15</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This study, following in the steps of Lieberman et al. and Carroll et al., sheds light on the usage-based factors which affect weakening of verbs in the history of Germanic, and also empirically quantifies a correlational factor, whereas in previous studies a tendency was observed.

References

The writing of the *Hildebrandslied* (Kassel 2° Ms. theol. 54) shows that the two scribes had largely different levels of experience, based on the number and types of corrections made by each scribe and by the types of letters each uses. While many scholars have addressed these errors in the *Hildebrandslied*, only one philologist attempts to catalog all the manuscript’s errors (Danielowski 1919). Despite Danielowski’s thoroughness, her work still contains its own share of flaws.

This paper is an analysis of a number of scribal errors and habits in the *Hildebrandslied*. It assumes there are two scribes and investigates differences between the two. It also assumes that this manuscript had an exemplar and that the original language of composition was Old High German. The data, then, clarifies the text’s transmission history. By examining each letter, this paper catalogues the scribal errors and atypical letters in the manuscript and sorts them into categories, including *calamo currente* errors, erasures, and instances of wynn.

Although both scribes made the same amount of *calamo currente* errors, the second scribe writes less than a fifth of the number of letters the first scribe writes. The first scribe favors erasures to *calamo currente*. These corrections also imply that certain errors must have existed in a previous copy (e.g. an <h> corrected from an <n> in “hiltibraht”). The data also suggests that both scribes were unfamiliar with the text because of errors such as <puas> (line 22 of the first folio) and punctuated wynn. Based on the frequency of certain variations of letters used by the first scribe in the last part of the manuscript, the second scribe’s writing appears to have influenced the first scribe. Furthermore, both scribes’ numbers of letters written per line demonstrate their skill and tendencies.
When The New York Times Manual of Style and Usage was first published in 1923, it was 40 pages and focused primarily on spelling and typographical issues. By 1976 it was 231 pages and had expanded its attention to a wider range of usage issues, from criticism of an “overworked” adjective such as ongoing to a long entry on women that begins, “In referring to women, we should avoid words or phrases that seem to imply that The Times speaks with a purely masculine voice, viewing men as the norm and women as the exception.” This talk investigates the changing politics of 20th-century prescriptivism in the U.S. through a case study of eight editions of The New York Times Manual of Style and Usage between 1923 and 2015. In both the forewords and the entries throughout the Manual, the editors navigate the politics of selecting areas of usage for prescriptive intervention—including specifically the political project of inclusive language. How should we understand, for example, the ideologies invoked in “the rule of commonsense” introduced in the 1962 edition? This case study adds to a growing body of scholarship investigating the nuances of modern language prescriptivism and the ideologies that underlie it, as prescriptivism has become a more legitimate object of scholarly inquiry in History of English scholarship.
Two possible accounts capture the distribution of strong and weak adjectives in Early Germanic.

(1) **Syntactic account:**
There is a direct correlation between weak adjectives and the presence of a determiner. Any correlation between weak adjectives and semantics is secondary.

(2) **Semantic account:**
There is a direct correlation between weak adjectives and semantics. Any correlation between weak adjectives and the presence of a determiner is secondary.

The current state of research seems to indicate the semantic account in (2) (Ringe 2006: 170; Harbert 2007: 131; Rießler 2011: 203; Ratkus 2017, 2018). In this paper, I compare attributive adjectives in the Old High German (OHG) translation of Tatian’s Harmony with the parallel passages in Gothic and Old English (OE). The result supports the syntactic account in (1) and not the semantic account in (2).

The representative examples in (3) indicate that a given adjective can vary as strong or weak across the translations.

(3)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gothic</th>
<th>OHG Tatian</th>
<th>OE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gaguds [ST] rageineis</td>
<td>edili [ST] ambhaht</td>
<td>se æðela [WK] gerefa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ahma weihis [ST]</td>
<td>thie heilago [WK] geist</td>
<td>se halga [WK] gast</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The distribution of weak adjectives in (3) follows directly from (1). The semantic account in (2) requires the *ad-hoc* stipulation that the translators of OE in (3a) and OE and OHG in (3b) interpreted the passages with the semantic force necessary to induce the weak adjective ending, and that the determiner had “a mechanical presence that played some functional (rather than semantic) role” (Ratkus 2017: 113-114). While a full account of the distribution of the determiner remains unclear, its presence regularly triggers the weak adjective, as per (1).

Additional evidence for (1) comes from the translations in (4).

(4)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gothic</th>
<th>OHG Tatian</th>
<th>OE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

In the Gothic and OE translations, ‘sinful’ is conjoined with the adjective ‘immoral’ and occurs within the domain of the determiner, resulting in its weak manifestation. In the OHG translation, the adjective ‘sinful’ is not syntactically part of the noun phrase and is therefore strong, although it modifies the noun ‘generation’ with the same semantic force as ‘immoral’.

In this paper, I provide further examples that highlight difficulties for the semantic account in (2) and support the syntactic account in (1). These include possessives, as in ‘his holy covenant’ (Luke 1:72), set theological phrases, as in ‘(the) narrow gate’ (Matthew 7:13; Luke 13:24), and reference to contextually known information, as in the good and bad trees and their fruits (Matthew 7:17-19).
The weakening of strong verbs and the collapse of present-tense inflection-class distinctions in early Middle English

This study is part of a larger project that tests the hypothesis that the regularization of English strong verbs was largely a single episode in the history of the language – datable to late Middle and early Modern English and triggered by a number of other developments, primarily regular sound changes – rather than a manifestation of a general tendency for irregular items to regularize.

Unlike the past tense and past participle, where the most basic inflection-class distinction in all Germanic languages is between strong and weak verbs, the most important distinction in the present-tense forms is between strong and class-1 weak verbs, on the one hand, and the remaining (mostly class-2) weak verbs, on the other hand. For example, Old English strong *sing-an* (infinitive) – *sing-* (3s present indicative) 'sing' and class-1 weak *hīer-an–hīer-* 'hear' contrast with class-2 weak *luf-i-an–luf-aþ* 'love'. Class 2 was the largest and most productive class and the most direct ancestor of the regular pattern in modern English (*love–loved*, etc.). As long as strong verbs remained distinct from class-2 weak verbs in their present-tense forms, knowledge of any form of an existing strong verb would have been enough to tell a speaker that the verb in question was not "regular", i.e. that it did not follow the most frequent and most productive inflectional pattern.

Using corpus data from the *Linguistic Atlas of Early Middle English* and a corpus constructed from the citations for selected verbs from the *Middle English Dictionary*, I closely examine the evidence for the variable survival of present-tense inflection-class distinctions in southern dialects of Middle English and the ultimate collapse of most of those distinctions over the course of the fourteenth century. Aside from a brief summary of previous work on other present-tense forms, this talk focuses on the 2s and 3s present indicative and the imperative singular – where the class distinction involves the presence of an unstressed vowel in the class-2 forms, and conversely, especially in some of the strong verbs, co-articulatory effects involving the suffixal and root-final consonants as well as umlaut alternations in the root vowel. The 3s of *waxen* 'grow' for example, occurs as *wext, wixt, west, wycst, wuxt*, etc. vs. *wexeþ* or occasionally *waxþ* with the unsyncopated ending. I then look at how the occurrence of weak past-tense and participle forms for originally strong verbs correlates with the extent to which the old inflection-class distinctions in the present tense remain intact, testing the following hypotheses: 1) Where the present-tense distinctions are maintained, inflectional-class shifts from strong to weak are to the less productive class-1 weak pattern, e.g. *steppen–stþp* 'step' could become *steppen–stept(e) (or stapt(e)) but not (yet) *steppen–stepped*; 2) The ultimate regularization of such verbs was not a direct result of any analogical change – or of any change whatsoever in the affected verbs – but rather of the late Middle English syncope in the *-ed* ending that largely eliminated the distinction between class-1 and class-2 in the past tense.
German-Americans in Northern Indiana – then and now
Katrin Fuchs, Valparaiso University

After successful first data collections in Southern Indiana through the Max Kade German-American Resource and Research Center (Roesch 2018), this project hopes to contribute to the field of German American Studies by including potential speakers from Northern Indiana. In this initial overview which serves as a spring board for future data collection and linguistic study, I present the history of German settlement and the current demography of German descent as well as report on contacts made with Northern Indiana German communities in order to assess the potential to find speakers of Indiana German.

The focus lies on the counties directly bordering Lake Michigan – on the Western side Lake, Porter, and La Porte counties which were and are largely influenced by Chicago, and on the Eastern side Elkhart and LaGrange counties which are part of the Indiana Amish country with stronger ties to Ohio and Pennsylvania. These counties and particularly the towns of Elkhart, Michigan City, and Crown Point have a long-standing history of German settlement (Fritsch 1915). An average of 24.9% of the population reported having a German ancestry in the 2010 census (statisticalatlas.com). The additional abundance of German-related festivals and strong commitment to German language education in local schools make a potential identification of speakers of Indiana German hopeful.

Works Cited:


Old Norse/Icelandic verse and the lexemic theory of scribal method

In Classical Studies, the medieval scribes who transmitted the texts of Latin Antiquity are for the most part held in low regard, since their errors are plainly evident to modern scholars, whose Latin is far superior to theirs. Many classicists regard them as lazy and ignorant, and the texts they produced are anything but authoritative, but they require the intervention of modern philologists to reconstruct what their authors actually intended. Most philologists concerned with textual criticism assume similarly that the work of medieval scribes who copied vernacular texts, particularly verse, is in need of editorial intervention to remove the errors they have introduced. This position has recently found support in the research of Neidorf (2017), who has formulated a specific hypothesis about the method of Anglo-Saxon copyists reproducing poetic texts, the lexemic theory: “As they copied, the scribes focused their attention on the transcription and modernization of individual words, not on the continuous sense of the poem” (103). Yet the parallel to Classical Studies is imperfect, since medieval scribes usually knew the vernaculars they copied better than any modern scholar. Accordingly, a view popular in Old English studies is that scribes followed closely the grammar, diction, sense, poetic form, and formulaic contingencies of the Old English poems they copied, and that they actively participated in the construction of the text, altering it in intelligent ways as they copied. If this is so, it has significant implications for the linguistic analysis of such texts. A text that represents a collaboration between poet and scribe cannot be dated, since the two collaborators may be separated by centuries. A text must not be thought of as an imperfect representation of the creation of a single mind, since that denies the scribe his share in authorship, and as a consequence, the emendation of texts is generally to be avoided. That in turn means that linguistic features arising from what proponents of the lexemic theory regard as scribal error must be accorded the same respect as apparent archaisms and dialectal features. In an attempt to arbitrate between these opposing views of scribal method, the present paper examines poetry in Old Norse/Icelandic, both eddic and skaldic, with an eye toward textual variants and readings that modern editors have deemed in need of emendation. Overwhelmingly, the evidence speaks in favor of the lexemic theory. Although such evidence cannot be said to disprove the idea of thoughtful refashioning on the part of scribes, it implies that if such refashioning took place in Anglo-Saxon England, it requires especially firm evidence to merit credence, given that it appears not to have been practiced in a closely cognate tradition.

Reference:

In this paper, I revisit the grammaticalization of *for* from locational preposition to causal complementizer. This has been discussed in a number of different papers (Heine et al. 1991: 157, Sweetser 1990, Traugott & König 1991, and van Gelderen 2011) and is schematized in (1).

(1) Semantic changes in *for*: space > time > purpose > cause

As is well known, the earliest use in English of *for* is as preposition and only after 1150 is it a causal complementizer. In early Old English (2), a spatial/locational meaning can be observed. There is also an early temporal meaning for *for(e)*, but this is infrequent. Frequent, already in OE, is the use as a purpose marker, as in (3) and (4). Note that the PPs in both are preposed and this is very frequent as well. The purpose marker in (4) is a predecessor of the cause meaning in (5), which only appears in early Middle English and again is frequently sentence-initial.

(2) *hynode* for *hlawe*
early noise before mound
'It made noise before/around the gravehill.' (*Beowulf* 1120, Klaeber edition).

(3) *ge for wlenes for wræcisidum. ac for higeprymmum Hroðgar sohton.*
you for daring not for misery/exile but for greatness-of-heart Hrothgar sought
'(I expect) you were seeking Hrothgar for daring and greatness of heart rather than for being exiled.' (*Beowulf* 338-9, Klaeber edition)

(4) *for werefyhtum ... ond for arstafum usic sohtest*
for fighting ... and for support (you) us sought
'You wanted us to help fight.' (*Beowulf* 457-8, Klaeber edition)

(5) *ouber for untrumnisse ouber for lauerdes neode ouber for hauleste ouber for hwilces cinnes ouber neod he ne muge þær cumon*
either from infirmity or from his lord's need or from lack of means or from need of any other kind he cannot go there.' (*Peterborough Chronicle*, anno 675)

The change from preposition, as in (2) to (5), to complementizer, as in (6), occurs after the semantic changes have taken place, in the second part of the Peterborough Chronicle.

