BAPTIST INTERNATIONAL UNIVERSITY

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Class Number

224A1

Class Title

ENGLISH AND THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

Prepared by

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Credits

3

Level

Associate Level

This Syllabus is Approved for
Baptist International University School of the Scriptures

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CLASS 224A ENGLISH AND THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

This class is worth three credits. The class teaches basic language structure, with an emphasis on the structure of the English language. It uses that knowledge to learn about the structure of all other languages. English is chosen as the sample language for a few reasons: 1. English in the most-spoken language in the world, and thus it is perfect for the basis of this study; 2. A better understanding of English will benefit both native speakers and English Language Learners (ELL's); 3. English is both flexible and complicated, so we can learn fundamentally how languages function using this sample language; 4. English is the number one language from which translations are made, and there are reasons for this; and 5. Learning English well should be a priority for all students, teachers, and writers; especially considering the power of the King James Version of the Holy Bible.

This class builds upon Class 216 *Introduction to Langualogy,* so students should complete that class first, as it will assist the student for this class.

This Syllabus can be used in conjunction with other Class Syllabi, which have other teaching.

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ENGLISH AND THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

N. Sebastian Desent, Ph.D., Th.D., D.D.; Pastor, Historic Baptist Church

A Syllabus Approved for Baptist International University School of the Scriptures – 3 Credits.

December 15, 2021

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Let your speech be alway with grace, seasoned with salt, that ye may know how ye ought to answer every man.

Ephesians 4:29
Let no corrupt communication proceed out of your mouth, but that which is good to the use of edifying, that it may minister grace unto the hearers.

Proverbs 25:11
A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold in pictures of silver.

Proverbs 15:2
The tongue of the wise useth knowledge aright: but the mouth of fools poureth out foolishness.

Proverbs 17:7
Excellent speech becometh not a fool: much less do lying lips a prince.

Proverbs 13:2
A man shall eat good by the fruit of his mouth: but the soul of the transgressors shall eat violence.

Proverbs 13:3
He that keepeth his mouth keepeth his life: but he that openeth wide his lips shall have destruction.

Proverbs 18:21
Death and life are in the power of the tongue: and they that love it shall eat the fruit thereof.

Proverbs 15:28
The heart of the righteous studieth to answer: but the mouth of the wicked poureth out evil things.

Matthew 12:32-37
32 And whosoever speaketh a word against the Son of man, it shall be forgiven him: but whosoever speaketh against the Holy Ghost, it shall not be forgiven him, neither in this world, neither in the world to come.
33 Either make the tree good, and his fruit good; or else make the tree corrupt, and his fruit corrupt: for the tree is known by his fruit.
34 O generation of vipers, how can ye, being evil, speak good things? for out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.
35 A good man out of the good treasure of the heart bringeth forth good things: and an evil man out of the evil treasure bringeth forth evil things.
36 But I say unto you, That every idle word that men shall speak, they shall give account thereof in the day of judgment.
37 For by thy words thou shalt be justified, and by thy words thou shalt be condemned.

Mark 16:15
And he said unto them, Go ye into all the world, and preach the gospel to every creature.

Acts 1:8
But ye shall receive power, after that the Holy Ghost is come upon you: and ye shall be witnesses unto me both in Jerusalem, and in all Judaea, and in Samaria, and unto the uttermost part of the earth.

Ephesians 5:3-4
3 But fornication, and all uncleanness, or covetousness, let it not be once named among you, as becometh saints;
4 Neither filthiness, nor foolish talking, nor jesting, which are not convenient: but rather giving of thanks.

Proverbs 23:9
Speak not in the ears of a fool: for he will despise the wisdom of thy words.

Proverbs 21:23
Whoso keepeth his mouth and his tongue keepeth his soul from troubles.

Proverbs 15:23
A man hath joy by the answer of his mouth: and a word spoken in due season, how good is it!

Proverbs 16:1
The preparations of the heart in man, and the answer of the tongue, is from the Lord.

Proverbs 22:21
That I might make thee know the certainty of the words of truth; that thou mightest answer the words of truth to them that send unto thee?

Psalm 141:3 Set a watch, O Lord, before my mouth; keep the door of my lips.

Proverbs 16:24
Pleasant words are as an honeycomb, sweet to the soul, and health to the bones.

Ecclesiastes 10:12
The words of a wise man's mouth are gracious; but the lips of a fool will swallow up himself.

2 Timothy 2:15
Study to shew thyself approved unto God, a workman that needeth not to be ashamed, rightly dividing the word of truth.

Psalm 12:6
The words of the LORD are pure words: as silver tried in a furnace of earth, purified seven times.

Psalm 19:14
Let the words of my mouth, and the meditation of my heart, be acceptable in thy sight, O LORD, my strength, and my redeemer.

Proverbs 1:1-7
1 The proverbs of Solomon the son of David, king of Israel;
2 To know wisdom and instruction; to perceive the words of understanding;
3 To receive the instruction of wisdom, justice, and judgment, and equity;
4 To give subtilty to the simple, to the young man knowledge and discretion.
5 A wise man will hear, and will increase learning; and a man of understanding shall attain unto wise counsels:
6 To understand a proverb, and the interpretation; the words of the wise, and their dark sayings.
7 The fear of the LORD is the beginning of knowledge: but fools despise wisdom and instruction.

Proverbs 8:8
All the words of my mouth are in righteousness; there is nothing froward or perverse in them.

Acts 7:22
And Moses was learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians, and was mighty in words and in deeds.

1 Corinthians 1:17
For Christ sent me not to baptize, but to preach the gospel: not with wisdom of words, lest the cross of Christ should be made of none effect.

1 Corinthians 2:4
And my speech and my preaching was not with enticing words of man's wisdom, but in demonstration of the Spirit and of power:

1 Corinthians 2:13
Which things also we speak, not in the words which man's wisdom teacheth, but which the Holy Ghost teacheth; comparing spiritual things with spiritual.

Introduction

This class analyzes language and language structure. Considering language and language structure, we know God is the first to speak. We know God created language. Recorded in Genesis 1:3 are God's first spoken words for us to read:

> And God said, Let there be light: and there was light.

"Let there be light." Two Hebrew words translated into four words in our English. And to whom was God speaking at the time? Language is two-way communication. We must have a transmitter and a receiver. The Bible does not exactly to whom God was speaking, but we propose God was talking to his creation. Some commentators say God just "thought" the words, but Hebrews 11:3 says: "Through faith we understand that the worlds were framed by the word of God, so that things which are seen were not made of things which do appear." By faith we believe God breathed these words (2 Timothy 3:16).

The sentence, "Let there be light" could have been incorrectly rendered "Let light be there," with "there" being an adverb, and thus giving us a completely different meaning. We see how we must be careful with word order. Thankfully, the remainder of the verse clarifies the correct meaning – "and there was light," thus proving "there" is a subject pronoun (with "light" being the predicate nominative after the copulative – i.e., connecting – verb). God saying, "Let light be," "Become light," or "Let light," is incorrect and just sounds strange in English. The King James translators knew many languages and rendered the verse perfectly.

Jesus said in Matthew 5:16: "Let your light so shine before men, that they may see your good works, and glorify your Father which is in heaven." We simply "let" the light of God shine through us. John 1:6 is similar to Genesis 1:3: "There was a man sent from God, whose name was John." "There was a man…" follows the same form as "there was light."

Almost all modernist translations copy the KJV and say, "Let there be light." The Catholic Douay-Rheims in an exception and says, "Be light made," which sounds ridiculous (especially since there is no Hebrew word for "made" in the verse). Spanish says, *"Sea la luz,"* meaning "Be the Light." French says, *"Que la lumière soit,"* meaning, "Let the light be."

We begin to learn in the third verse of the Bible how God speaks.

We understand the meaning of words because we analyze the sentence structure, usually unconsciously and naturally when the words are supplied in our mother tongue. The sentence structure gives context and define word usage. The minimum requirement for a grammatically correct sentence is for it to have a subject and predicate (it must also have punctuation, capitalization, and sense). Therefore, in John 11:35 when the New Testament says in the shortest verse, "Jesus wept," we have a full and complete sentence with just two words. The meaning of this sentence has filled volumes. John understood sentence structure when he wrote the words. And since he was writing under the movement of the Holy Ghost, we can also assume God knows sentence structure.

In fact, the shortest possible *complete* English sentence is *"I am."* [One can argue that when Jesus said, "Come" to Peter in Matthew 14:29, that this also is a complete one-word sentence (like, "Go," "Yes," and "No"), but the subject is silent. *"You* come" is inferred.] It is interesting that "I am" (John 8:58; Exodus 3:14) is God's name. Again, "I am" is a complete sentence.

Because God created and gave language to man, we will find as we study the structure of language many beautiful intricacies associated with this great gift of God.

Language Study is a Scriptural Study

The study of how to communicate rightly is a scriptural subject. We are given wisdom from Proverbs that speaks thusly:

> Proverbs 25:11 – A word fitly spoken is like apples of gold in pictures of silver.
>
> Proverbs 15:2 – The tongue of the wise useth knowledge aright: but the mouth of fools poureth out foolishness.
>
> Proverbs 17:7 – Excellent speech becometh not a fool: much less do lying lips a prince.
>
> Proverbs 15:28 – The heart of the righteous studieth to answer: but the mouth of the wicked poureth out evil things.

As preachers and teachers, we use words to communicate ideas to others. As individuals, we communicate back and forth with each other. In evangelism, we preach the gospel to all with the expectation that they will receive it. When speaking on the most important things in life – the things of God – we should never communicate in a way that is incorrect or that hinders the proper transference of ideas.

Furthermore, we are told in the Great Commission and elsewhere to "teach all nations" (Matthew 28:18-20), "preach the gospel to every creature" (Mark 16:15), and to be "witnesses … unto the uttermost part of the earth" (Acts 1:8).

To fulfill these commandments of Christ rightly, the study of languages is needed. As we no longer see the gift of tongues poured out as in the days of Pentecost (Acts 2), we must learn to communicate through learning and God's help.

The Patriarchs, the Lord Jesus Christ, and the Apostles Spoke Many Languages

Abraham, Isaac, Jacob, Joseph, Moses, the prophets, and the New Testament writers were all multi-lingual.

The patriarchs mentioned in Genesis mainly spoke Aramaic – it was the main language of Mesopotamia, coming from Aram, the offspring of Shem (Genesis 10:22). Aram's offspring Laban was a Syrian (Genesis 25:20), and both Isaac and Jacob married women from "Padan-aram." Aramaic was the official language of Syria, Assyria, Babylon, and Persia. Aramaic was eventually displaced by Greek as a result of Alexander's conquests. Both Ezra and Daniel have Aramaic (also called Syrian or Syriack) portions, showing Aramaic was the official language of both the Babylonian and Persian kingdoms.

Besides speaking Aramaic, the patriarchs spoke Egyptian. We know this by reading of their conversations in Egypt. Moses was learned in the way of the Egyptians, which included the study of languages.

At the time of Jesus we know he and the apostles spoke Aramaic (Mark 5:41; 15;34, etc.). But they also conversed with Greeks (Mark 7:26; Acts 6:1; 14:21) and Roman officials (Latin, Luke 23:38; John 18:37; Acts 25:10; etc.). We know the New Testament was written in Greek (i.e., *Koine)*. Paul confessed that he spoke with tongues more than did the Corinthians (1 Corinthians 14:18). Notice the sentence structure of Paul's writing – he says he spoke with tongues *more* than the Corinthians did, not that he spoke in more tongues than the Corinthians did. Again, showing the importance of sentence structure.

I thank my God, I speak with tongues more than ye all:

God Wants Every Man to Hear in Their Own "Tongues the Wonderful Works of God."

The passage in Acts 2:4-11 shows God miraculous gift given to the apostles so that they could preach the gospel of Jesus Christ to all those present in Jerusalem:

> 4 And they were all filled with the Holy Ghost, and began to speak with other tongues, as the Spirit gave them utterance.
> 5 And there were dwelling at Jerusalem Jews, devout men, out of every nation under heaven.
> 6 Now when this was noised abroad, the multitude came together, and were confounded, because that every man heard them speak in his own language.
> 7 And they were all amazed and marvelled, saying one to another, Behold, are not all these which speak Galilaeans?
> 8 And how hear we every man in our own tongue, wherein we were born?
> 9 Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites, and the dwellers in Mesopotamia, and in Judaea, and Cappadocia, in Pontus, and Asia,
> 10 Phrygia, and Pamphylia, in Egypt, and in the parts of Libya about Cyrene, and strangers of Rome, Jews and proselytes,
> 11 Cretes and Arabians, we do hear them speak in our tongues the wonderful works of God.

After the apostles' preaching, we know that 3,000 people were saved and baptized. The miracle is Acts 2 was that every man did "hear ... in our tongues" because the apostles "began to speak with other tongues, as the Spirit gave them utterance."

Connecting this passage in Acts with Romans 16:26: "But now is made manifest, and by the scriptures of the prophets, according to the commandment of the everlasting God, made known to all nations for the obedience of faith…"; we know it is the duty of scriptural churches (led by their pastors and teachers) to preach the gospel to every creature and reach every nation with the gospel, through their language. To do this, we need to be people who follow the Lord and learn foreign languages.

We Learn How English Works as a Pattern for Learning Other Languages

Learning language structure in one's mother tongue will help to understand all language structures. Because English is the "universal language," and by this we mean "American" English, we shall use English as the sample language from which to learn language structure.

Interestingly, because 75% of international travelers travel to and from countries whose national language is not English, a "Universal English" has become the international language – or the language most of these travelers use – for communication to one another outside of their country. Rather than a host country learning many foreign languages, they can focus on one language that most of their visitors speak, even if not their mother tongue. We who are native English speakers have an advantage when traveling abroad. The type of international English these travelers learn is American English. We expect the reason for this is that America – a melting-pot of many cultures – has so adapted the English language so all who come to America can learn to communicate quickly, regardless of their mother tongue.

Learning Other Languages

We learn other languages through exposure to that language. Exposure can come in various ways – books, recordings, individuals, actual communities, etc. The best and easiest way to learn a second language is by full immersion in that language culture with no recourse but to speak that tongue for communication.

Immersion in a language allows a person to communicate at the minimum level. After gaining at least a working ability to speak the language; the student can proceed to reading and writing the language. This is how children learn their language.

Learning a Language through Study

The next way to learn a language is through study. The first step in this process is to learn the structure of the language.

To learn the language structure of any language one must learn the structure of their mother tongue first. He should learn the basics of his own language first, then apply these learnings to the other languages.

Native speakers learn their mother tongue naturally and from birth. They are the best speakers of their language. Although a native-speaker may not be able to articulate all the rules of grammar and language structure or know why the language is spoken the way it is spoken, they instinctively know what sounds correct and incorrect. They also have the advantage of knowing the correct pronunciation of words. We admit some sounds are difficult to make. Children raised in their language environment naturally learn all sounds (phonemes) by the age of seven.

For example, English speakers know these pairs sound awkward, but they may not be able to explain why:

- Dad and mom
- Treat or trick
- Cheese and mac
- Jelly and peanut butter
- White and black
- Juliet and Romeo
- Roll and rock
- Abel and Cain
- Jerry and Tom
- Cream and cookies
- Suffering and pain

Another example of language structure is that adjectives in English must be in a certain order. Anytime an adjective is out of this order the sentence sounds strange. This is the order for adjectives:

- Opinion
- Size
- Age
- Shape
- Color
- Origin
- Material
- Purpose

For example: "I have a lovely little old rectangular green French silver whittling knife." Change the word order and the sentence sounds wrong. Green cheap apples do not exist, but cheap green apples do.

Even with similar types of adjectives there are word orders that just "sound right." For example, we name a church "Calvary Bible Baptist Church" not "Bible Baptist Calvary Church" or "Baptist Calvary Bible Church."

With duplexes we put the order in a certain way: "peaches and cream," "bacon and eggs," "biscuits and gravy," "peanut butter and jelly." Why is this? It could be the "and" flows better after the one word than the other, or it could be a learned order, but regardless, our brain tends to make the flow as smooth and effortless as possibly.

The stressing of words in certain ways can change the meaning of a sentence. For example: "She said she went to *the store*," versus "She *said* she went to the store."

We have sayings in English (and in every language) that do not make regular sense, and they do not translate well: "on the dot" for exactly, "bum steer" for being misguided, "stop on a dime" for good brakes, "beat around the bush" for not getting to the point of the conversation, "sawing logs" for sleeping deeply, etc.

These things are learned by exposure to the language. Because linguistics is a science first, then an art; people have studied, analyzed, categorized, defined, and organized language into definable rules and processes that we can use to learn how language functions better. The art in language is confined more to writing style, poetry, song lyrics, and entertainment.

By understanding the way his own language functions, a student can apply that understanding to other languages, learning the similarities and differences.

Language Structure

Structure is how something is put together, assembled, built, or constructed. Structure is the arrangement of and the relations between the parts or elements of something complex.

In respect to language structure, words and sentences have parts that combine in patterns, exhibiting the grammar of the language. Phonology is the study of speech sounds. Studying syntax and semantics involve studying patterns in sentence structure, from the vantages of form and meaning, respectively.

Just as there are right ways to build a truss to bear load over a span, there are right ways to put together words to communicate. Every language has its own correct structure. This structure has commonalities and differences when compared to other languages.

Although expanding one's vocabulary is a good thing to do, learning vocabulary is separate from structuring a grammatically correct thought, sentence, or statement.

Universal Language Structures

All languages have universal structures. Some languages are similar to others – especially when they are part of the same *family* – and some are radically different; but certain structures of the language are the same though the rules may be applied differently. For example all languages, except for sign language, use the human speech organs to make *phonemes* (basic distinct sounds). Phonemes are used to construct *graphemes,* or the smallest sound units in written form. Graphemes are used to construct *morphemes* – the smallest unit of grammar; and morphemes are used to make words, and words are used to make sentences. Sentences convey complex thoughts and ideas.

Next, all languages have words that represent thoughts (nouns, verbs, modifiers, objects, etc.). Words are signals that represent all sorts of things. Words have forms and can be shaped (i.e., "morphed") into other related words. In linguistics, word *Morphology* is the study of the internal structure of words and forms.

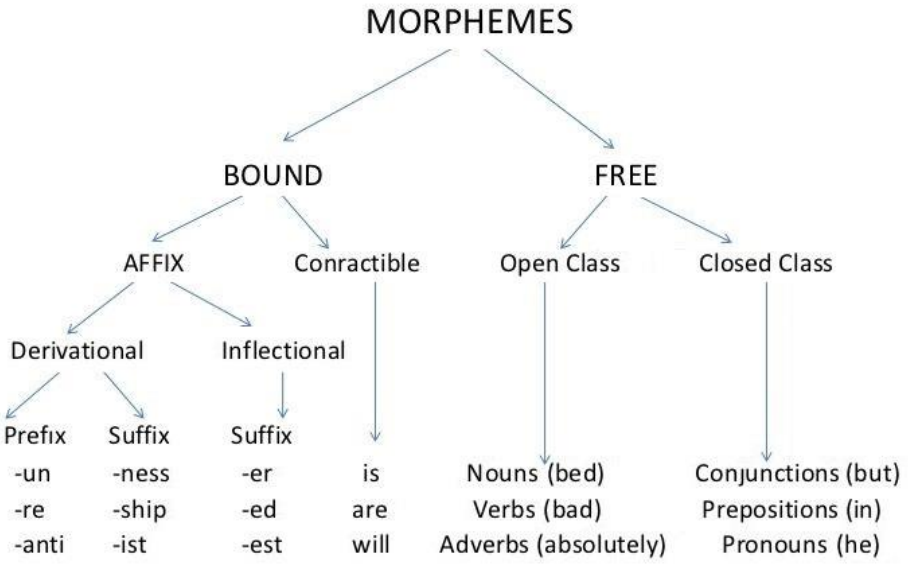
For example, *nonperishable* is made up three morphemes – *non, perish,* and *able*. The base morpheme *perish* is *affixed* by a morpheme before and after, called a *prefix* and *suffix*. *Affixes* are called *bound* morphemes because they must be added to a *free* morpheme.

We find in Morphology that morphemes are either *bound* or *free*. A free morpheme can stand alone as a word – the word *hardly* has a free (hard) and a bound (-ly) morpheme.

We find in Morphology, some words are *inflected* (i.e., a regular changing of a word that is generally applied to every noun and verb, without changing the form class – the part of speech), which are commonly verb tenses and noun plurals – example: dog / dogs or run / ran.

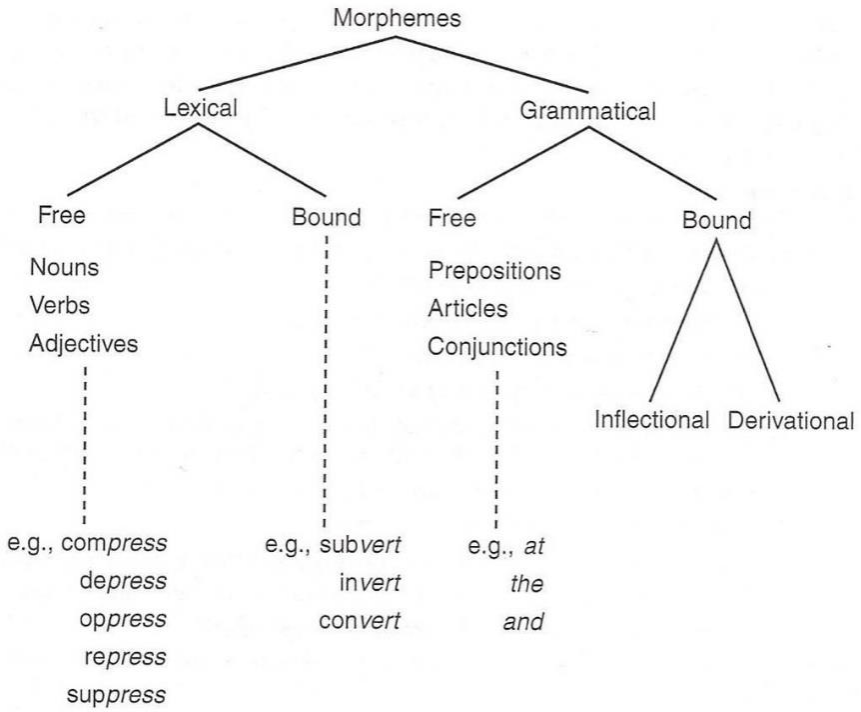
Other words are *derived* (i.e., usually change in form class – going from a verb to a noun, for example, or the formation of related nouns). Examples of derived words are photograph / photography (n. – n.); likelihood / likeliness (n. – n.); running / running (v. – n.); nation / national / nationalize / nationalization (n. – adj. – v. – n.).

Note the diagram below:



We also have *grammatical* and *lexical* morphemes. Lexical morphemes have meaning by themselves (e.g., dog, food, door). Grammatical morphemes specify a relationship between the lexical morphemes (e.g., at, in on, -ed, -s). Lexical meaning is dominant in *content* words. Grammatical meaning is dominant in *function* words. Prepositions, auxiliary verbs, pronouns, articles, conjunctions are grammatical words.

Grammatical words are the little words that connect the lexical words within a sentence.



CLASS 224A ENGLISH AND THE UNIVERSAL LANGUAGE STRUCTURE

All languages have sentences and a corresponding sentence structure, called *syntax*. All languages have sentences in the basic form, in the sense that all sentences have a *subject* and a *predicate*. Sentence structures vary by language, but they all have one. For example, SVO (subject – verb – object) and SOV (subject – object – verb) grammatical structures make up 85% of the world languages.

All languages have grammar rules. All languages use various rhetorical devices. All languages have questions and statements although punctuation and word order vary. All languages communicate ideas. All languages have nouns, verbs, and modifiers. All languages have words for common things (e.g., mother, father, water, sleep, eat, etc.).

Language Basics

In this three-credit class we look at language basics and language structure, and we look at systems to compare languages. Most languages have alphabets, grammar rules, proper spelling, etc. These rules can be learned.

Reasons to Learn Universal Language Structure

There are several practical reasons to study the subject of language structure. The reasons include:

- Aid the student in learning about his own language so he can be a better communicator overall.
- Help the student better understand the word of God.
- Give the student a better understanding of the power of the gift of tongues.
- The student can work so that every man can hear in his own tongue the wonderful works of God.
- Aid the student in understanding foreign languages.
- Aid the student in learning new languages.
- Aid the student in comparing scripture translations.
- Aid the student in translating the scriptures.
- Aid the student in preaching, teaching, and writing in his own language.
- Aid in the student in preaching, teaching, and writing in other languages.
- Help the student to speak, read, and write better by identifying word order, rhetorical devices, word usage, etc.

The English Language

There are reasons why English is the most spoken and the most taught language. There is a reason why English is the main language from which translations are made. And although English is not the easiest language to learn (nor is it the most difficult to learn), once learned in its basic form, speakers can continually learn to improve the way they speak and write the language.

The Flexibility of the English Language

One advantage of English is that even if spoken poorly the sense is understood. ELL's can learn to communicate in English quickly, just by putting words together. For example, "I door run quickly" is not grammatically correct, but it is still understood.

This is one reason why English can be quickly learned to communicate.

Even with a grammatically correct sentences, there is flexibility in word order. These are all grammatically correct sentences (although we admit most would be written, not spoken):

- I run quickly to the door.
- I run to the door quickly.
- I quickly run to the door.
- I, quickly, to the door run.
- I, to the door, quickly run.
- Quickly, I run to the door.
- Quickly, to the door I run.
- Quickly, to the door, run I.
- To the door, I quickly run.
- To the door, quickly I run.
- To the door, run I quickly.
- To the door, quickly run I.

However the words are arranged, the communication is still clear.

English is Somewhat Difficult to Learn

Even native speakers struggle to speak English correctly. Most speakers have trouble with the syntax and all the rules, pronunciations, exceptions to the rules, punctuation, etc.

For example, the phrases *"I love only you"* (you are the only person I love) versus *"Only I love you,"* (no person but me loves you) and *"I only love you"* (I do not love anything else but you); mean different things by the mere placement of the adverb "only."

Much difficulty in English comes from word pronunciations and spelling. Although the English alphabet has 26 characters, the language has 44 phonemes:

- Five short vowel sounds: short a, short e, short i, short o, short u
- Five long vowel sounds: long a, long e, long i, long o, long u
- Two other vowel sounds: oo, o͞o͞
- Five r-controlled vowel sounds: ar, ār, ir, or, ur
- Eighteen consonant sounds: b, d, f, g, h, j, k, l, m, n, p, r, s, t, v, w, y, z
- Seven digraphs: th (unvoiced), th (voiced), ng, sh, ch, zh, wh
- Two vowel diphthongs: ow, oy

These phonemes are sounds, but the sounds can be written in many different forms:

- Phone – f sound by ph
- Rough – f sound by gh
- Xenon – z sound by x

Some letters are silent:

- Ought – ugh is silent
- Sioux – io-x is silent
- Worcester – rce is silent
- Arkansas – last s is silent

Pluralizing words have different rules:

- Leaf / leaves
- Foot / feet
- One deer / two deer
- Horse / horses
- Mouse / mice
- House / houses

The English language uses contractions:

- Can't
- Isn't
- Won't

English uses homonyms:

- Gate / gait
- Pear / pair
- Heard / herd

English words can have multiple meanings:

- Pick / pick
- Chair / chair
- Cast / cast

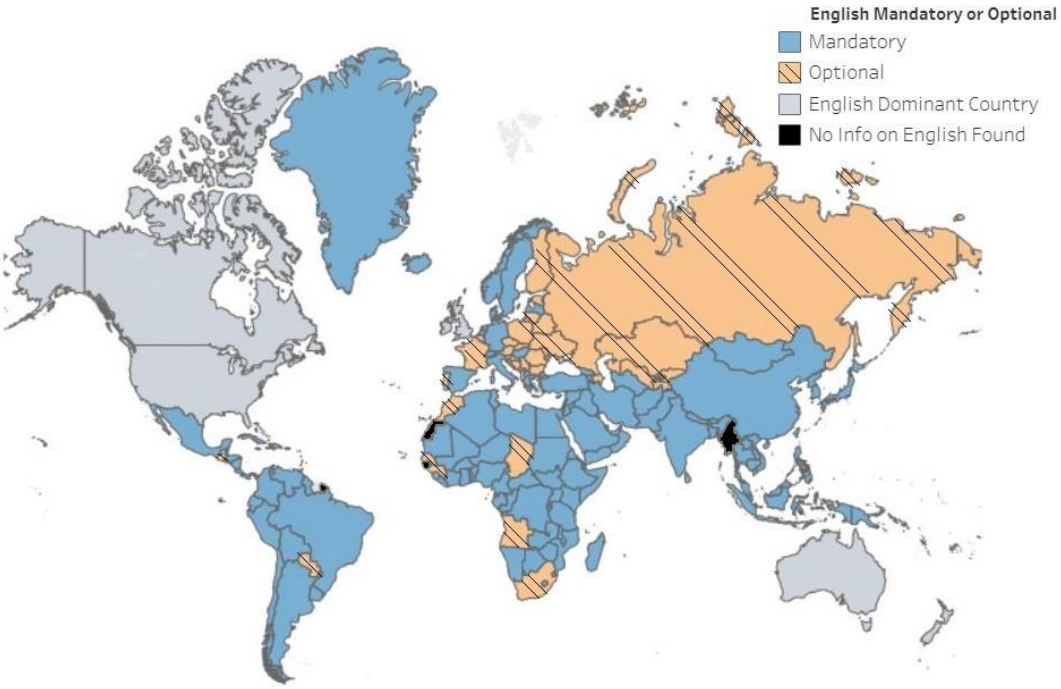
English uses the same word for nouns and verbs:

- School / school
- Fish / fish
- Cup / cup
- Spear / spear
- Love / love

English is a Universal Language

Even with all the difficulties that some may have with learning the language, English is widely spoken and taught. It is the most common language. 1.35 billion people speak English. Most of the world either teaches English mandatorily or optionally. Notice that in the map below that all of the world has some program for

teaching English. The few small black areas mean there is no information on English, not that the language is not taught.



The vast majority of international communication systems uses English. It is called EIL – English International Language. Additionally, over 50 countries claim English as national language. Basically, English is a global language because it is the one language that is spoken and understood by most of the population in almost every region of the world.

English is the major language in these international areas:

- Business
- Trade
- Commerce
- Industry
- Manufacturing
- Diplomacy
- International relations
- Travel
- Science
- Medicine
- Education
- Publishing
- Literature
- Translation
- Air traffic
- Computers

- Internet (55% of the Internet's content in English)
- Trends
- Media and Entertainment
- Culture

As previously mentioned, 75% of international travelers are from non-English-speaking countries who visit other non-English-speaking countries. These travelers tend to communicate in English, as it is the standard for international travel communication. This shows the growing need to learn English. Interestingly, this *International English* is also known as *American English.* American English is that style of English that comes from a country full of immigrants who learned to speak that style of English. We can say it is a style of English that is easily learned and used. Now, add to this the fact that most migration is to English-speaking countries. Consequently, for all the reasons stated, English speakers have an international advantage far above any other language.

English Language is Adaptable

English is a Germanic language in its grammar, syntax, and key vocabulary. About 30% of English words are Anglo Saxon, but they make up around 70% of those used in common conversation. The top ten most used verbs – be, have, do, say, make, go, take, come, see, get – are all irregular in that they do not follow the standard pattern of conjugation. These verbs are survivors from old English.

What makes the English language flexible, however, is that it borrows heavily from other languages – particularly Latin, Greek, and French. Words borrowed into English are either integrated through usage or they disappear after time.

English is the Perfect Language to Show Universal Language Structure

For the reasons above we find English is the perfect language to study language structure. The study is profitable because many people already know English (or some English), many people are learning English, and many people want to learn English.

The study of English is profitable because it shows the many rules and exceptions, the difficulties, the simplicities, and the flexibility of the language, and its similarity to other languages. English is the perfect candidate to use as the model language.

Furthermore, learning the English language structure will help students in their understanding of the Bible and Bible-related studies.

The Epitome of All literature is in English

The King James Version was written at the apex of English literary scholarship and expression. The reason it is still the most popular and printed book is because knowledgeable people know the power of God when they see it. No other written work even comes close.

The King James Version is God's eternal, inspired, word. The King James Version has preserved God's word for the world for over 400 years.

Additionally, the KJV has the absolute perfection of word usage. The KJV shows the utmost beauty of the English language structure, and reading this version makes scholars of mean men.

The accuracy of the translation and the divine subject of its translation makes the study of this Book the best use of one's time.

Comparing Languages

Analyzing and comparing languages is necessary when studying the universal structure of language. In this class we compare languages in various ways to learn how some differ and some are alike. The areas of similarity and dissimilarity we show between two languages can be used when comparing any languages. Students who know more than one language can analyze and document the differences using their own known languages.

The Nature of this Class

We readily admit that much of the information presented in this class comes from the study of linguistics and not from the Bible directly. However, the word of God teaches that a wise man will indeed learn to speak and communicate rightly. The man of God will preach the word at home and abroad. The man of God will be "mighty in words and in deeds" (Acts 7:22). And just as we understand the need for a man to be literate so he can *read* the Bible, we say a man should know language structure so he can *study* the Bible (2 Timothy 2:15). A student of the word of God can only benefit from understanding language structure, especially if he is to preach the word to every creature.

During his missionary journeys Paul preached the gospel to every creature. Paul said in 1 Corinthians 14:18: "I thank my God, I speak with tongues more than ye all…." Paul knew how to structure sentences in many languages.

From this class, the student should learn to do the following things:

- Understand the power and universality of the English language.
- Learn general language structure using English as the sample language.
- Facilitate learning other languages by learning how language works.
- Improve his English understanding.
- Improve his writing ability.
- Improve his speaking and rhetorical abilities
- Improve his knowledge of the English language

A teacher should understand the scriptural application of this class and convey such understanding to his students.

All Teachers are Writers, and All Writers are Teachers

This is a well-known saying of Don Fraser, showing the need for students and teachers alike to be writers. Especially when writing about the things of God, we must do this writing carefully with the reader in mind. For this reason we include a lesson on writing.

Additional Reading

We offer additional reference materials with this class. These references include a basic *English Grammar*, and books entitled *Complete English Grammar Rules, Teaching English as a Foreign Language, A Dash of Style, Grammar by Diagram, The Oxford Essential Guide to Writing, The Cambridge Guide to English Usage,* and *English Grammar*. These resources are available to the teacher as needed. Additionally, Class 224J is an *Appendix* that lists 1,700 words in English that come from Greek and Latin roots. Students can benefit just from reading the list. Here are these resources listed:

- Class 224B English Grammar Understanding the Basics
- Class 224C Complete English Grammar Rules
- Class 224D Teaching English as a Foreign Language
- Class 224E A Dash of Style
- Class 224F Grammar by Diagram
- Class 224G The Oxford Essential Guide to Writing
- Class 224H The Cambridge Guide to English Usage
- Class 224I English Grammar
- Class 224J Appendix 1 – 1,700 Greek and Latin Root Words

Langualogy and its Connection to Love Commandment Doctrine

We are commanded to go into all the world, to all nations, to every creature; to preach the word of God. We communicate the gospel by languages. To be obedient to God's commandments we must learn to speak with other tongues. I believe God will enable his children to learn languages when they learn for the right reasons. Having a love for the lost is shown by trying to win them to Christ – even if you must learn their language. Missionaries do this every day.

Communicating the gospel is the highest form of verbal communication. Communicating the gospel to every creature is the highest form of love. Communicating the gospel in any language should be done with the highest degree of accuracy.

How to Use This Syllabus

As with all *Baptist International* syllabi, the amount of teaching material included in this class is more than sufficient to meet the accreditation standards for university credit.

Furthermore, the material is applicable for all students regardless of their level of scholarship – beginner or advanced. This means the teacher should use the material as he sees fit for each student, covering, or not covering, whatever information he deems appropriate for the student. The teacher does not have to cover "every jot and tittle" with every student. We rely upon the Holy Ghost and common sense when teaching.

In this syllabus one will notice there is some degree of repetition and overlap as he progresses through the lessons. Consequently, a teacher can expect to cover certain topics more than once. The material is arranged in this manner for a few reasons:

1. The nature of the material demands certain subjects to be mentioned more than once.

2. As we investigate different aspects of the subject certain terms are reused and reviewed for clarity. Because we anticipate the lessons are taught week-to-week, students will need some review when they start a new lesson. This "overlap" has proved to be helpful in setting the stage for teaching the lessons.

3. *Repetition is the mother of learning.* As teachers and students progress through the teaching material, certain things will be reinforced by repetition.

4. Because we anticipate some lessons will be passed over – because they are too easy or hard for the student. Therefore we mention certain important topics more than once. It is unlikely that any teaching method would pass over at least these important topics.

5. We have researched different topics from different sources. Because the topics are connected, each particular topic tends to redefine the terms used.

6. Many times we introduce a subject in one lesson, and then go into the subject in more detail is a subsequent class.

As a teacher or student reads through this syllabus, he should purpose to assimilate the information the best he can for his level of understanding. If a topic appears too hard, too long, or too involved to be used, the man can pass over the material with only a brief look. There should be some effort put forth to benefit from the lesson, even if it is simply reading new words.

Lastly, learning to speak and write well in any language is a good and profitable effort. God's Word is always written well – whether it was written by Moses who was "learned in all the wisdom of the Egyptians and was mighty in words and in deeds" (Acts 7:22), or by Solomon, the wisest man who spoke a thousand parables, or by Ezra, who was a ready scribe (Ezra 7:6, 11), or by the Apostle Paul, who was brought up "at the feet of Gamaliel and taught according to the perfect manner of the law" (Acts 22:3). Luke was a physician (Colossians 4:14), Matthew was an accountant (tax collector – Matthew 9:9; 10:3) – men of education. And although many scripture writers were fisherman, shepherds, and men of humble work; we know from reading their works that each one wrote God's inspired word *perfectly, properly*, and *profitably.*

Furthermore, the King James Version of the Bible is the epitome of perfectness of writing in the English language. From all the evidence mentioned above we are convinced our God uses perfect speech and writing. We as servants of God should strive toward this perfection.

Anything worth saying, should be said well.

Lesson 1: The Origin of Language

I. God Created Language

A. Genesis 1:3 – And God said, Let there be light: and there was light.
B. "God said" used 10 times in Genesis chapter 1
C. Exodus 4:11 – And the LORD said unto him, Who hath made man's mouth? or who maketh the dumb, or deaf, or the seeing, or the blind? have not I the LORD?
D. 12 Now therefore go, and I will be with thy mouth, and teach thee what thou shalt say.

II. God Created Adam with the Ability to Speak

A. Genesis 2:18 – And the LORD God said, It is not good that the man should be alone; I will make him an help meet for him.
B. 19 And out of the ground the LORD God formed every beast of the field, and every fowl of the air; and brought them unto Adam to see what he would call them: and whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof.
C. 20 And Adam gave names to all cattle, and to the fowl of the air, and to every beast of the field; but for Adam there was not found an help meet for him.
D. 21 And the LORD God caused a deep sleep to fall upon Adam and he slept: and he took one of his ribs, and closed up the flesh instead thereof;
E. 22 And the rib, which the LORD God had taken from man, made he a woman, and brought her unto the man.
F. 23 And Adam said, This is now bone of my bones, and flesh of my flesh: she shall be called Woman, because she was taken out of Man.
G. Adam knew words (language ability)
H. Adam created words (expandable language)
I. Adam adapted the language as he found himself in differing environments – garden, fall, conscience, as things were invented or discovered, etc.)

III. God Confounded the Language to Make Many Languages

A. Genesis 11:1 – And the whole earth was of one language, and of one speech.
B. 2 And it came to pass, as they journeyed from the east, that they found a plain in the land of Shinar; and they dwelt there.
C. 3 And they said one to another, Go to, let us make brick, and burn them throughly. And they had brick for stone, and slime had they for morter.
D. 4 And they said, Go to, let us build us a city and a tower, whose top may reach unto heaven; and let us make us a name, lest we be scattered abroad upon the face of the whole earth.
E. 5 And the LORD came down to see the city and the tower, which the children of men builded.
F. 6 And the LORD said, Behold, the people is one, and they have all one language; and this they begin to do: and now nothing will be restrained from them, which they have imagined to do.
G. 7 Go to, let us go down, and there confound their language, that they may not understand one another's speech.

