

10/2: Introduction

- Linguistics is the scientific study of language
 - We make observations about what people say
 - We form hypotheses and test them against data to revise them
 - We develop a theory matching the results
- Language is an instinct that we act on in daily life
 - Just like our visual system is a subconscious process
 - Many facets of language operate subconsciously
 - Conscious knowledge doesn't take away these processes effects
 - You can't force yourself to not understand language if you understand it
- Language is a kind of tool
 - A tool for communication used to express meaning encoded into sounds/hand shapes
 - Listeners decode speech into meaning
- Language is a kind of knowledge
 - What do you know when you know a language?
 - You have a system of knowledge - grammar - that gives us building blocks that we can use to create more complex structures
 - We know how to use this system
 - This is a type of unconscious knowledge
 - Expletive infixation → rules that we inherently follow without even knowing them
 - **Phonetics** - we understand the inventory of our language
 - **McGurk Effect** shows that we intuitively know the mouth shape of a particular sound
 - Mismatch between what we hear and what we see → changing perceptions
 - Doesn't matter if we consciously know what sound we're hearing
 - **Phonology** - understanding the possible sound patterns in our language
 - Tested with Jean-Burko Gleeson's **Wug Test** - forms plurals of nonsense nouns → shows we don't have a known list of plurals, we intuitively have a rule system to form plurals
 - **Morphology** - we know a variety of words in our language
 - We know potential words and we can form complex words from less complex ones
 - Differ → different → differentiate
 - We have a **lexicon** - our mental dictionary of words we know
 - We likely have words that are not in any written dictionary
 - We know there are constraints to how a word can be built
 - **Syntax** - we know how to build phrases and sentences
 - **Semantics** - we know how to assign meanings to words in sentences
 - Reading and writing are not part of knowledge of linguistics
 - For most of human history, reading and writing were not available
 - Focus on spoken language

- Native speakers may not know the history of words in their language → doesn't play a role in the knowledge of language
- Being a fully competent native speaker of a language is independent of educational level
 - Being more or less educated has no effect
- Distinguish between linguistic competence and linguistic performance
 - **Linguistic competence**: what you know in your mind, what you can do, systematic knowledge of building blocks
 - **Linguistic performance**: what you actually do, what actually comes out of your mouth, subject to physical limitations
 - Performance errors like slips of the tongue
- Can we find a set of properties that all human languages share?
- Features of language
 - **Arbitrariness** - the relationship between a form and meaning in a word is arbitrary
 - Pseudo-exceptions: onomatopoeic words → still have some differences between language
 - **Creativity** - speakers use a finite set of building blocks to create and understand an infinitude of novel sentences
 - Sentences cannot simply be memorized or learned by imitation
 - Especially evident in children
 - Emphasized by Noam Chomsky
 - There's no limit to how long a sentence can be
- The set of universal properties possessed by all human languages - **Universal Grammar**
 - Can be thought of as a set of laws for human language
 - All languages have a lexicon, phonetic system, phonology, morphology, syntactic structure, and semantics
 - True for spoken and signed languages
 - All languages have ways of forming questions, negating a sentence, have means to indicate action, possess a set of discrete sounds
- Development of grammar
 - All children
 - Acquire the language of their environment
 - Acquire language spontaneously
 - Exhibit linguistic creativity
 - Pass through similar stages as they build their own grammar
 - Babbling → babbling to specific language sounds → single-word utterances → two-word utterances → overgeneralizations → most fully acquire by 5
 - Suggests there's a strong biological component to language development → supports UG
- Two types of grammar
 - **Descriptive grammar** - linguist's description or model of the mental grammar

- What speaker's rules actually are
- **Prescriptive grammar** - rules of grammar used by teachers, for example
 - What the speaker's rules should be
 - Can you understand people when they break these rules?
 - Ex. Double negatives in English, stranded/dangling prepositions

10/7: Intro to Linguistics

- The language instinct
 - We humans, all of us, are all capable of intuitions about language
- Lingua - Latin for language and tongue
 - Linguistics and language both come from this root word
- Linguistics is the science of the human faculty of language
- Ferdinand de Saussure (1853-1917) → when it comes to language, we need to study human beings that speak it
- One human cognitive faculty → many languages spoken in the world
- Case study: Italy and its linguistic landscape
 - Italian is not the language of Italy → Italo-Romance varieties → called dialects
- Diglossia - speaker is able to speak 2 systems based on different social situations, functionally-determined language choice
 - Occurs in situations of long standing societal multilingualism
 - 2+ languages: high and low, used by virtually everyone in the society
 - High language: in formal domains
 - Used to talk to strangers, bosses, teachers, etc.
 - Largely school-learned
- Understanding the tension between language diversity and identity is one of the most fruitful research agenda of modern linguistic theory
- Grammar is knowledge of a language's sound system, its words (meanings and forms), and its sentences
 - Such knowledge is usually unconscious
 - The other component of language is called a lexicon
- Why study language?
 - The questions that we try to ask and answer when we study language contribute to answer the ultimate questions about human beings

10/12: Language and Dialect

- Language variations/dialect differences
 - Is the way that any one person or group of people speak better than anyone else's?
- What is a **dialect**?
 - Popular: a dialect is a type of pseudo-language spoken by uneducated people
 - Popular: a type of speech that's different from your own
 - Popular: a dialect is a corrupt form of the language it's derived from
 - Popular: dialect are perceived as lacking grammar
 - A dialect refers to any variety of language spoken by a group of speakers

- Everyone speaks a dialect
 - There's no such thing as a good or bad dialect
 - A language is a collection of dialects, one of which has been adopted as the standard variety, which people think of as "the language"
 - Assigned for a variety of social/historical reasons
- Characteristics of a Standard Language
 - The dialect of the ruling or most influential class is adopted as the standard
 - Literacy → acquires a written form
 - Standardization → a grammar that provides the rules of the language
 - Has an authoritative dictionary
 - Spelling/writing is fixed → out of competing forms, a single one is adopted as correct
 - A correct pronunciation
 - Public life → taught in school, used in an official setting
- Language Variations
 - One dialect is often considered a prestige dialect
 - Often associated with positive attributes: education, sophistication, intelligence
 - Others are substandard
 - Associated with the reverse: ignorance, lack of education, laziness
- Understanding Variation
 - Language is used differently in different contexts
 - Varies according to geography, social class, political ideology, age, gender, sexual orientation, situation, time
- Geographic Variation
 - If variation is based on geography, we focus on geographic variations
 - Soda vs. pop vs. coke
 - American dialect vs. British dialect
- AAVE - African American Vernacular English
 - Sociolinguistic focus on AAVE after Civil Rights Movement for integration in schools
 - Be-deletion → occurs when SAE can use contractions
- Social Variation
 - **Eckert Study**
 - Studied a high school in Detroit, focusing on jocks vs. burnouts
 - Jocks - middle-class, intent to leave after graduation
 - Burnouts - working-class background, local friends, intent to stay
 - Strong correlation between social status and negative concord
 - Jock girls < jock boys < burnout girls < burnout boys < "burned out" burnout girls
 - Class-based h-deletion in Norwich
 - Social class up, h-deletion down
 - Variation in use of standard 3rd singular present -s in verbs
 - Social class up, -s drop down