(6) *for þæt ilc gær warth þe king ded*
'because (in) that same year was the king dead.' (*Peterborough Chronicle*, 1135, 6)

I provide more data on the history of *for* from the DOE Corpus and compare it with changes involving *since* and *because*, asking the following questions: (a) how is the morphology (e.g. *for, forbam (þ...*) indicative of grammaticalization and reanalysis from P to C, (b) what determines whether the complementizer reanalyses as having a finite (causal *for* and *since*) or non-finite clause (purposive *for*) as its complement, (c) are the adverbial clauses central adverbials or peripheral ones (as in Haegeman 2012), and (d) were clauses with a causal *since* complementizer always frequently initial as opposed to ones with *because* (as is the case in Modern English; see Ford 1993: 142; 24) and why is this.
The Eddic poem *Vǫlundarkviða* has a mysterious history. The anonymous poem’s first manuscript appearance is from c.1270, but is already quoted in the 1220s, and linguistically must have been composed significantly earlier, with some likely pre-Viking Age material, although the age of the poem is unknown. At first glance, the poem appears to be a specimen of the North Germanic permutation of the story of Vǫlundr (in English, Weland the Smith), a legendary figure recorded, more or less, across the early Germanic-speaking world. However, the poem itself shows a stunning amount of structural influence from Old English, more than any other Eddic poem. It is, therefore, commonly accepted that there was some level of English “influence”, but the nature of this influence has not been formally elucidated, although translation is generally assumed not to be the cause.

In this paper, I argue that the Old English “influence” is due to a bilingual poet, and that such a person was sociolinguistically likely. On a purely linguistic level, this is not difficult to imagine: both Germanic languages were, certainly before 1220, still mutually intelligible (as thoroughly investigated in Townend 2002, *Language and History in Viking Age England: Linguistic Relations between Speakers of Old Norse and Old English*. Studies in the Early Middle Ages, vol. 6. Brepols Publishers). I will delineate the Old English “influence” detectable in the Old Icelandic poem, and describe how it is readily explained by research on multilingualism and contact linguistics, especially codeswitching and lexical borrowing. The complicating factor of the mutual intelligibility of these two languages/dialects will also be analyzed. Another linguistic topic that indicates OE influence is the metrical structure; beyond an unusually high density of line types uncommon in OI poetry but common in OE, the placement of stress on morphemes unstressed in OI but stressed in OE could reflect either morphological code-switching, or give a glimpse into the poet’s pronunciation.

The historical-sociolinguistic approach taken also contextualizes the above linguistic and metrical observations with historical, archaeological, and literary evidence to provide a comprehensive, interdisciplinary account of the sociolinguistic likelihood of such a speaker and poet. Firstly, in some areas, such as East Anglia, there is evidence of extensive contact between Anglo-Saxon England and Scandinavia, even well before the Viking Age. Secondly, Vǫlundr was a pan-Germanic figure, clearly evidenced in both Anglo-Saxon and Scandinavian cultural artefacts. In this historical context, it is entirely possible that a bilingual poet, already situated linguistically between two societies, employed shared aspects of cultural background in the composition of an Old English-influenced Old Icelandic poem.
Two Kinds of Complementizer Agreement: What Galician can tell us about German
Brian Gravely, Joshua Bousquette – University of Georgia

This presentation is a comparative analysis of complementizer agreement (C-agr) in Galician and non-standard varieties of German. Previous analyses of C-agr in German have not sufficiently treated the asymmetry between heads and phrases (XPs) in C-agr contexts, and Galician data on grammaticalized presentative adverbs sheds light on the underlying structure of this asymmetry. Working within a Minimalist framework, this asymmetry in German may be resolved by late merge of the XP with the head, C; or through a post-syntactic insertion of an underspecified host element, in C.

In varieties of German, C-agr manifests either as an overt agreement morpheme on base-generated elements at C in subordinate clauses (1); or as an output that appears to affix to the final element in topicalized XPs derived through movement (2). Instances such as (1) obtain through a goal-probe relationship where uninterpretable phi-features (u-phi) at C are checked by interpretable phi-features (i-phi) at the maximally local subject node, at spec,TP (cf. Bousquette 2014). Examples such as (2), however, require first V-to-v movement to check case, then wh-movement of the entire XP to spec,CP. Since C-agr is licensed by the position of the head, C, we may derive licit C-agr through either van Gelderen's (2007) Head Preference Principle (HPP), if C is unoccupied; or through the post-syntactic insertion of an underspecified pronominal host for the inflectional affix (3).

In Galician, similar to (1), base-generated complementizers may host C-agr (4). Similar to (3), the inflectional affix/clitic in (4) -o/-a/-os/-as is underspecified for case and person, agreeing only in number and gender. Galician does not license an analogous structure to (2), suggesting that C-agr in Galician is restricted to base-generated elements.

(1) Bavarian [Bayer 1984: 233]
Wenn-st kommst
If.2.sg come
‘If you come.’

(2) Wisconsin Heritage German [Bousquette 2018: 19]
Is des de Frau, [p mit der]-st (du) ti gesprochen/gret hast?
is that the woman with whom.dat-2.sg you spoken have
‘Is that the woman with whom you spoke?’

(3) Bavarian [Bousquette 2015: 51]
Is des de Mann, mit dem woi-stu gret hast?
is that the man with whom rel.2.sg spoken have
‘Is that the man with whom you spoke?’

(4) Galician C-agr
[c Velaquí as [t estamos [i nós
Here CL.3PL.FEM be.1PL.PRS we
‘Here we are!’

References
Toward an Early English History of Some Adjectives/Adverbs/Verbs in Constructions with *ben/have* and Past Participles

Eugene Green – Boston University

Constructions in Middle English indicative of a possible resultative aspect comprise adjectives, adverbs, or verbs linked to forms of *ben* or *have* joined by past participles:

1) He hadde leuer to ben anhong Þan to be forsworn. c1330(?c1300) Amis (Auch) 920
   He had rather be hanged than to be perjured.

2) Fayn sche wold..haue fold him in hire armes, to haue him clipped & kest. a1375
   WPal.(KC 13) 859
   With delight, she would have taken him into her arms, to have hugged and kissed him.

3) In hilynge and kolynge of þi godenes and þi pite, fro þe hete of vices I sal hope to be
   saved. a1400(c1340) Rolle Psalter (Hat 12) 13/9
   Through the protection and the equanimity of your goodness and pity, I shall hope to
   be delivered from the heat of vices.

4) Sche desyred to have bene a vyene to owre lorde whan this tracte was
   songen: Vinea facta est. c1450 Bk.GGrace (Eg 2006) 15/10
   She desired to have been a vine of our lord, when this anthem was sung. Vinea facta
   est.

These quotations invite analyses directed at Middle English grammatic and semantic practices enlisted to posit resultatives cast in the future or projected as missed opportunities in the anterior past. The chief grammatic analysis centers on the uses of the two infinitives, *ben* and *have*: does *ben* always appear in constructs focused on future possibilities, *have* on circumstances already bygone? If the evidence (drawn from the MED) supports this difference in temporal range for the two infinitives, when and how did the contrast first manifest itself (see McFadden and Alexiadou)? A related analytic focus attends to patterns of collocation: do the cited adjectives, adverbs, and verbs take as infinitives both *have* and *ben*? Do the possible collocations issue from constraints of grammar?

As for semantic inferences, do the adjectives/adverbs/verbs associated with resultatives of the future or anterior past comprise part of coherent sets? If so, which features help to characterize such sets? Are all the members of these sets interchangeable in collocating with lexemes expressive of unrealized resultatives, past or future? If not interchangeable, do grammatic, semantic, or pragmatic restrictions control the choices of members in these supposed sets?

One further question explores the unrealized resultatives. How well do they manifest attributes in harmony with Croft’s analyses of aspect and causal structures? What disparities are there? .


The effects of Processing Instruction on gender processing and vocabulary acquisition in L2 German

Nick Henry, The University of Texas at Austin

Second language (L2) learners often exhibit difficulty acquiring gender systems in the target language. This is especially true with the gender system in German, which, despite some regularities, is both phonologically and semantically opaque (Hopp, 2013; see Köpcke & Zubin, 1983, 1984 for a discussion of regularities in the German gender system). Psycholinguistic research suggests that this difficulty could persist because learners do not process grammatical gender alongside their associated nouns (Arnon & Ramscar, 2012). While numerous studies (e.g., Benati, 2005; Henry, Jackson & DiMidio, 2017) have shown that pedagogical interventions like Processing Instruction (PI) can push learners to process grammatical forms, few studies have investigated whether PI has similar effects for opaque morphological forms like grammatical gender in German.

The present study modifies and extends research conducted by Henry and Johnson Fowler (2018). It investigates the effects of PI on first-semester German learners and their acquisition of two target forms: (1) clothing words and their gender-marked definite articles; and (2) the gender-marked pronouns *er, sie, and es*. In the present study, PI was compared to both traditional instruction (TI) and memorization. The memorization training simply required learners to categorize the words by gender and study them for a short period. During TI training, learners first matched words to pictures; they then matched genders to their pronouns. Learners in the TI group were therefore required to attend to either form (gender) or word meaning, but not both simultaneously. During PI training, learners matched both definite articles and pronouns to pictures. Thus, in order to perform the task successfully, learners were required to attend to both form and meaning at the same time.

Learner accuracy with the target forms was tracked using four assessment measures administered on a pre-test, post-test, and four-week delayed post-test: (1) gender matching and translation; (2) sentence-level gender and pronoun production; (3) gender-picture matching; (4) word-pronoun matching. Along with accuracy rates, reaction times were collected for the gender-picture matching task in order to explore whether training affected the ability to process gender information while attending to meaning.

Data collection is currently ongoing. Preliminary results suggest that, although learners in all three training groups improved, PI led to the most robust gains across all task types. Most importantly, the PI group displayed a strong accuracy and speed advantage in gender-picture matching. Thus, the results show that PI can push learners to process opaque morphological forms like grammatical gender in German and link these forms to meaning. Furthermore, results suggest that interventions like PI could help learners process gender information online. The present study therefore has implications for both classroom research and psycholinguistic investigations of morphological processing in L2 learners.
Cluster Creepers and Phantom V2: The Case of Gottscheerisch

Data. Here we introduce the expansion of verb second (V2) effects to imperative statements in Gottscheerisch, a Bavarian-based Sprachinsel dialect originating in present-day Slovenia, now spoken primarily in Austria, Ohio, and New York. The examples in (1) show that in matrix clauses Gottscheerisch exhibits V2. In (2), the finite verb appears in second position leaving the separable prefix in its base position.

(1) a. Bompmvlakkh is i von taigl et gearn tripe eat.1SG 1SG from devil NEG like
   ‘I really don’t like to eat tripe’
   b. In dår tselftn štunt khāmmont do gaištar
      in the.SG twelfth hour come.3PL the.PL spirit.PL
      ‘in the twelfth hour, the spirits come’

(2) Mit tsbonkh rixtašt dīi pai miör niš aūs
   with coercion accomplish.2SG 2SG by me nothing PRT
   ‘you can’t make me do it’

The ordering of the finite verb in subordinate clauses can be classified as ‘Verb Phrase’-final (VP-final), where the finite verb and the participle display the V-Part-ordering, forming a verb cluster. Examples (3) and (4) illustrate that the formation of particle verbs in subordinate clauses results in a complex structure called a cluster creeper, where finite verbs appear within the particle verb configuration.

(3) Ben’s proat uan-īst-ma-gokentsat
    when.the.SG bread PRT-be.3SG-become.3TCP-cut.3TCP
    ‘when the bread has been cut’

(4) Do rûvm hent mit tībl uan-ma-ganûgl
    the.PL rafter.PL be.3PL with dowel.PL PRT-become.3TCP-nail.3TCP
    ‘the rafters have been nailed with dowels’

Imperative constructions display a peculiar structure in Gottscheerisch. In (5a) the first element is the complex unit of a {prt + stem}, while in (5b) the particle is adjoined to the light verb luas, German lassen. The negative particle et blocks the fronting of the complex unit; cf. (5a), (5c), and (5d). These structures are strikingly similar to imperatives in Slovene in most respects.