H. 8 So the LORD scattered them abroad from thence upon the face of all the earth: and they left off to build the city.
I. 9 Therefore is the name of it called Babel; because the LORD did there confound the language of all the earth: and from thence did the LORD scatter them abroad upon the face of all the earth.

IV. Language Changes Following the Culture

A. Social Linguistics
B. Language evolves, adapts, changes based on culture
C. Language and culture are inseparable
D. Colloquialisms and word usage vary depending on culture

V. Culture Speaker Changes Following the Language

A. The Sociology of Language
B. Language affects culture either positively or negatively
C. The King James Bible affects a culture positively
D. Culture includes: family, church, neighborhood, business, government, education, music, science, etc.
E. English is a world-wide language because of its ability to be used in every aspect of a culture.
F. Things like Popular music, modern trends, entertainment, sports, etc.; interest people and English drives these things.

Lesson 2: The Definition of Language

I. Languages and Shared Communication

A. Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols used by people in a shared culture to communicate with each other.
B. A language both reflects and affects a culture's way of thinking, and changes in a culture influence the development of its language.
C. Related languages become more differentiated when their speakers are isolated from each other.
D. When speech communities come into contact (e.g., through trade or conquest), their languages influence each other.
E. Most existing languages are grouped with other languages descended "genetically" from a common ancestral language (see historical linguistics).
F. The broadest grouping of languages is the language family.
G. For example, all the Romance languages are derived from Latin, which in turn belongs to the Italic branch of the Indo-European language family, descended from the ancient parent language, Proto-Indo-European.
H. Other major families include, in Asia, Sino-Tibetan, Austronesian, Dravidian, Altaic, and Austroasiatic; in Africa, Niger-Congo, Afro-Asiatic, and Nilo-Saharan; and in the Americas, Uto-Aztecan, Maya, Otomanguean, and Tupian.
I. Relationships between languages are traced by comparing grammar and syntax and especially by looking for cognates (related words) in different languages.
J. Language has a complex structure that can be analyzed and systematically presented (see linguistics).
K. All languages begin as speech, and many go on to develop writing systems.
L. All languages can employ different sentence structures to convey mood.
M. The principal resources are word order, word form, syntactic structure, and, in speech, intonation.
N. Different languages keep indicators of number, person, gender, tense, mood, and other categories separate from the root word or attach them to it.
O. The innate human capacity to learn language fades with age, and languages learned after about age 10 are usually not spoken as well as those learned earlier.

II. The Four Basic Language Skills

A. Another way to describe language is in terms of the four basic language skills:

- Listening
- Speaking
- Reading
- Writing.

B. In your teaching, you will need to all four of these skills.
C. Learning a language usually progresses in the order above.

III. Language Definitions

A. People transmit knowledge by language:

- Sign (picture) language
- Vocal (spoken) language
- Symbolic (written) language

B. Language is a system of sounds, words, and patterns used to communicate thoughts and feelings.

C. Language is the most powerful means of communication. Language is communication, and communication is language.

D. Some things about language:

- Language is verbal and vocal – sound
- Language is the means of communication
- Language is a social phenomenon – a social institution.
- Culture and language are joined.
- Language is acquired, and man was created to learn language.
- Language is largely arbitrary – the sounds we assign to things usually have no logical or inherent relationship.
- Language is symbolic, and we use symbols to replace thoughts – they are substitutions for ideas.

Lesson 3: Language and Genetics

I. Language and Human Genetics

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Genetic methods have revolutionized research into many aspects of languages, including the tracing of their origins. Gene variants underlie individual language skills. Genetic predisposition might favor the evolution of structural features of languages.

Humans have a unique natural ability to develop highly complex linguistic systems – an ability that lies in our genes but is also shaped by our different environments. We can learn languages from others and use them to share our thoughts, feelings and desires; languages are the foundation of society, culture and science. So it is perhaps not surprising that all aspects of language – including structure, global distribution, acquisition, processing in the brain, role in thought and actions, and links with culture and education – can be considered to be important subjects of research.

What is so special about our genetic make-up that allows us to use language? How does this ability relate to other higher cognitive functions, like human memory and mathematical or musical ability? Until recently, it has been hard to even pose these questions. The past few years, however, have seen the rapid development of methods to analyze genes quickly and relatively cheaply. At last we can begin to study the genetic basis of human cognition and, hence, language. Three examples of ongoing research are described here.

Language processing

The human genome does not 'create' languages; however, it does direct the organization of the human brain and some peripheral organs that are prerequisites for the language system and is probably responsible for the significant differences in language skills between individuals. At the extremes are people with extraordinary gifts for learning many languages and undertaking simultaneous interpretation, and people with severe congenital speech disorders.

Exciting early results have identified a gene underlying one form of speech disorder known as verbal dyspraxia. This serious impairment is characterized by problems in articulation, along with other linguistic symptoms. Genetic studies of an English family with verbal dyspraxia have shown that the condition results from a mutation in the gene, known as FOXP2 (Fig. 1) – located on chromosome 7, which affects the language areas of the brain via several intermediate steps. Although this speech deficit is rare, it now seems that the same genetic mechanism could play a role in other, much more common congenital speech pathologies.

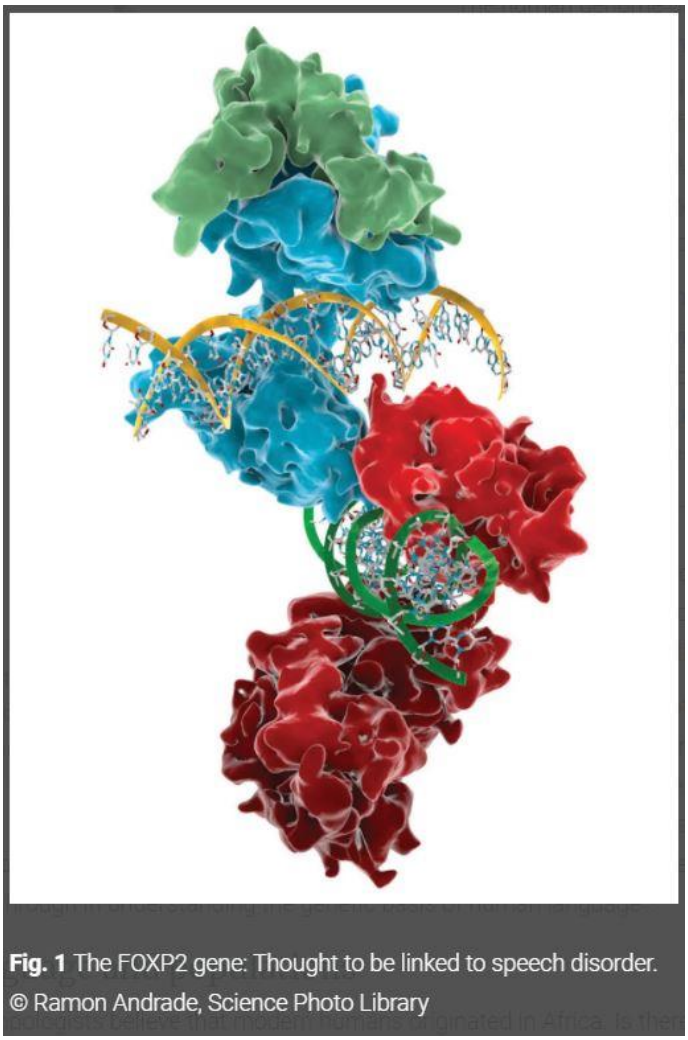

Fig. 1 The FOXP2 gene: Thought to be linked to speech disorder.
© Ramon Andrade, Science Photo Library

However, FOXP2 is not a 'language gene' – that is a term coined by the media. The same mutation also affects the liver for example, and the non-mutated gene is found in many other animals, such as the mouse, which do not speak. Rather, it is one of many genetic components important in the development of language ability. Nevertheless, its discovery was the first small breakthrough in understanding the genetic basis of human language.

Language and populations

Anthropologists believe that modern humans originated in Africa. [Editor: The Bible says Mesopotamia was the birthplace of civilization.] Is there a link between the spread of languages and the genetic differences between the peoples who speak them?

Recent research using modern scientific methods has thrown up some surprises. One of the most interesting shows how genetic and linguistic classifications of populations can diverge. Most European languages belong to the Indo-European group. Two notable exceptions are Basque, which is relatively isolated, and the Finno-Ugric languages, in particular Finnish. Modern Finns have been found to be genetically close to Indo-Europeans, but genetically different from their Saami neighbours whose language is also Finno-Ugric.

One study is examining the effect of contact between prehistoric populations with different sociocultural backgrounds in different locations, particularly Africa and Siberia, on language and genetics. The types of contact that occurred are unknown, so it is hard to assess their consequences using only linguistic methods. Molecular genetic analyses can help spot a bottleneck, or founder effect, that might indicate a mixing of different populations, or reveal discrepancies between genetic and language relationships indicative of recent language drift.

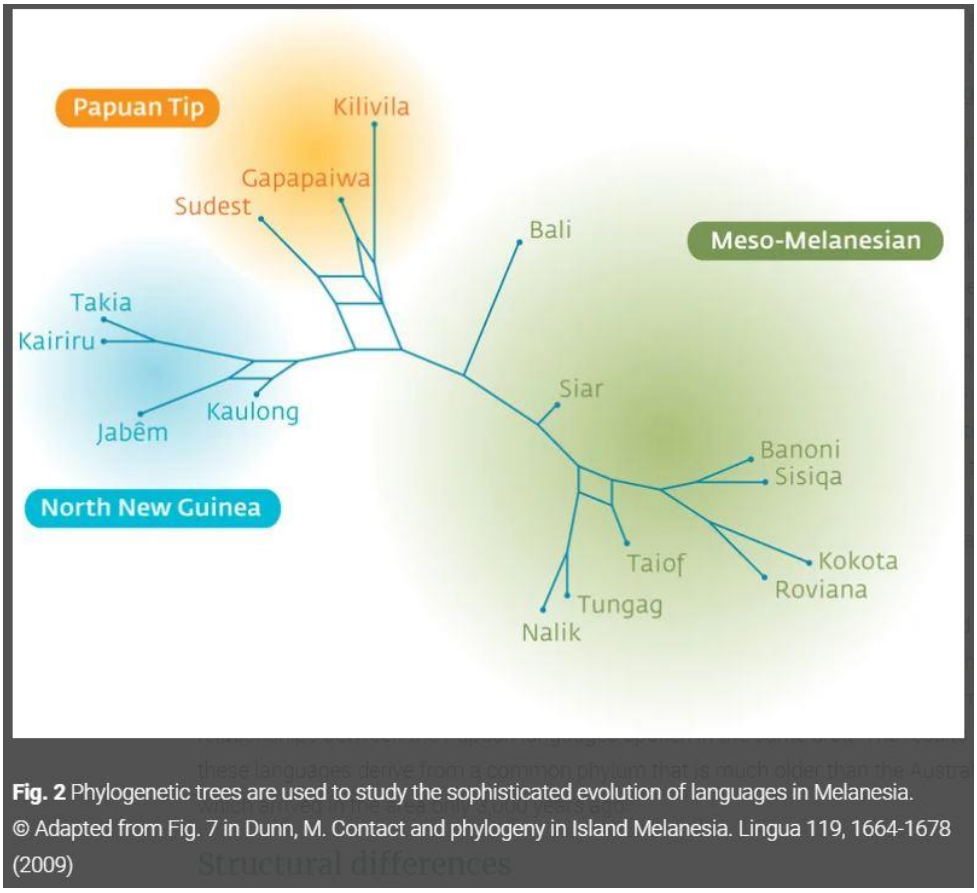

Fig. 2 Phylogenetic trees are used to study the sophisticated evolution of languages in Melanesia.
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the sophisticated evolution of languages in Melanesia.
© Adapted from Fig. 7 in Dunn, M. Contact and phylogeny in Island Melanesia.
Lingua 119, 1664-1678 (2009)

Another study is addressing the development and spread of languages over larger geographical areas. The traditional methods of comparative historical linguistics, based primarily on similarities in vocabulary, can make sense of language evolution over only the past few thousand years at most. The new project adapts the widely used methods of evolutionary genetics – namely, the construction of phylogenetic trees (Fig. 2) – with the phonological, morphological, and syntactic features of language as raw data, primarily to study the sophisticated languages and peoples of Melanesia (an area covering most of the islands north and northeast of Australia).

The methods were developed and tested on a small well-researched subgroup of Austronesian languages and are now being applied to the much more complex relationships between the Papuan languages spoken in the same area. The results suggest that these languages derive from a common phylum that is much older than the Australian languages, which arrived in the area only 3,000 years ago.

Structural differences

Even though languages are not inborn, a specific genetic predisposition within a group of genetically similar individuals might influence the evolution of particular structural features of a language. Tonal languages, for example, like Chinese, are different from non-tonal languages (like German).

Languages are not inborn. There are approximately 7,000 languages in the world today and learning any one of them is a lengthy process that takes around a decade. There is no reason why a Chinese child growing up in Germany should learn to speak German any worse than a German child or a child of any other nationality. A specific genetic predisposition, however, might influence the evolution of particular structural features of a language within a group of genetically similar individuals, for example whether the language is tonal or non-tonal.

Chinese is perhaps the most well-known of the tonal languages, in which a single syllable can convey different meanings according to whether it is spoken in a consistent tone or a rising, rising–falling or falling tone. The distribution of tonal and non-tonal languages corresponds closely with the distribution of two alleles, or forms, of the abnormal spindle-like microcephaly-associated (ASPM) and microcephalin genes. Of course, alleles by themselves do not directly lead to the evolution and use of tonal languages; children with different forms of the genes will still be able to learn tonal languages. A particular genetic predisposition in a population, however, might favor the emergence of languages with particular structural characteristics. It is now possible to study whether there might also be a genetic predisposition to other structural properties, like poverty or richness of inflexion.

Science historians are familiar with the power of new technologies to revolutionize science. We are standing before an advance that will feel particularly close to

home. Over the next decade or so, we can expect new genomics technologies to further our understanding of one quintessential aspect of being human: language.

The languages of the world, which form part of and are the main bearers of cultures, are highly diverse. The capacity to develop, learn and use them, however, belongs to our shared genetic heritage. These aspects of language are researched intensively at the Max Planck Institutes for Psycholinguistics, Evolutionary Anthropology, and Human Cognitive and Brain Sciences.

II. Language Genetics (Genealogical Relationship) is Different than Human Genetics

A. Genetic relationship or genealogical relationship, in linguistics, is the relationship between languages that are members of the same language family.
B. Two languages are considered to be genetically related if one is descended from the other or if both are descended from a common ancestor.
C. For example, the Romance languages are all descended from the spoken Latin of ancient Rome, and so languages like Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, and French are said to be genetically related to one another as well as to Latin.
D. Similarly, Danish, Swedish, and Norwegian are genetically related as members of the North Germanic language family because of their shared descent from Ancient Norse.
E. The Romance languages and the North Germanic languages are both subfamilies of the Indo-European language family since both Latin and Old Norse are believed to be descended from an even more ancient language, Proto-Indo-European, and are therefore genetically related to each other as well.
F. The traditional term genetic relationship is increasingly replaced by genealogical relationship in recent literatureto avoid confusion with the unrelated use of the term in biological genetics.

III. Using Historical or the Comparative Method to Identify Ancestor Languages

A. In some cases, such as the Romance and North Germanic examples described above, the shared derivation of a group of related languages from a common ancestor is attested in the historical record.
B. In other cases, genetic relationships between languages are established through use of the comparative method of linguistic analysis.
C. In order to test the hypothesis that two languages are related, the comparative method begins with the collection of pairs of words that are hypothesized to be cognates: i.e., words in related languages that are derived from the same word in the shared ancestral language.
D. Pairs of words that have similar pronunciations and meanings in the two languages are often good candidates for hypothetical cognates.
E. The researcher must rule out the possibility that the two words are similar merely due to chance, or due to one having borrowed the words from the other (or from a language related to the other).
F. Chance resemblance is ruled out by the existence of large collections of pairs of words between the two languages showing similar patterns of phonetic similarity.
G. Once coincidental similarity and borrowing have been eliminated as possible explanations for similarities in sound and meaning of words, the last explanation is common origin: it is

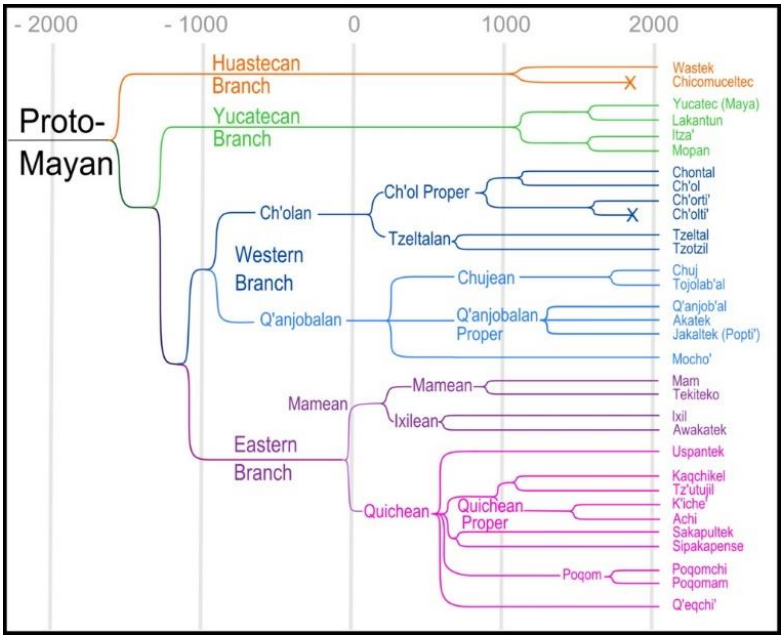
inferred that the similarities occurred due to descent from a common ancestor, and the words are actually cognates, implying the languages must be related.

IV. Linguistic Interference and Borrowing

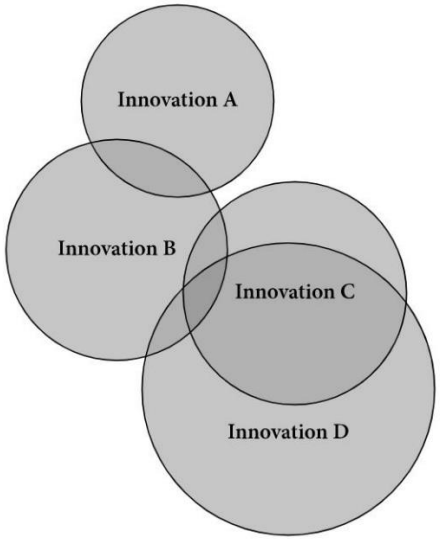
A. When languages are in contact with one another, either of them may influence the other through linguistic interference such as borrowing.
B. For example, French has influenced English, Arabic has influenced Persian, Sanskrit has influenced Tamil, and Chinese has influenced Japanese in this way.
C. However, such influence does not constitute (and is not a measure of) a genetic relationship between the languages concerned. Linguistic interference can occur between languages that are genetically closely related, between languages that are distantly related (like English and French, which are distantly related Indo-European languages) and between languages that have no genetic relationship.

V. Visual Representation

A. A common visual representation of a language family is given by a genetic language tree.
B. The tree model is sometimes termed a dendrogram or phylogeny.
C. The family tree shows the relationship of the languages within in a family, much as a family tree of an individual shows their relationship with their relatives.
D. There are criticisms to the family tree model. Critics focus mainly on the claim that the internal structure of the trees is subject to variation based on the criteria of classification.
E. Even among those who support the family tree model, there are debates over which languages should be included in a language family.
F. For example, within the dubious Altaic language family, there are debates over whether the Japonic and Koreanic languages should be included or not.



G. The wave model has been proposed as an alternative to the tree model.
H. The wave model uses isoglosses to group language varieties; unlike in the tree model, these groups can overlap.
I. While the tree model implies a lack of contact between languages after derivation from an ancestral form, the wave model emphasizes the relationship between languages that remain in contact, which is more realistic.
J. Historical glottometry is an application of the wave model, meant to identify and evaluate genetic relations in linguistic linkages.



Lesson 4: Linguistics

I. Definition of Linguistics

A. Linguistics is the study of language.
B. Linguistics shows us the way we communicate.
C. Linguistics involves examining aspects of language like structure, nature, and evolution.

II. Language is Everywhere

A. In the books we read.
B. In the messages we send.
C. On the signs we see.
D. In our private thoughts.
E. Language is one of the most essential components of human community, communication, and daily life.

III. Background on Linguistics

A. Linguistic study goes back at least as far as fifth century B.C.E. to an Indian scholar named Panini, who recorded the rules of Sanskrit grammar.
B. Citizens of ancient Greece also studied language structure in order to strengthen understanding and expression of philosophy and criticism.
C. The study of linguistics in the modern sense is believed to have begun in the 19th century.
D. One of the brothers behind Grimm's Fairy Tales, Jacob Grimm, built upon work done by Danish scholar Rasmus Rask to write a study of the Indo-European origins of the German language.
E. Future linguists further added to these studies in order to learn how a single language gave birth to languages spoken throughout Europe and parts of Asia.
F. This language of origin, or protolanguage, was called Indo-European, and over the years linguists have identified and organized several hundred Indo-European languages into branches of a vast linguistic family tree, all originating in the Indo-European protolanguage.
G. In the second half of the 20th century, the theory that most languages have numerous, significant similarities became increasingly popular.
H. The American linguist Noam Chomsky suggested that this might be because the human brain is specifically "pre-wired" to understand language in a common way.
I. Chomsky's theories as well as the work of other linguists continue to shape how we understand the evolution of language and the relationship between human brains and the diverse languages we speak.

IV. The Use of Linguistics

A. In essence, linguists are scientists.

B. They use the scientific method to conduct research to determine the history and functions of language.
C. They direct formal studies that examine the sounds of speech, grammar, and vocabulary, and identify similarities and common characteristics.
D. They use these characteristics to trace human language back to its origins to get a sense of its history and development over time and space.
E. They then classify languages into various families based on their shared history and characteristics.
F. By helping the world understand how language has evolved over the millennia and how the many languages of the world are interrelated to each other, linguists help us better understand human history, culture, and development.

V. Language and Linguistics

A. One cannot separate language from literature, or politics, etc.
B. Linguists study the individual human languages and linguistic behavior in order to discover the fundamental properties of this general human language.
C. The importance of language and languages goes beyond internal structure, extending to almost all human endeavors.
D. Language, being a human activity, is social in nature; hence, linguistics is usually classified as a *social science*.
E. Because languages can only be studied through human behavior, linguistics is further classified as a *behavioral science*; and because language is essentially mental, linguistics is also a *cognitive science*.
F. There are many ways to study language scientifically.
G. The most traditional, with its roots going back thousands of years to the Classical Greek and even Classical Sanskrit grammarians, is called ***Descriptive Linguistics***.

VI. Descriptive Linguistics

A. The goal of Descriptive Linguistics is to provide an explicit description of a language (often called a grammar).
B. A linguist's grammar is unlike what we learned in grade school, is never *prescriptive*: it does not dictate how a language should be (proper language) but instead draws on the actual linguistic behavior of speakers.
C. A descriptive linguist will spend considerable time in the field, learning from the speakers of the language and sometimes writing the language down for the first time.

VII. Theoretical Linguistics

A. Theoretical Linguistics, of which there are many varieties, seeks to provide explicit general principles that are applicable to all languages, often drawing on descriptive grammars.

VIII. Historical Linguistics

A. Within both descriptive and theoretical linguistics, historical linguistics is devoted to the study of how languages change over time.

IX. Sociolinguistics

A. Sociolinguistics treats the broad question of language in society and includes the study of dialects.

X. Psycholinguistics

A. Psycholinguistics uses the methods of experimental psychology with language as the primary source of data.

XI. Child Language Acquisition

A. Child Language Acquisition is devoted to learning how children acquire language early in life.

XII. Neurolinguistics

A. Neurolinguistics addresses the relationship between language and the brain.

XIII. Computational Linguistics

A. Computational Linguistics deals with the interaction of computers and language, for such purposes as Speech Synthesis, the production of artificial speech from written text, or Speech Recognition, the conversion of speech to text, or parsing, the automatic description of the grammatical structure of a text.

Lesson 5: Simple Structures that Unite All Languages

I. Humanity has Many Things in Common

A. Man is made after the image of God
B. Man has ancestry through Noah
C. Soul, spirit, and body
D. Willingness to sin
E. Willingness to love
F. Willingness to worship
G. Compassion

II. Types of Language Communication

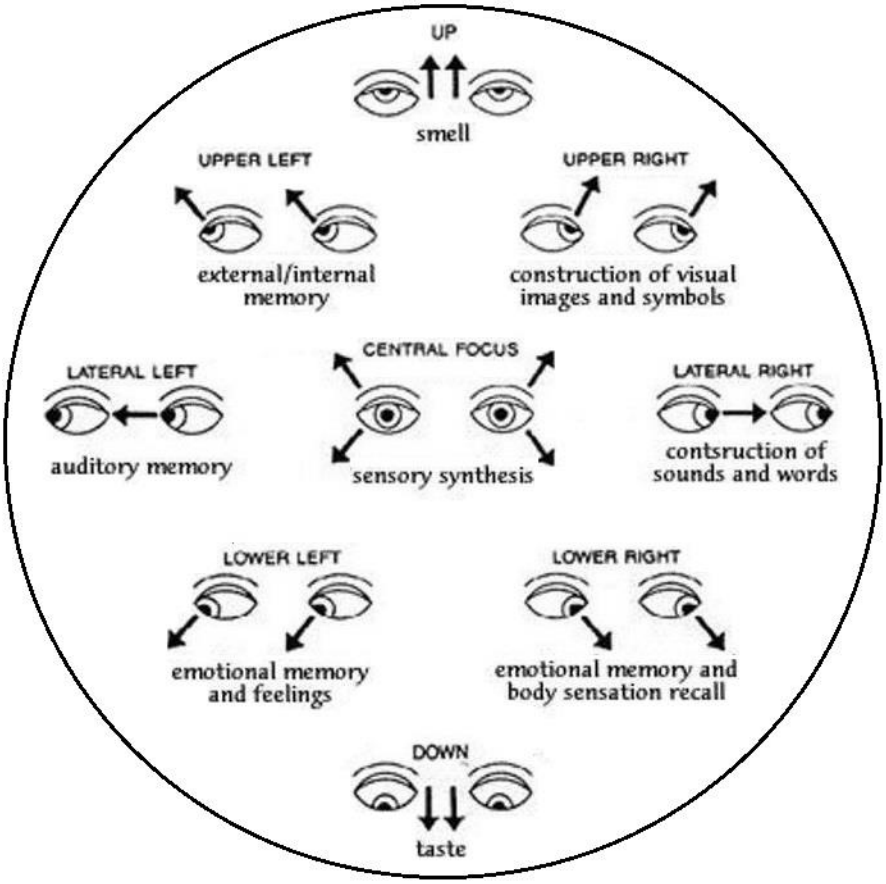
A. Spoken
B. Written
C. Symbols
D. Other non-verbal
E. Digital communication

III. There Are All Kinds of Methods for Non-verbal Communication

A. Body Language
B. Facial expressions
C. Kinetics (body movements, gestures)
D. Posture
E. Eye contact
F. Touch
G. Physiology (sweating, shaking, blinking, etc.)
H. Music
I. Smile and frown
J. Laughter
K. Signs
L. Images
M. Artifacts

IV. Types of Paralinguistic Communication

A. Paralinguistics is added to speech to aid in communication
B. Paralinguistics refers to the meta-communication elements of nonverbal communication that modify the meaning of the message.
C. Paralinguistics is also known as vocalics, paralanguage, or voice in nonverbal communication.
D. Paralinguistics explains how we use our voices while speaking to someone.
E. Body movement
F. Loudness or tone [in writing we would use exclamation marks – (?), (!)]
G. Proxemics, Proximities (space)
H. Chronemics (time)
I. Oculesics (eye gaze, eyebrows, etc.)
J. Haptics (touch)
K. Appearance
L. Artifacts – adornments, tattoos, accessories, etc.
M. Environment (locations – formal, informal, etc.)

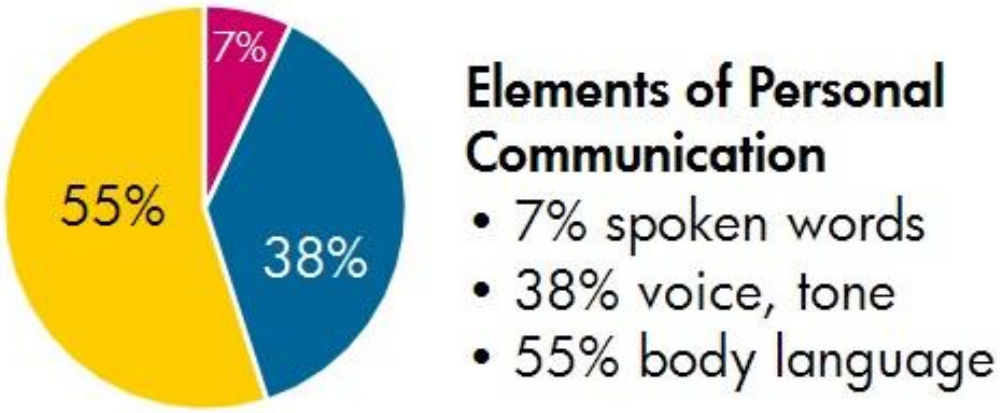


V. Universal Facial Expressions

A. Happiness
B. Sadness
C. Anger
D. Fear

VI. Kinesics

A. Kinesic communication is the technical term for body language, i.e., communicating by body movement.
B. We call the study of kinesic communication kinesics.
C. Kinesic communication is a non-verbal form of communication.
D. However, it is not the only non-verbal way of communicating with other people.
E. Non-verbal communication is one of the processes of conveying messages without writing or uttering words.
F. Kinesics is all about communication through body movements, such as gestures and facial expressions. It is all about non-verbal behavior using any part of the body. It also includes communicating using the body as a whole.
G. Kinesics is one of the main powerful ways that humans communicate non-verbally.
H. Spoken language and voice is only 7% to 38% of communication.

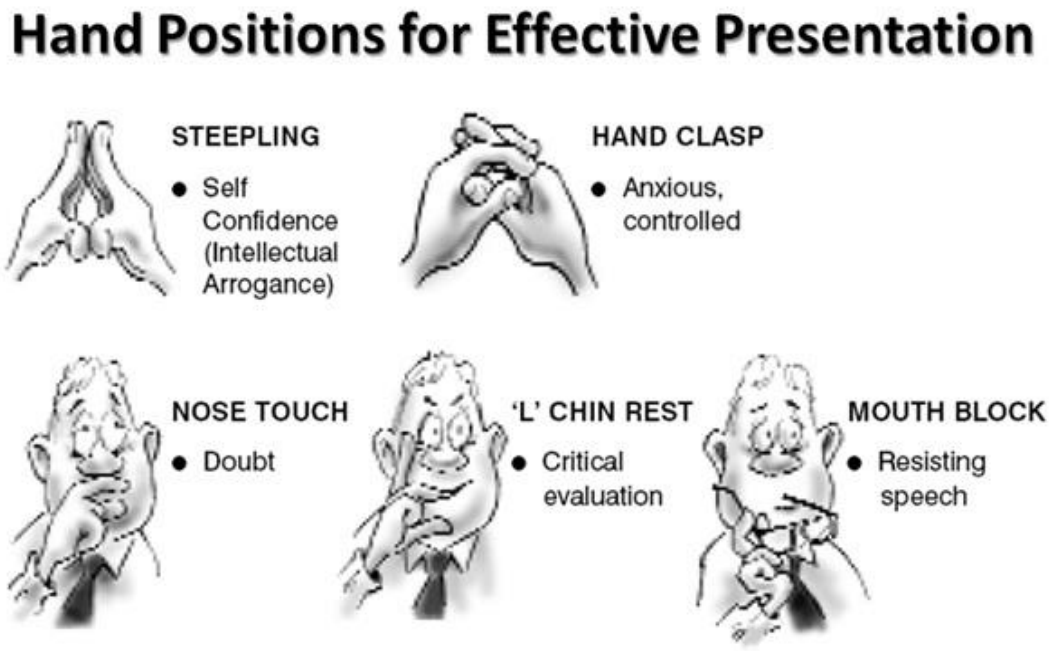


I. Accordingly, people can communicate with just knowing a small percentage of the language.
J. We see this phenomenon with small children who have a limited vocabulary – they still communicate their feelings and desires.

VII. Kinesic Body Language

A. Touching your face

B. Not sitting up straight
C. Crossing your arms
D. Fidgeting
E. Not smiling
F. Not making eye contact



VIII. Spoken and Written Language is Universal in Many Aspects

A. All use symbols
B. Symbols are sounds, pictures, letters, words, numbers, etc.
C. Symbol represent thoughts, words, etc.
D. People of the same language means they agree on the meaning of the symbols
E. Many concepts are consistent across all cultures – father, mother, water, etc.

IX. The Love Languages

A. The book by Dr. Gary Chapman described five languages. They were more added to the list:

1. Gifts
2. Acts of Service
3. Quality Time. Spend quality time with those you love.
4. Words of Affirmation – encouragement.
5. Physical Touch
6. Communication
7. Expression of Affection and Love

Lesson 6: Language Universals

I. Main Characteristics of Spoken Language

A. Language is verbal, vocal: Language is sound

- Language is an organization of sounds, of vocal symbols.
- Speech is primary to writing.
- Music and singing also employ vocal sounds, but they are not defined as languages.
- Language is systematic verbal symbolism; it makes use of verbal elements such as sound, words, and phrases, which are arranged in certain ways to make sentences.
- Language is vocal in as much as it is made up of sounds which can be produced by the organs of speech.

B. Language is a means of communication

- Language is the most powerful, convenient and permanent means and form of communication.
- Language is the best means of self-expression.
- It is through language that humans express their thoughts, desires, emotions, and feelings.
- It is through language that they store knowledge, transmit messages, knowledge, and experience from one person to another, from one generation to another.
- Most of the activities in the world are carried on through or by it. It is through it that humans interact. It is language again that yokes the present, the past and the future together.

C. Language is a social phenomenon

- Language is a set of conventional communicative signals used by humans for communication in a community.
- Language in this sense is a possession of a social group, comprising an indispensable set of rules which permits its members to relate to each other; it is a social institution.
- Language exists in society; it is a means of nourishing and developing culture and establishing human relations.
- To be a member of society a person acquires the language.
- People are born with an instinct to learn a particular language – English, Hindi, Russian, Bengali, Chinese, Tamil, or French.
- We learn a language as members of the society using that language, or because we want to understand that society or, to be understood by that speech-community.
- If a language is not used in any society, it dies out.

D. Language is arbitrary

- By the arbitrariness of language, we mean that there is no inherent or logical relation or similarity between any given feature of language and its meaning.

- Language is entirely arbitrary, that there is no direct, necessary connection between the nature of things or ideas the language deals with, and the linguistics unites are combinations by which these things or ideas are expressed.
- There is no reason why the four-legged domestic animals should be called Dog in English, Kutta in Hindi, Kukkur in Sanskrit, Kutta in Telugu, Kukur in Bengali, Chien in French, hund in German, Kalb in Arabic and so on.
- That those particular words that imitate the sounds of their referents, for example: buzz, hiss, hum, bang in English and Kal-Kal in Hindi, may seem to invalidate this statement, but such words are comparatively few in different languages, and the accuracy of the limitation depends on the sounds available in the language. The variation of words in different languages of the world many times have no uniformity.

E. Language is non-instinctive and conventional

- Except for Adam and Eve, no language was created out of a mutually agreed-upon formula by a group of humans.
- Language is the outcome of God confounding the language of the world in Genesis 11.
- From that point, many other languages developed, expanded, and adapted.
- Each generation transmits this convention on to the next.
- Like all human institutions, languages also change and die, grow and expand.
- Every language then is a conventional community, it is non-instinctive because it is acquired by human beings through learning.
- No person is born knowing a language, but they have the ability to acquire language.
- Animals inherit their system of communication by heredity, humans do not.

F. Language is symbolic

- The symbolism of language is a necessary consequence of the feature of arbitrariness discussed above.
- A symbol stands for something; it is something that serves as a substitute.
- Language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols.
- Sounds (words) represent concepts, things, ideas, objects etc. We use sounds and words as symbols.

G. Language is systematic

- Language is symbolic, and its symbols are arranged in a particular system.
- All languages have their system of arrangements.
- Though symbols in each human language are finite, they can be arranged infinity; that is to say, we can produce an infinite set of sentences by a finite set of symbols.
- Every language is a system of systems.
- All languages have a phonological and grammatical systems.
- We have morphological and syntactic systems.
- By “systematic” we also mean the following: the speakers of language use only certain combinations.
- Thus although the sounds b and z occur in English, there is no word in English which begins with bz.

- Similarly, we can say that the beautiful girl chased the brown dog is a sentence of English, but the ***edfulauti*** girl chased the brown dog is not.
- We conclude that all languages, though linear in their visual manifestation, have a dual system of sound and meaning.
- Language is systematic composition or arrangement of linguistic which correlate word and meaning.
- Each language, therefore, can be described as a special system, suitable for conveying the message within its own framework of structure and meaning and having very little direct physical relation to the meanings or acts which it involves.

H. Language is unique, creative, complex and modifiable

- Language is a unique phenomenon of the earth.
- Language has similarities or universals.
- Despite their common features and language universals, each language has its peculiarities and distinct features.

I. Language has creativity and productivity.

- The structural elements of human language can be combined to produce new utterances, which neither the speaker nor his hearers may ever have made or heard before any listener, yet which both sides understand without difficulty, language changes according to the needs of society.
- We can see this clearly when comparing Old English with modern English.

J. Language is human and structurally complex

- No species other than humans has been endowed with language.
- Animals cannot acquire human language because of its complex structure and their physical inadequacies.
- Animals have a different type of brain compared to human beings.
- Animals do not have the same vocal organs that humans possess.
- Animals have articulatory organs are very much different from those of human beings.
- Furthermore, any system of animal communication does not make use of the quality of features, that is, of concurrent systems of sound and meaning.
- Human language is open-ended, extendable, and modifiable, whereas the animal language is not.

II. <u>What Languages Have in Common</u>

A. What all spoken languages share are certain very general structural properties.
B. Every language has a grammar with the following components:

- meaningful units akin to words (lexemes) and other grammatical markers
- a sound system (Phonetics and Phonology)
- a system for arranging the meaningful units into sentences (Syntax)
- another for arranging the internal parts of words (Morphology)

- another for interpreting the meanings of utterances (Semantics)
- and principles for using language in actual discourse (Pragmatics)

C. The boundaries between these systems are not always clear.
D. The study of phonetics, for example, deals with the more physical properties of speech, its relation to both acoustics and physiology, while phonology treats sounds more as abstractions, but there is no way to draw a sharp line between them.

III. The Similarity of Sound Systems

A. The sound systems of all languages are very similar in their basic design.
B. In each language we can isolate a small number of distinctive speech sounds or **phonemes**, ranging from as low as eleven (Hawaiian) to over sixty (some languages of the Caucasus).
C. Phonemes by themselves have no meaning, but they combine into **syllables** and then into words, which are then assigned meanings or values by social convention.
D. Thus, English speakers may combine the three phonemes /n/, /k/, and /i/ to form the three English words *ink, kin*, and *nick*, which have the meanings they have because speakers of English agree that they do.
E. The three words are not related to one another in meaning, only in form. Nor are all combinations of these three phonemes permissible. The sound patterns of English prevent the existence of /nki/, /kni/, and /ikn/, though another language might permit one or more of these combinations; in both German and Russian, for example, words may begin with /kn/ and English once permitted this sequence, as we can tell from the spelling of words like *knight* and *know*, which is a relic of this old system.
F. Even sign languages, though they use hand configurations, locations and movements instead of consonants and vowels, have units equivalent to phonemes.

