

# Back to the future? How Chinese-English bilinguals switch between front and back orientation for time

Abbreviated title: Cross-language interference on time conceptualisation

Yang Li<sup>1</sup>, Aina Casaponsa<sup>2</sup>, Yan Jing Wu<sup>3</sup>, and Guillaume Thierry<sup>1</sup>

1. School of psychology, Bangor University, Bangor, Wales, UK
2. Department of Linguistics and English Language, Lancaster University, Lancaster, UK
3. Faculty of Foreign Languages, Ningbo University, Ningbo, China

## Abstract

1 The ability to conceive time is a corner stone of human cognition. It is unknown,  
2 however, whether time conceptualisation differs depending on language of operation  
3 in bilinguals. Whilst both Chinese and English cultures associate the future with the  
4 front space, some temporal expressions of Chinese involve a configuration reversal  
5 due to historic reasons. For instance, Chinese refers to the day after tomorrow using  
6 the spatiotemporal metaphor *hou-tian* – 'back-day' and to the day before yesterday  
7 using *qian-tian* – 'front-day'. Here, we show that native metaphors interfere with time  
8 conceptualisation when bilinguals operate in the second language. We asked  
9 Chinese-English bilinguals to indicate whether an auditory stimulus depicted a day of  
10 the week either one or two days away from the present day, irrespective of whether it  
11 referred to the past or the future, and ignoring whether it was presented through  
12 loudspeakers situated in the back or the front space. Stimulus configurations  
13 incongruent with spatiotemporal metaphors of Chinese (e.g., "Friday" presented in  
14 the front of the participant during a session held on a Wednesday) were conceptually  
15 more challenging than congruent configurations (e.g., the same stimulus presented in  
16 their back), as indexed by N400 modulations of event-related brain potentials. The  
17 same pattern obtained for days or years as stimuli, but surprisingly, it was found only  
18 when participants operated in English, not in Chinese. **We contend that the task was**  
19 **easier and less prone to induce cross-language activation when conducted in the**  
20 **native language.** We thus show that, when they operate in the second language,  
21 bilinguals unconsciously retrieve irrelevant native language representations that  
22 shape time conceptualisation in real time.

23

24 *Key words:* Bilingualism, spatiotemporal metaphors, semantics, event-related brain  
25 potentials, unconscious processing

## 26 Introduction

27 Conceptualising the passing of time is a core aptitude of the human mind. One of the most  
28 common ways to represent time, an abstract concept, is to use space, a concrete concept.  
29 However, linguistic metaphors from different languages use spatial axes in different ways.  
30 For instance, spatiotemporal metaphors of Chinese frequently refer to the sagittal (front-back)  
31 and vertical (up-down) axes to represent time (e.g., Boroditsky, 2001; Boroditsky, Fuhrman,  
32 and McCormick, 2011; Lai and Boroditsky, 2013). Western languages, in contrast, tend to  
33 rely more exclusively on the sagittal axis.

34 Languages even differ in terms of orientation along the same axis. Whereas Aymara, like  
35 Moroccan, associates the past with the front space (*nayra*) and the future with the back space  
36 (*qhipa*), the majority of languages place the future in front and the past in the back (Núñez  
37 and Sweetser, 2006; see also, de la Fuente, Santiago, Román, Dumitrache, and Casasanto,  
38 2014). Variations even exist within languages, as is the case in Chinese, which conforms to a  
39 future-in-front convention (e.g., *qian-tu* – ‘future prospects’ literally translates into “front-  
40 path”) but features exceptions with a reverse orientation along the same axis (e.g., *hou-tian* –  
41 ‘the day after tomorrow’, which literally translates as “back-day”, Table 1).

**Table 1.** Spatiotemporal metaphors of Mandarin Chinese conflicting with the future-in-front convention

Chinese	Pin Yin	English translation	Time	Literal translation
后天	hou-tian	the day after tomorrow	future	‘back day’
前天	qian-tian	the day before yesterday	past	‘front day’
后年	hou-nian	the year after next	future	‘back year’
前年	qian-nian	the year before last	past	‘front year’

42 One fundamental question, however, is whether such linguistic differences are mirrored by  
43 differences at a conceptual level, that is, the question at the centre of the linguistic relativity  
44 debate (Lupyan, 2012; Slobin, 1996; Thierry, 2016; Whorf, 1956). In the domain of time  
45 representation, **Boroditsky (2001) reported that native speakers of Chinese solved**  
46 **temporal problems (e.g., Is “March comes earlier than April” correct?) faster after**  
47 **viewing pictures of vertically arranged objects than horizontally arranged ones. In**  
48 **contrast, English native speakers verified temporal statements faster after presentation**  
49 **of horizontal layout than vertical ones. Boroditsky thus argued that native speakers of**

50 Chinese predominantly conceptualise time along the vertical axis, whereas English natives  
51 predominantly embody time along the horizontal axis. **However, using the same paradigm**  
52 **as Boroditsky (2001), Chen (2007) failed to find significant reaction time differences**  
53 **between horizontal and vertical spatial priming in Chinese native speakers or English**  
54 **native speakers. In addition, in a corpus analysis, Chen (2007) observed that Chinese**  
55 **native speakers more frequently used horizontal spatial metaphors than vertical ones**  
56 **when expressing time (with the notable exception of temporal expressions containing**  
57 **“week”). This led Chen (2007) to argue that Chinese speakers, like English speakers,**  
58 **predominantly conceptualize time horizontally, despite the existence of vertically**  
59 **oriented spatiotemporal metaphors in Chinese. In addition, also against observations**  
60 **made by Boroditsky (2001), January and Kako (2007) and Tse and Altarriba (2008)**  
61 **showed that English native speakers take less time to respond to temporal sentences**  
62 **following a vertical than a horizontal prime. Therefore, data from behavioural studies**  
63 **have so far failed to reach a consensus on spatiotemporal interactions between**  
64 **language-specific metaphors and time conceptualisation.**

65 In order to assess how specific linguistic expressions such as spatiotemporal metaphors  
66 influence how speakers of different languages conceive time, we need an implicit, automatic,  
67 and unconscious index of conceptual processing that is resilient to strategic effects and does  
68 not rely on verbalisation (Thierry, 2016). A well-established such index is the N400 peak of  
69 event-related brain potentials (Kutas and Hillyard, 1980, 1984; Kutas, Lindamood, and  
70 Hillyard, 1984). Here, we set out to test whether spatiotemporal metaphors specific to  
71 Chinese that conflict with the future-in-front convention<sup>1</sup> selectively affect time  
72 conceptualisation in fluent Chinese-English bilinguals **operating in English or Chinese. It is**  
73 **well-established that lexical access in bilinguals is largely language non-selective and**  
74 **that the bilingual lexicon is highly integrated rather than fragmented by language (See**  
75 **the bilingual interactive activation model, van Heuven, Dijkstra, and Grainger, 1998;**  
76 **BIA+ model, Dijkstra and van Heuven, 2002). Previous research using the N400 as an**

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<sup>1</sup> We chose the sagittal (front-back) axis for three reasons: (i) The sagittal axis is the most frequently used; (ii) It is common to Mandarin Chinese and English, which is critical because we tested Chinese-English bilinguals in the UK; (iii) Exceptional violations of the future-in-front convention only occur in Chinese.

