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# **English Linguistics**

## **Essentials**

2nd revised, updated and enlarged edition

**Solutions to the exercises in the book**

## Solutions chapter 1 (Linguistics: An overview)

1. Which of the following research topics call for a synchronic approach to the study of language?
- a) the fixing of English word order before 1600
  - b) the topicalization of objects in Late Modern English
  - c) the division of tasks between Present Perfect and Simple Past in Early Modern English
  - d) the evolution of the pronoun system of English
  - e) the use of adverbial clauses in Early Middle English

**Solution:** b), c), e)

2. Arrange the following terms in pairs. Note: some terms have no partner (see exercise 3):

signifier	symbol	nature	syntagmatic	prescriptive	arbitrary
parole	synchronic	expressive	conventional	formalism	empirical
competence	paradigmatic	introspective	appellative	nurture	icon

**Solution:**

appellative – expressive  
arbitrary – conventional  
empirical – introspective  
icon – symbol  
nature – nurture  
paradigmatic – syntagmatic

3.

- a) For those terms lacking a partner in the list in (2), add the partner yourself.
- b) Try to associate as many of the pairs or individual terms in (2) and (3) as possible with the name of the relevant linguist(s) mentioned in this chapter.

**Solution:**

- a) competence – performance  
formalism – functionalism  
parole – langue  
prescriptive – descriptive  
signifier – signified  
synchronic – diachronic
- b) Ferdinand de Saussure: arbitrary – conventional, diachronic – synchronic, langue – parole, signifier – signified, syntagmatic – paradigmatic  
Noam Chomsky: competence – performance, formalism, introspective, nature  
Charles S. Peirce: symbol – icon  
Karl Bühler and Roman Jakobson: expressive – appellative

4.

- a) Find the matching communicative dimension or external function for each of the following six terms: addresser, appellative, code, message, phatic, referential
- b) What is the predominant external function in the following utterances, types of discourse or communicative situations?
  - weather forecast
  - speech by politician during election campaign
  - small talk with people you don't know during your best friend's wedding party
  - comment by another guest of the same wedding party: "I wouldn't say that they married. Rather SHE married HIM."
  - "Oh, damn!"
  - *Autumn* is clearly British English, while *fall* is preferred in American English.

**Solution:**

- a) **communicative function dimension**

<i>addresser</i>	expressive
<i>addressee</i>	<i>appellative</i>
<i>code</i>	metalingual
<i>message</i>	poetic
<i>contact</i>	<i>phatic</i>
<i>world</i>	<i>referential</i>

- b) weather forecast – referential
- speech by politician – appellative
- small talk – phatic
- comment by another guest – poetic
- "Oh, damn!" – expressive
- Autumn* is British English... – metalingual

5. Which of the following statements would be rejected by linguists working within a formalist framework?

- a) Human beings are genetically endowed with grammatical knowledge and the ability to learn any (first) language with maximum efficiency.
- b) Competence must be studied independently of performance.
- c) Large-scale language comparison is necessary for identifying language universals.
- d) The meaning of a message bears no influence on its form.
- e) Language use as represented in corpora does not offer a key to Universal Grammar.

**Solution:** c

6. Which iconicity principle do the following sentences illustrate (Lakoff &amp; Johnson 2003: 131)?

- a) Sam killed Harry.
- b) Sam caused Harry to die.
- c) Sam brought it about that Harry died.

**Solution:**

The iconic distance principle: Less direct causation is reflected by greater structural distance.

7. In many varieties of English, prescriptively incorrect structures as in *This is the house which I painted it yesterday* are attested. How would formalists versus functionalists account for the existence of such structures (so-called *resumptive pronouns*)?

**Solution:**

Generativists would probably argue that the insertion of *it* reveals innate expectations about the ideal structure of sentences.

Functionalists would probably claim that the pronoun *it* offers processing ease, meaning that it serves as a cohesive device which helps the listener identify the object of *painted*.

8. Which of the following statements are true and which are false?
- Generative grammar is only interested in language production, not in language processing.
  - For icons there is a motivated link between signifier and signified.
  - Paradigmatic relations are relations of combination, syntagmatic relations are relations of choice.
  - Morphophonemics is a classic example of an interface in linguistics.
  - Formalists would agree with the statement “Linguistics is part of the social sciences.”
  - Functionalists assume that language processing exclusively relies on domain-general abilities.
  - Concessivity is cognitively more complex than causality.
  - Structuralism has had no significant impact on American linguistics.

**Solution:**

a. false; b. true; c. false; d. true; e. false; f. false; g. true; h. false

9. This is an exercise in functional grammar. Identify which sentence (left table, i–x) matches which construction (right table, a–j), based on the description of the form and function of each construction. For further guidance, you might want to consult a reference chapter on information packaging in English (e.g., Birner & Ward in Aarts & McMahon 2006).

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| i. This one she forgot.                      | a. <b>Left dislocation</b> makes it possible to introduce and highlight a new topic while avoiding having it placed in subject position (which is generally dispreferred for new information). A pronoun replaces the fronted constituent in its canonical (i.e., normal, typical) position. |
| ii. Also starring in the show is John Smith. | b. <b>It-clefts</b> highlight new information after <i>It is/was...</i> The highlighted constituent is followed by a relative clause, which contains old information.  |

Advanced

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| iii. On board were three linguists.                         | c. In <b>subject extraposition</b> , ‘dummy’ <i>it</i> in canonical subject position allows the speaker to move ‘heavy’ (i. e., long, detailed) constituents to the end of the sentence (which is their preferred position). |
| iv. There is a dog in the pool.                             | d. <b>Right dislocation</b> is often used to specify an ambiguous referent.  |
| v. It is obvious that he’s a liar.                          | e. In <b>inversion</b> , two constituents occur in non-canonical position. This helps the speaker obey the general preference for presenting discourse-old before discourse-new information.                                 |
| vi. That job I gave you, it’s the best one you’ve ever had. | f. <b>Passives</b> are used to shift new information from the canonical subject position to the end of the clause.   |
| vii. They’re still here, the people from next door.         | g. In <b>focus preposing</b> , the preposed part bears the main accent of the utterance. It provides hearer-new information on a topic which is salient from the prior discourse.  |
| viii. It was the French student who knew the answer.        | h. <b>Existential clauses</b> make it possible to shift new information from sentence-initial subject position to the end of the clause via <i>there</i> -insertion.   |
| ix. The car was taken by Kim.                               | i. <b>Pseudo-clefts</b> (or: <i>wh</i> -clefts) give extra prominence to new information, which follows the verb.  |
| x. What he did was crash the car.                           | j. <b>Topicalization</b> , a type of preposing, creates a connection to the prior discourse without highlighting the preposed constituent as hearer-new (it does not bear the main accent of the utterance).                 |

**Solution:**

- |   |                              |
|---|------------------------------|
| i. This one she forgot.                                     | <b>focus preposing</b>       |
| ii. Also starring in the show was John Smith.               | <b>inversion</b>             |
| iii. On board were three linguists.                         | <b>topicalization</b>        |
| iv. There is a dog in the pool.                             | <b>existential clauses</b>   |
| v. It is obvious that he’s a liar.                          | <b>subject extraposition</b> |
| vi. That job I gave you, it’s the best one you’ve ever had. | <b>left dislocation</b>      |
| vii. They’re still here, the people from next door.         | <b>right dislocation</b>     |
| viii. It was the French student who knew the answer.        | <b>it-cleft</b>              |
| ix. The car was taken by Kim.                               | <b>passive</b>               |
| x. What he did was crash the car.                           | <b>pseudo-cleft</b>          |

10. This task is concerned with the conflicting positions in the formalism-functionalism debate from a structuralist point of view (see section 1.3.3). Try to determine in which respects structuralism is compatible (or clearly sides) with formalism, on the one hand, and/or with functionalism, on the other hand.

**Solution:**

**Compatibility of structuralism with formalism:**

focus on competence (*langue*) rather than language performance/use (*parole*); notion of an arbitrary relationship between form and function; sharp synchrony-diachrony divide; primacy of synchrony; deductive, introspective method; the formalist notion of the autonomy of language is reminiscent of the structuralist notion of language as a closed system

**Compatibility of structuralism with functionalism:**

interest in function/semantics; interest in the lexicon

11. Find out more about the contribution of Leonard Bloomfield to the evolution of (especially American) linguistics in the mid-20th century. What, in particular, are major differences between American and European Structuralism (as represented by de Saussure and the Prague School)?

**Solution:**

**Leonard Bloomfield's contribution to mid-20th century linguistics:**

- Bloomfield (1887–1949) is the founder of American structuralism
- Most important work: *Language* (1933), New York: Henry Holt and Co; strongly influenced by de Saussure's *Cours*
- He contributed to establishing linguistics as an autonomous and institutionalized discipline in the USA (emancipated itself from disciplines such as anthropology or psychology)
- Defined linguistics as a rigorous, data-driven, maximally objective and inductive science
  - focus on what is observable (notably stimuli and responses in spoken communication)
  - field approach involving corpus analysis and informant interviews
  - no assumption as to what goes on in language users' minds (→ anti-mentalist, behaviourist approach)
- Key notions of Bloomfieldian descriptivism:
  - **Immediate constituent analysis:**  
**Segmentation** of each utterance into successively smaller units ('immediate constituents') down to the level of morphology.  
 Aims: identifying the building blocks of a given language; revealing the hierarchical nature of language (smaller constituents are nested within successively larger ones)
  - **Classification of constituents** (assigning them to syntactic categories, such as parts of speech):  
 General assumptions: Category definitions should be language-particular; they should not mix syntax and semantics; they should rather rely on **discovery procedures**, in particular:

**Substitution test:** all units that can be substituted for one another without affecting the grammaticality of the utterance belong to the same category.

**Distribution test:** all units that can occur in the same set of linguistic environments belong to the same category.

### Major differences between American Structuralism (AS) and European Structuralism (ES)

- Both AS and ES study linguistic systems as closed phenomena at a synchronic level, but:
  - AS adopts an inductive and data-driven approach; ES is more deductive and introspective
  - AS' main focus is on morphology and syntax (the sentence or utterance as the primary unit of analysis), while the lexicon and semantics are considered peripheral (behaviourism)
  - Saussurean Structuralism, by contrast, gives prime importance to words and their meanings, with sentences receiving less attention (since considered as units of *parole*)
  - Unlike ES, AS is interested in spoken language and in the description of languages which are as yet undescribed

**12.** Based on Crystal's *Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language* (2018, 3rd edition), find out how many speakers of the following "Englishes" exist in the world:

- a) English as a Native Language (ENL),
- b) English as a Second Language (ESL), and
- c) English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

What exactly do these labels refer to?

#### Solution:

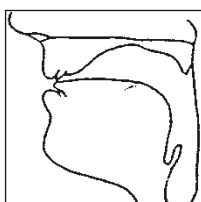
According to Crystal (2018: 113–117), the labels ENL, ESL and EFL refer to different ways in which English is learnt and used in different countries.

- English is considered a *Native Language* (or: *L1*, *mother tongue*, *First Language*) in countries where it is the primary language and the language first acquired by most children (e.g., the UK, the USA and Australia). According to Crystal, in 2017, English had ENL status for about 390 million speakers in the world.
- English serves as a *Second Language* in countries where it is not the L1, but still enjoys a special, and often officially granted, status (e.g., because it is used in multilingual settings or in the country's institutions). Often, the relevant countries have a history of colonization (e.g., India, Singapore). As of 2017, there were close to 900 million ESL speakers in the world.
- English has the status of a *Foreign Language* in countries where it serves neither as an L1 nor as an L2, but where it is taught as a foreign language. In 2017, there were about 1 billion EFL speakers in the world.

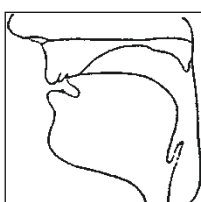
Thus, altogether, there are close to 2.3 billion speakers of English in the world.

## Solutions chapter 2 (Phonetics and Phonology)

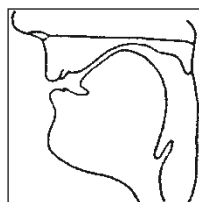
- Figures a–f illustrate six of the following places of articulation: alveolar, bilabial, dental, labio-dental, palatal, palato-alveolar, velar. You can consult the following website for help: <https://www.seeingpeech.ac.uk>. It features an interactive IPA chart with animations, MRI scans and ultrasound.



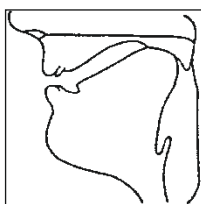
a



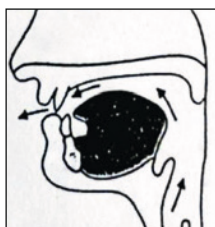
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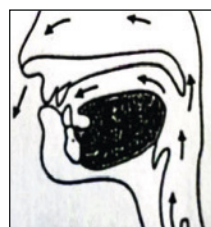
c



d



e



f

- Identify the correct place of articulation for each of the six figures.
- Provide for each place of articulation the phonetic symbol of two sounds which are produced at this place.

### Solution:

- + b) Figure a: (inter)dental /θ ð/  
Figure b: alveolar /t d s z/  
Figure c: palato-alveolar /ʃ ʒ tʃ dʒ/  
Figure d: velar /k g/  
Figure e: labio-dental /f v/  
Figure f: bilabial /m/ (velum lowered → nasal sound)

### 2.

- Provide a broad phonetic transcription of the noun *linguistics* and describe the consonants in their order of occurrence using the following four parameters: vocal fold action, state of the soft palate, place of articulation, manner of articulation.
- Which of these consonants are homorganic?
- Which of the sounds in *linguistics* are obstruents and which are sonorants?



**Solution:**

- a) [lɪŋ'gwɪstɪks]  
 /l/ vocal folds vibrating (→ oral sound), alveolar lateral  
 /ŋ/ vocal folds vibrating, velum lowered (→ nasal sound), velar nasal  
 /g/ vocal folds vibrating, velum raised, velar plosive  
 /w/ vocal folds vibrating, velum raised, bilabial approximant  
 /s/ vocal folds not vibrating (→ voiceless sound), velum raised, alveolar fricative  
 /t/ vocal folds not vibrating, velum raised, alveolar plosive  
 /k/ vocal folds not vibrating, velum raised, velar plosive
- b) homorganic: /l/ /s/ /t/ are alveolar; /ŋ/ /g/ /k/ are velar
- c) obstruents: /g/ /s/ /t/ /k/; sonorants: /l/ /ɪ/ /ŋ/ /w/

**3.**

- a) Identify the vowel sound(s) in each of the following words using Wells' transcription model for RP:  
 fleece, kit, dress, trap, foot, lot, face, mouth
- b) Classify each monophthong according to the parameters of length, lip rounding, tongue height and tongue position.
- c) Classify each diphthong according to the movement of the jaw.
- d) Identify which vowel is pronounced differently in RP and GA (see chapter 8, table 8.2 for help).

**Solution:****a) + b) + c):**

*fleece* /i:/ long unrounded high front vowel  
*kit* /ɪ/ short unrounded high to mid-high front vowel  
*dress* /e/ short unrounded mid-high front vowel  
*trap* /æ/ short unrounded low front vowel  
*foot* /ʊ/ short rounded high to mid-high back vowel  
*lot* /ɒ/ short rounded low back vowel  
*face* /eɪ/ closing diphthong in /ɪ/  
*mouth* /aʊ/ closing diphthong in /ʊ/

**d):**

*lot* /ɒ/ in RP vs. /ɑ:/ in GA

**4.**

- a) Provide the phonemic symbols for those of the following descriptions that relate to sounds belonging to the sound system of RP:
- |                            |                                |
|----------------------------|--------------------------------|
| a. voiced bilabial plosive | e. voiced velar nasal          |
| b. voiceless velar dental  | f. rounded high front vowel    |
| c. lax high back vowel     | g. voiced bilabial semi-vowel  |
| d. voiced dental fricative | h. voiceless lateral fricative |
- b) Which description(s) is/are completely nonsensical?

