

SOURCE BOOK FOR A SEMESTER'S STUDY OF LANGUAGE
IN TWELFTH GRADE ENGLISH

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THESIS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

English is the quicksilver among metals . . . mobile, living and elusive. Its conflicting emphases challenge us today to look for a new coherent definition.

--John Dixon

Modern linguists have brought to the teachers of English a new expectation that a knowledge of the history and development, current state, and structure of the language may greatly enhance the students' capabilities in using their language. All agree, certainly, that of utmost importance in the teaching of English is the recognition that languages are "dynamic rather than static."¹ By examining the changes and by seeing the reasons for them, students can obtain a deeper understanding of the development of words and the arrangement of those words in the sentences of their language.

While most of the current concepts about language may serve as the underlying principles of language study in all English classes, there appears to be a need in the high school curriculum for opportunity to study in concentrated manner the background and the development of the English language, as a subject of intrinsic interest and lifelong

¹Bergen Evans, "But What's a Dictionary For?" Leonard F. Dean and Kenneth G. Wilson, Essays on Language and Usage, 2nd ed., (New York, 1963), p. 104.

appreciation. A logical place for this type of study, offered on an elective basis, would be in one semester of the twelfth grade. Because of the scope and the depth of the study it would be considered an accelerated course.

In the following chapters an attempt will be made to write a guide for such a curriculum. The chapters will be written as resource units with special emphasis placed upon showing where additional information can be found on each subject. Chapter bibliographies will contain references, in addition to those used in footnotes, which relate to the subject matter of the chapter. Suggested activities are designed to give students practice in doing research, organizing material, writing papers, and giving oral reports in class. Whenever possible, discussion questions should lead into study areas so that one unit will blend into the next inductively. While a study time has been suggested for each unit, this is merely an approximation as the course should be largely unstructured, giving pupil interest and ability priority.

CHAPTER II

RESOURCE UNIT ONE: HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

All languages seem to have been always changing; presumably they have always changed, are changing now, and will continue to change in spite of anything we or anyone can do to stop them. --Robert M. Gorrell

- I. Time--approximately five weeks
- II. Objectives
 - A. To arouse students' curiosity about their language
 - B. To dispel assumptions that man began with a perfect language which has been handed down from generation to generation unchanged
 - C. To point out that the development of the English language is the outgrowth of invasion, conquest, and occupation of the British Isles by foreigners
 - D. To show that languages fall into "family" groups--with special emphasis on Indo-European as the language group from which English came
 - E. To examine the history of England, giving special attention to reasons for change in the language as it moved from "Old" to "Middle" to "Modern," so far as these changes are understood
- III. Major areas of study

A. Influence of the Indo-European languages

1. An overview

- a. Satem languages¹
- b. Centum languages²

2. Cognate words in the Indo-European languages

- a. OE sunne; Ger. Sonne; ON sol; Latin sol
- b. OE wind; Ger. Wind; ON vindr; Latin ventus

3. Germanic languages to be examined: Gothic, Norwegian, Danish, High German, Low German, and Anglo-Frisian³

B. Influence of the history of England

1. Old English period (449-1100)

- a. Celtic people--original group before 55 B. C.
- b. Roman legion withdrawal in the early fifth century
- c. Arrival of Germanic warriors in 449
- d. Jute, Saxon, Friesian invasions
- e. Withdrawal of Picts and Scots
- f. Development of Germanic kingdoms in Kent, Essex, Sussex, Wessex, East Anglia, Mercia, and Northumbria
- g. Development of Church and Christianity in the seventh century

¹Examples may be found in the work of John Algeo and Thomas Pyles, Problems in the Origins and Development of the English Language (New York, 1966), pp. 82-85.

²Ibid.

³Ibid., pp. 96-100.

- h. Influence of Alfred the Great
 - i. Harassment of Germanic settlers by Viking raiders who finally established settlements and influenced the language
 - j. Consolidation of England in the tenth century by Alfred's sons and grandsons
 - k. Separation of the English language into four dialect areas⁴
 - (1). Kentish--the speech of the Jutes who settled in Kent
 - (2). West Saxon--the speech of the people who settled in the region south of the Thames River exclusive of Kent
 - (3). Mercian--speech of the people who lived in the area from the Thames to the Humber River exclusive of Wales
 - (4). Northumbrian--the speech of the people north of the Humber
2. The Middle English period (1100-1500)
- a. Norman French Conquest in 1066 and its influence on the language
 - (1). Caused the influx of a huge body of French words into the English language
 - (2). Created a new language for the class

⁴Ibid., p. 102.

of people that were connected with the government and its administration

- b. London speech and its influence on the language of all of Britain
 - c. Grammatical changes made during the Middle English period
 - (1). Change in word order
 - (2). Loss of grammatical gender
3. Early Modern English period (1500-1800)
- a. Influence of printers and translators
 - (1). Helped standardize both the spelling and the usage of words
 - (2). Helped bring order to the everyday writing of the people
 - b. Rise and influence of the middle class
 - (1). Wanted rigid rules to be used as standards of correctness
 - (2). Increased the use of the written word
 - (3). Accepted the language of the upper class without regard to its originality or "authority"
 - (4). Welcomed the new dictionaries as though they were divinely inspired
 - (a). 1604: Robert Cawdrey's A Table Alphabeticall

(b). 1755: Samuel Johnson's two-volume Dictionary

c. Influence of schoolmasters

- (1). Set down grammatical rules which were to go unchallenged for decades
- (2). Gave little attention to usage; concentrated on one's being at all times "correct"

D. Influence of America on the English language

1. Conserved the language in the form that prevailed in the eighteenth century
2. Caused many vocabulary changes which have been accepted by the British into their word stock⁵
3. Placed stress on usage more than on fixed rules
4. Created pronunciation variances

Suggested Activities for Students

1. Form groups that will do research in different areas of the study.
2. Give oral reports so that information may be given to all.
3. File information found: use a cumulative card file which may be used by all students.
4. Write informal papers as material accumulates.

