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Study Guide for the Course
**ELEMENTS OF APPLIED
LINGUISTICS**

5189

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This study guide has been specifically designed for the book *Linguistics for Non-Linguists: A Primer with Exercises (fourth edition)* by Frank Parker, to be used as the basic textbook for the course *Elementos de Lingüística Aplicada* (Elements of Applied Linguistics), code 5189, taught at the “Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés para I y II Ciclos” Program of the Universidad Estatal a Distancia (UNED).

Introduction

Linguistics is defined in the Meriam Webster's Dictionary as "the study of human speech including the units, nature, structure, and modification of language" (<http://www.merriam-webster.com>). That is to say that linguistics is the science of language; therefore, its study becomes fundamental in the academic development of those who will be in charge of educating children, since children's education is based on or related to language skills, such as reading, writing, speaking and vocabulary building.

Linguists have taken huge steps and made great efforts to understand how children acquire their native language, and how children and adults acquire any other languages. Linguists' findings are a valuable resource for classroom instruction since they deal with the structural, psychological, social and cultural aspects pertaining to learning a native language and/or to the acquisition of other languages. Therefore, the study of applied linguistics throughout the academic curriculum of any TESL or TEFL program must provide future teachers and education specialists with the appropriate basic knowledge to help them implement linguistic theory and methods to language teaching.

This study guide has been designed with the purpose of leading students who have enrolled the "Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés para I y II Ciclos" to a better understanding of the objectives and contents of this course. It helps students to know and understand the aims and basic concepts and terms to be studied, applied and analyzed.

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I. Course Description and Study Guide: General Information

“Elements of Applied Linguistics” is a course designed to introduce students to several topics that are crucial in language teaching. The course provides an overview of the basic concepts, scope, and methodology of linguistics. Throughout the course, the primary systems of language, psycholinguistics and comparative phonology are treated in depth. Besides, this course aims at exploring the theories and research of applied linguistics, especially those pertaining to second language acquisition and teaching.

By the end of the course, students will count on some basic Knowledge of phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.

Course General Objective

The main purpose of *Elements of Applied Linguistics* is to have students know and be able to analyze and identify the different processes undergone while acquiring a foreign or second language.

Course Specific Objectives

By the end of this course, students will have the required knowledge and skills to:

- A. Analyze the different ways in which linguistic knowledge can be applied in real, everyday situations in and out of the class.
- B. Understand the major concepts and inflections of the English Language pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, as well as recognize its different uses and variations according to social and geographical factors.
- C. Identify the features and differences in first (native) and second (non-native) language acquisition processes.
- D. Recognize and analyze the nature of the most common errors in writing.
- E. Distinguish and analyze the most common problems of language processing and their effects.
- F. Implementing research techniques for diagnosing and analyzing specific linguistic problems.

Course Requirements and Academic Load

- A. To enroll this course, the student must be previously admitted to the “Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés para I y II Ciclos” program.

- B. Students should enroll all subjects in Module J; that is, Literary Criticism, Advanced English Grammar, Statistics Applied to Education, and Elements of Applied Linguistics.
- C. The course is developed in four-month periods (150 hours), and its academic load is three (3) credits.

Course Evaluation

The evaluation of the course will imply both formative as well as summative assessment. Formative evaluation intends to lead the student to develop self-assessment strategies that will help him/her to monitor his/her own performance by means of completing the exercises assigned and suggested in this study guide. Students will also get proper and timely feedback from tutor through workshops and scheduled online platform activities.

Summative evaluation will be applied in two tests on the theories, concepts, and research carried out in the first half of the period.

Evaluation percentages will be as follows¹:

<i>Evaluation Instrument</i>	<i>Total Value</i>
2 Assignments	1% (0.5 % each)
1 Research Project*	2%
Research Project Oral Defense	1%
Participation on Online Platform activities	2%
2 tests	4% (2 % each)

¹ Evaluation is subject to change according to diagnosis and course assessment.

* The guidelines and study material on research techniques appear at the end of the first workshop.

Methodology and Instructional Activities

The primary organization of the course implies a twofold teaching/learning modality which is a combination of having the students read and study the material suggested in the study guide and course guidelines, and of having them participate in online activities as well as attend workshops.

Students are expected to read the scheduled research and chapters as programmed in this study guide and in the course guidelines, in order for them to be prepared to actively engage in the discussion. Graduate level performance is expected from all students, so it is understood that they are responsible for their own learning.

Due to its distance modality, readings and assignments are to be independently completed in a thorough and timely manner.

Attendance to at least 2 of the 4 workshops is compulsory since students must present their final research project to the rest of the group.

The course is taught in a twofold modality (hybrid), which implies distance independent learning, compulsory attendance to at least 2 of the 4 workshops, and active high-quality participation in online forums and discussions. Thus, students are required to share with the tutor and classmates their own learning experiences and analysis.

Additionally, based on the contents and objectives of the course, and applying the research method, students will choose a specific topic on applied linguistics or first/second language acquisition issues, and will write a research proposal to be submitted in the first workshop for the tutor's approval.

The main focus of this course is to have the student acquire basic knowledge on the linguistics theory and accurately apply it to analyze real-life situations implying the different uses and contexts of language.

About the Study Guide: To the Student

This study guide complements the text *Linguistics for Non-Linguists: A Primer with Exercises (fourth edition)* by Frank Parker and Kathryn Riley.

This guide aims at clarifying basic aspects from the book and providing students with proper study guidelines to enhance a better understanding of the contents (theory and exercises) found in the book.

The Textbook

Linguistics for Non-Linguists, Fourth Edition, is an easy to read text that clearly and concisely provides students with knowledge on the basic elements of linguistics.

Major concepts are illustrated in an easy-to-read style, allowing students of language-related fields to better understand the fundamental principles and methods of linguistic theory.

The text book provides:

- A great number of exercises, which appear immediately after the concepts they are related to, is presented.
- Supplementary Exercises at the end of each chapter.
- Clear and concise explanations, charts, tables, and illustrations.
- A list of “Supplementary Readings” at the end of each chapter.

The book is divided in two sections: the theory section (Chapters 2-6, Pragmatics-Phonology), and the applied section (Chapters 7-12). The theory section deals with and explains all the concepts necessary to thoroughly understand the applied section.

Chapter 1 is an overview and introduction to some examples of linguistic phenomena and the general methodology and basic concepts of theory construction in linguistics.

Chapter 13 encompasses a summary of the main topics dealt with thorough the book, and the contributions that linguistic theory, by means of providing a model for explaining different phenomena, can make to related disciplines.

How to Study Each Unit

Each chapter contains three types of exercises. The in-chapter exercises help the student confirm material that has just been discussed. The Supplementary Exercises at the end of each chapter not only review but in some cases extend or apply material from the chapter. The Exploratory Exercises typically require more research or analysis.

The suggested In-chapter exercises are to be solved immediately after reading the section they refer to. Nevertheless, students should carefully read and analyze each chapter before even trying to do the supplementary exercises.

Answers to exercises marked with a † are given at the end of the textbook and, therefore, are not repeated in this study guide. Likewise, answers to Exploratory Exercises are usually not given here, since they will typically vary depending on student research. Shall any doubt regarding exploratory exercises arise, it is recommended to discuss it during workshops.

Once each chapter is carefully read, it is suggested that the students prepare a summary of the main issues of each chapter. Students will have the chance to discuss, exchange their opinions and points of view and clear out any doubts through the scheduled online activities and in programmed workshops.

Students must try to answer *all* the suggested exercises.

Structure of the Study Guide

This study guide is divided in six parts which include a general description of the course, the topics and chapters to be covered in each workshop scheduled and a glossary and answer key to exercises.

First Part: Course Description and Study Guide: General Information

Second Part: First Workshop

Topics:

1. Applied Linguistics: General Considerations
 - a. The Need and Importance of Applied Linguistics
2. Pragmatics
 - a. Implicature
 - b. Speech Acts
3. Semantics
 - a. Background
 - b. Sense
 - c. Reference
 - d. Truth
4. Syntax

-
- a. Categories
 - b. Left-to-Right Ordering
 - c. Transformations

Chapters 1-2-3 and 4 (pages 1 to 84 from textbook)

Third Part: Second Workshop

Topics:

1. Morphology
 - a. Morphemes
 - b. Lexical and Grammatical Morphemes
 - c. Free and Bound Morphemes
 - d. Inflectional and Derivational Morphemes
 - e. Word-Formation Processes
2. Phonology
 - a. Vocal Tract
 - b. Segments
 - c. Phonemic Alphabet
 - d. Levels of Representation
 - e. Phonological Rules
3. Language Variation
 - a. Language Universals, Languages, Dialects, and Idiolects
 - b. Regional Variation
 - c. Social Variation
 - d. Language and Gender
 - e. Stylistic Variation

Chapters 5-6-7 (pages 85 to 175, from textbook)

Fourth Part: Third Workshop

Topics:

1. First-Language Acquisition
 - a. Pre-linguistic Stages
 - b. Linguistic Stages
 - c. Issues in Language Acquisition
2. Second-Language Acquisition
 - a. Issues in Second-Language Acquisition
 - b. Patterns in Second-Language Acquisition
 - c. Nonlinguistic Influences on Second-Language Acquisition

3. Written Language

- a. Writing Systems
- b. The English Spelling System
- c. Analyzing Errors in Written English

Chapters 8- 9 and 10 (pages 176 to 250, from textbook)

Fifth Part: Fourth Workshop

Topics:

1. Language Processing

- a. Sentence-Level Phenomena in Language Processing
- b. Discourse-Level Phenomena in Language Processing
- c. Perceptions about Tone

2. The Neurology of Language

- a. Anatomy of the Nervous System
- b. Background of Neurolinguistics
- c. Hemispherical Specialization
- d. Disorders

3. Conclusion

4. Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics

- a. Case Study Guidelines
- b. The Case Study Report

Chapters 11-12 and 13 (pages 251 to 305 from textbook)

Sixth Part: Answer key to in-chapter and supplementary exercises

Appendix: Applied Linguistics: Glossary of Terms

II. First Workshop

General Objectives

The topics included in this first workshop aim at:

- a. Getting to know the basic concepts and methods of linguistic theory.
- b. Understanding the purpose and nature of applied linguistics.
- c. Defining and analyzing the main concepts within pragmatics.
- d. Introducing students to concepts from three areas pertaining to linguistic meaning: sense, reference, and truth.
- e. Defining the concepts related to the study of syntax, especially from perspective of generative grammar: categories, left-to-right ordering, hierarchical (constituent) structure, transformations, and constraints.

General Instructions for Studying the Chapters and Material Provided

In order to achieve the objectives, students must read chapters 1, 2, 3 and 4 of the text book (pages from page 1 to page 84), and deeply review the key concepts for each chapter. To do so, the students count on two glossaries: one provided in the text book and another one included at the end of this study guide.

It is important that students write down specific doubts or questions that may arise while reading, so that that the tutor can clear out any uncertainty during the first workshop.

Suggested in-chapter exercises appear immediately after the theory and concepts to which they refer; so, they must be done while reading. Supplementary exercises, on the other hand, must be carefully done and analyzed after reading and summarizing the entire chapter.

Applied Linguistics: General Considerations

The following material has been taken and adapted from the book *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction*.

Importance and Need of Applied Linguistics

Language is at the heart of human life. Without it, many of our most important activities are inconceivable. Try to imagine relating to your family, making friends, learning, falling in love, forming a relationship, being a parent, holding—or rejecting—a religious faith, having political ideals, or taking political action, without using words. There are other important activities, of course, which do seem to exist without language. Sexual relations, preparing and eating food, manual labor and crafts, the visual arts, playing and listening to music, wondering at the natural world, or grieving at its destruction. Yet even these are often developed or enhanced through language. We would perceive them quite differently had we never read about them or discussed them. Throughout history and across the world, people have used language to gossip and chat, flirt and seduce, play games, sing songs, tell stories, teach children, worship gods, insult enemies, pass on information, make deals, remember the past, and

lament the dead. Such activities seem to be intrinsic to human life, as natural to us as flight is to birds. People do them without conscious analysis. It does not seem that we need to know about language to use it effectively.

Language use, then, is in many ways a natural phenomenon beyond conscious control. Yet there are also aspects of language use in which we can intervene and about which, consequently, there are decisions to be made. In making these decisions there are many questions and subsidiary questions to be asked, each one admitting many different and opposed answers. Take, for example, language in education.

- ❖ What language skills should children attain beyond basic literacy? (And what is basic literacy anyway? Reading and writing, or something more?)
- ❖ Should children speaking a dialect be encouraged to maintain it or steered towards the standard form of a language? (And, if so, how is that standard form decided and by whom?)
- ❖ In communities with more than one language which ones should be used in schools? (And does every child have a right to be educated in the language they use at home?)
- ❖ Should deaf children learn a sign language, or a combination of lip reading and speaking? (And are sign languages as complex as spoken ones?)
- ❖ Should everyone learn foreign languages and, if so, which one or ones? (And what is the best way to learn and teach them?)
- ❖ Should every child study literature? (And, if so, should it be established works or more modern ones? And should they study just their own national literature or that of other countries?)
- ❖ Such language issues, however, are by no means confined to the school. On the contrary, these educational dilemmas echo those of society at large.
- ❖ Languages change. Should this just be accepted as an inevitable fact or should change be controlled in some way?
- ❖ Some languages are dying out. Should that be prevented and, if so, how?
- ❖ Should the growth of English as the international lingua franca be welcomed or deplored?
- ❖ Is it better for people to learn each other's languages or use translations? (And what is accurate or 'good' translation? Could it ever be done by computer?)
- ❖ Is language being used for political oppression and indoctrination? (And, if so, should something be done about it?)
- ❖ Which languages should be used in law courts and official documents?

All of these questions and many more like them, demand answers. In the contemporary world, with its rapid and radical changes, many of them take on a new significance and seem more pressing than they have in the past. To answer them it seems reasonable that we should set out to investigate and understand the facts of language use, to organize and formalize what we know, and to subject our knowledge to rational consideration and critical analysis. Only by doing so will we be able to set out the options for action and the reasoning behind them, and to debate the alternatives openly and independently, in as informed and rational a manner as possible. This is the aim—and the aspiration—of *applied linguistics*, the academic discipline concerned with the relation of knowledge about language to decision making in the real world.

Examples and procedures

On the basis of this definition, then, we can say that applied linguistics sets out to investigate problems in the world in which language is implicated—both educational and social problems like those listed above. Our provisional definition is, of course, very abstract and general, so we might give it some substance by considering a few concrete examples. In what kind of problems is language implicated? How might they be investigated?

Here are a number of imaginary but representative situations in which decisions about language need to be taken.

- ❖ The head teacher of a London school is thinking of offering another foreign language in addition to French. The options are Chinese (the world's largest first language), Spanish (one of the world's largest and most widely distributed languages), or the Indian language Gujarati (the largest second language in the school and local community, and one which has approximately forty-three million speakers worldwide). Which of these languages should be taught, and why?
- ❖ A business executive wants to learn Japanese in preparation for taking up a post in Tokyo. There are three courses available. Course One has a strong emphasis on learning to write. Course Two focuses on the spoken language, claiming that learning to write too early is demotivating. It does, however, explain the rules of Japanese grammar in English and use translation. Course Three's approach is 'natural', with no translation or explanation of rules, but only a series of communicative classroom activities and tasks. Which course is the best choice, and why?
- ❖ A business in the USA exports industrial machinery to South America. There are frequently financial, legal, and safety documents to translate, and it is important that these are accurate. The firm employs two translators: Juan, a sixty-year-old Cuban emigrant who once ran a similar business, and twenty-two-year-old Jemima, who studied Spanish literature at a prestigious university. Juan complains to the management that Jemima's translation of some safety regulations is full of errors. Jemima says this is nonsense, and there is a terrible row. None of the managers speak Spanish themselves. How can they judge between them?
- ❖ Zramzshra is a small (fictional) island in the Indian Ocean. The Zramzsharan language uses a unique alphabet which developed from the Phoenician alphabet when traders came to the island 3,000 years ago. Zramzshra's Finance Minister argues for a reform in which this alphabet will be replaced by the Roman alphabet (the one used in English and many other languages). This change, he argues, will make the island's life easier and more prosperous, with benefits for English teaching, computer-mediated communication, trade, and tourism. Is this the best policy?

In responding to such language related problems, we can draw upon common sense and experience to judge what action should be taken. But in recommending a particular course of action we might benefit both from more information and from a more systematic approach. For example, we might study what other people have said on similar matters, and we might make investigations of our own, perhaps by interviewing the parents and children in the school, observing some Japanese lessons, consulting a third Spanish speaker, and so on. And when—as sadly often happens—the advice we offer, well-informed though it might be, is ignored for political or commercial reasons, or out of prejudice, we might wish to form a pressure group to put across our case more effectively. It is these processes of study, reflection, investigation, and action which constitute applied linguistics as an academic discipline.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Distinguish among the psychological system, vocal tract, and speech.
- b. Explain the analogy between a computer system and the linguistic system.
- c. Understand the relation between data and theory.

Content

The chapter provides an Introduction to the principles and methods of linguistic theory, understood as “the study of the psychological system of language; that is, of the unconscious knowledge that lies behind our ability to produce and interpret utterances of language.”² (Parker, p. 8)

Key Terms

generative grammar
software
hardware
output
language

vocal tract
speech
personal pronouns
reflexive pronouns
antecedent

data
theory
categories
rules

Sample analysis: "Tag" questions.

For a better understanding of the introduction, students must watchfully go over the following example, after reading the entire chapter:

✂ Data (acceptability judgments): The underlined sentences are unacceptable.

1. Mary can't go, can she?
2. Mary has gone, hasn't she?
3. Mary can go, couldn't she?
4. Mary can't go, can't she?
5. Mary can't go, can they?
6. Mary hasn't been going, is she?

✂ Theory: Principles that predict acceptability judgments according to the data provided. (The principles that govern tag questions in English)

For example: The verb in a tag question must match the verb in the declarative; the declarative and the tag cannot both be negative; the pronoun in the tag must match the subject of the declarative, in number, person, and gender; the verb in the tag must be a copy of the first auxiliary verb in the declarative, etc. Principles must be refined as new data is encountered.

No exercises are assigned in this chapter.

² Parker, Frank. *Linguistics for Non-Linguists: A Primer with Exercises*.

Chapter 2: Pragmatics

This chapter presents how pragmatics is concerned with two basic questions: how speakers say things without really saying them, and how context affects interpretation.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Analyze the implicature raised by an interchange.
- b. Recognize the conversational maxim that raises a particular implicature.
- c. Classify an illocutionary act into one Searle's six types.
- d. Identify felicity conditions (or their violations) on various types of speech acts.
- e. Classify a speech act according to the following variables: explicit versus non-explicit, direct vs. indirect, expressed vs. implied, and literal versus non-literal.
- f. Explain the relationship between syntactic form and illocutionary force, especially for indirect speech acts.
- g. Explain how conversational implicature enables speakers to interpret implied locutionary acts.

Contents

- a. Speech acts
- b. Classification of Illocutionary acts
- c. Felicity Conditions
- d. Explicit versus Nonexplicit Illocutionary Acts
- e. Direct versus Indirect Illocutionary Acts
- f. Expressed versus Implied Locutionary Acts
- g. Literal versus Nonliteral Locutionary Acts
- h. Overview of Speech Act Theory

Key Terms and Concepts

implicature	representative	performative verb
maxim of quantity	directive	direct/indirect illocutionary act
maxim of quality	question	
maxim of relation	commissive	expressed/implied locutionary act
maxim of manner	expressive	
speech act	declaration	precondition
locutionary act	felicity condition	literal / nonliteral locutionary act
illocutionary act	explicit / nonexplicit	
illocutionary force	illocutionary act	

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 2 Exercise A 1, 5 and 6.

Exercise B 1a, b, d, j.

Exercise C 1, 5

Exercise D 3 a, b.

Exercise E 1a, f.

Exercise F 2 a, b.

Exercise G 1 a, b, c

Exercise H 1 c, d, e, f.

Supplementary exercises 1, 3, 4, 6.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 3: Semantics

This chapter explores the following relations: the relation of words to words (sense); the relation of words to world (reference); and the relation of sentences to sentences and sentences to world (truth). It is useful to start out by comparing semantics to pragmatics: where pragmatics is concerned with context-dependent meaning while semantics is concerned with context-independent meaning.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Identify the semantic feature(s) that distinguish or unify a related set of words (e.g. man, boy)
- b. Recognize cases of lexical ambiguity and overlap.
- c. Distinguish a super-ordinate of a given hyponym (or vice versa).
- d. Label a set of antonyms as binary, gradable, or converse.
- e. Classify a prototype and a stereotype of a common term such as car.
- f. Categorize cases of co-reference, anaphora, and deixis.
- g. Label a sentence as analytic, contradictory, or synthetic.
- h. Determine the truth relation (presupposition or entailment) that holds between a given pair of sentences.

Contents

- a. Definition and background of semantics
- b. Sense
 1. Lexical Ambiguity
 2. Synonymy
 3. Hyponymy
 4. Overlap
 5. Antonymy
- c. Reference
 1. Referent
 2. Extension

3. Prototype
4. Stereotype
5. Conference
6. Anaphora
7. Deixis

d. Truth

1. Analytic Sentences
2. Contradictory Sentences
3. Synthetic Sentences
4. Entailment
5. Presupposition

Key Terms and Concepts

lexical decomposition	binary antonym	coreference
semantic features	gradable antonym	anaphora
sense	converse antonyms	deixis
speaker-sense	speaker-reference	analytic sentence
linguistic-sense	linguistic-reference	contradictory sentence
lexical ambiguity	referent	synthetic sentence
synonymy	extension	entailment
hyponym	prototype	presupposition
superordinate	stereotype	presupposition trigger
overlap		

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

- Chapter 3 Exercise A 1 a,b,c,d.
 Exercise B 1 a,b, 2, 3 a,b.
 Exercise C 1 a,b,c,, 3 a,b,c,d,e,f.
 Exercise D 4 a,b,c,d,e.
 Exercise E 1 a,b.
 Exercise F 3 a,b,c, 4, 5.
 Exercise G 1 a,b, 3, 6.
 Exercise H a.1, a.2, b.1, b.2., h.1, h 2
 Supplementary exercises 1, 2, 5, 8, 11, and 15.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 4: Syntax

This chapter introduces students to concepts related to the study of syntax, especially from perspective of generative grammar: categories, left-to-right ordering, hierarchical (constituent) structure, transformations, and constraints.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Apply tests to argue that particular words belong to different categories.
- b. Use terms such as dominate, directly dominate, sister, and daughter to identify the relationships among various nodes in a tree.
- c. Use PS rules to construct tree diagrams for simple phrases or structures.
- d. Draw tree diagrams to reflect the structural ambiguity of a phrase like American history teacher.
- e. Use the passive test to determine whether or not a PP is part of a direct object in a sentence like Ralph put the note on the door.
- f. Infer selectional and subcategorization restrictions from a given set of data.
- g. Understand the arguments for positing an X-bar category, i.e., an intermediate category between XP and X.
- h. Understand the arguments for positing underlying structures.
- i. Identify violations of various constraints on transformations.