**Solution:**

- a) + b)  
 a. voiced bilabial plosive /b/      e. voiced velar nasal /ŋ/  
 b. voiceless velar dental -- non-sensical      f. rounded high front vowel –  
 c. lax high back vowel /ʊ/      g. voiced bilabial semi-vowel /w/  
 d. voiced dental fricative /ð/      h. voiceless lateral fricative –

**5.**

- a) Correct the errors in the following RP transcriptions (one error per word):  
 leave /li:f/      flash /flɛʃ/      start /stɑ:rt/  
 bingo /'bɪŋgəʊ/      mail /meɪl/      other /'ʌθə/  
 question /'kwestʃn/      emergency /ɪ'mɜ:tʃənsɪ/      path /pæθ/  
 b) Which of these are errors most likely to be made by German learners of English? (More on this in chapter 5.)

**Solution:**

- a) 1. leave /li:v/      4. flash /flæʃ/      7. start /stɑ:t/  
 2. bingo /'bɪŋgəʊ/      5. mail /meɪl/      8. other /'ʌðə/  
 3. question /'kwɛstʃn/      6. emergency /ɪ'mɜ:dʒənsɪ/      9. path /pɑ:θ/  
 b) 1, 3, 4, 5, 6

6. Which of the following words would be treated as minimal pairs?  
 ten, live, bin, hippo, hen, tin, tale, leaf, pin, rose, lose, hippie, house,  
 tail, tooth, smooth, love, thief

**Solution:**

*ten – tin; ten – hen; tin – pin; hippo – hippie; live – love; leaf – thief;  
 bin – tin – pin (minimal set)*

7. In each of the following groups the phonemes share one or more common properties, but in each group there is one phoneme which does not belong to the group. Identify the phoneme and specify in which respect(s) it is different from the rest of the group.

- a) /f, p, m, θ, v, b/  
 b) /æ, u:, ɪ, e, ʊ, ə/  
 c) /z, v, s, ʒ, g/  
 d) /eɪ, aɪ, aʊ, ɔɪ, ɪə/  
 e) /m, n, g, d, p/  
 f) /l, r, w, ʒ/  
 g) /n, l, s, ʃ, z/  
 h) /ɔ:, i:, ɪə, r, j, æ, l, ɪ, ɒ, aʊ/  
 i) /g, k, b, d, p, v, t/  
 j) /u:, i:, ɒ, ɔ:, ɑ:/

**Solution:**

- a) /m/ is neither an obstruent nor an oral sound;  
 b) /u:/ is not a short vowel  
 c) /g/ is not a fricative  
 d) /ɪə/ is not a closing diphthong  
 e) /p/ is not voiced

- f) /ʒ/ is neither an approximant nor a sonorant
- g) /ʃ/ is not alveolar
- h) /ŋ/ is not an approximant
- i) /v/ is not a stop
- j) /ɒ/ is not a long vowel.

8. Which of the following statements are true, which are false?
- a) The hard palate and vocal folds are active articulators.
  - b) [p<sup>h</sup>ɛn] represents a narrow phonetic transcription of *pen*.
  - c) The majority of English sounds is produced with the velum raised.
  - d) English lacks rounded back vowels.
  - e) Liquids and semi-vowels belong to the same large class of sounds.
  - f) Voiced plosives are generally aspirated in syllable-initial position.
  - g) One minimal pair is sufficient for establishing two given sounds of a language as phonemes.
  - h) Stress in English is phonemic.
  - i) [s] and [ʃ] as realizations of the second consonant in *associate* are instances of free variation.
  - j) In English stressed syllables tend to be compressed and reduced.

**Solution:**

- a) false, b) true, c) true, d) false, e) true, f) false, g) true, h) true, i) true, j) false

**Advanced**

9. We can perceive a noticeable difference in vowel quantity in the following pairs:  
tag – tack, league – leak, rude – root, ridge – rich, ride – rite, plays – place, rib – rip, bud – but, love – laugh, use (V) – use (N)
- a) Describe this difference.
  - b) Find a generalization concerning the environment which triggers this variation.

**Solution:**

- a) vowels are longer in the first word of each pair
- b) following final voiced consonants result in longer vowels ('voicing effect')

10. We said that English has a certain rhythm.
- a) What exactly is this rhythm said to involve? Illustrate your answer with the help of the following example where stressed syllables are indicated by capitals.  
*When my MOTHER came HOME, she WENT into the KITchen, Opened the FRIDGE and TOOK out a YOGhurt.*
  - b) Identify the intonation units in the example above and show that in English the nucleus tends to fall on the last stressed syllable.
  - c) Do you have any ideas as to the word class(es) which the word with this last stressed syllable tends to belong to? Can you make anything out of the so-called Last Lexical Item rule in English?

**Solution:**

- a) English is considered to be a stress-timed language, i.e. stressed syllables occur at roughly equal intervals of time, see *MO-*, *HOME*, *WENT*, *KIT-*, *O-*, *FRIDGE*, *TOOK* and *YO-* in the sentence. Stress-timing can also be explained by reference to the notion of ‘foot’: a unit beginning with a stressed syllable and including any unstressed syllables up to the next stressed syllable (e.g. *MOther came*, *HOME she*). In stress-timed languages, feet have about the same length (/ˈmʌðə keɪn/ and /ˈhəʊm frɪ:/ should therefore have about the same length).
- b) When my *MOther* came *HOME*, / she *WENT* into the *KIT*chen, / Opened the *FRIDGE* / and *TOOK* out a *YOghurt*, nuclei on *HOME*, *KIT-*, *FRIDGE*, *YO-*
- c) *home*, *kitchen*, *fridge* and *yoghurt* are all content words (not function words such as articles, prepositions, pronouns); the Last Lexical Item rule holds that the nucleus falls on the last stressed syllable of a content word (lexical item) in an intonation unit

**11.** English is normally described as being a stress-timed language. However, does this apply on a global scale? Visit the *International Dialects of English Archive* (<https://www.dialectsarchive.com>) and listen to the sample “Italy 20”. Pay special attention to how the speaker realizes the vowel of *to* in *an escape point to go hiding* (03:46) in the free speech part. What do you notice?

**Solution:**

Not all varieties of English are stress-timed. English spoken by learners with a first language that is syllable-timed (such as English spoken by Italian speakers) may be more syllable-timed than standard British or American English. The speaker in the sample “Italy 20” pronounces the vowel of *to* in *an escape point to go hiding* as a full vowel (/tu:/) and does not reduce it to schwa (/tə/). This shows that the reduction of unstressed vowels typical of stress-timed languages is missing, which indicates that the English variety spoken by this speaker is more syllable-timed than British and American English. If you explore the site further, you may find similar patterns in speakers of English with other syllable-timed languages as their first language, including speakers of so-called New Englishes.

- 12.** Consider the realization of the negative prefix in the following words: inadequate /ɪnˈædɪkwət/, incomplete /ɪŋkəmˈpli:t/, impossible /ɪmˈpɒsɪb(ə)l/, immobile /ɪˈməʊbaɪl/, illegal /ɪˈli:gəl/
- a) Which process is responsible for this variation in form?
  - b) What exactly is responsible for the nasal and the following sound becoming more alike or even identical?
  - c) What do the above examples have in common with the pronunciation of the vowels in *thin* [θɪn] and *thing* [θɪŋ]?

**Solution:**

- a) assimilation: partial assimilation in the cases of *incomplete* and *impossible*, complete assimilation in the cases of *immobile* and *illegal*
- b) the place of articulation of the following sound: the realization of the morpheme {in-} is phonologically conditioned, /ɪŋ/ occurs before velar consonants (partial assimilation), /ɪm/ occurs before bilabial consonants (partial assimilation), total assimilation before /m/ and /l/, /ɪn/ occurs elsewhere
- c) both types of cases represent instances of regressive (or: anticipatory) assimilation: the following sound alters the characteristics of the preceding sound (put differently: the articulation of the following sound is anticipated). For *thin* and *thing*, this means that the vowels become nasalized due to the following nasal consonants.

## Solutions chapter 3 (Morphology)

### 1. Fill in the blanks:

A morpheme is defined as the smallest .....-bearing unit of language. .... morphemes, for instance, add only grammatical meaning to the stem they are attached to. They create a new word-..... (or: token). Lexical information, on the other hand, is added by ..... morphemes. The result of this kind of .....ation is a new lexeme (or: type). Analogous to phonemes, which may be realized by a set of ....., called ....., there may be more than one ..... which instantiates a given morpheme. These are called the ..... of the relevant morpheme and are normally ..... conditioned.

#### Solution:

A morpheme is defined as the smallest **meaning**-bearing unit of language. **Inflectional** morphemes, for instance, add only grammatical meaning to the stem they are attached to. They create a new word-**form** (or: token). Lexical information, on the other hand, is added by **derivational** morphemes. The result of this kind of **affixation** is a new lexeme (or: type). Analogous to phonemes, which may be realized by a set of **phones**, called **allophones**, there may be more than one **morph** which instantiates a given morpheme. These are called the **allomorphs** of the relevant morpheme and are normally **phonologically** conditioned.

### 2.

- a) Give a morphological analysis of *formalities* and *inconclusiveness*. Make use of the terms *base*, *root* and *stem*.
- b) Give all morphophonemic alternants of the following free morphemes:  
{APPEAR} {LONG} {PHYSIC} {USE} {THIEF} {PHOTOGRAPH}

#### Solution:

- a) {form}{al}{itie}{s}; *formality* = stem, {s} = inflectional suffix (PLURAL); *form* = root; = base of *formal*; {al} = derivational suffix (turning N into A); *formal* = base of *formality*; {ity} = derivational suffix (turning A into N) {in}{conclus}{ive}{ness}; {conclude} = root; = base of *conclusive*; {ive} = derivational suffix (turning V into A); *conclusive* = base of *inconclusive*; {in} = derivational prefix (negation); *inconclusive* = base of *inconclusiveness*; {ness} = derivational suffix (turning A into N)
- b) /ə'piə(r)/ /ə'pæ(r)/ /æ'pə(r)/ cf. appear, apparent, apparition  
/lɒŋ/ /leŋ/ /lɒndʒ/ /lɒŋg/ cf. long, length, longevity, longitude  
/'fɪzɪk/ /'fɪzɪs/ /'fɪzɪʃ/ /'fɪ'zi:k/ cf. physics, physicist, physician, physique

/ju:z/ /ju:z/ ju:s/ cf. to use, usual, the use  
 /θi:f/ /θef/ /θi:v/ cf. thief, theft, thieving  
 /'fəʊtə,grɑ:f/ /fə'tɒgrə:f/ /,fəʊtə'græf/cf. photograph, photogra-  
 phy, photographic

3. Give an account of the morphological status of *-en* on the basis of the following lexemes: *earthen*, *wooden*, *widen*, *sweeten*, *deafen*, *oxen*, *silken*.

**Solution:**

{en}

1. derivational morpheme, turning a noun into an adjective, meaning “made out of N”: *earthen*, *wooden*, *silken*
  2. derivational morpheme, turning an adjective into a verb, meaning “making more A”: *widen*, *sweeten*, *deafen*
  3. inflectional allomorph of {PLURAL}, lexically conditioned: *oxen*
4. By means of which word formation processes do we arrive at the following lexemes? (When two or more word-formation processes are involved specify their order.)

<i>to enthuse</i>	<i>laptop</i>	<i>judgmental</i>	<i>to breathalyze</i>
<i>to netsurf</i>	<i>campaigner</i>	<i>modem</i>	<i>sitcomy</i>
<i>language lab</i>	<i>rockumentary</i>	<i>sexist</i>	<i>weatherwise</i>
<i>infotainment</i>	<i>neocolonialism</i>	<i>exec</i>	

**Solution:**

*to netsurf*: *to surf the net*, *net* + *surfing* compounding; *to netsurf* backformation

*rockumentary*: *document* + *ary* derivation; *rock* + *documentary* blend

*neocolonialism*: *colony* + *al* derivation; *colonial* + *ism* derivation; *neo* + *colonialism* derivation

*to enthuse*: *enthusiasm* > *to enthuse* backformation

*campaigner*: *campaign* > *to campaign* conversion; *campaign* + *er*: derivation

*laptop*: *compute* + *er* derivation; *lap* + *top* compounding; *laptop* computer compounding; *laptop* elision

*modem*: *modulation* + *demodulation* blend

*sexist*: *sex* + *ist* derivation

*exec*: *execut* + *ive* (adj) derivation; *executive* (n.) conversion; *exec* clipping

*judgmental*: *judge* + *ment* derivation; *judgment* + *al* derivation

*sitcomy*: *situation comedy* compounding; *sitcom* clipping; *sitcom* + *y* derivation

*weatherwise*: *weather* + *wise* derivation

*to breathalyze*: *to analyse breath*; *breathalyze* blend

*language lab*: *language* + *laboratory* compounding; *language lab* clipping

*infotainment*: *inform* + *ation* derivation; *entertain* + *ment* derivation; *information* + *entertainment* compounding; *infotainment*: blend

5. This question is concerned with the dominant types of English compounds in terms of (i) grammatical word-class of the compound, (ii) grammatical word-classes of the elements of nominal compounds, (iii) the logical-semantic relation between the elements of nominal compounds, and (iv) the internal structure of compounds in terms of head and modifier. Consider the groups of compounds in (a-d) below with respect to (i-iv), respectively. In each group there is **only one** compound which represents the dominant type. Identify this compound:

- (a) *classroom, overeducate, leadfree, whenever*
- (b) *pickpocket, doormat, breakfast, bluebell*
- (c) *paperback, actor-manager, flower-pot, Alsace-Lorraine*
- (d) *Secretary-General, motor-car, court martial, poet laureate*

**Solution:**

- (a) *classroom* – the compound is a noun
- (b) *doormat* – the compound consists of two nouns
- (c) *flower-pot* – endocentric compound
- (d) *motor-car* – modifier + head structure

6.

- a) Identify all lexemes with prefixes exhibiting atypical properties from a grammatical point of view (hint: think of word classes)  
*counterintuitive aloud bewitch international empower encode miniskirt rebuild debark discourage archbishop*
- b) Give a morphological analysis of the following lexemes and identify the meanings of {-ISH}:  
*childish greenish feverish punish eightish foolish*

**Solution:**

- a) Usually, prefixes do not change the word class. The following forms are therefore exceptions: *be* + *witch* (N > V); *empower* (N > V); *encode* (N > V); *discourage* (N > V)
- b) {-ISH}
  - 1. derivational morpheme, N > A, meaning “like N”: *childish, feverish, eightish, foolish*
  - 2. derivational morpheme on adjectives, no change of word class, meaning ‘like A’: *greenish*
  - 3. *punish* is monomorphemic

7. Reconstruct the word-formation “stories” of the lexemes in bold print in (a-g) by identifying the corresponding sequence of word-formation processes from the set in (I–VII).

