

TASK 1: compounds

A The list below contains compound nouns and adjective-noun combinations found in the extract “The grammatical heart of nonstandard English” (D. Crystal, *Stories of English*) Decide which are **compound nouns**, and which are **adjective-noun combinations**.

1. **cn** / **an**grammatical variation
2. **cn** / **an**nonstandard English
3. **cn** / **an**standard orthography
4. **cn** / **an**critical feature
5. **cn** / **an**informal varieties
6. **cn** / **an**unequivocally called standard
7. **cn** / **an**nonstandard English users
8. **cn** / **an**equivalent diagnostic power
9. **cn** / **an**spoken and written language
10. **cn** / **an**grammatical features
11. **cn** / **an**regional dialects

B Now expand (paraphrase) the noun phrases, adding prepositions, articles, subjects and verbs where necessary. For adjective-noun combinations, you will find that no additions are *necessary*, although some variants are *possible*.

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|----------------------------------|
| 1. grammatical variation |
| 2. nonstandard English |
| 3. standard orthography |
| 4. critical feature |
| 5. informal varieties |
| 6. unequivocally called standard |
| 7. nonstandard English users |
| 8. equivalent diagnostic power |
| 9. spoken and written language |
| 10. grammatical features |
| 11. regional dialects |

C Now look at the two instances of the structure “the x of y”. Can you convert them into compound nouns?

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| 1. the heart of the distinction between standard and nonstandard English |
| 2. a critical feature of the written language |

TASK 2: order of adjectives

Put the adjectives and adverbs into the correct order.

1. _____ **representations** *dialect - English literary*
2. _____ **works** *fiction - recent - science*
3. _____ **realism** *dramatic - greater much*
4. _____ **agreement** *nonstandard - verb*
5. _____ **uses** *known - lexical - nonstandard - well*
6. _____ **words** *dialect - eye*

TASK 3: SVO (or: cut the c**p)

Look at the following sentences and try to identify the core elements (the head noun of the subject, the verb, and any complement or obligatory object(s) in the independent (main) clause. There may not be a subject in a passive sentence ("agentless passive"). The first one is done for you.

0. It is this down-to-earth and realistic attitude towards ELF among those for whom it has become part and parcel of their everyday communicative practices that originally triggered my interest in the topic years ago¹

→ My interest was triggered by this attitude.

1. As pointed out by Barbara Seidlhofer (2009a) and Jennifer Jenkins et al. (2011), far more important than the identification of individual linguistic features characteristic of ELF talk are the underlying communicative processes that give rise to these observable surface structures.

2. Here, interview data of the kind obtained in my ethnographic study provide detailed emic descriptions of such communicative strategies as well as contextualized explanations of when, why and to what avail they are employed.

3. A second significant point of convergence between the interview-based findings of my research and other ELF research activities relates to the issue of socio-cultural and professional identities, important factors impacting on the linguistic realization of ELF talk.

4. Rather than viewing communication in ELF as governed almost exclusively by the shared aim of ensuring mutual understanding, a more differentiated sociolinguistic exploration of these identity related aspects as well as of other social and contextual factors has now begun and needs to be taken further in future research.

5. Turning to the wider context of ELF research, it has frequently been pointed out that the World Englishes paradigm provides a number of productive empirical as well as conceptual parallels with ELF (e.g. Seidlhofer 2009b).

6. More research, including longitudinal studies in other business sectors as well as in other domains, is clearly needed in order to enhance our understanding of the dynamics involved in individual ELF scenarios.

¹ Source: S. Ehrenreich 2012 "English as a lingua franca today: evolving perspectives" *Journal of English as a Lingua Franca* 1 (1).

TASK 4: learning how to waffle

Expand these sentences, making them as long as possible. Use anything that you consider syntactically possible, including: compound nouns, adjective sequences, relative clauses, nominalised verbs, adverbial phrases for manner, time, place, ...

Use the “5 whs” for inspiration (who, why, when, where, what). The first one is done for you.

0. Lectures are compulsory.

→ Dr Smythe's Monday morning History of Science lectures are no longer compulsory for all first year undergraduate students: see the department handbook for details.

1. We first reviewed the existing literature²

2. Poor young African Americans get extremely low scores on reading tests

3. Our research was conducted in East Palo Alto, California.

4. This alternative should not be abandoned.

5. The findings need to be replicated.

6. The results of this study were published.

7. There is evidence that attitudes to AAVE were never negative.

² Sentences extracted and adapted from Rickford & Rickford (1995) “Dialect Readers Revisited”. *Linguistics and Education* 7, 107-128

TASK 5: copulas in context

Identify the verbs in the extract below.

- How complex are the verb phrases you find?
- How complex are the noun phrases you find?

