



The University of
Nottingham

UNITED KINGDOM • CHINA • MALAYSIA

A Germanic Sandwich 2015

University of Nottingham

24 & 25 April 2015

Programme – Abstracts – Campus Map

Programme

Friday 24 April

10.00-10.45	Registration & coffee (Highfield House Cloisters)	
10.45-11.00	Welcome & introduction (Highfield House A01)	
	Highfield House (A01) Chair: Torsten Leuschner	Highfield House (A02) Chair: Barbara Schlücker
11.00-11.30	<i>Another Germanic sandwich, or stuff like that?</i> Ton van der Wouden	<i>Existing explanations for the external possessor sandwich suffer from an English bias</i> Freek Van de Velde
11.30-12.00	<i>The comparative semantics of West Germanic similatives</i> Johan Van der Auwera & Daniel Van Olmen	<i>Possessors in Flemish and German: syntactic (in)dependency of the (external) possessor on the possessee</i> Liisa Buelens & Tijs D'Hulster
12.00-12.30	<i>Between do-support and tun-periphrasis: the case of finite verb doubling in Karrharde North Frisian</i> Jarich Hoekstra	<i>Degrees of adverbialization: a cross-linguistic corpus study of [FAR FROM X] constructions</i> Hendrik De Smet, Muriel Norde, Kristel Van Goethem & Gudrun Vanderbauwhede
12.30-13.30	Lunch (Highfield House Cloisters)	
	Highfield House (A01) Chair: Matthias Hüning	Highfield House (A02) Chair: Fred Weerman
13.30-14.00	<i>The evolution of the Afrikaans hê perfect</i> Adri Breed	<i>Linguistic attitudes in the Dutch-German border area: a comparison of Vreden (D) and Winterswijk (NL)</i> Gunther De Vogelaer
14.00-14.30	<i>The 'human' impersonal pronoun in Afrikaans vs. European West Germanic</i> Daniel Van Olmen, Adri Breed & Ben Verhoeven	<i>Teaching Dutch, German and English as pluricentric languages</i> Truus de Wilde & Ulrike Vogl
14.30-15.00	<i>The grammaticalisation of the gaan + infinitive future in spoken Dutch and Flemish</i> Carol Fehringer	<i>Pronoun processing in L2 Dutch by German adult speakers</i> Hendrikje Ziemann & Esther Ruigendijk
15.00-15.30	Coffee (Highfield House Cloisters)	
	Highfield House (A01) Chair: Johan Van der Auwera	Highfield House (A02)
15.30-16.00	<i>On the choice of comparative markers in Dutch and German: a cyclic approach</i> Helen de Hoop, Lukas Reinartz & Hugo de Vos	<i>Teaching forum: the Germanic Sandwich classroom</i> Roel Vismans with Barbara Schlücker & Gunther De Vogelaer
16.00-16.30	<i>The rise of the positive polar moeten</i> Marlijn Meijer	
16.30-17.00	<i>On the distribution and the acquisition of Germanic NEEDs: German between Dutch and English</i> Jing Lin	
19.00	Conference dinner (Trent Building, Council Room)	

Saturday 25 April

10.00-10.30	Coffee (Highfield House Cloisters)	
	Highfield House (A01) Chair: Freek Van de Velde	Highfield House (A02) Chair: Gunther De Vogelaer
10.30-11.00	<i>En- versus Pro-cliticisation: synchronic and diachronic evidence from Dutch</i> Johanneke Sytsema & Aditi Lahiri	<i>How different is Nick Clegg in Dutch?</i> Suzie Holdsworth
11.00-11.30	<i>Language acquisition and language change: the case of verb clusters</i> Caitlin Meyer & Fred Weerman	<i>On culture-specific items in the Dutch and English translations of 'Dukla' and 'House of day, house of night'. A comparative analysis</i> Katarzyna Tryczyńska
11.30-12.00	<i>Word order change in Germanic verbal clusters</i> Jelke Bloem, Arjen Versloot & Fred Weerman	<i>Asynchronicity Meets the Sandwich: Dutch V1-Conditionals Between German and English</i> Torsten Leuschner
12.00-13.00	Lunch (Highfield House Cloisters)	
	Highfield House (A01) Chair: Kristel Van Goethem	Highfield House (A02) Chair: Richard Jason Whitt
13.00-13.30	<i>Proper noun compounding in West-Germanic. A contrastive view</i> Barbara Schlücker	<i>Long distance dependencies in the Germanic sandwich</i> Jack Hoeksema & Ankelien Schippers
13.30-14.00	<i>Complex prepositions in English, German and Dutch: similarities and differences</i> Matthias Hüning & Anatol Stefanowitsch	<i>Mirative extensions of progressive constructions</i> Lynn Anthonissen, Astrid De Wit & Tanja Mortelmans
14.00-14.30	<i>Pluralbildung von Fremdwörtern im Niederländischen und Deutschen</i> Franziska Pfaff	<i>The development of evidential meanings in Dutch, English and Swedish verbs of appearance</i> Marjolein Poortvliet
14.30-15.30	Discussion / Conclusion (with coffee) (Highfield House A01)	

Abstracts

Mirative extensions of progressive constructions

Lynn Anthonissen (University of Antwerp), Astrid De Wit (University of Antwerp / University of Colorado (BAEF postdoctoral fellow)) & Tanja Mortelmans (University of Antwerp)

Due to its wide range of uses, its increased frequency in Present-Day English and its status as a highly grammaticalized aspectual marker, the English progressive has been subjected to much linguistic scrutiny. We also witness an increasing interest in similar, but less grammaticalized progressive constructions in typologically related languages such as Dutch and German. Most studies on Dutch and German progressives have investigated distributional patterns or combinatory restrictions in order to decide upon their grammaticalization status, thereby typically comparing them to competing constructions in the language of study or to European equivalents (e.g. Bertinetto et al. 2000; Ebert 2000; Krause 2002; Van Pottelberge 2004; Lemmens 2005; Behrens et al. 2013; Gárgyán 2014). As to the function of the default progressive constructions – *aan het V zijn* for Dutch and *am V sein* for German – the literature quite unanimously agrees on their analysis as markers of internal perspective, which allow language users to conceive of the perceived situation as ongoing and unbounded. Yet, the assumption of a straightforward ‘meaning’ of the progressive on the one hand, and the focus on formal aspects on the other, which have characterized previous studies, have not encouraged adequate analyses of the semantic variety that the *aan het-* and *am-*progressives portray. The present study is an attempt to fill this gap.

Our study starts from the observation that the English progressive – apart from its prototypical function to refer to dynamic, ongoing situations – appears with futurate events, with irritating habits, as a hedging device and in contexts which De Wit and Brisard (2014) have called epistemic (i.e. to stress the atypicality of a situation). We argue that progressive constructions in Dutch and German, too, commonly feature such modal overtones, which might be called mirative extensions of an aspectual construction (cf. Aikhenvald 2012). These modal uses are, other than what one might expect, not necessarily an indication of strong grammaticalization seeing that they are attested for less grammaticalized progressive constructions: they have been found in Old English (e.g. Rydén 1997; Núñez-Pertejo 2004; see also Wright 1994 on Middle English), in French (De Wit et al. 2013) and are not uncommon in our Dutch and German corpus data. Concretely, our corpus research shows that, relative to other purely aspectotemporal uses, modal uses of the progressive are equally frequent in present-day English, Dutch and German. It thus seems that, in this respect, Dutch does not occupy an in-the-middle position. On the other hand, when concentrating on aspectotemporal uses solely, our data demonstrate that the Dutch progressive is sandwiched between English and German both in terms of frequency of use and in terms of variety of usage types.

For (spoken) Dutch, the distributional frequencies and the exact nature of the semantic differences have been examined on the basis of data from CGN. For German, we have compiled a corpus of approximately 500 progressive constructions, which are direct quotes (i.e. they can be considered to be near to spoken language) extracted from the corpus of German progressives provided by Engelberg et al. (2013). These corpus findings are systematically compared to results from a similar study on the English progressive (De Wit & Brisard 2014).

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Word order change in Germanic verbal clusters

Jelke Bloem, Arjen Versloot & Fred Weerman (ACLCL, University of Amsterdam)

In this work, we model the historical development of verbal cluster order in Germanic languages. The syntactic structure of verbal clusters has been under discussion for a long time (Evers, 1975; Zwart, 1996) and recent work has also discussed non-syntactic factors influencing verbal cluster word order, using frequency-based methods (De Sutter, 2005; Arfs, 2007; Coussé, Arfs, & De Sutter, 2008; Bloem, Versloot, & Weerman, 2014) and historical data (Coussé, 2008). We follow up on this line of work by modeling how the current orders of English, Dutch and German verbal groups might have developed and diverged from the proto-Germanic cluster orders. Our basic model consists of surface order patterns in which we view each cluster order as a separate outcome, with a probability distribution over the outcomes.

Many verbal cluster word orders are attested in different Germanic languages (Wurmbrand, 2006). We demonstrate this with a Dutch example, a language where the ordering of these verbs is relatively free. In two-verb clusters, the finite verb can be positioned before or after the infinitive:

- (1) Ik denk dat ik het begrepen heb.
 I think that I it understood have
 'I think that I have understood it'
- (2) Ik denk dat ik het heb begrepen.
 I think that I it have understood
 'I think that I have understood it'

German and Frisian only allow order (1) for two-verb clusters, while English and Scandinavian only allow order (2). All of these languages evolved from Proto-Germanic, and we have modeled factors that contributed to their divergence.

We define an agent-based model of verbal clusters in terms of realizations with production probabilities. The verbal cluster realizations depend on two factors: construction type (modal cluster, copular cluster or 'have'-cluster) and construction context (main clause or subordinate clause). Two realizations are possible for each of these constructions: order (1) or (2). We initialize the model with (relative) frequency figures as reconstructed for 6th century Germanic, based on a comparison of Old English, Old High German and Old Frisian. We have also incorporated some known and relevant historical changes into the model, such as the grammaticalization of 'to have' as an auxiliary verb. Language change is induced in the model by having agents learn from each other's output realizations.

Our results show that the current order in German and Frisian verbal clusters may have developed partly due to the grammaticalization of embedding — an increased use of subordinate clauses over time. On the other hand, the English order is explained by the model through faster grammaticalization of 'have'-clusters. The situation for Dutch is more complicated. Like many other phenomena, Dutch verbal cluster orders follow the Van Haeringen distribution (Van Haeringen, 1956; Weerman, 2006), having features in common with both English and German. Historical data show that Dutch verbal clusters originally developed similar to German verbal clusters, but then diverged (Coussé, 2008). Our model agrees with this, supporting the current state of Dutch only as an intermediate state in a process of language change. We conclude by discussing the hypothesis that this second change was triggered by language contact.