(5) a. Aūf-šríaib mār’s af a tsød
    PRT-write.IMP me.it on a slip.of.paper
    ‘write it down on a slip of paper for me’

   b. Aūs-luas es khūal
    PRT-let.IMP it cool.INF
    ‘let it cool down’

   c. Et graif dos ūn
    NEG touch.IMP that PRT
    ‘don’t touch that’

   d. (Lai) et vorliāzh do hōfniinkh
    just NEG lose.IMP the.SG hope
    ‘just don’t lose hope’

Analysis. We propose that the imperatives in (5) are the result of contact with Slovene and pattern replication of V2. Unlike ‘regular’ V2 which involves the movement of a phrase (XP) into Spec,CP and the raising of a finite verb to C (or Fin in an extended CP-projection; Rizzi, 1997), Gottscheerisch shows phantom V2 effects, where two units appear at the edge of CP. Employing a nanosyntactic approach (Starke 2009, 2011; Baunaz et al., 2018), the two topmost independent elements at the edge of the verb phrase ({prt + v}) move to the left edge of the CP. This accounts for imperatives with single verbs (5a) and those with light verbs (5b), which appear in v. The presence of the negation particle et in (5c) can appear as the first element in {neg + v}, stranding the particle. The existence of (5c) evinces the phantom V2 effect, since the triple combination of {neg + {prtsep + v}} is licit in Slovene, but does not occur in Gottscheerisch. Inseparable prefix verbs form a complex unit with et {neg + {prtsep + v}} that fulfills the phantom V2-requirement (since the complex verb counts as one item); (5d). Finally, we discuss how a system that eliminates the traditional ‘head’ vs. ‘phrase’ distinction can account for both types of V2 effects in a unified analysis.
Sondersprachen, multiethnolects, and Yiddish: A reconsideration

There is a long history of scholarly and other interest in the specialized jargons of northern Europe, as used by members of professions generally described as "marginal"--thieves, underworld figures, cattle dealers, wandering musicians, etc. Thus, we encounter terms such as Rotwelsch, Gaunersprache, Viehhändlersprache, Massematte(n), Musikantensprache. The collective term Sondersprachen is used to refer to these distinct jargons, each reflecting the differing social and linguistic networks. Strikingly common to these Sondersprachen was the presence of many words and expressions of Hebrew/Aramaic [HA] etymological origin. The original interest in these specialized jargons was often by Germans, and typically was scholarly or criminological in nature. These descriptions tended to under-differentiate and over-generalize; HA-origin items were often described as coming directly from Yiddish ("die jüdische Volkssprache"). Less dealt with were the clear differences between Jewish and non-Jewish versions of the specialized jargon, including the specific HAisms, and how they differed in their use, as well as between the Jewish Sondersprache and the Jewish Volkssprache (Western Yiddish). A major advancement in the understanding of this is found in Glanz (1968). Based on solid historical documentation, Glanz provides a treasure of linguistic discussion of Jewish and non-Jewish specialized jargons, and the relation of these to Yiddish. Glanz makes clear the different communicative functions of HAisms in the different social groups. Matras (1996) takes discussion significantly further in his comparison of HAisms in Jewish- vs. non-Jewish cattle dealers' language. The current paper takes a step back and asks a more general question: what was the macro-function of the HAisms in the non-Jewish Sondersprachen, taken collectively? I use the insights of recent scholarship on multiethnolects (Cheshire et al 2015) to see if this can shed additional light on the HAisms found across the range of distinct Sondersprachen. The recent scholarship focuses largely on varieties arising in major urban centers with significant multiethnic populations over the past several decades, e.g., Amsterdam, Copenhagen, London, Paris, Berlin. The varieties can show elements from multiple contributor languages, and significantly, the multiethnolect varieties can gain a currency among young urban bilinguals of different linguistic backgrounds, as well as among segments of the monolingual speakers of the "host" language (German, English, French, Danish, etc.). The present paper examines the extent to which the HAisms in the Sondersprachen, untethered from Jewish speech, came to serve as a generalized resource bank for marking "marginal speech" in ways similar to the current use of lexical items from multiple sources in the multiethnolects.

Resources
Discourse functions of *dass*-clauses as complements of simplex matrix expressions in German

Andreas Jäger, Universität Bremen

Spoken German uses strongly discourse-dependent “pseudo-embedded” (Schlobinski 1992) clauses that consist of a single-word matrix expression and a *dass*-introduced complement clause to encode a speaker-oriented attitude. To account for their conventionalized form-meaning-pairings I suggest constructionalization of a discourse-organizing unit $[X_{SIMPLEX}[dass + CLAUSE]]$ through high-frequency instantiations of radically reduced, but not fully ellipsed matrix clauses, leaving out all inferrable material. The fact that simplex interjections occur in exactly the same position as single nouns, adjectives, adverbs or particles supports the constructional status of the pattern.

(1) $[\text{Nur, dass ich keinen Wagen habe!}]$ (EMOTIVE/EXCUSE)  
‘It's just that I have no car!'  

(2) $[\text{Ach, dass es so kommen musste!}]$ (EMOTIVE/DISAPPOINTMENT)  
‘What a pity that it had to turn out this way!'  

restrictions of this type also apply in Dutch (Van Linden & Van de Velde (2014: 231):  

(4) $[\text{Chance dat mijne radio hier nog opstaat!}]$ (EMOTIVE/RELIEF)  
‘Luckily my radio here is still switched on!'  

While in projectionist approaches a clause type operator in the left periphery (cf. Schwabe 2006) is held responsible for the illocutionary potential of a clause, constructionist models ascribe this to properties of whole constructions (cf. Jacobs 2016). In this paper I demonstrate that by assuming reduction from a full clause to a one-word operator (in the left periphery) we can accommodate valid points from both theoretical approaches, thereby highlighting the particular salience of a single-word expression in the left-peripheral position for the specific purpose of conveying speaker-oriented emotive meanings in dialogic discourse. *Hypoanalysis* (Croft 2000) is taken as the cause of this emergent process, with frequency of usage and prototypicality (Diessel 2012) of the pattern as accelerating factors. Drawing on data from several other languages inside as well as outside the Germanic subfamily I will further show that we are in fact dealing with a cross-linguistically common structural pattern akin to clefts, pseudo-clefts and other discourse-organizing strategies.

References


Forensic speaker recognition between linguistics and speech technology

Michael Jessen, Bundeskriminalamt Wiesbaden

Forensic Phonetics and Acoustics (aka Forensic Speech Science or Forensic Speech and Audio Analysis) is concerned with tasks involving spoken language and/or audio signals, embedded in contexts ranging from police investigations to cases presented in court. Several of these tasks involve speaker recognition in a broad sense, subdivided into speaker profiling, forensic voice comparison and voice line-up (not addressed in this presentation). In speaker profiling, a recording of an unknown offender is available, and the main task of the forensic expert is to infer from the recording as many group-level characteristics as possible, including regional variety, social features, foreign accent and an estimation of age. In forensic voice comparison, not only is a recording of the offender available but there is a suspect, and a recording of that suspect can often be obtained. The task of the expert is to provide evidence supporting identity or non-identity of the individuals behind the recordings.

Speaker profiling is a highly linguistic task and it benefits from linguistic knowledge, especially on language varieties and on the level of phonetics and phonology (Schilling & Marsters 2015). Forensic voice comparison is heavy on phonetics, including acoustic phonetics and the analysis of extragrammatical aspects such as global pitch, tempo or voice quality (Nolan 1983; Foulkes & French 2012; Jessen 2012). Since about twenty years, forensic voice comparison increasingly benefits from a method that is derived from speech technology: automatic speaker recognition (Hansen & Hasan 2015). An interesting methodological development in forensic voice comparison that concerns forensic science in general, is the use of Bayesian statistics and the notion of the likelihood ratio (Rose 2002; Jessen 2018; Morrison & Enzinger 2018).

The presentation begins with the illustration of a recent forensic case that started as a speaker profiling task and – after a suspect was found aided by the results of the profile – continued as a forensic voice comparison. The second part of the presentation goes through a number of linguistic and phonetic speaker characteristics that are commonly used, most particularly in forensic voice comparison. The third part gives a very brief presentation of the idea behind Bayesian statistics and illustrates the live operation of an automatic speaker recognition system.

References:


Investigating the relationship between M-finiteness and syntax: 
V2 in naturalistic L1 Korean-L2 German speakers
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The V2-property in main declarative clauses pertains to all Germanic languages, except English (e.g., Vikner, 2018). Why is it that until approx. the 15th century Old English and the beginning of Middle English had obligatory verb raising (see Eide, 2009, p. 365) but Modern English is not a V2-language anymore? Eide (2009, 2016) proposes that the loss of the morphologically encoded finiteness distinction (M-finiteness) in English caused major syntactic changes, such as the loss of V2. It is assumed that the M-finiteness feature is tied to a specific position in the clause, namely C, which causes verb movement and V2. The goal of this paper is to apply Eide’s hypothesis to L2 German data and explore the relationship between M-finiteness and V2-syntax. The guiding question is whether L2 German speakers’ V2 (non)production is linked to the (non)existence of an M-finiteness distinction.

Previous research on heritage Norwegian found contradicting evidence for Eide’s (2009, 2016) proposal. Whereas Eide and Hjelde (2015) observed the tendency that receding finiteness distinctions correlates with a slight increase of V2 violations, Lykke (2018) found solid V2 despite the lack of the M-finiteness distinction. By drawing on L2 German data, this paper aims to contribute to this theoretical discourse. Previous research on clause structure development in naturalistic L2 German acquirers found that the placement of the finite verb in the left periphery is vulnerable for non-targetlike ordering (e.g., Clahsen, Meisel, & Pienemann, 1983; Joo, 2018).

The data presented in this paper comes from 58 L1 Korean-L2 German speakers (17 male, 41 female) who lived and worked in Germany in average 44.9 years (SD: 3.7). In support of Eide’s hypothesis, participant [#43] shows lack of M-finiteness distinction and verb raising throughout his data, e.g., (1). Participant [#3], on the other hand, displays the M-finiteness feature but variation in the left periphery between V2 and non-targetlike V3 throughout her data, e.g. (2).

(1) Diese Damen Boden putzen.  
these ladies floor to-clean

‘This woman cleans the floor.’

(2) In dem Video ein Mann hat eine Zeitung gelesen.  
in the video a man has finite V a newspaper read

‘In the video, a man read a newspaper.’

Analyzing V3-ordering in the left periphery not as V2 violation but as a “relaxed V2” (Walkden, 2016) within a split CP caused by information structural constraints (Wiese et al., 2016), we argue that Eide’s hypothesis of linking M-finiteness to V2-syntax is supported by the L2 German data.

Selected references:
This paper considers diversity and equal representation of a multiplicity of voices in the German curriculum as crucial to teaching that is informed by social justice. The presentation aims to equip scholars of German with strategies to create more inclusive teaching practices. Teaching German to all students means being aware of exclusionary practices within materials and language. This talk specifically addresses questions of gender and sexuality as they are codified in linguistic structures. The talk will discuss how to approach gender from a variety of perspectives, modify language to be inclusive of students who may identify as non-binary, and challenge masculine norms. On a larger, more programmatic level, the presentation will also give participants hands-on strategies to implement these inclusive practices, not just in a single course or lesson but across an entire curriculum. Speaking from a linguistic perspective, this presentation asks how we can teach a highly gendered language such as German within a social justice framework of diversity and inclusion, in which binary norms ought to be challenged. This question is approached both from a pedagogical as well as linguistic point of you, in order to bring into dialogue the need for inclusive pedagogies and the challenges to overcome the linguistically-encoded gender norms of German.
Investigating the Superiority Effect: A Comparison of English and German
Valerie Keppenne, Maike Rocker, Katherine Kerschen, & Michael T. Putnam (Penn State)

A foundational aspect of linguistics is the investigation of the underlying sources of grammatical constraints within a language and, as a corollary to this, why certain grammatical constructions are acceptable in one language, but unacceptable or only marginally acceptable in another. A grammatical phenomenon which has received great attention in this regard is the superiority effect, traditionally described as a ban on moving direct object wh-items (e.g. was/what) higher than subject wh-items (e.g wer/who), because of a preference for local movement in multiple-wh questions (Kuno & Robinson, 1972).

1) What did who mention at the press release?
2) Was hat wer bei der Pressekonferenz erwähnt?

The superiority effect is very robust in English, with sentences such as (1) almost always being rated unacceptable. In German, the effect seems to be weaker, with sentences containing crossings of wh-movement (2) eliciting only a small drop in acceptability (Featherstone, 2005). Häussler et al. (2015) conducted a series of experiments testing violations of superiority in English and German. They found that L1 speakers in both languages rated such sentences as somewhat unacceptable, but the penalty was much larger in English than in German. They concluded that English has a grammatical constraint which bans subject-object crossing, while the lower acceptability in German is due to processing difficulties caused by long dependencies.

In our study, we tested adult L1 speakers of German (N=41) and English (N=39). Expanding on Experiment 1 from Häussler et al. (2015), we included a wider variety of sentences with subject-object crossing, such as embedded questions and discourse-linked (d-linked) items (e.g., “Which facts did who mention at the press release?”). D-linking has been shown to reduce the penalty related to the superiority effect in English (Pesetsky, 1987; Featherston, 2005), going against Häussler et al.’s conclusion that subject-object crossing is prohibited by a grammatical constraint in English. Moreover, we employed a computer-based judgment task using an adapted thermometer method rather than a simple Likert scale for the sentence rating task, as this method has been shown to be more sensitive than traditional grammaticality judgment tasks when comparing cross-linguistic acceptability differences (Featherston, 2005). Participants read sentences of the types described above in their native language and were asked to rate how natural each sentence sounded to them by entering a numeric value on a scale from 0 to 100.

Our initial findings are in line with those of Häussler et al. (2015). Descriptive statistics showed that German native speakers were more accepting of the non-crossed direct and embedded questions, regardless of d-linking (M=77.8 vs. 55.3). The preference for non-crossed items was also observed in English native speakers (M=78.4 vs. 35.6). However, the superiority effect, i.e., the penalty when crossing occurred, was considerably higher in English than in German: The mean difference in acceptability between crossed and non-crossed questions was 22.7 points for German native speakers, but 42.8 points for English native speakers. Additionally, d-linking only improved acceptability of wh-crossing in direct questions but not in embedded questions in English, while no effect in any condition was observed for German speakers. Further analyses will reveal whether the differences between the two languages are significant so that we can indeed speak of different sources for the superiority effect in the two languages. In the future, we would like to also employ online measures such as eye-tracking in order to further investigate processing effects that cannot be captured in offline judgment tasks.
In Old High German (OHG), the status of the bilabial glide [w] is unclear, as it was often in complementary distribution with the vowel [o]. [w] surfaced in syllable onsets (see (1a) from Braune & Reiffenstein 2004), while [o] surfaced in syllable nuclei (see (1b)).