⁵For examples see Thomas Pyles, The Origins and Development of the English Language (New York, 1964), pp. 221-222.

5. Have daily discussion periods in which interest determines depth of inquiry into subject matter.
6. Write one formal paper as the major project for the unit.
7. Make charts in which the Indo-European languages are traced.
8. Label maps of England showing the old dialect areas.
9. For comparison look at models of Old English, Middle English, and Modern English.
10. Write in class at the end of the study a paper to be used for teacher evaluation of knowledge gained.

Collateral Reading

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CHAPTER III

RESOURCE UNIT TWO: THE PHONOLOGY OF ENGLISH

Whatever whimsical gods there be, not the least of their ironies is this, that language, which is often durable as the granite-ribbed hills, is built with air. --Charlton Laird

- I. Time--three weeks
- II. Objectives
 - A. To familiarize students with the ways speech sounds are made
 - B. To show that speech sounds are sound waves created in a moving stream of air
 - C. To introduce phonetic symbols of the International Phonetic Alphabet or of a similar system
 - D. To point out that speech is the medium through which language is expressed; that every utterance is composed entirely of speech sounds
 - E. To show that while there is not a one-for-one correspondence between letters and phonemes in English, there are some relations between spelling and pronunciation
 - F. To examine the influence of the suprasegmental features of stress, pitch, and juncture in signaling differences in meaning

III. Major study areas

A. Segmental features

1. The major speech-producing mechanisms: upper lip, alveolar ridge, palate, nasal cavity, velum, uvula, tongue, teeth, lower lip, larynx (vocal cords), and pharynx¹

2. The phoneme: a speech sound that signals a difference in meaning; the smallest distinctive unit of speech

a. Manner of articulation²

(1). Stops: columns of air stopped briefly at some point along the vocal tract

[p, b, t, g]

(2). Fricatives: vocal tract narrowed at some point causing friction as air

passes [f, v, s, h]

(3). Affricates: composed of a combination of a stop plus a fricative [č, ĵ]

(4). Resonants: vocal cavity tuned by varying position of tongue and lips [r, l, w, j]

(5). Nasals: air is allowed to pass through nasal cavity [m, n]

¹For charts of speech organs and diagrams of the production of speech sounds see Algeo and Pyles, pp. 60-65.

²Classification according to "Study Guide," Linguistics for Elementary Teachers, Texas Educational Agency, Austin, Texas, 1967, p. 17.

- (6). Voice: distinguishes sounds which are otherwise articulated in same place or manner
- (a). Voiceless: sounds without vibrations of vocal cords [s, f]
- (b). Voiced: sounds produced with simultaneous vibrations of vocal cords
- b. Manner of transcription
- (1). International Phonetic Alphabet: developed in 1886 as a system of symbols for transcribing speech sounds³
- (2). The Trager-Smith phonemic transcription system: one of the most familiar types of phonemic transcription for current English⁴
- c. Some phonetic processes
- (1). Citation form: words in isolation-- such as news [nuz]
- (2). Assimilation: words adjoining each other which cause sound change--such

³For the International Phonetic Alphabet (revised to 1951) see W. Nelson Francis, The Structure of American English (New York, 1958), p. 586. For another method of transcribing consonants, vowels, and diphthongs see Pyles, pp. 52-62.

⁴Pyles, p. 57; for chart see Algeo and Pyles, p. 70.

as newspaper [nʌspeɪpər]⁵

(3). Metathesis: transposition of speech sounds--such as tragedy for tragedy or revelant for relevant⁶

(4). Epenthesis: extra sound inserted within a word--such as the [p] sometimes heard in something or the [t] in sense⁷

B. Suprasegmental features⁸

1. Stress phonemes: degree of prominence of a syllable

a. Citation forms such as in légendàry

(1). For primary stress: ˈ

(2). For mid stress: ˌ

(3). For weak stress: ˘ (usually not indicated)

b. Word groups and sentences such as intéllectual
cùriósity

(1). For primary stress: ˈ

(2). For secondary stress: ˌ

(3). For third stress: ˘

(4). For weak stress: ˘

⁵Norman C. Stageberg, An Introductory English Grammar (New York, 1965), p. 28.

⁶Ibid., p. 32.

⁷Ibid.

⁸Classifications and examples from Stageberg, pp. 45-49.

c. Shifting stress

- (1). Change when there is a change in the part of speech such as object (noun) to object (verb)
- (2). Change when there is change in stress next to the sound such as in "The úknòwn thief is still ùknówn."