- a. rap music > rap > to rap > **rapper**
- b. rehabilitation > rehab > **to rehab**
- c. vacuum cleaner > to vacuum-clean > **to vacuum**
- d. campaign > to campaign > **campaigner**
- e. tailor-fit > **to tailor-fit**
- f. breathalyser > **to breathalyse**
- g. brunch > **to brunch**



- I. conversion – derivation
- II. blend – conversion
- III. compounding – clipping – conversion – derivation
- IV. derivation – clipping – conversion
- V. blend – back-formation
- VI. compounding – back-formation – clipping
- VII. compounding – conversion

**Solution:**

I. d; II. g; III. a; IV. b; V. f; VI. c; VII. e

8. Which of the following statements are true and which are false?
- a) English has more derivational than inflectional morphemes.
  - b) Derivational morphemes produce word-forms of a single lexeme.
  - c) *Enslave* and *enshrine*, on the one hand, and *empower* and *embit-ter*, on the other hand, illustrate the phenomenon of lexically conditioned prefix allomorphy.
  - d) English has no inflectional prefixes.
  - e) Any monomorphemic English word will also be monosyllabic.
  - f) /ɪz/ in English /ɒksɪz/ is a phonologically conditioned allomorph of the genitive morpheme.
  - g) Back-formation always involves a change of word-class.
  - h) The majority of productive English affixes are non-Germanic.
  - i) All derivational affixes of English change word-class.
  - j) Two word-formation processes were involved in the formation of the verbs *to bus* and *to xerox*.

**Solution:**

a) true; b) false; c) false; d) true; e) false; f) true; g) false; h) true; i) false; j) true

**Advanced**

9. Discuss the extent to which the underlined elements in the following sets of words can be classified as unique morphemes, using the online version of the Oxford English Dictionary (<https://www.oed.com>) if you are unsure.
- a) Tuesday, Wednesday, Thursday
  - b) receive, deceive, perceive
  - c) permit, remit, submit
  - d) identity, identify, identical
  - e) inept, uncouth, disgruntle
  - f) strawberry, gooseberry
  - g) snore, snort, sniffle, sneeze

**Solution:**

Typical unique morphemes such as *cran-*, *huckle-*, or *boysen-* are

- a) bound forms which
- b) do not exist as a free form and
- c) whose exact semantic contribution to the meaning of the whole word is (synchronically) unclear.
- d) They are only attested in one lexeme and
- e) the element they combine with exists as a free lexical morpheme (e.g., *berry*).

As the following table shows, the underlined elements in a) through g) satisfy these criteria to varying degrees, suggesting that the dividing line between unique morphemes and other non-prototypical word constituents is a fuzzy rather than clear-cut one (a + sign indicates that the relevant criterion is fulfilled; a – sign stands for FALSE; + – is used to mark intermediate cases for criteria which are a matter of more or less).

Thus, *Tues-*, *Wednes-*, and *Thurs-* are the only clear examples of unique morphemes. The onset *sn-* resembles a morpheme to the extent that it can be analysed as a stable, meaning-bearing unit contributing to a group of lexemes sharing the semantic component of nose-relatedness. However, what is left over after removing *sn-* from these lexemes is not a morpheme. Elements like *sn-* are therefore referred to as phonaesthemes, rather than morphemes. All other underlined elements qualify as more or less tightly bound morphemes, depending on their degree of semantic independence, ability to function as an own-standing unit, and productivity.

	Tues- Wednes- Thurs-	-ceive -mit	ident-	-ept -couth	-gruntle	straw- goose-	sn-
The element is a bound form	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
The element is obligatorily bound	+	+	+ – (clipping)	+ – (back-formation)	–	–	+
The exact semantic contribution of the element is unclear	+	+	–	–	– +	– +	– +
The element is only attested in one lexeme	+	–	–	– (eptitude, eptly, uncouthness)	– (disgruntlement, grunter)	–	–
The other element exists as a lexical morpheme	+	–	–	–	–	+	–
The other element is a morpheme	+	+	+	+	+	+	–

10. Here are some more instances of so-called causative verbs like *widen*, *sweeten* or *deafen* in exercise (3): *madden*, *quicken*, *soften*, *whiten*. Now, if you contrast these verbs with those below, can you identify the phonological constraint on the derivation of causative verbs from adjectives with the help of the suffix *-en*?

*\*bluen*, *\*concreten*, *\*exacten*, *\*greenen*, *\*sanen*, *\*slowen*, *\*subtlen*

**Solution:**

They need to be monosyllabic and to end in an obstruent.

11.

- What is a basic difference between vowel-initial and consonant-initial (derivational) suffixes?
- Find out about the difference between class I and class II affixes in a number of accounts of English derivation. Which arguments can be given against such accounts of English morphophonology?

**Solution:**

- Only vowel-initial suffixes can trigger morphophonological alternations in their base, whereas consonant-initial ones cannot. Vowel-initial suffixes tend to be of Latinate origin, whereas consonant-initial ones tend to be of Germanic origin.
- According to so-called stratum-oriented models, English derivational affixes can be subdivided into two groups (sometimes referred to as layers or lexical strata).

Class (or stratum) I affixes (e. g., <i>in-</i> , <i>-ion</i> , <i>-ity</i> )	Class 2 affixes (e. g., <i>un-</i> , <i>-er</i> , <i>-ness</i> )
tend to trigger major morphophonological alternations (e. g., stress shifts, changes in the base-final consonant), e. g., <i>carbon</i> – <i>carbonic</i> , <i>permit</i> – <i>permission</i>	cause fewer and smaller changes, if at all (no stress changes)
of Latinate origin	often of Germanic origin
preferably attach to non-native bases	attach to native or non-native bases
can attach to bound bases (e. g., <i>spec</i> in <i>special</i> , <i>specific</i> , <i>speciality</i> , <i>specify</i> ) or free morphemes (e. g., <i>minority</i> )	do not attach to bound bases (e. g., <i>kingdom</i> )
meaning of the derivative often not fully semantically transparent	semantically more transparent

When several derivational affixes are strung together, the following constraints generally apply: Affixes of the same stratum can easily combine (e. g., *sens* + *ation* + *al*); if Class-I suffixes are combined with Class-II suffixes, the Class-I has to be closer to the base (e. g., *commiss* + *ion* + *er*).

Potential issues:

- The model cannot account for all restrictions on affix ordering, e. g., the relative ordering of suffixes within strata (e. g., why *-ation-* has to precede *-al* in *sensational*).

2. The driving assumption that the underlying dividing criterion is an etymological one might be wrong (it might be phonological instead, see above).
3. The suffixes within a stratum do not constitute an internally consistent class: each suffix triggers its own patterns of morphological changes.
4. Certain suffixes belong to both strata (e.g., *-able*, which may or may not trigger stress shift, just think of the doublet *cómparable* vs. *compárrable*).

**12.** Try to write a brief “story” of *tweet* from the point of view of the linguist. Use the following words (some of which are institutionalized, others nonce-formations), and try to reconstruct how everything started and which members of the *tweet*-family came into existence by means of which word-formation process(es). Can you think of more family members?

- a) Twitter, to twitter frequently, to twitter a message
- b) a tweet, to tweet frequently, to tweet a message
- c) a retweet, to retweet, tweeter, tweetable, tweetworthy
- d) tweetability, untweetable
- e) Twittiot, tweetistics, tweetology, twitterverse, tweetbot
- f) tweet eraser

**Solution:**

*Twitter*: Proper name of a social networking service, punningly coined in allusion to bird twittering (*twitter* existed as a transitive and intransitive verb), which became a noun by conversion.

*to twitter*: verb created via conversion from the proper name *Twitter*, can be used intransitively or transitively (i.e., with an object-like message)

*a tweet*: probably a meaning extension from the imitative noun *tweet*, under the influence of the noun *Twitter*

*to tweet*: more frequently used synonym for *to twitter*, conversion from the noun *tweet*

*to retweet*: verb derived from *to tweet*, via prefixation

*a retweet*: noun derived from *a tweet*, via prefixation

*tweeter*: noun derived from *to tweet*, via suffixation

*tweetable*, *tweetworthy*: adjectives derived from *to tweet*, via suffixation

*tweetability*, *untweetable*: derivations from *tweetable*, the first by suffixation, the second by prefixation

*Twittiot*, *tweetistics*, *tweetology*, *twitterverse*, *tweetbot*: blends, in the last three, the first base (*tweet*) is intact

*tweet eraser*: a so-called subordinate compound, where the base element (*tweet*) functions as the syntactic argument (here: the direct object) of the second element (*eraser*), which is itself a noun derived from a verb via the suffix *-er*.

## Solutions chapter 4 (Grammar)

1. Which grammatical categories are marked on English nouns and verbs?

**Solution:**

Nouns: Number (plural), Case (possessive; object case only for pronouns)

Verbs: Progressive; Past; Passive; 3rd person singular; Person and Number (3rd person singular, present tense indicative); Tense (past tense), Aspect (progressive), Perfect, Voice, Mood (subjunctive: only *were*)

---

2.

- a) Identify, in traditional terms, all parts of speech in the following sentence:  
*Then the boy rubbed the magic lamp and suddenly a genie appeared beside him.*
- b) *Round* belongs to as many as five different word classes. Give one example for each of them.

**Solution:**

- a) *Then* [Adverb] *the* [definite article] *boy* [noun] *rubbed* [verb] *the* [definite article] *magic* [adjective] *lamp* [noun] *and* [coordinating conjunction] *a* [indefinite article] *genie* [noun] *appeared* [verb] *beside* [preposition] *him* [personal pronoun].
- b) Adjective: *the round table*, Preposition: *He walked round the table*, Noun: *He looked at the expectant round*, Verb: *He rounded the figures*, Adverb: *We went round to Alvin's house*.
- 

3.

- a) Provide the appropriate labels for the following phrases and state which of them do not have a head: *below the window*, *rather slowly*, *Tom and Jerry*, *has been saying*, *fast and expensive car*
- b) Where else in this book did we talk about heads and modifiers? Can you make any generalizations about the preferred order of heads and modifiers in English?

**Solution:**

- a) *below the window*: prepositional phrase PP, no head  
*rather slowly*: adverb phrase AdvP, *slowly* = head  
*Tom and Jerry*: noun phrase NP, *Tom*, *Jerry* = heads  
*has been saying*: verb phrase VP, *saying* = head  
*fast and expensive car*: noun phrase, *car* = head
- b) Compounding (chapter 3.3.2); in English, heads follow their modifiers

4. Identify all phrases and their grammatical functions in the following sentences:

- He spends all his money on horses.
- John called me an idiot.
- Mary left the next day.
- They may be staying until next June.
- His face turned pale when he saw me.

**Solution:**

- [He]<sub>NP</sub> [spends]<sub>VP</sub> [all his money]<sub>NP</sub> [on horses]<sub>PP</sub> SVOA
- [John]<sub>NP</sub> [called]<sub>VP</sub> [me]<sub>NP</sub> [an idiot]<sub>NP</sub> SVOC
- [Mary]<sub>NP</sub> [left]<sub>VP</sub> [the next day]<sub>NP</sub> SVA
- [They]<sub>NP</sub> [may be staying]<sub>VP</sub> [until next June]<sub>PP</sub> SVA
- [His face]<sub>NP</sub> [turned]<sub>VP</sub> [pale]<sub>AP</sub> when [he]<sub>NP</sub> [saw]<sub>VP</sub> [me]<sub>NP</sub> SVCA  
Here the entire clause serves as the adverbial.

- 5.

- Identify the adverbs and adverbials in the following sentence:  
*Honestly, I did see him briefly in the park yesterday when he was feeding the ducks.*
- Give typical properties of adverbials, and then specify what is unusual about the adverbial in the following sentence:  
*The whole thing lasted a mere thirty seconds.*

**Solution:**

- honestly; briefly; yesterday; in the park; when he was feeding the ducks*
- Adverbials are usually optional and can occupy various positions. In the example, however, [*a mere thirty seconds*] is obligatory.

6. Underline and identify the different types of subordinate clauses in the sentences below:

- That cities will attract more and more criminals is a safe prediction.
- This shows how difficult the question must have been.
- Being a farmer, he is suspicious of all governmental interference.
- We knew that he was a lousy driver.
- I am very eager to meet her.
- The problem is who will water my plants when I am away.
- No further discussion arising, the meeting was brought to a close.
- I'll show you what you can open the bottle with.

**Solution:**

- [That cities will attract more and more criminals]<sub>subject clause</sub> is a safe prediction.
- This shows [how difficult the question must have been.]<sub>object clause</sub>
- [Being a farmer]<sub>adverbial participle clause</sub>, he is suspicious of all governmental interference.
- We knew [that he was a lousy driver.]<sub>object clause</sub>
- I am very eager [to meet her.]<sub>complement clause (adjective complementation)</sub>
- The problem is [who will water my plants]<sub>complement clause</sub> [when I am away.]<sub>adverbial clause of time</sub>

- g) [No further discussion arising]<sub>adverbial participle clause</sub> the meeting was brought to a clause.
- h) I'll show you [what you can open the bottle with.]<sub>object clause</sub>
- 
7. There are two main types of relative clauses. *Restrictive* (or: *defining*) *relative clauses* provide necessary information about the head noun whereas *non-restrictive* (or: *non-defining*) *relative clauses* provide additional, but non-essential information. Identify these two types in the examples below and determine the structural differences between them.
- My daughter, who studies medicine, will come and visit me today.
  - My daughter who studies medicine will come and...
  - My daughter studying medicine will come and...
  - The car she'll be using is our old Austin Mini.
  - \*The car, she'll be using, is our old Austin Mini.
  - The car that she'll be using is our old Austin Mini.
  - \*The car, that she'll be using, is our old Austin Mini.

**Solution:**

Non-restrictive relative clauses form a separate intonational object clause unit; cannot be substituted by the present participle; require a relative pronoun; cannot be introduced by *that*.

Restrictive relative clauses: b, c, d, f.

- 
8. Which of the following statements are true and which are false?
- English is a language with grammatical gender.
  - Normally, only transitive verbs can be passivized.
  - Modal verbs lack participles.
  - All copulas have the valency zero.
  - English has no inflectional future.
  - Languages with little or no inflectional morphology need a fixed SVO order.
  - All verbs demanding an object complement also demand an object, but not vice versa.
  - The subjects of active and passive sentences differ with regard to their prototypical semantic roles.
  - English is relatively rich in mediopassive constructions and adverbial participles.
  - There is an inflectional subjunctive in the sentence *We insist that the director resign.*

**Solution:**

a) false; b) true; c) true; d) false; e) true; f) false; g) true; h) true; i) true; j) false

**Advanced**

- 
9. a) Which of the following verbs are phrasal verbs and which are prepositional verbs?
- rely on, believe in, take in, take away, fill up, dispose of, blow up*

- b) There are two possible syntactic analyses of prepositional verbs and the NP following them: either as an intransitive verb followed by a PP (see A) or as a transitive verb followed by a direct object (see B):

A. [They] [trusted] [in a friend]

B. [They] [trusted in] [a friend]

If you consider the following sentences, which is the preferred analysis? However, note that there are also arguments for the alternative analysis: Try to find some of them.

- a. A friend in whom they trusted.
- b. In whom did they trust?
- c. They trusted steadfastly in a friend.
- d. \* They trusted in steadfastly a friend.

#### Solution:

- a) The criteria in table 4.11 help you with the distinction between phrasal and prepositional verbs.

*rely on* prepositional verb

*believe in* prepositional verb

*take in* phrasal verb

*take away* phrasal verb

*fill up* phrasal verb

*dispose of* prepositional verb

*blow up* phrasal verb

- b) For detailed arguments supporting both types of analyses, see Quirk et al. 1985. *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman. Sections 16.5–16.16.

- Preferred analysis considering the examples here: an intransitive verb followed by a PP:

There seems to be a closer connection between the preposition and the following NP in the formation of relative clauses and questions (see a. and b.). The whole prepositional phrase can be fronted in questions.