(1) a. wësan ‘to be’  b. ofto ‘often’
    swarz ‘black’  boto ‘messenger’
    gewi ‘district’  gold ‘gold’

Additionally, there were certain contexts where [w] alternated with [o] within a morpheme. See, for example, the data in (2), where (2a) shows [w] ~ [o] in declensions of the adjective <gëlo> ‘yellow’, and (2b) shows [w] ~ [o] in the nominative and genitive forms of the noun <kneo> ‘knee’.

In both adjectival and nominal paradigms, [o] surfaced word-finally (as a syllable nucleus), while [w] surfaced when a vowel-initial suffix was added (i.e. as a syllable onset).

(2) a. NOM/ACC SG gëlo ~ gël-w-ër  b. NOM kneo
    DAT SG gël-w-em  GEN knëwes
    GEN SG gël-w-es

These data raise several questions: What was the phonemic status of the glide [w] and the vowel [o], and how can the alternations in (2) be analyzed? Do the data in (2) represent glide formation (/o/ > [w]), or vocalization (/w/ > [o])? And if (2) exemplifies glide formation or vocalization within morphemes, is this process also at play in the data in (1)? Namely, what are the arguments for two individual OHG phonemes (/w/ and /o/), if these segments only surfaced in complementary distribution?

We contend that both /w/ and /o/ were underlying in OHG because these segments are distinct in examples such as wurz ‘root’ and ouga ‘eye’; that is, if only /o/ were allowed underlyingly (and not /w/), it is not predictable when [wu] would surface verses [ou]. Secondly, underlying glides in OHG correspond to environments in Proto-Germanic which only licensed consonants. Thirdly, that [o] alternates with [w] in the data in (2) falls out from featural and syllabic restrictions in OHG. This being the case, we analyze the alternations of [w] ~ [o] from (2) as underlyingly /w/ (and not */o/). Thus, our analysis is one of vocalization, not glide formation.

This paper contributes to the phonological literature on OHG in several ways. First, we highlight and discuss data concerning [o] and [w], which have been given little attention in the previous literature. Second, we posit an analysis which accounts for these data and clarifies the phonemic status of both the glide [w] and the vowel [o]. In this way, we illuminate an underrepresented aspect of the OHG phonological system and extend the historical findings of underlying glides further into early Germanic stages (cf. Hall 2017).

References
Much of the SLA literature on study abroad (SA) focuses on linguistic gains, ignoring other aspects of experiences abroad, e.g., increases in cultural competency. Additionally, although most such studies address traditional “junior year abroad” or “semester abroad” SA programs, research on “short-term” programs has become increasingly important, as more students select this option for various reasons (graduation deadlines, financial reasons, etc.). In this study, I compare 19 students enrolled in third semester German in a short-term SA program in Würzburg, Germany with 36 students who completed the same course at the home university in the United States.

The effectiveness of short-term SA programs has already been investigated by several researchers, some of which argue that these shorter programs produce positive gains across learners, and others which suggest the opposite – that some learners were not entirely successful, showing gains that were no better than their home-university counterparts, or no gains at all. In these studies, again, the main assessment focus is linguistic, e.g., intonation, region specific pronoun usage, syntax, etc. Anderson et al. (2015), however, focused on the “development of cross-cultural sensitivity” in short-term programs and argues that yes, these programs “can have a positive impact” for participants (457). Despite the growing literature on such programs, then, little information is available on pragmatic, specifically pragmalinguistic gains, e.g., when is it appropriate to use formal and informal pronouns in everyday conversation?

For the current study, I therefore adapt a pragmatic exercise from Ishihara and Cohen (2010), in which students rate two different conversations for level of appropriateness based on the spoken and body language of each participant. The conversations are both short introductions, using vocabulary and phrases the students were familiar with and each had a few pragmalinguistic and morphosyntactic errors. I compare the results from the 19 students in the experimental group to 36 students in the control group. The control group of students completed the same task in the same course but took the course at the home university in the United States. One of the phrases I focus on for this study is: Nett, Ihnen kennen zu lernen (the correct version: Nett, euch kennen zu lernen). With this, I tested the students’ perception of formal vs. informal speech and case.

The initial results suggest that although the students abroad may have more insight, pragmatically, into introductions and “appropriate” body language for German introductions, only one participant corrected the morphosyntax, while others either completely eliminated the phrase, came up with creative alternatives, e.g., Nett, freut mich or Freut mich!, or left it as is. Conversely, students in the control group made more morphosyntactic changes, but they were not always pragmatically correct, e.g., changing Ihnen to Sie even though it should have been an informal introduction. This indicates that studying in the target environment does not necessarily equate to deeper linguistic knowledge, but improves pragmalinguistic awareness and creativity.

References
Mapping changes in the Norse reinforced demonstrative

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An unexamined assumption in the literature on the historical development of the Norse reinforced demonstrative ‘this’ (ON F/M.NOM.SG sjá, þessi, N.NOM/ACC.SG petta) is that Viking Age runic Norse forms like M.ACC.SG þinsa and N.NOM/ACC.SG þitsa are intermediates bridging earlier þansi / þatsi and later þina (penna) / þita (beta).

(1) Stage I Stage II Stage III
a. þansi > þinsa > þina
b. þatsi > þitsa > þita

On this view, there is a gradual evolution from ‘Stage I’ forms with the reinforcer -si (which is common to both North and West Germanic), to ‘Stage II’ forms with both the older reinforcer -s(i) and the newer (specifically Norse) reinforcer -a, to the ‘Stage III’ classical forms characterized by -a only. Haugen (1982: 101) asserts, for example, that *ns goes to nn by regular sound change (thus: M.ACC.SG þensa > þenna), and Armitage (1911: 207) has posited a parallel rule whereby *ts > tt (thus: N.NOM/ACC.SG þetsa > þetta).

In this paper I make the case that (1) is too simplistic and that the dialectal situation in Scandinavia was more complex. I take a quantitative approach to the runic data; while there are only a couple dozen N.NOM/ACC.SG reinforced demonstrative forms attested in the runic material, there are close to 800 M.ACC.SG occurrences, providing a solid empirical basis for studying isoglosses. Attestations are divided geographically into six main areas: West Norse (Norway and various isles in the North Atlantic), Norrland, Svealand, Götaland, Gotland, and Denmark (Skåne and modern-day Denmark). Inscriptions are also grouped into two major time periods: c.750-c.1010 and c.1000-c.1130 (cf. among others Gräslund 1991-2 for dating based on style/ornamentation).

Clear patterns emerge with regard to how the relative frequencies of the three M.ACC.SG variants (see (1a)) change in both space and time. Interestingly, the alleged chronology in (1) is not supported by my results. Notably, ‘Stage II’ forms are geographically very restricted, arising first in Svealand (probably Uppland), with modest spreading to neighboring areas in later decades. It is also crucial to take into account that ‘Stage I’ forms with -si are attested quite a bit later than expected if the chronology in (1) is correct, and that ‘Stage III’ forms with -a are attested much earlier than expected (consider Ribe’s M.DAT.SG þAIMA þaim-a, c.725).

Based on the dialect-geography snapshots afforded us by the Viking Age inscriptions, I will argue for a more coherent view of the variants in (1). I distinguish two waves of innovation with different centers of origin, with an overlap precisely where ‘Stage II’ forms are found. In other words, the form þen(n)sa can be understood as a blendform (cf. Noreen 1904: 399-400). The N.NOM/ACC.SG variants (1b) can be integrated straightforwardly into this analysis. The remainder of the reinforced demonstrative paradigm is more scantily attested, but clues can be gleaned about the (rather fitful) general development from internal to external inflection.

Despite the large body of research involving language learners and study abroad (henceforth SA), existing gaps have been noted for studies involving empirical research on the effects of SA in German-speaking countries (Ecke, 2014) and more specifically on the development of writing proficiency during SA (Isabelli-García et al., 2018). According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) writing proficiency guidelines, “Advanced” level writers demonstrate (among other criteria) the ability to “narrate and describe in the major time frames of past, present, and future, using paraphrasing and elaboration to provide clarity. Advanced-level writers produce connected discourse of paragraph length and structure.” This exploratory study examines L2 German expository and narrative texts written by a cohort of American university students (n=20) after an eleven-month study abroad program in Germany. More specifically, the present study seeks to address how these L2 writers use tense and modality within different clausal structures to narrate and describe text content, and further, how do these L2 texts compare with similar texts written by native speakers of German? Do L2 German learners show signs of advanced-level writing after a year abroad? Subsequent comparison data for L1 German texts were available online in the genre of *Auslandsstudium-Erfahrungsberichte*. Preliminary analyses of the L2 German texts suggest patterns within clausal structure, namely the use of subordination (cf., Baten & Håkansson, 2015) and organization of information with regards to tense-switching (cf. Schmiedtová & Sahonenkol 2012). Analyses of sentence complexity (cf., Ruf & Larson-Guenette, 2010) reveal particular patterns of subordination exhibited among this SA cohort. Results of this exploratory study will be addressed both in the context of pedagogical implications for college-level German language courses and existing L2 writing research (cf., Vyatkina, 2012; Schicker, 2018) to include directions for further research.
Revisiting Null Subjects in Yiddish

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One important debate in the analyses of Germanic languages is whether null subjects are best analyzed as pro-drop or topic drop constructions (Trutkowski, 2016). This debate is exacerbated in Yiddish. According to Speas (2006) and Koeneman (2006), referential subjects cannot be omitted in Yiddish (see also Jacobs, 2005 and Rosenkvist 2009, and references cited therein). In contrast, according to Prince (1998) whose analysis relies on the play Grine felder (Hirschbein, 1923), pro-drop is allowed only in clause-initial position.

The aim of the present study is to address this debate on understudied varieties of Central Yiddish currently spoken in Brooklyn, using two research strategies- the analyses of spontaneous speech and grammaticality judgments. Hasidic Yiddish-speakers make up a substantial proportion of the Borough Park and Williamsburg neighborhoods of Brooklyn, New York (Barrière, 2010) which is where the participants in our study reside. Grammaticality judgments were collected using two different questionnaires. The aim of the first one was to collect data on several construction that vary across different varieties of Yiddish in order to determine the properties of Hasidic Yiddishes. Fifteen questions focused on 2\textsuperscript{nd} person singular subject constructions. The participants ranked how often they would say three different sentences in any of five different word orders. Possible options were ‘Often’ (2), ‘Sometimes’ (1), and ‘Never’ (0). Examples of the five different word orders and presence (examples 1, 2 and 3) and absence (example 4 and 5) of subject are presented below.

1. \text{vilst-j} \  \text{ś piln} \ ? \quad 4. \text{vilst} \  \text{ś piln} \ ?
\begin{align*}
&\text{want2SG.you} \ \text{playNF} \ ? \\
&\text{‘Do you want to play?’}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
&\text{want2SG} \ \text{playNF} \ ? \\
&\text{‘Do (you) want to play?’}
\end{align*}

2. \text{ś piln} \  \text{vilst-j} \ ? \quad 5. \text{ś piln} \  \text{vilst} \ ?
\begin{align*}
&\text{PlayNF} \ \text{Want2SG.you} \ ? \\
&\text{‘Do you want to play?’}
\end{align*}
\begin{align*}
&\text{playNF} \ \text{want2SG} \ ? \\
&\text{‘Do you want to play?’}
\end{align*}

3. \text{dj} \ \text{vilst} \  \text{ś piln} \ ? \\
\begin{align*}
&\text{you} \ \text{want2SG} \ \text{playNF} \ ? \\
&\text{‘Do you want to play?’}
\end{align*}

Forty six percent (n=106) of the total number of data points involving null subjects were evaluated as acceptable. A second survey is currently examining whether subject drop is grammatical in constructions that involve a) other number and person markers b) syncretic 2\textsuperscript{nd} and 3\textsuperscript{rd} person inflectional agreement markers and c) structures that consist of several clauses. It is being administered to a larger pool of participants in the same neighborhoods in Brooklyn.

The results so far contribute new evidence against the claim that the omission of referential subjects is ungrammatical in today vernacular Hasidic Yiddish and/or that it is constrained to the first clause position. The discussion will focus on whether the null subject constructions found grammatical by our participants constitute cases of subject pro-drop or topic drop, as defined by Trutkowski (2016) for other Germanic languages.

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Tracing the Roots of Midwestern Pennsylvania Dutch: Data from Somerset County, PA
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All varieties of Pennsylvania Dutch spoken today are mutually intelligible and fall into one of two major groups: (a) those spoken by Amish and Old Order Mennonites residing in Lancaster County, PA, or settlements with close ties to Lancaster; and (b) those spoken in Midwestern and Plains states. Research on the development of Midwestern Pennsylvania Dutch, especially the work of Steven Hartman Keiser (e.g., Keiser 2012), points to the historical importance of Somerset County, PA. Located in the southwest of the Commonwealth at a considerable distance from the counties of the so-called Dutch Country of southeastern Pennsylvania where Pennsylvania Dutch developed in the 18th century, speakers began migrating to Somerset as early as the 1770s. Shortly after the turn of the 19th century, sectarians from Somerset started to relocate to Tuscarawas and Holmes counties in eastern Ohio, which today comprise the largest Amish settlement in North America. Since most Pennsylvania Dutch–speaking communities in the Midwest have a historical connection to eastern Ohio, understanding more about the language as spoken in Somerset can shed important light on how modern Midwestern and Lancaster varieties came to differ from one another.

