Linguistics for Teachers of English

Carol Russell

Kansas State University, iteach@ksu.edu

Follow this and additional works at: https://newprairiepress.org/ebooks

Part of the Linguistics Commons

This work is licensed under a Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-Share Alike 4.0 License.

Recommended Citation

https://newprairiepress.org/ebooks/24

This Book is brought to you for free and open access by the Monographs at New Prairie Press. It has been accepted for inclusion in NPP eBooks by an authorized administrator of New Prairie Press. For more information, please contact cads@k-state.edu.
LINGUISTICS FOR TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

CAROL RUSSELL
Linguistics for Teachers of English

Carol Russell
Table of Contents

Introduction

History

Olde English

Olde English Timeline
A Little History
  Rome
  The Germanic Invasion
  Scandinavian Influences
  Ruthwell Cross
  Runes
  Caedmon’s Hymn

Olde English Translation
The Battle of 1066

Middle English

Middle English Timeline
Changes begin!
  The Great Vowel Shift
  Chaucer 1342–1400, The Canterbury Tales
  Caxton’s Press
  Orthographic Lag

Pronunciation Guide

Early Modern English

Early Modern English Timeline
  The Age of Reason: The Early Prescriptivists
  Prescriptivism
  The Growth of our Lexicon
  Standardization
  You vs Thou

Quick Review

Language as Communication

Beginning Language
  Is Language purely Human
  Contextual Factors in Communication
  How Do You Communicate?
  A Little More About Pragmatics
Kinesics
Male/Female Communication Styles
Stages in Language Acquisition
Competence vs. Performance
Social Class
Quick Review

Dialects
Standard American English
Watching Do You Speak American?
  Reasons for Dialects
Regional Dialects
How Americans Talk; Soda vs. Pop vs. Coke
English is Unique
Linguistics and Literature
  Dialects in the Classroom
  Teaching SAE
African American Vernacular English
  What is AAVE
  Verbs
  Negation
  Referential ‘it’ and ‘dey’
  Exercises for AAVE
Quick Review

Language in the Classroom
Modern History
  Important Works
Sign Language
  ASL vs SEE
  Terms and Causes
  In the Classroom
  Teaching Deaf Students
  Strategies for teaching a deaf student
  100 Basic Signs
Quick Review

Glossary
Most people, who are not linguists, will ask, “What is linguistics, anyway?”Basically, it is the study of language. Oh, but it is so much more. Linguistics is culturally based. It is also rules based.

My goal is to help you explore linguistics in ways you have never considered. You will certainly begin to analyze your own speech patterns and variations as well as those around you.

This text will encourage you to think about your language and communication in ways not thought of before. You might think of your communication from social aspects, or your language from dialectal differences.

The link below is a broad overview of Linguistics and may answer a few of your questions.

This E-Lecture discusses the term language and summarizes the goals of the central branches of linguistics before it eventually deals with the main principles of collecting data in linguistics.
When speaking about languages, it is common to speak of them in the feminine case. When diagramming a language, we use a tree and call the branches sister languages, or mother tongues.

English follows the West Germanic branch to Proto Indo-European. Note also, that English may have close ties to French, which has its main branch through Latin to Proto Indo-European.
The history of our language is a colorful and exciting one. To begin, our language has not always sounded like it does today. Believe it or not, to today’s speaker of English, our language may have sounded much more like German and Latin from its origins.

In this unit you will:

• Learn the history (and some very interesting stories) of English from Olde English, Middle English, and Early Modern English time periods
• Listen to Olde, Middle, and Early Modern English as it was spoken
• Practice speaking some of each time period
Olde English

Olde English Timeline

55 BC ➔ Documented Roman Invasion

436 – 449 AD ➔ Roman Withdrawal / Germanic Settlers
- Picts
- Scots
- Angles
- Saxons
- Frisians
  Warring against each other in England

450 – 480 AD ➔ Runic Alphabet (Ruthwell Cross)

700 AD ➔ 1st manuscript of English (Cædmon’s Hymn)

1000 AD ➔ Beowulf

End of Olde English Period (Norman Conquest) ➔ 1066 AD

History
A Little History

Rome

When Rome was in the process of conquering the world, England, was very much in their sights. Mostly because England has strong sea ports and trade routes already in place.

Rome in England from 55 BC to 410 AD

By the 1st century AD, Roman Empire governed all of the Italian peninsula, Romania, Switzerland, England, France, and most of the Mediterranean region as well as parts of North Africa.

Latin

Language:

- Romans force language change in many ways, but primarily through forcing merchants to do all their trade in Latin.
- Soon after infiltrating the commerce, they force the use of Latin in government.
- Next, they force the use of Latin in Religion and education.
The Germanic Invasion

Rome Leaves England

When the Romans begin to leave England, other groups begin to invade. They were not as concerned with maintaining a language, so the use of Latin as the language of commerce, government, religion and education remained.

Groups That Invade England Through 1066:

North—Irish/Gaelic, Scots, Picts

South/East—Angles, Saxons, Frisians

Throughout England—Scandinavian (Vikings)

(See Map Left)

Why was Latin not the “common” language?

Consider what you know already about the way the Romans forced the Latin language. Why, then, when the English went home, did they not speak Latin?
Scandinavian Influences

The Scandinavians influences in the English language from about 700 to 1066 have remained, for the most part, unchanged. They include:

• **Patronymics:**

The idea of knowing who you are based on your father’s name. For example, if your father’s name was Peter, you become Peter’s son or Peter’s stadter. So, Leonard Hofstadter (of *The Big Bang* fame) is actually an ancestor of a man whose name was Hof, who had a daughter!

• **Personal Pronouns:**

The Scandinavians brought with them the idea of third person plural pronouns. The words include: they, them, their, and themselves. Can you imagine carrying on a conversation without those pronouns?

• **“sk”**

Most interesting is the sound signified by the Scandinavian letters [s k]. There is a story, that may or may not be true, the name for the garment ‘skirt’ or ‘skyrta’ was pronounced [sh e r t a] by the Scandinavians. Now this was confusing for the English who also had a word ‘scyrte’ which was pronounced [sh e r t uh]. So, to reduce the confusion, the English began pronouncing the ‘sc’ as we would pronounce the ‘sk’ today and ‘scyrte’ became ‘skirt’ and ‘skyrta’ became ‘shirt’.

Interesting note: in many Norwegian countries today the ‘sk’ sound is pronounced [sh].
• Place Names:

Many places in England were named by the Scandinavians. They used suffixes, such as: by, thwaite, and dale.

*Dal(e)*: to signify a valley

*By*: to signify who owned the property

*Thwaite*: to signify a place in or near a meadow
The story of the Ruthwell Cross and the story written on it is very important to our language.

The Ruthwell Cross gives us one of the first poems written in the Runic alphabet. This cross tells the story of Christ and his walk to Golgotha. What is most interesting is that this poem is told from the perspective of the cross.

The title of the poem is “The Dream of the Rood.” Rood in Olde English translates to wood.

