LANG101 WORKBOOK

Linguistics Exercises & Activities for Starters

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MADALENA CRUZ-FERREIRA
SUNITA ANNE ABRAHAM

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Madalena Cruz-Ferreira
Sunita Anne Abraham

460 Commented Exercises & Activities

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Contents

Lang101 Workbook – User's Guide

Lang101 Workbook contains 460 commented exercises and activities, dedicated to absolute beginners to the study of language, whether you're doing introductory linguistics or are simply interested in language, languages and linguistics. We mean "absolute beginners" quite literally: in order to make good use of this Workbook, all you need is curiosity about how language works and how linguists think.

We designed *Lang101 Workbook* as a companion tool to our textbook *The Language of Language. A Linguistics Course for Starters* (see our *Lang101* website and blog at http://lang101.com/), in response to feedback asking us to expand the over 100 exercises and activities contained in the textbook. Accordingly, Part 1 of the Workbook mirrors the textbook's structure, offering 360 exercises and activities corresponding to the textbook's 12 chapters (30 per chapter), which are meant to broaden your thinking beyond the material addressed in the textbook. We have also included 100 cross-chapter exercises and activities, which target revision and/or consolidation of learning by combining topics and methodology from different chapters in the textbook. Part 2 includes commented answers to all exercises. Exercises and activities are self-contained and numbered for reference purposes only, in no particular order, to serve your own learning pace – or instructors' choices concerning individual practice or assessment, in class, at home, in group discussions, or in tests and examinations.

In keeping with the spirit of our textbook, which aims to foster independent and informed thinking about language, Workbook exercises and activities require no rote learning, and are thus suited to open-book assessment. A few of the exercises and activities deliberately include issues which are not overtly covered in the textbook, and discussion topics which are phrased in such a general way as to apply to as many languages and linguistic situations as possible. Our Workbook encourages you to generalise your thinking to any language known to you, because linguistics is the science of *language*, not of specific *languages*. The Workbook features over 20 typologically distinct languages, including Angas, German, Hindi, Japanese, Malay, Mandarin Chinese, Māori, Pame, Spanish, Swahili, Tok Pisin and Turkish, besides several varieties of English, the language that we share with you.

Our goal in making *Lang101 Workbook* available to you is twofold: to raise awareness that knowledge is constantly evolving, and to bolster your confidence in addressing novel issues which may concern you as a user of particular languages. Suggested answers to exercises and activities include alternatives, because the questions under discussion are controversial depending on personal perspectives, or because linguists themselves have not reached a consensus about how to approach them. Throughout, our purpose is to generate discussion and more questions about (why) language matters, based on empirical observation and coherent argumentation.

We hope you will enjoy embarking on this journey of discovery as much as we enjoyed designing it for you.

Madalena Cruz-Ferreira
Sunita Anne Abraham

Singapore, March 2012

Exercises & Activities

Chapter 1. Language and linguistics

Exercise 1.1

This quotation is from C. Wright Mills' (1967) article 'The cultural apparatus' (In I. L. Horowitz (ed.) *Power, politics and people: the collected essays of C. Wright Mills*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, p. 405):

> *The first rule for understanding the human condition is that men live in second-hand worlds. They are aware of much more than they have personally experienced; and their own experience is always indirect.*

The quotation alerts us to the fact that most of our knowledge is gathered from other people's experience of the world, communicated through spoken or written texts. In other words, much of our knowledge is gathered through language. Does this fact make you wonder about the reliability of the knowledge that you have acquired and are acquiring now? Why?

Exercise 1.2

Consider the following quotation from Frans de Waal's (2002) article 'Seeing Through Cultural Bias in Science', online at http://www.project-syndicate.org/commentary/dewaal1/English

> *How we look at animals reflects how we view ourselves.*

Do you find this quotation relevant to the age-old question of whether animals 'have language'? Explain your thoughts on this.

Exercise 1.3

The American linguist Edward Sapir once wrote that "all grammars leak" (Sapir, E., 1921. *Language: An introduction to the study of speech*, New York: Harcourt Brace, p. 38).
By this he meant that it is very difficult to account for all patterns in a language by means of watertight rules. What we call a 'grammar' of a language will at best be a good approximation of how that language works.

What are your thoughts about this quotation, given our discussion in Chapter 1 of how scientific knowledge, and linguistic knowledge in particular, is gathered?

Exercise 1.4

Jot down as many linguistic rules as you have either discovered for yourself or been taught. Next, decide which of these linguistic principles are prescriptive as opposed to descriptive, clearly explaining how you arrived at your conclusions.

Exercise 1.5

Which of the following are scientific statements? Explain your reasoning.

(a) English is a difficult language to learn.

(b) English is a global language.

(c) English is a beautiful language.

(d) It is impossible for an adult to learn a new language properly.

(e) Children acquire language very fast.

(f) The majority of the world's population is multilingual.

Exercise 1.6

Consider the following report:

> **Diets and dying**
> Here's the final word on nutrition and health.
>
> * The Japanese eat very little fat and suffer fewer heart attacks than the British or Americans.
> * The French eat a lot of fat and also suffer fewer heart attacks than the British or Americans.
> * The Japanese drink very little red wine and suffer fewer heart attacks than the British or Americans.
> * The Italians and the French drink excessive amounts of red wine and also suffer fewer hear attacks than the British or Americans.
> * CONCLUSION:
>   Eat and drink whatever you like. Speaking English is apparently what does you in.

This is clearly not a scientific report – besides being obviously intended as a joke, on cross-national cultural habits. But what is it that makes us understand this text as non-scientific? Draw on what you've learnt from section 1.5 of the textbook to complete the tasks below:

1. List as many features of the scientific method as you can, which are lacking from this report.
2. Try to work out what a scientific investigation of "Diets and dying" might look like.

Exercise 1.7

Read the following poem, first silently, then out loud:

        One One was a race horse
        Two Two was 1   2
        1   1   1   1   race
        And 2   2   1   1   2

1. Which of the two readings most helped you make sense of the poem?

2. Make clear to yourself the arbitrary nature of:
   - the relationship between sound and meaning;
   - the conventions which are used to represent speech in print.

Exercise 1.8

Suppose someone asks you how to make the plural of nouns in English, and you answer, "You just add an 's' to the word". Would that person be justified in believing that the plural of the noun *pot*, for example, can be *spot*, *psot*, *post* or *pots*? Why?

Exercise 1.9

Explain, as thoroughly as you can, the language play involved in the two advertisements below. Don't worry (yet!) about using 'technical terms' in your analysis.

See if you can find other examples of language play, in English and other languages, and compare them with the ones we propose here.

> *Silent Knight Security Services*
> (Name of a surveillance company)

Love bites
(Ad for an online Valentine Card service – the picture accompanying the text shows a woman nibbling the ear of a man who appears to be wincing.)

Try to classify these and your own examples into categories, e.g. sound-play, word-play, play on spelling, etc. Are there any examples that you need to cross-categorise? Are there examples that do not conform to the categories that you've set up? Why?

When you've read through the textbook, come back to this exercise to discover whether or not you now see these ads in a different, *linguistic* light.

Exercise 1.10
Choose two of the interdisciplinary areas of linguistics listed on p. 21 of the textbook, and do some research, or draw on your own experience, to explain how the study of language relates to these other disciplines. Discuss your findings with friends, if you can. Perhaps you will find additional areas of interdisciplinary research not mentioned in the textbook?

Exercise 1.11
Suppose you are given the following data to analyse, all concerning renderings of the number *456* in different languages, and you are asked to decide how many words each language uses:

   (a) quatre cents cinquante-six
   (b) quatrocentos e cinquenta e seis
   (c) vierhundertsechsundfünfzig

Would you have difficulty answering the above question? Why?

Exercise 1.12
Mathematically speaking, we can say the name of the calendar year '2011' in many different ways. Most English speakers, however, tend to favour these two alternatives:

   (a) two thousand eleven
   (b) twenty eleven

 1. Predict how each group of speakers will say the name of the years 4045 and 7293.
 2. State the principle underlying the two different naming systems, as simply, generally and accurately as you can.

Exercise 1.13
Here are two 'Funny Dictionary' entries:

   (a) **Clone:** a person, two.
   (b) **Flabbergasted:** appalled over how much weight you have gained.

Explain, as thoroughly as you can, the language play involved in these definitions. Don't worry (yet!) about using 'technical terms' in your analysis.

When you've read through the textbook, come back to this exercise to discover whether or not you now see these definitions in a different, *linguistic* light.

Exercise 1.14
You may have heard the statement that "All women love shopping". If you happen to know one woman who doesn't like shopping (or if you are such a woman yourself), would you have enough data to contest the accuracy of this statement? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 1.15

Here are a few examples of the word for 'elephant' in different languages:

> Arabic: *fel*
>
> Czech: *slon*
>
> Javanese: *gajah*
>
> Swahili: *tembo*

Which of the two kinds of arbitrariness, discussed in section 1.4.1 of the textbook, do these data exemplify?

> Note: You can find many more examples of this word in other languages at the *Elephant – any way you say it* website: http://www.himandus.net/elefunteria/library/words/languages.html

Exercise 1.16

Find as many English words as you can which rhyme with the words:

> *my* *through*

You can also look for rhyming words in other languages that you speak.

> Condition: the rhyming part of the word must be spelt differently in each word that you find.

When you have your data ready, do the following:

1. Propose one or more questions which you deem relevant to help us understand the relationship between how words sound and how they are spelt.
2. Then answer your own questions!

Exercise 1.17

Sections 1.4.2 and 1.4.3 in the textbook discuss compositionality and creativity, respectively. Consolidate your understanding of the relationship between these two concepts by considering the data below and answering the question that follows.

> The three letters 'p', 't' and 'a' of the English alphabet can be combined in six different ways, as follows, only three of which result in words of English:

> *apt* **atp* *pat* **pta* *tap* **tpa*

> Do the starred combinations show creative uses of these letters to form English words. Why?

Exercise 1.18

Consider these two examples of language play:

> (a) Question: *What has six wheels and flies?*
>   Answer: *A dustbin wagon.*

> (b) *Mary had a little lamb. The midwife had a fit.*

Can you find similarities in what causes the play on words in both examples? Explain your reasoning.

When you've read through the textbook, come back to this exercise to discover whether or not you now see these examples in a different, *linguistic* light.

Exercise 1.19
The road sign below appears in the capital of the state of Brunei Darusalam, whose national language is Malay (*Bahasa Melayu*, in Malay). The sign says 'Prioritise the Malay Language' twice, both times in Malay, but in two different scripts, one Arabic-based and the other Roman-based (source: Deterding, D. (2009), Language use in Brunei, blog post at *Language in Brunei*: http://brunei-linguistics.blogspot.com/2009/01/language-use-in-brunei.html)

What does this example tell us about the arbitrariness of the written or printed forms of language which are used to represent speech?

Exercise 1.20
Section 1.6 of the textbook introduces three parameters guiding scientific investigation: *what* (the object of research), *how* (the method of research), and *why* (the purpose of research). *What, how* and *why* are not exclusive to science, however. Can you find all three parameters at work in your daily routines, such as doing homework or planning an outing with friends? Think about the way in which *what, how* and *why* pervade organised thought in general.

Exercise 1.21
The following extract is part of a collection of Spelling Poems gathered at the website of *The English Spelling Society* (http://www.spellingsociety.org/news/media/poems.php)

> Beware of heard, a dreadful word
>
> That looks like beard and sounds like bird,
>
> And dead: it's said like bed, not bead —
>
> For goodness sake don't call it deed!
>
> Watch out for meat and great and threat
>
> (They rhyme with suite and straight and debt)

1. What observations can you make about the correspondence between sound and spelling, in this extract?
   Hint: Making a list of matching and mismatching correspondences may help you formulate your answer.
2. Find matches and mismatches between sound and spelling in other languages that you speak. How do your answers to questions 1 and 2 help us understand why the prime object of linguistics is spoken language?

Exercise 1.22
Activity 1.1 in the textbook (p. 5) asks about different interpretations of the word *grammar*. Drawing on your findings for that Activity, how would you interpret the following statement:

> *Some languages have no grammar.*

Exercise 1.23

A cooking recipe is a good example of the three choices which define scientific investigation, *what*, *how*, and *why*. Find the *what*, the *how* and the *why* components in any cooking recipe that you are familiar with. Even if you only know how to boil an egg, you do know at least one cooking recipe!

Exercise 1.24

Alphabetic scripts were devised to represent speech sounds by means of printed symbols. This representation is known to be arbitrary: the letter 'a', for example, represents different sounds in the English words *at*, *ate* and *art*. In contrast, logographic scripts, which represent words, are sometimes said to reproduce the referent of those words more or less faithfully. Figures 1 and 2 show samples of alphabetic and logographic scripts, respectively.

Figure 1. Comparison of Egyptian, Sinaitic, Phoenician, early Greek, Greek and Latin characters.

Figure 2. Seven logograms of four early logographic writing systems.

Source: Hudson, G. (2000) *Essential Introductory Linguistics*. Oxford: Blackwell.

What are your observations, concerning the arbitrariness of the two types of scripts, as exemplified here?

Exercise 1.25

The descriptive approach to language favoured by linguists is sometimes confused with a willingness to encourage "incorrect" or "non-standard" uses of language. How would you, as a budding linguist, argue against this position?

Exercise 1.26

Section 1.4.3 in the textbook quotes Wilhelm von Humboldt's observation that language makes "infinite use of finite means". Make sure that you understand this insight, by asking yourself questions such as: what does the expression "finite means" refer to, and in what way are those means finite? What does "infinite" mean, and how does infinity relate to finite means? If uses of language are infinite, how is it possible to describe languages at all?

Exercise 1.27

We use language to express meaning, and we often think that we express meanings in a clear and precise way. That is, we believe that our statements and questions convey information that is both unambiguous and accurate. Consider the data below:

     (a) I'm going out for another ice-cream.

     (b) Sam has dropped Chemistry.

     (c) Which suit would you like to choose?

     (d) Does Kim still enjoy flea markets?

1. List all the pieces of information that you can gather from each of the utterances above.
2. Think about the relevance of your findings for the kind of statements and questions that form part of scientific research.

When you've worked through Chapters 9, 10 and 11 in the textbook, come back to this exercise, to discover whether or not you now see it in a different, *linguistic* light.

Exercise 1.28

A *syllogism* is a form of reasoning comprising two premises (supporting statements) and a conclusion.

1. In the following syllogism, what conclusion can you draw from the given premises?

    Premise 1   *Dogs are dangerous.*

    Premise 2   *Fido is a dog.*

    Conclusion   ……………….

2. What does your answer to part 1 tell you about the truth, or falsehood, of the conclusion you reached? Explain your reasoning.

3. Consider now this other syllogism. Can you draw a conclusion from the given premises? Explain why, or why not.

    Premise 1   *Dogs are dangerous.*

    Premise 2   *Smokey is a cat.*

    Conclusion   …………………

Exercise 1.29

The three texts below, all of which appeared in printed media, are examples of language play:

     (a) Be Younique!

        (Advertisement promoting the individuality of offered goods.)

     (b) Meet the fizzicists

        (Newspaper headline announcing a study of why champagne bubbles.)

     (c) Xtraordinary!

        (Advertisement promoting the special quality of offered goods.)

Can you find shared ways through which language play is achieved, in all three texts? Explain your answer concisely.

Exercise 1.30

Language enthusiasts are sometimes fond of saying that anything involving human beings also involves language. Those who are less enthusiastic about language sometimes reply: "Not when you sleep!" How would you comment on each of these positions on human language? Try to find activities or situations which necessarily involve language, as opposed to those that may not involve language.

Chapter 2. Language and languages

Exercise 2.1
Would you be able to discuss linguistics (or geography, literature, physics) in other languages that you speak besides English? Explain why, or why not.

Exercise 2.2
Are there any reasons that would make you want to change the way you use your language(s)? Explain what might make you want, or not want, to be able to use your language(s) differently.

Exercise 2.3
Here are a few examples of original meanings of English words, when they first appeared in this language:

> *black* – shiny
> *hound* – dog
> *meat* – food
> *silly* – happy
> *wife* – woman

So, you could once say: *My unmarried sister is a silly wife with black blond hair. She carries her hound everywhere and handfeeds it caviar and other meat.* Similar changes in meaning occur in all languages.

Do the current meanings of these and other words indicate that speakers are losing touch with the way their language(s) should be used? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 2.4
What does the word 'good' mean to you, in expressions like *good English*, or *good language*?
When you've worked this out, ask yourself, in all honesty, whether you think you speak good English, or good *X* (where *X* stands for other languages that you may speak), according to your own criteria of 'goodness', and why you think so. You can also put these questions to friends and relatives, and compare your findings.

Exercise 2.5
How would you fill in the blanks in order to complete the (b) sentences in each pair below? Do this exercise individually, and then ask friends to do it too. Discuss your findings with them.

1. (a) This invention is my brainchild.
    (b) These inventions are my _____.

2. (a) Look! There is one Mickey Mouse over there!
    (b) Look! There are two Mickey _____ over there!

3. (a) My grandmother has a sweet-tooth.
    (b) My grandparents have sweet-_____.

4. (a) I will baby-sit my cousin later today.
    (b) I baby- _____ her yesterday too.

5. (a) There's one Appendix with a drawing of a Phoenix in this book.
    (b) There are two _____ with a drawing of two _____ in this book.

Exercise 2.6

Recall what we learned about creoles in section 2.4.1 of the textbook, where we said that creoles are fully-fledged languages. It is often the case that creoles take their vocabulary from one language and their grammatical structure from another language, or from several different languages. Here is one example from Tok Pisin, a creole from Papua New Guinea, which has several different forms for the English word 'you':

Tok Pisin words for 'you'	Use
yu	to address one person
yutupela	to address two people
yutripela	to address three people
yupela	to address four or more people

Can you work out from these data which linguistic features are taken from English and which are taken from other languages? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 2.7

The English word *savvy* is borrowed from the Portuguese verb *sabe*, meaning 'knows'. Propose an explanation for how the meaning of *savvy* evolved in English, once this word became an English word.

Exercise 2.8

Consider the following utterances:

    (a) Ladies and gentlemen, the President will now address the meeting. So shut up.

    (b) My beloved spouse kicked the bucket recently.

Would you find each of them appropriate? Why?

Exercise 2.9

Based solely on the data below, which of the two languages (A or B) would you say is closer to English? Explain your observations and your conclusion.

English	Language A	Language B
black	sort	preto
flower	blomst	flor
name	navn	nome
ship	skib	navio
thick	tyk	grosso
white	hvid	branco
window	vindue	janela
woman	kvinde	mulher

Exercise 2.10

Below are three examples of different historical stages of English:

> **Old English** (9th century)
>
> "… and hit wæs gehīered þæt hē wæs on hūse. And manige togædre cōmon; and hē to him spræc."

> **Middle English** (14th century)
>
> "Heere bigynneth the Millere his tale:
>
> Whilom ther was dwellynge at Oxenford
>
> A riche gnof, that gestes held to bord, …"

> **Modern English** (from 16th century)
>
> "… and they come vnto him, bringing one sicke of the palsie, which was borne of foure."

Find arguments for and against the usefulness and/or accuracy of labelling all three stages as the same language, through the use of the word "English".

What does this exercise tell you about the ease/difficulty of identifying particular languages?

Exercise 2.11

The following words (and many more) were borrowed from French into English, starting with the Norman conquest of England in 1066:

café	*canteen*	*chapel*	*croissant*	*envelope*	*garden*	*image*
jail	*joy*	*machine*	*miracle*	*oil*	*poor*	*prince*
prison	*restaurant*	*rich*	*saint*	*standard*	*tower*	*treasure*

English grammar has Germanic roots, and English is classified as a Germanic language. Does this influx of French/Latin-based words into English provide evidence that English was once a pidgin? Explain your reasoning.

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise 2.12

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Contemporary English features a large number of 'doublets' in its vocabulary, pairing together words inherited from Germanic, on the one hand, and borrowed from Latin (via French), on the other. The table below gives a sample of these lexical doublets:

Romance-based	Germanic-based
complete	full
visitor	guest
colonise	settle
immortal	undying
protect	shield
talent	gift
control	steer
legal	lawful
liberty	freedom

Do a mini-survey among users of English to find out whether the words in each of these doublets share the same meanings, i.e. whether both words can be used in the same ways. You can use introspection and survey yourself!

Exercise 2.13

Consider the following English data:

> *He might could do it.*
> *Have you got a pen handy?*
> *This is very different than what I saw before.*
> *I ain't gonna do nothing about it.*
> *I've got to go now.*
> *Also can.*
> *I been there.*
> *They want the singers for to do an encore.*

Do any of these utterances strike you as odd? Why?

Exercise 2.14

The data below give analyses of one word each from three languages, to exemplify different ways in which single words of a language carry meaning(s). English glosses, for words or word parts, are given in italics below each example.

Turkish	**word**:	gözlerimin	'of my eyes'		
	analysis:	göz	ler	im	in
		eye	*-s*	*my*	*of*

Portuguese	**word**:	lavei	'I washed'	
	analysis:	lav-	-ei	
		wash	*I, -ed,* etc.	

Mandarin	**word**:	hé mǎ	'hippopotamus'
	analysis:	hé	mǎ
		river	*horse*

Which one would you say is a simpler (or more complex) language? Alternatively, does it make sense to say that one language is simpler/more complex than another? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 2.15

Sections 2.4 and 2.5 of the textbook discuss convergence and divergence, instances where we adapt our language use in order either to identify with our interlocutors or distance ourselves from them. Find examples of convergence and divergence in your own uses of language, and discuss them with friends. What is it that makes you/them want to converge with and diverge from your/their interlocutors?

Exercise 2.16

Languages are constantly changing because we constantly demand that they serve our communicative needs in new ways, even when we are engaged in what we take to be routine activities. Language change is observable during the lifespan of individual speakers, most strikingly in vocabulary.

Create a list of words and expressions that were fashionable when you first started school, and compare them to current vocabulary, in any of the languages that you speak. You may want to consult old newspaper editions to help you with this task. Alternatively, observe vocabulary uses of elderly vs. younger members of your family or acquaintances.

Exercise 2.17

Find examples of English words which have been borrowed into other languages that you speak. Perhaps a few have been borrowed recently and you use them quite often yourself? You can also use an etymological dictionary. Do these words cluster around specific areas of vocabulary?

Exercise 2.18

Suppose someone tells you that you 'speak dialect', or that you 'speak a dialect'. Would you find this offensive? Why?

Exercise 2.19

Find out, with the help of a dictionary, the languages from which English borrowed the following words:

(a) *karaoke*   (b) *robot*   (c) *bungalow*   (d) *pizza*

Try to find out also what these words mean in their original languages, and how the original meanings relate to the current English meanings.

Exercise 2.20

In Chapter 2 of the textbook, we discuss possible translations of the English word *grandmother* in different languages (p. 27). In Hindi and Turkish, for example, there is no single word for 'grandmother', in that you need to specify whether you're referring to a maternal or paternal grandmother:

	Mother's mother	**Father's mother**
Hindi	nani	dadi
Turkish	anneanne	babaanne

Would you then say that Hindi and Turkish are poorer languages than English, because they lack the word for 'grandmother'? Or that Hindi and Turkish are more complex languages than English because their words for 'grandmother' reflect distinctions not found in English? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 2.21

Section 2.2 in the textbook discusses the matter of perspective, in relation to descriptions of the same event in different languages. Drawing on that discussion, explain what you understand of this common saying about translating languages:

The meaning is sacred, the words are not.

Exercise 2.22

In his book *Sociolinguistics. An Introduction* (Penguin, 1974), the sociolinguist Peter Trudgill writes:

"Two towns may be socially 'closer' to each other than they are to the intervening stretches of countryside." (p. 160)

By this he means that geographical distance and geographical barriers hinder the spread of particular linguistic features so that distant communities which speak the same language eventually end up speaking it in different ways.

However, Trudgill also remarks that speech features spread more easily from one urban area to another urban area than from urban to rural areas, even though the urban and rural areas may be geographically closer together than the two urban areas.

1. Do you find that Trudgill's observations still hold true today, nearly 40 years after he first made them? Explain your reasoning.
2. Trudgill's observations concerned dialects, geographically-bound varieties of languages. Do they apply to sociolects too? Again, justify your arguments clearly.

Exercise 2.23
Here is a sample of word pairs, in different languages, which share the same etymology. That is, both words in each pair come from the same original word. The list below gives the current meaning of the words in the languages other than English. Study the word meanings in each word pair carefully:

1. English **husband** – Swedish **husbonde** 'farmhouse master'
2. English **queen** – Danish **kvinde** 'woman'
3. English **sinister** / **dexterous** – Italian **sinistra** 'left(-hand)' / **destra** 'right(-hand)'
4. English **parents** – Portuguese **parentes** 'relatives'
5. Danish **pige** 'girl' – Swedish **piga** 'housemaid'
6. Portuguese **cadeira** 'chair' – Spanish **cadera** 'hip'

What observations can you make about the relationship between the word meanings in each word pair?

Exercise 2.24
In the year 1066, England was invaded by Norman conquerors, who settled the country, and replaced native English institutions and rulers with Norman ones. The Normans spoke French, a Latin-based language, and the vocabulary of English has ever since acquired many French-based words, while keeping original English ones with related meanings, too. Examples are French-based *profession*, *abdomen* and *infant* vs. English-based *job*, *midriff* and *baby*, respectively.

1. Can you explain why French-based words of English are still associated with more formal uses than English-based words?
2. Can you think of other situations where a new 'imposed' or 'imported' language comes to gain a similar higher status than local languages spoken in that country?

Exercise 2.25
American English is a dialect of English. So is British English, Australian English, Indian English, Jamaican English, and so on.

1. Choose any one dialect of English, or of any other of your languages, and find out whether that dialect is in fact a single dialect. For example, is there a single Belgian French, or Singapore Tamil dialect? You can choose your own dialect, for this investigation.
2. What do your findings tell you about the accuracy of language labels like *English*, *Farsi*, *Swahili*?

Exercise 2.26
Find examples, in your own community/country, of language change due to:

1. Language contact;
2. Language spread.

Is there a straightforward difference between change caused by language contact and change caused by language spread? Try to explain your findings and observations.

Exercise 2.27
Printed forms of language are generally more conservative than spoken forms. This means that spellings tend to retain symbols (letters, characters) which are no longer pronounced. One example is the English word *knight*, which was once pronounced exactly as spelt, 'k-n-ee-g-h-t'.

There are two major types of English accents, those where the letter 'r' is pronounced in words like *car* and *cart*, and those where 'r' is not pronounced in words like these. Which of the two accents is the older one? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 2.28
There is a common perception that a global language tends to become simplified, as it becomes used by more and more people as a lingua franca. Would you agree that this is the case for English, the current global language?

Exercise 2.29
Chinese and Japanese share (Chinese) characters as a printed form of language. Does this mean that the two languages are related? Why?

Exercise 2.30
When a new nation/country is created, now as throughout human history, one of the first decisions to be made concerns the choice of one or more "national language(s)". Can you explain why this should be so?

———————

Chapter 3. The grammar of words: words and word parts

Exercise 3.1
Select the word class of *fast* in the following sentences, from the options given below.

    1. Harold is a fast reader.
    2. He works fast.
    3. He is fast.
    4. We fast during Ramadan.
    5. Our fast lasts the whole month.

Options: a. noun   b. adjective   c. verb   d. adverb   e. pronoun   f. determiner

Exercise 3.2
What is the word class of *Portuguese* in each sentence? Give one referential and one distributional reason why you think so.

    a. That woman is Portuguese.
    b. The Portuguese eat a lot of fish.
    c. Cork is a Portuguese product.

Exercise 3.3
Fill each of the blanks below with a single word, to build four well-formed sentences. You can use the same word for all four blanks, if you wish.

    1. What is the word class of the word(s) that you've filled in?
    2. Based on your findings, propose two distributional frames for this word class.

        Birds _____ .

        They _____ .

        Her sister _____ .

        She _____ .

Exercise 3.4
This sentence is ambiguous, i.e. it means two different things. (The sentence is adapted from Terry Winograd's work.)

        Mary heard that petrol can explode.

    1. Paraphrase the sentence, so that each of the two meanings becomes clear.

    2. Indicate the alternative word classes of the words in the sentence that cause the ambiguity.

Exercise 3.5
Do these data give us evidence to treat *adjective* and *adverb* as two separate word classes? Explain your answer.

        a. my old friend   c. my very old friend
        b. *my friend old   d. *my friend very

Exercise 3.6
The XP version of the Windows software has the following instruction to remove items in the 'Recycle Bin': *Empty the Recycle Bin*
Earlier versions like Windows 98 and Windows 2000 had this instruction: *Empty Recycle Bin*

Can you explain why the formulation of this instruction was changed?

Exercise 3.7

Select the simple words in the following data. Disregard any minor differences in spelling between complex words and the morphemes that make them up.

a. truth
e. dismay
b. enlighten
f. downloaded
c. fancier
g. barbecue
d. rings
h. furious

Exercise 3.8

Select the words that contain at least three morphemes. Disregard any minor differences in spelling between complex words and the morphemes that make them up.

a. trickier
e. irresistible
b. disappointment
f. rechargeable
c. territorial
g. butterflies
d. badminton
h. disentangled

Exercise 3.9

Do these words contain cranberry morphemes? Explain your answers.

a. walnut
b. honeybee
c. rosemary
d. pineapple

Exercise 3.10

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. A grammatical word is always a bound form.		
2. Any word consists of at least one morpheme.		
3. Morphemes must have meaning.		
4. Morphemes must have lexical meaning.		
5. A simple word contains no morphemes.		
6. A simple word is always a lexical word.		
7. A bound form is always part of a complex word.		
8. A complex word always contains a bound form.		

Exercise 3.11

Consider the following text:

> Sales grow slowly but look promising. Unlike the earlier Board, the current directors remain aware that simply talking about
>
> profits means a waste of valuable time.

Find all the complex words in this text and split them into morphemes.
(As usual, disregard any minor spelling differences between stem and complex word.)

Exercise 3.12

In the following table:

- Tick the cell(s) corresponding to any simple words in the data.
- For all words in the data, write in the appropriate cell which free forms and/or bound forms they contain.

	Simple word(s)	**Free form(s)**	**Bound form(s)**
growth			
wallet			
daydreaming			
examples			
incorrectly			
webmaster			
display			

Exercise 3.13

Chapter 3 in the textbook gives no detail on the patterning of the word classes Determiner (containing words like *my, the, this*) and Preposition (words like *in, of, through*), among others.
Consider the following data:

in school	my school	in my school	*my in school
through ice	the ice	through the ice	*the through ice

With support from the data, provide arguments for treating Determiner and Preposition as two separate word classes.

Exercise 3.14

Choose the word sets that contain at least two complex words:

- a. display, busy, tease, market
- b. barbecued, summer, remain, winter
- c. drive-in, tree, pleased, decide
- d. umbrella, popcorn, shirts, signposted
- e. pickle, pretty, mugged, ugly
- f. rainforest, jungle, scared, useful
- g. rice, mango, lights, button
- h. sword, machine, savage, disaster

Exercise 3.15
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The word *kitchen* is a simple word.		
2. The word *lighten* is a simple word.		
3. A complex word cannot contain free forms.		
4. A lexical word cannot contain bound forms.		
5. Grammatical morphemes have no meaning.		
6. A free form must have lexical meaning.		
7. A morpheme is always a bound form.		
8. A grammatical morpheme is always part of a complex word.		

Exercise 3.16
Section 3.4.1 of the textbook states that "Lexical words […] form the largest group of words in languages" (p. 53). This means that the inventory of words of any language consists of a majority of lexical words. On the other hand, frequency counts in English spoken and/or written texts show that the most common words of English are words like *the, of, and, I, you*.

Is there a contradiction between these two observations? Why?

Exercise 3.17
The spelling of the following three words may suggest that they are complex words:

badminton   *profile*   *butterfly*

1. Explain whether all three words are simple words.
2. Explain whether any of the words can be said to contain cranberry morphemes.

Exercise 3.18
Given the following sentence:

Horse-riding is a fancy sport.

1. What is the word class of *Horse-riding*, in this sentence? Give one reason why you think so.
2. What is the word class of *fancy*, in this sentence? Give one reason why you think so.

Exercise 3.19
Choose the word sets where all words contain one or more bound forms.

a. clueless, scholarship, mistrust, endanger

b. drunkard, mustard, orchard, leopard

c. thunder, bossy, messy, manager

d. blacklisted, login, intent, infection

e. disprove, goes, tumble-drier, spiders

f. telemarketer, dissolved, troublesome, itchy

Exercise 3.20
Give the word class of each of the underlined words, as used in the following sentences.

1. a. *I'm <u>well</u> again, after my operation.*
   b. *Sally is doing <u>well</u> in her studies.*

2. a. *<u>That</u> child is really cute.*
   b. *The newspapers reported <u>that</u> inflation has increased.*

3. a. *The <u>inside</u> of the cottage was whitewashed.*
   b. *There is mould <u>inside</u> most cabinets.*

Exercise 3.21
Consider the following data, from Swedish:

blomma ('flower')	blomman ('the flower')
piano ('piano')	pianot ('the piano')
äpple ('apple')	äpplet ('the apple')
pojke ('boy')	pojken ('the boy')
radio ('radio')	radion ('the radio')
öga ('eye')	ögat ('the eye')

What do these data tell you about Swedish? Try to draw as many conclusions from the data as you can, and explain your reasoning throughout.

Exercise 3.22
Split these complex words into morphemes. As usual, disregard minor differences in the spelling of morphemes and words composed of them:

inhumanity   suntanned   unbelievable   body-snatchers

Exercise 3.23
In the table below, write in the appropriate cells all the free and/or bound morphemes that the given words contain. The first word, *singing*, has been done for you.

Words	Free morpheme(s)	Bound morpheme(s)
singing	*sing*	*-ing*
dismantle		
toothache		
hardship		
bargain		
displacement		

Exercise 3.24

The extract below, from Children's Laureate (2007-09) Michael Rosen's poem "An A to Z of English", exemplifies some of the problems associated with traditional definitions of word classes:

> The teacher said:
> "A noun is a naming word.
> What is the naming word in the sentence:
> 'He named the ship *Lusitania*'?"
> "Named," said George.
> "WRONG. It's 'ship'."
> "Oh", said George.

> > The teacher said:
> > "A verb is a doing word.
> > What is the doing word in the sentence:
> > 'I don't like doing homework'?"
> > "Doing," said George.
> > "WRONG. It's 'like'."
> > "Oh", said George.

> The teacher said:
> "An adjective is a describing word.
> What is the describing word in the sentence:
> 'Describing sunsets is boring'?"
> "Describing," said George.
> "WRONG. It's 'boring'."
> "I know it is," said George.

Based on the knowledge you may have about the teaching of traditional grammar (your own school experiences may be of help, for example) and on what you've learnt so far in this course about word classes, consider the accuracy and the relevance of this poem in identifying a grammar teaching issue.

To view Michael Rosen performing the poem, visit this site:
http://labspace.open.ac.uk/mod/resource/view.php?id=390365

Exercise 3.25

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. A complex word always contains a bound form.		
2. A bound form is always part of a complex word.		
3. A bound form is always part of a grammatical word.		
4. A complex word contains at least two morphemes.		
5. All free forms are lexical morphemes.		
6. Words belonging to grammatical word classes have no meaning.		
7. Words belonging to grammatical word classes are bound forms.		

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise 3.26

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Provide arguments, evidence and/or counterevidence for the truth or falsehood of each of the statements in the previous exercise.

Exercise 3.27

These data are from Portuguese:

Data Set 1

Portuguese	English		Portuguese	English
gato	'male cat'		gata	'female cat'
menino			menina	'girl'
médico	'male doctor'			'female doctor'
	'male wolf'		loba	
filho	'son'			'daughter'
			tia	'aunt'

1. Complete the table above, according to the patterns that you observe in the given data.
2. Propose a meaning for each of the bound forms -*o* and -*a* in the data.

Consider now Data Set 2:

Portuguese	English		Portuguese	English
tesouro	'treasure'		tesoura	'scissors'
lagarto	'lizard'		lagarta	'caterpillar'
queixo	'chin'		queixa	'complaint'
galo	'rooster'		gala	'gala'
cavalo	'horse'		cavala	'mackerel'
barro	'clay'		barra	'rod'

3. Will you need to revise the morpheme analysis that you proposed in 2? Explain why, or why not.
4. What conclusions can you draw, from both sets of data, about patterns in Portuguese nouns?

Exercise 3.28

Both texts below were created from English. Is one of them easier to "understand", as it were, or are both equally opaque to you? Explain your reasoning.

Text 1

'Twas brillig , and the slithy toves
Did gyre and gimble in the wabe
All mimsy were the borogroves,
And the mome raths outgrabe.

Text 2

Ratch tun hazy, ind lare hoveril craft
Floot turn ind roll plen lare open
Whep ripplic tunet lare clouden
Ind lare sailboaten shudderaft.

Exercise 3.29

Part One

Linguists use two methods to distinguish word class – distribution and word structure. The data in (1) show the distribution of the made-up English words *plessy* and *scrome*. State the distributional frame of the two words, so that using distribution alone, you can decide whether or not the two words belong to the same word class.

(1)   a.   *Grace is plessy.*
            b.   **Grace is a plessy.*
            c.   *Grace is a scrome.*
            d.   ** Grace is scrome.*

Part Two

The data in (2) provide information about word structure. Given (2), do you need to revise your answer to Part One? Why?

(2)   a.   *plessy / plessier / plessiest*
            b.   **scrome / *scromer / *scromest*

Exercise 3.30

Consider the underlined words, as used in the following sentences. Write the word class of each word in the spaces provided, in the same order in which they appear in the sentences.

1.   (a) During the day, the light <u>shifts</u>. _____

   (b) During the day, the light <u>shifts</u> are more noticeable in the morning. _____

2.   <u>This</u> book doesn't explain <u>this</u> clearly. _____   _____

3.   She is <u>pretty</u>, and she is <u>pretty</u> good at singing too. _____   _____

4.   He is a <u>stupid</u> idiot. He is even more <u>stupid</u> than his sister. _____   _____

5.   (a) Their kitchen flooded <u>after</u> they renovated the house. _____

   (b) The floor was damaged after the flood. _____

6.   (a) Her beautiful singing <u>impressed</u> the audience very much. _____

   (b) They were really <u>impressed</u> after the show. _____

Chapter 4. The grammar of words: word building

Exercise 4.1

Write each of the following words in the appropriate cell of the table below, according to the type of affix that the word contains. The word *walked* has been done as an example.

unfair *enlarge* *catches*
friendship *disappear* *faithful*
song's *puppeteer* *appearance*

	derivational		inflectional	
	class-maintaining	**class-changing**	**class-maintaining**	**class-changing**
prefix				
suffix			*walked*	

Exercise 4.2

Put a tick in the appropriate cell(s) of the table below, to indicate all the word-formation processes undergone by each word. Explain all your answers.

Note: There may be more than one word-formation process for each word.

	derivational affixation	inflectional affixation	compounding	acronymy	blending	clipping
emoticon						
cell phone						
ID card						
blogger						
stockbroker						
childhoods						
break-in						
TVs						

Exercise 4.3

The following tree diagram assigns an ill-formed structure to the word *playfully*.

Explain why the structure is ill-formed.
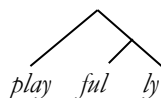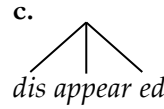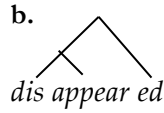
play   ful   ly

Exercise 4.4

Below are three tree diagrams giving alternative structures for the word *disappeared*.
- 1. Circle the label of the diagram that best reflects the internal structure of the word.
- 2. Explain your answer.

a.
dis appear ed

b.
dis appear ed

c.
dis appear ed

Exercise 4.5

Choose the set(s) in which all the words in the set contain the same affix.

1. *remake, replay, remain, retell*
2. *unfair, uncomfortable, unbearable, unable*
3. *gladly, happily, sadly, merrily*
4. *tapes, houses, drinks, bottles*
5. *impossible, impractical, impressive, improbable*
6. *illogical, illegal, illusion, illiterate*

Exercise 4.6

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. A complex word must contain an affix.		
2. A bound form is always a suffix.		
3. A suffix is always a bound form.		
4. A prefix is a morpheme.		
5. The word *rearrangements* contains three stems.		
6. All affixes that attach after the stem are inflectional.		
7. Affixes always convey grammatical meanings.		
8. Free forms cannot contain affixes.		

Exercise 4.7

In section 4.2 of the textbook, we gave arguments explaining why a word like *darkroom* is well-formed, as opposed to *roomdark*. This being so, how would you explain the well-formedness of the word *seasick*?

Exercise 4.8

Do the following pairs of words contain the same affix or different affixes? Why?

(a) *friendly – roughly*
(b) *brighten – enlarge*

Exercise 4.9

1. Find arguments suggesting that the words *singer* and *cooker* contain different affixes. Then give arguments suggesting that they contain the same affix.
2. Which arguments do you find more compelling, and why?

Exercise 4.10

In each of the following three sets, all the words except one follow the same word-formation rule. For each set:

1. Select the word that breaks the rule.
2. Give the word-formation rule for the remaining words in the set.

    Set A. (a) retry   (b) redo   (c) reborn   (d) redial

    Set B. (a) liar   (b) typist   (c) actor   (d) drinker

    Set C. (a) talented   (b) behaved   (c) gifted   (d) diseased

Exercise 4.11

The following word-formation tree diagram is unlabelled. The diagram indicates only the order of attachment of morphemes to form a word, not the type of morphemes.
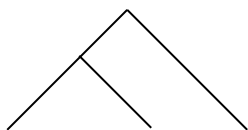
Among the words below, circle those whose word formation order matches the tree diagram:

    nationalities   apples   ballpoint pen   unbearable

    rain-shelter   reasonable   renewal   disallows

Exercise 4.12

Given the following utterances:

    (a) They never clean the <u>blackboards</u> after class.
    (b) I hope this is not a <u>disabling</u> disease.

Give the full word-formation history of the two underlined words. That is, name each of the word-formation processes and each of the word classes in the steps that successively account for the use of each word in the given utterance. Justify all your answers.

Exercise 4.13

Consider the underlined words in the following sentences:

    He's a really <u>unpleasant</u> type.
    I've had to <u>unpack</u> all these cartons by myself.

Do both words contain the same prefix? Why?

Exercise 4.14

Out of context, the word *tamer* is ambiguous.

1. Use the word *tamer* in two sentences that show the two different meanings of the word, one sentence for each meaning.
2. Give a morphological explanation for each meaning of the word *tamer*.

Exercise 4.15

Find examples of affixation, compounding and conversion in a language that you speak, other than English. How would you present your cross-linguistic findings to someone who doesn't speak your other language(s)?

Exercise 4.16

The following word sets have five words each, one underlined, and four in *italics*. Among the words in italics, all but one follow the same word-formation rule as the underlined word. In each word-set, circle the word that breaks the rule.

1. disassemble *disengage* *disappoint* *disconnect* *disobey*

2. statement *replacement* *agreement* *element* *announcement*

3. ineffective *inconsistent* *indecent* *indefinite* *informative*

4. actor *manager* *speculator* *tutor* *liar*

5. brighten *weaken* *thicken* *woollen* *blacken*

6. friendship *flagship* *fellowship* *membership* *partnership*

7. curling *duckling* *humming* *snarling* *whirling*

8. enlarge *endear* *encourage* *enable* *enrich*

Exercise 4.17

Drawing on what you've learned about word formation in English, explain why the following underlined word is an example of language play. The example is taken from the Food for thought section in Chapter 4 of the textbook, p. 97:

If writers write, how come fingers don't fing*?*

Exercise 4.18

Consider the following data from Pame, a language spoken in Mexico:

nadò	'dog'	nadòi	'two dogs'	ladòt	'three or more dogs'
nanhò	'coyote'	nanhòi	'two coyotes'	lanhòt	'three or more coyotes'
nahwã	'red'	nahwãi	'two red ones'	lahwãt	'three or more red ones'

1. Identify all the morphemes in the data, and suggest a likely meaning for each one.
2. Which type of morphemes do the data show?
3. Given *nakkòi* 'two doves', what do the data suggest as the likely Pame forms for 'dove' and 'three or more doves' be?
4. Given *lawáhat* 'three or more falcons', what is the likely meaning of *nawáhai* in Pame?

Exercise 4.19

Discuss the word-formation history of the underlined words in the following data, stating which word-formation processes are involved in each one:

(a) The footballer was red-carded for verbal abuse.
(b) Grassroots Leader Praises Election Process (from a newspaper headline)
(c) The accident caused a severe nosebleed.

Exercise 4.20

Choose the word pairs where both words contain the same suffix:

a.	watery pushy	d.	tower shutter	
b.	national universal	e.	meatball handball	
c.	redo remake	f.	ticklish foolish	
d.	playful cupful	g.	hats mats	

Exercise 4.21

Each of the words below, given in italics, is followed by a morphological description. The symbol + indicates the <u>sequential</u> ordering of word parts in each word.

Circle the letters (a, b, c, etc.) where the description matches the given word.

a. *fountain pens* noun stem + noun stem + derivational affix

b. *unfortunate* derivational prefix + verb stem + derivational suffix

c. *disagreements* derivational prefix + verb stem + derivational suffix + inflectional affix

d. *interpret* derivational prefix + verb stem

e. *inglorious* bound form + free stem + bound form

f. *phoneme* free stem + derivational affix

g. *disaster* free form

h. *enables* derivational prefix + adjective stem + inflectional suffix

Exercise 4.22

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. All words containing more than one affix are complex words.		
2. All words containing more than one stem are compounds.		
3. All words containing a suffix are inflected words.		
4. All words containing a prefix are derived words.		
5. A compound cannot contain affixes.		
6. Only affixes contribute to the meaning of complex words.		
7. A simple word contains no morphemes.		
8. A simple word contains lexical morphemes only.		

Exercise 4.23

Below are two tree diagrams showing alternative structures for the word *encouragement*. Choose the diagram that best describes the internal structure of the word, and explain your choice.

a.   b.

en   courage   ment   *en   courage   ment*
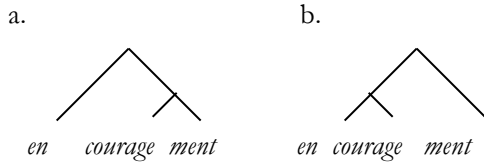
Exercise 4.24

This exercise has four parts, relating to the data below.

Malay	English	Malay	English	Malay	English
sokong	to support	*penyokong*	supporter	*sokongan*	support
tulis	to write	*penulis*	writer	*tulisan*	writing
jual	to sell	*penjual*	seller	*jualan*	sale
tari	to dance	*penari*	dancer	*tarian*	dance
ukir	to carve	*pengukir*	carver	*ukiran*	carving

(i)   State the word-formation rule for turning Malay verbs into nouns meaning 'person/thing who V-s'.
(ii)   State the word-formation rule for turning Malay verbs into nouns meaning 'result of V-ing'.
(iii) Given the Malay noun *penapis* ('strainer'), give the Malay verb meaning 'to strain'.
(iv)   Given the Malay noun *ukuran* ('measurement'), give the Malay verb meaning 'to measure'.

Exercise 4.25

The term *broadband* refers to the strength of the signal in a telecommunications device, and is commonly used to refer to a type of internet service provision. The quality of the signal may vary for various reasons, resulting in greater or weaker signal strength at any one time. This being so, discuss why we can say (a) but not (b), when we wish to explain why the signal strength varies:

(a)   This signal has a broader band in the morning than in the evening.

This signal has a narrower band in the evening than in the morning.

(b)   *There's usually a more broadband in the morning than in the evening.

*There's usually a less broadband in the evening than in the morning.

Exercise 4.26

In 1994, Jack Winter wrote an account of how he met his wife ('How I Met My Wife'), which was published in *The New Yorker*. An excerpt of this account follows:

> *It had been a rough day, so when I walked into the party I was very chalant, despite my efforts to appear gruntled and consolate. I was furling my wieldy umbrella for the coat check when I saw her standing alone in a corner. She was a descript person, a woman in a state of total array. Her hair was kempt, her clothing shevelled, and she moved in a gainly way.* […]

Drawing on what you've learnt about word formation, explain how the humour apparent from this text is achieved.
The full text of this piece is at
http://www.newyorker.com/archive/1994/07/25/1994_07_25_082_TNY_CARDS_000367745

Exercise 4.27
Consider the underlined words in the following sentences:

      (a) He is really <u>careful</u>.

      (b) He is really <u>forgetful</u>.

      (c) He is really <u>frightful</u>.

Come up with linguistically interesting questions about these words, which draw on what you have learnt in Chapter 4 of the textbook. Then answer your own questions, in a way that reflects your understanding of material covered in that chapter.

Exercise 4.28
Consider this statement:

      The suffix -*ness* attaches to adjectives to form nouns.

1.   Explain whether these two words are counterexamples to the statement.

      (a) tiredness   (b) lioness

2.   Explain why the (possible English) word **intelligentness* is <u>not</u> a counterexample to the statement.

Exercise 4.29
The table below shows data from Turkish:

Turkish word	English translation	Turkish word	English translation
ders	lesson	dersler	lessons
dersin	your lesson	derslerin	
diş	tooth		teeth
dişin		dişlerin	your teeth
	hand	eller	hands
	your hand		your hands
	house	evler	
evin	your house	evlerin	
kibrit		kibritler	matches
kibritin	your match		your matches

1.   Complete the data set, by filling in the missing words in the blank cells according to the patterns that you observe.

2.   List all the morphemes that you find in the data, stating their type, meaning and distribution.

Exercise 4.30

For each paired set below, decide whether any of the compounds in the pair is a headed compound, and explain your reasoning.

1. (a) pressure cooker   (b) coffee-maker
2. (a) sunrise   (b) sunset
3. (a) podcast   (b) broadcast
4. (a) grandchild   (b) brainchild
5. (a) housefly   (b) butterfly
6. (a) tiptoe   (b) big toe

Chapter 5. Speech sounds

Exercise 5.1
Give the phonetic symbols for the sound(s) whose articulation fits the following descriptions.

This exercise is meant to reinforce your learning of the articulation of the speech sounds introduced in the textbook through bodily feedback. As you search for matches with the given articulatory descriptions, try pronouncing the sounds, rather than looking at your notes or the textbook. Use a mirror, if you can.

    a. One or both lips are used.

    b. The upper teeth are used.

    c. Air goes out through the nose.

    d. The tongue blade is used.

    e. The tongue body is raised and fronted.

    f. The tongue body is retracted.

    g. Air goes out of the mouth with audible friction.

    h. The tongue body is raised, and air flows out through the nose.

Exercise 5.2
Give the phonetic symbols for the sound(s) whose articulation fits the following labels.

1.   a. bilabial

       b. unrounded open

       c. voiced fricative

       d. alveolar plosive

2.   a. [+sonorant +high]

       b. [-sonorant -stop -voice]

       c. [+front]

       d. [+stop +back]

Exercise 5.3
Provide DF characterisations for each set of sounds below. Your goal is to use the fewest number of features to capture what is distinctive about each set.