To date, there has been just one study of the Pennsylvania Dutch of Somerset County, an article by Albert F. Buffington that appeared in 1980 and was based on interviews he conducted there between 1957 and 1960. Aside from a brief mention of this article by me in my 2016 monograph on the history of Pennsylvania Dutch, Buffington’s data have not found their way into published research on the origins of Midwestern varieties of the language.

In this presentation, after a review of Buffington’s findings I will draw on newly discovered data from a newspaper published in Somerset County, The Somerset Herald. Most written examples of Pennsylvania Dutch from the 19th and 20th centuries appeared as “dialect letters” in local newspapers like the Herald. Since Pennsylvania Dutch has been free of prescriptive norms, written texts in the language often approximate naturally occurring speech (language of proximity, in the sense of Koch and Oesterreicher 1986). Drawing on several dialect letters that appeared in the Herald in the 1890s, I will discuss lexical and morphosyntactic data that offer support for the thesis that earlier Somerset County Pennsylvania Dutch was indeed an antecedent of modern Midwestern varieties.

References:


The talk discusses similarities and differences between the passive systems of Germanic and Finno-Ugric languages within a multi-dimensional, cross-linguistic model that analyses the passive as activity aspect.

The theoretical framework proposed here diverges from traditional approaches in that the passive is not treated purely as a relation-changing grammatical category. In linguistic research, the function of the passive is generally described as restructuring of the subject–predicate relation: the passive is regarded either as a means to promote the object to subject position, or as a means to demote the agent from the subject status (e.g. Leiss 1992, Shibatani 1988). However, the relevance of verbal aspect for the definition of passive in English and in the Slavic languages has also been argued for (e.g. Beedham 1982, Dimitrova-Vulchanova 1999).

In contrast to these claims, in our theoretical model, the main function of the passive lies in its contribution to event type differentiation. We define the passive as one of the poles of the grammatical (verbal) category of activity aspect. Consequently, we do not limit the categorial content of the passive (as opposed to the active) to argument structure (‘diathesis’) or verbal aspect, but determine the function of the passive within the spectrum of event types: action (DO), process (GO) and state (BE). The passive is thus regarded as a morphological category (‘shifter’), occupying an intermediate position between the two readings of the morphological active, ACTIVE (for action (DO)) and INACTIVE (for process (GO) and state (BE)). It is also argued that the passive is closely related to the categories of aspect, diathesis and actionality and that it creates an intersection of these verbal categories.

The suggested theoretical analysis – based on typological considerations and historically documented data – offers an explanation for the relevant differences between the two language groups of the investigation with respect to the category of passive. Whereas Germanic languages have developed a wide range of passive constructions, the development of this category takes a totally different path in the Finno-Ugric languages. Interestingly, the existence of the category passive in some Finno-Ugric languages is still a controversial issue (see Dezső 1988, Berényi 2001, Manninen & Nelson 2004, etc.).

The empirical analysis following the presentation and discussion of the theoretical model should demonstrate the relevant differences between the “prototypical” passive constructions in Germanic languages (with special attention to German and Swedish) within the “passive map” and the constructions of Finno-Ugric languages (with focus on Hungarian and Finnish) located “on the border”, closely related to formal properties or interpretations typical for passives.

References
We trace the historical representation of the accented English of Germanic-speaking immigrant communities. Evidence from newspapers, theater and other sources points to significant disconnects between performed and observed linguistic features. Moquin & Salmons (2019) show that many phonological features used to perform Scandinavian American English were under- or over-represented compared to their actual occurrence in immigrant speech. We show here that the performance of Scandinavian American English relied heavily on features not found in Scandinavian American speech at all, but rather were features that especially reflect German American speech. These representations established themselves in the late 19th and early 20th c., times of great xenophobia and tensions over immigrant bilingualism. While performances are specifically identified with particular immigrant groups, e.g. Norwegian Americans, the representations signal first and foremost foreignness, with only a few features signaling, accurately or not, the speech of particular immigrant groups.

One way of diminishing social groups is to mischaracterize their speech. Hill (2018) shows how hyper-anglicized Spanish words index characteristics that reflect negatively on Spanish speakers but positively on white monolingual English speakers (laziness vs. relaxedness), which she identifies as a form of covert racism. Brown (2015) explores enregisterment of Pennsylvania Dutch speech patterns which were mischaracterized in efforts to heighten “otherness” and increase tourism. In our data, the effect seems to be bleaching out the specific identities of Norwegian or Swedish Americans by putting them into the same sociolinguistic melting pot as the largest immigrant group of the era, German Americans.

German, Scandinavian, and other immigrant groups shared some features in their English, like stopping of interdental fricatives, dem for ‘them’ or [v] for /w/. But some performed Scandinavian American features are only German. Distinctly non-Nordic “und” for and and the tag yes? were reported features of a Norwegian ‘masseuse to Hollywood stars’ (1930). “Und” also appears in the Swedish dialect routines of El Brendel, “America’s Swede-heart.” The 1940s play “I Remember Mama” about a Norwegian American family contains Germanisms including ‘devoicing’ (<goot> for good). The German American comedian Gus Heege was broadly accused of sounding “quasi-German” in his Swedish dialect performances.

In contrast, very few features of such performances were distinctly Scandinavian (Moquin & Salmons 2019). Dialect comedians often produced common or consistent [j] for /dʒ/, e.g. Yon Yonson. However, this was always infrequent in Scandinavian American English (Haugen 1952, Moen 1991, Simley 1930). Robustly attested features often do not get used in performance, e.g. realization of /z/ as [s].

Today, some ‘foreign’ features have faded ([v] for /w/) and others have become part of regional English, such as stopping or ‘final devoicing’ of especially /z/. Despite the mismatches with traditional speech patterns, yet other stereotypes have become part of communities’ own post-vernacular ethnolinguistic identities, such as [j] for /dʒ/ or [v] for /w/ in contemporary performances, including ‘Ole and Lena’ jokes.
Orthographic variation and the dialect of the *Hêliand* poet

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The *Hêliand* is the largest and most important work written in Old Saxon, yet its origins remain somewhat mysterious. While the *Hêliand* can easily be dated to the 9th century (Cathey 2002), the location where it was composed continues to be debated. This paper uses orthographic variation in the *Hêliand* and the minor Old Saxon texts to determine the dialect of the poem.

Because Old Saxon shows features of both North Sea Germanic and Continental West Germanic, it has been viewed as a mixed language or even a pidgin (Rauch 1992). However, we reject that view, instead following Stiles (2013) and Versloot & Adamczyk (2017) in situating Old Saxon on a dialect continuum between North Sea Germanic and Franconian dialects. We build on Versloot & Adamczyk’s methodology, in which they count 9 North Sea Germanic features in 42 minor Old Saxon texts. While Versloot & Adamczyk do not examine the *Hêliand*, they conclude that North Sea Germanic features in the minor texts are most frequent in Eastphalia (with river connections to the North Sea) and least frequent in Westphalia.

Using Tiefenbach’s (2010) dictionary, we counted dialectal features in the minor Old Saxon texts and in ms. M of the *Hêliand*. In all of these features, *Hêliand* consistently agrees with the minor texts from Westphalia, e.g. preserving the vowel *a* before nasals, in words like *dag* ‘day’, and in the plural of *mann*, while the minor texts from Eastphalia have (with North Sea Germanic) innovated *aN > oN, dag > deg*, and *mann > menn*. *Hêliand* also agrees with the minor Westphalian texts in preserving *bium* as the 1sg of the verb ‘to be’ (as opposed to Eastphalian and Franconian *bim*). This all suggests that the composer of *Hêliand* spoke a western variety of Old Saxon. The fact that *Hêliand* lacks many North Sea Germanic features does not imply that the language of the poem is a kind of Saxon/Franconian hybrid, as North Sea Germanic features in Old Saxon are limited to the Eastphalian dialects.

Another feature that we examined is the diphthongization of *ê>ie* and *ô>uo*, which is often attributed to High German influence. However, we find that *Hêliand* uses the monophthongs far more than the diphthongs (79% for *hêr* ‘here’ and 83% for *gôd* ‘good’). The sporadic use of the diphthongs may reflect the beginning of a phonological change, as this diphthongization also occurs in the later minor texts from Westphalia.

We therefore suggest that the *Hêliand* poet was a Westphalian, using mostly conservative Old Saxon features. The small number of apparently High German diphthongs could just as easily reflect genuine sound change in spoken Saxon as purely scribal influence from High-German-speaking copyists.

References
In 1968, the University of Texas at Austin hosted a symposium on “The German Language in America,” organized by Glenn Gilbert, who was then an assistant professor in the German Department there. The symposium consisted of two papers on varieties of German spoken in the USA (Pennsylvania German and Wisconsin German), one paper on Pennsylvania German folklore, and two papers that offered more general discussions of German in the USA. (A sixth paper, on German in Virginia and West Virginia, was included in the published volume based on the symposium.) In addition, three roundtable discussions were held at the symposium; the records of those discussions were also included in the published volume. In this paper, I contextualize the 1968 symposium within the history of linguistics and German Studies and evaluate its impact on the field.

The 1968 symposium took place at a tumultuous time in the history of linguistics in the USA. At this point, Chomskyan linguistics was steadily displacing American Structuralism as the dominant theoretical framework, and at the same time, Labovian sociolinguistics was beginning to push traditional approaches to dialectology aside. In some respects, then, the symposium and its subsequently published proceedings can be seen as an attempt to restore traditional approaches to dialectology to their earlier position of prominence (much like the 1966 conference on “Directions in Historical Linguistics,” also held at UT Austin, had tried to do for historical linguistics).

In terms of the symposium’s impact on the field, the published proceedings of the symposium met with something of a mixed reception (as shown in the reviews). However, the main purpose of the symposium was to spur more intensive discussion of the status of German in the USA, and the symposium did indeed accomplish this goal. Glenn Gilbert himself, for instance, published his monumental Linguistic Atlas of Texas German in 1972. On the other hand, some of the other potential projects outlined in the discussion sections (e.g. a comprehensive linguistic atlas of German in the USA) were never completed (although in fairness it should be noted that some of these projects were probably already impossible in 1968).

In sum, then, the symposium had mixed results, and was certainly typical of its time.
Fred Eikel and the Study of Texas German
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Fred Eikel, Jr. (1909-1967) was the first scholar to investigate Texas German extensively, specifically New Braunfels German (still the best-studied variety of Texas German). New Braunfels German was in fact Eikel’s native language (Eikel 1954: iv). Eikel’s most important contribution in this regard is his 1954 study, The New Braunfels German Dialect, which documents New Braunfels German as it was spoken in the early 1950s. Although it was never published – and was in fact never accepted as a dissertation (Pierce, Boas, and Gilbert 2018) -- a number of its findings were eventually published in a series of shorter articles, e.g. Eikel (1966a, 1966b), and it remains a foundational work on Texas German. This talk offers a preliminary assessment of Eikel’s place in the history of linguistics and of German Studies. We argue that Eikel’s work was groundbreaking, yet flawed. It is groundbreaking in that Eikel (1954) is the first large-scale studies of Texas German, meaning that numerous later studies (e.g. Gilbert 1972 and Boas 2009) use Eikel’s data as a diachronic base for their own investigations. It is flawed in that his data must sometimes be interpreted with caution, as he sometimes incorrectly (in our view) treats differences between Standard German and New Braunfels German as resulting exclusively from language change in New Braunfels German, and (again in our view) sometimes records forms that seem considerably too close to Standard German to be completely accurate. In addition, we contend that Eikel’s work had less of an impact on the field than it should (or could) have had, largely because New Braunfels German was viewed as not being a valid object of study by numerous American Germanisten and because Eikel did not hold a position at a major research university.

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Traditionally, the morphosyntax of the adjective in early Germanic has been defined in terms of the features of gender, number, case and definiteness (determination). The feature of definiteness, realised via the opposition of morphologically strong and weak forms (Goth. STR ubil-s ‘evil’ vs. WK sa ubil-a ‘the/that evil (one)’) is by far the most problematic one in terms of both its historical development and its theoretical status as a grammatical feature.

It has recently been argued on the basis of analyzing the evidence of morphological and lexical variation in Gothic, that the strong : weak opposition is not merely one based on ±definiteness, but the variation in the type and syntactic realization of the (weak) adjective inflection is sensitive to features such as classification and identification (Ratkus 2018a, b). More specifically, there is sufficient evidence in Gothic to show – contrary to convention – that the weak form of the adjective is not triggered by the definite determiner (cf. Ringe 2017: 195).

By building on this recent philological research, it is argued here that the definite value of the weak adjective inflection in Gothic (and, by extension, early Germanic) is realised via the co-occurrence of the definite determiner and the weak inflection. In other words, the DET+WKADJ syntactic construction is an example of periphrasis. In particular, by expressing a grammatical feature (of definiteness) similar to that conventionally realised by inflection alone, it fills a cell in an otherwise inflectional paradigm, thereby straddling the morphology-syntax boundary. Thus, DET+WKADJ periphrase fulfils the requirements of “canonical” morphology (Brown et al. 2012).

As a periphrastic structure, the DET+WKADJ construction fulfils the criteria of “canonical” syntax. Namely, it (1) consists of two words that each have an independent syntactic status outside the periphrase, which obeys the general rules of syntax; (2) the periphrase has an identifiable head: the categorial head (i.e. the determiner) bears the key morphosyntactic information central to the periphrase as a whole, and the categorial core (i.e. the adjective) provides the semantic information.