IV. The Similarity of Patterns

A. Every language has its own distinctive system of patterns that make up the phonological system of that language. In some, the syllable type is highly restricted.
B. Japanese syllables, for example, almost always end in a vowel or in /n/; a Japanese syllable may end in a consonant only if it is identical to the beginning consonant of the following syllable (like the first [p] in Nippon).
C. This strict syllable structure is revealed very nicely when an English word is borrowed into Japanese, as with many baseball terms.
D. The English word *strike*, for example, which has only one syllable, has five syllables in Japanese (/su-tu-ra-i-ku/), because each consonant must have its own syllable, and there can only be one vowel sound in any syllable.
E. Note that the letter "i" in English is actually pronounced /ay/ and so contains a consonant.
F. Similarly, the word *baseball* has four syllables in Japanese. English allows fairly complex syllables, by the standards of most languages: the word *sixths* ends in four consecutive consonants (since "x" is actually two: [ks]).
G. But Georgian easily beats that: the word *prckvnis* 'he peels it' begins with five consonants and *gvprckvnis* 'he peels us' begins with seven!

V. All Languages Have Words

A. All languages have words, but the complexity of words varies just as widely as that of syllables.
B. Again, English lies somewhere in the middle.
C. The word *de-institution-al-iz-ation* (which is here broken down into its constituent meaningful parts (or **morphemes**) by means of hyphens) means 'the release of institutionalized individuals from institutional care (as in a psychiatric hospital) to care in the community' according to *Merriam-Webster Online* and it is easy to intuit how this meaning is derived from the meanings of its five parts, though it would take a good deal of space to explicate precisely how these parts are combined. Many English words have a number of meaningful internal parts, prefixes and suffixes.
D. Vietnamese, by contrast, has almost no complex words, except for compounds in which two whole words are combined to form another, similarly to English words like *doghouse* or *catbird*.
E. But in many languages of North America, an entire sentence can be expressed in a single word, as in the Inuktitut (Eskimo) word *iqqanaijaaqajjaagunniiqtutit* 'you won't have any work anymore' (from a Canadian Broadcasting Corporation piece on official language policy in the northern Canadian territory of Nunavut, where Inuktitut is the language of the vast majority of people and the official language of local government).

VI. All Languages Have Sentences

A. All languages have sentences; both the basic building blocks (**parts of speech** like nouns and verbs) and the systems for constructing sentences out of these building blocks are very similar across languages: there is no language without nouns and verbs and pronouns, though other categories, like adjectives and adverbs, are not universal.
B. Basic sentence structure is quite uniform across languages, consisting of a **subject** and a **predicate**, with the essential ingredient of the subject being a **noun phrase** and that of the predicate usually a **verb phrase**.
C. Within the verb phrase, all languages have **transitive** verbs with an **object**, which again is usually a noun phrase, exactly the same as the subject in its basic internal structure.
D. Where languages differ is in the order of the subject (S), object (O), and verb (V), though S precedes O in almost all languages.
E. The most common orders are SVO, as in English, and SOV, as in Japanese.
F. Biblical Hebrew and Classical Arabic were VSO languages.
G. Languages also differ in the internal structure of phrases: in English, the adjective precedes the noun it modifies, while most adjectives follow the noun in Romance languages like Spanish and French.
H. Some languages, though, like Classical Greek and the Aboriginal languages of Australia, have free word order, so that any order of the words of a sentence is permissible.

VII. All Languages Have Recursion

A. All languages also permit **recursion**, the possibility of inserting a syntactic category within the same category.
B. The clearest example of recursion is the insertion of one sentence within another sentence.

C. Consider the two sentences 'Bill left' and 'Mary said that Bill left'.
D. The second sentence contains the first one *embedded* within it. Language permits infinite recursion, at least in theory.
E. The sentence 'Louise knows that Mary said that Bill left' contains the second sentence; the sentence 'John claims that Louise knows that Mary said that Bill left' contains the third one; and so on without end.
F. Of course, no one has ever uttered an infinite sentence, at least not yet, but simple mathematics tells us that if an infinitely long sentence is possible in principle through the mechanism of optional recursion, then there must be an infinite number of possible sentences (all those that contain fewer embedded sentences than this infinitely long one).
G. Of course, in the real world, no one will ever utter an infinite sentence, but the importance of recursion is not just the mathematical trick, but rather that it allows languages to have complex utterances through the combination of simple structures.

VIII. Language and Basic Communication

A. At the first level of communication, people who feel that their language is the same, perceiving no difference in each other's language may be said to speak the same **dialect**.
B. As we might expect, dialect differences correlate not only with geography, but also with social distinctions like class and ethnicity. Dialects thus serve the function of allowing us to recognize members of our own social group from characteristics of their speech.
C. Dialects may be grouped into languages based on mutual intelligibility. As long as two speakers understand one another, they speak the same language, from a purely linguistic point of view. But when most people talk about languages, they do not mean purely linguistic constructs.

IX. Language Identity Depends on the Written Language

A. Modern language identity depends on writing.
B. A person from the heart of Glasgow, another from the heart of Jamaica, and a third from the mountains of West Virginia, put together in a room, will not find it easy to hold a conversation, yet all will declare that their native tongue is one and the same, because they all share a written language, written English.
C. The same is true of Chinese, the speakers of which share a single written language, though they speak a dozen or so completely distinct spoken languages from a purely linguistic point of view, usually referred to as Chinese dialects.
D. By contrast, a speaker of Hindi from Delhi and a speaker of Urdu from Islamabad will vehemently insist that they speak different languages, even though they understand each other perfectly, because the two languages are written in different alphabets, and, perhaps more importantly, are associated with different religious and national identities.
E. From a purely linguistic point of view, based on intelligibility however, these two people speak the same language.

X. Universal Patterns

A. A linguistic universal is a pattern that occurs systematically across natural languages, potentially true for all of them.
B. For example, all languages have nouns and verbs
C. If a language is spoken, it has consonants and vowels.
D. Research in this area of linguistics is closely tied to the study of linguistic typology, and intends to reveal generalizations across languages, likely tied to cognition, perception, or other abilities of the mind.
E. The field originates from discussions influenced by Noam Chomsky's proposal of a Universal Grammar, but was largely pioneered by the linguist Joseph Greenberg, who derived a set of forty-five basic universals, mostly dealing with syntax, from a study of some thirty languages.

XI. Terminology

A. Linguists distinguish between two kinds of universals: ***absolute*** (opposite: statistical, often called tendencies) and ***implicational*** (opposite non-implicational).
B. Absolute universals apply to every known language and are quite few in number; an example is all languages have pronouns.
C. An implicational universal applies to languages with a particular feature that is always accompanied by another feature, such as if a language has trial grammatical number, it also has dual grammatical number, while non-implicational universals just state the existence (or non-existence) of one particular feature.

XII. Tendencies

A. Also in contrast to absolute universals are ***tendencies,*** statements that may not be true for all languages but nevertheless are far too common to be the result of chance.
B. They also have implicational and non-implicational forms.
C. An example of the latter would be the vast majority of languages have nasal consonants.
D. However, most tendencies, like their universal counterparts, are implicational.
E. For example, with overwhelmingly greater-than-chance frequency, languages with normal SOV order are postpositional.
F. Strictly speaking, a tendency is not a kind of universal, but exceptions to most statements called universals can be found.
G. For example, Latin is an SOV language with prepositions.
H. Often it turns out that these exceptional languages are undergoing a shift from one type of language to another.
I. In the case of Latin, its descendant Romance languages switched to SVO, which is a much more common order among prepositional languages.

XIII. Direction

A. Universals may also be ***bidirectional*** or ***unidirectional***.
B. In a bidirectional universal two features each imply the existence of each other.

C. For example, languages with postpositions usually have SOV order, and likewise SOV languages usually have postpositions.
D. The implication works both ways, and thus the universal is bidirectional.
E. By contrast, in a ***unidirectional*** universal the implication works only one way.
F. Languages that place relative clauses before the noun they modify again usually have SOV order, so pre-nominal relative clauses imply SOV.
G. On the other hand, SOV languages worldwide show little preference for pre-nominal relative clauses, and thus SOV implies little about the order of relative clauses.
H. As the implication works only one way, the proposed universal is a unidirectional one.

XIV. Universal Syntax

A. Linguistic universals in syntax are sometimes held up as evidence for universal grammar (although epistemological arguments are more common).
B. Other explanations for linguistic universals have been proposed, for example, that linguistic universals tend to be properties of language that aid communication.
C. If a language were to lack one of these properties, it has been argued, it would probably soon evolve into a language having that property.

XV. Universal Grammar

A. Noam Chomsky's work related to the innateness hypothesis as it pertains to our ability to rapidly learn any language without formal instruction and with limited input, or what he refers to as a poverty of the stimulus, is what began research into linguistic universals.
B. This led to his proposal for a shared underlying grammar structure for all languages, a concept he called universal grammar (UG), which he claimed must exist somewhere in the human brain prior to language acquisition.
C. Chomsky defines UG as "the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages... by necessity."
D. He states that UG expresses "the essence of human language," and believes that the structure-dependent rules of UG allow humans to interpret and create infinite novel grammatical sentences. Chomsky asserts that UG is the underlying connection between all languages and that the various differences between languages are all relative with respect to UG.
E. He claims that UG is essential to our ability to learn languages, and thus uses it as evidence in a discussion of how to form a potential 'theory of learning' for how humans learn all or most of our cognitive processes throughout our lives.
F. The discussion of Chomsky's UG, its innateness, and its connection to how humans learn language has been one of the more covered topics in linguistics studies to date.
G. However, there is division amongst linguists between those who support Chomsky's claims of UG and those who argued against the existence of an underlying shared grammar structure that can account for all languages.

XVI. Examples

A. Some other examples of proposed linguistic universals in semantics include the idea that all languages possess words with the meaning '(biological) mother' and 'you (second person singular pronoun)' as well as statistical tendencies of meanings of basic color terms in relation to the number of color terms used by a respective language.
B. For example, if a languages possesses only two terms for describing color, their respective meanings will be 'black' and 'white' (or perhaps 'dark' and 'light').
C. If a language possesses more than two color terms, then the additional terms will follow trends related to the focal colors, which are determined by the physiology of how we perceive color rather than linguistics.
D. Thus, if a language possesses three color terms, the third will mean 'red,' and if a language possesses four color terms, the next will mean 'yellow' or 'green'.
E. If there are five color terms, then both 'yellow' and 'green' are added, if six, then 'blue' is added, and so on.

XVII. Common Characteristics

A. All languages have meaning

B. All languages have a bias toward positive words over negative words

In 1969 several psychologists hypothesized that there is a bias towards positivity in human communication. They began to study how people from different cultures used language, concluding that no matter what culture, people tend to use more positive words than negative ones. This study was called the Pollyanna Hypothesis.

In 2015 a study carried out by the United States and Australia at the University of Vermont has confirmed this hypothesis: languages are innately positive.

The analysis proved that languages have a bias towards universal positivity, no matter how often the words are used.

C. All languages have tenses

Three things are the basis of human language:

- A language can express things that happened in the past.
- A language can express things that are happening in the present.
- A language you can express things that will happen in the future.

D. All languages can speak truth and lies

In a language a person can lie, meaning you can say false information, something which is not true or that is not materially a thing.

E. All languages can express information for ideas and things one cannot see:

- God
- Heaven and hell
- Dreams
- Ideas
- Love

F. All languages are arbitrary – the word apple means apple only because the speakers agree it means apple. An apple does not tell people its name.

G. All languages are systematic – they have developed vocabularies which contain nouns and verbs, grammars, and syntaxes.

H. Every language has words for objects (nouns) and words for actions (verbs)

I. Every language has a word that can be used as a second-person pronoun ("you" or a name)

J. All languages have certain sounds and words (except for sign language, etc.)

- All languages have at least two vowels
- All languages have at least one stop-consonant (p, t, k)
- Every language has a word that can mean "Mother"

K. A language may be spoken or signed but do not require orthography (written forms).

Lesson 7: Why is English the Universal Language?

I. English is Popular Because of Influence

A. Trade
B. Science
C. Politics
D. Social trends
E. Music
F. Young people
G. Business
H. Commerce
I. Industry
J. Diplomacy
K. International relations
L. Travel
M. Medicine
N. Education
O. Literature
P. Translation
Q. Air traffic
R. Computers
S. Internet (55% of the Internet's content in English)
T. Media and Entertainment
U. Culture

II. The Morphology of Words is Usually Straightforward.

A. Examples of Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, and Adverbs

No.	Verbs	Nouns	Adjectives	Adverbs
1	accept	acceptance	acceptable	
2	achieve	achievement	achievable	
3	act	action	active	actively
4	act	activity	active	actively
5	act	activeness	active	actively
6	add	addition	additional	
7	adjust	adjustment	adjustable	
8	admire	admiration	admirable	
9	advise	advice	advisable	

10	amass	mass	massive	massively
11	amazed	amazement	amazing	
12	amuse	amusement	amusing	
13	annoy	annoyance	annoying	
14	approach	approach	approachable	
15	attend	attention	attentive	
16	attract	attraction	attractive	
17	avoid	avoidance	avoidable	
18	believe	belief	believable	
19	blacken	blackness	black	
20	bleed	blood	bloody	
21	bore	boredom	boring	
22	bother	botheration	bothering	
23	breathe	breath	breathing	
24	bury	burial	buried	
25	care	care	careful	carefully
26	challenge	challenge	challenging	
27	chase	chase	chasing	
28	cheer	cheerfulness	cheerful	cheerfully
29	choose	choice	chosen	
30	clear	clarity	clear	clearly
31	collect	collection	collective	collectively
32	comfort	comfort	comfortable	comfortably
33	complex	complexity	complex	
34	confuse	confusion	confused	
35	consider	consideration	considerable	considerably
36	console	consolation	consoled	
37	continue	continuity	continuous	continuously

38	craze	craze	crazy	crazily
39	create	creation	creative	creatively
40	credit	credit	creditable	creditably
41	cure	cure	curable	
42	curse	curse	cursed	
43	damage	damage	damaged	
44	deafen	deafness	deaf	
45	decide	decision	decisive	
46	decorate	decoration	decorative	
47	delight	delight	delightful	delightfully
48	demand	demand	demanding	
49	derive	derivation	derivative	
50	deserve	deserve	deserving	
51	destroy	destruction	destructive	destructively
52	develop	development	developing	
53	die	death	dead	
54	differ	difference	different	differently
55	disturb	disturbance	disturbing	
56	dust	dust	dusty	
57	educate	education	educative	
58	embarrass	embarrassment	embarrassing	
59	empower	power	powerful	powerfully
60	empty	emptiness	empty	
61	encircle	circle	circular	circularly
62	encourage	courage	courageous	courageously
63	endanger	danger	dangerous	dangerously
64	enthuse	enthusiasm	enthusiastic	
65	enumerate	number	numerable	

66	envy	envy	envious	enviously
67	evaporate	evaporation	evaporating	
68	expect	expectation	expected	expectedly
69	explain	explanation	explainable	
70	explore	exploration	exploring	
71	fascinate	fascination	fascinating	
72	feed	food		
73	firm	firmness	firm	firmly
74	fly	flight	flying	
75	force	force	forceful	forcefully
76	glorify	glory	glorious	gloriously
77	grow	growth	growing	growingly
78	harm	harm	harmful	harmfully
79	hate	hatred	hateful	hatefully
80	heal	health	healthy	healthily
81	hope	hope	hopeful	hopefully
82	identify	identification	identified	
83	identify	identity	identifying	
84	imitate	imitation	imitative	imitatively
85	impress	impression	impressive	impressively
86	include	inclusion	inclusive	inclusively
87	indicate	indication	indicative	indicatively
88	inform	information	informative	
89	inhabit	habitat	inhabitant	
90	injure	injury	injurious	injuriously
91	inquire	inquiry	inquiring	
92	instruct	instruction	instructive	
93	insult	insult	insulting	insultingly

94	intent	intention	intentional	intentionally
95	interfere	interference	interfering	
96	introduce	introduction	introductory	
97	invent	invention	inventive	
98	irritate	irritation	irritating	irritatingly
99	lead	leadership	leading	leadingly
100	live	life	lively	livingly
101	live	life	alive	livingly
102	live	liveliness	lively	livingly
103	lose	loss	lost	
104	madden	madness	mad	madly
105	migrate	migration	migrating	
106	modernize	modernity	modern	
107	moisten	moisture	moistures	
108	monotonize	monotony	monotonous	monotonously
109	move	movement	movable	movingly
110	narrow	narrowness	narrow	
111	nationalize	nationality	national	nationwide
112	observe	observation	observatory	
113	own	ownership	own	
114	perform	performance	performing	
115	permit	permission	permissible	
116	persuade	persuasion	persuasive	
117	please	pleasure	pleasant	
118	popularize	popularity	popular	
119	quicken	quickness	quick	quickly
120	redden	redness	red	
121	sadden	sadness	sad	sadly

122	secure	security	secured	securely
123	see	scene	scenic	
124	see	sight	seen	
125	speed	speed	speedy	speedily
126	whiten	whiteness	white	
127		badness	bad	badly

III. Words Can be Both Nouns and Verbs

A. Many English words are both nouns and verbs.
B. Refer to table below:

Words that are Both Nouns and Verbs				
A	delay	hit	pedal	spray
access	delight	hold	peel	sprout
ache	demand	hop	pelt	squash
act	design	hope	permit	stain
address	dial	hose	phone	stamp
aim	die	hug	photograph	stand
alert	dislike	humor	pick	star
answer	display	hunt	pine	start
arrest	dive	hurry	place	state
attack	divorce	**I**	plan	steer
auction	dock	ice	plane	step
B	double	impact	plant	sting
back	doubt	inch	play	stop
bail	drain	increase	plow	store
balance	draw	influence	plug	storm
balloon	dream	insult	point	stress
ban	dress	interest	poke	strip

bandage	drill	iron	pop	stroke
bank	drink	itch	post	struggle
bare	drive	**J**	practice	study
bargain	duck	jail	praise	stuff
battle	dump	jam	present	stunt
beam	dust	joke	process	suit
bear	dye	judge	produce	supply
beat	**E**	jump	promise	support
bend	echo	**K**	protest	surf
benefit	email	keep	pull	surprise
blame	end	kick	pump	swap
blast	escape	kiss	punch	swing
bleach	esteem	knit	push	swivel
block	estimate	knock	**Q-R**	**T**
bloom	exchange	knot	question	tack
blow	excuse	**L**	quilt	talk
board	exhibit	label	quiz	taste
bomb	experience	land	race	tear
bother	eye	last	rain	tease
bounce	**F**	laugh	raise	telephone
bow	face	lead	rant	test
box	fall	leap	rate	thought
bread	favor	level	reach	thunder
break	fax	license	reason	tick
breed	fear	lie	record	tie
broadcast	feel	lift	reign	time
brush	fight	light	rent	tip
bump	file	limit	repair	tire

burn	fill	link	reply	toast
buy	film	load	report	touch
C	finish	loan	request	tour
cake	fish	lock	rhyme	tow
call	fix	look	ring	trace
camp	flap	love	riot	track
care	flash	**M**	risk	trade
catch	float	mail	rock	train
cause	flood	make	roll	transport
challenge	floss	man	row	trap
change	flow	march	ruin	travel
chant	flower	mark	rule	treat
charge	fly	match	run	trick
cheat	fold	mate	**S**	trim
check	fool	matter	sail	trust
cheer	force	mean	sand	tug
chip	form	measure	saw	turn
claim	frame	milk	scare	twist
clip	freeze	mind	scratch	type
cloud	frown	mine	screw	**U-V**
clue	function	miss	search	upstage
coach	**G**	mistake	season	use
color	garden	moor	sense	vacuum
comb	gaze	move	shampoo	value
comfort	gel	mug	shape	visit
contrast	glue	**N**	share	voice
control	grate	nail	shelter	vote
cook	grease	name	shock	**W**

coop	grill	need	shop	wake
copy	grimace	nest	show	walk
cost	grin	notch	sign	waltz
count	grip	note	signal	watch
cover	guarantee	notice	silence	water
crack	guard	number	sin	wave
crash	guess	**O-P**	sip	wear
crate	guide	object	skate	whip
credit	**H**	offer	sketch	whisper
crush	hammer	oil	ski	whistle
cure	hand	order	slice	wick
curl	handle	pack	slide	wink
curve	harm	pad	slip	wire
cut	harness	paddle	smell	wish
cycle	hate	paint	smile	work
D	head	park	smirk	worry
dam	heap	part	smoke	wrap
damage	heat	pass	snack	wreck
dance	help	paste	snow	**Y-Z**
deal	hide	pat	sound	yawn
decay	highlight	pause	span	yield
decrease	hike	pay	spot	zone

Lesson 8: What Makes English Difficult to Learn?

I. Why English is Difficult to Learn

A. English language speakers take for granted the structure and requirements of their language.
B. English is part of the Indo-European language family
C. Many words are derived from Ancient Greek and Latin.
D. There are similar words in other European languages.
E. English is difficult for many to learn
F. Even though difficult, other countries make English their second language.
G. In document translation, English as a source or target language is very much in demand.
H. According to the British Council, there are more than one billion English language learners all over the world.
I. In many parts of the world, English is spoken more fluently compared to natural American and British English speakers.

II. Many Contradictions in English

A. Students find the contradictions in the English language make it difficult. For example:
B. Hamburger has no ham.
C. There is no pine or even apple in pineapple.
D. Taught is the past tense of teach however, the past tense of preach is preached and not "praught."
E. Vegetables are the main food of vegetarians, but do humanitarians eat something else?
F. English words *see* and *look* mean the same thing, but oversee and overlook have different meanings.

III. English Has Many Rules and Many Exceptions

A. English has many rules to follow. Estimated at 500 to 10,000 rules, we typically learn about 3,500 rules.
B. Most ELL's do not know many rules but can still speak the language.
C. We normally do not think about proper grammar when we speak.
D. On the other hand, there are too many exceptions to the rules as well. There may be more exceptions than there are rules.
E. Examples include:
F. One rule that confuses: Use "I" before "E" except when either letter is positioned after the letter "C," thus you write believe or relieve but write receipt differently.
G. You spell seize or weird with "E" before "I" yet science is spelled with "I" after "C," which contradicts the first rule.
H. When learning English, students learn many rules, but also learn many exceptions to those rules.

IV. English Has Many Irregular Verbs

A. English has plenty of irregular verbs. Overall, learners should remember 370 irregular verbs, such as:

Present Tense	Simple Past Tense
fight	fought
light	lit
seek	sought
grind	ground
bid	bid
blow	blew
bear	bore
burn	burned (or burnt)
drink	drank
blow	blew

V. Word Order is Not Easy to Understand

A. English speakers naturally know the order in which words are placed.
B. English language learners find word order difficult to understand.
C. Explaining why there is a logical order in the positioning of words can be difficult to grasp.
D. Many times there is no difference between a right and wrong order. This is hard to understand.
E. It is not easy to explain how the order of words makes sentences sound right.
F. For example, you can say "an interesting small cup," but it does not sound right if you say "a small interesting cup." If the second word order is used, you would say, "a small and interesting cup," or written as, ""a small, interesting cup."
G. It could be grammatically correct but it's how it sounds that makes a subtle difference in the execution.
H. Understanding the nuances of the language for example, is what native speakers innately know.

VI. Methods Vary for the Pronunciation of Words

A. Spelling and pronunciation make learning English difficult.
B. Languages like Spanish, pronounce the letters and words as they are written.
C. In English, there are several ways to pronounce words that have almost the same letter combinations, such as through, bough, rough and trough.
D. Silent letters are also present in the beginning, middle and end of some words as well. Examples include:

- knife
- write
- daughter
- aisle
- gnome

- psychology
- knee
- lamb
- knock
- half
- wrist
- plumber

E. The problem is compounded by words that have more consonants than vowels and vice versa.
F. Note these examples:

- Photosynthesis
- Crystal
- Scythe
- Symphony
- Rhythm
- Gypsy
- Motorcycle
- Chlorophyll
- Encyclopedia
- Lightly
- Myrtle

G. There are English words (or sounds) that do not have vowels such as brr, shhh, grrr, hmmm, mmm, psst, nth, pfft, or tsk.
H. The combinations of consonants form sounds that are quickly understood to mean something, principally an action.

VII. Emphasis On Certain Words Changes Meaning

A. The way a speaker puts stress or emphasis on a certain word or words makes the meaning different in a subtle way.
B. Each time the emphasis is put on a different word in one sentence completely changes its meaning.
C. Sometimes the emphasis it quite clear so it is easier to pick up the intended meaning.
D. Sometimes the emphasis is not very distinct, which could lead to misinterpretation.
E. Putting emphasis on a specific word is often used to express how someone feels.
F. Note the example below and note how emphasis changes the meaning of the sentence:

- I sent him a letter – a plain statement.
- ***I*** sent him a letter – used to imply that you sent him the letter – someone else didn't send it (or "you didn't send it, I did").
- I ***sent*** him a letter – this could imply "I sent him a letter, but I'm not sure he received it."
- I sent ***him*** a letter – used to imply that you sent him the letter – you didn't send it to someone else (perhaps even "you weren't meant to read it").

- I sent him a ***letter*** – you sent him a letter, not anything else.

VIII. Homographs, Homophones and Homonyms

A. There is a difference between homographs with homophones and homonyms.
B. Since homo means "same," each term describes a different word relationship.
C. homograph ("same writing") - words that have the same spelling, but different meanings and sometimes different pronunciations (such as wind and wind)
D. homophone ("same sound") - words that have the same pronunciation, but different meanings and different spellings (such as eight and ate)
E. homonyms ("same name") - words that have the same spelling and the same pronunciation, but different meanings (such as bat and bat)

IX. The Number of Homophones

A. Homophones abound in the English language.
B. Homophones are words having the same pronunciation but different meanings, origins, or spelling, for example new and knew.
C. Examples of homophones below:

Examples of Homophones	
1	Ate (verb) or Eight (noun)
2	Air (noun) or Heir (noun)
3	Board (noun) or Bored (adjective)
4	Buy (verb) or By (preposition) or Bye (exclamation)
5	Brake (noun, verb) or Break (noun, verb)
6	Cell (noun) or Sell (verb)
7	Chili (noun) or Chilly (adjective)
8	Deer (noun) or Dear (noun, adjective)
9	Dew (noun) or Due (adjective, noun)
10	Eye (noun) or I (pronoun)
11	Flour (noun) or Flower (noun)
12	For (preposition) or Four (noun)
13	Grate (verb) or Great (adjective)
14	Hole (noun) or Whole (adjective)

15	Hear (verb) or Here (adverb)
16	Hour (noun) or Our (determiner)
17	Him (pronoun) or Hymn (noun)
18	It’s (contraction) or Its (determiner)
19	Know (verb) or No (determiner)
20	Knight (noun) or Night (noun)
21	Leek (noun) or Leak (noun, verb)
22	Sac (noun) or Sack (noun)
23	Mail (noun) or Male (adjective, noun)
24	Marry (verb) or Merry (adjective)
25	Meat (noun) or Meet (verb)
26	One (noun) or Won (verb)
27	Plain (adjective, noun) or Plane (noun)
28	Peace (noun) or Piece (noun)
29	Right (adjective) or Write (verb)
30	Red (adjective) or Read (verb)
31	Reel (noun) or Real (adjective)
32	Sight (noun) or Site (noun)
33	Serial (noun, adjective) or Cereal (noun)
34	Son (noun) or Sun (noun)
35	Steal (verb) or Steel (noun)
36	Sale (noun) or Sail (verb)
37	Stare (verb) or Stair (noun)
38	Sweet (noun, adjective) or Suite (noun)
39	Sea (noun) or See (verb)
40	Tale (noun) or Tail (noun)
41	Their (pronoun) or There (adverb) or
42	To (preposition) or Too (adverb) or Two (noun)

43	Thyme (noun) or Time (noun)
44	Vein (noun) or Vain (adjective)
45	Wait (verb) or Weight (noun)
46	Wear (verb) or Where (interrogative)
47	Weak (adjective) or Week (noun)
48	Which (pronoun, determiner) or Witch (noun)
49	Wine (noun) or Whine (verb)

D. Table of Homophones

Homophones

- **abel** — able
- **accede** — exceed
- **accept** — except
- **addition** — edition
- **all** ready — already
- **ax** — acts
- **axel** — axle
- **axes** — axis
- **aye** — eye — I
- ayes — eyes
- **bawl** — ball
- **been** — bin
- **beer** — bier
- **bury** — berry
- **bussed** — bust
- **but** — butt
- **buy** — by — bye
- **byte** — bight
- **cache** — cash
- **caddie** — caddy
- **cain** — cane
- **cheap** — cheep
- **check** — Czech
- **cheep** — cheap
- **chews** — choose
- **chic** — sheik
- **click** — clique
- **climb** — clime
- **clique** — click
- **colonel** — kernel
- **coolie** — coulee
- **coop** — coupe
- **cops** — copse
- **coral** — choral
- **cord** — cored
- **core** — corps
- **cored** — chord
- **corps** — core
- **coughers** — coffers
- **coulee** — coolie
- **council** — counsel
- **coup** — coo
- **course** — coarse
- **cousin** — cozen
- **coward** — cowered
- **coy** — koi
- **fare** — fair
- **fate** — fete
- **faun** — fawn
- **fax** — facts
- **faze** — phase
- **feat** — feet
- **foaled** — fold
- **fort** — forte
- **fourth** — forth
- **gibe** — jibe
- **gofer** — gopher
- **gored** — gourd
- **graham** — gram
- **graphed** — graft
- **heroin** — heroine
- **hertz** — hurts
- **hew** — hue
- **hoes** — hose
- **incite** — insight
- **jam** — jamb
- **jean** — gene
- **jell** — gel
- **jibe** — gibe
- **kernel** — colonel
- **knap** — nap
- **knave** — nave
- **ladder** — latter
- **lade** — laid
- **lain** — lane
- **lays** — laze
- **lea** — lee
- **leach** — leech
- **lead** — led
- **leak** — leek
- **lean** — lien
- **leased** — least
- **led** — lead
- **lee** — lea
- **leech** — leach
- **liar** — lier
- **lie** — lye
- **lien** — lean
- **moan** — mown
- **moat** — mote
- **mode** — mowed
- **mood** — mooed
- **moose** — mousse
- **morn** — mourn
- **nickers** — knickers
- **niece** — Nice
- **oh** — owe
- **one** — won
- **owe** — oh
- **padded** — patted
- **paean** — paeon
- **pail** — pale
- **pain** — pane
- **pair** — pare
- **pale** — pail
- **parish** — perish
- **real** — reel
- **root** — route
- **rose** — rows
- **rows** — rose
- **rude** — rued
- **rue** — roux
- **rued** — rude
- **troop** — troupe
- **trussed** — trust
- **turn** — tern
- **tutor** — tooter
- **tux** — tucks
- **urn** — earn
- **use** — ewes
- **vale** — veil
- **vane** — vein
- **vary** — very
- **veil** — vale
- **vein** — vain
- **ways** — weighs
- **we** — wee
- **we'll** — wheel
- **weak** — week
- **wear** — where
- **weave** — we've
- **wretch** — retch
- **wring** — ring
- **yew** — ewe — you
- **yews** — use
- **yoke** — yolk
- **you'll** — Yule
- **your** — you're
- **yule** — you'll

X. The Number of Homographs

A. Homographs are words spelled the same way but differ in meaning or pronunciation.
B. Homonyms can be either or even both.
C. Examples of homographs:

- Alternate – when pronounced as ALternit = succeeding choice
  Alternate – pronounced as ALternait = switching from one to another

- Attribute – to associate ownership to (something or someone) when pronounced as ahTRIByoot (emphasis on the second syllable)
  Attribute – someone's characteristic when the emphasis is on the first syllable, as in AHtribyoot

- Bass is pronounced as written when you want to indicate a specific fish species.
  Bass is pronounced as base when you want to describe a musical instrument.

- Bow, when used to indicate lowering one's head it's pronounced as bau or baw.
  When talking about a hunting implement, such as bow and arrow, it is pronounced as boh.

- Putting stress on the lasts syllable of Contest indicates that you are arguing whereas putting the emphasis on the first syllable and pronouncing it with more of an "a" than "o" sound indicates that there is competition.

- Close with more of a "z" than an "s" sound means to shut a door, window or any opening. When the word is pronounced with an "s" sound and silent "e," its means near.

- When you pronounce the word Wound as woond, it means an injury. But if you say wownd, you mean that you coil or wrap up something, such as a rope or a bandage.

D. Table of homograph examples below:
E. Common Homograph Pairs

Homograph	Definitions	Examples
agape	1. (n.) a Greek word meaning "sacrificial love" 2. (adj.) wide open	1. He felt true **agape** for his family. 2. My mouth was **agape** with surprise.
attribute	1. (v.) to think of as belonging to or originating in some person, place or thing 2. (n.) a characteristic or quality	1. He **attributes** his love for spicy food to his grandmother's cooking. 2. Paul's sense of humor was his best **attribute**.
axes	1. (n.) the plural of axis 2. (n.) the plural of ax or axe	1. This is the point where the **axes** meet.

		2. The lumberjack stored his **axes** in the shed.
buffet	1. (v.) to hit, punch or slap 2. (n.) a French word for a self-serve food bar	1. The wind **buffeted** the old shack. 2. You can have several helpings at the **buffet**.
bustier	1. (n.) a French word for an undergarment 2. (adj.) more busty	1. She bought a lacy **bustier**. 2. The painting made her look **bustier** than she really was.
content	1. (adj.) happy or satisfied 2. (n.) all that is contained inside something	1. Pedro was **content** with his life. 2. This program includes inappropriate **content**.
contract	1. (n.) a written agreement 2. (v.) to get, acquire or incur	1. We signed the final **contract** to buy our house. 2. Maya **contracted** the flu from a child in her class.
coordinates	1. (v.) to organize or bring into order 2. (n.) a set of numbers used to calculate a position	1. The wedding planner **coordinates** the entire day. 2. You can graph the location's **coordinates** along the longitude and latitude lines.
desert	1. (n.) a hot, arid region 2. (v.) to leave or abandon	1. Some plants have adapted to live in the dry **desert**. 2. The soldier was accused of **deserting** his post.
digest	1. (n.) a condensed version of some information 2. (v.) to change food in the stomach into a form that can be absorbed by the body	1. All the emails from the day are included in one single **digest**. 2. Dairy can be hard for some people to **digest**.
discount	1. (n.) a reduction in price 2. (v.) to underestimate the significance of or give no credence to	1. The clothing store is offering an employee **discount**. 2. Don't **discount** my skills because I'm young.
does	1. (n.) more than one female deer 2. (v.) present, third-person singular form of the verb "do"	1. Look at the **does** and their fawns in the meadow. 2. **Does** anyone know where my wallet is?
entrance	1. (n.) the place of entry 2. (v.) to bewitch or delight	1. Meet me at the **entrance** of the restaurant. 2. Scarlett **entrances** everyone she meets.

evening	1. (n.) late afternoon 2. (v.) making more even	1. Let's meet later this **evening** at dinner. 2. We're **evening** out the skill levels on each team.
frequent	1. (adj.) occurring regularly 2. (v.) to visit a place often	1. I make **frequent** visits to my hometown. 2. Do you **frequent** the art museum?
incense	1. (n.) a substance that produces a pleasant odor when burned 2. (v.) to infuriate or make very angry	1. The room smelled of cinnamon and **incense**. 2. It **incenses** me when you call me names.
minute	1. (n.) 60 seconds 2. (adj.) very small	1. It will only take one **minute** to get there. 2. The soil samples include **minute** traces of radiation.
moped	1. (v.) acted sad or gloomy in the past tense 2. (n.) a motorized bicycle or scooter	1. Martin **moped** all afternoon when he didn't get the job. 2. A **moped** went speeding by as we crossed the street.
proceeds	1. (v.) advances or continues on 2. (n.) money or profit gained	1. The population **proceeds** to grow higher and higher. 2. We donated the **proceeds** from the fundraiser to charity.
produce	1. (v.) to create or make 2. (n.) fresh fruits or vegetables	1. The band has **produced** some great music over the years. 2. We can buy fresh **produce** at the farmer's market.
putting	1. (v.) placing something in a location (put) 2. (v.) gently hitting a golf ball into the hole (putt)	1. I'm **putting** my laundry away. 2. The golfer's **putting** has gotten much better.
refuse	1. (v.) to reject or decline 2. (n.) garbage or trash	1. She broke his heart when she **refused** his proposal. 2. Please take the **refuse** out to the curb for the garbage truck.
second	1. (n.) 1/60 of a minute 2. (adj.) the position after first	1. We don't have a **second** to spare. 2. Isaac was proud to come in **second** place.
tear	1. (v.) to rip 2. (n.) a drop of water from the eye	1. **Tear** the paper out of your notebook and turn it in.

		2. **Tears** ran down her cheeks as she said goodbye.
wind	1. (v.) to turn in a circle 2. (n.) moving air in the atmosphere	1. **Wind** the clock so it shows the correct time. 2. The **wind** is so strong that it knocked down a tree.
wound	1. (v.) past tense form of wind 2. (n.) an injury	1. The girl **wound** a curl around her finger, 2. The **wound** on my ankle is starting to heal.

F. Several of these homograph words are spelled the same in English but have different etymologies. For example, the word **buffet** that ends in a silent "t" and means "a self-serving restaurant" comes from the French *bufet*, which means "stool."
G. However, when **buffet** has an audible "t" and means "to hit or strike" comes from the French verb *bufeter* with the same meaning.
H. Homograph Groups
I. Sometimes homographs have more than two meanings. Some of these homographs have the same pronunciation as each other, but at least one in each group is pronounced differently.

Homograph	Definitions	Examples
bass	1. (n.) a kind of fish 2. (n.) a large string instrument or type of guitar 3. (adj.) a deep voice or tone	1. We caught a large **bass** this morning. 2. The **bass** player is very talented. 3. Henry's low **bass** voice startled me.
bow	1. (v.) to bend at the waist 2. (n.) a pair of tied loops 3. (n.) a piece of archery equipment 4. (n.) the front of a boat	1. I **bowed** to the king. 2. Tie your shoelaces into a **bow**. 3. The archer aligned his arrow on the **bow**. 4. Go stand at the **bow** if you're feeling seasick.
compact	1. (adj.) small 2. (v.) to make small or firm 3. (n.) a small case for holding makeup	1. This parking space is for **compact** cars only. 2. You need to **compact** the soil before building a road. 3. There's a small mirror in my **compact**.
compound	1. (n.) a mixture made of two or more parts 2. (n.) an enclosed area with a building or group of buildings inside	1. The pharmacist creates **compounds** in the lab. 2. Our family lives in a big **compound** outside the city. 3. Arguing will only **compound** the problem.

	3. (v.) to add to or to make worse	
lead	1. (v.) to go first with followers behind 2. (n.) a type of metal 3. (n.) a leash for a dog	1. Who will **lead** the class while I'm gone? 2. **Lead** can be very dangerous in drinking water. 3. Attach the **lead** to the dog's collar.
object	1. (n.) a thing that you can see or touch 2. (n.) part of a sentence that receives the action from the subject 3. (v.) to be opposed to	1. Please don't throw **objects** from the bridge. 2. The **object** of the sentence comes after the verb. 3. I **object** to your argument that my client is guilty.
project	1. (n.) a plan or proposal 2. (v.) to throw or hurl forward 3. (v.) to use light to form a shadow or image onto a surface	1. The **project** needs to be finished by the end of the week. 2. The football **projected** over the players' heads and into the end zone. 3. **Project** the slides onto the wall so we can all see them.
number	1. (n.) a numeral 2. (v.) to count in order 3. (adj.) more numb	1. The toddler knows his **numbers** from 1-10. 2. **Number** these files in order that they were received. 3. After the dentist's second injection, the patient's mouth felt much **number**.
subject	1. (adj.) under authority or control 2. (v.) to expose someone to undesirable conditions 3. (n.) a topic learned in school 4. (n.) the noun that performs the action in a sentence	1. The peasants are **subject** to the king's commands. 2. Don't **subject** the children to problems in your marriage. 3. My favorite **subject** is math. 4. The **subject** usually comes before the predicate in a sentence.

J. This is just a small sample of all the homographs that exist.
K. There are hundreds more in English.
L. Some English words have several dissimilar meanings.
M. For example, the word Course could be a series of meetings or lessons, series of developments, actions or events, line of orientation or flow, mode of action, a route, and a part of a meal or a masonry layer.
N. Raise is another word with multiple meanings. It could mean to increase the level or amount of something, upward movement (such as hands or eyes), cause to be heard or known. It can also mean to collect funds, grow or cultivate, call into action, provide and care for (children, family), build or construct, call out emotions, create a disturbance, improve quality, wealth or condition, make something better, and more.

