Chapter 9

Conclusion: Towards Healthy Futures in the Language Sciences

"Prejudice is a burden that confuses the past, threatens the future, and renders the present inaccessible." – Maya Angelou

9.1 The Argument So Far

I have been the one to assemble these pages, but it is a story that belongs to us all. Countless languages and language varieties are minoritized, marginalized, stigmatized, and even oppressed, for reasons that have nothing to do with their complexity, expressivity, cultural richness, or inherent scientific interest. The preceding chapters are but a few pieces of a jigsaw that I have collected and assembled, but they are one we as a field and as a species continuing each day to build together. Within the two years I have spent writing this book, for example, the reality of the situation of the Uyghurs in China has drastically worsened by alarming proportions. Minoritization and oppression rages large for other peoples across the globe. A UNESCO report by Brenzinger et al (2003) details that roughly 97 percent of the world's people account for 4 percent of the world's languages, and thus that 3 percent of the world's population speak 96 percent of the world's languages.

Writing this book has been carried out with the goal of resonance with other concentric and overlapping circles of struggle against minoritization, whether politically and economically or within the canons of the academy itself. Even as academics that are part of larger, external institutional structures, we often unconsciously internalize biases that perpetuate the treatment of minoritized, indigenous, or signed languages as afterthoughts or addenda in our teaching as well.

Concern with language loss (endangered languages) is by now a well-known concern among linguists and the public at large, but the case of minoritized languages is partially distinct from endangered languages. There are minoritized languages that are not endangered per se, but which continue to be underrepresented in the scientific canon. Take signed languages, many of which are far from endangered, but which are rarely if ever included beyond cursory mention in phonology textbooks, or languages such as Zazaki Kurdish, about which most of the general public does not know is an Indo-European language. More recently, scholars such as Tamburelli and Tosco (2021) have drawn attention to *contested* languages such as Kashubian or Piedmontese in Europe – languages that are considered regional 'dialects' and hence of low sociolinguistic status and are thus increasingly marginalized sociopolitically as well as academically. As Hale (1992, p.1) points out, language loss and devalorization in today's day is "part of a much larger process of loss of cultural and intellectual diversity, in which politically dominant languages and cultures simply overwhelm indigenous local languages and cultures". More recent quantitative work, including Bromham

et al. (2022), points to factors such as greater road density and formal schooling policies as consistent macroecological factors leading to continued language shift away from local languages. Part of this being overwhelmed, devalorized, and lost is reflected in the scientific community as well, where these cultures and languages are ignored, undervalued, or left aside in the formation of our shared understanding of the diversity and limits on human nature.

Speaker linguists (and signer linguists) are arguably fundamental to this continued effort for representative contributions to psychology and the language sciences. Basque, for example, is now one of the most well-represented languages studied in neurolinguistics, merely due to the presence of generations of highly-trained speaker linguists, valorization of the importance of the language to scientific diversity, a few key players in laboratory leadership rules, and last but not least, government incentives for the study of minoritized languages. This last point is a policy issue, in fact. Large-scale thematic funding incentives in public science organizations such as the AHRC in England, CNPq in Brazil, the DfG in Germany, and the NSF in the United States (four of the largest global funders for language science research) should in fact be providing incentives for the creation of large-scale laboratories for the neurolinguistic study of minoritized languages across these three continents.

I imagine that one cannot help but read the preceding fourteen or so case studies without feeling a twinge of activism, in terms of raising awareness about the need for greater inclusion of languages such as Ch'ol in Mexico, Kaingang in Brazil, or Xhosa in South Africa in today's cutting edge conferences, as staples of textbooks about irrefutable contributions to the completeness of linguistic theory and indeed to some of its more compelling moments of evolution as a scientific pursuit. Rice (2021) is one of many recent prominent voices calling for increased activism in our roles as linguists in securing continued rights, recognition, and representativity of languages of some of the world's First Nations - the communities that have been here (wherever 'here' is) for centuries before incursions of imperial, colonial, and globalizing waves completely upended local population dynamics.