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The evolution of the Afrikaans hê perfect

Adri Breed (North-West University Potchefstroom)

The development of the Germanic perfect auxiliary out of a verb of possession is an example of the grammaticalization pathway resultative → anterior → perfective/simple past (Bybee *et al.* 1994:51-107; De Acosta 2011; Heine 1997, Hengeveld 2011; Wischer 2002). The construction consists of a present form of a possession verb and a participle of the lexical verb. The participle can be prefixed (as in the Dutch example i), suffixed (as in the English example ii) or circumfixed (as in the German example iii) (Hilpert 2011).

i. *Du: Zij heeft hem gezien.*

ii. *Eng: She has worked.*

iii. *Ger: Sie hat gearbeitet.*

The same construction is found in Afrikaans, and it is formed with the possession verb (*hê*) and prefixed participle *ge-* (example iv).

iv. *Afr: Sy het hom gesien.*

This Germanic construction is, however, not grammaticalized to the same extent in the different languages. In English, for example, the construction cannot be used in definite past contexts (example v), while it is possible in Dutch and Afrikaans (see examples vi and vii) (Breed 2012:69).

v. *Eng: *Yesterday I have eaten an apple.*

vi. *Du: Ik heb gisteren een appel gegeten.*

vii. *Afr: Ek het gister 'n appel geëet.*

In the same vein, the Afrikaans construction can be used in contexts that have an imperfective reading (example x), while it is not possible in English and Dutch (examples viii and ix) (cf. Breed 2012:69).

viii. *Eng *Thick smoke has filled the corridor. (≠ imp.past / = past.perf.)*

ix. *Du *Dikke rook heeft de gang gevuld. (≠ imp.past / = past.perf.)* (Michealis 2004:53-54)

x. *Afr: Digte rook het die vertrek gevul. (= imp.past / = past.perf)*

It would thus appear that the Afrikaans construction is contextually more generalized than its Dutch and English counterpart. The Afrikaans *hê* temporal auxiliary does not mark a resultative or anterior meaning and has to be analysed as an aspectually ambiguous past tense marker instead (cf. Breed and Van Huyssteen 2014:8-10).

The aim of this paper is to investigate the evolution and semantic generalization of the *hê* perfect in Afrikaans. Coussé (2013) used three parameters to diachronically examine the lexical expansion of the Dutch perfect, namely i) the agency or the subject; ii) the concreteness of the direct object; and iii) the telicity of the past participle. Since it can be assumed that Afrikaans and Dutch are closely related sister languages with the same origin (i.e. 17th Century Dutch), these three parameters are used to comparatively investigate the lexical expansion of the Afrikaans construction in a diachronic corpus (Kirsten, p.c. of 2013). Aspects, such as verb collocations and the frequency of traditional uses

of the perfect (i.e. the uses described by McCawly (1971:104) as universal, existential, stative and recent past or "hot news") are also examined.

The preliminary corpus investigation suggests that, through the different decades, there is a decrease in the frequency of agentive subjects and concrete direct objects, and that the *hê* auxiliary waives verb type preferences completely. Since the Afrikaans *hê* auxiliary was used more frequently as a past tense marker, the frequency of the different uses of the perfect became less significant in the different decades investigated in the corpus.

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Possessors in Flemish and German: syntactic (in)dependency of the (external) possessor on the possessee

Liisa Buelens & Tijs D'Hulster (Ghent University)

One of the ways in which Flemish expresses nominal possession is a prenominal periphrastic possessor with a doubling possessive pronoun (1a). Whereas most varieties of Flemish do not allow the possessor to be separated from its possessee in this pattern, West Flemish does allow this (1b) (Haegeman & van Koppen 2011). This type of external possessor, the Flemish External Possessor (FEP), does not have the possessor internal to the possessive DP, as is indicated by the clausal AdvP intervening between the possessor and possessee (1b).

1. a 't moest lukken dat **[Emma eur velo]** toen juste kapot was.
It had-to happen that Emma her bicycle then just broken was
- b 't moest lukken dat **[Emma]** toen juste **[eur velo]** kapot was.
It had-to happen that Emma then just her bicycle broken was
'It so happened that Emma's bicycle was broken just then.'

Apart from its possessor interpretation, the external possessor in the FEP also receives the interpretation of affectee, as illustrated by the 'ban on the dead possessor' (Hole, 2006): the FEP in (1b) is only acceptable if the possessor, *Emma*, is alive; such a restriction does not hold for (1a). This makes it comparable to the German dative pattern in (2a), which Lee-Schoenfeld (2006) analyses as a dative benefactive coindexed with the possessive pronoun which introduces the possessive interpretation.

2. a Mein Bruder hat **der Mami** leider **ihr Auto** zu Schrott gefahren.
 My Brother has the mom (DAT) alas the car to scrap driven
 'Unfortunately my brother totaled mom's car (totaled the car on mom).'
- b Mein Bruder hat **der Mami** leider **das Auto** zu Schrott gefahren.
 My Brother has the mom (DAT) alas her car to scrap driven
 'Unfortunately my brother totaled mom's car.'

Lee-Schoenfeld (2006:104-105)

Lee-Schoenfeld (2006) argues that in (2a), the dative argument is base-generated in an affectee position, syntactically independent of the possessive DP lower in the clause. (2b), in contrast, is argued to be a raised possessor pattern, in which the possessor moves out of the possessive DP for case reasons (due to the defective definite article, which cannot assign case). It then raises to a thematic, case-assigning A-position.

We argue, based on a comparison of the Flemish and German (external) possessor data, that the possessor in the FEP is syntactically dependent on the lower possessive DP and should thus be analysed more like German (2b) than (2a). Despite the FEP's possessive DP surfacing with a possessive pronoun, which superficially points to similarities with (2a), locality restrictions, c-command facts and the obligatory affectedness interpretation indicate to the conclusion that the FEP patterns with the German raised possessor (2b). FEP does not pattern with the German coreferenced structure (2a), where the possessor is analysed as a syntactically independent affected argument merely coreferential with the possessive DP lower in the clause.

References

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On the choice of comparative markers in Dutch and German: a cyclic approach

Helen de Hoop, Lukas Reinartz & Hugo de Vos (Radboud University Nijmegen)

Dutch prescriptive grammar rules dictate that the complementizer *dan* 'than' should be used in comparative constructions of inequality such as *beter dan* 'better than' whereas *als* 'as' should be reserved for constructions of equality like *even goed als* 'as good as'. This has been an issue for grammarians ever since from the sixteenth century onwards *als* 'as' has been used as an alternative form in comparatives of inequality. The second half of the sixteenth century witnesses the rise of the comparative marker *als* in Dutch, but already in the first half of the seventeenth century a countermovement emerged, led by Huydecoper (1730), who strongly opposed the use of *als* as a comparative marker.

The *Woordenboek der Nederlandsche Taal* (1884) compares the development in Dutch to the development in German, in which *denn* had already been replaced by *als* by that time, and ends with a passionate appeal not to let that happen in Dutch. Whereas the prescriptive rule in Dutch that was made up in the 17th century can be held responsible for inhibiting or at least slowing down the process of replacing *dan* by *als* in Dutch comparatives, even after centuries of teaching *als* is still frequently used, and almost all dialects of Dutch predominantly use *als* in comparatives of inequality (Barbiers et al. 2005).

In German, after *als* replaced *denn*, *wie* was recruited to replace *als* in comparisons of equality, and nowadays *wie* is reported in comparisons of inequality (*besser wie* 'better as'), which is strongly disapproved of by German language purists, just like in Dutch (Jäger 2010). In this talk we will argue that the change from *denn* to *als* to *wie* happens as the result of a cycle that is caused by two conflicting constraints (MacWhinney et al. to appear): Iconicity, a constraint that (in this case) favours two separate forms for two different constructions (comparatives versus equations), and Economy, which favours the use of one form for the two constructions, as both involve a comparison.

Hubers and de Hoop (2013) argue on the basis of the functions of *als* and *dan* in context that *als* would be a better candidate than *dan* in comparatives, because *als* is always used as a complementizer or a preposition, also in comparatives, while *dan* is never used as a complementizer or a preposition, except for in comparatives. However, this cannot account for the current tendency to replace *als* by *wie* in German, since *als* is a preposition or complementizer in German as well, whereas *wie* has a dominant function as question word in German (meaning 'how'). We will argue that the tendency to replace *dan* by *als* in Dutch and *als* by *wie* in German is not driven by the functions of these words in other contexts (*contra* Hubers and de Hoop 2013), but instead reflects an unresolvable conflict between Economy and Iconicity. This process from having two markers for the two constructions towards having only one marker constitutes a clear example of cyclic syntactic change (van Gelderen 2009).

References

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Degrees of adverbialization: a cross-linguistic corpus study of [FAR FROM X] constructions

Hendrik De Smet (Katholieke Universiteit Leuven), Muriel Norde (Humboldt Universität zu Berlin), Kristel Van Goethem (F.R.S.-FNRS, Université catholique de Louvain) & Gudrun Vanderbauwhede (Université de Mons)

In language change, parallel source constructions can undergo cross-linguistically divergent developments. The focus of this paper is on one such case, the development of degree modifiers from markers of physical distance. Specifically, we will compare the semantic and syntactic properties of FAR FROM constructions in three Germanic languages and one Romance language: English [*far from X*], Dutch [*ver(re) van X*], Swedish [*långt ifrån X*] and French [*loin de X*]. In all four languages,

the spatial construction consists of an adjective or adverb and a preposition, followed by an NP. Further, in all four languages, the construction tends to develop adverbial degree modifying uses (as a downtoner), as illustrated for English in (1), and for Swedish in (2). Its X-slot then tends to open up to other phrase types (VP, AP, PP).

- (1) Nutty was **far from** sure, and Bidy looked doubtful. (BNC)
- (2) de **långt ifrån** marginella förändringar landet genomgår. (SECOW2014)
'the far from marginal changes the country is going through.'

However, the four languages differ in the extent to which their [FAR FROM X] construction has grammaticalized into a full-blown adverbial degree modifier. The central purpose of our study is to analyze the differences between the languages and to account for them.

It is shown that, **semantically**, degree modifying senses develop from metaphorical extensions of spatial senses, as in (3-4).

- (3) Nous voilà **loin de** la mondialisation heureuse! (FRCOW2011)
'Here we are far from happy globalization!'
- (4) men det är så **långt ifrån** sanningen man kan komma. (SECOW2014)
'but it is as far from the truth as one can get'

The availability of the same metaphorical senses supports a gradient of meanings that continue to integrate degree modifying senses and spatial senses into a single semantic network. In French and English, this appears to hinder the development of full-blown adverbial uses. In French, *loin de* combines spatial, metaphorical and downtoner uses, but does not develop into an adverb. In English, it is found that new adverbial uses appear around the time metaphorical senses decline. In Swedish, by contrast, *långt ifrån* is always adverbial (as evidenced by the adverbial suffix *-t* in *långt*), but as in the other languages, it occurs in both spatial, metaphorical and downtoner constructions.