XI. Synonyms Cannot be Interchanged

A. Many words in English mean the same thing, such as see and watch.
B. However, it is not always possible to swap them.
C. It is all right to say, "watch or see a film" or "watch TV," but you should never say, "see television" as the phrase does not sound right.
D. To complicates things, a person is not called a "watcher" when you watch TV or movie, but rather a "viewer," but the latter's use is altogether different.
E. You cannot say view television, but you can say television viewer.
F. Synonyms of the word elegant include graceful, chic, refined and classic.
G. While you can say that a swan's or a ballerina's neck is elegant or graceful, you cannot normally associate chic or classic to a swan's neck because those two terms are associated with fashion.

XII. English Grammar is Difficult

A. Some English grammar structure, spelling, meanings, and rules contradict existing rules making English difficult to master.
B. The situation may be the same for foreign languages, but usually not to the same extent.
C. Several languages are more difficult to learn than English, including Mandarin, Japanese, Russian and Finnish.
D. Mandarin Chinese makes you learn thousands of characters, which takes years to master.
E. Written and spoken versions of Japanese differ.

XIII. Many Variations for Word Pronunciation

A. There is a saying: "Tomato, tomato; potato, potato," meaning pronunciation change and people think differently.
B. Here are some examples of words people tend to pronounce differently:

- Either, neither – long i or long e.
- Caramel [kahr-muhl], [kar–uh-muhl]. [kar–uh-mel],
- GIF – GIF or gif stands for "graphics interchange format." The word was introduced into our language around 1985–90. [jif] [gif]
- Vase [veys] (rhymes with case), [veyz] (rhymes with daze), and [vahz] (rhymes with cause).
- Mauve [ah], [mohv].
- Jewelry [joo–uhl-ree] [jool-ree].
- Often [aw-fuhn], [of–uhn]; [awf-tuhn], and [of-tuhn].[awf-tin]
- Almond [ah-muhnd], [am–uhnd], and [al-muhnd].
- Sherbet. There's no R in the second syllable.
- Acai [ah-sah-ee] or [ah-sahy-ee].
- Foyer [foi-er] is just fine, as is [foi-ey], or [fwa-yey].

XIV. Some Words are Pronounced Differently Depending on Location

A. Look at the following examples of difference in pronunciation:

- Water
  Most Americans refer to the stuff that comes out of the tap as "wah-ter." But if you were raised in the Philadelphia area, your pronunciation sounds more like "wooder" or "wooter."

- Been and Trash bins
  For most of us, the word "been" rhymes with "bin," like the ones above. But people in North Central states near Canada would say "ben," like the name.

- Egg
  Having breakfast in the Pacific Northwest portion of the U.S.? You're likely to hear diners around you pronounce "egg" like "ayg."

- Picture
  For some Americans, the word "picture" doesn't have a "k" sound; it sounds more like "pitcher." There's less of a regional divide with this one—you'll hear both pronunciations all over the country.

- Downtown
  In the Pittsburgh area, the "w's" in "downtown" disappear and are replaced by an "ah" sound. So if a Steelers fan asks you if you want to go "dahntahn," you know they want to head into the city.

- Oil
  In the South, when someone asks you to pass the "all," they're probably asking for "oil." Also depending on where you are, you may hear a one- or two-syllable version ("oi-ull") of this word.

- Drawer
  In most of the country, the word for an individual compartment in a dresser rhymes with the word "bore." But in the New York City area, "drawer" gets shortened to "draw," rhyming with "straw."

- Bag
  Shopping in Wisconsin? The clerk is likely to ask you if you'd like a "bayg" for your items instead of a "bag."

- Lilac
  Chances are, you would refer to these small, fragrant, purple florals as "lie-lacks." But around Rochester New York, the same plant is commonly called a "lie-lock." The town does have a famous Lilac Festival, so perhaps they know something we don't.

- Iron
  Whether you're pumping it to build up your muscles or using one to press your clothes, you most likely pronounce "iron" with two syllables ("eye-urn"). But, similar to the way

they've transformed the word "downtown," Pittsburghers have turned it into a one-syllable word that comes out sounding like "arhn."

- Bagel
  This delicious morning staple often covered in cream cheese has several ways of being pronounced, as it turns out. Most people—including New Yorkers, who are arguably the most knowledgeable on the matter—pronounce the word as "bay-gull," but many Midwesterners botch the word to sound like "bah-gull."

- Caramel
  This sweet treat's pronunciation is rather controversial. The Harvard Dialect Survey, a linguistics survey conducted in the early aughts by a team led by Bert Vaux, shows that while the West Coast and Midwest pronounce the word "caramel" with two syllables like "car-ml," the majority of the East Coast sees the word as three syllables, pronouncing it "car-a-mel."

- Syrup
  Could you pass the "sear-up"? No, but I can pass the "sirr-up." Yes, the syrup vs. syrup debate is a sticky one, but both pronunciations are considered acceptable.

- Pajamas
  When it comes to "pajamas" is the word's second syllable that changes. Head to America's Western and Midwestern states and you'll find that the "a" in pajamas is pronounced like "jam," but spend time in any Southern or Eastern state and you'll hear an "a" as in "father."

- Nevada
  Be careful how you pronounce the name of this state in front of a native Nevadan. Though inhabitants of the East Coast refer to the home of the Las Vegas Strip as "Nev-AH-da" (with an "a" like "odd"), the correct pronunciation—according to the state's residents—is actually "Nev-AD-a" (with an "a" like "add").

- Oregon
  Oregon is yet another state name that people outside of the West Coast don't know how to pronounce. Contrary to popular belief, it's not pronounced "Or-a-gone," but "Or-a-gun."

- New Orleans
  Even locals can't agree on how to pronounce the name of this city. Some people say "New Oar-lins," others say "New Or-leans," and a small subset even add an extra syllable to make it "New Or-lee-uhns."

- Caribbean
  As the region is named after the Caribs (pronounced kar-ib), the technically accurate pronunciation of the word "Caribbean" is "Kar-i-bee-in." However, many people (some Caribbean natives included) prefer the pronunciation "Ka-RIB-ee-in," and so both dictions are relatively commonplace.

- Florida
  Most Americans – Floridians included – pronounce the first syllable in Florida to rhyme with "sore." However, there are three other ways to pronounce this word: "Flow-ri-da,"

"Flah-ri-da," and "Flaw-ri-da." For the most part, these alternate pronunciations can be heard in Southern and Northeastern states.

- Texas
  Though the overwhelming majority of people pronounce "Texas" with an "s" sound, not everyone does. According to the Harvard Dialect Survey, just over 5 percent of respondents—primarily people in Northern and Midwestern states—say the state's name with a "z" sound.

- Tour
  Depending on who you ask, you could either embark on a "tore" of a city, or you could embark on a "toor" of a city. Both Merriam-Webster and the Macmillan Dictionary advise you to pronounce it as "toor," but that isn't to say that "tore" is wrong—it really just depends on what you were taught.

- Lawyer
  The researchers of the Harvard Dialect Survey also discovered that while most Americans pronounce the word "lawyer" in such a way that the first syllable rhymes with "boy," Southerners emphasize the "law" in lawyer so the first syllable makes a "saw" sound.

- Marry/Merry/Mary
  If you were to say the sentence "I feel merry about marrying Mary," would your pronunciations of "marry," "merry," and "Mary" sound any different? Most Americans will find that these words come out to sound exactly the same—but if you're from a big city in the Northeast, then it's probable that the way you sound out each word differs, with "marry" taking on the same vowel as "cat," "merry" taking on the same vowel as "pet," and "Mary" taking on the same vowel as "fair."

- Caught/Cot
  Do you hear a difference in pronunciation between the "cot" and "caught"? If so, you didn't grow up on the West Coast or in the Midwest. Harvard Dialect Survey researchers found that most people from these regions pronounced these words in the same way. People on the East Coast and in the South, meanwhile, tend to pronounce them differently [co-aught].

- Envelope
  Most people pronounce the first syllable in the word "envelope" like "pen"—but if you ask around enough, you will find that some people pronounce the first syllable like "dawn." That's because the English word originates from the French word for envelope, which favors the latter pronunciation.

- Aunt
  Some people, especially Southerners, see the word "aunt" and pronounce it no differently than the word's homonym, "ant." But others—particularly those in the Boston area—pronounce the word so that it rhymes with "daunt," paying homage to the colonies' former motherland.

- Almond
  The various pronunciations of the word "almond" originate back to when many people were emigrating from Europe to the United States, bringing with them their native

languages and thusly their own versions of various words. So, call it an “al-mond,” an “am-end,” or an “ahl-mend”; regardless of pronunciation, you’re still referring to the same thing.

- Salmon
  Given how many Americans are not native English speakers, it’s no surprise that so many are saying the word “salmon” with a distinguishable “l” sound. In languages like Spanish and Italian, the “l” in salmon is very much heard, and that often carries over into pronunciations for people who are learning English as a second language. In the case of this fish there is only one right pronunciation, and it involves no “l” sound whatsoever.

- Pecan
  Whether you pronounce the word “pecan” as “pee-can” or “puh-kahn” is complicated. The National Pecan Shellers Association polled Americans as to how they pronounced the name of the nut and they found that there were divides not just among regions, but within them as well. The Washington Post survey concluded that there was no single pronunciation of the word designated for each area, with 45 percent of Southerners and 70 percent of Northeasterners favoring “pee-can.”

- Mayonnaise
  Though there are some slight variations within regions, the general consensus is that in the West and Midwest, you’ll put “may-uh-naze” on your sandwich, and in the North and South, you’ll use “man-aze.”

- Cauliflower
  Is that vegetable you eat “caul-ee-flower” or “caul-ih-flower”? In the Northeast, you’re most likely to hear that second syllable pronounced like “see.” In the rest of the country, however, that “i” takes on the same sound that it does in “sit.”

- Coyote
  Unless you live on the West Coast, you probably don’t even realize that there are two ways to pronounce “coyote.” “Ki-ote is a Colorado-Wyoming kind of pronunciation,” Andrew Cowell, director of linguistics at CU Bolder, told 9 News. “If you come from the East, you’re much more likely to say ki-o-tee.”

- Bit
  Somehow, even three-letter words with one syllable have managed to take on several pronunciations. While the hefty majority of Americans pronounce the word “bit” like “sit,” there are some people (particularly in parts of Colorado) who say it like “bet.” (And since “bit” sounds like “bet,” “bet” then sounds like “bat.” It’s all very confusing.)

- Grocery
  What do you call the food items that you purchase at the market? “Gro-sir-ees,” of course! But not so fast: If you’re from the Midwest, you might replace the “sir” sound with an “sh,” calling your shopping haul “grosh-rees” instead.

- Crayon
  Some people pronounce it “cray-awn,” rhyming with “dawn,” and others pronounce it “cray-ahn,” rhyming with “man.” According to Crayola, arguably the top crayon experts,

the correct way to say it is “cray-awn,” but even they admit that there are too many regional differences to try and implement a single pronunciation.

- Mirror
  When saying the words “mirror” and “mere” out loud, do you hear a significant difference? Folks from the East Coast might be surprised to learn that the answer to this question for some people is no, as their pronunciation of the word “mirror” makes it just one syllable, disregarding the “-or” altogether.

- Museum
  Noone denies the word “museum” begins with a “mew” sound. They might, however, disagree over how the word continues to be sounded out, with some people favoring the pronunciation “mew-zee-um” and others opting for the pronunciation “mew-zam.”

- Mischievous
  The word “mischievous” is spelled so that it should be pronounced like “mis-che-vous,” but somehow the Harvard Dialect Survey found that over 26 percent of Americans pronounce the word with four syllables. Why? According to Merriam-Webster, a variant spelling of the word with an “-ious” ending existed as far back as the 16th century, though today both this spelling and pronunciation are considered “nonstandard.”

- Coupon
  You don’t pronounce the word “cool” with a “q” sound, so you wouldn’t think to pronounce the word “coupon” with a “q” sound either, right? Unfortunately, it’s not that simple. Though the word’s accepted pronunciation is the simple “koo-pon,” many an educated individual pronounce the first syllable of the word like “kyoo,” as if they’re sounding out the letter “q.”

- Poem
  Wherever you travel to in the United States, you’ll find people who pronounce the word “poem” as both “pome” (rhyming with “home”) and “po-emme.” The pronunciation of this word is not limited to regions, but simply to personal preference.

- Flourish
  Undoubtedly, Beyoncé is flourishing. But is she “flore-ishing,” “fluh-rishing,” or “flurr-ishing”? It really all depends on whom you ask. The Harvard Dialect Survey found that while “flurr-ish” is the preferred pronunciation, there are many Midwesterners and Northerners who say “flore-ish” and some folks living in the Northeast who say “fluh-rish.”

- Bowie Knife
  Is it a “Bow-ie” knife, or is it a “Boo-wie” knife? That depends on who you’re talking to. In the Harvard Dialect Survey, researchers found that approximately 19 percent of respondents—most of whom lived in the Northeast region—pronounced it the second way.

- Creek
  The majority of Americans can agree on the fact that the “ee” in “creek” is pronounced like “seek.” However, in the Harvard Dialect Survey, approximately four percent of people

noted that they pronounced the "ee" in creek so that it sounded like "sit." Most of these people were from Midwestern states like Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Iowa.

- Handkerchief
  Does the last syllable in "handkerchief" have the same sound as "seek" or "sit"? Per the Harvard Dialect Survey, most people in the Northeast would say "seek," while the rest of the country would go with "sit."

- Adult
  "Adult" is considered to be a "toilet paper roll" word. That is to say, whether you choose to pronounce it like "add-ult" or "uh-dult," you are correct—just as you'd be correct in placing your toilet paper roll either under or over.

- Asterisk
  "Asterisk" might not come up often in conversation, but when it does, it's pronounced differently depending on the region. In parts of the Northeast, it's pronounced "asteri[ks]"; up and down the Northern coast, it's pronounced "asteri[k]"; and in the rest of the country, it's simply "asteri[sk]."

- Realtor
  How many syllables are there in "realtor"? Ask someone from the Northeast and they'll probably tell you that there are only two. Ask someone from the Midwest or the South, however, and they're more likely to use three syllables, pronouncing it either "reel-uh-ter" or "ree-l-ter."

- Monday
  Most people will say the days of the week – Monday, Tuesday, etc. – and pronounce the second syllable so that it rhymes with "say." A small portion of the population, however, primarily in the South and Midwest, will say this syllable so that it rhymes with "see."

- Huge
  Most Americans pronounce the letter "h" in words like "huge." The Harvard Dialect Survey showed approximately three percent of respondents – mostly people in the Northeast – don't pronounce the "h" sound when saying words like "huge," "humor," "humongous," and "human."

- Quarter
  Most Americans pronounce the word "quarter" so that it has a "kw" sound at the beginning. However, some people in the Northeast and Midwestern regions pronounce this word so that the first syllable is more of a "k" sound.

- Roof
  If you've stayed in one place for your entire life, then you might not even know that there's more than one way to pronounce the word "roof." But surprisingly, there are actually two common ways to pronounce this four-letter word. While people born and raised in the West tend to pronounce the word as if it rhymes with "hoof," those from the East see it as rhyming with "poof."

- Miracle
  Most Americans pronounce the first vowel in “miracle” so that it sounds like “knit.” However, the Harvard Dialect Survey discovered that in the Northeast region, people tend to pronounce this vowel so that it sounds more like “near.” There is even a small group of people in the Northeast who pronounce this sound to rhyme with “net”!

- Really
  Though the word “really” is pronounced differently across the country, it doesn’t appear to be due to regional differences. In the Harvard Dialect Survey, researchers found that people from coast to coast pronounced the word “reely,” “rilly,” and “ree-l-y.”

- Insurance
  Most Americans pronounce the word “insurance” with an emphasis on the second syllable. But in some parts of the country—mostly in the Northeast and Midwest regions—people will emphasize the first syllable instead, calling it “INsurance.”

- Route
  The pronunciation of the word “route” is a little bit complicated. Though Northeasterners tend to pronounce it so it rhymes with “hoot” and Midwesterners tend to pronounce it so it rhymes with “out,” just over 30 percent of respondents in the Harvard Dialect survey noted that they can (and do) pronounce it both ways.

- Et Cetera
  There is not one, not two, not three, but four different ways to pronounce “et cetera.” Though the most popular way to say it is “e[ts]etera,” people also say “e[ts]etra,” “eksetera,” and “eksetra.”

- Garage
  Dialect differences have divided Americans into two categories: those who say “ga-rah-ge,” and those who say “ga-redge.” But hey, however you pronounce it, at least you’re not calling it a car park!

- Get
  “The word get does not rhyme with yet here in the South,” writes Sarah Johnson, a South Carolina native and Southern accent specialist. “We say it like ‘git.’ There is a common rhyme teachers use at school when students complain about not getting their first choice. In the North, you might say: ‘You get what you get, so don’t be upset.’ But that does not rhyme for us. We say, ‘You git what you git, so don’t throw a fit.’”

- Can’t
  “Get” isn’t the only word that Southerners pronounce differently. According to Johnson, “the word can’t in many small towns [in the South] actually rhymes with paint.”

- Pen
  In some parts of the south, the word “pen” often rhymes with “pin.” According to a dialect project from the 1990s conducted at North Carolina State University, this pattern can also be seen in words like “tin” and “ten,” “windy” and “Wendy,” and “sinned” and “send.”

XV. More Examples of Word Pronunciation Varying on Location

Word	Pronunciations	Popularity and Areas of the US Where Used
almond	1. "ALL-mund" – the "L" is pronounced and "al" sounds like the word "all"	Most common pronunciation overall, particularly in the western half of the US
	2. "AH-mund" – the "L" is not pronounced and "a" sounds like the "a" in father	Less common pronunciation overall, but when it does occur, it's more likely to be found in the eastern half of the US
	3. "AW-mund" – the "L" is not pronounced and "a" sounds like "aw" in awesome	This pronunciation is far less common overall than the first two pronunciations and does not have a stronghold in any region, but when it does occur, it's more likely to be found in the Northeast Corridor[1]
apricot	1. "APP-ri-caht" – first syllable rhymes with "map"	Most common pronunciation overall, especially dominant in the Northeast, East Coast, Midwest, and the Northwest near the Canadian border
	2. "APE"-ri-caht- first syllable rhymes with "cape"	Less common pronunciation overall but is dominant in California, Nevada, Utah, Idaho, and the area stretching from the Appalachian region to Texas
aunt	1. "ant" – sounds like the insect	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. "ahnt" – rhymes with "want"	Less common pronunciation overall, but when it does occur, it's more likely to be found in New England
broom	1. /brum/ – The "oo" sounds like the vowel in "food"	By far the most common pronunciation overall
	2. /brʊm/ – The "oo" sounds like the vowel in "foot"	A significantly less common pronunciation overall, but when it does occur, it's more likely to be found in the Midwest and Northeast
caramel	1. "CAR-mel" – 2 syllables, first syllable sounds like "car"	Slightly more popular pronunciation overall, and is especially dominant in the Midwest and in the western half of the United States
	2. "CARE-uh-mel" – 3 syllables, first syllable sounds like "care"	A close second in overall popularity of usage, and is especially dominant in New England, on the East Coast, and in the South (east of Louisiana).

	There are some speakers throughout the US who use both pronunciations interchangeably	
cauliflower	1. “COLL-ih-flower” – The “i” sounds like “ih” in “bit”	By far the most common pronunciation overall
	2. “COLL-ee-flower” – The “i” sounds like “ee” in “bee”	Less common pronunciation overall
crayon	1. “CRAY-on”- 2 syllables – rhymes with “rayon”	This pronunciation is the most common overall, and is especially dominant in The South (east of Texas), The Great Lakes Midwestern States, and on the East Coast (except far Northeastern New England)
	2. “CRAY-awn” – 2 syllables – last syllable rhymes with “pawn”	This pronunciation is not far behind the 1st pronunciation in overall popularity, and is especially dominant in the western half of the US, and in far Northeastern New England
	3. “cran” – 1 syllable – rhymes with “ban”	This pronunciation is far less common overall than the others and does not have a stronghold in any region, but when it does occur, it’s more likely to be found in the Mid-Atlantic and Midwestern States
cot/caught	1. The two words sound different. The vowel in “cot” sounds like the “a” in father and the vowel in “caught” sounds like “aw” in “awesome”	This pronunciation pair is slightly more common overall and is especially dominant in the eastern half of the US, except for Northeastern New England and the Pittsburgh metropolitan area
	2. The two words sound the same. The vowel in both “cot” and “caught” sound like the “a” in father	This pronunciation pair is slightly less common overall and dominates in the western half of the United States, Northeastern New England, and the Pittsburgh metropolitan area. This is known as the “cot-caught merger”
coupon	1. “KOO-pon” – first syllable rhymes with “too”	Most common pronunciation overall, and is especially dominant on the East Coast, and the areas west of the Rocky Mountains including the West Coast
	2. “KYOO-pon” – first syllable sounds like “queue”	Less common pronunciation overall, but when it does occur, it’s more likely to be found in the Midwest and in the Appalachian region
data	1. “day-tuh” – first syllable sounds like “day”	Most common pronunciation overall

	2. “da-tuh” – first syllable has the “a” sound like in cat	Less common pronunciation overall
don/dawn	1. The two words sound different. The vowel in “don” sounds like the “a” in father and the vowel in “dawn” sounds like “aw” in “awesome”	This pronunciation pair is slightly more common overall, and is particularly found in the eastern half of the US
	2. The two words sound the same. The vowel in both “don” and “dawn” sound like the “a” in father	This pair of pronunciations is slightly less common and is particularly found in the western half of the United States. This word pair falls under the category and is an example of the “cot-caught merger” (see cot/caught further up in this chart)
either	1. “EE-ther” – first syllable rhymes with “bee”	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. “AYE-ther” – first syllable rhymes with “hi”	Less common pronunciation in all parts of the US, but when it does occur, it’s slightly more likely to be found in New England
	There are some speakers throughout the US who use both pronunciations interchangeably	
horrible	1. “HOR-uh-bul” – first syllable rhymes with “more”	This is by far the most common pronunciation overall
	2. “HAR-uh-bul” – first syllable rhymes with “car”	This is a significantly less common pronunciation that can be found in the New York metropolitan area and Boston
lawyer	1. “LOY-er” – first syllable rhymes with “boy”	Most common pronunciation overall, especially dominant in the Northeast, Midwest, Northwest, Southwest, and West Coast
	2. “LAW-yer” – first syllable rhymes with “saw”	Less common pronunciation throughout the US, but this pronunciation has a stronghold in The South (east of Texas)
marry/Mary/merry	1. All 3 sound the same and rhyme with “very”	This is by far the most popular pronunciation pattern overall, particularly in the Midwest and in the entire western half of the US. This is known as the “merry-mary-marry merger”
	2. All 3 sound different – the “a” in “marry” sounds like the “a” in cat, “Mary” rhymes with “fairy,” and “merry” rhymes with “very”	This pronunciation pattern dominates only in the Northeast Corridor[1], particularly in the New York metropolitan area

	3. “Mary” and “marry” sound the same and in them, the first syllable rhymes with “fair,” and “merry” rhymes with “berry”	This pronunciation does not dominate in any region, but can be found in the Northeast Corridor[1], particularly in the New York metropolitan area
neither	1. “NEE-ther” – first syllable rhymes with “bee”	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. “NAI-ther” – first syllable rhymes with “hi”	Less common pronunciation in all parts of the US, but when it does occur, it’s slightly more likely to be found in New England
	There are some speakers throughout the US who use both pronunciations interchangeably	
pajamas	1. “jam” rhymes with “Tom”	This pronunciation is only slightly more popular in terms of total number of speakers in the US, and is by far the most common pronunciation in The South (east of Texas), and in the Northeast Corridor[1]
	2. “jam” sounds like the fruit spread “jam”	This pronunciation comes a close second to the 1st pronunciation in terms of overall popularity, and enjoys more popularity on the West Coast, in the Northwest, and in the Midwest
pecan	1. “pee-KAHN” – rhymes with “see Ron”	This pronunciation is most popular on the West Coast, in the Northwest, and in the Midwest
	2. “pick-AHN” – sounds like “pick Ron” minus the /r/	This pronunciation is most popular in the southern states not on the east coast
	3. PEE-can – sounds like a tin full of small round vegetables- “pea can”	This pronunciation is most popular in New York and New England
poem	1. “po-em” – two syllables – “po” rhymes with “go” and “em” rhymes with “them”	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. “pome” – one syllable – rhymes with “home”	Less common pronunciation overall
quarter	1. “kwor-ter” – starts with /kw/ sound	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. “kor-ter” – starts with /k/ sound, no /w/	Less common pronunciation overall
roof	1. /ruf/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “food”	This is by far the most common pronunciation overall

	2. /rʊf/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “foot”	This is a significantly less common pronunciation in all parts of the US, but when it does occur, it’s more likely to be found in the Midwest and Northeast
room	1. /rum/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “food”	This is by far the most common pronunciation overall
	2. /rʊm/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “foot”	This is a significantly less common pronunciation in all parts of the US, but when it does occur, it’s more likely to be found in the Midwest and Northeast
root	1. /rut/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “food”	This is by far the most common pronunciation overall
	2. /rʊt/ – The “oo” sounds like the vowel in “foot”	This is a significantly less common pronunciation in all parts of the US, but when it does occur, it’s more likely to be found in the Midwest and Northeast
route	1. /rut/ – The vowel sounds like the vowel in “food”	Most common pronunciation overall
	2. /raʊt/ – The “ou” sounds like the vowel in “house”	Less common pronunciation overall
	Some speakers throughout the US use both pronunciations, either interchangeably, or say /rut/ when discussing a highway and /raʊt/ for computer networking	
syrup	1. “SIR-up” – First half of word sounds like “sir” which rhymes with “burr”	Most common pronunciation overall except in the Northeast Corridor[1]
	2. “SIHR-up”	A close second in popularity, this variant is also heard throughout the US except in the Northeast Corridor[1]
	3. “SEAR-up”	Least common pronunciation throughout most of the US, however this is the most common pronunciation in the Northeast Corridor[1]
Thanksgiving	1. “thanks-GIV-ing” – stress on the second syllable	This is by far the most common pronunciation throughout the US
	2. “THANKS-giv-ing” – stress on the first syllable	This is the less common pronunciation throughout the US
	A minority of speakers throughout the US who use both pronunciations interchangeably	

[1]The Northeast Corridor is the densely populated area spanning from Washington D.C. to Boston, including all cities in between such as New York City and Philadelphia.

XVI. Many Words Tend to be Mis-pronounced

A. Although it is open to debate, there are proper pronunciation for words.
B. 100-plus of the most often mispronounced words

- Mispronounced Words That Start with A

1. Do say: across | Don't say: acrossed
2. Do say: affidavit | Don't say: affidavid
3. Do say: Alzheimer's disease | Don't say: old-timer's disease
4. Do say: Antarctic | Don't say: Antartic (ant-ar-tic)
5. Do say: Arctic | Don't say: Artic
6. Do say: ask | Don't say: aks or axe
7. Do say: athlete, athletic | Don't say: athelete, atheletic
8. Do say: Australia | Don't say: Ostraya

- Mispronounced Words That Start with B

9. Do say: barbed wire | Don't say: bob wire (or barb wire)
10. Do say: barbiturate | Don't say: barbituate
11. Do say: a blessing in disguise | Don't say: a blessing in the skies
12. Do say: business | Don't say: bidness

- Mispronounced Words That Start with C

13. Do say: cache (cash)| Don't say: cachet (cash-ay)
14. Do say: cacophony (ca-caw-fone-ee)| Don't say: caucaphony (caw-ca-fone-ee)
15. Do say: candidate | Don't say: cannidate
16. Do say: cardsharp | Don't say: card shark
17. Do say: carpal tunnel syndrome | Don't say: carpool tunnel syndrome
18. Do say: The Caucasus (caw-cah-suhs) | Don't say: The Caucases (caw-cah-says)
19. Do say: cavalry (cav-al-ree)| Don't say: Calvary (cal-vah-ree)
20. Do say: champ at the bit | Don't say: chomp at the bit
21. Do say: chest of drawers | Don't say: chester drawers
22. Do say: clothes | Don't say: close
23. Do say: cornet (kor-net) | Don't say: coronet (kor-oh-net)

- Mispronounced Words That Start with D and E

24. Do say: dilate (dye-late)| Don't say: dialate (dye-ah-late)
25. Do say: diphtheria | Don't say: diptheria
26. Do say: dog-eat-dog world | Don't say: doggy dog world
27. Do say: drown | Don't say: drownd
28. Do say: electoral | Don't say: electorial
29. Do say: escape | Don't say: excape

30. Do say: espresso | Don't say: expresso
31. Do say: et cetera | Don't say: excetera
32. Do say: especially | Don't say: expecially

- Mispronounced Words That Start with F

33. Do say: February (Feb-roo-air-ee) | Don't say: Febuary (Feb-you-air-ee)
34. Do say: federal (fed-err-all) | Don't say: fedral (fed-rall)
35. Do say: film | Don't say: fillum
36. Do say: fiscal | Don't say: fisical
37. Do say: foliage (foh-lee-age) | Don't say: foilage (foy-ull-age)
38. Do say: for all intents and purposes | Don't say: for all intensive purposes
39. Do say: forte (for-tay) | Don't say: fort (fort)
40. Do say: founder | Don't say: flounder
41. Do say: foyer | Don't say: foy-ay

- Mispronounced Words That Start with G, H and I

42. Do say: GIF (jiff) | Don't say: GIF (ghiff)
43. Do say: height | Don't say: heighth
44. Do say: Heimlich maneuver (or manoeuvre, Br.) | Don't say: Heineken remover
45. Do say: hierarchy (hi-err-ar-key) | Don't say: hi-archy | (hi-ar-key)
46. Do say: interpret | Don't say: interpretate

- Mispronounced Words That Start with J and L

47. Do say: jewelry (jool-ree) | Don't say: jewlery (joo-luh-ree)
48. Do say: just | Don't say: jist nor jus
49. Do say: larynx (lare-inks) | Don't say: larnyx (lare-nicks)
50. Here the [n] and [y] switch places. Mind your [n]s and [y]s as you mind your [p]s and [q]s.
51. Do say: law and order | Don't say: Laura Norder
52. Do say: lease | Don't say: leash
53. Do say: liable | Don't say: libel
54. Do say: library | Don't say: libary

- Mispronounced Words That Start with M and N

55. Do say: masonry | Don't say: masonary
56. Do say: mauve ["mowv."] | Don't say: mawv
57. Do say: mayonnaise | Don't say: man-naise
58. Do say: miniature (min-ee-ah-ture) | Don't say: miniture (min-ih-ture)
59. Do say: moot | Don't say: mute
60. Do say: mischievous (mis-chiv-ous) | Don't say: mischevious (mis-chee-vee-ous)
61. Do say: nuclear | Don't say: nucular
62. Do say: nuptial (nup-shul) | Don't say: nuptual (nup-shu-ull)

- Mispronounced Words That Start with O

63. Do say: other | Don't say: nother
64. Do say: often | Don't say: off ten
65. Do say: ordnance | Don't say: ordinance
66. Do say: orient | Don't say: orientate
67. Do say: ostensibly | Don't say: ostensively

- Mispronounced Words That Start with P

68. Do say: enclosed in parentheses (pare-en-the-sees) | Don't say: enclosed in parenthesis (pare-en-the-sis)
69. Do say: parliament ["pahr-lyê-mênt."] | Don't say: parlament
70. Do say: percolate | Don't say: perculate
71. Do say: pernickety | Don't say: persnickety You may think us too pernickety to even mention this one. It is
72. Do say: peremptory | Don't say: preemptory
73. The old pre-/per- problem. Do not confuse this word with preemptive; the prefix here is per-.
74. Do say: perspire | Don't say: prespire
75. Do say: pollute | Don't say: plute
    Like "plice" [police], spose [suppose], etc., result from rapid speech syncope, the loss of unaccented vowels. Pronounce the vowel when you are speaking slowly.
76. Do say: potable | Don't say: pottable
77. Do say: prerogative | Don't say: perogative
78. Do say: prescription | Don't say: perscription
79. Do say: probably | Don't say: probly, prolly
80. Do say: pronunciation | Don't say: pronounciation
81. Do say: prostate | Don't say: prostrate

- Mispronounced Words That Start with R

82. Do say: realtor (real-tor) | Don't say: realator (real-a-tor)
83. Do say: regardless | Don't say: irregardless
84. Do say: relevant | Don't say: revelant
85. Do say: respite (res-pit) | Don't say: respite (res-pite)
86. Do say: sherbet | Don't say: sherbert
87. Do say: silicon | Don't say: silicone
88. Silicon is used to make computer chips, but implants are made of silicone.
89. Do say: sneaked | Don't say: snuck
90. Do say: so | Don't say: sose
91. Do say: spay | Don't say: spade
92. Do say: stamp | Don't say: stomp
93. Do say: stub | Don't say: stob
94. Do say: suite (sweet) | Don't say: suit (soot)
95. Do say: supposedly | Don't say: supposably
96. Do say: supremacist | Don't say: supremist
97. Do say: tack | Don't say: tact
98. Do say: take for granted | Don't say: take for granite
99. Do say: tenet | Don't say: tenant
100. Do say: tenterhooks | Don't say: tenderhooks

101. Do say: triathlon (tri-ath-lon) | Don't say: triathalon (tri-ath-a-lon)

- Mispronounced Words That Start with U, V, W, Y and Z

102. Do say: utmost | Don't say: upmost
103. Do say: verbiage (ver-bee-age) | Don't say: verbage (ver-bage)
104. Do say: voluptuous | Don't say: volumptuous
105. Do say: wasn't | Don't say: wadn't
106. Do say: whet | Don't say: wet
107. Do say: yolk | Don't say: yoke
108. Do say: zoology (zo-ol-oh-gee) | Don't say: zuology | (zu-ol-oh-gee)

XVII. Some Nouns and Verbs Spelled the Same Have Different Stress

A. Pronunciation Changes in Words that are Both Nouns and Verbs
B. My *conduct* is always professional.
C. I *conduct* myself in a professional manner.
D. "conduct" is used as a noun. The stress is placed on the first syllable (CONduct).
E. conduct" is used as a verb. The stress is placed on the second syllable (conDUCT).
F. the chart below lists some words that change pronunciation depending on whether they are a verb or a noun.
G. English pronunciation varies geographically.
H. The chart was designed to include common examples in American English.

Noun	Verb
CONduct	conDUCT
ATTribute	attrIBute
COMbat	comBAT
CONflict	conFLICT
CONtest	conTEST
CONtract	conTRACT
DEcrease	deCREASE
EScort	esCORT
IMpact	imPACT
INcrease	inCREASE

Noun	Verb
INsult	inSULT
OBject	obJECT
PERmit	perMIT
PREsent	preSENT
PROceed	proCEED
PROgress	proGRESS
PROject	proJECT
REbel	reBEL
REfill	reFILL
REfund	reFUND
REject	reJECT
REpeat	rePEAT
SUBject	subJECT
SUSpect	susPECT

XVIII. Many Word Pronunciations Do Not follow Rules

A. Examples of word pronunciations that do not make sense.

1. The word “colonel” is pronounced like the word “kernel.”

2. “Through,” “thorough,” and “trough” should all sound the same if they insist on being spelled with -ough. The most annoying of these is “through,” since it seems to be the only word that is spelled like that and has the same vowel sound as “true.”

3. The word “Wednesday” is spelled the way that it is and it really shouldn’t be. How its spelled: W-E-D-N-E-S-D-A-Y How it sounds: W-E-N-D-S-D-A-Y. The ‘n’ and the ‘d’ should switch places, and get that middle ‘e’ out of there.

4. “Flammable” and “inflammable” mean the same thing, and it’s a crime against common sense. Signs that reads Flammable, which is a synonym of inflammable. What is the point of having a version of the word with the prefix?

5. The plural form of “box” is “boxes,” but the plural of “ox” is “oxen.” Makes no sense. It’s not an animal thing, because the plural of “fox” is “foxes” and not “foxen.”

6. Along those lines, if the plural of “goose” is “geese,” then the plural of “moose” should be “meese.”

7. Both “that that” and “had had” are acceptable within the rules of English grammar. Eleanor knew that that was what had upset her sister. She knew the effect their argument had had on her.

8. “Worse” sounds different than all the other words that end in -orse, and there’s simply no reason for that. “Horse,” “remorse,” “endorse,” and “worse.” WHY?

9. “Famous” and “infamous” aren’t antonyms, for some reason. It’s not like with “flammable” and “inflammable,” where both words mean the same thing. “Famous” means that something is widely known, while “infamous” means that something is notoriously evil. Once again the prefix -in, which is supposed to mean “not,” isn’t following the rules.

10. The concept of a “pair” of pants is hard to understand. What is there a pair of? The legs? That can’t be right because we also say a “pair of underpants” and there are no legs there. There is an explanation as to why we say “pair of” when it comes to things like pants, glasses, scissors, and tweezers, but it’s yet another unnecessary complication in this tumbleweed of a language.

11. The number of English words that contain silent letters is simply too many. What is the need? Does “dumb” really need that ‘b’? Would “February” miss that first ‘r’ if we took it away? “Yacht” has two whole letters that are just there for decoration. Almost every letter of the alphabet has rules about which words use it silently, and you’re just supposed to remember them all.

12. There are too many words that are spelled differently but sound the same. A vain woman, a vein in an arm, and a weathervane. You’re telling me there was no way for us to avoid the debacle that is their/they’re/there, lie/lye, and vane/vain/vein? I don’t believe you.

13. “Heart,” “beard,” and “heard” all have different vowel sounds even though they have the same vowels. There are so many instances like this, where the same vowels make different sounds based on the letters they have on either side. Words should look how they sound!

14. The number 40 is written “forty,” but 4 is written “four.” Before you tell me that “twenty” and “thirty” aren’t written the same as “two” and “three,” let me remind you that “sixty,” “seventy,” “eighty,” and “ninety” exist. Four and forty are only off by ONE LETTER, did we really need that ‘u’? No.

15. Some contractions sound fine at the end of a sentence, but others don’t.

Why is it fine to end a sentence with "don't" or "can't," but you wouldn't end a sentence with "you're" or "it's"? It sounds bad to us now, but that's only because someone told us it sounded bad.

16. We say, "double u double u double u" when it would be quicker and easier to say "world wide web." I'm not saying I want us to start saying "world wide web" every time we mention a website, but we went from a three-syllable phrase to a nine-syllable acronym.