9.2 On Unattested Chapters in this Version of this Book

Inspired by Borges' 'Library of Babel', I am aware that there are many parallel combinatorial possibilities that the universe might have reshuffled to yield a minimally different version of this same book with different case studies chosen instead. The choice of case studies that I have highlighted within this book has been designed to cover a typologically broad range of languages (from essentially every continent), phenomena across grammatical levels (syntax, morphology, semantics, phonology), and case studies that have, like an uncomfortable grain of sand inside an oyster shell, ended up truly generating a pearl, as a result of continued development and dialogue between previously unfamiliar linguistic facts and the limits and predictions of extant theories that change as a result. However, there are many other case studies one could have chosen as well. One extremely important case in the history of linguistic theory has been the importance of Berber syllabification for phonological theory (Dell and Elmedlaoui, 1985), where its syllabic consonants (italicized in words such as tl.bžt 'step-onto.2sg.perf' and tr.kst 'hide.2sg.perf') teach us that the syllabification algorithm in language works in a very particular way, by scanning an entire word first for its highest peaks and then proceeding successively downwards in the sonority hierarchy of consonants. Another case study to which I have not devoted a chapter, though easily could have, involves the contribution of what are historically called creole languages (the results of forcibly-imposed language contact) such as Haitian Creole to understanding the "factative effect" (Déchaine, 1991), whereby in a language without overt tense marking, the specificity of objects and inherent aspect of a predicate (such as 'sell a book' vs 'like cats') leads to a default interpretation of tense as past or present. Ideally, books such as the present one can be but one set of collected case studies for extended efforts to continually reinforce and canonize the contribution of minoritized languages as recognized cornerstones of the development and evolution of linguistic theory.

Not every case of a confrontation between a minoritized language and extant theoretical models of linguistic structure has been covered in the preceding pages. The ones that have not made an appearance are of a few types, however. There are cases that I have not covered which, even though they represent genuine transformative moments between empirical discoveries and theory, they have simply been beyond my scope as someone writing this book — but surely someone else, writing a parallel version of the same book, should and could describe them with their due presentation. Indeed, like almost everyone, I must admit that I have inherent limitations inevitably due to the lens and filter through which I view things, as much as I may yearn for panorama. The second set are cases that I contend that challenging a theory alone, without presenting a transformative solution that yields a change in the theory, do not qualify, though some day of course they might. The third set are ones that are extremely close to changing the theory right now, and in a few years' time may indeed yield large-scale revisions to specific aspects of specific models.

In the preceding pages, we have seen in close-up details that by confrontation with novel empirical patterns from understudied and often undervalued languages, some of linguistic theory's major 'heroes' have been proven wrong in specific ways: Kaplan, Jakobson, Marantz, Chierchia, and Chomsky, to name a few, in terms of very specific theoretical postulates or aspects of the theory of possible human language structures. Crucially, all of these cases involved discrete aspects of theoretical claims about human language – e.g. structures predicted to be impossible that turned out to in fact exist. This is the way all science works: specific theories – and not people – are what fall and are then reconstructed. It is important to point out, however, that there are also instances in which minoritized languages haven't (yet) changed linguistic theory.

The OVS word order of the South American language Hixkaryana (Derbyshire, 1977) has definitely changed inventories of language typology, but hasn't really had a transformative effect on syntactic theory itself, as its direct impact on modeling is underconstrained by the data, and in fact can be analyzed in a range of ways (see, for example Kalin (2014)) without yet forcing specific changes to the theory of syntactic structure. In other words, Hixkaryana has not "changed the theory" but has rather required reconsidering existing components of the word order transformations that are generally available, and an understanding of how they combine in this particular language. Alternatively, consider the claim that the Pirahã language lacks sentential recursion, made in Everett (2005). While the claim was based on a minoritized language (and indeed, to this day, the Pirahã people face a grim reality of minoritization, common throughout the Brazilian Amazon at present), it hasn't changed linguistic theory (at least not yet), as neither the evidence nor the proposed theoretical change were convincing enough to make any real difference. (In fact, work such as Rodrigues et al. (2018) and Sauerland (2018) cast serious empirical doubts on the claims about Pirahã recursion). In all of the cases discussed above, linguistic theory has changed in dialogue with minoritized languages when specific aspects or cornerstones of the theory are rethought, reassembled, or removed. Everett's (2005) article was not concerned with any details of any specific linguistic theory, or with framing specific theoretical ingredients that could be replaced as alternatives, but was rather an attempt to obliterate the entire edifice itself, with all its results, models, and details – and moreover on the basis of either inconsistent or insufficient quantities and qualities of data. Productive dialogue between unfamiliar empirical patterns and linguistic theory requires attempts at mutual integration where the pieces do not fit, as opposed to outright nihilism with respect to the latter.