    1. [p, t, k, b, d, g]   2. [p, t, k, b, d, g, m, n, ŋ]   3. [p, m, f, v, u]

    4. [d, n, z]   5. [p, b, f, v]   6. [ŋ, ɑ, u]

Exercise 5.4
Transcribe the following words phonetically, using only the phonetic symbols introduced in this course.

    1. tacks   2. bank   3. knee

    4. snooped   5. taxi   6. noose

Exercise 5.5

For each sound type below, choose the option that best describes its articulation.

1. Consonant
    a. The articulators touch.
    b. The articulators do not touch.
    c. There is a smooth obstruction to the airflow.
    d. There is an obstruction to the airflow.
    e. There is no obstruction to the airflow.

2. Plosive
    a. The articulators touch and the velum is raised.
    b. The articulators touch and the velum is lowered.
    c. The articulators touch and the vocal cords vibrate.
    d. The articulators do not touch and the vocal cords do not vibrate.
    e. The articulators do not touch and there is a closure in the vocal tract.

3. Velar
    a. The velum vibrates.
    b. The back of the tongue touches the hard palate.
    c. The back of the tongue touches the soft palate.
    d. The back of the tongue touches the soft palate and the velum is raised.
    e. The back of the tongue touches the soft palate and the velum is lowered.

4. [+nasal]
    a. The velum is raised.
    b. The velum is lowered.
    c. The velum vibrates.
    d. The vocal folds vibrate.
    e. There is smooth airflow.

5. [-front]
    1. The body of the tongue is not fronted.
    2. The body of the tongue is fronted.
    3. The body of the tongue is not retracted.
    4. The body of the tongue is retracted.
    5. The tip of the tongue is not fronted.

6. [+coronal]
    a. The front of the tongue is involved.
    b. The back of the tongue is involved.
    c. The body of the tongue is involved.
    d. The tip of the tongue is involved.
    e. The tongue is involved.

Exercise 5.6

In each pair of sounds below, which IPA labels do you need to change in the articulatory description of the first sound to produce the second?
    Hint: Start by giving the full IPA description of each sound.

      1. [d] → [t]   4. [d] → [z]
      2. [d] → [m]   5. [i] → [u]
      3. [d] → [n]   6. [i] → [ɑ]

Exercise 5.7

Let's play a game where you make an English word (the target word) by pronouncing another English word (the source word) back-to-front. For example, the source word *tap*, pronounced back-to-front, gives the target word *pat*. Which words of English would you find, by pronouncing the following words back-to-front? One example has been done for you.

Source word	Source transcription	Target transcription	Target word
tap	/tæp/	/pæt/	*pat*
mood			
speak			
max			
scene			

Exercise 5.8

Choose the set(s) where:

1. All the words end in the same sound.

    a. lamb, bomb, ramp, romp, lamp

    b. tease, breeze, horse, gene, loose

    c. sin, sane, line, pan, soon

    d. books, moose, juice, rats, piece

    e. queen, bean, bane, beam, inn

2. All the words contain close vowels.

    a. cram, scram, cream, scream, crude

    b. loose, easy, peace, rule, move

    c. barn, leap, mask, tease, mood

    d. dean, doom, bloom, dam, peel

    e. true, blew, blast, creed, plead

3. The first and the last sound in the words are [+labial].

    a. move, blue, foam, barf, peeve

    b. boom, mop, farm, move, map

    c. coo, moo, igloo, noon, school

    d. boon, Pam, mum, Sue, flew

    e. mime, beam, mob, oomph, Bob

4. The first and the second sound in the words are [+high].

    a. keel, gap, gang, cool

    b. pool, gad, coo, moot

    c. geek, key, keen, goof

    d. guard, keep, keen, cool, goon

    e. cart, camp, goose, geese

Exercise 5.9

The following descriptions give articulatory labels for the sequence of sounds that make up a word. The labels are separated by commas.

In each word set, indicate the word(s) whose sequence of sounds matches the given description.

Description 1.   voiced, rounded vowel, fricative, vowel

Word set   a. goose
                   b. goofy
                   c. goodie
                   d. noose
                   e. booty

Description 2.   alveolar fricative, plosive, close vowel, labial

Word set   a. scheme
                   b. Steve
                   c. spoof
                   d. snoop
                   e. steed

Description 3.   [-sonorant -stop -voice], [+lab], [+sonorant -stop -lab], [-voice]

Word set   a. sneeze
                   b. spoof
                   c. speak
                   d. soot
                   e. smack

Description 4.   [+coronal], [+sonorant -stop +high], [+coronal]

Word set   a. knead
                   b. nook
                   c. sad
                   d. scene
                   e. niece

Exercise 5.10

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The articulation of all back vowels involves the tongue.		
2. The articulation of all back vowels involves the lips.		
3. The articulation of all plosives involves the lips.		
4. The articulation of fricatives never involves the vocal cords.		
5. The word *gang* contains [+back] sounds only.		
6. The word *fees* contains fricative sounds only.		
7. Intonation involves the vocal cords.		
8. All plosives involve complete closure in the vocal tract.		

Exercise 5.11
Provide at least four different spellings for each of the sounds [k], [u], [f] and [s] in English, giving words as examples.

Exercise 5.12
For each of the following sounds of English, explain what is meant by the underlined words. What are the articulatory actions that correspond to each label?

    a. / t /   voiceless alveolar plosive
    b. / ŋ /   velar nasal
    c. / v /   voiced labio-dental fricative
    d. / æ /   unrounded low front vowel

Exercise 5.13
The following utterances are ambiguous, in writing.

1. Read each of them out loud with different intonations, so that at least two different meanings of each utterance become clear.

    (a) She gave her dog biscuits.
    (b) This is how small shops should be.
    (c) I didn't go to the doctor because I was ill.
    (d) I know clever people like you.

2. Which features of intonation did you find relevant to disambiguate these utterances? Listen for pitch (rising, falling, level), stress (strong, weak) and rhythm (linking words together, pausing between them).

3. Find examples of similar ambiguity in languages other than English, and compare your findings.

Exercise 5.14
Descriptions 1. and 2. below give articulatory labels for the sequence of sounds that make up a word. The labels are separated by the symbol +.
Choose the word(s) in each word set whose sequence of sounds corresponds to the given description.

Description 1	nasal + close vowel + alveolar fricative
Word set	*cease* *knees* *moose* *bees*

Description 2	fricative + voiceless plosive + open vowel + labial
Word set	*scab* *staff* *spam* *steam*

Exercise 5.15
The IPA term *plosive* and the DF term *[+stop]* are sometimes taken as 'rough' correspondents of one another. In the description of English consonants, can they be taken as full equivalents, that is, is an English plosive the same as an English [+stop] and vice versa? Why?

Exercise 5.16

In the data below, choose the sets where the given DF matches the following conditions:

1. The DF characterises the <u>FIRST CONSONANT</u> in each of the following sets of words:

Word-set	**DF**
a. *feet, scene, past, chemical*	[-voice]
b. *ghost, marsh, nasty, cab*	[+stop]
c. *zombie, need, cereal, tent*	[+coronal]
d. *modern, vanilla, peel, freeze*	[+labial]

2. The DF characterises the <u>LAST SOUND</u> in each of the following sets of words:

Word-set	**DF**
e. *blue, soup, enough, tab*	[-back]
f. *wine, clam, fang, garden*	[-stop]
g. *key, ring, two, bag*	[+back]
h. *disease, past, league, flat*	[-sonorant]

3. The DF characterises <u>ALL THE SOUNDS</u> in each of the following sets of words:

Word-set	**DF**
i. *gang, knee*	[+voice]
j. *geek, coo*	[+high]
k. *mean, moon*	[+nasal]
l. *boom, move*	[+labial]

Exercise 5.17

This is a phonetic variant of the Word Search pastime.

Below is the set of English sounds discussed in this course, arranged in an apparently random layout, just like words are laid out in a word-search grid. Your task is to find the subset of sounds corresponding to each of the DF descriptions below the grid, and enclose each subset on the grid by means of a rectangular box. The first one, [+sonorant -stop], is done for you as an example. (You may want to use different colours to box each subset.)

   <u>Condition</u>: only rectangular boxes are allowed on the grid.

				d	z	
				t	s	
		k				
			p			f
i	u		b			v
			m			
		ŋ		n		
		g				
æ	ɑ					

<u>DF Search</u>:

a. [+sonorant -stop]	d. [+coronal]	g. [+back]
b. [+stop]	e. [+lab]	h. [+low]
c. [-sonorant -stop]	f. [+front]	i. [+high]

Exercise 5.18

In some languages, [-sonorant] sounds are also [-voice], unlike in English. Speakers of these languages may therefore pronounce certain words of English ambiguously.

In the following table, transcribe the likely pronunciation of the given English words for these speakers, and give also the English spelling of the words as they are pronounced by these speakers. In your transcription, use <u>only</u> the phonetic symbols introduced in the textbook.

To help you fill in the table, one example has been done for you.

Original English word	New English word in phonetic transcription	New English word in spelling
beat	[pit]	*peat*
van		
mood		
bag		
fang		
zap		

Exercise 5.19

The table below provides articulatory descriptions. Options A. to J. in turn offer 10 sets of speech sounds.

In the relevant cells of the table, write the letter (A, B, etc.) of the set(s) in which <u>all</u> the sounds match the given articulatory description.

Articulatory Description	Set(s)
1. The lips are used.	
2. The teeth are used.	
3. The tongue body is retracted and raised.	
4. The tongue body is used.	
5. The tongue blade is used and there is smooth airflow.	
6. There is smooth airflow.	
7. There is contact of articulators.	

A. [n d s]   B. [v s p z]   C. [f m u]   D. [k]   E. [n]

F. [v n b i]   G. [g ŋ u]   H. [v f m ɑ]   I. [æ i ŋ]   J. [t d g n]

Exercise 5.20

Read these English words out loud. Then, write them out in ordinary spelling. If there is more than one spelling for any word, give all possible spellings!

(a) [si]   (b) [munz]   (c) [stimd]   (d) [pɑm]   (e) [iv]

Exercise 5.21

Suppose you have a very bad cold which has completely blocked your nose, so that you cannot breathe through it nor use it in speech. You now have difficulty pronouncing certain sounds, so that some of your English words sound like other English words. For each of the following words in the table below, do the following:

1. Transcribe the given word, under "Word transcription", using only the phonetic symbols introduced in this course.
2. Transcribe the way you now pronounce the same word, under "**Your** word in transcription".
3. Give the spelling of the word that you now pronounce, under "**Your** word in spelling".

To help you fill in the table, one example with the word *cat* is done for you.

Word	Word transcription	Your word in transcription	Your word in spelling
cat	/kæt/	/kæt/	*cat*
moot			
bang			
mean			
soup			

Exercise 5.22

This task is about whether you can perform a *neat move*, phonetically speaking. From the two words given below (the source words), can you form two new words (the target words), by changing the phonetic description of the sounds in each word? You'll have to start by transcribing the source words phonetically.

The order of the sounds is the same in both source and target words but, to make this task more challenging, the phonetic clues for the sounds of each word are scrambled, and make use of both DF and IPA labels. The arrow means 'becomes'. All other phonetic features of the target sounds, except the ones affected by the clues, remain the same. When you're done, read your answer with a very emphatic intonation!

> Word 1.   *neat*
>   Clues: [-stop +high] → [-stop +low]
>   nasal → voiceless velar plosive
>   [-sonorant -voice +coronal] → [+sonorant +voice +coronal]

> Word 2.   *move*
>   Clues: [-sonorant] → delete this sound
>   bilabial nasal → voiced alveolar plosive

Exercise 5.23

Vowel quadrilaterals are usually drawn as in Figure 5.3 in the textbook, that is, as a geometrical trapeze with a longer top line than bottom line. See if you can find out why vowel space is typically represented in this way and not, for example, as a square or a rectangle.

Exercise 5.24

Consider the following articulatory description:

"The body of the tongue is raised towards the soft palate."

Choose the statement(s) that are true about this articulatory description.

(a) This articulation corresponds to a [+back] sound.
(b) This articulation corresponds to a [-voice] sound.
(c) This articulation corresponds to a [+sonorant] sound.
(d) This articulation corresponds to a plosive sound.
(e) This articulation corresponds to a nasal sound.
(f) This articulation corresponds to an alveolar sound.

Exercise 5.25

Suppose you have just visited the dentist, who gave you a pain-killer injection that completely paralysed your lower lip, so that you are now unable to use it. In the following list, circle the words that you would have trouble pronouncing:

sneeze	*boom*	*sat*	*teak*	*starved*
apt	*fee*	*peas*	*cart*	*noodles*

Exercise 5.26

As stated in the introduction to Chapter 5 in the textbook, "Phonetics deals with the articulatory capabilities of the vocal tract, and therefore with an ability shared by all human beings" (p. 99). This means that understanding vocal tract anatomy and practising vocal tract mechanics can give you access to the pronunciation of languages that you don't speak. Many phoneticians in fact enjoy 'pretending' to speak a language simply by reading phonetic transcriptions of them.

Here is an exercise that shows you how you can develop your articulatory skills, and your understanding of phonetics. The first example is from English, a language familiar to you, to get you started. Whether you speak the two other languages below or not, follow the instructions as you did for the English example.

1. <u>English</u>. Raise the tip of your tongue to almost touch the back of your front teeth, and produce a voiceless fricative. You are now pronouncing the sound at the beginning of words like *thanks* in many varieties of English. The phonetic symbol for this sound is [θ]. Propose an IPA label for this sound, and transcribe the word *thanks* phonetically.

2. <u>Mandarin</u>. Say [mɑ] with a high level tone of voice. You are now saying the Mandarin word for 'mother' (妈). Now say [mɑ] with a high falling tone, to say the Mandarin word for 'to scold' (骂).

3. <u>French</u>. Position your articulators for the vowel [ɑ], then close your lips and say a long [m] sound without moving any of your other articulators. Still with your other articulators frozen in place, open your lips slowly to pronounce the vowel, keeping your lips slightly rounded. Repeat until you can say the vowel on its own, without the help of [m]. You are now saying the French nasalised vowel [ɑ̃] (a tilde on vowel symbols indicates nasalised articulations). Now add a [v] before the vowel, to say the French noun *vent* ('wind'). Propose an IPA label for [ɑ̃], and transcribe the word *vent* phonetically.

Exercise 5.27
Choose the statements that are true:

(a) The only difference between [f] and [v] is their manner of articulation.

(b) The only difference between [d] and [t] is their manner of articulation.

(c) The only difference between [i̥] and [æ] is tongue height.

(d) The only difference between [m] and [ŋ] is their place of articulation.

(e) The only difference between [t] and [s] is their place of articulation.

(f) The only difference between [i̥] and [u] is tongue backness.

Exercise 5.28
The name *Maggie Babcook* is said to provide an impossibly "twisted" tongue-twister. To check that this is so, try saying it three times in a row, without pausing. Better still, ask someone else to say this. Then do the following:

1. Transcribe the twisted result, using only the phonetic symbols introduced in this course.
2. Transcribe *Maggie Babcook*.
3. Using IPA terminology, explain what you think causes the tongue-twisting.
4. Comment on the appropriateness of the label "tongue-twister".

Exercise 5.29
Choose the word(s) in which the last sound is [-voice +labial]:

(a) cap   (d) graph

(b) elf   (e) shoe

(c) too   (f) boom

Exercise 5.30
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	True	False
1. All the sounds in the word *knee* are [+high].		
2. The word *fax* contains only voiceless phonemes.		
3. The articulation of all plosives involves vocal cord vibration.		
4. The articulation of all [+high] sounds involves the back of the tongue.		
5. The articulation of close vowels involves the tongue.		
6. The articulation of a [-stop] sound involves contact of articulators.		
7. All sounds involving contact of articulators are voiceless.		
8. The production of a rising tone involves movement of the lower jaw.		

Chapter 6. The grammar of sounds

Exercise 6.1

Consider the following pairs of words, given here in spelling:

1. gang – gap	4. knee – pea	7. lard – laugh
2. beef – bean	5. flew – blue	8. field – feel
3. fat – fax	6. see – sea	9. far – fee

State which pairs form minimal pairs, and explain your answers.
Hint: Transcribing the words phonetically will help you decide.

Exercise 6.2

Suppose you're playing a game where you have to go from a source word to a target word, as shown below, by means of minimal pairs at each intermediate step. For example, from the source word *man* to the target word *park*:

(source)	*man* /mæn/	
step 1.	*pan* /pæn/	
step 2.	*pack* /pæk/	
step 3.	*park* /pɑk/	(target)

Now try the following: 1. From *seem* to *bang* 2. From *fang* to *cart*

Give all the words, source, intermediate and target, in transcription and in spelling. The winner will have the smallest number of intermediate words.

> **Just for fun:** Choose other source and target words, for practice. Or play this game another way, asking how many minimally-paired words can be made from any source word to any target word. The winner in this version of the game will have the largest number of intermediate words.

Exercise 6.3

In different varieties of English, we find different pronunciations of the same words. Suppose Speakers A and B pronounce these words in the following ways:

Word	Speaker A	Speaker B
sleeve	[slif]	[sliv]
leave	[lif]	[liv]
sleep	[slip]	[slip]
slab	[slæb]	[slæp]
slap	[slæp]	[slæp]

1. Which phonemes of English, if any, can you identify in Speaker A's data?

2. Which phonemes of English, if any, can you identify in Speaker B's data?

Exercise 6.4

In some varieties of English, the following pronunciations are found:

mood	[mut]	*deem*	[dim]
two	[tu]	*coop*	[kup]
noon	[nun]	*gag*	[gæk]
bead	[bit]	*tan*	[tæn]

1. Choose the rule that best describes the observed pronunciations in the data, from among these options.

   a. Consonants are voiceless in word-final position.

   b. Consonants are voiceless in word-initial position.

   c. Consonants are voiceless.

   d. Plosives after high vowels are voiceless.

   e. Plosives after low vowels are voiceless.

   f. Plosives are voiceless in word-final position.

2. According to the rule that you chose, transcribe the likely pronunciations of the following words in the same varieties of English.

Word	Transcription		Word	Transcription
scheme			*stooped*	
dab			*speed*	
van			*bee*	

Exercise 6.5

In some varieties of English, the following pronunciations are found:

Dataset 1

feet	[pit]	*roofs*	[rups]
laughed	[lɑpt]	*farmland*	[pɑmlænd]
flax	[plæks]	*star-fruit*	[stɑprut]

1. Choose the best description of the pattern that you observe in these data. Explain your answer.

   a. These speakers confuse the phonemes /p/ and /f/.

   b. These speakers cannot pronounce the letter 'f'.

   c. These speakers replace /f/ with /p/ whenever they should say /f/.

   d. These speakers replace /f/ with /p/.

   e. These speakers cannot speak English properly.

2. Does the description that you chose in (1) also describe these data? Explain your answer.

Dataset 2

beef	[bip]	*teaspoon*	[tisfun]
carpool	[kɑful]	*flew*	[plu]
pram	[fræm]	*peace*	[fis]

3. Datasets (1) and (2) show pronunciations that are phonetically natural. Why are these pronunciations natural?

Exercise 6.6

The English phonemes transcribed /l/ and /r/ are voiced. In ordinary speech, the usual pronunciation of these sounds is voiceless in some cases. The phonetic symbol for voicelessness is [̥], placed underneath the symbol for the sound in question. Thus, voiceless /l/ and /r/ are transcribed [l̥] and [r̥].
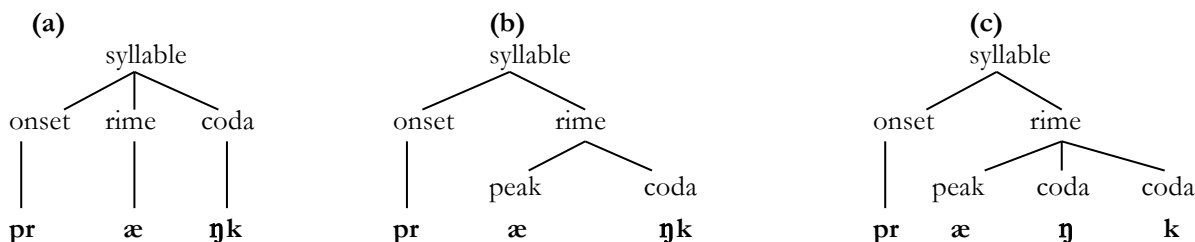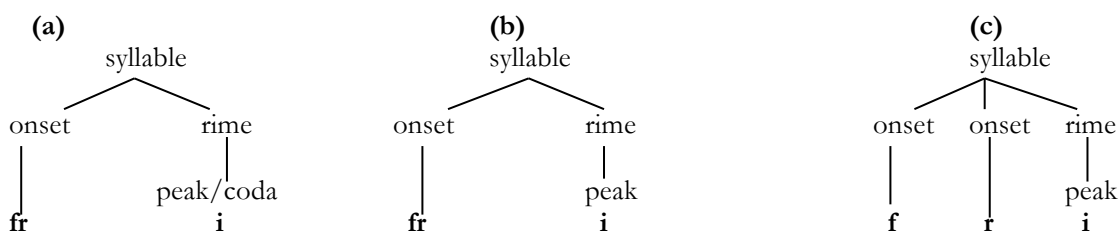
Now consider the following data:

gleam [glim]	*greed* [grid]	*bleed* [blid]	*dream* [drim]
tree [tr̥i]	*cream* [kr̥im]	*please* [pl̥iz]	*cleave* [kl̥iv]

1. Propose a rule that describes the pattern that you observe in the data. Remember to make your rule as simple and as general as possible.

2. These data show pronunciations that are phonetically natural. Why are these pronunciations natural?

Exercise 6.7

Choose the diagram that best describes the syllable structure of the words *prank* and *free*.

1. prank

(a)
```
        syllable
       /   |    \
  onset  rime   coda
    |      |      |
   pr      æ     ŋk
```

(b)
```
       syllable
      /        \
  onset        rime
    |         /    \
   pr      peak    coda
    |        |       |
   pr        æ      ŋk
```

(c)
```
       syllable
      /        \
  onset        rime
    |        /  |   \
   pr    peak coda coda
    |      |    |    |
   pr      æ    ŋ    k
```

2. free

(a)
```
      syllable
     /       \
  onset      rime
    |          |
    |       peak/coda
   fr          i
```

(b)
```
      syllable
     /       \
  onset      rime
    |          |
    |        peak
   fr          i
```

(c)
```
       syllable
      /   |    \
  onset onset rime
    |     |     |
    |     |   peak
    f     r     i
```

Exercise 6.8

Provide diagrams for the syllabic structure of the words *schoolbag* and *backslapped*.

Exercise 6.9

Choose the best syllabification for the word *restroom* from the choices below, and explain your answer.
    (a) re.stroom   (b) res.troom   (c) rest.room   (d) restr.oom

Exercise 6.10

Indicate the word pair(s) where the only difference between the words in the pair is the given syllable part.

1. coda

(a) back – bang

(b) speak – steep

(c) snack – snag

(d) slam – sap

2. peak

(a) ban – bean

(b) leaf – laugh

(c) soot – seem

(d) bead – bad

3. onset

(a) green – treat

(b) soup – snoop

(c) ski – me

(d) school – tool

4. rime

(a) seize – soon

(b) steel – eel

(c) spam – slam

(d) scheme – school

Exercise 6.11

Consider the English data in (1) below:

(1)   a.   [spik]   [stæk]   [ski]   [spɑ]   [stip]

       b.   *[sfik] *[svik] *[sgi]   *[sbɑ]   *[sdik]

Which rule would you choose to account for the pattern observed in (2)?

Rule 1: [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed only by voiceless consonants.
Rule 2: [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed only by plosives.
Rule 3: [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed only by voiceless plosives.

Now consider the data in (2) below:

(2)   [smɑt]   [snik]   [snæg]   [smæk]

Do you have to reject/modify the earlier rule that you chose to account for the data in (1) and (2)? Why?

Exercise 6.12

The following data are from German. Phonetic transcription is adapted from standard descriptions of the language, in order to fit the phonetic symbols introduced in this course, and translations are given just for your information:

zwanzig	('twenty')	[tsvɑntsiç]	leicht	('light')	[lɑiçt]
nicht	('not')	[niçt]	Buch	('book')	[buχ]
Nacht	('night')	[nɑχt]	Bach	('Bach')	[bɑχ]
auch	('also')	[ɑuχ]	ich	('I')	[iç]

Are the sounds [ç] and [χ] phonemes or allophones of German? Why?

(In case you're curious, [ç] is a voiceless palatal fricative, and [χ] a voiceless uvular fricative.)

Exercise 6.13

Consider the following data. The transcriptions show the usual pronunciations of the word *bean* associated with the utterances given in italics.

beanbags	[bim]	*beancurd*	[biŋ]
bean diet	[bin]	*bean paste*	[bim]
bean growth	[biŋ]	*beans*	[bin]

Describe the pattern that you observe in the data. Remember that a description must be as <u>simple</u> and as <u>general</u> as possible. As usual, take the data as representative.

Exercise 6.14

We often think of languages as 'consisting of' words, sounds and phrases, and we assume that we speak them in distinct words, sounds and phrases – or that this is the 'correct' way of speaking them.

Language play tells us that this is not so, as exemplified in the so-called 'Knock, knock' jokes. These jokes follow a standard pattern in dialogue form, as follows:

Speaker A: Knock, knock.
Speaker B: Who's there?
Speaker A: *X*. (where *X* represents any utterance.)
Speaker B: *X* who?
Speaker A: (Punchline, which plays on the pronunciation of *X* to yield an unexpected meaning.)

What do the following 'Knock, knock' jokes tell us about some of the features of English connected speech? Connected speech refers to the way in which we actually pronounce word sequences.

(1)   Knock, knock.
         Who's there?
         Lettuce.
         Lettuce who?
         Lettuce in, we're freezing!

(2)   Knock, knock.
         Who's there?
         Justin.
         Justin who?
         Justin time for dinner.

Exercise 6.15

In the following table, each of the given sets of sounds contains one sound that does not form a natural class with the remaining ones in the set. In the appropriate slots in the table, write:

- ▪ The symbol for the sound that is the odd-one-out in each set.
- ▪ The one DF that characterises the remaining sounds in the set as a natural class. Remember that DFs can have positive or negative values!

Sound set	Odd-one-out	DF for the remaining sounds
[p b f m]		
[p b f s k]		
[t s m n z]		
[ɡ k i u]		

Exercise 6.16

In Angas, a language spoken in Nigeria, sonorant consonants are usually voiced. From the data below, predict when sonorants become devoiced in Angas, and explain your reasoning. The symbol [̥] means 'devoiced'/'voiceless', and English translations are given just for your information (data adapted from Halle, M., & Clements, G. N. (1983). *Problem Book in Phonology*. Cambridge, MA/London: MIT, p. 45.):

[nuŋ]	('to ripen')	[tam̥]	('bench')	[pampam̥]	('bread')
[ntaŋzum̥]	('wasp')	[mut]	('to die')	[ndarm̥]	('to bark')
[mbaŋga]	('drum')	[deŋ̥]	('to drag')	[dondoŋ̥]	('yesterday')

Exercise 6.17

Consider the English plosive sounds in the following data. The raised symbol [ʷ] following a sound represents lip-rounding that is added on to the articulation of that sound in speech.

pool	[pʷul]	*bar*	[bɑ]
key	[ki]	*goof*	[ɡʷuf]
tan	[tæn]	*coop*	[kʷup]

1. How many variants of plosive sounds can you find in the data? Which variants are these?

2. Can you find a natural explanation for the patterns observed in the data? Recall the discussion of natural classes of sounds in section 6.2.5 of the textbook.

3. According to your analysis of the data, would you say that, e.g. [k] and [kʷ] are phonemes or allophones, in English? Why?

4. According to your conclusions in 3., predict the pronunciation of the following words (you may want to give your answer in phonetic script):

   tool   guard   deep   boost   cat

Exercise 6.18

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The minimal pair *moon-noon* shows a change in place of articulation in the onset.		
2. The minimal pairs *back-bag* and *surf-serve* are formed through a change in the same DF in the coda.		
3. A well-formed syllable must contain a peak.		
4. A well-formed syllable must contain a rime.		
5. The codas in the stems of the words *sunny, sadder, goats, deafness* are all [+coronal].		
6. The words *leak* and *lack* show that [i] and [æ] are phonemes of English.		

Exercise 6.19

Consider the following data:

sneeze	[snis]	sneezing	[sniziŋ]
carve	[kɑf]	carving	[kɑviŋ]
steam	[stim]	steaming	[stimiŋ]
tag	[tæk]	tagging	[tægiŋ]
feed	[fit]	feeding	[fidiŋ]

Choose the statements that are true about the data.

   a. The data show examples of minimal pairs.
   b. The data show that consonants are voiced before a vowel.
   c. The data show that plosives are voiced before a vowel.
   d. The data show that consonants are voiceless in word-final position.
   e. The data show that plosives are voiceless in word-final position.
   f. The data show examples of alternation.
   g. The data show examples of allomorphs.
   h. The data show examples of allophones.

Exercise 6.20

Consider the following words:

cease   bees   boost   seas

   1. Using only the phonetic symbols introduced in the textbook, give one phonetic transcription for each word, in your own pronunciation.

   2. According to your answer to 1, list the phonemes of English that these data allow you to identify.
       If no phonemes can be identified, your answer is "*none*".

Exercise 6.21

In the following table, write the IPA and the DF label(s) that describe each set of given English sounds as a natural class. Remember that natural classes of sounds should be described by the smallest possible number of labels.

Sound set	IPA label(s)	DF label(s)
[i æ u ɑ]		
[t s]		
[æ ɑ]		

Exercise 6.22

The following data are from Spanish. (You need not worry about the actual pronunciation of the phonetic symbols that may be unfamiliar to you.)

cero   [seɾo]   'zero'   cerro   [sero]   'hill'

para   [paɾa]   'for'   parra   [para]   'grapevine'

caro   [kaɾo]   'expensive'   carro   [karo]   'cart'

pero   [peɾo]   'but'   perro   [pero]   'dog'

Would you say that [ɾ] and [r] are phonemes or allophones, in Spanish? Why?

Exercise 6.23

Provide tree diagrams for the syllabification of these two words, according to your own pronunciation. Start by transcribing each word phonetically, using only the phonetic symbols introduced in this course (the symbol "r", representing the letter 'r', also represents the sound /r/).

       1. *gasmask*   2. *artistic*

Exercise 6.24

Māori, a language spoken in New Zealand, has several words borrowed from English and adapted to Māori phonology. From the sample below, which favoured syllable type can you identify in Māori phonology? Explain your reasoning.

	English word	Māori borrowing
1.	company	kamupene
2.	cup	kapu
3.	book	puka
4.	spoon	pune

Exercise 6.25

Consider the following compounds:

       (a) *pea stalks*   (b) *peace talks*

Drawing on what you've learnt about the behaviour of English voiceless plosives, explain how the two compounds are distinguished in speech.

Exercise 6.26

Consider the following English nouns:

Set A   *deed   beak   root   bag   crab   cap*

1. Using only the set of phonetic symbols introduced in this course, transcribe the plural form of each of these nouns in your own pronunciation.
    Note: the symbol "r", representing the letter 'r', also represents the sound /r/.

2. Try to find a pattern in your plural data (for example, whether you pronounce the {plural} morpheme differently, depending on any characteristics of the sound that precedes this morpheme), and propose a rule which describes your pronunciation of the {plural} morpheme for the whole of the data in Set A.

3. Now consider the English nouns in data Set B, and again transcribe your pronunciation of their plural forms:

    Set B   *van   bee   reef   glue   sleeve   cream*

4. Does the rule that you proposed in 2 describe your pronunciation of the {plural} morpheme in both sets of data? If so, explain how. If not, give a new rule that accounts for the pronunciation of {plural} in both sets.

5. Test the predictive power of your final rule. According to the rule, which would be the plural form of the nouns in data set C, below? Check whether the form predicted by the rule matches your pronunciation of the plural forms of these nouns:

    Set C   *gang   beat   lard   crew*

Exercise 6.27

Phonology is about the sounds that play a linguistic role in languages, whereas phonetics is about actual speech sounds. This means that phonological descriptions abstract much of the detail found in real speech, in order to account for the general properties of the sounds of a language. The American linguist Trey Jones proposed the visual representation of the relationship between phonetics and phonology presented below (©2007 Trey Jones/*Speculative Grammarian*, used with permission).

Can you tell which of the figures represents phonetics, and which represents phonology? Explain your reasoning.

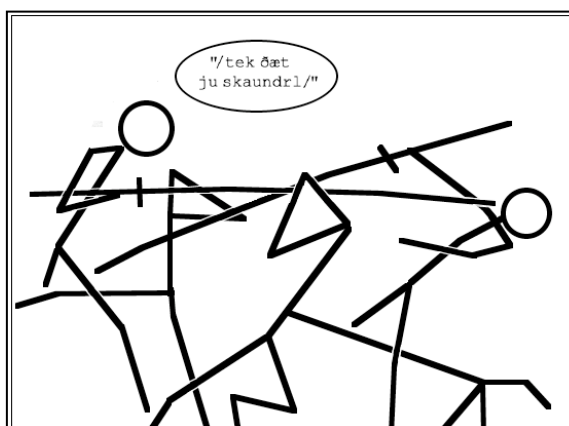Figure 1   Figure 2

Note: You don't need to worry about the actual phonetic transcription in each figure, but if you're curious, the transcribed text is *Take that you scoundrel*, [tʰeɪkˣ ðæːtʰ juːː ˈskaʷndɹl̩] in Figure 1 and /tek ðæt ju skaundrl/ in Figure 2.

Exercise 6.28
Drawing on your knowledge of syllable structure, explain the following example of language play:

Q.   What's the difference between a rainstorm and a lion with toothache?

A.   One pours with rain and the other roars with pain.

Exercise 6.29
The following data are from German. English translations are given just for your information:

1. Tag ('day')   [tɑk]   4. Pfund ('pound')   [pfunt]
2. klug ('wise')   [kluk]   5. die ('the')   [di]
3. Bad ('bath')   [bɑt]   6. Gast ('guest')   [gɑst]

What do you observe, concerning the behaviour of German plosives? Formulate a rule which accounts for your observations in the most general way possible.

Exercise 6.30
In some varieties of English, the following pronunciations are found:

(a)   bar   [bɑ]   barring   [bɑriŋ]
(b)   star   [stɑ]   starry   [stɑri]
(c)   spar   [spɑ]   sparring   [spɑriŋ]

Identify the alternations in the data.

Chapter 7. The grammar of sentences: slots and phrases

Exercise 7.1
Consider the following sentence:

> *The weather is quite predictable <u>in Singapore</u>.*

Now recall the two constituency tests that you are familiar with (refer to pp. 150-151 in the textbook). Can both tests be used to show that the underlined string in this sentence is a constituent? If so, explain how. If not, explain why not.
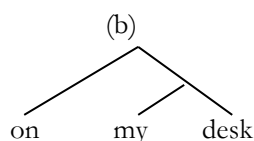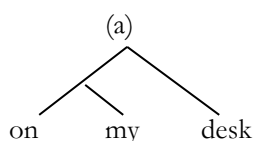
Exercise 7.2
Consider the following data:

> a. *Sam placed the books on the shelf near the window.*
>
> b. *On the shelf near the window, Sam placed the books.*

1. The movement test for constituency states that only single units can be moved from their default position to a non-default position. This being so, what do the data above show?
2. Based on your answer to (1), how would you draw the phrase-structure tree for sentence (a)? Explain your answer.

Exercise 7.3
Below are two tree diagrams giving alternative structures for the phrase *on my desk*.

Taking into consideration the constructs 'head' and 'modifier', choose the diagram that best describes the internal structure of the phrase. Explain your answer.

Exercise 7.4
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. A well-formed phrase can contain only modifiers.		
2. A well-formed phrase must contain at least one modifier.		
3. Heads of phrases must have lexical meaning.		
4. Modifiers always add grammatical meaning to their phrase.		
5. A verb can occur alone in a verb phrase.		
6. The NP *That woman* is ungrammatical because it contains no adjective.		
7. A phrase can consist of a noun head and a noun modifier.		
8. A phrase can consist of an adverb head and an adverb modifier.		

Exercise 7.5

1. Propose a label for the coordinated syntactic constituents in each of the following sentences.

    a. Ali is moody but very reliable.
    b. You may submit your proposal to me or my secretary.
    c. Please switch off your mobile phones in class and during all tests.
    d. I like science-fiction novels but my friend despises them.
    e. This laptop guarantee covers reasonable wear and tear.
    f. The horse snorted heavily and pawed the ground.

2. Now draw a diagram for the coordinated constituents that you identified in each sentence.

Exercise 7.6

Consider the rule **PP → P (Det) Adj* N**

Choose the sentence(s) in which all the phrases described by this rule match the rule.

a. Some babies crawl on their stomach.
b. Smoking is not allowed indoors.
c. The best thing on a hot day is a long cold drink of juice.
d. This software was designed to work in a user-friendly manner.
e. She walks to work even on rainy days.
f. My garden was in full bloom before the holidays started.

Exercise 7.7

Find, or construct, two sentences containing noun phrases in a language other than English.
Then, analyse the internal structure of those noun phrases.
Is it legitimate to call a noun phrase a "noun phrase", across languages? Why?

Exercise 7.8

Propose a rule, in words or in rule notation, which describes the verb phrases in all the following sentences.

The clothes in the closet felt damp.
She leaves today.
Mosquito bites itch.
This cheese turned mouldy very quickly.
Our overseas sales increased significantly.

Exercise 7.9

Choose the sentence(s) in which the underlined sequences form constituents.

(a) She saw my cousin's <u>cat on the back of a truck</u> at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue.

(b) She saw my cousin's cat on the <u>back of a truck</u> at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue.

(c) She saw my cousin's cat on the back of a truck <u>at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue</u>.

(d) <u>She</u> saw my cousin's cat on the back of a truck at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue.

(e) <u>She saw</u> my cousin's cat on the back of a truck at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue.

(f) <u>She saw my cousin's cat</u> on the back of a truck at the junction of Garden Road and Park Avenue.

Exercise 7.10

Consider the following phrase structure grammar:

S → NP VP
NP → Det (Adj) N (PP)
PP → P NP
VP → V (NP)

Indicate the sentence(s) that this grammar describes.

    a.   My friends like fish-head curry.

    b.   Their boyfriends hate it.

    c.   Those people spend a fortune on their food.

    d.   This restaurant serves a delicious treat on weekends.

    e.   The girl in the red dress eats a lot.

    f.   Her favourite meal is oysters with lemon.

Exercise 7.11

1.   Propose a grammar, in rule notation, that accounts only for the two sentences below.

    Many Westerners enjoy our spicy food.   *I love you.*

Hint: Start by identifying the word class of every word in each sentence, then work out which word classes are optional in each phrase.

2.   Indicate which of the following sentences are grammatical according to the grammar that you proposed. Explain your answer.

    a. *This is it.*
    b. *Small children dislike chocolate ice-cream.*
    c. *He has a headache.*
    d. *These new ideas sound promising.*

3. Now revise the grammar that you proposed in (1), so that it describes all the sentences in (1) and (2).

Exercise 7.12

Consider the rule: **NP → (Det) Adj N (PP)**

Choose the sentences in which all the relevant constituents are generated by this rule.

    a.   The friendly people from that small village are excellent athletes.

    b.   Those hot-headed boys have taken up street fighting.

    c.   This elegant lady ordered these sandwiches for us.

    d.   Our new neighbours are extremely friendly.

    e.   My younger sister is a great fan of that famous rock-star.

    f.   The band from Nagasaki is currently working on a new album.

    g.   My best friend considers Sam a musical revolutionary.

    h.   That amazingly-gifted tribesman married a beautiful bride and lived happily.

Exercise 7.13

Syntactic phrases are named after their head constituents. Propose a phrasal label for the underlined constituents in the following sentences (you can use abbreviations):

1. Queue up <u>right here</u> for your free gifts.   _____

2. Sam <u>sent me a birthday card</u>.   _____

3. <u>Luckily</u>, the floods caused no casualties.   _____

4. We found termites <u>inside the walls and under the floor</u>.   _____

5. <u>Milk</u> contains calcium.   _____

6. <u>The man in the blue suit</u> is our boss.   _____

7. I know <u>someone who can help you</u>.   _____

8. The water was <u>surprisingly cold</u>.   _____

9. Bee stings <u>hurt</u>.   _____

10. She looked <u>very pale but composed</u>.   _____

Exercise 7.14

Is the underlined string of words in this sentence a single constituent? Why?

> *There's a frog <u>on a log in a hole at the bottom of the sea</u>.*

Exercise 7.15

Consider the PS rule: **VP → V {NP, PP, S}**

Choose the sentence(s) in which the VP does <u>not</u> follow the rule.

a.   Jane likes talkative men and quiet women.
b.   Samantha bought a new handbag for her mother.
c.   Henry shoved the soiled bed linen into the broom cupboard.
d.   Rona and Ryan will be going to the party.
e.   Brenda painted her room a pale shade of green.
f.   Ivy heard that Jonas received the top mark.
g.   Thumper and Bambi are playing.
h.   Mary and Martha are best friends.
i.   Carina and her sister reside in California.
j.   Table soccer is a fun game.

Exercise 7.16

The following rule was introduced in Chapter 7 of the textbook:

$$NP \rightarrow \left[\begin{array}{c} (Det)\ (Adj)^*\ N \\ Pr \end{array} \right]$$

Give <u>all</u> the noun phrases that are generated by this rule. Explain any difficulties that you may encounter in this task.

Exercise 7.17

Choose the PS rule(s) that account(s) for the verb phrases in all three sentences below.

> Jonathan swam for an hour.
> Jamie walked to the church in the rain at midnight.
> Jennifer groaned inwardly.

a.   VP → V PP AdvP   b.   VP → V {PP, AdvP}

c.   VP → V {(PP, AdvP)}   d.   VP → V {PP*, AdvP}

Exercise 7.18

Given the following grammar:

> S → NP VP
> NP → Adj* N
> VP → V Adv*

Choose the sentence(s) that this grammar generates:

a.   Happy old people are very lucky.

b.   Tropical blooms grow quickly.

c.   Regular joggers lose weight sensibly.

d.   Fake jewellery breaks too easily.

e.   Small red centipedes bite really painfully.

f.   Most goldfish eat noisily.

Exercise 7.19

In Chapter 7 of the textbook, we defined coordinating conjunctions as a word class that links constituents of the same syntactic type.

Given the following data, indicate which type of constituent is linked in each of the sentences.

(a) This restaurant serves only vegetables or fish.   _____

(b) I came, I saw and I won.   _____

(c) The cat ran through the door and out the window.   _____

(d) I have a cat but my friend has two.   _____

Exercise 7.20

This sentence is syntactically ambiguous.

> *She was playing drums with kitchen spoons and brushes.*

1.   Which constituent causes the ambiguity? Why?

2.   Draw two tree diagrams showing the alternative structures of this constituent that explain the ambiguity.

Exercise 7.21

A phrase-structure tree represents different kinds of information about syntactic structure, namely:

(a) information about constituency;
(b) information about word/constituent order; and
(c) information about syntactic hierarchy.

Draw or choose two to three PS trees from the textbook, which represent each of the types of information above.

Exercise 7.22

Give a rule, in words or in rule notation, that describes the verb phrases in the following data:

The baby is in a bad mood, because she gets restless when she travels by car.

Boy scouts eat their dinner by the fire, and they love it.

Exercise 7.23

Choose the sentences in which the underlined word sequences form one constituent.

(a) <u>Linguistics students</u> borrow more books from the central library during term.
(b) Linguistics students <u>borrow more</u> books from the central library during term.
(c) Linguistics students borrow more books <u>from the central library</u> during term.
(d) Linguistics students borrow more books <u>from the central library during term</u>.
(e) Linguistics students borrow more books from <u>the central library during term</u>.
(f) Linguistics <u>students borrow</u> more books from the central library during term.

Exercise 7.24

The IT department of a company, asked to investigate the causes of disruption to internet services, sent the following email to all staff:

Our initial finding shows that the server load is exceptionally high and an increase in user activities.

Would you say that the text of this email is syntactically odd? Why?

Exercise 7.25

Consider the following grammar:

Rule 1:   Z → A (B)

Rule 2:   A → C (D*)

Rule 3:   B → W Y

1. Choose the strings which are grammatical, according to this grammar:

    (a) AAW   (d) CDWY
    (b) CDDY   (e) CWY
    (c) CBBA   (f) AWY

2. Give two more examples of grammatical strings described by this grammar, and two more examples of ungrammatical strings. Explain your reasoning.
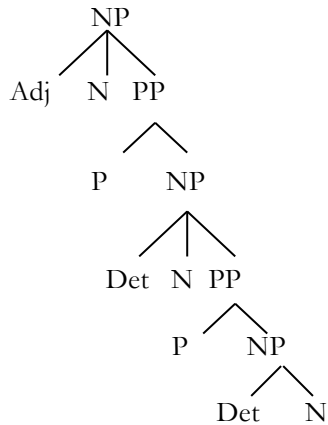
Exercise 7.26

1. Propose one syntactic label for the underlined constituent in the sentence:

   He played it <u>well but quite loudly</u>.

2. Use one of the constituency tests that you are familiar with, to explain your choice of label for this constituent.

Exercise 7.27
Consider the following tree structure:

1. Find one phrase which fits this NP tree.
2. Which property of language does the tree represent? State the PS rules for the tree structure above, which highlight this property.

Exercise 7.28
Consider the noun phrases in the following sentences.

> *My psychiatrist hates his cat.*
>
> *Our linguistics students wish the summer holidays were longer.*
>
> *This neighbourhood is quite friendly.*

1. Construct a PS rule which accounts for all the noun phrases in these sentences, and explain your answer.
2. Find, or construct, two sentences containing noun phrases that are not accounted for by your rule, and explain why the rule fails to account for them.
3. Find, or construct, sentences containing noun phrases, in a language other than English, and propose an NP rule for those sentences. In what ways is this rule different from/similar to the rule you gave in 1?
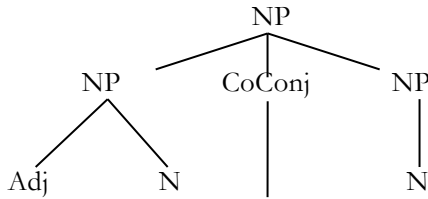
Exercise 7.29
Given the two tree diagrams below:

(a)
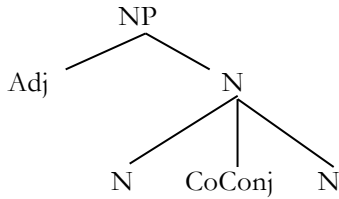
(b)

1. Which one would you choose as best representing the structure of the phrase *old men and women*? Why?
2. Which one would you select for the phrase *four-wheeled vehicles and pedestrians*? Why?

Exercise 7.30
Consider the PS grammar below, with rules numbered for ease of reference:

1. S → NP VP
2. NP → ({Adj, N}) N (PP)
3. VP → V (NP)

This grammar does not account for all of these sentences:

(a) *Rumours about internet scams abound.*
(b) *Members of Parliament approved controversial legislation.*
(c) *Reports indicate computer technology creates jobs.*
(d) *Mosquitoes bite.*

Which PS rule(s) do you need to amend so that the grammar accounts for all of the above sentences? Give the amended rule(s), and explain your answer.

Chapter 8. The grammar of sentences: slots and functions

Exercise 8.1
Consider this rule:

"In English, subject and verb must agree in number."

This rule means that subject and verb must either both be plural or both be singular. Now consider these data:

The lifts in our office are out of order.   *The colour of his eyes is green.*

*The lifts in our office is out of order.   **The colour of his eyes are green.*

Indicate which statements account for the data.

a. Subject and verb must agree in number.
b. Subject and verb do not have to agree in number.
c. The verb, and any NP before the verb, must agree in number.
d. The subject NP and the verb must agree in number.
e. The head of the subject NP and the verb must agree in number.
f. The modifiers of the subject NP and the verb must agree in number.
g. The head of the subject NP, any modifiers of the subject NP, and the verb must agree in number.

Exercise 8.2
In the following data, choose the sentence pairs where the underlined constituent has the same syntactic function in both sentences.

a. These shoes can be worn <u>in the coldest winter or the hottest summer</u>.
    I was busy <u>when she called</u>.

b. She finished her exams <u>yesterday</u>.
    <u>Next year</u> is a leap year.

c. I like <u>it</u> crispy.
    I only buy <u>crispy snacks</u>.

d. <u>Monday</u> was a holiday.
    <u>My aunt</u> is an expert at embroidery.

e. All students got this answer <u>right</u>.
    He is the <u>right</u> person for me.

f. He tells <u>everyone</u> that he's a genius.
    I'll bake cookies <u>for their birthday party</u>.

Exercise 8.3
Propose three sentences that show three different syntactic uses of the verb *leave*, and name the syntactic subcategory of the verb in each sentence.
Note: In your sentences, you can also use the form *left*, which is the past tense of the verb *leave*.

Exercise 8.4

Consider this sentence:

> *That little old lady with the dyed red hair found the noisy teenagers in their skimpy tops and shorts quite upsetting.*

1. Find a syntactic complement in the sentence, and explain which type of complement it is.
2. Give the function of all the other constituents in this sentence.

Exercise 8.5

Read the following text carefully, paying attention to the verbs that it contains.

> *My cousin Lena is always worried about her appearance. Just like her brother. He believes that he owns the world just because of his beauty-parlour good looks. Her taste for food seems really funny to me. She likes it garlicky, and gargles after every single meal with some revolting disinfectant. It makes her mouth fresh, in her view. Her perfume smells awful too. If I ask her questions about her manias, she gives me funny looks, and just powders her face pink and white all over again. No wonder I feel so uncomfortable with her.*

Now, write all the verbs that you found in the text in the appropriate cells below, according to the syntactic type of each verb as used in the text. Use a separate cell for each verb.

Intransitive V	Link V	Simple Transitive V	Ditransitive V	Complex Transitive V

Exercise 8.6

Concerning subject-verb agreement in English, the textbook states:

> *"In English, subject-verb agreement is extremely restricted, in that it occurs only in the 3rd person singular of present tense forms, and therefore concerns both person and number together."* (p. 171)

1. Discuss whether and how this statement applies to Spanish, given the following Spanish data:

yo quiero	'I want'	nosotros queremos	'we want'
tú quieres	'you want'	vosotros queréis	'you want'
él/ella quiere	'he/she wants'	ellos/ellas quieren	'they want'

2. Would these data suggest that subjects may be optional constituents in Spanish? Why?

Exercise 8.7

Consider the following data:

      a. *The boy injured.*   b. *The boy injured his left knee.*

These data suggest that the verb *injured* needs an NP after it. This being the case, explain why sentence c. is ill-formed:

      c. *The boy injured this morning.*

Exercise 8.8

Use your knowledge of verb subcategories to explain the language play behind the following joke played by A on B:

          A. My dog has no nose.
          B. How does he smell??
          A. Terrible!

Exercise 8.9

Consider the following rule: "Adjectives precede nouns within a noun phrase."
Given this rule, explain why both of the following sentences are grammatical.

      a. *I painted the red house.*

      b. *I painted the house red.*

Exercise 8.10

The sentence *Romeo emailed the young lady on the balcony* is ambiguous. It can mean:

      (a) Romeo emailed the young lady who was on the balcony.
      (b) Romeo emailed the young lady while he was on the balcony.

