**Keys to Exercises**

**Chapter 1**

I.

1)—5) F T F T T 6)—10) F T T F T

II.

*Parole*

Parole is the realization of langue in actual use. It is the concrete use of the conventions and the application of the rules. It refers to the naturally occurring language events. Parole varies from person to person, from time to time, and from situation to situation.

*Duality*

Language consists of two sets of structures, or two levels. The lower level is the sounds which are meaningless. The higher level is the units of meaning by grouping or regrouping sounds. The units at the higher level can be arranged and rearranged into an infinite number of sentences.

*Competence*

Competence is an ideal user’s internalized knowledge of a language. According to Chomsky, speakers have internalized a set of rules about their language. This rule system enables them to produce and understand an infinitely large number of sentences and recognize sentences that are ungrammatical and ambiguous.

*Paradigmatic relation*

Paradigmatic relation refers to the vertical relationship between forms, which might occupy the same particular place in a structure. Paradigmatic relationships between linguistic elements can be established by use of the substitution test at the vertical level. Thus, the initial consonants in *beer, deer and peer* form a paradigmatic relation.

*Syntax*

Syntax is the study of the rules governing how words are combined to form grammatically permissible sentences.

III.

Modern linguistics is descriptive, not prescriptive. It aims to describe and analyze the language people actually use. It tries to eliminate a series of grammatical rules which are forced on the language users. Most modern linguists regard linguistic study as a scientific and objective undertaking, and their major task is to describe the language that people actually use, be it “correct” or not. In other words, what actually occurred in the language use should be described and analyzed in linguistic investigation.

Traditional grammar is prescriptive in the sense that it tries to lay down a series of grammatical rules which are forced on the language users, that is, to tell people what they should say and what they should not say. For example:

It is not right to say sentence like “I runs away”. (prescriptive)

People do not say sentences like “I runs away”. (descriptive)

IV.

omitted

**Chapter 2**

I.

The organs of speech include lungs, trachea, larynx, vocal folds, pharynx, soft palate, uvula, hard palate, lips, teeth and tongue.

II.

The places of articulation include bilabial, labiodental, dental, alveolar, retroflex, postalveolar, palatal, velar, uvular and glottal.

III.

The manners of articulation include stop, fricative, approximant, affricate, tap, flap and trill.

IV.

The five dimensions often used in the description and classification of vowels are height, backness (or fronting), roundedness, nasalization and length.

V.

The phonation types are breathy voice, creaky voice and whispery voice.

VI.

The nonpulmonic types of sounds are ejective, implosive and click.

VI.

1) When producing a consonant, an obstacle or a stricture is usually formed by a movable part of the vocal tract moving toward the part at the opposite side of the vocal tract. The two parts involved are therefore called active and passive articulators respectively.

2) An aspirated plosive, like the initial consonants in pa(afraid), ta(he), ka(card), is produced with a period of breathing between the release of the closure and the voiced segment.

3) The term organs of speech refers to all those parts of human body involved in various ways in the production of speech sounds

4) The VOT is measured from the start of the explosion of a plosive to the point where vocal fold vibration begins.

**Chapter 3**

I.

1) Sounds in a language are always reduced into a limited number of “significant” ones, which are important in recognizing a word or distinguishing different words. These significant sounds of a language are called phonemes.

2) Assimilation refers to changing of a sound to be more similar in some way to its neighboring sound.

3) Th type of phonological process of adding a sound is called epenthesis in linguistics

4) Neutralization refers to the phenomenon that two or more sounds may appear as the same sound in some contexts, and as a result lose their differences.

5) Tone sandhi is the linguistic term standing for the phenomena of tones, especially lexical tones, varying according to the phonological contexts they are in.

6) The Great Vowel Shift refers to the strikingly different pronunciations of the long stressed vowels in Middle English before the 15th century and in Modern English.

II.

1) yes, 2) no, 3) no, 4) yes, 5) yes, 6) no.

III.

1) one, 2) three, 3) four, 4) three, 5) eight, 6) two.