The preposition cannot be separated from the NP by an adverbial (compare c. vs. d.). Such a position of an adverbial also supports the analysis of an intransitive verb followed by a PP since adverbial insertion between verb and direct object is usually avoided (e.g. \*? *They supported loyally a friend.*)

- Arguments for the alternative analysis (a transitive verb followed by a direct object):

The passive is usually possible (although often somewhat stylistically heavy), e.g. *The friend was trusted in by them.*

This analysis emphasizes the resemblance between *They trusted in a friend* and *They trusted a friend*.



10. The progressive has constantly extended its territory in the course of the history of English. Consult a linguistic corpus, e.g. the *British National Corpus* or the *Corpus of Contemporary American English*, and look up the construction 'I'm being + adjective.' Describe this construction and specify its meaning. Can all types of adjectives be used with the progressive? Give examples and specify the meaning of the relevant construction.

**Solution:**

For a corpus search of the construction, please beware of the query syntax that is necessary for individual corpora. The BNC, for example, requires a space between the pronoun and the clitic 'm:

I'm being \_{ADJ}

You can register for the BNC via the platform provided by Lancaster University.

A search in the BNC returns 84 occurrences of this construction. A search in the spoken component of the BNC 2014 returns 29 hits.

Here's a list of the adjectives that occur more than once in this construction in the BNC:

	Lexical items	No. of occurrences
1	<u>I'm being silly</u>	8
2	<u>I'm being honest</u>	5
3	<u>I'm being unfair</u>	5
4	<u>I'm being stupid</u>	4
5	<u>I'm being careful</u>	3
6	<u>I'm being good</u>	3
7	<u>I'm being fair</u>	2
8	<u>I'm being pessimistic</u>	2
9	<u>I'm being polite</u>	2
10	<u>I'm being provocative</u>	2
11	<u>I'm being selfish</u>	2
12	<u>I'm being serious</u>	2

- In this construction, the verb *be* occurs in the progressive followed by an adjective.
- Normally *be* serves to introduce qualities or states (e.g. *He is pessimistic. Anne is polite.*) and is usually not combined with the progressive. If, as is the case here, the construction does occur with the progressive, its meaning needs to be reinterpreted as being dynamic.
- *Anne is polite* tells us that Anne is generally polite. It is one of her permanent characteristics. *Anne is being polite* signifies that her politeness is a form of behaviour (perhaps insincere) in a specific situation. Thus, this construction is used to describe temporary activities and behaviour rather than states or permanent qualities.
- This construction only seems to occur with adjectives that can be considered dynamic. As Quirk et al. (1985: 434) point out, such adjectives "denote qualities that are thought to be subject to control by the possessor and hence can be restricted temporally." It seems that adjectives expressing feelings cannot be used in this construction.

11. Draw up a list of arguments taken from different domains of grammar which illustrate that English is a strongly analytic language.

**Solution:**

Arguments that illustrate that English is a strongly analytic language:

- A single lexeme hardly ever exhibits more than one word form.
- English has few inflectional morphemes.
- In the verb phrase, for example, the distinction between indicative and subjunctive, singular and plural, as well as first, second and third person is hardly ever made, except in the present tense where it is all expressed by one morpheme: the third person singular indicative {-s}.
- There is generally a high degree of analyticity in the English verb phrase (e.g. constructions with modal *would* or *should* for the subjunctive as in *We demand that he should leave.*) and a stronger grammaticalization of periphrastic constructions (e.g. in the tense and aspect system).
- English has an eroded case system. Nouns can only occur in two different forms, either not marked for case or marked for the possessive. Pronouns can have an additional object form. Articles and adjectives are not marked for case at all. English has completely lost its grammatical gender distinction.
- By consequence, there is no concord in English noun phrases and sentences lack government.
- Grammatical categories can often be formed synthetically as well as analytically (e.g. the comparison of English adjectives or possessive relationships).
- Grammatical functions are determined by word order, which is relatively fixed.
- There is great productivity of conversion as a word-formation process.

12. The following text should make you say goodbye to English grammar with a big smile. But there is also a task connected with it. Try to spot all grammatical and otherwise language-related terms, and ask yourself what exactly it is that creates the humorous effect in the individual cases. So off we go with a stirring courtroom-drama:

**“The murder of the English language” – sometimes known as “The accusative case”**

**Solution:**

The text “The Murder of the English Language, or: The accusative case” has been taken from a BBC radio comedy programme in the 1960s called “I’m sorry I’ll read that again” (<https://www.bbc.co.uk/programmes/b009zbr2/episodes/player>). All language-related terms are printed in bold below. The humorous effect is created by using terms that are related to language and grammar as homophones, or instead of similar-sounding words, that would fit an actual courtroom drama.

Examples:

- *grammar and grandpa* instead of *grandma and grandpa*
- *substantive proof: substantive* for ‘noun’ or *substantive* ‘dealing with important or serious matters’
- *I met her at a participle* instead of *at a party*
- *a quick imperative* instead of *a quick aperitif*
- *an awkward phrase* instead of *an awkward phase*
- *your first dative* instead of *your first date*
- *I made a parse at her* instead of *I made a pass at her*
- *Was this neuter you?* instead of *Was this new to you?*

The crime of “splitting an infinitive”, i. e. to place an adverb between *to* and the infinitive form of a verb as in *They seem to really enjoy it*, would indeed be considered a crime by some prescriptivists.

Prosecution: Are you **Very Quickly, adverbial phrase?**

Accused: I am.

P: Very Quickly, you are accused of **splitting an infinitive**. How do you plead, guilty or not guilty?

A: Not guilty, not guilty.

P: A **double negative**... Then how would you explain your past **imperfect**?

A: I was going through an awkward **phrase**. There’s no **substantive** proof. Now and then I just **colon** friends for a quick **imperative** before lunch.

P: Is that all?

A: Well, no. There is rather a pretty feminine **gender** in the **case**, a Miss **Pronunciation**, who lives in **Suffix** with her **grammar** and **grandpa**.

P: When was your first **dative**?

A: I met her at a **participle**. There she was **supine** and in a **passive mood**; she’s **superlative**, absolutely **pluperfect**.

P: Mr Quickly, would I be correct in this **preposition** that you were aiming at an unlawful **conjugation** with this feminine **gender**? Answer the **interrogative** – how far did you get?

A: I made a **parse** at her, but she **declined**. She said her **parentheses** would **object**. Anyway, she’s about to become a **noun**.

P: Was this **neuter** you?

A: **Affirmative**.

P: Thank you. What nationality is she?

A: **Italic**.

P: Mr Quickly, you’re in quite a **predicate** I can tell you. Officer, put him in **brackets**. You are also accused of immoral earnings from prose, and even **verse**, evasion of **syntax**. Off with his **prefix**!

## Solutions chapter 5 (Contrastive Linguistics)

1.

- Using appropriate linguistic terminology, describe the pun in the name of the bicycle shop *Radgeber*.
- Which typical mistakes of German learners of English are made in the following utterance: /tel mi: vɒt ɪs zə prɒbləm vɪ'set/ *Tell me, what is the problem with that?*
- The following pairs of examples often cease to be minimal pairs when uttered by German learners of English. Explain why and find two more examples of each neutralization of a minimal pair: *pat-pet, thin-sin, wine-vine, cherry-sherry, lag-lack, plays-place*.
- Explain why *jazz* and *chess* may be pronounced in the same way by some German learners of English.

### Solution:

- Radgeber* (literally 'wheel-giver') and *Ratgeber* (literally 'advice-giver') are homophones ['ʁa:t,ge:bə] due to final devoicing of /d/ to [t], it is a play on words in writing, suggesting that clients can get bikes and advice on bikes in this shop
- /tel/ with a clear /l/ instead of a dark /ɫ/ (but strictly speaking, this is not visible in a phonemic transcription); /vɒt/: /v/ instead of /w/; /ɪs/: instead of /ɪz/; /zə/ instead of /ðə/; /prɒbləm/ instead of /prɒbləm/; /vɪs/: /v/ instead of /w/, /s, z/ instead of /θ, ð/; /sɛt/ instead of /ðæt/
- Because of substitution of a German phoneme for a phoneme that occurs in English only.

*pat – pet*: no vowel contrast /æ/ /e/, cf. *bad – bed*; *lag – leg*.

*thin – sin*: /θ/ is substituted by /s/, cf. *mouth – mouse*; *think – sink*

*wine – vine*: /w/ is substituted by /v/, cf. *wet – vet*, *wow – vow*

*cherry – sherry*: /tʃ/ is substituted by /ʃ/, cf. *chin – shin*, *cheat – sheet*

*lag – lack*: /g/ in syllable-final position is substituted by /k/ (final devoicing), cf. *bag – back*; *dog – dock*

*plays – place*: /z/ in syllable-final position is substituted by /s/ (final devoicing), cf. *his – hiss*, *lose – loose*

Speakers may replace sounds in *jazz* that are not part of German and follow allophonic rules of German: replacing the voiced affricate /dʒ/ by the voiceless affricate /tʃ/, exchanging /æ/ with /ɛ/ and devoicing /z/, /dʒæz/ → /tʃɛs/

2.

- For which English vowels do German learners of English often employ one of the following German vowel sounds? Give examples. /ɛ/ /o:/ /ø/ /a/

- b) Which problems can German speakers of English be expected to have when pronouncing the underlined consonants in the following examples: *ouput*, *obtain*, *got*, *bedtime*, *rag*, *hold*, *she lives*, *and*, *finger*, *so*

**Solution:**

- a) /ɛ/ is substituted for /æ/, cf. *bat*, *cat*  
 /o:/ is substituted for /əʊ/, /ou/, cf. *so*, *low*  
 /ø/ is substituted for /ɜ:/, cf. *bird*, *hurt*  
 /a/ is substituted for /ʌ/, cf. *up*, *but*
- b) *output*, *got*: aspiration of /t/ in non-initial position  
*obtain*: substitution of aspirated /p/ for /b/ in syllable-final position  
*bedtime*: substitution of /t/ for /d/ in syllable-final position  
*rag*: final devoicing ([k] for /g/)  
*hold*: clear-[l] for dark-[ɫ]  
*she lives*: final devoicing ([fs] for /vz/)  
*and*: final devoicing ([t] for /d/)  
*finger*: /ŋ/ substituted for /ŋg/ in analogy with German  
*so*: word-initial /z/ for /s/ (phonotactic rule of German)

3. Describe the differences in the pronunciation of the first sound(s) in the following cognates. Deduce phonotactic constraints of English and German (see chapter 2 for the notion of 'phonotactic restrictions')

*Knecht* – *knight*

*Psychologie* – *psychology*

*Straße* – *street*

**Solution:**

/kn/ (plosive + nasal) is a permissible onset consonant cluster in German only, but not in English (/kneçt/ vs. /nart/). /ps/ (plosive + fricative) is a permissible onset consonant cluster in German only, but not in English (/psyçolo'gi:/ vs. /sar'kɒlədʒi/). German has /ʃ/ (/ʃtʁa:sə/) (except before /k/, e.g. *Skript*) while English has /s/ (/stri:t/) if three consonants occur at the beginning of a word. Note, however, that some varieties of English display /s/-retraction in /str/-clusters (e.g. [ʃtɹi:t]).

4. Consider the following examples of adverbial clauses in English and describe the major English-German contrasts in this domain of grammar.

- a) Looking out of the window, Mary saw a large truck approaching.  
 b) With grandpa driving, I always have an awkward feeling.

**Solution:**

In the domain of non-finite adverbial clauses, English has more structural possibilities than German (for example German does not have the option in 4b). In general, English makes much more frequent use of adverbial participles than German both in written and spoken language. German prefers finite adverbial clauses.

5. Provide the most natural German translations of the English sentences in (17).

**Solution:**

- a) Sie strich mit ihren langen Fingern über den neuen Mantel.
- b) Er wischte das Geschirr mit dem feuchten Tuch ab.
- c) Er durchschwamm den Kanal in einem Tag.
- d) Sie flohen aus der Hauptstadt.
- e) Der Albatros segelte auf dem Wind.
- f) Er drohte mit Gewalt.
- g) Auf der Demonstration wurde gegen die Invasion von Harikutu protestiert.
- h) Dieses Buch wurde zwei Millionen Mal verkauft/verkaufte sich zwei Millionen Mal.

6. Identify which syntactic contrast between English and German each of the following examples illustrates.

- a) Das Paket gab der Mann der Frau und nicht dem Jungen.
- b) She photographs well.
- c) Jetzt wird aber gegessen!
- d) Did you see his face?
- e) Sie glaubt, dass er ein netter Kerl ist.
- f) This racket has never been played with.
- g) There's the guy (who(m)) I met at the disco last night.
- h) The ship tore a sail.
- i) I believe him to be very sincere.

**Solution:**

- a) relatively free (pragmatic) word order in German
- b) middle voice in English
- c) subjectless sentence in German, impossible in English
- d) obligatory *do*-support in English
- e) finite verb in final position in German subordinate clauses
- f) preposition stranding in English
- g) zero relative pronoun in English
- h) non-agentive subject in English
- i) raising construction: more options in English than in German

7. There are many English-German contrasts in the tense and aspect system. Sketch the major contrasts by going one by one through the following examples.

- a) Gestern sind wir im Kino gewesen.
- b) Ich kenne ihn schon seit Jahren.
- c) Bis morgen Mittag habe ich den Aufsatz geschrieben.
- d) Don't disturb Dad! He's watching telly.
- e) Morgen reist sie weiter.
- f) You must go. The train leaves at six.

**Solution:**

- a) German uses the present perfect as a narrative tense.
  - b) German uses the present tense for the English continuative perfect.
  - c) German uses the present perfect for future perfect reference (English: future perfect).
  - d) English has a progressive aspect.
  - e) German regularly uses the simple present for future reference (English: future).
  - f) Only in restricted contexts can the simple present have future meaning in English.
- 
8. Which of the following statements are true, which are false?
- a) Transfer is a special type of interference.
  - b) The Contrastive Hypothesis has more prognostic than diagnostic value.
  - c) Grammatical relations are marked by word order in English and by case marking in German.
  - d) In contrast to English, German subjects are always agents and direct objects are always patients.
  - e) Compared with German, English has wider range of options in the domain of non-finite clauses and makes greater use of them.
  - f) The English Progressive and the use of do-support in questions are highly marked structures in the European languages.
  - g) The Present Perfect in English is a true perfect while German Perfekt is really a tense.
  - h) Over the course of its history, English has undergone a major typological change which is responsible for many of the structural differences between Present-Day English and Present-Day German.
  - i) The inventory of English diphthongs is a proper subset of the inventory of German diphthongs.

**Solution:**

- a) false; b) false; c) true; d) false; e) true; f) true; g) true; h) true; i) false

**Advanced**

9. Give a phonetic description of
- a) all English sounds which lack an equivalent in the German sound system.
  - b) all German sounds which lack an equivalent in the English sound system.

**Solution:**

- a) consonants: /θ/, /ð/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/, /w/, vowels /æ/, /ɜ:/, /ʌ /, /ɔ:/ (long), /v/, /ɑ:/
- b) consonants: /ç/, /x/, /pf/, /ts/, /ks/, vowels: /y:/, /ʏ/, /e:/, /ø:/, /ɛ:/, /œ/, /a/, /a:/, /o:/, /ɔ/ (short)

10.