Formally, variation is found to facilitate form-meaning realignment. In Dutch, the variation between *ver van* and *verre van* licensed functional specialization of *ver van* as a spatial expression and *verre van* as a degree modifying adverb (5). The fact that the *-e* ending in *verre van* is an opaque relic obscured its relation to the adjective/adverb *ver* and as such further disrupted form-meaning unity.

- (5) Dit was een **verre van** marginaal verschijnsel. (NLCOW2012)
'This was a far from marginal phenomenon.'

The comparison of the respective fates of FAR FROM constructions in four different languages highlights the structural preconditions that favour or hinder syntactic change. Differences between the languages, then, are not explained by the random character of change, but by unevenly spread favouring conditions.

Corpora

BNC = British National Corpus: <http://corpus2.byu.edu/bnc/>

COW = Corpora from the Web: <http://hpsg.fu-berlin.de/cow/colibri/>

Cf. Schäfer, R. & F. Bildhauer. (2012). Building large corpora from the web using a new efficient tool chain. N. Calzolari, K. Choukri, T. Declerck et al. (Eds), *Proceedings of the Eight International Conference on Language Resources and Evaluation*, Istanbul, 486-493.

Linguistic attitudes in the Dutch-German border area: a comparison of Vreden (D) and Winterswijk (NL)

Gunther De Vogelaer (Universität Münster)

A significant development in the continental West Germanic dialect continuum is that processes of levelling have caused dialects on both sides of the Dutch-German border to diverge, turning the state border into a dialect border (Kremer 1979, Niebaum 1990, Smits 2011). This talk investigates to what extent this divergence has affected sociolinguistic competences in such border areas. As the presence or absence of shared language attitudes can be considered a measure of an area's linguistic unity (Grondelaers & van Hout 2011), it is expected that the breakdown of the dialect continuum is paralleled with diverging language attitudes. In addition, as dialect competences in the border area, even passive ones, are known to have a positive impact on the proficiency of the neighbouring language (Gooskens & Kürschner 2009), better sociolinguistic skills are expected in dialect-competent language users than in monovarietal language users. In order to investigate these claims, data will be discussed from a quantitative study on how adolescents in the border towns Vreden (D) and Winterswijk (NL) evaluate regional and standard varieties of both German and Dutch.

The grammaticalisation of the gaan + infinitive future in spoken Dutch and Flemish

Carol Fehring (Newcastle University)

The use of *gaan* + infinitive as a future time expression (FTE) in Dutch and Flemish is one area in which these varieties can be seen to be 'between' English and German. In German, *gehen* when used with an infinitive still maintains its lexical meaning 'to go', whereas in English a *going to* FTE has developed which is highly grammaticalised (e.g. *The tree is going to lose its leaves*). In Dutch, *gaan* + infinitive has also come some way down this grammaticalisation path (e.g. *Ik ga het vanavond doen, Ze gaat vrijdag bellen hè?*) although lexical properties of *gaan* do persist in many contexts and *gaan* + infinitive as an FTE is largely restricted to certain types of verb (particularly to those whose subject is an agent). In Flemish, the FTE can be said to have undergone further grammaticalisation than its Dutch equivalent in that it is used with a wider range of verbs (including stative verbs and *gaan* itself, which is not the case in Dutch: e.g. *Ik denk dat 't in 't Engels gaat zijn, Hoe gaat dat gaan?*). Nevertheless, it will be shown that some 'persistence' of older lexical characteristics (in the sense of Hopper 1991) indicate that Flemish *gaan* is not as far down the grammaticalisation continuum as English *going to*.

This paper investigates the frequency and distribution of *gaan* + infinitive in contrast with the other, historically older, syntactic FTE *zullen* + infinitive in Dutch and Flemish, using data from the spontaneous speech sub-corpus of the Corpus Gesproken Nederlands. After a general survey of the frequency of usage and collocational restrictions in each variety, the paper will go on to discuss the specific syntactic and other measurable variables that play a significant role in the distribution of the FTEs: e.g. i) clause type (main vs subordinate); ii) animacy of subject; iii) grammatical person of subject, iv) proximity of future reference; v) co-occurrence of FTE with modal particles. It will be demonstrated that some of these variables have been shown to be significant in constraining the distribution of *going to* versus *will* in English, and comparisons will be made in the light of current grammaticalisation theory.

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Long distance dependencies in the Germanic sandwich

Jack Hoeksema (University of Groningen) & Ankelien Schippers (University of Oldenburg)

Long distance dependencies (a.k.a. long movement) can be found in a number of constructions, most notably WH-questions, topicalization, relative clauses and comparatives (Chomsky 1977). The literature sometimes seems to suggest that this is true for English (and Dutch), but not for German, since German speakers tend to frown upon long extraction. However, the situation is complex. Southern speakers in general permit a good deal of long extraction, and historical grammars such as Paul (1920: 319-323) show that for older periods as well, a fair amount of extraction is attested. We take the position that the relative lack of long extraction in German is due to the competition of various alternative strategies (cf. also Salzmann 2005, Schippers 2012), in particular partial wh-movement, wh-copying, resumptive prolepsis and parentheticals. Dutch, we argue, is intermediate. It has all the alternatives that German employs, but uses them less frequently. In the case of relative clauses, long-distance extraction has almost been replaced by resumptive prolepsis (with the important exception of free relatives), in the case of WH-questions, however, we see only the beginnings of a replacement of long-distance movement by WH-copying and partial WH-movement. English, finally, has some fairly rare occurrences of resumptive prolepsis, and quite marginal use of copying strategies (primarily child language). It is very likely that the possibility of dropping the complementizer *that* benefits long-distance movement (an option which German does not have, and Dutch only very marginally had). In cases where no alternative to long-distance dependencies exist, such as comparative clauses, we see the three languages behaving alike, as the following examples illustrate (2 and 3 are translations of the German original in (1)).

- (1) "Ich denke, meine Resultate sind sogar besser, als ich gedacht habe, dass sie sein werden", verriet der 32-Jährige.¹
- (2) "I think my results are even better than I thought they would be", the 32-year old admitted.
- (3) "Ik denk dat mijn resultaten nog beter zijn dan ik heb gedacht dat ze zouden zijn," gaf de 32-jarige toe.

We take this to be crucial evidence that long-distance extraction is not somehow forbidden by the grammar of German, but that a growing preference for alternative strategies has made the long-distance option much less prominent than it is in English. In this view, German, Dutch and English share a set of grammatical options, but make different selections from that set. In other words, the differences between the three languages lie not at the level of abstract grammatical devices, but rather at the level of language use. The existence of significant North-South variation within German is compatible with that view. Making use of corpus data from an historical study of long-distance extraction in Dutch (Hoeksema & Schippers 2012), to which we add some new German and English data, we will describe in some detail the historical development of long-distance extraction and its rivals in the three Germanic languages.

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¹ http://tennisnet.com/de/herren/atp/1577534/Federer_Bin-zuruck-auf-meinem-TopLevel?country=0

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Between do-support and tun-periphrasis: the case of finite verb doubling in Karrharde North Frisian

Jarich Hoekstra (Christian-Albrechts-Universität Kiel)

As a rule a finite clause contains one verb bearing the finiteness features, i.e. tense and agreement features. In the mainland West Germanic languages this finite verb normally occurs in the final position in embedded clauses, whereas it occupies the second (or first) position in main clauses, the latter being an instance of the Verb Second Phenomenon (cf. Haider & Prinzhorn 1986, Holmberg 2013). Compare the following example from High German:

- (i) a. ...dass Gott ihn nicht **verlässt**.
 b. Gott **verlässt** ihn nicht.

Most West Germanic languages possess periphrastic verb constructions in which a semantically bleached or void support verb, normally the light verb *do*, combines with an infinitival lexical verb that remains in its base position. Well-known examples are *do*-support in English (cf., among many others, Ellegård 1953, Roberts 1985, Kroch 1989a,b, Garrett 1998, Schütze 2004, Culicover 2008) and *tun/doon/doen*-periphrasis in High German, Low German and Dutch (cf., among others, Keseling 1968, Tieken-Boon van Ostade, van der Wal & van Leuvensteijn 1998, Langer 2001, Schwarz 2004):

- (ii) God **does** not **abandon** him.
 (iii) a. Ihn **verlassen tut** Gott nicht.
 b. Und wenn ab das Glück sich kehrt, / unsre Wangen blassen - /
 der die jungen Raben nährt, / **tut** uns nicht **verlassen**.

[aus: *Vale Universitas, Bursa und Taberne!* (German commercium song)]

In my talk I want to discuss a periphrastic verb construction in which two finite verbs appear in one clause, a support verb in verb-second position and a lexical verb in verb-final position, and in which the support verb is not *do*. This construction is (or rather was) found in the North Frisian dialect of the Karrharde, particularly in the 19th century writings of Moritz Momme Nissen. Compare:

- (iv) God **wert** ham eg **ferlet** [Nissen, *makker I* 176]
God wer-prs.3sg him not abandon-prs.3sg
 'God does not abandon him'

In (iv) both the support verb *wer-* (which is defective in the sense that it only has finite forms) and the lexical verb *ferlete* 'to abandon' are inflected.

I will first present the basic data on Finite Verb Doubling in Karrharde North Frisian. Next, I will try to trace the origin of the doubling construction, especially the provenance of the puzzling support verb *wer-* that fills the verb-second position. Finally, I will give a synchronic analysis of Finite Verb Doubling in Karrharde North Frisian comparing it with *do*-support and *tun*-periphrasis and considering some other cases of doubling of the finite verb in Germanic.

How different is Nick Clegg in Dutch?

Suzie Holdsworth (University of Sheffield)

Nick Clegg, the leader of the UK political party The Liberal Democrats is a very rare breed indeed. He is a British politician who is a polyglot. He in fact speaks – apparently – four languages aside from English (Dutch, German, French and Spanish). However, he is – not surprisingly – reported to be effortlessly fluent in only one of these languages. With a Dutch mother, Nick Clegg was raised in this language from infancy. He is therefore a bilingual speaker of both English and Dutch. Granted, he now routinely speaks English on any number and manner of issues relating to the UK, European and international political arena. But it is at his mother's knee – in Dutch – that he first began to encode the emotional experiences that we all associate with our first thoughts, feelings and words as infants as we learn to interpret and use subtle (non-verbal) language skills, including inflection, gesture and facial expression.