“Krist wæs on rodi. Hwethræ ther fusæ ferran kwomu æththilæ til anum.”
**Caedmon’s Hymn**

The story of Caedmon’s Hymn is one of a man who wanted to be a priest. In the days of the Olde English time period, it was expected that priests would sing and write their own music. Caedmon was not talented in either of these (or so the story goes). He was a simple cow/sheep herder. His lifelong dream was to live among the priests at the abbey.

However, one night, while Caedmon slept, he had a dream that he wrote a song. He quickly shared this with the leader of the abbey where he lived.

His hymn is the oldest poem written in English. It is dated to approximately 658 and 680.

---

**Runes**

It is not known exactly why the Runes have faded from existence. What is important, is that the pagan peoples who lived in the northern part of England, what is now Scotland, used this alphabet and now do not.

Have you ever considered what it might be like if our ancestors might have continued using this alphabet instead of the Roman alphabet?
Musical Composition of the West Saxon version of Caedmon's Hymn, lyrics by Caedmon; music and performance by Clay Paramore, with Laura Aaron on piano. CC0.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Northumbrian</th>
<th>West Saxon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nu seylun hergan metudæs maecti uerc uuldurfadur, eci dryctin,</td>
<td>Nu sculon herigean meotodes meahte weorc wuldorfæder, ece drihten,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He aerist scop heben til hrofe, tha middungeard eci dryctin, firum foldu,</td>
<td>He ærest sceop heofon to hrofe, þa middangeard ece drihten, firum foldan,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aelda barnum haleg scepen; moncyynæs uard, æfter tiadæ frea allmectig.</td>
<td>eorðan bearnum halig scyppend; moncyynnes weard, æfter teode frea ælmihtig</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Now we must praise the Guardian of heaven,

The mighty Creator, and his creation

The work of the Glorious Father, just as

The mighty Lord began to establish his wonders.

He, the Holy Creator, first fashioned the Earth for His children

With heaven as a roof. Then mankind’s Guardian, the almighty Lord,

Afterwards adorned the earth with men.

This translation is that of my own. Carol Russell.

Olde English
Remember, in this time period, the vowels were nearly opposite of what we have today. Also, some of the sounds are different as well.

If you pay close attention to switching vowels and the information you know already from Caedmon’s Hymn, you should be able to translate this poem as well.

**Original**

[1] Fæder ure þu þe eart on heofonum,
[3] To becume þin rice,
[4] gewur̂pe ðin willa, on eorðan swa swa on heofonum.
[5] urne gedæghwamlican hlaf syle us todæg,
[6] and forgýf us ure gyltas, swa swa we forgýfað urum gyltendum.
[7] and ne gelæd þu us on costnunge, ac alys us of yfele. soþlice.

**Translated**

[1] ...
[2] ...
[3] ...
[4] ...
[5] ...
[6] ...
[7] ...
### Olde English Words

#### Nature
- Æcer – field
- Bæst – bast
- Béam – tree
- Beorg – hill
- Blóstm – blossom
- Bóg – bough
- Bolt – bolt
- Bróm – broom (the plant)
- Clám – mud
- Clút – patch
- Cnoll – knoll
- Codd – cod, husk
- Crop – sprout
- Forst – frost
- Hægl – hail
- Herfest – autumn
- Healm – haul
- Hláf – loaf
- Horh – dirt
- Hrím – rime
- Hýdels – hiding place, cave
- Mæst – mast
- Mór – moor
- Múd – mouth
- Regn – rain
- Seallh – willow
- Slóh – slough, mire
- Stán – stone
- Storm – storm
- Stréam – stream
- Swamm – swim

#### Animals
- Æl – eel
- Báér – boar
- Bucc – buck
- Bulluc – bullock
- Earn – eagle
- Eoh – horse
- Eolh – elk
- Færính – pig, boar
- Fisc – fish
- Forsc – frog
- Fox – fox
- Géac – cuckoo
- Hæring – herring
- Hengest – horse
- Hund – dog
- Hwæl – whale
- Mearh – horse
- Seolh – seal (animal)
- Swértling – titlark
- Wulf – wolf

#### Concepts
- Ád – oath
- Borg – pledge
- Céap – price
- Coss – kiss
- Craeft – skill, strength
- Cwealm – death
- Dóm – doom
- Dream – joy, revelry
- Faðm – embrace
- Fléam – flight
- Gang – going
- Gielp – boasting
- Hláest – burden
- Hræm – cry, shout, uproar
- Torn – grief
- Þanc – thought
- Wæstm – growth

#### People
- Beorn – warrior
- Bydel – beadle
- Ceorl – churl
- Cniht – boy
- Cyning – king
- Dweorg – dwarf
- Eorl – nobleman
- Gást – spirit
- Hæft – captive
- Hwelp – whelp
- Mæg – kinsman
- Þegn – thane
- Þéof – thief
- Wealh – foreigner
- Wer – man
# The Battle of 1066

## Order of Events

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Heritage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>January</td>
<td>Edward</td>
<td>Anglo Saxon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>January–October</td>
<td>Harold</td>
<td>Anglo Saxon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>October–December</td>
<td>Edgar</td>
<td>Hungarian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December 23rd</td>
<td>William</td>
<td>French</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Edward is King until his death in January
  - True “Anglo Saxon”
  - Childless—uh oh—no heir apparent

## The Cast

- **Edward The Confessor**
  - CCBY: Aidan Hart 3.0
- **Harold of England “Elected” as King**
  - CCBY-SA 4.0
- **Edgar of Hungary**
  - CC0
- **William of Normandy Claims to be successor**
  - CC0
- **Harald of Norway Claims to be successor**
  - CCBY-SA 2.0
- **Tostig, Harold’s brother**
  - CC0
The Conflict

There’s the rub! King Edward has no children, but he does have a brother-in-law, Harold. Harold with an ‘o’. So, he is ‘elected’ king. Elected by the Court, not the people.

The conflict continues as there are others who claim the throne, too.

- First, William of Normandy, who has some distant claim, that may not be strong
- Also, Edgar of Hungary, has a mother who is certain he has a claim to the throne
- Next in line is Harald of Norway also claims to be successor, as well

The Plot Thickens

From April to September forces gather against each other

Harold had a brother (Tostig). He was estranged and lived in France. He sided with Harald and fought battles with him.

Harold had the support of the Normans. Remember, they are French.

William began gathering the Germanic peoples from villages all across England. By September he has a very strong army.

He has the support of nearly all of England’s commoners. He cannot seem to conquer London.

NOTE: London is the seat of Government, Education, Religion. It has the busiest ports, and had the most inhabitants of all major cities.
Through the months of September–December

Harold defeated and killed Harald and Tostig. William, however, loses London, but the rest of England submits to his power.

And then, Harold dies in battle—William looks like he might have England.

But WAIT!

When Harold dies, England has no ruler.

Parliament names a boy of 14, who is a distant relative of Harold, king. His name is Edgar. He is Hungarian!
William defeats the Norman stronghold in London. He is crowned King on Dec. 23, 1066. There you have it…four rulers in one year. Two Anglo Saxon, one Hungarian, one French.