77 **index of cross-language activation established that there are automatic competition**  
 78 **effects within and across languages at the lexical level, even when bilinguals operate in a**  
 79 **monolingual language context (Thierry and Wu, 2004, 2007; Wu and Thierry, 2010,**  
 80 **2012; Hoshino and Thierry, 2012; Wen, Filik, and van Heuven, 2018; Meade et al.,**  
 81 **2017; Lee, Meade, Midgley, Holcomb & Emmorey, 2019). Therefore, we predicted that**  
 82 **Chinese-English bilinguals operating in English could suffer interference from**  
 83 **spatiotemporal metaphors specific to Chinese.**

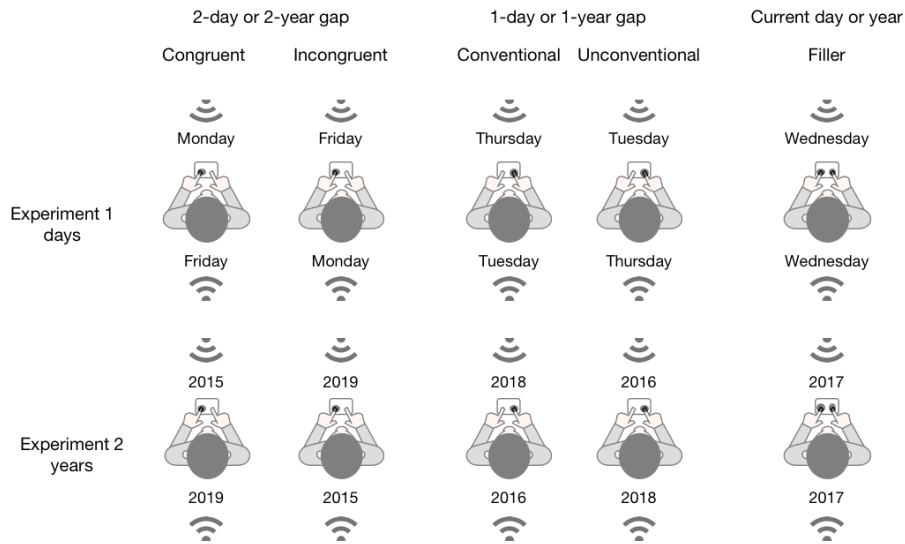
84 We engineered a conflict between metaphor orientation and stimulus presentation along the  
 85 front-back axis in the space around the participant. To our knowledge, no previous study has  
 86 physically presented a stimulus in the back space surrounding participants, since all previous  
 87 studies involved stimuli presented in the visual domain. In *Experiment 1*, we used days of the  
 88 week as stimuli. For instance, when a participant was tested on a Wednesday, we presented  
 89 the auditory stimulus ‘Friday’ through loudspeakers situated in the front of the participant,  
 90 potentially clashing with the corresponding spatiotemporal metaphor of Chinese as compared  
 91 to the same stimulus presented in their back, since the Chinese expression for ‘the day after  
 92 tomorrow’ literally translates as “back-day” in English. We asked participants to make  
 93 interval judgements (‘Is the date you hear one or two days away from today?’). Critically,  
 94 sound origin in space was irrelevant as was the future or past reference afforded by the  
 95 stimuli, and spatiotemporal metaphors were never presented or mentioned.

96 We expected that Chinese-English bilinguals would experience interference from conflicting  
 97 metaphors of Chinese in the case of 2-day gaps, but not in the case of 1-day gaps since *ming-*  
 98 *tian* – ‘tomorrow’ and *zuo-tian* – ‘yesterday’ are not spatiotemporal metaphors in Chinese  
 99 (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Temporal expressions of Mandarin Chinese neutral vis-à-vis the future-in-front convention

Chinese	Pin Yin	English translation	Relative time	Literal translation
明天	ming-tian	tomorrow	future	‘bright day’
昨天	zuo-tian	yesterday	past	‘yesterday’
明年	ming-nian	next year	future	‘bright year’
去年	qu-nian	last year	past	‘gone year’

100 In *Experiment 2*, conducted in late 2017 in the same session as Experiment 1, participants  
 101 made interval judgements about years instead of days. Our predictions were the same as for  
 102 Experiment 1 (Fig. 1).



**Figure 1.** Experimental design. In experiment 1, participants heard days of the week presented through loudspeakers set in front of them and in their back. Stimuli depended on the day of testing (e.g., if the current day was Wednesday, stimuli were Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday in English and *xing-qi yi*, *xing-qi er*, *xing-qi san*, *xing-qi si*, and *xing-qi wu* in Chinese). Participants were instructed to press one button for stimuli one day away (in the future or the past) and the other button for stimuli two days away from the day of testing. For the current day, they had to press both buttons simultaneously (filler trial). In experiment 2, participants heard year labels: twenty-fifteen, twenty-sixteen, twenty-seventeen, twenty-eighteen, and twenty-nineteen (and *er-ling yi-wu*, *er-ling yi-liu*, *er-ling yi-qi*, *er-ling yi-ba*, *er-ling yi-jiu* in Chinese). Instructions were the same as in Experiment 1 but response was based on temporal distance in years, 2017 being the year of testing. Congruency is defined based on alignment between sound origin (front / back), temporal reference (future /past), and spatiotemporal metaphors of Mandarin Chinese.

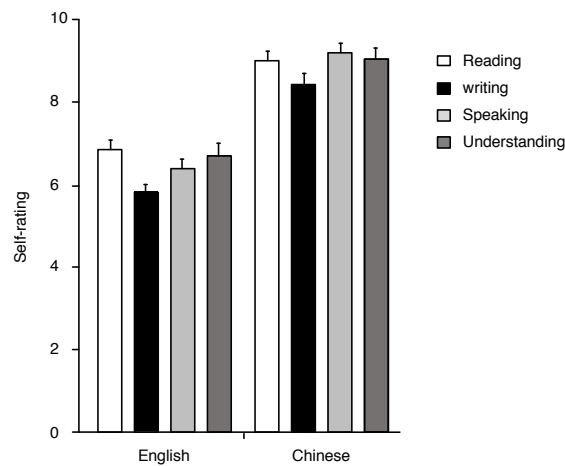
103 Overall, we predicted that incongruent stimulus configurations involving 2-day or 2-year  
 104 gaps presented from a location incompatible with the orientation embedded in native  
 105 spatiotemporal metaphors of Chinese would differentially increase the amplitude of the N400  
 106 as compared to congruent configurations. In the case of 1-day or 1-year gaps, configurations  
 107 violating the future-in-front convention were not expected to elicit semantic interference  
 108 since no relevant spatial information was available, either in Chinese or in English.

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## 110 Method

### 111 *Participants*

112 Twenty-four Chinese-English bilingual participants and 21 native speakers of English  
113 participated in this study. All participant took part in both Experiment 1 and Experiment 2.  
114 Data from 5 bilingual participants and 4 native speakers of English were discarded due to  
115 poor electrophysiological recording quality, excessively high impedances, excessive blinking,  
116 or insufficient number of trials per condition. All Chinese participants reported their  
117 International English Language Test System (IELTS) score (Mean = 6.3/ 9, SD = 0.4) and  
118 were resident in the UK at the time of testing. Bilingual participants self-reported their  
119 proficiency in both English and Mandarin Chinese (Fig. 2) and their language background is  
120 summarised in Table 3.



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**Figure 2.** Chinese-English bilingual participants' self-estimation of their English and Chinese level (10 point-scale). Error bar represents stand error.

122 All participants had normal or corrected-to-normal vision and self-reported normal audition.  
123 Participants either received £15 or course credits for their participation in the study that was  
124 approved by the ethics committee of the School of Psychology at Bangor University. **We**  
125 **aimed at collecting more than 16 participants in each of the experimental groups in**  
126 **order to yield suitable statistical power for this experiment based on previous studies**  
127 **targeting similar effects in ERPs and spanning 9 years of research (e.g., Thierry and**  
128 **Wu, 2004, 2007).** We thus collected 21 participants in the native English group based on an  
129 average data attrition rate of ~10%, and 24 bilingual participants, since session duration was  
130 twice as long thus increasing data loss risks proportionally.