The aim of this paper is to answer a very basic question: What makes Nick Clegg different when he speaks Dutch compared to when he speaks English? In order to answer this question, transcribed data from two video interviews will be presented, analysed and discussed: one in English and one in Dutch. The analysis will explore the data from a number of different angles. Firstly, lexicogrammatical features of the language (i.e. verb choice, metaphorical usage, complexity of information structure) will be highlighted and cross-compared between the two interviews. This is the first dimension: the *linguistic*. The second element will concern fluency, sentence length, hesitation, omission and emphasis. This will be referred to as the *prosodic* dimension. We will then turn our attention to the actual content of what is being said and whether there are differences between how certain subject matter is presented, framed, foregrounded or even perhaps avoided (including formality of register used, politeness strategies and humour). We will term this the *narrative* dimension. Finally, the analysis will not only explore specifically verbal features but also non-verbal phenomena. These can include gesticulation, pointing, eye contact – or avoidance of eye contact, head movements and salient features of other body language cues in general. This will be the *kinaesthetic* dimension.

Having briefly explored these four dimensions of Nick Clegg's language performance in both English and Dutch, we will try to draw some tentative general conclusions. Does he present himself differently in English and Dutch? Is he more comfortable in one language compared to the other and how is this signalled? But also how do we as an audience experience him not only as a politician but as a human being in the two different languages? And perhaps – crucially – do we feel more or less empathy towards him in one or other of the languages? In simple terms, do we like him more, is he more credible and do we believe in him more in English or Dutch?

Complex prepositions in English, German and Dutch: similarities and differences

Matthias Hüning & Anatol Stefanowitsch (Freie Universität Berlin)

Like most European languages, English, Dutch and German have constructions of the type [P (Det) N [P NP]] and/or [P (Det) N NP_{GENITIVE}] that behave like simple prepositions (e.g. English *with the help of* NP, Dutch *met behulp van* NP, German *mit Hilfe* NP_{GENITIVE}/*von* NP, French *avec l'aide de* NP, Swedish *med hjälp av* NP, Russian *при помощи* NP_{GENITIVE}). Established instances of this pattern show characteristics of grammaticalization, such as reduction (loss of the article, e.g. *met behulp van* < *met het behulp van*), loss of syntactic flexibility (e.g. restrictions on modification, cf.

?? *met groot behulp van*), and semantic generalization. Such sequences may fully grammaticalize into simple preposition (cf. English *by the side of* NP > *beside of* NP > *beside* NP).

Due to their functional and semantic equivalence to simple prepositions, such sequences are generally regarded as complex prepositions (cf. e.g. Di Meola 2000 for German, Hoffmann 2005 for English, Van der Horst 2013 and Hüning 2014 for Dutch; see e.g. Seppänen et al. 1994 for an opposing view).

In our talk, we focus on methodological, theoretical and descriptive aspects of these complex prepositions in English, Dutch and German.

With respect to methodology and theory, we discuss their identification in corpora and their delineation from regular structures of the same form. A corpus-based identification has so far mainly been attempted on the basis of frequency, but this is problematic as there are high-frequency instances of the pattern that are clearly not complex prepositions (e.g. English *in love with*) and low-frequency instances that are plausibly regarded as such (e.g. English *in collusion with*). Our approach is based on statistical association measures: we look for patterns that have strong associations between the elements in sequences of the type [P (Det) N P], and weak associations to the elements preceding and following this sequence (expanding the logic of “collostructional analysis”, cf. e.g. Stefanowitsch 2012).

The instances of the pattern identified in this way then serve as the basis for our contrastive synchronic analysis of this type of complex preposition, where we will pay particular attention to the semantic domains in which these prepositions occur and the lexical material they use; this also provides a basis for drawing a boundary between complex prepositions and regular structures of the same form. Finally, we will discuss one of the most obvious cross-linguistic aspects of complex prepositions, namely the parallelism in their development especially in Dutch and German (where the pattern expanded substantially from the 19th century onward). We will place this parallel development in the context of language contact situations; it was established in important contact languages, French and English, earlier (cf. Schwenter and Traugott 1995) and it seems to have expanded more recently in the Slavic languages (cf. McGranahan 1971). We will also place it in the context of a diachronic differentiation of text types; it was, and continues to be, dominant in elaborated written registers of the respective languages.

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Asynchronicity Meets the Sandwich: Dutch V1-Conditionals Between German and English

Torsten Leuschner (Ghent University)

One construction type which has consistently drawn the attention of linguists in German and English are V1-conditionals both synchronically and diachronically, as in (1) and (2):

(1) *Scheitert* der Euro, dann *scheitert* Europa. (Merkel)

(2) *Should* the Euro fail, Europe will fail.

Whereas German V1-protases can in principle be formed with any verb, including main verbs like *scheitern* 'fail', and express the full range of conditional relationships (cf. the present indicative in the example), English V1-protases allow just three verb forms, *should*, *had* and *were*, and tend therefore to be restricted to tentative and counterfactual conditionality (Leuschner / Van den Nest forthc.). This suggests an 'asynchronous' development along the same grammaticalization path, with V1-conditionals in English moving faster towards a restrictive functional niche in the domain of conditionality than in German (König 2012). Although German V1-conditionals show a slight tendency of their own towards non-neutral conditionality with *sollte*, *hätte* and *wäre* (the subjunctive cognates of *should*, *had* and *were*), they are overall much more similar to polar interrogatives, the construction from which V1-conditionals are often said to have originated (Jespersen 1909), than their counterparts in English.

With the present (for now mainly programmatic) paper, I extend the German-English comparison of V1-conditionals to Dutch for the first time. In the first part of the paper, I introduce V1-conditionals from the three languages (with additional reference to Swedish, e.g. Hilpert 2010) and survey our relevant knowledge about them, based in part on the findings of an earlier corpus-based investigation which compared V1-conditionals in German and English with reference to two parameters, viz. divergence from interrogatives and specialization for conditionality (Leuschner/Van den Nest in prep.). Next, I sketch the methodological challenges posed by V1-conditionals and the empirical issues that arise when the 'asynchronicity' approach to this construction type is combined with the Germanic Sandwich perspective. Finally, I present original, if provisional, data from present-day Dutch (probably from the monolingual part of the Dutch Parallel Corpus) in order to test the working hypothesis that V1-conditionals in Dutch occupy an intermediate position between those of English and German in terms of lexical and morphological productivity. Under this hypothesis, we expect Dutch V1-conditionals to not be restricted to the equivalents of *had*, *should* and *were* (viz. *had*, *mocht* and *was*) while nonetheless showing an even stronger tendency towards these verb forms (and hence tentative and counterfactual conditionality) than their counterparts in German. The first part of the hypothesis is clearly suggested by anecdotal evidence, cf. (3), the usual translation of (1) on the internet:

(3) *Faalt* de euro, dan *faalt* Europa.

As in German, but unlike English, Dutch V1-conditionals thus do in principle allow full verbs and neutral conditionality. Only a combined qualitative/quantitative study of the verbs and verb forms used in V1-conditionals in Dutch in comparison with German and English, however, will be able to reveal the precise patterns of convergence and divergence between V1-conditionals in the three languages, and whether or not they match the predictions of the Germanic Sandwich and asynchronicity models in synchronic and diachronic terms, respectively.

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On the distribution and the acquisition of Germanic NEEDS: German between Dutch and English

Jing Lin (University of Amsterdam)

Negative Polarity Items (NPIs) are lexical items surviving in negative contexts only (cf. Ladusaw 1979). This paper focuses on three verbal NPIs expressing necessity: English *need*, Dutch *hoeven* and German *brauchen* (Zwarts 1981; Van der Wouden 1997; Hoeksema 2000). Though these verbs are all restricted to negative contexts, there are differences. English has two *needs*, of which only the auxiliary *need* shows an NPI-constraint (see (1)) (Iatridou and Zeijlstra 2013, among others). *Hoeven* and *brauchen* have no auxiliary counterpart; yet they still differ in their NPI-patterns: *hoeven* exhibits an NPI-distribution irrespective of its appearance as a lexical or modal verb (see (2)) whereas *brauchen* is only an NPI in its modal use (see (3)).

These observations position German *brauchen* in between Dutch *hoeven* and English *need* in their NPI-uses (Table 1), and indicate different degrees of lexical complexity. NPI-*need* shares its lexical form with a non-NPI verb and therefore exhibits the most complexity of the three. *Hoeven* is positioned on the other end of the scale since it can only appear as an NPI, despite its lexical or modal use. *Brauchen* is expected to be in between: though *brauchen* – similar to *hoeven* – does not have an auxiliary counterpart, it is more complex than *hoeven* since only its modal use bears an NPI-constraint. As input complexity may affect the pace of acquisition, these differences make a prediction for the order of emergence of these NPIs in child language: *hoeven* emerges earlier than *brauchen*, which in turn arises earlier and *need*.

In addition to complexity, this paper also examines input frequency as an influencing factor of the pace of acquisition. To investigate this factor, data collected from child-directed speech in CHILDES (MacWhinney 2009) are analyzed (Table 2 and 3). The input frequency of the English NPI is extremely low as instances containing the auxiliary *need* are hardly attested in child-directed speech, whereas the Dutch NPI occurs much more frequently in the language input. In this respect the German NPI holds the in-between position again. Given such input frequencies, an order of emergence of these verbal NPIs in child language is predicted similar to that in the discussion of input complexity: *hoeven* emerges earlier than *brauchen*, and *need* emerges latest.

This order of emergence is confirmed by child data from CHILDES. The Dutch NPI already emerges around age two – in both its lexical and modal use (Table 5; see also Van der Wal 1996). NPI-*need* (i.e., the auxiliary) is however never attested in child English (Table 6). The first *brauchers* found in early child German are virtually all lexical ones, thus non-NPIs; and there is no strong evidence for the acquisition of NPI-*brauchen* (the modal one) before age four (Table 7). Moreover, NPI-*brauchen* does not appear at more than 10% until age six, which forms additional evidence for the in-between position of German *brauchen* in terms of acquisition.

The exploration of Germanic NEEDs in their distribution and acquisition does not only lead to a pattern in which German stands between Dutch and English; it also shows that absence of robust input evidence – due to lexical complexity and/or insufficient input frequency – delays acquisition.