This year, 1066, began for England two things. The first, the concept of pride of nationality. William helped with that by gathering the villagers together. The second was the idea that the aristocracy would befriend the French, or hate them. Depending on who was King or Queen, would depend on the relationship between England and France. We took (borrowed) words from the French, we copied fashion, cuisine etc.
Middle English

King William declares that all the King’s business will be written in French

Dec. 1066 AD

End Olde English, Beginning of Middle English

1066 AD

1100 AD

1200 AD

1066 – 1300 AD

French vs. English

1349 AD: Bubonic Plague

Kills many of certain language groups
• 30% of English-speaking people died

Pronunciation is changed due to outside influence
• 62% Native English
• 31% French
• 7% Remaining Groups
End Olde English, Beginning of Middle English

Kills many of certain language groups

• 30% of English-speaking people died

Pronunciation is changed due to outside influence

• 62% Native English
• 31% French
• 7% Remaining Groups

1066 AD
Signifies the ending (next 25 – 30 yrs) of Middle English and the beginning of Early Modern English

Regional dialects begin to die out.
London Aristocrats is the most prestigious

1300 AD

approx. 1350 – 1550 AD: Great Vowel Shift

English spoken by the general population

1385 AD

1387 – 1400 AD
Chaucer writes the “Canterbury Tales”

1476 AD: Caxton’s Printing Press

Signifies the ending (next 25 – 30 yrs) of Middle English and the beginning of Early Modern English

Regional dialects begin to die out. London Aristocrats is the most prestigious
Changes begin!

One of the biggest changes in England when we move away from Olde English to Middle English is that we begin our love/hate relationship with the French.

The earliest date of surviving written texts in Middle English dates to approximately 1150.

Much is happening in England during this time period. Oxford is founded as is Cambridge University.

By the late 1200’s, English becomes the most common language spoken in England. By the 1300’s the Great Vowel Shift begins changing English into something more akin to what our ears are accustomed to hearing.

The Great Vowel Shift occurs over several generations and about 100 or so years.
The Great Vowel Shift

A VERY basic way to remember is that all short vowels became long and all long vowels became short.

Dracula’s law: 3rd shift=Blood, 2nd shift=good, 1st shift=food

“Blood is good food.” In Olde English it was “Blod is gud foud.”

Is this another “Great Vowel Shift”? 

Today in the Northern Great Lakes region of the US there is a vowel shift going on! “Bus” sounds to many Midwesterners like “Boss”
Chaucer 1342–1400
The Canterbury Tales

Whan that Aprill, with his shoures soote
The droghte of March hath perced to the roote
And bathed every veyne in swich licour,
Of which vertu engendred is the flour;

Whan Zephirus eek with his sweete breeth
Inspired hath in every holt and heeth
The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne
Hath in the Ram his halfe cours yronne,
And smale foweles maken melodye,

That slepen al the nyght with open ey-
(So priketh hem Nature in hir corages);
Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages
And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes
To ferne halwes, kowthe in sondry londes;

And specially from every shires ende
Of Engelond, to Caunterbury they wende,
The hooly blisful martir for to seke
That hem hath holpen, whan that they were seeke.

This is an excerpt of the Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, 1386, written by Geoffrey Chaucer. It is a story of a group of people traveling together to visit religious sites in Canterbury, England.
Chaucer’s English, although not entirely like Modern English, has more similarities than Olde English. As you can see (left), there are many more words that look and sound like modern English.

Notice, too, that the Great Vowel Shift has not been completed at this point.

Chaucer, The General Prologue to the Canterbury Tales, read aloud in Middle English.
Caxton’s Press

Caxton was an inventor, merchant, and ultimately a printer. In his travels as a merchant, he was intrigued with a printing press he saw in Cologne, France. He stayed there until he learned how to print pages.

He traveled back to England, where he built his own printing press and set up shop in Westminster Abbey.

The first book to have been printed on this press is Chaucer’s *The Canterbury Tales*. He is also credited for printing the first Bible verses on his press, as well.

The Caxton Celebration – William Caxton showing specimens of his printing to King Edward IV and his Queen. CC0 PD.
Loan Words

Between 1300-1400

• The English language acquired 10,000+ loanwords
• 75% still used today

Pronunciation is changed due to outside influences – namely loanwords

• 31% of the loanwords are French
• Remaining – Latin, Scandinavian, Other

In the 1300’s English acquires many more words that are added to the lexicon. Among the most used words today nearly 50% come from French or Latin. Although we credit many words from Scandinavian influences (remember they gave us place names and pronouns!)

Using the list below, try to choose words in that category that you believe are NOT borrowed from another language.

- Government:
- Religion:
- Law:
- Military:
- Fashion:
- Food:
- Society:
- Art:
- Architecture:
- Literature:
- Medicine:
Orthographic Lag

Orthographic Lag is the time it takes for a word, a pronunciation, or phrase to be added to the language and to become a permanent part of the lexicon.

...THINK ABOUT THIS:

Why would the orthographic lag be reduced to such a short amount of time?
In order to pronounce Middle English, speakers need only remember that vowels are not always pronounced the same as they are today.

One thing that will help you pronounce Middle English is to remember to drop the jaw and fully open the mouth when pronouncing vowels.

Use the following chart and practice on your own. In no time, you will be able to read The Canterbury Tales in its original version!

### Vowel Sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>As In:</th>
<th>Spelling</th>
<th>Examples:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ä = ah</td>
<td>father</td>
<td>a, aa, er</td>
<td>fader, name, that, ferther, clerk, sterte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>æ</td>
<td>hat, pass</td>
<td>a, ae</td>
<td>has, begge, great, heeth, baebe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ay / ey</td>
<td>mate, day</td>
<td>e, ee</td>
<td>grene, sweeete, me, be, she, fredom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ah-ee *</td>
<td>aisle</td>
<td>ai, ay, ei, ey</td>
<td>day, lai feith, veyne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i *</td>
<td>my</td>
<td>ai, ay, ei, ey</td>
<td>fair, may, feith</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ar</td>
<td>there</td>
<td>e, ea</td>
<td>bere, sea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>sofa</td>
<td>first or final e</td>
<td>sonne, chivalrie, cause, Yonge, name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e</td>
<td>met</td>
<td>e, ee</td>
<td>ryden, hem, end, gentil</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ee-oo</td>
<td>few</td>
<td>eu, ew, u</td>
<td>new, reule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ee</td>
<td>machine</td>
<td>i, y</td>
<td>passioun, shires, blithe, nyce, wif, ryde, icumen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>bit</td>
<td>i, y</td>
<td>yloved, list, nyste, skille</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>au</td>
<td>cloth</td>
<td>o, oo</td>
<td>lore, goon, ofte, hooly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o = oh</td>
<td>sow, note</td>
<td>o, oo, ou, ow</td>
<td>bote, good, roote, thought, knowe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oo</td>
<td>root</td>
<td>u, ou, ow</td>
<td>juggen, resoun, flour, fowles, hous, vertu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o</td>
<td>book, full</td>
<td>o, oo, u</td>
<td>ful, nonne, love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ah-oo</td>
<td>house, how</td>
<td>au, aw</td>
<td>cause, drawe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aw-uh</td>
<td>Paul, awl</td>
<td>ou, ow</td>
<td>knowen, soule</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oy</td>
<td>boy</td>
<td>oi, oy</td>
<td>joye, point, coy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Early Modern English

The Beginning of Modern English

The Age of Reason Begins

By the time the Middle Ages pass there is a transformation of thinking. People are free, now, to pursue personal enlightenment and knowledge.