2. Pitch levels and terminals

a. Intonation contours

- (1). Extra-high: 4
- (2). High: 3
- (3). Normal: 2
- (4). Low: 1

b. Examples: I'm going home; are you there ↑

3. Terminal junctures

a. Falling ↓ We drove to the lake ↓

b. Rising ↑ Are you there ↑ He's gone ↑

c. Level | Today is Friday . . . |

C. Spelling and pronunciation

1. Spelling difficulties

- a. Borrowings from other languages in which there are "silent letters": debt, doubt, knight, talk
- b. The same letter or letters used to represent

different sounds: sun, pleasure; cough,
bough

- c. Differences in acceptable pronunciations of the same word: family spelled famly, govern-ment spelled goverment
 - d. Variety of ways almost every phoneme in English can be spelled
2. Spelling aids
- a. Associate certain sounds with certain frequent spellings of a sound (relationship between sounds and symbols)
 - b. Study consonant sounds that are regularly spelled with the same letter or combination of letters⁹
 - c. Evolve lists of words that employ the same grapheme to represent the same phoneme¹⁰
 - d. Study lists of frequently misspelled words¹¹
 - e. Group together words that have similar spelling patterns and endings

⁹See chart in New Approaches to Language and Composition, Book 7 (Palo Alto, California, 1969), p. 55.

¹⁰See Chapter 7 "Phonemes and Graphemes in English," David A. Conlin and George R. Herman, Modern Grammar and Composition (New York, 1965), pp. 162-186.

¹¹Ibid.

Study Suggestions for Students

1. Check language books and spelling textbooks for information on English phonology.
2. Use the Smith-Trager Phonemic Alphabet to record the names of your school and community in phonemic transcription.
3. Transcribe words dictated by the teacher; later, transcribe the same words by looking at them in written form. See if differences in pronunciation are apparent.
4. Listen and record in phonetic transcription various pronunciations of the same words by different members of the class.
5. From television and radio programs record various pronunciations of words and dialects.
6. Make charts showing the speech-producing mechanism.
7. Make charts of the English vowel phonemes.
8. Make charts of the English consonant phonemes.
9. List the characteristics of vowels and of consonants.
10. Defend or attack the statement: Accurate spelling is a status symbol.
11. Keep a corrected list of words misspelled on reports and papers. Study them, and by alternating with another member of the class test each other periodically to improve spelling.
12. Define the terms phonemes, graphemes, and morphemes.
13. Write a paragraph telling how the suprasegmental phonemes of stress, pitch, and juncture signal differences

in meaning in the spoken language.

14. Mark the primary stress in the following phrases to indicate different meanings:

the black bird	the black bird
the Spanish teacher	the Spanish teacher

15. Explain how intonation can serve as a guide for punctuation.

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CHAPTER IV

RESOURCE UNIT THREE: WORD-MAKING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN ENGLISH

Inevitably the movement of a people to a markedly different environment not only creates a problem of communication but makes it urgent.
--Albert H. Marckwardt

- I. Time--three weeks
- II. Objectives
 - A. To study in depth the variety of processes in which new words are formed in the English language
 - B. To show that as a language grows, its word stockpile grows
 - C. To show that words and their meanings change because people and their way of life change
 - D. To show that the Indian languages influenced American English
 - E. To show how borrowings from foreign settlers and immigrants have enriched the English language in America
- III. Major study areas
 - A. Processes for word development¹

¹For further study see Algeo and Pyles, Chapter Ten, "New Words from Old: Coinages and Adaptations," pp. 223-243.

1. Root creations
 - a. Onomatopoeia--the naming of an object by the sound it makes: seep, flick, crack
 - b. Echoic words: mumble, zoom, whirr
 - c. Ejaculations: psst, humph, chee(z)
2. Derivation
 - a. Morphemes
 - (1). Prefixes: repair, surname, tricolor
 - (2). Suffixes: failure, careful, shorten
 - (3). Bases
 - (a). Free: manly, rainy, cheapest
 - (b). Bound: consent, revise, contradict
 - b. Back-formations: formation of verbs from nouns
 - (1). Dialectal back-formations: buttle from butler, cuttle from cutler²
 - (2). Well-known back-formations: edit from editor, publish from publisher
 - c. Clipping: formation of a word by making brief or shortening a word
 - (1). Synonymous but different words: omnibus-bus; photograph-photo

²Examples of back-formations and clipping from Henry Bradley's "Word-Making in English," Introductory Readings on Language, edited by Wallace L. Anderson and Norman C. Stageberg (New York, 1962), pp. 77-78.

- (2). Vulgar clippings: taters, bacca
for potatoes, tobacco
- (3). New free forms: gym from gymnasium;
prof from professor

3. Composition

a. Compound words--formation of a word by joining two or more words to form a new word³

- (1). Joining one noun to another: apple-tree,
house-boat
- (2). Joining an adjective and a noun:
blackbird, hotbed
- (3). Joining a noun and an adjective:
penny-wise, grass-green
- (4). Joining an adjective or adverb and
an adjective: dark-blue, ever-young
- (5). Joining a noun or an adjective and a
verb: wiredrawn, white-wash
- (6). Joining an adverb and a verb:
outstanding, overcome, upturn
- (7). Joining a verb-stem with a second ele-
ment noun denoting the object of the
action: breakfast, kill-joy, makeshift

b. Blending: the formation of a word through

³Definition and examples from Bradley, pp. 64-70.

the fusion of two words into one⁴

- (1). "Nonce"⁵ words: words coined for a particular occasion
 - (2). Standard blendings: the fusion of two words into one--such as telecast from television and broadcast; electrocute from electric and execute; smog from smoke and fog
- e. Acronymy: the formation of words from the initials or beginning segments of a succession of words⁶
- (1). Initials pronounced: MP--Military Police; AWOL--absent without leave
 - (2). Beginning segments pronounced as the spelled word would be: NATO--North Atlantic Treaty Organization; radar--radio detecting and ranging
 - (3). Initials form a new word which becomes a trademark: Nabisco, Socony, Alcoa
4. Miscellaneous formations
- a. Folk etymology--the formation of a word by the "naive misunderstanding of a more or less esoteric word which renders it into

⁴Stageberg, p. 151.