- Notions of Correctness
 - Standard language form is thought of as the correct form → speakers have higher prestige
 - Educational System - teaches correct and incorrect grammar
 - Government - only standard form is used in official gov't business
 - Social class - linguistic properties are often correlated with socio-economic status
- Stigmatization
 - Double negation
 - Regularized verb forms
 - Different subject-verb agreement patterns
 - Ain't
- English Dialect Case Study - Singlish
 - Singapore is a highly ethnically diverse country
 - Lot's of native speakers
 - Singapore is highly multilingual → get to see what kind of English arose as a result of this
 - 4 official languages: Malay, Mandarin, Tamil, and English
 - English is the de facto language of gov't
 - English promoted as a neutral language
 - Strongly stigmatized → "English corrupted by Singaporeans"
 - Speak Good English movement
 - Discourse particles
 - Spoken indication of speaker's attitude
 - "Lah" - reassurance, impatience
 - "What" - marks obviousness or a contradiction
 - "Meh" - indicates surprise or skepticism
- Register Variation
 - Level of formality
 - Case study - "like" - not a marker of a particular dialect, used colloquially across multiple dialects
 - Critics concerned with the supposed deterioration of the English language
 - Use is meaningless, thought of as indicative of a limited vocabulary → wrong
 - Used as a quotative complementizer
 - Used as signal approximation/an approximative adverb
 - Used as a discourse marker → signals relationship between sentences
 - Could be exemplification, illustration, explanation, etc.
 - Used as a focus marker → indicates that what follows is important
 - Often associated with young people - "Valley Girl" → also false
 - Multiple uses of like have been around for a century
- Linguistic Profiling - using the characteristics of a person's speech to identify them as a member of a particular group

- Purnell, Idsardi, and Baugh - can you connect the way a person speaks and discrimination
 - Baugh found discrimination in landlord appointments when switching between SAE, AAVE, and Chicano English
 - The “hello” was clipped out of the introduction, the listener was able to identify the correct dialect 70% of the time
- Sign Languages
 - Diversity often goes unrecognized
 - 2-3 in 1000 babies born deaf, 2 million profoundly deaf people, 90% born to hearing parents, 100,000+ ASL users in US
 - Myth 1: Sign language is universal
 - There are many different sign languages (~300)
 - Mutually unintelligible
 - Different sign languages use different signs
 - There can be dialects of sign language
 - Myth 2: Sign language is iconic/just gestures
 - Some signs are iconic
 - Most signs are unguessable and are not iconic
 - If iconic, most signs would be similar across variations of sign language
 - Abstract concepts would be impossible to sign
 - Myth 3: Sign languages are encodings of spoken languages
 - Probably fostered by the existence of fingerspelling
 - Manual representation of the letters of a language, oftentimes if there is no sign for the word
 - Myth 4: Signed languages are just strings of hand motions
 - “Signed languages don’t have grammar” → false
 - If this were true, you could sign whatever you want
 - 5 basic parameters: shape of the hand, place of articulation, movement, palm orientation, facial expression
 - Each signed language has a restricted set of hand shapes that can be used

10/14: Variation in Language

- About Languages
 - We all have high-level grammatical insights without even being aware of it
 - These grammatical insights are described by linguists
 - Linguistics is the scientific field that scientifically studies language
 - Language is a cognitive faculty and can be expressed by speakers in multimodal dimensions
 - Sign languages - SLs provides some of the best evidence of a universal language device
 - We live in a multilingual world
 - Bilingualism/Multilingualism
 - Language diversity

- **Diglossia** - same speaker using 2 languages in 2 distinct social occasions, one formal and the other informal
- Space/Place
 - Regional differences are something everybody acknowledges
 - There are differences at any level of language use
 - Ex) American vs. British English
 - Why do regional/local differences develop?
 - Different places/varieties established by people from different places, backgrounds, varieties
 - Barriers to interaction let each variety develop in its own way (or avoid changes that happen elsewhere)
 - Different varieties are in contact with different other languages or varieties
 - This is easier to understand by looking at an actual example:
 - Sardinian varieties are different from the rest of Italo-Romance varieties
 - Geographical barrier - island
 - Extreme south Italy varieties are different from the rest of the dialects spoken in the Peninsula
 - Long-standing contact with Greek-speaking people - Magna Graecia
- Time/Age
 - Languages vary in time
 - The same language shows remarkable differences based on the time of attestation
 - The way the speakers speak changes in a lifetime
 - What does it mean if two people speak differently?
 - Two different possibilities
 - Age grading
 - There are stable ways of talking based on our age
 - When today's younger people age, they'll adopt older generation way of speaking
 - These changes across the lifespan could be due to different changes in life (entering the workforce, etc.)
 - Apparent time hypothesis
 - People born in 1930 reflect a 1930s way of talking, people born in 1990 reflect a 1990s way
 - This assumes that the way we speak is more or less steady the same throughout our lives
 - Comparing generations lets us see change as it happens
 - What does this mean for linguistics? We can study change while it happens
- Variation and Change
 - Languages do not change quickly
 - We all use both old and new forms together for a while

- Some of us use the old form, some use the new
 - So change over time is reflected in variation at any single time point
 - Not all variation is part of a change
 - Some variation is stable, sticks around for centuries
- Language Variation: Sign Languages
 - SLs
 - Fully developed human languages
 - Languages of deaf communities
 - Express meaning and convey grammatical features through a visual-gestural system (body, hands, facial gestures)
 - Universality confirmed!
 - Despite the different modality in which meaning and grammar are expressed, SLs confirm that language is a biological ability and a cognitive faculty acquire by all human beings
 - ASL varies from place to place
 - Two-handed vs. One-handed variants of the ASL cow based on southern region vs. other regions of the US
 - Change in time in BSL

10/15: Discussion 2

- Linguistic Variation
 - People speak differently from each other
 - Basic question: Is one person's way of speaking better than everyone else's
 - If yes, how is this determined?
 - If no, why not?
 - Habitual/Invariant Be: African American Language
 - Used to describe an action that occurs regularly over time
 - Adverbs: often, usually, always
 - Does not give any indication of whether they are currently in the process of doing that thing
 - Cannot mean that something has just happened once
 - All dialects are equally rule-governed and equally correct, but one dialect is considered a prestige dialect while others are considered (by non-linguists) to be substandard
 - Prestige dialects are associated with positive attributes (education level, sophistication, etc.)
 - Other dialects are considered the opposite
- Popular Notions of Dialect
 - A dialect is a pseudo-language spoken by uneducated or country people
- What is a dialect?
 - A dialect refers to any variety of a language that is shared by a group of speakers
 - Everyone speaks a dialect
- Thinking about Variation

- We have seen in the lectures that the dialects of AAVE and Singlish have grammar structures just like SAE
- Summary
 - Negative attitudes about non-standard speech are pervasive
 - We have seen these negative attitudes have no linguistic basis
 - Native speakers may be unaware of the grammar rules of non-standard speech

10/17: The Brain and Language

- Where is language processed in the brain?
 - Are all aspects of language processed in the same part of the brain?
 - What happens to language when this part gets damaged?
- Physical structure of the brain
 - 2 hemispheres
 - 2 cells: neurons and glia
 - Neurons have a soma (body), dendrites (electrical impulses bring info through these), axon (electrical impulses go out of the cell)
 - Outer shell is called the cortex
 - Cortex composed of billions of neural cell bodies
 - Sometimes called gray matter
 - Corpus callosum
 - Bundle of axons/white matter that connects the 2 hemispheres and allows them to communicate
 - Contralateral control
 - Stimuli from one side of the body is sent to the opposite side of the brain
 - Presentation of the stimulus in the right visual field of both eyes is processed through the left hemisphere, crosses the corpus callosum, and is communicated to the right hemisphere
 - Plays an important role in our understanding of language/its location in the brain
- Early ideas on the brain → phrenology
 - Developed parts of the brain are bigger and create bumps in your skull
 - Pseudoscience
 - Introduced the idea of locality in the brain
 - Left hemisphere
 - Written and spoken language
 - Dichotic listening
 - Simultaneously play 2 distinct sounds → subjects only report hearing one sound → almost always the right ear
 - This sound is the sound presented to the left hemisphere → suggests strong left hemisphere preference
 - Split brain patients
 - Patients with severed corpus callosum → hemispheres cannot communicate with each other
 - Words/images flashed into the left/right visual field