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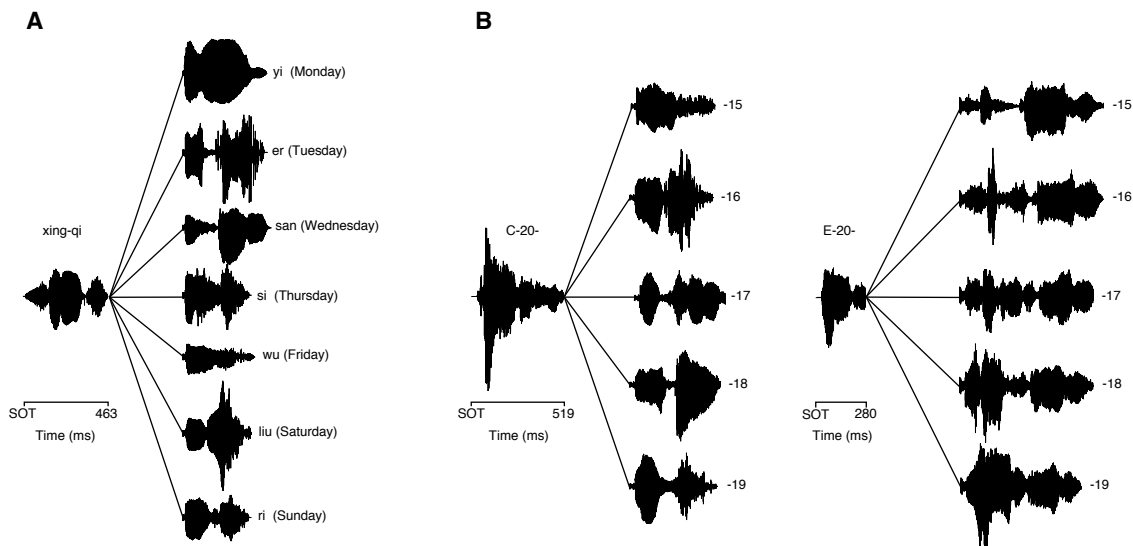
**Table 3.** Chinese-English bilingual participants' language background

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Measure	Mean	SD
Age of L2 acquisition	9.42	2.36
Length of L2 learning (years)	14.26	3.57
Daily Chinese usage (%)	67	16.7
Daily English usage (%)	33	14.1

139 **Materials**

140 Stimuli consisted of digital audio files of days of the week and year numbers in Mandarin  
141 Chinese and English. All stimuli were recorded once in English by a native speaker of  
142 English and once in Chinese by a native speaker of Chinese. A cross-splicing procedure  
143 (using Adobe Audition™) was employed to ensure that participants could not guess the  
144 particular day or year stimulus presented in each trial on the basis of stimulus beginning  
145 alone<sup>2</sup>. Cross-splicing offered a good baseline and optimal accuracy in marking the onset of  
146 the critical information in the sound stream (Fig. 3).



**Figure 3.** Cross-splicing procedure and stimuli presented. (A) Experiment 1 (days). (B) Experiment 2 (years).

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<sup>2</sup> Note that for year stimuli in Chinese, we elected not to cross-splice between the decade digit (*yi* – ‘one’ in Chinese) and the final digit (5, 6, 7, 8, or 9) because of co-articulation in the case of *yi-wu* – ‘fifteen’, which would have created an artefact for that sound file. On average the duration of *yi* was 250 ms (range 230-272 ms), and thus RTs were artificially extended by the same duration in the corresponding condition.

147 In Experiment 1, stimuli consisted of the names for the 7 days of the week. For any  
148 participant, only 5 days of the week were presented in order to cover a time interval of two  
149 days before to two days after the day of testing. Average stimulus duration was  $900 \pm 75$  ms  
150 for days in Chinese and  $845 \pm 66$  ms for days in English day. Average auditory stimulus  
151 intensity was 48 dB (range 46–55 dB).

152 In experiment 2, stimuli were 4-digit numbers referring to 5 years surrounding the year of  
153 testing (2017), i.e., 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, and 2019. Average stimulus duration was  $1076$   
154  $\pm 23$  ms for years in Chinese and  $1163 \pm 66$  ms for years in English day. Average auditory  
155 stimulus intensity was 48 dB (range 47–52 dB).

### 156 *Procedure*

157 Participants first completed a language background and reading habits questionnaire whilst  
158 being fitted with the cap for electrophysiological recording. They were seated in the centre of  
159 a sound-attenuated testing booth, with two speakers located in the front and two speakers  
160 located behind them, set at a distance of between 1.4–1.6 meters from their ears. A 19-inch  
161 CRT monitor was placed 100 cm in front of their eyes and displayed a black fixation cross on  
162 a white background throughout the recording session. In experiment 1, participants were  
163 asked to judge whether each stimulus referring to a day of the week corresponded to a period  
164 of time situated one or two days away from the current day. In experiment 2, participants  
165 made the same judgements for stimuli referring to years. Responses were given by pressing  
166 designated left and right buttons on a response box. Response sides were counterbalanced  
167 between participants. Half of the stimuli were presented through the speakers located in front  
168 of the participant's chair, and the other half were presented in their back. When participants  
169 heard the current day or the current year, they were instructed to press both left and right  
170 buttons simultaneously. They heard 30 pseudo-randomly intermixed iterations of each  
171 individual stimulus condition. Apart from present day (one fifth of trials), half of the stimuli  
172 were one day away from the time of testing and the other half were two days away from the  
173 time of testing. Similarly, half of the stimuli referred to the future and half to the past, making  
174 a total of 300 trials per block in each experiment. Control native speakers of English  
175 performed the task in English only (600 trials in total) and Chinese-English participants  
176 performed the task once in English and once in Chinese (1200 trials in total) with order  
177 counterbalanced between languages (**all bilingual participants completed Experiment 1 or**



178 **Experiment 2 first and then Experiment 2 or Experiment 1 accordingly. In addition,**  
179 **language order was counterbalanced between them).** Every individual trial started with a  
180 pink fixation cross displayed in the centre of the screen for 300 ms. The fixation then turned  
181 to black after a pseudorandom inter-stimulus interval of 300–500 ms. The target auditory  
182 stimulus was then presented through loudspeakers either to the front or the back of the  
183 participant’s chair whilst the black fixation stayed on the screen until participant’s response  
184 with a maximum duration of three seconds from the onset of the sound stimulus. Participant’s  
185 response immediately triggered a 200 ms inter-trial interval before the next pink fixation.  
186 Every 7 trials, the pink fixation lasted for four seconds, during which participants were  
187 encouraged to blink if they needed to, in order to minimise the occurrence of eye blink  
188 artefacts during the interval of time between auditory stimulation and response.

### 189 *ERP recording and processing*

190 Electrophysiological data were recorded at a rate of 1 kHz from 64 Ag/AgCl electrodes  
191 according to the extended 10-20 convention and referenced to electrode Cz. Impedances were  
192 kept below 5 k $\Omega$ . The electroencephalogram (EEG) was filtered using an online bandpass  
193 filter (0.05–200 Hz), and offline using a low-pass, zero phase-shift digital filter (0.1 Hz, 24  
194 dB/oct–20 Hz, 28 dB/oct). Eye-blink artefacts were first manually removed through visual  
195 inspection of the data and the remaining artefacts were then mathematically corrected using  
196 the procedure advocated by Gratton, Coles and Donchin (1983). Epochs ranging from -200 to  
197 1200 ms after stimulus onset were extracted from continuous EEG recordings. Epochs with  
198 activity exceeding  $\pm 100 \mu\text{V}$  at any electrode site, except the vertical electrooculogram  
199 channels, were discarded. Baseline correction was performed in reference to pre-stimulus  
200 activity, and individual averages were digitally re-referenced to the global average reference.