During the early 1600s, English is now, not only spoken in England, but is transplanted to North America with the founding of Jamestown.

This also pushes the Age of Reason into the colonies. As man felt the call to find his own path in regards to religion, many felt they must leave England to do so.

It was during this time that leaders in circles of intellect and writing begin calling for changes in how the English view their language.

Prescriptivism is born.

Jamestown: the first English speaking community in America. CC0 PD.
Early Modern English Timeline

1485 AD Begins the Tudor Dynasty

1564 AD Lifetime of Shakespeare

1607 AD Founding of Jamestown transplants English to North America

1650 AD Age of Reason Prescriptivism Begins

1679 AD Dryden calls for “rules and standards”

1712 AD Swift proposes an English Academy to parliament

1755 AD Johnson publishes dictionary

1761 AD Priestly publishes 1st grammar

1762 AD Lowth publishes 2nd grammar
The Age of Reason:
The Early Prescriptivists

1564–1616 Lifetime of Shakespeare

Although not always considered one of the founding Prescriptivists, Shakespeare did influence the language of those early Prescriptivists. He made up words, definitions, etc., which certainly may have helped those who were on the mission to set and refine the English language.

1611 King James Bible

Some claim that the King James Bible was printed on Caxton’s Press. It is possible. One interesting note is that Samuel Johnson’s did use King James’ Bible as a source for his definitions in his early editions of his dictionary.

1679 Dryden wants “rules and standards”

John Dryden was most noted as being a straight forward poet and writer. Many claim that it is Dryden who established the rule that English sentences should not end in prepositions. He believed that standards for English would enhance not diminish its function.

1697 Defoe proposes an English Academy

Daniel Defoe is most famous for his novel, Robinson Crusoe. He was a prolific pamphleteer. He was imprisoned for a libel case. Yet he wrote in favor of creating an Academy in which English be established as the formal language of the unified England.
1712 Swift proposes an English Academy to parliament

Jonathan Swift also wanted an academy and proposes the idea to Parliament. He believed in the power of the people and wanted a country where national pride was foremost.

1755 Johnson publishes dictionary

Samuel Johnson writes the first English dictionary. He was under contract to write his dictionary in 1746. It was published in 1755. He was known to state that what took the French Academy nearly 40 years to do for their language was accomplished by one man in only 9 years.

1761 Priestley publishes first grammar book

Joseph Priestley is the first to write a book on English grammar in, Rudiments of English Grammar.

1762 Lowth publishes second grammar book

Just a year later, Robert Lowth publishes his grammar book, A Short Introduction to English Grammar, With Critical Notes. It is from these men we have what is called Prescriptivism, today. These men wanted to prescribe for its speakers what the English language ought to be and to refine the language. They sought to keep language in a fixed and permanent state.
Prescriptivism

What is Prescriptivism?

Prescriptivism is prescribing language.

It is how a group of 6 men wanted to ‘fix’ the English language in a permanent way. To put language in a box and keep it from changing.

What these six guys stood for was order and regulation.

What they did not sanction among many others was clipped words, contractions, and slang.

Think of the language we speak today. Can you imagine speaking and never using a contraction or a word that has been clipped?

And, oh my, the slang we use today! I imagine the 6 guys would turn over in their graves to hear the language we use today.

End Results

The end result of prescriptivism left people thinking that language must be fixed. Prescriptivism did not allow for changes in the language either in pronunciation or spelling. Prescriptivism sought to logically order language using grammar rules and regulations, which we have adopted and maintained ever since.
The Growth of our Lexicon

Derivation

These kinds of words are very common and have been useful in creating ways of speaking and being understood.

You begin with a root word like ‘lock’. By adding a prefix or a suffix a new word can be created.

This is especially helpful in understanding if some can or cannot be done, in this case, locked.

Compounding

These kinds of words are very common today. Compounding begins with two words that do not have anything in common.

In this case a neck and a lace. By combining the two, we get a new word ‘necklace’.

Another favorite is dug and out. Yet, when we compound them, we get a new noun which we all know as dugout.
**Blending**

These kinds of words are made by blending two words that have something in common. This example blends breakfast and lunch, which are words for meals, into brunch.

This category is not as popular as some of the other ways to grow the lexicon, but it certainly is more creative.

**How to make:**
Take 2 words, put together and take letters off

How to make:
Clip word to make it short

**Clipping**

This way to add to the lexicon is closely tied to ease of articulation, in that it shortens a longer word to make it easier to say.

Youth often clip words and they become mainstream. Very much the way telephone becomes phone.
**Acronyms**

There are several ways that acronyms are created. The most common is to create a word using the first letter of each word, as in NASA.

Many acronyms can be credited to the military.

Can you think of others?

---

**One way to create:**
Take the first letter of each word to create a new word

---

**National Aeronautics and Space Administration**

NASA

---

**The Legacy...**

What these six guys left us was a system of rules and regulations upon which we base our language today. For example, they tried to banish multiple negatives, they created terms and definitions for comparatives and superlatives and so much more. Whole grammar books full!

They ultimately began asking speakers of English to think of their language as a set of prescribed rules. They established for us, through these rules, a way to judge whether one speaks well or poorly.
Standardization

The standardization of the English language began long before the 6 Guys began calling for refinement and prescribing what language ought to be.

In your own words, how did the following help standardize English?

• Bubonic Plague 1319 (Middle English)
• Caxton’s Press (Middle English)
• Regionalism (Early Modern English)
• Prescriptivism (Early Modern English)

You should be able to discuss how each of these are related to the standardization of our language. How does each relate to the Six Guys?

Things to consider when discussing Prescriptivism and Standardization

• Semantics—meanings of words (smallest meaning)
• Phonology—sounds (dialects?)
• Spelling—is it standard? Has it ever been?
• Syntax—the way sentences are constructed
• Grammar—the rules that govern syntax
• Regionalism—The London Dialect—regional dialects lose prestige
You vs Thou

In Olde English, the distinction between thou and ye was simply that “thou” was singular and “ye” was plural. However, by the time we reach the Middle English era, thou and ye functioned more like their German equivalents. Thou, thy, and thee were used in addressing children, your friends, and persons of inferior rank. These forms were often used to address those in a lower social class and to express anger or contempt. Ye, your, and you were used when addressing a superior or a stranger. Children often used the “y” forms of address.

Shakespeare ALWAYS used “thou” (thee, thy) to refer to the lower classes.

Using the above information and the following line:

“Get thee to a nunnery!”

How did Hamlet view Ophelia?

The Lord’s Prayer (King James Version)

Our Father which art in heaven, Hallowed be thy name.
Thy kingdom come, Thy will be done, on earth, as it is in heaven.
Give us this day our daily bread.
And forgive us our debts, as we forgive our debtors.
And lead us not into temptation, but deliver us from evil: For thine is the kingdom,
And the power, and the glory, for ever. Amen.

How did King James view God?
Quick Review

What are the 3 major time periods of English language?