Show how our understanding of syntactic functions can help us explain the ambiguity in this sentence.

Exercise 8.11

Choose the set(s) in which all the verbs are of the same syntactic type (e.g. ditransitive, link verb).

a.   In 1492, Columbus sailed the oceans blue.
       Janine feeds her dog rice and curry.
       Jonathan adores a juicy bit of steak with potatoes.

b.   Nigel paints houses in his free time.
       She sells seashells by the seashore.
       Solomon had a little rice and curry last night.

c.   Michelle became a doctor in 1992.
       Harry hid himself in the broom cupboard.
       That old lady lives alone by the seaside.

d.   His aunt goes nuts all the time.
       Paul turned red in the face.
       The telephone line went dead.

e.   The class successfully classified the strange animal a marmoset.
       My best friend drives me crazy with his freaky behaviour.
       Sally considers her husband an absolute treasure.

Exercise 8.12
Consider the underlined constituents in the following data:

1. I was tired <u>after dinner</u>.
2. I was tired <u>yesterday</u>.
3. I was tired <u>that evening</u>.
4. I was tired <u>when they left</u>.

With support from the data, provide arguments for distinguishing between *adverb* and *adjunct*, in English grammar.

Exercise 8.13
Given the following sentences:

(a) *This woman love my neighbour's cats.

(b) *My neighbour's cats eats everything in sight.

1. Explain why they are ill-formed.
2. Explain how you would modify the sentences to make them grammatical.
3. What evidence do your answers to 1. and 2. provide concerning matters of agreement (or *concord*) in English?
4. Find examples of similar or dissimilar concord behaviour in a language that you speak, other than English.

Exercise 8.14
Choose those sets where all the sentences in the set contain the same verb type.

a. My bonnie lies over the ocean.
That boy looks very peculiar.
The sea was very choppy last night.

b. Solomon bought his mother a luxury apartment in Jamaica.
The circus clowns offered every child in the audience an animal-shaped balloon.
She bequeathed all her earthly possessions to her favourite charity.

c. The teacher held the bunny rabbits tightly.
The magistrate made his decision carefully.
I burned that disgusting old coat of yours.

d. Jason held his head high.
Sheila and Stanley sold their caravan at a real-estate fair.
Marilyn painted her bedroom bright pink.

e. Farook spends his money wisely.
We, the jury, find the accused not guilty.
Mira attends counselling sessions every week.

f. My brother and his friends are planning a costume party.
My favourite teacher retired last year.
The elves felt that James and the gigantic peach were very threatening.

Exercise 8.15

Consider sentences 1 to 3 below:

1. *I heard his grandmother died this morning.*
2. *I heard the meeting was this morning.*
3. *I heard the announcement this morning.*

Sentence 1 is structurally ambiguous. It could mean:

(A) I heard this morning that his grandmother had died.
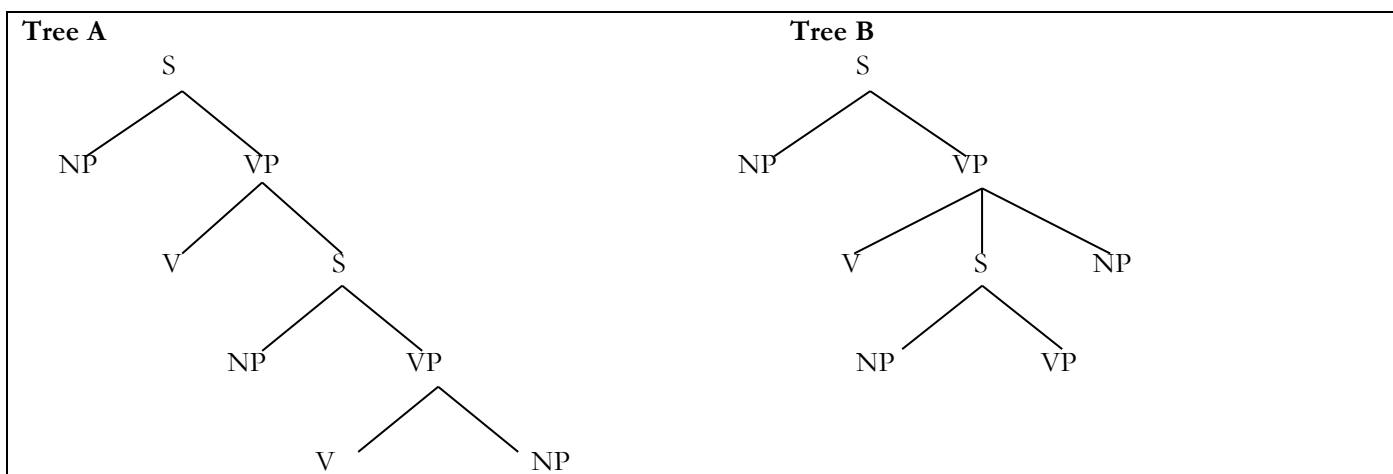
OR   (B) His grandmother died this morning, I heard.

(a) Which PS tree corresponds to meaning A?

Tree A   Tree B   Neither   (CIRCLE ONE)

(b) Which PS tree corresponds to meaning B?

Tree A   Tree B   Neither   (CIRCLE ONE)

Tree A   **Tree B**

(c) Which PS tree(s) would you choose to represent sentence 2?

Tree A   Tree B   Both   Neither   (CIRCLE ONE)

(d) Which PS tree(s) would you choose to represent sentence 3?

Tree A   Tree B   Both   Neither   (CIRCLE ONE)

(e) Sentence 1 is structurally ambiguous because:

in meaning A, *this morning* functions as _____ , whereas in meaning B it functions as

_____.

Exercise 8.16

Choose the sentence pairs which contain the same verb type.

a. Kim looked beautiful in her red gown.
   These sandwiches taste strange.

b. I complimented her effusively.
   I shower and shave very carefully.

c. Simon reported the theft to the police officers.
   I am investigating the death of my aunt.

d. She sealed the letter with scotch-tape.
   She sent the letter by local urgent mail.

e. The explorers sealed the cave mouth shut.
   Jennifer grew angrier by the minute.

f. Geoffrey returned my ring to me.
   I gave her directions to the capital of Namibia.

g. I found the cookbook fascinating.
   They crowned her prom queen.

h. Gulliver danced all night at the coronation ball.
   Dancing dolls can be fun.

Exercise 8.17

In the table below, tick the cell corresponding to the verb type used in each of the given sentences. Conventions used in the table are:

V_{int} intransitive verb V_{link} linking verb V_t (simple) transitive verb
V_{dit} ditransitive verb V_{cot} complex transitive verb

	V_{int}	V_{link}	V_t	V_{dit}	V_{cot}
1. I look a mess.					
2. The children look tired.					
3. Look here!					
4. She drives me crazy.					
5. I drive the children every day.					
6. She drives miles every day.					
7. They bought her home.					
8. They bought me tea.					
9. We buy it fresh.					

Exercise 8.18

Choose the sentence pairs where the verbs are of the same syntactic type in both sentences. Then, for the pairs you've circled, write the syntactic label of the verb (e.g. simple transitive, link verb) in the space provided.

a.   He ate greedily.

She sang with gusto.   _____

b.   I like my cookies big and soft.

I made pancakes with raisins in them.   _____

c.   I baked a beef casserole for my classmates.

I handed the maid the house keys.   _____

d.   Jane seems despondent in the evenings.

I bought the doggie in the window.   _____

e.   The children broke the vase.

Your letter surprised me.   _____

f.   She makes her stitches tiny.

She calls me auntie.   _____

Exercise 8.19

Choose the statement(s) that describe(s) the sentence:

She smiled at the boy with sadness in her eyes.

a.   The word-sequence *at the boy with sadness in her eyes* is a single unit.

b.   The PP *with sadness in her eyes* functions as Adjunct.

c.   The PPs *at the boy* and *with sadness in her eyes* are sister units.

d.   The PP *at the boy* functions as Direct Object.

e.   The PPs *with sadness* and *in her eyes* are sister units.

f.   The PP *in her eyes* modifies the N *sadness*.

g.   The PPs *with sadness in her eyes* and *in her eyes* are mother and daughter.

Exercise 8.20

Draw a labelled tree diagram for the following sentence, and circle the node corresponding to a syntactic object in the diagram.

Hassled parents wish their cranky kids behaved better.

Exercise 8.21

(a)	Which sentences, if any, contain intransitive verbs? 1. *Pamela sleeps in the blue room.* 2. *Sophia tells jokes.* 3. *Carmela destroyed the photo.* 4. *Peter burnt the toast.* 5. *Michael showers three times a day.*	A. 1 and 5 B. 1, 3 and 5 C. 1, 2, 4 and 5 D. all of them E. none of them
(b)	(i) *He cans pineapples.* * *He can pineapples.* (ii) *He can swim.* * *He cans swim.* Which statements help explain the asymmetry above? 1. In (i), *can* is the main verb. 2. In (ii), *can* is NOT the main verb. 3. In English, the verb must agree with its Subject. 4. In (i), the verb is transitive.	A. 1 and 2 B. 1 and 4 C. 1, 2 and 3 D. 2, 3 and 4 E. 1, 2, 3 and 4
(c)	Select the sentences in which the underlined sequence of words functions as **DIRECT OBJECT**. 1. *The policemen arrested <u>the murderer</u>.* 2. *The poor man hit <u>an alcoholic</u>.* 3. *He has deceived me <u>many times</u>.* 4. *He wasted <u>many days</u>.* 5. *They told the committee <u>that she was innocent</u>.*	A. 1, 2 and 3 B. 1, 3 and 4 C. 1, 2, 3 and 4 D. 1, 2, 4 and 5 E. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5

Exercise 8.22

Chapter 8 in the textbook introduces subordinate clauses which function as syntactic Object in sentences, and which are thus VP constituents. Subordinate clauses can also be NP constituents, where they modify the head noun. These clauses are commonly called *relative clauses*, and they are underlined in the examples below:

(a) The woman <u>who owns this restaurant</u> lives in town.

(b) The problem <u>that he raised</u> is irrelevant.

(c) I like people <u>who enjoy life</u>.

1. Identify the noun that each relative clause modifies, and the syntactic function of the NP containing each relative clause, in the examples.

2. Within each relative clause, what is the syntactic function of the words *who* and *that*, which introduce them? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 8.23

Let's revise key concepts. You have learnt about six syntactic functions, Subject, Verb, Direct Object, Indirect Object, Subject Complement, Object Complement and Adjunct (the labels Subject, Verb, Object, Complement and Adjunct are sometimes abbreviated through a handy acronym, *SVOCA*). Of these syntactic functions, only one, Adjunct, is optional.

1. Why are Adjuncts optional?

2. State the obligatory functions that fit the distributional frames below so that you can identify the verb types which correspond to them:

    Subject   Verb   _____

    Subject   Verb   _____   _____

3. What test(s) can we use to distinguish:

    ➢ Direct Objects from Complements
    ➢ Direct Objects from Indirect Objects
    ➢ Subject Complements from Object Complements?

4. Identify the verb and its verb type (e.g. simple transitive, ditransitive, etc.) in each of the sentences below, clearly explaining how you arrived at your answers.

    (a)   Jennifer's kitten is growing exceedingly slowly.
    (b)   Paul's puppy is growing exceedingly lazy.
    (c)   Sharon's baby sister remains in New York.
    (d)   Darlene made Shane's grandfather a cardigan.
    (e)   The school made my father president of the PTA.

Exercise 8.24

The data below are from Japanese, here printed in Romanised script.
Word for word glosses are given in italics below the Japanese text (disregard the meaning of the words *wa, o* and *ga*, which are not glossed):

Watashi wa ocha o nomu.   'I drink tea'
  I   wa   tea   o drink

Watashi wa kōhī ga suki desu.   'I like coffee'
  I   wa coffee ga   like

Watashi wa kodomo ga suki desu.   'I like children'
  I   wa children ga   like

1. What observations can you make, from the data, about the order of functional constituents in Japanese?

2. How would you say *I drink coffee* and *I like tea*, in Japanese?

Exercise 8.25

Consider these data:

(1)   a.   *Alice brings in the chair.*   b.   *Alice sits in the chair.*

(2)   a.   **Alice brings.*   b.   *Alice sits.*
      c.   **Alice brings in.*   d.   **Alice sits in.*
      e.   *The chair, Alice brings in.*   f.   **The chair, Alice sits in.*
      g.   **In the chair, Alice brings.*   h.   *In the chair, Alice sits.*

(a)	Based on the data above, which PS rule, if any, characterises the VP in sentence **(1b)**?	A. VP → V P NP
		B. VP → V P (NP)
		C. VP → V PP
		D. VP → V (PP)
		E. none of the above
(b)	Based on the data above, **in the chair** is a constituent in which sentence(s)?	A. (1a), (1b), (1h)
		B. (1a) and (1b)
		C. (1a) and (1h)
		D. (1b) nor (1h)
		E. none of the above
(c)	Which principle, if any, explains why sentence **(2d)** is ill-formed?	A. The Subject precedes the verb.
		B. *sits* requires an Object.
		C. Only single constituents can move.
		D. The verb agrees with its Subject.
		E. None of the above.
(d)	Which principle, if any, explains why sentence **(2g)** is ill-formed?	A. The Subject precedes the verb.
		B. *brings* requires an Object.
		C. Only single constituents can move.
		D. The verb agrees with its Subject.
		E. None of the above.

Exercise 8.26

This sentence contains a ditransitive verb, and three noun phrases:

Please pour me a glass of wine.

1.   Identify the three NPs in the sentence.
2.   Given that ditransitive verbs pattern with two constituents in the VP, explain why the sentence is well-formed.

Exercise 8.27
Match the sentences in each column whose verbs belong in the same syntactic subcategory (i.e. whether the verbs are ditransitive, link, and so on):

1. They finally made clear the rationale for their proposal.	A. When exactly will you leave?
2. Are you less tired today?	B. This curry smells so good!
3. It rains every day at the same time in Singapore.	C. I never promised you an easy life.
4. You must eat all the vegetables on your plate!	D. The Board deemed the decision flawed.
5. I bought myself a new laptop.	E. She cooks pasta like a goddess.

Exercise 8.28
Identify the syntactic function of the underlined constituents in these two sentences:

(a) I'll tell her <u>her grades</u> as soon as I can.

(b) I'll tell her <u>her grades</u> improved as soon as I can.

Exercise 8.29
Does the verb *die* belong to the same syntactic subcategory in all three sentences below? Explain your answer.

(a) When he dies, we shall miss him.

(b) He was born a coward and he will die a coward.

(c) He died a peaceful death.

Exercise 8.30
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. Ditransitive verbs must have a direct object.		
2. Complex transitive verbs must have a direct object.		
3. Adjuncts occur only in sentences containing intransitive verbs.		
4. Any constituent that cannot be passivised is a complement.		
5. *He considered his options carefully* contains a complex transitive verb.		
6. *She forgives him anything any time* contains two objects.		
7. The verb *be* is always a link verb.		
8. Main verbs are never link verbs.		

Chapter 9. The meaning of meaning

Exercise 9.1

All of the utterances below are ambiguous. For each utterance, do the following:

1. Give two paraphrases that show very clearly two different meanings of each utterance.
2. Explain whether the ambiguity is lexical, structural, or both.

   a. That was a wild horse race.
   b. Money matters.
   c. This Swedish restaurant serves very rare meat.
   d. He sold her two cars.
   e. The first letter is missing.
   f. The BBC reported the pledge to free the prisoners on Monday.

Exercise 9.2

Consider this sentence:

Every year, in July, there are concerts, plays and other shows organised by the city council at different outdoor venues around town.

Choose the statements that are true about this sentence.

   a. The words *city* and *town* are an example of polysemy.
   b. The word *concerts* is a hyponym of the word *shows*.
   c. The phrase *organised by the city council* means that the city council organises the shows.
   d. The phrase *organised by the city council* means that the shows take place near the city council.
   e. The word *year* is deictic.
   f. The word *July* is deictic.

Exercise 9.3

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	True	False
1. Converted words are homographs of the words from which they are formed.		
2. The words *ad* and *add* are homophones.		
3. Two words that are homonyms form a minimal pair.		
4. An idiom is an example of high meaning compositionality.		
5. The word *sad* is a hyponym of the word *sadness*.		
6. The word *commitment* is a hyponym of the word *commit*.		
7. The word *murder* is a meronym of the word *die*.		
8. Deictic words have no meaning.		

Exercise 9.4
Select the best answer, from the options in the right-most cell.

1	*Jenny poked Rufus in the back with a stick* entails 1. Jenny poked Rufus in the back. 2. Jenny poked Rufus with a stick. 3. Jenny touched Rufus with a stick. 4. Jenny hurt Rufus. 5. Jenny touched Rufus in the back with a stick.	(a) 1 and 2 (b) 3 and 4 (c) 1, 2, 3 and 4 (d) 1, 2, 3 and 5 (e) 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
2	*Jeremy gave his mother a beautiful gift* entails 1. Jeremy gave a present to his mother. 2. The gift was beautiful. 3. Jeremy gave someone something. 4. Jeremy did something. 5. Jeremy's mother was given a beautiful gift.	(a) 1 and 2 (b) 3 and 4 (c) 1, 2 and 4 (d) 1, 2 and 5 (e) 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
3	*Jenny admires John* entails 1. John admires Jenny. 2. Jenny encourages John. 3. Jenny loves John. 4. John is worthy of admiration. 5. John is alive.	(a) 1 and 2 (b) 2 and 3 (c) 2, 3 and 4 (d) 3, 4 and 5 (e) none of the above
4	*Ali sold a car to Nora* entails 1. Ali owned a car. 2. Nora owned no car before. 3. Ali and Nora know each other. 4. Nora bought a car from Ali. 5. Ali is a car-dealer.	(a) 1 (b) 4 (c) 1 and 4 (d) 3 and 4 (e) 4 and 5
5	*Ali greeted Nora* entails 1. Nora received a greeting. 2. Nora was greeted. 3. Ali spoke to Nora. 4. Ali is human. 5. Nora is human.	(a) 1 (b) 1 and 2 (c) 1, 2 and 3 (d) 1, 2, 4 and 5 (e) none of the above

Exercise 9.5
Suppose you are in a food market and you overhear a conversation between a customer and a stall-holder behind you. The customer says: *I want these broccoli and that bunch of spring onions right there.* Given that your back is turned to the speaker, explain why the underlined words make it difficult for you to understand exactly which vegetables were chosen. You may want to discuss several of the underlined words together.

Exercise 9.6
Consider the following sentences:

> 1. The boy got quickly <u>bored</u> of his new <u>board</u> game.
>
> 2. They must wear <u>bow</u>-ties and <u>bow</u> deeply to the audience.
>
> 3. Any <u>fruit</u> a day keeps the doctor away, not just an <u>apple</u> a day.
>
> 4. Candles give a <u>dim</u> light, too <u>faint</u> to read small print by.
>
> 5. The children played quietly with coloured <u>pens</u> in their play-<u>pens</u>.
>
> 6. He <u>knows</u> he has a cold when his <u>nose</u> itches.

Now choose the best label for the relationship between the underlined words in each sentence, from among these options:

(a) homography	(b) synonymy	(c) homophony	(d) antonymy
(e) homonymy	(f) meronymy	(g) polysemy	(h) hyponymy

Exercise 9.7
In the word sets below, all the given words except one can be hyponyms of the same superordinate. For each word set:

1. Give the word that is the odd-one out.
2. Give a likely superordinate for the remaining words in the set.

> a. paper, tree, wood, plastic, wool
>
> b. rain, thunder, wind, cloud, flood
>
> c. cow, stallion, ox, ram, bull
>
> d. guitarist, pianist, violinist, drummer, composer
>
> e. road, street, alley, pavement, avenue

Exercise 9.8
Give two reasons why the following newspaper headline is an example of language play. Make sure to explain your answer clearly, by naming the semantic features involved in the play.

> *Cool cities mean hot jobs*

Exercise 9.9
Our discussion of complementary antonyms in the textbook can be summarised in this rule: "Complementary antonyms are not gradable."

This rule explains why a gradable antonym in sentence (1) below is acceptable, whereas a complementary antonym in sentence (2) results in semantic oddity:

1. *Sam is more intelligent than Fred.*
2. *#Sam is more single than Fred.*

Now consider sentences (3) and (4), which are both acceptable. Does sentence (4) provide a counterexample to our rule above? Explain your answer.

3. *Sam is more intelligent than stupid.*
4. *Sam is more single than married.*

Exercise 9.10

For each of the four italicised utterances, choose the statement(s) that provide(s) a presupposition for the utterance in question:

1. *I passed my exams.*
   - (a)   I had at least one exam
   - (b)   I am on holiday now
   - (c)   I studied hard for my exams

2. *She's reading another book by that silly author.*
   - (a)   She has read books by sensible authors too
   - (b)   She has read several books by the silly author
   - (c)   She has read one book by the silly author

3. *The president was accused of involvement in the latest scandal.*
   - (a)   There was a scandal involving the president
   - (b)   There was a scandal that did not involve the president
   - (c)   There was a scandal

4. *My swimming coach wants me to compete on Friday.*
   - (a)   I don't want to swim on Friday
   - (b)   I know how to swim
   - (c)   I don't know how to swim

Exercise 9.11

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	Statement	True	False
1	*The Japanese history professors arrived early* is structurally ambiguous.		
2	Homophones cannot be minimal pairs.		
3	The sentence *Dare to be fair* is lexically ambiguous.		
4	*Jenny is Mark's tove* entails *Mark is Jenny's moomin.* We can thus conclude that *tove* and *moomin* are reciprocal antonyms.		
5	*That is not a snarky sheep* entails *That is a neebly sheep.* We can thus conclude that *snarky* and *neebly* are complementary antonyms.		
6	*The band was banned from playing* contains homonyms.		
7	The sentence *The dish ran away with the spoon* contains a superordinate and its hyponym.		
8	*My brother is smarter than me* shows that *smart* is a complementary antonym.		

Exercise 9.12

(a)	*All men shower and shave* entails: 1. *All men shower.* 2. *All men shave.* 3. *Some men shower.* 4. *Some men shave.* 5. *Some men shower and shave.*	A. 1 and 2 B. 3 and 4 C. 1, 2 and 5 D. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 E. none of the above
(b)	*Jane poured hot wax into the mould* entails: 1. *The wax was hot.* 2. *The wax became cold.* 3. *The mould underwent a change of state.* 4. *The wax underwent a change of location.* 5. *The wax was poured into the mould.*	A. 1, 2 and 3 B. 1, 2, 3 and 4 C. 1, 2, 3 and 5 D. 1, 3, 4 and 5 E. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
(c)	The <u>count</u> likes to <u>count</u> his money. In the sentence above, the underlined words are: 1. homophones 2. homographs 3. homonyms 4. polysemes	A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. all of the above
(d)	They <u>ate</u> breakfast at <u>eight</u>. In the sentence above, the underlined words are: 1. homophones 2. homographs 3. homonyms 4. polysemes	A. 1 B. 2 C. 3 D. 4 E. all of the above
(e)	Select the sets in which **ALL** the words in a set can be hyponyms of the same superordinate. 1. *waiter, lecturer, singer, doctor* 2. *claw, beak, wing, roar* 3. *table, desk, chair, stool* 4. *tuba, cello, tambourine, harmonica* 5. *paper, scissors, stone*	A. 1, 2 and 5 B. 1, 3 and 4 C. 1, 2, 3 and 4 D. 1, 3, 4 and 5 E. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
(f)	Select the sets in which **ALL** the pairs in a set have the same semantic relationship with each other. 1. *car-vehicle, dog-animal, garden-park* 2. *large-small, thick-thin, dim-bright* 3. *doctor-patient, husband-wife, reader-writer* 4. *kidnap-abduct, wealthy-affluent, danger-hazard*	A. 1 and 4 B. 2 and 4 C. 3 and 4 D. 2, 3 and 4 E. 1, 2, 3 and 4

Exercise 9.13

Choose to the set(s) where all the word pairs share the same semantic relationship. Then, for the set(s) you've circled, write the name of the relationship (e.g. complementary antonymy, polysemy) in the space provided.

a.   right-write, male-mail, piece-peace   _____

b.   handle-basket, tail-mouse, trunk-elephant   _____

c.   rectangle-shape, child-human, pen-pencil   _____

d.   guarantor-guarantee, inviter-invitee   _____

e.   pitcher-jug, eat-consume, candid-frank   _____

f.   gloomy-bright, kind-cruel, heavy-weighty   _____

Exercise 9.14

Given the two strings:

(a) *adult language learning*
(b) *foreign language learning*

Explain why we usually parse each one as follows:
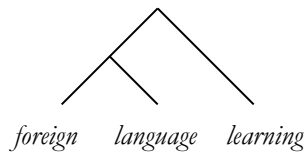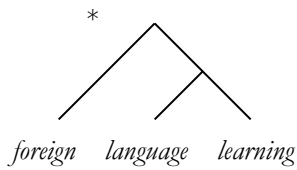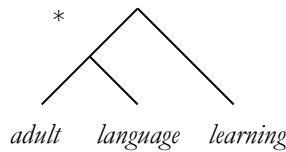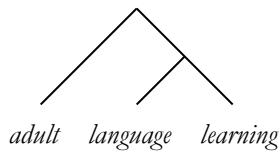
Exercise 9.15

Each of the following statements is ambiguous:

(a) *I wrote to my friend from Japan.*
(b) *I didn't go out because I wanted to see you.*
(c) *She hit the man with the wheelbarrow.*
(d) *The puppy was found by the child.*

1. Paraphrase each of the meanings of each statement by means of one sentence only. Each of your paraphrases must clearly show the alternative meanings of each statement.
2. Explain what is it that makes each sentence ambiguous.

Exercise 9.16
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	Statement	True	False
1	*The housebreaker was caught* entails *The burglar was captured.*		
2	*The butcher slaughtered the cows* entails *The cows are dead.*		
3	*James told me a story* entails *I was listening to James's story.*		
4	*I gave Sally a ring* is structurally and lexically ambiguous.		
5	*Jenny is destitute* entails *Jenny is extremely poor.*		
6	*James is intelligent* and *James is not stupid* entail each other.		
7	*Orphan* and *often* are homonyms.		

Exercise 9.17
In Activity 3.5 in the textbook (p. 57), we discussed the utterance *Time flies* as an introduction to the reasons why the construct 'word class' is relevant in linguistic analysis. We said then that the utterance can mean two things: 'time proceeds very quickly', taking time as N and flies as V, and 'measure the speed of flies', taking time as V and flies as N.

In an attempt to programme computers to interpret human language, researchers put this utterance in context in order to disambiguate it, as follows:

> *Time flies like an arrow.*

In this context, the researchers reasoned that *time* can only be interpreted as N and *flies* only as V. They then fed this sentence into a computer, to check their interpretation programme. To their surprise, the computer came up with five different interpretations for the sentence.

Try to think like a computer, that is, unconstrained by human commonsense, and give the five meanings that can in fact be associated with this sentence. The first one, which is also the meaning intended by the experimenters, is done for you.

> Meaning 1:   Time proceeds as quickly as an arrow proceeds.

Exercise 9.18
Examples (a-e) appear in Activity 2.1 in the textbook. This Activity deals with equivalents of the English word *bad* in other languages. Examples (f-j) below replace the word *bad* with *good*, a word often described as its antonym. Think about whether *good* and *bad* are in fact antonyms in all the examples in the data below.

a. This coffee is really bad.   f. This coffee is really good.

b. Bad girl!   g. Good girl!

c. This pen is not bad.   h. This pen is not good.

d. He is very bad at maths.   i. He is very good at maths.

e. I'm in a bad mood today.   j. I'm in a good mood today.

Exercise 9.19

In the table below, semantic relations are numbered 1 to 6. In the table, write the letter (A, B, etc.) of the utterance(s) containing words which illustrate each of the semantic relations.

Semantic relations	Utterances
1. Meronymy	
2. Homophony	
3. Antonymy	
4. Homography	
5. Hyponymy	
6. Synonymy	

A. My right eye is so weak that I need a strong corrective lens to be able to use it.
B. My fingers hurt whenever I practice the guitar. Both my hands hurt, in fact. Should I switch to another instrument for a while?
C. Their former company offered a new kind of cruise on a sailboat with three masts, featuring cooks who knew all about international delicacies.
D. His lawyers argued that he was a fine citizen, but the judge decided to fine him anyway for his offence.
E. Some of the warded patients need specialised nurses.
F. How nice, I have two young children, too! Perhaps they could play together?
G. I love playing basketball. In fact, I love any sport involving team work.

Exercise 9.20

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	Statement	True	False
1	The sentences below contain homonyms: *She entrances me. The building has several entrances.*		
2	The sentences below contain a polyseme: *Don't seal that letter. I love the old seal at the zoo.*		
3	The sentence below contains a hyponym: *Among all the groddies in the world, my favourite is the blooie.*		
4	The sentences below contain a meronym: *Mary had a little lamb. Its fleece was white as snow.*		
5	Given that *cantoupe* and *lartoupe* are relational antonyms, *Sasha is Lorenzo's cantoupe* entails that *Lorenzo is Sasha's lartoupe*.		
6	Given that *sadertort* and *mangleford* are complementary antonyms, *My aunt is not mangleford* and *My aunt is sadertort* entail each other.		
7	Given that *crandle* and *sackle* are synonyms, *The private eye crandled his favourite client* and *The private eye sackled his favourite client* entail each other.		

Exercise 9.21

This newspaper advertisement has to do with a multimedia package for improving literacy:

On the right course

Give two reasons why the advertisement is an example of language play.

Exercise 9.22

The excerpt below is from a Monty Python sketch, which became known as 'The Parrot Sketch'. The buyer of a parrot returns to the pet shop where he bought it, to complain that the parrot that he was sold was dead:

This parrot is no more. It has ceased to be. It's expired and gone to meet its maker. This is a late parrot. It's a stiff. Bereft of life, it rests in peace. If you hadn't nailed it to the perch, it would be pushing up the daisies. It's rung down the curtain and joined the choir invisible. This is an ex-parrot."

© Monty Python, *Monty Python's Flying Circus.*

The excerpt contains several examples of euphemism, for the concept of 'dead'. Find out the origins of each of the euphemisms, and consider their appropriateness to replace this concept.

Exercise 9.23

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell:

	Statement	True	False
1	*Joe is Bob's parent* entails *Joe is Bob's father.*		
2	*I murdered Jill* and *Jill is dead* entail each other.		
3	*Jenny kissed Paul* entails *Paul received a kiss.*		
4	*Amos is a large mosquito* entails *Amos is large.*		
5	*Jenny wiped the table clean* entails *The table is clean.*		
6	*Walk, strut, glide* and *trot* are hyponyms of *move.*		

Exercise 9.24

All of the sentences below are ambiguous. Give two paraphrases of each sentence, which clearly show their alternative meanings:

(a) He's a criminal lawyer.
(b) Hunting husbands can be dangerous.
(c) I like ice-cream more than you.

Exercise 9.25

Choose the best answer from the table below, and explain your reasoning:

Raphael is a small hippo entails		A. 1 and 2
1. *Raphael is a hippo.*		B. 1, 2 and 4
2. *Raphael is small.*		C. 1, 3 and 4
3. *Raphael is a mammal.*		D. 1, 2, 3 and 4
4. *Raphael is an animal.*		E. 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5
5. *Raphael lives in Africa.*		

Exercise 9.26

Choose the statements that are true about this sentence:

> *Every weekend, in the summer, there are concerts, plays and other shows organised by the city council at different outdoor venues around town.*

a. The words *city* and *town* are an example of polysemy.

b. The word *concerts* is a hyponym of the word *shows*.

c. The phrase *organised by the city council* means that the city council organises the shows.

d. The phrase *organised by the city council* means that the shows take place near the city council.

e. The word *outdoor* is deictic.

f. The word *weekend* is deictic.

Exercise 9.27

All of the following expressions designate the same object:

> *Cell phone   mobile phone   handphone*

1. What feature(s) of the object does each expression emphasise?

2. Given your answer to 1, can all expressions be said to be synonymous? Explain why, or why not.

Exercise 9.28

Choose the pairs below where (b) represents a presupposition of (a):

1. (a) The government revised its tax policy.
    (b) The government's tax policy was flawed.

2. (a) The president praised the benefits of free trade.
    (b) Free trade has benefits.

3. (a) The PM returned to Kuala Lumpur for talks.
    (b) The PM has been in Kuala Lumpur before.

4. (a) Two casinos will be built in the capital.
    (b) The capital has no casinos.

5. (a) Changi Airport is one of the best international airports.
    (b) Changi Airport is an international airport.

6. (a) Singapore citizens are required to have an ID card.
    (b) All Singapore citizens have an ID card.

Exercise 9.29

The table below shows the clinical terms used to describe people with low IQ scores, in the first half of the twentieth century (source: http://www.iqcomparisonsite.com/IQBasics.aspx).

IQ Score	Mental deficiency	Mental retardation
50-69	*Moron*	Mild
35-49	*Imbecile*	Moderate
20-34		Severe
Below 20	*Idiot*	Profound

Think of reasons why the terms *moron, imbecile* and *idiot* are no longer used in clinical psychology.

Exercise 9.30

Explain the language play involved in this dialogue:

Mel: How long will dinner be?

Bev: About 25 cm, we're having sausage.

Chapter 10. Meaning in action

Exercise 10.1

Select the speech act represented in each of the utterances below, from the options below:

(a) declaration	(b) directive	(c) expressive
(d) representative	(e) verdictive	(f) commissive

1. Anna is a very beautiful woman.
2. The capital of Australia is Canberra.
3. I'm very worried about rising crime in my city.
4. I promise I will return your car with no dents.
5. Please return this file to your boss.
6. You are hereby excommunicated from this congregation (spoken by a bishop to his parishioner).

Exercise 10.2

Consider the following dialogue:

Martha: How do you like my new hairstyle, Joe?

Joe: Let's get going, Martha.

Which maxim, if any, has Joe flouted, and why? Select the best answer from the options below.

1. Quantity, in order to be clear
2. Quality, in order to be polite
3. Manner, in order to be witty
4. Relevance, in order to avoid hurting Martha's feelings
5. None of them

Exercise 10.3

Does the exchange below form an adjacency pair? Why?

Martin: Will you please come to my birthday party?

Paul: No.

Exercise 10.4

Which face, if any, does Sally threaten in her response to Jenny in the exchange below? Explain your answer.

Jenny: Will you please come to my birthday party?

Sally: No.

Select the best answer from the options below:

a. Jenny's negative face

b. Jenny's positive face

c. Jenny's negative and positive face

d. Neither face

Exercise 10.5

Suppose you ask a friend, "When does the Introductory Linguistics lecture begin?" He doesn't know, and answers, "At 2 p.m."

Which maxim(s), if any, has your friend violated? Choose as many options as you deem relevant.

(a) Quantity   (b) Quality   (c) Manner   (d) Relevance   (e) None of them

Exercise 10.6

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The speaker's intention in making an utterance is known as perlocution.		
2. Representatives always occur as statements.		
3. The term *social relations* has to do with the relative social status of the participants in a communicative exchange.		
4. Accidental non-adherence to a maxim is known as flouting.		
5. Negative politeness strategies attend to others' positive face needs.		
6. Positive face needs refer to our need for independence of action.		
7. Declarations cannot take the form of a question.		
8. The subject of Expressives is always the speaker.		

Exercise 10.7

Professor Tan received the following email from one of her undergraduate students. Does the email seem rude to you? Why?

Dear Professor Tan,
Attached is our proposal. Please read it.
Thanks!
Alvin

Exercise 10.8

Consider the exchange below between friends Sue and Mark, who are seeing each other after a long weekend.
Consider 1-5 below as possible responses to (C). Rank them in order of preference, from most to least likely to be dispreferred by Sue, clearly explaining your ranking.

Sue   (A):   Hi, how was your weekend?
Mark   (B):   Okay. You've got a new hairstyle.
Sue   (C):   Yup. I wanted a change.
Mark   (D):   ….

(1) I'm sorry, but I think I preferred your old look.
(2) I see. Well, it's certainly different.
(3) Well, I think it suits you.
(4) We all need a change now and then, don't we?
(5) I think you ought to ask for your money back.

Exercise 10.9

How would you interpret the following signs, based on the situational context in which each appears? Write clear paraphrases of each sign showing their different meanings.

(1) Dogs must be carried.   [sign next to escalator]

(2) Safety helmets must be worn.   [sign at construction site]

Exercise 10.10

The exchange below takes place during the witness examination phase of a criminal trial. The defence lawyer is questioning a witness about what exactly he saw during a hold-up in a liquor store.

Lawyer: Where was the defendant's head?

Witness: Above his shoulders.

Which of Grice's Maxims, if any, does the witness not adhere to?

Exercise 10.11

The speech turns in the following dialogue are numbered for ease of reference:

1. Mary: Why aren't you getting dressed?
2. John: Are we in a hurry?
3. Mary: Our guests will be here soon.
4. John: I don't really care.
5. Mary: You promised you would behave.
6. John: I said I don't care.
7. Mary: Do it for me?
8. John: Why should I?

Choose all statements which are true about this dialogue.

a. Turns 1 to 4 contain two adjacency pairs.

b. In turn 2, John flouts the maxim of relevance.

c. In turn 3, Mary obeys the maxim of relevance.

d. Swapping turns 5 and 7 would result in an ill-formed dialogue.

e. Turn 5 is a commissive speech act.

f. Turn 7 is a directive speech act.

g. Turn 7 shows Mary's positive face needs.

h. Turn 8 shows John's negative face needs.

Exercise 10.12

The Malay utterance *Selamat datang ke Malaysia* is ambiguous because it could mean:

(a) *Welcome to Malaysia*   [Selamat datang] ke Malaysia

(b) *Selamat came to Malaysia*   [Selamat] [datang] ke Malaysia

What kind of speech acts are (a) and (b), respectively?

Exercise 10.13
For exchanges A to D, circle the Gricean maxim flouted by the second speaker's utterance.

(i) <u>**Exchange A**</u>

Tristan: Would you like to come to Spain with me?

Isolde: Is the Pope Catholic?

Quantity   Quality   Relevance   Manner

(ii) <u>**Exchange B**</u>

Veronica: Who was the guy you were with yesterday?

Marge: Oh, just a guy.

Quantity   Quality   Relevance   Manner

(iii) <u>**Exchange C**</u>

Receptionist: Could I have your name, please?

Customer: J-A-M-Y-Z   S-M-Y-T-H-E

Quantity   Quality   Relevance   Manner

(iv) <u>**Exchange D**</u>

Sales Clerk: Could I have your name, please, sir?

Customer: B-E-N   A-R-N-O-L-D

Quantity   Quality   Relevance   Manner

(v)   In Exchange D above, the clerk gets annoyed with Ben Arnold for spelling his name. This is most likely because Arnold has threatened:

    a.   the clerk's positive face needs.

    b.   the clerk's negative face needs.

    c.   the clerk's positive and negative face needs.

(vi)   The utterance *Go ahead and kill yourself, see if I care* would be perceived as impolite by the addressee because it threatens:

    a.   the addressee's positive face needs.

    b.   the addressee's negative face needs.

    c.   the addressee's positive and negative face needs.

Exercise 10.14
Which of Grice's maxims, if any, does the joke below flout?

Question: *What do you call a crow with a machine gun?*

Answer: *Sir.*

Exercise 10.15

In the table below, identify the speech act performed in each utterance, by writing the letter (A, B, etc.) corresponding to your answer in the appropriate cell.

A. commissive   D. expressive

B. declaration   E. representative

C. directive   F. verdictive

	Utterance	Answer
1	The Thai Embassy in Brussels throws the most lavish parties of all the embassies in that city.	
2	If you do that one more time, I swear I will send you to your room. (said by a mother to her misbehaving five-year-old)	
3	Give this to your father for me, please.	
4	In the southern hemisphere, water goes down the drain in an anticlockwise direction.	
5	I would be truly miserable, if you died before me. (said by one spouse to the other)	

Exercise 10.16

Consider the following exchanges, where (a), (b) and (c) are Jo's alternative responses to Kim's utterance:

Kim.   Hey! It says here there's a sneak preview of *The Return of the Tickling Tomatoes* tonight. Let's go watch it!

Jo.   (a) I want to stay home tonight.

         (b) Could we stay home tonight?

         (c) I would love to stay home tonight.

Drawing on your knowledge of positive and negative politeness strategies, rank Jo's utterances according to what you think would be Kim's preferred response(s).

Exercise 10.17

Classify the following utterances, according to the speech act that you think they represent. Explain your answers and any difficulties you may have completing this task.

1.   a. *She's very tired.*   2.   a. *She's a brilliant mathematician.*

         b. *I'm very tired.*   b. *I'm a brilliant mathematician.*

Exercise 10.18

How is this nursery rhyme organised?

Pussy-cat, pussy-cat, where have you been?

"I've been to London to look at the queen."

Pussy-cat, pussy-cat, what did you there?

"I frightened a little mouse under the chair."

Exercise 10.19

In response to an essay question on Shakespeare's play *Othello*, a student writes, "Othello is referred to as a Barbary horse. A Barbary horse is a type of horse." Which of Grice's Maxims, if any, does this student not adhere to?

Exercise 10.20

This entire nursery rhyme consists of just one type of speech act. What is it?

> Pat-a-cake, pat-a-cake,
> Baker's man,
> Bake me a cake
> As fast as you can;
> Prick it and pat it,
> And mark it with T,
> And put it in the oven
> For Teddy and me.

Exercise 10.21

The manager of a production line factory was hosting a visitor to its premises. At one point during the visit, the following dialogue took place:

> Visitor: *How many people work here?*
> Manager: *About 50%.*

Using the Speech Act concepts of locution, illocution and perlocution, explain whether the manager's response is likely to be surprising to the visitor.

Exercise 10.22

The KISS acronym (*Keep It Short and Simple*), used by generations of writing teachers, basically echoes Grice's Maxims. Which of Grice's Maxims does the KISS acronym echo? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 10.23

Suppose you were asked to present a talk designed to explain why you are interested in your favourite hobby. How would you package the information you want to give, so as to maximise the interest of your audience in what you have to say?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise 10.24

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

You have been asked to present a talk designed to explain why you are interested in your favourite hobby, to a mixed audience, comprising people who are:

1. themselves fans of your hobby too;
2. extremely sceptical about why anyone should waste time with a hobby like yours.

Explain whether/how this knowledge about your audience would affect your presentation.

Exercise 10.25
Choose the dialogues that form an adjacency pair.

a. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *No.*

b. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *Darling, I thought you'd never ask!*

c. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *Why do you ask?*

d. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *Oh look! What a cute kitten over there!*

e. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *Pardon?*

f. Chris. *Will you marry me?*
    Sam.   *I would, if I loved you.*

Exercise 10.26
Identify the speech acts performed by each of the five sentences making up this "419 Scam" email. Next, analyse the email in terms of what you now know about politeness and face work.

> *I have being paid to kill you. I advice that you contact me on time before I send my assassin to you. You better contact me on the numbers below to discuss with me. Have being watching you in your house for 7 days now. So now I know your every move.*
> *irene*

Exercise 10.27
In each of the exchanges below, the underlined phrase suggests that the second speaker is trying to avoid violating a conversational maxim (i.e. Quantity, Quality, Relevance or Manner). Name the maxim, and explain how you arrived at your answer.

Exchange 1   (Two friends talking)
    Jason: How did your interview go?
    Mathew: <u>To make a long story short</u>, they didn't like me and I didn't like them.

Exchange 2   (In a restaurant)
    Waiter: What can I get you, ma'am?
    Customer: I'd like a Caesar salad, please. <u>By the way</u>, is there a restroom nearby that I can use?

Exercise 10.28
The exchange below occurs after the supervisee gets into trouble at the office as a result of inadvertently dating a criminal. Which of Grice's Maxims does the supervisor flout, and what might politeness have to do with it?

Supervisee: Is it a crime to want a little human contact?
Supervisor: That's why I don't go out.

Exercise 10.29

Suppose you are freezing in a fiercely air-conditioned room, with no way to regulate the thermostat. You then say:

> *Should we open the window?*

1. Give the likely locution, illocution and perlocution associated with your utterance.
2. Which politeness strategies have you used in your utterance?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise 10.30

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

In the same situation as described in the previous exercise, suppose you now say one of the following utterances, instead:

    (a) Open the window.

    (b) I think we should open the window.

    (c) Oh dear, it's cold in here.

    (d) Don't you think we should open the window?

    (e) Open the window, please.

    (f) Would you mind if we opened the window?

How would the politeness strategies that you used in each of the cases above compare with those employed in *Should we open the window?*

Chapter 11. Language in use

Exercise 11.1
Do you think "The Crooked Song" would be an appropriate title for this text? Why?

> There was a crooked man, and he went a crooked mile,
> And found a crooked sixpence against a crooked stile,
> He bought a crooked cat, which caught a crooked mouse,
> And they all lived together in a little crooked house.

Exercise 11.2
Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The topic of a sentence is also its subject.		
2. The comment of a sentence is its object.		
3. Anaphoric words have no meaning.		
4. Anaphoric words are always deictic.		
5. Cohesion is necessary for coherence.		
6. Cataphoric words refer backwards to earlier discourse.		
7. Conjunctions are cohesive devices		
8. Grice's Maxim of Manner says 'be appropriately informative'.		

Exercise 11.3
Does the exchange below seem coherent to you? Why?

A. So I'll see you tomorrow for lunch, right?
B. My grandmother broke her leg.

Exercise 11.4
Consider texts (1-3). See if you can explain why text (1) is acceptable whereas texts (2) and (3) are not, given what you've learnt about clause relations and the discourse signals that are used to indicate particular clause relations. How could you revise (2) and (3) so that they become acceptable?

(1) Americans love guns. In contrast, Canadians loathe them.
(2) # Americans love guns. In contrast, Democrats loathe them.
(3) # Americans love guns. In contrast, mothers loathe them.

Exercise 11.5
Identify the topic and comment in each of the sentences below.

(1) *The productivity of compounding is borne out by the frequency with which so-called long compounds are formed.*
(2) *Long compounds are expressions formed by successive compounding of other compounds.*
(3) *This kind of compounding is an example of recursion.*

Exercise 11.6

Select the organisational pattern that best describes the relationship between the paired sentences below, by writing the appropriate letter (A, B, etc.) in the space provided.

A. compatibility	D. problem-response
B. contrast	E. chronological sequence
C. cause-consequence	F. reverse chronological sequence

(1) My child is full of grace. Your child is full of woe. _____

(2) Saturday's child works hard for a living. Friday's child is loving and giving. _____

(3) There was an old woman who swallowed a spider. So, she swallowed a bird to catch the spider that wriggled and jiggled and tickled inside her. _____

(4) There was an old woman who swallowed a horse. Of course, she died. _____

(5) This little piggy went to market. This little piggy stayed at home. _____

(6) Solomon Grundy was born on a Monday, christened on a Tuesday, and married on a Wednesday. He died on Thursday. _____

Exercise 11.7

Does one of these sentences seem more coherent to you than the other? Why?

(1) David cooked, while I showered.

(2) David cooked and I showered.

Exercise 11.8

Using what you've learnt about given and new information, can you explain why the utterance below seems odd?

We can expect more afternoon showers this afternoon.

Exercise 11.9

What kind of clause relation predominates in this nursery rhyme?

Rock-a-bye, baby, on the tree top,

When the wind blows, the cradle will rock.

When the bough breaks, the cradle will fall.

Down will come baby, cradle and all.

Exercise 11.10

Consider the following exchange:

Chris: *Don't you ever buy new clothes?*

Sam:. *You're quite absent-minded, aren't you?*

Explain whether this exchange can be said to be:

(a) Coherent.

(b) Cohesive.

Exercise 11.11

Here are two horoscopes, issued on the same day for two different zodiac signs, A and B. Each sentence of each horoscope is numbered, for ease of reference.

<u>Horoscope for zodiac sign A</u>

(A1)   Get in touch with yourself today.

(A2)   You don't need to pretend that you are someone you're not.

(A3)   You can be yourself without having to call attention to who you are.

(A4)   The solution to your concerns is within your own reach.

(A5)   Apply to yourself the advice that you usually give to others.

<u>Horoscope for zodiac sign B</u>

(B1)   Your mind and your heart are working together today.

(B2)   It's time to give yourself some respite from your hard work.

(B3)   You know that things are working out the way you expect them to.

(B4)   Keep your head cool and let your heart work its way to your reason.

(B5)   You will surprise those who care for you.

1.   Does each horoscope form a cohesive text? Why?

2.   Try to rearrange first, the order of the sentences in each text, and then, the order of the sentences across both texts, to create new texts. What are your observations?

Exercise 11.12

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The meaning of deictic words is given by their co-text.		
2. The comment of a sentence is also its object.		
3. The topic of a sentence always constitutes given information.		
4. Conjunctions are cohesive devices.		
5. Pronouns are cohesive devices.		
6. Conjunctions are necessary for coherence.		

Exercise 11.13

Consider the following utterance:

Whatever you do, it won't avoid a white promotion.

1.   How would you interpret this utterance? <u>Answer this question before reading Question 2 below!</u>

2.   Let's now put the utterance in its original context. How and why will you need to change your previous interpretation of this utterance?

Your bishop may pin the knight, that's true, or you may choose to forfeit your pawn. Whatever you do, it won't avoid a white promotion.

Exercise 11.14

The nursery rhyme below is usually accompanied by the counting of the child's fingers or toes. Is the rhyme coherent? Why?

> This little piggy went to market,
> This little piggy stayed at home.
> This little piggy had roast beef,
> This little piggy had none.
> And this little piggy went
> "Wee, wee, wee" all the way home.

Exercise 11.15

Grammatical cohesion is achieved through the use of syntactic devices like conjunctions. This may lead us to conclude that simply using conjunctions will make a text cohesive.

Test this interpretation by analysing the email message below, sent from a student to her teacher. Which clause relations do you think the student intended to make clear? Did she succeed in doing so? Explain your reasoning succinctly.

> *Dear Dr Rajiv,*
> *I missed my Tutorial 6 because of illness. However, I have a medical certificate. Hence, can you tell me how to make up the missed class?*
> *Regards*

Exercise 11.16

1. Imagine a situational context in which the following utterance is coherent.

   > Bio… English… Maths… OK, ready.

2. Now explain how intonation, which is a feature of co-text, contributes to the utterance's coherence. Below, the symbols \ and / indicate a falling tone and a rising tone, respectively, on the next word:

   > /Bio… /English… /Maths… \OK, \ready.

Exercise 11.17

Does the following dialogue strike you as odd? If it does, suggest ways of amending it, explaining your reasoning. If it does not strike you as odd, explain what makes it acceptable to you. The turns in the dialogue are numbered, for ease of reference.