### 201 *Behavioural data analysis*

202 Stimulus onsets were corrected to the onset of the critical information in the sound stream  
203 (Fig. 3). Reaction times (RTs) below 200 ms were removed from the analysis (0.05%). Trials  
204 with RTs that deviated 2.5 interquartile range below the 1<sup>st</sup> and above the 3<sup>rd</sup> quartile of each  
205 participant in each intra-subject variable were considered outliers and discarded from data  
206 analyses (1.49%). Accuracy data and RTs of correct answers were then analysed with logit  
207 and linear mixed-effect models respectively [*lme4* (Bates, Maechler, and Dai, 2008) package  
208 in R (R core Team, 2012)]. Collinearity was not an issue in the models: variance inflation  
209 factor (VIF) ranged from 1 to 1.5. All models included random intercepts for subjects and

210 items and maximal random slopes for each within-subjects and within-items predictor  
211 respectively. Following Barr et al. (2013) and Barr (2013) when models with maximal  
212 random structure failed to converge, maximal within-items and within-subject interactions for  
213 random slopes were used. All fixed effects were contrast coded before analyses using sum  
214 coding so that each model's intercept represented the mean value of each predictor.  
215 Significance  $P$ -values and Type III  $F$ -statistics for main effects and interactions for  
216 continuous variables (RTs) were calculated using Satterthwaite approximations to  
217 denominator degrees of freedom as implemented in the *LmerTest* (Kuznetsova, Brockhoff,  
218 and Christensen, 2017) package, and planned comparisons and  $\beta$  estimates were calculated  
219 using *difflmeans* and *lsmeans* as implemented in the *lmerTest* package. Binary outcomes  
220 (accuracy data) were analysed using logit mixed-effects models (Jaeger, 2008). Type III  
221 Wald  $\chi^2$ -statistics,  $P$ -values, planned comparisons and  $\beta$  estimates for main effects and  
222 interactions were calculated using *car* (Fox and Weisberg, 2014) and incorporated *lsmeans*  
223 packages (Lenth, 2016).

#### 224 ***EEG data analysis***

225 ERP amplitudes were measured at 6 centroparietal electrodes (C1, Cz, C2, CP1, CPz, and  
226 CP2) where the N400 is usually maximal (Kutas and Hillyard, 1980, 1984; Kutas et al.,  
227 1984). In experiment 1, for the English day block, mean N400 amplitude were computed  
228 between 350–500 ms, determined predictively based on previous literature (Kutas and  
229 Hillyard, 1980; 1984; Kutas et al., 1984). For the Chinese Day block, the N400 window was  
230 813–963 ms (since *xing-qi* lasted 463 ms, Fig. 3). In experiment 2, for the English year block,  
231 the predicted time-window of the N400 was 630–780 ms after stimulus onset, given that the  
232 'twenty-' portion of the auditory stream lasted 280 ms (Fig. 3). In the Chinese year block, the  
233 N400 time window was 869–1019 ms (since *er-ling* lasted for 519 ms).

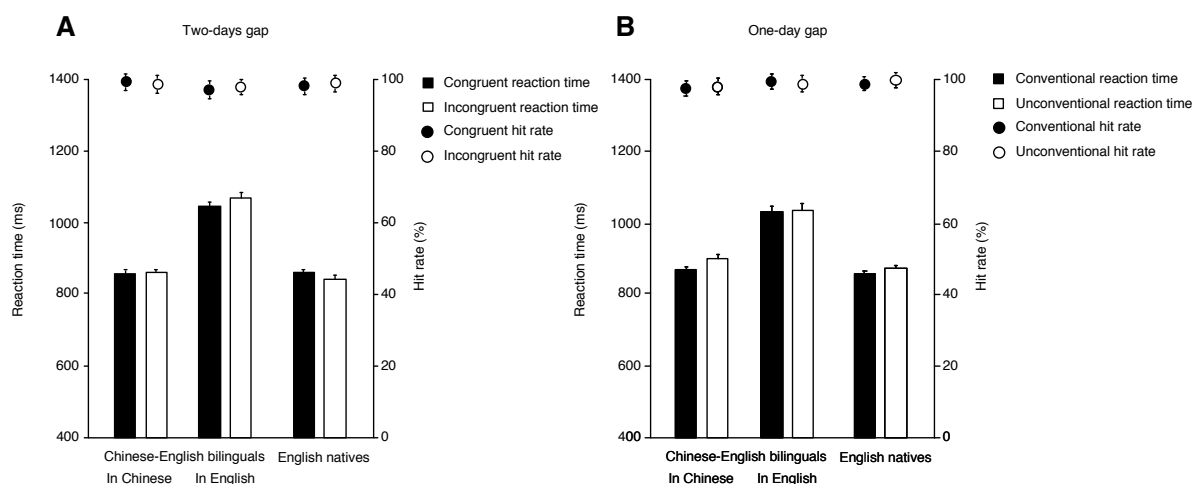
## 234 **Results**

235 To analyse our results, we proceeded in four steps. First, we analysed behavioural measures  
236 and ERP results from Experiment 1 (days), starting with 2-day gaps, where spatiotemporal

237 metaphor effects were anticipated. We then analysed data for the 1-day gaps where only  
 238 effects of conventionality could be expected. Third, we analysed data collected in Experiment  
 239 2 (years), to establish whether the pattern of results obtained for days would also obtain for  
 240 years (replication). Starting with 2-year gaps, we tested for spatiotemporal metaphor  
 241 congruency and then for conventionality effects in the case of 1-year gaps. Reaction times,  
 242 accuracy data, and ERP's time-windows were corrected to the onset of the critical  
 243 information in the sound stream.

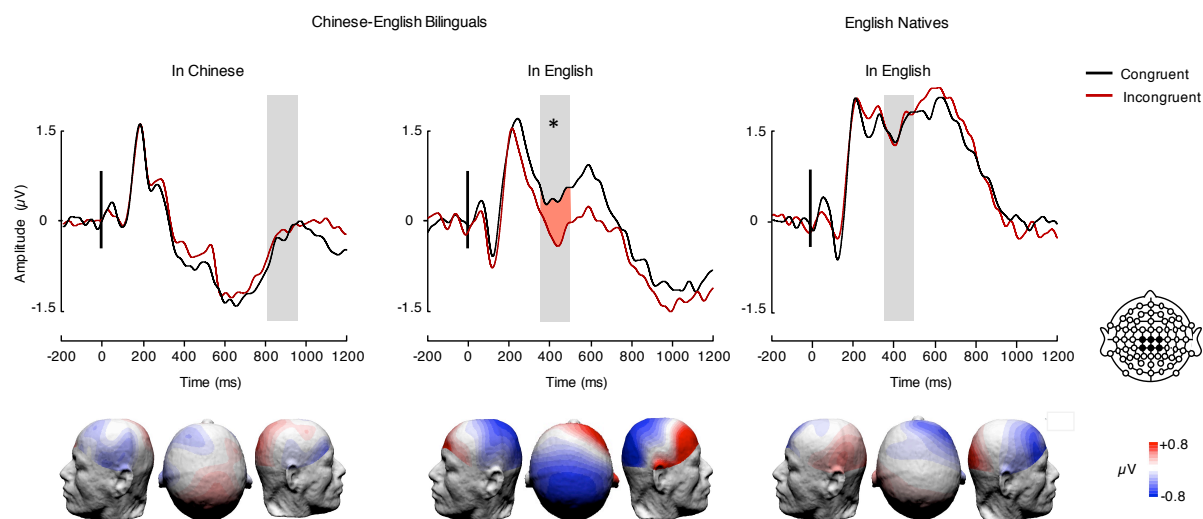
#### 244 *Chinese spatiotemporal metaphors for days affect time conceptualisation*

245 In experiment 1, we tested whether a change of language would affect congruency between  
 246 spatiotemporal metaphors of Chinese and spatiotemporal configuration of the stimuli in  
 247 Chinese-English bilinguals in the case of two-day intervals. Accuracy was at ceiling in the  
 248 interval calculation task whether bilinguals heard day stimuli in Chinese or in English (Fig.  
 249 4A). We found no significant main effect of language (English, Chinese;  $\chi^2_1 = 2.06, P = 0.15$ )  
 250 or congruency (congruent, incongruent;  $\chi^2_1 = 0.58, P = 0.45$ ) on accuracy and no interaction  
 251 ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.1, P = 0.76$ ). As for Reaction Times (RTs), we found a main effect of language ( $F$   
 252 (1,19.53) = 24.66,  $P < 0.001$ ) so that bilingual participants were slower responding to English  
 253 ( $\beta = 1057, SE = 54$ ) than Chinese stimuli ( $\beta = 861, SE = 37$ ). There was no **significant main**  
 254 **effect of congruency** ( $F$  (1, 21.01) = 1.38,  $P = 0.25$ ) and **no interaction** ( $F$  (1, 21.6) = 0.49,  
 255  $P = 0.49$ ).