1. ______________________________________________________
2. ______________________________________________________
3. ______________________________________________________

Caedmon’s Hymn and The Dream of the Rood are important to Olde English. Why?

What are a few of the legacies the Prescriptivists left us?

Name a few ways our lexicon grew in Early Modern English time period.

Why is the year 1066 important to speakers of English?

What did the Scandinavians add to our language in the Olde English time period?

What is the importance of Prescriptivism and Standardization?
How do you communicate? Are all your conversations the same? Do you change your tone? Does what you say have anything to do where you are or who you are with? The answers to these and more is called competence.

In this unit you will:

• Learn about styles and differences in communication
• Listen to language in the early stages
• Share experiences of our own communication styles
Is Language purely Human?

This is a topic that is prime for discussing. It is important to delineate between what is communication and what is language.

For this text we will build a foundation that communication is universal. Language is a type of communication that is restricted to only humans because humans are the only species with vocal tracts.

Therefore, yes, language is human, provided these two requirements are met:

- A minimal level of intelligence
- A verbal environment

There are, however, a few exceptions:

- The deaf
- The feral
- The abused
Contextual Factors in Communication

When beginning a discussion on communication between humans, we must consider those matters of context where the way we communicate changes based on the following contextual factors:

- Addressee
- Purpose
- Topic
- Setting
- Relationship

Note: In normal everyday communication, humans will shift the ways they speak when only one, or more than one of these factors are changed.

How Do You Communicate?

Think of your employers. Think about the way they gave instructions/directions. Would you place the way they interacted with you when giving directions as Rude? Vague? Why?
Terms

Accent – the sound of words spoken by a person who is not a native speaker of the language

Dialect – the sound of words spoken by a person who is a native speaker of the language

Haptics – communication through touch

Kinesics – non-verbal communication

Lexicon – words found within the language

Morpheme – the smallest units of meaning in a language

Pragmatics – how the context affects the meaning

Semantics – meanings (in small portions of a single word, or phrase or expression)

Syntax – rules that govern the arrangement of words to express meaning

Suprasegmentals – those changes in the sound of words that may change meaning; tone, pitch, volume, stress, intonation

A Little More About Pragmatics

- What is said previously helps to determine meaning
- Knowledge of all speakers’ meaning within the spoken word
Kinesics

Kinesics is defined as non-verbal communication. Let’s examine some of the ways we communicate by looking at facial expressions and body language.

How do you send a message via these? How do you receive a message when you see someone with any of the following? Does it matter who is sending the message?

Does there have to be any verbal communication in order to understand the kinesic message?

Facial Expressions:
- Raised eyebrows
- Wink
- Furrowed brow
- Pursed lips
- Smile
- Others?

Body Language:
- Crossed arms
- Slumped shoulders
- Head down
- Yawning

Is it possible for two people to use the same kinesic form of communication and send two different messages?

Are there certain forms of kinesics that you appreciate more? Despise more? Do you find yourself using some forms of kinesics more often?
Male/Female Communication Styles

WHAT DO YOU BELIEVE?

For the following statements, state whether you agree or disagree and offer an example for why:

1. MEN TALK MORE THAN WOMEN

2. MEN INTERRUPT MORE THAN WOMEN
   » Clarify: Men interrupt men more than women interrupt men or
   Men interrupt women more than women interrupt women.

3. WOMEN SPEND MORE TIME LOOKING AT THEIR PARTNER IN CONVERSATION

4. WOMEN SMILE MORE IN CONVERSATION

5. WOMEN USE MORE KINESICS IN CONVERSATION

6. MEN ARE LESS LIKELY TO LISTEN

7. WOMEN SHARE PERSONAL STORIES TO MAKE A POINT

8. WOMEN FORM GROUPS WITHIN A GROUP CONVERSATION

9. MEN FOCUS ON POWER, RANK, AND STATUS

10. MEN WANT TO THINK; WOMEN WANT TO FEEL

11. WOMEN “KNOW” BY INTUITION

12. MEN TALK ABOUT THINGS; WOMEN TALK ABOUT RELATIONSHIPS
Helpful Hints:

• Do you want advice or do you want the other person just to listen?

• Be aware of assumptions the other person may make based on their gender

• Avoid sarcasm as it may be viewed as rude (see page 39)

Ways in which Females may communicate differently than Males:

• Use tone to underline words or to give emphasis

• Use directs quotations: “…and I quote…”

• Apologize more than males

• Use intensifiers: “I am sooo glad” (especially, very, etc)

• Hedge: “sort of, kind of, perhaps”

• Avoid using cuss words (in public)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicate to get or give a report</td>
<td>Communicate to build rapport</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tag to make sure they understand the female</td>
<td>Tag to make sure the male understands them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen to fix things or give advice</td>
<td>Listen to empathize and build relationships</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A Tale of Two Brains - Women Versus Men. Mark Gungor using hilarious comedy to point out the differences between brains of men and women.
Stages in Language Acquisition

1–3 Months

- Cooing, often in response to a parent
- Begin to listen; you can see this by watching their eyes

Around 4 Months

- Babbling
- Imitate pitch variation

5–9 Months

- Can make vowel sounds
- Hard consonants are easy
- Syllables are evident
- Can make vocal intonations
- Repeats syllables
Around 10 Months

• Begin to lose the ability to vocalize non-English sounds
  » ie. gutturals, rolling r’s, etc.

Around 11 Months

• Begin to recognize words
• Suddenly see the symbolic connection from word to object

12–18 Months

• Begins to learn words; around fifty words now
• May combine these into two-word sentences
  » Mine!
  » Me Want!
  » My ball!

Video of twin boys having a conversation posted by jayrandall22011.
The Second Year

• Begins making simple sentences
• Can revert to babbling or nonsense for words that are difficult or have no meaning to the child

2–5 Years

• Compound and complex sentences
• Will tag sentences for approval
• Use of suprasegmentals is mastered

7–10 Years

• Language becomes stylistic
• The capacity to learn a second language begins to dissipate
Competence vs. Performance

Think about what you know. For now, let’s leave out academic knowledge.

To begin, you know how to enter, use, and exit an elevator. Who taught you this? How did you learn it?

You know how to eat a slice of pizza or a pie. Who taught you? Was it taught in school? Did you have a teacher who taught the nuances of eating all triangular shaped foods?

Here is another example: How did you learn to use past tenses. I would like to share a story about my granddaughter. When she was about 2 to 2 1/2, she came rushing up to me shouting, “Mima, I dreamed about you!” Now, no one, to my knowledge, sat her down at 2 years old to teach her about past tenses. Yet, there she was using it because during the night, she had a dream and she knew it needed an ‘ed’ ending. This is competence. My granddaughter knew (had competence) that she needed to use past tense. What was different was her performance of that past tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. What you know</td>
<td>1. What you do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Rules Based</td>
<td>2. Socially based</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. “You know perfectly what you know.”*</td>
<td>3. “We all perform differently.”*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Thomas Murray and Carol Russell
In looking at this chart, the researchers listened to speech and had respondents read. The results are below.

In looking only at “G-Dropping”, what is most interesting is not necessarily that males drop the g more, but that the Working Class drops the g more.