IV.

The phonological rule means that the sound /i:/ at the end of a word changes to /ai/.

V.

1) no 2) yes 3) yes 4) no 5) no 6) yes

**Chapter 4**

I.

1)—5): F F F T T 6)—10): F F T T F

II.

blackboard: black (free morpheme)+board (free morpheme)

deform: de (derivational morpheme)+form (free morpheme)

working: work (free morpheme)+ing (inflectional morpheme)

receive: re (derivational morpheme)+ceive (bound root)

comfortable: comfort (free morpheme)+able (derivational morpheme)

III.

1. She *mothered* the orphan.
2. Tom *parroted* what the boss had said.
3. The police *shadowed* the suspected spy.
4. Will you please *mai*l the parcel?
5. This is the place where the two rivers *divide*.

IV.

1. song writer 2) window cleaner 3) sunrise 4) traffic lights 5) self-control
2. suntan 7) sleep walk 8) daydream 9) dirt cheap 10) snow white

V.

trainee/trainer, employee/employer; addressee/addresser, examinee/examiner; interviewee/interviewer; testee/tester; payee/payer; drawee/drawer

*-ee* stands for passive form; *-er* stands for active form

VI.

1. uninterested : not excited or not wanting to become involved

disinterested: having no personal involvement or receiving no personal advantage, and therefore free to act fairly

1. unarmed: not carrying or having a weapon

disarm: take weapons away from someone, or give up weapons

1. counter-culture: a way of life and a set of ideas that are completely different from those accepted by most of society, or the group of people who live this way

uncultured: someone who is uncultured has not had a good education and does not know a lot about art, music, painting, etc.

1. disconnected: if ideas, remarks, etc. or the different parts of something are disconnected, they are not well joined together and it is difficult to see their purpose or pattern

unconnected: not connected or not related

1. imbalance: a situation in which two things that should be equal or that are normally equal are not

unbalanced: not firm but likely to fall or change position suddenly

VII.

1. sitcom: situation+comedy: a regular programme on television that shows the same characters in different amusing situations
2. smog: smoke+fog: a form of air pollution that is or looks like a mixture of smoke and fog, especially in cities
3. motel: motor+hotel: a hotel for people who are travelling by car, with space for parking cars near the rooms
4. brunch: breakfast+lunch: a meal that you eat in the late morning as a combination of breakfast and lunch
5. lunanaut: lunar+astronaut: an astronaut who explores the moon

VIII.

1. fridge 2) comfy 3) copter 4) deb 5) lime
2. memo 7) perm 8) pub 9) zoo 10) hanky

**Chapter 5**

I.

A. A possible answer would be: I know that he knows that you know that I hate war.

B. These sentences show that there is no “longest” sentence in English; one can go on indefinitely, constructing longer and longer sentences by appending “He/she/they/John, etc., know(s) that” to the previously constructed sentence.

C. While it is true that in principle, we could construct a sentence of infinite length (a fact about linguistic competence), in actual behavior there are lapses of memory and mistakes, and we would eventually have to stop constructing a longer sentence in order to eat, drink, and sleep. These are facts about linguistic performance.

II.

a. Dick finally decided on the boat.

i. Dick finally chose the boat.

ii. Dick finally decided (something) when he was on the boat.

b. The professor’s appointment was shocking.

i. It was shocking that the professor was appointed.

ii. The appointment made by the professor was shocking.

c. The design has big squares and circles.

i. The design has big squares and big circles.

ii. The design has squares that are big and circles (of unspecified size).

d. That sheepdog is too hairy to eat.

i. That sheepdog is too hairy to eat anything.

ii. That sheepdog is too hairy for someone to eat (the dog).

e. Could this be the invisible man’s hair tonic?

i. Could this be the hair tonic belonging to the invisible man?

ii. Could this be the invisible hair tonic for men?

f. The governor is a dirty street fighter.

i. The governor fights dirty streets.

ii. The governor fights unfairly in the streets.