- (1) a. **John/Nobody need drink water.* (auxiliary)
 b. *John/Nobody needs to drink water.* (non-auxiliary modal verb)
 c. *John/Nobody needs water.* (non-auxiliary lexical verb)
- (2) a. **Jan/Niemand hoeft water.* (lexical verb)
 b. **Jan/Niemand hoeft water te drinken.* (modal verb)
- (3) a. *Wir brauchen (kein) Wasser.* (lexical verb)
 b. *Wir brauchen *(kein) Wasser zu trinken.* (modal verb)

NEED	Non-auxiliary NEED		Auxiliary NEED
	As a lexical verb	As a modal verb	
English <i>need</i>	non-NPI	non-NPI	NPI
German <i>brauchen</i>	non-NPI	NPI	*
Dutch <i>hoeven</i>	NPI	NPI	*

Table 1: German *brauchen* between English *need* and Dutch *hoeven*

Language	Age range	N of files	N of children	Investigated subcopora
Dutch	1;00-4;12	710	59	<i>BolKuiken; CLPF; DeHouwer; Gilles; Groningen; Schaerlaekens; VanKampen; Wijnen.</i>
English	1;00-4;12	1492	145	<i>Belfast; Cruttenden; Fletcher; Forrester; Howe; Lara; Manchester; Thomas-Heritage; Wells.</i>
German	1;00-11;12	917	41	<i>Caroline; Leo; Miller; Szagun; Wagner; Rigol.</i>

Table 2: Corpus information

NEED	Non-auxiliary NEED		Auxiliary NEED	Total	Hours recorded	Frequency of the NPI per hour
	As a lexical verb	As a modal verb				
<i>need</i>	3458 (67.63%)	1653 (32.33)%	2 (0.04%)	5113	N.A.	N.A.
<i>brauchen</i>	1191 (86.9%)	180 (13.1%)	*	1371	1130	0.16
<i>hoeven</i>	142 (38.4%)	228 (61.6%)	*	370	331.5	1.12

Table 3: Distribution of Germanic NEEDs in child-directed speech (only bold figures indicate NPI-frequencies)

Age	NPI- <i>hoeven</i>		Total
	As a lexical verb	As a modal verb	
1-year-old	1 (100%)	0	1
2-year-olds	80 (80.8%)	19 (19.2%)	99
3-year-olds	56 (82.3%)	12 (17.7%)	68
4-year-olds	32 (65.3%)	17 (34.7%)	49

Table 4: Distribution of *hoeven* in child language development

Age	Non-NPI <i>need</i>		NPI- <i>need</i> (auxiliary)	Total
	As a lexical verb	As a modal verb		
1-year-old	8 (100%)	0	0	8
2-year-olds	1818 (84.3%)	340 (15.7%)	0	2158
3-year-olds	707 (80.5%)	171 (19.5%)	0	878
4-year-olds	288 (55.8%)	230 (44.8%)	0	518

Table 5: Distribution of *need* in child language development

Age	Non-NPI <i>brauchen</i> (the lexical verb)	NPI- <i>brauchen</i> (the modal verb)	Total
1-year-old	4 (100%)	0	4
2-year-olds	163 (97%)	5 (3%)	168
3-year-olds	129 (94.9%)	7 (5.1%)	136
4-year-olds	27 (90%)	3 (10%)	30
5-year-olds	30 (96.8%)	1 (3.2%)	31
6- to 11-year-olds	77 (72%)	30 (28%)	107

Table 6: Distribution of *brauchen* in child language development

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The rise of the positive polar moeten

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This paper investigates the historical development of the deontic Holland Dutch universal positive polarity modal *moeten* ('must'). This modal obligatorily scopes above negation and is therefore a positive polarity item (PPI) (Iatridou and Zeijlstra 2013); see (1).

- 1) Jan moet niet slapen
 Jan must not sleep
 'Jan mustn't sleep'
must < not, *not < must

The translation in (1) shows the same holds for English *must*. However, historical data shows that *moeten* was not always a PPI, as it used to scope below negation; see (2).

- 2) dat gi nit noede En motet doen. want ic v dis Geue orlof
 that you not worry NEG must do because I you this good permit
 'You do not have to worry because I favour you with the good'
not < must (Affligem 1265-70)

Interestingly, *moeten*'s German cognate *müssen* behaves like the Middle Dutch variety of *moeten* and scopes below negation as well; see (3)

- 3) Jan muss nicht schlafen
 Jan must not sleep
 'Jan need not sleep'
not < must

The data strongly suggests that *moeten* has changed from a neutral to a positive polar modal. The present study argues that this change was related to the loss of the Middle Dutch modal *dorven* ('can', 'need'). This verb surfaced both as an existential, see (4), and a universal modal, see (5). It co-occurred predominantly with negative elements.

4) Ganse ne darftu niit vermiden. Dune salt dat niit vergeten.
 health NEG may.you not avoid you. NEG shall that not forget
 'You may not avoid a [good] health. You mustn't forget that.'
not<may/can (Anonymous 1253)

5) *Context: men are riding out to find the Swiss, which are (fortunately) found nearby.*
 mer si en dorsten niet diep int lant riden om de hoge geberchten
 but they NEG need not deep in.the country ride around the high mountains
 'They need not ride deep into the country, all around the high mountains'
not<need (Aurelius 1517)

Note, that existential usage of *dorven* in (4) is equivalent to the PPI-usage of *moeten* (as in (1)). The universal usage of *dorven* in (5) on the other hand, is equivalent to the neutral usage of *moeten* (as in (2)).

In previous accounts, the loss of *dorven* is usually linked to the rise of the present day Holland Dutch universal modal *hoeven* ('need') (Van der Wouden 1996). This modal always co-occurs with a negative element and therefore is equivalent to negated *dorven* in its universal meaning; see (6).

6) Jan hoeft *(niet) te slapen
 Jan need not to sleep
 'Jan need not sleep'
 *need<not, **not<need**

Note, however, that this meaning was also equivalent to the neutral usage of *moeten* (or present day *müssen*).

Based on (Middle) Holland Dutch texts from 1400-1600, the present paper claims that the loss of *dorven*, the change in *moeten* and the rise of *hoeven* co-occur in the mid-sixteenth century. It appears likely that the loss of *dorven* had an effect on both *moeten* and *hoeven*. Furthermore, it shows that the existential usage of *dorven* was highly dominant. Possibly, this loss led to the rise of polar *moeten*, which on its turn may even have triggered the rise of modal *hoeven*.

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Language acquisition and language change: the case of verb clusters

Caitlin Meyer & Fred Weerman (University of Amsterdam)

For over forty years (roughly since Evers 1975), linguists have been talking about the verb cluster: a impenetrable group of verbs at the end of a subordinate clause (cf. Arfs 2007, Barbiers 2005, 2008, Coussé 2005, Coussé et al. 2008, De Sutter 2005, De Sutter et al. 2007, Wurmbrand 2005). Many West-Germanic languages have these clusters, as illustrated for Dutch in (1).

- (1) a. (...) dat ik deze koekjes **wil** (*snel) **eten.** (1-2)
 (...) that I these cookies want (quickly) eat.INF
- b. (...) dat ik deze koekjes **eten** (*snel) **wil.** (2-1)
 (...) that I these cookies eat.INF (quickly) want

Both: '(...) that I want to (quickly) eat these cookies.'

A curious property of Dutch is that it allows both the orders MOD-INF (the 1-2, red or ascending order) and INF-MOD (the 2-1, green or descending order) in (1), whereas e.g. German and Frisian only allow the order in (1)b, and English, on the other hand, only allows the order in (1)a. Though these facts are not usually discussed explicitly in terms of the sandwich pattern, we think they should be: the Dutch cluster sits squarely in between English and Dutch, both in terms of order preferences, and in terms of the underlying syntactic analyses (since English is technically not considered a cluster language). Given Weerman's (2006) suggestion that 'the sandwich' is an effect of the combination of early and late language acquisition, we think this comparative perspective on verb clusters should be combined with another path less traveled in the verb raising literature, namely how these clusters are acquired.

This talk aims to do just that. We will discuss data on cluster acquisition by Dutch monolingual children, early Dutch-Frisian bilinguals (in both Frisian and Dutch) and adult L2 learners of clusters, and hold their respective acquisition patterns against perspectives on language interference, language change, and ultimately, how this fits in with the sandwich we can observe above. The data of different learner groups all point in the direction that the 2-1 order is vulnerable. Meyer & Weerman (2014) argue 1-2 orders trigger cluster acquisition in children, suggesting that this order is the unmarked cluster order. An adapted version of their sentence repetition task revealed that Frisian children are very much like their Dutch monolingual peers (De Haan et al in prep). Both groups go through an 'OV'-stage (i.e. non-cluster stage) and a 1-2-stage before becoming adult-like, which is exciting if only for the fact that this entails Frisian children actually prefer an order that is currently ungrammatical in adult Frisian. This finding not only suggests a (potential) case of language change, but also evokes questions pertaining to the learnability of verb clusters. Using data from corpora we will finally show that the 2-1 order is vulnerable in adult L2 acquisition, too. We conclude that in typical contact situations 2-1 orders may ultimately change into 1-2.

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Pluralbildung von Fremdwörtern im Niederländischen und Deutschen

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Fokusse, Foki oder Foken? Museums, musea oder musea's? Die Pluralbildung von Fremdwörtern kann uns sowohl im Niederländischen als auch im Deutschen vor Probleme stellen. Sie ist aber keinesfalls nebensächlich, denn Fremdwörter bilden keine Insel innerhalb einer Sprache. Im Gegenteil, sie sind Teil des Systems. Ihre Untersuchung ist somit auch immer eine Betrachtung eines, im Falle einer kontrastiven Untersuchung sogar zweier Systeme und deren Vergleich.

Sowohl im Niederländischen als auch im Deutschen wird dem *s*-Plural häufig die Rolle als Fremdwortplural zugeordnet (Wegener 1999: 33; Van Wijk 2007: 42). Diese Zuteilung ist jedoch in zweierlei Hinsicht zu einfach. Zum einen ist der *s*-Plural in keiner der beiden Sprachen auf Fremdwörter beschränkt, sondern tritt in unterschiedlichem Maße auch an ‚normale‘ native Wörter, so wie eine Reihe spezieller Wörter wie Onomatopoeitika, Abkürzungen, Eigennamen usw. (Van Wijk 2007: 2; Bornschein/Butt 1987: 137). Zum anderen bilden auch Fremdwörter ihren Plural nicht ausschließlich mit dem *s*-Plural, sondern auch mit anderen produktiven nativen Pluralallomorphen oder nach speziellen Mustern, die nur im Fremdwortbereich auftreten. Der Aspekt der Systembetrachtung ist jedoch in seiner Komplexität bis heute nicht ausreichend erforscht. Aus diesem Grund werde ich in meinem Vortrag die Bildung des Fremdwortplurals im Niederländischen und Deutschen genauer betrachten. Dabei werde ich verschiedene Muster vorstellen, wobei manche in beiden, andere nur in einer der betrachteten Sprachen auftreten. Einige Muster weisen dabei ein hohes Maß an Systematik und einen umfassenden Geltungsbereich auf. Bei anderen lässt sich wiederum kaum eine Systematik erkennen und ihr Auftreten ist auf bestimmte Wörter beschränkt.