17. And finally, the pronunciation of bologna is just not right.

XIX. English Has Many Idioms and Colloquialisms

A. An idiom is a group of words established by usage as having a meaning not deducible from those of the individual words (e.g., rain cats and dogs, see the light).
B. Examples of idioms and their meanings

1. A grey area – Something unclear
2. A rip-off – Too expensive
3. Add fuel to the fire – To add more to an existing problem
4. As easy as ABC – Something is very easy
5. Call it a day – Time to quit
6. Cool as a cucumber – To be very calm under stress
7. Crack a book – Open up a book and study
8. Down to the wire – At the last minute
9. Draw a blank – Can't remember
10. Fill in the blanks – Provide more information
11. Get a kick out of it – Really enjoy/like something
12. Get your act together – Behave properly
13. Give it a shot – To try to do something
14. Have mixed feelings – Be unsure of how you feel
15. Have second thoughts – Have doubts
16. In hot water – Be in trouble
17. In the same boat – Be in the same situation
18. It's in the bag – It's a certainty
19. I've got your number – You are not fooled because you have them figured out
20. Miss the boat – You missed your chance
21. Mumbo jumbo – To call something total nonsense
22. Out of the blue – With no warning
23. Pass with flying colors – To succeed at something easily
24. Piece of cake – Something very easy
25. Read between the lines – Find the hidden meaning
26. Second to none – The best
27. The icing on the cake – Something additional that turns good into great
28. Cross your fingers – For good luck
29. Fell on deaf ears – People wouldn't listen to something
30. Get cold feet – Be nervous
31. Giving the cold shoulder – Ignore someone

32. Have a change of heart – Changed your mind
33. I'm all ears – You have my full attention
34. It cost an arm and a leg – It was expensive
35. Play it by ear – Improvise
36. See eye to eye – Agree
37. Slipped my mind – I forgot
38. Speak your mind – Say what you really feel
39. A bull in a china shop - Someone who is very clumsy
40. A little birdie told me - Someone told me a secret
41. Bee in her bonnet - She is upset
42. Birdbrain - Someone who is not very smart
43. Busy as a bee – To be very active and working hard at something
44. Cat got your tongue? - Why aren't you talking?
45. Cry crocodile tears - To pretend to be upset
46. Curiosity killed the cat - Asking too many questions may get you in trouble
47. Different kettle of fish - Something completely different
48. Doggy bag - A bag to take home leftovers from a restaurant
49. Fish out of water - Being somewhere you don't belong
50. For the birds - Something that is not worth anything
51. Get off your high horse - Quit thinking you are better than others
52. Goose is cooked - Now you're in trouble
53. Hold your horses - Wait a minute
54. Horse of a different color - Something that is quite different, a separate issue
55. Hot dog - A person doing athletic stunts that are dangerous
56. Let the cat out of the bag - Tell a secret
57. Make a mountain out of a molehill - Make something unimportant into a big deal
58. Night owl - Someone who stays up late
59. Pig out - To eat a lot
60. Put a bug in his ear - Make a suggestion
61. Raining cats and dogs - It is raining very hard
62. Snail's pace – To move extremely slow
63. Stir a hornet's nest – To cause a lot of trouble
64. Teacher's pet – The teacher's favorite student
65. The world is your oyster – You can achieve whatever/go wherever you want
66. When pigs fly - To say something is impossible
67. Wolf in sheep's clothing - A person who pretends to be nice but is not
68. You can't teach an old dog new tricks - It's harder for older people to learn new things
69. I lost my train of thought – The person forgot what they were talking about.
70. I lost my mind – I lost controlled thinking and self-discipline.
71. I blew my top – I got angry
72. I was barking up the wrong tree – I was mistaken
73. It's raining cats and dogs – That's a lot of rain
74. The straw that broke the camel's back – The one thing that really caused a problem

C. Colloquialism: a word or phrase that is not formal or literary, typically one used in ordinary or familiar conversation.
D. A colloquial word from every state:

    1. Alabama: flip – slingshot

2. Alaska: skijoring – being pulled on skis
3. Arizona: greasewood – creosote bush
4. Arkansas: renthouse – a house that is rented out
5. California: make the riffle – to succeed
6. Colorado: buck – a brace for cutting firewood
7. Connecticut: pigsticker – sled with pointed front
8. Delaware: sneak – tennis shoe
9. District of Columbia: slug – a hitchhiking commuter
10. Florida: scaper – rascal or critter
11. Georgia: burk – vomit
12. Hawaii: huhu – angry
13. Idaho: lucerne – alfalfa
14. Illinois: scramble dinner – potluck supper
15. Indiana: belling – loud celebration
16. Iowa: kittenball – softball
17. Kansas: doodinkus -- unspecified object
18. Kentucky: ridy-bob – seesaw
19. Louisiana: cowcumber – cucumber
20. Maine: putty around – be idle
21. Maryland: snoopy – finicky
22. Massachusetts: diddledees – pine needles
23. Michigan: sewing needle – dragonfly
24. Minnesota: ish – expression of disgust
25. Mississippi: squab – fat person
26. Missouri: hall tree – clothes rack
27. Montana: coulee – valley
28. Nebraska: on pump – on credit
29. Nevada: pogonip – thick, icy fog
30. New Hampshire: crawm – food waste
31. New Jersey: laggy – lethargic
32. New Mexico: colchon – mattress
33. New York: spiedie -- marinated meat sandwich
34. North Carolina: table tapper – amateur preacher
35. North Dakota: limpa – rye bread made with molasses
36. Ohio: dope – dessert topping
37. Oklahoma: larruping – delicious
38. Oregon: cho-cho – small boy
39. Pennsylvania: skimmelton – shivaree
40. Rhode Island: driftway – access road to the sea
41. South Carolina: cascade – vomit
42. South Dakota: soak – serious drinker
43. Tennessee: hunk – bumpkin
44. Texas: worrit – nag
45. Utah: sluff school – play hooky
46. Vermont: pestle around – putter about
47. Virginia: garlicky – bad flavor, said of milk
48. Washington: marblehead – winter squash
49. West Virginia: slicky slide – playground slide
50. Wisconsin: whoopensocker – something extraordinary

51. Wyoming: dout – extinguish

XX. There Are Varieties of English

A. English is a worldwide language. The English language is a world language.
B. Between 1.5 billion and 2 billion people across the planet speak English.
C. Between 375,000 and 400,000 people are native English speakers.
D. Since the English language has become so widespread, it is no surprise that different varieties of English have arisen.
E. There are many varieties of English spoken in the world.
F. The oldest variety of English is British English, spoken in the United Kingdom.
G. Approximately 60 million people are native British English speakers.
H. The variety of English with the largest number of native speakers is American English, with 225 million native speakers.
I. The other major varieties of English are these:

- Canadian English
- Australian English
- New Zealand English
- South African English
- Indian English.
- World English.

I. All varieties of English share the same basic tenets of the language, but certain words, phrases or linguistic constructs may differ.
J. For instance, in British English, one says I'm going to hospital.
K. In American English one says I'm going to the hospital.
L. In British English one may say he is going to the cinema, in American English one says he is going to the movies, and in South African English, the phrase is going to the bioscope.
M. Varieties of English may be further divided into dialects such as Anglo-Cornish or Welsh English in Great Britain, Gallah or Gulf Southern in the United States and Bengali English and Southern Indian English in India.
N. Whatever the variety or dialect, English speakers the world over may communicate with each other, with only occasional gaps in understanding.
O. Here is a list of common words that vary (or change spelling) depending on country.

Spelling Variances	
Acknowledgement vs. acknowledgment	Improvise vs. improvize
Aeon vs. eon	Installment vs. instalment
Aeroplane vs. airplane	Jewelry vs. jewellery
Aetiology or etiology	Kick off vs. kickoff (vs. kick-off)
Afterward vs. afterwards	Labeled vs. labelled
Ageing vs. aging	Labor vs. labour

All-around, all-round	Lambast vs. lambaste
Aluminium vs. aluminum	Lasagna vs. lasagne
Among vs. amongst	Leaped vs. leapt
Analyse vs. analyze	Learned vs. learnt
Analyses vs analyzes	Licence vs. license
Annex vs. annexe	Licorice vs. liquorice
Apologise vs. apologize	Lieutenant
Appal vs. appall	Likable vs. likeable
Armor vs. armour	Liter vs. litre
Arse vs. ass	Maneuver vs. manoeuvre
As crook as Rookwood	Math vs. maths
Authorise vs. authorize	Meager vs. meagre
Autumn vs. fall	Meter vs. metre
Ax vs. axe	Modeling vs. modelling
Baptise vs. baptize	Mold vs. mould
Beggar belief	Mollusc vs. mollusk
Behavior vs. behaviour	Molt vs. moult
Bingeing or binging	Neighbor vs. neighbour
Bulk, balk, baulk	Ocher vs. ochre
Burgle vs. burglarize	Odor vs. odour
Burned vs. burnt	Offence vs. offense
Caliber vs. calibre	Omelet vs. omelette
Canceled vs. cancelled	One-time vs. onetime
Candor or candour	Organise vs. organize
Catalog vs. catalogue	Orthopedic vs. orthopaedic
Center vs. centre	Pajamas vs. pyjamas
Check vs. cheque	Paralyse vs. paralyze
Civilise vs. civilize	Percent vs. per cent
Co-ordinate vs coordinate	Phony vs. phoney
College vs. university	Plough vs. plow
Color vs. colour	Practice vs. practise
Cooperate vs. co-operate	Pretence vs. pretense
Cosy vs. cozy	Program vs. programme
Counselor vs. counsellor	Rancor vs. rancour
Crayfish, crawfish, crawdad, etc.	Realise vs. realize
Curb vs. kerb	Rejig vs. rejigger
Customise vs. customize	Rumor vs. rumour
Defence vs. defense	Sanitise vs sanitize
Demeanor or demeanour	Savanna vs. savannah

Deviled vs devilled	Savior vs. saviour
Different from, different than, different to	Sceptic vs. skeptic
Dike vs. dyke	Skilful vs. skillful
Draft vs. draught	Smelled vs. smelt
Dreamed vs. dreamt	Smokey vs. smoky
Enamor vs. enamour	Somber vs. sombre
Endeavor vs. endeavour	Specter vs. spectre
Enrol vs. enroll	Spelled vs. spelt
Farther vs. further	Spilled vs. spilt
Favor vs. favour	Spoiled vs. spoilt
Favorite vs. favourite	Sulfur vs. sulphur
Fiber vs. fibre	Synchronise or synchronize
Flautist vs. flutist	Takeaway and takeout
Flavor vs. flavour	Theater vs. theatre
Flier vs. flyer	Tidbit vs. titbit
Flip one's lid vs. flip one's wig	Tire vs. tyre
Fueled/fueling vs. fuelled/fuelling	Ton vs. tonne
Fulfil vs. fulfill	Totaled/totaling vs. totalled/totalling
Full stop vs. period	Toward vs. towards
Furor vs. furore	Transport vs. transportation
Gaveled vs. gavelled	Traveled/traveling vs. travelled/travelling
Glamour vs. glamor	Tunneled, tunneling vs. tunnelled, tunnelling
Got vs. gotten	Wagon vs. waggon
Harbor vs. harbour	Wilful vs. willful
Hoover vs. vacuum	Woolen vs. woollen
Humor vs. humour	Yoghurt vs. yogurt
Impinge vs. infringe	Zee vs. zed

Lesson 9: The Relationships of Languages

I. The Language Tree

A. There are 147 language families according to *Ethnologue* 16th Edition
B. Each family has its own branches
C. Each branch has its own groups
D. Each group has its own language
E. Each language has its own dialects
F. Some languages have no family.

The Language Tree

Linguists have organized languages into Language Trees

A Language Tree is divided into the following hierarchy:

- **Language Family**
- **Branches**
- **Groups**
- **Language**
- **Dialect**

Language Family	Number of Languages	Percent of World	Number of Speakers
Indo-European	430	45%	5.9 billion
Sino-Tibetan	399	22%	1.2 billion
Niger-Congo	1,495	6%	358 million
Afro-Asiatic	353	6%	339 million
Austronesian	1,246	5%	311 million
Dravidian	73	4%	221 million

II. The Number of Language Families in the World Differs

A. *The International Journal of Basque Linguistics and Philology* (2018) found the imprecise number of approximately 406 independent language families, including 162 language isolates.
B. It is anticipated, however, that this number will change.
C. Some of the known families will probably be adequately demonstrated to be related to other known families through additional comparative work on languages, reducing the total number of language families.

III. Classifications of Languages

A. Depending on who is counting, there are up to 8,500 languages of the world.
B. The top five language families comprise 84% of the world's languages.
C. The top ten language families comprise 96% of the world's languages.
D. Some language families are extinct.

Classification of Languages

Indo-European Family
Spoken by 45% of the world
Includes English

Sino-Tibetian Family
Spoken by 22% of the world
Mainly China
Includes Mandarin

Afro-Asiatic Family
Spoken by 6% of the world
Mainly Middle East
Includes Arabic

Austronesian Family
Spoken by 5% of the world
Mainly Southeast Asia

Niger-Congo Family
Spoken by 6% of the world
Mainly in Africa

Dravidian Family
Spoken by 4% of the world
Mainly in India

Altaic Family
Spoken by 2% of the world
Mainly in Asia

Austro-Asiatic Family
Spoken by 2% of the world
Mostly in Southeast Asia

Japanese
Spoken by 2% of the world
Separate language family

IV. Proto-Languages

A. Proto-languages were the original languages that can group today's languages together.
B. Even though they also evolved to thoroughly different systems, some words seem to remain the same as they were thousands of years ago.
C. For example, Latin is the proto-language of the Romance language family, which includes such modern languages as French, Italian, Portuguese, Romanian, Catalan and Spanish.
D. Today, there are approximately 50 proto-languages estimated.
E. Since language was only spoken for most of its history, it is difficult to trace languages back to their roots.
F. Furthermore, accidental similarities between some languages make tracing a language more challenging.
G. The Genesis 11 account shows that all languages can be trace to the one language spoken of in Genesis 11:1.
H. From this event we estimate 72 languages came from the confounding of the language (Genesis 11:7), separated into three families – Japheth, Ham, and Shem (Genesis 10:5, 20, 31).

V. How Are Relationships Among Languages Established?

A. Language relationships are defined by the *Comparative Method* (see Lesson 25).
B. Sometimes it is relatively easy to establish relationships among languages.
C. In respect to Romance languages, for example we know that Italian is a descendant of Latin, a language that was spoken in Italy two thousand years ago, and one which left a great number of written documents.
D. The Roman conquest helped spread Latin throughout Europe where it eventually developed into regional dialects.
E. When the Roman Empire broke up, these regional dialects evolved into the modern Romance languages that we know today: French, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and others.
F. These languages form the Romance branch of the Indo-European language family.
G. In most cases, the ancestral language was not written. As a result, linguists look at similarities among its modern descendants to establish common origins.
H. These similarities are the common words used in the languages.

Indo-European Language Similarities						
English	month	mother	new	night	nose	three
Welsh	mis	mam	newyyd	nos	trwyn	tri
Gaelic	mis	mathair	nua	oiche	sron	tri
French	mois	mere	nouveau	nuit	nez	trois
Spanish	mes	madre	nuevo	noche	nariz	tres
Portuguese	mes	mae	novo	noits	nariz	tres
Italian	mese	madre	nuovo	notte	naso	tre
Latin	mensis	mater	novus	nox	nasus	tres
German	Monat	Mutter	neu	Nacht	Nase	drei
Dutch	naand	moeder	nieuw	nacht	neus	drie

Icelandic	manuour	mooir	nyr	nott	nef	prir
Swedish	manad	moder	ny	natt	nasa	tre
Polish	miesiac	matka	nowy	noc	nos	trzy
Czech	mesic	matka	novy	noc	nos	tri
Rumanian	luna	mama	nou	noapte	nas	trei
Albanian	muaj	nene	i ri	nate	hunde	tre
Greek	men	meter	neos	nux	rhis	treis
Russian	mesyats	mat	novy	noch	nos	tri
Lithuanian	menuo	motina	naujas	naktis	nosis	trys
Armenian	amis	mayr	nor	kisher	kit	yerek
Persian	mah	madar	nau	shab	bini	se
Sanskrit	mas	mater	nava	nakt	nas	trayas

Lesson 10: Language Families

I. Families of Languages

A. There are over 7,000 languages in the world.
B. Language science thinks of languages as families.
C. They have developed from one another and form specific family trees.
D. Since English is a member of the Germanic family of languages, it would be easier to learn if your native language is similar to Dutch or German.
E. Learning English would be difficult if you speak the Japanese language.
F. Japanese has little in common with either the Romance or Germanic languages, thus it sounds and looks very different.
G. It is easier to learn languages close to your native language.

II. Major Language Families

A. *Ethnologue 24* (2021) lists the following families that contain at least 1% of the 7,139 known languages in the world:

- Niger–Congo (1,542 languages) (21.7%)
- Austronesian (1,257 languages) (17.7%)
- Trans–New Guinea (482 languages) (6.8%)
- Sino-Tibetan (455 languages) (6.4%)
- Indo-European (448 languages) (6.3%)
- Australian [dubious] (381 languages) (5.4%)
- Afro-Asiatic (377 languages) (5.3%)
- Nilo-Saharan [dubious] (206 languages) (2.9%)
- Oto-Manguean (178 languages) (2.5%)
- Austroasiatic (167 languages) (2.3%)
- Tai–Kadai (91 languages) (1.3%)
- Dravidian (86 languages) (1.2%)
- Tupian (76 languages) (1.1%)

B. *Glottolog 4.4* (2021) lists the following as the largest families, of 8,494 languages:

- Atlantic–Congo (1,403 languages)
- Austronesian (1,274 languages)
- Indo-European (583 languages)
- Sino-Tibetan (497 languages)
- Afro-Asiatic (377 languages)
- Nuclear Trans–New Guinea (317 languages)
- Pama–Nyungan (250 languages)
- Oto-Manguean (181 languages)
- Austroasiatic (157 languages)
- Tai–Kadai (95 languages)
- Dravidian (79 languages)

- Arawakan (77 languages)
- Mande (75 languages)
- Tupian (71 languages)

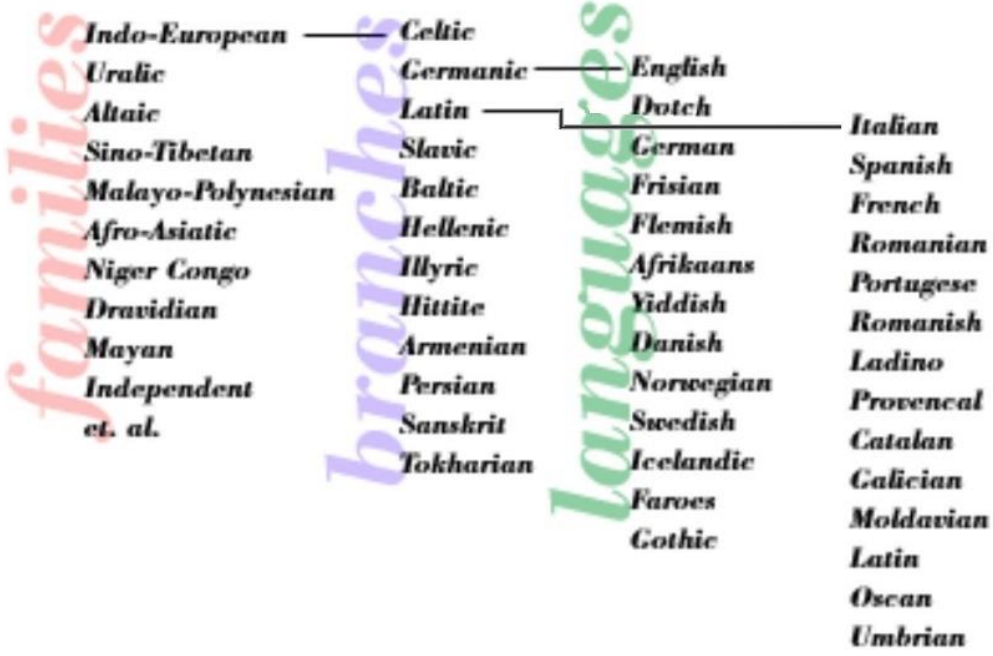
III. Top 10 Languages Families by Number of Speakers

A. Data source: *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*, 15th ed. (2005).

Language family	Approx. number of speakers	Percent of world population
1. Indo-European	2.562 billion	44.78%
2. Sino-Tibetan	1.276 billion	22.28%
3. Niger-Congo	358 million	6.26%
4. Afro-Asiatic	340 million	5.93%
5. Austronesian	312 million	5.45%
6. Dravidian	222 million	3.87%
7. Altaic	145 million	2.53%
8. Japanese	123 million	2.16%
9. Austro-Asiatic	101 million	1.77%
10. Tai-Kadai	78 million	1.37%
Total percentage of world's population:		**96.4%**

IV. Division of the Language Families

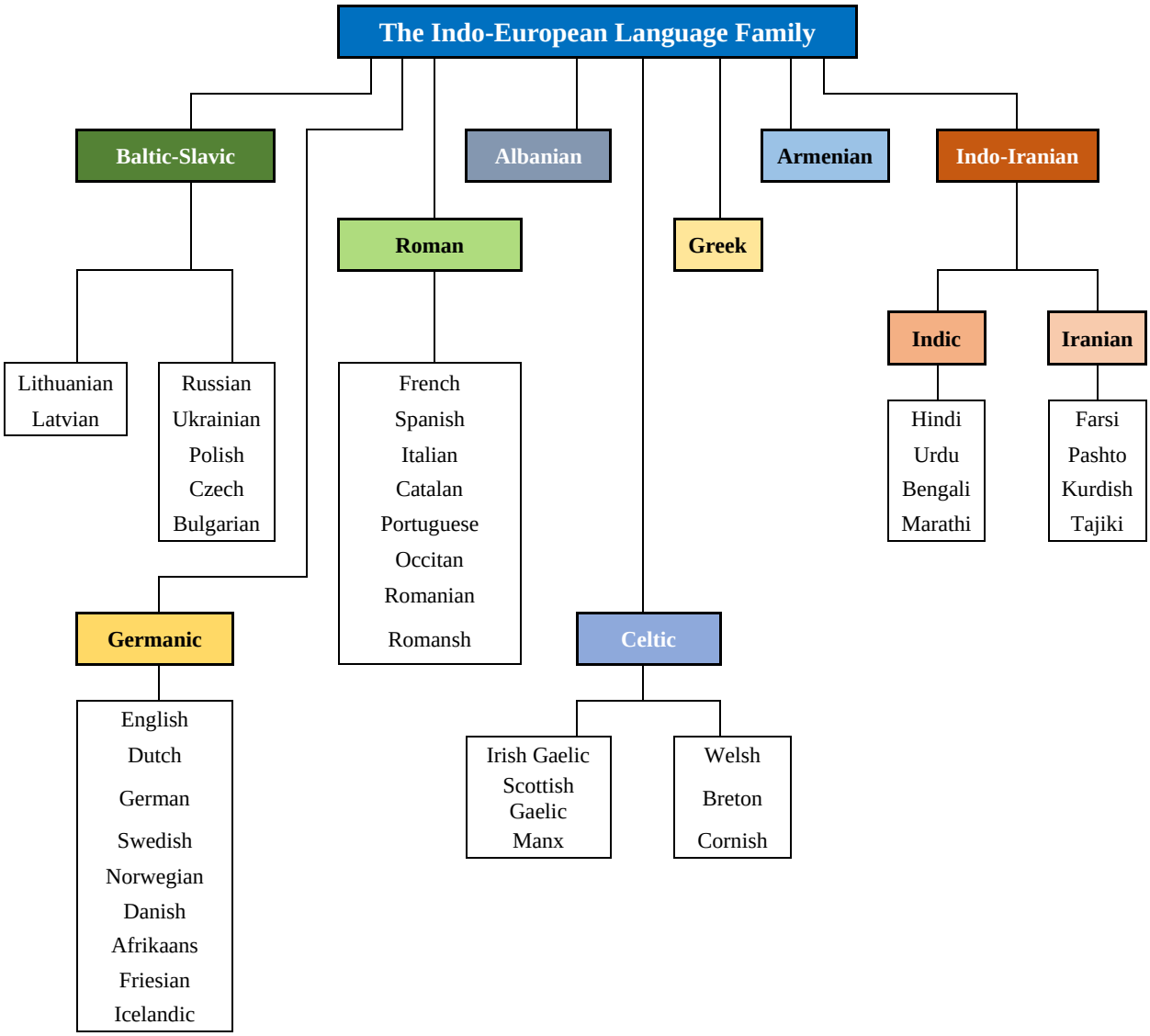
A. A language family is a set of languages deriving from a common ancestor or "parent" language.
B. Languages with a significant number of common features in phonology, morphology, and syntax are said to belong to the same language family.
C. Language families have branches.
D. Subdivisions of a language are called branches
E. Language branches have languages
F. Languages have dialects
G. A dialect is a particular form of a language which is peculiar to a specific region or social group.


families
Indo-European
Uralic
Altaic
Sino-Tibetan
Malayo-Polynesian
Afro-Asiatic
Niger Congo
Dravidian
Mayan
Independent
et. al.
branches
Celtic
Germanic
Latin
Slavic
Baltic
Hellenic
Illyric
Hittite
Armenian
Persian
Sanskrit
Tokharian
languages
English
Dotch
German
Frisian
Flemish
Afrikaans
Yiddish
Danish
Norwegian
Swedish
Icelandic
Faroes
Gothic
Italian
Spanish
French
Romanian
Portugese
Romanish
Ladino
Provencal
Catalan
Galician
Moldavian
Latin
Oscan
Umbrian

Lesson 11: The Indo-European Family Tree

I. The Indo-European Family Tree

A. English is part of the Indo-European language family.
B. English is part of the Germanic branch.



C. Find English on the large language map below

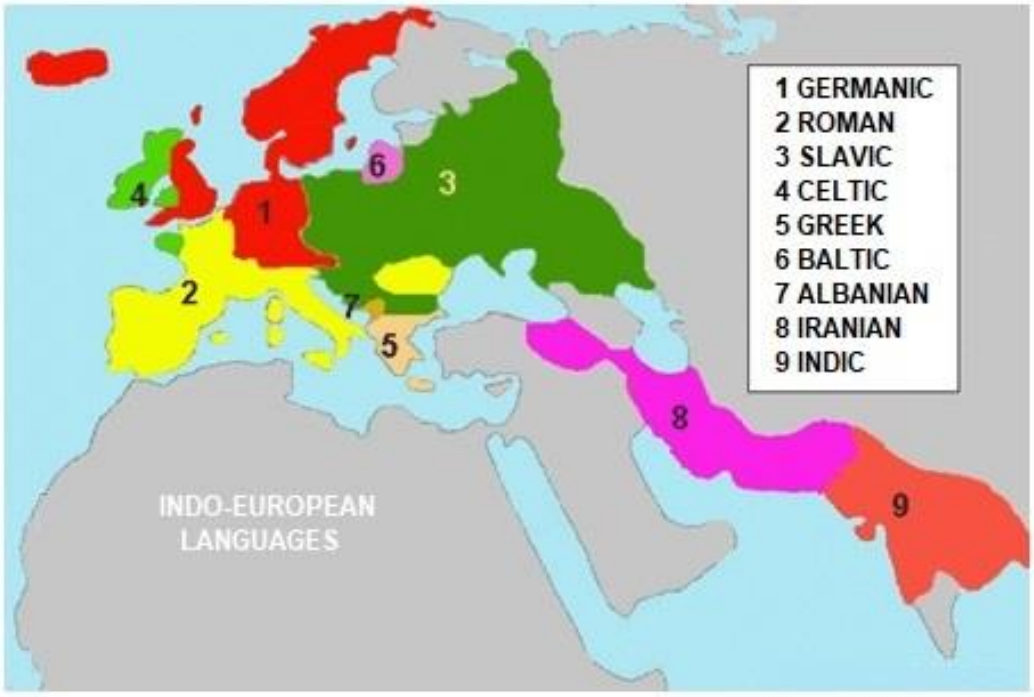
- Partial tree of Indo-European languages.
- Branches are in order of first attestation; those to the left are *Centum*, those to the right are *Satem.*
- Languages in red are extinct.
- White labels indicate categories / un-attested proto-languages.
- Lower middle left, third from the bottom

D. Notice the similarities between languages
E. The Romance languages, for example the word “water”:

- French – eau
- Portuguese – agua
- Spanish – agua
- Catalan – aigua
- Italian – acqua
- Romanian – apă

II. Branches of the Indo-European Family

A. The Indo-European family is divided into several branches or subfamilies.
B. It consists of numerous Indo-Iranian languages, including Sanskrit, Hindi, and Farsi (Persian); Greek; Baltic languages such as Lithuanian and Latvian; Celtic languages such as Breton, Welsh, and Scottish and Irish Gaelic; Romance languages such as French, Spanish, Catalan, and Italian; Germanic languages such as German, English, and Swedish; and Slavic languages such as Polish and Serbian.



III. Indo-European Groups and Sub-groups

A. The Indo-European family has been the one most studied.
B. It is also the one with the greatest number of surviving ancient documents and the one for which genetic links can be established with absolute certainty.
C. Here is the list of Indo-European languages presented in their respective subgroups:

Group	Subgroup	Languages
NOTE: † = Extinct language		
Indo-Iranian	**Indian**	Sanskrit†, Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Marathi, Bihari, Gujarati, Punjabi, Oriya, Rajasthani, Nepali, Assamese, Bundeli, Sindhi, Konkani, Pahari, Singhalese, Santali, Gypsy, etc.
	Iranian	Avestan†, Persian (Farsi/Dari/Tajik), Afghan (Pashtu), Kurdish, Balouchi, Hazara, Aimak, Ossetian, Talyshe, Tat, etc.
Greek		Ancient Greek†, modern Greek
Italic or Romance languages		Oscan†, Umbrian†, Venetic†, Messapian†, Raetian (Raetic)†
		Latin† (mother language of Romance languages)
		Italian, French, Spanish, Catalan, Portuguese, Galician, Mirandese, Provençal, Sardinian, Romanian, Romansch, Ladino, Friulian, Dalmatian†, Sicilian, etc.
Celtic		Gaulish†
		Breton, Welsh, Cornish †
		Irish, Scots, Manx†
Germanic		Gothic†
		Danish, Swedish, Norwegian (Bokmål and Nynorsk), Icelandic, Faroese
		English, Friesian, German, Dutch, Afrikaans
Baltic		Old Prussian†, Lithuanian, Latvian
Slavic		Polish, Czech, Slovak, Sorbian
		Serbo-Croatian, Slovene, Bulgarian, Macedonian
		Russian, Belorussian, Ukranian (and Ruthenian)
Armenian (isolate)		Armenian
Albanian (isolate)		Albanian (Tosk and Gheg)
Various isolates		Hittite†, Tocharish†, Lykian†, Lydian†, Luwian†, Phrygian†, Thracian†, etc.

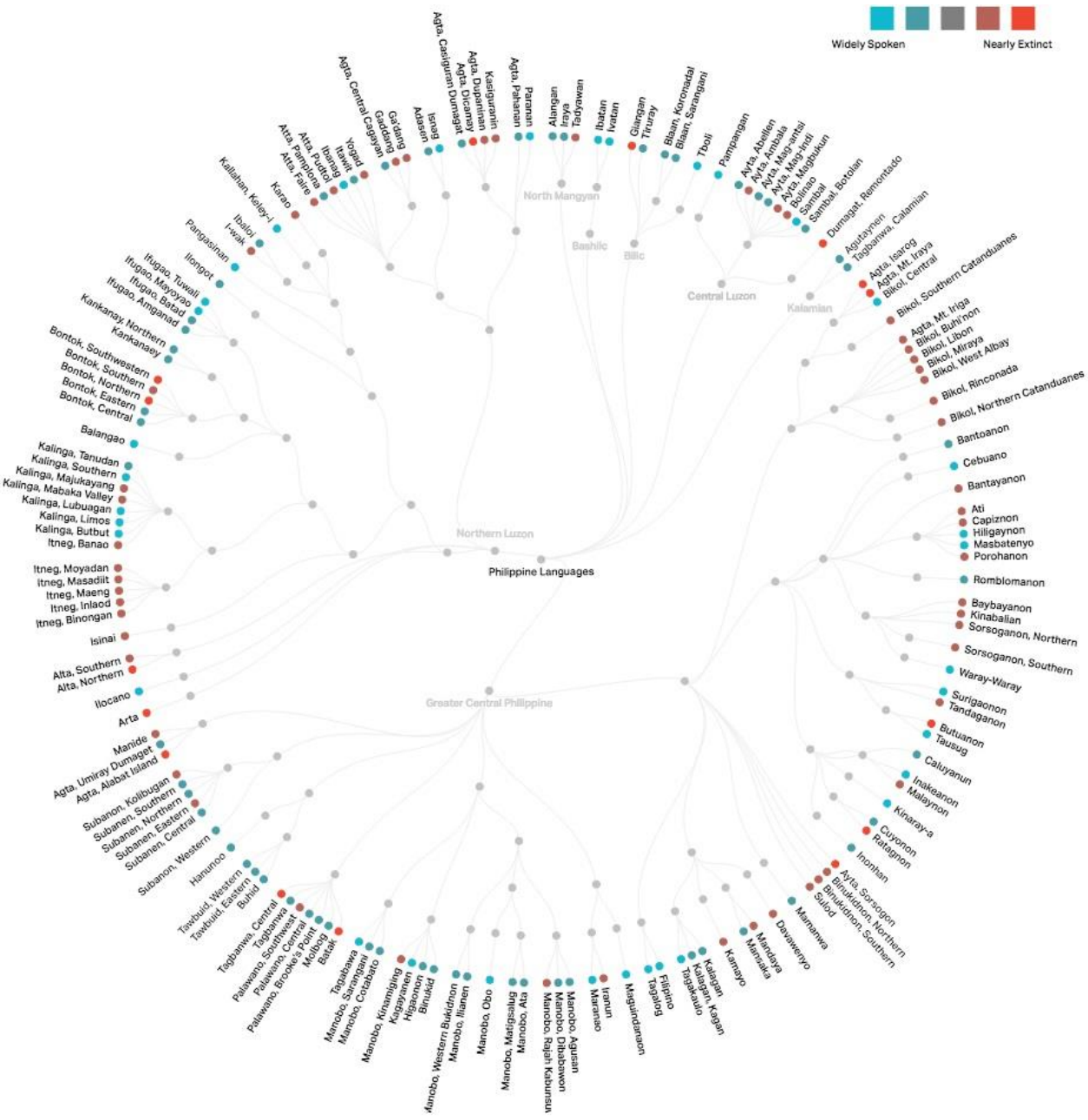
IV. The Example of the Philippines

A. The Philippine languages are part of the subgroup of the Proto-Austronesian language family.
B. The Philippine group is proposed to have originated from Proto-Malayo-Polynesian family and ultimately from Proto-Austronesian family.
C. The Republic of the Philippines has "about" 7,640 islands
D. Islands are categorized under three main divisions
E. Luzon (north)
F. Visayas (central)
G. Mindanao (south)

H. Filipino is the native language which is used nationally as the language of communication among ethnic groups.
I. Eight major dialects are spoken by the majority of the Filipinos:
   - Tagalog
   - Cebuano
   - Ilocano
   - Hiligaynon or Ilonggo
   - Bicolano
   - Waray
   - Pampango
   - Pangasinense.

J. Most Filipinos speak three languages in Philippines: their mother tongue, Tagalog, and English.

K. With 180 languages spoken by locals in different provinces, a Filipino is multilingual.
L. Diagram of some of the Filipino languages
M.



Lesson 12: The Latin Influence in Language

I. Background on Latin

A. Latin was the language spoken by the ancient Romans.
B. As the Romans conquered most of Europe, the Latin language spread throughout the region.
C. Over time, the Latin spoken in different areas developed into separate languages, including Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese.
D. These languages are considered related, as they all descended from Latin, their mother language.

II. Influences in French and English

A. In 1066 England was conquered by William, duke of Normandy, which is in northern France.
B. For several hundred years after the Norman invasion, French was the language of court and polite society in England.
C. It was during this period that many French words were borrowed into English.
D. Linguists estimate that 60% of our common vocabulary today comes from French.
E. Thus many Latin words came into English indirectly through French.

III. English and Latin

A. Many Latin words came into English directly.
B. Christians from Rome brought religious vocabulary to England beginning in the 6th century.
C. From the Middle Ages onward many scientific, scholarly, and legal terms were borrowed from Latin.
D. During the 17th and 18th centuries, dictionary writers and grammarians generally felt that English was an imperfect language whereas Latin was perfect.
E. To improve the English language, grammarians made many English words from Latin words.
F. For example, fraternity, from Latin *fraternitas*, was thought to be better than the native English word brotherhood.
G. Many English words and word parts can be traced back to Latin and Greek.

Lesson 13: Latin Roots and Suffixes

I. Latin Roots of Words

A. The following table lists some common Latin roots.

Latin Root	Basic Meaning	Example Words
-dict-	to say	contradict, dictate, diction, edict, predict
-duc-	to lead, bring, take	deduce, produce, reduce
-gress-	to walk	digress, progress, transgress
-ject-	to throw	eject, inject, interject, project, reject, subject
-pel-	to drive	compel, dispel, impel, repel
-pend-	to hang	append, depend, impend, pendant, pendulum
-port-	to carry	comport, deport, export, import, report, support
-scrib-, -script-	to write	describe, description, prescribe, prescription, subscribe, subscription, transcribe, transcription
-tract-	to pull, drag, draw	attract, contract, detract, extract, protract, retract, traction
-vert-	to turn	convert, divert, invert, revert

B. From the example words in the above table, it is easy to see how roots combine with prefixes to form new words.
C. For example, the root -tract-, meaning “to pull,” can combine with a number of prefixes, including de- and re-.
D. Detract means literally “to pull away” (de- “away, off”) and retract means literally “to pull back” (re- “again, back”).