- Correct reporting of what is seen in the right visual field
 - Cannot report what is seen in the left visual field → could still draw what they saw → linguistic response unavailable
 - Very strong evidence that language is lateralized to the left hemisphere
- Wada Test
 - Anesthetizes one hemisphere of the patient's brain
 - Ask patient to identify an object in their left hand
 - No response when left hemisphere is anesthetized
 - Could still identify the object
 - Linguistic responses possible when the right hemisphere is anesthetized
- Brain imaging techniques
 - We can look at healthy brains to see what's going on
 - fMRI - Function Magnetic Resonance Imaging
 - A giant electromagnet
 - Can measure changes in magnetic properties in the brain
 - Activated neurons use more oxygenated blood → magnetic properties different between oxygenated and deoxygenated
 - Have the patient perform certain tasks to see which areas of the brain respond
 - Measure the patient's base signal and their signal when they're performing the task
- Language Areas in Left Hemisphere
 - Broca's Area
 - Observed Tan's brain → lesion in the local area, connected to linguistic disability
 - Damage to this part is called Broca's Aphasia
 - Speech is broken and halted - telegraphic speech
 - Words make some sense, but structure is incorrect → semantics are ok, syntax is not
 - "Agrammatic aphasia"
 - Good comprehension of simple sentences, poor comprehension of complex sentences
 - Writing ability
 - Few words, but they make sense
 - Wernicke's Area
 - Observed language deficits that didn't involve Broca's Area
 - Identified damage association in the temporal lobe
 - Damage to this part is called Wernicke's Aphasia
 - Speech is fluent, but doesn't make much sense
 - Grammar is not usually affected

- Problems with word choice and meaning → semantics off, syntax is ok
 - Comprehension severely impaired
 - “Semantic aphasia”
 - Writing ability
 - A lot of words, but they don’t make sense
 - Aphasia
 - A disruption of linguistic ability due to brain damage
 - Language isn’t just housed in a simple box in the brain
 - It’s localized to specific areas in the left hemisphere
- Sign Languages
 - Neuroimaging sign languages
 - Looked at hearing English speakers, hearing BSL signers, and deaf BSL signers
 - English speakers saw Broca’s and Wernicke’s lighting up
 - Hearing BSL signers saw Broca’s and Wernicke’s lighting up
 - Deaf BSL signers saw Broca’s and Wernicke’s lighting up
 - All groups pattern more or less the same for both hemispheres
 - Even though spoken languages and signed languages use different modalities, they’re both processed as language in the brain
 - Are language abilities related to general intelligence?
 - People often associate language ability with intelligence
 - If this is true, what should we find?
 - Low IQ → poor language ability
 - High IQ → high language ability
 - Specific Language Impairment (SLI)
 - Affects ~7-8% of kindergarten age children
 - Deals with very specific types of difficulty in grammar
 - Functional words, tense, plurality, etc.
 - May start speaking late and be hard to understand
 - These children have normal IQ and have equal cognitive ability in other areas
 - Only linguistic ability is affected
 - Doesn’t agree with hypothesis, expected correlation doesn’t hold
 - Williams Syndrome
 - If language is separate, we should find high language skills but low IQ cases
 - Overall IQ: 40-90
 - Limited spatial and motor skills
 - Extremely social and friendly
 - High level of vocabulary and grammar
 - Better than average facial recognition
 - Often love music

- Result of deletion of one copy of approx. 20 contiguous genes on chromosome 7
- Linguistic savants
 - People who have low general intelligence, but very high language intelligence
 - Another case of dissociation between language ability and IQ

10/21: Biological Linguistics

- How do we know that language is a biologically-determined ability?
- Language development and age/time
 - Language involves a critical period of language acquisition
 - A span of time after which complete acquisition is difficult or impossible
 - “Window of opportunity”
 - Critical period is widely documented, not only for our species
- Types of critical period in other species: acquisition of songs by birds
 - Young birds reared away from their species fail to acquire the song
 - Even when returning to their original habitat
 - If chaffinches isolated during 4th month, they do not acquire the birdsong of its species
 - Hearing the song before or after: useless
 - They need direct trigger during specific period
- Types of critical period in other species: kittens
 - Sight development in kittens
 - One eye temporarily closed when young
 - Fail to “wire up” their natural circuitry for that eye
 - Do not make up for that deficit later
- Types of critical period in other species: chickens
 - Pecking behavior triggered by exposure to light during the first 2 weeks of life
 - Chickens raised in the dark and fed with droppers for 2 weeks will not learn how to peck
- Experiments on humans? No
 - Humans cannot be directly tested the same way
 - Cases of lunatic or criminal behavior by parents
 - Well-studied case - Genie
 - Accidental situations (illness) have occasionally created such situations
 - Chelsea
 - Profoundly deaf from birth
 - Came from a loving home
 - Initially misdiagnosed as being intellectually disabled
 - Started learning language at age 32 when she was correctly diagnosed
 - Developed a fairly good lexicon
 - Syntax was broken
 - Some functional items present, but totally unprincipled

- E. M.
 - Profoundly deaf from birth
 - No contact with the deaf community
 - Hearing aids at 15 years
 - Normal IQ, cognitively functional
 - Severe deficiencies in verbal comprehension and production
 - After 4 years trying to learn Spanish
- Language is a biologically-based ability
 - E. Lenneberg (1967)
 - Hypothesized a critical period for language development
 - Biologically-determined ability
 - Language = walking upright
 - Critical period - period of time when the brain is undergoing a process of lateralization
 - Brain is divided into 2 parts
 - Lennenberg's Hypothesis: based on studies of recovery after aphasia
 - Children recover well, but adults do not
 - Maturational constraint on language acquisition
 - Issue of maturational changes in brain plasticity
 - Time affects brain plasticity
 - Different account: **neural commitment hypothesis**
 - During language acquisition, brain adapts to the structure of L1(s)
 - Language exposure tunes the system to select the useful input
 - Neurons become committed to encoding linguistically relevant properties of L1
 - Neurons cannot be recommitted upon L2 exposure
- What is an L2?
 - Natural language acquired after the L1
 - When the critical age of L1 acquisition is closed
 - L1 vs. L2 = acquisition differences
 - Not performance differences - L1 does not always correspond to the language in which an L2er is more proficient
- Comparing L1 and L2 acquisition
 - Is 2nd language acquisition in adults like first language acquisition in children
 - L1 and L2 acquisition are generally different
 - They start out differently
 - Clear-cut distinction: native language or not?
 - L1 and L2 acquisition are also comparable
 - L2ers like L1ers are creative in the process of language acquisition
 - L2ers construct grammars too
 - Fundamental Differences hypothesis
 - L1 and L2 adult acquisition - fundamentally different processes
 - L1 acquisition
 - A biologically-driven program specific to language