Attentional Networks and the Semantics of Consciousness

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<http://journalpsyche.org/ojs-2.2/index.php/psyche/article/viewFile/2315/2252>

ABSTRACT

The term consciousness is an important one in the vernacular of the western literature in many fields. It is no wonder that scientists have assumed that consciousness will be found as a component of the human brain and that we will come to understand its neural basis. However, there is rather little in common between consciousness as the neurologist would use it to diagnose the vegetative state, how the feminist would use it to support raising male consciousness of the economic plight of women and as the philosopher would use it when defining the really hard question of the subjective state of awareness induced by sensory qualities. When faced with this kind of problem it is usual to subdivide the term into more manageable perhaps partly operational definitions. Three meanings that capture aspects of consciousness are: (1) the neurology of the state of mind allowing coherent orientation to time and place (2) the selection of sensory or memorial information for awareness and (3) the voluntary control over overt responses. In each of these cases the mechanisms of consciousness overlap with attentional networks that have been explored with the methods of cognitive neuroscience. In this paper we explore the overlap and discuss how to exploit the growing knowledge of attentional networks to constrain ideas of consciousness.

TASK 6: Reporting³

Read the extract and locate the reporting verbs, especially those with a *that*-clause following. What tense is the reporting verb? - What tense is its dependent clause? How complex is the reporting clause? How complex is the dependent clause?

An alternative view of figurative language use suggests that people can comprehend the intended meanings of many nonliteral utterances directly if these are seen in realistic social contexts (Gibbs, 1994). The direct access view simply claims that listeners need not automatically analyze the complete literal meanings of linguistic expressions before accessing pragmatic knowledge to figure out what speakers mean to communicate. The complete literal meaning of a linguistic expression is itself a difficult concept to define. Following Frege (1952), the literal meaning of any sentence is traditionally thought to be its compositional meaning (i.e., the combined meaning of the individual words apart from context). Under the direct access view, people can, given the right context, understand speakers' communicative messages without having to first construct a compositional analysis for the utterance. At the same time, the idea of a complete literal meaning of any utterance implies a highly non-pragmatic analysis of what is said. For instance, under the standard pragmatic model, when a speaker utters a statement as simple as *The door is open*, she only literally says "There is a uniquely identifiable door somewhere in the universe and it is open." Similarly, when a speaker utters *Jane has three children*, she only literally says "Jane has at least three children, but may have more than three" (Grice, 1975). In this

³ Extract from Raymond W. Gibbs Jr. (2002) A new look at literal meaning in understanding what is said and implicated. *Journal of Pragmatics* 34, 457-486.

sense, the complete literal meaning of any utterance is its compositional meaning apart from enriched pragmatic knowledge (i.e., people's background knowledge about the world and the local context).

The direct access view does not claim that listeners never access something about what the individual words mean (perhaps, but not necessarily, these words' literal meanings) during processing of what speakers imply. Nor does the direct access view claim that people never take longer to process a figurative meaning than to understand a literal one (sometimes referred to as the "processing-equivalence hypothesis," see Giora et al., 1998). People may sometimes take a good deal of time to process novel poetic metaphors, for example. Yet it is not at all clear that the additional time needed to understand some novel expression is necessarily due to a preliminary stage in which the non-pragmatic, literal meaning for an entire utterance is first analyzed and then rejected. Listeners may take longer to understand a novel expression because of the difficulty in integrating the figurative meaning with the context and not because listeners are first analyzing and then rejecting the expression's literal meaning. Various empirical evidence supports this idea (Schaw, 1995; Shinjo and Myers, 1987). For this reason, we simply should not infer that the literal meaning for an entire phrase or expression must have been analyzed simply because people take longer to read novel instances of figurative language than to process either familiar figurative expressions or equivalent literal statements. I offer these cautionary remarks about the direct access model because scholars often argue that the direct access view cannot be right given either differences in processing for familiar and unfamiliar instances of figurative language, or because of longer reading times for figurative language than for equivalent literal expressions (cf. Giora, 1995, 1997). Moreover, many critics of the direct access view attempt to empirically demonstrate that the literal meanings of words in, for instance, metaphor and irony, appear to be accessed. These scholars sometimes argue that sensitive, on-line methods are needed to examine if and when literal meanings are accessed during language interpretation. I agree with this point to a large degree. But all the direct access model posits is that people do not automatically analyze the complete context-free, or literal meanings, of entire utterances before deriving their figurative meanings. People may indeed analyze aspects of what words mean when understanding indirect and figurative language (Gibbs, 1994).