⁵Ibid. Stageberg says a nonce word is one "here today, gone tomorrow."

⁶Ibid.

something familiar--false as it may
be"7

(1). Foreign borrowings: Spanish cucaracha,
English cockroach; French cariole,
English carryall

(2). Misunderstandings: Chester drawers
for chest of drawers⁸; dashhound for
dachshund

b. Slang: jargon of various occupations⁹

c. Common words--as changed from proper names¹⁰

(1). Words from literature and mythology:
atlas, volcano, odyssey, quixotic,
mercury

(2). Words from people: lynch, braille,
diesel, quisling

(3). Words from place names: frankfurter,
hamburger, jeans, sherry, damask

d. Part of speech changes

(1). Shift in use

(a). Noun to verb: head a group;
shoulder a load; thumb a ride

(b). Verbs to nouns: call, ride, break

⁷Pyles, p. 289.

⁸Ibid.

⁹See bibliography for books dealing with slang.

¹⁰For complete discussion see Pyles, pp. 293-296.

(c). Nouns to adjectives (noun-adjuncts): stone wall, face card, kitchen sink, science teacher

(d). Adjectives to verbs: better, rough, clean

(2). Combinations and shift in function

(a). Verb-adverb: slow down, put off, turn up

(b). Combinations with functional shifts: ex-tract, ex-tract;
ob-ject, ob-ject; pres-ent,
pre-sent

B. Semantic changes in words

1. Ethical changes

a. Pejoration--a loss of prestige in usage:
crafty--earlier "skillful, clever"; later
"cunning, wily"¹¹

b. Amelioration--a rise in prestige of a word:
sophisticated--earlier "overly complex or refined"; later "sufficiently complex or knowing"¹²

2. Euphemisms--" . . . a softened, indirect expression used instead of one that seems too

¹¹Algeo and Pyles, p. 252.

¹²Ibid.

harsh and direct"¹³

a. To avoid being painfully direct

(1). Death: passed away, expired, final sleep

(2). Pregnancy: confined, going to have a baby

b. To alleviate a feeling of indecency

(1). Excess of delicacy: white meat to avoid saying breast¹⁵

(2). Hints of prudery: limb instead of leg; drumstick instead of leg¹⁶

c. To enhance prestige¹⁷: realtor from real estate man, mortician from undertaker, beautician for hairdresser, exterminator for rat and bug killer

3. Personal names--from common names to proper ones

a. First names or "Christian names": John, William, Thomas, Robert, Mary--Scriptural names from Latin religious words and names

¹³H. L. Mencken, "Euphemisms," Introductory Readings on Language, edited by Wallace L. Anderson and Norman C. Stageberg (New York, 1962), p. 135.

¹⁴Pyles, p. 317.

¹⁵Mencken, p. 135.

¹⁶For other comments see Albert H. Marckwardt, "The Genteel Tradition and the Glorification of the Commonplace," American English (New York, 1958), pp. 110-130.

¹⁷Mencken, p. 136.

b. Surnames--for a need for distinction

- (1). Patronymic--from a patron or ancestor:
French Fitz as in Fitzgerald, Fitz-
simmons; Irish Mac or O' as in O'Rear,
meaning "relative"; Scandinavian -son
as in Olson, Pedersen¹⁸
- (2). Country or locality with which a person
is associated: Scott, Cornish, Corn-
wallis, Brett¹⁹
- (3). Names of occupations: Smith, Butcher,
Carpenter, Miller, Taylor²⁰
- (4). Epithets or nicknames²¹: Wolf, Lovett,
Dolittle, Eames (Uncle), Bragg

c. Borrowings and early American influences that have
enriched English as spoken in America

1. Indian influences²²

- a. Place names: Walla Walla to Waxahachie,
Kissimmee to Kalamazoo
- b. State names: twenty-six state names such as

¹⁸George H. McKnight, "Personal Names," Anderson and Stageberg, pp. 123-134.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 128.

²⁰Ibid., p. 129.

²¹Ibid., pp. 130-131.

²²Information from Albert H. Marckwardt, American English (New York, 1958), Chapter Three, "The Melting Pot," pp. 22-32; Chapter Eight, "The Names Thereof," pp. 154-156.