**Figure 4.** Behavioural results. (A) Two-days gap. (B) One-day gap. Bars represent reaction times and bullets represent accuracy. Error bars depict s.e.m.

256 We then analysed mean N400 amplitudes in the same Chinese-English bilinguals to  
 257 determine whether spatiotemporal metaphors interfered with time conceptualisation during  
 258 the task. A repeated measure ANOVA with language (Chinese, English) and congruency  
 259 (congruent, incongruent) as within-subject factors revealed a significant effect of congruency  
 260 ( $F(1,18) = 21.83, P < 0.001, \eta_p^2 = 0.55$ ). The effect of language was marginally significant ( $F$   
 261  $(1,18) = 4.14, P = 0.06, \eta_p^2 = 0.2$ ) and the interaction between congruency and language was  
 262 also significant ( $F(1,18) = 7.06, P = 0.02, \eta_p^2 = 0.28$ ). Planned comparisons showed that  
 263 incongruent stimulus configurations elicited significantly more negative N400 amplitudes  
 264 than congruent ones when bilingual participants operated in English ( $t(18) = 4.66, P < 0.001$ ;  
 265 Fig. 5). No such effect was found when participants responded to Chinese stimuli ( $t(18) = -$   
 266  $0.53, P = 0.3$ ).



**Figure 5.** Event-related brain potentials elicited in experiment 1 (days). ERPs depict the linear derivation of 6 electrodes (C1, Cz, C2, CP1, CPz, CP2). Topographical maps show ERP activity across the 64-channel array in the following predictively determined time-windows. N400 amplitudes were computed between 350–500 ms based on previous literature, from the onset of the unique sound streams, irrespective of language or stimulus. In the case of Chinese stimuli, the interval of N400 amplitude extraction was 813–963 ms (since *xing-qi* – ‘week’ lasted 463 ms, see Methods) and in the case of English stimuli, the interval of N400 extraction was 350–500 ms, since day stimuli differed from one another from their onset. Topographies depict differences between incongruent and congruent conditions in all cases.

267 In order to further investigate the congruency effect found in bilinguals operating in English,  
 268 we compared their results with that of English native participants. Accuracy was at ceiling in  
 269 English native controls. No significant main effect of congruency (congruent, incongruent;  
 270  $\chi^2_1 = 0.61, P = 0.44$ ) or group (English, Chinese-English bilingual;  $\chi^2_1 = 1.71, P = 0.19$ ) was  
 271 found on accuracy and there was no interaction ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.01, P = 0.92$ ; Fig. 4A). Regarding

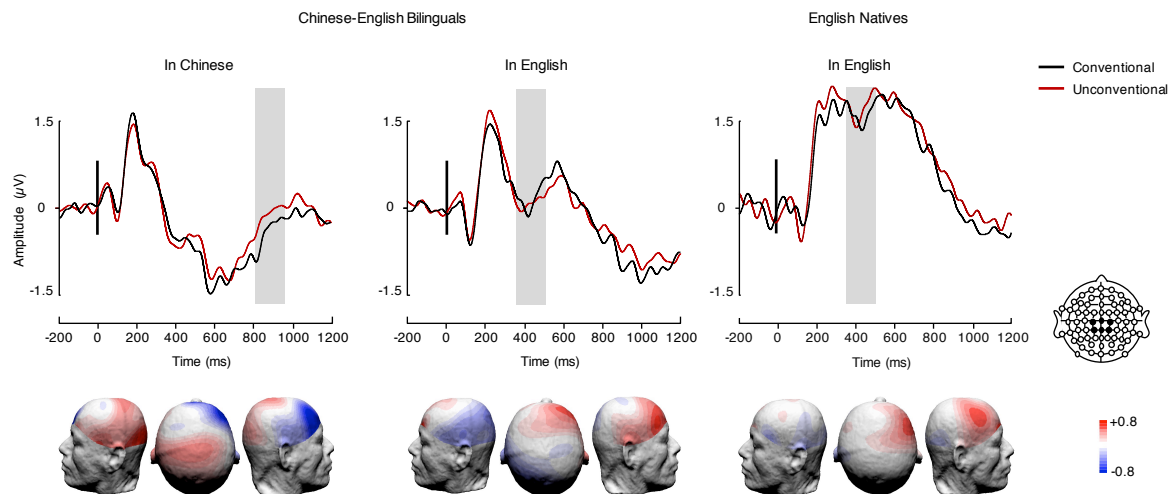
272 RTs, Chinese-English bilinguals operating in English were significantly slower ( $\beta = 1056$ ,  $SE$   
273  $= 48$ ) than their English native peers ( $\beta = 855$ ,  $SE = 50$ ), as reflected by a significant main  
274 effect of group ( $F(1, 34.21) = 8.45$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ). **There was no significant main effect of**  
275 **congruency ( $F(1, 8.06) = 3.06$ ,  $P = 0.12$ ) and no interaction ( $F(1, 11.63) = 0.05$ ,  $P =$**   
276 **0.83).**

277 A between-subjects repeated measures ANOVA, with congruency as within-subject factor  
278 and group (English, Chinese-English bilingual) as between-subject factor conducted on N400  
279 mean amplitude revealed a significant main effect of group ( $F(1, 34) = 7.95$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $\eta^2_p =$   
280  $0.19$ ) and a significant effect of congruency ( $F(1, 34) = 5.54$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.14$ ). The  
281 interaction was also significant ( $F(1, 34) = 5.99$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.15$ ). Planned comparisons  
282 showed that incongruent stimulus configurations elicited more negative N400 amplitudes  
283 than congruent configurations in bilingual participants ( $t(18) = 4.66$ ,  $P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 5), but  
284 not in their English peers ( $t(16) = -0.05$ ,  $P = 0.48$ ).

### 285 *Conventionality effects for one-day gaps affect behaviour but not ERP amplitudes*

286 We first tested for effects of conventionality in Chinese-English bilinguals' mind. With  
287 regard to accuracy, **we found no significant main effect of language (Chinese, English;  $\chi^2_1$**   
288  **$< 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.97$ ) or conventionality (conventional, unconventional;  $\chi^2_1 = 0.1$ ,  $P = 0.75$ ).**  
289 **However**, there was a significant interaction between language and conventionality ( $\chi^2_1 =$   
290  $3.88$ ,  $P = 0.05$ ). However, *post hoc* comparisons failed to show effects of conventionality in  
291 either Chinese ( $\beta = -0.68$ ,  $SE = 0.45$ ,  $z = -1.52$ ,  $P = 0.13$ ) or English ( $\beta = 0.49$ ,  $SE = .40$ ,  $z =$   
292  $1.23$ ,  $P = 0.22$ ) considered separately. The effect of language in the conventional ( $z = -1.11$ ,  $p$   
293  $= 0.27$ ) and unconventional ( $z = 1.02$ ,  $p = 0.31$ ) conditions were not significant either.  
294 Regarding RTs, a significant main effect of language ( $F(1, 20.89) = 7.82$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ) showed  
295 that Chinese-English bilinguals were slower responding to English stimuli ( $\beta = 1043$ ,  $SE =$   
296  $60$ ) than Chinese stimuli ( $\beta = 880$ ,  $SE = 46$ ; see Fig. 4B). The effect of conventionality was  
297 just significant ( $F(1, 66.96) = 3.88$ ,  $P = 0.05$ ), bilinguals being slower responding to  
298 unconventional ( $\beta = 972$ ,  $SE = 45$ ) than conventional stimuli ( $\beta = 951$ ,  $SE = 45$ ). **However,**  
299 **we found no interaction between language and conventionality on RT ( $F(1, 39.07) =$**   
300  **$1.57$ ,  $P = 0.22$ ).** Amplitude analysis revealed no main effect of conventionality ( $F(1, 18) =$   
301  **$0.75$ ,  $P = 0.4$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.04$ ) or language ( $F(1, 18) = 1.94$ ,  $P = 0.18$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.1$ ) on N400  
302 amplitude and no interaction ( $F(1, 18) = 1.87$ ,  $P = 0.19$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.09$ ; Fig. 6).**