- Uniformity, absence of error, speed and ease of acquisition
- L2 acquisition
 - Adults use general problem solving skills
 - Learning process is goal-oriented, uses feedback and direct instruction
- The role of the learning context
 - Positive influence of naturalistic exposure on L2 sociolinguistic development
 - Effects of context of acquisition exerts a significant effect on multilinguals later pragmatic use of language
 - Languages learned only in a formal context
 - Use of L2 mostly in a formal context → lack of socio-pragmatic competence

10/22: Discussion 3

- Brain and Language
 - Localization of language in the brain
 - Aphasia
 - Intelligence
- Lateralization
 - What evidence do we have to say that language is processed in the left hemisphere?
- Dichotic Listening
 - What happens in a dichotic listening experiment?
 - Different sounds are played simultaneously to different ears
 - People almost always report the sound played to the right ear
 - Music is processed in the right hemisphere
 - In the dichotic listening test, subjects report hearing music in the left ear
- Wada Test
 - One hemisphere of a patient's brain is temporarily put to sleep
 - The patient is then asked to count numbers, identify objects, and answer questions
 - Left brain asleep?
 - Subject unable to produce language
 - Can identify picture of object
 - Left hemisphere is capable of subconscious language activity
- Split Brain
 - Corpus callosum severed - no communication between hemispheres
 - Based on contralateral nature of brain organization
- Two Types of Aphasia
 - Broca's Aphasia
 - Broken syntax
 - Semantically coherent

- Relatively good comprehension, can understand simple sentences but not complex sentences
- Wernicke's Aphasia
 - Patient can produce fluent sentences
 - Utterance doesn't make sense in meaning
 - Grammar usually not affected
 - Problem w/ word voice
 - Comprehension severely impaired
 - Semantic aphasia
- Sign Languages
 - Sign languages activate the same brain centers as normal language
 - Sign language uses visual-spatial cues
 - Usually processed in right hemisphere
 - Sign language processed in left hemisphere
- Language and Intelligence
 - People oftentimes associate language ability with general intelligence
 - Specific Language Impairment (SLI)
 - Very specific types of difficult with language, omission of function or grammatical words
 - Fall in the typical IQ range, normal ability in all other areas like speech comprehension and hearing
 - Williams Syndrome
 - Avg. IQ: 55
 - Limited spatial and motor skills
 - Extremely social and friendly
 - Typically have strong affinity for music
 - May have exceptional sense of rhythm, be moved emotionally by music
 - Linguistic Savants
 - Language is not tied up with general intelligence
 - Develops separately from other aspects of intelligence
- Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis
 - When we learn a new language, does our way of thinking change?
 - Wilhelm von Humboldt argued that certain language types are more adequate for thought and civilization
 - Whorf proposed a specific mechanism for how language influences thought
 - Guide to the interpretation of experience
 - Speaker interpretation → language-specific meanings
 - Language suggests associations not entailed by experience
 - Formulations

10/24: Phonetics

- **Phonetics** is how speech sounds are produced, transmitted, and perceived
 - We're going to focus on their production

- When you know the phonetics of your language, what do you know?
 - The phonetic inventory - the set of sounds in the language
 - SAE includes subsets of consonants and vowels
 - Doesn't include other types of sounds
 - What do you know when you know the phonetic inventory of a language?
 - You know how to separate a continuous stream of speech into distinct words and a word into distinct sounds
- Vocal tract
 - Structures that work together to produce speech sounds
 - The way we pronounce vowels and consonants is directly related to this structure
 - Alveolar ridge
 - Hard palate
 - Soft palate/velum
 - Uvula
 - Pharynx
 - Glottis
- Spelling
 - Why do we need to use articulators to define sounds?
 - Why can't we rely on orthography/spelling?
 - Spelling is full of inconsistencies when it comes to sounds
 - **Orthography**
 - Phonetics != spelling → same symbols make different sounds/same sounds made by different symbols/symbols that aren't pronounced
 - **International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA)**
 - Why use the IPA?
 - Each symbol has a one to one correspondence with a sound
 - It can be used to represent any human language
 - IPA symbols enclosed in square brackets
 - phone = [fon]
 - Consonants vs. vowels
 - Sounds of language fall into these 2 classes → different kinds of sound
 - Consonants:
 - Produced with some closure in the vocal tract that impedes the flow of air from the lungs
 - **Place of articulation** - where is the consonant produced?
 - **Articulation** - part of the mouth touches or interacts with another area of the vocal tract → 7 places of articulation
 - **Bilabials** - [p], [b], [m] → sounds produced by bringing both lips together
 - **Labiodentals** - [f], [v] → bottom lip to the upper teeth

- **Interdentals** - thigh, thus → sounds produce by inserting the tip of the tongue between the upper teeth and the lower teeth
- **Alveolars** - [t], [d], [n], [s], [z], [l], [r] → sounds produced by raising the tip of the tongue to the alveolar ridge
- **Palatals** - mission, measure, cheap, judge, you → sound produced by raising the front part of the tongue to the hard palate
- **Velars** - [k], [g], [ŋ] → sounds produced by raising the back of the tongue to the soft palate or velum
- **Glottals** - [h], [ʔ] → produced with the flow of air through the open glottis
 - uh-oh - [ʔ] → produced when air is stopped completely at the glottis - glottal stop
- **Labio-velar** - [w] → sounds produced by a combination of pursed lips and raising the back of the tongue to the velum
- **Voicing** - are the vocal folds vibrating (voiced) or not (voiceless-open glottis)
 - Pie vs. Buy
 - Tie vs. Die
 - Cap vs. Gap
 - Voiceless vs. Voiced
 - **Voiceless** - vocal folds/cords are apart, air flows freely through the glottis - [s]
 - **Voiced** - vocal folds/cords are together, air forces through, causing vibrations - [z]
- **Manner of articulation** - how is the consonant produced?
 - **Stops** - there is a complete obstruction of airflow somewhere in the vocal tract
 - **Oral stops**
 - The velum is raised to block the nasal cavity so that when the stop is released, the air flows out through the mouth
 - **Nasal stops**
 - The velum is lowered to open the nasal cavity
 - **Aspiration** - a brief puff of air that escapes after the stop is released and before the vocal cords begin vibrating

- [p^h]
 - Voiceless oral stops are aspirated in word-initial position
- **Fricatives** - major, but not complete, obstruction in the vocal tract
 - The opening through which the air escapes is small, so a turbulent noise is produced as a result
 - [f], [v], [theta], etc.
 - The articulators are really close, so there is a lot of friction in a small space
- **Affricates** - made by briefly stopping airflow completely, then slightly releasing closure so that a fricative-like noise is made
 - Stop quickly followed by a fricative
- **Liquids** - some minor obstruction of airflow, but air still passes through
 - [l], [r]
 - [l] is a lateral liquid
 - Air flows on the sides of the tongue
 - [r] is a retroflex liquid
 - Tongue is curled back behind the alveolar ridge
- **Glides** - very small obstruction of airflow, articulators move closer together, but not by much
 - [j] - palatal glide
 - [w] - labio-velar glide
- **Trilled [r]** - Indian English, not present in American English
 - One articulator touches another in a very rapid-fire, repeating motion
 - Dialects of the same language differ by their phonetic inventories
 - Knowledge of your native language includes knowing what's in your phonetic inventory
- Vowels:
 - **Tongue position** - front, center, or back?
 - **Tongue height** - high, mid, or low?
 - High - beet, bit, boot, book
 - Mid - bait, bet, about, but, boat, bought
 - Low - bat, cot
 - **Tenseness** - is your tongue tense or lax?
 - Tense - muscles tensed and mouth is relatively narrower, slightly higher and longer than lax vowels