II. Latin Prefixes of Words

A. The following table gives a list of Latin prefixes and their basic meanings.

Latin Prefix	Basic Meaning	Example Words
co-	together	coauthor, coedit, coheir
de-	away, off; generally indicates reversal or removal in English	deactivate, debone, defrost, decompress, deplane

dis-	not, not any	disbelief, discomfort, discredit, disrepair, disrespect
inter-	between, among	international, interfaith, intertwine, intercellular, interject
non-	not	nonessential, nonmetallic, nonresident, nonviolence, nonskid, nonstop
post-	after	postdate, postwar, postnasal, postnatal
pre-	before	preconceive, preexist, premeditate, predispose, prepossess, prepay
re-	again; back, backward	rearrange, rebuild, recall, remake, rerun, rewrite
sub-	under	submarine, subsoil, subway, subhuman, substandard
trans-	across, beyond, through	transatlantic, transpolar

III. Latin Suffixes of Words

A. Words and word roots may also combine with suffixes.
B. Here are examples of some important English suffixes that come from Latin:

Latin Suffix	Basic Meaning	Example Words
-able, -ible	forms adjectives and means "capable or worthy of"	likable, flexible
-ation	forms nouns from verbs	creation, civilization, automation, speculation, information
-fy, -ify	forms verbs and means "to make or cause to become"	purify, acidify, humidify
-ment	forms nouns from verbs	entertainment, amazement, statement, banishment
-ty, -ity	forms nouns from adjectives	subtlety, certainty, cruelty, frailty, loyalty, royalty; eccentricity, electricity, peculiarity, similarity, technicality

IV. Greek and Latin Word Roots, Prefixes, and Suffixes

A List of Greek and Latin Word Roots, Prefixes and Suffixes

Root	Meaning	Root	Meaning	Root	Meaning	Prefix Suffix	Meaning
duct	*to lead/pull*	micro	*small*	phobia	*fear of*	ab-	*away from*
tele	*distance*	spect	*look, see*	auto	*self*	a-, un-, -less	*not, without*
graph	*write, draw*	aque, aqua	*water*	rupt	*break*	em-. en-, -y, -ful	*having, marked by*
bio	*life*	astr, aster	*stars*	scope	*see, watch*	retro-	*backwards*
geo	*earth*	logy, ology	*study of*	pseudo	*false*	-ive, -ic	*having quality of*
rium	*house*	cycle	*wheel*	dynam	*power*	-al	*result of*
trans	*across*	nym, nom	*name*	ject	*throw*	-able, -ible	*ability*
pathy	*feeling for*	amor	*love*	pro	*forward*	-oid	*resembling, like*
cent, centi	*hundred*	derm, derma	*skin*	vor	*eat greedily*	-or, -er, -e	*one who*
carn	*meat*	chron	*time*	soci	*joining in, being together*	ex-	*out of*
omni	*all, every*	meter	*measure*	ped, pod	*foot, footed*	bi-	*two*
struc, struct	*build*	cent	*hundred*	con, com	*together, with*	tri-	*three*
hydro	*water*	trans	*across*			-ly	*in the manner of*

VI. Latin Suffixes General

LATIN ROOTS, PREFIXES, AND SUFFIXES

ROOT	MEANING		PREFIX/SUFFIX	MEANING
Voc, vok	Voice, call		a-,ab-,abs	From, away
Dica, dicat	Proclaim, set apart		Ad-	To, toward
Loqu, locut	Speak		Ambi-	Both
Garrul	Chatter, talk		Ante-	Before
Son	Sound		Argent-	Silver
Lingu	Language, tongue		Aur-	Gold
Vor	Eat		Ben-,bon-	Good, well
Virtu	Strength, virtue		Brev-	Short
Carn	Flesh		Circum-	Around
Cord	Heart		Con-	Together, with
Cap, cip,capt	Take		Contra-	Against
Ocul	Eye		De-	Down
Divid, divis	Separate		Dis-	Apart
Aud, audit	Hear		e-,ec-,ex-	Out of, from
Ger, gest	Bear, carry		Extra	Outside of
Tang, ting, tag	Touch		Ferr-	Iron
Teg, tect	Cover		In-	In, within
Cern, cert	Sift, separate		Inter-	Between
Sci	Know		Intra-	Within
Sag	Shrewd, wise		Juxta-	Near, next
Far	Divine law		Magn-	Great, large
Fac, fact	Do, make, cause		Mal-	Bad, ill
Fig, fix	Fasten, pierce		Multi-	Many
Anim	Life, spirit, mind		Non-, ne	Not
Mort	Death		Ob-	Against
Morb	Illness		Omni-	All
Dorm	Sleep		Pauci	Few
Torp	Stupor, numbness		Per-	Through
Par	Equal		Plumb-	Lead
Quer, quest	Seek, ask		Post-	After, behind
Roga	Ask		Pre-	Before
Ora	Mouth, prayer		Preter-	Past, beyond
Preci	Price, value		Pro-	Before, instead
Propr, proper	Individual		Quasi-	As if, seeming
Fisc	Purse		Re-, red-	Back, again
Put	Cut, prune away		Retro-	Backward
Prob	Test, prove		Bi-, bin-, bis-	Two
Arbitr	Consider, judge		Cent-	Hundred
Cred, credit	Believe, trust		Decem-, dec-	Ten
Fid	Faith		Du-	Double, two
Doc, doct	Teach		Mill-	Thousand

VII. Science-Related Prefixes and Suffixes

Latin Prefixes and Suffixes for Science

a-/an-	without/not
ad-	to, towards
amphi-	both
ana-	away
anthropo-	refers to man
anti-	against
arche-	ancient
arthr-	joint
auto-	self
bi-	two
-ist	person who deals with
-ium	part of body
bio-	life
carn-	meat, flesh
cata-	breaking down
cephal-	head
chlor-	green
chrom-, -chrome	color
cyto-, -cyte	cell
de-	removal of
di-	two
dia- (Greek)	through
kel-	tumor or swelling
kerat-	horn
hypo-	below, less
hetero-	different
homo-, homeo- (Greek)	same, alike
ichthy-	fish
inter-	between
intra-	inside
iso-	equal
leuc-, leuk-	white
lyso-, -lysis	break apart
lingu-	tongue
lip-	fat
lith-, -lite, -stone	petrify
macro-	large
mamm-	breast
marg-	border, edge
oo-, ovul-, ova-	egg
osteo-	bone
path-, -pathy	disease
peri-	around
photo-	light
phyto-, -phyte	plant
plasmo-, -plasm	basic substance
poly-	many
post-	after, behind
pre-	before

Latin Prefixes and Suffixes for Science

diplo-	two
dis-	away from
endo-	inside
ecto-	outside
epi-	above
erythro-	red
eu-	proper, real
ex-	away from
exo-	outer
extra-	beyond, outside
kilo-	thousand
kine-	move
lachry-	tear
lact-	milk
gastro-	stomach
gen-	beginning
geo-	earth
gyn-, -gynous	female
haplo-	single
heme-, -hemo	blood
herb-	plants
herp-	snakes, reptile
hyper-	above, more
hydro-	water
leio-	smooth
-less	without
lign-	wood
lin-	line
loc-	place
-log	word, speech
lumen-	light
meso-	middle
micro-	small
milli-	1/1000
mono-	one
morph-	form, body
multi-	many
myo-	muscle
malac-	soft
malle-	hammer
neuro-	nerve
ophthalm-	eye
omni-	all
mast-	breast
med-	middle
meg-	million, great
mela-, melan-	black, dark
-mer	part
pri-	first
pro-, proto-	first, before
pseudo-	false
re-	again
rhiz-	root, rootlike
somat-, soma-, -some	body
spermat-, -sperm	seed
stoma-, -stome	mouth, opening
sub-	below
necro-	dead
retro-	backwards
sym-, syn-	together, with
supra-, super-	above, over
tel-, tele-	distant
tetra-	four
therm-	heat
trans-	across, through
tri-	three
troph-	feed
-tropic	responding to
uni-	one
-cid-, -cis-	kill, cut, fall
zoo-, zo-, -zoan	animal

Lesson 14: Latin Verbs

I. Latin Verb Roots Are Common in English

A. Latin has 6 tenses:

- present
- future
- imperfect
- perfect
- future perfect
- pluperfect

B. Three ***non-perfect*** tenses (the present, future, and imperfect)
C. Three ***perfect*** tenses (the perfect, future perfect, and pluperfect)
D. The first three are formed from a different stem than the last three, which are formed from the perfect stem.
E. One would guess that their meaning can be composed into a sequence perf+tense.
F. However, facts are not that simple.
G. We first review of tenses by themselves.
H. There is a trichotomy into present, past and future tense: past tenses are perfect, imperfect and pluperfect.
I. Future tense is both future I and future II.

II. Description of Tenses

A. ***Present*** denotes events that happen in the present.
B. ***Future*** denotes events that will take place.
C. ***Imperfect*** denotes states and events that began in the past but are not finished.
D. ***Perfect*** denotes singular events which happened in the past and are completed.
E. ***Future perfect*** denotes a tense is used if the future event in question is known or certain to happen.
F. ***Pluperfect*** denoted a tense that is confined to chaining. It is used if some action was in the process when another started.
G. To these six main tenses can be added various periphrastic tenses, such as *factūrus sum*, 'I am going to do.'
H. Latin tenses do not have exact English equivalents, so that often the same tense can be translated in different ways depending on its context.
I. In addition to these six tenses of the indicative mood, there are four tenses in the subjunctive mood: present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect (faciam, facerem, fēcerim, fēcissem).
J. Participles in Latin have three tenses (present, perfect, and future)
K. The imperative mood has two tenses (present and future).
L. The infinitive has two main tenses (present and perfect) as well as a number of periphrastic tenses used in reported speech.

III. Verb with Various Tenses Shown

A. See table below:

Present

laudō	I praise
laudās	you praise
laudāt	he, she, it praises
laudāmus	we praise
laudātis	you (pl) praise
laudānt	they praise

Perfect

laudāvī	I praised (I have praised)
laudāvistī	you praised, (you have praised)
laudāvit	he, she, it praised, (he, she, it has praised)
laudāvimus	we praised, (we have praised)
laudāvistis	you (pl) praised, (you (pl) have praised)
laudāvērunt	they praised, (they have praised)

Imperfect

laudābam	I was praising
laudābās	you were praising
laudābat	he, she, it was praising
laudābāmus	we were praising
laudābātis	you (pl) were praising
laudābant	they were praising

Pluperfect

laudāveram	I had praised
laudāverās	you had praised
laudāverat	he, she, it had praised
laudāverāmus	we had praised
laudāverātis	you (pl) had praised
laudāverant	they had praised

Future

laudābō	I shall praise
laudābis	you will praise
laudābit	he, she, it will praise
laudābimus	we shall praise
laudābitis	you (pl) will praise
laudābunt	they will praise

Future Perfect

laudāverō	I shall have praised
laudāveris	you will have praised
laudāverit	he, she, it will have praised
laudāverimus	we shall have praised
laudāveritis	you (pl) will have praised
laudāverint	they will have praised

IV. Periphrastic Tenses

A. A series of periphrastic tenses can be formed by combining a future participle (e.g. ductūrus 'going to lead') or a gerundive (e.g. dūcendus 'needing to be led') with any tense of the verb sum 'I am,' as follows:

Periphrastic Tenses				
	Active	**Meaning**	**Passive**	**Meaning**
Present	**ductūrus sum**	*I am going to lead*	**dūcendus sum**	*I need to be led*
Future	**ductūrus erō**	*I will be going to lead*	**dūcendus erō**	*I will need to be led*
Imperfect	**ductūrus eram**	*I was going to lead*	**dūcendus eram**	*I needed to be led*
Perfect	**ductūrus fuī**	*I was going to lead*	**dūcendus fuī**	*I needed to be led*
Future perfect	(No examples)		**dūcendus fuerō**	*I will have needed to be led*
Pluperfect	**ductūrus fueram**	*I had been going to lead*	**dūcendus eram**	*I had needed to be led*
Present subj.	**ductūrus sim**	*I am going to lead*	**dūcendus sim**	*I need to be led*
Imperfect subj.	**ductūrus essem**	*I was going to lead*	**dūcendus essem**	*I needed to be led*
Perfect subj.	**ductūrus fuerim**	*I would have led*	**dūcendus fuerim**	*I needed to be led*
Pluperfect subj.	**ductūrus fuissem**	*I had been going to lead*	**dūcendus fuissem**	*I had needed to be led*
Pres. infinitive	**ductūrus esse**	*to be going to lead*	**dūcendus esse**	*to be needing to be led*
Perf. infinitive	**ductūrus fuisse**	*to have been going to lead*	**dūcendus fuisse**	*to have been needing to be led*

V. The Complexity of the Latin Verbs

A. The verbs of Latin are probably the most convoluted things in the language mostly due to the vast number of forms that each verb could take depending on how it is being used. Here, the basic ideas of verbs will be discussed.

- Verb Endings and Conditions
- Verb Conjugations
- The Four Verb Forms
- Active Indicative Present
    - First Conjugation
    - Second Conjugation

- Esse

VI. The Verb Endings and Conditions

- Verbs are the most diverse words in all of Latin with some verbs having over 100 different forms that each are interpreted a different way.
- You can see a completed chart for the word *amare*.
- In each of the sentences, the underlined word means the same thing, but it is of a different form:

Latin Sentence	English Equivalent
Eam amo.	I love her.
Ea me amat.	She loves me.
Eam amabo.	I will love her.
Ea me amaverit.	She will have loved me.
Eam volo amare.	I want to love her.
Ea ab me amatur.	She is loved by me.

A. All these forms come from the many different ways a verb can be used. For a verb, it can be categorized as any combination of these:

- Voice
- Mood
- Tense
- Number
- Person

B. In addition to these forms, there are also some imperative, infinitive, participle, gerund, and supine forms. However, there is no need to fear because these forms will be learned a few at a time.

VII. Verb Conjugations

A. When discussing nouns we talked of declensions, in verbs we talk of conjugations. Yes, that is right: there are several types of verbs that take on different endings based on its **conjugation**.

B. These conjugations are actually quite similar to one another, but nonetheless they conjugate differently. There are five conjugations (or you could say six if you count the third as two conjugations).

C. Each is unique in how it conjugates.
D. See table below:

Conjugation	Description	Word Examples
First	The first conjugation of verbs centers around the letter "a." This conjugation is unique in that all four of its primary verb forms (discussed a little later) are predictable, unlike in the other conjugations.	Amare, Dare, Cenare
Second	The second conjugation is much like the first, and it uses many similar endings with the first conjugation. The only primary difference between the second and first conjugations is that the second centers around "e."	Monere, Habere, Videre
Third	The third conjugation is the most common one. This conjugation is different from the first and second conjugations, but it is similar to the fourth. It also doesn't center around a particular letter, but it does focus on "e" and "i."	Agere, Gerere, Legere
Third -io	This is actually grouped with the third conjugation, but these do conjugate slightly differently. This particular group of verbs is kind of like a cross between the third conjugation and fourth conjugation.	Capere, Cupere, Perficere
Fourth	The fourth conjugation is much like the third -io group except that it deals with the "i" more.	Audire, Venire, Dormire
Irregular	The irregular conjugation verbs in some prospects in forming a verb form will not conjugate like the other four conjugations. Although there are not many of these verbs, their forms are best memorized since their patterns are more unpredictable.	Esse, Ire, Velle

E. Because of these conjugations, we can make rules on how verbs are formed.

VIII. <u>The Four Verb Forms</u>

A. In a typical dictionary entry, for verbs, four entries are given, and all four are necessary.
B. A typical verb entry might appear like this:

- amo, amare, amavi, amatus

C. Using these four forms, one can determine the conjugation of the verb and conjugate it entirely based on the ending rules.

D. Each form represents a specific part of the verb. The first form is the **active indicative present singular first** form of the verb.
E. In other words, the *amo* part above represents the verb form for "I love."
F. A sentence with simply "Amo" would therefore mean "I love."
G. The second form is the **active present infinitive** and is the form primarily seen in this dictionary's entries. The *amare* part above would mean "to love."
H. The third form is the **active indicative perfect singular first** form of the verb. The *amavi* part would thus translate as "I loved."
I. The final form is the **perfect passive participle**.
J. It is important to know all four forms of the verb in order to use it correctly in Latin sentences.
K. Using just the first two forms, one can determine the conjugation of the verb and thus what endings it will contain. Here is how you can tell:

1. First, look at the last three letters of the second form.

    - If they are **-are**, then the verb is of the first conjugation.
    - If they are **-ire**, then the verb is of the fourth conjugation (except for Ire).
    - If they are **-ere**, you will need to proceed to step 2.
    - If they are none of those, the verb is irregular.

2. If in the first step you came across **-ere**, then look at the last two letters of the first form.

    - If they are **-eo**, then the verb is of the second conjugation.
    - If they are **-io**, then the verb is of the third -io conjugation.
    - If they are some letter other than "e" or "i" followed by an "o," then the verb is of the third conjugation.

L. For instance determine the conjugations of the words Tacere, Orare, Posse, Dicere, Iacere, and Custodire.

- Tacere ends in -ere, so we need to know the first form. Its first form is Taceo, and since that ends in -eo, it is a second conjugation verb.
- Orare ends in -are, so it is a first conjugation verb.
- Posse ends in -sse which doesn't match our three primary patterns. It is therefore irregular.
- Dicere ends in -ere, so we need to know its first form. The first form is Dico, and since that ends in -co (as opposed to -eo or -io), it is a third conjugation verb.
- Iacere ends in -ere, so we need to know its first form. The first form is Iacio, and since that ends in -io, it is a third -io conjugation verb.
- Custodire ends in -ire, so it is a fourth conjugation verb.

IX. The Active Indicative Present

A. It is now time to reveal the most basic of the Latin verb forms: The Active Indicative Present of first and second conjugation verbs. Of the entire verb chart possible, you will only be learning these first six forms:

	Active
	Indicative
	Present
Singular 1	
2	
3	
Plural 1	
2	
3	

B. The active indicative present include actions that are happening now by a subject. For instance, “I love” is active indicative present.
C. All of the following phrases have the verb as active indicative present:

- I am warning my brother.
- You are walking.
- Janet doesn’t love Jake.
- The boys are annoying the girls.

D. First, we will be learning of the first conjugation verbs, and we will concentrate on the action, “I love.” Consider the four primary forms of the verb for love: amo, amare, amavi, amatus.
E. Recall that the first form is the Active Indicative Present **Singular First** form. Thus, we have the first form for “I love”:

	Active
	Indicative
	Present
Singular 1	Amo
2	
3	
Plural 1	
2	
3	

F. But how do we find the other forms? First, we need to identify the **stem**.
G. When declining nouns, we added endings to a certain stem to determine the form of the word.
H. The same thing applies to Latin except there may be many stems. For this set, the stem will come from that first form of the set: Amo. Simply, subtract the -o and you have the stem. The stem for the Active Indicative Present of Amare is Am-.
I. Now all you have to do is add the right endings. If you wanted to translate "You love" to English, you would as -as to the stem thus forming "Amas." Here are the endings with their proper English translations:

	Active Indicative Present	
Singular 1	**First Form**	I love
2	-as	You love
3	-at	He/She/It loves
Plural 1	-amus	We love
2	-atis	You (all) love
3	-ant	They love

J. This first stem that comes from the first form will from now on be known as **1s**. So to form the Active Indicative Present Plural Third form of a first conjugation verb, you would use **1s**+ant.
K. The second conjugation is very similar to the first except it has that "e" instead of "a."
L. Here are the endings you would use as well as the proper English translations if you were using Habere:

	Active Indicative Present	
Singular 1	**First Form**	I have
2	-es	You have
3	-et	He/She/It has
Plural 1	-emus	We have
2	-etis	You (all) have
3	-ent	They have

M. So if you wanted the Active Indicative Present Singular Third form of Habere, you would use **1s**+et and end up with "habet."
N. What form would you use for the following sentences?

Sentence	Verb	Answer
I am walking.	Ambulare	Ambulo
The mother warns the boys.	Monere	Monet
The boys annoy their sisters.	Vexare	Vexant
Are you afraid of me?	Timere	Times
We do not beg.	Orare	Oramus
You all have ill manners!	Habere	Habetis

O. If you have not noticed, there are some common endings found for both conjugations thus far. Both singular firsts end in -o for one, and both singular seconds end in -s. In fact, they each have their own common ending shown below:

Singular 1	-o/-m
2	-s
3	-t
Plural 1	-mus
2	-tis
3	-nt

P. This pattern will be found for practically all of the verb forms under the Active Indicative section, so you will want to remember these endings.

X. Esse

A. There is one single verb that will be the most important verb you will ever learn, and it is irregular. This word is Esse, and it means "To be."
B. This word is used practically everywhere. Any time you say, "I am happy," you are using this verb.
C. In Latin, the verb is irregular meaning that it doesn't form an easy to remember pattern like the other conjugations, but this shouldn't surprise us.
D. In English, the verb "be" is also irregular forming in odd ways. Consider our present forms of "to be":

	Active Indicative Present
Singular 1	I **am**
2	You **are**
3	He/She/It **is**

Plural 1	We are
2	You (all) are
3	They are

E. There are already three nearly unrelated forms in English, where as you saw above, regular verbs do not have as convoluted of forms.
F. Latin is not too different; however the endings still follow the common pattern discovered above. At least it isn't horribly irregular.
G. Here is the conjugation for Esse in the Active Indicative Present:

	Active Indicative Present	
Singular 1	Sum	I am
2	Es	You are
3	Est	He/She/It is
Plural 1	Sumus	We are
2	Estis	You (all) are
3	Sunt	They are

H. This verb is important to remember and will be used extensively.

Lesson 15: Latin Nouns

I. Latin Basics

A. Latin is an ***inflected language,*** meaning that words are modified to express different grammatical categories such as tense, number, gender, or case.
B. Many inflected languages make a distinction between the modification of verbs versus other parts of speech.
C. The inflection of verbs, for instance, is also called ***conjugation,*** whereas the inflection of nouns, adjectives, and pronouns is known as ***declension.***
D. Latin nouns possess:

- Gender
- Case
- number (i.e., singular and plural)

E. While the declensions generally delineate number and case, gender does have its place in the language, particularly with the neuter nouns.

II. Nouns

A. There are six cases of nouns
B. There are five declensions (endings) of nouns
C. First declension nouns
D. Second declension nouns
E. Third declension nouns
F. Fourth declension nouns
G. Fifth declension nouns

III. The Six Cases of Nouns

A. Nominative
B. Vocative
C. Accusative
D. Genitive
E. Dative
F. Ablative

IV. The Five Latin Noun Declensions

A. The Latin language has five declensions, each of which is based on the stem.
B. The first declension is considered the ***–a stem***
C. The second the ***–o stem***
D. The third is ***consonantal***
E. The fourth the ***–u stem***

F. The fifth the ***–e stem***
G. Every noun in Latin follows on of these five declensions.

V. A Look at the Latin Noun Fifth Declension.

A. Fifth Declension of Latin Nouns
B. The fifth declension nouns in Latin are sometimes called -e stem nouns.
C. The nouns of this declension are few but common.
D. Like the first declension, fifth declension nouns are typically feminine, with a few exceptions.
E. For instance, the word for day *(dies)* can be either masculine or feminine in the singular, but in the plural, it is masculine.
F. *Meridies*, the Latin word for mid-day, is also masculine.
G. Otherwise, the fifth declension nouns are all feminine (all 50 or so of them).
H. The forms of fifth declension are easily taken for third declension forms, but mistaking an accusative plural fifth declension noun for an accusative plural third declension noun, for instance, as long as you have the gender right, should cause no trouble in translation.

VI. Most Fifth Declension Nouns in Nominative Singular End in *-IES*

A. The Rudiments of Latin and English Grammar, by Alexander Adam (1820) characterizes fifth declension Latin nouns as follows:

- All nouns of the fifth declension end in *ies*, except three; *fides*, faith; *spes*, hope; *res*, a thing

- All nouns in *ies* are of the fifth, except these four; *abies*, a firtree; *aries*, a ram; *paries*, a wall; and *quies*, rest; which are of the third declension.

VII. The Fifth Declension Endings

A. The endings of the masculine or feminine fifth declension are as follows:

Case	Singular	Plural
NOM.	-es	-es
GEN.	-ei	-erum
DAT.	-ei	-ebus
ACC.	-em	-es
ABL.	-e	-ebus

B. Look at these fifth declension endings in action using the Latin word *dies, -ei,* f. or m., day.

Case	Singular	Plural
NOM.	dies	dies
GEN.	diei	dierum
DAT.	diei or die	diebus
ACC.	diem	dies
ABL.	die	diebus

C. Here are some other fifth declension nouns for practice:

- *effigies, effigiei,* f., *effigy*
- *fides, fidei,* f., *faith*
- *res, rei,* f., *thing*
- *spes, spei,* f., *hope.*

VIII. The Nominative Case

A. Used for the ***subject*** of the verb.
B. The subject is the person or thing doing the verb.
C. For example:

- *vidua laborat* – The widow works.

D. 'The widow' is the subject, as she is doing the verb (working).
E. 'The widow' is in the nominative case.

IX. The Vocative Case

A. Used to call or ***address*** someone or something.
B. For examples:

- *Maria*! – Oh Mary!
- *domina*! – Oh lady!
- *regina!* – Oh queen!

C. The vocative case is usually the same as the nominative.
D. The second declension masculine has a vocative case that is different from the nominative, which takes '-e' or '-i'.
E. For example:

- *domine*! – Oh Lord!
- *Georgii!* – Oh George!

F. Not all parts of speech have a vocative case.

X. The Accusative Case

A. Used for the ***object*** of a verb.
B. The object is the person or thing the verb is done to.
C. For example:

domina cartam confirmat – The lady confirms the charter.

D. The verb ('confirms') is being done to 'the charter' – therefore 'the charter' is in the accusative.
E. The accusative is also used after some prepositions.

XI. The Genitive Case

A. Used for nouns that are ***'of'*** something else and to show ***possession*** (who something belongs to).
B. For example:

- *terra ecclesie* – The land of the church.
- 'of the church' is in the genitive.
- *filie vidue* – The widow's daughters. (Literally: the daughters of the widow).
- 'of the widow' is in the genitive.

XII. The Dative Case

A. Used for nouns that are ***to*** or ***for*** something.
B. For example:

- *terram ecclesie do* – I give land to the church.

C. The verb is 'I give' (*do*). 'land' is the object – it is in the accusative. *ecclesie*, meaning 'to the church,' is in the dative.

- *solvimus decem solidos carte* – We pay 10 shillings for a charter.

D. 'for a charter' is in the dative.

XIII. The Ablative Case

A. Used for nouns that are **by**, **with** or **from** something.
B. Ablative means relating to or denoting a case (especially in Latin) of nouns and pronouns (and words in grammatical agreement with them) indicating separation or an agent, instrument, or location.
C. The ablative after prepositions of place or time denotes location in place and time. This is to be distinguished from the accusative after the same preposition which indicates motion into, down under, toward, etc.
D. For example:

- *papa ecclesiam carta confirmat* – The pope confirms the church by a charter.

E. 'by a charter' is in the ablative case.
F. The ablative case is also used after some prepositions.

Lesson 16: Latin Noun Declensions

I. Nouns

A. There are six cases of nouns
B. There are five declensions (endings) of nouns
C. First declension nouns
D. Second declension nouns
E. Third declension nouns
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C. The second the ***–o stem***
D. The third is ***consonantal***
E. The fourth the ***–u stem***
F. The fifth the ***–e stem***
G. Every noun in Latin follows on of these five declensions.

IV. First Declension Nouns

A. First declension nouns end '-a' in the nominative singular and are feminine.
B. ***carta, -e*** **(f.) charter**

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	**-a**	**-e**	*carta*	*carte*
Vocative	**-a**	**-e**	*carta*	*carte*
Accusative	**-am**	**-as**	*cartam*	*cartas*
Genitive	**-e**	**-arum**	*carte*	*cartarum*
Dative	**-e**	**-is**	*carte*	*cartis*
Ablative	**-a**	**-is**	*carta*	*cartis*

C. ***filia,*** *-e* (f.) daughter and *anima, -e* (f.) soul have different endings from *carta* in the dative and ablative plural. The example of *filia* is given below; *anima* declines with the same endings.

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*filia*	*filie*
Vocative	*filia*	*filie*
Accusative	*filiam*	*filias*
Genitive	*filie*	*filiarum*
Dative	*filie*	*filiabus*
Ablative	*filia*	*filiabus*

D. There are a few first declension nouns that are masculine.

- *agricola, -e* (m.) farmer
- *parsona, -e* (m.) parson
- *papa, -e* (m.) pope
- *Thomas, -e* (m.) Thomas

E. These take the same endings as *carta*.

V. Second Declension Nouns

A. Second declension nouns ending

- '-us,' '-ir' and '-er' are masculine
- '-um' are neuter

B. Masculine '-us' ending
C. ***dominus***, *–i* (m.) man

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	**-us**	**-i**	*domin**us***	*domin**i***
Vocative	**-e**	**-i**	*domin**e***	*domin**i***
Accusative	**-um**	**-os**	*domin**um***	*domin**os***
Genitive	**-i**	**-orum**	*domin**i***	*domin**orum***
Dative	**-o**	**-is**	*domin**o***	*domin**is***
Ablative	**-o**	**-is**	*domin**o***	*domin**is***

D. This is the only case when the nominative is different from the vocative.
E. Look out for the following irregularities:

- *deus, -i* (m.) God has the irregular vocative singular *deus*.

F. Male names that end '-ius' in the nominative, end '-i' in the vocative.
G. For example:

- *Gregorius, -i* (m.) – Gregory
- *Gregorii!* – Oh Gregory!

H. Masculine 'er' ending
I. ***magister, magistri*** (m.) master: This loses its 'e' when it is declined. *faber* declines like *magister*.

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	various	**-i**	*magister*	*magistr**i***
Vocative	same as nominative	**-i**	*magister*	*magistr**i***

Accusative	**-um**	**-os**	*magistr**um***	*magistr**os***
Genitive	**-i**	**-orum**	*magistr**i***	*magistr**orum***
Dative	**-o**	**-is**	*magistr**o***	*magistr**is***
Ablative	**-o**	**-is**	*magistr**o***	*magistr**is***

J. ***puer, pueri*** (m.) boy: This keeps its 'e' when it is declined. armiger declines like *puer*.

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	various	**-i**	*puer*	*puer**i***
Vocative	same as nominative	**-i**	*puer*	*puer**i***
Accusative	**-um**	**-os**	*puer**um***	*puer**os***
Genitive	**-i**	**-orum**	*puer**i***	*puer**orum***
Dative	**-o**	**-is**	*puer**o***	*puer**is***
Ablative	**-o**	**-is**	*puer**o***	*puer**is***

K. Masculine 'ir' ending
L. The only second declension noun ending '-ir' is *vir, viri* (m.) man, husband

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*vir*	*vir**i***
Vocative	*vir*	*vir**i***
Accusative	*vir**um***	*vir**os***
Genitive	*vir**i***	*vir**orum*** or *vir**um***
Dative	*vir**o***	*vir**is***
Ablative	*vir**o***	*vir**is***

M. Neuter '-um' ending
N. ***testamentum***, *–i* (n.) will

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	**-um**	**-a**	*testament**um***	*testament**a***
Vocative	**-um**	**-a**	*testament**um***	*testament**a***
Accusative	**-um**	**-a**	*testament**um***	*testament**a***
Genitive	**-i**	**-orum**	*testament**i***	*testament**orum***
Dative	**-o**	**-is**	*testament**o***	*testament**is***
Ablative	**-o**	**-is**	*testament**o***	*testament**is***

VI. Third Declension Nouns

A. Third declension nouns end '**-is**' in the genitive singular.
B. Unlike the first and second declension nouns, you cannot identify third declension nouns in the nominative because they

- have a variety of forms and spelling
- have endings that do not reveal their gender
- can be masculine, feminine or neuter

C. To decline a third declension noun:

- Find the **genitive singular**, which always ends in '-is'
- Remove the '-is,' leaving you with the **stem**
- Add the **endings** shown below

D. Masculine and Feminine
E. *rex, regis* (m.) king

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	various	**-es**	*rex*	*reg**es***
Vocative	same as nominative	**-es**	*rex*	*reg**es***
Accusative	**-em**	**-es**	*reg**em***	*reg**es***

Genitive	**-is**	**-um**	*reg**is***	*reg**um***
Dative	**-i**	**-ibus**	*reg**i***	*reg**ibus***
Ablative	**-e**	**-ibus**	*reg**e***	*reg**ibus***

F. Neuter
G. ***jus, juris*** (n.) law, right

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	various	**-a**	*jus*	*jur**a***
Vocative	same as nominative	**-a**	*jus*	*jur**a***
Accusative	same as nominative	**-a**	*jus*	*jur**a***
Genitive	**-is**	**-um**	*jur**is***	*jur**um***
Dative	**-i**	**-ibus**	*jur**i***	*jur**ibus***
Ablative	**-e**	**-ibus**	*jur**e***	*jur**ibus***

H. The endings for *rex* and *jus* are the same in the genitive, dative and ablative.
I. Exceptions
J. There are many exceptions to these rules for third declension nouns.
K. It is not possible to list them all here.
L. We'd like to draw your attention to the following, which you are likely to find in typical historical documents.
M. Some third declension nouns have the genitive plural ending '**-ium**'. This happens in:

- nouns that have the same number of syllables in the genitive and nominative singular
- some nouns that have a syllable more in the genitive singular than in the nominative singular

N. For example:

- *pars, partis* (f.) part
- *clavis, clavis* (f.) key
- *navis, navis* (f.) ship
- *pons, pontis*(m.) bridge

O. Other nouns that have the genitive plural ending '-ium' include
P. ***civis, civis*** (m.) citizen

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*civis*	*civ**es***
Vocative	*civis*	*civ**es***
Accusative	*civ**em***	*civ**es***
Genitive	*civ**is***	*civ**ium***
Dative	*civ**i***	*civ**ibus***
Ablative	*civ**e***	*civ**ibus***

Q. If a noun has an irregular genitive plural, it will be noted in the word list.
R. Neuter nouns that end '-ium' in the genitive plural

- end '-i' in the ablative singular
- end '-ia' in the nominative, vocative and accusative plural

S. For example
T. ***mare, maris*** (n.) sea

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*mare*	*mar**ia***
Vocative	*mare*	*mar**ia***
Accusative	*mare*	*mar**ia***
Genitive	*mar**is***	*mar**ium***
Dative	*mar**i***	*mar**ibus***
Ablative	*mar**i*** or *mar**e***	*mar**ibus***

U. The following third declension nouns decline like *mare*

- *animal, animalis* (n.) animal
- *calcar, calcaris* (n.) spur

V. An irregular third declension noun is *turris, turris* (f.) tower

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*turris*	*turr**es***
Vocative	*turris*	*turr**es***
Accusative	*turr**im***	*turr**is*** or *turr**es***
Genitive	*turr**is***	*turr**ium***
Dative	*turr**i***	*turr**ibus***
Ablative	*turr**i***	*turr**ibus***

W. When using documents from medieval England, you will often see the phrase *turris Londinii* – the Tower of London

VII. Fourth Declension Nouns

A. Fourth declension nouns ending '-us' are masculine, apart from *manus* and *domus* which are feminine.
B. Fourth declension nouns ending '-u' are neuter.
C. ***redditus***, *-us* (m.) rent

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	**us**	**-us**	*reddit**us***	*reddit**us***
Vocative	**us**	**-us**	*reddit**us***	*reddit**us***
Accusative	**um**	**-us**	*reddit**um***	*reddit**us***
Genitive	**-us**	**-uum**	*reddit**us***	*reddit**uum***
Dative	**-ui**	**-ibus**	*reddit**ui***	*reddit**ibus***
Ablative	**-u**	**-ibus**	*reddit**u***	*reddit**ibus***

D. An important irregular noun is
E. ***domus,*** *-us* (f.) house

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*dom**us***	*dom**us***
Vocative	*dom**us***	*dom**us***
Accusative	*dom**um***	*dom**os*** or *dom**us***
Genitive	*dom**us***	*dom**uum*** or *dom**orum***
Dative	*dom**ui***	*domi**ibus***
Ablative	*dom**o***	*domi**ibus***

F. ***genu,*** *-us* (n.) knee

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	*gen**u***	*gen**ua***
Vocative	*gen**u***	*gen**ua***
Accusative	*gen**u***	*gen**ua***
Genitive	*gen**us***	*gen**uum***
Dative	*gen**u***	*geni**ibus***
Ablative	*gen**u***	*geni**ibus***

VIII. Fifth Declension Nouns

A. These are feminine.
B. The exception is *dies*, which is usually masculine when singular and always masculine when plural.
C. ***res, rei*** (f.) a thing

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	**-es**	**-es**	***res***	***res***

Vocative	**-es**	**-es**	r***es***	r***es***
Accusative	**-em**	**-es**	r***em***	r***es***
Genitive	**-ei**	**-erum**	r***ei***	r***erum***
Dative	**-ei**	**-ebus**	r***ei***	r***ebus***
Ablative	**-e**	**-ebus**	r***e***	r***ebus***

D. ***dies,*** *-i* (m.) day

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	di***es***	di***es***
Vocative	di***es***	di***es***
Accusative	di***em***	di***es***
Genitive	di***ei***	di***erum***
Dative	di***ei***	di***ebus***
Ablative	di***e***	di***ebus***

Lesson 17: Greek and Latin Roots in English

I. Brief History Greek Language

A. Greek is one of the oldest Indo-European languages and is usually divided into Ancient Greek (often thought of as a dead language) and Modern Greek.
B. Modern Greek is derived from *Koine*, a common dialect of Ancient Greek that was understood throughout the Greek-speaking world at that time. In the 19th century, Modern Greek became the official language of the Kingdom of Greece.
C. According to Peter T. Daniels, the Ancient Greeks were the first to use a 'true' alphabet, that is, one representing both vowels and consonants.
D. Indeed, the word 'alphabet' is formed of the first two letters of the Greek alphabet, 'alpha' and 'beta.'

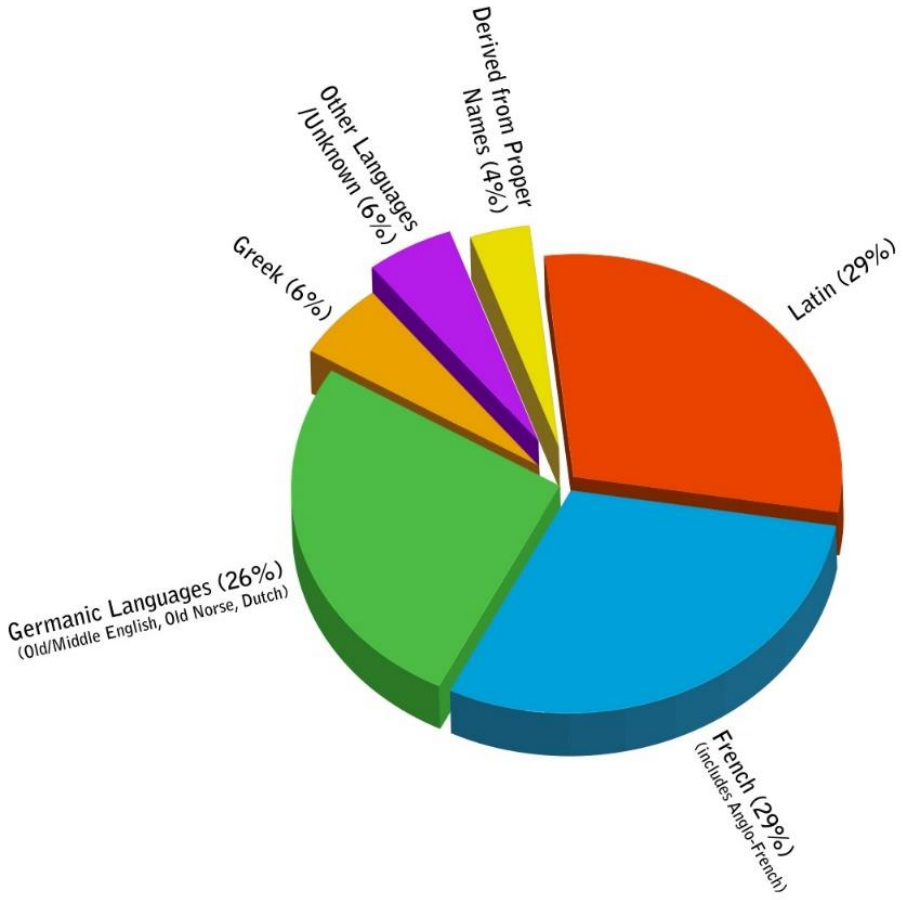
II. The New Testament was Written Mainly in Greek

A. The New Testament was originally written in *Koine* Greek.
B. *Koine* Greek (/ˈkɔɪniː/) literally means "Common Gree."
C. *Koine* is also known as Alexandrian dialect, common Attic, Hellenistic, or Biblical Greek.
D. *Koine* was the common supra-regional form of Greek spoken and written during the Hellenistic period, the Roman Empire, and the early Byzantine Empire.
E. It evolved from the spread of Greek following the conquests of Alexander the Great in the fourth century BC and served as the lingua franca of much of the Mediterranean region and the Middle East during the following centuries.
F. It was based mainly on Attic and related Ionic speech forms, with various admixtures brought about through dialect levelling with other varieties.
G. *Koine* Greek included styles ranging from more conservative literary forms to the spoken vernaculars of the time.
H. As the dominant language of the Byzantine Empire, it developed further into Medieval Greek, which then turned into Modern Greek.

III. Many Greek and Latin Words in English

A. The English language uses many Greek and Latin roots, stems, and prefixes.
B. The direct influence in English of the classical languages began with the Renaissance and has continued ever since.
C. According to one estimate, more than 150,000 words of English are derived from Greek words.
D. See Appendix 1 for approximately 1,700 Greek and Latin word roots
E. About 80 percent of the entries in any English dictionary are borrowed, mainly from Latin.
F. Over 60 percent of all English words have Greek or Latin roots.
G. In the vocabulary of the sciences and technology, the figure rises to over 90 percent.
H. About 10 percent of the Latin vocabulary has found its way directly into English without an intermediary (usually French).
I. For a time the whole Latin lexicon became potentially English, and many words were coined on the basis of Latin precedent.

J. Latin and Greek are related due to both being descended from the same ancestor language.
K. English also shares a common prehistoric ancestor with Latin and Greek.
L. The Oxford Companion to the English Language states that the 'influence of classical Greek on English has been largely indirect, through Latin and French.



IV. Words of Greek Origen

A. Words of Greek origin have generally entered English in one of three ways:

1. indirectly by way of Latin,
2. borrowed directly from Greek writers
3. especially in the case of scientific terms, formed in modern times by combining Greek elements in new ways.

B. Latin and Greek roots are the chief source for English words in science and technology.

Lesson 18: Latin Prefixes and Suffixes – Review

I. Latin Noun Suffixes and Declension

A. Declension (from declining) is when an ending is added to a word.
B. Declension is produced by adding terminations originally significant to different forms of stems, vowel or consonant.
C. The various phonetic corruptions in the language have given rise to the several declensions.
D. Most of the case endings, as given in Latin, contain also the final letter of the stem.
E. Adjectives are, in general, declined like nouns, and are etymologically to be classed with them; but they have several peculiarities of inflection.

II. Nouns are Inflected in Five Declensions

A. Nouns are inflected in five declensions, distinguished by the final letter (*characteristic*) of the Stem, and by the case-ending of the Genitive Singular.

Declension	Characteristic	Genitive Singular
1st	***ā***	***ae***
2nd	***ŏ***	***ī***
3rd	***ĭ*** or consonant	***ĭs***
4th	***ŭ***	***ūs***
5th	***ē***	***ēī***

B. The Stem of a noun may be found, if a consonant stem, by omitting the case ending; if a vowel stem, by substituting for the case ending the characteristic vowel.

III. General Rules of Declension

A. The following are General Rules of Declension:

1. The ***Vocative*** is always the same as the Nominative, except in the singular of nouns and adjectives of the 2nd declension ending in ***-us***, which have ***-e*** in the Vocative.