Turning to a different case, the prosodic patterns of the Australian language Arrernte, as described by Breen and Pensalfini (1999) (who originally posited VC syllabification, but made clear that alternative analyses, if possible, were to be preferred) involve stress and reduplication in which onset consonants contribute to syllable weight. In fact, the contribution of onset consonants to weight patterns including stress had been convincingly and clearly already argued for by Pirahã (Everett and Everett, 1984), in which voiceless onsets attract stress, and for English stress patterns by (Davis, 1988), in which obstruents attract secondary stress. In Topintzi and Nevins (2017), it was argued that the distribution of word-initial consonants, loanword phonology, and musicological evidence all point to CV-syllabification for this language, with moraic onsets. In fact, Tabain (2004) looked for acoustic evidence of planned coarticulation and reduced variability in the production of CV vs VC sequences in English and Arrernte, but found that "It might be noted (contrary to our hypothesis) on the rare occasion results are significant for the Aboriginal data, it is the VC context which shows more variability than the CV context" (p.185). Tabain (2009) then looked at articulatory kinematics, but the results showed no differences between patterns of English and Arrernte jaw movement. As Breen and Pensalfini (1999, p.10) stated "Clearly, the more restrictive version of Universal Grammar, if tenable, is the best, so if there is a viable alternative to VC(C) syllabification for Arrernte, it should be preferred". Arrernte has thus far not changed the theory, but rather provided further evidence for an existing conjecture – moraic onsets. Nonetheless, for all of three cases just mentioned, we must leave open the possibility that future investigations will in fact potentially lead to changes in linguistic theory. What seems crucial is the convergence from both directions of research: top-down (theoretical predictions) and bottom-up (empirically driven) and their constant interplay back and forth. Both components are equally important: seriously strong empirical evidence, and well-formulated theoretical modifications. In sum, it is uncontroversial that studying these languages has been and will be interesting. But it is a far cry to say that they have as of yet yielded any significant changes in the nuts and bolts of linguistic theory in the sense that they have caused revisions to specific models of language structure.

Other cases of thorough study of minoritized languages forcing the revision of specific postulates within highly articulated, cross-linguistically accountable models of human language are no doubt waiting in the wings as I write this. A number of important efforts to intensively study minoritized language varieties are now underway, especially from what is called microcomparative work. There are rich results coming forth from microcomparative work of traditionally non-standard and undervalued dialects of Europe (Barbiers et al., 2005; Andriani et al., 2022; de Mareüil et al., 2019)), as well as their recontextualization in diaspora and heritage contexts (see Polinsky (2018)) for an overview), where one-way bilingualism, an operative force amongst minoritized languages, holds as well. Moreover, continued scientific attention to languages as spoken in diaspora and refugee contexts, and from languages that have directly resulted from historical conditions of enslavement will bear importance in establishing their grammatical validity, their neuropsychological processing, and their onward social and historical trajectories.

Increased focus on minoritized, heritage, refugee, and stigmatized dialects becomes especially urgent for policy, educational, and health-related decisions (for further discussion, see Hudley, Garraffa & Nevins (2022)) in which bilingualism – often asymmetric bilingualism (or bidialec-

talism) has direct communicative consequences for the people involved. This is alarmingly clear in the situation of refugee arrivals and asylum seekers who face unprepared or even grossly erroneous assessments in identifying their language and providing resources for communication – particularly for refugees of minoritized languages, such as war refugees who speak non-national languages such as Runyankole (Blommaert, 2009), or deaf adult asylum seekers from the Middle East (Sivunen, 2019). For another example, see Hudley et al. (2018) for compelling arguments that speech-language pathologists in the U.S. have an pressing need for sociolinguistic and grammatical training with respect to African American English for equitable assessment and treatment; the same conclusions and reasoning can doubtless be replicated in dozens of nations on Earth in which stigma and stereotypes about specific languages or language varieties exist. This is all the more important for the future of the language sciences, as it is currently the case that virtually no linguistic theory – either from formal linguistics or sociolinguistics – is present in the school curriculum of any of the world's to-be-citizens. As as a result some of the most fundamental discoveries that have been made about the biological and social nature of language are unknown to the general public, and given this lack of awareness, questions of language policy, educational inclusiveness, and critical thinking in terms of media reports on scientific results often operate in an thoroughly uninformed state. These concerns form part of a larger picture that will have to change.