Key Terms and Concepts

lexical categories	active sentence	wh- movement
phrasal categories	passive sentence	underlying structure
phrase structure (ps)	subcategorization	surface structure
tree diagram	restriction	np-movement
nodes	selectional restriction	coordinate structure
dominate	x-bar syntax	unit movement
daughter node	proform substitution	subjacency constraint
constraint	specifier	tensed-s constraint
sister node	adjunct	yes/no question
recursion	complement	tag question
constituent	transformation	
structural ambiguity		

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 4 Exercise A 1, 3.

Exercise B 1a, b, c, d.

Exercise C 1a, b, c, d.

Exercise D 1.

Exercise E 2 a ,b ,c ,d ,e ,f ,g.

Exercise F 1, 2, 4.

Exercise G 1, 2, 5.

Exercise H.1.

Exercise I 1.

Exercise K 1,2.

Supplementary exercises 2, 3, 6, 7, 9, 12, and 15.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

III. Second Workshop

General Objectives

The topics included in this second workshop aim at:

- a. Getting to know the basic concepts related to the structure and formation of words.
- b. Introducing students to the phonemic alphabet and phonological rules.
- c. Understanding the main concepts related to regional, social, gender and stylistic variation.

General Instructions for studying the chapters

In order to achieve the objectives, students must read chapters 5, 6, and 7 of the text book (pages from page 85 to page 175), and deeply review the key concepts for each chapter. To do so, the students count on two glossaries: one provided in the text book and another one included at the end of this study guide.

It is important that students write down specific doubts or questions that may arise while reading, so that the tutor can clear out any uncertainty during the second workshop.

Suggested in-chapter exercises appear immediately after the theory and concepts to which they refer; so, they must be done while reading. Supplementary exercises, on the other hand, must be carefully done and analyzed after reading and summarizing the entire chapter.

Chapter 5: Morphology

This chapter deals with structure rather than meaning. The basic questions it addresses are the following: What are the parts of words? What are the patterns of verb morphology in English? and How are new words introduced into English?

It is important for students to just memorize the eight inflectional affixes in English; this way, they will find it easier to label any other affixes as derivational.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Understand the differences among syllables, morphemes, and words.
- b. Use the criteria of "more or less constant meaning and form" to determine if an item is a morpheme.
- c. Analyze the component morphemes of a word.
- d. Label each morpheme in a word according to its type (lexical, grammatical, etc.).
- e. Identify the eight inflectional affixes in English.
- f. Distinguish the co-occurrence patterns associated with English auxiliary verbs (e.g., a modal is always followed by an uninflected verb).
- g. Describe some of the differences in behavior between inflectional and derivational affixes.
- h. Recognize the word-formation process involved in the creation of a word.

Key Terms and Concepts

morpheme	{POSS}	compound
lexical morpheme	{COMP}	root creation
grammatical morpheme	{SUP}	clipped form
free morpheme	{PRES}	blend
bound morpheme	{PAST}	acronym
inflectional morpheme	{PAST PART}	abbreviation
derivational morpheme	{PRES PART}	proper
affix	main verb	folk
prefix	modal verb	back
suffix	derivation	
{PLU}	category extension	

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 5 Exercise A 1.

Exercise B 1.

Exercise C 1.

Exercise D 1.

Exercise E 1.

Exercise F 1, 5.

Exercise G 1.

Exercise H.1,3.

Exercise I 1.

Supplementary exercises 1, 6, 8, and 13.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 6: Phonology

This chapter introduces students to the phonemic alphabet, a feature system for analyzing segments, and some examples of phonological rules from English. The material in Chapter 6 falls logically into two parts: (i) analysis and transcription of phonemes and (ii) phonological rules.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- Translate individual English words between regular spelling and phonemic transcription.
- Identify the features needed to pick out a segment or group of segments that form a natural class.
- Translate between formal and informal statements of phonological rules.
- Identify the phonetic form that would result from applying a phonological rule discussed in the chapter.
- Infer a simple phonological rule by examining data from English or another language.

Key Terms and Concepts

phoneme	clottal	contrast
tongue height	stop	free variation
frontness	fricative	complementary distribution
lip rounding	affricate	
tenseness	nasal	aspiration
distinctive feature	liquid	vowel lengthening
bilabial	glide	vowel nasalization
labiodental	obstruent	assimilation
interdental	sonorant	flapping
alveolar	voicing	neutralization
palatal	level of representation	
velar	allophone	

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 6 Exercise A 1,4.
Exercise B 2, 6, 10, 11.
Exercise C 2.
Exercise D 2, 4, 5.
Exercise F 1.
Exercise G 1, 4.

Supplementary exercises 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 11, and 15.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 7: Language Variation

This chapter introduces students to concepts related to regional, social, gender, and stylistic variation.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Explain the difference between a dialect and a language.
- b. Explain how isoglosses are used to establish regional dialect areas.
- c. Identify the major regional dialect areas of the United States.
- d. Recognize several examples of lexical and phonological forms found in regional dialects in the United States.
- e. Explain why the study of sociolinguistics has received increasing attention over the past several decades.
- f. Explain the difference between a nonstandard form and an ungrammatical form.
- g. Identify several examples of phonological, morphological, and syntactic forms found in social dialects in the United States.

- h. Identify several linguistic patterns associated with gender differences.
- i. Distinguish several examples of lexical, phonological, morphological, and syntactic forms associated with different registers.

Key Terms and Concepts

Language universals	Canadian raising	consonant cluster
Language	sociolinguistics	metathesis
dialect	standard dialect	post-vocalic
idiolect	nonstandard dialect	liquid deletion
isogloss	pidgin	final devoicing
linking [r]	creole	double negatives
vowel neutralization	grammatical	habitual (distributive)
vocalization	ungrammatical	covert prestige
voicing assimilation	stopping	register
monophthongization		

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

- Chapter 7 Exercise A 1.
- Exercise B 2, 4.
- Exercise C 2.
- Exercise D 2, 3, 4.
- Exercise E 2.
- Exercise F 1.
- Exercise G 1, 5.
- Exercise H 3, 4.
- Exercise I 3, 5
- Supplementary exercises 3, 6, 11, 12, and 13.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

IV. Third Workshop

General Objectives

The topics included in this third workshop aim at:

- a. Having students understand, analyze and apply, to real life situations, the difference between concepts related to phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics.
- b. Discussing issues related to second-language acquisition (SLA).
- c. Analyzing concepts related to writing systems.

General Instructions for studying the chapters

In order to achieve the objectives, students must read chapters 8, 9, and 10 of the text book (pages from page 176 to page 250), and deeply review the key concepts for each chapter. To do so, the students count on two glossaries: one provided in the text book and another one included at the end of this study guide.

It is important that students write down specific doubts or questions that may arise while reading, so that that the tutor can clear out any uncertainty during the third workshop.

Suggested in-chapter exercises appear immediately after the theory and concepts to which they refer; so, they must be done while reading. Supplementary exercises, on the other hand, must be carefully done and analyzed after reading and summarizing the entire chapter.

Chapter 8: First-Language Acquisition

This chapter defines some of the major concepts related to the acquisition of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics, and to issues in language acquisition. The main message of this chapter is that "errors" in children's language usually reflect an underlying pattern of regularity.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Identify patterns in the acquisition of vowels, consonants, and syllable structure.
- b. Recognize patterns in the acquisition of morphology, especially inflectional morphemes.
- c. Identify stages in length of utterance and word order.
- d. Distinguish stages in the acquisition of questions and negatives.
- e. Identify patterns in the acquisition of lexical and sentence semantics.
- f. Explain the major differences between nativism and empiricism.
- g. Articulate the arguments used to support the nativist position.

Key Terms and Concepts

cooing	telegraphic speech	biologically determined
babbling	intonation	behavior
gliding	overgeneralization	culturally determined
stopping	basic-level term	behavior
simplification of clusters	positive member	language-specific
reduplication	agent	capacities
final consonant reduction	patient	general cognitive
blending	minimum distance principle	capacities
one-word (holophrastic)	order of mention	fixed onset
two-word stage	nativism	language universals
multiword stage	empiricism	

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 8. Exercise B 2.
Exercise C 1, 4 and 7.
Exercise D 2, 4.
Exercise G 1, 3.
Exercise H 2, 3, 6.
Exercise I 2, 4, 6.
Supplementary exercises 1, 4, 8, 9, 15, 20, and 21.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 9: Second-Language Acquisition

This chapter defines general issues in second-language acquisition (SLA): patterns in the acquisition of phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics; and nonlinguistic influences on SLA. That is, it deals with *two* linguistic variables: the language the speaker has already acquired (L1) and the language the speaker is learning (L2).

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- Describe the basic tenets of SLA theories related to interlanguage, language transfer, language universals, and markedness.
- Identify common phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic patterns in SLA.
- Discuss the role of several nonlinguistic influences on SLA.

Key Terms and Concepts

interlanguage	parametric universal	homonym
error analysis	marked/unmarked form	cognitive style
contrastive analysis	developmental process	field independence/ dependence
negative/positive transfer	phonotactic constraint	integrative motivation
implicational/non-implicational	circumlocution	
universal	idiom	
absolute/statistical universal	polyseme	instrumental motivation

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 9 Exercise A 1, 3, 8.
Exercise B 1, 3, 7.
Exercise C 2, 3.
Exercise D 2, 5, and 7.
Exercise E 2, 3.
Exercise F 3.

Supplementary exercises 1, 3, 6, 9, 13, and 15.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 10: Written Language

This chapter explains concepts related to writing systems, the English spelling system, and errors in written English.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- Distinguish between a writing and a drawing system.
- Identify an instance of writing as morphographic, syllabic, or alphabetic.
- Explain several sources of inconsistencies in English spelling.
- Recognize an instance of spelling as morphophonemic, phonemic, or phonetic.
- Make several phonological sources of spelling errors clear.
- Provide details on several morphological sources of errors in writing.

Key Terms and Concepts

iconic representation	alphabetic writing	phonetic spelling
pictograph	great vowel shift	
ideograph	morphophonemic spelling	unstressed syllable
morphographic writing	phonemic spelling	deletion
syllabic writing		count/ non-count nouns

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 10 Exercise A 1, 5, 8.
 Exercise B 3, 6.
 Exercise C 2, 4.
 Exercise E 1.
 Exercise G 1, 3.
 Exercise H 1
 Supplementary exercises 2, 3, 8, 11, 12, and 15.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

V. Fourth Workshop

General Objectives

The topics included in this fourth workshop aim at:

- a. Getting to know several concepts related to the processing of spoken and written language.
- b. Analyzing concepts related to normal and abnormal language processing by the brain.
- c. Understanding the contributions that linguistics can make to related fields.

General Instructions for studying the chapters

In order to achieve the objectives, students must read chapters 11, 12, and 13 of the text book (pages from page 251 to page 305), and deeply review the key concepts for each chapter. To do so, the students count on two glossaries: one provided in the text book and another one included at the end of this study guide.

It is important that students write down specific doubts or questions that may arise while reading, so that that the tutor can clear out any uncertainty during the fourth workshop.

Suggested in-chapter exercises appear immediately after the theory and concepts to which they refer; so, they must be done while reading. Supplementary exercises, on the other hand, must be carefully done and analyzed after reading and summarizing the entire chapter.

Chapter 11: Language Processing

This chapter intends to help students improve in their own writing and speaking skills by means of defining and applying several concepts related to the processing of spoken and written language, including concepts from psycholinguistics, discourse analysis, and rhetoric.

Objectives

After reading this chapter, students should be able to

- a. Identify structures at the sentence level that affect comprehension.
- b. Use a readability formula to analyze a passage.
- c. Explain how schemata and scripts can enhance the comprehension and recall of a passage.
- d. Find examples of cohesive devices in a passage.
- e. Recognize the thematic roles played by various NPs in a sentence.
- f. Identify the given-new pattern used in a passage.
- g. Distinguish the presupposition associated with a particular structure or verb.
- h. Find examples of indirectness strategies used in a passage.

Key Terms and Concepts

reaction time	readability formula	collocation
inherent negative	schemata	beneficiary
agent	script	instrument
patient	scene header	
nonreversible/reversible passive	cohesion	given-new information
complex sentence	reference	
subordinating conjunction	substitution	linear progression
heavy NP	conjunction	
	lexical cohesion	hierarchical progression
		presupposition

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 11

- Exercise B 1.
- Exercise C 3.
- Exercise D 1.
- Exercise E 1.
- Exercise G 1.
- Exercise H 2, 3.
- Exercise K 3, 5
- Supplementary exercises 1, 4, and 5.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 12: The Neurology of Language

This chapter introduces students and helps them analyze concepts related to normal and abnormal language processing by the brain.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to:

- a. Identify and explain the function of the major language-related structures in the brain.
- b. Describe the major contributions of Broca, Wernicke, and Penfield and Roberts to neurolinguistics.
- c. Illustrate evidence for hemispherical specialization.
- d. Identify the tasks for which each hemisphere is specialized.
- e. Show the symptoms typically associated with Broca's aphasia, Wernicke's aphasia, and conduction aphasia, conduction aphasia, anomia, and semantic aphasia.
- f. Infer the disorder most likely to account for a description of a patient's symptoms.

Key Terms and Concepts

central nervous system	angular gyrus	dichotic listening
lower brain stem	Heschl's gyrus	right/left ear advantage
higher brain stem	primary motor cortex	split brain stereognosis
cerebellum	localizationist view	
cerebrum	holistview	Broca's aphasia
corpus callosum	Broca's area	
frontal lobe	Wernicke's area	neologism
parietal lobe	supplementary motor	conduction aphasia
occipital lobe	cortex	anomia
temporal lobe	dominance	semantic aphasia
fissure of Sylvius	hemispherectomy	word deafness
fissure of Rolando	planum temporal	Wernicke's aphasia
supramarginal gyrus	Wada test	

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 12

- Exercise B 1, 4.
- Exercise C 2.
- Exercise D 2.
- Exercise F 2, 3.
- Exercise G 2.
- Exercise I 2.
- Supplementary exercises 1, 4, 8, 10, 12, 14, and 17.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises.

Chapter 13: Conclusion

This chapter emphasizes that:

- (i) linguistics offers an explanation for language phenomena that practitioners in related fields encounter every day, and
- (ii) linguistics offers a model for explanation that practitioners can adapt to their own fields.

Objectives

After completing this chapter, students should be able to apply the following criteria:

- a. Identify whether a theory is testable (and hence explicit).
- b. Recognize whether a theory is revealing.
- c. Perceive whether a theory is restricted to systematic phenomena.
- d. Distinguish a competence model from a performance model.

Key Terms and Concepts

testable

explicit

revealing

systematic

competence

performance

generative grammar

Suggested Exercises

For a better understanding of the contents and to accomplish the main aims, students should do the following exercises:

Chapter 13

Supplementary exercises 1, 2,3, and 4.

This study guide includes an answer key for suggested exercises

Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics

The following material has been taken and adapted from the book *Qualitative Research in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Introduction*.

Starting out in qualitative research

Qualitative research - when you first heard the term, your initial thought might have been, 'What do qualitative researchers actually do?' It may come as a surprise to you that you are already familiar with many of their activities, and you actually do them yourself - every day - as you watch and listen to what happens around you, and ask questions about what you have seen and heard.

For instance, think back to the first class you took as a university student. When you walked into the classroom that day, you probably checked out the room, noting the arrangement of desks and where people were sitting. You also watched the other students and the teacher to try and work out what sort of people they might be and what relationships might already exist between them. During the class, you listened to what the teacher and other students said; you probably talked to a few people in the class as well, asking them questions to help you understand the developing culture of the class. You might even have jotted down a few things about whom and what you had seen and heard. In this first class, then, you were doing something similar to collecting data, and practicing two of the basic skills of qualitative researchers: observing and interviewing.

And that is not all: as well as doing the things that qualitative researchers do, you probably also think in many of the same ways. For example, during your first semester at university, you might have begun to notice regularities of behavior: some students seemed to know each other already; students who did not know anybody tended to reach out to others who dressed and talked in a similar way; a few students did not seem interested in making friends yet and stuck to themselves. As you considered all of this, you were doing what all qualitative researchers do when they think about, or analyze and interpret, their data, which is to reflect on and explore what they know, search for patterns, and try to create a full and rich understanding of the research context. Furthermore, when you described your new class to a friend, depicting your new classmates and capturing the sense of the class using carefully chosen, descriptive vignettes, you were doing in part what qualitative researchers do when they present their findings. So, although you may never have conducted a qualitative research project before, it is probably safe to say that the process of doing one will not be altogether new to you.

Of course, observation of everyday life is different to research. Research requires sound data collection skills and a methodological approach that provides a framework for the research process. It should be driven by some kind of theory, and have a clear research purpose.

Qualitative research in applied linguistics

Applied linguistics is a broad and exciting interdisciplinary field of study. It focuses on language in use, connecting our knowledge about languages with an understanding of how they are used in the real world. Applied linguists work in diverse research areas including second and foreign language acquisition (FLA/SLA), teaching English as a second or foreign language (TESOL/TEFL), workplace communication, language planning and policy, and language identity and gender - to name just a few. Many applied linguists also work in related fields such as education, psychology, sociology, and anthropology.

One important area of applied linguistics research is language analysis. FLA/SLA researchers, for example, look at what language errors learners commonly make at

different stages in their language development, or TESOL/TEFL researchers consider how a writing textbook helps students develop their composition skills. A second important area in applied linguistics is investigating the contexts and experiences of language use. For instance, researchers specializing in workplace communication could examine how immigrant women with differing degrees of language proficiency use the target language to communicate with co-workers, or TESOL/TEFL researchers might investigate how the classroom milieu affects students' attitudes toward language learning. Similarly, language identity researchers might consider how sexual minorities structure their identity through language.

How do researchers approach such issues? In essence, they have three choices: to use quantitative research, qualitative research, or to use both in what is termed mixed methods research. In very broad terms, quantitative research involves collecting primarily numerical data and analyzing it using statistical methods, whereas qualitative research entails collecting primarily textual data and examining it using interpretive analysis. Mixed methods research employs both quantitative and qualitative research according to the aims and context of the individual project and the nature of the research questions.

For the purposes of this course, the material provided mainly focus on qualitative research, first exploring what it is, then illustrating how it is used to investigate the manifold contexts and experiences of language in use.

What is qualitative research?

An umbrella term

The term 'qualitative research' is an umbrella term used to refer to a complex and evolving research methodology. It has roots in a number of different disciplines, principally anthropology, sociology, and philosophy, and is now used in almost all fields of social science inquiry, including applied linguistics. A plethora of research approaches has been developed within qualitative research, including narrative inquiry, case study, ethnography, action research, phenomenology, and grounded theory. These approaches use a wide variety of data collection methods, such as observation, interviews, open-response questionnaire items, verbal reports, diaries, and discourse analysis. And within each of these research approaches and methods, a number of research techniques and strategies have been developed to help qualitative researchers do their day-to-day work - conceptualizing the research project, collecting and analyzing data, and writing up findings.

Two important questions

Given that qualitative research is such a vast field, let us begin our exploration by considering two simple but fundamental questions that all researchers face, 'What is reality?' and 'What is knowledge?'. How researchers answer these questions is shaped by their view of the world, and also informed by how other academics conceptualize research. In the social sciences, a number of generally accepted models have been developed that articulate these conceptual frameworks and they are called paradigms. Paradigms have profoundly affected the development of research in general and qualitative research in particular. This can be illustrated by comparing two that are often given as examples of opposite perspectives - positivism and constructivism.

Positivists believe that there is only one, fixed, agreed-upon reality, so research must strive to find a singular, universal 'truth'. They see the world as real, as something that exists independently of themselves. They believe that this reality can be quantified, and that the purpose of research is to measure it as precisely as possible. Since positivists believe that there is one universal reality, they also presume that any truths they discover about that reality are equally applicable to other groups or situations, regardless of the context. For researchers who take a positivist approach, one of the primary aims of investigation is therefore to formulate hypotheses that will allow them

to make predictions about what will happen in the future, or inferences about other contexts. According to the positivist school of thought, the role of the researcher is to be detached and 'objective' both in the gathering of data and the interpretation of the findings.

Some readers may recollect having been taught many of these points in high school science classes. Indeed, positivism has its roots in the nature of inquiry that was developed for the physical sciences, where 'truths', 'laws', and 'axioms' wait to be discovered. During the early stages of the development of research in the social sciences, this dogma was generally accepted without question because of its historical respectability. However, as the nature of research in the social sciences became more multifaceted, and the complexity of the questions it sought to answer increased, the shortcomings of the positivist approach became more and more apparent. Now, not many researchers subscribe to a strict notion of positivism, but it provides a useful contrast to another important perspective that developed in the social sciences, constructivism, which profoundly influenced the development of qualitative research.

In contrast to positivists, constructivists believe that there is no universally agreed upon reality or universal 'truth'. Rather, 'meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world' (Merriam, 2002, p. 3). That is, each individual creates his or her own unique understandings of the world, so there are multiple constructions and multiple interpretations of reality. And these constructions and interpretations change, depending upon time and circumstances, so reality is not universal but person-, context-, and time-bound.