iii. The governor is a dirty individual who fights in the streets.

g. I cannot recommend him too highly.

i. He is superb; nothing I can say would exaggerate his abilities.

ii. He is mediocre; I cannot recommend him very highly.

h. Terry loves his wife and so do I.

i. Terry loves his wife and I love Terry’s wife too.

ii. Terry loves his wife and I love my wife.

i. They said she would go yesterday.

i. Yesterday they said, “She will go.”

ii. They said that yesterday was the day she would go.

j. No smoking section available.

i. There is no section for smokers.

ii. A section for nonsmokers is available.

k. We will dry clean your clothes in 24 hours.

i. We will dry clean your clothes and they will be ready within 24 hours.

ii. We will start dry cleaning your clothes 24 hours from now.

l. I bought cologne for my boyfriend containing 25% alcohol.

i. For my boyfriend, I bought cologne that consists of 25% alcohol.

ii. I bought cologne for my boyfriend who (due to drinking too much) consists of 25% alcohol.

III.

a. \**The man located.* The verb *locate* is transitive: it requires an NP object.

b. \**Jesus wept the apostles.* The verb *weep* is intransitive: it does not allow an object.

c. \**Robert is hopeful of his children.* The adjective *hopeful* allows a sentential complement (e.g., *that his children will succeed*) or no complement, but it cannot take a PP complement with *of.*

d. \**Robert is fond that his children love animals.* The adjective *fond* allows a PP complement with *of,* but cannot take a sentential complement.

e. \**The children laughed the man.* Like *weep,* the verb *laugh* is intransitive and may not take a direct object.

IV.

(1) *bring:* The vassal brought the emperor a gift.

(2) *throw:* The pitcher threw Sam the ball.

(3) *send:* I sent Mary a letter.

V.

The sentence *Do you still love me as much as you used to?* with the meaning as intended by the husband is derived from:

*Do you still love me as much as you used to* [*love me*]*?*

The following underlying structures are also possible (though less likely):

*Do you still love me as much as you used to [love Mary/ice cream/ skiing]?*

*Do you still love me as much as you used to [sit in chairs/read books]?*

In this way, many possible underlying forms are transformed into a single surface structure, making it ambiguous.

VI.

In French, adverbs of frequency must follow the verb, whereas in English, they must precede the verb.

VII.

The dog bit the man in the room.

1. to show where the biting took place

S

NP VP AdvP

Det N V NP Prep NP

Det N Det N

The dog bit the man in the room

(ii) to specify that it was the man in the room that was bitten.

S

NP VP

Det N V NP

Det N PP

Prep NP

Det N

The dog bit the man in the room

**Chapter 6**

I.

1. F 2. F 3. T 4. T 5. F

II.

1. meaning 2. Reference 3. homophones/homonyms

4. Relational opposites 5. Componential analysis

III.

1. A  2. B  3. A  4.B   5. A   6. B  7. D  8. C  9. A  10. B

11. B  12.D  13.C  14. D  15. B

IV.

Omitted.

V.

Omitted.

**Chapter 7**

I. Define the following terms.

1) Pragmatics is a field of study to take care of the meaning of language in use.

2) Performatives are used to perform an action, and there is no truth value.

3) Locutionary act is the basic literal meaning of the utterance.

4) Illocutionary act is the extra meaning of the utterance produced on the basis of its literal meaning.

5) Perlocutionary act is the effect of the utterance on the hearer, depending on specific circumstances.

6) Grice proposed that all speakers, regardless of their cultural background, adhere to a basic principle governing conversation. The speakers will cooperate with each other when making their contributions in a conversation. There are four maxims.

The Maxim of Quality

Try to make your contribution one that is true, i.e.

a) Do not say what you believe to be false；

b) Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

The Maxim of Quantity

a) Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purpose of the exchange)；

b) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

The Maxim of Relation

Be relevant.

The Maxim of Manner

Be perspicuous.

a) Avoid obscurity；

b) Avoid ambiguity；

c) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)；

d) Be orderly.