Neben der Vorstellung und Differenzierung dieser Muster gilt mein Hauptaugenmerk der Frage, wie diese sich mit dem System der jeweiligen Sprache vereinbaren lassen oder möglicherweise im jeweiligen System begründet liegen. In diesem Zusammenhang werde ich auch die Frage einerseits nach der adäquaten Beschreibung dieses Systems, andererseits danach, was unter welchen Umständen als integriert gelten kann, ins Auge fassen. Denn sowohl ein System, dessen Beschreibung als auch die Annahme von Integration sind nie als absolut zu verstehen, sondern existieren nur in gegenseitiger Abhängigkeit.

Exemplarisch seien hier Wörter auf *-or* genannt, die in beiden Sprachen zwar das native Allomorph *-en* zur Pluralisierung verwenden (im Niederländischen zusätzlich auch das Allomorph *-s*), dabei aber eine untypische Verschiebung des Akzents mit sich bringen (1).

- (1) nl.: réctor – rectóren/rectors
dt.: Diktátor – Diktatóren

- (2) dt.: Museum – Museen
nl.: coccus - coccen

Diese fremdartige Verschiebung des Akzents führt zu einer trochäischen, und damit auf phonologischer Ebene dem nativen System angeglichenen Outputform. Ein weiteres, deutlich komplizierteres Muster bildet die vor allem im Deutschen auftretende Stammflexion mit dem nativen Pluralallomorph *-en*, die weniger regelmäßig auftritt, jedoch ebenfalls auf untypische Weise, typische Pluralformen generiert (2).

Zusammenfassend lässt sich sagen, dass die Beschäftigung mit der Morphologie von Fremdwörtern ein wichtiger Bestandteil für die Erforschung des Systems einer Sprache ist.

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The development of evidential meanings in Dutch, English and Swedish verbs of appearance

Marjolein Poortvliet (University of Oxford)

This talk explores the development of evidential meanings in Dutch, English and Swedish verbs of appearance (Gisborne & Holmes 2007), focusing on the three verbs SEEM (LIKE), LOOK (LIKE), and SOUND (LIKE). In all three languages, these verbs have the following original lexical meanings:

1. SEEM (LIKE) to appear
2. LOOK (LIKE) to appear, based on visual observation
3. SOUND (LIKE) to appear, based on auditory observation

I present data from acceptability judgement tasks on Dutch, Swedish and English (the latter conducted by Rett and Hyams 2014), in which the participants were asked to rate constructions containing the verbs of appearance in specific evidential contexts (direct observations, inferences, hearsay). The data from these tasks show that when these verbs are used in two specific syntactic constructions, the original meaning (as given in 1-3) can be altered. The first syntactic construction is the non-raised construction ('it seems/looks/sounds like X...'), in which the original lexical meaning is semantically bleached, causing the verbs to simply mean 'to appear', whether observed visually or auditory. An example from English is shown in 4. The second construction is the raised construction ('X seems/looks/sounds like X...'), in which evidential directness is added to the original meaning. An example from English is shown in 5.

4. It looks like John is ill to appear, based on visual/auditory observation
5. John looks like he is ill to appear, based on direct visual observation

A comparison of the languages suggests that in English and Dutch both syntactic constructions (i.e. non-raised and raised) will change the meaning of the verbs of appearance; whereas in Swedish only the first construction (i.e. non-raised) changes the meaning, but not the second construction (i.e. a raised construction in Swedish does not mark direct observations). A preliminary proposal for this

difference in usage of evidentially marked constructions between English/Dutch on the one hand and Swedish on the other, would suggest that the languages are at different stages in the process of grammaticalization towards a grammatical evidential system (following Diewald and Smirnova 2010). In other words: those languages using both of the evidentially marked constructions are further grammaticalized than those languages using none or the first evidentially marked construction (i.e. non-raised).

Zooming in on English and Dutch, one could argue that English might even be ahead of Dutch in this process, in that the English usage of SEEM (LIKE) in raised constructions with an evidential meaning is widely acceptable, whereas this usage is only just starting to become acceptable for some Dutch speakers (Van Egmond 2004). This could suggest that the evidential usage of raised SEEM (LIKE) represents an even further stage in the grammaticalization process. If so, this would put English in the position of the most grammaticalized language in terms of the evidential meaning of verbs of appearance and Swedish as the least, leaving Dutch sandwiched in between.

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Proper noun compounding in West-Germanic. A contrastive view

Barbara Schlücker (Freie Universität Berlin)

Nominal compounding is an old word formation pattern in English, German and Dutch and it has already been documented for the earliest stages of these three languages. Nominal compounding is also quite productive in present-day English, German and Dutch (though not necessarily to the same extent) and nominal compounds are very frequent in these languages. Among the group of noun-noun compounds, proper noun compounds (e.g., ENG *Kosovo conflict*, *Wagner opera*, GER *Kosovo-Konflikt*, *Wagneroper*, DU *Kosovo-conflict*, *Wagneropera*) take a special position. Among other things, the pattern of proper noun compounding seems to be much younger than other kinds of nominal compounding (cf. Rosenbach 2007, for English). Proper noun compounds also differ from common noun compounds with respect to their semantics, which is due to the fact that proper names refer uniquely to one particular referent rather than denoting a concept, and they differ with respect to their morphosyntactic behaviour.

The present paper compares proper name compounding in English, German and Dutch. On the one hand, English, German and Dutch are relatively similar with respect to the so-called 'commemorative' function, that is, in all of these languages there are proper noun compounds denoting a concept which is named after the person referred to by the proper name (who, in many cases, is the inventor or discoverer), e.g. English: *diesel engine*, *Bunsen burner*, German: *Röntgenstrahlen* ('x-rays', lit. Röntgen rays), *Riesterrente* ('Riester pension'), Dutch: *montessorischool* ('Montessori school'), *Nobelprijs* ('Nobel prize').

On the other hand, however, there seem to be major differences with respect to other functions or semantic relations that can – or cannot – be realized in proper name compounding in the languages under investigation. For instance, whereas the locative relation is frequent in English proper name

compounds (e.g., *Berlin stage* 'stage located in Berlin') this relation is much more restricted in German and Dutch. Instead, these languages use various corresponding syntactic patterns, for instance prepositional phrases (*Bühne in Berlin*, *podium in Berlijn*) or deonymic adjectives (*Berliner Bühne*, *Berlijns podium*).

The aim of the paper is to discuss the division of labour between morphological means, i.e., proper name compounding, and syntactic means, i.e., corresponding phrases containing proper names (e.g., genitive, close apposition, prepositional phrases, phrases with deonymic adjectives) in the three languages. To this end, we use data from the EUROPARL corpus (cf. Koehn 2005) and the German, English and Dutch COW corpora (cf. Schäfer & Bildhauer 2012). It can be shown that, in general, proper name compounding seems to be less restricted in English than in German and Dutch and that proper name compounds are more frequent in English. However, although the inventory of corresponding phrases is quite similar in German and Dutch, they do not generally use these phrases in a uniform manner. Both semantic relations and contextual factors seem to be at play in the distribution between compounds and phrases in general and between the various corresponding syntactic constructions.

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En- versus Pro-cliticisation: synchronic and diachronic evidence from Dutch

Johanneke Sytsema & Aditi Lahiri (University of Oxford)

Encliticisation is more frequent than procliticisation in Germanic when a weak function word falls between two prosodic words (cf. Lahiri & Plank 2010). Consequently prosodically light entities attach themselves leftwards to a stressed foot. Dutch provides particularly striking evidence for encliticisation. Function words, in unfocused position, often have separate forms which after encliticisation, may entirely be subsumed into a single prosodic word (cf. Berendsen 1986, Gussenhoven 1986, Lahiri & Jongman 1990, and others). Experimental evidence supports the view that the smallest unit of phonological encoding for modern Dutch speakers is a cliticised phonological word (cf. Lahiri & Wheeldon 2011; Wheeldon & Lahiri 1997). In this paper we review this evidence and turn to manuscript data to understand if such encliticisation were possible even 700 years ago.

The middle of the 14th century is an interesting period to look at because it marks a transitional stage from the Early to the Late Middle Dutch period. Our data comes from verses, where the rhythmic system of four beats, as well as orthographic evidence provide a wealth of evidence about cliticisation. The manuscript data comes from two texts from the Boendale manuscript (Marshall 29, Oxford) : *Mellibeus* (attributed to Jan van Boendale) and *Saladijn* (by Hein van Aken) and from *Lutgart*. Careful analyses of the verses provides clear examples of orthographic cliticisation of function words (combined in text) as well as deletion or suppression of function words for rhythmic purposes.

Our conclusions are as follows:

- A. Weak function words are not cliticised when they carry a beat and therefore count as full prosodic words

B. **Encliticisation** is the norm

- (i) when the preceding element is a monosyllabic prosodic word
- (ii) when a preceding function word gets a beat (i.e., accented), and is therefore becomes a prosodic word
- (iii) when the preceding element is a disyllabic prosodic word where the second syllable is heavy (e.g. *be'rouw*, *'antəw*) and the second syllable takes a beat

Formally:

- (i) $'\omega_{(\sigma)} \sigma_{fn} > (' \omega_{(\sigma)} = \sigma_{fn})_{\omega}$
- (ii) $'\sigma_{fn} \sigma_{fn} > (' \sigma_{fn} = \sigma_{fn})_{\omega}$
- (iii) $(\sigma ' \sigma)_{\omega} \sigma_{fn} > ((\sigma ' \sigma)_{\omega} = \sigma_{fn})_{\omega}$

C. **Procliticisation** occurs in the following situations:

- (i) sentence initially where the function word often reduces to a single consonant
- (ii) when there are two function words and the first does not carry a beat, the second has to be a proclitic; similarly, if the preceding word ends in an unstressed syllable, encliticisation is blocked

Formally:

- (i) $## \sigma_{fn} ' \omega > (C_{cl} = \omega)_{\omega}$
- (ii) $' \omega \sigma_{fn} \sigma_{fn} \omega > (' \omega = \sigma)_{\omega} (\sigma_{fn} = \omega)$
 $(' \sigma \sigma)_{\omega} \sigma_{fn} ' \omega > (' \sigma \sigma)_{\omega} (\sigma_{fn} = ' \omega)$

On culture-specific items in the Dutch and English translations of 'Dukla' and 'House of day, house of night'. A comparative analysis

Katarzyna Tryczyńska (University of Wrocław)

Language and culture are intertwined with each other to such an extent that it is not possible to separate one from another. Texts are a product of the culture in which they were created, and it is especially the case for literary texts. The culture is present in texts created in a certain literary system and socio-cultural context on every level. In order to reach proficiency in translating literary texts, one should be fully aware of the above-mentioned problem so as to detect and understand such subtleties as culture-specific items accurately and to provide for a transfer of them in the process of translation.

This paper addresses the issue of culture-specific elements in the Dutch and English translations of the Polish literary texts dating back to the second half of the 20th century. For this purpose the author takes a close look at the translations of *Dukla* and *House of day, house of night*.