Can you identify why? Think about what jobs the Working vs. the Middle Classes have. Think about differences in education, income, living accommodations, modes of transportation, and many others.

How is G-Dropping an indicator of socio-economic status? Or Does the status indicate the amount of G-Dropping? Why do you believe this? It should relate to what you identified above.
Quick Review

What are babies and children learning in the stages in language acquisition?

How can contextual factors change the ways in which we communicate?

Explain how communication differs using the term: Rapport and Report.

Offer examples of how competence is different than performance.

Discuss the following: Is language purely human?

How does socio-economic status change language performance?

How have you experienced some basic differences between male and female styles of communication?
We all speak a “standard” dialect, depending on where we were raised. That standard is our competence.

In this unit you will:

- Examine differences between Standard English and dialect
- Watch a video of dialectal differences
- Begin to make decisions about your own teaching pedagogies
“SAE is not a single homogeneous dialect, but instead comprises a number of varieties. When most people speak of a dialect, they usually have in mind features of grammar, more than differing pronunciations. In the United States pronunciations do not seem to be terribly important. Thus, there are varieties of SAE that are labeled Northern, New England, Southern, Midwest etc. yet, all are considered Standard. This is not to say we do not make evaluations of speech based on dialect, because we do! In general we tend to be far more tolerant of variation in dialect than we are of grammatical variation.” — Language Files, 2004.

Points to Remember:

When considering Standard American English:

- Most lay-people often associate SAE with the written word
  
  *However, for this course, we will be concentrating on the spoken word*

- Relates to social class and level of education *(see G-Dropping chart page 48)*

- In media is vital

- The status of any group is more important in determining the standard
  
  » Remember the London dialect?

- Norms of any “standard” dialect are ALWAYS based on judgement of social acceptability
In the 60’s there was a woman who wanted to become a lead television news reporter. The network she worked for would not allow her to because she spoke with an “r-less” speech pattern common to Boston, where she was from.

The three major networks wanted (and still do) their anchors and reporters to sound as if they could come from everywhere and nowhere. This came to be called “The Voice from Nowhere.”

This woman wanted to be on the front lines so badly, she was sent to ‘school’ to be trained in how to speak using this voice from nowhere.

...CAN YOU NAME THIS WOMAN?
Watching *Do You Speak American?*

While watching, consider these questions:

- What kinds of dialect differences did you notice? Did you make any judgments on them?
- How do people from different social groups use language in different ways? Do these differences affect how they interact?
- Are there any dialects that are prestigious? Are there any socially stigmatized dialects? Why?
- How have dialects been used to create stereotypes?
- What are some advantages to speaking “the voice from nowhere” dialect?
- What advantages may come from being able to shift dialects?
- Should the United States have an official language?
- Anything else provoke thought?
Reasons for Dialects

There are several reasons for dialects. These are the most common:

- Settlement: people who speak the same tended to settle in the same place
- Migration: as people moved westward, dialects and accents began to mix and created new dialects
- Isolation: as people settled in places, their dialects became stronger and stronger
- Language mixing: as people immigrated from different countries and began speaking English they created their own dialects

Below are some ways that dialects vary, do these sound familiar? In what ways does language change from one region to another when you think about the following:

- Lexicon
- Phonology
- Syntax
- Peer pressure
- Education
- Accommodation (convergence/divergence)

Do you think our language is converging or diverging? Why?
Regional Dialects

Northern / New England

Many Northern New Englanders are losing their dialects. This region is sometimes broken down to cities, such as New York or Boston.

These cities have their own unique way of speaking.

- Dropped “r”: Pahk the cah in Hahvahd yahd.
- Sometimes add an “r” in the final position: Eriker for Erika
- Brahmin Dialect: In Boston, sounds much like British, dying
  » Discuss what happened post WWII
- New York: “ir” becomes “oi” but “oi” becomes “ir”: Dey sell tirlets on toidy-toid street.
- Pennsylvania German grammar: Throw your father out the window his hat.

Some words for donuts: cymbals, boil cakes, dunkers, sinkers, crullers, oil cakes AND matrimony...
In this area, the most common dialectal sound is the difference in the long “o” sound.

Although not shown on the map, Chicago is often included in this region.

- Minnesota has strong “o” sounds: “about” and “Don’ cha know.”
- Upper Midwest “a” as in bag sounds like “e” as in beg
- Upper Michigan dialect is called “Yooper”
- Have sentences like: I’m gonna go by your place, You goin’ with? “Da” for ‘the’, ‘Hey der!’
- “w” sometimes becomes “v”
- “th” (voiced) becomes “d”

**Some words for donuts:** friedcakes, bismarks, bellysinkers, doorknobs, pasties, berliner...
General South

Many people like what some call a Southern Drawl. Although many states may be included in the “South,” not all southern states speak the same.

- long “i” is pronounced “ah” as in “ice” sounding like “ass”
- ‘ing is often dropped
- “r” before a final consonant is dropped: guard sounds like god
- “r” after a vowel sounds like “uh”: four sounds like “fo uh”
- “a-prefixing” before a verb: “I’m a fixin to leave” or “The wind was a howlin’”
- Ya’ll when there are many people
- Other: onyon and Nawlins

Some words for donuts: cookies, beignets...
What do you call soft drinks? Here is a map showing the most popular terms. Can you determine why based on this map?

How Americans Talk: Soda vs. Pop vs. Coke

CCBY: Alan McConchie, PopVsSoda.com
The following two videos are just two viewpoints of English. One focuses on how difficult it is to learn the rules of English. The other is an example of Appalachian dialect. I am partial to Appalachian, because my family has ancestors from this area.

Enjoy them!

Ricky Ricardo “reads” perfect English posted by mozey morris

Excerpt on Appalachian English from the documentary film Mountain Talk.
Dialects in the Classroom

These are several historical approaches to dealing with different dialects inside a classroom. Discuss the pros and cons for each of these:

- **Eradicate it**
  Historically, some teachers chose to eradicate all dialectal differences. They wanted their students to sound homogenous.

- **Ignore it**
  Likewise, some teachers chose to ignore any differences in how their students sounded.

- **Change the community**
  This was met with much resistance, as parents and grandparents did not see the need for them to change the way they spoke at home, nor did they want to.

- **Teach bi-dialectalism**
  Some teachers chose to address the differences and actually teach their students the dialects that were represented in their classroom.

Is there relevance in learning a “standard dialect”? Economic success? Social acceptance? Are there others?
Teaching SAE

What do you think will work best for your teaching style and your pedagogical thinking? The following are some things you may want to consider when establishing your teaching philosophy:

• What is the “standard” of the group?
  » Do you want to “fight” the norms of the group?

• Will you teach dialect diversity? Or will you ignore it?

• Will you address communication, not just grammar and phonology?

Teaching SAE Writing:

• Don’t correct everything at once
  » Choose 1-2 items to focus on

• Be sensitive to hyper-correction

• Consider peer editing

• Consider postpone editing

• Consider dialog journals

Teaching SAE Reading:

• Consider using dialect readers—but they may be met with resistance
  » The closer a person’s spoken language is to the reading materials, the easier it will be to learn to read SAE
**African American Vernacular English**

**What is AAVE**

The map below shows nationalities most prevalent in each region. African Americans are, for the most part, in the South. Notice, too, there are clusters in Chicago, Detroit, and San Francisco.