- a) Provide the linguistic term for the feature described in the following excerpt from Mark Twain's (1880) humoristic essay "The awful German language".  
 "Every time I think I have got one of these four confusing "cases" where I am master of it, a seemingly insignificant preposition intrudes itself into my sentence, clothed with an awful and unsuspected power, and crumbles the ground from under me. For instance, my book inquires after a certain bird – (it is always inquiring after things which are of no sort of consequence to anybody): "Where is the bird?" Now the answer to this question, according to the book, is that the bird is waiting in the blacksmith shop on account of the rain. Of course no bird would do that, but then you must stick to the book."
- b) Provide a translation for *The bird is waiting in the blacksmith shop on account of the rain* and determine the case of the German noun *Regen*.
- c) Write a flip story about "The awful English language" by describing a feature of English that might be perplexing, illogical or confusing for Germans in a non-technical humoristic way.

**Solution:**

- a) preposition government
- b) *Der Vogel wartet wegen des Regens in der Schmiede; des Regens* = genitive case
- c) An idea for a flip story about the pronoun *you*: "English is a confusing language because you can use *you* to refer to either one person or several people. This difference can be quite important when I say that *I love you* and refer not to one sweetheart but two. Even speakers of English have realized this shortcoming of their own language and invented new expressions that refer to a group of people such as *you guys*, *youse* or *y'all*. In a reform of the language, these should be added to avoid misunderstandings of the kind described above."

11. Sketch the major differences between English and German in the domain of relative clauses.

**Solution:**

English permits zero relatives (e.g. *The man I met yesterday*) and shortened relative clauses (participial clauses, e.g. *The man walking down the street was whistling*). English has an invariant relative pronoun (*that*), which can only be used in restrictive relative clauses, however. The choice of a *wh*-pronoun depends on semantic criteria (human vs. non-human referent). Preposition stranding is possible in English relative clauses (*The car which I saw you in looked quite expensive*). Only non-restrictive relative clauses are set off by commas in English. German has two sets of relative pronouns: the *d*-set (identical with the definite article forms *der*, *die*, *das*, *des*, *dem*, *dessen*, *deren*, *denen*) and the *w*-set (identical to the interrogative pronouns *welcher*, *welche*, *welches*, *welchem*, *welchen*).



12. Try to find out which of the English-German contrasts described in this chapter are due to either English or German exhibiting a marked feature in the relevant domain of its phonological or grammatical structure compared with the majority of other languages (think of the Markedness Differential Hypothesis). You can consult the *World Atlas of Language Structures* (WALS) to find out about the distribution of several phonological and grammatical features in a sample of the world's languages (<https://wals.info>).

**Solution:**

Marked phonological features of English include interdental fricatives (see the map showing feature 19 “Uncommon consonants” in WALS, /θ/ and /ð/ fall under ‘TH-sounds’ in WALS). Cross-linguistically marked features of German include front rounded vowels (see the map showing feature 11 “Front rounded vowels” in WALS) and the voiceless uvular fricative /x/ (as in *Bach*) (see map showing feature 6A “Uvular consonants” in WALS, note that fricatives fall under the category of ‘continuants’ in the key of the map). An unmarked feature of German includes final devoicing. Marked grammatical features of English include the progressive aspect and *do*-support. The Markedness Differential Hypothesis holds that learners have difficulties acquiring features of the target language that are typologically (more) marked than those in their native language. This hypothesis is thus borne out when German learners of English have difficulties acquiring interdental fricatives, voiced obstruents in syllable-final position (see exercise 1b), the progressive aspect and *do*-support, or when English learners of German have difficulties acquiring the voiceless uvular fricative /x/ or the front rounded vowels /y:/, /ʏ/, /ø:/, /œ/.

# Solutions chapter 6 (Semantics)

1. Which of the following uses of *mean* are relevant in a discussion of what semantics is concerned with and how it differs from pragmatics?
  - a) This face means trouble.
  - b) What does *soliloquy* mean?
  - c) If you're not there by six, I'll be gone. And I mean it.
  - d) You're meant to take off your shoes in a mosque.
  - e) Sorry, I don't quite understand. What exactly do you mean?
  - f) Do you mean to say you can't come?
  - g) His work means everything to him.
  - h) I never meant her to read this letter.
  - i) Smoke means fire.

**Solution:** b), e), f)

2. Fill in the chart below with '+' or '-' as appropriate:
  - a) establishes a link between language and the world
  - b) independent of a particular utterance
  - c) involves a set of possible referents
  - d) to be found in a dictionary definition
  - e) lists defining properties

	sense	reference	intension	extension	denotation	connotation
a.						
b.						
c.						
d.						
e.						

**Solution:**

	sense	reference	intension	extension	denotation	connotation
a.		+		+		
b.	+		+	+	+	+
c.				+	+	
d.	+		+			(+)
e.			+			

3.
  - a) What are the semantic relations between *see* and the other lexemes in the following groups that represent different lexical fields?  
*see* – *hear* – *feel*, *see* – *know* – *understand*, *see* – *look at* – *watch*,  
*see* – *visit* – *meet*, *see* – *imagine*, *see* – *sea*
  - b) Under which conditions can a lexeme belong to more than one lexical field?

**Solution:**

- a) heteronymy: three verbs of perception; *see* (primary meaning) versus *hear*, *feel*  
 synonymy: *see* via metaphorical extension ‘understand’  
 hyponymy: three verbs of visual perception; *see* superordinate of *look at*, *watch*  
 synonymy; *see* via metonymical extension ‘visit’ ‘meet’  
 synonymy: *see* via metonymical extension ‘imagine’  
 homonymy: (homophony): *sea*
- b) meaning extension through metaphor or metonymy, homonymy
- 
4. Identify the lexical relations holding between the following pairs of words:  
*frame – window*, *expand – contract*, *mole – spy*, *fill – empty*, *(go) in – (go) out*, *fail – succeed*, *hyponym – hypernym*, *picture – painting*, *zero – love*, *semantics – linguistics*, *freedom – liberty*, *after – before*, *book – index*

**Solution:**

- frame – window*: meronymy  
*expand – contract*: directional oppositeness (reversives)  
*mole – spy*: synonymy  
*fill – empty*: directional oppositeness (reversives)  
*in – out*: directional oppositeness (reversives)  
*fail – succeed*: antonymy  
*hyponym – hypernym*: converseness (relational opposites)  
*picture – painting*: synonymy  
*zero – love*: synonymy  
*semantics – linguistics*: meronymy  
*freedom – liberty*: synonymy  
*after – before*: converseness (relational opposites)  
*book – index*: meronymy
- 

**5.**

- a) What is funny about the headline “*Where’s the party?*” (Subtitle: “*How to get young people to vote for their politicians*”).  
 b) Explain the linguistic basis of the panda joke in example (6b).

**Solution:**

- c) two senses of party: ‘political group’ versus ‘social event’  
 d) syntactic ambiguity: *eats shoots and leaves* has the structure V(O + O); the panda reinterprets it as V, V + V. Different intonation contours resolve the ambiguity.
- 
6. Explain the role of context in drawing a distinction between (a) semantics and pragmatics, (b) vagueness and ambiguity, (c) total and cognitive synonymy.

**Solution:**

- e) Semantics deals with meaning out of context, pragmatics with meaning in context.
- f) Ambiguity is resolved (disambiguated) in a context, vagueness not necessarily (meaning can be modulated by the context).
- g) Total synonyms are synonymous in all contexts, cognitive synonyms are not.

**7.**

- a) What is structural about structural semantics?
- b) What are the major differences between structural and cognitive semantics?

**Solution:**

- a) Language is a network (system, structure) of interrelated units; the meaning of a part can only be specified with reference to the whole. The structure thus determines the meaning of a word, e.g. through syntagmatic and paradigmatic sense relations (both through what a word has in common with other words and by what it is different).
- b) Cognitive semantics investigates meaning through categorization; meaning is directly related to human cognition; language reflects conceptual categories. Relation *signifié* – *signifiant* is motivated; allows language comparison.  
Structural semantics: the relation *signifié* – *signifiant* is completely arbitrary; meaning is always language-specific; the meaning of a word is determined by its position in the network of the language, no direct link to cognitive structures.

**8.** Which of the following statements are true and which are false?

- a) Compiling a semantic field and identifying the sense relations among the field members are both instances of adopting an onomasiological procedure.
- b) Semantic fields are two-dimensional and have neither gaps nor words with overlapping or identical senses.
- c) Polysemous lexemes cannot belong to more than one semantic field.
- d) Homonymy and semantic change are two sides of the same coin.
- e) Oppositeness plays an important role in the organization of our mental lexicon.
- f) Hyponymy involves the inclusion of semantic features of the higher categories.
- g) Semantics is exclusively concerned with the descriptive meaning of content words.
- h) Prototype categories (e.g. bird, dog, cup, toy) always have fuzzy boundaries.
- i) Componential analysis and prototype theory do not exclude each other.
- j) Categorization always involves metaphor.

**Solution:**

- a) false; b) false; c) false; d) false; e) true; f) true; g) false; h) false; i) true; j) false

**Advanced**

9. Absolute synonyms are rare. *High* and *tall* are considered near synonyms in English. Try to answer the following questions based on the examples below, which illustrate typical uses of the two lexemes.

- a) In which of the examples are *high* and *tall* interchangeable? In which contexts is the choice restricted to just one of these items?  
b) Based on your answers to a), try to give an outline of semantic similarities and semantic differences between *high* and *tall*.

Some authentic examples, mostly from the BNC:

***high***

1. Good health is not just about providing efficient **high quality** medical services. (BNC:A0J 1358)
2. Due to the **high level** of burnout common in such chefs, few are offered jobs. (BNC:A0C 1377)
3. People chose to spend a **high proportion** of their disposable income on buying and running a car because car ownership enhances their lives. (BNC:A2L 103)
4. Mrs Thatcher has been advised that a complete ban on strikes is not a practical proposition and may entail a **high degree** of political risk. (BNC:a2T 112)
5. But availability of coal resource has never been the industry's problem – the essential difficulties are lack of demand and **high cost** of production.
6. VW has **high hopes** for the Polo in this country. (BNC:A6 W 431)
7. I didn't expect nothing like this. It's got this great **high roof** and loads of trains. It's real smoky and that. (BNC:A74)
8. "Come out!" The voice echoed in the **high arches** of the church. (BNC:HU0)
9. The room was large and square with **high ceiling** and two tall curtainless windows. (BNC:BN1)
10. **High Skies** and Fat Horses (Title of a novel by William J. Wallisch)

***tall***

11. The effect is similar to dressing a **tall man** in a pinstripe suit – it simply accentuates the length! (BNC:A0G 1442)
12. Suddenly, there stood beside me a very **tall figure**, six foot six or more, bearded and misty-white in appearance. (BNC:B2G 265)
13. From Middenheim's many **tall towers** it is possible to look out over the Great Forest to the south and the Drakwald to the west ... (BNC:CN1 386)
14. It was still night and the **tall trees** stood silently against the stars. (BNC:ACE 3258)
15. I could think of nothing except going to London and finding my way among its **tall buildings** studded with lights. (BNC:A0U 1374)

16. They knew the owner, the well-to-do, the grandees back from Jamaica and Bengal who sat here now behind the **tall walls** and drew their rents. (BNC:A0N 448)
17. Don't allow your personal feeling to cloud your judgement in finances or joint arrangements – a **tall order** because you seem to be emotionally involved, too. (BNC:CB8 2837)
18. The judge obviously thought that A had told a **tall story**. (BNC:H81 70)

**Solution:**

- a) *tall* cannot be used in place of *high* in any of the examples (1) to (10);  
*high* can only be used in place of *tall* in examples (13–16)
- b) Both words can refer to concrete vertical spatial extent (i. e., to an area measured from bottom to top, as in *high building* or *tall building*). This is illustrated in examples (13–16), in which *high* could be used in place of *tall* without changing the basic meaning of the relevant sentences.

The most important semantic contrasts illustrated in the above examples include the following:

- Only *high* can refer to vertical position (i. e., to the distance between the object modified by *high* and some reference object: *high ceiling* vs \**tall ceiling*; see examples (7–10)).
- *High* is far more common in metaphorical contexts of use (see examples (1–6)). By contrast, *tall* can be used metaphorically only in a few conventional constructions such as those illustrated in examples (17) and (18).
- *Tall* is strongly preferred as a modifier of nouns which refer to persons (examples (11) and (12)), and plants (example (14))

For further details see Taylor (2002), the text that provided the inspiration for this exercise: Taylor, John R. 2002. Near-synonyms as co-extensive categories: *High* and *tall* revisited. *Language Sciences* 25: 263–284.

- 
- 10.** The possessive in English is a highly interesting construction, given that it can express a wide range of semantic relationships. For example, the possessed can be ...
- i) something owned by the possessor (his *book*)
  - ii) one of the possessor's relatives (her *brother*)
  - iii) one of the possessor's *body parts* (his *arm*)
  - iv) an "unowned possession" (the child's *schoolbooks*)
  - v) an individual somehow related to the possessor (our *dean*)
  - vi) a physical quality (his *weight*)
  - vii) a mental quality (her *intelligence*)
  - viii) a permanent location (their *neighborhood*)
  - ix) a transient location (my *spot*)
  - x) a situation (my *predicament*)
  - xi) an action carried out (Oswald's *assassination*)
  - xii) an action undergone (Kennedy's *assassination*)

- a) What types of linguistic mechanism(s) might motivate the different uses of the possessive illustrated above?
- b) Is there a common semantic feature characterizing all the different types of “possession” which can be marked by the possessive? At first sight, it might be suggested that the common denominator underlying all kinds of possession marked by the possessive is “association”. On second thoughts, however, this explanation does not account for the asymmetries illustrated in (i) and (ii) below. Try to explain why the expressions in (i) are possible, while the (ii) cases are usually problematic. It may be useful to think of contexts in which some of the otherwise odd-sounding cases in (ii) would become acceptable.
  - (i) *the girl's doll; the man's car, the dog's paw; the horse's ticks; the boy's aunt;*
  - (ii) *\*the doll's girl; \*the car's man; ?the paw's dog; ?the ticks' horse; \*the aunt's boy ('her nephew')*

#### Solution:

Answers (based on Langacker's 1995 discussion of these examples):

- a) In some cases, metaphorical transfer might be at work, resulting in an extension from basic uses of the possessive – referring to something owned in the literal sense – to certain other kinds of uses. For instance, there are important similarities between objects owned and body parts: e.g., the “owner” in both cases has certain exclusive rights pertaining to the objects owned and his body parts, respectively. Similar observations can be made for some of the other examples. For example, intelligence (vii) is a mental property (in both senses of the latter term) which its “owner” has primary access to and which (s)he can make use of in a way in which no one else can; the situation is again reminiscent of typical possessor-possessed relationships. Some cases are more difficult to explain in terms of metaphorical transfer, however. The relation between the last two uses, for example, is more reminiscent of metonymical relationships in the sense that different but closely associated elements of a complex concept (the agent and the victim of an assassination) are involved. It should also be pointed out that the greater the range of contexts in which a linguistic item occurs, the broader and more abstract its meaning tends to become – gradually becoming compatible with an ever-increasing range of contexts. (Note that the latter point is not taken into consideration in Langacker's (1995) discussion of these examples, who points out that metaphorical extension is responsible for only some of these cases.)
- b) Langacker (1995: 58) has suggested that the underlying principle which motivates the grammatical as opposed to the problematic use is intricately linked to the way human beings experience the world. We perceive the world as made up of certain types of (unitary, whole) objects rather than others. When we attend to a particular phenomenon in the world, we do so by using a related, more encompassing entity as reference point. These reference

point objects provide the background for perceiving and focusing on other objects, which are typically smaller or less important. Thus, we don't perceive paws as such, but we perceive them in the context of the dogs which they belong to. In the words of Langacker (1995: 59): "Using one entity to establish mental contact with another is ... a fundamental aspect of cognitive organization; we can regard it as a basic image-schematic ability. The fact that ownership, kinship, and part/whole relationships are prototypical for possessive constructions is a consequence of the possessor in each case saliently and naturally lending itself to reference-point function."