To illustrate constructivist ideas, let us think about the people who were sitting in that classroom when you walked in on your first day. Partway through that first class, if you had asked each of them the simple question, 'What is happening now?' it is likely that you would have gotten a range of quite different answers. You would probably have found that each person was attending to different aspects of the lesson, and interpreting what was going on in terms of their own expectations and learning experiences. The classroom context would also have been influencing each person differently, as their experience of the class would have differed depending on where they were sitting and with whom they were interacting. If you were to have repeated this process at the end of class by asking your classmates, 'What happened in our class today?', you would most likely have gotten a completely new set of responses that may not have borne much resemblance to the earlier ones. You would have found that each student had constructed her own understanding of the lesson, and was in fact (re)constructing it for herself as she talked about it with you. This is the key point of constructivism: that the reality of this class for the students present would certainly not have been a one-size-fits-all assessment but rather a person-, context-, and time-bound experience. The task of a constructivist researcher, then, is to understand these multiple ways of looking at the world - a fascinating, and intriguing, challenge.

As constructivist ideas became more popular in the social sciences in the latter half of the twentieth century, researchers sought better ways to understand these person-, context-, and time-bound experiences. Although many researchers continued to use quantitative research, qualitative research based upon a constructivist view of the world began to emerge as a rigorous and systematic methodology to help researchers explore people's worlds. Now, most - but not all - researchers who use qualitative research approaches and methods would state that their views of the world are closer to the constructivist one than the positivist. Ultimately, its tenets came to underpin much qualitative research.

A focus on the social world

As qualitative researchers believe that meaning is socially constructed, **their research focus is on the participants** - how participants experience and interact with a phenomenon at a given point in time and in a particular context, and the multiple meanings it has for them. They are interested in the ordinary, everyday worlds of their participants - where they live, work, and study. These natural settings include such places as homes and workplaces, staffrooms, classrooms and self-access centers, and online chat rooms. 'Qualitative researchers go to the people; they do not extricate people from their everyday worlds' (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 9). They recognize that these settings are complex, dynamic, and multifaceted.

Unlike quantitative researchers, who emphasize the importance of measuring outcomes, qualitative researchers focus on understanding the process of what's going on in a setting. Here is a simple illustration:

Wimbledon 0 - Liverpool 0	There was more excitement in the car park than on the soccer pitch
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The left box succinctly summarizes the outcome of the soccer game, but does not provide a sense of what actually happened there that day; the right box captures this much better. To give another example, this time from applied linguistics, quantitative researchers often measure gains in proficiency over a period of time - the outcomes of learning. However, qualitative researchers focus on the process, by trying to understand how those gains were made, what the participants thought about improving their proficiency, and how the setting - and the other people there - influenced them. This kind of research is often longitudinal, and a lot of qualitative inquiry requires researchers to spend a relatively prolonged period of time in the research setting to develop deep and comprehensive understandings of what goes on there. With a more detailed and intensive focus on each participant, working even in one setting is very intensive in terms of time and labor, so the number of participants is usually small and they are carefully chosen.

Qualitative researchers ask particular types of questions about a setting (Patton, 2002), such as: What's going on here? What does the world look like for participants? What meanings do they make here? How does this setting influence participants' perceptions and behavior? Researchers ask these sorts of questions because they want to comprehend the subjective meanings and understandings that participants create about their own social and personal worlds. To do so, researchers 'position' themselves closely to the participants, to endeavor to see the world as their participants do - from the participants' angle. This participant or 'insider' point of view is termed the emic perspective; the researcher or 'outsider' point of view is termed the etic perspective. Developing an emic perspective usually means directly interacting with the research participants in the research context, 'in the field, face to face with real people' (Rossman & Rallis, 2003, p. 9). It also means using the participants' own terms and concepts to describe their worlds when analyzing data and presenting findings.

The research process

In a qualitative study, researchers often use multiple data collection methods, including observations, interviews, open-response questionnaires, and diaries. Each of these 'makes the world visible in a different way' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 4), so a fuller, richer picture of the participants' perspective can be explored and represented. All of these data collection methods create data that is primarily textual not numerical: researchers doing observations create written notes, called field notes; researchers using interviews generate written transcripts or summaries; and the other data collection methods such as questionnaires and diaries use text that the participants themselves have written. That is not to say that numerical data is not used, but that its

purpose is supplementary not central. A vast amount of textual data is created in a qualitative research study, and managing it is often challenging.

The textual data that researchers create in their field notes, and interview summaries should be richly detailed and descriptive of the participants and the research setting - capturing what researchers have seen, heard, smelled, and touched. As they create this data, and later as they think about them, researchers add their own thoughts and reflections. Taken together, this creates a thick description of the participants and setting. Qualitative researchers then use interpretive analysis to sift through their data and group similar ideas together, to discover patterns of behavior and thinking.

The data that researchers collect permits them to paint a richly descriptive picture of their participants' worlds - the participants themselves, the setting, and the major and minor events that happen there. A well-written qualitative research study will carefully use the participants' own words to augment the researcher's vivid description and clear interpretation. It should give readers a sense of entering the participants' worlds and sharing the experience of being there with them. The process is, in a sense, like filmmaking - the researcher assembles data into montages by blending images, sounds, and understandings together to create a compelling composite creation.

The nature of qualitative research

When little is known about a phenomenon or existing research is limited, qualitative research is a very useful research methodology because it is exploratory - its purpose is to discover new ideas and insights, or even generate new theories. This research is not necessarily done to predict what may happen in the future or in another setting - what is learned about the phenomenon, participants, or events in the setting can be an end in itself. That is, qualitative research mostly focuses on understanding the particular and the distinctive, and does not necessarily seek or claim to generalize findings to other contexts. Some qualitative researchers do consider the extent to which their findings may be generalizable, but many leave it up to the readers to decide to what degree the features of the research setting are relevant to their own context. The richer the description the researcher provides in the study's report, the easier it is for readers to envisage the research setting and thus make a judgment about the relevance of the research for them.

As qualitative research is often exploratory, most researchers do not define specific research questions at the outset of the study, as doing so would likely impose their own framework on the research context. Rather, they usually begin the study with only a research purpose and conceptual framework, and a sense of the initial focus of interest. They then prefer to enter the research setting and become familiar with the context and the participants, and ascertain what participants think the main issues and problems are, before determining their specific research questions. These questions are modified and refined, and the research design developed, as their understandings of the research setting, participants, and research focus mature. This reflects what is called the emergent nature of the qualitative research process - understanding emerges as the research proceeds.

The quantitative research cycle is usually characterized as being linear, each stage being carried out one after the other: research questions are formulated, data is collected then statistically analyzed, and findings written up. By contrast, qualitative research is more simultaneous, nonlinear, and iterative. That is, collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data are done largely at the same time, with researchers constantly moving back and forth between all three until new information does not add to their understanding of a topic, a point called data saturation. In fact, data analysis will often steer data collection, as ongoing analysis indicates what avenues of research to pursue - who to observe or interview next, what questions to ask, and what documents to request - so the emergent nature of qualitative research is also evident throughout the research cycle.

Although emergent, qualitative research is systematic and rigorous. For readers and other researchers to trust your research, there must be a strong conceptual framework to guide your study, and congruence between the research approach that structures your study and the data collection methods that you employ. Moreover, you need to demonstrate that your research practices are sound and that you have used clear logic, provide strong evidence to substantiate the claims that you make, and diligently document the process of gathering, analyzing, and interpreting your data.

While qualitative research is systematic, it is not formulaic, so there is no requirement that researchers follow a set of prescribed research steps.

Qualitative research also requires you to be intuitive, to see links and patterns in the data, and to build these into themes that simultaneously fulfill your research purposes and also express both the particular and the essential nature of the setting and its participants. Qualitative research is a discipline that calls for a balance between order and insight.

The subjectivity of the researcher

In qualitative research, the researcher is the primary research instrument. This has two aspects. First, researchers themselves collect the data, by directly observing or interviewing the participants, for example. The advantage of researchers doing this is that they can be responsive and adaptive to the participants and research setting and can quickly begin to explore unanticipated avenues of research. They can also collect a wide range of data and begin to think about it immediately, allowing them to clarify ideas promptly for accuracy of interpretation (Merriam, 2002). The second dimension is that observation field notes and interview snippets do not speak for themselves (Rossman & Rallis, 2003); nor do questionnaire answers and diary entries magically indicate to the researcher underlying patterns of reality. Rather, the researcher has to interpret them, so analysis in qualitative research is often called interpretive analysis.

But when researchers go into research settings, they also take their own intellectual baggage and life experiences with them. Inevitably, their gender, age, ethnicity, cultural background, sexual orientation, politics, religious beliefs, and life experiences - their worldview - are the lens through which they see their research. This may color their perceptions of the research setting and also the constructions of reality that they develop with the participants. This is a major concern in qualitative research, so it is important for researchers to be constantly aware and systematically reflect on their own personal identity and impact on the participants and research setting, and state that they have done so in the study's final report. Qualitative researchers can also handle this through a process called triangulation - obtaining different perspectives on a phenomenon by gathering data from different participants, and using a variety of data collection methods like observations, interviews, and questionnaires. On the other hand, some qualitative researchers see subjectivity as a virtue, the 'basis of researchers making a distinct contribution, one that results from the unique configuration of their personal qualities joined to the data they have collected' (Peshkin, 1988, p. 18, cited in Merriam, 2002, p. 5). Each researcher's perception, 'like light hitting a crystal, reflects a different perspective' (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005, p. 6, from Richardson, 2000).

Different ways of looking at the world

This diversity in qualitative research illustrates an important point - that the constructivist approach to qualitative research is now by no means universally accepted. It has been criticized for assuming that the interpretive reconstruction of reality is essentially 'unproblematic'; that is, that researchers can preserve a completely impartial and unbiased perspective and that qualitative research itself is politically and socially a neutral activity.

Many qualitative researchers strongly agree with this critique - they argue that truth is never value-free. Rather, they assert that all research is necessarily political and so fundamentally value-laden, involving issues of power in society. They also believe that social science research, including constructivist qualitative research, has often contributed to the silencing of marginalized and oppressed groups in society, by making them simply passive objects of inquiry (Marshall & Rossman, 2006).

From these concerns developed critical theory, which views society as fundamentally conflictive and oppressive. Critical theory seeks 'not merely understanding but change' (Richards, 2003, p. 40); it is openly ideological, emancipatory, and transformative. Because critical theorists are interested in the power asymmetries that underlie society, they explicitly want to empower marginalized groups, often by doing research together with members of these groups. Critical theory has made major contributions to qualitative research, as it has forced researchers to question the meanings of concepts that they had taken for granted, and also examine the assumptions underlying their work. Critical theory encompasses an array of theories and perspectives, such as critical race theory and feminist theory. In qualitative research, a critical lens can be applied to a number of research approaches to create critical discourse analysis, critical ethnography, or critical action research.

Marginalized groups that could be researched by critical applied linguists include new immigrants from non-English speaking countries, hearing-challenged students, or language teachers who teach a language other than their mother tongue. In fact, within applied linguistics as well as in the broader social sciences, critical approaches are becoming more common. 'We want a social science that is committed up front to issues of social justice, equity, nonviolence, peace, and universal human rights. We do not want a social science that says it can address these issues if it wants to.'

Postmodernism is another perspective whose ideas are included under the umbrella of qualitative research, yet its basic assumptions are significantly different from the constructivist paradigm. It is an ideological perspective that questions the early twentieth-century emphasis on science and technology, rationality, reason, and positivism. This perspective is challenging constructivist-interpretive qualitative research, so it is important that researchers also understand some of its basic notions. Merriam and Associates (2002) provide a useful summary:

A postmodern world is one where the rationality, scientific method, and certainties of the modern world no longer hold....In the postmodern world, everything is 'contested.' What has been considered true, real, or right can be questioned; and there are multiple interpretations of the same phenomenon depending on where one is standing. There are no absolutes, no single theoretical framework for examining social and political issues. ...

Postmodernists celebrate diversity among people, ideas, and institutions. By accepting the diversity and plurality of the world, no one element is privileged or more powerful than another....

'Most postmodernists do not talk about methodology', and the 'literature provides only the vaguest indication of what ideals of multiple voices mean concretely in empirical studies' (p. 185). Indeed, it would be congruent with this worldview to not come up with a singular approach to doing research. Instead, postmodern research is highly experimental, playful, creative, and no two postmodern studies look alike, (p. 375)

Richards (2003) notes that the broad topic of the hegemony of English as a world language provides a rich environment for postmodern researchers in applied linguistics.

Another perspective in social research, one that encompasses both qualitative and quantitative research, is called pragmatism. Pragmatism is not based on a particular ontological or epistemological stance; there is no predetermined view of what reality or

knowledge is. Pragmatic researchers may start collecting and analyzing data without necessarily giving any thought to philosophical issues such as the nature of truth and reality. Instead, they focus on the impact or consequences of their research, choosing the qualitative and quantitative research approaches, methods, and techniques that best meet their research purposes. '[Pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis]'. It represents the philosophical underpinnings of mixed methods research.

The constructivist paradigm, and critical theory, postmodernism, and pragmatism, are the maps that illustrate the terrain of the broad and increasingly disparate field of qualitative research. Understanding them will help you assess the relevance and importance of published research that you will read in the course of your studies. Also, understanding your own view of the world will help you to 'position' your research appropriately within or across paradigms and to create a more coherent research design.

Qualitative research approaches

Narrative inquiry provides a storied analysis of a person's life. It assumes that people use narrative to make sense of who they are and how their lives change (Bruner, 1990). It takes the perspective of the participant and uses first-person accounts of life experiences as data, mostly gathered through interviews.

Case study creates an in-depth description and analysis of a 'bounded system' - one individual, institution, or educational context. By concentrating on a single (or few) case(s), this approach can describe a particular learning or teaching process or research setting in great detail. Case study uses multiple sources of data and data collection methods, and it is often combined with other qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

Ethnography refers to both a research process and also the product of that research. It describes and interprets the common patterns of a culture-sharing group through prolonged observation. Juanita Heigham and Keiko Sakui observe that ethnography is not defined by how data is collected, but rather by the lens through which data is interpreted; the goal is to recreate for the reader the shared beliefs, practices, artifacts, knowledge, and behaviors of a group of people. Whereas narrative inquiry and case study often look at the individual, ethnography, with its focus on culture, looks at groups.

Action research is a systematic and self-reflective approach to collecting and analyzing information to help teachers explore issues that they face in their classroom teaching in order to change or improve their current practice. In her chapter, Anne Burns notes that action research employs a range of data collection methods that are flexible and open-ended. The outcome of action research is more often a change in understanding and behavior than some form of a published report, partly because this is often its principal purpose.

Mixed methods combine both qualitative and quantitative research methods in a single study. For example, language proficiency test scores are used along with student interviews to create a more multidimensional view of a language learning process, or a teacher questionnaire is combined with classroom observations and teacher diaries to generate a fuller understanding of one aspect of language teaching. A mixed methods study could emphasize qualitative and quantitative data equally, or give one type greater emphasis. It is an emerging field of study and is becoming more commonly used in research in applied linguistics.

Phenomenology: Whereas a narrative inquiry explores the life of a single individual, a phenomenological study describes the meanings that several individuals make from experiencing a single phenomenon. In our field, that could

include understanding the experience of adult learners trying to create and negotiate meaning in a new foreign language, or the experience of long-term immigrants who are beginning to learn the language of their adopted home. The purpose of a phenomenological study is to reduce individual experiences of such phenomenon to a description of the basic 'essence' of that experience, by creating a composite description of that experience for all of the participants. Having a deep understanding of such a phenomenon can help teachers be more aware of their students' language learning experiences, or help language program administrators more sensitively structure courses. In a broader sense, phenomenology is a school of philosophical thought underpins all qualitative research, because of its interest in understanding and representing the subjective experience of participants.

Grounded theory: While phenomenology describes the meaning of an experience, a grounded theory study goes beyond description to generate or discover a theory. This theory is 'grounded' in data that has been systematically collected from participants who have experienced the process being studied, and then methodically analyzed by the researcher. This theory is usually 'substantive' (a relatively narrow, limited theory about just one facet of learning or teaching) but can be 'formal' (a more extensive theory that combines a number of substantive theories together to make a broader theory). Like the other qualitative research approaches outlined above, the researcher is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis, and qualitative data collection techniques such as interviews and observation are used. Grounded theory was first outlined by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss in 1967 in their ground-breaking book, *The Discovery of Grounded Theory*, which was in fact crucial in the broader development of qualitative research methodology. Glaser and Strauss did not offer a prescribed set of research procedures in their original work, but these have gradually been developed over time, principally by Strauss and his new co-author, Juliet Corbin (1990, 2008). Glaser has criticized Strauss and Corbin's approach to grounded theory as being too prescribed and structured (Glaser, 1992), but their approach has come to be commonly used in the social sciences and health. In applied linguistics, grounded theory is rarely used by novice researchers due to its complexity, but research procedures like theoretical sampling and the constant comparative method of data analysis are often used by qualitative researchers employing approaches other than grounded theory.

Qualitative data collection methods

In most qualitative studies, researchers use a variety of research methods to collect data, in order to obtain as many perspectives as possible on the phenomenon being researched. In this book, six data collection methods most commonly used in qualitative research in applied linguistics are addressed in Part III:

- **Observation** occurs when researchers carefully watch participants in the research setting with the aim of understanding their experience of being there. It is used to collect information about participants' external behavior, which can be further explored casually in conversation or more formally in interviews, with questions about participants' inner ideas, beliefs, and values. Researchers can choose to be 'complete observers' and not take part in the learning or teaching phenomenon being studied, or they can choose to take part as 'participant observers'. Data is created in the form of field notes, which include explanations of what researchers observed as well as their reflections.

Interviews offer a way to explore people's experiences and worldviews and the meanings they bring to them, as Keith Richards illustrates in his chapter. Interviews can be carefully structured by predetermined questions to elicit specific information, or be more open to allow for generating richer insights. The greatest challenge in interviewing is getting the interaction with the participant right, by recognizing that interviews are jointly constructed encounters.

Open-response items on questionnaires are questions on a survey that do not require respondents to select their answers from a limited list or selection; rather, participants answer in their own words. They are commonly used when researchers would like to quickly and efficiently collect textual data from a relatively large number of participants.

Verbal reports are oral records of a participant's thought processes, provided by individuals when they are thinking aloud either during or immediately after completing a language learning or teaching task.

Diaries are another way of accessing participants' inner worlds; they are an account of a language experience as recorded in a first-person journal. These accounts may be analyzed and published by the diarists themselves or by an independent researcher. Both verbal reports and diaries are particularly important in applied linguistics.

Discourse analysis looks at how language is used in spoken and written communication. It uses authentic language that has been produced spontaneously in naturally occurring events, that were not elicited experimentally specifically for the sake of research. The researcher should analyze this data with few or no preconceived notions, but allow the patterns of language use to emerge.

These six data collection methods can be conceptualized by placing them along two intersecting continuums. The first of these continuums expresses the amount of control researchers have over the research setting as they collect their data. In most qualitative research, researchers do not control the research setting at all, as they are interested in authentic behavior in natural settings. However, researchers using verbal reports do control what participants do during the research process. By comparison, with research done outside qualitative research, most language analysis also involves researchers carefully controlling the research environment: researchers try to control the language that participants use when they complete a language task, and they also collect data in settings specified for the purposes of collecting data, like a researcher's office or a language laboratory, rather than in natural settings.

The second continuum indicates the degree to which the researcher structures the actual collection of data. Some qualitative data collection methods allow the researcher to structure data collection carefully, like structured interviews, or observations using observation checklists. Many qualitative data collection methods, however, are less structured, permitting researchers to be more adaptive and responsive to the research setting. In fact, most methods can be both. For example, with the collection of diary data, researchers may ask participants to respond in their diaries only about a specific topic, or they may ask respondents to write on any topic with no set format. The advantage of more structured data collection is that information from different participants or in different periods of time can be compared; the disadvantage is that fertile insights that the participants might have otherwise offered could be lost.

Probably your first questions after you have established your area of research interest are which approach and methods you should use in your study. The answers are straightforward: the ones that best suit your research purpose and research questions. That is, there must be congruence between your research purpose and research questions on the one hand, and the research approach and data collection method that you use on the other.

Qualitative researchers often work closely with participants for extended periods of time, and in trying to understand their participants' worlds they inevitably become part of them. In entering the worlds of others, researchers must recognize the significant ethical responsibilities that they have to the people there - to honor them as individuals, respect their decisions to participate (or not) in a study, and also protect them from any damage or harm that may stem from their participation. In a study on ethics and trustworthiness, Sharon Rallis and Gretchen Rossman emphasize that being an ethical researcher demands vigilance and thoughtfulness throughout the entire research

cycle. Researchers make many decisions, both when planning their research and also on the spot, which affect the participants and other people in the research setting. These decisions must be thought through ethically, based upon codes of ethics and also moral principles.

Another practical - and challenging - aspect of qualitative research is the process of recording and writing up your study. Much of the data that qualitative researchers create is textual - written field notes and interview summaries, and transcripts of interviews. In addition, the qualitative research report itself should bring the realities of the participants' worlds to the printed page. Clearly, working well with text is an important skill for qualitative researchers to develop.

Case Study Guidelines

Among other things, this course aims at understanding linguistic phenomena in real life situations; thus, deep, holistic analysis of these phenomena is necessary to accomplish satisfactory case study research.

For diagnosing and analyzing specific linguistic problems and submitting reports on case study research, it is important for the students to stick or go further the following guidelines.

Context

In case studying, students must provide sufficient information about the case context, including relevant biographical and social information (depending on the focus), such as ESL/EFL learning/teaching history, background of L1, years of studying (in the case of EFL) and years of residence in a new country (ESL), data collection site(s), or other relevant descriptive information pertaining to the case and situation.

Sampling

Students must explain sampling procedures and case selection, and the defining characteristics, how typical or atypical the case is. It is also important to point out whether the case in question is a deviant or extreme case, a critical case, a convenience case, a politically significant case, or any other. Careful sampling is crucial in the development of the case.

If multiple cases are used, students must provide a detailed description of each and then provide a cross-case comparison.

Data

Draw data either from one primary source (e.g., oral interviews, journals, or essays) or from multiple sources. Bringing together (triangulating) multiple perspectives, methods, and sources of information (e.g., from interviews, observations, field notes, self-reports or think-aloud protocols, tests, transcripts, and other documents) adds texture, depth, and multiple insights to an analysis and can enhance the validity or credibility of the results. Observations and data collection settings may range from natural to artificial, with relatively unstructured to highly structured elicitation tasks

and category systems, depending on the purpose of the study and the disciplinary traditions associated with it.