2. In neuters the ***Nominative*** and ***Accusative*** are always alike and end in ***-ă*** in the plural.

3. The ***Accusative*** singular of all masculine and feminine Stems ends in ***-m***; the ***Accusative*** plural ends in ***-s***.

4. In the last three declensions (and in a few cases in the others) the ***Dative*** singular ends in ***-ī***.

5. The ***Dative*** and ***Ablative*** plural are always alike.

6. The ***Genitive*** plural always ends in ***-um***.

7. Final ***-i***, ***-o***, and ***-u*** of inflection are always *long;* final ***-a*** is *short*, except in the ***Ablative*** singular of the 1st declension; final ***-e*** is *long* in the 1st and 5th declensions, *short* in the 2nd and 3rd. Final ***-is*** and ***-us*** are *long* in plural cases.

8. See tables below:

1st Declension (ā-stem)			
		stella, *star* stem **stellā**-, (f.)	case ending
Sing.	Nom.	stell**a**, *a star*	**-a**
	Gen.	stell**ae**, *of a star*	**-ae**
	Dat.	stell**ae**, *to* or *for a star*	**-ae**
	Acc.	stell**am**, *a star*	**-am**
	Abl.	stell**ā**, *with, from by,* etc. *a star*	**-ā**
Plur.	Nom.	stell**ae**, *stars*	**-ae**
	Gen.	stell**ārum**, *of stars*	**-ārum**
	Dat.	stell**īs**, *to* or *for stars*	**-īs**
	Acc.	stell**ās**, *stars*	**-ās**
	Abl.	stell**īs**, *with, from, by,* etc. *stars*	**-īs**

1st and 2nd Declension (-ā and –o stem) Adjectives				
		bonus, **bona**, **bonum**, *good*		
		STEM **bono**- (M.)	STEM **bonā**- (F.)	STEM **bono**- (N.)
SING.	NOM.	bon**us**	bon**a**	bon**um**
	GEN.	bon**ī**	bon**ae**	bon**ī**
	DAT.	bon**ō**	bon**ae**	bon**ō**
	ACC.	bon**um**	bon**am**	bon**um**
	ABL.	bon**ō**	bon**ā**	bon**ō**
	VOC.	bon**e**	bon**a**	bon**um**
PLUR.	NOM.	bon**ī**	bon**ae**	bon**a**
	GEN.	bon**ōrum**	bon**ārum**	bon**ōrum**
	DAT.	bon**īs**	bon**īs**	bon**īs**
	ACC.	bon**ōs**	bon**ās**	bon**a**
	ABL.	bon**īs**	bon**īs**	bon**īs**

3rd Declension Irregular Nouns						
		bōs; *ox, cow* (m./f.) [plur. *cattle*]	**senex**, *old man* (m.)	**carō**, *flesh* (f.)	**os**, *bone* (n.)	**vīs**, *force* (f.) [plur. *strength*]
Sing.	Nom.	bōs	sen**ex**	carō	os	vīs
	Gen.	bŏv**is**	sen**is**	carn**is**	oss**is**	[vīs]
	Dat.	bov**ī**	sen**ī**	carn**ī**	oss**ī**	[vī]
	Acc.	bov**em**	sen**em**	carn**em**	os	v**im**
	Abl.	bov**e**	sen**e**	carn**e**	oss**e**	vī
Plur.	Nom.	bov**ēs**	sen**ēs**	carn**ēs**	oss**a**	vīr**ēs**
	Gen.	bo**um**	sen**um**	carn**ium**	oss**ium**	vīr**ium**
	Dat.	bō**bus** (būb**us**)	sen**ibus**	carn**ibus**	oss**ibus**	vīr**ibus**
	Acc.	bov**ēs**	sen**ēs**	carn**ēs**	oss**a**	vīr**īs** (-**ēs**)
	Abl.	bō**bus** (būb**us**)	sen**ibus**	carn**ibus**	oss**ibus**	vīr**ibus**

		sūs, *swine* (m./f.)	**Iuppiter**, *Jupiter* (m.)	**nix**, *snow* (f.)	**iter**, *march* (n.)
Sing.	Nom.	sūs	Iuppiter[1]	ni**x**	iter
	Gen.	su**is**	Iov**is**	niv**is**	itiner**is**
	Dat.	su**ī**	Iov**ī**	niv**ī**	itiner**ī**
	Acc.	su**em**	Iov**em**	niv**em**	iter
	Abl.	su**e**	Iov**e**	niv**e**	itiner**e**
Plur.	Nom.	su**ēs**		niv**ēs**	itiner**a**
	Gen.	su**um**		niv**ium**	itiner**um**
	Dat.	sŭ**bus** (su**ibus**)		niv**ibus**	itiner**ibus**
	Acc.	su**ēs**		niv**ēs**	itiner**a**
	Abl.	sŭ**bus** (su**ibus**)		niv**ibus**	itiner**ibus**

1. Also ***Iūpiter***.

4th Declension Nouns						
		manus, *hand* (F.) STEM **manu-**	**lacus**, *lake* (M.) STEM **lacu-**	CASE ENDINGS (M. / F.)	**genū**, *knee* (N.) STEM **genu-**	CASE ENDINGS (N.)
SING.	NOM.	man**us**	lac**us**	**-us**	gen**ū**	**-ū**
	GEN.	man**ūs**	lac**ūs**	**-ūs**	gen**ūs**	**-ūs**
	DAT.	manu**ī** (**-ū**)	lacu**ī** (**-ū**)	**-uī** (**-ū**)	gen**ū**	**-ū**
	ACC.	man**um**	lac**um**	**-um**	gen**ū**	**-ū**
	ABL.	man**ū**	lac**ū**	**-ū**	gen**ū**	**-ū**
PLUR.	NOM.	man**ūs**	lac**ūs**	**-ūs**	gen**ua**	**-ua**
	GEN.	man**uum**	lac**uum**	**-uum**	gen**uum**	**-uum**
	DAT.	man**ibus**	lac**ubus**	**-ibus** (**-ubus**)	gen**ibus**	**-ibus**
	ACC.	man**ūs**	lac**ūs**	**-ūs**	gen**ua**	**-ua**
	ABL.	man**ibus**	lac**ubus**	**-ibus** (**-ubus**)	gen**ibus**	**-ibus**

5th Declension (ē-stem)					
		rēs, *thing* (F.) STEM **rē-**	**diēs**, *day* (M.) STEM **diē-**	**fidēs**, *faith* (F.) STEM **fidē-**	CASE ENDINGS
SING.	NOM.	**rēs**	**diēs**	**fidēs**	**-ēs**
	GEN.	**rĕī**	**diēī** (**diē**)	**fidĕī**	**-ēī** (**-ē**)
	DAT.	**rĕī**	**diēī** (**diē**)	**fidĕī**	**-ēī** (**-ē**)
	ACC.	**rem**	**diem**	**fidem**	**-em**
	ABL.	**rē**	**diē**	**fidē**	**-ē**
PLUR.	NOM.	**rēs**	**diēs**		**-ēs**
	GEN.	**rērum**	**diērum**		**-ērum**
	DAT.	**rēbus**	**diēbus**		**-ēbus**
	ACC.	**rēs**	**diēs**		**-ēs**
	ABL.	**rēbus**	**diēbus**		**-ēbus**

Lesson 19: Types of Speech Within Languages

I. Types of Speech Within a Language

A. There are 12 Types of Speech in a Language.
B. A variety of terms distinguish the kinds of languages and vocabularies that exist outside the mainstream of standard, formal language.
C. Here are twelve words and phrases that denote specific ideas of language usage.

II. Argot

A. An argot is a language primarily developed to disguise conversation, originally because of a criminal enterprise, though the term is also used loosely to refer to informal jargon.

III. Cant

A. A Cant is somewhat synonymous with argot and jargon and refers to the vocabulary of an in-group that uses it to deceive or exclude nonusers.

IV. Colloquial Language

A. Anything not employed in formal writing or conversation, including terms that might fall under one or more of most of the other categories in this list, is a colloquialism.
B. Colloquial and colloquialism may be perceived to be pejorative terms, but they merely refer to informal terminology.
C. Colloquial language – whether words, idiomatic phrases, or aphorisms – is often regionally specific; for example, variations on the term "carbonated beverage" – including soda, pop, and coke – differ in various areas of the United States.

V. Creole

A. A creole is a more sophisticated development of a pidgin, derived from two or more parent languages and used by people all ages as a native language.

VI. Dialect

A. A dialect is a way of speaking based on geographical or social factors.

VII. Jargon

A. Jargon is a body of words and phrases that apply to a specific activity or profession, such as a particular art form or athletic or recreational endeavor, or a medical or scientific

subject. Jargon is often necessary for precision when referring to procedures and materials integral to a certain pursuit.

B. However, in some fields, jargon is employed to an excessive and gratuitous degree, often to conceal the truth or deceive or exclude outsiders.
C. Various types of jargon notorious for obstructing rather than facilitating communication are given names often appended with -ese or -speak, such as bureaucratese or corporate-speak.

VIII. Lingo

A. This term vaguely refers to the speech of a particular community or group and is therefore loosely synonymous with many of the other words in this list.

IX. Lingua Franca

A. A lingua franca is a language often adopted as a common tongue to enable communication between speakers of separate languages, though pidgins and creoles, both admixtures of two or more languages, are also considered lingua francas.

X. Patois

A. Patois refers loosely to a nonstandard language such as a creole, a dialect, or a pidgin, with a connotation of the speakers' social inferiority to those who speak the standard language.

XI. Pidgin

A. A simplified language arising from the efforts of people speaking different languages to communicate is a pidgin.
B. These languages generally develop to facilitate trade between people without a common language. In time, pidgins often evolve into creoles.

XII. Slang

A. A vocabulary of terms (at least initially) employed in a specific subculture is slang.
B. Slang terms, either invented words or those whose meanings are adapted to new senses, develop out of a subculture's desire to disguise – or exclude others from – their conversations.
C. As US society becomes more youth oriented and more homogenous, slang becomes more widespread in usage, and subcultures continually invent new slang as older terms are appropriated by the mainstream population.

XIII. Vernacular

A. A vernacular is a native language or dialect, as opposed to another tongue also in use, such as Spanish, French, or Italian and their dialects as compared to their mother language, Latin.
B. Alternatively, a vernacular is a dialect itself as compared to a standard language (though it should be remembered that a standard language is simply a dialect or combination of dialects that has come to predominate).

Lesson 20: Reasons to Study Language Structure and Linguistics

I. The Essence of Language

A. Language is a system of conventional spoken, manual (signed), or written symbols by means of which human beings, as members of a social group and participants in its culture, express themselves.
B. Linguistics is the study of language, how it works, how it is acquired, and how people use it to communicate.
C. Although linguists are often interested in and can speak a variety of languages, linguists know more about how language works, rather than having the ability to speak and understand multiple languages.
D. A polyglot is a person who speaks a multitude of languages.
E. For example, Desiderius Erasmus Roterodamus (1466 – 1536) was the greatest scholar of the northern Renaissance and edited the first Greek New Testament *(Novum Instrumentum omne)* in 1516. From his 1519 edition (he made five total) the King James Version was translated.
F. Erasmus is said to have know more than twenty languages.

II. Linguistics Helps to Understand the World

A. We are commanded to teach all nations (Matthew 28:18-20).
B. We accomplish this mission, (i.e., commission) by communicating the gospel to every person (Mark 16:15) and in their language.
C. Every language has its difference.
D. Every language captures unique conceptualizations of the world and has its own ways of constructing words, phrases and sentences for communicating ideas.
E. As we compare the words and structures of various languages, we come to a greater understanding of the world we live in.
F. The benefits of Language Study can be summarized as follows:

- Understand intricacies of world languages
- Improve communication between people
- Contribute to translation activities
- Assist in literacy efforts
- Treating speech disorders
- Valuable for studying and learning languages

III. The Scripture are for All Nations

A. Romans 16:25 – Now to him that is of power to stablish you according to my gospel, and the preaching of Jesus Christ, according to the revelation of the mystery, which was kept secret since the world began,
B. 26 But now is made manifest, and by the scriptures of the prophets, according to the commandment of the everlasting God, made known to all nations for the obedience of faith:
C. 27 To God only wise, be glory through Jesus Christ for ever. Amen.

D. This is commanded activity.
E. Preachers and teachers must be somewhat multi-lingual to fulfill the above commandment.

IV. Pray the Lord of the Harvest

A. Matthew 9:38 – Pray ye therefore the Lord of the harvest, that he will send forth labourers into his harvest.
B. Luke 10:2 – Therefore said he unto them, The harvest truly is great, but the labourers are few: pray ye therefore the Lord of the harvest, that he would send forth labourers into his harvest.
C. We are commanded to pray that Jesus will send laborers.
D. We are commanded to teach these laborers:
E. 2 Timothy 2:2 – And the things that thou hast heard of me among many witnesses, the same commit thou to faithful men, who shall be able to teach others also.
F. Many men are illiterate or have difficulty reading. They must advance to learn the word of God. It is our duty as leaders to teach them.

V. God's Word is for Daily Use

A. Deuteronomy 8:3 – And he humbled thee, and suffered thee to hunger, and fed thee with manna, which thou knewest not, neither did thy fathers know; that he might make thee know that man doth not live by bread only, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of the LORD doth man live.
B. Matthew 4:4 – But he answered and said, It is written, Man shall not live by bread alone, but by every word that proceedeth out of the mouth of God.
C. Luke 4:4 – And Jesus answered him, saying, It is written, That man shall not live by bread alone, but by every word of God.
D. All people should learn to red correctly the words of God.
E. Studying languages helps to have better understanding of the word of God.

VI. Linguistics Empowers People

A. Language captures how we perceive the world around us and how we relate to one another.
B. Our "mother tongue" is the one we use to express what is in our hearts; it is our heart language.
C. Many minority-language communities are marginalized because of their cultural background, or because their heart language is not the language of power.
D. Thousands of minority-language communities do not have access to education in a language they can understand.
E. Not knowing major languages limits the effectiveness of preaching and teaching around the world.
F. Not knowing a language can also limit advancement in other areas.
G. People suffer from poverty and discrimination because they are separate from the majority language and culture.
H. Churches that have illiterate or single-language members can minister to help them learn:

- Reading
- Proper grammar
- Linguistic analysis
- Orthography and writing systems development
- Literature development
- Multilingual education and literacy
- Scripture comparison and development work
- Translation work

VII. The Importance of Learning Language Structure

A. All aspects of a person's life are touched by language.
B. Although language is universal, each language has evolved to meet the experiences, needs, and desires of a particular community.
C. Understanding language structure and use provides teachers with essential tools to help students learn.
D. Language structure knowledge can help in tis type of work:

- Improve communication between people
- Contribute to translation activities
- Assist in literacy efforts
- Treating speech disorders

E. Linguistics helps teachers convey the origins of words and languages, their historical applications, and their modern-day relevance.
F. A linguistic approach to teaching language helps students gain a better, more in-depth understanding of the Bible

VIII. Linguistics is the Scientific Study of Language.

A. At the heart of linguistics is an understanding of:

- The unconscious communication knowledge of humans
- How humans acquire language
- The general and specific structures of language
- How languages vary

IX. Language Influences the Way People Interact with Each Other

A. Linguistics investigates how people acquire knowledge about language
B. Linguistics investigates how people think about the world
C. Linguistics investigates how this knowledge interacts with other thought processes, how it varies between speakers and geographic regions, and how to model this knowledge computationally.

D. Linguists study how to represent the structure of various aspects of language (such as sounds or meaning), how to theoretically explain different linguistic patterns, and how different components of language interact with each other.
E. Many linguists employ statistical analysis, mathematics, and logical formalism to account for the patterns they observe.

Lesson 21: The Common Structure of Languages

I. Language Structure:

A. Language is a "nested structure."
B. For example: letters are combined to form syllables, syllables are combined to form words, words are combined to form clauses and sentences.

II. Human Language Involves Two Types of Structures.

A. In the first structure, elements from a finite set of meaningless "sounds" are combined into meaningful "words" and parts of words, known as ***"morphemes."*** Linguists call this "phonology."
B. The rules of phonology cover "intonation" and "rhythm," as well as the way specific sounds can be combined.
C. In the second type of structure, words and morphemes are combined into "phrases." This is what linguists call ***"syntax."***
D. Syntax includes factors involved in carrying out a structural analysis of language, whether spoken, written, or signed. The main levels that linguists have proposed in order to elucidate the way languages operate.

III. Context

A. Context is the physical or psychological environment in which communication occurs.
B. Context is the various elements of the experience, questions asked, and setting.
C. Context is the linguistic environment of an element. The non-linguistic situation in which language is used.
D. Adjective of context – contextual.

IV. Parts of Speech

A. Parts of Speech defines each of the several categories to which words are assigned in accordance with their grammatical and "semantic" functions.

- Adjective: a word designating an attribute and added to a noun, to describe the thing more fully.

- Adverb: a word that qualifies or modifies another, especially an adjective, a verb, or another adverb, so as to express a relation of place, time, circumstance, manner, cause, degree, etc.

- Article: a member of a small set of words that give definiteness or indefiniteness and specificness or genericness to the application of a noun.

- Conjunction: a word used to connect clauses or sentences or to coordinate words in the same clause.
- Exclamation: a sudden impassioned or emphatic utterance, a cry.
- Interjection: the utterance of an exclamation expressing emotion.
- Noun: a word used as the name or designation of a person, place, or thing.
- Preposition: a word governing and usually preceding a noun, pronoun, etc., and expressing a relation between it and another word.
- Relational Words: a word expressing relation between other words.
- Verb: a word used to indicate the occurrence of or performance of an action or the existence of a state or condition.

V. Sentence

A. A sentence is the largest structural unit that displays grammatical relationships, not dependent on any other structure.
B. A sentences is a series of words complete in itself as the expression of a thought, containing or implying a subject and predicate, and conveying a statement, question, exclamation, or command.

VI. Clause

A. A clause is a simple sentence; a distinct part of a sentence including a subject and predicate, or one resembling this; a single passage of discourse or writing.
B. A clause is a structural unit smaller than the sentence, but larger than phrases or words.

VII. Phrase

A. A phrase is a small group of words expressing a single concept or entering with some degree of unity into the structure of a sentence.
B. A phrase does not contain a predicate or 'finite verb.'
C. Any 'syntactic' unit larger than a word and smaller than a sentence.
D. Also, a phrase can be a characteristic or "idiomatic" expression.
E. A phrase is a group of words smaller than a clause, forming a grammatical unit.
F. Phrases have "heads."
G. In English grammar, a head is the key word that determines the nature of a phrase (in contrast to any modifiers or determiners).
H. For example, in a noun phrase, the head is a noun or pronoun ("a tiny sandwich"). In an adjective phrase, the head is an adjective ("completely inadequate"). In an adverb phrase, the head is an adverb ("quite clearly").

VIII. Predicate

A. A predicate is the part of a sentence or clause containing what is said about a subject.
B. A predicate is the clause element that gives information about the subject.
C. A clause is the assertion of something about a subject.

IX. Question

A. A question is a sentence worded or expressed in a form such as to elicit information from a person, an inquiry.
B. A 'question of fact' addresses whether something is true or not.
C. A 'question of policy' addresses the best course of action or the best solution to a problem.
D. A 'question of value' addresses the merit or morality of an object, action, or belief.

X. Subject

A. The subject is a noun or noun equivalent about which a sentence is predicated and especially with which the verb agrees.
B. The subject is the clause about which something is stated.

XI. Statement

A. Statement: the action or an act of stating, alleging, or enunciating something.
B. A thing that is stated; an allegation, a declaration; specifically a verbal expression whose content is assessable in terms of truth or validity.

XII. Symbol System

A. A symbol system is a culturally contrived system of meaning that captures and conveys important forms of information.
B. Language, picturing, and mathematics are but three nearly worldwide symbol systems that are necessary for human survival and productivity.
C. Musical notation provides an accessible and versatile symbol system.

XIII. Alphabet

A. An alphabet is a set of letters used in writing a language
B. An alphabet is a set of "symbols" or signs used for these letters.
C. An alphabet is a writing system in which a set of symbols represents the "phonemes" of a language.

XIV. Symbol

A. A symbol is a representation of an idea.
B. Symbols are items used to represent other things, ideas, or events.
C. For example, the letters of the alphabet are symbols for specific sounds in English.
D. It is possible to talk about writing systems on the basis of the size, style, and configuration of the symbols, or the direction in which they are written.
E. A symbol can also be a word or phrase spoken by a speaker.
F. A symbol can be a an abstract, arbitrary, and ambiguous representation of a phenomenon.

XV. Word

A. A word is any of the sequences of one or more sounds or morphemes (intuitively recognized by native speakers as) constituting the basic units of meaningful speech used in forming a sentence or sentences in a language.
B. words are usually the easiest units to identify, in the written language. In most writing systems, they are the entities that have spaces on either side.

XVI. Affix

A. An affix is a grammatical element prefixed, infixed, or suffixed to the root of a word.

XVII. Affixation

A. An affixation is the addition of an affix.

XVIII. Infix

A. An infix is an affix inserted into a word.
B. English does not use infixes – only prefixes and suffixes.

XIX. Morpheme

A. A morpheme is the smallest contrastive unit of grammar.
B. A morpheme is the smallest "morphological" unit of language, which cannot be analyzed into smaller units.

XX. Phonemes

A. A phoneme is the basic speech sounds of a language.
B. A phoneme is the smallest contrastive unit in the sound system of a language.

XXI. Prefix

A. A prefix is an element placed at the beginning of a word to adjust or qualify its meaning or in some languages as an "inflection."

XXII. Suffix

A. A suffix is an element placed at the end of a word to form a derivative or as an inflection. (Oxford)

XXIII. Syllable

A. A syllable is a unit of pronunciation uttered without interruption, forming the whole or part of a word and comprising a sound. Also, a symbol, character, or set of characters, representing a corresponding element of written language. (Oxford)
B. A syllable is also an important abstract unit in explaining the way vowels and consonants are organized within a sound system. (Crystal, 166)

Lesson 22: Language Structures – Major Components (Part 1)

I. The Major Components of the Structure of Languages

A. Phonemes and Phonology
B. Morphemes (morphology)
C. Lexemes
D. Syntax
E. Semantics
F. Pragmatics
G. Context
H. Grammar
I. These pieces all work together to create meaningful communication among individuals

II. Phonemes and Phonology

A. A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that may cause a change of meaning within a language
B. A phoneme does not have meaning by itself.
C. A phoneme is the basic unit of phonology.
D. A phoneme may cause a change of meaning within a language
E. For example, in the words “bake” and “brake,” only one phoneme has been altered, but a change in meaning has been triggered.
F. The phoneme /r/ has no meaning on its own, but by appearing in the word it has completely changed the word’s meaning.
G. Phonemes correspond to the sounds of the alphabet, although there is not always a one-to-one relationship between a letter and a phoneme (the sound made when you say the word).
H. For example, the word “dog” has three phonemes: /d/, /o/, and /g/. However, the word “shape,” despite having five letters, has only three phonemes: /sh/, /long-a/, and /p/.
I. The English language has 44 different phonemes, which correspond to letters or combinations of letters. Through the process of segmentation, a phoneme can have a particular pronunciation in one word and a slightly different pronunciation in another.

The 44* Phonemes

Following is a list of the 44 phonemes along with the letters of groups of letters that represent those sounds.

	Phoneme (speech sound)	**Graphemes**** (letters or groups of letters representing the *most common* spellings for the individual phonemes)	**Examples**
Consonant Sounds:			
1.	**/b/**	b, bb	**b**ig, ru**bb**er
2.	**/d/**	d, dd, ed	**d**og, a**dd**, fill**ed**
3.	**/f/**	f, ph	**f**ish, **ph**one
4.	**/g/**	g, gg	**g**o, e**gg**
5.	**/h/**	h	**h**ot
6.	**/j/**	j, g, ge, dge	**j**et, ca**ge**, bar**ge**, ju**dge**
7.	**/k/**	c, k, ck, ch, cc, que	**c**at, **k**itten, du**ck**, **ch**ool, o**cc**ur, anti**que**, che**que**
8.	**/l/**	l, ll	**l**eg, be**ll**
9.	**/m/**	m, mm, mb	**m**ad, ha**mm**er, la**mb**
10.	**/n/**	n, nn, kn, gn	**n**o, di**nn**er, **kn**ee, **gn**ome
11.	**/p/**	p, pp	**p**ie, a**pp**le
12.	**/r/**	r, rr, wr	**r**un, ma**rr**y, **wr**ite
13.	**/s/**	s, se, ss, c, ce, sc	**s**un, mou**se**, dre**ss**, **c**ity, i**ce**, **sc**ience
14.	**/t/**	t, tt, ed	**t**op, le**tt**er, stopp**ed**
15.	**/v/**	v, ve	**v**et, gi**ve**
16.	**/w/**	w	**w**et, **w**in, s**w**im
17	**/y/**	y, i	**y**es, on**i**on
18.	**/z/**	z, zz, ze, s, se, x	**z**ip, fi**zz**, snee**ze**, la**s**er, i**s**, wa**s**, plea**se**, **X**erox, **x**ylophone

	Phoneme (speech sound)	**Graphemes**** (letters or groups of letters representing the *most common* spellings for the individual phonemes)	**Examples**
Consonant Digraphs:			
19.	**/th/ (not voiced)**	th	**th**umb, **th**in, **th**ing
20.	**/th/ (voiced)**	th	**th**is, fea**th**er, **th**en
21.	**/ng/**	ng, n	si**ng**, mo**n**key, si**n**k
22.	**/sh/**	sh, ss, ch, ti, ci	**sh**ip, mi**ss**ion, **ch**ef, mo**ti**on, spe**ci**al
23.	**/ch/**	ch, tch	**ch**ip, ma**tch**
24.	**/zh/**	ge, s	gara**ge**, mea**s**ure, divi**s**ion
25.	**/wh/ (with breath)**	wh	**wh**at, **wh**en, **wh**ere, **wh**y
Short Vowel Sounds:			
26.	**/a/**	a, au	h**a**t, l**au**gh
27.	**/e/**	e, ea	b**e**d, br**ea**d
28.	**/i/**	i	**i**f
29.	**/o/**	o, a, au, aw, ough	h**o**t, w**a**nt, h**au**l, dr**aw**, b**ough**t
30.	**/u/**	u, o	**u**p, t**o**n
Long Vowel Sounds:			
31.	**/ā/**	a, a_e, ay, ai, ey, ei	ba**c**on, l**a**te, d**ay**, tr**ai**n, th**ey**, **ei**ght, v**ei**n
32.	**/ē/**	e, e_e, ea, ee, ey, ie, y	m**e**, th**ese**, b**ea**t, f**ee**t, k**ey**, ch**ief**, bab**y**
33.	**/ī/**	i, i_e, igh, y, ie	f**i**nd, r**i**de, l**igh**t, fl**y**, p**ie**
34.	**/ō/**	o, o_e, oa, ou, ow	n**o**, n**o**te, b**oa**t, s**ou**l, r**ow**
35.	**/ū/**	u, u_e, ew	h**u**man, **u**se, f**ew**, ch**ew**

	Phoneme (speech sound)	Graphemes** (letters or groups of letters representing the *most common* spellings for the individual phonemes)	Examples
Other Vowel Sounds:			
36.	**/oo/**	oo, u, oul	b**oo**k, p**u**t, c**oul**d
37.	**/ōō/**	oo, u, u_e	m**oo**n, tr**u**th, r**ule**
Vowel Diphthongs:			
38.	**/ow/**	ow, ou, ou_e	c**ow**, **ou**t, m**ouse**, h**ouse**
39.	**/oy/**	oi, oy	c**oi**n, t**oy**
Vowel Sounds Influenced by *r*:			
40.	**/a(r)/**	ar	c**ar**
41.	**/ā(r)/**	air, ear, are	**air**, ch**air**, f**air**, h**air**, b**ear**, c**are**
42.	**/i(r)/**	irr, ere, eer	m**irr**or, h**ere**, ch**eer**
43.	**/o(r)/**	or, ore, oor	f**or**, c**ore**, d**oor**
44.	**/u(r)/**	ur, ir, er, ear, or, ar	b**ur**n, f**ir**st, f**er**n, h**ear**d, w**or**k, doll**ar**

Source: Orchestrating Success in Reading by Dawn Reithaug (2002).

**** The number of phonemes is different in some linguistics textbooks; this is evidence of the difficulty of classifying (Moats, 1998).***

***** This list does not include all possible graphemes for a given phoneme.***

III. Morphemes

A. A morpheme is the smallest unit of a word that provides a specific meaning to a string of letters (which is called a phoneme).
B. There are two main types of morpheme: free morphemes and bound morphemes.
J. A morphemes is the basic unit of morphology.
K. Morphemes are the smallest meaningful unit of language.
L. A morpheme is a series of phonemes that has a special meaning.
M. If a morpheme is altered in any way, the entire meaning of the word can be changed.
N. Free morphemes are individual (stand-alone) words (such as “eat” or “water”).
O. Bound morphemes are prefixes, suffixes, or other linguistic pieces that are not full words on their own but do affect meaning (such as the “-s” at the end of “cats” or the “re-” at the beginning of “redo”).
P. Because these morphemes must be attached to another word to have meaning, they are called bound morphemes.

Q. Within the category of bound morphemes, there are two additional subtypes: derivational and inflectional.
R. Derivational morphemes change the meaning or part of speech of a word when they are used together. For example, the word "sad" changes from an adjective to a noun when "-ness" (sadness) is added to it. "Action" changes in meaning when the morpheme "re-" is added to it, creating the word "reaction."
S. Inflectional morphemes modify either the tense of a verb or the number value of a noun; for example, when you add an "-s" to "cat," the number of cats changes from one to more than one.

IV. Lexemes

A. A lexeme is the set of all the inflected forms of a single word.
B. Lexemes are the set of inflected forms taken by a single word. For example, members of the lexeme RUN include "run" (the uninflected form), "running" (inflected form), and "ran."
C. This lexeme excludes "runner" (a derived term—it has a derivational morpheme attached).
D. Another way to think about lexemes is that they are the set of words that would be included under one entry in the dictionary – "running" and "ran" would be found under "run," but "runner" would not.

V. Syntax

A. Syntax is the set of rules for constructing full sentences out of words and phrases.
B. Every language has a different set of syntactic rules, but all languages have some form of syntax.
C. In English, the smallest form of a sentence is a noun phrase (which might just be a noun or a pronoun) and a verb phrase (which may be a single verb).
D. Adjectives and adverbs can be added to the sentence to provide further meaning.
E. Word order matters in English, although in some languages, order is of less importance.
F. For example, the English sentences "The baby ate the carrot" and "The carrot ate the baby" do not mean the same thing, even though they contain the exact same words.
G. In languages like Finnish, word order does not matter for general meaning – different word orders are used to emphasize different parts of the sentence.
H. Short article on Syntax below.

VI. Syntax

A. Wikipedia.org

In addition to word classes, a sentence can be analyzed in terms of grammatical functions: "The cat" is the subject of the phrase, "on the mat" is a locative phrase, and "sat" is the core of the predicate.

Another way in which languages convey meaning is through the order of words within a sentence. The grammatical rules for how to produce new sentences from words that are already known is called syntax.

The syntactical rules of a language determine why a sentence in English such as “I love you” is meaningful, but “*love you I” is not. Syntactical rules determine how word order and sentence structure is constrained, and how those constraints contribute to meaning.

For example, in English, the two sentences “the slaves were cursing the master” and “the master was cursing the slaves” mean different things, because the role of the grammatical subject is encoded by the noun being in front of the verb, and the role of object is encoded by the noun appearing after the verb. Conversely, in Latin, both *Dominus servos vituperabat* and *Servos vituperabat dominus* mean “the master was reprimanding the slaves,” because servos, or “slaves,” is in the accusative case, showing that they are the grammatical object of the sentence, and dominus, or “master,” is in the nominative case, showing that he is the subject.

Latin uses morphology to express the distinction between subject and object, whereas English uses word order.

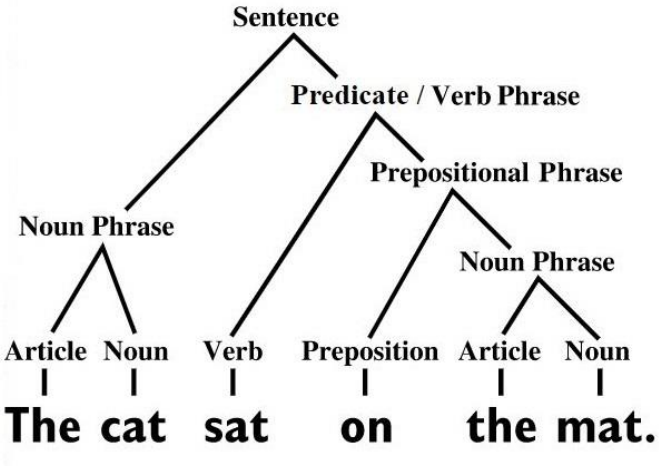
Another example of how syntactic rules contribute to meaning is the rule of inverse word order in questions, which exists in many languages. This rule explains why when in English, the phrase “John is talking to Lucy” is turned into a question, it becomes “Who is John talking to?,” and not “John is talking to who?.”

The latter example may be used as a way of placing special emphasis on “who,” thereby slightly altering the meaning of the question.

Syntax also includes the rules for how complex sentences are structured by grouping words together in units, called phrases, that can occupy different places in a larger syntactic structure. Sentences can be described as consisting of phrases connected in a tree structure, connecting the phrases to each other at different levels. To the right is a graphic representation of the syntactic analysis of the English sentence “the cat sat on the mat.”

The sentence is analyzed as being constituted by a noun phrase, a verb, and a prepositional phrase; the prepositional phrase is further divided into a preposition and a noun phrase, and the noun phrases consist of an article and a noun.

Basic constituent structure analysis of a sentence:



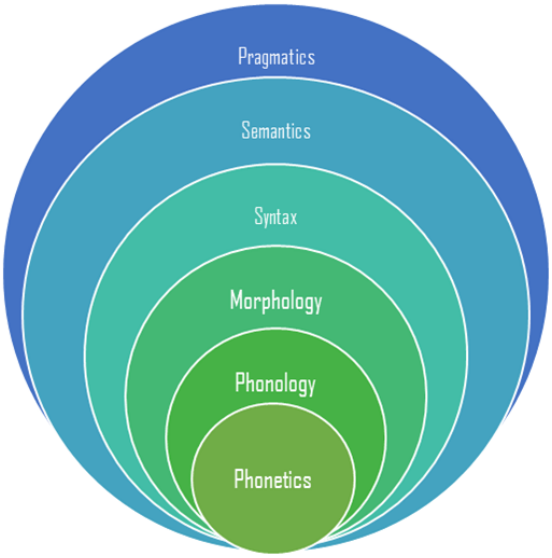
The reason sentences can be seen as being composed of phrases is because each phrase would be moved around as a single element if syntactic operations were carried out. For example, “the cat” is one phrase, and “on the mat” is another, because they would be treated as single units if a decision was made to emphasize the location by moving forward the prepositional phrase: “[And] on the mat, the cat sat.”

There are many different formalist and functionalist frameworks that propose theories for describing syntactic structures, based on different assumptions about what language is and how it should be described. Each of them would analyze a sentence such as this in a different manner.

Lesson 23: Language Structures – Major Components (Part 2)

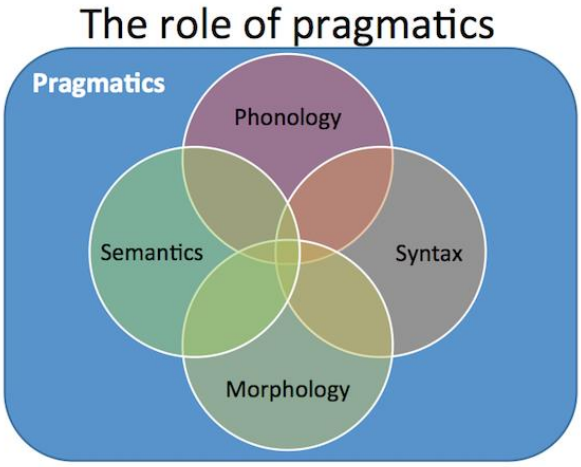
I. Semantics

A. Semantics is the study of meaning.
B. It is the study of the relation between linguistic expressions and their meanings.
C. Semantics is involved with the meaning of words without considering the context whereas pragmatics analyses the meaning in relation to the relevant context.
D. The key difference between semantics and pragmatics is the fact that semantics is context independent whereas pragmatic is context dependent



II. Pragmatics

A. Pragmatics is the study of context.
B. It is the study of the way context can influence our understanding of linguistic utterances.



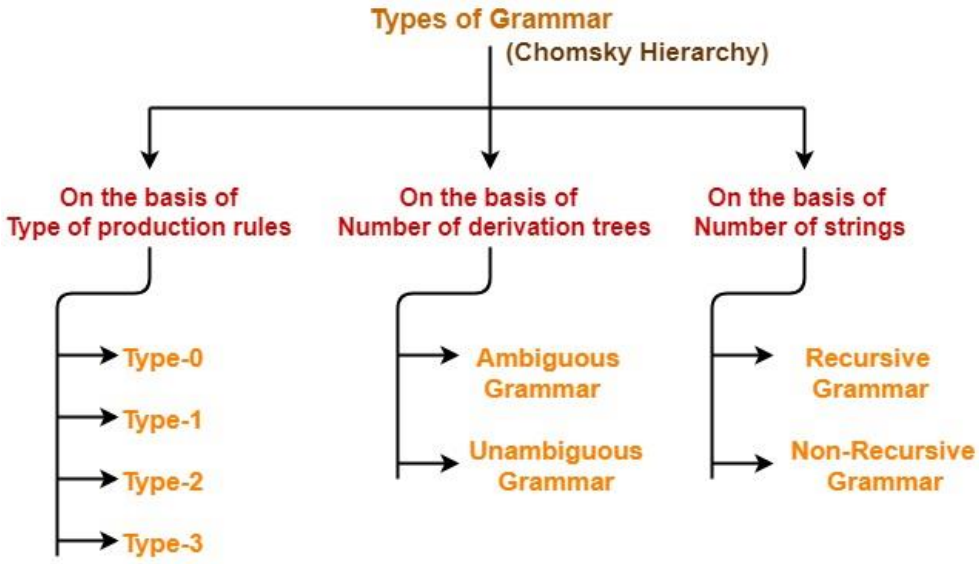
III. Context

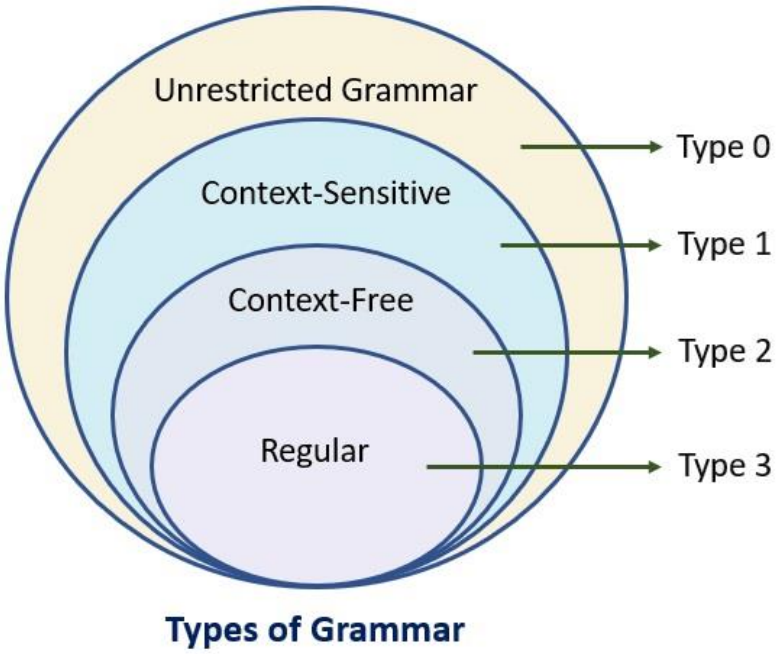
A. Context is how everything within language works together to convey a particular meaning.
B. Context includes tone of voice
C. Context includes body language
D. Context includes the words being used.
E. Depending on how a person says something, holds his or her body, or emphasizes certain points of a sentence, a variety of different messages can be conveyed.
F. For example, the word "awesome," when said with a big smile, means the person is excited about a situation.
G. "Awesome," said with crossed arms, rolled eyes, and a sarcastic tone, means the person is not thrilled with the situation.