In certain contexts, the relationship between reference point and entity focused on can be reversed. When spotting a doll lying around in a park, for example, we can use a phrase such as *Let's try to find the doll's girl*. In this situation, it is the doll which provides the point of access to another entity, i.e. in this case to some as yet unidentified girl (see Langacker 1995 for detailed discussion).

Langacker, Ronald W. 1995. "Possession and possessive constructions." In Taylor, John R./Robert E. MacLaury, eds. *Language and the Cognitive Construal of the World*. Berlin: Mouton. 51–79.

## 11.

- a) Compare the following sentences from English and Spanish, focusing on potential differences in how the two languages "construe" motion events. Which aspects of the events are asserted (explicitly stated) and which aspects are only implied?
- |               |   |      |             |                 |           |
|---------------|---|------|-------------|-----------------|-----------|
| (1a) English: | The   | boy  | climbed     | the             | tree.     |
| (1b) Spanish: | El  | nino | está subido | en              | el árbol  |
|               | 'The boy  | is   | climb-PART  | en ['in', 'on'] | the tree' |
|               | [ = the boy is in a state of having climbed the tree]                                 |      |             |                 |           |
| (2a) English: | The boy put (threw) the ball down into a container                                    |      |             |                 |           |
| (2b) Spanish: | El nino metió la pelota en el recipiente que había abajo                              |      |             |                 |           |
|               | 'The boy put the ball <i>en</i> (can mean 'in' or 'on') the container that was below' |      |             |                 |           |
- b) Do you think these differences have an impact on the way we think? Try to outline how exactly this influence may be reflected in our thought patterns.

### Solution:

- a) English: The path (trajectory) is singled out for explicit description (*climb the tree; throw down into*), while the resulting location, i.e. the end-state, is left implicit.  
 Spanish: There is no linguistic unit that gives expression to the path/trajectory (i.e., upward movement in (1b), downward movement into a container in (2b)). Rather, the trajectory has to be inferred. By contrast, the end-state is made explicit: '...is in a state of having climbed' in (1b) *implies* that the boy has *moved upwards* (= *path*) before. In (2b), specifying the location of the container as being located 'below' allows hearers to infer the downward



trajectory of the ball into the container (see Slobin (1996) for further discussion).

- b) One plausible idea is the “thinking-for-speaking” hypothesis (e. g. Slobin 2003). If a language such as Spanish predominantly expresses trajectories of objects in space by means of precise descriptions of the environment rather than by describing the objects’ trajectories through space, speakers of such a language might focus on the environment rather than on the trajectories themselves when observing motion in space. One prime reason for this is that in case they want to talk about some motion event – possibly at a later time – their language forces them to express these trajectories indirectly via precise description of the environment. Hence it will be these relatively stationary aspects of a situation which language users might predominantly attend to and remember, since it is these that have to be specified if speakers want to describe the relevant events at a later time. By contrast, speakers of languages which tend to focus on the trajectories themselves might attend more closely to the observable motion itself.

In the final analysis, however, drawing conclusions about thought patterns purely on the basis of linguistic observations is problematic, even though it is common practice (see *inter alia* the critical remarks in Wessel-Tolvig/Paggio 2016). What is needed for advancing more informed claims about potential repercussions of linguistic patterns on thought processes is evidence from a wide variety of sources, e. g., psycholinguistic studies based on pertinent experiments. This has been done extensively for the domain of space, for example. Arguably, the study of linguistic differences as discussed above can merely provide the basis for working hypotheses about the relation between language and thought.

Croft, William. 2001. *Radical Construction Grammar: Syntactic theory in typological perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Slobin, Dan I. 1996. “From ‘thought and language’ to ‘thinking for speaking’”. In John J. Gumperz & Stephen C. Levinson (Eds.), *Rethinking linguistic relativity*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 70–96.

Slobin, Dan I. 2003. “Language and thought online: Cognitive consequences of linguistic relativity.” In Dedre Gentner & Susan Goldin-Meadow (Eds.), *Language in mind: Advances in the investigation of language and thought*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press. 157–191.

Wessel-Tolvig, Bjoern/Patrizia Paggio. 2016. “Revisiting the thinking-for-speaking hypothesis: Speech and gesture representation of motion in Danish and Italian.” *Journal of Pragmatics* 99: 39–61.

12. The expression *single* (as opposed to *married*) is easily defined in terms of necessary and sufficient conditions. Construct such a definition and discuss whether this type of definition accurately reflects the way we conceptualize “single” persons and fully captures our use of the expression.

**Solution:**

A single can be defined as an unmarried human adult. This definition in terms of necessary and sufficient conditions does not adequately reflect our understanding of the expression, however. The notion of single can be fully understood only on the backdrop of social norms that inform our concepts of marriage, sexuality, and related ideas. The precise nature of these norms is culture-dependent. In many societies, for example, adult persons tend to marry at a certain age and are strongly expected to marry persons of the opposite sex only. Members of religious orders and clerics are typically not eligible for marriage. Such *Idealized Cognitive Models* (Lakoff 1987) or frames (Fillmore 1982) characterizing a culture’s dominant understanding of marriage and related notions are responsible for (some of the) prototype effects that arise in connection with the category *single*. For instance, a monk does not count as a good example of a single, neither does a homosexual living together with a same-sex partner (at least in certain cultures), or a man who has been living with his girlfriend for many years without marrying her.

Fillmore, Charles J. 1982. Frame semantics. In Linguistic Society of Korea (ed.), *Linguistics in the morning calm*. Seoul: Harshen. 111–137.

Lakoff, George. 1987. *Women, fire and dangerous things: What categories reveal about the mind*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

## Solutions chapter 7 (Pragmatics)

1. Fill in the blanks:

Pragmatics can be defined as the study of ..... in ....., with the speakers and their .....s at the centre. Its two most important theories operate on the ..... level. Speech act theory was developed by ..... and his pupil ....., and the theory of ..... implicatures by ..... All of them belong to the movement of ..... language ..... Grice's theory helps us account for the frequently observable fact that we ..... more into an utterance than what is ..... said. In this respect it links up with the study of ..... within speech act theory. Different from Grice's theory, the ..... theory developed by Sperber & Wilson is not a pragmatic, but rather a ..... theory. What stands at the heart of this theory is the calculation of contextual ..... against ..... ..

**Solution:**

Pragmatics can be defined as the study of **meaning** in **context**, with the speakers and their **intentions** at the centre. Its two most important theories operate on the **utterance** level. Speech act theory was developed by **Austin** and his pupil **Searle**, and the theory of **conversational** implicatures by **Grice**. All of them belong to the movement of **ordinary** language **philosophy**. Grice's theory helps us account for the frequently observable fact that we **read** more into an utterance than what is **literally** said. In this respect it links up with the study of **illocutionary acts** within speech act theory. Different from Grice's theory, the **relevance** theory developed by Sperber and Wilson is not a pragmatic, but rather a **cognitive** theory. What stands at the heart of this theory is the calculation of contextual **effects** against **processing effort**.

2. Identify the deictic expressions in the following examples and specify

- (a) whether they are used deictically or anaphorically
- (b) the relevant deictic dimension.
- a) There she was, sitting right next to my mother.
- b) Listen, mate, there is only one solution to your problem: you finish your essay and submit it next Monday.
- c) There you go.
- d) The hotel was just terrible. So the next Monday we left this hotel for good.
- e) Two days ago I met Mary. She looked tired and said she wasn't looking forward to her sister's birthday party a week from today.

**Solution:**

- a) There<sub>[Place: anaphoric]</sub> she<sub>[Person: deictic]</sub> was, sitting right next to my<sub>[Person: deictic]</sub> mother.
- b) Listen, mate, there is only one solution to your<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> problem: you<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> finish your<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> essay and submit it<sub>[anaphoric]</sub> next Monday<sub>[Time: deictic]</sub>.
- c) There you<sub>[Person: deictic]</sub> go.
- d) The hotel was just terrible. So the next Monday<sub>[Time: anaphoric]</sub> we<sub>[Person: deictic]</sub> left this hotel<sub>[Place: anaphoric]</sub> for good.
- e) Two days ago<sub>[Time: deictic]</sub> I<sub>[Person: deictic]</sub> met Mary. She<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> looked tired and said she<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> wasn't looking forward to her<sub>[Person: anaphoric]</sub> sister's birthday party a week from today<sub>[Time: deictic]</sub>.

**3.**

- a) Spell out the symbolic and indexical meanings of *today* and *this morning* respectively. Make use of the term *coding time*.
- b) What is understood by *deictic projection*? Apply this notion to the following conversational exchange:  
 Fred: It's the one on the right.  
 Mary: My right or yours?  
 What can we assume concerning the locations of Fred and Mary relative to each other?

**Solution:**

- a) *today*: (a) symbolic meaning: the 24 hour interval (from midnight to midnight) around coding time (i.e. the time of utterance); (b) indexical meaning: the 24 hour interval around the coding time (the now) of the respective speaker.  
*this morning*: (a) symbolic meaning: the 12 hour interval (from midnight to midday) on the day of the utterance; (b) indexical meaning: the 12 hour interval of the day of the respective utterance
- b) *Deictic projection* means a shift of the deictic centre. As speakers switch, so does the deictic centre. Fred's right is Mary's left; "right" and "left" (of speaker) shifts with the speaker. Fred and Mary face each other.

4. Which of the following utterances qualify as performatives? Identify the relevant speech acts.
  - a) I promised never to do it again.
  - b) I promise I'll never do it again.
  - c) Don't worry, be happy!
  - d) She declared the meeting closed.
  - e) I hereby fulfil my promise and paint the fence.
  - f) Don't you dare look at my daughter again!

**Solution:**

b) = promise

5. Identify both the direct and the indirect speech act for each of the following examples:

- a) Could you get me a cup of coffee?
- b) I could do with a cup of coffee.
- c) I would not do this if I were you.
- d) Would you like to come to my party?
- e) I wish I knew when the boss is coming back.
- f) Didn't I tell you to be careful?

**Solution:**

<b>direct</b>	<b>indirect</b>	<b>direct</b>	<b>indirect</b>
a) question	request	d) question	invitation
b) statement	request	e) statement	question
c) statement	warning	f) question	reproach

6. Try to identify for each of the following exchanges (a) the shared background assumptions of A and B, (b) the conversational implicature B wants A to draw, and (c) the relevant maxim(s) of the Cooperative Principle:

- a) A: Did you bring the baby?  
B: Do you see a pram or a bag full of nappies?
- b) A: Have you cleaned the kitchen and done the shopping?  
B: Well, I've done the shopping.
- c) A: Have you seen George recently?  
B: I saw him sometime last spring.
- d) A: Does your dog like bones?  
B: Do cats chase mice?
- e) A: There's a good movie on BBC 2 tonight.  
B: Good for you. I still have to finish this essay.

**Solution:**

- a) shared background: You cannot see a pram and a bag full of nappies. If the baby is there, you can see a pram and a bag full of nappies.  
conversational implicature: B did not bring the baby.  
Maxim: Relevance.
- b) shared background: B was supposed to clean the kitchen and do the shopping. If of a conjoined statement A + B only A is the case, then B is not the case.  
conversational implicature: B has not cleaned the kitchen.  
Maxim: Quantity<sub>1</sub>, Quality<sub>1</sub>.
- c) shared background: A and B know George; "last spring" is not the same as "recently".  
conversational implicature: B did not see George recently.  
Maxim: Quantity<sub>1</sub>.

- d) shared background: All cats chase mice (obvious truth)  
 conversational implicature: A's question was also an obvious truth.  
 All dogs like bones.  
 A's dog likes bones.  
 Maxim: Relevance, Quantity<sub>1</sub>, Manner.
- e) shared background: If you have an essay to finish, you cannot watch TV at the same time.  
 conversational implicature: B will not watch the film on BBC2.  
 Maxim: Relevance.

7.

- a) Name and illustrate three central properties that Grice identified for conversational implicatures.
- b) What is understood by scalar implicatures? In what way can they be characterized as “negative” inferences?

**Solution:**

- a) cancellability, calculability, non-conventionality
- b) The use of a particular scalar expression implies that the use of a stronger expression was not possible. If the speaker has said as much as he can, nothing stronger can be read into the utterance (negative inference).

8. Which of the following statements are true and which are false?

- a) Modern pragmatics was born in philosophy.
- b) Deictic expressions make the illocutionary point of an utterance explicit.
- c) Politeness is the top candidate for the most important motivation for being indirect in Anglo-American culture.
- d) For each individual speech act, the essential condition determines the other felicity conditions.
- e) Most felicity conditions represent regulative rules.
- f) The Cooperative Principle is a normative pragmatic principle explaining all language use.
- g) Cultural differences play no role in inferencing.
- h) Particularized implicatures are the prototypical conversational implicatures in being associated with a special context.
- i) Relation-based conversational implicatures generally yield enriched readings.
- j) Relevance Theory cannot do without Grice's Quality maxim.

**Solution:**

- a) true; b) false; c) true; d) true; e) true; f) false; g) false; h) true; i) true; j) true)

9. What are the major differences between speech act theory and the theory of conversational implicatures, and what do the two theories have in common?

**Advanced**

**Solution:**

On the most general level, both theories are concerned with aspects of utterances that go beyond the basic “coded” content, i.e., the meaning conveyed by words, phrases, sentences and linguistic structures. However, the two theories focus on different aspects of such non-propositional meaning, i.e., meaning that goes beyond what is said. Given that a speaker has “said” something in the Gricean sense (i.e., produced an utterance with a particular sense and reference), Grice’s theory of conversational implicatures focuses on what the speaker has implicated – what kind of additional content has been communicated – while speech act theory focuses on what types of acts the speaker has performed via his utterance.

Furthermore, both types of theories take speakers’ utterances as their point of departure for a theory of meaning in context, rather than focusing more closely on the way meaning is negotiated in discourse by speaker AND hearer (these approaches therefore contrast with conversation analysis, for example).

On a more specific level, further commonalities include a commitment to a broadly Gricean conception of non-natural meaning as a phenomenon to be explained in terms of reflexive intentions on the part of speakers. More precisely, meaning is to be explained in terms of the intention to induce a mental state in the addressee by means of the addressee’s recognition of that very intention. Searle has offered a modified account of the Gricean conception of non-natural meaning. Searle’s account of how we can understand indirect speech acts incorporates ideas that are clearly Gricean in spirit (cooperative principle, maxims, implicatures). Indeed, indirect speech acts are sometimes characterized as Gricean implicatures.

A crucial difference between the two approaches is related to their different subject matter: Speech act theory (most notably Austin’s version) primarily focuses on conventional aspects of language, while Grice’s account places particular emphasis on non-conventional language use (i.e., particularized conversational implicatures).

**10.**

- a) Describe the central role that the maxim of Relation plays in the Cooperative Principle.
- b) Why is it misleading to assume that Relevance Theory is a reductionist pragmatic model that reduces the four Gricean maxims to a single one?

**Solution:**

- a) Relation is central to the Cooperative Principle in the sense that addressees won’t be cooperative on the most basic level – by continuing their communicative exchange with speakers – unless speakers’ utterances convey “a presumption of their own relevance” (in Sperber & Wilson’s parlance). This is Sperber & Wilson’s position at least; to a certain extent, they are correct, since a general attempt to avoid the communication of e.g. old news and similar phenomena seem to be a major feature of language in use.