Analysis

Case study data analysis generally involves an iterative, spiraling, or cyclical process that proceeds from more general to more specific observations (Creswell, 1998; Palys, 1997; Silverman, 2000). Data analysis may begin informally during interviews or observations and continue during transcription, when recurring themes, patterns, and categories become evident. Once written records are available, analysis involves the coding of data and the identification of salient points or structures.

Interpretation

Establishing the significance of the student's findings is crucial; the discussion should ideally link these themes explicitly to larger theoretical and practical issues. However, generalization to populations is not appropriate or desirable in most case studies. Be cautious about drawing unwarranted inferences because of the small sample size, particularly if the case is not typical of others in the same set.

Data may be analyzed and interpreted through a variety of ideological points of view, although descriptive/interpretive approaches are the most common in TEFL/TESOL. Provide sufficient evidence for your claims or interpretations to make them clear, credible, and convincing to others.

The Case Study Report

Reports of case studies must include the following elements:

- ❖ a statement of the study's purpose and the theoretical context,
- ❖ the problem or issue being addressed,
- ❖ central research questions,
- ❖ a detailed description of the case and explanation of decisions related to sampling and selection,
- ❖ context of the study and case history,
- ❖ issues of access to the site/participants and the relationship between the student and the case,
- ❖ duration of the study,
- ❖ evidence that you obtained informed consent, that the participants' identities and privacy are protected, and, ideally, that participants benefited in some way from taking part in the study,
- ❖ methods of data collection and analysis, either manual or computer-based data management and analysis, or other equipment and procedures used,
- ❖ findings, which may take the form of major emergent themes, developmental stages, or an in-depth discussion of each case in relation to the research questions; and illustrative quotations or excerpts and sufficient amounts of other data to establish the validity and credibility of the analysis and interpretations,
- ❖ a discussion of factors that might have influenced the interpretation of data in undesired, unanticipated, or conflicting ways, and

-
- ❖ an explanation of the connection between the case study and larger theoretical and practical issues in the field.

VI. Answer key to all in chapter and supplementary exercises

Chapter 2

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, pp. 11-12

1. quality
2. a. quantity
b. Jones didn't do well.
3. †
4. a. relation
quantity
5. a. manner
b. That she doesn't want her children to know who she's talking about.
6. a. relation; yes, Ray wants dessert
b. quantity; no, Susan doesn't think John is wonderful.
c. quantity; Mary does not want John to know who the man was.
d. manner; the customer assumes the clerk will not know how to spell her name (note that *Kathryn* and *Riley* each have several possible spellings).
7. This raises the implicature that the customer believes the clerk does not have a very good command of basic English spelling (*Frank* and *Parker* each have only one possible spelling). Thus, it could be interpreted as an insult here, but not in (6d).

Exercise B, p. 14

1. a. expressive
b. directive
c. †
d. declaration
e. question
f. commissive
g. commissive
h. directive
i. †
j. commissive
2. "I'm sorry" can be either an apology or an expression of sympathy.

Exercise C, p. 16

1. d
2. †
3. a. an apology must be for an act that has harmed the listener; an apology must also be for a past act. b. protest (another type of expressive).
4. One felicity condition for an ordinary question is that *S doesn't know P*. For an exam question, it is that *S knows P*.
5. One of the felicity conditions on directives is that *S believes H able to do A*. In this case, the preacher would have to believe that the squirrel is able to repent. However, "repenting" requires a higher spiritual consciousness than most of us attribute to squirrels.
6. One of the felicity conditions on directives is that *S believes H able to do A*. Humans cannot control their height, although they can control their posture.

Exercise D, p. 18

1. a. past tense rather than present tense
b. lacks a first-person subject (implied subject=You)
c. †
d. lacks a first-person subject
e. lacks a first-person subject (implied subject=You)
2. a. directive
b. yes; We forbid minors to enter.
3. a. directive
b. yes; We request passengers to proceed to gate 10.

Exercise E, p. 20

1. a. (i) declarative, (ii) directive, (iii) indirectly
b. (i) imperative, (ii) offer
c. †
d. (i) yes-no interrogative, (ii) directive, (iii) indirectly
e. (i) declarative, (ii) directive, (iii) indirectly
f. (i) declarative, (ii) directive, (iii) indirectly
g. (i) wh-interrogative, (ii) directive, (iii) indirectly

Exercise F, p. 23

1. a. implied
b. expressed
c. †
2. a. explicit (*We remind*)
b. implied

Exercise G, p. 24

- e
1. a. (i) expressed, (ii) nonliteral
b. (i) expressed, (ii) literal
c. (i) implied, (ii) literal
 2. a. †
b. †
c. (i) implied, (ii) literal
d. literal

. Ollie intended his speech act as nonliteral, but Laurel misinterpreted it as literal—resulting in their capture.

Exercise H, pp. 25-26

1. a. † b.
†
c. (i) nonexplicit, (ii) indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) literal (i)
d. nonexplicit, (ii) indirect, (iii) expressed, (iv) literal (i)
e. nonexplicit, (ii) indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) literal (i)
f. nonexplicit, (ii) indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) literal (i)
nonexplicit, (ii) indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) literal (i) nonexplicit,
(ii) indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) nonliteral (i) nonexplicit, (ii)
indirect, (iii) implied, (iv) literal j. (i) nonexplicit, (ii) direct,
(iii) expressed, (iv) literal k. (i) explicit, (ii) not applicable, (iii)

11. *When* presupposes "I may come in for an interview."
12. Presupposition; the definite pronoun *the* presupposes the existence of a broken headlight, thereby perhaps leading respondents to think that they should have seen one, even if they didn't.
13. Presupposition; note that either a *yes* or *no* response carries the same presupposition ('At one time I beat my wife'). This phenomenon is related to the fact that a sentence and its denial have the same set of presuppositions.
14. Lexical ambiguity; *work* can have the sense of either 'be employed' or 'expend energy.' The first sentence relies on the listener assigning the meaning 'be employed.' The punch line adds the meaning 'expend energy.' This might also be analyzed as a contradictory sentence, since the humor relies on seeing that someone can simultaneously work and not work.
15. *Mom* is traditionally a personal term of endearment, used toward someone for whom the speaker feels affection, so it has a positive, somewhat sentimental connotation. However, the behavior of the mother referred to in this news story clearly violates this stereotype.
16. Mary is treating a binary term (*none of your business*) as gradable (by using *extremely*).
 17. *Dead/alive* are binary antonyms and thus cover every possibility on this continuum; no "expert opinion" is required to state this obvious fact. Compare a sentence containing gradable antonyms: *Al Qaeda Leader is Brilliant or Stupid*.
18. *Next* presupposes a previous item in a series, but in this case there has not yet been one.

Chapter 4: Syntax

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, p. 55

1. †
2. An NP can contain no more than one determiner; *some* and *those* must both be analyzed as determiners.
3. Categories: only words in the verb category can be made past tense; only words in the adjective category can be made superlative; only words in the noun category can be made plural.
4. a. Unlike adjectives, possessive pronouns cannot be made comparative or superlative (**myer, *myest*) (although compare *That's more my book than yours*), b. Unlike an adjective, a possessive pronoun cannot co-occur with a determiner (**Hand me the my book*.)

Exercise B, p. 57

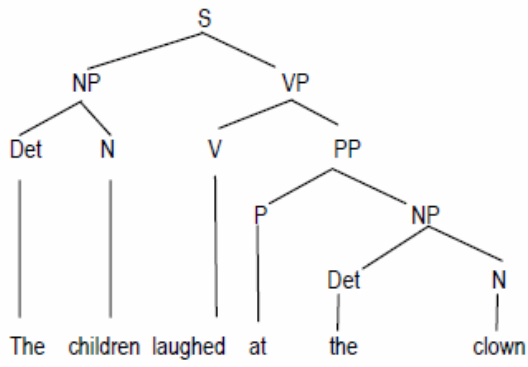
1. a. S d. PP g. VP j. S
 b. † e. PP h. VP k. VP
 c. NP f. VP i. VP l. VP

All of these items can be generated by the PS rules on p. 56.

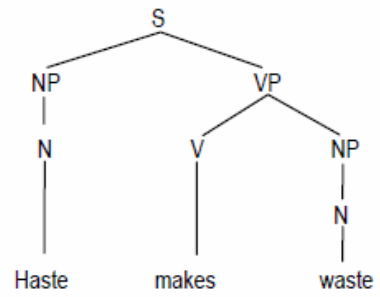
Exercise C, p. 58

1. a. V_1 and PP_2 are sisters.
 b. PP_2 directly dominates $Prep_2-NP_3$.
 c. VP_1 dominates all of the nodes beneath it; it directly dominates V_1 and PP_2 .
 d. No, except that they are both dominated by S. They are not sisters because they are not directly dominated by the same node.

2. a. The children laughed at the clown.



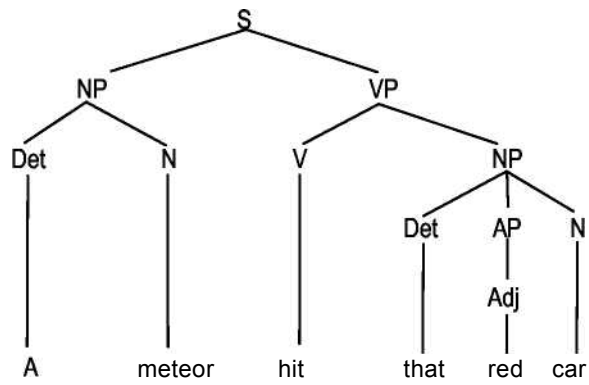
b. Haste makes waste.



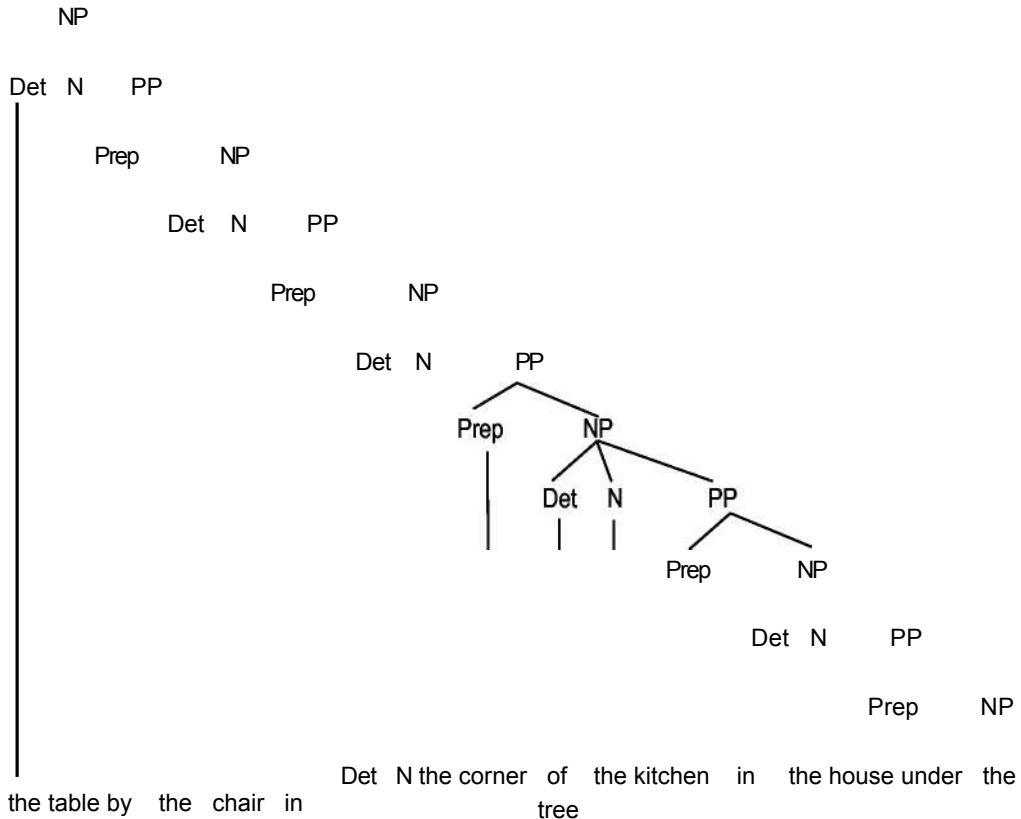
c. A very small package arrived.

S

d. A meteor hit that red car.

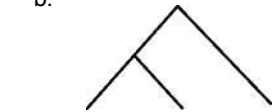


Exercise D, p. 59

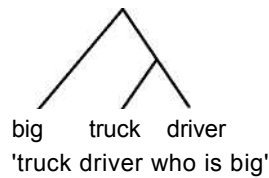
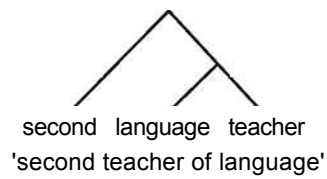
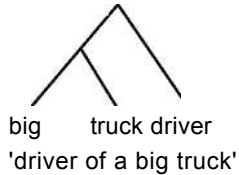
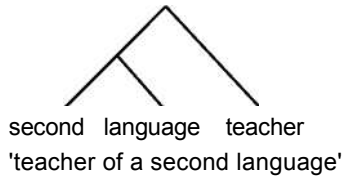


Exercise E, p. 61

1. a. †
- b.



students'



2. a. not structurally ambiguous (*bank* is lexically ambiguous)
- b. 'Dr. Smith is a professor of European history.'
- 'Dr. Smith is a history professor who is European.'
- c. not structurally ambiguous (*plant* is lexically ambiguous)
- d. 'Jane hid the letter that Dan wrote.'
- 'Jane hid the letter so that Dan couldn't find it.'
- e. 'Muffy saw some old men and old women.'
- 'Muffy saw some women and old men.'
- f. neither structurally nor lexically ambiguous
- g. 'It can be a nuisance to visit relatives.'
- 'Relatives who are visiting can be a nuisance.'

Exercise F, pp. 62-65

1. Passive versions differ in their grammaticality if the PP is moved to subject position:
 - A₁: * The note on the door was put by Ralph.
 - B₁: The key to the door was found by Ralph.
 - A₂: The note was put on the door by Ralph.
 - B₂: * The key was found to the door by Ralph.

The PP *on the door* must remain part of the VP in order to yield a grammatical passive; it behaves like *at home* in the examples on pp. 62-63 of the textbook. The PP *to the door* must remain with the NP *the key* in order to yield a grammatical passive; it behaves like *of the accident* in the textbook examples.
2. c; it does not demonstrate any difference in behavior between the two sentences.
3. d. Only VP can be omitted. (In A, N is omitted; in B, NP; in D, Aux-V; in E, Aux; and in F, V.)
4. a. Only items belonging to identical categories can be conjoined by *and*. (In B, NP and PP are conjoined; in F, an adverb and an NP are conjoined.)
5. b. The word *so* substitutes for the material dominated by VP. (In B, *so* substitutes for the Aux-VP sequence *should get a haircut*; in C, it substitutes for the V *gets*.)

Exercise G, p. 65-66

1. *kill* requires a [+living] object.
2. †
3. d. must be followed by NP, can be followed by PP.
4. c. must be followed by a [+animate] NP.
5. The antecedent for *who* must be [+human]; the antecedent for *which* must be [-human].

Exercise H, p. 69

1. c. 'the professors of English from France.' X-bar syntax states that complements occur closer to the head than adjuncts, regardless of whether they precede or follow the head. Thus, in the phrase *The French English professors*, *French* is an adjunct and corresponds to 'from France,' and *English* is a complement and corresponds to 'of English.'

Exercise I, p. 73

1. A. neither rule
B. I-Movement
C. wh-Movement
D. I-Movement and wh-Movement
2. To form a negative or emphatic sentence, place *not* or *so/too*, respectively, immediately to the right of the tensed verb.

Exercise J, pp. 74

Reflexive pronouns (e.g., *himself*) require an antecedent within the same clause as the pronoun. The presence of *himself* in the dependent clause is evidence that the antecedent (*Franklin*) originated within the same clause.

Exercise K, pp. 75-76

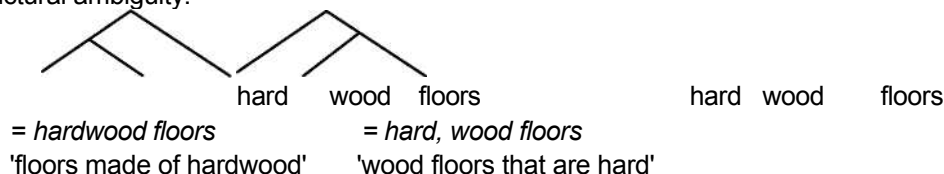
1. †
2. Test A shows that *down the street* is a PP, but *away the magazine* isn't.
A₁. Down the street John walked.
B₁. *Away the magazine John threw.
Test B shows that *threw away* is a two-word verb, but *walked down* isn't.
A₂. John threw the magazine away.
B₂. *John walked the street down.
d. both (a) and (b)
- 3.

Exercise L, pp. 78

1. a. †
b. Tensed S
c. Unit Movement
d. Subjacency
e. Coordinate Structure
f. Subjacency
g. Subjacency

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 79-84

1. Structural ambiguity:



- NP, as in sentence A. (In B, *he* substitutes for the N *man*. In C, *he* substitutes for the Det-N sequence *the man*. In D, *he* substitutes for the N-PP sequence *man from the CIA*. In E, *he* substitutes for the PP *from the CIA*.) S
3. *whacked* requires a [+human] object. Structural (syntactic)
 - 4 ambiguity
 5. See Exercise F.1 for the passive test. A₁. *The car in the garage was put by Ralph. B₁. The
 6. answer to the question was provided by Ralph. A₂. The car was put in the garage by Ralph. B₂. *The answer was provided to the question by Ralph.
 7. *Not* can occur after the first (or first auxiliary) verb in a sentence.

8. a. either to sentence-initial position or to the left of the subject NP
 b. the left of the subject NP
 c. the first (and only the first) auxiliary verb
 d. A. Did Ralph park the car next to a fire hydrant?
 B. Should I have sent this letter by certified mail?
 C. Would Toby like to ride on the merry-go-round?
 D. Does Wonder Bread build strong bodies?
 E. Did the dentist remove two of her wisdom teeth?
 F. Can you use your credit card at this store?
 Declarative structures that add a form of *do* in the *yes-no* question all have only a main verb (i.e., no auxiliary verb).
9. a. B.1-B.3 contain auxiliary *be*; A.1-A.3 contain main verb *be*; D.1-D.3 contain auxiliary *have*; C.1-C.3 contain main verb *have*.
 b. A.1-A.3
 c. more like those containing auxiliary verbs (since *do* isn't added).
 d. more like those containing main verbs (since *do* is added).
10. A. The resident manager
 B. Wally and Beaver
 C. Kim and Kevin
 D. Some of the people at the garage sale
 E. There
 F. It
 G. It
11. a. Auxiliary *do* never appears in a *yes-no* question that contains another auxiliary verb,
 b. Auxiliary *do* must appear in a *yes-no* question that does not contain another auxiliary verb.
12. a. The verb in the tag will be the same as the first auxiliary verb in the main clause,
 b. The pronoun in the tag will agree with the subject NP in gender, person, number, and case.
13. A. isn't it?
 B. didn't it?
 C. didn't he?
 D. won't it?
 a. *do* (B, C, E, H)
 b. *yes-no* questions
 c. If a rule mentions "first auxiliary verb" and there is none, then a form of *do* is added.
 E. didn't she?
 F. haven't they?
 G. could they?
 H. didn't they?
14. a. A.1-A.2 contain main verb *be*; B.1-B.2 contain auxiliary *be*; D.1-D.2 contain main verb *have*; C.1-C.2 contain auxiliary verb *have*.
 b. no
 c. yes
 d. yes
 e. yes
15. Tensed S
16. a. Tensed S
 b. wh-Movement

telephone, telegraph, telepathy, television, etc.

- c. {bio-} means 'life' and {tele-} means 'far off'; the latter, however, is shifting to mean 'telephone' as in *telemarketer* and *telecommuter*.

Exercise F, p. 93

1. †
2. b. The verb following a form of auxiliary *have* should be inflected for {PAST PART}.
3. The verb following a form of auxiliary *be* should be inflected for {PRES PART}.
4. Since there is a third-person singular subject, we would expect the -s ending on the verb (*gives*) if it were present tense.
5. a. *might* = past tense modal (first verb form)
have = uninflected (follows a modal)
gone = past participle main verb (follows auxiliary *have*, rightmost verb)
- b. *has* = present tense auxiliary *have* (first verb form)
done = past participle main verb (follows auxiliary *have*, rightmost verb)
- c. *have* = present tense auxiliary *have* (first verb form)
been = past participle main verb (follows auxiliary *have*, rightmost verb)
- d. *Did* = past tense auxiliary *do* (first verb form)
walk = uninflected main verb (follows auxiliary *do*, rightmost verb)

Exercise G, p. 94

1. a. † b. present tense, future time reference c. past tense, present time reference

Exercise H, pp. 98-99

1. a. {PLU} (an inflectional morpheme) must attach to the right of {ful} (a derivational morpheme).
- b. †
- c. A verb cannot have two inflectional morphemes at the same time.
- d. {PLU} (an inflectional morpheme) must attach to the right of {AG} (a derivational morpheme).
- e. {PLU} attaches to N, not to NP.
- f. {PLU} attaches to N, not to NP.
- g. {POSS} attaches to NP, not to N.
2. a. They appear to be bound inflectional prefixes.
- b. {omu} = {singular} {aba} = {PLU}
- c. *omulongo*
3. a. They appear to be bound derivational prefixes.
- b. {num}
- c. changes an adjective to an abstract noun
- d. {gula}

Exercise I, p. 100

1. a. †
- b. blend
- c. acronym
- d. clipped form
- e. †
- f. back formation
- g. folk etymology
- h. blend
- i. abbreviation

2. a. acronym
b. clipped/back form
c. root creation
- d. proper name, derivation
e. clipped form
f. clipped form
3. folk etymology

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 101-103

1. {tí} = 'parent's sibling'
{muchacha} = 'young human'
{abuela} = 'parent's parent'
{nieta} = 'child's child'
{hermana} = 'sibling'
{-a} = 'female'
{-o} = 'male'
2. a. blend
b. {choc} + {oholic}
c. *workoholic* and *foodoholic* because the first member of the blend is a free morpheme, thus defining the left-most boundary of the second member of the blend.
3. *abrupt*, *interrupt*, *disrupt*, *corrupt*, etc.
4. a. possessive
b. In Standard English, the third person reflexive is formed from the objective form (*himself/themselves*) and is thus exceptional. The nonstandard third person form has been regularized to the possessive form (*hissel/theirselves*), just like the first and second person.
5. *Package* can take a plural suffix (*packages*), which is inflectional. Since a word can have only one inflectional morpheme in English, {-age} must be derivational.
6. a. the first form to the right of the subject
b. the last form following all other verbs
c. before the main verb
d. The modal is the first verb form.
e. right before the main verb
f. following the modal (if there is one) and preceding auxiliary be (if there is one)
g. The verb form following a modal is uninflected; that following aux be is a present participle; that following aux *have* is a past participle.
7. [the [kids]_N down the street's]_{NP} bikes
8. d. Only nouns can be inflected for {PLU}, and *ne'er* (i.e., *never*) is not a noun.
9. a. acronym
b. blend
c. back formation: the s on *AIDS* is mistakenly treated as {PLU}.
d. folk etymology: the unfamiliar *cotter* is interpreted as the more familiar *Carter*.
e. back formation
f. clipped form
g. proper name
10. *ROTC* pronounced as "R-O-T-C" is an abbreviation; pronounced as "rot-see," it is an acronym.
11. possibly a blend of *brawl* and *tangle*
12. a. blend
b. One member of this blend is inserted into the middle of the other member. Typically, the beginning of one member is attached to the ending of another member.