7) In most cases, the indirectness is motivated by considerations of politeness, which is usually regarded as a means or strategy used by a speaker to achieve various proposes, such as saving face, establishing and maintaining harmonious social relations in conversation. Leech put forward six maxims.

The Maxim of tact

(i) Minimize cost to other

(ii) Maximize benefit to other

The Maxim of generosity

(i) Minimize benefit to self

(ii) Maximize cost to self

The Maxim of approbation

(i) Minimize dispraise of other

(ii) Maximize praise of other

The Maxim of modesty

(i) Minimize praise of self

(ii) Maximize dispraise of self

The Maxim of agreement

(i) Minimize disagreement between self and other

(ii) Maximize agreement between self and other

The Maxim of sympathy

(i) Minimize antipathy between self and other

(ii) Maximize sympathy between self and other

II. What are the Semantic and Pragmatic meanings in the following sentence in different contexts respectively?

Situation A

Semantic meaning: “It’s Sunday, John.”

Pragmatic meaning: “You don’t have to get up early today. You may stay in bed for long.”

Situation B

Semantic meaning: “It’s Sunday, John.”

Pragmatic meaning: “You have to do some housework because you don’t work today.”

Situation C

Semantic meaning: “It’s Sunday, John.”

Pragmatic meaning: “Don’t forget what you promised. Go shopping with me.”

III. What are the locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act in the following dialogue?

Locutionary act: It’s a sunny day today.

Illocutionary act: A requests B to go out for a walk.

Perlocutionary act: B refuses to do so due to his works.

IV. Which maxim of the Cooperative Principle is flouted in the following dialogues and what are the conversational implicatures aroused?

1) The maxim of quality is flouted and the conversational implicature is that B thinks that John has some characteristics of a tiger.

1. The maxim of quantity is flouted and the conversational implicature is that B doesn’t care about whether Smith will come to the party tonight or not.
2. The maxim of relation is flouted and the conversational implicature is that B doesn’t want to talk about it.
3. The maxim of manner is flouted and the conversational implicature is that B doesn’t want to prompt the kids by saying ice-cream.

V. Put the statement “You must cut the lawn.” in a politer way.

Can you cut the lawn?

Could you cut the lawn?

Cut the lawn, please.

You will cut the lawn, won’t you?

If it doesn’t bother you, wouldn’t you mind cutting the lawn?

It seems that my lawn needs to cut.

**Chapter 8**

I.

The given information is in italics, the new one is underlined.

1. *In the village of Chinchero*, *most people* are farmers. But *these days*, *they*’re also doing something new. *They*’re entering the world of business. *The new business* begins with sheep*.*
2. Laura: What’s assignment?

Silvio: *We* have to give an oral summary of a movie or TV documentary. *I* watched a documentary about an archaeological site in Vietnam.

Laura: *That* sounds interesting.

II.

The references are in black

At one point **the Brundtland report** states that “The loss of **plant and animal species** can greatly limit the options of future generations; so sustainable development requires the conversation of plant and animal species”. What, all of **them**? At what price?... At **another** point **the Brundtland report** says that economic growth and development obviously involve changes in the physical ecosystem. “**Every ecosystem everywhere** cannot be preserved intact.” Well, **that**’s a relief. But how can **it** be made consistent with **the earlier objective**? Does **it** mean that it is all right to deprive **some people** in some parts of **the world** of a piece of **their** ecosystem but not **others**? What justification is **there** for **this** discrimination?

III.

1. Hypothsis-Real Pattern
2. Goal-Achievement Pattern
3. General –Specific Pattern

**Chapter 9**

I.

1) T

2) F

3) F

4) F

5) T

6) F

7) T

8) T

9) F

10) F

II.

1) A lingua franca refers to a language which is used habitually by people whose mother tongues are different in order to facilitate communication between them.

2) A variety of language refers to a set of linguistic items with similar distributionwhich can be uniquely associated with some external factor.

3) Every speaker has his own speech characteristics and linguistic behavior, including sounds, words, grammar, and style.