An appreciation of weak forms of the adjective in Gothic and other older Germanic languages in “canonical” terms offers some interesting theoretical generalizations. For example, the criterion of dedicated from, fulfilled by the Gothic periphrase, is violated by Old English, where the weak forms of adjectives co-occur not only with the definite determiner but also the possessive pronoun (e.g. mīn lēof-a sunu ‘my dear-DEF son’). This presumably suggests that a former periphrastic structure was later reanalyzed as an agreement phenomenon. Finally, the admission that DET+WKADJ is a periphrastic construction implies that it arose via some form of grammaticalisation, which poses a challenge to the traditional Osthoffian hypothesis of the origin of the weak adjective.

The German Medical Incunabula Corpus (GeMedIC):
Creation and application

Advancements in open-source optical character recognition (OCR) software make it possible to produce accurate, semi-automated digital transliterations of incunabula, the very first European books created with the moveable type printing press (see Odebrecht 2016, Springmann 2016, et al.). Prior to this, the recognition of such works proved difficult due to the irregularity of the characters and the complexity of the Gothic, Schwabacher, and Antiqua scripts. This paper documents the employment of OCR technology in the creation of a new resource of 15th-century texts called the German Medical Incunabula Corpus (GeMedIC). It first explains the process of GeMedIC’s creation including the employment of the open-source text recognition software OCRopus (Breuel 2014) and the correction tool PoCoTo (CIS 2016). This section highlights the challenges behind preprocessing and post-processing historical documents in addition to the training of OCR models. Next, it explores the corpus structure. GeMedIC currently consists of a selection of 20 texts listed in Karl Sudhoff’s (1908) Deutsche medizinische Inkunabeln which were printed in Augsburg—the first city that specialized in printing German vernacular texts. The presentation concludes with a lexical study. The word-tokens of each text within the corpus are compared to those of the Bonner Frühneuhochdeutschkorpus in order to create a significant set of key nouns. This ultimately produces a glossary of German medical jargon from a time in which Latin remained the lingua franca for the genre.

Selected Bibliography


Wu denkscht as der John is? or Wua jleewst du wua John es? – Differences in complex wh-dependencies in two Germanic minority languages in Kansas and Ohio

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Wh-dependencies and the restrictions that they underlie have been studied for many languages both based on acceptability judgments and more recently on additional measures. While many languages allow for long-distance (LD) movement of wh (1), they often differ in whether and at what developmental stage they license other forms of medial wh-movement (2-3) (Guasti 2002).

1) Where; do you think ___; John is ___? (Long-distance)

2) *What do you think where; John is ___? (Scope-marking)

3) *Where; do you think where; John is ___? (Copy)

English only licenses LD, whereas languages like German allow for all three options. While most studies investigate college-level learners of standardized languages, and emphasize an acquisition perspective, data from oral and heritage languages with an emphasis on language maintenance are scarcer. We present data on wh-movement from two different minority language communities in the US, namely Plautdietsch-English bilingual speakers in Kansas (Hopp et al. 2018) and Pennsylvania Dutch-English bilingual speakers in Ohio. These speaker groups differ in their degree of proficiency in both languages: The Kansas speakers are either a) early learners of English (age of acquisition <13 years), i.e. heritage speakers of Plautdietsch, or b) late learners of English (age of acquisition >21 years), i.e. dominant speakers of Plautdietsch. In contrast, the Ohio speakers represent balanced bilinguals of Pennsylvania Dutch (L1) and English (L2). Importantly, wh-dependencies have not been explored before in Plautdietsch or Pennsylvania Dutch. Both studies share the same methodology, i.e. collection of production (Slavkov 2015) and judgment data for matrix, embedded and LD questions, yet present quite different outcomes.

For Kansas, Hopp et al. show group effects for language in early vs. late learners, in that less complex structures, i.e. structures that employ medial wh are used more in the less dominant language, independently of whether this is the speakers’ L1 (Plautdietsch) or L2 (English). In contrast, preliminary results from Ohio show that speakers rated adjunct (e.g. where) extraction higher than argument (e.g. what) extraction in more complex wh-questions in an acceptability judgment task, independently of whether extraction was in English or Pennsylvania Dutch. Thus, we see two groups of Germanic minority language speakers in contact with English who treat complexity in wh-movement in both of their languages quite differently.

In this paper, we advance a comparison of these different wh-movement strategies, and expand the phenomenon into understudied languages and speaker communities. Through the study of different speaker groups, as well as different languages, we can test the effects of cross-linguistic influence as well as approach questions of complexity in wh-movement.

References:
Indefinite Prenominal Possessives in Yiddish

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Contextualization: The interpretation of a possessive DP depends on the definiteness of the possessor itself (but also Alexiadou 2005). This is often called Definiteness Spread:
(1) a. * There was John’s book on the table. b. There was a man’s dog in the garden.

Data: There are two types of prenominal possessives in Yiddish:
(2) a. mayn khaver b. mayner a khaver
   my friend mine a friend
Like in (2a), the possessive pronominal in (2b) can be replaced by a proper name or a regular noun phrase ((3a) is from Lockwood 1995: 110; (3b) is from Jacobs 2005: 243):
(3) a. Yitskhoks a bri b. dem rovs an eynikl
   Isaac’s a letter the rabbi’s a grandchild
These constructions form constituents. Focusing on (2b), this can be shown, among others, by PPs (4a). Moreover, the possessive can be sandwiched between eyner and the indefinite article (4b) (cf. eyner a khaver ‘a certain friend’; (4a) and (4b) are from Olsvanger’s Röyte p. 142, 150):
(4) a. tsu irer a khaverte b. eyner zayne a khaver
   to hers a friend one his a friend
This consituency is confirmed by the fact that the possessive, the indefinite article, and the noun must all agree in case, number, and gender:
(5) a. maynem a gutn khaver b. * mayne(r) a khaveyrim
   mine-MASC.ACC a good-MASC.ACC friend mine-PL(MASC) a friends
In reference books, (2b) is rendered as ‘a friend of mine’ or ‘one of my friends’ (Jacobs 2005).

Three arguments show that (2a) and (2b) are systematically different. First, it is clear that Peter is married and Peter is not married is contradictory if Peter is the same person. There is a difference in Yiddish when mayn khaver replaces both names vs. when mayner a khaver replaces both names. The first leads to a contradictory statement and the second is non-contradictory:
(6)a. Mayn khaver iz a khasene-gehater un mayn khaver iz nisht keyn khasene-gehater.
   ‘My friend is married and my friend is not married.’
   b. Mayner a khaver iz a khasene-gehater un mayner a khaver iz nisht keyn khasene-gehater.
   ‘A friend of mine is married and a friend of mine is not married.’
Second, both types of possessives behave differently in presentational (exisntential) sentences (cf. Jacobs 2005: 225; \(m = \) marked):
(7) a. \(m\) S’iz do dayn khaver in gortn. b. S’iz do dayner a khaver in gortn.
   ‘There is your friend in the garden.’ ‘There is a friend of yours in the garden.’
Third, khaver has different meanings: khaver means both ‘boy-friend’ and ‘friend’ in (2a) but only ‘friend’ in (2b). We conclude that unlike (2a), (2b) is indeed indefinite.

Proposal: I propose that uninflected zayn is in the DP-level of the matrix nominal (8a). This immediately explains its complementary distribution with the indefinite article. As for inflected zayner, I propose it is part of a second nominal embedded inside the matrix nominal (8b):
(8) a. \[[DP zayn [NP khaver]]\] b. \[[XP [DP Ø zayner en] a [NP khaver]]\]
If we assume that zayner is lower inside the embedded nominal (indicated by Ø in (8b)), several facts follow: zayner does not “overwrite” the indefiniteness of the hosting noun phrase (in fact, there is no clash in definiteness), and a backward anaphor does not simultaneously precede and c-commend its antecedent (Langacker 1969). XP in (8b) can be shown to be located above the matrix DP-level (9a) is from Mark 1978: 243; (9b) is from Olsvanger’s L’Chayim p. 29:
(9) a. undzere epes a kroyve b. zaynem take a gevezenem talmid
   our some a kinswoman his really a former student
Applying the Albrightian predictability-based model to analogy in Old High German verbs
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Albright (2002) suggests a predictability-based model to explain how paradigms in a language are organized synchronically, as well as how the direction of analogical change is determined. The principle of his hypothesis is that the form which is the most informative in the paradigm and can be used to deduce other forms most accurately is regarded as the base. Rules are constructed around the base, so that other forms can be derived as correctly as possible. In language acquisition, learners initially have all forms in the paradigm as potential bases as they collect data, and compare the ease with which they derive other forms from each candidate. Once they have accumulated sufficient data to choose the base, they start constructing a grammar around the base to derive the rest of forms. Such a paradigm organization is a basis for paradigm leveling, predicting that archaic non-base forms tend to be replaced by forms that are derived from the base with the most accurate rules.

In the development from Old High German (OHG) to Modern High German (NHG), however, different directions of leveling is found when the five verb stems in OHG paradigm merge into the three-stem NHG paradigm, e.g. the past 1st and 3rd singular stem is spread into other past forms in Strong Class III, whereas it is leveled by other past forms in Strong Class I & V. This is not consistent with the assumption of unified based form in Albrightian model.

Nevertheless, it is worth testing which stem Albright’s model will choose as base form for OHG verb paradigm. In this study, words with token frequency of 10 or more in Das Referenzkorpus Altdeutsch are fed to the model. It focuses on each candidate stem and constructs derivational rules around the candidate by comparing and combining shared segments and phonological features of word-specific rules across the data. Each generalized rule has a confidence score for quantitative comparison. The larger portion of correct outcomes a rule is able to predict and the larger size of the data it is applicable to, the higher its confidence score is.

The results show OHG stems are apparently separated into two groups: stems for present singular forms, other present forms and past participle forms are good at predicting each other, and stems for past 1st/3rd singular forms and other past forms show tighter mutual relationship. However, the accuracy of cross-group prediction is poor. When Strong stems and Weak stems are tested separately, the pattern shown among Strong stems is quite different from the tendency found across all stems or among Weak stems: Strong stems have higher accuracy in predicting the whole paradigm than weak stems. Fewer rules can be constructed for Strong stems, and the gap between present forms, past participle forms and past forms, which is remarkable in pattern across all data and among Weak stems, are much vaguer. Yet a single base form that is distinctively more reliable in predicting all stems than other forms cannot be identified. It can be assumed that reliability in prediction of forms is not decisive in determining the direction of leveling in the change from OHG to NHG.
One of the puzzling questions of Nordic language history involves the nominative singular of the masculine n-stems as part of the weak inflection. The problem is tied in with the earliest attested Scandinavian runic form **harja** on the Vimose comb from Denmark dated to AD 150/160 (see Imer 2015). Almost seventy years after Nils Lid (1952) published his influential paper on this topic, there is still no consensus in sight.

The longstanding traditional theory (e.g. Prokosch 1938: 250) posits a direct phonological route from IE -ḗn (Gk. ποιμήν, as against ἡγेमων) via Early Runic / North Gmc. -ǽ to Old Norse -i/-e (e.g. *hani* M. ‘rooster’). This theory is advocated, among others, by Scovazzi (1966), Harðarson (2005), Nedoma (2005) and Andersson (2012). Given this theory is correct, Early Runic **harja** should be read as /harjæ:/ as its desinence continues IE /-ē(n)/.

The competing view advanced by Nils Lid (1952) and developed by his followers, among others Springer (1975), Nielsen (2000), Grønvik (2010), invokes paradigmatic restructuring processes coupled with the rise of the Gender First-principle (see Schulte 2018: 31, 65‒69). The major argument is the trend in Germanic toward a consistent morphological gender system brought about by masc. -an- versus fem. -ōn-. Arguably this pattern is reinforced by the distinction between -a- and -ō- in the strong inflection following the model of proportional analogy or analogy proper. Thus **harja** represents a phonological form /harja/ with short /-a/. As Van Loon (2005: 180–185) notes, pro-portional analogy is operational in various processes of language change and word-formation. I argue that this gender-based system makes persistent headway in Early North Germanic and that it is underway already in the earliest (pre-classical) runic inscriptions dating to the 2nd and 3rd centuries (on the development of Germanic grammatical gender see especially Schwink 2004).

The paper synthesizes the available Germanic evidence, not least runic attestations, and it assesses the arguments for and against both the two major theories. Not least, attention is paid to the major shift from transparent IE word structure to levelling processes in Germanic, first and foremost the Gender first principle in the nominal inflection.
The Awfully Elusive German Language:  
In Search of a Property Theory of Mid and Back Continuants

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German mid and back continuants [sʃʒçxχʀh], especially alternation of [ç] and [x/χ] due to dorsal fricative assimilation (DFA), are well-known in German linguistic research; e.g., [11]. Given the prominence of German as a foreign language in the United States [3], their representation and perception are of interest to research in second language (L2) phonology.

Research on mid and back continuants arises in numerous fields. Phonetic investigations comparing these sounds to each other [7, 9] or to similar sounds in other languages, e.g., [2], are rare and not exhaustive--often, [h] and other back fricatives are omitted. Psycholinguistic (e.g., phoneme detection, [10]) and neurolinguistic (e.g., event-related potentials, [8]) studies provide evidence that German native speakers (NS) are sensitive to violations of DFA in auditory stimuli; however, due to differences in task design, divergent results, and dialectal variation [4], the psychological status of this alternation remains unclear. Characterization of the representation of /h/ as a consonant also differs between theories, including lack of phonological Place, Pharyngeal Place, or either (not both), with implications for all back continuants [1, 5, 6].