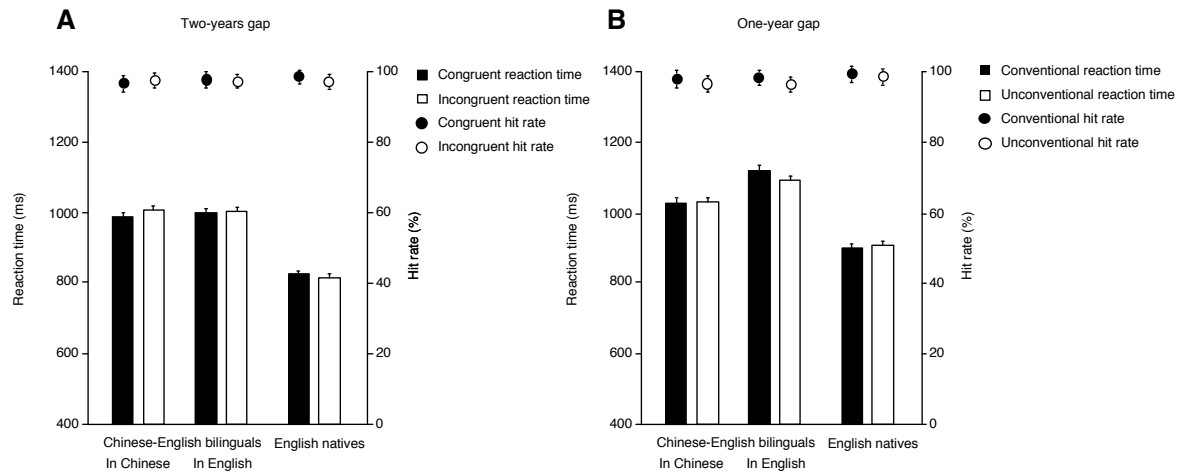
303 As was the case in the bilingual group, English participants' accuracy was at ceiling in the  
 304 one-day gap condition. Analysis comparing the Chinese-English bilinguals in English with  
 305 the native English controls revealed no main effect of conventionality ( $\chi^2_1 = 1$ ,  $P = 0.32$ ) or  
 306 group ( $\chi^2_1 = 2.92$ ,  $P = 0.09$ ) on accuracy and no interaction ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.24$ ,  $P = 0.62$ ). As regards  
 307 RTs, a main effect of group ( $F(1, 35.01) = 6.29$ ,  $P = 0.02$ ) showed that Chinese-English  
 308 bilinguals were slower responding to English stimuli ( $\beta = 1051$ ,  $SE = 66$ ) than their English  
 309 native peers ( $\beta = 888$ ,  $SE = 56$ ). **There was no significant main effect of conventionality ( $F(1, 6.73) = 0.59$ ,  $P = 0.47$ ) and no interaction ( $F(1, 8.29) = 1.84$ ,  $P = 0.21$ ).** Amplitude  
 310 analysis only revealed a significant main effect of group ( $F(1, 34) = 6.75$ ,  $P = 0.01$ ,  $\eta^2_p =$   
 311  $0.17$ ) on N400 amplitude. **No significant main effect of conventionality ( $F(1, 34) = 0.02$ ,  $P$   
 312  $= 0.88$ ,  $\eta^2_p < 0.01$ ) or no interaction ( $F(1, 34) = 0.6$ ,  $P = 0.45$ ,  $\eta^2_p = 0.02$ ; Fig. 6) was  
 313 **detected.****



**Figure 6.** Event-related brain potentials elicited in experiment 1. ERPs depict the linear derivation of 6 electrodes (C1, Cz, C2, CP1, CPz, CP2). Topographical maps show ERP activity across the 64-channel array in the following predictively determined time windows: 813–963 ms after Chinese stimulus onset and between 350–500 ms after English stimulus onset. Topographies depict differences between **unconventional and conventional** conditions in all cases.

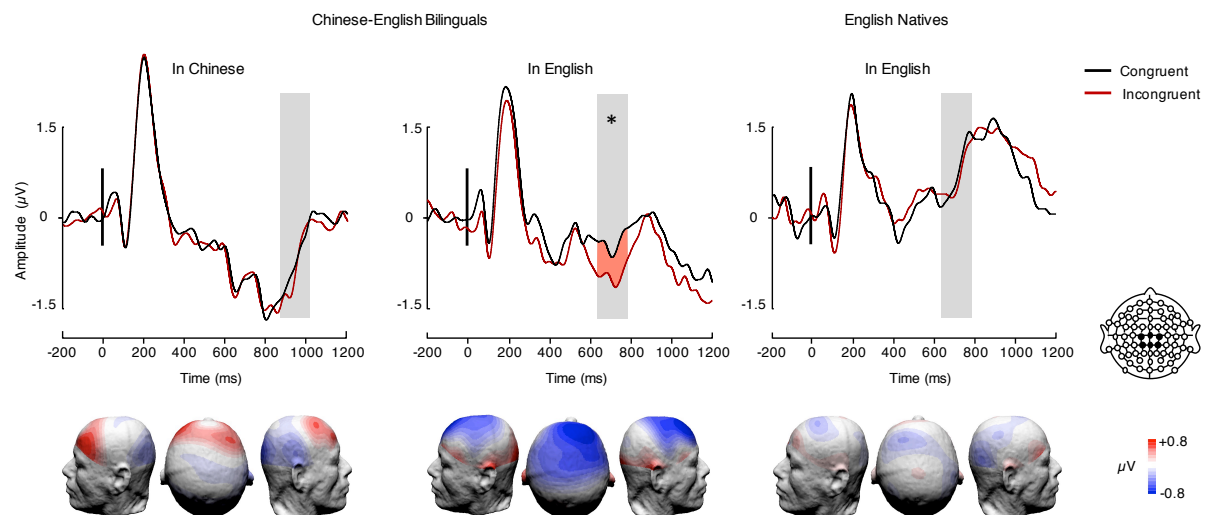
### 315 ***Replication of the spatiotemporal metaphor effect with year stimuli***

316 In experiment 2, as was the case for days, Chinese-English bilinguals were at ceiling in the  
 317 interval calculation task with two-year gap stimuli in both the congruent and the incongruent  
 318 conditions and in both their languages (Fig. 7A). Results revealed no significant main effect  
 319 of language (Chinese, English;  $\chi^2_1 = 0.33$ ,  $P = 0.57$ ) or congruency (congruent, incongruent;  
 320  $\chi^2_1 = 2.55$ ,  $P = 0.11$ ) on accuracy and no interaction ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.21$ ,  $P = 0.64$ ). We found no  
 321 effect of language of operation ( $F(1, 2.61) < 0.01$ ,  $P = 0.98$ ) or congruency ( $F(1, 2.1) = 0.41$ ,  
 322  $P = 0.59$ ) on RTs and no interaction ( $F(1, 2.29) = 0.26$ ,  $P = 0.66$ ).



**Figure 7.** Behavioural results. (A) Two-years gap. (B) One-year gap. Bars represent reaction times and bullets represent accuracy. Error bars depict s.e.m.

323 The within-subject repeated measures ANOVA of ERP data revealed a main effect of  
 324 congruency on mean N400 amplitude in bilingual participants ( $F(1,18) = 6.96, P = 0.02, \eta^2_p = 0.28$ ) and a significant interaction between congruency and language ( $F(1,18) = 4.6, P =$   
 325  $0.05, \eta^2_p = 0.2$ ). **The main effect of language was not significant ( $F(1, 18) = 0.04, P = 0.85,$**   
 326  **$\eta^2_p < 0.01$ ).** Replicating the pattern found for 2-day gap calculations, planned comparisons  
 327 showed that N400 amplitude was significantly greater for incongruent than congruent  
 328 stimulus configurations when bilinguals operated in English ( $t(18) = 3.89, P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 8)  
 329 but not when they operated in Chinese ( $t(18) = 0.31, P = 0.38$ ).  
 330



**Figure 8.** Event-related potentials elicited in experiment 2. ERPs depict the linear derivation of 6 electrodes (C1, Cz, C2, CP1, CPz, CP2). Topographical maps show ERP activity across the 64-channel array between 869-1019 ms after Chinese stimulus onset and 630-780 ms after English stimulus onset. The predicted time-window of the N400 for Chinese stimuli was between 869–1019 ms after stimulus onset, given that the er-ling – ‘twenty’ portion

of the auditory stream lasted for 519 ms. In the case of English stimuli, the N400 time analysis window was 630–780 ms (since ‘twenty’ lasted 280 ms). Topographies depict differences between incongruent and congruent conditions in all cases.