(1) Sam: Would you like a cup of tea?
(2) Chris: Yes, I would like a cup of tea, please.
(3) Sam: Would you like a cup of black tea or a cup of green tea?
(4) Chris: A cup of black tea would be great.
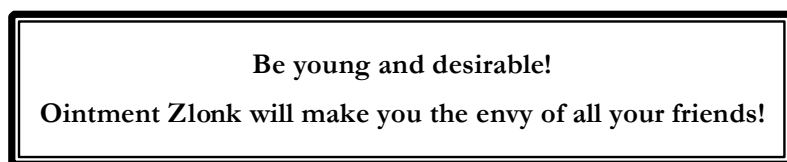
Exercise 11.18

What real-world knowledge do we need in order to perceive the exchange below as coherent?

Jane: What happened to the box of chocolates in the fridge?
Ben: Listen, I had a hard day, OK?

Exercise 11.19

Here is an example of a commercial advertisement:

> **Be young and desirable!**
>
> **Ointment Zlonk will make you the envy of all your friends!**

Choose, from among the discourse patterns and clause relations below, one or more that you deem adequate to provide an analysis of the text above, and analyse the ad according to your choice(s). Remember that the same discourse pattern may apply recursively. Explain your reasoning throughout.

(a) Problem – Solution (c) Instrument – Achievement

(b) Preview – Detail (d) Matching contrast

Exercise 11.20

In Portuguese, alternative word orders can be used to indicate the relevance of different pieces of information. English word-by-word glosses are given below each of the following Portuguese utterances, in italics.

(a) O gato morreu.
   the cat died

(b) Morreu o gato.
   died   the cat

Drawing on your knowledge of the organisation of discourse:

1. Explain what differences you see in terms of given and new information, topic and comment in the above utterances.
2. Imagine plausible contexts in which a speaker would prefer to use one of these utterances rather than the other.

Exercise 11.21

Consider the following dialogue between A and B. The conversational turns are numbered, for ease of reference:

(1) A: Do you know what the world wide web is?

(2) B: It's a wide web you can use in the world. Do you agree?

(3) A: No, I mean the internet, you know? The WWW, do you know what it is?

(4) B: Well, yes, you can use it wherever you want to, because webs are flexible, you know?

(5) A: Ok, but a rubber band is flexible too, and it's not the WWW!

(6) B: A rubber band is flexible too, what's your point?

(7) A: Listen, I'm talking about the internet, what are you talking about??

(8) B: I'm listening, and the internet is flexible. You said so, didn't you?

What do you notice about A's and B's ability to signal coherence through:
- the proficient use of cohesive devices; and,
- the proficient use of knowledge of the world.

Exercise 11.22

Consider the two texts below:

Text A   *I saw my friend, and I went out, and I said hello, and I talked to him, and he talked to me, and we talked about our friends, and we got tired, and we said goodbye, and I was really happy.*

Text B   *I went to greet my friend, when I saw him outside. We talked for a long while, especially about our friends, before we got tired and left. That made me really happy.*

Think about similarities and differences between texts A and B in terms of the discourse structure and informational content conveyed.

Exercise 11.23

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. Co-reference is a matter of co-text.		
2. Anaphora cannot involve deixis.		
3. Deictic meanings can only be interpreted in a situational context.		
4. Overt subordination is an example of text cohesion.		
5. Cohesion is necessary for coherence.		
6. Cataphoric words are always lexical words.		

Exercise 11.24

Explain why Text 2 sounds odd whereas Text 1 does not:

Text 1   I found a perfectly round pebble. My brother found a huge crab hole. My sister found a blue seashell.

Text 2   I found a perfectly round pebble. My brother found a huge crab hole. My sister found the square root of 142,884 without using a calculator.

Exercise 11.25

Consider the text below:

Today, we'll talk about discourse. We will see how patterns of cohesion and coherence explain how we put together texts and make sense of them. We will also see why some texts can be judged to be incohesive and incoherent.

Explain whether and how the organisation of this text may be analysed in terms of:

- Discourse patterns
- Clause relations

Exercise 11.26

This text is likely to make sense to you:

Two tablets twice daily until finished.

But *why* does it make sense to you? Try to detail the kind of knowledge about the world that is taken for granted by this text. Pretend you are explaining what the text means to a young child (or to a Martian!).

Exercise 11.27

Section 11.3.2 of the textbook clarifies the relationship between coherence (conceptual relatedness) and cohesion (linguistic connectedness). Cohesion within a text is usually achieved by referring (backwards or forwards, explicitly or implicitly) to other parts of the same text in order to signal how the various parts of the text interconnect, conceptually, to form a coherent whole. This being so, explain whether the following text (inspired from an example by Enkvist, N.E. (1978), Coherence, pseudo-coherence and non-coherence. In Östman, J.-O., Ed. *Cohesion and Semantics*. Åbo, Åbo Akademi: 109-128) can be said to be (a) cohesive and/or (b) coherent:

I have two sisters. Sister is the name of a syntactic relationship. Relationships can be emotionally very straining. Strained coffee tastes like dish-washing water. Water balloons are great fun. Fun is spelt f-u-n.

Exercise 11.28

The two sentences below both show a proform.

(a) We gave the monkeys the bananas because they were hungry.
(b) We gave the monkeys the bananas because they were ripe.

The sentences have been analysed in the following way:

©2007 Trey Jones/*Speculative Grammarian*, used with permission:
http://specgram.com/CLIII.4/08.phlogiston.cartoon.zhe.html

1. Can you explain the use of the subscripts $_1$ and $_2$ in this analysis?
2. What do these sentences tell us about the importance of proform reference, in discourse?

Exercise 11.29

The following sentences form a coherent discourse, in the sequence given below, although there are no cohesive devices linking the sentences together.

(a) We had planned a family outing for Saturday.
(b) We prepared mounds of sandwiches, cakes, fruit and drinks.
(c) We couldn't make it in the end.
(d) It just started pouring with rain early in the morning.
(e) We had a picnic in our living-room.

1. Add relevant cohesive markers to the sentences (don't change the sequence).

2. Find alternative sequences for the same sentences, in ways that build as many different coherent discourses as possible, linking the sentences by means of cohesive markers as needed.

3. Explain whether different cohesive markers are needed for each different sequence, and whether each discourse that you built thereby acquires different meanings.

Exercise 11.30

One of the core functions of language is to inform. The paragraph below was taken from a webpage informing clients of the terms and conditions of use of an online service. What makes this text so difficult to understand?

Limitations of Liability. WE WILL NOT BE LIABLE FOR ANY INCIDENTAL, INDIRECT, SPECIAL, EXEMPLARY OR CONSEQUENTIAL DAMAGES, INCLUDING BUT NOT LIMITED TO LOST PROFITS, TIME, SAVINGS, DATA, OR GOODWILL, DAMAGES ARISING FROM USE OF OR INABILITY TO USE THE [name of company] SERVICES OR OTHER PRODUCTS OR SERVICES, OR COST OF REPLACEMENT GOODS OR SERVICES, WHETHER FORESEEABLE OR UNFORESEEABLE, THAT MAY ARISE OUT OF OR IN CONNECTION WITH THE [name of company] SERVICES, PRODUCTS, SERVICES OR OTHERWISE RELATING TO THE SUBJECT MATTER OF THIS AGREEMENT, REGARDLESS OF THEORY OF LIABILITY, EVEN IF SUCH DAMAGES WERE FORESEEABLE. EXCEPT FOR ANY DIRECT DAMAGES FOR BODILY INJURIES OR TANGIBLE PROPERTY DAMAGE PROXIMATELY CAUSED BY US, THE MAXIMUM AGGREGATE LIABILITY OF US IN ALL EVENTS SHALL BE LIMITED TO THE AMOUNT OF FEES YOU PAID TO US UNDER THIS AGREEMENT DURING THE TWELVE (12) MONTHS PRECEDING THE FIRST CLAIM.

Chapter 12. Language and speakers

Exercise 12.1

By its nature, language is a subject that interests lots of people. Linguists often find themselves engaged in lively discussions about language with non-linguists during informal social occasions, for instance. Drawing on what you've learned and thought about along this course, try to put yourself in a linguist's shoes and explain how you would respond to the following observations, adapted from real-life remarks made to linguists by laypeople. Try also to explain <u>why</u> you would respond in that way.

    a.   How many languages do you need to speak, if you want to become a linguist?

    b.   No wonder I'm so bad at languages, I know nothing about grammar.

    c.   English is easy, it has no grammar at all. French has too much grammar for my taste, and the other Latin languages too. [said by a native speaker of German]

Exercise 12.2

Children acquiring their first language and adults learning a language appear to use their new language in similar ways, as in the following data from English:

Data from native English-speaking children	Data from adult learners of English
(a) Doggie eat?	(e) See watch?
(b) Mummy sock.	(f) No big meal, small meal.
(c) Sleep bed.	(g) Take photo?
(d) Dolly no sleep.	(h) No money.

1.   Explain why these utterances sound incomplete. **<u>Hint</u>:** How would you complete the utterances so as to build full sentences?

2.   What evidence does the typical speech of children and foreigners provide for the assumption of two different types of words, lexical and grammatical, in English?

3.   Do you find any of the utterances in the data difficult to interpret? Why?

4.   Can you find any similarities between the utterances in the data and the type of language used e.g. in SMS? Explain your views.

Exercise 12.3

A one-year-old boy is watching a relative put on a furry winter-coat. The boy points at the relative and says: *"Dog!"* (data from Cruz-Ferreira, M. (2006), *Three is a Crowd? Acquiring Portuguese in a trilingual environment*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.)

Can you propose a likely explanation for the child's utterance?

Exercise 12.4

Suppose you are talking about controversial matters with some English-speaking friends, among them a non-native speaker of the language. Suppose now the non-native friend interrupts you by saying: "*Shut up, you stupid idiot!*" Would you take offence rather than assume that your friend doesn't know how to use English? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.5

In different countries, there are different ways of identifying foreign citizens who acquire their new country's citizenship. For example, the following labels might be used for someone who was born in Turkey and later acquired American citizenship:

(a) Sam is a Turkish American.

(b) Sam is an American Turk.

1. Would you say there is a difference in using one label instead of the other? Why?

2. If you were Sam, which of the two labels would you prefer for yourself? Why?

3. If you were American, which of the two labels would you prefer for Sam? Why?

Note: For the purposes of this exercise, you should replace the labels 'Turk(ish)' and 'American' with the labels for common nationalities which seek citizenship in your country, and the label for your own nationality, respectively.

Exercise 12.6

We discussed in section 12.3 of the textbook examples of multilingual mixes involving Malay and English, repeated here:

(a) This is very maluating.   (b) I was very maluated.

The Malay word *malu* roughly means 'bashful', and these utterances are used to mean 'This is very embarrassing' and 'I was very embarrassed', respectively.

1. Comparing the words *maluating* and *maluated* to our discussion of the creole Tok Pisin in Exercise 2.6, can you find any parallels between these data and the creole data as far as the creation of new words is concerned? Explain your answer.

2. Looking now at the sentences in (a) and (b), would you say that the speakers who use them are speaking a creole? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.7

A child aged 1;4 (1 year 4 months) is watching his father eat grapes. The child says:

Daddy bbbbb grape.

In this utterance, 'bbbbb' represents the child's smacking his lips together (data from Cruz-Ferreira, M. (2006), *Three is a Crowd? Acquiring Portuguese in a trilingual environment*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters).

Given that 'bbbbb' is not a word, nor does it correspond to any identifiable linguistic unit of English, can this utterance be in any way relevant for our understanding of child language acquisition? Why?

Exercise 12.8

Research into speakers' attitudes towards other varieties of their languages has shown that users of a low-prestige variety judge speakers of a high-prestige variety as more intelligent, more highly educated and more socially gifted than speakers of their own variety. This research also shows that the same speakers of a low-prestige variety would <u>not</u> want to change their linguistic habits to mimic those of users of high-prestige varieties. How can you make sense of these findings?

Exercise 12.9

We saw on page 259 of the textbook an example of miscommunication caused by literal translation of an idiomatic expression from another language into English. Can you think of linguistic uses in your language(s) that might cause similar misunderstandings if translated literally into other languages?

For example in Portuguese, calling a woman a 'doll' (*boneca*) is a compliment directed at the woman's beauty. Would the word for 'doll' convey the same meaning in your language(s)?

Exercise 12.10

In 1785, Samuel Johnson expressed dismay at events that concern us still today, namely, language endangerment and language death. In a letter to James Boswell, his biographer, he wrote:

> *"I am always sorry when any language is lost, because languages are the pedigree of nations."*

By this, Johnson meant that languages encapsulate cultural patrimonies, which are lost with them. Do you agree that languages reflect *national* cultures? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.11

Suppose you were given the following data, concerning the words used by a one-year-old child for the given referents, and suppose you were asked to count the number of words in the child's vocabulary, as reflected in these data:

(a) [gɑk] for *quack, rock, clock, frog, whack, yuk, walk, block, milk.*

(b) [bɑti], [buɑti], [bɑki], [bɑti], [bɑtit] for *blanket.*

Explain how you would carry out the task, why you would do it this way, and the difficulties you think you may encounter.

Exercise 12.12

Language mixes that are typical of multilingual speech are sometimes described as evidence of 'semilingualism'. What does the word *semilingualism* mean to you? Based on your definition, would you characterize 'semilingualism' as one of the causes of language mixing?

Exercise 12.13

A one-year-old child uses the following two words in the way described below (data from Cruz-Ferreira, M. (2006), *Three is a Crowd? Acquiring Portuguese in a trilingual environment*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters):

(a) *spoon*: for his own feeding spoon only

(b) *fork*: for any other cutlery, including forks, knives and spoons

Can the concept of overgeneralisation, introduced in section 12.2.1 of the textbook, help us explain both uses? Why?

Exercise 12.14

The two texts below transcribe speech by two aphasic patients, one with Broca's aphasia and the other with Wernicke's aphasia. Both patients were asked to describe the same picture, of a chaotic kitchen scene showing, in the background, a boy precariously balanced on a ladder taking cookies from a high cupboard and a girl standing below reaching up for the cookies, and, in the foreground, the kitchen sink leaking a flood of water onto the floor and a woman calmly drying dishes (data from Goodglass, H. (1973), *Psycholinguistics and aphasia*, Johns Hopkins University Press).

Can you tell which of the two conditions is reflected in each text? Explain your reasoning.

Text 1 Wife is dry dishes. Water down! Oh boy! Okay. Alright. Okay… Cookie is down… fall, and girl, okay, girl… boy… um… cookie is… um… catch…

Text 2 This is falling down, just about, and she's gonna get this one for sure it's gonna fall down there or whatever, she's gonna get that one and, and there, he's gonna get one himself or more, it all depends with this when they fall down.

Exercise 12.15

The following question summarises worries which are commonly expressed about both child language learning and adult language learning. Read it carefully:

I've heard that the human brain is programmed to learn language for just a short period of time, 0 to 4 years of age. If language concepts are not learned during this time, they are never learned. Is this true?

After going through Chapter 12 in the textbook, how would you formulate an answer to this question?

Exercise 12.16

In 1956, the American linguist Benjamin Lee Whorf noted the following, in his book *Language, Thought, and Reality*:

"We dissect nature along lines laid down by our native languages [...] We cannot talk at all except by subscribing to the organization and classification of data which the [speech community] decrees."

By this he meant that the resources available in different languages, whether in vocabulary or grammar, shape our ways of thinking about the world.

1. Do you agree that you need to express your thoughts by means of the particular language(s) that you have at your disposal? Why?

2. If you are multilingual, do you express the 'same' thoughts differently, depending on which language you are using at the time? Give examples that support your answer.

Exercise 12.17

The following exchange takes place at a fun fair, between three-year-old child A and his older brother, child B. The text in single quotation marks represents child pronunciations (data from Crystal, D. (1989), *Listen to your child. A parent's guide to children's language*. Harmondsworth: Penguin).

Child A:	I want to go 'mewwy go wound'.
Child B (teasingly):	He wants to go on the 'mewwy go wound'!
Child A:	No! You don't say it 'wight'!

1. Propose one or more questions which you deem relevant to help us understand the child pronunciations that you observe in the data.

2. Now, answer your own questions!

Exercise 12.18

Consider the following list of words and their meanings, in different languages:

(a)   English, *deception*: 'deceit'
       French, *déception*: 'disappointment'

(b)   English, *eventually*: 'sooner or later'
       Swedish, *eventuellt*: 'possibly'

(c)   English, *constipated*: 'having difficult bowel movements'
       Portuguese, *constipado*: 'having a cold'

1. Would we be justified in predicting miscommunication among users of these languages, from word pairs like these? Why?

2. The technical term for word pairs like these is *false-friends*. Would you say that this is an apt label? Why?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise 12.19

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Misunderstandings such as the ones addressed in the previous exercise are usually attributed to defective learning of a foreign language. But misunderstandings occur among native users of the same language, too. Consider the following examples and their meanings, in different varieties of the same language:

> *I stay in Chancery Lane.*
> Singapore English: 'I live in Chancery Lane'. Other Englishes: 'I'm living in Chancery Lane for the time being'.

> *I'm through.*
> (Some) British Englishes: 'I'm connected (e.g. on the phone)'. (Some) American Englishes: 'I'm done'.

1. Find other examples of differential uses of words/phrases in different varieties of languages that you speak, and discuss them with friends.
2. In your view, what factors lie behind the miscommunication that may arise through differential uses such as these, within language varieties?

Exercise 12.20

The data below are from a Mandarin-English bilingual child (data adapted from Deterding, D. (1984), *A study of the ways in which a two-year-old bilingual child differentiates between his two languages*. MPhil thesis, Cambridge University).

(a) mao sleep   (*mao* is the Mandarin word for 'cat')

(b) ji sleep   (*ji* is the Mandarin word for 'chicken')

(c) donkey sleep

1. At what stage in language development would you say this child is?
2. Do all utterances in the data support your answer to 1? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.21

In his autobiographical novel *Cider with Rosie*, Laurie Lee reports his bitter disappointment, as a five-year old, at having been sent home after his first day of school without receiving a present. The teacher had welcomed him to her class by saying:

> *Sit there for the present.*

Can you explain the little boy's disappointment?

Exercise 12.22

Comment on this observation, made by an adult learner of Swedish:

> *I speak Swedish with this funny accent because I'm Polish.*

Exercise 12.23

Children grow up surrounded by natural uses of language. A child is therefore likely to hear her own father, for example, addressed in the following ways, all of which her father responds to as addressee:

> *daddy, dad, darling, Robert, Bob, sweetheart, sir, Mr Jones, son, uncle Bob, old chap*

What role can these uses play in the development of a child's communicative competence? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.24

Children are commonly said to be outstanding language learners. In contrast, adult language learners are commonly said to be less than ideal learners.

1. Ask 5 to 10 people which of the two groups, children or adults, they think are better language learners, and why they think so.

2. Note down the terms of comparison that your informants use for each group of learners, which allow value judgements such as 'outstanding'/'better' and 'less than ideal'/'worse', respectively.

Discuss your findings with friends, if you can – or with your informants!

Exercise 12.25

Do a survey of 2-3 language teaching textbooks, to find out how a new language is introduced to learners in those books. Is the new language described on its own terms, or are its features (phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic) presented in light of the language in which the textbook is written? What conclusions can you draw about the usefulness, for language learners, of the method(s) that are used to teach languages, in those textbooks?

Exercise 12.26

The term "native speaker", which is usually associated with proficient users of a language, commonly refers to *monolingual* users of a language. Would you agree that only monolingual speakers are proficient users of language? Why, or why not?

Exercise 12.27

Research in neurolinguistics has found a correlation between the frequency of use of a linguistic item and its activation in the brain of the language user. Those linguistic items which are used more often are more readily accessible to the language user and, conversely, those items which are less used become less accessible. According to these findings, language loss (also called *language attrition*) can be explained as loss of availability of linguistic items, due to lack of language use.

1. Drawing on your own experience as a language user, do these findings make intuitive sense to you? Why, or why not?
2. Would you predict that similar correlations of brain activation and linguistic accessibility can be found in child language learning and in later language learning too? Again, explain your reasoning.

Exercise 12.28

The matter of whether foreign-language learners should strive (or not) to acquire "native" features in their new language is controversial, as discussed in section 12.4 of the textbook. In terms of acquiring the accent of a new language, linguist Loraine K. Obler observes:

> *"[…] one must be willing to sound like someone from another culture, but one must be willing to give up the protection that being foreign confers, since native speakers may make allowances […] when the speaker is obviously not a native speaker and thus the person is protected from sounding foolish."* (p. 152)

> (Obler, L. K. (1989). Exceptional second language learners. In S. M. Gass, C. G. Madden, D. Preston & L. Selinker (Eds.), *Variation in second language acquisition, vol. II. Psycholinguistic Issues* (pp. 141-159). Clevedon/Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters.)

Jot down your thoughts about this quotation from your own perspective, drawing on any experiences you may have as a user of a foreign language, and/or with foreign uses or foreign users of your language(s).

Exercise 12.29

At age 0;11 (11 months), one child was reported to use the form 'baba' for the adult noun *water*. One month later, the child started using the same form for any drinkable substance, that is, for the adult noun *drink*. Explain whether you would count the form 'baba' as one word or two words, in the child's vocabulary, at each of these two stages.

Exercise 12.30

The relationship between the two words in children's two-word utterances appears to share semantic and functional similarities across languages. Given below is a sample of two-word utterances from English-speaking children, and a list of semantic/functional labels that describe the meaning of these utterances.

Child utterance	Typical meaning
A. Dolly feet.	1. Negation
B. No sleep.	2. Agent-action
C. Daddy read.	3. Possession
D. Eat cake.	4. Location
E. Teddy in.	5. Action-object

1. Match each of the child utterances with its likely meaning.
2. Observe a child at the two-word stage, in any of your languages, or ask the child's caregivers for examples of the child's two-word utterances, to confirm whether or not the meanings suggested in Question 1 match your own findings.

Cross-Chapter

Exercise XC.1

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	Statement	True	False
1	The sentences below contain a word with the same affix: *The contents of this suitcase are illegal. She contents herself with him.*		
2	*Airsickness* and *spear-fishing* are inflected compound nouns.		
3	The sentence *Kim looked carefully round the room* contains two adverbs.		
4	The words *deactivation*, *firewalkers* and *unpredictability* contain four morphemes each.		
5	The words *air-freshener* and *air-purifier* involve exactly the same word-formation processes.		
6	There is an example of conversion in the following sentences: *My friend is well. She bakes well.*		
7	FYI, BTW, TGIF, NASA and NFL are all examples of proper acronyms.		
8	There is an example of alternation in the following sentences: *They will cast the die tonight. The cast will die tonight.*		
9	*Crocogator* (crocodile + alligator) is an example of clipping as is *breathalyser* (breath + analyser).		
10	From the Swahili data below, we can conclude that Swahili has inflectional prefixes. *kiazi* (potato) *viazi* (potatoes) *kioo* (mirror) *vioo* (mirrors) *kiatu* (shoe) *viatu* (shoes)		

Exercise XC.2

Choose the statement(s) that apply to the data below.

(1) *Boiling water can be dangerous.*

Paraphrase (i): Water that is boiling can be dangerous.

Paraphrase (ii): It can be dangerous to boil water.

a.   Based on paraphrase (i), *boiling* in sentence (1) is an adjective.

b.   Based on paraphrase (i), *water* is the Subject of *boiling*; based on (ii), it is the Object.

c.   Sentence (1) reflects an example of lexical ambiguity.

d.   *Sniffing glue can be dangerous* is ambiguous in the same way as sentence (1).

Exercise XC.3

Choose the statement(s) that accurately describe(s) the dialogue below:

> Mathilda: Do you know the muffin man?
>
> Bernard: The muffin man?
>
> Mathilda: The one who lives in Drury Lane.
>
> Bernard: Yes, I do. He's a horrible man.

a. The exchange above contains an example of an adjacency pair.

b. The exchange above contains an example of an insertion sequence.

c. The exchange above contains an example of the maxim of relevance being flouted.

d. Mathilda's opening turn is an example of a directive.

e. Bernard's final utterance is an example of a verdictive.

f. Mathilda's first utterance threatens Bernard's negative face needs.

g. Bernard's first utterance threatens Mathilda's positive face needs.

h. The proform 'he' in Bernard's final utterance is an example of cataphora.

Exercise XC.4

Consider the data below.

1. Circle the compounds described by the rule: "The first stem is the Adjunct of the Verb in the second stem."

firefighter	ice skaters	piano tuner	oven-baked
lion-tamer	milk-coated	hair curlers	firewalker
pencil sharpener	bartop dancer	bird feeder	dog catcher

2. Next, state a rule like the one above that accounts for the relationship between the two stems of the remaining compounds, succinctly explaining how you arrived at this rule

Exercise XC.5

The word class *Adjective* patterns in two distinct ways in English, as in the following data:

simple	simpler	*more simple
bright	brighter	*more bright
intelligent	*intelligenter	more intelligent
comfortable	*comfortabler	more comfortable

One of the reasons for the choice between *-er* and *more* with different adjectives has to do with the number of syllables of the adjective (i.e. informally, whether the adjective is 'long' or 'short'). Generally, adjectives with up to two syllables pattern with *-er*, longer adjectives pattern with *more*.
This being so, can the forms *-er* and *more* be analysed as instances of alternation? Why?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise XC.6

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Assuming *-er* and *more* as allomorphs of {comparative}, can we say that {comparative} is an inflectional morpheme? Why?

Exercise XC.7
Choose the statement(s) that describe(s) the sentence below:

Whenever I feel afraid, I hold my head up high and whistle a happy tune so no one really knows I'm afraid.

a. The sentence contains four instances of recursion.

b. The sentence contains three embedded clauses.

c. The sentence contains at least one example of anaphora.

d. The sentence contains an example of personal deixis.

e. "*whenever I feel afraid*" functions as Adjunct of the verb *hold*.

f. The sentence contains a cause-effect clause relation.

g. The sentence contains an example of temporal deixis.

h. *Whenever I feel afraid* functions as the Subject of the matrix clause.

i. The Subject of all the clauses in the sentence is the first-person pronoun 'I'.

j. *afraid* functions as Object Complement.

k. All the VPs in the sentence have exactly the same constituents.

l. The sentence contains only one NP, namely, *a happy tune*.

Exercise XC.8
Choose the statement(s) that describe(s) the sentence below:

On the first day of Christmas, my true love gave to me a partridge in a pear tree.

a. The PP *on the first day of Christmas* is a coordinate structure.

b. The NP *the first day of Christmas* is a recursive structure.

c. The NP *the first day of Christmas* contains three modifiers.

d. The VP in the given sentence contains three dependents.

e. The NP *a partridge in a pear tree* and the PP *in a pear tree* are mother and daughter.

f. The NP *a partridge* and the PP *in a pear tree* are sisters.

g. The NP *a pear tree* is headed by the compound Noun *pear tree*.

h. The Subject of the given sentence is the PP *on the first day of Christmas*.

i. The verb in the given sentence is complex transitive.

j. The verb in the given sentence is simple transitive.

Exercise XC.9
The word *type* can belong to different word classes.

(1) Use the word *type* in two sentences that show two different word classes of the word, one sentence for each word class, and state the word class of *type* in each of your sentences.

(2) Explain whether the word *types* can also belong to the same two word classes that you gave in your answer to (1).

(3) Does your answer to (1) involve the use of context? Why?

Exercise XC.10

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	Statement	True	False
1	*The housebreaker was caught* entails *The burglar was captured.*		
2	*The butcher slaughtered the cows* entails *The cows are dead.*		
3	*James told me a story* entails *I was listening to James's story.*		
4	*I gave Sally a ring* is structurally and lexically ambiguous.		
5	*Jenny is destitute* entails *Jenny is extremely poor.*		
6	*James is intelligent* and *James is not stupid* entail each other.		
7	*Orphan* and *often* are homonyms.		

Exercise XC.11

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	Statement	True	False
1	*Sasha burnt the roast* entails *The roast is burnt.*		
2	The sentence *They served meat at the meet-and-greet* contains a pair of homophones.		
3	The words *quay* and *key* are homonyms.		
4	The sentences *Millie found a snake* and *Millie discovered a reptile* entail each other.		
5	The word *fear* is a meronym of the word *emotion*.		
6	The sentence *Marshall considers himself a genius* involves both deixis and anaphora.		
7	*Marie hid Jan's birthday present* entails *Marie bought Jan a birthday present.*		
8	If the word *gleep* includes the meaning *vone*, then *vone* is a superordinate of *gleep*.		
9	*Cheap* and *expensive* are relational antonyms.		
10	*Debtor* and *creditor* are complementary antonyms.		

Exercise XC.12

Choose the statements that accurately describe utterances (1) and (2).

(1) Yesterday all my troubles seemed so far away.

(2) Yesterday was Thursday.

a. Both sentences are examples of verdictive speech acts.

b. Both sentences are examples of directive speech acts.

c. Neither sentence is a commissive speech act.

d. In sentence (1), *yesterday* functions as Adjunct.

e. *Thursday* and *so far away* function as Complements.

f. The TOPIC of both sentences is *yesterday*.

g. In both sentences, *yesterday* functions as Subject.

h. Sentence (1) is a complex sentence.

Exercise XC.13
Choose the statement(s) that accurately describe the words as they are used in the receipt below.

> *Everlasting Happiness Corner Shop*   Opening Hours: 9 a.m. to 5 p.m.
>
> Received from Mrs Tan Lee Ling, in payment for a pair of stiletto shoes, the amount of four hundred and fifty dollars.
>
> We appreciate your custom, and look forward to your next visit.

a.   The words *shoes* and *dollars* are derived words.

b.   *We look forward to your next visit* is an expressive speech act.

c.   The receipt contains an example of a representative speech act.

d.   The word *opening* functions as a Verb.

e.   The words *happiness*, *payment* and *received* each contain a derivational suffix.

f.   *Corner Shop* is a headed compound.

g.   The receipt contains an example of a coordinated VP.

h.   *Everlasting* and *opening* share identical word-structure trees.

Exercise XC.14
Drawing on what you've learnt about syntax, pragmatics and discourse, can the utterance *Go!* be considered a sentence?

Exercise XC.15
Choose the statements that accurately describe the traditional English nursery rhyme below:

> Pat a cake, pat a cake, baker's man,
> Bake me a cake as fast as you can.
> Pat it and roll it and mark it with 'B'
> And put it in the oven for Baby and me.

a.   The nursery rhyme contains an example of an adjacency pair.

b.   The nursery rhyme contains no examples of deixis.

c.   The nursery rhyme contains at least one example of anaphora.

d.   The nursery rhyme contains at least one example of an expressive speech act.

e.   The nursery rhyme threatens the positive face needs of the baker's man by not using the politeness formula *please*.

f.   The nursery rhyme threatens the negative face needs of the baker's man by not using the politeness formula *please*.

g.   The nursery rhyme contains at least one sequential clause relation.

h.   The nursery rhyme contains at least one example of recursion.

Exercise XC.16

Decide if the statements below are True (T) or False (F) by circling either T or F.

1	The sentence *Eva lent James her eraser* entails *James borrowed Eva's eraser.*	T	F
2	The words *plain* and *plane* are homophones as are the words *seem* and *seam.*	T	F
3	The following sentences contain metaphors: *It is with a heavy heart that I tell you of her death.* *The claim that one can lose 30 lbs in two days smells fishy to me.*	T	F
4	The sentence *I feel hot and cold all over* contains an example of antonymy.	T	F
5	The words *common* and *rare* are complementary antonyms.	T	F
6	Both these sentences contain ditransitive verbs: *Marianne wrote her lover a long sentimental letter. She promised me a rose garden.*	T	F
7	*Polly painted the green house* contains a simple transitive verb whereas *Polly painted the house green* contains a complex transitive verb.	T	F
8	In the sentence *I'm getting married in the morning*, the phrase *in the morning* functions as Adjunct.	T	F
9	When a sentence containing a complex transitive verb is passivised, the Direct Object becomes the Subject of the passive sentence.	T	F
10	Both these sentences contain link verbs: *His hands felt limp and moist. I felt the presence of an intruder in the apartment*	T	F

Exercise XC.17

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	Statement	True	False
1	The sentence *The sadist stitched his victim's mouth shut* contains a complex transitive verb.		
2	The sentence *I knew the new headmaster very well* contains an instance of homophony.		
3	The sentence *I lie awake all night thinking in the dark* contains a link verb.		
4	The sentence *I mopped the floor dry* entails *The floor was dry.*		
5	The sentence *I caused her sorrow* is structurally ambiguous.		
6	The sentence *She beat him mercilessly* contains a simple transitive verb.		
7	In the sentence *I found a pot of gold at the end of the rainbow*, the PP *of the rainbow* is sister to the NP *the end.*		
8	The Subject of the sentence *Tonight, I dedicate my love to you* is *Tonight.*		
9	In the question *Have you seen her smile?* the word *smile* could be a Verb or a Noun.		
10	The sentence *She walked up the hill with a heavy heart* contains two Adjuncts.		

Exercise XC.18

(a)	(1) *The concert pianist was hit by a fan.* The ambiguity in sentence (1) is _____	A. lexical
		B. structural
		C. lexical & structural
		D. neither lexical nor structural
(b)	Which statements help explain the ambiguity in sentence (1)? 1. *fan* is a homonym. 2. *fan* is a polyseme. 3. *fan* is a synonym.	A. 1 and 2
		B. 1 and 3
		C. 2 and 3
		D. 1, 2 and 3
(c)	(2) *Bernard told Charlene about the* *lost treasure in Caracas.* The ambiguity in sentence (2) is _____	A. lexical
		B. structural
		C. lexical and structural
		D. neither lexical nor structural
(d)	Which statements help explain the ambiguity in sentence (2)? 1. *treasure* can be an Adjective, Noun or Verb. 2. *in Caracas* can be ADJUNCT or NON-ADJUNCT. 3. *in Caracas* can modify NP or V.	A. 1 and 2
		B. 1 and 3
		C. 2 and 3
		D. 1, 2 and 3

Exercise XC.19

Consider the following rule: "Attached to the same stem, the suffixes *-ful* and *-less* form antonyms."

1. In the following data, indicate the word pair(s) that provide(s) counterexamples to this rule.

   a. harmful ‒ harmless
   b. painful ‒ painless
   c. handful ‒ handless
   d. helpful ‒ helpless

2. We must therefore reject the rule. Choose the reason(s) why this is so.

   a. The rule is too general.
   b. The rule is not general enough.
   c. The rule is prescriptive.
   d. The rule is not simple enough.

Exercise XC.20

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

Statement	True	False
1. People must be aware of the rules of grammar in order to be able to speak a language.		
2. British English is a variety of English.		
3. Linguistics prescribes the correct use of language.		
4. A dialect has no grammar.		
5. Morphemes must have lexical meaning.		
6. A bound form is always a suffix.		
7. A suffix is always a bound form.		
8. A prefix is a morpheme.		

Exercise XC.21

Give a morphological explanation for the difference in meaning between the two underlined words in the sentence:

> This *green olive* is not *olive green*.

Exercise XC.22

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

Statement	True	False
1. Converted words are homographs of their stem.		
2. *Bob is Kay's husband* entails *Kay is Bob's wife*.		
3. *Bob is Kay's husband* entails *Kay and Bob are married*.		
4. The word *die* is a superordinate of the word *murder*.		
5. The word *murder* is a superordinate of the word *die*.		
6. An idiom is an example of high meaning compositionality.		
7. Collocation is an example of distribution.		
8. Deictic words have no meaning.		

Exercise XC.23

Propose one discoursal reason why an NP is called a "noun phrase" and not a "pronoun phrase".

Exercise XC.24

Events which are celebrated in many cultures, namely "births, weddings and funerals", can also be called *hatchings, matchings, and dispatchings*.

Find reasons to prefer one set of names to the other.

Exercise XC.25

Consider the following statement:

> "The word *before* is a preposition."

1. Choose the utterance(s) that provide counterexamples to this statement.

   a. He was a rock star before my time.
   b. Wash your hands before you eat.
   c. I never saw him before.
   d. She always gets there before me.

2. We must therefore reject the statement. Choose the reason(s) why this is so.

   a. The statement is too general.
   b. The statement is not general enough.
   c. The statement is prescriptive.
   d. The statement is not simple enough.

Exercise XC.26

English is sometimes said to be a "right-heavy" language. This means that the core weight of linguistic information tends to appear towards the right of linguistic units, rather than towards the left.

1. Find arguments that support this analysis of English from what you have learnt about morphology, syntax, and discourse structure.
2. Choose another language that you speak, and find out whether right-heaviness is true of it too. Give examples and explain your reasoning.

Exercise XC.27

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

Statement	True	False
1. Two words that are homonyms form a minimal pair.		
2. *Amy has a brother* presupposes *Amy's brother has a sister*.		
3. *Amy is married* entails *Amy is not single*.		
4. *Amy gave me some money* presupposes *Amy had some money*.		
5. The noun *furniture* is a hyponym of the noun *chair*.		
6. The noun *seat* is a hyponym of the noun *chair*.		
7. Out of context, lexical words have no meaning.		

Exercise XC.28

The following is an advertisement for a brand of smartphones:

> *Smartphonest*

1. Would you say that the ad succeeds in the message it intends to convey? Why?
2. Would you say that the ad reflects three of the main functions of language, namely, to inform, persuade, and entertain? Why?

Exercise XC.29

The interpretation of everyday exchanges depends on several factors that range from the denotations and connotations that listeners associate with the words of an utterance, to experiences that shape the listener's individuality. As a result, there can be significant differences between speakers' intended meaning and listeners' uptake of messages. Given below is an example of an utterance, in italics, and several numbered statements that may form part of the interpretation of that utterance.

Kay regretted insulting Bob.

- (a) Kay was right to insult Bob.
- (b) Kay was wrong to insult Bob.
- (c) Kay had meant to insult Bob.
- (d) Kay had not meant to insult Bob.
- (e) Kay insulted Bob.
- (f) Kay felt bad about having insulted Bob.
- (g) Kay regretted something.
- (h) Kay said something that insulted Bob.
- (i) Kay did something that insulted Bob.
- (j) Bob told Kay that she had insulted him.
- (k) Someone told Kay that she had insulted Bob.
- (l) Kay apologised to Bob for having insulted him.
- (m) Kay was angry at Bob when she insulted him.
- (n) Bob was angry at Kay when she insulted him.
- (o) Kay and Bob know each other.
- (p) Kay and Bob do not get along at all.

1. Indicate which statement(s) correspond(s) to what you personally infer from the given utterance.
2. Indicate which statement(s) is/are entailed by the given utterance.
3. Indicate which statement(s) is/are presupposed by the given utterance.
4. Explain all your answers.

Exercise XC.30

The term *onomatopoeia* designates words which are formed to represent the sound associated with those words. For example, the English noun *cuckoo* and the English verb *sizzle* are said to be onomatopoeic.

1. Explain why the words *cuckoo* and *sizzle* can be said to be onomatopoeic.

2. Find specific sets of examples of onomatopoeia in other languages that you speak, for example related to nature (rain, thunder, wind), objects (smashing crockery, ripping paper, gurgling pipes) or living beings (the flight of bees and seagulls, galloping animals), and then find English examples of onomatopoeia for the same sets.

3. What can your findings tell you about the arbitrariness of language, as discussed in Chapter 1 of the textbook, and about onomatopoeia?

4. What can your findings tell you about the phonological system and the phonological structure of different languages?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise XC.31

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Besides onomatopoeia, some linguists see a non-arbitrary correlation between word sounds and word meanings in particular sets of words. For English, for example, these linguists argue that 'meaning' can be attributed to the letter sequence *gl-* (at the beginning of words) on the basis of words like *glitter, glamour, glow* and several others that all convey some idea of 'shine'. The study of correlations such as these is sometimes called "sound symbology".

Whether you are a monolingual or a multilingual user of English, what are your views about this?

Exercise XC.32

Consider the following sentence:

> *She should be fired.*

1. Say the sentence in such a way as to convey a declaration, expressive, commissive.
2. Say the sentence in such a way as to convey conviction, disbelief, satisfaction.
3. Explain how the use of alternative intonation can (or not) convey alternative illocutions and/or perlocutions.

Exercise XC.33

In some varieties of English, the following uses are found:

> On the phone, requesting the listener to hold: *You hold on.*

> Upon leave-taking: *You take care.*

Can you find reasons why these uses may strike users of other varieties of English as impolite?

Exercise XC.34

In English, determiners do not follow pronouns within the same phrase. Explain why the following utterance is grammatical:

> *Is that a cell phone?*

Exercise XC.35

Given the data:

> (a) There is drinking water below the surface.

> (b) The horse is drinking water.

Distinguish the different uses of the word *drinking* in the data, according to:

1. Form.
2. Function.

Exercise XC.36

This sentence is structurally ambiguous:

> *The administrator and the beneficiaries of the Trust managed to strike a deal before the Exchange closed.*

1. Indicate which constituent causes the ambiguity.
2. Explain why that constituent causes the ambiguity.

Exercise XC.37

This is the standard format of a bank cheque:

Choose the statements that are true about the cheque shown above.

a. DD|MM|YYYY is an acronym.

b. The cheque shows only one example of a complex word.

c. The word *bearer* contains a noun stem.

d. The verb *pay* is ditransitive.

e. The cheque shows an example of syntactic coordination.

f. The cheque shows an example of a directive.

Exercise XC.38

Chapter 12 in the textbook gives part of the following example of aphasic speech (Activity 12.3, p. 251):

> *"Well this is… mother is away here working her work out of here to get her better, but when she's looking, the two boys looking in the other part. One their small tile into her time here. She's working another time because she is getting, too."*

As stated in the textbook, this type of aphasia is characterised by grammatical fluency.
Find one example each of the features below, and write them in the lines provided.

Note. All the required examples are single words.

(a) Clause relation of contrast   _____

(b) Clause relation of sequence   _____

(c) Deixis   _____

(d) Anaphora   _____

Exercise XC.39

Consider the following two sentences, concerning a weather forecast:

(a) *We'll have more heavy showers over the weekend.*

(b) *We'll have heavier showers over the weekend.*

Drawing on your knowledge of morphological inflection, and of syntactic heads and modifiers, explain why the two sentences mean different things.

Exercise XC.40

Are the following statements true or false? Tick the appropriate cell.

	True	False
1. The words *ice-creams* and *ice-packs* contain the same affix.		
2. The words *honesty* and *greedy* contain the same affix.		
3. Stems cannot contain affixes.		
4. The words *eating* and *eats* show an example of alternation.		
5. The words *sleeps* and *eats* show an example of alternation.		

Exercise XC.41

The following sentence is adapted from the blurb of H.G. Wells's *A Modern Utopia*, a book which describes the author's vision of an ideal society:

In Wells's Utopia, the government has banished war and equality rules.

Explain why this sentence is ambiguous, drawing on your knowledge of (1) word classes and (2) syntactic coordination.

Exercise XC.42

Consider the following compounds:

can opener	*pop singer*	*nutcracker*
dishwasher	*hair-drier*	*trouble-maker*

1. What relationship does the first stem establish with the verb in the second stem? Name the syntactic function.
   Hint: paraphrase the meaning of the compounds.

2. Can you find the same regularity in all of the following compounds? Explain your answer.

ice-breaker	*ice-skater*	*baby-sitter*
money changer	*housekeeper*	*daydreamer*

Exercise XC.43

Consider these two sentences:

a. The problem was hiring a good lawyer.
b. The defendant was hiring a good lawyer.

Explain how our commonsense knowledge helps us assign different syntactic interpretations to the phrasal constituents of each sentence.

Exercise XC.44

The following data are from Malay:

satu meja ('one table')   satu teksi ('one taxi')
dua meja ('two tables')   dua teksi ('two taxis')
tiga meja ('three tables')   tiga teksi ('three taxis')

As we saw in Chapter 11 of the textbook, we tend to omit from our utterances information that is recoverable from context, and thus redundant.
Drawing on the Malay data above and their English translations, what questions would you find relevant to ask about redundancy in the grammar of different languages?

Exercise XC.45

Consider this sentence:

> *Today's meeting I can attend, but I warned the CEO there's no way I'm going to make it after lunch on Friday.*

Choose the statements that are true about this sentence.

   a.   The topic of the first clause is also its subject.
   b.   The last clause contains a single PP.
   c.   The word *it* is cataphoric.
   d.   The word *Friday* is deictic.
   e.   The word *make* is a simple transitive verb.
   f.   The sentence contains a subordinating conjunction.
   g.   The sentence contains a subordinate clause.
   h.   The word *going* is an antonym of the word *coming*.
   i.   The verb *attend* agrees with its subject.
   j.   The phrase *no way* is an adjunct.

Exercise XC.46

An Irishman, travelling abroad, was sampling whisky that was said to have been specially exported from Ireland. After tasting the drink, he said:

> "This whisky was not exported from Ireland, it was deported."

In his utterance, the Irishman stressed (i.e. gave extra intonational emphasis to) the first syllables of the words <u>*ex*</u>*ported* and <u>*de*</u>*ported*. Can we then say that *ex-* and *de-* can be seen as morphemes, in this utterance? Why?

Exercise XC.47

What constituents are being coordinated in the sentences below?

> *Can we park here or not?*
> *Whether you like it or not, you'll have to answer this question.*

Exercise XC.48

Consider the following data from different children (data adapted from Tomasello, M. (2003). *Constructing a Language: A Usage-Based Theory of Language Acquisition*. Cambridge, MA & London: Harvard University Press).
The context of the child utterances is given between angled brackets:

> <Describing a pillow fight>
> (a) I kicked him the pillow.
>
> <Explaining why mummy now has a cold>
> (b) I coughed mummy my cold.
>
> <Explaining his involvement in a fight at school>
> (c) He yelled me a rude word.
>
> <Rejoicing over a successful bike puncture repair job>
> (d) Daddy fixed it the hole!

   1.   What syntactic reasons, in your opinion, can explain these uses?
   2.   Do the data provide support for the issue of overgeneralisation in child language acquisition? Why?

Exercise XC.49

Choose the statements that are true about the sentence *He fainted*.

1. The sentence consists of one phrase.
2. The sentence consists of a topic followed by a comment.
3. The word *He* is deictic.
4. The sentence exemplifies the syntactic concepts of 'head' vs. 'modifier'.
5. The word *fainted* forms a phrase.
6. The verb type in the sentence does not allow expansion by means of adjuncts.

Exercise XC.50

The following sentences are found in Singlish, an English-based creole spoken in Singapore:

(a) *Some can understand very well.*

(b) *Chicken cannot eat already.*

1. **Before** you read Question 2, paraphrase the meaning that you assign to each of these sentences. (If you are a native speaker of Singlish, you are excused from answering this question!)
2. The meaning of these sentences in Singlish is:

    (a) 'I/someone can understand some of it very well.'

    (b) 'This chicken cannot be eaten any more.'

    Give a syntactic explanation for why these sentences may be misinterpreted by English speakers who are unfamiliar with Singlish.

Exercise XC.51

The following data show examples of malapropisms, a term referring to a particular kind of misuse of words.

(a) He had to use a fire distinguisher.
(b) Michelangelo painted the Sixteenth Chapel.
(c) My sister has extra-century perception.
(d) "Don't" is a contraption.
(e) Flying saucers are just an optical conclusion.
(f) A rolling stone gathers no moths.
(g) Their father was some kind of civil serpent.
(h) The flood damage was so bad they had to evaporate the city.

1. What kind of misuse of words is involved in a malapropism?
2. Why do malapropisms often result in humour?

Hint 1: Take into consideration the word that the malapropism replaces, in each case.

Hint 2: Use what you've learnt about semantics and phonology, to propose your answers.

Exercise XC.52

Crossword puzzles require us to look for words that match a given set of clues. But how are the words and their clues related to each other? And does this relationship vary with the language, or the country, or the publication in which the puzzle is to be solved? Find out the following:

1. Which kind of semantic relationships most commonly hold between words and clues in crossword puzzles that you are familiar with?
2. What other expected knowledge about language and/or culture do crossword-puzzle constructors assume?

Exercise XC.53
Choose the statements that are true about this text.

> *I had a wonderful birthday party. Everyone showed up, friends, relatives, colleagues, the lot, although my cousins from overseas couldn't make it to the get-together. They called me later, and their good wishes made me really happy.*

a. The word *Everyone* is cataphoric.

b. The word *friends* is a hyponym of the word *lot*.

c. The word *lot* is a meronym of the word *friends*.

d. The words *showed up* and *called* are antonyms.

e. The utterance *their good wishes made me really happy* is a commissive speech act.

f. The utterance *I had a wonderful birthday party* is a verdictive speech act.

g. The word *although* indicates a clause relation of contrast.

h. The word *later* indicates a clause relation of sequence.

Exercise XC.54
These data are from Italian:

(1)				(2)			
	(a)	bambino	'child'		(a)	bambinesco	'childish'
	(b)	lupo	'wolf'		(b)	lupesco	'wolf-like'
	(c)	monello	'brat'		(c)	monellesco	'roguish'
	(d)	libro	'book'		(d)	libresco	'bookish'
	(e)	funambulo	'tightrope walker'		(e)	funambulesco	'acrobatic'

1. Explain how the words in (2) are formed from the stems in (1).

2. Decide whether the word formation illustrated in (2) should be analysed as derivational or inflectional, clearly explaining your reasoning.

3. Compare the meaning of each of the words in (1) to their meaning as stems in (2), to assess the semantic compositionality of the words in (2). Does it seem to you that the words in (1) acquire a new meaning as stems in (2)? Why? If you don't understand Italian, use the (approximate) English translations given above to guide your reasoning.

Exercise XC.55
Out of context, each of the utterances in the following child data can be ambiguous:

(a)	Doggie woof-woof?	(c)	Want play.
(b)	Mummy toy.	(d)	That Susan.

1. Suggest two possible meanings for each of the utterances in the data.

2. Based on your answer to 1, discuss the role played by contextual clues in our interpretation of child utterances.

Exercise XC.56

Section 4.2 of the textbook contains the following two statements (p. 77):

A. **Stem**: a morpheme, or a word, to which other morphemes can attach.

B. **Affix**: a morpheme that attaches only to a stem.

All the examples of affixation in the textbook concern word stems. Section 3.4.1 (p. 55, paraphrased below) states:

C. The possessive marker *-'s* is a noun suffix.

Consider now these data:

1. (a) Those were the gentleman's comments.

  (b) Those were the gentleman at the back's comments.

2. (a) I saw the Queen's crown.

  (b) I saw the Queen of England's crown.

3. (a) That one is the girl's bike.

  (b) That one is the girl in blue's bike.

In light of these data, which statements, A, B and/or C, do we need to amend? Why?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise XC.57

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

The phrase *pretty little girl's school* is semantically and structurally ambiguous.

Try to find <u>five</u> alternative interpretations of this phrase, and draw their respective syntactic tree diagrams, clearly labelling the word class of each word.

<u>Note!</u> In order to solve this puzzle, take *-'s* as a constituent of its own. That is, take the phrase *pretty little girl's school* as consisting of <u>five</u> words, counting *-'s* as one. You can just label it *-'s*, in the diagrams.

<u>Hint 1:</u> The previous exercise shows that *-'s* attaches to NP.