-
13. a. derivational suffix
b. {-ii}
c. changes an adjective or noun into the corresponding abstract noun
d. {-ness} as in *happy/happiness*
e. 'truth'
f. The two words for 'wise' seem to differ in whether the state of being wise is innate or learned.

Chapter 6: Phonology

Exercise A, p. 110

1. a. †
 - b. †
 - c. mid, front, spread, lax
 - d. mid, back, spread, lax
 - e. low, back, spread, lax
 - f. low, back, round, tense
 - g. high, back, round, lax
 - h. high, front, spread, tense
2. e. putt

3. c. /ʊ/

4. h, c, e, a, g, f, a, b

Exercise B, pp. 115-116

1. a. /æ/

b. †

c. /ð/

d. /ʊ/

e. /y/

2. a. †

b. /f, θ, s, ʃ, h/

c. /b, m, w/

d. /w, y/

e. /u, ʊ, o, ɔ/

3. a. /n/ is a nasal; the others are fricatives.

b. /g/ is a stop; the others are fricatives.

c. /d/ is a stop; the others are liquids.

4. a. /č/ is palatal; the others are alveolar.

b. /n/ is alveolar; the others are nasal.

c. /θ/ is interdental; the others are bilabial.

5. a. /s/ is voiceless; the others are voiced.

b. /n/ is voiced; the others are voiceless.

c. /p/ is voiceless; the others are voiced.

6. a. voiced interdental fricative

b. voiceless glottal fricative

c. voiced alveolar liquid

d. voiceless labiodental fricative

e. voiced alveolar stop

f. voiced palatal fricative

7. d. type

8. b. rich

9. b. these
 10. e, c, a, f, b, d

11. a. /θrʌʃ/
 b. /brið/
 c. /ðe/
 d. /faks/
 e. /čuz/
 f. /flaɪz/

Exercise C, p. 118

1. /g/ becomes /j/ when it is followed by a front vowel. (Note: /g/, a velar segment, becomes "fronted" to a palatal segment when it is followed by a front vowel.)
 2. Velar stops become palatal stops when they occur before front vowels.

Exercise D, pp. 120-121

1. d. V^[V:] / __ #
 2. †
 3. c. A vowel becomes nasalized when it occurs before a nasal consonant.
 4. †
 5. C → Ø / __ C
 [+nas] $\left(\begin{array}{l} +\text{stop} \\ -\text{vce} \end{array} \right)$

Exercise E, p. 122

1. a. /g/ becomes /j-/ when it is followed by a front vowel,
 b. C → [+palatal] / __ V
 $\left(\begin{array}{l} +\text{stop} \\ +\text{vce} \\ +\text{velar} \end{array} \right)$ [+front]

Exercise F, p. 123

1. a. /θ/ becomes /ð/ between vowels.
 b. Assimilation
 c. Yes; /θ/, which is [-voice], becomes [+voice], which makes it more like the surrounding vowel segments, which are also voiced.

Exercise G, p. 126

1. Nasal Assimilation: assimilation of the nasal to the place of the following consonant;
 Consonant Cluster Reduction: a stop following another consonant is deleted. CCR must apply first, since this puts the nasal next to the consonant to which it assimilates.
 2. Vowel Lengthening must occur before Flapping. Otherwise, both phonetic forms would have a lengthened vowel, as shown in the following correct and incorrect derivations:

Correct order:		Incorrect order:	
	<i>ladder</i>	<i>ladder</i>	<i>latter</i>
UR:	/lǽɪdər/	/lǽɪdər/	/lǽɪtər/
VL:	lǽ:ɪdər	cannot apply	lǽ:ɪtər
FL:	lǽ:ɪrər	lǽ:ɪrər	lǽ:ɪrər
SR:	[lǽ:ɪrər]	[lǽ:ɪrər]	*[lǽ:ɪrər]

- d. assimilation
12. A stop following/s/within the same syllable must be voiceless.
13. a. Prefix a nasal segment to the stem.
 b. The nasal prefix assimilates to the place of articulation of the initial segment of the stem. Note that it is not possible from this data to tell what the most basic form of the nasal prefix is, since there is no data where the prefix appears before a stem starting with a vowel. Thus we might choose to represent the underlying form of the nasal with a more abstract symbol:
 M → [+labial]/ ___ [+labial]
 [+alveolar] / ___ [+alveolar]
 [+velar] / ___ [+velar]
- c. [w] is apparently [+velar], because the prefix takes the form of a velar.
14. a. *fault, land, eats, old, needs, pint, east, eased*
 b. Members of obstruent clusters must have the same value for [voice]. (Note that this does not hold true for clusters in which only one member is an obstruent—e.g., /lt/ and /nt/.)
15. a. $\begin{pmatrix} +\text{back} \\ +\text{round} \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} -\text{back} \\ -\text{round} \end{pmatrix}$
- b. /i/ is [-back, -round], so /o/ changed to /e/ to become more like /i/ (that is, /o/ assimilated to /i/).
16. *fireman*. The final syllable has reduced to schwa; in *mailman*, the final syllable still has secondary stress.

Chapter 7: Language Variation

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, p. 136

- c.
- This would probably best be described as a shared idiolect. The term *dialect* is generally reserved to denote a variety shared by a much larger group of speakers.

Exercise B, p. 139

- Southwest: Spanish influence, reflected in words like *adobe, hacienda, rodeo*. Louisiana: French influence, reflected in words like *Baton Rouge, bateau, creole, Mardi Gras*
 New York City: Yiddish influence, reflected in words like *bagel, schlep, schmaltz*
- †
- False: Figure 7.4 can only accurately be said to reflect a dialect boundary because it illustrates the boundary of a *bundle* of isoglosses, not just one.
- The east coast was settled earliest, by settlers from distinct areas of Europe; the west coast was settled later, by settlers from the east criss-crossing each other's paths. The irregular paths to the west were caused by natural impediments such as the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains.

Exercise C, pp. 142-143

- bluenose*: (a) 'a native of Eastern Canada' (derogatory); (b) New England
choppies: (a) 'small, low, usually barren hills that appear as if roughly chopped up';
 (b) Nebraska
choupique: (a) 'bowfin' (type of fish); (b) Louisiana
- b, h, t, s, f, k, w, j, e, n, u, v, d, i, a, l, c, m, p, r, g, q, o

Exercise D, pp. 146-147

1. In the Northern forms, [s] (a voiceless consonant) appears between vowels; in the Southern forms, however, [z] (a voiced consonant) appears. The occurrence of [z] for [s] in the Southern forms may arise from the fact that the surrounding segments are vowels, which are also voiced (i.e., the consonant assimilates in voicing).
2. †
3. a. [him] e. [strɪŋk]
b. [pin] (no change) f. [tin] (no change)
c. [pænt] (no change) g. [nɛt] (no change)
d. [pɪn] h. [nit] (no change)
4. a. [æneræskt] c. no change
b. no change d. no change
5. The first vowel in the environment must be specified as [+lax] (or [ə]).

Exercise E, p. 149

1. A creole is the native language of some group of speakers, whereas a pidgin is not.
2. a. The word *bilong* (from *belong*) is used to form a descriptive term that narrows down the meaning of the noun that it follows.
b. In English, *grass* refers to a specific type of plant. In Tok Pisin, *grass* has the more general meaning of 'any grass-like growth.' (You might ask students to speculate on the semantic features shared by *grass*, *beard*, *hair*, *feather*, *eyebrow*, and *weed*.)

Exercise F, pp. 151

1. [t], the voiceless stop closest in place to [S] (a voiceless fricative)
2. It resembles stopping in that it substitutes another segment, with the same voicing value, for the relatively rare interdental fricative. However, this time the replacement segment is also a fricative (not a stop).

Exercise G, pp. 152-153

1. a. †
b. F([t^hɪŋkt])
c. F (see question 2)
d. T
2. a. *most people, iced tea*
b. They contain a consonant-stop followed by a word beginning with a consonant (i.e., C C C).
[+stop]
c. Delete a stop consonant when it occurs between two consonants. (Note: The rule may mention a word boundary but does not have to.)
d. C → Ø / C _ C
[+stop]
3. Voicing cannot be mixed within the cluster; i.e., both members of the cluster must be [+voice] or [-voice] for Consonant Cluster Reduction to apply.
4. d. [hæθ] for *half/hæf/* does not occur in any dialect.
5. stopping
6. a. final devoicing
b. metathesis (note that the nasal becomes /n/ since it is no longer adjacent to /k/).
c. *test* becomes /tɛs/ via Consonant Cluster Reduction. Since the root now ends in /s/, the plural is formed (according to rule) by adding /əz/.

Exercise H, pp. 155-156

1. The nonstandard system is more regular in that it uses one contracted negative verb form (*ain't*) for all persons and numbers, whereas the standard system uses two (*aren't* and *isn't*) that vary according to person and number.
2. The a- prefix can attach only to a form ending with /n/ (cf. B and G). The a- prefix cannot attach to a gerund (e.g., H).
The a- prefix cannot attach to a prenominal adjective (e.g., I). The a- prefix cannot precede an unstressed syllable (e.g., E). The a- prefix cannot precede a vowel (e.g., F).
3. †
4. †

Exercise I, pp. 160-161

1. After other verbs in English (e.g., *hit*, *call*, and *like*), the objective case of a pronoun is used; the nominative case results in an ungrammatical sentence. Speakers who use the objective case pronoun after a form of main verb be are following the general pattern associated with all other verbs. They are essentially regularizing an exception.
2. *is*, because it can be contracted; *are* cannot.
3. †
4. b. To make English conform to classical languages such as Latin.
5. a. F (other main verbs require a form of *do*)
b. T
c. T
d. F (have requires a form of *do*)
6. In Modern English, I-Movement moves only a tensed *auxiliary* verb; in Early Modern English (which forms the basis for the legal language used by the judge), I-Movement moves *any* tensed verb.
7. Prescriptive grammarians (purists) in French would argue *for* the double negative construction—exactly the opposite argument as that put forth by Lowth.

Exercise J, pp. 164-165

1. The use of specialized terms for different shades of the same color is, at least stereotypically, more comprehensible to women than to men. (This particular catalog does, in fact, carry far more items of apparel for women than for men.)
2. The use of the intensifier *so* and "empty" adjective *cute* are, at least stereotypically, associated more with women.
3. †
4. a. Men use more nonstandard forms than women do.
b. The use of nonstandard forms increases among members of relatively lower socioeconomic classes.
5. a. boy (direct order)
b. boy (direct order)
c. girl (hedge, inclusive language)
d. girl (inclusive language)
e. boy (direct order)
f. girl (inclusive language)
g. boy (direct order)
h. boy (direct order)
i. girl (inclusive language)

6. Many of the words used to describe Ferraro are typically used more to describe women than men: *claw* (which evokes the image of long fingernails, or perhaps a feline); *tart*, *needling*, and *twitting* (which evoke sharpness rather than force or strength); and *spunky* and *feisty* (which typically describe small or child-like people, rather than people of great size or strength). (Recall one of Lou Grant's first lines to Mary Richards on *The Mary Tyler Moore Show*: "You've got spunk, Mary. [Pause while Mary smiles at what she takes as a compliment.] I *hate* spunk.")

Exercise K, p. 168

1. a. Sentence (C).
b. Substitute *whom* for *who*, regardless of its function.
c. *Whom* can substitute for *who* only when it is the object of a verb or preposition. Note, incidentally, that the only environment in which *who* cannot occur in standard English is when it immediately follows a preposition: **To who did you speak?* (cf. *Who did you speak to?*)
2. †
3. *Who's he takin' psych from?*

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 170-172

1. a. F (Northern)
b. T
c. F (girls tend to use more indirect forms)
d. F (mutually intelligible)
2. a. Stress the rightmost vowel unless it is /ə/; if the rightmost vowel is /ə/, stress the preceding vowel.
b. Stress the initial vowel.
c. The one for Dialect B.
d. Dialect B (at least outside the South).
3. a. Two contracted forms are readily apparent for phrases (B-E)—*We're not*, *We aren't*, and so on. Phrase (A), though, has only one contracted form in standard English, *I'm not*, and so violates the overall pattern for contracting phrases of this type.
b. On analogy with phrases (B-E), the "missing" form for (A) would be *amn't* ([æmnt]).
c. Deleting one of the nasals in [æmnt] and raising the vowel from [æ] to [e] would yield [ént] = *ain't*.
4. a. phonology
b. C → Ø / C _ C
5. a. Lax vowels in General American become the corresponding tense vowels in South Midland, when followed by a palatal consonant,
b. V -*[+tense]/_ C
[-tense] [+pal]
6. {an} + {other} is reanalyzed as {a} + {nother}, since both {a} and {an} are determiners.
7. Voicing Assimilation (/k/ → [g]) between vowels and post-vocalic liquid deletion (/l/ → Ø).
8. a. [f] may be substituted for /θ/.
b. [l] may be deleted.
c. [d] may be substituted for /ð/.
d. /e/ may be pronounced [i] before a nasal (at least in the South).
e. Final /t/ may be deleted via Consonant Cluster Reduction.
9. [t] is substituted for [k] (they are perceptually similar in syllable-final position); then [t] is voiced to [d] via assimilation to the surrounding voiced segments.
10. a. [maʊntɪn] and [bʌtɪn]
b. Alternation between [ɪn] and [ɪrɪ] applies only to {PRES PART}.
c. Structural hypercorrection.
11. a. F (compare columns P and C)

- b. F (compare columns R and C)
 - c. T
 - d. F (compare columns P and R)
12. a. two childrens
 b. Bob's Johnson's car
 c. I wants a cookie.
13. *Do for you* is a one-word verb plus a prepositional phrase. If *do for you* is reanalyzed as a two-word verb plus a direct object, then *for* can be moved to the right of the direct object, as in *do you for*.

Chapter 8: First-Language Acquisition

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, p. 178

1. *Infant*, from Latin meaning 'unable to speak,' accurately describes a 1-month-old. It is inaccurate in that *-fant* is cognate with Greek *phone*; which, with the negative prefix, would mean 'without sound.' Also, if 'unable to speak' is interpreted to mean 'without language,' one could argue that this interpretation is inconsistent with Chomskyan views about linguistic innateness.
2. Babbling exhibits (at least some of) the phonological properties of the language to which the child has been exposed. What language(s) did the adults speak? Did they speak any of the test languages? Some of them? All of them?

Exercise B, pp. 179-180

1. The mother might be inadvertently cuing the child (known as the "Clever Hans" effect, after a 19th-century performing horse who supposedly could spell and do math). Blindfolding the mother would be one way of inhibiting her influence over the child.
2. Brenda's utterances do not justify Moskowitz's overly rich interpretation. She is attributing more to the child than the evidence will support.

Exercise C, pp. 183-184

- 1 a. /a/ b. /p/ c. t d. CV
- 2 [t^hik]. The child is likely to simplify the initial /st/ cluster by deleting the fricative /s/. This leaves /t/ at the beginning of an unstressed syllable; therefore, /t/ would undergo the Aspiration rule and become [t^h].
- 3 a. *dough* /do/
 b. *kick* /kɪk/
- 4 a. /s/ -> Ø / C
- 5 a. [mɒk]
- 6 e. (a) and (b) only
- 7 a. t
 b. stopping
 c. consonant cluster simplification and final consonant reduction (and subsequent tensing of the vowel)
 d. stopping and gliding
 e. blending
 f. t
 g. gliding
 h. consonant cluster simplification and voicing ([k] is unaspirated and perceived as voiced)

- i. vowel epenthesis
- e- fronting (also, in this case, de-palatalization)
- k. fronting
- l. consonant cluster simplification and voicing
- m. consonant cluster simplification and voicing
- n. fronting and stopping
- o. final devoicing

Exercise D, p. 188

1. Stage III
2. †
3. Regular verbs (such as patted) are acquired before irregular verbs (such as held).
4. folk etymology (substitution of a familiar morpheme for an unfamiliar one)

Exercise E, p. 189

1. Reduplications count as one morpheme; only overt inflectional affixes count as separate morphemes. In child language, derivational affixes don't count as morphemes; irregular inflections (e.g., *went*) don't count because there's no evidence the child treats these as morphologically complex.

Exercise F, p. 191

1.
 - a. majority are nouns
 - b. Japanese
 - c. Final position. Nouns outnumber verbs by 2 or 3 to 1 in French, English, and Swedish (in this data), but nouns and verbs occur with the same frequency in Japanese. The fact that nouns occur in final position in the former languages and verbs appear in final position in Japanese suggests that sentence-final position is most salient for children.

Exercise G, p. 193

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a. {PLU} b. † c. <i>not</i> | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. I-Movement 3. B,A,C |
|---|---|

Exercise H, pp. 198-199

1.
 - a. B
 - b. Minimum Distance Principle
2. †
3.
 - a. †
 - b. size (i.e., smallness)
 - c. shape (i.e., parallel lines)
4. [+ 4-wheeled]
5. A, because active sentence (in which the agent is the subject) are interpreted correctly earlier than passive sentences.
 - B, because the positive member of a pair of opposites is interpreted correctly earlier than the negative member.
 - B, because sentences in which the order of mention reflects the order of events are interpreted correctly earlier than those that don't.

14. With *in* and *on*, the relationship between the viewer and the object being viewed is constant. With *behind* and *in front of*, the relationship changes as the viewer's perspective changes.
15. Given the structure *the doll is hard to see*, the child interprets *the doll* as the subject of the bare infinitive to see (i.e., the child applies the Minimum Distance Principle).
16. The 6-year-olds appear to understand that an indirect speech act (like B) is more polite than a direct speech act (like A).
17. Pragmatics: directives are acquired before commissives. Semantics: *ask* and *order* conform to the Minimum Distance Principle; *promise* doesn't.
18. The promise must be for an action that the speaker can control.
19. Language acquisition can proceed normally only before puberty. (This is known as Lenneberg's **Critical Period Hypothesis** and is discussed in Chapter 9.)
20. d. all of the above
21. a. Chomsky would be more of a "biologist," Skinner more of an "environmentalist."
 - b. (i) mentalism; (ii) nativism; (iii) Chomsky; (vi) "biologists"
 - c. (iii) nativism
 - d. This would call for a reassessment of the potential gains of classroom instruction (i.e., teachers might give up if they felt that their efforts would have little effect, and the public might balk at funding public education).

Chapter 9: Second-Language Acquisition

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, pp. 218-219

1. †
2. a. implicational
3. †
4. stops and fricatives
5. nonnasalized vowels
6. **C, A, B**
7. a. B, C, A b. Wh-Movement c. I-Movement
8. e. either (b) or (d)
9. b. statistical

Exercise B, pp. 221-222

1. †
2. vowel epenthesis and consonant cluster reduction
3. †
4. Vietnamese does not have a phonemic distinction between /d/ and /t/.
5. It is a spelling pronunciation. The letter i in French typically represents the phoneme /i/.
6. [ʃi]
 7. a. CV b. /θ/ c. /A, æ/

Exercise C, p. 223

1. a. *Last night* indicates past time.
b. The sequence of clauses mirrors the sequence of events.
c. *Already* indicates past time.
2. †
3. a. †
b. deceptive transparency
c. 'uncover'
d. 'lacking sufficient hands'
e. no deceptive transparency
f. no deceptive transparency
g. 'roar upwardly'

Exercise D, p. 225-226

1. b. the negative transfer of an L1 feature to L2
2. †
3. Relativization of a possessive, because it's the rarest.
4. Verbs in French can take infinitive (*to*) complements, but not gerund (*-ing*) complements.
5. †
6. The first verb undergoes I-Movement in *yes-no* questions, regardless of whether it is a main verb or an auxiliary verb.
7. I-Movement

Exercise E, p. 227-228

1. The nonnative speakers are avoiding idioms.
2. †
3. a. *jobs* b. *sex(es)*

Exercise F, pp. 229-230

1. Code-switching to Spanish occurs when the topic is personal; code-switching to English occurs when the topic is business-related.
2. d. social-psychological factors
3. e. integrative motivation
4. instrumental motivation

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 230-233

1. a. syntax
b. morphology
c. semantics
d. phonology
2. The English speaker, because s/he has to master a phonemic distinction not found in the L1.
3. Ø -> V / ___ C C (A vowel is inserted before a sequence of two consonants.)
4. a. A syllable cannot begin with two obstruents (e.g., /s/+stop).
b. It resyllabifies /st/ so that the /s/ is part of the preceding syllable.
5. a. [sʔd dðæt] (same as English pronunciation)
b. [hæf traid]
6. a. The phrase *has been* is an idiom.
b. Many languages have no distinction between tense vowels (*/i/ bean*) and lax vowels (*/ɪ/ been*).
7. Wanna-contraction is blocked across a movement site (e.g., *who* in A.1 originates between *want* and *to*; *who* in B.1 originates to the right of *with*).
8. Verbs in Spanish are subcategorized to take infinitive (*to*) complements, not gerund (*-ing*) complements.
9. a. English has the same contrast medially (cf. *measure/mesher*), which is more marked than initially, b. (ii) is least marked; (i) is most marked.