- **Lip rounding** - are your lips rounded or not?
 - 4 rounded vowels
 - 8 unrounded
 - Cot-caught merger → [upside-down c] and [a] merge
 - By itself, lip rounding makes no distinctions between vowels
 - **Diphthong** - combinations of two vowels
 - At least 3 in English
 - eye, boy, house → combine a vowel and a glide
- **Natural Classes:**
 - Groups of sounds that can be identified by sharing particular features
 - Helps us understand differences between dialects
 - Ex) Canadian Raising → happens before voiceless consonants
- **Transcription** - rendering a word in IPA
 - Can be more sounds in a word than there are letters
 - Other times there are far fewer sounds than letters
 - Letters and sounds have a disconnect
- **Reverse Transcription** - IPA → English
- **Syllabic Sounds**
 - Every language has rules about which sounds can function as the center of a syllable
 - Syllable nuclei in English - almost always vowels, but occasionally we allow liquids and nasals to act as the nucleus
 - Marked with diacritics
 - Can also be represented with a schwa + the letter
- **William Labov in NYC**
 - Systematic variation in [r] pronunciation based on social class, attention paid to speech, linguistic context of a variant
 - NYC has a dropped [r] → word-final position and when the [r] sound precedes another constant
 - Pronunciation of [r] is prestigious
 - Dropping of [r] is perceived as nonstandard speech
 - Went to 3 classes of stores and asked for sale on the fourth floor
 - 2 kinds each → casual and careful articulation
 - 2 environments of [r] sound
 - Floor [r] pronounced 63%, 44%, 8% from high society → low
 - Second attempt: 64%, 61%, 18% → marker of the speech of people lower on the socio-economic ladder
 - Separate study looked at realization of [r] before a constant

- Looked at realization in casual speech, formal speech, reading style, word lists
 - Follows results of shopping center study
- Received Pronunciation (RP)
 - Prestige dialect → [r]-less dialect
 - Disconnect between social classes in British English and NYE
 - Studied by Peter Trudgill in Reading, England
 - Direct relationship found, direct opposite from NYE study
 - Phonetic markers of social class are arbitrary
 - Prestige or lack of prestige associated with particular phonetic markers is not random
 - More marginalized speakers = more marginalized speech forms
 - Can see how attitudes towards non-standard dialects are shaped
- Phonology - how speech sounds are organized in different languages
 - Phonology is the linguistic knowledge a speaker has of the sound patterns that are possible in a language
 - Pan - alveolar nasal end n
 - Pancake - velar nasal end ŋ → n precedes velar nasal k
 - Pan bread - bilabial nasal end m → precedes a bilabial stop b
 - [tʰjʌn] vs. [tʰʌn]
 - American English prohibits certain combinations of sounds in word initial position
 - Yod is dropped when it follows word-initial alveolar sounds
 - What is the organization of sounds in a given language?
 - Which sounds are predictable and which are unpredictable based on the environment?
 - What are the phonetic contexts which allow us to predict the appearance or disappearance of these qualities?
- Sign Language
 - To what extent are signed languages like spoken languages?
 - Can we find phonetics in sign language?
 - Differ in the handshapes that are permissible
 - In spoken language the individual sounds in a word are meaningless
 - Similar to how the individual handshapes in ASL are meaningless
 - When we think about sounds in language, we can characterize them in terms of features
 - We can do the same with handshapes
 - Parameters (or primes) - discrete units of a sign
 - Handshape
 - Place of articulation
 - Movement
 - Palm orientation

10/28: Linguistic Change

- Case of Martha's Vineyard
 - Island in the US East coast
 - Shift in the phonetic position of the first elements of the diphthongs /ai/ and /au/
 - Studied the frequency and distribution of phonetic variants in:
 - Several areas
 - Different age groups
 - Different occupational groups
 - Different ethnic groups
 - Island speech was characterised by the mild centralization of the first element of /ai/ in words such as wife, night, right, etc.
 - Little to no centralization of the first element of /au/ in house, out, about, etc.
 - Centralization means a goes from low to mid schwa
 - Demographics in the early 60s:
 - Permanent pop. - 6000
 - Consisted of Yankees (descendants of early settlers), Portuguese (more recent arrivals), and Native Americans + misc. group (15%)
 - Big influx of visitors in summer - 40,000
 - Eastern part of island - "Down Island"
 - More densely populated and favored by visitors
 - Western part of island - "Up Island"
 - More original inhabitants and strictly rural
 - Chilmark: center of once important fishing industry (~2.5% of ppl.)
 - Chilmark fishermen antipathetic to the summer people
 - Chilmark fisherman regarded by other islanders as independent, skillful, physically strong, courageous
 - Labov's Study
 - Face to face interviews with 69 informants
 - Lexical questionnaire
 - Questions about value judgements (to explore the social orientation of the speaker) and elicit as many diphthongs as possible
 - Recordings of school pupils reading texts
 - Recordings in very casual situations (bars, stores, etc.)
 - Initial results:
 - Plotted use of centralized vowel against various parameters
 - Age, pop. group, occupation, location
 - Summary:

- Centralization of diphthongs most prevalent in
 - Age: 31-45
 - Origin: Yankees, only by a little
 - Occupation: Fisherman mostly, less in people working in tourism
 - Location: Up Island residents, esp. around Chilmark
 - Explanation:
 - Centralizing tendency was actually diminishing in the 1930s
 - Remained in dialect of middle-aged rural fisherman
 - With the advent of tourists, there was an unconscious change among those who most closely identified with the island
 - Expression of strong resistance to the incursions of the summer people
- Significance?
 - Until Labov, dialect studies had focused on rural speakers and had ignored social factors
 - Urban accents were thought to be too adverse and to heterogenous to study
 - Labov's conclusion: social factors were in fact the most significant and important

10/29: Discussion 4

- Consonants
 - Place of articulation: where is the constant produced
 - Bilabials - bringing both lips together
 - Labiodentals - touching the bottom lip to the upper teeth
 - Interdental - inserting the tip of the tongue between the teeth
 - Alveolars - tongue raised in various ways to the alveolar ridge
 - Palatals - raising the front part of the tongue to the palate
 - Velars - raising the back of the tongue to the velum/soft palate
 - Uvulars - raising the back of the tongue to the uvula
 - Sounds do not ordinarily occur in English
 - Glottals
 - Glottal stop (uh-oh)
 - Voicing: are the vocal folds vibrating
 - Voiceless - vocal cords are apart so that air flows freely through the glottis
 - Voicing - vocal cords are together so that the glottis vibrates
 - Manner of articulation: degree of constriction in the vocal tract

- Stops - consonants in which the airstream is completely blocked in the oral cavity for a short period of time and the velum is raised so that no air can escape from the nasal cavity
- Nasal stops - consonants in which the airstream is completely blocked in the oral cavity for a short period of time and the velum is lowered so that air can escape from the nasal cavity
- Fricative - airflow is so severely obstructed that it causes friction
- Affricates - these sounds are produced by a stop closure followed immediately by a gradual release in closure
- Liquid - there is some obstruction of the airstream in the mouth, but not enough to cause any real constriction or friction
- Glides - produced with little obstruction of the airstream
- Vowels
 - Tongue position - front, central, back
 - Tenseness - tense, lax
 - Tongue height - high, mid, low
 - Roundness - rounded, unrounded