South Dakota, Michigan, Mississippi

- c. Indian names translated to English: White Thunder, Blue Dog, American Horse, and Stinking Bear Creeks
 - d. Indian chief and tribe names: Powhatan, Tecumseh, Pontiac, Osceola, Miami, Huron
 - e. Common words: powwow, tomahawk, hickory, skunk, wigwam
2. Foreign influences upon American lexicon²³
- a. French explorers, trappers, traders, and missionaries--word influence: jambalaya, pie a la mode, praline, bayou, Cajun
 - b. Spanish colonization influence: chaparral, ranch, wrangler, enchilada, cafeteria, calaboose, vigilantes
 - c. Dutch influence: cole slaw, waffle, bass, Yankee, Santa Claus, caboose
 - d. German immigrant influence: delicatessen, Christmas tree, pinochle, poker, katzenjammer, semester, seminar
 - e. African Negro influence: cush (pancake), cala (rice cake), gumbo, goober, buckra, voodoo, hoodoo

²³For additional information see Marckwardt, pp. 21-58.

Suggested Activities for Students

1. Make a language notebook in which definitions and examples (whenever possible) of the following terms and words are given: etymology, root creation, echoic word, onomatopoeia, affix, prefix, suffix, lexicon, acronym, back formation, blend, clipped form, ejaculation, morpheme, a compound word, pejoration, amelioration, and euphemism.

2. Search for newly formed words from magazine and newspaper articles. Classify method of formation.

3. Form groups that will study--and report to the class by panel discussion--the influence of such groups as the American Indian, the Spanish colonists, the French settlers, the Dutch and German immigrants, and the African Negro.

4. Look for and keep a list of borrowings from the above groups.

5. Search for and give oral reports on such articles as "The American Language" by Charles Whibley, "Mutual Misunderstandings between the Americans and the British" by Basil Hall, "One People, One Language" by Robert C. Pooley. These and other such articles may be found in The Ordeal of American English, edited by C. Merton Babcock. Other suitable books may be found in the Chapter Bibliography.

6. Write diary items in which the role of an American settler of English descent is assumed; imagine and discuss language problems that might have existed as the settlers pushed south and westward and met Indians, Frenchmen, and

Spaniards.

7. Search for and keep a list of euphemisms read or heard.

8. Write a paragraph telling of a situation in which it would be better to use an euphemism than the original harsh word.

9. Make a list of acronyms looking especially at reports made by governmental, space, or military agencies.

10. Look for onomatopoeic words in literary works.

11. Write short paragraphs describing something seen or heard, using onomatopoeia to make description vivid.

12. Using a telephone book, find examples of a variety of surnames that fit the categories of patronymics, names from places, names of occupations, and epithets.

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CHAPTER V

RESOURCE UNIT FOUR: USAGE AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF DIALECTS IN AMERICA

Good English is that form of speech which is appropriate to the purpose of the speaker, true to the language as it is, and comfortable to speaker and listener.

--Porter G. Perrin

- I. Time--three weeks
- II. Objectives
 - A. To examine some erroneous assumptions about language
 - 1. That man was given a perfected language at the beginning of time
 - 2. That language can be kept pure and uncorrupted
 - 3. That to have good language man must establish rigid rules and forms which cannot be changed
 - B. To stress that written language is important, but to recognize also that language has always had and will continue to have an oral base
 - C. To study the varieties of English as seen in standard and substandard English
 - D. To show that social dialects are a reflection of social order just as they are also its historical product
 - E. To study in depth the dialect areas of the United States

III. Major areas of study

A. Usage--and how to arrive at an answer to the question "What is good English?"

1. First determining factor: purpose of communication

- a. Fit subject to situation
- b. Consider expected listeners as readers
- c. Consider one's own experience and background

2. Second determining factor: effectiveness of the communication

- a. Strive for clearness by using well-chosen words that the audience or reader will understand
- b. Attempt to avoid errors that will attract unfavorable attention
- c. Eliminate dullness by using lively details
- d. Develop a sense of fitness and pride in work
- e. Seek to attain the type of language that will best express naturally what is to be said

B. Usage levels, and how they fit the needs of various occasions¹

¹Items that follow are suggested in Porter G. Perrin's article "The Varieties of English" from Introductory Readings on the English Language edited by Richard Braddock (Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1962), pp. 158-159.

1. Non-standard English--limited use
 - a. Conversation of many people at home, with friends, on the job
 - b. Conversation not appropriate for public affairs or for use by the educated
 2. Standard English
 - a. Informal--limited use
 - (1). Conversation and writing of the educated in informal situations
 - (2). Conversation and writing with slang and colloquialisms
 - b. General English--unlimited use
 - (1). Speaking and writing of educated people in either private or public affairs
 - (2). Conversation and writing of the bulk of the business and social world
 - c. Formal English--limited use
 - (1). Speaking and writing for limited audiences
 - (2). Speaking and writing for academic and professional groups
- C. American dialects, and their development patterns²

²Based on information in Dialects--U. S. A. by Jean Malmstrom and Annabel Ashley (Champaign, Illinois, 1966), pp. 37-51.