4) Language choice of distinct varieties to serve different functions in a relatively stable language situation is called diglossia.

5) It is inevitable for those bi/multilinguals to switch from one code to another or to mix codes even within sometimes very short utterances.

III.

1) *pavement* — U.K. item

*sidewalk* —U.S. item

2) *trunk* — U.S. item

*boot* —U.K. item

3) *bonnet* —U.K. item

*hood* —U.S. item

4) *gas* —U.S. item

*petrol* —U.K. item

5) *tap* —U.K item

*faucet* — U.S item

6) *diaper* —U.S. item

*nappy* —U.K. item

7) *elevator* —U.S. item

*lift* —U.K. item

8) *can* —U.S. item

*tin* —U.K. item

9) *luggage* —U.K. item

*baggage* —U.S. item

10) *eraser* —U.S. item

*rubber* —U.K. item

IV.

1) A

2) A

3) A

4) B

5) A

6) B

7) A

**Chapter 10**

I.

1. Cognitive linguistics is the study of language in relation to such cognitive domains and faculties as bodily and mental experiences, image schemas, perception, attention, memory, viewing frames, categorization, abstract thought, emotion, reasoning, and inference.

2. Categorization is the mental process of classification and its results are the categories or cognitive categories.

3. In terms of cognition, metaphor is defined as understanding one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain. Lakoff and Johnson claim that metaphors are not merely a matter of language, but just as much a matter of thought.

4. Metonymy is defined as a cognitive process in which one conceptual entity provides mental access to another conceptual entity within the same domain. In other words, instead of mentioning an entity directly, we provide mental access to it through another entity.

5. Grammaticalization is the process in which a lexical word or word cluster loses some or all of its lexical meaning and starts to fulfill a more grammatical function.

II．

The classical theory of categorization, i.e., the traditional view of categorization, can be characterized with the following points: 1) categorization depends on a fixed set of conditions of features; 2) each condition is absolutely necessary; 3) the conditions are binary (yes-or-no); 4) categories have clear boundaries; and 5) all members of a category are of equal status. According to this theory, everything either fulfils this set of conditions or it does not. If it does, it belongs to the category; otherwise, it does not. Therefore, categories have clear boundaries, and within their boundaries, all members have the same status of full members.

Protype theory of categorization holds that categories do not reflect ‘objective’ assemblies of features; rather, they are approximations consisting of clear, central or ‘prototypical’ members such as *apples, pears* and *oranges* for fruit, and less central or even marginal members such as *avocados, lemons* and *strawberries*. Hence, members of a category do not have equivalent status, and category boundaries are not clear-cut (*nuts* grow on trees, but do not share any of the three basic features). Categories are to some extent also based on ‘family resemblances’. There is also psychological evidence for prototype effects in categorization. Statements about central members are processed far more quickly than statements about marginal members, and reasoning about any category is based on what is known about good examples of the category.

III.

The metaphor is not in the words. People are thinking of, say, that is a metaphorical sentence as if the sense of metaphor is in the words of the sentence. The words of the sentence evoke a conceptual understanding which itself can be metaphorical. A metaphorical sentence evokes a metaphorical understanding.

IV.

Construction grammar assumes that grammatical classes and other constructs are still thought of as a separate level of organization. Many other scholars have pointed to the existence of gestalt-like patterns or ‘established configurations’, which are both simpler to produce and also have meaning relations between the composing parts above their *ad hoc* composition. Such patterns or constructions ‘carry meanings independently of the words in the sentence’. A few instances of very frequently used constructions are the transitive construction, the intransitive construction, the passive construction, the ditransitive construction or double-object construction; less frequent, but still common, are the middle construction (*This book sells well*), the incredulity response construction (*What? Him write a novel?*), the *let-alone* construction, etc.

**Chapter 11**

I.

omitted

II.