9.3 The Value of Inclusivity, and Rethinking Aspects of our Discipline

Consider search engines and everyday language automation tools. Bender (2019) observes that even the field of natural language processing research often treats English as a default proxy for all languages" in ways that continue to perpetrate inequalities and undermine its own goals". Healthy futures ahead for minoritized languages include the commitment of us as language scientists to be as inclusive as possible in our teaching and in public engagement, resisting the comfort zone in which we simply take English as a stand-in representative of all human languages, when in fact many other languages provide equally compelling starting places for describing what we currently understand about the limits and possibilities of the language faculty. As Sanders et al. (2020) point out, "no matter how aware we might be of our language-based biases, if we do nothing to challenge or disrupt them, we will pass them on to our students, and the cycle will continue".

What would benefit linguistic theory (and the fields that indirectly depend on it) most directly in terms of the continued protagonism of minoritized languages within the canon, within the everyday nuts-and-bolts of the theoretical lynchpins, and the everyday classroom exemplification, would obviously be more people who speak minoritized languages working within the fields of the language sciences. This has happened in increasing strides over the past four decades, but there haven't been enough conversations about the topic, and the whys and hows of there being minority (and perhaps minoritized) numbers of speakers of minoritized languages within the field. Some important initial steps have been taken, such as the Linguistic Society of America's (2019) statement on race. However, our field lags behind that of *many* adjacent social sciences, in part perhaps because of the perception that linguistics is universalizing, colorblind, and humanist, and hence "of course we're not a racist or biased field". There are, however, by now quantitative statistics on representativity in higher academia (including, for example, the absence of linguistics programs at Historically Black Colleges and Universities) that reveal significant areas of shortcomings in diversifying the profession. Our everyday example sentences in linguistics, the empirical staple of the field, skewedly reflect a dominant white culture, far more than it does of minoritized races and

ethnicities, often forgetting that "Who we hire, who we cite, and who we signal is a part of our field to our students and early career researchers has a large impact on its makeup. The shape of the world our example sentences convey to readers—students and active researchers alike—implicitly and sometimes explicitly sends powerful signals about who is welcome in our field and who is less so." (Kotek et al., 2021).

Examples of unconscious perpetuation of racism aren't just about hiring, promotion, and graduate student recruitment, and can even be found in the portrayal of conversations and canonical examples of populations in supposedly 'neutral' second-language learning textbooks (Anya, 2016), where 'only grammar is the concern' but nonetheless, white supremacy, the native speaker construct, and other forms of normativity intrude; see Kubota (2002) on how 'a nice field like TESOL' is rife with everyday microagressions against non-white scholars and students. Is it any wonder that students of color do not continue in the language sciences beyond, say French or Portuguese language-learning classes, that already flunk any measure of inclusivity (see especially Macedo (2019))? There are important ways that non-standard, diaspora, and stigmatized linguistic varieties can be protagonized into pedagogy so that the students who speak these varieties at home increase their sense of ownership in the language arts, as opposed to the hierarchizing distinctions that children are often taught right away between their home languages and the 'modern' languages taught in schools. Smitherman (2017) identifies one of the gravest areas of linguistic miseducation right in the language arts classrooms. These are uncomfortable truths to suddenly confront in the 2020s, but as Hudley et al. (2020b, e221) penetratingly observe, we currently face a disciplinary-wide failure to recognize that there is racism and audism happening within linguistics as a field. This presumed colorblindness of academic subfields is now being widely revisited (Crenshaw et al., 2019) across disciplines, and we often forget or dismiss it maybe an issue in other departments, but not in "ours", due to "the deeply entrenched societal ideology that positions racism as intentional and individual, rather than structural and often below the level of awareness of those who enact it (Hill, 2008)", as discussed by Hudley et al. (2020b, e212).

Numerous factors have led to the situation in which people whose identities are minoritized do not identify with the field of linguistics. Leonard (2020) calls attention to the fact that Native Americans continue to be the least represented within the discipline, in contrast to the extreme presence of Native American languages in linguistic scholarship. In part, this comes from what Hudley et al. (2020b, e212) have diagnosed as narrow definitions of prestige, reward, and investment in research evaluation, and the constant gatekeeping of what counts as linguistics (ibid:e221). The report in Silbiger and Stubler (2019) shows that unprofessional peer reviews within the publication process have disproportionately harmed underrepresented groups across STEM fields of academia. Gutiérrez et al. (2012) provide a range of case studies demonstrating the difficulties across every aspect of academia that women with minoritized identities face in careers, and Kilomba (2021) provides a particularly compelling personal narrative of the constant, daily, everyday uphill struggle that she faces as a Black woman in academia.