<u>Hint 2:</u> Here are a few clues (©2007 Trey Jones/*Speculative Grammarian*, used with permission) to help you come up with the five interpretations:
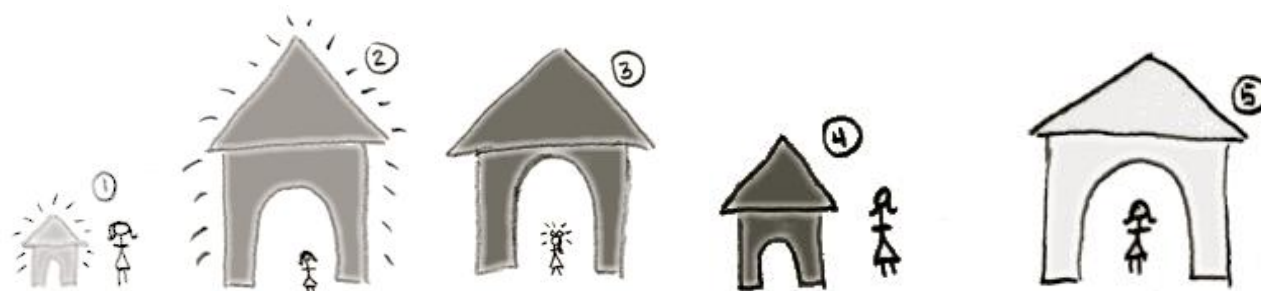
Exercise XC.58

Are the underlined noun phrases below an example of alternation? Why?

a. *He found <u>an ant</u> with enormous jaws.*

b. *He enjoys watching <u>ants</u> go about their business.*

Exercise XC.59
Taboo words and expressions tend to cluster around culture-specific areas, which therefore differ from culture to culture.

1. Identify one or two areas of linguistic taboo in your language(s), and list the euphemisms that are used instead of the taboo words.
2. Work out the meaning relationships that (may) hold between tabooed expressions and their euphemisms.

Exercise XC.60

In Chapter 6 of the textbook, we observed that phonemes have no meaning, although they contribute to the meaning of words. In Chapter 3, drawing on word pairs like *cat* vs. *cats*, we concluded that *-s*, pronounced /s/, carries the meaning {plural}. Is there a contradiction between these two observations? Why?

Exercise XC.61
The following headline is ambiguous. This is because the word *Race*, which occurs alone in a phrase, can belong to two different word classes.

> *Race for first place!*

1. Disambiguate the headline by adding <u>one</u> word to the word *Race*, either before or after it.
2. State the word class of *Race* in your two paraphrases, and explain how the words that you added to *Race* make clear the word class of *Race*.

Exercise XC.62
In Chapter 3 of the textbook, we noted that conjunctions link units of the same type. In Chapter 7, we added that coordination links constituents of the same syntactic type. Consider these data:

> (a) She welcomed me kindly and with open arms.
> (b) You can send us a message online or by fax.
> (c) Her answer was rude but to the point.

1. Which phrasal constituents are coordinated in each of the examples above?
2. Based on these data, does the expression "units of the same type" mean that the phrasal constituents have to be identical? Why?
3. Based on these data, can the expression "units of the same type" refer to functional constituents? Why?

Exercise XC.63
A child uses the following words with the following meanings:

Child word	Word meaning
sleeper	'bed'
clipper	'scissors'
sitter	'chair'

Comment on what these usages show about the child's morphological development.

Exercise XC.64

Do an investigation of how words are organised in a dictionary. Look up a few pages, and pay special attention to:

- What the lexicographer (i.e. the dictionary-maker) takes to be the same word vs. different words.
- How affixed, compound and converted words are organised in the dictionary.

Exercise XC.65

The spelling of words like *impossible* and *incomplete* may suggest that they contain two different prefixes, *im-* and *in-*, both meaning 'not Adj'. The following data show how 'im' and 'in' are pronounced in different word sets:

Word set	Pronunciation of 'im'/'in'
impossible, imperfect, immoral	[im]
incomplete, inconsistent, inglorious	[iŋ]
indefinite, intolerable, independent	[in]

1. Describe and explain the pattern of pronunciation of the forms spelt 'im' and 'in' in the data.
2. Explain whether the data support an analysis of 'im' and 'in' as different prefixes.

Exercise XC.66

Chapters 3 and 4 of the textbook discuss bound forms and affixes, respectively. The examples illustrating these concepts show that affixes are bound forms. Consider now the data below:

(a) receive, perceive, deceive
(b) remit, permit, transmit
(c) report, transport, deport

Explain whether the data allow us to analyse stems as bound forms, too.

Exercise XC.67

Consider the following newspaper headline:

Clothes shop names under fire

Choose the statements that are true about this headline.

(a) In this headline, the word *shop* is a verb.
(b) In this headline, the word *shop* is a noun.
(c) In this headline, the word *names* contains a plural affix.
(d) In this headline, the phrase *clothes shop* is the subject.
(e) In this headline, the word *names* is a direct object.
(f) In this headline, the phrase *under fire* is an indirect object.

Exercise XC.68

The phrase *green tea house* is ambiguous.

1. Give a clear paraphrase for each of two different meanings of the phrase.
2. Using morphological and syntactic arguments, explain the type of ambiguity involved in the phrase.

Exercise XC.69

Consider this dialogue, taking place on the phone:

> A: Who is this?
>
> B: It's me. Listen, can you drop by here today? I need help.

Does speaker B's turn seem adequately informative to you? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise XC.70

Consider the following rule of English:

> "A well-formed complex word must contain a bound form."

1.   In the list below, choose the counterexample(s) to this rule.

        (a) *shipwreck*   (b) *reappointment*   (c) *discard*

        (d) *bear*   (e) *coffee*   (f) *beer-drinker*

2.   According to your answer to 1, what should we do with the above rule? Choose your answer from these alternatives:

        (a)   Keep the rule, it accounts for the data.
        (b)   Keep the rule, it does not concern the given data.
        (c)   Reject the rule, it is not simple enough.
        (d)   Reject the rule, it is inaccurate.
        (e)   Reject the rule, it is not general enough.

Exercise XC.71

Consider this statement about English:

> The past tense form of *leak*, /lik/, is *leaked*, /likt/.

Choose all statements that are true about the statement above:

        (a)   /l/, /i/ and /k/ represent phonemes of English.
        (b)   /lik/ represents a morpheme of English.
        (c)   /t/ represents a phoneme of English.
        (d)   /t/ represents a morpheme of English.
        (e)   The meaning {past tense} is conveyed by the phoneme /t/.
        (f)   The data show one example of alternation.

Exercise XC.72

In natural everyday linguistic interaction, all of us hesitate quite a lot, particularly when we're looking for words or the best way to express what we mean. Many of these hesitations are filled with sounds, which in English are commonly represented as *er…* in print. Listen to spontaneous conversations around you, paying attention to what hesitations sound like. Ask yourself questions like the following:

- For English, does *er…* represent all hesitations accurately?
- Do English speakers prefer rising, or falling, or level tones, when they hesitate?
- What sounds and intonations do speakers of other languages use when they hesitate?

Exercise XC.73

Suppose you are an ardent football fan, and your team just lost 2-0, embarrassingly, against a lower division team. Which of the alternatives below would you choose to report the outcome of the match, and why?

> (a) We lost 2-0.
> (b) They won 2-0.

Exercise XC.74

Chapter 8 in the textbook deals with subordinate clauses which function as syntactic Object, in sentences, and which are thus VP constituents. Consider the underlined clauses in the following sentences, commonly known as *relative clauses*:

> (a) The children <u>who were playing</u> looked happy.
> (b) The roads <u>that lead to main urban centres</u> are constantly congested.
> (c) I know the guy <u>who called just now</u>.

1. Which phrasal constituent are relative clauses a part of? Explain your answer.
2. Which, if any, of the constituency tests that you are familiar with supports your answer to 1? Explain your answer.

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise XC.75

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

Consider the following two sentences, both containing a relative clause (see the previous exercise for clarification of what a relative clause is):

> (a) The children who were playing looked happy.
> (b) The children, who were playing, looked happy.

1. The two sentences are not synonymous. Paraphrase the different meanings of the two sentences.
2. What role does intonation play in clarifying each of the meanings you paraphrased in 1?

Exercise XC.76

Speakers of English appear to have difficulty pronouncing the sound sequences [ps] and [ts], judging by the pronunciation of words like *psychology* and *tsar*, where the letter sequences 'ps' and 'ts' are both pronounced [s]. However, [ps] and [ts] sequences are pronounced in full in words like *caps* or *cats*. Propose an explanation for this puzzle.

Exercise XC.77

Coordinating conjunctions link units of the same type. This being the case, show how the following data provide evidence that we need to distinguish between *lexical* classes and *phrasal* classes, in linguistic analysis.

> (a) Our new neighbours are kind but rather nosy.
> (b) These vegetables look dead and buried.
> (c) Anna and my other cousins came to visit.
> (d) Would you like coffee or tea?

Exercise XC.78

Explain how both metaphor and our knowledge of the world lie behind this (lame) joke:

> *Drink varnish – you'll probably die, but you'll get a lovely finish.*

Exercise XC.79

Draw unlabelled tree diagrams for the following structures:

(a) The syllable(s) in the word *streams*.

(b) The word formation of the words *disregarding* and *lawn-mower*.

(c) The sentence *Miriam adores chocolate*.

What do you observe concerning what you've learnt about linguistic compositionality and hierarchical structure?

Exercise XC.80

Section 8.3.2 in the textbook discusses agreement between syntactic Subject and Verb agreement. Section 3.4.1 distinguishes between finite and non-finite forms of verbs. In the following data, what do you observe about syntactic agreement between Subjects and finite vs. non-finite verb forms?

(a) He is always making a fuss over his shoes.

(b) The parcels have been delivered.

(c) I am counting on you for this project.

(d) Miriam has had a bad stomach upset.

Exercise XC.81

Examine the data involving the Adjective *soft* in (1) below.

(1)
    a.   *Sally heard the bells.*
    b.   *Sally heard the soft bells.*
    c.   *Sally heard soft bells.*
    d.   **Sally heard bells soft.*
    e.   **Sally heard the bells soft.*
    f.   **Sally heard soft the bells.*

Consider now the following set of PS rules:

Rule 1.   S   → NP VP

Rule 2.   VP → V (NP) (NP) (PP)

Rule 3.   NP → (Det) N

Rule 4.   NP → NP (PP)

Rule 5.   X   → X (X* Conj X)

These rules account for (1a) being well-formed, but not (1b-c).

(i)   There are three observations to be made, with respect to the data in 1 (a-f), involving the behaviour of the Adj *soft* in relation to the Det *the* and the N *bells*. State these observations concisely.

(ii)   Based on your observations in (i), propose PS representations for (1b) and (1c).

(iii)   Finally, revise and/or add to the PS rules given above, so that all the data in (1) are accounted for. When revising a rule, first identify the rule that needs revision (the rules have been numbered for easy reference), then briefly state your revised rule.

Exercise XC.82

Questions beginning with *Who, What, Where, When, Why* and *How* are called wh-questions. Children acquire mastery of wh-questions in a particular order: *who-* and *what-*questions are acquired first, followed by *where-* and *when-*questions. *Why-* and *how-*questions appear last. Suggest syntactic and semantic reasons for this acquisitional order.

<u>Hint</u>: Think of the answers that each wh-question requires.

Exercise XC.83

Coordination with the conjunction *and* can result in ambiguity. One example is this sentence:

> *I like Chinese noodles and tea.*

1. Draw two tree diagrams which explain why the coordination is ambiguous.

2. Now explain why the following sentence is not ambiguous:

> *I like French fries and wine.*

Exercise XC.84

(1)	Which word(s) create(s) problems for the morphological principle below? **The prefix *en-* can attach only to Adjectives**.	☐ A. *ensure* ☐ B. *endear* ☐ C. *enthrone* ☐ D. *endure* ☐ E. all of the above

(2)	Given the problematic words(s) identified in (1), we must reject the principle above. Which of the evaluation criteria does the principle fail to meet?	☐ A. maximal generality ☐ B. maximal simplicity ☐ C. consistency with observations ☐ D. logical consistency ☐ E. none of the above

Exercise XC.85

This sentence is ambiguous:

> *Danny called the researchers from India.*

It could mean: (a)   Danny made a call from India to the researchers.

OR

(b)   Danny called the researchers who are based in India.

This kind of ambiguity is labelled *structural* because the ambiguity can be explained in terms of different syntactic constituency.

1. Draw phrase structure (PS) tree diagrams of the sentence, which correspond to meanings (a) and (b), respectively.

2. When parsing sentences, we can focus on syntactic form (PS-tree) or syntactic function (Subject, Verb, Object, etc.). Use the notion of syntactic functions to explain the structural ambiguity leading to meanings (a) and (b), respectively.

Exercise XC.86

Consider the nursery rhyme below. Do you find it (a) coherent, (b) cohesive? Explain your reasoning.

> Hey diddle diddle, the cat and the fiddle
> The cow jumped over the moon,
> The little dog laughed to see such fun,
> And the dish ran away with the spoon.

Exercise XC.87

Consider the following data from Malay, given here with word-for-word glosses in italics under the Malay text, and translation between quotation marks:

    (a)   rumah besar ini
            house big   this   'this big house'

    (b)   rumah ini besar
            house this big   'this house is big'

As the data show, example (a) represents a noun phrase, and example (b) represents a sentence with a subject complement.

1. What other observations can you make about NP and subject complement constructions in Malay, from the given data?
2. On the basis of the data in both (a) and (b), explain how the constructs *phrase* and *NP* are relevant to cross-linguistic syntax.

Exercise XC.88

The data below are from one patient suffering from Wernicke-type aphasia. The patient was asked to describe a picture showing, among other things, a kitchen sink leaking a flood of water onto the floor (data adapted from Goodglass, H. (1973), *Psycholinguistics and aphasia*, Johns Hopkins University Press):

> *I can't tell you what that is, but I know what it is, but I don't know where it is. But I don't know what's under. I know it's you couldn't say it's… I couldn't say what it is. I couldn't say what that is. This should… that should be right in here. That's very bad in there. Anyway, this one here, and that, and that's it.*

1. The patient's description is not coherent, but it can be said to be cohesive. Which semantic and discoursal resources is the patient making use of, which indicate cohesiveness?
2. Do the data also show the use of expected shared knowledge, between the patient and the interviewer, about language and about the world? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise XC.89

When we speak, we often hesitate, for various reasons. For example, because we are looking for the best word/turn of phrase to express what we want to say, or because we are unsure that our listeners are actually listening and we want to call their attention back by interrupting what we're saying. Hesitation marks, such as *erm… ah…*, or silence, tend to occur at major constituent boundaries.

1. Do a mini-survey, listening for hesitations in speech (perhaps including your own?) to find out reasons why people hesitate when speaking. Can you confirm the reasons we give above? Can you find any other reasons?
2. Drawing on your findings, would you say that patterns of typical hesitation can help diagnose speech-language disorder? Why? Explain your reasoning.

Exercise XC.90
Consider the following poem, by the American poet e. e. cummings (1894-1962). Read the poem carefully, several times over, if needed:

> Me up at does
> out of the floor
> quietly Stare
> a poisoned mouse
>
> still who alive
> is asking What
> have i done that
> You wouldn't have

1. Linguistic meaning is usually said to be conveyed through well-formed syntax. Does this claim apply to this poem? Explain your reasoning. <u>Hint</u>: Try rewriting this poem using standard English syntax.
2. Think of reasons why e. e. cummings constructed this poem the way he did. Pay special attention to discourse strategies.

Exercise XC.91
In many languages, nouns fall into different subclasses depending on different grammatical patterning. The technical term for these noun subclasses is *gender*, and these languages are called *gendered* languages. These data are from Swahili, a gendered language with several genders:

(a)	mtoto	'child'	watoto	'children'
(b)	mtu	'person'	watu	'people'
(c)	kikapu	'basket'	vikapu	'baskets'
(d)	mgeni	'stranger'	wageni	'strangers'
(e)	kisu	'knife'	visu	'knives'
(f)	kitabu	'book'	vitabu	'books'
(g)	kiti	'stool'	viti	'stools'
(h)	mswahili	'Swahili-speaker'	waswahili	'Swahili speakers'

1. Based on the data set above, which grammatical resources does Swahili use to distinguish noun subclasses? State their type and form.
2. How many Swahili genders do the data allow you to identify? Support your answer with examples from the data.

(To make your tasks more challenging, the data are scrambled!)

Exercise XC.92
Draw on your knowledge of word formation processes and syntactic verb types to explain the following data:

(a) My child needs feeding.
(b) *My child needs swimming.

Exercise XC.93

Consider the following sentence:

Little old ladies sometimes forget wallets or money on their bus.

Choose the statements that are true about this sentence.

(a) The sentence contains one verb phrase only.

(b) The sentence contains coordinated subjects.

(c) The sentence contains coordinated noun phrases.

(d) The sentence contains coordinated prepositional phrases.

(e) The sentence contains a ditransitive verb.

(f) The sentence contains more than one adjunct.

(g) The sentence contains a subject complement.

(h) The rule NP➔(Adj)* N describes all the noun phrases in the sentence.

(i) The sentence contains a prepositional phrase.

Exercise XC.94

In English, grammatical agreement occurs between subject and verb under very restricted conditions, as discussed in section 8.3.2 of the textbook. Consider now these data from Swedish:

	Swedish	English			Swedish	English
1.	pojke	boy		6.	snöre	cord
2.	pojken	the boy		7.	snöret	the cord
3.	en pojke	a boy		8.	ett snöre	a cord
4.	en stark pojke	a strong boy		9.	ett starkt snöre	a strong cord
5.	pojken är stark	the boy is strong		10.	snöret är starkt	the cord is strong

1. How many different noun subclasses (or grammatical *genders*) can you identify in Swedish, and how can you identify them?
2. According to the data, how does agreement work in Swedish?

(The next exercise complements this one.)

Exercise XC.95

(This exercise complements the previous one.)

English is traditionally described as having three genders, *masculine*, *feminine* and *neuter*, which do not distinguish noun subclasses but pronouns (e.g. *he, hers, it*) and possessive determiners (e.g. *his, her, its*), according to the sex of the referent – or the irrelevance of the sex of the referent. Portuguese has two genders, *masculine* and *feminine*, which distinguish noun subclasses, in addition to pronouns and possessive determiners.

Consider the following data, where the given English and Portuguese noun phrases are translations of each other. The Portuguese words *o, menino, seu* and *pai* are masculine, and the words *a, menina, sua* and *mãe* are feminine:

English	**Portuguese**
the boy and his father	o menino e o seu pai
the boy and his mother	o menino e a sua mãe
the girl and her father	a menina e o seu pai
the girl and her mother	a menina e a sua mãe

What observations can you make about agreement between possessive determiners and head nouns in English and in Portuguese?

Exercise XC.96
Consider the following statement:

"Transparent compounds are always headed."

Drawing on your knowledge of compounding and meaning transparency, explain whether this statement applies the underlined word in this sentence:

The company's financial <u>watchdogs</u> suggested that there had been a fiscal fraud.

Exercise XC.97
In the following dialogue, the lines are numbered for ease of reference, and the square brackets concern the first question below:

A:	I want a cookie! [ ]	Line 1
B:	You want a cookie?? [ ]	Line 2
A:	Yeah, [ ] I want a cookie [ ] and some milk. [ ]	Line 3
B:	Are you hungry? [ ] You've just had your lunch… [ ]	Line 4
A:.	Well, [ ] I guess I'm just greedy. [ ]	Line 5

1. Give the likely intonation of this dialogue at the points marked [   ], by writing F, R or L between the brackets, for falling, rising and level tones, respectively. Explain your reasoning.
2. Provide arguments for how the intonation patterns that you suggest may assist in identifying different speech acts and politeness strategies, in spoken communication.

Exercise XC.98
The following poem, by the American poet e. e. cummings (1894-1962), is titled 'A leaf falls on loneliness'. We reproduce here the way in which the poem is usually printed:

l(a

le
af
fa
ll

s)
one
l

iness

How do locution, illocution and perlocution interact in this poem, to explain its meaning? Feel free to comment on any other features of this poem (grammatical, semantic, visual) that you find relevant to explain its impact on the reader!

Exercise XC.99
On page 162 of the textbook, the following statement is found:

"[…] just as complex words can be classified into compounded and affixed words, so also complex sentences can be classified into coordinated and subordinated sentences."

Explain the analogy made by this statement between word types and sentence types, with examples which support your arguments.

Exercise XC.100

The following conversation takes place between an adult and a toddler. The adult calls, and the toddler answers the phone (data from Stilwell Peccei, J. (1994). *Child language workbook*. London & New York: Routledge, p. 52):

Adult: Hi Toby, this is Uncle Jack. Is your mum home?

Child: Yes. (followed by silence)

A: Can I talk to her?

C: Yes. (followed by silence)

A: Please call her, will you?

C: Oh. Okay.

Analyse both participants' use of pragmatic and discourse features in this conversation, and discuss your findings in relation to what you've learnt about child language acquisition.

―――――――――――――――――――

Answers

Chapter 1. Language and linguistics

Answer 1.1
This exercise highlights the fact that spoken or written texts are necessarily bound by the people who produced them. A piece of knowledge that was relevant several centuries ago in Europe may be totally irrelevant in today's Europe or on other continents. Because our experience is indirect (we cannot redo all observations or experiments, or retrace all lines of thought!), we need to check our sources of knowledge against each other, gathering a broad understanding of what we know, what we are told is known, and of the problems, ambiguities or contradictions that different sources offer.

Answer 1.2
This quotation highlights the paradox in much research about animal communication, in that researchers first assume that humans constitute a separate species, and then force other animals to use human means of communication. For example, experiments designed to test animal language either involve teaching animals human language(s), or have human experimenters attempting to learn animal language(s). In short, the researchers view animal communication as similar to human communication. But, there is no straightforward way we can understand other animal communication systems, because we are not those other animals, and vice versa. Each species has its own idiosyncratic means of communication, and successful cross-species communication is incidental.

Answer 1.3
This exercise highlights a central issue in science, which is that scientific knowledge is never 'complete'. The job of scientists, including linguists, is to constantly look for clearer, simpler and more general descriptions of their objects of research.

Answer 1.4
The key criterion for distinguishing prescriptive rules from descriptive ones is that the latter describe how language works. Breaking a descriptive rule tends to lead to communication breakdown of some sort. In contrast, prescriptive rules reflect matters of taste. Breaking these rules may result in social sanctions, i.e. people thinking of the speaker as an outsider, but does not, typically, lead to communication breakdown.

Answer 1.5
(b) and (f) are scientific statements. Both can be (dis-)proved empirically, through observation or through clear definition of labels like 'global' or 'majority'. All the other statements contain either value judgements (*difficult*, *beautiful*, *properly*), whose 'truth' varies from person to person, or vague statements like *very fast* (compared to what?), which cannot be assessed objectively.

Answer 1.6
The purpose of this exercise is to highlight how scientific conclusions must follow from accurate and consistent observations that allow us to isolate one factor as correlating with another, and being the cause or the effect of the factor it correlates with. This report mocks the use of (perhaps sound) mortality statistics relating to heart attacks in different populations to reach an unwarranted conclusion. Faulty methodology of this kind, where it is found among scholarly publications, leads to what is sometimes called *pseudo-science*. See also Lisa Jardine's quote, in the *Food for thought* section of Chapter 1 (p. 23).

Answer 1.7
Visual reading will probably help less than hearing the poem: the joke intended by the poem would be lost on someone who heard it, without seeing it first. The use of numbers as 'words', to represent word meanings of English, highlights the distinct characteristics associated with spoken vs. printed modes of language.

Answer 1.8

The person would have no way of knowing *where*, in the word, the 's' should be added. We often assume that what we know is known by everyone else, and so we fail to be adequately precise in the information we share with others. The scientific method teaches us that every step of reasoning must be as clear as we can possibly make it, so that as many of us as possible can share unambiguous information.

Answer 1.9

Several analyses are possible. Examples:

Silent Knight Security Services:
- meaning of 'silent' and 'knight', evoking discreet and valorous surveillance, respectively;
- play on spelling/sound *Knight-night*;
- alternative parsing: [silent] [night security] services vs. [Silent K[night]] [Security Services].

Love bites:
- spelling *bites/bytes*;
- alternative meanings, 'love through bytes', 'love bytes', 'love can bite';
- *bites* taken as noun or verb.

Answer 1.10

The purpose of this exercise is to make clear that any scientific investigation must proceed through uses of language. Understanding how we use language, through the study of linguistics, helps avoid common research pitfalls, such as faulty argumentation, nebulous definitions of technical terms, mistaking opinion for fact, or confusing prescription and description.

Answer 1.11

A straightforward answer would be that the languages use three, five and one word, respectively, but this depends on whether hyphenated words like *cinquante-six* in (a) should count as one or two words (Chapter 3 in the textbook addresses these matters in detail). In any case, all three examples are of the 'word' *456*, which gives an alternative representation, using numbers, of the same referent. If we take the 'meaning' of 456 as a single meaning, then we can argue that all three examples show single words.

The languages in the examples are (a) French; (b) Portuguese; (c) German.

Answer 1.12

1. Predictable forms, on the strength of the data, are (a) *four thousand forty-five* and *seven thousand two hundred ninety-three*; (b) *forty forty-five* and *seventy-two ninety-three*.
2. System (a) speakers "read out" the year as a four-figure number, whereas system (b) speakers "read out" the year as two pairs of two-figure numbers. This principle is maximally general (explaining all the data), simple, accurate (leading to no incorrect predictions) and internally consistent (non-contradictory).

Answer 1.13

Suggested explanations may include, for:

(a) the spellings *two/too*, which sound the same; the related meanings of *clone* and *two*.

(b) may include the 'novel' word part *flabber*, possibly coined from *flab + blubber*; sound similarity between *gasted* and *aghast*.

Analysing language play and/or language games is a good (and fun!) way to encourage thinking about language structure, sound, words, meaning and representation, in spelling or otherwise. Any examples of language play will serve this purpose.

Answer 1.14

The answer is yes. A single *counterexample* is enough to disprove an absolute statement assigning a property to "all" women. In short, a single counterexample is enough to disprove any general statement (or general theory) like the one presented in this exercise.

Answer 1.15

The fact that each language assigns a different sign/word (*fel, slon, gajah, tembo*) to the same animal shows the arbitrariness in the association of a linguistic sign/word with its referent. This is the same kind of arbitrariness as discussed in Activity 1.5 in the textbook.

Answer 1.16

Examples of rhyming words will differ depending on language variety. Rhyming with *my*: e.g. *buy, pie, sigh, Thai, aye, eye*. Rhyming with *through*: e.g. *threw, do, blue, shoe, goo, flu*.

1. Suggested questions might be:
    (a) Why are rhyming parts of words spelt differently?
    (b) Can we predict the spelling of a word from its sound, or vice versa?
2.   (a) Spelling is more conservative than sound, in the sense that pronunciation evolves more rapidly than the printed conventions that we use to represent it.
     (b) In some languages (e.g. Spanish) the correspondence between sound and spelling is quite regular, allowing generalised predictions of these correspondences. English spelling is less regular, requiring several partial rules to predict correspondences between sound and spelling.

The purpose of this exercise is twofold: to practice asking research questions about given data, and to decide, through the answers that they provide, whether the questions increase our understanding of language forms and functions.

Answer 1.17

No, they don't. 'Creativity' in language means the exploration of *linguistic* resources which serve new communicative needs. Linguistic creativity harnesses compositionality, the part-whole relationship that meaningful linguistic units share. In the given data, the letters 'p', 't' and 'a' (the parts) do not contribute to build a word (the whole) in the starred examples.

Note: The combination 'pta' may be acceptable if capitalised to PTA — the accepted abbreviation for items like 'Parent-Teacher Association' or 'Port Transport Authority'. This doesn't affect the argument developed here.

Answer 1.18

Both examples play on alternative meanings of words. In (a), the word is *flies*: the question suggests the interpretation 'is able to fly', whereas the answer refers to the insects, as in 'houseflies'. In (b) the word is *had*: the first sentence, which is also the first line of a nursery rhyme, suggests the interpretation 'owned', whereas the second sentence takes it to mean 'gave birth to'.

Language play of this kind leads us up the garden path, only to have us do a double-take in order to accommodate the double meaning that creates the word play/language joke.

Answer 1.19

The example highlights the conventional nature of the correlation between speech and print. The sounds of Malay can be represented equally well through two different scripts.

Answer 1.20

The purpose of this exercise is to demystify the aura of inaccessibility that often surrounds mention of scientific endeavours. In many ways, doing science means organising our thoughts, so that we can observe things clearly. Taking as example the routine of doing homework, we find, e.g.:

- *What*: which subjects should be attended to?
- *How*: do these subjects require written work? If so, prepare the appropriate materials. Which subjects should be prioritised? Attend to those first.
- *Why*: homework must be handed in on a deadline; homework helps revise/consolidate material addressed in class.

Answer 1.21

1. There is no one-to-one correspondence between sound and spelling, in English. For example, the words *heard, word*, and *bird* are rhyming words, in that they share the same ending sounds, although they are spelt differently as *-eard, -ord*, and *–ird*, respectively. Conversely, the spelling *-eat* corresponds to the ending sounds of *meat, great*, and *threat*, which do not rhyme.
2. The sounds of words, and the words (linguistic signs) themselves, are *naturally* arbitrary in all languages: double arbitrariness of this kind is found in all languages, whether they also have printed forms or not. The conventions of spelling (orthography) add an extra layer of arbitrariness to language, resulting from man-made conventions invented to transcribe (i.e. write, and later, print) spoken language. Linguistics studies *natural* human language.

Answer 1.22

A grammar is a set of rules describing the way in which we use our languages. If a language had no grammar, it could not be used, because there would be no rules to follow in its use. That is, a language with no grammar wouldn't in fact be a language, because we wouldn't know how to use it.

Answer 1.23

The purpose of this exercise is to demystify the aura of inaccessibility that often surrounds mention of scientific endeavours. The ingredients of a cooking recipe are its *what*; the cooking method is its *how*; and the purpose of the cooked dish is its *why*.

Answer 1.24

The sample of four logographic scripts in Figure 2 also shows examples of arbitrariness, in the choice of representations for each referent. In addition, Sumerian uses the same symbol to represent 'deity', 'sky' and 'star', which in the other three scripts are represented by distinct symbols. The conclusion seems to be that any printed representation of language involves arbitrary choices.

Answer 1.25

Descriptive approaches to a research object report *observed* behaviour. Linguists "encourage" particular uses of language as little as botanists encourage certain trees to shed their leaves in autumn and other trees to keep their leaves throughout the year, which are also observations. Assumptions of linguistic correctness or linguistic standards have to do with (prescriptive) decisions about language uses, not with actually observed uses.

Answer 1.26

Descriptions of languages, such as the ones found in textbooks or didactic grammars of those languages, take languages to be composed of a limited/finite numbers of elements, such as a certain number of sounds, or of words, or word orders, at any point in time. The ways in which these elements work within each language can be described by means of grammatical rules, whose number is also presumed to be finite. That is, the *type* of structures that you find in different languages is limited in number. But we cannot set a limit to the number of *token* examples of actual language structures, in the same way that we cannot set limits to the number of actual examples described by a maths rule like a+b=c. This is how finite elements of language, combined in a finite number of ways, can account for "infinite uses".

Answer 1.27

1. Answers will vary, and may take into consideration both the meanings expressed in each utterance and the presumed situations in which the utterances make sense. For example:
   (a) I'm indoors, since I'm going *out*; I've already had an ice-cream (or someone else has), since I'm getting *another*.
   (b) Sam is a student, since *Chemistry* is an academic subject; Sam finds Chemistry too hard; Chemistry is the only dropped subject, since it's the only one accounted for in the statement.
   (c) The word *suit* can mean an item of clothing or a set in a deck of cards; the setting in which the question is being asked will vary accordingly; *you* (whoever that is) is allowed to make a choice.
   (d) The speaker knows that Kim once enjoyed flea markets, given the word *still*; the speaker may be asking out of simple curiosity, or may be planning to inform Kim about a current or upcoming flea market.

2. Everyday statements and questions typically include vague or ambiguous information, open to individual interpretation. Their accuracy in reporting facts can therefore be questioned. Scientific statements and questions, in contrast, must be formulated more precisely and unambiguously so as to allow their verification.

Answer 1.28

1. The conclusion would have to be that *Fido is dangerous*, given the rules of inference underpinning syllogistic reasoning, regardless of what you may know about the Fido in question.
2. The *logic* of syllogistic reasoning is unquestionable, given the premises. But one or both premises may be false, thus leading to a false conclusion. Premise 1 is the false one in the example: *dogs are dangerous* may be interpreted as 'all dogs are dangerous', which is plainly not true. This shows that *logic* is independent of *truth*, and vice versa.
3. Premise 1 is still false, but premise 2 now bears no relationship to it. Even assuming the truth of premise 1, that all dogs are dangerous, this premise is a statement about dogs. On the other hand, premise 1 doesn't mean that *only* dogs are dangerous, so we are unable to conclude anything about Smokey the cat, including whether Smokey is dangerous or not.

Scientific reasoning often relies on syllogistic deductions from assumed premises, especially in subjects where empirical observation is limited, e.g. particle physics. In sciences where empirical data are available, both the truth of the premises and the truth of the conclusion may be ascertained against those data.

Answer 1.29

This exercise highlights the idea emphasised in Exercise 1.1, that there is no one-to-one correspondence between sound and spelling. All three texts show a disruption of standard spelling, as the text's authors create clever puns, by replacing initial syllables with sound-alike words whose meanings are contextually appropriate: (a) *You* and the first syllable of *Unique*; (b) *fizzy* and the first two syllables of *physicists*; and (c) the name of the letter 'x', with its connotation of "something extra special" as in "the X-factor", to replace the first syllable of *extraordinary*.

Answer 1.30

The purpose of this exercise is to encourage thinking about whether and how language associates with what human beings do. Examples of topics to consider here include whether you think, talk to yourself, react to fear/affection, or dream in a particular language.

Chapter 2. Language and languages

Answer 2.1
The purpose of this exercise is to gain understanding about why and how certain languages become privileged tools for communication in certain areas of knowledge. For example, Latin, Arabic and French have each had the status of global language of science that English currently enjoys. This status has nothing to do with intrinsic characteristics of the language itself, for example, 'richness' of vocabulary or 'flexibility' of grammar, and more to do with how speakers make that language 'richer' or 'more flexible' through the novel and diverse uses to which they put the language. A language, including a global language, naturally serves the global communicative needs of its users, and grows because of these uses.

Answer 2.2
Reasons for wanting to change may include the perception that one's way of using language is 'non-standard', or the knowledge that the job market requires different ways of using language. Reasons for wanting to keep one's uses may invoke the converse, including awareness that those around us sanction such uses as social assets.
The point of this exercise is to raise awareness that none of these reasons relate to *linguistic* features of language, in that they concern social conventions and opinions about them.

Answer 2.3
This exercise has a twofold purpose. First, to highlight that language change is a natural result of language use along time. Just as we don't keep our newborn looks throughout our life, so also the original meanings of words evolve throughout a language's life. The same is true of changes in pronunciation and grammar. Second, to highlight that etymology often provides no clue about accepted uses of language among current speakers. Current words mean what their current users make them mean, not what etymology tells us they once meant.

Answer 2.4
Discussions of 'good' language are bound to arouse strong feelings, about one's own as well as others' uses of language. Clearly, if something can be characterised as 'good', it can also be characterised as bad, and graded as better, or worse. Value judgements about language usually take 'good' as synonymous with 'standard' varieties of language, i.e. with uses that are recommended for reasons that have little to do with language, and more to do with politics and power.

Answer 2.5
Answers will vary, e.g. *brainchilds/brainchildren* in 1.
This exercise highlights two issues. First, that everyday uses of language vary among different communities and among individual speakers in the same community. Speakers draw on their knowledge about the language to construct forms of novel words. For example in 1, the ending *-s* in *brainchilds* may be accepted because adding *-s* to a word is the most common way of forming plurals; or, it may be rejected because the plural of *child* is *children*, not '*childs*'. The form *brainchildren* may in turn be rejected because a 'brainchild' is not a type of 'child', making *brainchilds* (*brainchild* + *-s*) preferable for this reason. Second, this exercise emphasises that whichever form is chosen, each follows grammatical rules of English.

Answer 2.6
The vocabulary forms *yu, tu* and *tri* are clearly taken from English 'you, two, three'. Less obvious perhaps is the form *pela*, from English 'fellow'. Having different forms to address different numbers of people is taken from other Oceanic languages, where this feature of grammar is the norm. Attaching *pela* at the end of (pronouns like) *yu* to indicate 'more than one' (i.e. plural) is a feature which developed in Tok Pisin itself. You can also note that this latter feature appears to be felt as useful by speakers of English. Whereas some varieties of English have a single form *you* to address one or more people, other varieties (particularly American) have *you* and *you all* for these different uses, and yet other varieties of English are currently developing a difference between *you* for one addressee, and *you guys* for more than one, where the parallel function of the English word *guys* and the Tok Pisin word *pela* to mean 'more than one' becomes clear.

Answer 2.7

The original meaning of 'knowing' is still apparent in the current meanings associated with *savvy*. Someone who is *savvy* is knowledgeable, gifted, experienced, i.e. someone who has 'knowledge'.

Answer 2.8

Both utterances are odd for the same reason: they display an incongruous mix of registers. If you find them amusing, it's to be expected, given that humour often results from incongruity. After the formal politeness of the first sentence, the colloquial rudeness of "So shut up" breaks all the rules of polite linguistic behaviour. Similarly, the colourful colloquialism "kicked the bucket" breaks the convention of euphemistic speech associated with the death ("passing") of a beloved spouse.

Answer 2.9

Taking all the data together, language A is closer to English. This is despite the greater similarity between one word in English (*flower*) and the same word in language B (*flor*), and the similarity in all three languages for the English word *name*. In language A, the word *blomst* is related to the English word *bloom*, and the word *kvinde* is related to the English word *queen*. (Language A is Danish, a Germanic language, and Language B is Portuguese, a Romance language.)

Answer 2.10

Differences between Old 'English' and modern English(es) are at least as striking as those between Latin and each of the Romance languages derived from it, although in the latter case the 'mother' language and its 'daughters' are known by different names each.

Highlighting the 'unity' of a language, despite variation across time, through the labels we choose to name it by, adds prestige to that language.

The same can be said of language variation across space: in the case of English, the label 'Englishes' reflects a compromise between unity and diversity.

Translations of the excerpts into contemporary English:

> Old English: '… and it was heard that he was in the house. And many came together; and he spoke to them.' (St Mark's Gospel, Anglo-Saxon Bible)

> Middle English: 'Here the Miller begins his tale: once there lived in Oxford a wealthy lout, who took boarding guests, …" (G. Chaucer, *Canterbury Tales*)

> Modern English: "… and they came unto him, bringing one struck with palsy, who was carried by four." (King James Bible, 1603)

Answer 2.11

The Norman conquest did start a process of pidginisation of English/Anglo-Saxon: the grammar of English retained its Germanic roots, but a large part of the English vocabulary became Latin-based. Blending the grammar of one language with the vocabulary of another is typical of pidgins.

Answer 2.12

Findings will show that there is no exact equivalence of meanings between the words in each pair. Romance-based words tend to be associated with more formal and/or erudite registers, for example, whereas Germanic-based ones are favoured in everyday, colloquial settings. This shows that all new items that find their way into a language do so because they serve a need. The converse is also true, of items that become obsolete because they no longer fill a meaningful 'niche' in languages.

Answer 2.13

All the examples are attested in different varieties of English. The forms that may strike you as odd are likely to be those that you do not use yourself. Consider variability within the same language, and also attitudes towards it: some of the given uses may be stigmatised, whereas others may be seen as desirable.

Answer 2.14

We may find parts of the grammar or vocabulary of a language simpler than others, but no language can be said to be simpler/more complex than another in absolute terms, even from the very limited data shown. For example, Mandarin is 'simple' in that single words do not change their form, but 'complex' in that meanings like plural or past tense must be given by other single words.

Notes:

1. Turkish exemplifies *agglutinative* languages, Portuguese exemplifies *inflectional* (or *fusional*) languages, and Mandarin exemplifies *isolating* languages. The given data are of course an over-simplification. Languages belong to different types in statistical rather than absolute terms.
2. The 'etc.' beside the Portuguese data indicates that *-ei* carries several other grammatical meanings (e.g. person, number, mood) besides the ones shown.
3. The word *hippopotamus* also means 'river' (*potamus*) 'horse' (*hippo*), etymologically.

Answer 2.15

Reasons may vary, ranging from how we perceive ourselves, through how we perceive others, to how we wish others to perceive us. We converge to show that we (want to) belong to a certain group, to seek acceptance from them, or to facilitate interaction when our interlocutor is unable to do so, as is the case of the special register ('motherese') that we adopt in order to address e.g. young children. We diverge in order to dissociate from others, or to show them that we perceive a difference between us and them, whether to display superiority, for example, or to acknowledge their superiority over us.

Answer 2.16

Language change across generations usually lends itself to straightforward observation. Grandparents don't speak like teenagers and vice versa, even where different generations may have regular contact with one another. On the basis of your findings, make it clear to yourself why languages change in this way.

Answer 2.17

One vocabulary area where English words are predictably (being) borrowed is IT and cyber-related technology, e.g. *internet, email, smartphone*, several brand names for software and hardware items, e.g. *Mac, Windows, PC*, and adapted versions of the verb and noun *click*.

Answer 2.18

The term *dialect*, which is a technical term in linguistics as discussed in section 2.5.1 of the textbook, has demeaning connotations in popular uses of it. People may find the term offensive for this reason. In popular uses, 'dialect' is viewed as the opposite of 'standard', i.e. as 'non-standard', a term which in its turn associates with 'sub-standard', and so with undesirability. A standard, or what we commonly call a 'language', is of course also a dialect: every one of us speaks some dialect, because our speech habits are formed in the physical locations where we go about our daily business. Max Weinreich's quotation, in the *Food for thought* section of Chapter 2 in the textbook (p. 44), sheds light on this issue.

Answer 2.19

(a) *karaoke*, from Japanese *kara* 'empty' and *oke* 'orchestra'. English meaning: singing along to background music;
(b) *robot*, from Czech *robota* 'hard, boring work'. English meaning: device producing mechanical, non-creative work;
(c) *bungalow*, from Hindi *bangla* 'Bengalese-style house'. English meaning: low house, usually with a porch;
(d) *pizza*, from Italian *pizza* 'pie'. Perhaps we need not explain the current English meaning of this word?

Answer 2.20

Value judgements about language richness/poorness, or complexity/simplicity do not reflect linguistic facts. In the given example, we could argue that English is both richer and poorer, or simpler/more complex than Hindi and Turkish. The example concerns vocabulary, but the same is true of grammatical structure across languages. No language is simpler/more complex than another because all languages serve the communities in which they are used in the same ways: to express meanings which are relevant to those communities.

Answer 2.21
As discussed in section 2.2 of the textbook, the resources of individual languages assign individual perspectives to the same event. We could say that different languages have different personalities with different points of view or angles of vision, as it were. Since languages express meanings, what matters in translation is the preservation of those meanings, regardless of the words used to convey them: word-for-word translations from one language to another are largely meaningless.

Answer 2.22
1. Trudgill's observations appear as significant today as in 1974, not least due to the dense use of digital communication and the internet in urban areas. Geographical isolation may also explain the large number of different languages found in relatively small (mostly rural) areas, for example, the several hundred different languages of Papua New Guinea.
2. Answers will vary. "Distance/proximity" are concepts which apply equally well to geographical and social space. There may be cases where physical proximity gives rise to less distinct uses of language across social divides, and cases where social groups adopt/enforce distinct uses of language in order to mark distinct social identities.

Answer 2.23
Answers will vary. For example, pair 3 shows an association between left(-handedness), in Italian, and a negative meaning, in English, probably related to the long-standing views of left-handedness as strange or undesirable, and conversely for right-(handedness) and dexterity. Pair 6 shows an association between an object and the body part involved in the use of that object.

In this exercise, it is important to point out that the meanings of the word pairs did not derive from each other: these meanings are, as said, derived from a common ancestor, which shows how word meanings can evolve both along time and across space. (Exercise 12.17 has a similar cross-linguistic focus, highlighting *false friends*, words which are spelt and pronounced in similar ways across languages but which have different meanings.)

Answer 2.24
1. French-based words retained their original status as words used by the (new) ruling elite. In current uses of English, choices between English-based and French-based words or expressions associate with choices in sociolect and register. For example, French-based words predominate in academic publications, and English-based ones in popular entertainment.
2. Instances of colonialism, for example, reflect similar distinctions in the use of local languages vs. conqueror languages. This is why English and Portuguese became the high-status languages in the USA and Brazil, respectively.

Answer 2.25
The purpose of this exercise is to highlight that variability is the rule, in any dialect and so in any language. Language labels such as *English* designate very abstract entities, whose boundaries are very difficult to circumscribe precisely because of variability. Analyses of particular languages must therefore make it clear which variety/dialect of a language is under investigation, since findings about vocabulary, grammar and accent apply to specific varieties/dialects. One relevant question to ask in this connection is, for example, what *is* English? (Or any other language!)

Answer 2.26
Language contact usually refers to mutual influences of different languages upon one another, whereas language spread accounts for the use of a language outside of its original (territorial, national) boundaries. Instances of language change may be explained by both. Unless language spread takes place in a previously uninhabited territory, there will be contact between that language and the one(s) used locally. Exercise 2.26 above, describing the arrival of French in England with the Norman invasion of 1066, is one example of change (of English) owing to language contact, triggered by the spread of French to English territory. A language which is 'exported' to uninhabited territory will have its uses adapted to new, local needs. These uses will eventually diverge from uses of the same language in its original territory, in an example of change owing to language spread.

Answer 2.27

Accents which retain 'r' pronunciations are older, as reflected in the (conservative) spelling of these words. That is, speakers eventually dropped the pronunciation of 'r' in these words. Accents which retain 'r' pronunciations are predominantly American, one likely reason being that the English-speaking newcomers to America still had 'r' accents at the time they left the 'old world' for 'the new world'. The USA, a younger English-speaking nation than Britain, predominantly retained an older accent of the language in words like *car* and *cart*, showing that 'newer, or younger' country and 'newer, or younger' accent do not necessarily correlate. The same language, used in different places, will develop new forms (accent, words, grammar) in different ways.

The technical terms for the two types of accent are *rhotic*, for 'r' pronunciations, and *non-rhotic*, for 'r'-less pronunciations.

Answer 2.28

One way to start approaching this topic is by attempting to define 'simplification'. Does it, for example, mean quantitative features like fewer words, or fewer grammatical constructions, or is it a matter of quality – in which case the term 'quality' would need to be defined. The issue is that languages, whether local or global, serve their users. Global languages will be used in simple ways when the purposes for which they are used are simple, and in complex ways, otherwise. What is clear is that their global uses will be different from local ones: local users may tend to perceive difference as simplification, in that the language uses that are familiar to them are not (and in fact cannot) be shared by global users.

Answer 2.29

'Family' relationships among languages are found through features other than their printed forms, such as shared grammar, vocabulary and/or pronunciation. A shared script does not mean a shared linguistic history: English and Finnish, for example, share a (Roman) script, but belong to unrelated language families.

Answer 2.30

Ruling a country involves the management of a whole host of institutions, all of which need to work together for the country to function as a whole. Since human beings make up those institutions and all human beings use language, standardising communication by officially recognising a (very) limited number of languages becomes a condition for the smooth running of those institutions.

Chapter 3. The grammar of words: words and word parts

Answer 3.1
1. b   2. d   3. b   4. c   5. a

Answer 3.2

		Referential meaning	Distributional pattern
a.	Adj	Modifies the N *woman*	Follows the verb *be*
b.	N	Names a group of people	Follows Det (*The*)
c.	Adj	Modifies the N *product*	Occurs between Det (*a*) and N (*product*)

Answer 3.3
1. Verb.   2. Pr ___ ; N ___

Answer 3.4
(a) Mary heard a petrol can exploding.   *that* is Det, *can* is N.
(b) Mary heard that petrol can be explosive.   *that* is Conj, *can* is (auxiliary) V.

Answer 3.5
No, because the data do not show any contexts where *very* and *old* contrast.

Answer 3.6
The earlier instruction is ambiguous: *Empty* can be interpreted as V or Adj. Inserting the Det *the* after *Empty* precludes the Adj interpretation because *Adj Det.

Answer 3.7
 e, g.

Answer 3.8
 a, e, f, h.

Answer 3.9
Words a., c. and d. contain cranberry morphemes because *wal* (or *wall*), *rose*, *mary*, *pine* and *apple* don't contribute to the overall meaning of their respective words.

Answer 3.10
True: 2, 3, 7.   False: 1, 4, 5, 6, 8.

Answer 3.11
sale-s, slow-ly, promis(e)-ing, un-like, early-er or earli-er, direct-or-s, simpl(e)-y, talk-ing, profit-s, mean-s, valu(e)-able.

Answer 3.12

	Simple word(s)	Free form(s)	Bound form(s)
growth		grow	-th
wallet	✔	wallet	
daydreaming		day, dream	-ing
examples		example	-s
incorrectly		correct	in-, -ly
webmaster		web, master	
display	✔	display	

Answer 3.13

Both can precede N on their own, so that's not why they're classified as different word classes: *the* and *this* can too, and they're both Det. The arguments concern their distribution with one another: if both words occur, they must occur in a certain order. That is, their distribution is different, so they're different word classes.

Answer 3.14

c, d, f.

Answer 3.15

Only statement 1 is true.

Answer 3.16

There is no contradiction. The issue concerns the number of lexical/referential vs. grammatical/binding word types in the system of a language and in the use of that language. In addition, "most numerous" (in the one) does not mean "most frequent" (in the other).

Answer 3.17

1. We follow the principles of exhaustiveness (words must be exhaustively broken up into morphemes) and compositionality (morphemes must contribute meaning to the words that they make up). Although *bad, mint, on, pro, file, butter* and *fly* are (simple) words of English, none of their morphemes contribute meaning to *badminton, profile* or *butterfly*, respectively. So we conclude that all three words are simple words.
2. A cranberry morpheme assumes at least one other morpheme in the word that contains it. The word part *butter* in *butterfly* could be a candidate, if we take a butterfly as a 'fly', like a cranberry is a berry. As stated on pp. 71-72 of the textbook, the assumption of cranberry morphemes is controversial. The word *dragonfly* may add to this discussion.

Answer 3.18

1. N
2. Several answers are possible:
   - can be replaced by other nouns, e.g. *golf, football*;
   - can be replaced by a pronoun, *it*;
   - can be preceded by Det, e.g. *My horse-riding is disastrous.*
3. Adj
4. Several answers are possible:
   - can be replaced by other Adj, e.g. *expensive, boring.*
   - can be preceded by *very*;
   - can have *-er* attached to it to form comparative.

Answer 3.19

a, e, f.

Answer 3.20

1a. Adj	2a. Det	3a. N
1b. Adv	2b. Conj	3b. P

Answer 3.21

The data show, for example, that:

- Swedish has definite articles;
- Swedish nouns can appear with or without a definite article, e.g. *öga* vs. *ögat;*
- Swedish has two definite articles, represented in print by -*n* and -*t*, respectively;
- Swedish definite articles are bound forms: nouns with definite articles are printed as a single word;
- the assignment of each article to different nouns appears arbitrary, in that the data show no distributional pattern: nouns with the same ending, -*a, -e, -o*, can have either article.