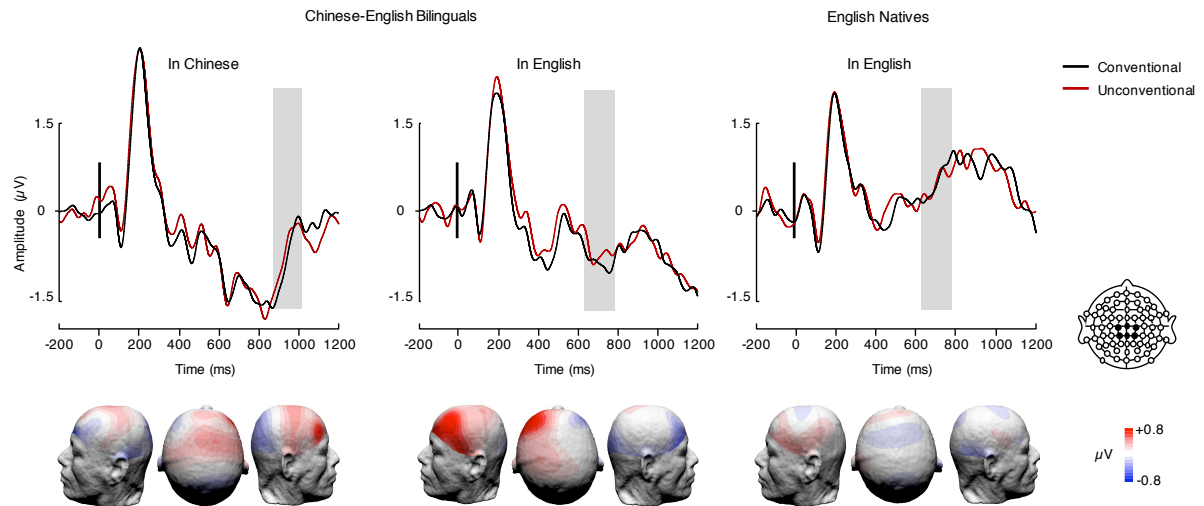
331 As in Experiment 1, we sought to further characterise the congruency effect found for the  
332 English condition in bilinguals by comparing their results with that of native English  
333 speakers. English participants’ accuracy was at ceiling. No significant main effects (**group:**  
334  $\chi^2_1 = 0.12, P = 0.73$ ; **congruency:**  $\chi^2_1 = 1.59, P = 0.21$ ) or interaction between congruency  
335 and group ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.24, P = 0.62$ ) was detected. Regarding RTs, Chinese-English bilinguals  
336 operating in English were significantly slower ( $\beta = 1002, SE = 74$ ) than English native  
337 participants ( $\beta = 819, SE = 61$ ), as shown by a main effect of group ( $F(1, 28.13) = 6.96, P =$   
338  $0.01$ ). No **significant main effect of congruency** ( $F(1, 2.23) = 0.3, P = 0.64$ ) or **interaction**  
339 ( $F(1, 1.84) = 0.12, P = 0.76$ ) was detected.

340 A between-subject repeated measures ANOVA on N400 mean amplitudes showed a  
341 significant main effect of group ( $F(1, 34) = 4.13, P = 0.05, \eta^2_p = 0.11$ ) and a significant main  
342 effect of congruency ( $F(1, 34) = 7.21, P = 0.01, \eta^2_p = 0.18$ ). The interaction between group  
343 and congruency was also significant ( $F(1, 34) = 4.51, P = 0.04, \eta^2_p = 0.12$ ). Planned  
344 comparisons showed that incongruent stimulus configurations elicited greater N400  
345 amplitudes than congruent ones in bilingual participants ( $t(18) = 3.89, P < 0.001$ ; Fig. 8), but  
346 not in English controls ( $t(16) = 0.35, P = 0.37$ ).

#### 347 *No measurable effect of conventionality in the case of 1-year gaps*

348 As previously, we first compared bilingual participants’ performance in English and Chinese  
349 using within-subject analyses. No significant main effect of language (**Accuracy:**  $\chi^2_1 = 0.45,$   
350  $P = 0.5$ ; **RT:**  $F(1, 8.07) = 2.69, P = 0.14$ ) or conventionality (**Accuracy:**  $\chi^2_1 = 1.8, P = 0.18$ ;  
351 **RT:**  $F(1, 2.11) = 0.27, P = 0.65$ ) on either accuracy or RT and no interaction were detected  
352 (**Accuracy:**  $\chi^2_1 < 0.01, P = 0.96$ ; **RT:**  $F(1, 2.69) = 0.78, P = 0.45$ ). The analysis conducted  
353 on mean N400 amplitude showed no significant main effect (**language:**  $F(1, 18) = 0.14, P =$   
354  $0.71, \eta^2_p = 0.01$ ; **conventionality:**  $F(1, 18) = 3.44, P = 0.08, \eta^2_p = 0.16$ ) or interaction ( $F(1,$   
355  $18) = 0.06, P = 0.82, \eta^2_p = 0.003$ ; Fig. 9).





**Figure 9.** Event-related potentials elicited in experiment 2. ERPs depict the linear derivation of 6 electrodes (C1, Cz, C2, CP1, CPz, CP2). Topographical maps show ERP activity across the 64-channel array between 869-1019 ms after Chinese stimulus onset and 630-780 ms after English stimulus onset. Topographies depict differences between **unconventional and conventional** conditions in all cases.

356 Finally, we compared Chinese-English bilinguals in English with their English native peers.  
 357 **No significant main effect of group ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.01, P = 0.94$ ) or conventionality ( $\chi^2_1 = 0.06, P$   
 358  **$= 0.8$ ) on accuracy was detected.** We found a significant interaction between group and  
 359 conventionality on accuracy ( $\chi^2_1 = 7.14, P < 0.01$ ). However, *post hoc* comparisons showed  
 360 that there was no effect of conventionality in either Chinese-English bilinguals ( $\beta = 0.46, SE$   
 361  $= 0.27, z = 1.68, P = 0.09$ ) or English natives ( $\beta = -0.39, SE = 0.28, z = -1.43, P = 0.15$ ). As  
 362 regards RTs, there was a significant effect of group ( $F(1, 32.92) = 6.04, P = 0.02$ ), bilingual  
 363 participants ( $\beta = 1109, SE = 55$ ) being slower responding to English stimuli than English  
 364 native participants ( $\beta = 911, SE = 58$ ; Fig. 7B). **There was no significant main effect of**  
 365 **conventionality ( $F(1, 1.1) = 0.66, P = 0.56$ ) and no interaction ( $F(1, 1.67) = 0.54, P =$   
 366  **$0.55$ ).** As regards the ERP analysis, we only found a significant main effect of group on mean  
 367 N400 amplitude ( $F(1, 34) = 4.56, P = 0.04, \eta^2_p = 0.12$ ; Fig. 9). **There was no significant**  
 368 **main effect of conventionality ( $F(1, 34) = 0.13, P = 0.73, \eta^2_p < 0.01$ ) and there was no**  
 369 **interaction ( $F(1, 34) = 0.34, P = 0.56, \eta^2_p = 0.01$ ).******

370 **In addition, we ran a direct comparison between the congruency effects detected in**  
 371 **Experiment 1 and Experiment 2. Paired sample t-test suggested that the difference**  
 372 **waves were not statistically different across experiments ( $t(18) = 0.24, P = 0.81$ ). A**  
 373 **Bayesian paired sample t-test confirmed that the null hypothesis (i.e., no difference in**  
 374 **effect magnitude between experiments) was around 4 times more likely than the**  
 375 **alternative ( $BF_{01} = 4.1$ ).**

## 376 **Discussion**

377 Here we investigated a potential effect of native spatiotemporal metaphors on time  
378 conceptualization in Chinese-English bilinguals operating in their native or their second  
379 language. When tested in Chinese, participants did not display congruency effects predicted  
380 by spatiotemporal metaphors. Strikingly, however, when they were presented with English  
381 stimuli, native language representations interfered with time conceptualization as indicated  
382 by more negative N400 amplitudes in the incongruent conditions. Importantly, this pattern of  
383 result was mostly replicated using years instead of days as auditory stimuli. In contrast,  
384 conventionality effects only appeared as subtle behavioural variations in the case of 1-day  
385 intervals and did not entail any N400 amplitude modulation.