At the time of writing, there are not very many Kurdish, Maxakalí, Black ASL, or Hiaki-speaking linguists, and we should ask ourselves what might happen if this is to ever change significantly. In some places, such as Brazil, quota-based doctoral funding and admissions for indigenous, Deaf, and African-descent students have led to greater inclusivity in linguistics programs, and for me, it is an honor to be part of the supervision team for the first three Deaf doctoral students to be admitted to the linguistics program at the Federal University of Rio de Janeiro (while aware that this kind of inclusivity ought to have started long ago). These changes in student pop-

ulations must always be accompanied by changes in curriculum as well (a point carefully made by Baniwa (2013)). As Kotek et al. (2021) observe, many aspects of the way the field is currently practiced affect "the kinds of research questions that are welcome, and the kinds of answers that we expect and ultimately adopt. Limiting access to the field inevitably leads to a reduced richness of ideas, research topics, approaches, and types of data collected, and more generally it limits the reach and breadth of our field. It is thus in everyone's interest to increase our field's inclusivity." How would the field of linguistics as it is practiced and structured as an academic discipline have to transform in order for more people from various racial groups to actively want to study, teach, and learn linguistics (Hudley et al., 2020a)? How can people from racially minoritized groups be empowered, rather than isolated in linguistics? How can we signal that Black Minds Matter? How can we reverse the trend of countless talented, valuable, intelligent young people of color who decide to 'opt out' of postgraduate careers in academia (Beasley, 2011)? Relatedly, how can we overcome the difficulties in finding outlets for community-oriented scholarship (Montoya, 2020)?

9.4 When Minoritized Languages Change Linguists' Daily Work

In parallel, minoritized languages might require changes in linguists' daily work. Two colleagues of mine, who I hold extreme respect for as language activists, have deliberately left academia in order to leverage their linguistics training specifically in service of more time to community needs. I quote from Gabrielle Hodge's remarks in Hodge, Jones & Nevins (2022), for example:

"I was tempted by academia for a while last year, but the job market and other factors such as audism and the difficulty of doing community engagement/social impact work makes it unattractive to me now. I don't want to spend my life teaching sign linguistics 101 to hearing non-signing students who may never have anything to do with deaf people beyond their degree. I feel my skills should be directed instead towards deaf people. If you look at how energies from within and outside deaf communities are directed, most of it is directed for hearing people: sign language classes, interpreter training, university courses, etc. These are important of course, but there also needs to be more focus on what deaf people need and want. Currently it is skewed."

We live in an age where content is abundantly available, be it from online videos, social media, e-books, and numerous other fora. Practical training and problem-solving should become more of a priority. Students in linguistics aren't taught even the basics of legal issues, safety and medical issues, or educational issues. As important as it is for people outside of linguistics to have basic knowledge of the discoveries of the field to avoid perilous language myths and their policy consequences, I contend that a healthier future for our field requires that students trained in the language sciences have required basic coverage and practical exercises in speech pathology and reading difficulties, legislational issues, scientific communication to the greater public, and/or native language pedagogy. As Kerry Jones observes in her interview in Hodge, Jones & Nevins (2022) about work with the highly minoritized and endangered Khoesan populations (see Jones (2019) of South Africa,

"If the languages are protected in our constitution, they must show that an effort is being made to do so. The red tape with university finance departments is far too slow and complicated for urgent work. The academic system is littered with red tape and bureaucracy that hinders work that urgently needs to be done. I've had to go independent to be able to do meaningful work. I do collaborate with universities, but I have to be practical in order to be more efficient and ethical in the way that I operate. The academic system gives very little real attention to ethics and fair exchange when it comes to this kind of work."

These are people who are leaving academia for the right reasons: they have seen that they can be more efficient outside of it in accomplishing goals of urgency and meaningfulness to the linguistic communities they work with. Field methods courses must undergo reflexive steps towards decolonizing their traditions of approaching language data, as these courses often provide minimal time for students to learn about the epistemologies of their speaker-collaborators and indigenous research methodologies (Tsikewa, 2021), or the historical trauma that indigenous collaborators may experience in working on/with their languages. Language archival data that we record with high-quality devices and metadata should be more focused on providing means that the speakers of these languages themselves can access in a meaningful way (Carew et al., 2015; Seyfeddinipur et al., 2019).

