

## 1: Project MUSE - Charles F. Hockett

*A speech error, commonly referred to as a slip of the tongue (Latin: lapsus linguae, or occasionally self-demonstratingly, lipsus linguae) or misspeaking, is a deviation (conscious or unconscious) from the apparently intended form of an utterance.*

His book *The State of the Art* outlined his criticisms of the generative approach. In his paraphrase a key principle of the Chomskyeian paradigm is that there are an infinite number of grammatical sentences in any particular language. The grammar of a language is a finite system that characterizes an infinite set of well-formed sentences. More specifically, the grammar of a language is a well-defined system by definition not more powerful than a universal Turing machine and, in fact, surely a great deal weaker. It is currently fashionable to assume that, underlying the actual more or less stumbling speech behavior of any human being, there is a subtle and complicated but determinate linguistic "competence": This point of view makes linguistics very hard and very erudite, so that anyone who actually does discover facts about underlying "competence" is entitled to considerable kudos. Within this popular frame of reference, a theory of "performance" -- of the "generation of speech" -- must take more or less the following form. If a sentence is to be uttered aloud, or even thought silently to oneself, it must first be built by the internal "competence" of the speaker, the functioning of which is by definition such that the sentence will be legal "grammatical" in every respect. But that is not enough; the sentence as thus constructed must then be performed, either overtly so that others may hear it, or covertly so that it is perceived only by the speaker himself. It is in this second step that blunders may appear. Just if there are no such intrusions is what is performed an instance of "smooth speech". I believe this view is unmitigated nonsense, unsupported by any empirical evidence of any sort. In its place, I propose the following. All speech, smooth as well as blunderful, can be and must be accounted for essentially in terms of the three mechanisms we have listed: Speech actualizes habits--and changes the habits as it does so. Speech reflects awareness of norms; but norms are themselves entirely a matter of analogy that is, of habit, not some different kind of thing. There are many situations in which bracketing does not serve to disambiguate. As already noted, words that belong together cannot always be spoken together, and when they are not, bracketing is difficult or impossible. He attempted to distinguish the similarities and differences among animal communication systems and human language. In turn, that differentiates human spoken language from animal communication and other human communication systems such as written language. Much of human language is performed using the vocal tract and auditory channel. Hockett viewed this as an advantage for human primates because it allowed for the ability to participate in other activities while simultaneously communicating through spoken language. Broadcast transmission and directional reception: Additionally, a listener has the ability to determine the source of a sound by binaural direction finding. Wave forms of human language dissipate over time and do not persist. A hearer can only receive specific auditory information at the time it is spoken. A person has the ability to speak and hear the same signal. Anything that a person is able to hear can be reproduced in spoken language. Speakers can hear themselves speak and monitor their speech production and internalize what they are producing by language. Human language sounds are specialized for communication. When dogs pant it is to cool themselves off. When humans speak, it is to transmit information. Specific signals can be matched with a specific meaning. There is no limitation to what can be communicated about and no specific or necessary connection between the sounds used and the message being sent. People can refer to things in space and time and communicate about things that are not present. People can create new and unique meanings of utterances from previously existing utterances and sounds. Human language is not completely innate, and acquisition depends in part on the learning of a language. Meaningless phonic segments phonemes are combined to make meaningful words, which, in turn, are combined again to make sentences. While Hockett believed that all communication systems, animal and human alike, share many of these features, only human language contains all 13 design features. Additionally, traditional transmission, and duality of patterning are key to human language. Broadcast Transmission and Directional Reception: An auditory audible human language signal is sent out in all directions but is perceived