Image: Census 2010 U.S. Department of Commerce, QuickFacts United States Black or African American percent
Verbs

a. Auxiliaries: are often left out

In statements:

‘They be talking too fas’ [are]
‘She be here in a mintute’ [will]
‘Sometimes he be already walkin’ [would]

In questions:

‘is Jay there?’ [is]
‘is Jay left?’ [has]
‘is you single?’ [are]

b. Neutralization of singular and plural persons:

‘You don’t love me’
‘She don’t love me’
‘They haven’t run’
‘Gene haven’t run’
‘She was eating’
‘You was eating’
c. Aspectual Markers or Verbal Markers:

• ‘Be’ [=habitual or repeated action]
  *always in its inflected form

  1. ‘Steve be running’
     [=Steve is usually running]
     (=Steve is running now/these days)

  2. ‘I be in my office by 7:30’
     [=I’m usually in my office by 7:30]

  3. ‘The boys’ socks be that dirty’
     [=The boys’ socks are always that dirty]

• ‘BIN’ [=the activity/state was held for a long time]
  *always stressed (not like been, which is unstressed)

  1. ‘She bin running’
     [=she has been running for a long time]
     (unlike ‘She been running’ =she has been running)

  2. ‘The police ain’t going bad. They bin bad’
     [=the police aren’t going bad. They have been bad for a long time.]

• ‘Dən’ [=the event has already ended]
  *always unstressed (not like done, which is stressed)

  1. ‘I dən done all you told me to do’
     [=I have done all you told me to do]

  2. ‘I dən already finished that’
     [=I have already finished that]
• ‘Finna’ [=the event will happen in the immediate future]
  Other variants: fixina, fixna, fitna
  *always followed by a non-finite verb (no tense/agreement making)

1. ‘They finna do something’
   [=they’re about to do something]

2. ‘She was finna move the mattress herself when I got there’
   [=she was getting ready to move the mattress when I got there]

→ the letter ‘s’ is usually added to the verb to indicate that the action
happens habitually:
‘Every morning I sits and rides’
‘The devil haves us in a state of sin’
‘That’s the way it bes’

Negation

Multiple Negation

=negation is marked more than once on auxiliaries and indefinite nouns
(anybody/nobody and anything/nothing)

1. ‘I didn’t see nothing’
   [=I didn’t see anything]

2. ‘Jay don’t want no professor tellin’ him nothin’ about no class’
   [=Jay doesn’t want any professor telling him anything about any class]

3. ‘I ain’t never seen nobody preach under announcement’
   [=I’ve never seen anyone preach while they’re giving announcements]
Referential ‘it’ and ‘dey’

• ‘it’ and ‘dey’ are used to indicate that something exists
• The following sentences can be used to mean ‘There is some pie in the kitchen’:
  1. ‘It’s some pie in the kitchen’
  2. ‘Dey some pie in the kitchen’
  3. ‘Dey got some pie in the kitchen’

Exercises for AAVE

1. ‘It be too many cars in that parking lot.’

2. ‘It don’t be nobody on that corner.’

3. ‘They be finna go to bed when I call there.’

4. ‘Them students be steady trying to make a buck.’
Can you define the following terms:

- Standard, The Voice From Nowhere, Accent and Dialect

How do prescriptivists and descriptivists view language *(see notes from DVD)*?

What are some judgments we make on speakers of English?

Are some dialects more prestigious? Stigmatized? Why?

Do you think language is converging or diverging?

Should English be the Official Language of the US?

Name 2 of the historical approaches to teaching dialects in the classroom.

1. ______________________________________________________
2. ______________________________________________________

How can general linguistic markers for AAVE help to prove it is a language, not just a dialect?

How is knowing speech variances (markers) from Upper Midwest, Northeastern, and General South regions important in understanding dialects?

Is there relevance in speaking a “standard”?
In this unit, it is important to apply all we have learned thus far to teaching. Teaching in general and teaching a deaf student. In this unit we also are presented with the usage question. Is Standard English dependent upon the written word or the spoken word?

In this unit you will:

• Apply Prescriptive and Descriptive thinking
• Learn strategies for teaching deaf students
• Practice some basic Sign Language
Modern History

Unlike the Olde English through Early Modern English time periods, which was called the History of English, these advances are, for ease of understanding going to be called ‘Modern History’.

Between about 1870 and 1910 two important things happened:

• Linguistics developed as a “science”

• Three organizations were founded
  - American Philosophical Association 1868
  - Modern Languages Association 1883
  - National Council for Teachers of English 1911

Important Works

1908—Thomas Lounsbury wrote The Standard of Usage in English

• Earlier critics knew very little about language

• Put emphasis on written word as the “standard”

Notice, Lounsbury focuses on the written word as the standard. His attitude toward others in the field was rather negative.

---

George Krapp wrote Modern English

• Spoken language was the most important

• Usage is relevant to the speakers

• Distinction between “standard” and “good” (latter used by all social classes)

Krapp, who published in the same year as Lounsbury was of the opposite mind. He believed that the spoken word was the standard.
1917—J. Leslie Hall wrote *English Usage*
- General usage should be based on written language (only from “good writers”—and those only on formal writings)

Only a few years later, Hall emphasizes the written word as the standard.

1921—Brander Mathe wrote *Essays on English*
- Speech should guide the usage (in the written form)

Again, we see another linguist claiming that the written word is the foundation of language.

1929—NCTE recommended linguistic training for all teachers
- 1930 this training began at all universities and teacher colleges

1938—A. Marquardt and Fred Walcott found that “opinions of usage is always more conservative than actual usage.”
1940—Charles Fries wrote *American English Grammar*

- Used 200 personal letters (mostly written to the government)
- Identified 3 groups
  - Vulgar (illiterate)—8th grade, unskilled laborers, rarely adhered to “conventions”
  - Common (majority)—some formal education, “substantial” citizens, usually adhered to “conventions”
  - High Class (graduates of college)—high positions in the community, always adhered to “conventions”

*Result* — Competence is based on usage

This extensive study, used the written word as the standard. How does your understanding of competence fit with his findings?

1962—Martin Joos wrote *The Five Clocks*

- 5 styles of language on a continuum (but circular?)
  - informal = private
  - casual = between friends
  - consultative = among the educated (no friendships)
  - formal = between strangers
  - frozen = used in print (from oral to print)

All people have the potential for all varieties, few have frozen

Joos had an interesting concept. His continuum, also called registers, is an easy way to categorize communication.
Sign Language

Signed languages utilize visual modes to convey linguistic information.

“The existence of an accompanying written system is irrelevant to whether or not signed languages are true languages.” — Language Files, 9th edition

ASL vs. SEE

**ASL**
- Used in the United States and Canada
- Allows for slang and non-standard language

**SEE**
- Used in the United States
- Relates to the standard written forms of American English
- Kansas teaches using this form

Both are recognized as languages in Kansas. In Kansas, SEE is used in schools. However, most Deaf will use ASL as their native language.