On the other hand, many utterances we produce in everyday language are anything but relevant.

Relation is also central in that it is implicitly contained at least in the maxim of quantity (“Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange (Quantity<sub>1</sub>) and not more informative as required (Quantity<sub>2</sub>)”). The phrase “required for the purposes of the exchange” suggests that the amount of information provided by the speaker will be appropriate – and hence in line with the Quantity maxim – to the extent that it is *relevant* for the interlocutors.

- b) It depends on the perspective adopted whether this account of Relevance Theory is misleading. If the characterization of Sperber & Wilson’s account as reductionist is framed in terms of “reducing four Gricean maxims to only one (Gricean maxim)”, then this description is indeed misleading, because the principle of relevance is not a maxim comparable to Grice’s Relation Maxim. The principle of relevance is rather a *cognitive* principle which human perception, thought and language are invariably oriented to. However, if one frames the reductionism in terms of “reducing four explanatory principles to a single one”, then Sperber & Wilson’s account is clearly reductionist.

There is one respect in which Sperber & Wilson might argue that their account is actually expansionist, in that they introduce the concept of explicature. On the other hand, Grice’s model differentiates between different types of conversational implicature, a distinction which is not found in Sperber & Wilson.

One should also bear in mind that Sperber & Wilson arguably cannot completely do without the Gricean maxim of quality: Word meanings can only be relatively stable if we can rely on our interlocutors to tell the truth most of the time. Imagine a society whose members do not obey this principle, e.g., people regularly or even most of the time resort to lies (i.e., they will say things like *Look, the cat chases the dog* when in fact the dog chases the cat). In such a society, language users (and most particularly language learners) will have an impossibly hard time distinguishing a mistaken use of a word from a lie, and there won’t be any consistency in how words are used. As a result, words will lose their meaning; acquiring word meanings and using language for communication will become impossible. Hence, a viable account in the spirit of Sperber & Wilson might turn out to be less reductionist than might seem to be the case at first sight.

## 11.

- a) Violating a maxim is generally considered a violation of the Cooperative Principle. But this is less obvious in the case of the second maxim of quantity (*Do not make your contribution more informative than required*). If speakers provide more information than required, do they really fail to observe the Cooperative Principle? If so, why?



- b) For some theorists, the maxim of quality is accorded minor importance at best. Can you think of reasons why? It may be helpful to think of a type of phenomenon that is a central concern of Cognitive Linguistics (see the semantics chapter).
- c) Some scholars argue that the second maxim of quantity (*Do not make your contribution more informative than required*) is not really necessary. Violating this maxim always seems to amount to violating the maxim of relation ('Be relevant'). Can you think of counterexamples to this claim which show that one can violate the second maxim of quantity without at the same time violating relevance?

**Solution:**

- a) Arguably, a speaker violating the Second Maxim of Quantity does violate the Cooperative Principle. The reason for this has been outlined by Grice himself: A speaker offering an excessive amount of details will often mislead listeners, who may be inclined to think that providing these details has some ulterior purpose. In other words, listeners may believe that the speaker tries to get across a particular message by giving such (actually unnecessary) specifications.
- b) Relevance theorists argue that we often do not obey this maxim. For instance, when speaking metaphorically or ironically, when making overstatements or for politeness reasons, we arguably don't (completely) orient to the maxim of quality.
- c) Consider the following example below. John's answer violates the second maxim of quantity, since he is required to produce only a single candidate. Still, his answer is relevant and helpful (e.g.) in case one of the two candidates named by John is not available as speaker.  
 Susan: I'd be happy if you could name a suitable candidate speaker for our next meeting.  
 John: Well I'd suggest Sam or Tom.

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**12.** According to Austin, an utterance usually involves producing locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts simultaneously. The terms *illocutionary act* and *perlocutionary act* are explained in the chapter. The locutionary act is the act of producing a concrete utterance with a determinate sense and reference. Usually, this includes the act of expressing some propositional content. For example, the locutionary act associated with a particular utterance of *He loves Ludwig* might be "Searle (= the reference of the *he* in the context at issue) loves his dog Ludwig (= the reference of *Ludwig* in this example)".

- a) Can you think of cases where only the locutionary act is produced, while no illocutionary act is carried out?
- b) Can you think of cases where illocutionary (and typically also perlocutionary) acts are produced, but no locutionary act is carried out?

- c) Can you think of cases where speakers produce only an illocutionary or locutionary act, but no perlocutionary act?
- d) Can you think of locutionary/illocutionary acts that do not have any propositional content?
- e) Identify which of the verbs given below designate ...
  - i) illocutionary acts
  - ii) perlocutionary acts
  - iii) neither illocutionary nor perlocutionary acts

*sympathize, intend, tell (someone that something is the case), frighten, request, nominate, insist, convince, annoy, regard as*

**Solution:**

- a) Potential examples include contexts where speakers produce sentences purely in order to practice their pronunciation or in order to show off their reading skills. In such situations, locutionary acts are produced, but no illocutionary acts.
- b) Potential examples include acts such as raising one's hand or stepping forward to indicate that one is willing to perform some kind of task.
- c) Whether a perlocutionary act is produced depends on whether the relevant utterance has some effect on the hearer (e.g. being annoyed). If no hearer is present, no perlocutionary act is produced.
- d) There are quite a few examples of locutionary/illocutionary acts that do not have any propositional content (e.g., expressives such as *Ouch!* or *Hooray!*).
- e) i) *tell, request, nominate, insist*  
 ii) *frighten, convince, annoy*  
 iii) *sympathize* (the corresponding illocutionary act would be *expressing sympathy*), *intend, regard as*

## Solutions chapter 8 (Sociolinguistics)

1.

- a) Explain the differences between the members of the following semantic field: dialect, genderlect, jargon, lect, register, slang, sociolect, standard, variety, vernacular
- b) The term *dialect* can be used both in broader and in narrower ways compared with the definition adopted in this chapter. Comment on the following uses:
  - (A) Dialects can be distinguished along a horizontal and a vertical axis. The first gives us regional, the second social dialects.
  - (B) This person can't even speak proper English. All he's able to is produce some dialect which is unintelligible even to the most well-meaning ears.
  - (C) In my dialect you would have to say [paθ] rather than [pa:θ].
  - (D) We speak the same dialect but different accents.

### Solution:

- a) dialect: regional variety  
genderlect: gender variety (special type of sociolect)  
jargon: professional (technical) variety (special type of sociolect and register)  
lect: superordinate term (= variety)  
register: functional variety  
slang: informal variety (special type of register)  
sociolect: social variety  
standard: non-regional prestige variety  
variety: superordinate term (= lect)  
vernacular = non-standard variety
- b) A = broader: 'social dialects' = sociolects  
B = narrower: dialect = 'incorrect standard', 'substandard variety'  
C = narrower: dialect = accent  
D = narrower: dialect relates only to lexical and grammatical variation

2. Which of the following examples are candidates for true regionalisms? Try to identify the relevant regional dialects or dialect areas. You can consult eWAVE (<https://ewave-atlas.org/>) for help.

- a) I'm needing a cup of tea.
- b) It pull the mole up and he was dead in minutes.
- c) We also had a girl worked in the house.
- d) You were only after asking me.
- e) You never seen nobody.
- f) Answer the question, can or not?

**Solution:****widespread:**

- a) extended use of the progressive, feature 88: Wider range of uses of progressive *be* + *V-ing* than in StE: Extension to stative verbs
- c) zero relatives in subject position, feature 193: Gapping/zero-relativization in subject position
- e) multiple negation, *seen* = past tense, feature 154: Multiple negation/negative concord

**regionalisms:**

- b) gender diffusion: *he* refers back to *mole* (Southwest), feature 2: *He/him* used for inanimate referents
- d) *be after*-perfect: (Irish English), feature 98: *after*-perfect
- f) invariant question tag *can or not?* (Colloquial Singapore English), feature 166: Invariant tag *can or not?*

3. Which of the following sentences are more representative of American English, which of British English?
- a) The orchestra is divided.
  - b) Did you already see “Armageddon”?
  - c) I’ve had a bath just a minute ago.
  - d) She’s gotten interested.
  - e) I insist that she leaves.
  - f) Where can I get some petrol?

**Solution:**

a) AmE; b) AmE; c) BrE; d) AmE; e) BrE; f) BrE.

4. Illustrate the correlation between social class and regional variation. Include in your discussion the pronunciation of words like *bar*, *card*, *singing* and *walking* as it is frequently found in England.

**Solution:**

The lower the social class, the more likely it is that a regional variety will be spoken and that speakers will use regional variants such as preconsonantal /r/ or the pronunciation of *-ing* as /m/; the highest number of occurrences of such regionalisms is found in the lower working class.

5. Explain the sociolinguistic approach known as “social network analysis”.

**Solution:**

Social network analysis is concerned with social interaction on a microsociological level. Virtually everybody is part of a social network. The sizes of these networks may differ, though, and the degree to which you are integrated into them. A high degree of integration correlates with group-specific systems of values, norms, shared knowledge, attitudes, etc. which are also reflected in language use (i. e. group identity manifests itself in language). Such close social networks tend to be linguistically conservative. Language change can rather be observed in open social networks

6.

- a) What is striking about the following sentences in African-American English:
  - (a) They real fine.
  - (b) I gonna do it.
  - (c) John be happy.
  - (d) Sometime they be walking round here.
- b) Identify grammatical parallels between African-American English and regional varieties in the British Isles. You can consult eWAVE (<https://ewave-atlas.org/>) for help.

**Solution:**

- a) deletion of copula *be* (in those environments where Standard English permits cliticization, e. g. *I'm, you're*), feature 177: Deletion of copula *be*: before AdjPs; (b) deletion of auxiliary *be*, feature 275: Deletion of auxiliary *be*: before *gonna*; grammaticalization of *gonna* to future marker; (c) habitual *be*, feature 90: invariant *be* as habitual marker, no third person -s; (d) habitual *be*, feature 90: invariant *be* as habitual marker, no plural marking
- b) habitual *be* (Southwest, Irish English), feature 90: invariant *be* as habitual marker; multiple negation, feature 154: Multiple negation/negative concord; no third person -s (East Anglia), feature 170: Invariant present tense forms due to zero marking for the third person singular; *was* for subjunctive *were*, feature 147: *was* for conditional *were*

7. Sketch the major differences between traditional and modern dialectology.

**Solution:****traditional dialectology**

focus of investigation:

- rural areas
- regional variation
- accent and lexicon

methods:

- questionnaires, interviews

**modern dialectology**

focus of investigation:

- urban areas and communities of practice
- also social variation
- also grammar

methods:

- also corpora, modern statistical methods, modern software use, e. g. for phonetic analysis, ethnographic methods

8. Which of the following statements are true, which are false?

- a) Traditional dialectology is concerned with the study of traditional dialects, modern dialectology with the study of modern dialects.
- b) Social variation correlates with regional variation.
- c) RP is a social accent.
- d) Multiple negation is the rule rather than the exception in many varieties of English.
- e) Accommodation is the term in sociolinguistics for the influence that housing has on the choice of a certain functional variety.

- f) There is far more regional variation in the British Isles than there is in the United States.
- g) You cannot speak a standard dialect with a regional accent.
- h) Most of the grammatical differences between British and American English can be observed in the verb phrase.
- i) Third-wave sociolinguistics aims at identifying correlations between the use of linguistic variants and broad demographic categories.
- j) More as well as more complex subordination patterns are typical of written in contrast to spoken language.

**Solution:**

- a) false; b) true; c) true; d) true; e) false; f) true; g) false; h) true; i) false; j) true

9. Go to the BYU interface of the corpus of *Global Web-Based English* (GloWbE), a 1.9-billion-word corpus with data from twenty varieties of English: <https://www.english-corpora.org/glowbe/>. Enter *auntie|aunties* in the search window and select chart. The pipe symbol “|” allows you to search for the singular and plural form simultaneously.
- a) Click on “frequency by section” and identify the variety in which AUNTIE is most frequently used.
  - b) Click on the bar of the variety to see how AUNTIE is used in context. Determine what other meaning(s) AUNTIE has apart from ‘a sister of one’s father or mother’.

**Advanced****Solution:**

- a) Singapore English
- b) The term AUNTIE is used as a general form of respect for older women, e.g. *A lovely auntie who sits beneath our apartment block gives her chocolate each time* (GloWbE-SG:G), *Like why do aunties want to line-dance, or dance at all, to Backstreet Boys music?* (GloWbE-SG:B).

10. Familiarize yourself with eWAVE, an open-access, electronic world atlas of varieties of English, on <https://ewave-atlas.org/>.

- a) What is eWAVE?
- b) Identify pervasive features of Orkney and Shetland English and give an example.
- c) Which of the features above could be considered angloversals in the sense that they seem to occur in the majority of English varieties world-wide? Which seem to be true regionalisms?

**Solution:**

- a) eWAVE is an interactive database on morphosyntactic variation in spontaneous spoken English mapping 235 features from a dozen domains of grammar in about 50 varieties of English and 26 English-based Pidgins and Creoles.
- b) Search for the variety of Orkney and Shetland English and you will find a rating of all 235 features included in eWAVE. Rating A stands for a feature that is pervasive or even obligatory. If you click on the rating of an individual feature, you’ll find an illustrative example.

Features that are rated as pervasive or obligatory in Orkney and Shetland English:

- Forms or phrases for the second person singular pronoun other than *you* (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/35>)  
*Du/thoo*
  - Use of definite article where StE has indefinite article (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/60>)  
*da caald* ‘the cold (disease)’
  - *Yon/yonder* indicating remoteness (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/69>)  
*yon oil company*
  - No number distinction in demonstratives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/71>)  
*Dis is no very dray paets*  
‘These are not very dry peats.’
  - Wider range of uses of progressive *be* + *V-ing* than in StE: extension to stative verbs (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/88>)  
*What is du wantin?*
  - *Be* as perfect auxiliary (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/102>)  
*I’m seen it*
  - Existential / presentational *there’s/there is/there was* with plural subjects (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/172>)  
*Der folk here fae Sweden (fae ‘from’)*
  - Agreement sensitive to subject type (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/181>)  
*Yon horses pulls weel; Dey pull weel*
  - Relativizer *at* (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/188>)  
*Better da piri kol at warms you dan da mukkel ean at burns you*  
(*piri* = ‘small’; *mukkel* = ‘big’)
  - Degree modifier adverbs have the same form as adjectives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/220>)  
*Hit wis gyaan aafil slow*
  - Other adverbs have the same form as adjectives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/221>)  
*Yun’s aisy gotten*
- c) A click on a feature description will show you how many varieties share this feature or whether it is restricted to a certain variety or a group of varieties.
- Forms or phrases for the second person singular pronoun other than *you* (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/35>) → REGIONALISM  
*Du/thoo*
  - Use of definite article where StE has indefinite article (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/60>)  
*da caald* ‘the cold (disease)’
  - *Yon/yonder* indicating remoteness (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/69>) → REGIONALISM  
*yon oil company*

- No number distinction in demonstratives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/71>)  
*Dis is no very dray paets*  
'These are not very dry peats.'
- Wider range of uses of progressive *be* + *V-ing* than in StE: extension to stative verbs (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/88>)  
*What is du wantin?*
- *Be* as perfect auxiliary (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/102>) → REGIONALISM  
*I'm seen it*
- Existential / presentational *there's/there is/there was* with plural subjects (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/172>) → ANGLOVERSAL  
*Der folk here fae Sweden* (*fae* 'from')
- Agreement sensitive to subject type (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/181>) → REGIONALISM  
*Yon horses pulls weel; Dey pull weel*
- Relativizer *at* (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/188>) → REGIONALISM  
*Better da piri kol at warms you dan da mukkel ean at burns you* (*piri* = 'small'; *mukkel* = 'big')
- Degree modifier adverbs have the same form as adjectives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/220>) → ANGLOVERSAL  
*Hit wis gyaan aafil slow*
- Other adverbs have the same form as adjectives (<https://ewave-atlas.org/parameters/221>) → ANGLOVERSAL  
*Yun's aisy gotten*

**11.** Find at least one replication of Labov's famous Martha's Vineyard study and compare its findings with those of the original.