1. Kinds of dialect differences as revealed by
linguistic geography

a. Differences in pronunciation

(1). Systematic differences: in New England
"r" consistently lost except before
vowels

(2). Individual differences: the difference
in pronunciation of such words as the
verb grease and the adjective greasy;
both pronounced with "z" sound by
Southern speakers and with "s" sound
by Northern speakers

b. Differences in vocabulary in which different
words are used in various regions of the
United States for the same item

(1). Examples: the North--brook, pail,
jonnycake

(2). Examples: the South--stream, bucket,
cornbread

c. Differences in grammar

(1). Examples: the North--dove, "all the
farther," "scairt"

(2). Examples: the South--dived, as far as,
afeared"

2. Reasons for dialect differences

a. Early settlement history

- (1). Migration of people from the original thirteen colonies
 - (2). Immigration of Scotsmen, Germans, Dutchmen, and other nineteenth-century immigrants
 - (3). Settlement of Spaniards in California
 - (4). Settlement of French in Louisiana
- b. Population migrations³
- (1). Westward movement
 - (2). Southern and southwestern movements
- c. Physical geography
- (1). Mountain ranges, rivers, marshes
 - (2). Natural phenomena
- d. Cultural or focal centers--prestigious and influential
- (1). East: New York and Philadelphia
 - (2). Midwest: Saint Louis and Chicago
 - (3). South: Charleston
 - (4). West: San Francisco
- e. Social structure within areas
- (1). Class distinctions
 - (2). Socioeducational distinctions
- D. Dialect areas of the United States⁴
-

³See Malmstrom and Ashley, p. 43.

⁴As presented in Dialects-USA, pp. 37-43.

1. The Northern dialect area
 - a. Atlantic Seaboard: New England, the Hudson Valley, Upstate New York, the northernmost strip of Pennsylvania, and Greater New York City
 - b. Inland Northern area: Michigan, Wisconsin, the northern counties of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Iowa
 - c. Upper Midwest area: Minnesota, North Dakota, northern part of Iowa, northeastern half of South Dakota
 - d. Western areas: occasionally in Colorado, Utah, Western Montana, Washington, eastern Idaho, some areas in California
2. The Midland dialect area
 - a. Atlantic Seaboard: parts of Pennsylvania, northern Delaware, parts of North and South Carolina
 - b. North Central States area: central Ohio, central and northern Indiana, central Illinois
 - c. South Midland area: Kentucky, southern Ohio, southern Indiana, southern Illinois, southern Iowa
 - d. Upper Midwest: all states of the Upper-Midwest Atlas area except North Dakota and

some parts of Colorado

- e. Pacific Northwest: Oregon, western and southern Idaho, some parts of California
 - f. Inland South and Southwest: parts of Tennessee, Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas, northern Mississippi, northwest Georgia, small part of Alabama
3. The Southern dialect area
- a. Atlantic Seaboard: eastern shore of Maryland, Virginia, southern Delaware
 - b. South: parts of Virginia, northeastern North Carolina, eastern Carolinas, Georgia, Florida
 - c. Gulf Coast: southern Mississippi, coastal areas of Texas and Louisiana
 - d. North-Central States: only Kentucky
 - e. Pacific Northwest: practically absent

Suggested Activities for Students

Usage

1. Search for literary selections which will illustrate the levels of usage in the English language. (See Malmstrom and Ashley, Dialects-USA, pp. 55-58 for a list of literary selections illustrating American dialects).

2. Use one class period each week for class writing, starting with simple papers on informal topics and conclude with a serious paper written in more formal language.

3. Make lists of questionable items of usage from material read in newspapers and magazines or heard on radio and television.

4. Make a list of teen-age slang: hot-rod terms, restaurant slang, classroom terms, or jargon that is used on particular jobs; examine it to see if it does contribute to ease in communicating or if it only adds "color."

5. Have class discussion periods in which such questions as the following ones are considered:

Is each person responsible for the language he uses?
What influences change?

Do one's language and speech habits affect his personality?

Of what value are good dictionaries and reference books to a student of language?

Are slang and trite expressions effective in conveying meaning? How do many people react to an excessive use of them?

What are the occasions in which informal English is used?

When should formal English be appropriate?

On what occasions are you able to see that language is changing?

If a person is not satisfied with his speech patterns and habits, what can be done about them?

What is a prestige dialect, and in what ways does it

motivate people to improve their language?

What do you as a high school senior expect your language to do for you?

Dialects

1. Beginning with the Eastern Seaboard, chart and label the three major dialect areas showing the direction of important migrations. (See Malmstrom and Ashley, Dialects-USA, p. 43).
2. Form groups that will each study one of the major dialect areas. Let each group report its findings to the class. Record findings in phonetic transcription.
3. Do research on how linguistic information is gathered. Have oral reports on findings.
4. Collect information on dialect differences and causes. Keep information in a card file which may be referred to for oral and written reports.
5. Make a study of students' own dialect differences. This could be especially interesting if there are students who have lived in other dialect areas.
6. Analyze dialects in literature, selecting poems or stories that illustrate different dialect areas.
7. Have discussion periods, using questions such as the following:

Why are there primarily three dialect areas in the United States? What are these?

What is the meaning of each of these terms: localism, colloquialism, slang, and jargon?

What is a speech community? Explain how small ones become a part of larger ones.

Why do natural physical conditions and phenomena affect dialect boundaries and vocabulary?

How can knowing the phonetic alphabet aid researchers in their study of dialects?

What are some of the historical events and social forces that have influenced dialects in the United States?

What are some of the modern forces that are breaking down dialectal boundaries?

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CHAPTER VI

RESOURCE UNIT FIVE: PATTERNS OF ENGLISH SYNTAX

The most puzzling scientific mysteries are often uncovered when scientists investigate natural phenomena that are taken for granted.