Semantics vs. Pragmatics	
Language Internal	Language External
Linguistic Meaning	Communication
What Expressions Mean	What Speakers Mean
What is Said	What is Implied
Language Itself	Use of Language
Study of words and their meanings in a language.	Study of words and their meaning in a language with concern to their context.
Focuses mainly on the significance of the meaning of words in a literal sense.	Additionally focuses on the meaning of words according to the context and their inferred meanings as well.
Studies the literal meaning.	Studies the intended or the inferred meaning as well.

IV. Grammar

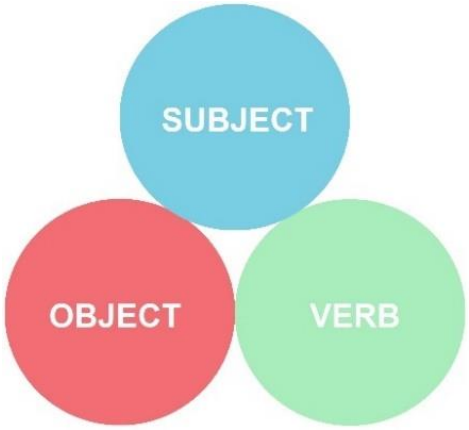
A. Grammar is the whole system and structure of a language or of languages in general, usually taken as consisting of syntax and morphology (including inflections) and sometimes also phonology and semantics.
B. The rules of a language governing the sounds, words, sentences, and other elements, as well as their combination and interpretation.
C. In a restricted sense, the term refers only to the study of sentence and word structure (syntax and morphology), excluding vocabulary and pronunciation.
D. English grammar is the way in which meanings are encoded into wordings in the English language.
E. This includes the structure of words, phrases, clauses, sentences, and whole texts.
F. The Noam Chomsky classifies the types of grammar in four types – Type 0, Type 1, Type 2, and Type 3.
G. It is also called Chomsky hierarchy of grammar.





V. Grammatical Structures

A. There are six word-order structures found in languages.
B. Three types of words – subject, object, and verb, make up these six combinations.



C. The two most common grammatical structures using word-orders for sentences in different languages are Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) and Subject-Object-Verb (SOV).
D. SVO and SOV makeup more than 85% of the world languages.
E. SVO is the most common order developed in Creole languages, suggesting it is more obvious to human psychology.
F. Dividing languages by grammatical structures is a more inclusive category than simply using word-order.

THE SIX WORD-ORDER STRUCTURES FOUND IN LANGUAGES			
Word-Order	**English Equivalent**	**Proportion of Languages**	**Example of Languages**
SOV	*"She him loves."*	45%	Ancient Greek, Bengali, Hindi, Japanese, Kannada, Korean, Latin, Malayalam, Persian, Sanskrit, Urdu, etc
SVO	*"She loves him."*	42%	Chinese, Dutch, English, French, German, Hausa, Hungarian, Italian, Malay, Russian, Spanish, Thai, Vietnamese, etc
VSO	*"Loves she him."*	9%	Biblical Hebrew, Classical Arabic, Irish, Te Reo Māori, Filipino, Tuareg-Berber, Welsh
VOS	*"Loves him she."*	3%	Malagasy, Baure, Car
OVS	*"Him loves she."*	1%	Apalaí, Hixkaryana, Klingon
OSV	*"Him she loves."*	0%	Warao

G. There are over 212 Native American languages that use the SOV word order.
H. This shows a commonality among these native languages.
I. Partial List of Native American languages using SOV Word Order

PARTIAL LIST OF NATIVE AMERICAN LANGUAGES USING SOV WORD ORDER		
Abenaki	Achuar	Aguaruna
Ahtna	Akawaio	Alabama
Aleut	Amahuaca	Amarakaeri
Andoa	Apache	Apalachee
Apinaye	Araona	Arikara
Assiniboine	Aymara	Babine
Beaver	Biloxi	Bogota
Bora	Boruca	Bribri
Buglere	Cabecar	Cacua
Cahuilla	Canamari	Candoshi
Capanahua	Carib	Carrier
Cashibo	Cashinahua	Catawba
Cayapa	Chacobo	Chayahuita

Chemehuevi	Chichimec	Chickasaw
Chilcotin	Chimariko	Chipaya
Chipewyan	Chitimacha	Chitonahua
Choctaw	Chontaquiro	Clatskanie
Coconuco	Comanche	Crow
Cuaiquer	Cuna	Cupeno
Damana	Dogrib	Embera
Esselen	Eyak	Galice
Gros Ventre	Guahibo	Guambiano
Guanano	Gwich’in	Haida
Han	Hidatsa	Hitchiti
Hochunk	Holikachuk	Hopi
Huachipaeri	Huambisa	Hupa
Ika	Inuktitut	Ioway
Irantxe	Isconahua	Jabuti
Jaqaru	Kaingang	Kamayura
Kansa	Karipuna	Kaska
Katukina	Kaweskar	Kaxarari
Kayapo	Kiowa	Kitanemuk
Koasati	Kogui	Koyukon
Kumeyaay	Kunza	Kuskokwim
Lenca	Mandan	Maquiritari
Maricopa	Marubo	Mastanahua
Matis	Mattole	Maxakali
Mayoruna	Mikmaq	Miskito
Mojave	Mono	Moronahua
Muinane	Munduruku	Muskogee
Nambikwara	Navajo	Ngabere
Nocaman	Nukini	Ocaina
Omaha-Ponca	Opata	Osage
Pacahuara	Pai	Paiute
Panamint	Panobo	Pasto
Pawnee	Pech	Pima Bajo
Piraha	Pisabo	Pomo
Poyanawa	Quapaw	Quechan
Quechua	Rama	Remo
Resigaro	Rikbaktsa	Sanema
Sarcee	Sekani	Sensi
Seri	Serrano	Shaninawa

Sharanahua	Shipibo	Shoshone
Shuar	Sioux	Siriano
Slavey	Stoney	Sumu
Takelma	Tanaina	Tanana
Tarahumara	Tariano	Tatuyo
Tehuelche	Telembi	Tewa
Timucua	Tlingit	Tolowa
Tol	Tonkawa	Totoro
Trumai	Tsafiki	Tsetsaut
Tucano	Tutchone	Tutelo-Saponi
Tututni	Tuxinawa	Tuyuca
Umpqua	Ute	Uwa
Vilela	Wailaki	Waorani
Wappo	Wari	Washo
Waunana	Wichita	Witoto
Xiriana	Yaghan	Yaminawa
Yanomamo	Yaqui	Yawanawa
Yine	Yoranahua	Yuchi
Yuki	Zuni	

Lesson 24: Comparative Linguistics

I. Comparative Linguistics

A. Formerly Comparative Grammar, or Comparative Philology
B. Comparative Linguistics is the study of the relationships or correspondences between two or more languages and the techniques used to discover whether the languages have a common ancestor.
C. Comparative linguistics, or comparative-historical linguistics (formerly comparative philology) is a branch of historical linguistics that is concerned with comparing languages to establish their historical relatedness.
D. Genetic relatedness implies a common origin or proto-language, and comparative linguistics aims to construct language families, to reconstruct proto-languages and specify the changes that have resulted in the documented languages.
E. To maintain a clear distinction between attested and reconstructed forms, comparative linguists prefix an asterisk to any form that is not found in surviving texts.
F. A number of methods for carrying out language classification have been developed, ranging from simple inspection to computerized hypothesis testing.
G. Comparative grammar was the most important branch of linguistics in the 19th century in Europe.
H. Comparative linguistics, also called comparative philology, was originally stimulated by the discovery by Sir William Jones in 1786 that Sanskrit was related to Latin, Greek, and German.

II. Methods Used

A. The fundamental technique of comparative linguistics is to compare the following:

- phonological systems
- morphological systems
- syntax
- the lexicon of two or more languages

B. In principle, every difference between two related languages should be explicable to a high degree of plausibility; systematic changes, for example in phonological or morphological systems are expected to be highly regular (consistent).
C. In practice, the comparison may be more restricted, e.g. just to the lexicon.

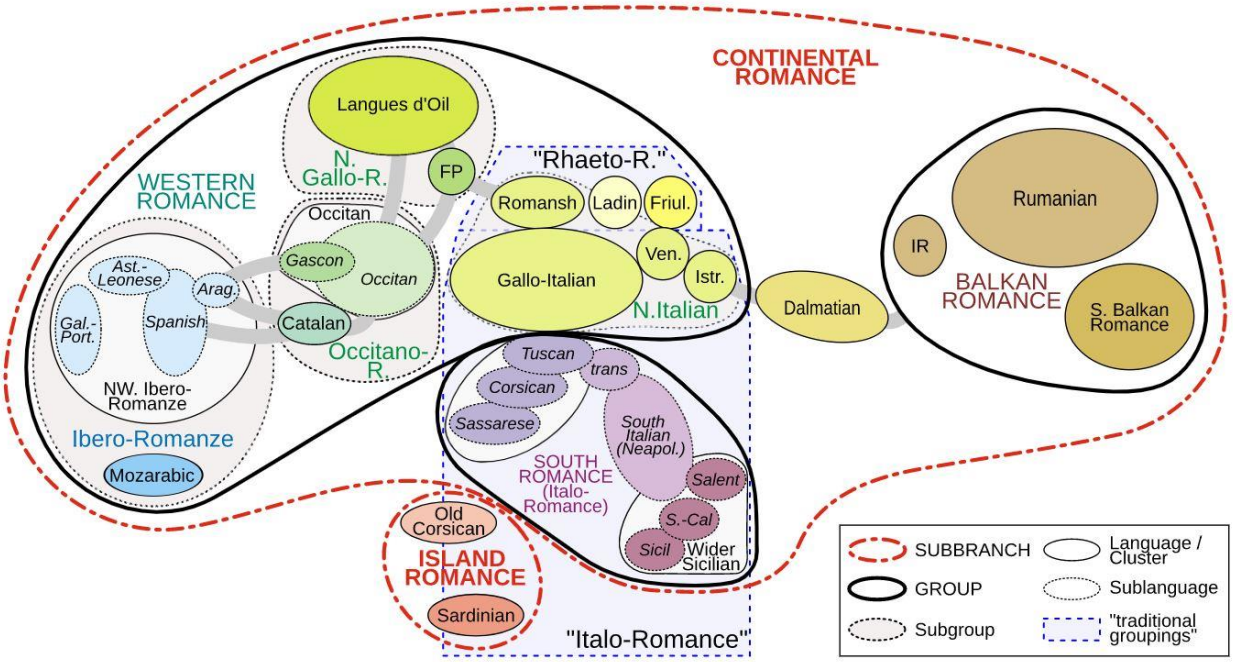
III. The Comparative Method

A. Wikipedia.org
B. In linguistics, the comparative method is a technique for studying the development of languages by performing a feature-by-feature comparison of two or more languages with common descent from a shared ancestor and then extrapolating backwards to infer the properties of that ancestor.

C. The comparative method may be contrasted with the method of internal reconstruction in which the internal development of a single language is inferred by the analysis of features within that language.
D. Ordinarily, both methods are used together to reconstruct prehistoric phases of languages; to fill in gaps in the historical record of a language; to discover the development of phonological, morphological and other linguistic systems and to confirm or to refute hypothesized relationships between languages.

IV. Principles Used in the Comparative Method

A. The aim of the comparative method is to highlight and interpret systematic phonological and semantic correspondences between two or more attested languages.
B. If those correspondences cannot be rationally explained as the result of language contact (borrowings, areal influence, etc.), and if they are sufficiently numerous and systematic that they cannot be dismissed as chance similarities or linguistic universals, then it must be assumed that they descend from a single parent language called the 'proto-language.'



C. A sequence of regular sound changes (along with their underlying sound laws) can then be postulated to explain the correspondences between the attested forms, which eventually allows for the reconstruction of a proto-language by the methodical comparison of "linguistic facts" within a generalized system of correspondences.

D. Every linguistic fact is part of a whole in which everything is connected to everything else. One detail must not be linked to another detail, but one linguistic system to another.

V. Sound Change Laws are Regular

A. An assumption important to the comparative method is the Neogrammarian principle that the laws governing sound change are regular and have no exceptions that cannot be accounted for by some other regular phenomenon of language.
B. As an example of the method, English is seen to be related to Italian if a number of words that have the same meaning and that have not been borrowed are compared: piede and "foot," padre and "father," pesce and "fish."
C. The initial sounds, although different, correspond regularly according to the pattern discovered by Jacob Grimm and named Grimm's law (q.v.) after him; the other differences can be explained by other regular sound changes.
D. Because regular correspondences between English and Italian are far too numerous to be coincidental, it becomes apparent that English and Italian stem from the same parent language.
E. The comparative method was developed and used successfully in the 19th century to reconstruct this parent language, Proto-Indo-European, and has since been applied to the study of other language families.

Lesson 25: Comparing the Linguistics of Languages

I. The Linguistics of Spanish

A. From www.staff.ncl.ac.uk

II. The Spanish Phonemes

A. The phonemes of a language are its speech sounds viewed as units in a functioning system.
B. In some cases, e.g. that of Spanish /tʃ/, a phoneme is always pronounced or 'realized' in the same way, while in others a phoneme's realization may vary according to the phonetic context.
C. As a rule, two or more sounds that are similar to one another and which never occur in the same phonetic context – hence are said to be in complementary distribution – can be viewed as different realizations of the same underlying phoneme.
D. English, for example, has two l-sounds, known as clear l (phonetic symbol: [l]) and dark l (phonetic symbol: [ɬ]), which are normally analysed as being different realizations of a single phomeme. This analysis follows from the following facts: (i) the sounds in question are similar to one another, both being lateral consonants with the same primary place of articulation; (ii) they are in complementary distribution, clear l occurring word-initially (e.g. let) and before vowels (e.g. elated) but dark l occurring word-finally (e.g. wheel) and before consonants (e.g. belt).
E. It follows from the mutually exclusive distributions of [l] and [ɬ] in English that there are no words in that language which are differentiated from each other solely on the basis of whether they have [l] as opposed to [ɬ], or vice versa, in a given position.
F. This in turn means that the contrast between [l] and [ɬ] is not significant in terms of expressing meaning in English.
G. For example, if you pronounce let as [ɬɛt], i.e. with an initial dark l as opposed to the clear l that is more 'normal' in that position, you run no risk of being misunderstood. And the same applies if you use a clear l before a consonant or at the end of a word.
H. Indeed, some varieties of northern British English systematically employ dark l word-initially or before vowels and, conversely, speakers of varieties such as Welsh English or Caribbean English may produce clear l in final position or before a consonant.

III. Minimal Pairs

A. The basic method for establishing the phonemic inventory of a language involves identifying minimal pairs, i.e. pairs of words whose component sounds match in all positions except one.
B. For example, Spanish casa 'house' and caza 'hunt' are exactly identical except in their third segment, where [s] contrasts with [θ] (in the Castilian variety of the language, although not in Andalusian and Latin American varieties).
C. This minimal contrast establishes the functionality of the distinction between the sounds [s] and [θ], on the basis of which we can say that these two sounds belong to two different phonemes.

D. These, in accordance with the standard convention whereby phonemes are represented using slashes, can be shown as /s/ and /θ/.

E. Using the minimal pairs technique, five vowel phonemes and nineteen consonant phonemes can be identified in (Castilian) Spanish, implying that the standard European form of the language has a phonemic inventory comprising twenty-four separate units.

IV. The Vowel Phonemes of Spanish

A. The five Spanish vowel phonemes are shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1 The Spanish vowel phonemes

	Front	Central	Back
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

B. Table 1: The Spanish vowel phonemes

Front	**Central**	**Back**	
High	i		u
Mid	e		o
Low		a	

C. The separate phonemic status of the five sounds shown in Table 1 can be established by the following five-way minimal contrast:

paso ‘step’
peso ‘weight’
piso ‘apartment’
poso ‘sediment’
puso ‘he/she put’

V. The Consonant Phonemes of Spanish

A. Identifying the Spanish consonant phonemes is not quite as straightforward as is the identification of the vowel phonemes, although it is still a routine matter. In the first place, the sixteen-way minimal contrast shown in Table 2 below establishes the separate phonemic status of /p, t, k, b, d, g, θ, s, tʃ, x, m, n, ɲ, l, ʎ, ɾ/.

Table 2 Minimal contrasts for sixteen Spanish consonant phonemes

Word	Phoneme identified	Word	Phoneme identified
capa 'cape'	/p/	*cacha* 'butt'	/tʃ/
cata 'tasting'	/t/	*caja* 'box'	/x/
caca 'poop'	/k/	*cama* 'bed'	/m/
cava (= sparkling wine)	/b/	*cana* 'grey hair'	/n/
cada 'each'	/d/	*caña* 'cane'	/ɲ/
caga 'poops'	/g/	*cala* 'cove'	/l/
caza 'hunt'	/θ/	*calla* 'be quiet'	/ʎ/
casa 'house'	/s/	*cara* 'face'	/ɾ/

B. Table 2: Minimal contrasts for sixteen Spanish consonant phonemes

Word	**Phoneme identified**	**Word**	**Phoneme identified**
capa 'cape'	/p/	*cacha* 'butt'	/tʃ/
cata 'tasting'	/t/	*caja* 'box'	/x/
caca 'poop'	/k/	*cama* 'bed'	/m/
cava (sparkling wine)	/b/	*cana* 'grey hair'	/n/
cada 'each'	/d/	*caña* 'cane'	/ɲ/
caga 'poops'	/g/	*cala* 'cove'	/l/
caza 'hunt'	/θ/	*calla* 'be quiet'	/ʎ/
casa 'house'	/s/	*cara* 'face'	/ɾ/

C. The remaining consonantal phonemes are /f/, /j/ and the trill /r/.
D. It would be tedious to list all the minimal pairs required to establish functional distinctions between these phonemes and each of the sixteen shown in Table 2.
E. Suffice it to say that /f/ occurs most frequently at the beginning of a word, hence enters into a number of minimal contrasts in that position (e.g. forro 'lining' ~ zorro 'fox'), while /j/ and /r/ contrast with one another and with many of the above phonemes in the frame ca__o:

cayo [ˈkajo] 'cay/key'
carro [ˈkaro] 'cart'
caro [ˈkaɾo] 'expensive'
callo [ˈkaʎo] 'callus'
etc

F. The full inventory or system of Spanish consonantal phonemes is given in tabular format in Table 3 below.
G. In presenting phonemic systems, there is no need to provide an exhaustive phonetic characterization of each unit in the system.
H. All that needs to be mentioned are the distinctive features, i.e. a set of minimal features that are sufficient to distinguish each phoneme from all the others. In the case of Spanish,

there is no need, for example, to distinguish between the bilabial and the labiodental places of articulation or between the palato-alveolar and the palatal places of articulation.

I. In addition, it can be useful to group types of phonemes into larger categories.
J. Thus laterals and vibrants (i.e. trills and taps) can be grouped together as liquids, and liquids can in turn be grouped with nasals in the category of sonorants.
K. The non-sonorants can then be referred to as obstruents.
L. Among the voiced obstruents, manner of articulation (specifically, fricative versus stop versus affricate) is not phonemically distinctive in Spanish, given that /b, d, g/ can be either fricatives or stops in Spanish while /j/ can be either a fricative or an affricate.
M. As a class, then, the Spanish obstruents can be regarded as being divided fundamentally into those which are always voiced and those which are always voiceless, with /θ/ and /s/ being unmarked in this regard (i.e. they can be voiced or voiceless depending on the phonetic context).
N. The exclusively voiceless obstruents can then be subdivided into those which are fricatives, viz. /f, x/ and those which are not, viz. the stops /p, t, k/ and the affricate /tʃ/.
O. Table 3 The Spanish Consonant Phonemes (shown twice to preserve the original when translating).

Table 3 The Spanish consonant phonemes

				Labial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Obstruents	Voiceless		Non-fricatives	p	t		tʃ	k
			Fricatives	f	θ	s		x
	Voiced			b	d		ʝ	g
Sonorants	Liquids	Laterals				l	ʎ	
		Vibrants	Tap			ɾ		
			Trill			r		
	Nasals			m		n	ɲ	

TABLE 3 THE SPANISH CONSONANT PHONEMES

				Labial	Dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar
Obstruents	Voiceless		Non-fricatives	p	t		tʃ	k
			Fricatives	f	θ	s		x
	Voiced			b	d		ʝ	g
Sonorants	Liquids	Laterals				l	ʎ	
		Vibrants	Tap			ɾ		
			Trill			r		
	Nasals			m		n	ɲ	

Lesson 26: Common Articulation Variations Between Comparative Languages

I. Common Articulation Variations Between English and Spanish

A. It is important to know the different articulation rules and patterns of speech found in languages.
B. Comparing English to Spanish will show some areas where language changes.

II. Consonants

A. There are many differences between the consonants in English and Spanish. There are 15 phonemes that occur in both languages, 5 that occur in Spanish only, and 12 that occur in English only. Here are a few examples.
B. "ch" and "sh" are two different phonemes in English. However, in Spanish, the "sh" sound is unusual, and used in dialects or tribal languages (i.e., the *shayahuita* tribe in Peru).
C. "v" and "b" are two different phonemes in English. However, in Spanish, both letters appear in written words, but the typical pronunciation is "b" (depending on dialect). For example, vaca sounds like "baca" just as baja sounds like "baja."
D. "s" and "z" in English are two different phonemes. However, in Spanish, both letters appear in written words but the typical pronunciation is "s" (depending on dialect). For example, zapato sounds like "sapato" just as sopa sounds like "sopa."
E. There are other allophonic variations of the "b," "d," and "g" sounds that exist in Spanish that we do not produce in English.
F. The trilled "rr" is a phoneme in Spanish and will carry a different meaning than a word produced with an "r." For example, perro means "dog" and pero is the conjunction "but."

Spanish and English Consonants

	Bilabial	Labio-dental	Inter-dental	Alveolar	Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Nasals	m			n	ɲ	ŋ	
Glides	w				j	(w)	
Stops	p b			t d ɾ		k g	ʔ
Fricatives	β	f v	θ ð	s z	ʃ ʒ	x ɣ	h
Affricates					ʧ ʤ		
Liquids				l	ɹ		
Trill				r			

Circled Purple = Shared phonemes; Red = Spanish; Blue = English

III. Vowels

A. There are only five vowels found in the Spanish language.
B. There is no unstressed schwa / ə / as found in the English word "above."
C. This is very different from the 30+ vowels found in English.
D. Spanish speakers may substitute a tenser vowel for the unstressed vowels in an English word.
E. In addition to diphthongs, triphthongs are also common in Spanish (though not typically found in English).
F. The following are the five Spanish vowels:

- / i / = keep
- / e / = made, vet
- / a / = cot
- / u / = you
- / o / = sew

IV. Syllables

A. Spanish is a syllabic language.
B. This language has syllables that fall within and between words.
C. Each syllable has the same duration, no matter where the stress in the word may fall.
D. This is often why many English speakers may perceive Spanish speakers as "rapid" talkers.
E. In contrast, English has an accentual rhythm of speech in which the accented syllables have a longer duration than the unaccented syllables.
F. For example, "I stayed a while" has two accented areas of stress that have a slightly longer duration than the other sounds in the sentence.

V. Pitch

A. In Spanish, pitch does not vary as it does in English.
B. Therefore, a person whose primary language is Spanish may sound monotone when speaking English.

VI. Accent

A. In Spanish, placement of an accent on a word may change the meaning.
B. For example:

- Camino = (1st person present tense) "I walk."
- Caminó = (3rd person past tense) "You (formal)" or "He/She walked."

VII. Dialectal Variations

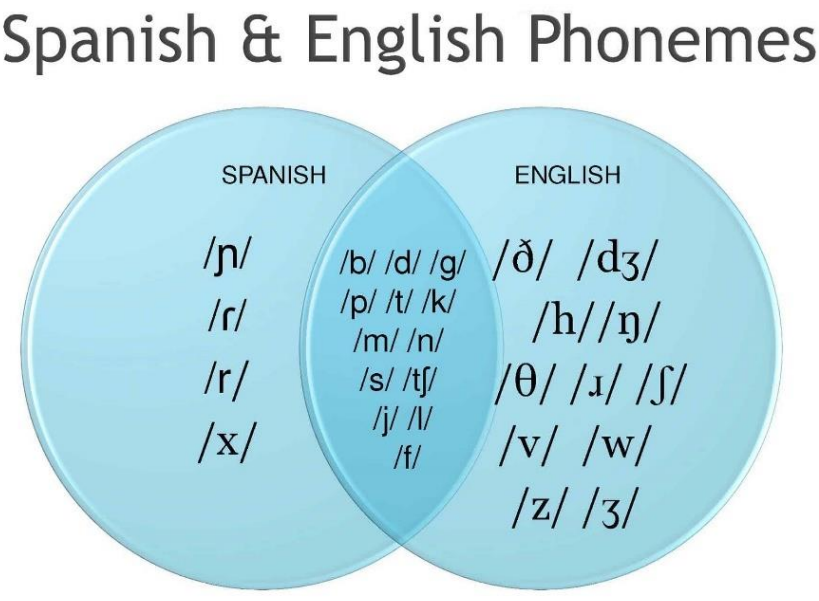
A. It is important to note where the Spanish speaker is from because, depending upon the student's region/country, there will be different types of variations and substitutions common to his/her dialect.

VIII. Articulation and Language Differ in Countries.

A. For example, some Caribbean (i.e., Puerto Rico and Cuba) communities will simply delete the final / s / in words.
B. An example would be los amigos produced as "lo amigo."
C. This will have an effect on articulation, as well as language.
D. These Spanish speakers may carryover this final / s / deletion into English.
E. Spanish speakers with a Castilian dialect may produce the "th" sound in place of the / s /.
F. For example, cena would sound like "thena" in certain dialects.
G. This occurs only in parts of Spain and is not typical to Spanish speakers from any other country.

IX. Articulation Errors in Second-Language Learners

A. Articulation errors or difficulty producing certain sounds is usually due to the influence from the learners first language.
B. The language learner will have to practice unfamiliar phonemes until they become natural.
C. The following Venn Diagram shows the common articulation errors between English and Spanish phonemes.



X. Positive Transfer

A. If two languages share a sound, you would expect that the shared sounds would not be difficult for a second-language learner to produce in their second language.
B. For example, English and Spanish both have /b/ so the word "baby (bebe)" should not be a problem.

XI. Negative Transfer

A. If a sound is not shared by two languages, you would expect the second-language speaker to do one of the following with the sound:

1. deletion
2. distortion
3. replacement

B. Using Spanish we shall look at a few examples:

- Deletion: *Don't* becomes *Don*
  REASON: No final /t/ and no final clusters in Spanish

- Distortion: Spaghetti becomes *Espaghetti*
  REASON: No initial /s/ cluster in Spanish

- Replacement: *This* becomes *Dis*
  REASON: No /th/ so the brain chooses the most similar sound from the first language.

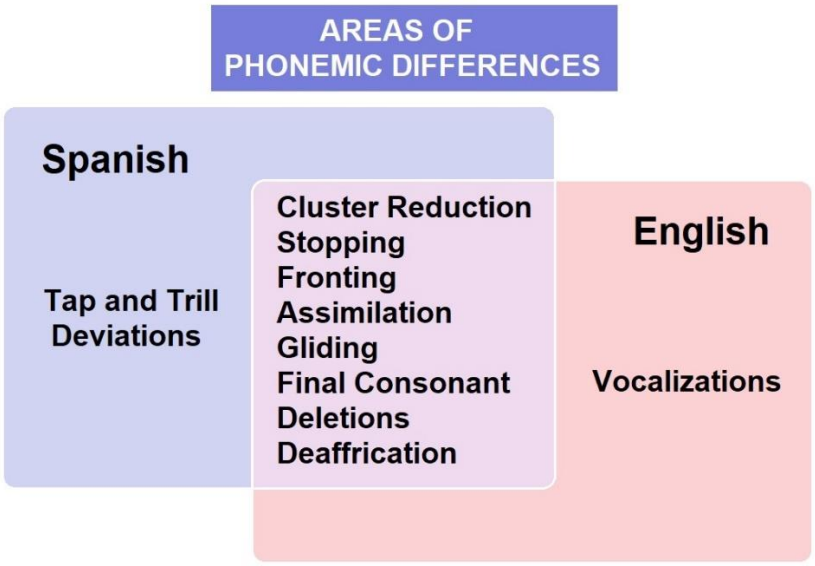
C. The Venn Diagram above lays this out nicely.
D. Sounds that both languages share fall in the center and sounds that are specific to each language are on the sides.
E. English speakers would have an easier time learning the sounds of the second language.
F. English speakers have fewer sounds to learn in order to produce all of the sounds of Spanish.

Common Sound Differences	
Englsih	**Spanish**
b/p and f/v are minimal pairs that differ only by voicing.	"v" and "b" are identical and produced as a bilabial fricative. The "b" has a slightly harder sound than the "v" sound.
"sh" (as in ship) and "zh" (as in seizure) are minimal pairs.	"sh" and "zh" do not exist in Spanish. "ch" is often substituted.

"th" is produced as a voiced (as in the) or as a voiceless (as in thick) interdental fricative.	"th" does not exist in Spanish. "t" or "d" is often substituted.
"s" (as in sip) and "z" (as in zoo) are minimal pairs.	"z" does not exist in Spanish. "s" is often substituted.
"r" (initial position" is produced retroflexed.	"rr" is produced as a trilled "r" sound.
"d" is an alveolar plosive.	"d" is produced as a voiced interdental.
"h" is a glottal fricative. "j" is a palatal affricative.	"h" is always silent. "j" produces the English "h" sound.
English has 30-plus vowel sounds.	Spanish has five vowel sounds.

XII. Areas of Phonemic Differences

A. Spanish have tap and trill sounds not usually found in English – the "rrr" sound, "ñ" sound, "d" and "b" sounds are softer.
B. English has vocalization sounds not found in Spanish – the "the" sound, "sp" sound, "st" sound, "str" sounds, etc.



Lesson 27: Speech Development in Comparison Languages

I. Spanish and English

A. From bilinguistics.com
B. Article is mainly speaking about speech development in children, but this article is helpful to understand language differences as a basic level.

II. The Phonologies of English and Spanish

A. Speech development in Spanish and English has many similarities, such as a shared alphabet.
B. Spanish is more concise in that it has 18 consonant phonemes compared to 26 in English. See the handy chart below for an illustration of Spanish phonemes.
C. Table 1: Spanish Phonemes

	Labial	Labio-Dental	Dental	Alveo-Palatal	Velar	Glottal
Stops	[p] [b]		[t] [d]		[k] [g]	
Affricates				[ĉ]		
Fricatives		[f] [v] [b]	[đ] [s] [z]	[š]	[x] [g]	[h]
Nasals	[m]	[ɱ]	[n]	[ñ]	[ŋ]	
Laterals			[l]			
Semi-Consonants	[w]		[y]			
Vibrants		Tap Trilled	[r] [r]			

Spanish Vowels

	Front	Central	Back
High	[i]		[u]
Mid	[e]		[o]
Low		[a]	

TABLE 1 THE SPANISH PHONEMES						
	Labial	**Labio-Dental**	**Dental**	**Alveo-Palatal**	**Velar**	**Glottal**
Stops	[p]		[t]		[k]	
	[b]		[d]		[g]	
Affricatives				[č]		
Fricatives		[f]	[đ]	[ṡ]	[x]	
		[v]	[s]		[g]	[h]
		[ƀ]	[z]			
Nasals	[m]	[ɱ]	[n]	[ṅ]	[ŋ]	
Laterals			[l]			
Semi-	[w]		[y]			
Consonants						
Vibrants		**Tap**	[ɾ]			
		Trilled	[ṙ]			
Spanish Vowels						
	Front		**Central**		**Back**	
High	[i]				[u]	
Mid	[e]				[o]	
Low			[a]			

III. Spanish Phonemes

A. One of the most important things to know about the acquisition of these sounds is that nearly all of them are emerging by the end of four years of age.
B. Universally, stop consonants are acquired first, followed by nasals, then fricatives and affricates, and liquids are the last sounds to appear (Goldstein & Washington, 2001).
C. That being said, there are also allophonic or dialectal variations within either language.
D. Spanish lacks the glottal /’/, the voiced affricate /ʤ/ (judge), the voiced /ð/ and unvoiced /θ/ (thigh, thy), the voiced /ž/ and unvoiced /ʃ/ (azure, shy), the /z/, the /ŋ/ (sing), and the flap /ɾ/ (as in butter) (Quilis, 1999).
E. English, on the other hand, does not use the trilled /rr/ or the /ɲ/of Spanish (Quilis, 1999). When speaking strictly of sound class, order of acquisition in Spanish resembles the progression of sound acquisition per class in English.
F. Check out the following chart depicting the results of numerous studies on the age of acquisition of sounds in Spanish:
G. Table 2: Age of Acquisition of Phonemes in Spanish.

Study:	Acevedo (1993)	Fantini (1984)	Jimenez (1987)	Linares (1981)	Melgar (1976)	Anderson and Smith (1987)	de la Fuente (1985)
Origin of Participants:	Texas	Texas	California	Chihuahua, Mexico	Mexico City	Puerto Rico	Dominican Republic
Criterion:	90%	Produced	50%	90%	90%	75%	50%
p	3;6	1;6	<3;0	3	3–3½	2	2.0
b	3;6	1;6	<3;0	6	4–4½		2.0
t	3;6	1;6	<3;0	3	3–3½	2	2.0
d	4;0		3;3	4			
k	4;0	2;0	<3;0	3	3–3½	2	2.0
g	5;11+	1;6	3;3	3	4–4½		2.5
ß		2;0		6			
f	3;6	2;6	<3;0	4	3–3½		2.0
ð		1;6		4			
ɤ							2.0
s	4;0	1;6	3;3	6	6–6½		3.0
x	4;0	2;6	3;3				3.0
tʃ	4;6	2;0	<3;0	4	3–3½		2.0
m	3;6	1;6	<3;0	3	3–3½	2	2.0
n	3;6	1;6	<3;0	3	3–3½	2	2.0
ɲ	3;6	2;6	3;7	3	3–3½	2	2.0
l	3;6	2;0	3;3	3	3–3½		2.5
ɾ	4;6	4;5	3;7	4	4–4½		3.0
r	5;11+	5;0	4;7	6	6–6½		3.5
w	3;6	1;6	<3;0	5		2	
j	3;6	1;6	<3;0		3–3½	2	2.5
h–x				3			

IV. Spanish Vowels

A. The Spanish vowel space is like most Latin languages, relying on five vowels /a/,/e/,/i/,/o/and /u/.
B. These vowels are represented in the English sound system.
C. However, English also employs an additional eight vowels on average (13 total).
D. A Spanish-speaker learning to speak English would be expected to create additional vowel sounds that are not native to her.
E. In contrast, an English-speaker would be expected to compress her speech to rely on less than half of the typical number of vowels used.

V. Diphthongs

A. Diphthongs exist in both languages.
B. They are as prevalent in Spanish as they are in English.
C. Like English, a Spanish diphthong is normally the combination of one hard vowel (/a/,/o/,/u/) and one weak vowel (/i/,/e/).
D. The combination of two weak vowels also exists but is used less frequently (Quilis, 1999).
E. Table 4: Examples of English and Spanish Diphthongs

English	Spanish
[aI] price	[ja] ia, lla, ya: viaje (voyage)
[eI] face	[j] ie, lle, ye: pie (foot)
[I] choice	[j] io, llo, yo: cambio (change)
[ə] goat	[wa] ua: agua (water)
[a] mouth	[w] ue: puedo (I can)
[w] uo: antiguo (ancient)	

VI. Syllable Structure and Complexity in Spanish

A. The syllable structures in Spanish are highly dominated by CV sequences (Goldstein & Cintron, 1985).
B. If a syllable ends with a vowel, it is called an open syllable.
C. Patterns of syllables can be shown with C and V (C for 'consonant,' V for 'vowel').
D. Closed syllables are often shown as CVC (such as got), and open syllables as CV (such as go).
E. Some languages like English have many kinds of closed syllables.
F. This is a cross-linguistic phenomenon in babbling (MacNeilage, Davis, Kinney, & Matyear, 2000), but Spanish retains the CV dominated syllable type (Quilis, 1999).
G. The second most common syllable type is isolated vowels (18%), followed by syllables ending with consonants as the least common (e.g., CVC, VC, CCVC) (Goldstein & Cintron, 1985).
H. In one study, a whopping 83% of the words created by Spanish-speaking children were comprised of two syllables (Goldstein & Cintron, 2001)!

Table 5: *Percentage Use of Syllable Types and Word Length.*

	Subject 1	Subject 2	Subject 3	Average	Spanish*
Syllable types					
CV	69%	75%	57%	67%	47%
V	18%	9%	38%	22%	14%
CVC	9%	10%	2%	7%	19%
VC	3%	5%	3%	4%	19%
CCVC	1%	1%	1%	1%	2%
Word length (Number of Syllables)					
1-syllable	17%	35%	23%	25%	n/a
2-syllable	83%	45%	72%	67%	n/a
3-syllable	0	14%	5%	6%	n/a
4-syllable	0	5%	0	2%	n/a
5-syllable	0	2%	0	1%	n/a

VII. Phonological Processes in Children

A. Spanish and English share similarities in how phonological processes present in early acquisition (Mann & Hodson, 1994).

B. In both languages, we hear phonological processes in early speech productions and these decrease in frequency as the child gets older (Anderson & Smith, 1987).
C. The most common processes that are shared between languages are cluster reduction, pre- and post-vocalic singleton omission, unstressed syllable deletion, and glottalization of velars (Mann & Hodson, 1994).
D. While researchers have found some differences in the frequency of each process (Mann & Hodson, 1994), the use of processes tended to decrease as the child approached five years of age (Maez, 1985).
E. Below is a handy chart illustrating phonological processes in Spanish:
F. Table 6: Spanish Phonological Processes

Acquisition by Age 4

1. mastery (90% accurate) of vowels and many consonants
2. consonants *not* typically mastered:
   a. g, f, s, ɲ, flap ɾ (martillo), trill r (rojo); consonant clusters (tren)

Acquisition by Age 5

1. mastery of most consonants
2. periodic errors on the following consonants:
   a. ð, x (reloj), s, ɲ, tʃ, ɾ, r, l; consonant clusters
3. moderate occurrences of:
   a. cluster reduction — /tren/ (train) → [ten]
   b. unstressed syllable deletion — /elefante/ (elephant) → [fante]
   c. stridency deletion — /sopa/ (soup) → [opa]
   d. tap/trill /r/ deviation — /roo/ (red) → [doo]
4. low occurrences of:
   a. fronting — /boka/ (mouth) → [bota]
   b. prevocalic singleton omission — /dos/ (two) → [os]
   c. stopping — /sopa/ (soup) → [topa]
   d. assimilation — /sopa/ (soup) → [popa]

Acquisition by Age 7

1. mastery of all consonants
2. infrequent errors on:
   a. x, s, tʃ, ɾ, r, l; consonant clusters

VIII. Employing Phonological Processes

A. While both languages share the presence of phonological processes, differences exist in how they are employed (Goldstein & Cintron, 2001).

B. Substitutions in English occur most often when liquids (/l/,/r/) are replaced by glides (/j/,/w/) (Goldstein & Cintron, 2001).
C. In Spanish however, /r/ is more commonly replaced by /l/ (Anderson & Smith, 1987).
D. Cluster reduction in English normally retains the first consonant of the cluster (pow for plow). In contrast, Spanish deletes the first consonant *(lojo* for *flojo)* (Goldstein & Cintron, 2001).
E. An understanding of typical development is necessary in order to identify a disorder (Mann & Hodson, 1994).
F. While English and Spanish share many phonological tendencies (Goldstein & Iglesias, 1996), there are enough phonological differences to warrant a closer look at a Spanish-speaking child's processes in both languages.
G. Accounting for patterns specific to Spanish ensures that phonological differences reflecting the individual's limited proficiency in English are not viewed as a disorder. And that is something to applaud.

Use Syllabus 224A2 for Lessons 28 through 72