Answer 3.22

in-human-ity	sun-tan-(n)ed	un-believ(e)-able	body-snatch-er-s

Answer 3.23

Words	Free morpheme(s)	Bound morpheme(s)
singing	*sing*	*-ing*
dismantle	dismantle	-
toothache	tooth, ache	-
hardship	hard	-ship
bargain	bargain	-
displacement	place	dis-, -ment

<u>Note</u>: In the word *displacement*, *displace* and *placement* are free *forms*, but not free *morphemes*, in that both are complex words.

Answer 3.24

Michael Rosen's examples of the same or related words in different uses (e.g. *naming* and *name*) show that a strictly conceptual definition of word classes fails to capture a useful classification of word types. Confusing definitions do not help learners understand linguistic concepts – and may in fact give the (WRONG!) impression that language studies are, in George's words, boring.

Answer 3.25

True: 2, 4.   False: 1, 3, 5, 6, 7.

Answer 3.26

1. **False:** *shoeshine* is a complex word containing only free forms, shoe and shine; *shoes* is a complex word, containing a free form *shoe* and a bound form -*s*.
2. **True:** a bound form is *bound* to another morpheme to form a word, so that word contains at least two morphemes and is therefore a complex word (see 4, below).
3. **False:** the bound form *un-* is part of the word *unhappy*, which is a lexical word (adjective).
4. **True:** only minimal words contain a single morpheme.
5. **False:** *the* (determiner), *of* (preposition), *it* (pronoun) and *but* (conjunction) are free forms and grammatical morphemes.
6. **False:** "words" which "have no meaning" are not *words*. The statement is a contradiction in terms.
7. **False:** again, a contradiction in terms. A word is a free form, and cannot therefore be a bound form.

Answer 3.27

1.

Portuguese	English		Portuguese	English
gato	'male cat'		gata	'female cat'
menino	'boy'		menina	'girl'
médico	'male doctor'		médica	'female doctor'
lobo	'male wolf'		loba	'female wolf'
filho	'son'		filha	'daughter'
tio	'uncle'		tia	'aunt'

2. *-o* means 'male' and *-a* 'female'.
3. Yes. Data Set 2 shows that there seems to be no correlation of sex with either *-o* or *-a*, even for sexed beings like e.g. *lagarto* ('lizard') or *cavala* ('mackerel').
4. For example:
   • The correlation of referent sex with specific word endings appears to hold only for some Portuguese nouns.
   • The meanings 'male' and 'female' of *-o* and *-a*, respectively, apply to a subset of Portuguese nouns. In other nouns, the word endings *-o* and *-a* appear not to be morphemes at all.

Answer 3.28

You may have recognised Text 1 as an excerpt from the poem *"Jabberwocky"*, contained in Lewis Carroll's (1872) book *Through the Looking-Glass and What Alice Found There*.

Text 1 uses grammatical morphemes of English, and invented lexical morphemes. Text 2 does the opposite, using lexical morphemes of English and invented grammatical ones. Here is the key to them:

ratch = it	tun = was	ind = and
lare = the	-il = -ing	floot = did
plen = in	whep = all	-ic = -y
tunet = were	-en = plural -s	-aft = -ed

Text 1 nevertheless appears to mean more than Text 2: we need no key to understand that the *mome raths*, whatever they are, *outgrabe* while *'twas brillig*. The interesting observation is that we can make better sense of a text containing intact *grammatical* information than of one containing intact *lexical* information, showing that both types of words play a core role in expressing linguistic meaning.

Answer 3.29

Part One: The two words don't belong to the same word class because they have different distributions. Alternative explanations are possible, for example, only *scrome* can follow a Determiner; *plessy* cannot. OR, only *plessy* can follow a Verb; *scrome* cannot.

Part Two: No, because the data in (2) show that in terms of word structure, only *plessy* can take the comparative and superlative forms, *plessier* and *plessiest*, respectively.

The point to emphasise here is that both strands of evidence – distribution and word structure – converge towards the same conclusion.

Answer 3.30

1a. V	1b. N	2a. Det	2b. Pr	3a. Adj	3b. Adv
4a. Adj	4b. Adj	5a. Conj	5b. P	6a. V	6b. Adj

Chapter 4. The grammar of words: word building

Answer 4.1

	derivational		inflectional	
	class-maintaining	**class-changing**	**class-maintaining**	**class-changing**
prefix	*unfair* *disappear*	*enlarge*	–	–
suffix	*puppeteer* *friendship*	*faithful* *appearance*	*walked* *catches* *song's*	–

Answer 4.2

	derivational affixation	**inflectional affixation**	**compounding**	**acronymy**	**blending**	**clipping**
emoticon			✔			✔
cell phone					✔	
ID card			✔	✔		
blogger	✔		✔			✔
stockbroker			✔			
childhoods	✔	✔				
break-in			✔			
TVs		✔		✔		

Answers may vary. Rationale for the classification above:

1. Clipping of *emotion*, and then compounding *emot(ion) + icon*.
2. Blending of the two clipped forms *cell(ular) (tele)phone*.
3. Acronymy from the two first syllables of *identity*, and then compounding *ID + card*.
4. Compounding *web + log*, then clipping *(we)blog*. (*blog* is a noun, which then undergoes conversion to verb.) From the verb *blog*, we derive the noun *blogger*.
5. Compounding of the two simple words/stems *stock + broker*.
6. Derivation of *child + -hood*, then inflection *childhood + -s*.
7. Compounding of the two simple words/stems *break + in*.
8. Acronymy (initialism) from the two stems of *television*, then inflection *TV + -s*.

Answer 4.3

The structure is ill-formed because it shows two affixes, *-ful* and *-ly*, attaching to one another, when in fact affixes attach to stems.

Answer 4.4

1. b.
2. Diagram a. shows the inflection *-ed* applying before the derivation *dis-*, whereas derivation applies before inflection in word formation. Diagram c. shows a flat (non-hierarchical) structure, whereas the internal structure of words is hierarchical. So we choose diagram b.

Answer 4.5

2, 3, 4.

Answer 4.6

True: 3, 4, 5.   False: 1, 2, 6, 7, 8.

Answer 4.7

The pattern Adj + N is typical when Adj modifies N as in *darkroom*. In *seasick*, the Adj *sick* does not modify the N *sea*.

Answer 4.8

In both cases the affixes are different. In (a), *-ly* attaches to N in *friendly* and to Adj in *roughly*. In (b), the affix is a suffix in *brighten*, whereas it is a prefix in *enlarge*.

Answer 4.9

1. Argument for the same affix: both words mean 'the doer of the action expressed by V'. Argument for a different affix: a *singer* is an animate doer, whereas a *cooker* is inanimate.
2. Answers will vary. Both arguments are currently used in alternative descriptions of *-er* for words like *singer* and *cooker*.

Answer 4.10

Set A. 1. (c)   2. V + *re-* → V, meaning 'to V again'.
Set B. 1. (b)   2. V + *-ar/-or/-er* → N, meaning 'one who Vs'.
Set C. 1. (b)   2. N + *-(e)d* → Adj, meaning 'with (a) N'.

Answer 4.11

ballpoint pen, renewal, disallows.

Answer 4.12

(a) stem: *board*.
   N *black* + N *board* → compound N *blackboard*;
   + inflectional suffix *-s* → inflected N *blackboards*.
   Could the analysis start with *board* + *-s*? The problem is that *blackboards* means 'more than one blackboard', not 'more than one board that is 'black'.'
(b) stem: *able*.
   disabling is an Adj here, though *-ing* attaches to verbs, so:
   derivational prefix *dis-* + Adj *abl(e)* → derived V *disable*;
   + inflectional suffix *-ing* → inflected V *disabling*;
   by conversion, V → converted Adj *disabling*.
   Note: **able* + *-ing* is not possible, because there is no word **abling*.

The purpose of this exercise is to develop practice in arguing for the analyses that you propose, using the technical terminology and reasoning methods that you've learnt. Drawing word trees for each proposed analysis may be helpful.

Answer 4.13

No. The prefix attaches to Adj in *unpleasant*, and to V in *unpack*.
Recall that similar grammar is one criterion for morpheme identification.

Answer 4.14

A. 1. For example: *My sister is a lion tamer*.
A. 2. For example: *My dog is tamer than my cat*.
B. 1. Derivational suffix *-er* attaches to V to form N, meaning '(some)one who Vs.'.
B. 2. Inflectional (comparative) suffix *-er* attaches to Adj to form Adj, meaning 'more Adj'.

Answer 4.15

The purpose of this exercise is twofold. First, to show how linguistic concepts learned through one language apply to other languages too. Second, to develop skills in presenting and analysing data from languages that one's audience may not be familiar with.

Make sure that you provide sound arguments for your analyses, and that those who don't speak your other language(s) would understand both the data and each analysis.

Answer 4.16

1. *disappoint.*   2. *element.*   3. *informative.*   4. *tutor.*
5. *woollen.*   6. *flagship.*   7. *duckling.*   8. *encourage.*

Answer 4.17

'er' is not a suffix in *finger.*

Answer 4.18

Comparing the data in the first two columns, we might conclude that the form spelt 'n' is part of a stem morpheme rather than an affix on its own, and that referring to two items instead of one merely requires suffixation with *-i*, e.g. *nadò* ('dog'), *nadòi* ('two dogs'). The data in the final column complicate this picture, as the initial 'n' is replaced by 'l', e.g. *ladòt* ('three or more dogs'), suggesting that 'n' may be an affix (meaning 'less than three'). So, 'dog' could be either *nadò* or *adò*; 'coyote' could be *nanhò* or *anhò*; and 'red' could be *nahwã* or *ahwã*. Accordingly, 'two' could be ether *-i* or *n-___-i* ; while the meaning 'three or more' is conveyed by *l- ___-t.*

1. *nadò / adò, nanhò / anhò*, and *nahwã / ahwã* are stems; *-i* could be analysed either as suffix or as part of a circumfix *n-___-i*; *l- ___-t* is a circumfix.
2. 'dove': *nakkò*; 'three or more doves': *lakkòt.*
3. The Pame form *nawáhai* is likely to mean 'two doves'.

Answer 4.19

(a) <u>footballer</u>: compounding from N *foot* and N *ball*, giving N *football*; this noun is then converted to a V, so that it can take the derivational suffix *-er* to build a word meaning 'football player' on the pattern of words liker *baker* or *singer*. Interestingly, the meaning 'one who footballs' seems dispreferred, in that a verb 'to football' is uncommon. The question may then arise of whether *footballer*, *baker* and *singer* in fact contain the same suffix *-er*, meaning-wise.
<u>red-carded</u>: compounding from Adj *red* and N *card*, giving N *red card*; this noun is then converted to a V, so that it can take the inflectional suffix *-ed* to build the past participle *red-carded*. This verbal form is again converted, to Adj. The verb 'to red card' appears to be more common than 'to football', in football jargon.

(b) <u>grassroots</u>: N *root* is inflected for plural and then compounded with N *grass*. The alternative analysis, taking compounding first, from N *grass* and N *root*, giving N *grassroot*, is dispreferred in that the singular noun *grassroot* is uncommon.

(c) <u>nosebleed</u>: compounding of N *nose* and N *bleed*. The word *bleed* is currently used in English as both N and V. Its original word class, and so whether conversion is involved in the word *nosebleed*, may be ascertained through etymology.

Answer 4.20

b, g.

Answer 4.21

c, e, f, g, h.

Answer 4.22

Only statement 1 is true.

Answer 4.23

Diagram b. gives the best analysis: *courogement* is not a word of English, whereas *encourage* is.

Answer 4.24

(i) Verb + derivational prefix *peny-/pen-/peng-*
(ii) Verb + derivational suffix *-an*
(iii) *tapis*
(iv) *ukur*

Answer 4.25

In (a) *broad(er)* is an Adj modifying the N *band*. Free form adjectives can be modified by other words and can take inflections like *-er*. In (b) the word *broadband* is a compound, where *broad* modifies the head *band* to name a specific concept. The modifier in a compound cannot be modified by any word outside of the compound itself.

Answer 4.26

The text plays on assumed affixation of several words, through the use of words that either do not exist in English, or whose use is restricted/rare. For example, the word *chalant* leads us to assign to it the opposite meaning of *nonchalant*, through an assumed prefixation with *non-*, and *array* does the same for its presumed prefixed counterpart, *disarray*.

Answer 4.27

The purpose of this exercise is twofold: to practise asking research questions about given data, and to decide, through the answers that they provide, whether the questions increase our understanding of language forms and functions. Relevant questions are, for example:

- Do all the words in the data contain the same affix? Why (not)?
- What kind of word formation process(es) do the data exemplify?
- How do the data show the productivity, or lack thereof, of suffixation/derivational suffixation in English?

You may want to extend this task to whether the same points raised by your questions and answers can be argued about further data: think, for example, of words like *powerful, thankful, thoughtful, harmful*, or *mouthful, armful*.

Answer 4.28

1. Word (a) follows the rule that the statement describes: *tired* is an Adj, and *-ness* attaches to it to form the noun *tiredness*. Word (b) doesn't follow the rule, for two reasons: *lion* is N, and the suffix that attaches to it is *-ess* (as in e.g. *authoress*, *actress*).
2. The word **intelligentness*, though non-existent in English, is a well-formed possible word of the language. Like *tiredness*, it follows the rule described in the statement: *-ness* attaches to Adj *intelligent* to form N **intelligentness*. The point of this question is to call attention to speakers' use of productive rules of a language to create new words. Children and foreign users of a language may follow the 'right' rule to create 'wrong' words in this way. Compare Activity 12.8 in the textbook.

Answer 4.29

1.

Turkish word	English translation	Turkish word	English translation
ders	lesson	dersler	lessons
dersin	your lesson	derslerin	your lessons
diş	tooth	dişler	teeth
dişin	your tooth	dişlerin	your teeth
el	hand	eller	hands
elin	your hand	ellerin	your hands
ev	house	evler	houses
evin	your house	evlerin	your houses
kibrit	match	kibritler	matches
kibritin	your match	kibritlerin	your matches

2. The morphemes are:

- *ders* 'lesson'; *diş* 'tooth'; el 'hand; *ev* 'house'; *kibrit* 'match'. They are lexical morphemes (and free forms);
- *-ler* 'plural'; *-in* 'your'. They are inflectional suffixes (bound forms). Where {plural} and {your} occur in the same word, {plural} precedes {your}.

Answer 4.30

Headed compounds are a 'kind of' their second stem, and belong to the same word class as their second stem. These two criteria can guide understanding of compound headedness in the data. There may nevertheless be less clear-cut cases. For example in 1, a *pressure cooker* is a (kind of) *cooker*, and both words are N, but there may be disagreement on whether a *coffee maker* is 'a (kind of) *maker*'.

Consider also whether any of the words should be analysed as containing cranberry morphemes.

Chapter 5. Speech sounds

Answer 5.1
a. [p, b, m, f, v, u] b. [f, v] c. [m, n, ŋ] d. [t, d, n, s, z]
e. [i] f. [k, g, ŋ, ɑ, u] g. [f, v, s, z] h. [ŋ]

Answer 5.2
1a. [p, b, m] 1b. [æ, ɑ] 1c. [v, z] 1d. [t, d]
2a. [ŋ, i, u] 2b. [f, s] 2c. [i, æ] 2d. [k, g, ŋ]

Answer 5.3
1. [+stop -nasal] 2. [+stop] 3. [+labial]
4. [+coronal +voice] 5. [+labial -sonorant] 6. [+sonorant +back]

Answer 5.4
1. [tæks] 2. [bæŋk] 3. [ni] 4. [snupt] 5. [tæksi] 6. [nus]

Answer 5.5
1. d 2. a 3. c 4. b 5. a 6. d

Answer 5.6
1. IPA description: voiced alveolar plosive → voiceless alveolar plosive
   Change in voicing: voiced → voiceless

2. IPA description: voiced alveolar plosive → bilabial nasal
   Change in manner of articulation: plosive → nasal
   Change in place of articulation: alveolar → (bi)labial

3. IPA description: voiced alveolar plosive → alveolar nasal
   Change in manner of articulation: plosive → nasal

4. IPA description: voiced alveolar plosive → voiced alveolar fricative
   Change in manner of articulation: plosive → fricative

5. IPA description: unrounded close front vowel → rounded close back vowel
   Change in vowel backness: front → back
   Change in lip rounding: unrounded → rounded

6. IPA description: unrounded close front vowel → unrounded open back vowel
   Change in vowel height: close → open
   Change in vowel backness: front → back

Answer 5.7

Source word	Source transcription	Target transcription	Target word
tap	/tæp/	/pæt/	*pat*
mood	/mud/	/dum/	*doom*
speak	/spik/	/kips/	*keeps*
Max	/mæks/	/skæm/	*scam*
scene	/sin/	/nis/	*niece*

Answer 5.8

1. c, d   2. b   3. a, b, e   4. c

Answer 5.9

1. b   2. a, b, c   3. c, e   4. a, d, e

Answer 5.10

True: 1, 7, 8.   False: 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Answer 5.11

[k] taCK, Cat, meCHanic, sQuid, treK, aCQuire
[u] crEW, thrOUGH, tOO, clUE, rOUte, shOE
[f] rouGH, PHrase, Farm, oFFend, oFTen (in some pronunciations of this word)
[s] buS, creSS, SCience, City, mouSE

Answer 5.12

The purpose of this exercise is to highlight the correspondence between each technical term/label and the actual physical movements performed by the articulators in the pronunciation of each individual sound. All definitions of the underlined words are in Chapter 5 of the textbook.

Answer 5.13

1. and 2. Suggestions, whose intonation pattern may depend on the speaker's variety of English:
   a. Meaning 1. 'She gave biscuits to her dog': main stress on *biscuits*.
       Meaning 2. 'She gave dog biscuits to her': main stress on *dog*.
   b. Meaning 1. 'Small shops should be like this': main stress on *shops*, possibly no pause between *small* and *shops*.
       Meaning 2. 'Shops should be this small': main stress on *small*, possibly slight pause between *small* and *shops*.
   c. Meaning 1. 'I was too ill to go to the doctor': falling tone on *ill*, pause after *doctor*.
       Meaning 2. 'I went to the doctor for some other reason than illness': rising (or fall-rising) tone on *ill*, no pause after *doctor*.
   d. Meaning 1. 'I know other clever people besides you': main stress on *you*.
       Meaning 2. 'I know that clever people are fond of you': main stress on *like*.
       This last example is interesting in that intonation reflects a different word class of a word, *like*.
3. Make sure that the examples are indeed disambiguated through intonation, including alternative pitch, stress or rhythmical patterns.

If you find it difficult identifying features of intonation, try humming the alternative versions of the sentences, without words.

Answer 5.14

1. knees, moose.
2. scab, staff, spam.

Answer 5.15

A plosive involves first, contact of articulators, and then release, as in e.g. [p, b]. A [+stop] involves contact of articulators: the feature [+stop] says nothing about release. This is why e.g. [p, b, m] are all [+stop], but only [p, b] are plosive. The closure in the articulation of e.g. [m], and of the other English nasals, need not be released for the sound [m] to be produced. So the two terms *plosive* and *[+stop]* are not exact equivalents in descriptions of English consonants.

Answer 5.16

1. a, b, c, d   2. h   3. i, j, l

Answer 5.17

a. [i æ u ɑ] d. [d t n z s] g. [u ɑ k ŋ g]

b. [k ŋ g p b m d t n] e. [u p b m f v] h. [æ ɑ]

c. [z s f v] f. [i æ] i. [i u k ŋ g]

Answer 5.18

Original English word	New English word in phonetic transcription	New English word in spelling
beat	[pit]	*peat*
van	[fæn]	fan
mood	[mut]	moot
bag	[pæk]	pack
fang	[fæŋ]	fang
zap	[sæp]	sap

Answer 5.19

1. C 3. D, G 4. D, G, I 5. E 6. E, I 7. D, E, J

<u>Note</u>: Statement 2 may match sets A and E, for varieties of English with dental articulation of [n, d, s].

Answer 5.20

(a) see/sea/C; (b) moons; (c) steamed; (d) palm; (e) eave/Eve/eve.

Answer 5.21

Word	Word transcription	**Your** word in transcription	**Your** word in spelling
cat	/kæt/	/kæt/	*cat*
moot	/mut/	/but/	boot
bang	/bæŋ/	/bæg, bæk(*)/	bag, back
mean	/min/	/bid, bit(*)/	bead, beat, beet
soup	/sup/	/sup/	soup

(*) Transcriptions with word-final voiceless [k] and [t] are meant to reflect the pronunciation of users of English who may have only voiceless plosives in these word positions, whether they have a cold or not. Trouble with your nasal cavities does <u>not</u> affect voicing.

Answer 5.22

Word 1. *neat* [nit].

Clues: [-stop +high] → [-stop +low], i.e. [i] → [æ].

nasal → voiceless velar plosive, i.e. [n] → [k].

[-sonorant -voice +coronal] → [+sonorant +voice +coronal], i.e. [t] → [n]

Word 2. *move* [muv].

Clues: [-sonorant] → delete this sound, i.e. we get [mu].

bilabial nasal → voiced alveolar plosive, i.e. [m] → [d].

Target words: [kæn du] (*Can do!*).

Answer 5.23
The reason for this representation is that the upper part of the vocal tract is longer than the lower part (typically, human beings have an overbite). There is therefore more space for vowel articulation along the upper jaw than the lower jaw, which the vowel diagram attempts to represent visually.

Answer 5.24
Only statement (a) is true.

Answer 5.25
The words are: *boom, starved, apt, fee*, *peas*, *noodles* (all words containing labial/[+labial] sounds).

Answer 5.26
This is a practice exercise which can be carried out in groups.
1. Label: voiceless dental fricative. Transcription: [θæŋks].
3. Label: nasalised rounded open back vowel. Transcription: [vɒ̃].

Answer 5.27
Statements (c) and (d) are true.

Answer 5.28
1. There are several possibilities, e.g. [mæɡi bæɡpup], [mæɡi bækpuk].
2. [mæɡi bæbkuk]
3. The consonants [m] [ɡ] of *Maggie* 'prepare' the articulators for a sequence of labial + velar that *Bab-* immediately disrupts. *Maggie* has labial + velar, whereas *Babcook* has labial + labial + velar + velar. The twisting results from attempts at regularising the sequences of labials and velars. The vowels in both words are likely to remain intact, although similar problems to the consonants may arise too: *Maggie* has two front vowels, one each after the labial and the velar, whereas *Babcook* has front and back vowels, with no vowel between the second /b/ and the first /k/.
4. The tongue is the major articulator for both vowels and consonants, which may explain the label "*tongue* twister", but the twister in the example involves labials too, where the tongue is not an articulator.

Note: the name in the real tongue-twister is *Peggy Babcock*. We adapted it for this exercise, in order to make use of the phonetic symbols dealt with in the textbook.

Answer 5.29
a, b and d.

Answer 5.30
Statements 4 and 5 are true.

Chapter 6. The grammar of sounds

Answer 6.1

Minimal pairs:
1. *gang-gap* [gæŋ] – [gæp]: replacing word-final [ŋ] with [p] results in a new word.
2. *beef-bean* [bif] – [bin]: replacing word-final [f] with [n] results in a new word.
4. *knee-pea* [ni] – [pi]: replacing word-initial [n] with [p] results in a new word.
5. *flew-blue* [flu] – [blu]: replacing word-initial [f] with [b] results in a new word.

Not minimal pairs:
3. *fat-fax* [fæt] – [fæks]: the first word has three sounds and the second one has four.
6. *see-sea* [si] – [si]: both words sound exactly the same.

Open to discussion:
7. *lard-laugh*. This is a minimal pair if the words are pronounced [lɑd] – [lɑf], though not if pronounced e.g. [lɑrd] – [lɑf], or [lɑrd] – [læf] (four sounds vs. three sounds).
8. *field-feel*. This is not a minimal pair if the words are pronounced [fild] – [fil] (four sounds vs. three), and not either if pronounced e.g. [fil] – [fil], where both words sound the same.
9. *far-fee*. This is a minimal pair if the words are pronounced [fɑ] – [fi], though not if pronounced [fɑr] – [fi] (three sounds vs. two sounds).

Different varieties/accents of one language have different phonemic systems precisely because of issues such as the ones discussed in this exercise.

Answer 6.2

Answers will vary. One suggestion for each set is:

1. (source) *seem* /sim/
   - step 1. *beam* /bim/
   - step 2. *bean* or *been* /bin/
   - step 3. *ban* /bæn/
   - step 4. *bang* /bæŋ/ (target)

2. (source) *fang* /fæŋ/
   - step 1. *fat* /fæt/
   - step 2. *cat* /kæt/
   - step 3. *cart* /kɑt/ (target)

The path from source to target word will work differently for speakers of rhotic vs. non-rhotic accents, i.e. those who pronounce vs. do not pronounce /r/ in words like *park* and *cart*.

Answer 6.3

1. Speaker A: /b, p, f, æ, i/   2. Speaker B: /p, v, æ, i/

Answer 6.4

1. f
2.

Word	Transcription		Word	Transcription
scheme	[skim]		*stooped*	[stupt]
dab	[dæp]		*speed*	[spit]
van	[væn]		*bee*	[bi]

Answer 6.5

1. Option d. gives the simplest and clearest description of the data. Rationale: Option a. refers to /p/ and /f/, but the data contain no words with the phoneme /p/. There is no 'confusion': the data show a systematic substitution instead. Option b. refers to spelling, which is irrelevant for phonemic analysis. Options c. and e. are prescriptive, in that both advocate ways of pronouncing the words in question
2. No. The data in 2. show another phoneme, /p/, also being systematically replaced.
3. Natural pronunciations involve sounds that share several articulatory features, and therefore constitute natural classes of sounds. The phonemes /p/ and /f/ share several features: voiceless and labial, according to IPA labels, or [-voice -son +lab], according to DF labels.
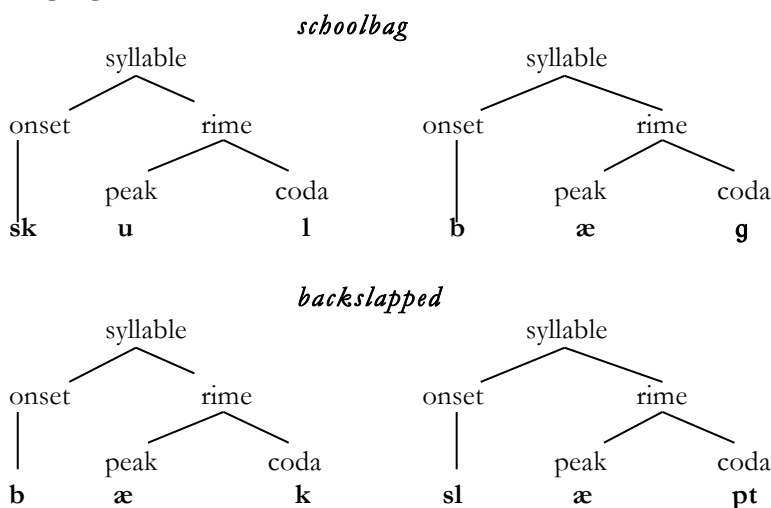
Answer 6.6

1. /l/ and /r/ are voiceless after voiceless plosives.
2. In the context of voiceless consonants, it is phonetically natural for other consonants to be voiceless too: the vocal cords do not need to change their state, from one sound to the next. Likewise for voiced consonants in the context of other voiced consonants. (Compare your findings here with the findings in Activity 6.5 in the textbook.)

Answer 6.7

1. (b)   2. (b)

Answer 6.8

schoolbag

backslapped

Answer 6.9

(a) is the best syllabification because /-str/ constitutes the longest well-formed onset in the second syllable of this word. (Refer to the two principles governing syllabification on p.141 of the textbook.)

Answer 6.10

1. (a), (c)   2. (a), (b), (d)   3. (b), (c), (d)   4. (a), (d)

Answer 6.11

Rule 1 can be paraphrased as: [s] in the onset of a syllable cannot be followed by voiced consonants.

Rule 1 is able to account for the well-formed words in (1a) and the ill-formed words *[svik], *[sɡi], *[sbɑ] and *[sdik] in (1b), since [p, t, k] are all voiceless consonants, and [v, ɡ, b, d] are all voiced consonants. Rule 1 cannot, however, explain *[sfik] in (1b). So, we'd have to reject Rule 1 for not being general enough, i.e. not being able to account for ALL the data in (1).

Rule 2 can be paraphrased as: [s] in the onset of a syllable cannot be followed by non-plosives.

Rule 2 is able to account for the well-formed words in (1a) and the ill-formed words *[sfik] and *[svik] in (1b), since [p, t, k] are plosives, and [f] and [v] are not plosives. Rule 2 cannot, however, explain *[sɡi], *[sbɑ] and *[sdik] in (1b). So, we'd have to reject Rule 2 for the same reason we rejected Rule 1.

Rule 3 says that [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed only by voiceless plosives, i.e. to follow [s] in the onset of a syllable, a sound must be both voiceless and plosive.

Rule 3 correctly predicts that the words in (1a) will be well-formed, and those in (2b) will be ill-formed, i.e. *[sfik] and *[svik] because [f] although voiceless is not a plosive, and [v] is neither voiceless nor plosive. Similarly, *[sɡi], *[sbɑ] and *[sdik] because [ɡ, b, d], even though plosives, are not voiceless. Hence, we choose Rule 3 for being (a) accurate and (b) general enough to cover all the data in (1).

The data in (2) force us to reject Rule 3. The data show that [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed by the non-velar nasals [m] and [n]. So, the revised rule needs to read: [s] in the onset of a syllable can be followed only by voiceless plosives or non-velar nasals.

Note: reference to "non-velar nasals", rather than "nasals" generally, shows that the data do not allow us to draw a conclusion about whether or not the velar nasal [ŋ] can follow [s] in the onset of a syllable. Whether our revised rule applies to "nasals" or not can be tested empirically.

Answer 6.12
The data show that [ç] and [χ] are allophones: [ç] occurs after [i], and [χ] after [ɑ, u]. Generalising, the data show that [ç] follows front vowels, and [χ] back vowels, which can be tested empirically with other front and back vowels of the language.

Answer 6.13
The data show that the pronunciation of /n/ in *bean* is affected by the place of articulation of the following sound:

/n/ is pronounced /m/, a labial sound, before labials like /b, p/;

/n/ is pronounced /ŋ/, a velar sound, before velars like /k, g/;

/n/ is pronounced /n/, an alveolar sound, before alveolars like /d, s/.

Pronunciations such as these are the rule in connected speech, providing striking examples of the Law of Least Effort, discussed in section 2.4.2 of the textbook.

Answer 6.14
Both examples show that single words and (two-)word sequences sound exactly alike: *lettuce* and *let us* in (1), and *Justin* and *just in* in (2).

Answer 6.15
There are several possible options for each set. Different options are given in different lines in the table below:

Sound set	Odd-one-out	DF for the remaining sounds
[p b f m]	f	[+stop]
	m	[-nasal]
[p b f s k]	b	[-voice]
	s	[- cor(onal)]
	k	[-back]
	k	[-high]
[t s m n z]	m	[+ cor(onal)]
	m	[-lab(ial)]
[g k i u]	i	[+back]
	i	[-front]
	k	[+voice]
	u	[-lab(ial)]

Answer 6.16
The sonorant consonants [m, n, ŋ] become voiceless in word-final position. For example, [m] is voiced in [mut] and in the first syllable of [pampam̥], but voiceless in the last syllable of [pampam̥].

Answer 6.17
1. Two variants, rounded and unrounded, e.g. [k] in *coop* and in *key*.
2. Here is one suggestion, to guide your reasoning:
   - Rounding vs. unrounding appears to affect both voiced [b, ɡ] and voiceless [p, k] plosives; so the difference in the pronunciation of e.g. [b] vs. [p] can't be attributed to a sound being voiced vs. voiceless;
   - If so, this difference in pronunciation must depend on context, i.e. on what sound follows the plosives. Why is the *following* context relevant? (a) because there's nothing preceding the rounded vs. unrounded plosives; and (b), because the [p] in *coop* is unrounded, whereas it is rounded in *pool*;
   - Conclusion: plosive rounding occurs when the following sound/vowel is rounded too. The plosive and the vowel form a natural class, in speech. This is what is discussed in section 6.4 of the textbook as the 'chameleonic' behaviour of sounds in speech. Try to pronounce *key* with rounded [k], or *coop* with unrounded [k], so you feel the physical unnaturalness of doing so.
     Note that the explanation must be found in rounded vs. unrounded vowels, not e.g. in back vs. non-back vowels: [ɑ] is back but doesn't cause rounding of the plosive, because [ɑ] is unrounded.
3. [k] and [kʷ] are allophones: the sounds are contextual variants / are in complementary distribution / are alternations. The same can be generalised to the other plosives. In addition, there are no minimal pairs in the data.
4. [tʷul, ɡɑd, dip, bʷust, kæt]. Remember that any rule worthy of the name must be general, i.e. predictive (see section 1.6.2 in the textbook). The given data allow, i.e. do not exclude, generalisation of the observed pattern to the whole class of plosives, until disproved by further data.

Answer 6.18
True: 1, 2, 3, 6.   False: 4, 5.

Answer 6.19
e, f, g, h.

Answer 6.20
1. Possible transcriptions:
   | *cease* | [sis] or [siz] | *bees* | [bis] or [biz] |
   | *boost* | [bus] or [bust] | *seas* | [sis] or [siz] |
2. Alternatives are:

cease	*bees*	*boost*	*seas*	**Phonemes**		*cease*	*bees*	*boost*	*seas*	**Phonemes**
sis	bis	bus	sis	s, b, i, u		sis	bis	bust	sis	s, b
sis	bis	bus	siz	s, b, z, i, u		sis	bis	bust	siz	s, b, z
siz	bis	bus	sis			siz	bis	bust	sis	
siz	bis	bus	siz	i, u		siz	bis	bust	siz	none
sis	biz	bus	sis	none		sis	biz	bust	sis	
sis	biz	bus	siz	s, b, z		sis	biz	bust	siz	s, b, z
siz	biz	bus	sis			siz	biz	bust	sis	
siz	biz	bus	siz	s, b		siz	biz	bust	siz	s, b

Answer 6.21

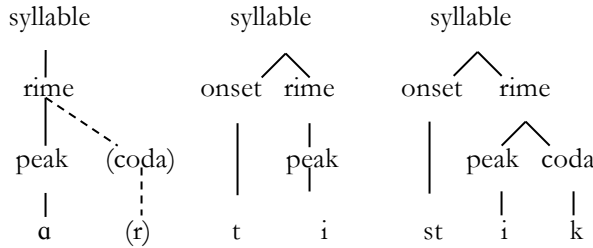| Sound set	IPA label(s)	DF label(s)
[i æ u ɑ]	vowels	[+sonorant -stop]
[t s]	voiceless alveolar	[+coronal -voice]
[æ ɑ]	open / open vowels	[+ low]

Answer 6.22
The sounds [ɾ] and [r] are phonemes of Spanish. Substituting one for the other in the same contexts results in different words of the language.

Answer 6.23
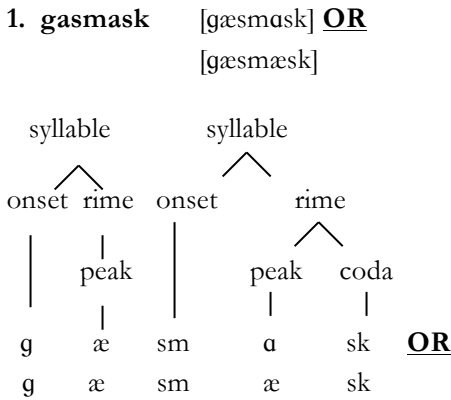
1. gasmask [gæsmɑsk] **OR** | **2. artistic** [ɑtistik] **OR** [ɑrtistik], the latter
             [gæsmæsk] | shown here by round brackets and dashed lines.

Answer 6.24

According to the data, Māori favours CV syllables. All data show examples of syllables with codas being adapted to a CV pattern: the coda [m] in (1), syllabified *com.pany*, and all codas in (2-4). English onsets comprising more than one consonant are also borrowed on the same CV pattern, as (4) shows, by removing one of the consonants.

Answer 6.25

The voiceless plosive [t] is unaspirated in (a), whereas it is aspirated in (b).

Answer 6.26

1. & 2. Set A has only consonants/plosives in word-final position. Two likely possibilities arise:

a) Either you have [z] after voiced consonants/plosives and [s] after voiceless ones. One rule accounting for this pattern would be: "{plural} is pronounced [z] after a voiced sound / plosive / consonant / [+stop], and [s] after a voiceless sound / plosive / consonant / [+stop]. Alternative formulations indicated by the slash / are all fine for the data in Set A. Make sure you understand that [s] vs. [z] plural forms are an example of alternation / allomorphy.

b) Or you have [s] plural in all words, in which case equivalent formulations of a rule like "{plural} is pronounced [s]" account for the data in Set A.

If you can, try to observe and analyse {plural} pronunciations around you: different informants will provide different data.

3 & 4. Set B has vowels and nasals in word-final position.

Again, it is possible (though perhaps less likely?) that you have [s] in your plurals here too. Whether your previous rule also accounts for Set B depends on how you formulated that rule, including a possible "[s] for all plurals" rule. With the alternation described in (a) above, if your first rule said "sound", the rule is fine here too (nasals and vowels are voiced in English). If the rule said "consonant/plosive/[+stop]", then the rule needs amending to include the vowels. Make sure that the final rule does in fact account for both datasets!

<u>Note</u>: The purpose of this exercise is to practise formulating precise general rules from actual speech data, and testing the predictive power of these rules. Activity 6.5 in the textbook, concerning three allomorphs of English {plural}, complements this exercise.

5. With alternation: [s] plural in *beats*, [z] plural elsewhere.

Answer 6.27

Figure 1: phonetics. The picture contains rich detail, just like real speech does – and the transcription is given between square brackets.

Figure 2: phonology. The picture shows the essentials of an action, enough for us to understand the core of what is going on, just like phonological descriptions account for the essential features of the sound system of a language – and the transcription is given between slashes.

Images: ©2007 Trey Jones/*Speculative Grammarian*, used with permission:
http://specgram.com/CLIII.1/09.parenchyma.cartoon.e.html

Answer 6.28

The language play hinges on a spoonerism, whereby syllable onsets are swapped to create new words. In this example, the spoonerism concerns the onsets [p-] and [r-].

Answer 6.29

The data show both voiced and voiceless plosives, /b, d, g/ and /p, t, k/, respectively. The pronunciation of voiceless plosives remains unchanged in word-initial and word-final position, as e.g. (1) and (6) show for /t/. Voiced plosives, however, do not appear in word-final position, as e.g. (1) and (2) show for /g/, and (3) and (4) show for /d/, where their voiceless counterparts appear instead. There are no examples in the data of the behaviour of /b/ in word-final position but, for the sake of generality, our rule can be formulated as follows: German voiced plosives are replaced by their voiceless counterparts in word-final position.

Answer 6.30

There is alternation in the stem forms of the words, with or without affixation. In (a), [bɑ] vs. [bɑr]; in (b) [stɑ] vs. [stɑr]; and in (c) [spɑ] vs. [spɑr], respectively.

Chapter 7. The grammar of sentences: slots and phrases

Answer 7.1
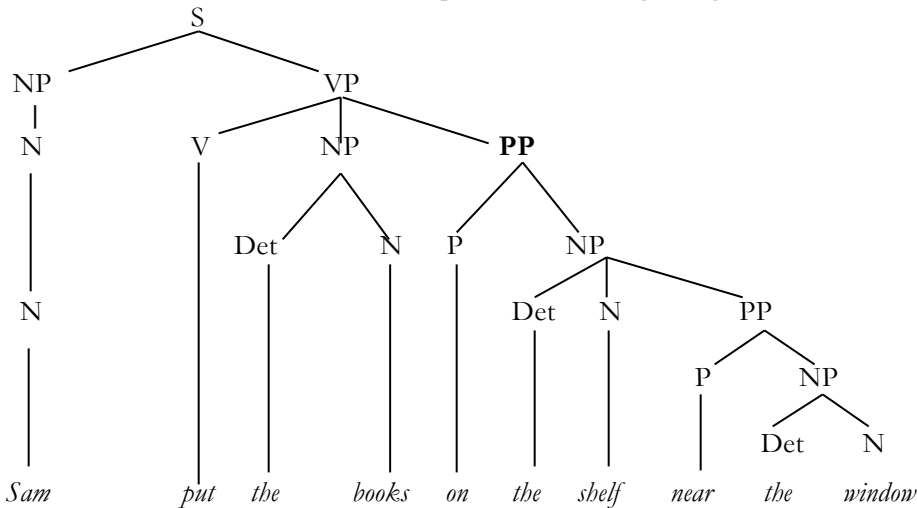Both tests can be used.
Substitution test: <u>in Singapore</u> can be replaced by one word, e.g. *here*, *there*.
Movement test: <u>in Singapore</u> can be moved as a unit, e.g. *In Singapore, the weather is quite predictable.*

Answer 7.2
1. The data show that the PP *on the shelf near the window* is a single unit, since it can be moved from its default position at the end of the sentence to a non-default position at the beginning of the sentence.
2.

```
                           S
            ┌──────────────┴──────────────┐
           NP                             VP
            │              ┌──────────┬────┴──────┐
            N              V         NP           PP
            │              │      ┌───┴───┐    ┌───┴────┐
            N              │     Det      N    P        NP
            │              │      │       │    │    ┌───┴────┐
            │              │      │       │    │   Det  N    PP
            │              │      │       │    │    │   │  ┌──┴──┐
            │              │      │       │    │    │   │  P    NP
            │              │      │       │    │    │   │  │  ┌──┴──┐
            │              │      │       │    │    │   │  │ Det   N
          Sam            put     the    books  on  the shelf near the window
```

This diagram shows that *on the shelf near the window* is a single unit (the bolded PP node in the diagram), modifying the verb *put*. The diagram also shows that the PP *near the window* modifies the noun *shelf*, not the verb *put*.

Answer 7.3
Diagram (b). The given phrase is a PP, consisting of P NP. The NP in turn consists of Det N. Diagram (b) parses the modifiers with their correct heads: Det (*my*) with the head N (*desk*), and the resulting modifier NP with P, which is head of the PP.

Diagram (a) parses Det with P. There is no head-modifier relationship between these two constituents.
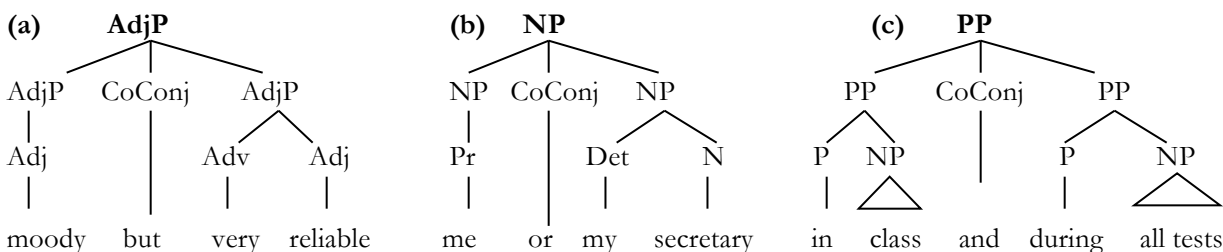
Answer 7.4
True: 5, 7, 8.   False: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6.

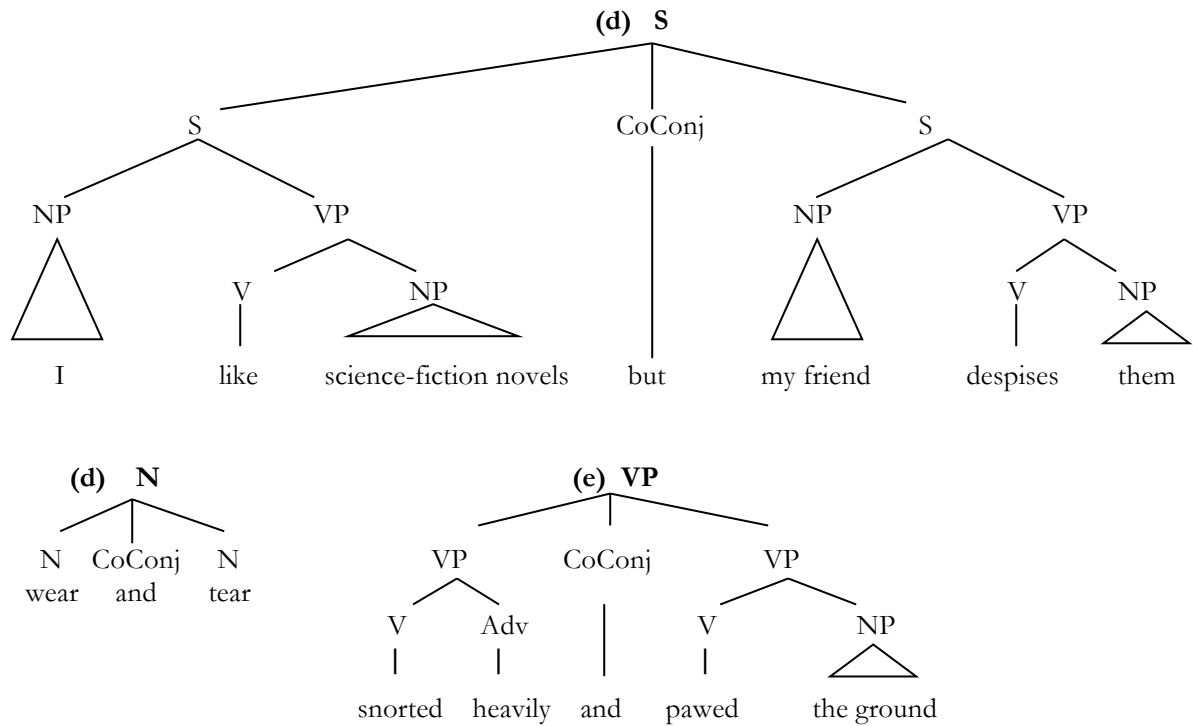## Answer 7.5
1. a. AdjP   b. NP   c. PP   d. S   e. N   f. VP
2. **Note:** In the following diagrams, we represent certain phrases by means of a triangle. This convention means that the internal constituency of the phrase in question is irrelevant for the point being made. In diagram (c) for example, what matters is that both *class* and *all tests* are NPs, not that the former contains a single noun and the latter a determiner followed by a noun. All tree diagrams can of course be drawn in full, without using this convention.

(a) AdjP
```
        ┌──────────┬──────────┐
      AdjP      CoConj       AdjP
        │         │        ┌──┴──┐
       Adj        │       Adv   Adj
        │         │        │     │
      moody      but      very reliable
```

(b) NP
```
        ┌──────────┬──────────┐
       NP        CoConj       NP
        │          │      ┌───┴────┐
       Pr          │     Det       N
        │          │      │        │
        me         or     my    secretary
```

(c) PP
```
         ┌─────────┬──────────┐
        PP       CoConj       PP
      ┌──┴──┐      │       ┌───┴───┐
      P    NP      │       P      NP
      │    △       │       │       △
      in  class   and    during  all tests
```

(d) S

(d) N

(e) VP

Answer 7.6
d, f.

Answer 7.7
Answers will vary, depending on the data. The purpose of this exercise is to make clear:
- whether N and/or Pr are legitimate NP heads cross-linguistically, regardless of word/morpheme order within the NP itself; and,
- whether N and Pr relate to each other in the same way as in English, cross-linguistically.

Answer 7.8
Rule in words: VP can have a V alone, or V followed by an optional AdvP. The V can also be followed by an AdjP, in turn followed by an optional AdvP.
Rule in rule notation: VP → V ({AdvP, AdjP (AdvP)})

Answer 7.9
c, d, f.

Answer 7.10
c, e.

Answer 7.11
1.   S → NP VP
        NP → {Det (Adj) N, Pr}
        VP → V NP
2.   a and c. Rationale for rejecting b and d: Both NPs in b, *Small children* and *chocolate ice-cream*, lack Det. In addition, *chocolate* is a noun. In d, *promising* is an adjective occurring on its own within the VP.

3.   S → NP VP
      NP → {(Det) (Adj) (N) N, Pr}
      VP → V {NP, AdjP}
      AdjP → Adj

Answer 7.12
a, d, e, h.

Answer 7.13

| 1. AdvP | 2. VP | 3. AdvP | 4. PP | 5. NP |
| 6. NP | 7. NP | 8. AdjP | 9. VP | 10. AdjP |

Answer 7.14
The underlined string contains four PPs. The issue is to decide whether there is a mother-daughter or sister relationship between them. The meaning of the sentence favours a mother-daughter interpretation: the log is in a hole, and the hole is at the bottom of the sea. So we have a single constituent. Substitution supports this analysis, cp. *The frog is there.*

Answer 7.15
b, c, e, g.

Answer 7.16
This is an impossible task. The rule doesn't say how many Adj are allowed, and the rule allows the combination of Adj* with any N, or Det, for example.
The purpose of this exercise is to highlight that grammatical rules describe structural types, not open-ended token uses of them.
Consider how the question might be reformulated, in order to be answerable. E.g. "Give examples of NPs that are generated by this rule".

Answer 7.17
d.

Answer 7.18
b, d, e.

Answer 7.19

(a) NP. *Noun* coordination would be exemplified in by *products and services* in a sentence like *I demand quality products and services*, where *quality* modifies both nouns.
(b) S   (c) PP   (d) S

Answer 7.20
1. The NP *kitchen spoons and brushes*: the word *kitchen* can modify either *spoons* or *spoons and brushes*.
2.
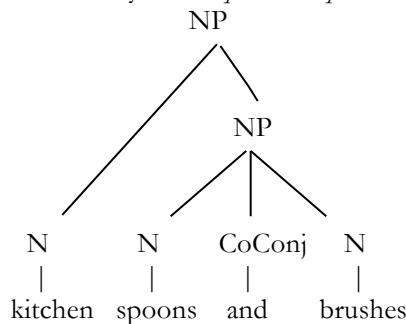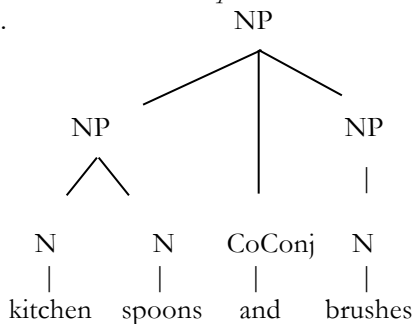
Answer 7.21

The purpose of this exercise is to make sure that you understand all the syntactic information which can be extracted from a 'tree-like' representation of structure. For example, the tree on p. 158 of the textbook, for the sentence *My neighbour loves Chinese opera* informs about:

- (a) constituency: Det and N are constituents of another constituent, a phrase;
- (b) word order: Det precedes N within that phrase; constituent order: noun phrase precedes verb phrase, in English sentences; and
- (c) syntactic hierarchy: (single) words are lower ranked than phrases, and phrases lower ranked than sentences.

These observations can be extended to representations of word structure, as in Chapter 4 of the textbook, to generalise the usefulness of tree diagrams in capturing linguistic structure.