--Roderick A. Jacobs and Peter S. Rosenbaum

- I. Time--four weeks
- II. Objectives
 - A. To introduce the concept that there is more than just "lexical meaning of words" involved when a sentence is formed
 - B. To show that arrangement of words must follow grammatical patterns in order to form meaningful sentences
 - C. To show that word order helps to convey meaning
 - D. To show that certain word classes will fit certain positions--or slots--within a sentence
 - E. To convey the idea that a native speaker of a language knows and uses these principles--often called linguistic universals¹--intuitively
 - F. To show that an understanding of transformations

¹Roderick A. Jacobs and Peter S. Rosenbaum, English Transformational Grammar (Waltham, Massachusetts, 1968), p. v.

and phrase structure would be beneficial to the student in his reading and writing

- G. To demonstrate that simple statements and compound sentences have limits of expressiveness and that complex sentences made by the relative clause transformation are more interesting

III. Major study areas

A. Sentence structure

1. Word order in English sentences

- a. Ungrammatical: "The surfaced sleek quickly submarine."²
- b. Grammatical: "The sleek submarine quickly surfaced."
- c. Semantical differences: "The spider carried the ant"; "the ant carried the spider."

2. Sentence ingredients

a. Four form classes

(1). Nouns, their clues and characteristics

- (a). Inflections: singular-girl, plural-girls; possessive-girl's
- (b). Derivational endings: -er, -ity, -ment, -ion
- (c). Sentence position: before the verb, after the verb, after a

²Examples are from The Laidlaw Linguistic Program New Approaches to Language and Composition, Book 7 (Dallas, 1969), pp. 116-117.

preposition

(d). Determiners: the, a, an, some,
this, mine

(e). Subclasses and nominals ("Any-
thing that may fill the slot as
a single noun is a nominal"³):
pronouns, derived verbal forms,
phrases, and clauses

(2). Verbs, their clues and characteristics

(a). Inflections: -s, -ed, -en, and
-ing

(b). Prefixes and suffixes: beware,
dethrone, enlist, create, sharpen,
signify

(c). Sentence position: Usually after
noun and preceding a second noun:
"The boy ____ (s)(ed) my friend"⁴

(d). Auxiliaries that may precede
verbs: will, is, has, did, were

(e). Verb subclasses: Vi--intransitive,
Vt--transitive, Vl--linking⁵

(3). Adjectives, their clues and characteris-
tics

³"Linguistics for Secondary Teachers," Texas Education Agency (Austin, 1967), p. 59.

⁴Laidlaw, p. 124.

⁵TEA, p. 60.

- (a). Inflections that indicate a degree of comparison: -er, -est
 - (b). Suffixes that are added to nouns or verbs, such as -able, -al, -ful, -less, -like, -ive
 - (c). Forms that many times precede adjectives: forms of be (is, were, was, etc.), and verbs like seem, appear, smell, look, taste, and become
- (4). Adverbs and their characteristics
- (a). Inflectional ending -ly: slowly, hurriedly, anxiously
 - (b). Suffixes -er, -est after verbs that are not forms of be or like seem, appear, etc.
 - (c). Words that tell how, when, or where: adverbs of manner, adverbs of time, adverbs of location⁶

B. The main parts of the English sentence

1. Noun phrases (NP)

- a. Function as the subject of the sentence:

the girl in the red dress

⁶Laidlaw, p. 131.

- b. May be further broken down:

$NP \rightarrow (D) + N$

$N \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} n \\ pn \end{array} \right\}$ (noun or pronoun)

2. Verb phrases (VP)

- a. Functions as the predicate of the sentence:

played in the park

- b. May be further broken down:

$VP \rightarrow (\text{aux}) V$

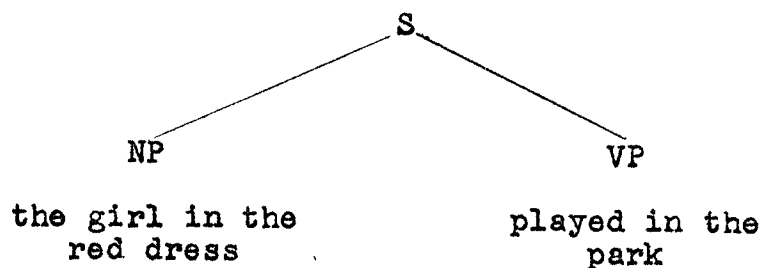
$\text{aux} \rightarrow (\text{modal}) (\text{have}) (\text{be})$

("The term modal is used for auxiliaries

will, can, shall, may The parentheses enclose optional elements."⁷)

3. Linguistic deduction: $S \rightarrow NP + VP$

4. Branching tree diagram:



C. The concept of generative grammar

1. Basic purposes:⁸

- a. "To increase our understanding of human behavior in encoding and decoding messages."

⁷TEA, p. 61.

⁸Purposes expressed in TEA Study Guide, p. 63.

- b. "To provide a method for describing highly condensed and simplified statements about large bodies of data."
- c. "To give a means of testing the accuracy and adequacy of our linguistic descriptions."
- d. "To show that 'a grammar is an analogue of sentence-synthesizing and analyzing mechanisms of the brain.'"