Results of a [t]-detection experiment with nonwords featuring fricatives [ç x h] in a (C)CV_t frame (e.g., [gaxt gɛçt], *[gaçt gɛxt], and *[gaht gɛht]) are reported for NSs and early L2 adult learners. Surprisingly, NSs showed no consistent processing effect in response to violations of DFA and only a marginal trend toward slower reaction time (RT) for [h] appearing illicitly in syllable codas. In contrast, L2 learners showed a marginal trend toward faster RT for DFA violations and robustly slower RT for Coda-[h]. These results and previous theoretical and experimental research informs specific recommendations for future L1 and L2 German research.

References
First things first: What’s the realest (in ninth century German)?
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This talk draws on Koch & Oesterreicher’s (1985) paradigm of *Sprache der Nähe-Sprache der Distanz* (‘language of nearness/distance’) and Walter Ong’s (2012) descriptions of primary oral cultures to argue against the prevailing assumption that the poetic works of the ninth century German corpus are syntactically problematic and rife with extragrammatical structures. This assumption, I argue, is based on anachronistic judgments of poetic language as being stylistically marked, highly literary and peripheral to, or even divorced from, most speakers’ usual linguistic output. I furthermore argue that the poetic language in German’s earliest attested form occupies a central place in a ninth century continuum of linguistic output in that it directly connects to the mnemonic language that was the sole means of transmitting culture from one generation to the next in a primary oral culture.

The structure of the talk is as follows. First, I discuss Koch & Oesterreicher’s framework for analyzing the degree to which a historical text exhibits features of *Mündlichkeit* or *Schriftlichkeit*. I interpret the poles of the *Sprache der Nähe-Sprache der Distanz* continuum as being crucially distinguished by the degree of mediation; that is, *Sprache der Nähe* is the most spontaneous, *Sprache der Distanz*, the most mediated. Application of the cognitive constraints associated with producing language at the extreme ends of the poles yields a different set of linguistic possibilities for speakers from different eras—the primary oral speaker versus the modern speaker versus the newly literate ninth century speaker, particularly in regard to the relative prominence of mnemonic, or poetic, language on the continuum. That is, for the early medieval speaker, language that is public, planned and worthy of remembrance would naturally be expressed in a form that once facilitated its recall. The language, I argue, would be rhythmic; it would rhyme or alliterate. Latin would be another relevant feature for ninth century literates that would map onto more mediated forms of language.

In the second part of the talk, I discuss the implications the above insights have for how we analyze early medieval data and deal with linguistic variation across texts. What weight should we place on syntactic structures that are generally present in poetry but not translational texts (like asyndetic verb-final clauses) or vice versa (like *pro*-drop)? In this section I also highlight that main and subordinate clauses are more clearly distinguished in the translational East Franconian *Evangelienharmonie* than in the poetic Old Saxon *Héliand* and the South Rhenish Franconian *Evangelienbuch*, a fact that is best contextualized within the ninth century continuum of linguistic output. That is, we can accept the clausal systematicity of the Tatian as a “real” feature of that text, albeit one that is more mediated, shaped more immediately by a Latin source and likely also affected by the imposition of a set of norms that guided its translation. At the same time we can accept as equally “real” the absence of the same systematicity in the writing of the *Héliand* poet and Otfrid, whose outputs fall on different points along the continuum, and refrain from resolving the clausal ambiguities that are evidently present.


Intensifying adverbs have revealed various findings about language variation and change. For instance, studies have found that intensifiers function as parts within a multi-dimensional system which are sensitive to social factors such as sex and age. As a result, this has led to the claim that women use intensifiers more frequently than men (Xiao & Tao 2007). While the study of English intensifiers has been a topic of much empirical discourse (Ito & Tagliamonte 2003; Xiao & Tao 2007), intensification in the German language is underexplored. To date, no studies have investigated how German intensifiers are distributed within a multi-dimensional system and no studies have empirically investigated the effects of social factors on their use.

Using the largest available corpus of present-day spoken German (Forschungs- und Lehrkorpus Gesprochenes Deutsch ‘Research and Teaching Corpus of Spoken German’) the present study addresses the following questions. Firstly, which are the most frequently used German intensifiers and are specific types of intensifiers (i.e., Verstärker ‘amplifiers’) more frequent than others (i.e., Begriffsminderung ‘downtoners’)? Secondly, is the use of intensifiers sensitive to the social factors sex and age?

Methodologically, 5,000 adjectives were randomly extracted from the corpus and were coded based on whether they had been intensified or not (1 = yes, 0 = no). This approach of including both occurrence and absence of intensifiers is in line with the established practice in variationist sociolinguistics. Doing so, allowed for an analysis of the overall intensification rate, the most frequently used adjective intensifiers, and the influence of social predictors.

Results indicate that German adjectives are intensified by intensifiers at a rate of 37% which corroborate crosslinguistic findings from English (Tagliamonte 2016). As for the distributional frequency, amplifiers were found to be more frequent than downtoners, and boosters were found to be more frequent than maximizers, which also corroborate findings from English (D’Arcy 2015: 460). Finally, a mixed effects logistic regression model was run which included the ‘speaker’ as a mixed effect and used intensification (1 = yes, 0 = no) as the dependent variable. Results indicated that women do have a statistical tendency to use German intensifiers more frequently than men. However, men were found to use downtoners, which are intensifiers which scale down the meaning of an adjective (e.g., ein bisschen ‘a bit’), more frequently than women.

Therefore, the present study provides support to the claim that women have a statistical tendency to use intensifiers more frequently than men but this study also suggests that men have a statistical tendency to use German downtoners more frequently than women. Broadly speaking, this finding may suggest something about the anthropological and sociological nature of being male or female in general, namely that women tend to describe a property as being higher than the assumed norm whereas men have a tendency to describe it as being lower than the assumed norm. This study also suggests that the distribution of the German intensifier system resembles what has been observed previously in other Germanic languages.

References
"Ischwöre dass es so krasse is": Kiezdeutsch among recent immigrant youth

This exploratory study investigates the use of Kiezdeutsch among recent teenage immigrants in Berlin. Kiezdeutsch, a controversial multiethnolect that has received increased attention in research since the 1990s, is usually spoken by second or third generation immigrants and combines elements of youth language, immigrant language loanwords, and shares certain grammatical features with standard German.

This study demonstrates the use of Kiezdeutsch among recent immigrant youth and their familiarity with its linguistic properties, as a specific speech community that has not been focused on in previous research (e.g. Wiese 2006, 2012; Keim 2012; Dirim & Auer 2004). Thus, the central focus of the study sought to investigate the following questions: To what extent do recent immigrant youth use Kiezdeutsch? Are they able to differentiate between social registers and further employ appropriate language use in social situations?

At the time of the study, the participants \((n=6)\) were seventh grade students at a Berlin Integrierte Sekundarschule, aged 13-15, whose residency in Germany ranged between 18 months and four years. Each participant had spent time in a “Willkommensklasse” (a preparation class for students with no prior German language experience) and attended additional German language classes. Using a method adapted from Wiese et al. (2014), the participants were presented with two oral tasks involving situations with varying degrees of formality to elicit either Kiezdeutsch or standard German, therefore requiring different registers.

Initial data analyses reveal that five out of six participants used at least one established linguistic feature associated with Kiezdeutsch while three participants employed multiple features. None of the participants used any evidence of Kiezdeutsch features while speaking in a formal register, indicating that they are aware of the properties of Kiezdeutsch and its role as an informal register. Preliminary findings of this study suggest that recent immigrant youth can be proficient speakers of Kiezdeutsch as well as standard German. Implications of this study will be discussed in the context of further research that may provide insights into larger sociopolitical debates currently taking place in Germany.

References


Dynamic Networks and the Analysis of Light Verbs in Germanic

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In this paper, we propose a new way to analyze light verbs in the history of several Germanic languages that relies on the analysis of dynamic linguistic networks. Since Jespersen (1942), light verbs have been known as semantically deficient verbs, as in English *make, take, give, have,* and *get.* When combined with an object complement, light verbs may form a complex predicate whose meaning can be expressed by a corresponding simplex verb (e.g., *make an assumption* vs. *assume*). The verbo-nominal type of Light Verb Construction (LVCs) is well attested cross-linguistically (Butt 2003) and appears in the early stages of most Germanic languages (Ronan 2014). Historically, light verb + noun pairings undergo interesting changes throughout their history, as seen in diachronic studies of English (Elenbaas 2013), German (Tao 1997, Seifert 2016), and Swedish (Sundquist 2018), among many other diachronic analyses. Through comparative data from corpora of early stages of Swedish and early American English, we demonstrate how analytical and visualization tools from network science shed new light on diachronic developments of LVCs.

In the methodological portion of the paper, we first discuss issues related to the classification and data collection of LVCs in several Germanic languages. Using examples from Old Swedish texts (e.g., *Fornsvenska Textbanken* via *Språkbanken* and the *Korp* concordance tool from Borin et al 2012), we address challenges in identifying, extracting, and filtering relevant examples of light verb-noun pairings from corpora. Next, we discuss additional methodological issues related to genre balance and representativeness of corpora as they pertain to LVCs. Using the Old Swedish corpus, we demonstrate the effects that genre differences have on LVC variation across time. Lastly, we present data from each decade in the Corpus of Historical American English (COHA, 1810-2010) for comparison and demonstrate a way to prepare LVC data properly for advanced network analysis.

In the second part of the paper, we present an example of how to analyze LVCs with software from the study of social and ecological networks. Assuming that verbs function as "hubs" and nouns may be linked to these verbs by means of their frequent co-occurrence in verb-noun pairings, we analyze the structural characteristics of this dynamic network, tracking how some verbs' group of connections grow and expand while others shrink over time. UCINET (Borgatti et al 2002), as well as the open-source program Gephi, allows for the analysis of a two-mode network (i.e., two different sets of nodes), here with 10 verbs (3 light verbs and 7 lexically-specific verbs) and 33,245 noun collocates from COHA. We analyze various two-mode network measurements, including normalized degree-, eigenvector-, and closeness-centrality, as well as clustering of sub-groups.

The network data on LVCs provide us with insight into how collocational networks of light verbs change over time and how light verbs form a closed class of verb that differs significantly from more lexically-specific verbs. The network analytical tools allow for more comprehensive synthesis of the data and shed new light on the interaction of several interacting factors that would otherwise not be evident. The implications for this study are that this approach to quantitative data and visualization may be useful in other analyses that examine frequency, lexical diversity, statistical variation, and large datasets in diachronic studies.
On the semantic development of deer, beast, animal in English

Three words, deer, beast and animal, have in turn been the superordinate Old, Middle and Modern English terms denoting a ‘living being’ (The Oxford English Dictionary (OED): ‘animal 1’). Two of these words, beast and animal, are loanwords, which is noteworthy as words within the basic vocabulary, i.e. “words which are indispensable in our daily life” (Stockwell and Minkova 2001), are seldom borrowed.

Like cognates in other Germanic languages, for instance German Tier and Swedish djur, English deer originates in common Germanic *deuzam, ‘breathing creature’, from Indo-European *dheusóm (The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology (ODEE)), and is “generally referred to a root dhus to breathe” (OED: ‘deer’). Old and early Middle English deer was the generic term for ‘living being’, which is seen in texts from this period, for instance A Bestiary from the early 13th century, where deer is applied to harts, foxes, elephants, ants, and to the panther: “Panter is an wilde der”.

Beast, from Old French beste, derived from Latin bestia (OED: ‘beast’), was introduced into English in the period after the Norman Conquest, and the loanword eventually displaced the Germanic word deer as the generic term for ‘living being’, and deer became restricted to the sense of “quadrupeds, distinguished by the possession of deciduous branching horns or antlers” (OED: ‘deer 2’).

Animal, in this study used as the generic term for ‘living being’, was borrowed from Latin towards the end of the 16th century (OED: ‘animal’) but is not a frequently used word in English literature until the 18th century. Animal is thus a relatively recent addition to the English vocabulary.

This paper examines the semantic development and different uses of ca. 1,000 instances of deer, beast and animal in English literary texts, prose and verse, written in the Middle English and Early Modern English periods, and discusses how factors such as changes in society, semantic need, translation, loanword prestige and fashion may have contributed to the specialization of the common Germanic word deer and to the introduction and increasing use of the loanwords beast and animal.

References


Old English i-umlaut as a stem-level constraint

I-umlaut is a vowel harmony process based on the feature [+front], which historically is treated as a sound change operating in the pre-history of Old English. The question addressed here is the synchronic phonemic status of i-umlaut in attested Old English (c.700-c.1100). Is the front vowel harmony an allophonic rule (or constraint), as Dresher, Fikkert and Lahiri (1985; 2006) argue, or are i-umlaut outcomes phonemic? Using Stratal Optimality Theory it will be argued that i-umlaut has spread to stem-level phonology by the Old English period.