10. The verb is made to agree in number with the item to its immediate left, whether it's the subject or not.
- English
 - A French speaker acquiring English, because the English sequence of verb-object-adverb is grammatical in French, but the French sequence of verb-adverb-object is ungrammatical in English.
12. a. B. The door was closed.
- An Arabic speaker learning Japanese, because the speaker has to master a marked structure.
13. a. English is most marked because it allows relativization without a pronominal reflex in all positions. Persian is least marked because it allows relativization without a pronominal reflex in only one position, b. Persian speakers c. Point 2 of the MDH states that relative difficulty is a function of relative markedness. English is relatively more marked for Persian speakers than it is for Chinese speakers.
- Subject position
 - Persian, Arabic, Chinese (relativized NP is object of preposition)
 - none (relativized NP is subject)
 - Persian (relativized NP is direct object)
14. Contraction is blocked immediately before a deletion or movement site.
- *where she's ___ today
t _____ |
 - *more than I've eaten
∅
 - more than I've eaten
15. a. English, Persian b. Japanese, Irish
c. Japanese: after object; Modern Irish: before object
16. Spanish has a positive value for the Pro-Drop Parameter (i.e., it allows a tensed verb to occur without a subject, unlike English).

Exploratory Exercises, pp. 233-234

- Not all of the data fit clearly into one of the categories.
 - This does not fit clearly into any of the categories; codeswitching may be used here to preserve the idiomatic nature of the English phrases.
 - Same as (A)
 - Discussing particular topics (it may be that tea is considered an "English" beverage)
 - Discussing particular topics (culinary, in this case)
 - Repeating
 - Discussing particular topics (money- or business-related topics in this case)
 - Emphasizing a social role (perhaps emphasizing authority over the child)
- Answers will vary. From the first finding, you might conclude that as exposure to English (which requires surface subjects) increases, then use of subject pronouns in Spanish increases. You might also conclude that Mexican speakers are converging toward the language patterns of other speakers of New York Spanish. From the second finding, you might conclude that Mexican speakers are resisting pronouns in order to maintain group solidarity. From the third finding, you might conclude that all Spanish speakers in New York are trying to distance themselves from English speakers.

Chapter 10: Written Language

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, pp. 237-238

1. The morning sun shines through the trees in the east. A person can rest under a tree.
2. Drawing, because they're iconic. Turned on their side, they become less iconic and are subject to becoming writing.
3. pictograph ic
4. No. A closed fist, for example, doesn't "look like" the letter A. (In contrast, an extended first and second finger "looks like" the letter V.)
5. Ideographic. Drawing represents not a literal skull, but a related abstraction (i.e., death).
6. ideographic (cf. number 7)
7. pictographic (cf. number 6)
8. e, b, f, j, d, h, l, k, a, g, c, i. Yes, the more iconic the symbol, the easier it is to recognize.

Exercise B, pp. 239

1. Morphographic. Non-iconic symbol stands for morpheme {dollar}.
2. Ideographic. Iconic symbol stands for 'love,' an abstraction supposedly related to the literal heart.
3. †
4. Syllabic. Yes, it might possibly be morphographic. It is syllabic, because the choice of *U* to represent *You* is based on the fact that they share the same pronunciation.
5. syllabic (same reasoning as number 4)
6. Morphographic. These non-iconic symbols stand for morphemes (e.g., ? = {question}; ' = {possessive}, etc.

Exercise C, pp. 241

1. *bait, fate, neighbor, grey*
2. *bet (/ɛ/), grey (/e/), ether (/i/)*
3. *photo, foot, laugh*
4. †

Exercise D, pp. 242

1. The segments represented by *w* and *e* were pronounced.
2. a. upward
b. Tense vowels (Note: Although /a/ is specified as [-tense] in Chapter 6, the long /a/ segment in Middle English patterned like a tense vowel.)

Exercise E, p. 242-243

1. a. followed by a consonant
b. They are of Greek origin.
2. They are of Greek origin.

Exercise F, p. 244

1. Morphophonemic. It is spelled the same (*a*) even when it represents different phonemic forms (e.g., /ə/ in *photography*, /æ/ in *photograph*).

2. a. †
- b. hymnal, hymnody, hymnology
- c. debit
- d. signal, signature, signify
- e. regal
- f. damnation, damnable
- g. thimble, Thumbelina

Exercise G, p. 245-246

1. †
2. a. deletion of unstressed syllable
- b. post-vocalic liquid deletion (and possible deletion of unstressed syllable)
- c. metathesis
3. a. *August*; vowel neutralization
- b. *quarters*; post-vocalic liquid deletion
- c. *abused*; consonant cluster reduction
- d. †
- e. *pastries*; vowel epenthesis
- f. *experienced*; consonant cluster reduction
- g. †
- h. *chocolate*; unstressed syllable deletion
- i. *information*; assimilation
- j. *clearance*; vowel neutralization
- k. *char-broiled*; post-vocalic liquid deletion
- l. *spiritualist*; consonant cluster reduction
- m. *brand*; consonant cluster reduction
- n. *carpentry*; vowel epenthesis
- o. *restaurant*; unstressed syllable deletion
- p. *loitering*; unstressed syllable deletion (and subsequent re-insertion)
- q. *around*; consonant cluster reduction
- r. †
- s. *warranty* and *excellent*; vowel neutralization

Exercise H, p. 247-248

1. a. (1) consonant cluster reduction
- (2) *a/an* alternation (/n/ is an epenthetic consonant used to break up a vowel cluster)
- (5) consonant cluster reduction
- (7) omission of {PLU} morpheme
- (8) *be* deletion
- (9) consonant cluster reduction or omission of {PRES} morpheme
- (10) omission of {POSS} morpheme
- (12) consonant cluster reduction
- (13) omission of {PRES} morpheme
- (14) *be* deletion
- (15) *be* deletion
- b. (3) missing apostrophe (4) missing comma
- (6) comma splice
- (11) misspelling

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 248-250

1. syllabic
 2. morphographic
 3. syllabic
 4. morphographic
 5. syllabic
 6. pictographic
 7. ideographic
 8. morphophemic spelling: each morpheme has a unique graphemic representation.
9. Using an *o* to represent the vowels reflects morphographic spelling, which clarifies that all of the words contain the same morpheme.
10. *nation, tissue*; borrowed from French.
11. Nasal Deletion (in some dialects, nasals are deleted before voiceless consonants)
12. The teacher assumed that because the *v* in *have* becomes the *f* in *of*, that the *NI* in *have* was devoiced to /f/. Actually, though, the final segment in both *have* and *of* is /v/.
13. a. *found* has been misanalyzed as a root, to which {PAST} is then added.
b. post-vocalic liquid deletion
c. subject-verb agreement: in standard written English, the verb agrees with the underlying subject of sentences with existential *there*; typically in English, the verb agrees with the surface subject.
14. a. *restaurant* is a singular count noun; which requires an article,
b. post-vocalic liquid deletion
15. I'll (1) tell (2) you about (3) me and my friend's (4) baseball team. When (5) we're (6) together we do all kinds of things. (7) He (8) plays (9) basketball and I play baseball. (10) Last (11) year (12) I saw (13) the basketball (14) team (15) play and it looked (16) like I didn't (17) have a chance (18) of making it. I'm (19) a pretty (20) good basketball player though (21) and the coach (22) knew (23) it. James is (24) the best player. (25) We (26) missed (27) him when he couldn't (28) play last week. (29)
- The main thing for students to see about this passage is that it contains several types of errors:
- Some reflect unfamiliarity with the punctuation and capitalization conventions of standard written English: e.g., (5), (17), (19), (25), (26), and (27).
 - Others reflect plausible spellings based on the sound of the word: e.g., (5), (12), (14), (15), (18), (20), (21), (22), and (29).
 - Finally, other errors reflect predictable linguistic processes often found in nonstandard dialects: e.g., (1) post-vocalic liquid deletion, (3) deletion of unstressed syllable, (4) consonant cluster reduction and omission of {POSS} morpheme, (6) *be* deletion, (7) substitution of past participle for past tense form, (16) consonant cluster reduction, (22) regularization of irregular past tense form, (24), *be*-deletion, and (27) consonant cluster reduction.

Chapter 11: Language Processing

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, p. 254

1. Not a garden path sentence, because *penny* is [-animate] and cannot serve as the agent of *saved*.

Exercise B, p. 255

1. No. Parallel function favors (4b), but proximity favors (4c). Parallel function takes priority.

Exercise C, p. 256-157

1. *depart, lose, forget, different, bad, low, shallow, few, small, slow, narrow, and short*, respectively.

2.
 - a. They support it. *Abolition* and *ban*.
 - b. (A) *Abolition* and *ban*. (B) *Opponents*, *prohibit*, and *setback*. (C) *Revoke*, *cut*, and *block*. (D) *Failed*, *override*, and *veto*.
 - c. (A) *The amendment, if passed, would allow people to carry concealed weapons*.
- (B) *Cameras still not Allowed in Courtroom*
 (C) *Judge Allows Welfare Cut*
 (D) *Assembly Upholds Governor's Vote*
3.
 - a. Oppose. Several times. The words *override*, *veto*, and *ban*.
 - b. Less difficulty than with (A), because the Catholic church is commonly known to oppose abortion (i.e., nonlinguistic, contextual information aids in comprehension).

Exercise D, p. 258

1.
 - a. †
 - b. active
 - c. passive; probably best analyzed as nonreversible, since cats do not ordinarily chase dogs.
 - d. †
 - e. passive; probably best analyzed as non reversible, since patients do not ordinarily save doctors.
 - f. active
 - g. passive, reversible

Exercise E, p. 259

1.
 - a. †
 - b. After you fill out an application form, take it to Matthews Hall.
 - c. Take your application form to Matthews Hall after you have filled it out.
 - d. Open to discussion; for instructions, however, it is probably preferable to mention the steps in the order that the reader should follow them.

Exercise F, p. 260

1.
 - a. †
 - b. who spent the least amount of money on television advertising. The winning candidate is the one who spend the least amount of money on television advertising.
 - c. the patients who volunteered for the study. The researchers gave free medication to the patients who volunteered for the study.
 - d. an incredibly complicated math problem with no apparent solution. The professor gave the students an incredibly complicated math problem with no apparent solution.

Exercise G, p. 261

1. STEP I: Given.
 STEP II: 27 (approximately)
 STEP III: 3 personal references, so $27-3=24$
 STEP IV: $24\div 2 = 12$

 STEP V: $100\div 4=25$ words per sentence, on average $25 + 12=37$ (Fairly difficult)

Exercise H, p. 262-263

1. Presented, Peripheral items include He [*Don*] *straightened his collar* and he [*the waiter*] *accidentally spilled coffee on Don*. While both of these items are peripheral in that they are not part of the script for eating in a restaurant, the coffee spill would probably be recalled at a much higher rate than the tie-straightening. To account for this difference, we might want to introduce a further subdivision within the Presented, Peripheral category of something like "Narrative-forwarding elements" or perhaps "Vivid elements."

2. a. †
Choosing a movie; Finding out movie times; Buying tickets; Buying popcorn, soft drinks, etc.; Choosing seats; Watching previews; Watching the movie; Talking about the movie after it's over
3. a. List of ingredients
List of any special utensils needed
Pre-heating instructions (if baking)
Preparing ingredients prior to their combination
Combining ingredients
Cooking combined ingredients
Serving suggestions
- b. Precautions or warnings related to assembly
List of parts (often accompanied by drawings)
Directions for assembling sub-parts
Directions for assembling major parts
Drawing of completely assembled object
- c. Introduction; Method; Results; Discussion

Exercise I, p. 264

(Note: Students may find other examples in addition to these.)

1. REFERENCE: (1) *their etiology*; (2) *this possible etiological factor*; (3) *this population*; (4) *they could not discriminate*

ELLIPSIS: (2) *delayed* [speech development] or *disordered speech development* REPETITION: *speech* in (1) and (2); *children* in (1), (2), (3), and (4) SYNONYM: (1) *speech* and (4) *articulation*; (2) *chronic otitis media* and *middle ear infections*

SUPERORDINATE TERM: (2) *etiological factor* is a superordinate term for *chronic otitis media* COLLOCATIVE

SERIES: (1) *speech*, (3) *auditory discrimination*, (3) *articulate sounds*, (4) *perceptual abilities* (all have to do with language production or processing)

Exercise J, p. 266

1. a. agent = *The Gomosaygiama Agency*; patient = a new *advertising campaign*; beneficiary = *the Katznelson Corporation*.
- b. patient = a new *advertising campaign*; agent = *the Gomosaygiama Agency*.
- c. beneficiary = *the Katznelson Corporation*; patient = a new *advertising campaign*.

Exercise K, p. 267-268

1. a. †
b. neither
c. AB:BC
2. 1. AB 2. AC 3. CD
3. a. 1. AB
2. BC, BD
3. BE, BF
4. BG, GH

Strategies used include pronouns in (2) (*these numbers* and *they*) and synonyms in (1-2) (*figures* and *numbers*). b. 1. AB

2. BC, DE
3. FG

4. GH
Strategies used include repetition in (1-2) (*emit, emissions*), and in (3-4) (*people*), as well as synonyms in (1-2) *air pollutants, emissions*.
4. Sentence (4) uses passive voice to place the NP *The same people* in subject position.
5. a. †
b. (First sentence as is.) The use of such a crew cycle would greatly reduce the amount of time and labor currently required to produce a mission time line.

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 270-271

1. a. adheres to active voice and to order of mention
b. puts the heavy NP at the end of the sentence
c. open to discussion
2. a. The group that was given the title, because it provides a frame of reference for interpreting the paragraph.
b. Open to discussion. In our experience, informal re-creations of the experiment have confirmed the results predicted in (a).
c. Sorting Clothes
Gathering Supplies (detergent, change)
Taking Clothes to Facilities
Selecting a Wash Cycle
Adding Detergent
Adding Clothes
Drying Clothes
Folding and Putting Clothes Away
3. A Budget Review Committee made up of department heads will review budgets from now on. In this way, our future budgets should better reflect the needs of each of the individual departments.
4. a. AB:BC:CD:DE.
b. AB:CA:DC:ED.
c. (A) follows a linear progression, while (B) follows neither a linear nor a hierarchical progression.
- d. Sentence 2 uses passive voice to place the NP *This story* in subject position. Sentence 3 uses passive voice to place the NP *These conventions* in subject position. A writer who always avoids the passive voice may end up violating the Given-New Contract. 5. Older subjects have acquired the pattern of using a to signal new information, and *the* to signal given information.

Chapter 12: The Neurology of Language

Suggested Answers to Exercises

Exercise A, p. 274

1. Damage from a stroke is more likely to be localized.

Exercise B, p. 277

1. No. Breathing and heart rate are controlled by the central nervous system, but they're controlled by the brain stem (not the cortex, which governs conscious mental activity).
2. cerebellum
3. c. separates linguistic and nonlinguistic auditory stimuli
4. a. T b. F (cerebellum)
c. F (dendrites)

Exercise C, p. 279

1. The damage is closer to the primary motor cortex, which controls movement.
2. †
3. Right-sided paralysis correlates with damage in the left hemisphere, where language centers are; ability to comprehend language but not produce it correlates with frontal lobe damage (near the primary motor cortex).

Exercise D, p. 282

1. left dominant
2. a. † b. F (right dominant) c. T

Exercise E, p. 284

1. The subject transfers the information from the right hemisphere through the corpus callosum to the left hemisphere, where the command can be interpreted.

Exercise F, p. 286

1. c. recognition of form and weight through touch
2. a. † c. right
b. right d. left
3. †
4. It increases, because music without lyrics would be processed by the nondominant hemisphere (here the right).

Exercise G, p. 287

1. bilateral
2. a. F (right dominant) b. T c. †
3. Right-hemisphere dominance for language is more likely among left-handers than among right-handers.

Exercise H, p. 289

1. A. Wernicke's B. Broca's

Exercise I, p. 291-292

1. a. conduction aphasia b. arcuate fasciculus of the left hemisphere
2. a. † c. †
b. anomia d. Broca's aphasia
e. Wernicke's aphasia h. anomia
f. † i. semantic aphasia
g. Wernicke's aphasia
3. c. neologistic jargon
4. b. relatively good comprehension
5. Phonemic paraphasia is illustrated by (a) *bowling birt* for *bowling shirt*. Semantic paraphasia is illustrated by (b) *He is a flying man* for *He is a pilot*.

Supplementary Exercises, pp. 291-295

1. a. F (anomia) e. F (occipital)
b. F (grammatical morphemes) f. F (Broca)
c. T g. T
d. T

2. In the posterior region (occipital lobe) of the right hemisphere.
3. a. Syntax b. A is active; B is passive. c. Structural (syntactic)
4. c. Injuries in specific areas of the left hemisphere interfere with specific tasks, but no such specific disruptions are found following right-hemisphere lesions.
5. a. anomia
b. angular gyrus of the dominant hemisphere
6. a. phonemic paraphasia, especially perseveration
b. semantic aphasia
c. semantic aphasia (*eyeglasses* and *lights* are both related to the semantic field of vision).
7. a. Wernicke's aphasia b. left temporal lobe
c. fluent (i.e., intonation and rate of speech are normal), and grammatical morphemes are intact.
8. The polyglot is more likely to have right-hemisphere or bilateral dominance for language.
9. antonymy
10. semantic aphasia
11. Wernicke's aphasia
12. Broca's aphasia
13. Broca's aphasia
14. a. conduction aphasia
b. going back and starting over (perseveration occurs in all the responses).
15. Broca's aphasia
16. Ability to recognize idioms
17. Broca's aphasia; (1) left side of the brain; (2) vision and hearing not impaired; (3) he can understand everything that is said to him; (4) speech is halted and requires effort; (5) right leg is weak and right arm is paralyzed.
18. a. He didn't know that others didn't understand him.
b. He couldn't understand what was being said to him.
c. left d. He felt pain on his right side. e. Wernicke's

Chapter 13: Conclusion

Supplementary Exercises, p. 305

1. c. testable
2. a. systematic
3. b. a performance model
4. c. rules for "Jeopardy"

I. Appendix

To the student:

Following you will find a glossary of linguistic terms.

Besides counting on the glossary included in the textbook, the author has considered it largely important to provide the student with this glossary of terms, which has been added as extra material to help him/her to be more acquainted with the terminology used in the field.

The glossary will be of great help for the student when investigating and studying new material related to the field of linguistics and while using and applying new terms when solving cases, analyzing the readings and material provided throughout the course, as well as when choosing the topic for the final research project.