2. Terminology of generative grammar

- a. The arrow \rightarrow : Rewrite or replace element(s) to the left of the arrow by the elements to the right
- b. The symbol S: Sentence, the initial term or "string" of a grammar
- c. The use of parentheses (): The element enclosed is optional
- d. The X: Element not enclosed in parentheses is obligatory
- e. The bracket [] : One and only one of the elements within brackets must be chosen; in the cases of paired sets of brackets, matching vertically aligned pairs of elements must be used together
- f. Braces { } : One and only one of the elements

⁹Terms based on TEA Study Guide, p. 65.

within the braces must be used

- g. The plus sign $+$: a connecting symbol as in mathematics; not used before parentheses, braces, or brackets
 - h. A double arrow \Rightarrow : "is transformed into"
 - i. A crossed out zero ϕ : null, null choice
3. English transformations¹⁰
- a. Question transformation: He is reading.
Is he reading?
 - b. Negative transformation: He is reading.
He is not reading
 - c. Affirmative transformation: He must not be reading. Yes, he is reading.
 - d. Have and be items: I haven't any milk; I don't have any milk. Be does not perform as expected of a verb: Does he be your brother?
 - e. Passive transformation: From "John showed the picture" to "The picture was shown by John." (Requires suffix reversal rule)
 - f. Wh- transformation: From "Bill drank the milk." to "What did Bill Drink?"
 - g. There transformation: From "A boy is calling." to "There is a boy calling."

¹⁰TEA, pp. 68-75.

- h. An ellipsis transformation (deletes redundant sentence elements): "The teacher spoke to the group and the principal spoke to the group" "The teacher and the principal spoke to the group."
- i. Two-string transformations: one sentence (formed from two kernel sentences) by two methods: additive and embedded
- j. Embedded wh- transformations: "Bill ate the food." "What Bill ate was the food."
- k. Relative transformation (in which one sentence may be restated as two simpler sentences): "I saw the movie which was about Indians." "I saw the movie. The movie was about Indians."
- l. Adjectival transformation: "The girl who is talking to Tom is my sister." "The girl talking with Tom is my sister."
- m. That transformation (in which that is deleted): "I know that he got there early." "I know he got there early."
- n. Subordinate transformation (in which the insertion of a subordinator creates a dependent clause): "He was late." "Because he was late,"
- o. Complement transformation: "I enjoyed

John's singing." "I heard John sing."

p. Adverb shift: "At school, we always study."

"We always study at school."

D. Some phrase structure rules which will generate sentences¹¹:

1. $S \rightarrow NP + VP$

2. $NP \rightarrow (D) + N$

3. $N \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} n \\ pn \end{array} \right\}$

4. $VP \rightarrow Aux + Verb$

5. $Aux \rightarrow Tns$

6. $Tns \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} pres \\ past \end{array} \right\}$

7. $Verb \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} BE \quad Pr \\ V \end{array} \right\}$

8. $V \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} V-lnk \quad Pr \\ (V-tr \quad NP_2) \\ V-in \end{array} \right\} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \\ \\ \\ adv-mn \end{array}$

adj

9. $Pr \quad NP$

adv-loc

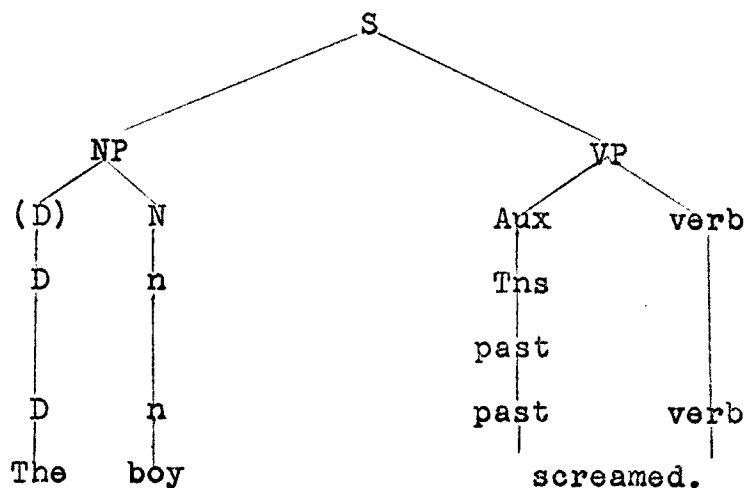
Results: (By making appropriate choices):

$S \rightarrow D + n + past + verb$

Sentence (By adding lexicon) \rightarrow The boy screamed.

¹¹Laidlaw, p. 196.

E. Branching diagram of the same sentence:



Suggested Activities for Students

1. Do research on the meaning of the term linguistic universals. (See Jacobs and Rosenbaum, preface v-viii and pp. 282-284).

2. Find definitions of the following words for a language notebook: syntax, transformation, generative, descriptive linguistics, structure, deep structure, determiner, and inflection.

3. Create nonsense sentences to show necessity of word order in sentences.

4. Write a sentence explaining the following formula:
S = NP + VP.

5. Collect from magazines and newspapers examples of sentences in which there are embedded sentences. Look also for short, terse sentences and compare effectiveness of each.

6. Look for sentences showing the various kinds of interrogatives.

7. By looking at literature of the past and present, compare to see if any one kind of question is predominant in each era.

8. Write a short paper giving a version of how a child learns his language.

9. Compare the study of transformational-generative grammar with the study of mathematics or chemistry.

10. Compare "strings of words" that are sentences with those that are not. Compare differences by seeing what part of the phrase structure rules for generating sentences is missing in the non-sentences.

11. Examine the construction of a variety of sentences. See how many basic sentence patterns can be found. Experiment with their usage by combining various patterns.

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