What might be potential problems with each of these?

Did you know?

The State of Kansas Board of Education states:

All students with hearing impairment may be given instruction in Sign Language.

Did you notice? ‘May’? 
Terms and Causes

Terms

• **Deaf:**
  
  ‘Deaf’ vs. ‘deaf’

Think of the community of Deaf the same you would of people of a specific nationality. You would capitalize it.

Think of the general term used to describe a person who cannot hear as ‘deaf’. It is not capitalized.

• **Hard of Hearing:**

  This term is used for all persons who have trouble hearing and is often used in a clinical setting.

Causes

Looking at the list below, what may cause deafness in each area?

• Environmental
• Birth Defects
• Illness (especially childhood)
• Aging
THE PLEDGE
of ALLEGIANCE

I pledge allegiance
to the flag
of the U.S.
and to the Republic of America
Signing Exact English, Modern Signs Press. p.XXIV-XXV
Most school districts encourage simultaneous manual and spoken communication.

However, most deaf students – even those with cochlear implants – revert to sign language alone outside the classroom.

Why would that be so?

Teaching Deaf Students

You may find that you will have a hearing impaired or a deaf student in your class. The following is a list of things that you should be aware of. Keep in mind that not all deaf students will have all of these attributes.

Physical attributes:

- Ear infections
- Hearing aids
- May move around the room to get closer to the sound
- May appear uncoordinated
**Social Attributes:**
- May choose younger students as peer group
- Frequently misunderstands
- May use physical contact to get attention
- May seem nosy
- Restless or withdrawn in large group activities
- Lacks self-confidence

**Academic Attributes:**
- Depends on visual reinforcements
- Reading comprehension is lower than grade level
- Difficulty moving from the concrete to abstract
- Difficulty following written directions
- Watches others before starting tasks
- Written language noticeable weaker than oral
- Uses very simple vocabulary

**Listening Attributes:**
- Difficulty processing oral information
- Difficulty hearing in a noisy setting
- May show a preference for listening with one ear
- Unable to detect certain tones
 Strategies for teaching a deaf student

When considering how to teach with a deaf student in your class, the following list is vital if you want to provide the best learning environment and set your students up for success.

- Seating—up front on one side, facing the teacher and few students
- Focus—student needs a view of the teacher at all times
- Support—set up a buddy system, can repeat to the student, take notes, etc.
- Visual Aids—speak first, show with chalkboards, maps charts, etc; use an overhead (to face the class)
- Speech—don’t stand too close, keep hands (etc.) away from face, don’t turn back while talking, don’t stand in front of a window (causes shadows)

 100 Basic Signs

Dr. Bill Vicars reviewing basic American Sign Language (ASL) signs with a student.
Quick Review

How does Joos’s continuum affect most people?

What is important about those who differ in saying good usage is based on the written word vs those who say it is based on the spoken word?

When did language study change and what do those changes implicate?

What is the difference between “Deaf” and “deaf”?

Name a few ways to help the hearing impaired in the classroom.
AAVE: African American Vernacular English. Some say this is a language, some a dialect of English.

Accent: This is how a non-native speaker of a language speaks.

Acronym: Where a word is created using the first letters of words, as in SCUBA.

Blending: Creating a new word by combining two unrelated words.

Bubonic Plague: The disease that killed one quarter of England’s population and influenced language.

Caedmon’s Hymn: One of the oldest transcripts of Olde English.

Caxton’s Press (Literacy): Because of Caxton’s press, literacy rates improved.

Clipping: One way to increase the lexicon by shortening a word, as in fridge.

Communication: All species can communicate: language, sonar, growls etc.

Competence: Is what you know about your language. It is rules based, not inherited, not taught.

Compounding: Creating a new word by combining two words that have no correlation to each other.

Convergence: The school of thought that language is becoming more and more the same.

Deaf: The community of people who are hard of hearing, also called deaf.

Derivation: Creating a new word by adding either a suffix or a prefix or both to a root word.

Descriptive: A linguistic school of thought that language is what people do (say) with it.

Dialect: The sounds of words spoken by a native speaker of any language.
Dialog Journals: Having students write in a journal, turn it in, the teacher responds. Students can ask questions about the subject being taught or any other thing.

Divergence: The school of thought that language is becoming more and more different.

“Dream of the Rood”: The Olde English poem written in Runes on the Ruthwell Cross.

Grammar: The structure of a language, including the rules that govern them.

Early Modern English: The 3rd language time period with a focus on prescriptivism.

Germanic Invasions (tribes): After the Romans left, Germanic tribes settled in England.

Great Vowel Shift: A period in EmE where most long vowels become short and vice versa.

Haptics: Communication through touch.

Hyper-correction: After learning something, students over-use it. For example, learning to use a semi-colon.

Kinesics: Nonverbal communication.

Language: Communication using the voice. It is used by humans.

Language Acquisition: How and at what ages infants and children acquire language.

Lexicon: The words that make up a language.

Linguistics: The study of language and the study of the acquisition of language.

Loanwords: In Middle English time period, we ‘borrow’ words from other languages.

Middle English: The 2nd language time period where English begins to sound more like what we speak now.

Morpheme: The smallest unit of meaning in a language.
**Mother Tongue:** The way to identify the main branch of a language.

**Olde English:** The 1st language time period where Latin and other languages influence English.

**Orthographic Lag:** The time it takes for a change (new word, sound change, etc.) to be complete in a language.

**Patronymics:** The Scandinavians gave us this way to follow our ancestry through our fathers.

**Performance:** What speakers actually say.

**Phonology:** The sounds in a language

**Prescriptivism (The 6 Guys):** The school of thought that language

**Postpone Editing:** Asking students to edit a piece of writing. Collecting it and asking them to edit it again after some time has passed.

**Proto Indo-European:** The mother tongue of English.

**Rapport vs. Report:** Women communicate to establish a relationship or rapport. Men communicate to give or receive a report.

**Regional Dialects:** The ways in which people speak based on where they live.

**Roman Invasion:** The Olde English time period where Rome forced the use of Latin.

**Runes (Runic Alphabet):** An alphabet used in Northern England in the Olde English time period.

**Ruthwell Cross:** The stone cross found in, what is now Scotland, with a poem written in Runes.

**Semantics:** Meaning (even in a portion of a word).
Social Contexts (Contextual Factors): When these factors can change, our use of language changes, which is related to style shifting.

Standard: There is no one standard, but many throughout the English speaking world.

Style Shifting: The intuitive ability to change the way we speak especially using suprasegmentals.

Suprasegmentals: Changes in the way words are spoken that change or create meaning.

Syntax: Rules that govern the arrangement of words.

Usage: The ways in which a person speaks based on grammar rules.

Voice from Nowhere: The dialect that is easiest to understand. Also, the sound that most networks desire.
About the Author

Carol L. Russell earned her BA in English/Education and her Masters degree from Kansas State University, Manhattan, KS. Her teaching career started in 1990, however, she has taught at KSU for the last 20 years. She has honed her love of teaching Linguistics for Teachers into what has become this text. She has been married for 40 years and has two daughters and 6 grandchildren.

You may contact her at iteach@ksu.edu