386 First, our results are consistent with previous studies that have established unconscious  
387 language non-selective access in bilinguals, and particularly Chinese-English bilinguals  
388 operating in English (Thierry and Wu, 2007). Indeed, and despite recent attempts to provide  
389 an alternative account for this mechanism (Costa, Pannunzi, Deco, and Pickering, 2017;  
390 Oppenheim, Wu, and Thierry, 2018), Chinese-English bilinguals appear to automatically  
391 access Chinese when processing input in English, because otherwise it would be difficult to  
392 account for the interference effects observed here. The results thus expand our understanding  
393 of language non-selective lexical activation mechanisms in different script bilinguals (Thierry  
394 and Wu, 2007; Wu and Thierry, 2010, 2012) by showing unconscious activation of  
395 spatiotemporal metaphor representations of Chinese when participants hear English words.

396 Our findings are partly compatible with results from previous behavioural studies suggesting  
397 that spatiotemporal metaphors can influence individuals' conceptualization of time  
398 (Boroditsky, 2001; Casasanto et al., 2004; Fuhrman et al., 2011; Lai and Boroditsky, 2013;  
399 Núñez and Sweetser, 2006, but see Chen, 2007; January and Kako, 2007; Tse and Altarriba,  
400 2008). Critically, however, our data establish the locus of interference between language  
401 specific expression and time representation at a *conceptual level* in the absence of  
402 participants' awareness, since congruency effects were detected in N400 amplitude  
403 modulations rather than behavioural measurements and in conditions where time orientation  
404 was irrelevant. Indeed, at debriefing, detailed questioning of the participants revealed no  
405 explicit knowledge of hidden manipulations relating to spatiotemporal metaphors. All  
406 participants reported having interpreted the task as a simple arithmetic problem, that is,  
407 computing an interval of 1 or 2 days, or 1 or 2 years, irrespective of future or past temporal

408 reference. Even when directly confronted with the actual construction of the experiment,  
409 none of the participants recognised that the future or past reference afforded by the stimuli  
410 should conflict with the location of the speakers through which these stimuli were presented,  
411 or having resorted consciously to labelling 2-day and 2-year gaps as “front/back-day” or  
412 “front/back-year” in Chinese.

413 It may be considered a surprise, however, that bilingual participants experienced the  
414 spatiotemporal metaphor interference effect when performing the task in English rather than  
415 Chinese, given that the metaphors belong to Chinese. But this result is in fact compatible with  
416 the frequent observation that verbal interference tends to cancel effects of language on  
417 conceptualisation (Drivonikou et al., 2007; Gilbert, Regier, Kay, and Ivry, 2006; Roberson  
418 and Davidoff, 2000). When stimuli are presented in Chinese, participants suffer within-  
419 language competition, such that they cannot verbally recode information because accessing  
420 the labels for days and years and engaging in arithmetic computations in Chinese directly  
421 compete for selection with metaphoric lexical representations. However, this is arguably not  
422 the case when participants operate in English, since no direct within-language competition  
423 applies: Metaphors in Chinese can be accessed through cross-language activation. Then, and  
424 only then, can interference take place. This mechanistic explanation is consistent with  
425 selective interference effects previously shown in bilinguals switching back and forth  
426 between their first and second language, whilst making non-verbal decisions on motion  
427 events (Athanasopoulos et al., 2015).

428 In other words, we contend that only when participants heard temporal references in English,  
429 they accessed conceptually related expressions specific to their native language. For instance,  
430 when a participant tested on a Wednesday heard the English word “Monday”, they would  
431 have activated *qian-tian* (literally translated as “front-day”), given that Monday was the day  
432 before yesterday relative to the day of testing. This would arguably not have happened when  
433 the same participant was tested in the native language Chinese because of the within-  
434 language competition effects described above. Alternatively, this would not have happened  
435 because days and years in Chinese contain a digit enabling direct gap calculation (with the  
436 exception of Sunday). For instance, *xing-qi yi* – ‘Monday’ literally translates into “week-1” in  
437 English and *er-ling yi-wu* – ‘2015’ literally translates into “two-zero-one-five”. Thus,  
438 calculating intervals is straightforward in Chinese but not in English, given the previously  
439 noted difficulty of bilinguals to compute operation in the second language (Salillas and  
440 Wicha, 2012).

441 As expected, we found a difference between conventional and unconventional control  
442 conditions in the case of 1-day gaps in the absence of any metaphorical interference,  
443 presumably due to there being no spatiotemporal metaphor for tomorrow and yesterday in  
444 either English or Chinese. Indeed, in Chinese, tomorrow is *ming-tian* (literally, “bright-day”),  
445 yesterday is *zuo-tian* (“past-day”), next year is *ming-nian* (bright-year), and last year is *qu-*  
446 *nian* (“gone-year”), thus any effect of orientation for one day/year gaps could only relate to  
447 effects of spatial orientation conventions for time. Conventionality had an effect in  
448 experiment 1 (days) but not experiment 2 (years). We contend that this was the case because  
449 time conventionality effects weaken as the size of time chunks increases, i.e., it is more  
450 difficult to conceptualise the year ahead as in front than the day ahead as in front (Hellström  
451 and Rammsayer, 2004; Lewis and Miall, 2003). Furthermore, conventionality did not affect  
452 ERP amplitude as metaphor congruency did. Here the argument would be that interference  
453 between convention and time representation does not occur at a semantic level but rather in  
454 terms of direct mapping between stimulus and response. Spatiotemporal metaphors rely  
455 exclusively on language and thus result in a semantic interference effect to start with (here  
456 resulting in a measurable N400 modulation). In other words, spatiotemporal metaphors are  
457 resolved at a pre-response, semantic level, whereas conventionality effects do not come into  
458 play during semantic access but rather interfere directly with the task at hand (particularly in  
459 the case of days).

460 To conclude, the present study provides the first electrophysiological evidence for a deep,  
461 unconscious, and pervasive influence of native spatiotemporal metaphors on time  
462 conceptualization in bilinguals. These findings not only bridge unconscious language non-  
463 selective access in bilinguals with predictions from linguistic relativity theory but also  
464 demonstrate the staggering level of interactivity involved. After all, our Chinese-English  
465 bilingual participants suffered semantic interference when the English label of the day after  
466 tomorrow was played through loudspeakers located in front of them, as compared to when  
467 the same label was played in their back. Given that this did not happen when they listened to  
468 the label of tomorrow, or any label in Chinese, and that it generalised to year labels, our study  
469 demonstrates that abstract concepts such as that of time are highly permeable to linguistic  
470 representations specific of the native language even when bilinguals operate in their second  
471 language.

## Author contributions

Y.L. and G.T. conceived the experiment; Y.L. collected the data; Y.L., A.C., and G.T. analysed the data; Y.L., A.C., Y.J.W., and G.T. interpreted the data. Y.L. and G.T. wrote the first draft of the paper. Y.L., A.C., Y.J.W., and G.T. revised the manuscript until final.

## Acknowledgements

The authors wish to thank E. Devienne for her assistance with data collection and also P. Athanasopoulos, C. Barbet, and M. Jones, and M. Vihman for comments.

**All materials used and data collected in this study are available upon request to the corresponding author.**

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All materials used and data collected in this study are available upon request to the corresponding author.