Answer 7.22

In words: V is followed by either PP, AdjP or NP. NP can appear alone or followed by PP.
In rule notation: V {PP, AdjP, NP (PP)}

Answer 7.23

(a) The word sequence forms an NP.   (c) The word sequence forms a PP.

Answer 7.24

The syntactic norm tends to be for conjunctions to coordinate the same type of syntactic constituent, as shown in the coordination PS rule on p. 160 of the textbook: X → X CoConj X. In this email, the conjunction *and* coordinates two different types of syntactic constituent, a sentence *(that) the server load is exceptionally high*, and a noun phrase, *an increase in user activities*.

Answer 7.25

1. Strings (b), (d), (e) and (f) are grammatical.
2. Answers will vary. Grammatical strings include:
   AB, allowed by Rule 1; and,
   CDDDWY, allowed by all three rules, where A in Rule 1 is expanded as C (D*) according to Rule 2, and (B) in Rule 1 is expanded as WY according to Rule 3.
   Ungrammatical strings include:
   *BC, where constituent C, an expansion of A by Rule 2, follows B: Rule 1 states that A must precede B; and,
   *DDWY, where the obligatory constituent C of A, by Rule 2, is missing.

Answer 7.26

1. Adverb phrase / AdvP.
2. The substitution test explains the choice of label: the underlined constituent can be replaced by one of the words that make it up, either *well* or *loudly*. Both words are adverbs, which justifies the choice of label for the constituent.

Answer 7.27

1. For example, *interesting books on the syntax of this language*. Many other examples are possible.
2. The property is recursion. Recursive PS rules for this tree structure:
   NP → {Det, Adj} N (PP)
   PP → P NP

Answer 7.28

1. NP → Det (N) N
2. Any NP containing Adj or Pr, or not containing Det, defies the rule. Example sentences include: *I love you*, *Singapore has hot weather.*
3. Note the kinds of heads and modifiers which constitute an NP in different languages, then see whether/how it is possible to generalise a syntactic rule across languages.

Answer 7.29

1. The phrase *old men and women* is ambiguous; it can mean either 'old men and old women', or 'old men and women of any age' (cf. *women and old men*). Both tree diagrams can represent the structure of the phrase *old men and women*, depending on whether the Adjective *old* modifies *men and women* as in diagram (a), or only *men*, as in diagram (b).
2. The phrase *four-wheeled vehicles and pedestrians*, in contrast, is not ambiguous: it doesn't make sense to talk about **four-wheeled pedestrians*, so only diagram (b) accounts for its structure.

Answer 7.30

Rule 3 needs to be amended, because of sentence (c). This sentence contains a subordinate clause, *computer technology creates jobs*. The amended rule is VP ➔ V (NP) (S).

Chapter 8. The grammar of sentences: slots and functions

Answer 8.1
a, d, e.

Answer 8.2
a, c, d.

Answer 8.3
Answers will vary. Examples showing five syntactic uses of *leave* are:

She leaves/left happily.	intransitive
She leaves/left them happily.	(simple) transitive
She leaves/left them happy.	complex transitive
She leaves/left them some money.	ditransitive
She left happy.	link verb

Answer 8.4
1. The complement is *quite upsetting*. It is an object complement, because it describes the direct object.
2. Subject: *That little old lady with the dyed red hair*
   Verb: *found* Direct object: *the noisy teenagers in their skimpy tops and shorts*

Answer 8.5

Intransitive V	Link V	Simple Transitive V	Ditransitive V	Complex Transitive V
gargles	is	believes	ask	likes
	seems	owns	gives	makes
	smells			powders
	feel			

Answer 8.6
1. In Spanish, there is subject-verb agreement for all grammatical persons – at least for present tense verbal forms, according to the data. Agreement of person and number is independent, in that the verb shows different forms for each person both in the singular and the plural.
2. Subject constituents may be omitted in Spanish, in that each verbal form contains information about subject number and person. A Spanish sentence like e.g. *Quiero X* can only mean 'I want X.'

Answer 8.7
The data in a. and b. show that *injured* is a simple transitive verb. It requires a direct object NP like *his left knee*. The NP *this morning* in c. is an adjunct, not an object. The verb occurs without an object in c., resulting in an ill-formed sentence. Additional arguments showing that the NP *this morning* is not an object:
- The object NP can be passivised, the adjunct NP cannot. Compare: *his left knee was injured ~ *this morning was injured*
- The object and the adjunct NPs can co-occur, which shows their distinct syntactic functions. Compare: *The boy injured his left knee this morning. ~ This morning, the boy injured his left knee.*

Answer 8.8
Speaker B uses the verb *smell* as intransitive. Speaker A's reply uses it as a link verb.

Answer 8.9

In a., the adjective *red* is part of the NP *the red house*, and so it duly precedes the head noun *house*, according to the rule. The verb *painted* is simple transitive, with this NP as its direct object.

In b., *house* and *red* belong to two distinct phrases. The verb *painted* is complex transitive, with the NP *the house* as its direct object and the AdjP *red* as object complement. The NP *the house* contains no Adj, so the above rule doesn't apply to sentence b.

Answer 8.10

In meaning (a), *the young lady on the balcony* is a single constituent (NP). It is the direct object of the simple transitive verb *emailed*.

In meaning (b), the NP *the young lady* is the direct object, whereas the PP *on the balcony* is an adjunct.

This analysis is supported by passivisation. For meaning (a), the passive is *The young lady on the balcony was emailed by Romeo*, whereas for meaning (b) the passive is *The young lady was emailed by Romeo on the balcony*.

Answer 8.11

b, d, e.

Answer 8.12

Adverb is a word class, adjunct is a syntactic function.

Adverbs generally function as adjuncts, but not all adjuncts are adverbs. The data show PP, Adv, NP and S, respectively, as adjuncts. I.e. both single words and phrasal constituents can have adjunct function.

The data show only time adjuncts, enough for the argument. Chapter 8 in the textbook says that adjuncts typically answer questions like *How?, Where?, When?*, which all of us may remember from our school days as referring to "manner, place, and time".

Answer 8.13

1. There is no concord between Subject and Verb. Note that there is "concord" between Object and Verb in both cases, which is a feature of some languages.
2. Add / remove 3rd person singular verbal inflection, respectively.
3. Two pieces of evidence:
    - that grammatical features of Subject and Verb must agree;
    - that Object plays no role in concord, in English.
4. Make sure that the data for other languages really involve concord.
    Note that concord is explicit in English only where 3rd person singular Subjects are concerned, and that overt concord in English always concerns both person and number: it must be 3rd person *and* singular. A sentence like *These women love my neighbours' cats* tells you nothing about concord.

Answer 8.14

a, b, c.

Answer 8.15

(a) Tree B   (b) Tree A   (c) Tree A   (d) Neither
(e) In meaning A, *this morning* functions as <u>Adjunct of the verb *heard*</u> whereas in meaning B, it functions as <u>Adjunct of the verb *died.*</u>

Answer 8.16

a, d, f, g.

Answer 8.17

	V_{int}	V_{link}	V_t	V_{dit}	V_{cot}
1. I look a mess.		✔			
2. The children look tired.		✔			
3. Look here!	✔				
4. She drives me crazy.					✔
5. I drive the children every day.			✔		
6. She drives miles every day.			✔		
7. They bought her home.			✔		
8. They bought me tea.				✔	
9. We buy it fresh.					✔

Answer 8.18

a. intransitive   c. ditransitive   e. simple transitive   f. complex transitive

Answer 8.19

b, c, f, g.

Answer 8.20

Answer: (with ✔ for circling)
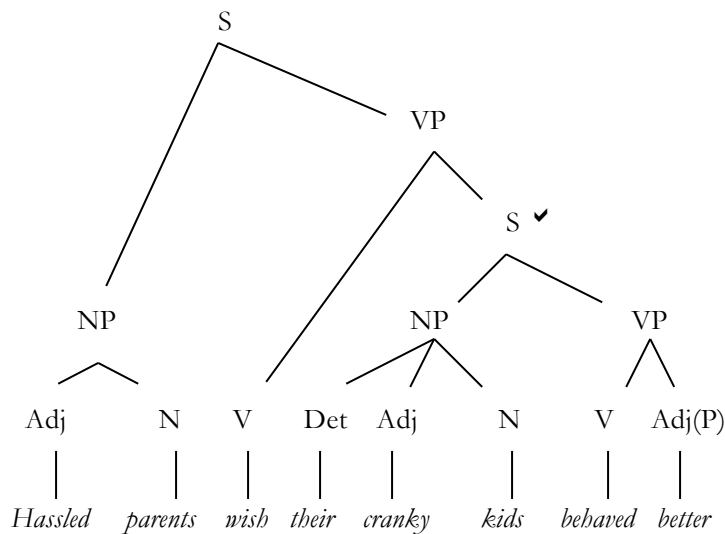
Answer 8.21

a. A   b. C   c. D

Answer 8.22

1. (a) Noun: *woman*. NP syntactic function: Subject.
    (b) Noun: *problem*. NP syntactic function: Subject.
    (c) Noun: *people*. NP syntactic function: Direct Object.
2. (a) *who* is the Subject of the relative clause. It can be replaced by e.g. *she*, in a main clause.
    (b) *that* is the Direct Object of the relative clause. The relative clause means 'He raised something', where *that* can replace *something*.
    (c) *who* is the Subject of the relative clause. It can be replaced by e.g. *they*, in a main clause.

Answer 8.23
1. See section 8.3.1 in the textbook.
2. See section 8.4 in the textbook, particularly pp. 179-180.
3. See sections 8.3.3 and 8.3.4 in the textbook.
4. (a) *is growing*: intransitive. The constituent *exceedingly slowly* is an adjunct.
   (b) *is growing*: link/copular. The constituent *exceedingly lazy* is subject complement, modifying the subject *Paul's puppy*.
   (c) *remains*: link/copular. The constituent *in New York* is subject complement, assigning a property (location) to the subject *Sharon's baby sister*.
   (d) *made*: ditransitive. The constituents *a cardigan* and *Shane's grandfather* are direct object and indirect object, respectively.
   (e) *made*: complex transitive. The constituent *my father* is direct object, and *president of the PTA* is an object complement, modifying it.

Answer 8.24
1. Japanese syntax shows the order Subject, (Direct) Object, Verb. Languages with the same functional syntactic pattern as Japanese are called SOV languages, whereas languages with similar syntax to English are called SVO languages.
2. I drink coffee: *Watashi wa kōhī o nomu.* I like tea: *Watashi wa ocha ga suki desu.*

Answer 8.25
a. D   b. D   c. E   d. C

Answer 8.26
1. Three NPs: *me*, *a glass of wine*, and *wine*.
2. One of the NPs, *wine*, is part of a PP included in the NP *a glass of wine*. The ditransitive verb *pour* patterns with two (NP) constituents, *me* and *a glass of wine*, which explains why the sentence is well-formed.

Answer 8.27
1. D   2. B   3. A   4. E   5. C

Answer 8.28
(a) Direct object (of *tell*);   (b) subject (of *improved*).

Answer 8.29
The verb die belongs to different syntactic subcategories in each sentence:
(a) intransitive: the verb forms a well-formed VP on its own;
(b) link: *a coward* is subject complement, modifying the subject *he*;
(c) the verb *die* seems to behave like a simple transitive verb here, compare a sentence like *It caused a peaceful death*, where *caused* is simple transitive. Nevertheless, passivisation doesn't seem to apply to it easily (in contrast to the verb *cause*): #**A peaceful death was died by him*. Other transitive verbs do not passivise in any straightforward way, one typical example being the verb *have*: compare *I had two cats* vs. **Two cats were had by me*.

Answer 8.30
True: 1, 2, 6.   False: 3, 4, 5, 7, 8.

Chapter 9. The meaning of meaning

Answer 9.1

The paraphrases will vary. Each of the suggestions below is among many possible. The important thing is that they make good sense and are not ambiguous themselves.

a. Paraphrase 1. That was a race with wild horses.
   Paraphrase 2. That horse race was wild.
   Structural ambiguity due to alternative parsing: [*wild horse*] [*race*] and [*wild*] [*horse race*].

b. Paraphrase 1. Money is something that matters.
   Paraphrase 2. Matters that have to do with money.
   Structural ambiguity due to alternative word classes of *matters* (V vs. N, respectively).
   In 1, *money matters* is a sentence/clause, where the NP *money* is the subject of the verb *matters*.
   In 2, *money matters* is an NP, where the first N *money* modifies the second (head) N *matters*.

c. Paraphrase 1. The meat is very unusual.
   Paraphrase 2. The meat is very lightly cooked.
   Lexical ambiguity due to different meanings of the word *rare*, which can be antonyms of *common* and of *well-done*, respectively, i.e. *rare* is a homonym.

d. Paraphrase 1. He sold the two cars that belonged to her.
   Paraphrase 2. He sold two cars to her.
   Structural ambiguity due to the different parsing/word classes of the word *her*, resulting from two different subcategories of the verb *sold*.
   In 1, *sold* is simple transitive and *her* is a Det in the direct object NP *her two cars*.
   In 2, *sold* is ditransitive and *her* is a Pronoun in an indirect object NP.

e. Paraphrase 1. The first piece of correspondence is missing.
   Paraphrase 2. The first symbol (in e.g. an alphabet or word) is missing.
   Lexical ambiguity due to different meanings of the word *letter*, which can be synonymous with *printed message* and *printed character*, respectively, i.e. *letter* is a polyseme.

f. Paraphrase 1. The BBC reported on Monday.
   Paraphrase 2. The prisoners are to be freed on Monday.
   Structural ambiguity due to the parsing of the PP *on Monday*. It can modify either the verb *reported* or the verb *to free*.

Answer 9.2

Statements b. and c. are true.

Answer 9.3

Only statement 1 is true.

Answer 9.4

1. (d)   2. (e)   3. (e)   4. (b)   5. (b)

Answer 9.5

It's impossible to identify the referents of the underlined words without seeing both the speaker and the vegetables he is referring to because the underlined words are spatial deictics, indicating proximity (*these*) or distance (*that, there*) in relation to the speaker. The customer may even be pointing at the vegetables, and it would help to see which vegetables are being pointed to.

Answer 9.6

1. c   2. a   3. h   4. b   5. e   6.c

Answer 9.7
Answers to part 2 may vary. Suggestions are:

    a. 1. *tree*   2. materials
    b. 1. *flood*   2. weather conditions
    c. 1. *cow*   2. male animals
    d. 1. *composer*   2. instrument players
    e. 1. *pavement*   2. urban arteries

Answer 9.8
Several reasons may be given, including any two among the following suggestions:

- Metaphorical use of *cool* and *hot*, where the physical sensations of coolness and heat are extended/transferred to the impression created by cities and jobs.
- Antonymy of the literal meanings of *cool* and *hot*.
- Synonymy of the figurative meanings of *cool* and *hot*, where both words are used to mean 'desirable' or 'fashionable'.
- Possible semantic paradox, where cool jobs are expected in cool cities and hot jobs in hot cities.

Answer 9.9
Sentence 4 does not provide a counterexample to the rule.

In 1, we are comparing degrees of intelligence, Sam's against Fred's. Sentence 2 shows that comparing degrees of 'singleness' is semantically odd. In short, while we can grade intelligence in order to compare its degrees, we cannot grade 'singleness'. This is why the Adj *intelligent* is gradable, whereas the Adj *single* is not.

In sentences 3 and 4 we are comparing intelligence with stupidity, and 'singleness' with 'marriedness', respectively. That is, we are not grading the adjectives themselves, but assessing them against their opposites. This is why both sentences are acceptable.

Answer 9.10
1. (a)   2. (c)   3. (c)   4. (b)

Answer 9.11
True: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5.   False: 6, 7, 8.

Answer 9.12
(a) D   (b) D   (c) C   (d) A   (e) B   (f) B

Answer 9.13
a. homophony   b. meronymy   e. synonymy

Answer 9.14
"Adult language learning" means language learning for/by adults, not learning of adult language.

But "foreign language learning" means learning of foreign language, not language learning for/by foreigners, although this latter meaning makes strict logical sense too: if you're learning a foreign language, you're a 'foreigner' to it. These interpretations have to do with collocation, i.e. habitual context, and with our commonsense knowledge about what these expressions mean, not with the lexical meanings of each word. Commonsense knowledge is discussed in Chapter 10 of the textbook.

Answer 9.15
Suggested paraphrases may vary. The important thing is that they are unambiguous. For example:

(a)   1. I wrote to my friend who comes from Japan.
            2. From Japan, I wrote to my friend.
            Reason. Structural ambiguity.

(b)   1. I wanted to see you, so I stayed in.
       2. I went out, but not with the purpose of seeing you.
       Reason. Alternative intonation.
(c)   1. She used a wheelbarrow to hit the man.
       2. She hit the man who was holding a wheelbarrow.
       Reason. Structural ambiguity.
(d)   1. (Passive of) The child found the puppy.
       2. The puppy was found near the child.
       Reason. Semantic ambiguity of 'by'.

Answer 9.16
True: 1, 2, 5.   False, 3, 4, 6, 7.

Answer 9.17
Meaning 2: Measure the speed of flies in the same way that you measure the speed of an arrow.
Meaning 3: Measure the speed of flies in the same way that an arrow measures the speed of flies.
Meaning 4: Measure the speed of flies that resemble an arrow.
Meaning 5: Flies of a particular kind, time-flies, are fond of an arrow.
The last one has the same interpretation as the now famous "fruit flies like a banana".
This activity highlights how human commonsense interpretations have little to do with (computer) logic, or vice-versa.

Answer 9.18
Answers will vary. The purpose of this exercise is to call attention to the different semantic fields which associate with words (*good* and *bad*, in this case) in context and out of context. It is likely that the semantic fields found for *good* and *bad* in the examples (including collocations, connotations of each word, their synonyms in each example) are not themselves antonymous. For example, 'not bad' and 'not good' in (c) and (h) may not be antonymous expressions, and the opposite of 'a bad mood' in (e) may not be 'a good mood' as in (j).

Answer 9.19
1. B, C   2. A, C, F   3. A   5. B, G

Answer 9.20
True: 3, 4, 5, 6, 7.   False: 1, 2.

Answer 9.21
Several answers are possible, for example:
- the spelling *right*/*write* (homophony);
- the semantics of *write* vs. *right*, cf. 'the writing course';
- the semantic ambiguity of *course*, which can mean 'track' or '(set of) lessons' (homonymy).

Answer 9.22
Practically every sentence in the excerpt contains a euphemism, all roughly signifying an 'end', or what (presumably) happens after something ends. Each euphemism draws on different associations with the concept of end/being dead: for example, 'meet its maker' draws on a religious analogy, and 'ring down the curtain' draws on historical stage-managing practices in the theatre. Consider also the appropriateness of each euphemism to different social settings.
The full parrot sketch can be viewed at http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=npjOSLCR2hE

Answer 9.23
True: 3, 5 6.   False: 1, 2, 4.

Answer 9.24

The goal here is to practise using paraphrase in the clear disambiguation of ambiguity, by making sure that the paraphrases are not ambiguous themselves. Example of unambiguous paraphrases are:

(a) 'He is a lawyer who deals with criminal law' and 'He is a lawyer who practises law in a criminal way'.

(b) 'It can be dangerous to hunt for husbands' and 'Husbands who are hunting can be dangerous'.

(c) 'I like ice-cream more than you do' and 'I like ice-cream more than I like you'.

Answer 9.25

☑   **C**. **1, 3 and 4**

Apply the test of contradiction to each, see how it helps find the entailments here:

Raphael is a small hippo, but Raphael is not small → no contradiction, because *small* is a relative term, and a small hippo is still a relatively large creature, compared to a mouse.

Raphael is a small hippo, but Raphael does not live in Africa → no contradiction, because nothing about the meaning of *small hippo* tells us where this particular hippo lives. Raphael could live in the Singapore zoo!

Negating statements 1, 3 and 4, and combining each with *Raphael is a small hippo* results in contradiction, given the dictionary meaning of *hippo*: "colloquial abbreviation for *hippopotamus*: Either of two species of mammal, which is found in rivers and lakes in certain parts of Africa, and having a thick hairless body, massive head, and short stout legs. Its enormous mouth contains large canine tusks which may be over 1.5m long." (*Times-Chambers*, 1995)

Answer 9.26

b, c.

Answer 9.27

1. *cell phone* (or *cellular phone*): *cell/cellular* refers to the different short-range radio stations ('cells') among which the phone user switches while moving around.
    mobile phone: emphasis is on the mobility that the phone affords, compared to a fixed-line phone or a cordless phone.
    handphone: this word may point to the phone being small enough to fit in your hand, to the phone being operated with your hands (though all phones typically are!), or with a single hand, or to the phone being steadily 'handy.'

2. Answers may vary. One reason to take all three words as synonymous is contained in the question that is asked: all three designate the same object.

Answer 9.28

2, 3, 5.

Answer 9.29

These terms are examples of pejoration, in that they have acquired extremely negative connotations over time.

Answer 9.30

The language play relies on the ambiguity of the word *long* to designate measures of both time and space. Whether the word *long* is a polyseme or a homonym, and whether metaphor is involved in its uses can be discussed with the aid of dictionaries. Other words are regularly used to refer to measures of time and/or space in different languages, e.g. words for *before/after, first/last*.

Chapter 10. Meaning in action

Answer 10.1
1. (e)   2. (d)   3. (c)   4. (f)   5. (b)   6. (a)

Answer 10.2
Option 4. Instead of answering Martha's question, Joe changes the subject, thus flouting the Maxim of Relevance, probably to avoid saying something negative about Martha's new hairstyle (and threatening her positive face needs).

Answer 10.3
Yes, we have an adjacency pair. Martin asks a Yes-No question, which functions as an invitation. Paul answers Martin's question with a *No*, which functions as a Rejection of Martin's Invitation.

Answer 10.4
Option b. In extending an invitation to Sally, Jenny seeks to make a connection with her, i.e. attempts to show solidarity. By rejecting Jenny's invitation, Sally threatens Jenny's positive face i.e. Jenny's desire to be accepted by Sally.

Answer 10.5
Option b. Your friend has no knowledge about when the Introductory Linguistics lecture begins, yet says it starts at 2 pm. The Maxim of Quality requires that you say only that for which you have good evidence (i.e. speak the truth).

Answer 10.6
Only statements 2 and 8 are true.

Answer 10.7
The student issues a directive in its bald form, i.e. as an imperative, albeit containing the politeness formula *please*. Ordinarily, only superiors have the social right to issue directives to inferiors. Since professors typically have higher status than their students in terms of social roles, this imperative from student to professor therefore constitutes a face threatening act. A more polite option would have been to use an indirect speech act, giving the addressee options, e.g. *Would you please take it a look at it, when you have a moment?*

Answer 10.8
Option (5) is the most likely to be dispreferred because it represents a gratuitous insult. In comparison, (1) at least offers an apology before expressing an implied negative assessment of Sue's new look. Option (2) attempts to be diplomatic by using a value-neutral term (*different*). Option (4) expresses understanding (addressing Sue's positive face needs) eschewing judgment on Sue's new look, while (3) is likely to be the most preferred since it expresses a positive evaluation of Sue's new look, thereby meeting her positive face needs.

Answer 10.9
This activity is meant to highlight the importance of situational context in the interpretation of meaning.

(1) If you wish to ride the escalator and have a dog with you, you must carry your dog.
(2) If you wish to enter this site, you must wear a safety helmet.

Notice that (1) does not mean *If you don't have a dog, you cannot ride the escalator*, whereas (2) does mean *If you are not wearing a safety helmet, you cannot enter this site.*

Answer 10.10

Maxim of Quantity (be appropriately informative). Barring decapitation, human heads are always found above human shoulders. By stating the obvious, the witness provides no new information appropriate to the purpose at hand.

Answer 10.11

a, c, f, g, h.

Answer 10.12

(a) expressive;   (b) representative

Answer 10.13

(i) Relevance   (ii) Quantity   (iii) Manner   (iv) Manner   (v) a.   (vi) a.

Answer 10.14

The Maxim of Manner (be precise and orderly). This Question-Answer joke only makes sense because the Question is ambiguously phrased: Most people would interpret it to mean "What label would you assign to a crow with a machine gun?", when the intended meaning, as the punchline makes clear is "What term of address would you use when talking to a crow with a machine gun?"

Answer 10.15

1. F   2. A   3. C   4. E   5. D

Answer 10.16

Note: Jo's face issues arising from Kim's or Jo's utterances are *not* in question here, unless you wish to attend to this too.

Suggested ranking, from most to least preferred:

(b) *Could we stay home tonight?* complies with Kim's positive face needs (Kim's utterance requests togetherness) through the use of the plural pronoun *we* as well as negative face needs through the use of a question (i.e. of a syntactic choice), which gives options to the interlocutor.

(c) *I would love to stay home tonight* appeals to Kim's positive face needs only. Jo uses *I* (not *we*), which may appear to threaten these needs, but which is softened by the modal *would* and the appeal to what would give Jo pleasure (*love*). Jo's utterance means something like 'I appeal to you to make me happy by allowing me what I would love to do, which is to stay home tonight'.

(a) *I want to stay home tonight* threatens Kim's positive face through choice of words (*I, want*), which disrupt Kim's proposed togetherness/commonality of interests. Something like: 'You want X, but I want Y.'

Other/additional suggestions are possible.

Answer 10.17

1a. is a representative, describing something that the speaker believes to be the case.

1b. could be a representative, for the same reason, but 'looks' more like an expressive: the speaker is not so much describing a state of affairs as "expressing" a feeling.

2a. is a verdictive. The speaker is making an assessment or judgement of value. We can always respond to 2a. with something like "What do you mean, 'brilliant'?"

2b. is a verdictive, for the same reason, although this time the speaker is assessing her own ability (not someone else's) as a mathematician.

Other/additional suggestions are possible, particularly when dealing with statements about oneself, that is to say, when you 'evaluate' yourself, are you really 'evaluating' or 'expressing'?

The point here is to provide sensible arguments for your own interpretations.

Answer 10.18

It's organised in terms of two Question-Answer adjacency pairs.

Answer 10.19

The Maxim of Quantity (be appropriately informative). The second sentence, *A Barbary horse is a type of horse*, states the obvious, providing no new information, given that headed compounds are a generally a type of their rightmost stem.

Answer 10.20
Directive.

Answer 10.21
In terms of locution, the visitor's utterance is a question. In terms of illocution, questions represent Directive speech acts, seeking information. The visitor's question might be paraphrased: How many people are employed here? The manager flouts Grice's Maxim of Manner (be perspicuous) by interpreting the verb "work" according to its strict dictionary definition of 'directing physical or mental effort towards the accomplishment of something', generating the conversational implicature that roughly 50% of his employees are slackers. Depending on intonation, the manager's response could be read as rapport-building humour or a veiled complaint.

Answer 10.22
The KISS acronym highlights two adjectives. "Keep it *short*" echoes Grice's Maxim of Quantity (be brief: don't say more or less than needed for the purpose at hand), while "Keep it *simple*" encompasses Grice's Maxim of Manner (be perspicuous), and possibly Relevance, since irrelevant material tends to complicate things unnecessarily, increasing the cognitive burden on one's audience.

Answer 10.23
Grice's Maxims, although first articulated as an analytical tool for describing how people communicate, can be used also as a productive tool for effective communication, e.g.

- The maxim of Relevance (stay on topic) requires one to be clear about communicative purpose so that only relevant information is provided.
- The maxim of Quantity (be brief) represents sound advice for most communicative situations in a world of many distractions and dwindling attention spans.
- The maxim of Manner (be perspicuous and orderly) accords with the Law of Least Effort – most audiences will give up if the cognitive burden placed on them gets too heavy.
- The maxim of Quality (tell the truth) is central to building credibility with one's audience.

Answer 10.24
Mixed, or heterogeneous audiences are extremely challenging to engage, given potentially conflicting agendas. The first group represents a 'friendly' audience in that they already enjoy your hobby, and this shared interest may predispose them to like and accept you, as a fellow member of a hobby-based community. The second (extremely sceptical) group represents the other end of the spectrum. To diffuse their 'hostility', you'll need to pay particular attention to the Maxim of Quality (don't exaggerate, lie or say anything you cannot substantiate) as you seek to build rapport by projecting a trustworthy persona.

Answer 10.25
a, b, and f represent Question-Answer adjacency pairs.

Answer 10.26
Representative: *irene* asserts that she has been paid to kill the addressee.
Directive: *irene* uses the performative verb *advise*.
Directive: threat or ultimatum, as signalled by the expression *you better contact me....*
Representative: *irene* asserts that she has been watching the addressee's house.
Directive: *irene* wants the addressee to take note that she knows the former's every move.

Most 419 scam emails attempt to build rapport with recipients in order to entice them into contacting the sender. This email uses the opposite strategy of bullying or intimidating the recipient. Scare tactics destroy rather than enhance solidarity, thereby threatening addressees' positive face needs. The email also threatens addressees' negative face needs by not giving them an option, e.g. issuing directives as bald imperatives rather than polite requests or yes/no questions.

Answer 10.27

Exchange 1: Maxim of Quantity (be brief). Instead of engaging in a detailed blow-by-blow account of his interview, Mathew provides just the headlines.

Exchange 2: Maxim of Relevance (stay on topic). The discourse signal "by the way" clearly marks what follows as being incidental to the topic at hand (ordering a meal).

Answer 10.28

The supervisor flouts Grice's Maxim of Manner (be perspicuous) in that he doesn't answer the supervisee's yes/no question directly. Instead, he leaves it to the supervisee to infer the "yes" from his response. Our guess is that he does so in order to maintain solidarity with his supervisee. To answer yes to the supervisee's question would mean disagreeing openly with her, and threatening her positive face needs.

Answer 10.29

1. Locution: the utterance is a yes/no question. Illocution: you want to avoid freezing in the fiercely air-conditioned room. Perlocution: you want the window open.
2. Negative politeness strategy: Indirect speech acts are one way to mitigate face threat. In this case, formulating a Directive in the form of a question rather than a bald imperative minimises imposition on your addressees by giving them the option to say no.

    Positive politeness strategy: Using the inclusive pronoun "we" creates commonality of purpose, enhancing solidarity with your addressees, and thereby attending to their positive face needs.

Answer 10.30

We would rank the utterances in descending order of politeness as follows: (c), (f), (d), (b), (e), (a), *Should we open the window?* Here's why! Directives are speech acts in which the speaker wants the addressee to do something, thereby potentially threatening addressees' negative face needs ('don't impose on me'). A bald Directive would be phrased as an imperative, as in (a). Utterance (e) adds a negative politeness strategy — the politeness formula 'please'. The remaining five utterances use indirect speech acts to manage face threat. Utterance (b) softens the Directive into an Expressive (*I think…*), while (d), (f) and *Should we open the window?* use yes/no questions. The problem with (b) and (d) is that they make it difficult for the addressee to disagree without appearing impolite. In contrast, utterances (f) and *Should we open the window?* are the most polite since they not only give addressees the option of saying no, but also attend to addressees' positive face needs through the solidarity-building inclusive pronoun *we*.

Chapter 11. Language in use

Answer 11.1
"The Crooked Song" seems to be an apt choice of title, since the word "crooked" appears in every clause and line of this song. In other words, the lexical cohesion in this text results primarily from the repeated word *crooked*, which accounts for seven of the 22 lexical words in the rhyme.

Answer 11.2
Only 1 and 7 are true.

Answer 11.3
Given Grice's Cooperative Principle and the maxim of relevance, in particular, most people would probably interpret B's utterance as implicitly answering A's question to mean 'No you won't see me tomorrow for lunch because my grandmother broke her leg and I need to tend to her so I can't go out'.

Answer 11.4
Matching relations can be captured in terms of patterns of constants and variables. In sentence (1), we have matching contrast, meaning one element remains constant (*guns*), while the other elements vary, taking on opposite valencies, as shown below:

	Americans	*love*	*guns.*
In contrast,	*Canadians*	*loathe*	*them.*
Constant	Nationality	feeling towards	guns
Variable	+US/-US	+love/-love	—

Sentence (2) is odd because Democrats and Americans are not mutually exclusive categories. To create a coherent contrast, we could contrast Democrats and non-Democrats, e.g. *Republicans love guns. In contrast, Democrats loathe them:*

	Republicans	*love*	*guns.*
In contrast,	*Democrats*	*loathe*	*them.*
Constant	Political parties	feeling towards	guns
Variable	±Democrats	+love/-love	—

Sentence (3) is odd, similarly, because Americans and mothers are not mutually exclusive categories. To create a coherent text, we could contrast mothers and non-mothers, e.g. *Fathers love guns. In contrast, mothers loathe them:*

	fathers	*love*	*guns.*
In contrast,	*mothers*	*loathe*	*them.*
Constant	Parents	feeling towards	guns
Variable	+male/-male	+love/-love	—

Answer 11.5
Topic precedes comment in each of the sentences, indicated below as topic / comment:

(1) *The productivity of compounding / is borne out by the frequency with which so-called long compounds are formed.*
(2) *Long compounds / are expressions formed by successive compounding of other compounds.*
(3) *This kind of compounding / is an example of recursion.*

Answer 11.6
1. B   2. F   3. D   4. C   5. B   6. E

Answer 11.7

Sentence (1) seems more coherent than (2) because the conjunctions *while* and *and* signal different clause relations. In sentence (2), the conjunction *and* coordinates two activities (cooking, showering) which have little in common. Compare *David cooked and I washed the dishes*, where *and* conjoins activities that go hand-in hand, resulting in a matching (compatibility) relation. Unlike the CoConj *and*, the SubConj *while* signals simultaneous action (compatibility not required).

Answer 11.8

We tend to condense or delete given information. The adjunct NP *this afternoon* can be deleted from the utterance since it represents given information. Afternoon showers are showers that occur in the afternoon!

Answer 11.9

Sequential clause relation, both temporal and causal.

Answer 11.10

(a) For this exchange to be perceived as coherent, you would need to identify the conceptual relationship between Chris's and Sam's utterances, turning to the situational context for clues. For example, if Sam were wearing new clothes, then using Grice's Cooperative Principle and the maxim of relevance, in particular, we might interpret Sam's utterance as a response to Chris's question rather than as a random utterance. The implication generated is that Chris is absent-minded, for having failed to notice Sam's new clothes.
(b) There are no lexical or grammatical cohesive devices linking the two utterances, for example, no repetition or collocation, no co-referential proforms or conjunctions.

Answer 11.11

Popular daily horoscopes often feature a kind of one-size-fits-all discourse, designed to resonate among as wide an audience as possible. The use of cohesive devices between sentences, besides simple coordination with *and*, is typically sparse or non-existent, in order to allow different individuals to provide cohesion according to their personal readings of possible connections between the sentences. For example, the relevance of statement (B2) to statement (B1) receives quite different interpretations depending on whether we read a causal ('because') or contrastive ('nevertheless') relationship between them. Virtually all 10 sentences above, or a selection of them, can be permuted in all combinations, to yield as many 'individual' horoscopes.

Answer 11.12

Only 4 and 5 are true.

Answer 11.13

1. Answers will vary, depending on how you interpret the noun phrase *white promotion,* in terms of its denotation, connotation, literal and metaphorical meanings, e.g. *white* could mean a racial grouping or a team's colours. Similarly, *promotion* could refer to (career) advancement or advertising.
2. In case you are not one yourself, chess players among your friends may be willing to explain what a (black/white) promotion means in the context of the game, where a pawn (a 'lowly' piece) is played so as to acquire the status of a 'higher' piece of the same colour, usually the queen.

Think about how our interpretation of utterances in and out of context can differ.

Answer 11.14

The first four lines are coherent, forming two sets of antonymous pairs. The action *went to market* contrasts with *stayed at home*. Similarly, *had roast beef* contrasts with *had none*. The odd-one-out seems to be the last little piggy.

Answer 11.15

The use of syntactic devices like the conjunctions *however* and *hence* in this text may or may not strike readers as achieving cohesiveness. The use of *hence* suggests a cause-effect clause relation between providing documentary proof of illness in the form of a medical certificate and being entitled to attend a make-up lesson. The conjunction *however* seems slightly odd, since it signals a contrastive relationship, when a compatibility relationship would be what's expected (*I missed my Tutorial 6 because of illness. And, I have a medical certificate to prove it.)* This exercises also raises interesting possibilities in terms of register/stylistic analysis. Are emails more akin to speech or writing? The conjunctions *However* and *Hence* are part of the formal written register of English, and may sound stilted in a student-teacher email exchange, where the spoken/informal conjunctions *and, but* or *so* would perhaps be less 'marked'/atypical.

Answer 11.16

1. The words *Bio* (clipping of Biology), *English* and *Maths* (clipping of Mathematics) are all hyponyms of "school subjects". This suggests a context in which a student may be checking a schoolbag before leaving for school or ticking off completed homework in readiness for the day's classes. Other interpretations are obviously possible.
2. Intonation organises discourse, by signposting it for the listener: rises signal continuity (the utterance is not finished yet) and falls signal completion (the utterance has reached its end).

Answer 11.17

Both Chris and Sam repeat given information in turns (2)-(4), which is usually recapped through proforms or simply omitted. A dialogue where participants take into consideration shared information might be:

> Sam: Would you like a cup of tea?
> Chris: Yes, please.
> Sam: Black or green?
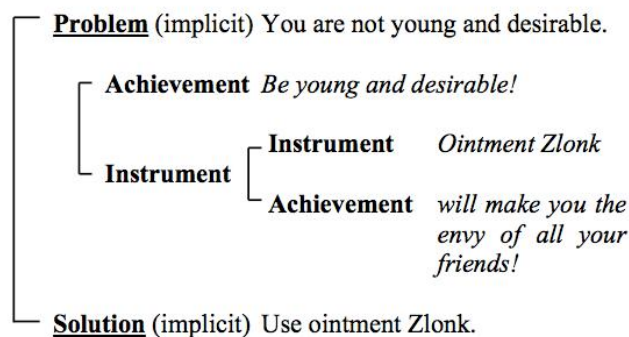> Chris: Black would be great.

You may find the dialogue, as presented in the question, appropriate to polite formal exchanges. Informal style tends to favour abbreviations and contractions because we share a lot more contextual information with close friends and family. In contrast, formal style reflects more 'careful' speech, used with people we don't know so well, on whom we wish to make a good impression.

Answer 11.18

We need to understand how people behave under pressure, say by consuming an entire box of chocolates when they're having a hard day. Ben could have answered Jane's question directly, but he chooses the indirect route. By stating that he had a hard day, Ben leaves it to Jane to recover the missing information, along the lines of "I had a hard day, okay? And I ate them all, in a fit of frustration/depression/exhaustion."

Answer 11.19

Answers may vary. The point of this exercise is to have you argue for your analysis, based on the discourse patterns that you find illuminating in understanding the ad. One suggestion uses discourse patterns (a) and (c), and is given here in graphic format:

> **Problem** (implicit) You are not young and desirable.
>   **Achievement** *Be young and desirable!*
>   **Instrument**
>   **Instrument**   *Ointment Zlonk*
>   **Achievement**   *will make you the envy of all your friends!*
> **Solution** (implicit) Use ointment Zlonk.

Answer 11.20

1. In both utterances, topic and comment map onto given information and new information, respectively. In (a), the given information and topic (what the speaker wishes to talk about) is the cat, while the comment reveals the new information that it died. In contrast, in (b), the given information and topic is the event of dying, and the comment or new information reveals who or what died (the cat).
2. Utterance (a) would be preferable in contexts where the cat was a regular 'topic' of conversation, for example due to illness, and its death comes as news. Utterance (b) is preferable where (unpleasant and/or unexpected) events may have been part of recent information exchanges, and the speaker wishes to announce the cat's turn in being part of those events.

Answer 11.21

The example dialogue is adapted from research on machine interpretation and production of human language uses. Interlocutor A is human, interlocutor B is a computer. The computer is programmed to learn from cues in the language uses of its conversational partners (who may not know they are talking to a machine) in different ways that may suggest cohesiveness, for example:

❖ by repeating and modifying linguistic material, e.g. *wide web* in (1) and (2), *listen/I'm listening* in (7) and (8);
❖ by ending its turns with questions, so as to prompt its listener to feed it more information from which it may be able to go on learning about human language uses; and,
❖ by using prior knowledge, e.g. that 'webs are flexible' to introduce hints in the dialogue by means of a cohesive device like the conjunction *because*.

The computer clearly doesn't know what the 'world wide web' is. Its human partner uses synonymy, *world wide web/internet/WWW* in (1) and (3), and a clause relation of contrast introduced by *but* in (5), and also ends all turns except turn (5) with questions. These attempts at shaping a coherent dialogue, as well as the (presumed) attempt at sarcasm in (5), are lost on the machine.

You may want to do some research on this matter: the overall results of programming computers to engage in meaningful dialogue have so far been mixed, for reasons to do with both knowledge of the world and knowledge of what constitutes meaningful dialogue.

Answer 11.22

There's lots to be said here. You may observe, for example, that Text A feels more spoken than Text B. That's because although both texts describe the same events, they package or structure the content differently. Text A uses the simple coordination characteristic of informal conversation. The CoConj *and* conveys both temporal and sequential clause relations. In contrast, Text B favours the kind of subordination more commonly found in scripted speech or writing, using specific conjunctions like *when/before* for time and the proform *That* to indicate the cause of expressed happiness.
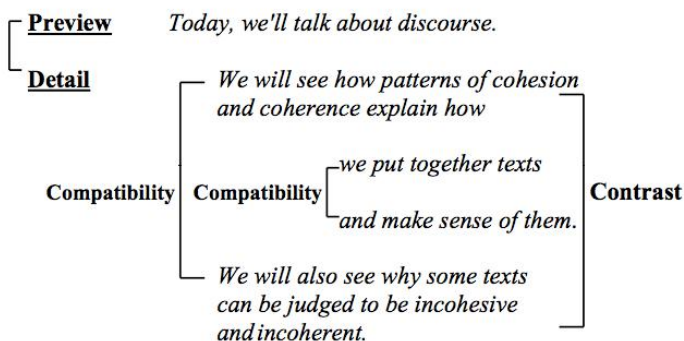
Answer 11.23

True: 1, 3, 4.   False: 2, 5, 6.

Answer 11.24

Text 1 describes a set of events that stand in a matching relationship, in that pebbles, crab holes and seashells are all objects that one might find in the same situational context, like a walk along the beach. In Text 2, this expectation is overturned in that the last item in the list of three, the square root of 142, 884, has no conceivable relationship to the first two items. Consequently, Text 2 feels incoherent.

Answer 11.25

Preview-Detail discourse patterns and clause relations of compatibility and contrast explain the organisation of the text. Schematically:

Answer 11.26

Kinds of world knowledge needed include knowledge of situational context. The text makes sense if we interpret "tablets" in a medical or pharmaceutical context, as meaning 'medicine that needs to be taken in tablet form'. The text contains no VP, i.e. no hint of what to do with the tablets, or what they are to be used for. It's only prior experience with tablets in their medicinal sense that lets us know that the tablets are to be ingested either whole or dissolved in a liquid, which the text doesn't make clear either. The phrase *twice daily* also assumes knowledge that medicine is to be taken at regular intervals. Literally, there is no reason not to take two tablets at, say, 9:00 a.m. and two more at 9:01 a.m. on the same day, which also 'means' *twice daily*. Finally, *until finished* assumes knowledge that the *tablets* are to be finished, and that they are to be finished by taking them in the prescribed manner, i.e. that the course of medication must be finished.

Answer 11.27

The text is cohesive, as a result of lexical repetition, e.g. *sisters...sister, relationship...relationships, water...water, fun..fun..f-u-n*. But, it is not coherent, as there are no clear conceptual relationships (i.e. matching or sequential clause relations) linking the parts of the text into a meaningful whole. Instead, the text is formed by converting the Comment of each sentence into the Topic of the next sentence, resulting in a phenomenon known as 'topic drift'. Note that it is impossible to answer the question, "What is this text about?", since the opening sentence sets up an expectation that this might be a text about family (specifically, sisterly) relationships, which is not fulfilled as the text proceeds.

Answer 11.28

1. The subscripts highlight the different referents of the proform *they*: monkeys in (a) and bananas in (b).
2. This example demonstrates the problem of 'hanging' proforms, whose referent/antecedent we can't retrieve from the co-text. Instead, we have to turn to our knowledge of the world to select the right reference from among the available choices, in order to parse the sentence correctly.

Answer 11.29

Answers will vary. Suggestions:
1. We had planned a family outing for Saturday, *and* we prepared mounds of sandwiches, cakes, fruit and drinks, *but* we couldn't make it in the end *because* it just started pouring with rain early in the morning, *so* we had a picnic in our living-room.
2. Two examples:
   (e) We had a picnic in our living-room, *although* (a) we had planned a family outing for Saturday *for which* (b) we prepared mounds of sandwiches, cakes, fruit and drinks. (d) It just started pouring with rain early in the morning, *that's why* (c) we couldn't make it in the end.

(d) It just started pouring with rain early in the morning, *when* (b) we prepared mounds of sandwiches, cakes, fruit and drinks *because* (a) we had planned a family outing for Saturday, *so* (c) we couldn't make it in the end *and* (e) we had a picnic in our living-room.

3. Subtle differences in meaning may arise. For example, the timing of the food preparation may be interpreted in two different ways in the two examples given above.

Answer 11.30

The two sentences are extremely long at 89 and 49 words each, with information packed very densely at both phrasal and clausal levels. Phrases contain multiple pre- and post-modifiers, as in this NP which contains five AdjPs, *any incidental, indirect, special, exemplary or consequential damages*, identifying the types of damages which the company is not liable for. Each adjective represents technical terminology, or legal jargon, whose specialised meaning would be comprehensible only to legal professionals. Similarly, the sentences contain an accretion of clauses that are subordinated, coordinated and embedded six layers deep:

We will not be liable for any (a), (b), (c), (d) or (e) damages,
    including but not limited to (f), (g), (h), (i), or (j), damages
        arising from use of or inability to use the company's services or other products or services, or cost of
        replacement goods or services, whether foreseeable or unforeseeable,
            that may arise out of or in connection with the company's services, products, services or otherwise
                relating to the subject matter of this agreement, regardless of theory of liability,
                    even if such damages were foreseeable.

Chapter 12. Language and speakers

Answer 12.1

a. We can think of linguistics as we think of music theory. Just like you can study music without knowing how to play any particular musical instrument, you can study language without speaking no more than one language. (Note: In some varieties of English, the word *linguist* does mean a polyglot.)

b. Consider the difference between 'knowing how' to use a language and 'knowing about' what specialists posit as its structure. 'Knowledge of language' is often used ambiguously in this way.

c. There are, of course, no languages with "no grammar" or with "too much grammar". Certain languages may be easier to learn for speakers whose other language(s) belong in the same language family, although learners also report more confusion between similar languages. What is additionally interesting in this German speaker's comment is that the complaint about "too much grammar" is also expressed by English speakers learning German!

Answer 12.2

1. There can be several different missing words in each utterance. So, many different suggestions for complete sentences are possible here. For example, *Is the doggie eating?* or *What do doggies eat?* for (a), and *Can I see this watch?* or *Do you want me to see the watch?* for (e).

2. See whether you found any differences between the type of words that are in the data and the type of words that are missing. The data show utterances with lexical words only. Most of the missing words are grammatical words, or grammatical morphemes, that therefore appear to be omitted as a class.

3. Grammatical words bind lexical referents together. Most of the utterances in the data can be ambiguous without this 'glue', as suggested in (1) above. You can generalise your analysis to highlight:
   - the relative importance of lexical vs. grammatical words in efficient communication;
   - the later acquisition of grammatical words relative to lexical words in child and adult language learning.

   Note also that these utterances can generally be disambiguated in context: the speakers point to their referents, or use other telling body language. The fact remains that context is playing the role of a specific class of words.

4. SMS does tend to use lexical words only. The context that may clarify their meanings is often given by the shared assumptions and expectations of the sender and receiver about SMS-bound referents.

Answer 12.3

The child is clearly familiar with dogs, since he knows the word 'dog'. It is likely that he associated the furry appearance of dogs with the furry appearance of his relative wearing the coat, and used a familiar word to describe what he saw.

Answer 12.4

The purpose of this exercise is to highlight that speakers of a language will interpret language uses according to their own uses of the language, which may or may not match the uses of other speakers of the same language. Answers may include observations like:
- My reaction would depend on the intonation used, i.e. intonation plays an integral role in interpreting the meaning of an utterance;
- My reaction would depend on my non-native friend's level of proficiency in English – let's compare the connotation of 'idiot' with words like *imbecile, blockhead, moron* and *fool*;
- My reaction would depend on how close I am to my non-native friend;
- I wouldn't be offended, but someone else might.

Answer 12.5

1. There may be a clear difference in these uses because of the structure of the headed compounds in each of the labels. In (a), Sam is an American, whereas in (b) Sam is a Turk.
2. Answers will vary, depending on whether Sam wants to be 'an American' or 'a Turk'.
3. Answers will vary, depending on whether native citizens want to have foreign citizens identified by the same labels as themselves.

Try to explain how your views about the connotations of nationality labels may depend on your perspective as a 'native' or a 'non-native'.

Answer 12.6

1. Yes. The words *maluating* and *maluated* show a typical feature of creoles: the lexical part of the words is from one language (Malay) and the grammatical inflections are from another (English).
2. No, no more than English speakers are 'speaking a creole' when they say e.g. "I'll order two *pizzas* for dinner", with an Italian lexical borrowing (see page 255 in the textbook). Likewise, sentences (a) and (b) are English sentences with a Malay lexical borrowing.

Answer 12.7

It is relevant: the child is using 'bbbbb' as a verb, in the appropriate slot in his sentence, and is thus showing evidence of syntactic proficiency. We often tend to disregard child learning strategies of this kind, in the belief that languages are commensurate with the descriptions of them that are found in traditional dictionaries and grammar books.

Answer 12.8

This is an issue that involves identity. The desirability of a favoured status provided by the use of high-prestige varieties may not be strong enough to override our need to be identified as (linguistic) members of "our" groups. Similar identity issues may arise among language learners concerning adoption or rejection of accents/linguistic habits in a new language.

Answer 12.9

The purpose of this exercise is twofold. First, to raise awareness of possibly 'loaded' connotations of idiomatic and language-specific uses of language across languages. Second, to underscore that speaking a foreign language competently means being aware not only of its linguistic units and their accepted uses, but also of the cultural associations that emerge from these uses.

Answer 12.10

By the late 18th century, the concept of 'nation' was emerging, to signify community of historical and cultural patrimony among groups of individuals. This patrimony found consolidation in the adoption of a unifying language for each young nation. Nevertheless, 'national languages' today reflect the cultural diversity of a country as little as they did in Samuel Johnson's time. Conversely, trans-national (or 'global') languages reflect patrimonies beyond any national boundaries.

Answer 12.11

The number of words that we count in the data depends on our assumptions about what constitutes a (child) word. If we count one meaning per word, then the child has 10 words at this developmental stage, 9 from (a) and 1 from (b). If we analyse e.g. *quack, clock* and *whack* as 'the same' onomatopoeic word, then we'll count fewer items in the child's vocabulary. Typical child productions like these raise difficulties for our assessment of children's acquisition of vocabulary at different developmental stages. Similar difficulties with counting words in vocabularies arise in adult language, for example from issues related to polysemy vs. homonymy.