The objective of this study is to analyse the selected translations of contemporary Polish literary texts into the Dutch and English language in terms of the culture-specific items present in them, to

determine the translation techniques and strategies applied in those translations as well as to assess the effect those solutions bring on the macro-structural level. The author shall also make an attempt to track the problem of the translation tendencies and simultaneously to inquire into the presence of similarities and differences between the selected translations which are quite often determined by the status of the languages in question.

Existing explanations for the external possessor sandwich suffer from an English bias

Freek Van de Velde (KU Leuven)

Possessive relations can be expressed in different ways. A major distinction is the one between 'internal' and 'external' possessor constructions (König & Haspelmath 1998 and Payne & Barshi 1999, among others). In the former type, exemplified in (1), the possessor is a dependent of the possessee, whereas in the latter type, exemplified in (2) the possessor functions as an argument at clause level.

(1) DUTCH
Het apparaat glipte uit zijn vingers
the device slipped out his fingers
'The device slipped from his fingers'

(2) DUTCH
De zeep glipte hem uit de vingers
the soap slipped him out the fingers
'The soap slipped from his fingers'

In the scholarly literature, there is disagreement on the construction's distribution in the West-Germanic languages. Some argue, for instance, that it is productive in Dutch, whereas others state it is obsolescent at best (see e.g. Haspelmath 1999 vs. Van Pottelberghe 2005). What is agreed upon, however, is that the external possessor distribution follows a 'Van Haeringen'-constellation (English < Dutch < German), with a near-absence in English, and a relatively strong vitality in German. The conspicuous absence of the external possessor construction in English is commonly explained through language contact: Vennemann (2002) argues it is the result of Celtic and (Hamito-)Semitic influence and McWhorter's (2002) ascribes it to the language contact situation of the Viking settlements in England. Alternatively, the external possessor is seen as a feature of 'Standard Average European' (SAE) (see Haspelmath 1998:277-278; Haspelmath 2001:1498; Heine & Kuteva 2006:24; Harbert 2007:11; Van der Auwera 2011), a Sprachbund which English participates in much more marginally than German and Dutch. This SAE Sprachbund is ultimately due to language contact as well.

In line with Van de Velde & Lamiroy (forthc. 2015), it will be argued in this talk that all three accounts (Vennemann's, McWhorter's and the SAE account) face serious problems, and suffer from an English bias. Taking a wider perspective, including diachronic data from Germanic as well as Romance, it will be argued here that the differential distribution of the external possessor is the result of grammaticalisation processes in the noun phrase (see Lamiroy 2003; Van de Velde 2009). The increasing configurationality of the noun phrase (Van de Velde et al. 2014, and references cited there), yielded an increasing number of slots for premodifiers, which got occupied more frequently in the course of time. This drained the external possessive. The latter account gives a better prediction of the actual distribution of the external possessor in Germanic and Romance languages.

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The comparative semantics of West Germanic similatives

Johan Van der Auwera (University of Antwerp) & Daniel Van Olmen (Lancaster University)

There has recently been some interest in the semantics of constructions with *such*, here called 'similatives', and their counterparts in Dutch and German, both from a functional (Ghesquière & Van de Velde 2011, Van Olmen & van der Auwera 2014) and a formal perspective (Umbach & Gust 2014). These studies focus on the most common uses, such as the one in (1).

- (1) I want *such* a hat!

The element of similarity is obvious: the hat that the speaker wants is similar to another one or other ones, mentioned in the discourse or clear from the context, and thus also to the type of hat instantiated by these tokens. But there are *such* constructions with a richer semantics and arguably even without the semantics of similarity. Three such uses are illustrated in (2) to (4).

- (2) In estimating the character of a great general, it is not sufficient to consider that he has overcome *such and such* people, or overrun *such and such* countries ... [*such and such* ≈ *certain*]
- (3) Berlin is *as such* a nice place, but ... [*as such* ≈ *basically*]
- (4) The food, *such as it was*, was served by the nurses. [*such as it was* implies that the food was not good]

Dutch has two counterparts to *such*, viz. the cognate *zulk* and the newcomer *zo'n* (lit. 'so a'), and German can be said to have even three: next to the newcomer *son*, it uses the cognate in two constructions, one with an invariable *solch* and one with a variable *solcher*. Both languages have clear similative uses, but they also have extended uses, illustrated in (5) and (6).

(5) Er waren zo'n 500 mensen. [*zo'n* ≈ 'approximately']

'There were approximately 500 people.'

(6) mein lieber Brüderchen dachte sich mal wieder, was aus dem Internet zu ziehen.

Er hat son Musik Programm [*son* ≈ 'one of those, a typical']

'My small brother had once again the idea of pulling something from the internet. He has one of those music programs ...'

We will use the semantic map approach to show how the similative and the extended uses relate to one another. This approach will also show what the 3 languages and the 5 strategies have in common, thus defining a cross-linguistic category (*pace* Haspelmath (2010), cross-linguistic and language-specific categories are the same kinds of things), and how they differ, with different innovations in the three languages.

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Another Germanic sandwich, or stuff like that?

Ton van der Wouden (Meertens Instituut)

General extenders are expressions like English *and things* and *and stuff like that* "that are placed at the end of utterances and phrases and extend the utterance by referring to a category 'in the air'" (Aijmer 2013: 126), as in the following examples:

- I'm the biggest nerd - I love comic books *and stuff like that*.²
- I don't write diaries *and things like that*, but I have a fantastic memory.³

Overstreet (1999:3) defines General Extenders as "a class of expressions that typically occur in clause final position and have the basic form of conjunction plus noun phrase" can be considered a global phenomenon: Overstreet (1999: 8-9) gives examples from Swedish to Hawaiian and from German to Korean. There is, however, considerable variation both within and across languages: Aijmer (146) found out that *and things* is the variant most encountered in British English, whereas *and stuff* "is common in American, Australian and New Zealand English". Van der Wouden (2014) on the other

² Megan Fox via <http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/m/meganfox410866.html>

³ Françoise Gilot via <http://www.brainyquote.com/quotes/quotes/f/francoiseg577678.html>

hand observes that the most common variants of General Extenders in Dutch (as spoken in the Netherlands) are *en zo* and *of zo*.

- los van dat we hè dat we mekaar zien *en zo*.⁴
- maar misschien ga ik daar dan wel effe wat opleggen *of zo*.

He further notes that these Dutch Generalized Quantifiers do not completely adhere to Overstreet's definition given above of "a basic form of conjunction plus noun phrase", as *zo* hardly qualifies as a noun phrase.

A well-known observation, going back at least to Van Haeringen (1956), is that grammatically speaking, Dutch often occupies a position in between its closest Germanic neighbors, English and German: Dutch has somewhat more inflection than English, but considerably less than German, word order in German is freer than in Dutch, whereas it is even more fixed in English, etc. (cf. Hüning et al. (eds.), 2006). In our paper, we will extend the scope of the Germanic sandwich enterprise to pragmatics, by comparing the structure and distribution of General Extenders in English, Dutch and German. The existence of the German General Extender *und so* (Overstreet 2005) may be taken as an indication that Dutch might lean here more towards German.

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The 'human' impersonal pronoun in Afrikaans vs. European West Germanic

Daniel Van Olmen (Lancaster University), Adri Breed (North-West University Potchefstroom) & Ben Verhoeven (University of Antwerp)

As argued by Weerman (2006), the 'man'-pronoun exhibits a typical sandwich distribution: it is very much alive in German, English has lost it completely and Dutch is in-between. At first sight, Afrikaans sides with English here: it seems not to have inherited the form from Dutch. But it also differs from English in that it has developed, or rather is developing, a new 'man'-pronoun, i.e. (*n*) *mens*'(a) human'. The paper presents the first corpus-based analysis of this item's functional range, textual distribution and grammaticalization – in view of the existing semantic maps (Siewierska & Papastathi 2011, Gast & van der Auwera 2013) and in comparison to German *man*, Dutch *men* and, perhaps

⁴ This example and the next one are from the Spoken Dutch Corpus.

surprisingly, English *one* (based on Weerman 2006, Siewierska 2011 and van der Auwera et al. 2012).

A quantitative analysis of impersonal (*'n*) *mens* in the *Taalkommissiekorpus*, a stratified corpus of written Standard Afrikaans (Taalkommissie van die SAWK 2011), shows: 1. like *man* but unlike *men*, (*'n*) *mens* is not restricted to any genre or register; 2. this observation holds for the use with and without the indefinite article; 3. (*'n*) *mens* occurs more often than *men* but less often than *man*. The difference with Dutch may be attributed to *men's* obsolescence. A look at the functions of (*'n*) *mens* partly explains the difference with German.

The initial results of a study of a sample of *'n mens* and *mens* hits suggest: 1. unlike *man* (and *men*, actually), (*'n*) *mens* can only be used universally (e.g. (*'n*) *mens leef net een keer* 'you only live once'), and not existentially (e.g. *(*'n*) *mens klop aan die deur* 'they're knocking on the door'). In fact, even so-called generic-universal-external uses like **in Bali eet ('n) mens naaldekokers* 'in Bali, they eat dragonflies' are impossible (this analysis is confirmed by native speaker acceptability judgments). In other words, (*'n*) *mens* has not (yet) grammaticalized beyond the stage of a human non-referential indefinite; 2. the aforementioned semantic maps may describe the major semantic (dis)similarities between (*'n*) *mens*, *men* and *man* but do not capture the variation in contexts; 3. *mens* and *'n mens* differ neither in their range of uses nor in the proportional distribution of these uses. This observation ties in with the apparent lack of genre/register distinctions and is perhaps somewhat surprising given that the loss of the article is usually taken as a sign of a higher level of grammaticalization (Giacalone Ramat & Sansò 2007: 98-106).

An examination of a diachronic corpus of 20th-century Afrikaans (Kirsten p.c.) seems to confirm the lack of a form-function correlation in this incipient grammaticalization – despite a proportional increase of cases without *'n*. The data also show a tendency to replace (*'n*) *mens's* suppletive forms *jy* 'you [repeated subject]', *jou* 'you(r)' and *jouself* 'yourself' (see Donaldson 1993) by forms of (*'n*) *mens* (which is rampant in present-day spoken Afrikaans). This trend is argued to counter Weerman's (2006) argument against a pronominal analysis of (*'n*) *mens* (see Draye 2014 too) and to be due to contact with English and, more specifically, the functionally similar item *one(-s/-self)*.