For each of the studies I report in this book in which minoritized languages have directly benefitted theoretical linguistics, we might ask, how can theoretical linguists benefit these language communities in return? As Nora England makes clear within her contribution in Hale (1992), citing the words of Cojtií Cuxil (1990), "It is difficult in Guatemala for linguists to define themselves as neutral or apolitical, since they work on languages that are sentenced to death and officially demoted. The linguist who works on Mayan languages has the option of activism in favor of a new linguistic order in which equality in the rights of all the languages is made concrete". Projects related to indigenous participation and protagonism are underway across many countries as we speak, although not necessarily in the high-prestige institutions that are traditionally the centers of linguistic theory. Academic environments and funding agencies must continue to change and refocus to become more inclusive of minoritized linguists and "to serve the needs of the colonized communities whose languages form the foundation of linguistics scholarship and linguists' careers" (DeGraff, 2020). In a recent hiring interview in which I participated in 2022, the candidate remarked that he had not included his native speaker consultant as a coauthor on the high-prestige journal article for the sole reason that his doctoral advisors warned him about the importance of having singly-authored publications for hiring and promotion. Among important voices envisioning a more equitable, symmetric role between linguists and the communities in which they make their careers, Czaykowksa-Higgins (2009) recognizes the importance of fieldwork and communitybased language research that is done for the language communities, where the linguist may have the role of a consultant for an agenda defined by the community, and not solely by the values dictated in the system of academic hiring, promotion, and tenure.

Gerdts (1998) enumerates ways that linguists can serve communities, including training teachers and helping teach the language, serving as mediators between speakers and universities, acting as advocates for native language programs at universities, and serving as expert witnesses on matters involving language, including place names for land claims, ethnobiology for land use studies, and labels and translations for museum exhibits. Being able to secure land rights for the traditional communities that have inhabited it long before colonial invasions, through means of linguistic arguments in legal arena, is one of the highest ambitions we might all yearn towards, as is guaranteeing accurate subtitling and descriptions in documentaries, museum exhibits, and even the

development of educational materials in the language as seemingly easy as a coloring book with linguistically-informed categories and vocabulary. Actions like these have the potential to benefit very young people in linguistically-minoritized communities in relatively straightforward ways, so that our daily interactional work is not just limited to an audience of the 18-25 year olds in university classrooms; see Figueroa (2022) for a discussion of the potential of podcasting to break through the financial and psychological paywall, where scientific research is too often limited to specialist communities, "together with imposition of a tone that demands dispassionate engagement with topics that are urgent and painful to the participants of their research". The past years have witnessed a great development of collaborative linguistic fieldwork and models of empowerment for native speakers in the community (Yamada, 2007), and a number of responsibilities that linguists can take on outside of the linguistic classroom and linguistic journal model that is routinely considered as the bread and butter of the profession, such as working in language centers and developing community-oriented exhibitions (Truscott, 2014), or contributing to national census-type indices of linguistic diversity and territorial claims with accurate resources about the linguistic landscapes in indigenous communities (Nash, 1984; Galucio et al., 2018).

While I have relied in the introductory chapter on the importance of language scientists and the social sciences more generally in stepping outside of our comfort zone in terms of the languages that are spoken within our university classroom, I contend that our discipline will have healthier futures once we step more outside of the classroom itself. Minoritization of languagues, and indeed minoritization of people's very identities forms part of a very large and often tragically repetitive historical pattern. But we as language scientists, psychologists, educators, health professionals, legal and judicial resources, or policymakers needn't replicate these same lines in our empirical bases for the most accurate theories possible and the most accurate application of linguistic expertise to real-world concerns as well.

Paraphrasing Saussure (1916), the task of the linguist is to denounce and dispel the myriad of absurd ideas, fictions, and prejudices that arise in the domain of language. I believe that the field has had a modicum of success over the past three decades or so, and that minoritized languages have become protagonists within this narrative. UNESCO has declared this year, 2022, as the start of an International Decade of Indigenous Languages. You all can provide the forthcoming episodes, and I am excited at the prospects of keeping in touch and hear about your efforts, be they within academic channels or without them.

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