According to the logogen model, each word is represented by a logogen in a person’s memory, which is composed of phonological, orthographic or semantic features. The logogen can either from the auditory or the visual input. When the logogen rises to or above the threshold level, the corresponding word can be activated. The cohort model views that lexical access involves three stages: activation, selection, and integration. During the initial activation stage, the first one or two speech segments of the auditory inputs can activate every possible word which begins with the speech segment. As more speech segments unfold, the best matching candidate is selected. This is the selection stage. During integration, features of the selected word, syntactic or semantic, are evaluated to see how well they fit with the prior discourse. The TRACE model includes three processing layers: feature, phoneme and word. When people receive the auditory input, the corresponding phonetic features are activated, and accordingly, the phoneme-level processing units start to become active. An excited phoneme will excite the word unit to which it is connected.

III.

Good enough approach

IV.

The passage mirrors a good example of putting the construction-integration model into listening teaching practice. Listening comprehension is also a process of construction and integration where three levels of mental representations take place: the surface code, the text base, and the situation model. In particular, the researchers point out the importance of comprehension monitoring and theory of mind in listening comprehension. Theory of mind means the ability to infer others’ mental states and predict behavior. According to them, “working memory, vocabulary, and syntactic knowledge were all directly related to higher-order cognitive skills––comprehension monitoring and theory of mind, which, in turn, were directly related to listening comprehension”. The construction-integration model is a useful tool to understand how humans comprehend written discourse, spoken discourse, and perhaps mulitmodal discourse.

V.

Levelt assumes that speech production begins in the conceptualizer. It is in this domain that a message is generated. After the conceptualizer, the preverbal message arrives in the formulator. The output of the formulator is a phonetic plan. This plan is executed through the muscle movements for the articulator. This produces overt speech. In Levelt’s speech production model, there is feedback so that while producing language, a speaker monitors both in the conceptualizer and whether the utterance makes sense. Dell’s language production model distinguishes three levels: semantic, lexical and phonological. It assumes that language production is a process of spreading activation. Different from Levelt’s model which is a serial one, Dell’s model allows information to flow both in a feedforward direction and in a feedback direction.

**Chapter 12**

I.

omitted

II.

There are roughly four stages of language development: cooing and babbling, one-word stage, two-word stage and multi-word stage. (1) babbling. When infants reach approximately six months of age, they utter consonant-vowel sequences (e.g., bababa, dadada) called babbling. (2) one-word stage. When children begin to produce words at about 12 to 18 months, only single words are involved. However, by using intonation and gestures, these words function as if they were sentences. (3) two-word stage. Around the age of one and two years old, children start to combine words. They might say something like *Mommy cry* or *no bed*. (4) multi-word stage. Between two and three years old, the two-word utterances soon become telegraphic. For example, *Aaron go home, Seth play toy*.

III.

In the usage-based approach, language learning is a bottom-up process during which L2 learner moves from entirely specific linguistic constructions (e.g., Laura passed her the book) via item-based schemas (e.g., pass-NP-the book) toward partially or wholly abstract schemas, that is, more abstract linguistic constructions (e.g., pass-NP-NP, or the wholly abstract V-NP-NP). The dynamic developmental trajectory is the cycling process of item-based language learning, schema-abstracting and extension of the schema to new items.

IV.

Conversational interaction in a second language forms the basis for the development of language rather than being only a forum for practice of specific language features. Interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention and output in productive ways.

V.

It is commonly believed that children are better language learners than adults in the sense that young children typically can gain mastery of a second language, whereas adults cannot. This is reflected in what is known as the Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH). There is abundant evidence that individuals generally do not achieve a native-like accent in a second language unless they are exposed to it at an early age. Nevertheless, adults often learn certain parts of a new language more quickly (e.g., early morphological and syntactic development). We need more evidence from observing children and adults who learn different languages to support the above-mentioned research findings.

VI.

1. Some language teaching methodologies are based exclusively on rule memorization and drilling. However, studies in second language acquisition have made language teachers and curriculum designers aware that language learning consists of more than rule memorization. Teachers need to assess the success or failure of their teaching from understanding the process of SLA based on different approaches.