Applied Linguistics: Glossary of Terms

abla. A vowel change that accompanies a change in grammatical function. Same as "gradation." Sing, sang, and sung.

accidence. The part of morphology that deals with the inflections of words.

accismus. Pretended refusal of something desired.

acrolecta. Variety of language that is closest to a standard main language, especially in an area where a creole is also spoken. Standard Jamaican English, where Jamaican Creole is also spoken.

additive bilingualism. L2 learning that adds to the learner's capabilities (Lambert).

adionoeta. An expression that carries both an obvious meaning and a second, subtler meaning.

adjacency pair. A pair of discourse moves that often go together, e.g. question and answer

adnominal. Characteristic of an adnoun.

adnomination. Assigning to a proper name its literal or homophonic meaning; also, paronomasia or polyptoton: Same as "prosonomasia."

adnoun. The use of an adjective as a noun. Blessed are the merciful.

adynaton. A declaration of impossibility, usually expressed as an exaggerated comparison with a more obvious impossibility. "I will sooner have a beard grow in the palm of my hand than he shall get one of his cheek." -- William Shakespeare.

agreement. Consists of a change of form in one element of a sentence caused by a second element, to show their common number, gender etc, for example Subject Verb Agreement of number in English *One swallow DOESN'T make a summer/Two swallows DON'T make a summer.*

alexia. Inability to read, usually caused by brain lesions; word blindness.

alliteration. Repetition of the same sound beginning several words placed close together, usually adjacent.

alphabetic principle. The writing system in which written symbols correspond to spoken sounds, contrasted with the LOGOGRAPHIC and ORTHOGRAPHIC principles

alphabetism. The expression of spoken sounds by an alphabet.

ambigra. A word, phrase, or sentence written in such a way that it reads the same way upside down as right side up.

amphiboly. Ambiguous discourse; amphibology.

anacoluthon. A change in a grammatical construction within the same sentence. "And these socks -- are they mine also?"

anacrusis. One or more unstressed syllables at the beginning of a line of verse, before the normal meter begins.

anadiplosis. Rhetorical repetition of one or more words, particularly a word at the end of a clause. "Men in great place are thrice servants: servants of the sovereign or state; servants of fame; and servants of business." -- Francis Bacon.

anagram. A rearrangement of a group of letters, especially a word that can be formed by rearranging the letters in another word.

anaptyxi. The process by which a new word is formed by inserting a vowel sound between successive consonants in an older word.

anastrophe. Transposition or inversion of normal word order; a type of hyperbaton. "Once upon a midnight dreary..." -- Edgar Allan Poe. "The helmsman steered; the ship moved on; yet never a breeze up blew." -- Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

antanaclasis. Repetition of a word whose meaning changes in the second instance. "Your argument is sound...all sound." -- Benjamin Franklin.

anthimeria Substitution of one part of speech for another, most often a noun used as a verb.

antiphrasis. The use of a word or phrase contrary to its normal meaning for ironic or humorous effect. A mere babe of 60 years.

antisthecon. Substitution of one sound, syllable, or letter within a word for another, frequently to accomplish a pun; a type of metaplasm.

antistrophe. The repetition of words in an inverse order. "The master of the servant and the servant of the master."

antithesi. Contrast of opposing words or ideas in a parallel construction. "Extremism in defense of liberty is no vice; moderation in the pursuit of justice is no virtue." -- Barry Goldwater.

antonomasia. The substitution of a title or epithet for a proper name. "Yes, Your Majesty." Also, the substitution of a personal name for a common noun. "You're a Benedict Arnold."

antonym. A word which is the opposite of another. "General," which is the antonym of "specific."

aphaeresis. Loss of the initial portion of a word. For example, cause from because; specially from especially.

aphesis. Mispronouncing a word by dropping one or more initial, usually unstressed syllables. "cept" instead of "except."

aphetic. Characteristic of aphaesis.

apocope. Loss of the final portion of a word. For example, info from information; cinema from cinematograph.

apocrisis. Replying to one's own arguments.

apophasis. Mentioning something by declaring that it shall not be mentioned. Same as "paralepsis" and "preterition." "I need not remind you to get your Christmas shopping done early."

aporia. Expression of doubt, usually feigned, about what the speaker should say, think, or do. "Oh no! Whatever shall I do now?"

aposiopesis. A halting or trailing off of speech caused by the speaker seemingly overcome by an emotion such as excitement, fear, or modesty; a form of brachylogy. "When your father finds out..."

apostrophe. Addressing an alternate audience midstream, whether that audience be a person, group, or abstraction, present or absent.

apposition. The juxtaposition of two nouns, the second of which clarifies the first. "The man, a leather-clad hoodlum, bolted from the scene when the police showed up."

aptronym. A name aptly suited to its owner, often because the name applies in more than one sense. "Mr. Calamity had a unique penchant for causing destruction wherever he went."

archaism. Usage of an older, often obsolete form of language.

argot. The jargon of a group or class; slang.

articulatory loop. In Working Memory theory the means by which information is kept in working memory by being audibly or silently articulated

assimilationist teaching. Teaching that expects people to give up their native languages and to become speakers of the majority language of the country.

assonance. Repetition of the same sound in multiple words placed close to each other, often adjacent.

asyndeton. Lack of conjunctions between coordinate words, phrases, or clauses; a form of brachylogy. "But, in a larger sense, we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground." -- Abraham Lincoln.

authentic speech. 'An authentic text is a text that was created to fulfil some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced' (Little et al., 1988)

autoclesis. Introducing an idea or subject by seeming to refuse discussion of it, thereby arousing interest.

autogram. A phrase, sentence, or paragraph that self-documents its letter content.

bilingualism. Varying definitions going from perfect command of two languages to the ability to use another language for practical purposes, however trivial the use.

billingsgate. Coarsely abusive language.

binding. The relationship between a pronoun such as *she* and its antecedent noun such as *Jane* as in *Jane helped herself, Helen said Jane helped her,* etc, is called binding—a complex area of the Universal Grammar theory

bloviate. To speak or write pompously and windily.

brachylogy. Abbreviated or condensed expression, often by omitting words that can be determined by the surrounding context.

cacemphaton. An expression that is deliberately foul or ill-sounding.

cacography. Poor handwriting; also, incorrect spelling.

cacology. Poor choice of words; also, incorrect pronunciation.

cacophony. Juxtaposition of harsh sounds.

calque. An expression introduced into one language by translating it from another language. Same as "loan translation." "Superman," from the German word "Übermensch."

canonical order. The canonical order of the sentence is the most usual order of the main sentence elements, Subject (S), Verb (V) and Object (O), in a language, for example VSO in Arabic or SVO in English.

case. Case is variation in the form of Nouns and Pronouns to show their role in the structure of the Sentence, in English limited visibly to pronouns, Subject case *he*, Object case *him*, Possessive case *his*, in Latin extending to nouns with six cases, in Finnish to fifteen, used nowadays for a more powerful abstract relationship not necessarily visible in the sentence itself.

character. The name for a single symbol of a writing system such as Chinese, i.e. 人 ('person') is a character. The term is also used in computing for any distinct symbol such as the letter <a>, number <6> or other form <@>.

catachresis. Harsh metaphor involving the use of a word beyond its normal function, usually incorrectly.

cataphora. Use of a pronoun or other linguistic unit to refer to a word used later. "Him," in, "I nudged him, but George did not wake."

chiasmus. Corresponding pairs not matched in parallel but inverted or crossed (a-b-b-a, rather than a-b-a-b). The word derives from the Greek letter chi (X). "Those gallant men will remain often in my thoughts and in my prayers always." -- Douglas MacArthur.

chrestomathy. A collection of choice literary passages, especially to help in learning a language.

chronogram. An inscribed phrase in which certain letters can be read as Roman numerals. "ChrIstVs DVX; ergo trIVMphVs," which is the motto of a medal struck by Gustavus Adolphus; the capital letters, when added as numerals, indicate the year 1632.

clendonism. Use of circumlocution to avoid speaking words deemed unlucky.

climax. Arrangement of words, phrases, or clauses in increasing order of power.

cognitive deficit. The limitations on processing information in a second language compared to in a first language

cognitive strategies. These involve specific conscious ways of tackling L2 learning.

cognitive style. A person's typical ways of thinking, seen as a continuum between field-dependent (FD) cognitive style, in which thinking relates to context, and field-independent (FI) style, in which it is independent of context communication strategies in SLA can be: - individual solutions to psychological problems of L2 processing (Faerch and Kasper 1984)- mutual attempts to solve L2 communication problems by participants (Tarone 1980)- ways of filling vocabulary gaps in L1 or L2 (Kellerman 1990, Poulisse 1990)

communicative competence. The speaker's ability to put language to communicative use, usually traced back to Hymes.

components of meaning. One way of describing the meaning of words is to split it up into separate components so that for example the noun *boy* can be seen as having the components [non-adult] [male], *girl* the components [adult] [female], *woman*, the components [adult] [female], and so on.

consciousness-raising. Helping the student by drawing attention to features of the second language

consonance. The repetition of consonants or consonant patterns, especially at the ends of words. Same as "consonant rhyme."

consonant. Typically, in terms of sound production, a consonant is a sound which is obstructed in some way by tongue or lip contact as in /k/ *keep* or /b/ *beep*, as opposed to the unobstructed sound of a vowel. In terms of the sound system, a consonant is a sound that typically occurs at the beginning or end of the syllable rather than the middle, thus contrasting with vowel.

constative. Characteristic of an assertion that can be definitively judged true or false.

content words. Content words such as *table* or *truth* are best explained in the dictionary (lexicon). Content words form four types of lexical phrase around lexical heads: Nouns *drum*, Verbs *play*, adjectives *pretty*, and Prepositions *to*. They contrast with grammatical words.

contronym. A word which is its own opposite. "Cleave," meaning "adhere" and "separate."

coprolalia. Uncontrolled, excessive use of obscene or scatological language, sometimes accompanying certain mental disorders.

copula. A copulative word.

copulative. Syntactically connecting coordinate words or clauses; also, a copulative word or group of words. "And," which is a copulative conjunction, and "be," which is a linking verb.

crasis. A contraction of two vowels, usually the final and initial vowels of consecutive words, into one long vowel or diphthong.

critical period hypothesis (CPH) The claim that human beings are only capable of learning language between the age of 2 years and the early teens

cruciverbalist. a constructor of crossword puzzles; also, an enthusiast of word games, especially crossword puzzles.

cryptophasia. A language consisting of words or phrases understandable only between two twins and which is usually developed as the twins grow up together.

decoding versus codebreaking. Processing language to get the 'message' versus processing language to get the 'rules'

deictic. Characteristic of a word whose reference depends on the circumstances of its use; also, a deictic word. "This," which means nothing outside of context.

diaeresis. The pronunciation of adjacent vowels separately. "Naive."

diglossia. Diglossia is a situation where there are two versions of a language with very different uses, a High form for official occasions and a Low form for everyday life, as in the difference between High German and Swiss German in German-speaking areas of Switzerland.

dilogy. An ambiguous speech.

discourse move. The speaker's choice of what to do in the conversation, e.g. opening moves such as 'greeting'

disjunctive. Serving to establish a relationship of contrast or opposition; also, a disjunctive conjunctive. "But," in "The youth was spirited but naive."

dissimilation. The process by which one of two similar sounds in a word becomes less like the other. "Marble," an English word derived from the French word "marbre" by the process of dissimilation.

dittograph. A letter or word repeated unintentionally in writing or copying.

dittology. Two distinct interpretations of the same text.

dontopedalogy. The aptitude for putting one's foot in one's mouth.

dual route model. A dual-route model of reading aloud has two processes or 'routes': the *phonological route*, which converts letters into sounds through rules, and the *lexical route*, which matches words as wholes in the mental lexicon.

dysgraphia. Impairment of the ability to write, usually caused by brain dysfunction or disease.

dyslalia. Impairment of the ability to speak due to defective speech organs.

dyslexia. A learning disorder distinguished by impaired ability to recognize and comprehend written words.

dysphemism. Substitution of a mild expression with a harsher one; opposite of "euphemism"; cacophemism.

dysprosody. A speech impairment characterized by a loss of control of intonation and rhythm.

dysrhythmia. An abnormality in an otherwise normal rhythmic pattern, as the meter in a line of verse.

dystmesism. Inserting a word in the middle of another in an unlikely or unexpected place; a form of tmesis. "Unbe-freaking-lievable."

echolalia. The immediate and involuntary repetition of words or phrases just spoken by others, often a symptom of autism or some types of schizophrenia.

elision The omission of a letter or syllable. "Don't" instead of "do not."

elite bilingualism. Either the choice by parents of bringing up children through two languages, or societies in which members of a ruling group speak a second language.

ellipsis. the omission of words in a sentence needed to complete an idea explicitly. "I took my son to the barber and my daughter to the hairdresser."

embolalia. Interpolation of meaningless sounds or words into speech. Same as "embolalia."

enallage. Substitution of one part of speech, gender, number case, person, tense, mode, or voice for another. The royal "we," as a substitute for "I."

enclitic. A word or syllable which is joined with the preceding word in such a way as to lose its own independent accent. "Prithee," which is a shortening of "pray thee," and "'em," in, "Get 'em!"

endophoric. Characteristic of a reference to something outside the speech or text in which the reference occurs.

epanalepsis. A figure of speech in which the same word, phrase, or clause is repeated after intervening words.

epanorthosis. Immediate rephrasing for emphasis, intensification, or justification. "You, young lad, are most brave! Brave, did I say? No, heroic!"

epexegetis. When one interprets what one has just said, often signaled by "that is to say...."

epistrophe. Repetition of the same word or phrase at the end of successive phrases, clauses, or sentences. "In 1931, ten years ago, Japan invaded Manchukuo -- without warning. In 1935, Italy invaded Ethiopia -- without warning. In 1938, Hitler occupied Austria -- without warning. In 1939, Hitler invaded Czechoslovakia -- without warning. Later in 1939, Hitler invaded Poland -- without warning. And now Japan has attacked Malaya and Thailand -- and the United States -- without warning." Franklin D. Roosevelt.

epithet. A descriptive word or phrase. "The Great Emancipator," as a substitute for Abraham Lincoln. Also, an abusive or contemptuous word or phrase; a slur.

epitrope. A figure of speech in which permission is granted to do what someone proposes to do or is already doing.

epizeuxis. Repetition of a word with vehemence or emphasis. "Alone, alone, all all alone. Alone on a wide wide sea." -- Samuel Taylor Coleridge.

eponymy. The introduction of words into a language that are derived from the names of people or places.

equivoque. An equivocal word, phrase, or expression; also, a pun or double meaning; also, ambiguity. Same as "equivoke."

etymon. An earlier form of a word in the same language or an ancestor language.

euphemism. Substitution of a harsh, offensive, or unpleasant word with one that is less so. "When the final news came, there would be a ring at the front door -- a wife in this situation finds herself staring at the front door as if she no longer owns it or controls it -- and outside the door would be a man...come to inform her that unfortunately something has happened out there, and her husband's body now lies incinerated in the swamps or the pines or the palmetto grass, 'burned beyond recognition,' which anyone who had been around an air base very long (fortunately Jane had not) realized was quite an artful euphemism to describe a human body that now looked like an enormous fowl that has

burned up in a stove, burned a blackish brown all over, greasy and blistered, fried, in a word, with not only the entire face and all the hair and the ears burned off, not to mention all the clothing, but also the hands and feet, with what remains of the arms and legs bent at the knees and elbows and burned into absolutely rigid angles, burned a greasy blackish brown like the bursting body itself, so that this husband, father, officer, gentleman, this ornamentum of some mother's eye, His Majesty the Baby of just twenty-odd years back, has been reduced to a charred hulk with wings and shanks sticking out of it." -- Tom Wolfe.

eusystemism. Use of initials, instead of full words, as a euphemism, often to avoid speaking harsh words.

exergasia. Repeating a point by using different figures of speech to give the impression of saying something new.

exonym. A name by which one people or social group refers to another but which is not used by said group to refer to themselves.

exophoric. Characteristic of a reference to something outside the speech or text in which the reference occurs.

factitive. Pertaining to the case when the action indicated by a transitive verb is not merely received by an object but produces some change in the object. "The boy popped the balloon," is factitive, because "balloon" is a factitive object, that is, an object changed by the verb "popped." But "The boy held the balloon," is not factitive, because the object "balloon" is only the recipient of the action indicated by the verb "held" and is not changed by it.

fish phenomenon. The phenomenon where children reject well-meaning adult attempts to mispronounce a word in the same way as a child. Child: "Fis." / Adult: "Yes, it's a 'fis'." / Child: "No, 'fis!'" / Adult: "Oh, a fish." / Child: "Yes, a fis."

focus on form. (FonF) Incidental discussion of grammar arising from meaningful language in the classroom.

focus on forms. Deliberate discussion of grammar in the classroom without reference to meaning.

fog index. A scheme by which the readability of a particular text may be evaluated; it is computed by adding the average sentence length (expressed in number of words per sentence) to the percentage of words with more than two syllables.

font. Strictly a complete set of type for printing; nowadays mostly it refers to a particular design for the whole set of characters available through a computer keyboard.

frequency. Either how many times a word occurs in speech or how often it is practiced by a student.

frequentative. Expressing repeated action; also, a frequentative verb.

front/back. In phonetics the dimension in the position of the tongue for vowels from the front to the back of the mouth is called front/back

glossogenetics. The theory that humans are genetically predisposed to learn languages.

glossolalia. Fabricated, non-meaningful speech, especially such speech associated with a trance state or some schizophrenic syndromes.

glottochronology. The determination of how long ago different languages evolved from a common source language.

glyph. A symbol, such as on a public sign, that imparts information without words, especially a figure or character incised or in relief.

grammar. The study of how linguistic units combine to form sentences; also, the system of rules implicit in a language. Main areas of grammar are WORD ORDER, GRAMMATICAL MORPHEMES, GRAMMATICAL INFLECTIONS and PHRASE STRUCTURE.

grammatical (linguistic) competence. The native speaker's knowledge of language
grammatical inflections. Grammatical inflections are a system of showing meaning by changing word endings, as in the English '-ed' inflection meaning past tense, *I looked*, absent from some languages like Vietnamese.

grammatical words. Grammatical words (also known as 'function' or 'structure' words such as preposition *by/for* or determiners *a/an* express the grammatical relationships in the sentence rather than meanings that can be captured in the lexicon.

guttural. A sound articulated with the throat with the back of the tongue, much retracted, and the soft palate.

haplology. The process by which a word is formed by removing one of two identical or similar adjacent syllables in an earlier word. "Nutrix," the Latin word meaning "nurse," was formed from the earlier word "nutritrix."

head. The head of a lexical phrase is a lexical head around which the phrase is built, i.e. Noun Phrases like *a good CD* have a head Noun such as *CD*. The head of a functional phrase may be an inflection such as '-s' or a grammatical word such as *the*.

head parameter. The head parameter captures the difference between languages in which the head of the phrase comes first, i.e. the preposition head comes before its 'complement' in English *on Tuesday*, and those in which it comes last, as the Postposition head comes last in Japanese *Nihon ni* (in Japan).

h-dropping. H-dropping refers to the presence or absence of /h/ in the pronunciation of certain words where the letter "h" is present in the spelling, as in *Harry* versus *'Arry*. In French h-dropping is part of the standard language; in English English, but not American, h-dropping is a strong social marker of low status in words like *high hat* or *hit*.

hendiadys. The use of a conjunction rather than the subordination of one word to another. "I will try and arrive promptly this time," instead of "I will try to arrive promptly this time." Also "nice and warm" instead of "nicely warm."

heterogenium. Evading an issue or question by changing the subject. "Has our logging company endangered the spotted owl? I'll tell you what we've endangered: the unemployment rate in Oregon."

heterography. A method of spelling in which the same letters represent different sounds in different words, as in ordinary English orthography.

heteronym. A word which has the same spelling but different meaning and pronunciation as another; a type of homograph. "Produce," meaning, "fruits and vegetables," and "produce," meaning, "to bring forth."

heterophemy. The unconscious saying, in speech or in writing, of something that one does not intend to say, especially when what is said is the reverse of what was intended.

hobson-jobson. An Anglicized word or phrase corrupted from one or more words of an Asian language.

holalphabetic. A phrase, clause, sentence, or other sequence of letters which contains every letter of the alphabet at least once.

holonym. A concept that has another concept as a part. A house is a holonym of a room.

holophrasis. Use of a holophrase, that is, a single word expressing a complex idea.

homograph. A word which has the same spelling as another but different meaning, derivation, or pronunciation. Same as "homogram."

homography. A method of spelling in which every sound is represented by a single character, which indicates that sound and no other.

homonym. A word that has the same spelling and pronunciation as another but different meanings or derivations; a word that is both a homograph and a homophone.

homophone. A word which has the same pronunciation as another but different meaning, derivation, or spelling.

honorific. A title or phrase conferring respect, especially when used in addressing a social superior.

hypallage. Interchange of two elements in a phrase or clause from the order in which they would normally appear. "A mind is a terrible thing to waste," instead of "To waste a mind is a terrible thing."

hyperbaton. Deviation of normal or logical word order.

hyperbole. Exaggeration for emphasis or rhetorical or dramatic effect.

hypercortect. Characteristic of an incorrect linguistic construction in which the error is produced from a mistaken effort to be correct. "Between you and I," which should be "between you and me."

hypernym. A word that is more generic than a given word.

hypocorism. Use of pet names, diminutives, baby talk, or terms of endearment. "Comfy" instead of "comfortable."

hyponym. A word that is more specific than a given word.

hHypophora. Asking a question, often one it is anticipated readers or listeners will have, and subsequently answering it.

hypostatize. To ascribe material existence to, especially to a conceptual entity.

hypotaxis. The dependent or subordinate relationship of clauses with connectives.

hysteron proteron. Reversal of the normal order of terms; a type of hyperbaton. "Gentlemen and ladies." (Also note the first line of the ultra-condensation of *The Rime of the Ancient Mariner* on RinkWorks' own *Book-A-Minute* feature.)

illeism. The practice of referring to oneself in the third person.

Illeist. One who habitually practices illeism.

immersion teaching. Teaching the whole curriculum through the second language, best known from experiments in Canada.

independent language assumption. The language of the L2 learner considered as a system of language in its own right rather than as a defective version of the target language (sometimes called 'interlanguage').

infix. An infix is a morpheme that is added inside a word to get a new meaning, often by changing the vowel, as in *blow* versus *blew*. Infixes are rare in English but common in Arabic.

ingressive. Characteristic of a speech sound produced with an inhalation of breath.

ipa (international phonetic alphabet): Internationally agreed phonetic alphabet for writing down the sounds of languages in a consistent fashion.

irony. Expression that comes across contrary to the intended meaning, often because the audience knows what the speaker does not.

isocolon. A sequence of parallel structures, having the same number of words and sometimes the same number of syllables. "What else can one do when he is alone in a

jail cell, other than write long letters, think long thoughts, and pray long prayers?" -- Martin Luther King.

kenning. Replacement of a common noun by a colorful compound. "Information superhighway" instead of "Internet."

koine. A regional dialect or language that becomes the standard language over a wider area, losing its most extreme local features in the process; also, a lingua franca: a common hybrid or other language used by speakers of different languages.

laterals. Laterals are speech sounds produced asymmetrically in the mouth, typically // in which one side of the tongue makes contact with the roof of the mouth but not the other.

language awareness. Helping the student by raising awareness of language itself.

language function. The reason why someone says something, e.g. apologizing, arguing, greeting, etc.

language maintenance and bilingual language teaching. These teach or maintain the minority language within its group.

langue. Language viewed as a system including vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation of a particular community.

learning strategy. A choice that the learner makes while learning or using the second language that affects learning, whether cognitive, or metacognitive.

lexical entry. A word has a lexical entry in the mind that gives all the information about it such as its pronunciation, meaning, and how it may be used in the structure of the sentence.

lexical phrase. A lexical phrase is built around a lexical head such as a Noun *the house on the hill*, a Verb *cross the road*, an Adjective *quick to anger*, or a Preposition *in the spring*. It contrasts with a functional phrase.

ligature. A character that combines two or more letters, such as æ.

lingua franca. A common hybrid or other language used by speakers of different languages.

linguistic imperialism. Means by which a 'Centre' country dominates 'Periphery' countries by making them use its language.

linguistics. The academic discipline that focuses on language is called linguistics and is carried out by linguists.

linguist. In the study of language, a linguist is usually someone who studies linguistics rather than someone who speaks several languages.

lipogram. Writing composed of words lacking a certain specific letter or letters.

litotes. Understatement by negating the opposite; a type of meiosis. "I was not disappointed with the news."

loanword. A word adopted from another language and completely or partially naturalized.

logocentrism. Obsession with the word.

logogram. A written symbol that represents an entire word without expressing its pronunciation. Same as "ideogram" and "logograph." The numerals 0-9 are each logograms.

logographic principle. The writing system in which written symbols correspond to meanings, as in Chinese characters.

logogriph. A word puzzle in which it is required to discover a chosen word from various combinations of its letters, or some of its letters, which form other words.

logomisia. Disgust or hatred of particular words.

lucus a non lucendo. An etymological contradiction in which a modern word is derived from an older word of contradictory meaning. "Beldam," meaning, "ugly hag," comes from the French word "bellum," meaning, "beautiful thing."

macaronic. Of or containing a mixture of Latin words and vernacular words jumbled together, as a macaronic verse.

macrology... Long and tedious talk lacking in substance; superfluity of words.