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Teaching forum: the Germanic Sandwich classroom

Roel Vismans (University of Sheffield) with Barbara Schlücker (Freie Universität Berlin) & Gunther de Vogelaer (Universität Münster)

The focus of the Germanic Sandwich conferences and workshops of the last ten years has firmly been on scientific research, and appropriately so. However, most participants to these conferences and workshops also teach students on language and (contrastive) linguistics courses. This forum aims to offer an opportunity to exchange experiences and ideas of how our contrastive linguistics research into the Germanic languages can contribute to our teaching, and vice versa how our teaching influences our contrastive research. Topics for discussion can include:

Contents	What aspects of language are (not) included? Is the angle diachronic or synchronic, or both? Do we distinguish between comparative vs. contrastive? Which language are included and excluded?
Timing	Is the course taught at Bachelor, Master or Doctoral level? How does the level influence content, teaching method and assessment? If at Bachelor level, does the course take place in the first, second or final year? What is its credit value: 5 or 10 ECTS? Are there any pre-requisites for the course?
Method	Is it a lecture course or is it taught in seminars, or a combination of the two? How much self study is involved? Does the course involve research-led teaching and learning? Is there a course book?
Assessment	Is the course assessed by an exam, essay, dissertation, (poster) presentation or something else, or a combination?
Student experience	Why do students choose the course? What do they like and dislike about it, and why?

The workshop will thus provide a pedagogic perspective on the contrastive work of the Germanic Sandwich project: to what extent do the approaches to teaching contrastive Germanic linguistics differ between countries, and why?

Teaching Dutch, German and English as pluricentric languages

Ulrike Vogl (Universität Wien) & Truus De Wilde (Freie Universität Berlin)

Traditionally, language teachers are reluctant to pay structural attention to regional and social variation. Second and foreign language learners usually learn an idealized standard language in class. As a result, they often are not prepared for the linguistic reality of the language area where the standard language that they learn is the official language. In the Dutch language area, for example, there are three national varieties (so called natiolects) - Netherlandic Dutch, Belgian Dutch and Surinamese Dutch -, and there are various regional and social varieties in use.

Moreover, in the Dutch-speaking part of Belgium, regional varieties subsumed under the term 'tussentaal' (intermediate language) are increasingly taking over domains that were formerly reserved for (a Southern variety of) the Dutch standard language. Of course, 'the Dutch standard language' has always been a rather abstract notion; however, in the age of globalization which is characterized, among others, by new forms of oral and written discourse as well as by increased geographical

mobility, it becomes all the more difficult to identify 'the one norm' to be taught to foreign language learners.

In the first part of this paper, we assess current views regarding the teaching of Dutch as a pluricentric language (as one way of paying attention to more than 'the one norm') and we present the project "Dutch++: Examples and new models for learning and teaching pluricentric languages" which aims at going beyond the pluricentric approach. Whereas with a pluricentric approach, teachers focus on a specific national standard variety (Netherlandic Dutch or Belgian Dutch), the main focus of Dutch++ is to raise learners' awareness of variation in a broader sense -national, regional and social. We assume that language learners become part of a heterogeneous speech community when they learn a language, in our case Dutch. Accordingly, they are confronted with what we call pluricentric practices (based on Lüdi 2012): on the one hand, there are the fixed, codified norms of traditional norm authorities such as the Dutch Language Union (which are for example relevant when learners are expected to write a formal letter); on the other hand, there are implicit language norms that are relevant within certain social groups within or across nation states (for example urban youth in the Low countries or students of a Flemish university town).

In the second part of this paper, we extend the approach that we use for Dutch++ to the teaching and learning of two other pluricentric languages: German and English. What are the possibilities and limitations of applying our approach to the context of the German and English speaking areas? We make an inventory of how and when the pluricentric nature of English and German is dealt with in didactics, with a special interest for the situation in German as a second language in Austria. The main point in this second part will be the question to what extent raising awareness for the pluricentricity of these language is aimed at in teaching these languages.

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Pronoun processing in L2 Dutch by German adult speakers

Hendrikje Ziemann & Esther Ruigendijk (University of Oldenburg)

Pronouns can express reference. German and Dutch have reflexive (sich, zich) and personal pronouns (ihn, hem). Principles A and B of Binding Theory (Chomsky 1981) describe that in (1) the personal

pronoun *hem/ihn* refers to the non-local antecedent (e.g. *scheikundige/Chemiker*) whereas the reflexive *zich/sich* refers to the local antecedent (*bioloog/Biologe*).

However, both languages contrast partially in (2). The reflexive *zich/sich* must refer to the local antecedent *bioloog/Biologe*. The personal pronoun may refer both to *bioloog* and to *scheikundige* in Dutch, in contrast to German which only allows non-local binding.

Introductory sentence:

De bioloog en de scheikundige_g stonden in de tuin.

(The biologist and the chemist were standing in the garden.)

- (1) De bioloog_i verbaasde zich_i/hem_g.
Der Biologe_i überraschte sich_i/ihn_g.
(The biologist astonished himself/him.)
- (2) De bioloog_i plantte een bloem voor zich_i/hem_{i/g}.
Der Biologe_i pflanzte eine Blume vor sich_i/ihn_{i/g}.
(The biologist was planting a flower in front of himself/him.)

Distribution differences between German and Dutch may influence pronominal processing. Reuland (2011) suggests that reflexives in co-argumenthood structures like (1) are processed via a syntactic operation, whereas discourse operations are needed for personal pronouns. In non-co-argumenthood structures like (2), for both elements only discourse operations are available.

L2 processing differs from L1 processing, in that adult L2 speakers might not be able to use syntactic operations as L1 speakers do (cf. Ullman 2001).

To examine these factors in reference assignment – cross-linguistic differences, the asymmetry of syntax and discourse and the difference between L1 and L2 speakers – we ran a self-paced-reading and an eyetracking study to investigate the processing of reflexive and personal pronouns in structures like (1) and (2) in German adult L2 speakers of Dutch (n= 31), as well as native speakers of Dutch (n=29).

The self-paced-reading study showed an interaction of structure and group at the pronoun indicating that, unlike L1 speakers, L2 speakers do not process (1) differently from (2). There was a significant effect of pronoun type and an interaction of group and pronoun type, showing that RTs on reflexives were faster than on personal pronouns, for L1 speakers only. These effects could be caused by the fact that in (1), but not (2) syntactic operations are crucial (cf. Reuland). Second, these syntactic operations can only be applied in the processing of reflexives. Moreover L2 speakers indeed seem to process language differently from L1 speakers (cf. Ullman 2001).

Finally, we were not able to find a cross-linguistic effect. RTs for the personal pronoun in (2) did not differ from reflexives or compared to the other structure (1) indicating that properties of language may have limited impact on L2 processing.

So far we collected but did not analyse eyetracking data of 32 L1 and 27 L2 speakers. We expect more insight in the processing steps as this method enables a more precise observation. Specifically, it will show processing delays on and processing mechanisms of process reflexives and personal pronouns – do speakers rely on syntax and/or discourse in the processing of pronouns and what antecedents are considered during processing? The results of these studies will be discussed within Reuland's (2001) model on reference assignment.



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4. A certificate message may be displayed by your browser. If this is the case then click to **accept the certificate** as prompted by the browser
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6. Enter your email address
7. Select, **I accept the terms and conditions of this service**, to confirm you have read the terms and conditions on this page
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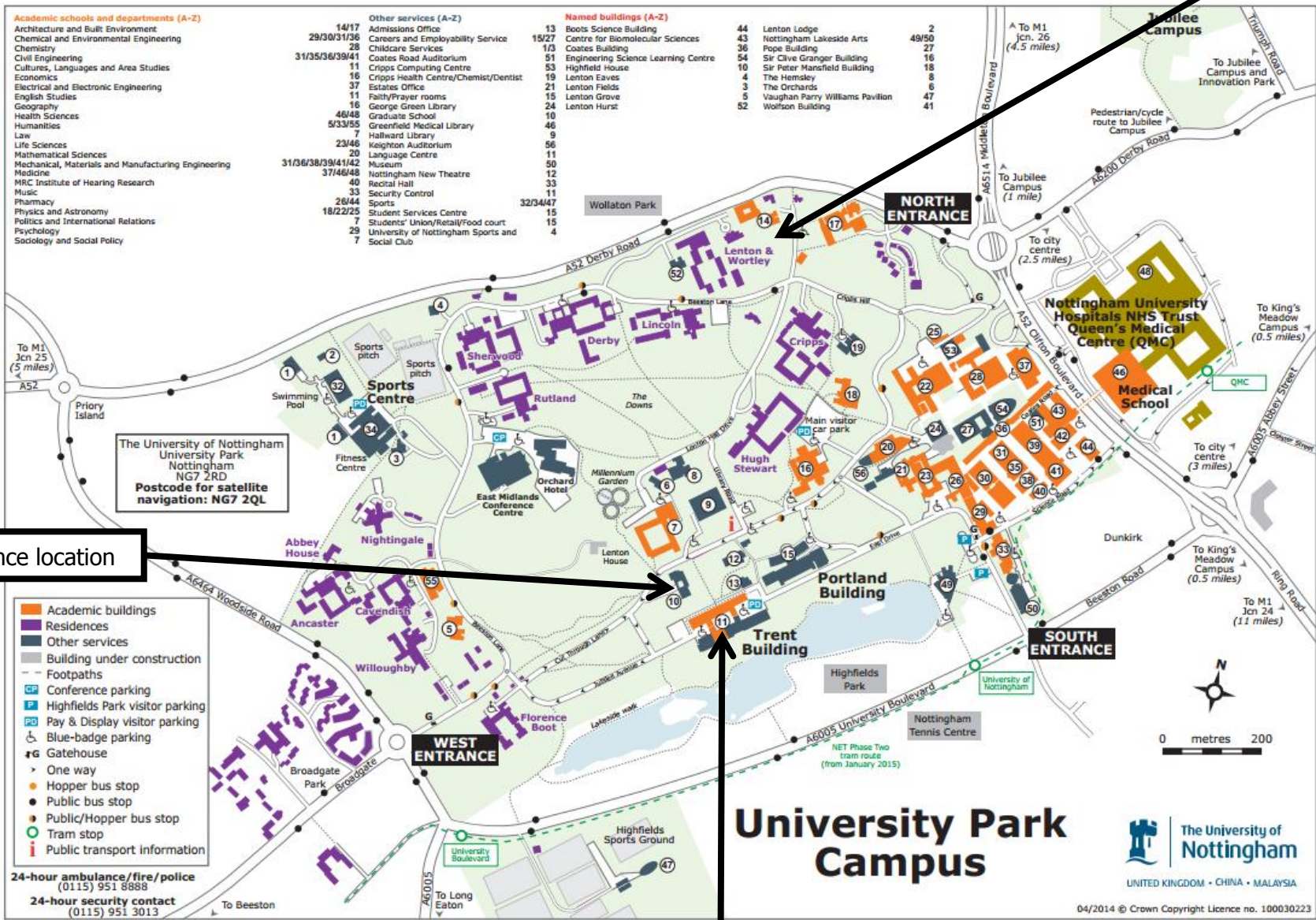
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