in a limited direction. For example, humans are more proficient in determining the location of a sound source when the sound is projecting directly in front of them, as opposed to a sound source projected directly behind them. Rapid Fading of a signal in human communication differs from such things as animal tracks and written language because an utterance does not continue to exist after it has been broadcast. With that in mind, it is important to note that Hockett viewed spoken language as the primary concern for investigation. Written language was seen as being secondary because of its recent evolution in culture. That differs from many animal communication systems, particularly in regards to mating. For example, humans have the ability to say and do anything that they feel may benefit them in attracting a mate. That design-feature incorporates the idea that humans have insight into their actions. Specialization is apparent in the anatomy of human speech organs and our ability to exhibit some control over these organs. For example, a key assumption in the evolution of language is that the descent of the larynx has allowed humans to produce speech sounds. Additionally, in terms of control, humans are generally able to control the movements of their tongue and mouth. Dogs however, do not have control over these organs. When dogs pant they are communicating a signal, but the panting is an uncontrollable response reflex of being hot [1]. A specific signal can be matched with a specific meaning within a particular language system. For example, all people who understand English have the ability to make a connection between a specific word and what that word represents or refers to. Hockett notes that gibbons also show semanticity in their signals, but their calls are far more broad than human language. Arbitrariness within human language suggests that there is no direct connection between the type of signal word and what is being referenced. For example, an animal as large as a cow can be referred to by a very short word Archived October 27, , at the Wayback Machine.. Each basic unit of speech can be categorized and is distinct from other categories. In human language, there are only a small set of sound ranges that are used and the differences between these bits of sound are absolute. In contrast, the waggle dance of honey bees is continuous. For example, humans have the ability to communicate about unicorns and outer space. Human language is open and productive in the sense that humans have the ability to say things that have never before been spoken or heard. In contrast, apes such as the gibbon have a closed communication system because all of their vocal sounds are part of a finite repertoire of familiar calls. That is different from many animal communication systems because most animals are born with the innate knowledge , and skills necessary for survival. Honey bees have an inborn ability to perform and understand the waggle dance. Humans have the ability to recombine a finite set of phonemes to create an infinite number of words, which, in turn, can be combined to make an unlimited number of different sentences. Design feature representation in other communication systems[ edit ] Honeybees Foraging honey bees communicate with other members of their hive when they have discovered a relevant source of pollen , nectar , or water. In an effort to convey information about the location and the distance of such resources, honeybees participate in a particular figure-eight dance known as the waggle dance. By the use of this dance, honeybees are able to send out a signal that informs other members of the hive as to what direction the source of food, or water can be located. Evidence that the specific signals of a communication system can be matched with specific meanings is apparent because other members of the hive are able to locate the food source after a performance of the waggle dance. Foraging honeybees can communicate about a resource that is not currently present within the hive. Waggle dances change based on the direction, amount, and type of resource. Gibbons are small apes in the family Hylobatidae. While they share the same kingdom , phylum , class , and order of humans and are relatively close to man, Hockett distinguishes between the gibbon communication system and human language by noting that gibbons are devoid of the last four design features. Gibbons possess the first nine design features , but do not possess the last four displacement, productivity, traditional transmission , and duality of patterning. Displacement, according to Hockett, appears to be lacking in the vocal signaling of apes. Productivity does not exist among gibbons because if any vocal sound is produced, it is one of a finite set of repetitive and familiar calls. Hockett supports the idea that humans learn language extra genetically through the process of traditional transmission. Hockett distinguishes gibbons from humans by stating that despite any similarities in communication among a species of apes, one cannot attribute these similarities to acquisition through the teaching and learning traditional transmission of signals; the only explanation must be a genetic

basis. Later additions to the features[ edit ] In a report published in with anthropologist and scientist Stuart A. Altmann, Hockett derived three more Design Features , bringing the total to These are the additional three: A speaker can say falsehoods, lies, and meaningless statements. Language can be used communicate about the very system it is, and language can discuss language Learnability: A speaker of a language can learn another language Other additions[ edit ] Cognitive scientist and linguist at the University of Sussex Larry Trask offered an alternative term and definition for number 14, Prevarication: One can choose to say anything nothing in any given situation There has since been one more Feature added to the list, by Dr. Chomsky theorized that humans are unique in the animal world because of their ability to utilize Design Feature 5: Total Feedback, or recursive grammar. This includes being able to correct oneself and insert explanatory or even non sequitur statements into a sentence, without breaking stride, and keeping proper grammar throughout. While there have been studies attempting to disprove Chomsky, Marcus states that, "An intriguing possibility is that the capacity to recognize recursion might be found only in species that can acquire new patterns of vocalization, for example, songbirds, humans and perhaps some cetaceans. Rather, their utterances would have been halting and even quite confusing to us, today.

## 2: Charles F. Hockett | Revolv

*Summary*A general psycholinguistic interest in speech performance underlies the study to be reported here. The specific focus is on the system of control of sequencing of speech units, and even more narrowly on a class of speech errors-tongue-slips- which result from transient malfunctions of this system.