malapropism. Ludicrous misuse of a word by confusion with one that sounds similar.

meiosis. Understatement for emphasis or rhetorical or dramatic effect. "When my wife left me because I'd been fired and crippled in an accident on my way home, I was a little saddened."

melioration. Linguistic process of a word gradually becoming more positive in meaning or connotation over time. Although both melioration and amelioration can be used to describe the general process of improvement of anything, melioration is more commonly used with respect to the meaning of words undergoing this change.

mendaciloquence. Lying as an art; adroit prevarication.

mental lexicon. Speakers of a language store all the words they know in a mental dictionary or 'lexicon' containing many thousands of items.

merism. A grouping of words that means something other than the combined meanings of each of the words individually.

meronym. A concept that is part of another concept. A room is a meronym of a house.

metacognitive. strategies Learning strategies that involve planning and directing learning at a general level.

metalepsis. The continuation of a trope in one word through a succession of significations, or the union of multiple tropes of a different kind in one word; substituting metonymy of one figurative sense for another.

metallage. A word or phrase treated as an object within another expression. "A lady's 'verily' is as potent as a lord's." -- William Shakespeare.

metanalysis. An interpretation or analysis of an unfamiliar name, which may involve associations to unrelated, similarly spelled words rather than to ideas related to the true meaning of the word.

metaphor. Implied comparison between two things by calling or implying that one is the other.

metaplasm. A change (including substitutions, additions, omissions, and inversions) in the letters or syllables of a word.

metonymy. Substitution of a word or phrase with another which it suggests. "The pen is mightier than the sword," in which both "pen" and "sword" are substituted for "written prose" and "military."

minimalist program(me). The Minimalist Program is the current version of Chomsky's Universal Grammar theory, as yet only partially developed, which tries to reduce grammar to the minimum possible principles.

mlu (mean length of utterance). MLU measures the complexity of a child's speech by averaging the number of morphemes or words per utterance, useful as an L1 measure up to about the age of 4 years.

mogigraphia. Writing with difficulty.

mogilalia. Speaking with difficulty.

mondegreen. A series of words, often humorous, that result from mishearing a statement or song lyric.

monepic. Comprising of one word, or of single word sentences.

monologophobia. A compulsive avoidance of repetition. "A monologophobe would edit the Bible so that you would read, 'Let there be light and there was solar illumination.'" -- Harold Evans.

morphology. The study of structure and form of words in language, including inflection, derivation, and formation of compounds.

movement. Movement is a way of describing the structure of the sentence as if elements in it moved around, typically in English in questions and passive constructions. Thus the question *Will John go?* comes from a similar structure to that underlying the statement *John will come* by movement of *will*.

multi-competence. The knowledge of more than one language in the same mind.

multilingualism. countries where more than one language is used for everyday purposes.

nummerset. A rustic accent or dialect for use on stage.

mumpsimus. A language error, such as with spelling or pronunciation, that is committed repeatedly, especially after correction; also, a person who repeatedly commits such an error or insists on perpetuating it.

native speaker. A person, usually monolingual, speaking the first language they learnt as a child.

noa word. A word free of any taboo in the languages under consideration, usually signifying that it may be employed without reservation in the creation of an international commercial name.

nommic. Customary, ordinary; describing the usual English spelling of a word, as distinct from phonetic spellings.

nosism. The practice of referring to oneself as "we"; a type of enallage.

number. Number is a way of signalling how many entities are involved, for example through the forms of Nouns, Pronouns and Verbs. English, French, and German have two numbers, singular (*he*) and plural (*they*). Tok Pisin and Old English, etc add dual number; Fijian trial. Number is often used to signal other things than sheer quantity, for instance social relationship through pronouns.

object. The object of the sentence is usually a Noun Phrase in a particular relationship to the Verb of the sentence acting as 'receiver of the action'; for instance the verb *see* requires an object *see something*; the verb *give* two objects *give someone* (indirect) *something* (direct).

objective correlative. A situation or sequence of events or objects that evokes a particular emotion in a reader or an audience.

official language. Language(s) recognized by a country for official purposes.

onomasiology. The branch of semantics dealing with related words and their meanings.

onomastic. Of, relating to, or explaining one or more names.

onomatopoeia. A word that refers to a specific sound and whose pronunciation mimics the sound. "Bang! Zoom!" -- Jackie Gleason.

open/close. In phonetics the dimension in which the tongue position of vowels varies from the top to the bottom of the mouth is called open/close.

oratio oblique. Indirect speech.

oratio recta. Direct speech.

Orismology. The science of defining technical terms.

orthographic depth. The scale for alphabetic languages going from 'shallow' writing systems with close links between letters and sounds such as Finnish to 'deep' writing systems with more complex links such as English.

orthographic principle. A writing system in which written symbols have a system of their own, corresponding neither to sounds nor to meanings. Cf. alphabetic principle

orthography. The study of correct spelling according to established usage.

oxymoron. The juxtaposition of incongruous or contradictory terms.

oxytone. Relating to or being a word that has an acute accent on the last syllable, especially a Greek word; also, a word with this quality.

palilogy. The repetition of a word or phrase in immediate succession, for emphasis.

palindrome. A word, phrase, clause, or sentence that reads the same regularly as it does when its letters are reversed; a type of palingram. "A man, a plan, a canal, Panama."

palingram. A word, phrase, clause, or sentence that reads the same backwards after rearranging segments. "Workmate did teamwork," is a palingram, because the sentence can be rearranged into four four-letter segments, with one three-letter segment in the middle; by reversing the order of the segments and, when necessary, rearranging the letters within each segment, the sentence reads the same backwards.

palinode. A poem or ode in which something said in a previous poem or ode is retracted.

pangram. A sentence that uses all the letters of the alphabet; a holalphabetic sentence.

paradiastole A figure of speech in which a vice is portrayed as a virtue. "He is confident," said of a proud man.

paradox. Apparent contradiction or discrepancy with common sense.

paragoge. The process by which a new word is formed by adding a letter or syllable to the end of another word. Same as "proparalepsis." "Climature," derived from "climate."

paragram. A pun.

paralanguage. The set of nonphonemic properties of speech, such as speaking tempo and vocal pitch, that can be used to communicate attitudes or other shades of meaning.

paralinguistic. Relating to the study of paralanguage.

parameter. In Universal Grammar theory the variation between languages is seen as a question of setting values for a small number of parameters, for example Italian sets the pro-drop parameter to have a value of pro-drop and thus allows sentences without subjects, *vende* (he sells), while German sets the value to non-pro-drop and thus has subjects in all sentences *Er spricht* (he speaks). Cf head parameter.

paraph. A flourish made after or below a signature, originally to prevent forgery.

paraphasia. A disorder of verbal communication that includes the transposition of letters or spoken sounds, and, in some cases, the substitution of one word for another while both words remain among the words spoken at that particular time.

paraprosoodian. Unexpected ending of a phrase or series.

parasiopesis. Mentioning an idea or event only insofar as to indicate that it be left or assumed to be understood.

parasyntesis. Derivation of words using hyphenated compounds.

parataxis. Juxtaposition of clauses or phrases without the use of coordinating or subordinating conjunctions. "She didn't remember her own name; her entire past, in fact, was blotted from her memory."

parechesis. The repetition of the same sound in words in close or immediate succession. "Veni, vidi, vici." -- Julius Caesar.

parelcon. The addition of one or more syllables to the end of a pronoun, verb, or adverb.

parsing. The process through which the mind works out the grammatical structure and meaning of the sentence. whether top-down or bottom-up.

parisology. The deliberate use of equivocal or ambiguous words.

paroemion. Excessive alliteration. "Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers."

parole. The act of speaking; a particular utterance or word.

paronomasia. Wordplay involving the juxtaposition of similar sounding words; also, punning.

paronym. A paronymous word.

paronymous. Of or relating to a word having the same stem as another. Beautiful and beauteous are paronymous words, or paronyms.

paroxytone. Relating to or being a word that has an acute accent on the next to last syllable; also, a word with this quality.

parrhesia. Freedom or boldness of speech.

pasigraphy. An artificial international language that uses characters (such as mathematical symbols) instead of words.

patavinity. The use of local or provincial words.

patronymic. Of or relating to the name of one's father or a paternal ancestor; also, a name so derived.

pejoration. Linguistic process of a word gradually becoming more negative in meaning or connotation over time.

periphrasis. Roundabout wording. "The person to whom I am married," instead of "my spouse."

perpilocationist. One who expounds on a subject of which he has little knowledge.

personification. Attribution of personal characteristics to an impersonal entity.

phatic. Characteristic of speech employed for the purpose of sharing feelings or establishing a mood of sociability rather than to communicate information or ideas.

philophronesis. The pacification of an adversary with the use of promises or mild speech.

phonaestheme. A word with a phonetic likeness to other words of similar meaning. Crush, crash, clash, bash, mash, smash, and smooch are phonaesthemes of each other.

phonaesthesia. The phenomenon by which associations arise among groups of similar sounding words, which may have close, distant, or no etymological relations to each other. Same as "klang association."

phonocentrism. Obsession with the voice.

phonetics. The sub-discipline of linguistics that studies the production and perception of the speech sounds themselves is called phonetics and contrasts with phonology.

phonology. The area of linguistics that studies the sound systems of particular languages is phonology, and is contrasted with phonetics.

phrase structure. The phrase structure of the sentence links all the parts together in a structure like that of a family tree. So the Noun Phrase *the soprano* combines with a Verb to get the Verb Phrase *played the soprano*, which in turn combines with the Noun Phrase *Sidney Bechet* to get the sentence *Sidney Bechet played the soprano*.

pleonasm. The use of a superfluity of words, often deliberately, for emphasis. "I've never seen anything more obscene in all my 80 years on this Earth."

ploce. Repetition of a word to emphasize or extend meaning.

plosive. A speech sound made by blocking the air-stream completely with the tongue or lips, allowing the air to burst out after a brief moment, as in English /t/ *tea* or /b/ *bee*.

polyptoton. Repetition of a word in different forms, cases, or with different inflection, in the sentence.

polysemous. Characterized by having many meanings.

polysemy. An instance of a word or sentence or other writing being polysemous.

polysyndeton. Repetition of conjunctions in a series of words, phrases, or clauses. "So I got mad at him and picked up a pillow and popped in him in the head."

pragmatic competence. Chomsky's term for the speaker's ability to use language for a range of public and private functions, including communication.

Prefix. A prefix is a morpheme that is added to the beginning of a word to create another word by derivation as "Brit" is added to "pop" to get *Britpop*.

Preposition. The category of grammar called preposition (P) consists of words like *to*, *by* and *with*. In UNIVERSAL GRAMMAR theory the Preposition is the HEAD of a LEXICAL PHRASE, the Preposition Phrase. When coming before a NOUN, the category is called 'preposition' as in *in Basin Street*, when after a Noun a 'postposition' *Nippon ni* (Japan in).

prescriptive grammar. Grammar that 'prescribes' what people should say rather than 'describes' what they do say.

principle. In the Universal Grammar theory, principles of language are built-in to the human mind and are thus never broken in human languages. Examples are STRUCTURE-DEPENDENCY and SUBJACENCY.

privative. Altering the meaning of a term from positive to negative; also, a privative prefix or suffix.

proclitic. A word or syllable which is joined with the following word in such a way as to lose its own independent accent. "Prithee," which is a shortening of "pray thee," and "Get," in, "Get 'em!".

pro-drop. The pro-drop parameter (null subject parameter) divides languages into pro-drop languages in which the Subject of the sentence may be left out, as in Italian *Sono di Torino* (am from Turin) and Chinese *Shuo* (speak), and non-pro-drop languages in which the subject must be present in the actual sentence as in English, German, and French.

prolepsis. Speaking or acting upon something anticipated as if it were done or existing. "I'm a dead man, now!" Alternately, positioning a relative clause before its antecedent. "Consider the lilies of the field how they grow."

procatalepsis. Anticipating and answering an opponent's objections in advance; an instance of prolepsis.

pronoun. Pronouns such as *he* and *them* differ from Nouns in that they refer to different things on different occasions: *She likes it* can refer to any female being liking anything;

Helen likes Coltrane only to a specific person liking a specific object. English pronouns have Case (*she* versus *her*) and number (*she* versus *they*).

prosopopoeia. A figure of speech in which an absent or imaginary person is represented as speaking.

prosthesis. The prefixing of one or more letters to the beginning of a word. "Beloved."

protolanguage. A language that is the recorded or hypothetical ancestor of one or more other languages. Same as "Ursprache."

prototype theory. In Rosch's theory, words have whole meanings divided into basic level ('table'), superordinate ('furniture'), and subordinate ('coffee table').

provection. The carrying forward of a final letter to the following word.

punctuation. 'the rules for graphically structuring written language by means of a set of conventional marks' (Coulmas, 1996, 421).

purr word. A word with positive connotations and therefore desirable to use in building and sustaining good public relations.

rebus. A representation of words in the form of pictures or symbols, especially when presented as a puzzle.

rheme. the part of a sentence that provides new information about the topic under discussion.

rhetoric. The art or study of using language effectively and persuasively; more generally, verbal communication.

rhopalic. Characteristic of a line or verse in which each successive word has one more syllable than the previous.

rhyme. Correspondence of terminal sounds of words or of lines of verse. "No more rhyming now, I mean it! / Anybody want a peanut?" -- The Princess Bride.

rp. The prestige accent of British English is known by the two letters RP, originally standing for 'Received Pronunciation'. It is spoken in all regions of the UK, even if by a small minority of speakers.

sandhi. Modification of the sound of a morpheme in certain phonetic contexts.

scesis onomaton. A sentence constructed with a sequence of generally synonymous phrases or statements; also, a sentence constructed only of nouns and adjectives, typically in a regular or synonymous pattern.

second language. 'A language acquired by a person in addition to his mother tongue'.

semantics. The meaning of a word, phrase, clause, or sentence, as opposed to its syntactic construction. Same as "semiotics."

sentence. A sentence is the largest independent unit in the grammar of the language. It may include other clauses within it. Sometimes it is necessary to distinguish the lexical sentences of spoken language, distinguished by their 'completeness' of structure etc, from the textual sentences of written language, distinguished by punctuation.

serif letters have small cross-strokes (serifs) and variable line width. <Fred specialized in the job of making very quaint wax toys.> (sentence with all the letters of the alphabet).

sesquipedalian. Of a word, having many syllables; of a person, tending to use long words.

shibboleth. A word or pronunciation that distinguishes people of one group or class from those of another.

short-term memory (STM). The memory used for keeping information for periods of time up to a few seconds.

sibilant. Characterized by a hissing sound, especially a speech sound, such as those indicated by "s," "sh," "z," or "zh."

stigmatism. Inability to pronounce sibilant sounds correctly.

sign language. A sign language differs from other human languages only in using a gesture system rather than a sound system.

simile. An explicit comparison between two things using the word like or as.

snarl word. A word with negative connotations and therefore not desirable to use lest good public relations be undermined.

solecism. A mistake in the use of language; also, an offense against good manners or etiquette.

sophism. A false argument, especially one intended to deceive.

specific language impairment (SLI). Specific Language Impairment (SLI) is one term for difficulties with language development in children unaccompanied by non-linguistic disabilities, possibly genetic in origin and characterized inter alia by missing grammatical morphemes.

spoonerism. The interchange of the initial letters of two words, usually as a slip of the tongue. "I think I'll go outside and get a freth of bresh air."

stichomythia. An ancient Greek arrangement of dialogue in which single lines of verse or other writing are spoken by alternate speakers.

structural grammar. Teaching term for grammar concerned with how words go into phrases, phrases into sentences

structure-dependency. Structure-dependency is a restriction on movement in human languages that makes it depend on the structure of the sentence, rather than on its linear order. A principle of Universal Grammar.

style. Style is used by Labov and others to refer to the dimension of formal to informal in language use.

subjacency. Subjacency is a restriction on grammatical movement in the sentence that prevents elements moving over more than one boundary, the definition of boundary varying as a parameter from one language to another.

subject. The Subject (S) is the Noun Phrase of the sentence alongside the Verb Phrase in its structure, *John likes biscuits*, compulsory in non-pro-drop languages in the actual sentence but may be omitted in pro-drop languages; it often acts as the 'agent of the action'.

submersion teaching. Extreme sink-or-swim form of assimilationist teaching in which minority language children are simply put in majority language classes

subreption. Phrasing words in such a way as to misrepresent by concealing facts.

subtractive bilingualism. L2 learning that takes away from the learner's capabilities. (Lambert).

suffix. A suffix is a morpheme that is added to a word to create another word by derivation. *Felon* thus becomes a second noun by adding "-y" *felony*, and an adjective by adding "-ous" *felonious*.

suprasegmental. Pertaining to a feature of speech that extends over more than a single speech sound.

syllable. A sound structure usually consisting of a central vowel (V) such as /a:/, with one or more consonant (C) preceding or following it, such as /b/ or /k/ CV /ba:/ *bar* and VC /a:k/ *ark*. Languages vary in whether they permit only CV syllables or allow CVC syllables as well and in the combinations of C that may be used.

syllipsis. Use of a single word that applies to two or more others in different senses. "He was deep in thought and in debt." Also, "We must all hang together or assuredly we will all hang separately." -- Benjamin Franklin.

syllogism. Deductive reasoning in which a conclusion is derived from two premises. "All human beings are mortal. I am a human being. Therefore, I am mortal."

symploce Simultaneous use of anaphora and epistrophe. "Justice came down from heaven to view the earth; Justice returned to heaven, and left the earth."

synaesthesia. A brain disorder characterized by a cross-referencing of senses: for example, sounds might be "seen" and colors might be "heard."

synaloepha. Omitting one of two vowels, one of which occurs at the end of one word and the other of which occurs at the beginning of the next word; a type of metaplasm. "Th'other," a shortening of "the other."

synchysis. Confused arrangement of words in a sentence, either by accident or on purpose; an extreme instance of hyperbaton or anastrophe.

syncope. Shortening a word by omitting a middle segment.

synecdoche. Referring to something by just a part of it. "New York won the World Series," instead of "The New York Yankees won the World Series."

syneresis. The drawing together of two consecutive vowels or syllables into a single syllable, as the formation of a diphthong. Same as "synaeresis."

synesis. Agreement of words to logic rather than grammatical form. "The wages of sin is death." -- Romans 6:23.

synonym. A word which has the same meaning as another. "Elated," which is a synonym for "ecstatic."

systole. The shortening of a long syllable.

tachygraphy. The art or practice of rapid writing or shorthand; stenography.

tautology. repetition of an idea in different words. "With malice toward none, with charity for all." -- Abraham Lincoln.

tautonym. A scientific name in which the genus and species names are the same. For example, gorilla gorilla.

teachability hypothesis. 'An L2 structure can be learnt from instruction only if the learner's interlanguage is close to the point when this structure is acquired in the natural setting' (Pienemann).

theophorous. Having the name of a god; derived from the name of a deity.

tnesis inserting a word in the middle of another. "Hoo-bloody-ray" and "un-freaking-believable."

top-down and bottom-up. Starting from the sentence as a whole and working down to the smallest parts of it, versus starting from the smallest parts and working up

traditional grammar. 'School' grammar concerned with labelling sentences with parts of speech.

traduttori traditori. Italian saying meaning "Translators, Traitors," implying that expression in one language can never be equivalently expressed in another.

transitional teaching. Teaching that allows people to function in a majority language, without necessarily losing or devaluing the first language.

trope. The figurative use of a word or expression.

typography. 'The structuring and arranging of visual language' (Baines & Haslam, 2002, 1).

univocalic. Writing that contains just one vowel. "Left rebel 'Red Ken' elected."

uvular. /r/ An /r/ pronounced with tongue contact at the uvula at the back of the mouth—the usual French /r/.

verb. A Verb (V) is a lexical category in the grammar made up of words such as *like* and *listen*. In UG theory it is the head of the lexical Verb Phrase (VP). Different types of verbs specify whether there is a need for: no Object *Eric fainted*, one object *Billie sang the blues* two objects *Mary gave the money to her brother*, an animate Subject *the man fainted* not *the rock fainted*, and so on.

verbicide. The destruction of the sense or value of a word.

vernacular. the language or dialect of a country; the everyday language of ordinary people.

vocal cords. ‘Vocal cords’ are flaps in the larynx which may open and close rapidly during speech to let out puffs of air, producing a basic vibrating noise called voice.

voice. Voice in phonetics is technically the vibration contributed to speech by allowing flaps in the larynx known as vocal cords to rapidly open and shut as air passes through them. Presence or absence of voice is then a distinctive feature that separates voiced sounds like the /d/ of *dime* from unvoiced sounds like the /t/ of *time*.

voice onset time (vot). When a plosive sound is created by blocking the airway through the mouth, the moment when voice starts is called the Voice Onset Time. Voicing may start before release (minus VOT) or after release (plus VOT). For example English /p/ is distinguished from /b/ by its longer VOT inter alia. VOTs vary from one language to another.

wanderwort. A word that is similar in several presumably unrelated or distantly related languages yet whose origins are unknown. "Wine."

witzelsucht. A mental disorder characterized by the making of poor jokes and puns and the telling of pointless stories and usually caused by lesions on the frontal lobe.

wordfact. A label that, when applied often enough to a particular group, eventually becomes accepted as fact. "The perception that Generation Xers are 'slackers' is inaccurate; it is a mere wordfact."

word order. A crucial aspect of the grammar of many languages is the order of the elements in the sentence, called word order in general. One variation is the order of Subject, Verb and Object, whether SVO, SOV, or whatever, the main order for a language sometimes being called its canonical order. Another word order variation is whether the language has Prepositions before Nouns *in New Orleans* or postpositions after Nouns *Nippon ni* (Japan in).

working memory. The memory system used for holding and manipulating information while various mental tasks are carried out.

writing system. A set of visible or tactile signs used to represent units of language in a systematic way...': [sense 1] 'the basic types of graphic systems designed to represent language...'; [sense 2] 'spelling, i.e. a system of rules underlying the use of the graphemes of the language.' (Coulmas, 1996, 560).

xenoepist. One with a foreign accent.

zeugma. Two words linked to another, which only applies to one of them; also, a syllepsis.

Taken and adapted by author from:

<<http://homepage.ntlworld.com/vivian.c/Linguistics/LinguisticsGlossary.htm>>

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