11/2: Morphology

- Morphology is the study of words - their structure, function, and distribution
 - Goal is to understand how words are represented in the mind of the speaker
- Knowledge of words
 - What do we know when we know a word?
 - The arbitrary sounds associated with a word
 - The word's meaning
 - The word's syntactic category
 - Syntactic categories will be important when we talk about word and sentence formation
 - What do we not know?
 - We might not know how a word is written
 - We may or may not know the etymology of the word
 - Lexicon - our own personal store of words
 - Every word we know has a lexical entry
 - Our mental dictionary includes all the words we know and everything associated with those words
 - Difference between physical dictionaries?
 - Physical dictionary contains many words we don't know
 - Printed dictionaries often don't contain words that speakers use

- Looking inside words
 - Morphemes - the smallest linguistic unit that has meaning
 - A morpheme is not equivalent to a word
 - All words consist of at least one morpheme
 - Discreteness of language - each morpheme is a discrete unit of meaning, which we can manipulate
 - We can combine morphemes to create words
 - We can decompose words into their morphemes
 - Property of all human knowledges
 - Free vs. Bound
 - Free morpheme - a morpheme that can stand alone as a free word
 - 2 types:
 - Content/lexical - most nouns, verbs, and adverbs → open class, we can add more to create new content words
 - Functional - serve some grammatical purpose
 - he, she, it, a, the, etc.
 - Closed class, we can't usually create new words in them
 - Lexical vs. Functional
 - Broca's aphasia patients leave many functional morphemes out of their speech
 - Leaves lexical morphemes alone
 - Selective in impairment
 - Bound morpheme - must be attached to a free morpheme
 - -ed, -ing, -s, pre-, re-, un-
 - 2 types:
 - Inflectional - grammatical, they affect the grammar of the word they attach to
 - Do not typically change the category of a word
 - 8: -s, (3rd person singular present, plural, possessive), -ed, -ing, -en/ed, -er, -est
 - Attach to a particular category of word → can attach to almost any word of the particular category
 - Refine meaning, don't change the core meaning

- Derivational - help to derive new word categories
 - Often change the part of speech
 - Usually not as productive as inflectional morphemes
 - We can transform words into something else all the time, but we know what's ok and what's not → allows us to create novel words
 - Words have structure and morphemes are the building blocks → creative, yet structured
 - Affixes combining
 - Certain affixes attach to certain kinds of words
 - Word trees:
 - Runner → run -er
 - Greasy → grease -y
 - Create a roadmap of how to build a word
 - Only combine in a particular order and only with specific categories of other morphemes
 - Be careful of ambiguous words
 - Unlockable
 - Affixation
 - One process which we use to build new words
 - We can adapt the meaning of a word by piling more affixes onto it
 - Affix - any morpheme that attaches to a root (bound morpheme)
 - Suffix - affixes that attach after the root
 - English causatives - -en → derivational suffix
 - New bound morpheme? -ass
 - Acts as an intensifier → bound morpheme
 - Infixation
 - Infix - an affix that attaches inside the root
 - Expletive infixation
 - Iz infixation
 - Homeric infixation
 - Circumfixation
 - Circumfix - affixes that surround the root both initially and finally
- Morphological Analysis
 - Case Study: Kanuri
 - Chadic language of Nigeria
 - n[schwa]m- is the morpheme that derives nouns from adjectives
 - The absence of an affix can be significant
 - Null symbol identifies an unmarked morpheme

- The English plural morpheme
 - [s], [z], [lɪz] are allomorphs of the plural morpheme
 - Wug Testing
 - [s] - voiceless
 - [z] - voiced
 - [lɪz] - sibilants
- Inflection
 - Inflection morphemes are purely grammatical - tense, number, gender, case, etc.
 - Often very productive
 - Typically come after derivational morphemes in a word
 - Can perform a great number of things
 - English doesn't make great use of this property - case marking
- Word Formation
 - Affixation, prefixation, suffixation, infixation, circumfixation
 - Reduplication - forming new words by duplicating part or all of an existing word
 - Contrastive Focus Reduplication
 - "We're not living together-living together"
 - Puts focus on the most prototypical, stereotypical example of something
 - Singlish
 - Makes extensive use of reduplication
 - Allows for reduplication of nouns, adjectives and verbs
 - Adds a closeness aspect to it
 - Constrained by one syllable for proper names
 - Adjectival reduplication
 - Plain adjective and comparatives can be replicated
 - Superlatives cannot be
 - Verb reduplication
 - Reduplicating once - to do something a little bit
 - Replicating twice - continuous action

11/4: Morphological and Syntactic Variation

- Reduplication in Italo-Romance
 - The case of the formation of superlatives
 - At least 3 ways of expressing the superlative degree of an adjective
 - One is a pure morphological derivation: -issim- suffix
 - SID lacks this superlative formation method
- Variation in Syntax: Comparing Latin American Spanish and Iberian Spanish

- Majority of Spanish speakers who exported Spanish in Latin American came from the Andalusia
 - Many dialects of Latin American Spanish share a variety of features with Andalusian varieties
- Word and syllable final /s/ > [h]
 - Aspiration of /s/ when placed at the end of a syllable
 - Iberian Spanish [s] is pronounced
 - Latin American Spanish [s] → [h]
 - Andalusian Spanish
 - /s/ can be deleted
 - Possible morphological consequences
- Points of Difference
 - Phonetics, morphology, syntax, lexis
 - LAmSp weak pronouns can be reduplicated

11/5: Discussion 5

- Types of morphemes
 - Free: lexical and functional
 - Lexical morphemes form an open class → we can coin new words from the available morphemes
 - Functional morphemes form a closed class → we cannot coin or create new items from this class
 - Prepositions
 - Pronouns
 - Conjunctions
 - Determiners - a, an, the, etc
 - Bound: derivational and inflectional
 - Derivational - can changes the syntactic category of the word they attach to
 - Inflectional morphemes never change the category of the root word

11/12: Syntax

- Syntax is the study of how phrases and sentences are constructed
- There are a lot of similarities between word construction and sentence construction
- 2 approaches
 - Ordered linearly - no hierarchy
 - Words have internal structure, grouped into constituents
 - Words are not linear in a sentence
- Constituents

- Words are grouped into units called constituents
- Sometimes more than one grouping is possible
- Infinitely extended length
- Word order is constrained
 - Known when we know a language
 - Basic word order varies greatly across languages
 - English - subject - verb - object
 - Matters in meaningless sentences
 - Disassociate syntax and meaning - “colorless green ideas sleep furiously”
- Similar building blocks across languages
 - Same syntactic categories - nouns and verbs, maybe adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, articles, prepositions, etc.
- Determining constituency
 - Even though we have not been taught, we have intuitions about what counts as a consistent or a unit of the syntax
 - This kind of knowledge is part of native speakers’ knowledge of language
 - There are a number of linguistic tests that we can use to test whether or not a given string of words is a constituent
 - Perform multiple tests - 1 failed test is not enough to give up
 - Every sentence/word is a constituent
- Syntactic categories
 - Traditional approach is to determine syntactic categories by looking at meaning
 - Behavioral approach
 - A word is what it does
 - Determine a word’s syntactic category by how it behaves, not what it means
 - Nouns - follows a definite article, indefinite article, numeral, which phrase, or a possessor
 - The book, a book, six books, which book, Mary’s book
 - Verbs - a word that can combine with the tense suffixes
 - Wiped, wipes
 - Adjectives - an item that can appear in the position following seem/seems
 - He seems happy
 - If -er or -est can be added to the word, or the word can follow more or most
 - Happier, happiest, more promising, the most promising
- Constituency Tests