Kiparsky’s (2006) Stratal Optimality Theory proposes three levels of phonological constraint: post-lexical, word-level, and stem-level. One way of applying the theory to the problem of i-umlaut is to make use of all three levels, something not suggested before for Old English. The fundamentals of the analysis are as follows. The constraint imposing i-umlaut is AGREE(FRONT). Language learners then acquire a morphological system which apparently has a singular nominative masculine and neuter ending -Ø across the board in all strong nouns. Final –e in nouns like spere, although historically */i/, is understood as being stem-final, allowing correspondence with cynn-Ø, sceip-Ø, stān-Ø. AGREE(FRONT) can then be acquired as ranked above faithfulness constraints at the stem-level, since it apparently operates within stems not inflected words. Language learners might then demote AGREE(FRONT) at word-level, since the stem-level constraint is morphologically sufficient. With AGREE(FRONT) demoted at word-level, surface forms like ānlic, without front harmony are the best candidates, since word-level constraints no longer select a candidate with a front vowel.

The data considered consists of class 1 weak verbs, the strong nouns in general, and in particular, nouns like fot with a plural fet. Surface forms which apparently fail to show the front vowel harmony are also important, like eowiċ and usiċ and forms with various suffixes and the “instrumental” desinence –i which occurs in early texts, for example fācni and rōdi.

For the class 1 weak verbs, treating i-umlaut as a stem-level constraint brings additional complications, since the /j/ <i> in nerian has to be treated as part of the stem. However, the morphological difficulties of class 1 weak verbs are not insurmountable and offer a synchronically motivated approach to the interaction of stem and ending in weak verbs.

This new theoretical application to Old English phonology offers a fresh insight into the history of English, historical learner acquisition, and the distinctions between historic and synchronic analyses of older languages.

Texas Germans and Transnationalism

This paper discusses whether Texas Germans can be viewed through the lens of transnationalism. As a group, Texas Germans exhibit a rich cultural and linguistic heritage, both of which have significantly contributed to the formation of a strong sense of ‘Texas-Germanness’ (Boas, 2009; Boas & Fingerhuth, 2017). I investigate whether the group’s linguistic and cultural heritage promotes the idea of “Germanness beyond Germany” (Maxwell & Davis, 2016). My goal is to determine if Texas Germans represent a new form of linguistic transmigrant, specifically a many-generation (i.e. post-third generation immigrant individual or group) immigrant exhibiting cultural and emotional ties to the country of ancestry because of their linguistic heritage. The paper is structured as follows: In section 1, I first introduce some of the discourse surrounding transnationalism. Section 2 provides an important sociohistorical and linguistic background on TxG. Section 3 discusses my research objectives and methodology. Section 4, the main part of the paper, contains my analysis. Section 5 concludes and provides an outlook for further research.

Over the past two decades, the phenomenon, theory and experience of transnationalism has emerged as an important concept in the social sciences. Particularly in immigration studies, a growing body of literature has described manifold scenarios of migration and analyzed the “multiplicity of involvements that transmigrants sustain in both home and host societies” (Basch et al., 1994: 7). Given that “transnationalism has been with us for a long time, and a comparison with the past allows us to assess just what is new about the patterns and processes involved in transnational ties today” (Foner, 1997: 71), researchers have also begun to investigate the transnational character of historical groups. Recently, the phenomenon has attracted the attention of disciplines such as applied linguistics/sociolinguistics which aim to explore the intersections of transnationalism, concepts of identity, and language (multilingualism) (see Duff, 2015).

My goal is to assess the extent of a German element in hyphenated Texas Germans. Ultimately, and given my attempt in applying a transnational approach, I investigate to what degree the group’s linguistic and cultural heritage may represent transnational ‘ways of belonging,’ i.e. practices signaling an identity with another people or place (Glick Schiller, 2003), and whether potential cultural, physical, and emotional ties suggest the existence of a ‘third space’ (e.g. Skop, 2014; Pries, 2010; Faist, 1999; Bhabha, 1994). In doing so, the paper specifically looks at concepts of identity, language attitudes, cultural expression (symbols, practices, and artifacts), as well as physical and emotional ways of belonging. My research utilizes a mixed-methods approach and consults both quantitative (biographical questionnaires) and qualitative data (open-ended interviews; semi-structured phone interviews). Biographical questionnaires and open-ended interviews stem from the Texas German Dialect Project (TGD; www.tgdp.org). To assess emotional components and other notions of belonging, the (narrative) analysis is also informed by a total of six semi-structured phone interviews conducted by the researcher – these lasted between 15–25 minutes and were based on a series of specifically tailored questions. My results indicate the presence of various transnational elements (e.g. language, food, music, or the celebration of holidays such as St. Nikolaus or Christmas) and confirm that both linguistic and cultural heritage are defining elements in the construction and maintenance of Texas German identity. I show how language is of vital importance to both identity and memory. These two concepts appear to be tied together by a linguistic band. Language maintenance may, thus, also serve as a potential way to preserve and ‘hold on’ to these memories.
This paper investigates the use of periphrastic verbal forms (comprised of modal or auxiliary verbal constructions) in the Middle High German text, “Innsbrucker Osterspiel”. This work, despite its name, contains text more closely aligned with Thuringian Middle High German, i.e., a form of *Mitteldeutsch* instead of *Oberdeutsch* suggested by the Innsbruck provenance. In this essay we examine the variation in verbal brace formation, including nominal elements displaced from the brace and also analyse the variation in light of prosodic or focus-based motivations in the discourse.

It is generally understood that the verbal brace (*Verbalklammer*) and its constituent grammar of verb-second (V2) positioning for auxiliary elements is a significant feature in both Dutch and German language varieties. The historical grammaticalization of the *Verbalklammer* is a fruitful subject for research, and the examples in the Osterspiel serve to highlight a transitional period of linguistic experimentation before more modern rules of usage and grammaticality take root. As an example, the text contains both “wir wullen schicken lüte czu dem grab” (line 55, showing no separation of modal from main verb) as well as “wir wullen czu dem grabe ge” (line 186, showing the more modern brace with separation). It is my contention that, through data from texts such as the “Osterspiel”, we see flexibility and intentionality on the part of the author. Abiding by a grammar distantly removed from the modern standard, the author uses periphrastic constructions to emphasize semantic elements in main verbs — at times setting them apart in the verbal brace — and, I argue, to also facilitate poetic rhyme and meter.

Following the general arguments of Hartweg & Wegera (2005), this paper rejects the view by Behaghel (1926) and later scholars, whose interpretation is that of a latinate influence on verbal brace development in German. Rather, periphrastic constructions like those I analyze in the Innsbrucker Osterspiel exhibit their purpose as an expansion or clarification of semantic information. Furthermore, this paper advances the position taken by Bagwell (2013), who expands on claims by Werner Abraham (2004) that the rise of periphrasis could result from a desire to separate Theme from Rheme. This paper’s analysis of data from the “Osterspiel” extends the analyses given by Bagwell, whose data comes primarily from prose correspondence of Nuremberger citizens, as well as extending Sapp’s (2011) much more extensive analysis of focus and verb order in Middle and Early New High German. The application of these analyses on data from this specific, poetic work serves to confirm their validity in context of this particular poetic work in Middle High German, and offers further support for their conclusions.
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Area Dining Guide
There are many shops, bars, cafés, and restaurants within walking distance of the Iowa Memorial Union. The majority of these businesses are located in the Downtown area or in the nearby Northside Marketplace. The following list is far from complete, but focuses on local businesses. More expensive options are marked $.

Northside Marketplace
- **Banditos** – Mexican restaurant with an emphasis on local ingredients, great for lunch or dinner.
- **Bluebird Diner** – Retro diner with a varied menu, serves breakfast, lunch, and dinner.
- **Brix Cheese Shop & Wine Bar** – Meat and cheese boards, sandwiches, salads, small plates, and a large selection of wines.
- **Goosetown Café** – Open for brunch and dinner. Offers a variety of entrées, sandwiches, and salads.
- **Hamburg Inn No. 2** – A must for political junkies! The Hamburg Inn is a frequent stop for candidates campaigning for the Iowa Caucuses and it was depicted in an episode of the TV show *The West Wing*. The Hamburg Inn serves traditional diner fare and is a popular breakfast spot. It is also known for the pie shake!
- **High Ground Café** – Coffee and espresso drinks. Sandwiches, soups, and salads.
- **Linn Street Dive** – Eclectic, trendy restaurant with craft cocktails, a varied menu, and an emphasis on seasonal and locally sourced foods. Note: Not really a dive.
- **Oasis Falafal** – Offers a variety of fresh Middle-Eastern fare, including falafel, chicken, lamb, humus, and more. Counter service.
- **Pagliai’s Pizza** – Family owned pizza place with a long tradition in Iowa City.
- **Pop’s BBQ** – Small, cozy barbeque restaurant. Counter service.

Downtown area

**Coffee & Breakfast**
- **Cortado Coffee & Café** – Coffee and espresso drinks, pastries, sandwiches, and salads. A good option for breakfast or lunch.
- **The Dandy Lion** – Small restaurant offering breakfast and lunch, offers cocktails and small plates in the evening.
- **The Java House** – Coffee and espresso drinks, connected to Heirloom Salad Company (which offers breakfast sandwiches and soup, salad, and sandwiches for lunch).
- **Poindexter Coffee** – Stylish café located inside of the Graduate Hotel. Coffee, espresso drinks, and breakfast sandwiches.

**Lunch**
- **Airliner** – Pizza, burgers, salads, and sandwiches. An undergrad favorite.
- **Bao Chow** – Offers a variety of steamed bao buns. Counter service.
- **Bread Garden Market** – Large hot food bar and salad bar, soups, made-to-order sandwiches and grill items. Has a reasonably large seating area. The market also offers grocery items and a large selection of wines and beers.
- **Crepes De Luxe Café** – A small creperie offering both sweet and savory crepes.
Dumpling Darling – Small place offering a variety of steamed and fried dumplings and bao buns. Counter service.

Estella’s Fresh Mex – Offers burritos, tacos, quesadillas and other Mexican staples. Emphasis on freshly prepared ingredients. Counter service.

Heirloom Salad Company – Salads, soups, sandwiches and paninis. Counter service.

India Café – Offers an Indian lunch buffet, full menu available at dinner.

Mama’s Dell – Home-made soups, salads, and sandwiches.

Masala Indian Cuisine – Offers an Indian lunch buffet, full menu available at dinner.

Nodo Downtown – Excellent sandwiches and salads. Counter service.

Osaka Japanese – Casual Japanese restaurant offering a variety of hot entrees, sushi, and rolls. Counter service.

Saigon’s Corner – Pho and other Vietnamese dishes.

Seoul Grill – Popular Korean restaurant. Opens only for lunch and can be extremely busy at peak times. Counter service, overflow seating in mall food court. Counter service.

Z’marik’s Noodle Café – A variety of noodle dishes, rice bowls, and salads. Counter service.

Dinner

Baroncini Ristorante$ – Italian with an emphasis on fresh, seasonal, and local ingredients.

Basta Pizzeria Ristorante$ – Classic Italian with a large menu, including wood fired pizzas.

BeerBurger – Burgers, pub fare, and a large, rotating selection of local and regional beers.

Clinton Street Social Club$ – Speakeasy themed restaurant with a great atmosphere. Offers a large selection of craft cocktails, whiskeys, and beers. Small and large plates, with an emphasis on fresh, local ingredients.

Flight$ – Offers fresh pasta, wood-fired pizzas, other entrees, and wine and beer flights.

Formosa$ – Sushi and cocktails in a modern atmosphere.

Graze – Eclectic mixture of small plates and international dishes, great cocktails, offers a lunch buffet on weekdays.

Iowa Chop House$ – Steak house, also offers burgers, sandwiches, and salads. Offers a pour-your-own area for sampling local and regional beers.

Joseph’s Steakhouse$$ – Classic steak house.

Micky’s Irish Pub – Good selection of beers and traditional pub fare.

One Twenty Six$ – French cuisine with Iowa charm. Emphasizes fresh, local, and organic ingredients.

Pullman Bar & Diner$ – An upscale, modern take on the diner. Also a nice lunch option.

Saloon Iowa City – Southwestern cuisine, eclectic interior. Has a nice outdoor seating area.

Szechuan House – Szechuan cuisine in a modern atmosphere.

Short’s Burger & Shine – A variety of burgers and beers in a great atmosphere. Good for lunch or dinner.

The Mill Restaurant – Classic pub fare and a good selection of beers and cocktails. Hosts live music most weekends.

Thai Flavors – Small Thai restaurant with a casual atmosphere.

South of downtown

The Encounter Café – Owned and operated by a local Mennonite group, offers made-from-scratch items including sandwiches and wraps made with local ingredients, great for lunch or breakfast.

Jiang Hu Asian Street Food – Hand-pulled noodles, soups, and skewers.

Her Soup Kitchen – Popular lunch spot (only opens M-F) with a rotating menu of soups, sandwiches, and salads.

Mosley’s – Barbeque with a great atmosphere, good beer selection, and nice outdoor seating area.

Orchard Green$$ – Fine dining with American and Mediterranean dishes.

Sanctuary Pub – Pub fare and pizzas, a large selection of beers, and cocktails. Frequently has live music.

Trumpet Blossom Café – Delicious all-vegan cuisine, worth the short walk.

VUE–Rooftop$ – Restaurant and bar on the top floor of the Hilton Garden Inn. Has great views and an outdoor seating area.
GLAC 25

GLAC - key locations

1. Iowa Memorial Union - Conference Sessions
2. Old Capitol Museum - Friday Plenary
3. Hancher Auditorium - Saturday Banquet

Northside Restaurants
Downtown Restaurants