Answer 12.12

Language mixes are popularly attributed to 'faulty' or 'partial' command of languages, and these qualifiers are then informally subsumed under the label *semi-*. Since multilinguals make differential use of their languages, they will have *differential* competence in each of their languages, not 'more or less' competence. In addition, the term 'partial' evokes its antonym 'total', and we may wonder what 'total command' of a language means, including for monolinguals. The term *semilingualism* emerged as the name of a clinical condition affecting *language*, regardless of the number of languages involved: monolinguals were diagnosed as 'semilinguals' too, although the usefulness of this term as a technical term is nowadays shunned, on account of its demeaning connotations.

Answer 12.13

Overgeneralisation explains the use in (b), where the child uses the adult word *fork* to refer to a wider range of meanings. The child's use in (a) shows the opposite, a more restricted use of meanings for a word than the typical meanings associated with the adult word. The technical term for child uses such as the ones in (a) is *undergeneralisation*, or *underextension*.

Answer 12.14

Text 1 shows Broca's aphasia: individual words make semantic sense, but there is no grammar to speak of, to hold the words together.

Text 2 shows Wernicke's aphasia: words and phrases make no sense, or little sense, but grammatical structure is largely intact.

Answer 12.15

Like many questions expressing similar worries, this one also draws on assumptions, beliefs and/or misunderstanding of published research. There is no reliable evidence that the human brain is programmed to favour a specific time-span concerning language learning: this relates to the controversy about one or several 'critical periods', discussed in section 12.4 of the textbook. In addition, the question confuses learning language with learning "language concepts" – concepts that linguists use to describe language are not part of human language; they are part of the scientific discipline that studies language. Very young children learn and use their languages without knowing anything about "language concepts".

Answer 12.16

Both questions raise controversial issues in our current understanding of the relationship between language, thought and reality, as in the title of Whorf's book. It seems clear that we need *language* to think about and analyse the world around us, but whether we do this through particular *languages* is moot. Mathematical thought, for example, involves language ('the language of mathematics', as it were) which is not necessarily associated with particular languages.

Multilinguals may report differences in thinking about the same events in different languages, similar to the ones discussed in section 2.2 of the textbook.

Answer 12.17

The purpose of this exercise is twofold: to practice asking research questions about given data, and to decide, through the answers that they provide, whether the questions are indeed relevant for our purposes.

1. Suggested questions might be, for example:
   a) What do child A's data tell us about sounds that children find difficult to pronounce?
   b) Are child B's data also evidence of difficulties with pronunciation? Why?
   c) What do child A's data show about production vs. perception of sounds?
2. a) The sound represented by the letter 'r' is difficult to pronounce: child A replaces it with an easier sound, represented by the letter 'w'.
   b) Child B appears to be 'teasing' his brother by imitating his pronunciation. This shows that child B knows the difference between 'r' and 'w' pronunciations of the given words – and that he is probably able to pronounce 'r'.
   c) Child A's last turn shows that he perceives the difference between 'r' and 'w' pronunciations, although he is unable to pronounce the former. The data support the claim that children's production of language tends to lag behind perception of target adult forms.

Answer 12.18

1. The use of one word for the other in cross-linguistic communication is widely attested, with effects ranging from mild amusement to serious diplomatic bungles. Speakers of the one language who assume that 'the same' word will mean something similar in the other language are thinking analogically, using evidence of other 'same' words that may share meanings across those languages, like *action/action*, *rationally/rationellt* or *frustrated/frustrado*, respectively.
2. The label does seem apt. Like false friends in real life, these words also seem to be on your side, helping you make sense of word meanings in a different language, only to let you down.

Answer 12.19

1. Examples which you've gathered may show that differences in the use of the 'same' language tend to strike us as more evident where the language is spoken in different parts of the world. These differences are nevertheless a fact within the same country, too.
2. Although the parallels between native to non-native (from the previous exercise) and native to native miscommunication seem clear, we wouldn't perhaps want to attribute miscommunication to 'defective/incomplete' command of language, in the latter case. The purpose of this exercise, together with the previous one, is to highlight that native as well as non-native speakers naturally resort to the uses of words/phrases that have become habitual to them, in the whole of their linguistic repertoire.

Answer 12.20

1. The child is at the two-word stage.
2. All utterances in the data contain two words. That the words may come from different languages is irrelevant for the developmental syntactic stage that the data give evidence for. So, all three utterances support this analysis.

Answer 12.21

The episode, in Laurie Lee's *Cider with Rosie*:

> "I spent that first day picking holes in paper, then went home in a smouldering temper.
> 'What's the matter, Loll? Didn't he like it at school, then?'
> 'They never gave me the present.'
> 'Present? What present?'
> 'They said they'd give me a present.'
> 'Did they now?'
> 'They did! They said: 'You're Laurie Lee, aren't you? Well just you sit there for the present.' I sat there all day but I never got it. I ain't going back there again."

The best discussion of this episode is probably the one that Margaret Donaldson offers in her book *Children's minds*, when she addresses the language problems that children may face at their new, language-institutionalised school environment. She writes:

> "Laurie Lee did not know that school is not a place where one normally gets presents. The teacher did know this, and she forgot that he did not. She knew it so well that it probably never entered her head that anyone else might fail to know it." (Donaldson, M. (1978), *Children's minds*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, p. 10).

The humour in this episode arises from an incongruity between adult and child logic/syntax — how teacher and pupil parse the same utterance. For the teacher, the lexically ambiguous utterance "Sit there for the present" can mean only one thing: 'Sit there for now'. For the five-year-old, unfamiliar with school norms, however, the same utterance represents a tempting goal-oriented directive: 'Sit there in order to receive the present'.

Answer 12.22

The learner seems to assume that *nationality*, not language background, is a relevant factor in learning languages in general, and in acquiring command of an accent, in particular. Features of a learner's *language(s)*, not the learners' national identity, are the ones discussed in the literature on (adult) language learning to account for features of accent in learners' speech.

Answer 12.23

The child becomes aware of at least two things: first, that the same person can be addressed in different ways, by different people. The person who addresses the child's father as son, for example, is not likely to be the same person who addresses him as uncle Bob. And second, that all of these forms of address are appropriate, coming from different people, because her father responds to all of them as legitimate addressee.
The child is also likely to be exposed to different forms of address directed at herself, including e.g. 'baby', 'young lady', 'darling', 'sweetheart', and (variations on) the child's own name.

Answer 12.24

1. Your informants are likely to agree with the common view that children are better language learners than adults. Their reasons may draw on their own observations, or on reports available through the media, for example.

2. In all likelihood, the informants will compare child learners to adult learners, and adult learners to child learners. They are also likely to conclude that the age of the learner is the deciding factor in the quality of the learning. This matches what is found in some literature on child vs. adult language learning, and in common popularisations of this literature, although the conclusions amount to circular argumentation: a simple comparison of A to B finds that A is better than B, and then a simple comparison of B to A supports this conclusion, by arguing that B is worse than A. The discussion in section 12.4 of the textbook, about the ways in which languages are learnt in infancy and in later life, sheds light on this issue.

Answer 12.25

Most language textbooks adopt a *comparative* methodology, whereby features of the language to be learned are introduced from the perspective of features of the language in which the textbook is written, matching the language of each book's intended readership. Comparison is a time-honoured method in language teaching, but its usefulness in providing independent exploration of the new language is debatable, in that the new language is taught as if it were a variant of the language in which the book is written.

Similar comparative approaches are found for language varieties other than standard varieties, where accounts of Nigerian or Indian English, for example, assume familiarity with standard varieties of British English.

Answer 12.26

This exercise is meant to raise awareness that monolingualism has been assumed as a "norm" of language use, one of the reasons being that the first studies on multilingualism were carried out by monolingual scholars. Lacking proficiency in several languages, it's perhaps not surprising that they concluded that 'proficient speakers' of a language could only be, like themselves, monolingual speakers. The association of 'native' with 'monolingual' cannot make sense, for example, for children who are raised from birth in more than one language, and who therefore are 'native multilinguals'.

Answer 12.27

1. These empirical findings in fact match the everyday understanding that "practice makes perfect". They highlight the importance of regular use in order to develop, maintain, or repair a language, just like regular bodily exercise has similar effects on physical condition.

2. Findings which concern correlations between activity in the human brain and use of human language are likely to be replicated for any linguistic activity, at any age, involving any number of languages.

Answer 12.28

Your own experiences as a language learner may be of relevance here, e.g. your reasons for wanting, or not wanting, to acquire a native-like accent in a new language; your (in)tolerance towards non-native users of your language(s); and/or cultural issues which you encountered in the use of a foreign language.

Answer 12.29

At age 0;11, the child form counts as one word, which seems to match the meaning of the adult word, 'water'. One month later, at age 1;0, the child overgeneralised the form, which now means 'drink'. The problem here is to decide whether 'baba' *only* means 'drink', in which case the form counts as one word, or *also* means 'water', in which case the form counts as two words. Decisions of this kind are a common issue faced by researchers interested in child vocabularies.

Answer 12.30

1. A-3; B-1; C-2; D-5; E-4.
2. Answers will vary. The suggested labels are common in the literature on child language. Try to reach general conclusions from your observations, by classifying the examples that you gathered into as broad categories as possible.

Cross-Chapter

Answer XC.1
True 4, 5, 6, 10.   False: 1, 2, 3, 7, 8, 9.

Answer XC.2
a, b.

Answer XC.3
a, b, d, e.

Answer XC.4
1. ice-skaters, oven-baked, milk-coated, fire-walker, bartop dancer.
2. Rule: The first stem is the Direct Object of the Verb in the second stem.
    Explanation: A lion tamer tames lions. "Lions" is the Direct Object of "tame". Similarly, a pencil sharpener sharpens pencils. Again, "pencils" is the Direct Object of "sharpen". This relationship holds for all the remaining uncircled compounds. Hence, the rule.

Answer XC.5
By the definition of alternation in section 6.4 of the textbook, *-er/more* is a case of alternation: the two forms have the same meaning, and their difference in form is due to where they occur, i.e. what they co-occur with. So *-er* and *more* are allomorphs of the same morpheme.
Hesitation to agree with this analysis may relate to arguments such as *-er* being a bound form and *more* being a free 'word', *-er* following a word and *more* preceding one, for example.
In the light of these arguments, examples of issues to consider are:
  -   whether and how the definition of alternation and/or distribution needs to be changed;
  -   why does *-er/more* differ from the alternation of the English indefinite article discussed in section 3.4.3 of the textbook;
  -   how will a new definition of alternation/distribution affect the discussion about the indefinite article.
If you agree with the analysis of *-er/more* as allomorphs, consider issues like:
  -   how do the definitions of alternation and distribution in the textbook fit in with cases like *-er/more* (the definitions say nothing about preceding vs. following context, for example);
  -   whether *-er/more* alternation satisfies the morpheme identification criteria offered in the textbook;
  -   whether {comparative} would be a suitable label for the morpheme of these allomorphs.

The purpose of this exercise is to generate argumentation for and against different analyses, drawing on evidence from data and from suggested definitions of technical terms.
Argumentation can be generalised to *-est/most*.

Answer XC.6
We are making *assumptions* now.
Section 4.3.1 in the textbook says that inflection is a type of affixation, and that affixation forms a "variant" of a word, adding "grammatical meaning" to it. Meaning-wise, both *-er* and *more* fit this definition of 'inflectional'. But *more* is not an affix, whereas *-er* is.
Consider issues like:
  -   should we redefine 'inflection' to include free forms?
  -   should we redefine *more* as a bound form?
Neither analysis is 'standard', in available descriptions of English.

The purpose of this exercise is to highlight the consequences of choosing one analysis, at one stage of the description, for the consistency of a whole analytical framework/theory.
Argumentation can be generalised to *-est/most*.

Answer XC.7
a, b, c, d, e, f.

Answer XC.8
b, c, e, g.

Answer XC.9
Answers will vary. For example:
1. Sentence 1. *This type of tea is my favourite.* The word class of *type* in Sentence 1. is N.
    Sentence 2. *They type with one hand only.* The word class of *type* in Sentence 2. is V.
2. It can, because, for example:
    -   the suffix spelt *-s* is ambiguous: it can indicate N plural, or V 3rd person singular;
    -   the suffix *-s* is inflectional and therefore doesn't change the word class of the stem;
    -   the word *types* fits distributional frames for N and V, e.g., *these types; he types.*
3. Yes, because putting a word in context by creating a sentence that contains it provides clues to its word class.

Answer XC.10
True: 1, 2, 5.   False: 3, 4, 6, 7.

Answer XC.11
True: 1, 2, 6.   False: 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10.

Answer XC.12
c, d, e, f.

Answer XC.13
b, c, f, g.

Answer XC.14
Answers will vary. The PS rule for sentences proposed on p.158 of the textbook is given as S ➔ NP VP. Yet, English imperatives often consist of a VP alone, with no explicit subject, since the subject is recoverable from the situational context as the addressee of the utterance. The purpose of this exercise is to highlight issues in the definitions of technical terms, and their (useful) application to linguistic data.

Answer XC.15
c, f, g, h.

Answer XC.16
True: 1, 2, 3, 4, 6,7, 8, 9.   False: 5, 10.

Answer XC.17
True: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10.   False: 7, 8.

Answer XC.18
 (a) A   (b) A   (c) B   (d) C

Answer XC.19
1. c, d.   2. a.

Answer XC.20
True: 2, 7, 8.   False: 1, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Answer XC.21
Both words are headed compounds, modifier + head, so the head determines the word class and the meaning of the compound. One explanation for their difference in meaning is, for example:
- the first word is N because the head *olive* is N, meaning 'a kind of olive';
- the second word is Adj because the head *green* is Adj, meaning 'a kind of green'.

Answer XC.22
True: 2, 3, 7.   False: 1, 4, 5, 6, 8.

Answer XC.23
Nouns refer to entities outside of language itself, whereas pronouns refer to nouns. As (personal) deictic words, pronouns indicate the identity of the participants in a communicative situation. As (anaphoric and cataphoric) cohesive devices, they refer to prior or upcoming nouns in a stretch of language. Given that language links referential meaning to expression, it makes analytical sense to name a phrase after a referential label.

Answer XC.24
Answers will vary. For example, the two sets of names belong to formal and informal registers, respectively. The first set may be preferred in polite conversation, but the second set has a rhyming appeal, owing to the repeated *-ing+s* inflections, which may be harnessed for comic effect in colloquial speech.

Answer XC.25
1. b, c.   2. a.

Answer XC.26
1. Morphology: the second element of headed compounds carries the weight of the meaning of the compound. Syntax: heads of phrases tend to follow their modifiers (though not in PPs, for example!). Discourse: new information follows given information.
   Other arguments may prove (or disprove) this analysis.
2. Answers will vary. The purpose of this exercise is to develop the ability to argue for/against an analysis from evidence provided by linguistic data.

Answer XC.27
Only 2 and 3 are true.

Answer XC.28
Like many ads, this one draws attention through language play. Morphologically, it presents a puzzle, since the Adjective in the word would be more likely to take the superlative form (e.g. *smart, smartest*). By inflecting the compound noun *smartphone* with the inflectional suffix *-est*, the ad creates an implicit brand image of unorthodoxy: the smartest phone is the one that breaks free of convention to do the extraordinary.

Answer XC.29
The purpose of this activity is to assess the range of *individual* interpretation of the same utterance, and the degree of (mis)match between illocution and perlocution.
1. This is an open-ended question. The point here is both how different individuals may infer different (personal) information, which may even be contradictory, from the same statement; and how personal information vs. 'factual' information is thus inferred, from individual knowledge of the world.
2. Statements (f) and (g) are entailed, assuming that the verb *regret* includes the meaning 'feeling bad'.
3. Statement (e) is presupposed.

Answer XC.30

1. Among monolingual users of language, the 'accuracy' of onomatopoeic words in their language is often taken for granted. Opinions from multilinguals may differ.
2. Consider the following points: to what extent do words from different languages reflect the 'actual' sounds being described by them, whether the onomatopoeic words are similar or different across languages; and whether/how English words like *smash, rip, gurgle*, included in the question, are onomatopoeic too.
3. Two complementary issues: onomatopoeia provides counterexamples to the assumption of arbitrariness in linguistic words/meanings vs. onomatopoeic words for the 'same' sounds can be quite different across languages (e.g. *cockadoodledoo, kukuriku* and *kokoko* for a rooster's crowing), providing evidence of arbitrariness.
4. Speakers of different languages hear the 'same' things differently, depending on the sound system(s) that they habitually use. This observation can be generalised to, for example, issues of 'foreign accent' in language learning.

Answer XC.31

The issue of attributing 'meaning' to word parts that are not morphemes is controversial within linguistics, as is the validity of sound symbology as a linguistics sub-discipline. Another example of presumed sound symbology is the correlation of close vowels with 'smallness'.

Counterexamples to proposed 'meanings' abound (e.g. *glib, glob, globe, gloom*; the close vowels in the words *big* and *huge*). The controversy rests on the credibility of the arguments used to support each side of it.

Answer XC.32

The purpose of this exercise is to evaluate how the use of intonation may (or may not) change the meaning of an utterance, both in terms of what the speaker wishes to convey and the message that the listener takes up. Check whether alternative illocutions and/or perlocutions can be conveyed through intonation alone, independently of, for example, facial expressions and body language.

Answer XC.33

In other varieties of English, the use of the pronoun *you* in utterances with imperative form may be associated with insolence or disrespect.

Answer XC.34

In the utterance, *that* is *Pr* and *a* is Det. They belong to different phrases: the utterance is a yes/no question, showing inversion of Subject NP *that* and V *is* within the VP *is a cell phone*.

Answer XC.35

1a. inflected Adj.
2a. modifier in a (headed) compound.

2a. inflected V.
2b. (non-finite) main verb in a VP.

Answer XC.36

1. PP (*of the Trust*).
2. The PP can attach to N (*beneficiaries*) or NP (*The administrator and the beneficiaries*).

Answer XC.37

d, e, f.

Answer XC.38

(a) but   (b) because   (c) this / here / her / she / their   (d) she

Answer XC.39

In both sentences, the Adj *heavy* modifies the N *showers*. In (b), the comparative inflection of the Adj means that the showers are expected to be stronger than they were before. In (a), in contrast, the word *more* does not indicate a comparative form of the Adj *heavy*. Rather, it modifies *showers*, to mean that heavy showers are expected to continue (or to increase) over the weekend. The constituency of sentence (b) is [*more*] [*heavy showers*], not [*more heavy*] [*showers*].

Answer XC.40
Only statement 1 is true.

Answer XC.41
1. The word *rules* can be both N and V. The intended meaning is that *equality* is N and *rules* is V, i.e. that in Utopia, *equality rules*.
2. Parsing *rules* as N, the CoConj *and* coordinates the NPs *war* and *equality rules*. Parsing *rules* as V, the CoConj *and* coordinates the two S *the government has banished war* and *equality rules*.

Answer XC.42
1. Direct object: e.g. (someone/something) makes trouble/opens cans. Cp. their passives: trouble is made/cans are opened by someone/something.
2. *ice-breaker, money changer* and probably *housekeeper* follow the same rule; for the other three, the first stem has a PP paraphrase: skates on ice, sits with the baby, dreams during the day, giving an adjunct meaning.
(Compounds of the kind discussed here are called *verbal compounds*, or *synthetic compounds*, in the literature.)

Answer XC.43
Different arguments are possible. For example, we "know":
- that problems cannot hire things, whereas defendants can;
- that the subject of (a) is not an agent, whereas the subject of (b) is.

So we interpret (a) as a linking construction, and (b) as a simple transitive one.
Syntactic manipulation further confirms the different nature of the two constructions. Cp. *Hiring a good lawyer was the problem* vs. **Hiring a good lawyer was the defendant*. Also, (b) can be passivised, whereas (a) cannot.

Answer XC.44
In comparison with Malay, English plural marking appears redundant: the notion of 'more than one' is expressed twice in English, in the numeral and the plural inflection of nouns.
Questions may arise about the relative simplicity/complexity of languages that show less/more redundancy in their grammar, and about their relative economy of linguistic means to convey equivalent meanings.
Whatever the questions that one may find relevant to ask, we should keep in mind that there is a trade-off between linguistic simplicity and complexity: no marking of singular vs. plural in nouns may suggest that Malay grammar is simpler than English grammar. But, as we saw in Chapter 4 of the textbook, Malay is more 'complex' than English as far as other affixes are concerned (p. 81). In addition, less redundancy may favour the speaker, imposing a greater cognitive burden on the listener, and vice versa for more redundancy.

Answer XC.45
e, g.

Answer XC.46
The words *export* and *deport* are part of a patterned set, which also contains *import* and *transport*, for example. Taking *ex-* and *de-* as morphemes would involve assigning meaning to *-port* too, which is in fact a Latin root meaning 'to carry', cp. the word *portable*.
The default word stress of the verbs *export* and *deport* is in the second syllable, which sounds identical in both words. Similar contrastive uses of intonation that shift word stress to another syllable, in order to disambiguate the meaning of words that may sound alike in connected speech, are common in English, e.g. "*I said thirty, not thirteen*". We cannot therefore be sure whether the Irishman stressed the first syllable of the verbs to highlight the meanings of *ex-* and *de-*, or to highlight the different meanings of the whole words. What we can safely infer is his displeasure at the poor quality of his drink!

Answer XC.47
The CoConj *or* links two clauses/sentences in both cases. Given information tends to be condensed or omitted, since it is recoverable from context. The first utterance could take the full form *Can we park here or can we not park here?* But the given information is deleted (*Can we park here or ~~can we~~ not ~~park here~~?*), leaving the condensed utterance *Can we park here or not?* The same applies to the second utterance (*Whether you like it or ~~you like it~~ not, you'll have to answer this question.*)

Answer XC.48
1. The children are using ditransitive constructions with verbs whose more common uses are not ditransitive. Ditransitive verbs involve a three-way scenario, with an agent doing something for a recipient, which accurately describes the events that the children are reporting.
2. The children do appear to have generalised 'proper' ditransitive uses, e.g. of verbs like *give*, to novel three-way events.

Answer XC.49
2, 3, 5.

Answer XC.50
1. Possible interpretations:
   (a) 'Some (people) can understand (this) very well.'   (b) 'This chicken is unable to feed itself.'
   These paraphrases take the first NP as Subject in both sentences, and the Object as omitted in (a).
2. Singlish uses an OV (Object + Verb) structure, whereas other varieties of English use VO. In addition, Subjects are not compulsory in Singlish, unlike in other Englishes.

Answer XC.51
1. The malapropism replaces a word which sounds like it but has no semantic relation to it. In addition, both words share a phonological pattern: in (a), for example, *distinguisher* replaces *extinguisher*, where both words share four syllables and word stress on the syllable *-tin-*. The same pattern holds for the remaining data.
2. The malapropism is a word of the language whose meaning results in incongruity or incoherence in the context where it occurs.

Answer XC.52
1. Many crossword puzzles relate clues and words by means of denotation, connotation, synonymy and/or hyponymy. Other (perhaps more advanced) versions of the puzzle offer clues in the form of metaphors and idioms.
2. The words are expected to match the grammatical features of their respective clues, e.g. an inflected clue prompts the same inflection in the word to be guessed. Clues of more advanced puzzles may contain language play, where the word to be guessed is disguised in the clue that's given, or implicit reference to shared cultural idiosyncrasies.
Other variants of crossword puzzles are of course possible.

Answer XC.53
a, f, g, h.

Answer XC.54
1. The words in (2) are formed by attaching an infix *-esc-* to the stems in (1).
2. Derivational. Affixation changes the word class of the stem: (1) words are N, (2) words are Adj; and the meaning difference between (1) and in (2) is lexical, not grammatical: (2) words mean roughly 'showing properties of the N stem'.
3. Affixation does seem to affect the meaning of the stems in different ways. For example, (2c) *monellesco* and (2e) *funambulesco* generalise typical traits of 'brats' and 'tightrope walkers' which come to apply to 'non-brats' and 'non-tightrope walkers' too, as it were. A stem may thus acquire new connotations, which go beyond a statement like 'showing properties of the N stem' as formulated above. Such connotations typically become associated with the (new) compositional meaning of a stem as contained in the affixed words that it forms.
Semantic shifts of this kind, observed in word formation, are not just a feature of Italian, of course: check, for example, the meaning of English words like *brother* or *lose* and their 'stem meanings' in *brotherhood* and *loser*, respectively.

Answer XC.55

1. Several answers are possible, for example:
    (a) Does the doggie say woof-woof? / (Why) is the dog barking?
    (b) This is mummy's toy. / Mummy is holding a toy.
    (c) I want to play. / I want you to play.
    (d) That is Susan. / That is Susan's.
2. Without access to situational context and/or or to the co-text that prompts child utterances, our interpretations of what children mean can vary quite widely, as shown above. These different interpretations have important consequences for the inferences we make about how much language the child has acquired. For example, the alternative interpretations suggested for (a) assign two different kinds of question (yes/no vs. wh-) to the child's repertoire.
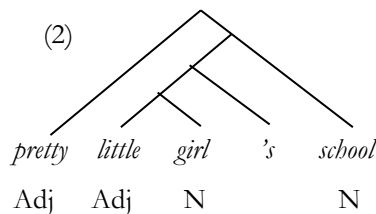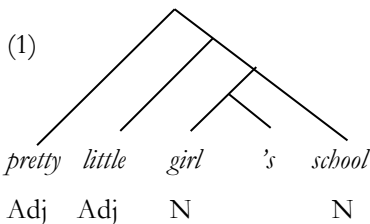
Answer XC.56

Examples (b) in data 1-3 show that the possessive suffix appears to attach to a noun contained in a PP. The PP in turn modifies the noun that precedes it. Using (1b) as example, *-'s* attaches to *back*, which is part of the PP *at the back*. The PP *at the back* in turn modifies the noun *gentleman*.

In terms of meaning, however, this analysis is unsatisfactory: the meanings of the sentences in the data are that the comments were the gentleman's (not the back's), the crown is the Queen's (not England's) and the bike is the girl's (not the blue's). Since *the gentleman at the back, the Queen of England* and *the girl in blue* are all NPs, and the possessive suffix in fact modifies their respective head nouns, we need to revise statements A and C as follows:

    A.   **Stem**: a morpheme, or a phrase, to which other morphemes can attach.
    C.   The possessive marker *-'s* is a NP suffix.

Answer XC.57

(1) a girl's school that is pretty and little
(2) a pretty school for little girls
(3) a school for little girls who are pretty
(4) a girl's school that is pretty little
(5) a school for girls who are pretty little

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http://specgram.com/CLIII.4/08.phlogiston.cartoon.zhe.html
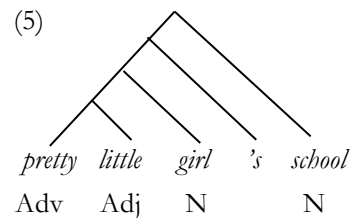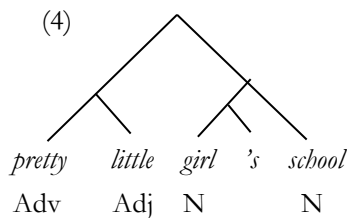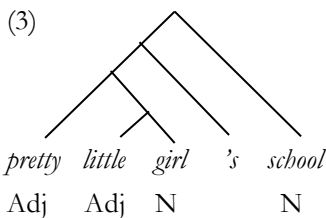
Answer XC.58

No, they are not. Alternation involves context-bound variation in the form of a unit. The underlined NPs contain three units (morphemes) altogether. Det *an* and {plural} *-s* occur once, and the N *ant* occurs twice, pronounced the same way both times.

Answer XC.59

Answers will vary. For example:

1. In Germanic/Nordic European cultures, tabooed language tends to cluster around religion-related meanings (*hell, devil*), whereas in Latino/Mediterranean cultures it clusters around sex and kin (*husbands, mothers*). In most cultures, religion and bodily functions seem to be favoured tabooed areas.
2. Going to the toilet, for example, can be euphemised as visiting the *restroom*, or as needing to *powder one's nose*, in cultures where the likely assumption is that visiting the toilet, resting and applying make-up are appropriately done out of view, on one's own.

Answer XC.60

There is no contradiction. *-s* represents an affix (and therefore a morpheme) that happens to consist of one sound/phoneme only.

Answer XC.61

1. Suggestions:
    - *Fast race for first place; Final race for first place; The race for first place.*
    - *Race fast for first place; Race now for first place; We race for first place.*
      <u>Note</u>: A paraphrase like *Race on for first place* would still be ambiguous.
2. Respectively:
    - *Race* is N: Adj and Det can modify N.
    - *Race* is V: Adv modifies V; V follows Pr.

Answer XC.62

1. (a) AdvP and PP   (b) NP and PP   (c) AdjP and PP
2. No. The data show that the phrasal units don't have to be identical. See answers to part 1.
3. Yes, it can. The data show coordination of the following functional constituents:
   (a) Adjunct   (b) Adjunct   (c) Subject Complement.

Answer XC.63

The child appears to have acquired *-er* as a suffix that attaches to verbs to form nouns, with the meaning 'what is used to V'. This is an affix of English, e.g. in the words *mower, blender*, that the child overgeneralises to other verbs.

Answer XC.64

Words that are taken as polysemes are usually listed under the same dictionary entry, whereas words taken as homonyms each have a separate entry. Converted words may be treated either way. Affixed and compound words are usually listed alphabetically, not by stem. Inflected words are treated as variants of their stem words, and listed under the same entry as their stem words.

Answer XC.65

1. [im] before [p, m], i.e. before other bilabial sounds; [iŋ] before [k, g], i.e. before other velar sounds; [in] before [d, t], i.e. before other alveolar sounds.
2. No, they don't. The data show that the pronunciation of the forms spelt 'im' and 'in' is conditioned by the phonological context in which they occur: the different forms are therefore allomorphs of the same prefix.

Answer XC.66

The answer can be both yes and no. The data show a pattern in each set of words, e.g. *re-ceive, per-ceive, de-ceive* in set (a), where *-ceive* seems to behave like a stem, and *re-, per-, de-* like prefixes. A similar pattern appears in sets (b) and (c), respectively. The data also show a pattern across word sets, e.g. *trans-mit, trans-port* in sets (b) and (c). In order to verify whether each word part is a morpheme, we can attempt to assign a meaning to each, e.g. *per-* carries a meaning 'through', *trans-* carries a meaning 'across', and *-port* conveys the meaning 'to carry'. If we succeed in doing this, we then observe that the stems *-ceive*, *-mit* and *-port* are not free forms. We must therefore conclude that they are bound stems. However, analyses of this kind concerning similar word sets are controversial, in that the meanings assigned to the assumed word parts are etymological meanings, which may not correspond to current meanings of the words. If current users don't have access to the etymological meanings, they will treat these words as simple words, rather than as containing bound stems, since the etymological meanings are lost or 'hidden' to them.

Answer XC.67

Only (b) and (c) are true.

Answer XC.68

1. Meaning (a) *a tea house that is painted green* vs. meaning (b) *a house that serves green tea.*
2. Morphology: the two meanings show two different compounds, *tea house* in meaning (a) as opposed to *green tea* in meaning (b).
   Syntax: the Adj *green* modifies *house* in meaning (a) and *tea* in meaning (b).

Answer XC.69

Speaker B's turn doesn't seem adequately informative. Phone calls can and do start with callers identifying themselves as B does, but only if the caller's voice happens to be familiar or recognisable to the recipient of the phone call. In this exchange, we can infer that A has been unable to identify B, since A explicitly asks, "Who is this?" B's answer infringes Grice's maxim of quantity (be appropriately informative) and manner (be precise) because the deictic pronoun 'me' is too vague for A to be able to identify B. Since the first-person pronoun "me" is used by any and all speakers to refer to themselves, B provides A with no usable information. The rest of B's turn is equally enigmatic: without recourse to B's location, the referent of the deictic word "here" cannot be identified. Similarly, B's utterance "I need help" does not specify what it is that B needs help with.

Answer XC.70

1. *shipwreck*, which is a well-formed complex word but contains free forms only.
2. (d).

Answer XC.71

a, b, c, d.

Answer XC.72

Different languages have different so-called 'neutral vowels', which are the preferred ones to fill hesitations in speech. Consonants are also used in hesitation, e.g. [m] as represented in *ahm* and *um* in print, for English.

Answer XC.73

Answers will vary. This exercise highlights the framing effects of linguistic choices. As with the alternative perspectives discussed in section 2.2 of the textbook, each answer provides a different perspective on the same event. In utterance (a), the topic is the speaker's team, whereas in (b), it is the rival team. In terms of personal deixis, (a) may be the more common choice, given the human tendency to orient entities and events around ourselves rather than other people. But, this also means, in terms of lexical choice that utterance (a) foregrounds the idea of losing, whereas (b) foregrounds the idea of winning.

Answer XC.74
1. NP. Relative clauses modify head nouns: *children* in (a), *roads* in (b) and *guy* in (c).
2. The substitution test supports the analysis that relative clauses form one constituent with the NP that they modify: cf. (a) *They* looked happy; (b) *They* are constantly congested; (c) I know *him*.

Answer XC.75
1. (a) Only the children who were playing looked happy. (b) All the children were playing and looked happy.
2. In (b), the relative clause is demarcated by pauses, indicated by commas in print.
Note: (a) exemplifies a *restrictive* relative clause and (b) a *non-restrictive* relative clause.

Answer XC.76
The explanation has to do with phonological context. The sound sequences [ps] and [ts] appear word-initially in *psychology* and *tsar*, but word-finally in *caps* or *cats*.
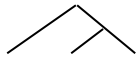
Answer XC.77
Examples (b) and (d) would allow us to say that coordination links lexical classes: these examples show coordination of single Adj (*dead, buried*) and N (*coffee, tea*), respectively. Examples (a) and (c), however, show coordination of single lexical classes with constituents that are NOT single classes: In (a), the Adj *kind* is linked with *rather nosy*; in (c) the single N *Anna* coordinates with *my other cousins*. Given that coordination links units of the same type, we need to distinguish phrasal classes like AdjP and NP from the individual lexical classes which constitute them, in order to account for the well-formedness of both (a) and (c). We then generalise this distinction between lexical and phrasal classes to utterances like (b) and (d), since the distinction also accounts for their well-formedness.

Answer XC.78
The words *die* and *finish* are related through metaphor: death can be seen as a finish, when life reaches its end. Meanwhile, the finish that you apply to a piece of work signals the end of that work.
Our knowledge of the world tells us that varnish is not drinkable, but a product to be applied to wood to preserve or enhance its appearance. Saying that drinking varnish will achieve a similar result on human beings is therefore incongruous.

Answer XC.79
All four trees have the shape . The purpose of this exercise is to consolidate understanding that compositionality (part-whole relationships) and hierarchy (constituency) pervade linguistic analysis.

Answer XC.80
The data show that agreement takes place between the Subject and finite forms of verbs:
(a) *He* and *is*; (b) *The parcels* and *have*; (c) *I* and *am*; (d) *Miriam* and *has*.

Answer XC.81
(i) Three observations:
1. Both *the* (D) and *soft* (Adj) can precede *bells* (N), as shown in (1a) and (1c).
2. Det cannot follow Adj, as shown in (1b) and (1f);
   OR: If Det and Adj occur together, Det must precede Adj, as shown by (1b) and (1f).
3. *soft* cannot follow (N), as shown by 1(c-e);
   OR *soft* (Adj) can precede, but not follow *bells* (N), as shown by 1(c-e).

   <u>Note</u>: The following observations do NOT explain the data:
   (1) *soft* can precede *bells*.
       The point is that both *soft* and *the* can precede *bells*, as shown in (1a) and (1c).
   (2) *soft* must follow Det.
       soft must follow Det <u>only if they occur together</u> – *soft* can appear on its own without Det as shown in (1c).
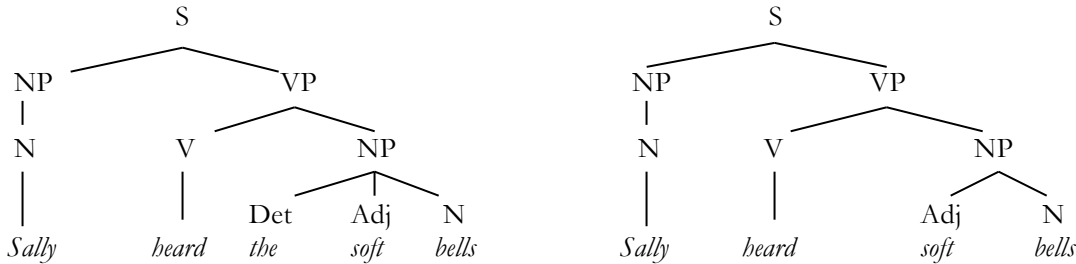   (3) *soft* must precede *bells*.
       bells need not be preceded by *soft* – it can be preceded by Det, as shown in (1a).

(ii) PS representation of (1b) and (1c)

(iii) Revision of NP rule

The NP rule (Rule 3) needs revising from NP → (Det) N   to   NP → (Det) (Adj) N.

Answer XC.82

Answers to *who-* and *what-*questions involve nouns, which are among the first word classes acquired by children (refer to Activity 12.2 in the textbook). Answers to *where-* and *when-*questions involve adverbial/adjunct phrases (e.g. adverbs, PPs) and often deixis. Answers to *why-* and *how-*questions involve phrases and/or sentences. Children typically acquire all of the latter linguistic resources later than nouns and noun-related resources.

Answer XC.83

1. The ambiguity results from the Adj *Chinese* modifying either *noodles and tea*, or *noodles*, that is, in bracketed representation: [Chinese] [noodles and tea] vs. [Chinese noodles] [and tea]. The tree diagrams represent these interpretations, respectively:
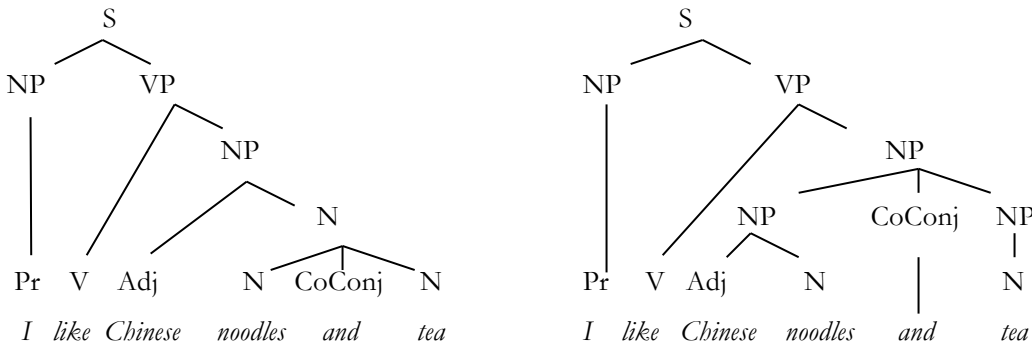
2. *French fries* is a compound, where *French* modifies the head *fries*. The modifier of a compound cannot modify constituents outside of the compound itself. So the interpretation here can only be [French fries] [and wine].

Answer XC.84

(a) ☑ **(C)** *enthrone*
- *sure* and *dear* fit the distributional frame for Adj, Det ___ N, and are therefore sanctioned by the principle. E.g. *a sure thing   a dear friend.*
- *endure* is a simple word. So, the principle doesn't apply to it.
- *throne* fits the distributional frame for Noun: Det ___. So, it represents a counterexample to the principle, showing the principle to be false.

(b) ☑ **(C**) consistency with observations

The principle states that the prefix *en-* can attach only to Adjectives. But, *enthrone* (*en-* + N) is perfectly well-formed, as shown in (1). We must therefore reject the principle because it is inconsistent with the observation in (1).

Answer XC.85
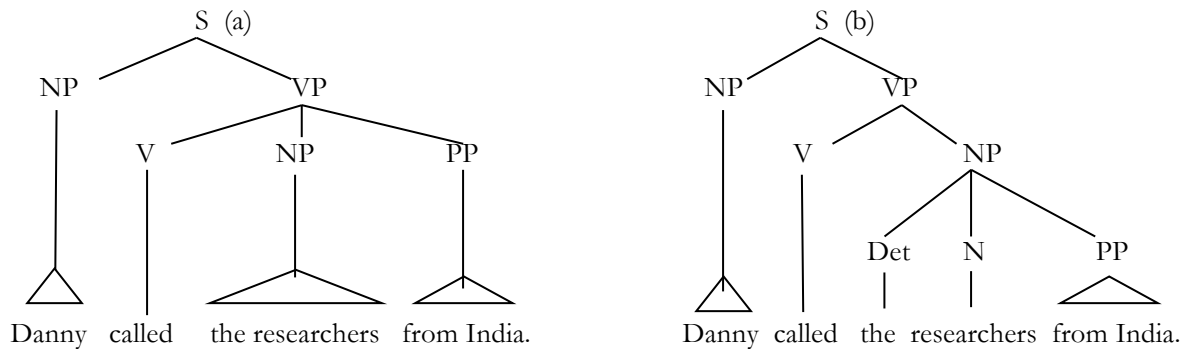
In meaning (a), the NP *the researchers* functions as the Direct Object of the verb *called*, while the PP *from India* functions as Adjunct.

In meaning (b), The NP *the researchers from India* functions as the Direct Object of the verb *called*. There is no Adjunct.

Answer XC.86

(a) The rhyme is not very coherent in that there is no clear matching or sequential relationship between the sentences making up its four lines.

(b) The rhyme does exhibit lexical cohesion, however, primarily through collocation: *cat, cow* and *dog* are co-hyponyms of the superordinate term *farm animals*, while *dish* and *spoon* are co-meronyms of *cutlery set*.

Answer XC.87

1. For example:
   - the order and constituency of NP constituents is N (Adj) Det: (a) shows N Adj Det, and (b) shows N Det;
   - NP constituents are all free forms;
   - word order indicates a difference between a phrase and a sentence;
   - subject complement constructions consist of subject (*rumah ini*) + subject complement (*besar*);
   - comparing Malay and English, a (copular/link) verb is a compulsory element of English subject complement constructions, but not of Malay ones.
2. Both (a) and (b) show a constituent composed of head and modifiers, which fits our definition of a well-formed *phrase*. The head of this constituent is a noun, which fits our labelling of this constituent as a *noun* phrase.

Answer XC.88

1. If a text is coherent, one should, minimally, be able to say what it's about. Can you summarise the patient's description? We couldn't! The cohesion, similarly, is of rather a strange sort. Lexical cohesion comprises repetition of the same few words, e.g. *know* and *say*, and grammatical cohesion, comprising conjunctions like *but* and *and*, reference (*it...it...that*, *that...this...that*) and substitution (*this one here*), is equally difficult to make sense of, since referents of these pronouns are never once named.
2. There's heavy reliance on deixis, including an apparent correction of *This should* to *that should* (the data in Goodglass only give the text transcript, there's no mention of whether the patient was pointing/gesturing at any time, unfortunately), and use of formulaic expressions like *That's very bad* and *that's it*, apparently to invite the interviewer's completion of the patient's reasoning.

Answer XC.89

1. Findings are likely to confirm the reasons we give in the question, and to include the further reason that hesitation serves to introduce a new topic in an exchange. Other hesitation markers, e.g. *like…, I mean…, isn't it?...* (*innit?* very often!) may serve other functions, e.g. seek our interlocutors' feedback or approval.
2. Hesitation is part of typical spoken interaction. Typical patterns of 'fluent hesitation' do help diagnose speech disorders, such as stuttering, and language disorders, such as (Broca's type) aphasia, which are characterised by disfluent hesitation, among other symptoms.

Answer XC.90

1. Meaning can be conveyed even through disrupted syntax. This is true of literary work and of, for example, child utterances, impaired linguistic conditions, or utterances by less proficient users of a language. The poem might be rendered as follows, in standard English syntax: A poisoned mouse quietly stares at me out of the floor. Still alive, it is asking, "What have I done that you wouldn't have?"
2. In this encounter between mouse and human, cummings allows us to inhabit two points of view simultaneously, by distinguishing Topic (*Me*) from Subject (*the poisoned mouse*) in an Object-Verb-Subject sentence. To recover the standard Subject-Verb-Object pattern of English, we have to read bottom up, mirroring the poisoned mouse's act of staring UP at the towering human. The mouse lies at the 'heart' of the poem, aptly positioned to ask how man and mouse differ (*What have i done that You wouldn't have* – note cummings' use of non-(standard) capitalisation to emphasise this message).

Answer XC.91

1. Swahili subclasses are marked by prefixes, *m-* and *wa-* (in a, b, d, h) and *ki-* and *vi-* (in c, e, f, g).
2. The data show two genders, one where nouns are marked by *m-* in the singular and *wa-* in the plural (in a, b, d, h), and one where nouns are marked by *ki-* in the singular and *vi-* in the plural (in c, e, f, g).

Answer XC.92

In both sentences, the *-ing* words are nouns, converted from verbs after suffixation with *-ing*. Cf. *My child needs food*, where *food* is N too. Conversion from V to N nevertheless keeps the original syntactic subcategory to which the V belongs: *feed* is (simple) transitive, whereas *swim* is intransitive. Sentence (a) can be paraphrased as 'someone must feed my child', where *my child* is direct object of *feed*, whereas (b) cannot be interpreted, because intransitive verbs pattern alone in a VP. Hence, the ungrammaticality of (b).

Answer XC.93

True statements: (a), (c), (f), (i).

Answer XC.94

1. The data show two different noun subclasses, one patterning with the article *en/-n*, the other with the article *ett/-t*. Noun subclasses, across languages, are said to belong to different grammatical *genders*.
2. There is agreement within the noun phrase, depending on the noun subclass/gender: *en*-nouns pattern with one form of Det and Adj, as in (1-4), and *ett*-nouns pattern with a different form of Det and Adj, as in (6-9). There is also agreement between the N and the Adj appearing in a VP, as in 5 for *en*-nouns and in 10 for *ett*-nouns. The data do not allow observations about whether there is subject-verb agreement in Swedish.

Answer XC.95

In English, there is gender agreement depending on the sex of the possessor: the possessive Det is *his* for a male possessor (*boy*) and *her* for a female one (*girl*), regardless of the sex of the possessed referent, *father/mother*.
In Portuguese, the sex of the possessor is irrelevant for possessive agreement. It is the sex of the possessed referent which determines agreement: the possessive Det is masculine *seu* for a referent of the male sex (*pai*), and feminine *sua* for a referent of the female sex (*mãe*).

Answer XC.96

This exercise is meant to reinforce understanding of the concepts 'transparency' and 'headedness', which refer to different things but are often confused when dealing with compounds. The compound *watchdogs* has a transparent meaning, in that its meaning is metaphorical: 'watchdogs' of the financial world do for their company the same as real-life watchdogs do for their owners' property. Nevertheless, the compound is non-headed: in financial contexts, *watchdogs* are not (a kind of) dogs.

Answer XC.97

1. Answers may vary. A likely suggestion is:

A:	I want a cookie! [F]	Line 1
B:	You want a cookie?? [R]	Line 2
A:	Yeah, [F] I want a cookie [R] and some milk. [F]	Line 3
B:	Are you hungry? [R] You've just had your lunch… [L]	Line 4
A:	Well, [L] I guess I'm just greedy. [F]	Line 5

   Falling tones convey closed meanings like assertiveness and statements of facts, as in lines 1 and 5. Rising tones, in contrast, mark continuation, as in line 3, and openness towards the interlocutor, expecting a response, as in lines 2 and 4. Level tones may indicate hesitation, as in line 4, or introduce a new topic, as in line 5.

2. Speech acts identified in the dialogue:

   Line 1: Expressive, as evidenced by locution *I want...* and falling tone.
   Line 2: Directive (yes/no question), signalled by rising tone.
   Line 3: Answer, signalled by falling tone on *Yeah*, followed by repetition and elaboration of Expressive from Line 1.
   Line 4: Directive, as evidenced by interrogative form and rising tone, followed by tentative Representative, as signalled by level tone.
   Line 5: Representative or Verdictive, depending on whether the adjective *greedy* is intended to be value-neutral (speaker making an observation about him/herself) or value-laden (speaker judging him/herself).

   Politeness strategies: In Line 4, Speaker B observes that Speaker A has just had lunch, allowing A to infer that having a cookie straight after lunch may not be the best idea. Speaker B thus mitigates the threat to Speaker A's negative face, by not imposing on Speaker A. Speaker A reciprocates by attending to Speaker B's positive face needs. Instead of telling Speaker B to mind his/her own business, Speaker A responds with a remark which can be interpreted as self-deprecating (*I guess I'm just greedy*).

Answer XC.98

Locution: one word, *loneliness*, is broken up by a sentence, *a leaf falls*.
Illocution: the association of loneliness with a single leaf falling; the representation of falling movement through vertical printing of the poem.
Perlocution: Interpretations will vary – as is particularly true of literary pieces. We may agree or disagree that the poem does convey the (assumed) illocution, and that visual clues support it adequately. Observations to consider are, for example: the poem starts with the number '1' (not the letter 'l'); the word *one* is highlighted in a single line, as if it were a meaningful part/morpheme of the word *loneliness*.

Answer XC.99

The stems of compounded words are morphemes of the same type, free forms, e.g. *bird* and *brain* in *birdbrain*. Likewise, coordinated sentences are independent sentences, e.g. *I sing and I dance* describe two independent actions.
In contrast, affixes, being bound forms, must attach to a stem, e.g. *un-* acquires meaning only when attached to a (V or Adj) stem. Likewise, subordinated sentences depend on a main clause, to which they must be linked, e.g. what a sentence like *when I'm in the shower* describes must be completed by a main clause like *I sing* or *the phone always rings*.

Answer XC.100

At the level of grammatical competence, this exchange looks like a well-formed dialogue, comprising three Question-Answer adjacency pairs. But, at the level of communicative competence, there is a disjunction between adult and child interpretations. The child interprets the adult's yes/no questions literally, as requests for information, rather than as indirect (polite) requests for action. The child has yet to acquire the pragmatic and discourse strategies which the adult gives evidence of in these two questions, so that the (exasperated?) adult finally resorts to a plain directive, which the child seems to understand in the sense intended by the adult. We may then conclude that direct (yes/no) requests for information and directives are earlier acquisitions than indirect (yes/no) requests for action.

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Madalena Cruz-Ferreira hails from Portugal, and received her PhD from the University of Manchester, UK. She is an independent scholar, with authored and edited publications on multilingualism, child language, phonology, intonation and the language of science. Her blog Being Multilingual is featured at AILA (International Association of Applied Linguistics), ASHA (American Speech-Language-Hearing Association), Clinical Linguistics, The Linguist List, OEP (Observatoire Européen du Plurilinguisme), Teaching English (British Council-BBC), TES (Times Educational Supplement) and TESOL (Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages).

Sunita Anne Abraham was born in Penang, Malaysia, and holds a PhD from the University of Birmingham, UK. She is an Associate Professor at the National University of Singapore, a Fellow of the NUS Teaching Academy, and the proud recipient of a dozen teaching awards, including two Outstanding University Educator awards. She serves on several international editorial boards, including the Journal of Second Language Writing and the International Journal for the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning. Her research and teaching interests include genre analysis, discourse structure, the language of persuasion, and the relationship between reading, writing and thinking.