- Replacement test:
 - There are 2 types of replacement
 - Pronoun replacement test - many constituents can be replaced by pronouns
 - The resulting sentence must be grammatical and have the same meaning
 - I found the puppy at the park → I found him at the park
 - The puppy is a constituent
 - Do so/do too replacement test
 - Can the string of words be replaced by do so or do too → verb phrases
 - Must maintain the original meaning
 - The old man found a dollar → The old man did so
 - Found a dollar is a constituent
- Stand-alone test
 - A chunk of words that can stand on its own as an answer to a question is a constituent
- Movement test
 - When a group of words can be moved around within a sentence, it's a constituent by definition
 - Fronting - moving a group of words to the beginning of a sentence → grammatical + same basic meaning = constituent
 - Clefting - breaking up a sentence and feeding it into the formula: it is/was _____ that _____.
- Constituency tests to trees
 - All English sentences must contain (minimally) a noun and a verb
 - Noun phrase and a verb phrase
 - Phrase structure rules
 - $S \rightarrow NP VP$
 - A sentence must contain a noun phrase and a verb phrase
 - $NP \rightarrow (DET) (Adj) N (PP)$
 - Noun phrases have an optional determiner, optional adjective, mandatory noun, and optional prepositional phrase
 - NPs are interchangeable in sentences, you can replace an NP with another NP
 - Targeted by pronoun replacement
 - $VP \rightarrow V (NP) (PP) (Adv)$

- Verb phrases have a mandatory verb, optional noun phrase, optional prepositional phrase, and optional adverb
 - VPs can be inserted into a sentence in a position which requires a verb
 - Do so/do too targets VPs
 - PP → Prep (NP)
 - Prepositional phrases have a mandatory preposition and an optional noun phrase
- Phrase structure trees
 - Syntactic trees allow us to see/encode the constituency of a sentence directly
 - When we use trees, we must do 2 things:
 - Accurately represent word order
 - Identify constituents
 - Are like blueprints for a sentence
 - Show us how sentences are built
 - How they can be broken down into pieces
 - Where do these trees/constituent structures come from?
 - How do speakers correctly structure their utterances?
 - Leading hypothesis: speakers appeal to unconscious/internalized phrase structure rules
 - Part of knowledge of native language - you know phrase structure rules that enable you to make hierarchy constituent structures effortlessly
 - Terminology:
 - Node - a labeled branch point, where the syntactic category is labelled
 - Domination - every higher node dominates all the categories beneath it
 - Sisters - 2 categories that are directly under the same node
 - Head - the lexical item which determines its syntactic category
 - Head of a NP is always a noun, head of a BP is always a verb
 - Complement - gives additional info about the head
 - Will be a sister of the head
 - Every category can have a complement
 - The complement may be another phrase with another head inside of it
- Crosslinguistic differences
 - English - head precedes the complement, Japanese - complement precedes the head

- Japanese - phrase structure: VP → NP V
- Structural ambiguity
 - Sometimes the meaning of sentence is straightforward
 - Sometimes may have multiple interpretations
 - Lexical ambiguity
 - A single word may have multiple meanings
 - Word structure ambiguity
 - Syntactic structure ambiguity
- Habitual be in AAVE
- Multiple modals in Southern US English
- Syntactic processes
 - Subject auxiliary inversion - inversion of subject and auxiliary verb positions
 - Appears in AAVE → negative inversion
 - Wh-questions - wh-words end up at the front of the sentence
 - Conditional inversion - if...then clauses
 - Varies based on the English dialect → use in different contexts

11/12: Language Acquisition

- How do children acquire their first language?
 - Who's the teacher?
 - Direct instruction doesn't work, much of the knowledge is subconscious
 - Acquisition happens effortlessly
 - What is the input data?
 - Adults only utter grammatical sentences → positive evidence
 - Ambient linguistic data available to children does not include ungrammatical sentences → negative evidence
 - Only input available to children is positive evidence
 - Children can distinguish between grammatical and ungrammatical
 - How do children interpret novel data?
 - Children are only exposed to a finite number of sentences
 - However, they eventually acquire the ability to generate and understand an infinite number of sentences
 - What errors do children make?
 - They speak differently from adults
 - Pattern of their errors seems to be selective or limited
 - They would not make certain errors that would be overgeneralized from what they hear in adult speech
 - Regular vs. irregular verbs

- Regular → -ed
 - Irregular → no -ed
 - Overgeneralized by children
- Auxiliary verbs
 - Not overgeneralized with -ed
- 4 facts: no instruction is involved, no negative evidence, finite input leads to infinite productivity, non-adult-like errors → Logical Problem of Language Acquisition
 - “Poverty of the Stimulus” → input from the child’s linguistic environment doesn’t seem to be enough to produce fluent speech
- Theory of Imitation - children imitate the adults around them in certain situation
 - Overgeneralizations tells us this theory is wrong
 - Children make errors that adults don’t make
- Theory of Correction/Reinforcement - children learning is based on correction of bad sentences + positive reinforcement for correct speech
 - There seems to be no systematic positive or negative reinforcement from adults
 - Approval expressed after 45% of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences
 - Theory bad
 - Piedmont/Inuit/K’iche’/Mohawk
- Theory of Innateness
 - Model of innateness: developed with primary focus of addressing PoS
 - Language knowledge is innately specified
 - Richly structured
 - Innate knowledge of a language is called UG, blueprint for language
 - If language is innate, why do people come to acquire various different languages as their first languages?
 - UG component (categories of linguistic expressions, structured sentences and phrases) + specific properties (nouns/verbs/subjects/objects representation in the language, sentence structure)
 - UG is like the seed of a grammar of any language
 - UG is like the OS of a computer, variations of language are software → must fit with the OS
- What is acquired?
 - Word order acquisition
 - Phonetic and phonological acquisition
- What is acquisition driven by?

- Example suggests language acquisition does not seem to be driven by imitation, correction, or reinforcement
- Children's knowledge of language is complex and shows subtle implicit knowledge of rules
- Since we are not overly taught these things, the claim is that this knowledge is hard-wired into the human genome
- UG therefore facilitates first language acquisition, which explains why children develop language so effortlessly, rapidly, and uniformly across species
- Critical Period Hypothesis
 - Chaffinches acquiring song
 - Kittens and vertical/horizontal sight
 - Goslings and moving objects
 - Environmental input required during critical period for development
 - Birth → onset of puberty
 - Victor
 - Language progress was generally poor after 5 years of training
 - Genie
 - Learned how to communicate a message, acquire vocabulary
 - Could not use grammatical morphemes, use complex syntax structures
 - Showed language processing in the right hemisphere
 - Unclear if related to abuse
 - Chelsea
 - Deaf, misdiagnosed as mentally retarded until 31
 - Raised in loving and supportive environment
 - Developed a 2000+ word vocabulary
 - Able to hold a job, read, and write
 - Unable to acquire simple word order or complex syntax
 - Acquisition of ASL
 - Deaf children whose parents don't sign
 - Normal early childhood, except for lack of language input
 - Early exposure are far superior in signing than later learners
 - Compared 3 groups:
 - Native signers
 - Early learners
 - Delayed learners
 - Native → early → delayed
 - All signers had been signing for 20 years
- Second language acquisition

- Age of arrival is a better predictor of accent than number of years speaking
- Childhood Aphasia
 - Recovery is faster and much better
 - Right hemisphere can step in and take over if needed
 - 0-3 months - no effect
 - 21-36 months - language accomplishments disappear, re-acquire all stages
 - 3-10 years - aphasic symptoms, tendency for full recovery
 - 11+ years - aphasic symptoms persist
 - Lateralization tied to the critical period