Consider the research on lexical ambiguity resolution. Psycholinguists have for decades debated whether the multiple meanings of ambiguous words (e.g., bug in *The computer scientist found a bug in his program*) are all momentarily understood or only the contextually appropriate meaning is activated (see Simpson, 1994 for a review). Research from various on-line studies provide support for both the context sensitive model of lexical access (Glucksberg et al., 1986; Vu et al., 1998), in which only the contextually appropriate meaning is activated, and context-insensitive views (Swinney, 1979; Burgess et al., 1989), in which all the ambiguous word's meanings are momentarily activated until contexts comes in to disambiguate the word's meaning.

Many psychologists now favor the position of highly frequent or dominant meanings always being immediately activated regardless of context (Tabossi and Zardon, 1993). Some work shows that processing polysemous words, unlike ambiguous words, results in the continued activation of inappropriate sense for some time after the critical word has been heard (Williams, 1992). But virtually all theories posit that the contextually appropriate meaning of an ambiguous word is determined within a short period of time (several hundred milliseconds at most). Thus, even theorists espousing a purely modular view of lexical ambiguity resolution do not argue that people carry the literal meanings of words till they get to the end of linguistic statements before pragmatic information, including context, is accessed to infer speakers' contextually appropriate messages. In this way, the research on lexical ambiguity resolution does not directly bear on the specific claims of the direct access view of figurative language interpretation. Another way of putting this is that even if individual word meanings are momentarily activated regardless of context, this should not be understood as implying that the complete literal meanings of entire sentences are analyzed before speakers' intended meanings are recognized.

TASK 7: verb tenses⁴

Suggest suitable tenses for the verbs which have been reduced to their infinitive. Sometimes more than one option is correct/ appropriate.

The last decade of the twentieth century marks a major watershed in the evolution of human settlement, for it encompasses the period during which the location of the world's people became more urban than rural (Clark, 1996). Variations among countries in the quality of their census data and in the ways in which urban areas **(define)** mean that it **(be)** not possible to be exact, but it is likely that 1996 **(be)** the year in which the figure of 50 per cent urban **(achieve)**. Despite its symbolic significance, this historical event **(go)** largely unrecognized and unreported. More of the 5.4 billion inhabitants of the globe now **(live)** in urban settlements than in villages and hamlets.⁽¹⁾ No longer **(be)** towns and cities exceptional settlement forms in predominantly rural societies. The world **(be)** an urban place.

Urban development on this scale **(be)** a remarkable geographical phenomenon. Instead of being spread widely and thinly across the surface of the habitable earth, a population that is urban is one in which vast numbers of people **(cluster)** together in very small areas. Levels of urbanization, however, **(be)** far from uniform (United Nations, 1991). They **(be)** high across the Americas, most of Europe, parts of western Asia and Australia. South America **(be)** the most urban continent with the population in all but one of its countries (Guyana) being more urban than rural. More than 80 per cent of the population **(live)** in towns and cities in Venezuela, Uruguay, Chile and Argentina. Levels of urban development **(be)** low throughout most of Africa, South and East Asia (Brunn and Williams, 1993). Fewer than one person in three in sub-Saharan Africa **(be)** an urban dweller. The figure **(be)** below 20 per cent in Ethiopia, Malawi, Uganda, Burkina Faso, Rwanda and Burundi. Despite the presence of some large cities, levels of urban development throughout South and South East Asia **(be)** low (Dogan and Kasarda, 1989; 1990; Chen and Heligman, 1994). An estimated 41 per cent of China's 1.2 billion people and 29 per cent of India's 0.96 billion **(live)** in towns and cities in 1995. The Himalayan kingdom of Bhutan is reckoned to be the world's most rural sovereign state, with only six per cent of its population living in towns and cities.

The urban world **(emerge)** only very recently. Towns and cities **(exist)** for over eight millennia, but fewer than three per cent of the world's population **(live)** in urban places in 1800. According to Davis (1965; 1969) it **(be)** around 27 per cent in 1950, by which time most of the countries in what **(now regard)** as the developed world **(be)** predominantly urban. Urbanization as a phenomenon that encompasses the majority of the world's population **(be)** a consequence of a massive rise in the percentage of the population that is urban in the developing world, especially in Africa and Asia (Gugler, 1988; Gilbert and Gugler, 1992). This shift in the locus of urban development **(raise)** far-reaching questions concerning the causes of recent and current urbanization in developing countries and its links with that in developed areas. This paper **(explore)** and **(attempt)** to explain such patterns and relationships in an historical context. It **(overview)** the principal stages in the evolution of the urban world and **(suggest)** that they can be explained by an interdependency theory of global urban development.

⁴ David Clark (1998) Interdependent Urbanization in an Urban World: An Historical Overview. *The Geographical Journal*, Vol. 164