**Solution:**

1. Blake, Renée/Meredith Josey. 2003. "The /ay/ diphthong in a Martha's Vineyard community: What can we say 40 years after Labov." *Language in Society* 32(4): 451–485.  
Blake and Josey (2003) investigate the centralization of /aɪ/ in 16 fishermen from Chilmark, a town on Martha's Vineyard, with acoustic methods on the basis of sociolinguistic interview data. They find that the centralization of /aɪ/ is receding, i. e. it is less strong than in the original study. They maintain that "[t]oday, Vineyarders no longer appear to locate themselves strongly in opposition to tourists from the mainland, and thus they seem to be releasing the symbolic centralized /ay/ diphthong" (Blake & Josey 2003: 479)
2. Pope, Jennifer/Miriam Meyerhoff/D. Robert Ladd. 2007. "Forty years of language change on Martha's Vineyard." *Language* 83(3): 615–627.  
Pope et al. (2007) investigate the centralization of /aɪ/ and /aʊ/ and include 116 speakers of different ethnicities and occupations from different parts of the island (a close replication of Labov's



original study). They use the same wordlist and reading passage as in the original study, and perform impressionistic auditory analysis with acoustic analyses to justify Labov's and their auditory four-point scale. They find that the centralization of both diphthongs is still strongly associated with speakers who have positive attitudes towards the island, and conclude that "the symbolism of centralization remains much the same as when he [Labov] conducted his research" (Pope et al. 2007: 621). Furthermore, they propose four reasons (2007: 623–626) that may have led to the differences between their findings and Blake and Josey's (2003): (1) the method of data collection, (2) differences in the social and geographical make-up of the samples, (3) the role of the two fieldworkers in the community, and (4) the linguistic variables studied.

- 12.** Give an account of the significance of sociolinguistics for the study of language change. Focus in particular on the work by William Labov.

**Solution:**

Compare section 8.6:

- Insights from sociolinguistics are of great significance for and have had a lasting effect on the study of language change.
- Labov was one of the first to investigate language-external factors causing language change, and who attempted to explain language change in connection with changes in social reality (e.g. Labov 1994, 2001)
- In his study on Martha's Vineyard (Labov 1963), he famously found a direct connection between variation and change. Linguistic change starts out as linguistic variation. At the same time, by observing synchronic variation, a lot can be learnt about the history of a language.
- Labovian sociolinguistics is concerned both with the possible trigger(s) of language change (→ actuation problem) and the factors which influence its spread (→ transition problem).

**References and further reading**

- Blake, Renée/Meredith Josey. 2003. "The /ay/ diphthong in a Martha's Vineyard community: What can we say 40 years after Labov?" *Language in Society* 32(4): 451–485.
- Labov, William. 1963. "The social motivation of a sound change." *WORD: Journal of the International Linguistic Association* 19: 273–309.
- Labov, William. 1994. *Principles of linguistic change: Internal factors*. vol. 1. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Labov, William. 2001. *Principles of linguistic change: Social factors*. vol. 2. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Labov, William. 2010. *Principles of linguistic change: Cognitive and cultural factors*. vol. 3. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Pope, Jennifer/Miriam Meyerhoff/D. Robert Ladd. 2007. "Forty years of language change on Martha's Vineyard." *Language* 83(3): 615–627.

## Solutions chapter 9

### (Turns and trends in 21st century linguistics)

1. Associate each of the following statements with one of the branches of modern historical linguistics presented in section 9.4:
  - a) The much-increased use of contractions like *isn't*, *haven't* or *didn't* in newspaper language is a clear indicator of the colloquialization of the norms of written English.
  - b) This is a typical 18th century way of asking someone a big favour.
  - c) The upper gentry was responsible for spreading quite a number of grammatical innovations during the Early Modern English period.
  - d) Verbs of motion belong to the typical sources of future time markers in the languages of the world.
  - e) Euphemism is often responsible for pejoration (e.g. *smell* meaning 'bad smell, odour' in "What's this smell in here?").

#### Solution:

a) historical corpus linguistics, b) historical pragmatics, c) historical sociolinguistics, d) grammaticalization, e) historical semantics

2. Which corpus in each set does not belong there?

a.	LOB	FLOB	BNC	COCA	LLC
b.	Brown	CEEC	Helsinki	ARCHER	CLMET
c.	ICLE	FRED	LLC	Frown	LOB
d.	SBCSAE	COHA	B-Brown	OBC	Frown
e.	FRED	ICLE	Frown	COCA	BNC

#### Solution:

- a) COCA (only American English corpus vs. four British English corpora)
- b) Brown (the only non-diachronic corpus)
- c) ICLE (the only learner corpus)
- d) OBC (the only corpus on (historical) British English vs. four American English corpora)
- e) FRED (exclusively spoken data, all others spoken or spoken & written data)

3. Which corpus could be used for which research question? Where possible, name more than one corpus you would use for answering the following research questions:

- a) What can we say about the rise and fall of modal verbs in 20th century American English?
- b) Is it possible to identify colloquialization tendencies as early as in Early Modern English letter writing?
- c) Do advanced learners of English with a Slavic mother tongue have the same problems with article usage as advanced learners of English with Italian or Spanish as their first language?

- d) Are there differences in the use of tag questions in British English vis-à-vis African and Southeast Asian Englishes?
- e) How has the use of the passive in newspaper language developed from the 17th century until today?

**Solution:**

- a) B-Brown, Brown, Frown; Archer, COHA
- b) CEEC, ARCHER
- c) ICLE, LINDSEI
- d) ICE<sub>1</sub>, ICE<sub>2</sub>; GloWbE; BNC1994, BNC 2014, BE06
- e) ARCHER, COHA, CLMET

- 
4. Why are the two following sentences considered as prototypical examples of constructions, respectively?

- a) He is driving me nuts.
- b) Just because the data satisfy expectations does not mean they are correct.

**Solution:**

- a) non-compositional meaning  
open slot subject to construction-specific constraints: drive [NP] [nuts/bananas/mad/insane/bonkers/crackers/mental/etc.]; but: not anything can be fitted into the slot (\*demented/\*meshuga); has to be learnt and stored as a mental unit
- b) deviates from established grammatical patterns (subordinate adverbial clause preceding what looks like a subjectless main clause) associated with an idiomatic concessive meaning; exists in different variants, but: construction-specific constraints (e.g., mean can be replaced by a restricted number of verbs; the second part must express a negative meaning); must be learnt and stored as a mental unit.

- 
5. Find the mistake in each of the following statements and correct it.

- a) High-contact L1 varieties are characterized by a large number of complexifying (or: ornamental) features.
- b) Angloversals in World Englishes research correspond to absolute universals in language typology.
- c) Africa is the best example of a homogeneous anglophone world region.
- d) British Creole is typologically highly dissimilar from Jamaican Creole.
- e) African American Englishes can hardly be argued to be structurally similar to creoles.
- f) The geographical signal for sub-regions of the Anglophone world regions is weaker than it is for the world regions overall.
- g) Pidgins and creoles are placed at opposite ends of a continuum mapping the complexity of grammars.
- h) Deletion of copula *be* (as in *But this one not your car*) is completely absent in L1c varieties of English.

**Solution:**

- a) Either “Low-contact L1 varieties ... complexifying features” or “High-contact L1 varieties ... simplifying features”.
- b) relative (or: statistical) universals
- c) Africa is the best example of a heterogenous Anglophone world region.
- d) British Creole is typologically very similar to Jamaican Creole (simply because it is an offspring of JamC).
- e) Following the global network diagram in figure 9.2, African American Englishes are in the same cluster (Cluster 4) as several Caribbean Creoles as well as the only North American creole (Gullah). So there clearly are arguments in favour of structural similarities.
- f) The geographical signal is stronger for sub-regions than it is for the entire world regions.
- g) Pidgins and creoles are placed at the same (namely bottom) end of such a continuum, since they belong to the structurally most simplified varieties or languages of the world.
- h) This and other deletion features involving copula *be* are completely absent from low-contact L1 varieties (L1t); they are relatively frequent in L1c varieties.

6. Which of the following examples from the traditional dialects of England show features that lead to more regularity, consistency, or simplification in English grammar compared with (written) Standard English, and in what way do they do so?

- a) I seen one the other day.
- b) But they make dustbins big enough now, in't it?
- c) That shirt wants washed.
- d) Give us a kiss.
- e) The girl what called me yesterday.
- f) Hope we get it organized as quick as we can.
- g) They just work their farm theirselves.
- h) My car, he's broken.

**Solution:**

- a) increase in regularity by reducing the number of irregular verb forms
- b) simplification of question tag system by using just one invariant form *in't it* or *innit*
- c) –
- d) –
- e) simplification of relativizer system by using just one invariant form *what* instead of case-marked relative pronouns (*who*, *whose*, *whom*)
- f) simplification; same form of adjective (*quick*) and adverb (*quick*)
- g) regularization of reflexive pronoun system: just possessive pronoun + *-self/-selves*, not a mixture of two systems as in StE: personal pronoun + *-self/-selves* (*himself*, *herself*, *themselves*) vs. possessive pronouns + *-self/-selves* (*myself*, *yourself*, *ourselves*, *yourselves*).
- h) –

7.

- a) What distinguishes invited inferencing from metaphorization?
- b) What do invited inferencing, metaphorization and subjectification have in common?

**Solution:**

- a) Invited inferencing operates on the basis of pragmatic inferences in communication (typically conversational implicatures à la Grice); metaphorization is a cognitive process involving transfer, typically from concrete to abstract.
- b) (a) They all play a role in semantic change, especially in semantic changes accompanying grammaticalization processes.  
(b) Invited inferencing is one facet of subjectification, defined as the grounding of meaning in the speaker's subjective state of belief or attitude.

8. Which of the following statements are true, which are false?

- a) Saussure's *parole* broadly corresponds to Chomsky's *performance*, but Saussure's *langue* does not correspond to Chomsky's *competence*.
- b) The use of large electronic corpora is a standard method in formalist linguistics.
- c) Regularities in semantic change can be observed especially in grammaticalization.
- d) Historical sociolinguistics includes the study of formerly pragmatic ambiguities turning into semantic ambiguities.
- e) It is a key assumption in usage-based linguistics that our language faculty is probabilistic.
- f) The Old Bailey Corpus offers us a window to spoken language in the Late Modern English period.
- g) In all written genres, language change operates at the same speed.
- h) There is a pronounced tendency across the world's spontaneous spoken varieties to re-establish a special form or phrase for the second person plural.
- i) In Construction Grammar, only form-meaning pairings from the phrasal level onwards count as a construction.
- j) A typical frequency effect is the conservation of irregular word forms of highly frequent lexemes.

**Solution:**

- a) true; b) false; c) true; d) false; e) true; f) true; g) false; h) false; i) false; j) true

**Advanced**

9. Based on Bybee (2013: chapters 4.1–4.3), sketch the key tenets of exemplar-based approaches to language and give two reasons why they are readily compatible with usage-based Construction Grammar.

**Solution:**

According to exemplar-based approaches to language, each string of language encountered in language use (i. e. each 'exemplar'), no matter how complex, gets mentally stored in high-resolution format, with individual memory traces encoding fine-grained linguistic and

non-linguistic facets of the input (e.g., detailed phonetic realization, gender of the speaker, situational context, etc.). Together, all memory traces constitute the 'exemplar store', which is continuously updated as a result of on-going experience with linguistic behaviour. Abstractions generalizing over similar memory traces can develop, but do not supersede the individual memory traces from which they arise.

The exemplar model is straightforwardly compatible with Construction Grammar for the following main reasons (among others):

- Prototypical constructions constitute stored units associated with idiosyncratic features which cannot be derived from the most general rules of language. The idea of detailed information being associated with low-level units (rather than high-level abstractions) in the minds of language users ties in with exemplar-based assumptions.
- Constructions can also exist by virtue of high usage frequency (even if the relevant unit is totally transparent, i.e., non-idiosyncratic). Again, this can be readily modelled by the exemplar approach, which assumes that the depth of memory traces depends on input frequency.

**10.** In which ways do Construction Grammar and the usage-based approach challenge established key assumptions, distinctions and principles of structuralism and generativism?

**Solution:**

Different from structuralism & generativism:

- focus on performance/parole (= use)
- assumption that language use can provide insights into underlying mental structures and the language system as a whole (i.e., no strict division between competence/langue and performance/parole)
- against sharp synchrony-diachrony divide (→ lexicalization, grammaticalization)
- rejection of the arbitrariness assumption; rather: use reflects function (→ iconicity)
- against introspective, deductive method (rather: data-driven inductivism)
- language not seen as a closed system (→ structuralism) which is autonomous from other cognitive domains (→ generativism); rather: non-modular, importance of the context

Different from generativism:

- interest in meaning/function
- interest in lexical and phrasal units (i.e. low-scope constructions)
- different notion of universals (empirically attested tendencies in the world's languages rather than innate structural knowledge)
- language acquisition not crucially driven by an innate language acquisition device, but rather by domain-general abilities and linguistic experience

**11.** Find out three ways in which frequency of use influences language change.

**Solution:**

- High-frequency expressions preferentially undergo certain types of language change such as
  - fusion (e.g., “God be with you” > “goodbye”)
  - reanalysis (e.g., “going to” can be used as a future marker with no sense of motion)
- At the same time, high-frequency expressions are resistant to regularization (e.g., the high-frequency irregular past tense form “went” has been retained, whereas lower-frequency “clomb” has regularized to “climbed”; Bybee, 2006).

**12.** Based on the following interview with Elizabeth Traugott, explain the difference between lexicalization, grammaticalization, and constructionalization.

2014. “Grammaticalization: An interview with Elizabeth Closs Traugott.” *Revista Virtual de Estudos da Linguagem*, vol. 12, n. 22 [<http://www.revel.inf.br/files/e29844d9749b72f624027a29a67c069e.pdf>]

**Solution:**

- Lexicalization: the development of a new contentful unit (typically via coalescence of formerly independent lexical items, e.g. Old English *hlaf-weard* ‘loaf guardian’ > *lord*)
- Grammaticalization: the development of a new grammatical unit (e.g., markers for tense, aspect, case; personal pronouns; connectives, etc.); sometimes also encompasses the development of pragmatic markers (e.g. *well*, *in fact*, *isn’t it*).
- Constructionalization: the appearance of a new entrenched form-meaning pairing (i.e., a construction) via a change at any level of description pertaining to constructions (e.g., phonological, morphological, syntactic on the formal side; or semantic, pragmatic or discourse-functional on the functional side). While grammaticalization and lexicalization tend to focus on the development of one specific string, constructionalization also deals with diachronic changes at the level of abstract constructional schemas (i.e. form-meaning pairings involving open slots). Moreover, it takes into account interrelationships within wider constructional networks (e.g., the emergence of the *going to* construction against the background of the evolution of the whole auxiliary system, at both substantive and schematic levels).



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