11/22: Language Contact

- Language contact occurs when 2 or more languages or dialects come into extended contact with each other
- Languages and speakers do not exist in isolation, but in social settings
- When we talk about language contact, we're talking about human contact
- Outcomes
 - What happens when cultures with multiple different languages come into extended contact?
 - Widespread bilingualism/codeswitching
 - Selection of a lingua franca - any language used to enable communication between groups of people with differing native languages
 - Language creations - pidgins and creoles
 - Language shift/endangerment and language death
 - Borrowing
 - Extremely common and need not be the result of extended contact between languages
 - Words, phonetics, morphology, syntax
- Language contact occurs in situations where groups of speakers of different languages come into contact with one another through
 - Geography
 - Conquest/war
 - Trade
- Terminology
 - Adstrates - languages in contact that equal prestige
 - Superstrate - language of dominant group
 - Lexifier language - the input language that provided most of the basic vocabulary or lexicon
 - Substrate - language of the less dominant group

- Typically provides most of the phonological and grammatical features
- Pidgins and creoles
 - Speakers of mutually unintelligible languages are often brought together, perhaps through economic, political, or social factor
 - In order to communicate, they need to overcome the lack of a common language
 - Pidgin language - simplified language used in specific interactions such as business, trade, and service
 - Found across the globe
 - Has no native speakers
 - Governed by convention, have established vocabulary and grammatical structures
 - Have grammars that are simpler than the grammars of their source languages
 - The vocabulary is usually highly restricted and contains few terms for abstract objects
 - Pidgins are not mutually intelligible with their sources
 -
 - Creole languages - Once children begin to acquire a pidgin as a native language, it becomes a creole
 - As children acquire a pidgin as an L1, they transform its minimal grammar into a thorough, complex grammar
 - Not broken versions of another language → perception comes from presence of the lexifier language
 - Essentially the result of colonization, arose because groups of speakers needed to communicate
 - No group large enough to strongly push their own language
 - Phonetics and phonology
 - Simplified consonant clusters
 - Stopping of fricative
 - Pidgins and creoles tend to have sounds that are common across languages
 - Cross-linguistically rare sounds are not found
 - Pidgins are not tonal, even when the input languages are tonal
 - Pidgins lack inflectional morphology
 - Use of reduplication to indicate plural
 - Not uncommon for creoles to lack inflectional morphology, but some do have it

- Pidgins may have flexible word order
 - Creoles tend to have more fixed word order
 - Basic word order tends to be subject-verb-object
 - No complex sentences in pidgins
 - Creoles have complex sentences since they have fully developed grammars
 - Pidgins don't have definite or indefinite articles
 - Many creoles lack articles, but some do have them
 - Creoles have fully developed tense systems
- Endangerment and death
 - This occurs when people no longer speak a particular language
 - Usually because they adopt another language
 - Scale of language loss (ethnologue)
 - 5% of the world's languages are spoken by 94% of people
 - ~7% are almost extinct
 - Unequal distribution → hotspots of linguistic diversity
 - About 90% of the human languages are on the verge of being lost
 - Language death - when the last speaker of a language dies
 - Language shift - process by which a language community adopts another language
 - Almost always precedes language death
 - Based on study that there will be 50% language loss in the next 100 years
 - Why do we care?
 - We need diversity
 - Human cultures are the result of this diversity
 - Analogy to ecosystem diversity → the ecological system and its residents are valuable in and of themselves
 - Language is an integral part to culture → loss of language is a loss to the culture in which the language is embedded
 - Each language expresses a unique realization of the human experience
 - Language expresses identity
 - Languages are repositories of history
 - Lexicon can give us a window into the past of the speakers of the language
 - For many histories, they are recorded in only a spoken language
 - As languages are lost, speakers lose access to part of their history
 - Languages contribute to the sum total of human knowledge

- Each language is a repository of shared and accumulated knowledge of speakers over centuries
 - Also counts as the potential loss of future knowledge
- Languages are interesting in themselves
 - Incredibly complex manifestations of the human mind
 - Loss of language → loss of chance to understand how the mind works
- Why do languages die?
 - Factors which put people in physical danger
 - Natural disasters leading to death/destruction of habitat
 - Disease
 - Economic exploitation
 - Genocide/war/ethnic murder
 - Factors which change the people's culture
 - Cultural assimilation
 - Military dominance
 - Urbanization
 - Media
 - Bilingualism
 - Stages of assimilation
 - Pressure on people to speak dominant language
 - Results in emerging bilingualism in children
 - Younger generations gifts to the dominant language
 - Results in shame at using the minority language
 - Leads to self-conscious semilingualism
 - Leads to dominant language monolingualism
 - Can occur in a single generation
 - Discovery of what has been lost
 - Forced assimilation → native children forced to assimilate
 - Language death is similar to language shift in that it's a gradual process
 - Functions of one language are taken over in one domain after another by a different language
 - Language death is manifested as a gradual loss of fluency by its speakers, competence gradually erodes over time
 - Language shift is almost inevitable without active language maintenance
 - Thinking that a language is no longer useful may result in language loss
 - Rapid shift occurs when speakers are eager to fit in to society

- What can we do to prevent language death/shift
 - Understand factors that affect language shift in the first place
 - Attitudes of the members of the dominant culture → accept the idea of linguistic diversity
 - Applies to dialects of a language as well as minority languages
 - Patterns of languages use: socio-economic factors
 - The more domains a minority language is used in, the easier it is to maintain it
 - Demographic factors
 - Large enough community of speakers
 - The community is able to isolate itself from the influences of the majority
 - Improved roads, buses, TV, etc. are agents of language shift
 - Intermarriage can accelerate language shift towards language of partner who speaks majority language, unless multilingualism is the norm in society
 - Attitudes to the minority language from the speakers
 - Pride and respect for the language
 - Language shift is faster in communities where the ethnic language is not highly valued
 - Symbol of the ethnic identity → less likely for language shift to occur
 - Language is an important component of identity and culture, maintaining a group's identity and culture is important to them → they maintain their ethnic language to maintain their identity
 - Speakers need to have a say in the educational system
 - Show that the language can be used in education, such as the creation of bilingual educational materials
 - Training of native speakers as teachers
 - Creation of language materials that are easy to use
 - Development of written literature, both traditional and new
 - Speakers must have access to electronic technology
 - Allows speakers of minority languages to be in contact with each other

12/1: Language Change Over Time

- Why are languages diverse?
 - Divine intervention - Tower of Babylon
 - Romance languages come from Roman Empire's spread over Europe
 - Various regions get descendants of Latin
 - Social use
 - Maintenance of identity between social groups
 - Notice diversity and act on it
 - Separation from original community followed by innovation in future generations
 - Builds on top of itself
 - Analogous to Darwin's finches
 - Movement
- Learned vs. innate
 - Requires hierarchical grouping
 - Learn how language works by growing up in the community the language is prominent in
 - Instinctually group sound into meaningful units
 - Explains whether languages are similar or diverse
- Can see progression from earliest examples of English to modern English
- Early Middle English Vowel Shortening
 - Long vowel becomes short when it was followed by either 2 consonants or 2 unstressed syllables
- The Great English Vowel Shift - distinguished middle English from modern English
 - Vowels move up
- Languages are genetically related if their histories can be traced back to a single ancestor
 - Comparative method - requires languages have systematic sound correspondences
 - Mass comparison method - find resemblances across language
 - Can statistically rule out missed correspondences or accidental matches if enough data is present