In lieu of an abstract, here is a brief excerpt of the content: He entered Ohio State in at the age of 16, and in the spring of he took George M. Subsequently he took the only course in anthropology OSU offered at the time, and those experiences set him on the path to his future academic career. He received his B. Trager, and Benjamin Whorf as teachers and associates. He received his Ph. His paper on Potawatomi syntax was published in *Language* in that year Hockett , and the dissertation, in streamlined form, was published as a series in *IJAL* in Hockett a. After a summer of fieldwork in Kickapoo and an autumn in Michocoan, Mexico, he went on to two years of postdoctoral study, including two quarters with Bloomfield at Chicago, followed by a stay at Michigan. Hockett was drafted into the US Army in February After basic training in antiaircraft artillery and a few months helping to prepare other recruits for Officer Candidate School, he was transferred to Army Service Forces, where his linguistic capabilities were put to work on Chinese. Afterward Hockett was stationed in Washington and then in New York City, where he worked under Major Henry Lee Smith in the dedicated and productive group preparing language-training materials, language guides, and dictionaries for military personnel. This unit included or consulted with a number of the leading linguists of the time, and the effort allowed the application of a Bloomfieldian structural linguistic approach to language teaching on an unprecedented scale. It thus served as a testing ground and laboratory for the effectiveness of that approach. Its materials were later used in many postwar civilian programs, particularly in the less commonly taught languages, and became the model for many subsequent texts. In the course of this work, Hockett, with C. He was commissioned as a second lieutenant in , and after the Japanese surrender in was dispatched to Tokyo as a first lieutenant to help train American troops in Japanese. In February he was separated from the army with a terminal leave promotion to captain. Milton Cowan, who headed it for many years after. This pioneering unit was designed specifically to unite linguistics and language teaching on the university level following the model of the successful wartime effort. You are not currently authenticated. View freely available titles:

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parameters of the enterprise, and in discerning, defining, and elaborating issues that needed to be faced in that work. It attempted a principled typology of phonological systems in the spirit of Troubetzkoy and the Prague school, argued for immediate constituents in phonology in a framework that included the CHARLES F. HOCKETT 9 syllable, and developed a system of phonology based on distinctive features and the recognition of long components. As he duly acknowledged, many of its elements were already present in the field in some form, but their combination and development were innovative and, typical of much of his work, went counter to much of the prevailing structuralist practice and doctrine. They also foreshadowed elements in later work in different frameworks, to an unfortunately often unrecognized extent. Hockett had a remarkable gift for mathematics and for comprehending and working with mathematical and formal systems. One result was the inclusion in *A Manual of Phonology* of an introductory section presenting a finite state, Markovian view of speech communication and grammar, essentially of the kind that Chomsky famously critiqued in *Syntactic Structures*. Hockett quite soon rejected that approach as not fitting the nature of human language, while retaining the view that information science had important contributions to make to linguistics. Ultimately, he also came to reject that endeavor as futile, except for some implications for sound change, p. Though neither Chomsky nor Lees appear in the index of the work or are treated in the text itself, they are listed in the bibliography, and there is a note at the end of one chapter that the transformational approach of Chomsky, Harris, and Lees came too late to be worked into the treatment, p. It was an elegantly conceived attempt to solve the fundamental problem faced by structuralist descriptive linguistics: That paper closed with a characteristically Hockettian passage raising the possibility that the kind of linguistics that led to the problem in the first place, and hence the paper itself, might be misdirected and inadequate to deal with natural language: In part, this shift was stimulated by work that he had done in the 1950s in a project with the psychiatrists Robert Pittenger and Jack Danehy that involved a number of other anthropologists, linguists, and kinesicists and produced a fine-grained analysis of the first five minutes of a psychiatric interview published in *Journal of Linguistics*. Ultimately, pursuing this line of thought led him to reject what he saw as the three pillars of post-Bloomfieldian linguistics that he himself had played such a large part in developing and defending. The developing stance that he expressed there remained a dominant theme in his work from then on. His conclusion was that: The search for an exact determinate formal system by which a language can be precisely characterized is a wild goose chase, because a language neither is nor reflects any such system. Its title reflected his intention to work further toward the formulation of a theory of hearing and speaking and redirect linguistic science to reexamine the nature of language in terms of how it operated in, and in fact was created within, the speaking-hearing-understanding situation. The book presented his thoughts and observations on many of what he saw to be the basic properties of language in action, and characteristically, it included not only some new proposals and insights but also proposed some unresolved questions. While many of these were original, unorthodox, and invited examination and challenge, the whole never eventuated into a clear and specific research program that others could take up and follow. For this and other reasons, it never attracted the attention that it could possibly repay, not least by stimulating new thoughts about the nature of its object and raising questions that the science of language would ultimately have to address. Actually, when transformational grammar emerged in both the Harris and Chomsky variants, Hockett, like many other structuralists, welcomed it as an important and innovative development in syntactic theory that held great promise for dealing with problems, such as nonadjacent relations, that had proved intractable in immediate constituent syntactic analysis. As a true Bloomfieldian, Hockett found that mentalistic stance thoroughly unpalatable, considering it to be unscientific by his own canons of science. There was also a more personal and attitudinal element. In his address to the Linguistic Society of America, Hockett had included a statement deploring the aggressive confrontational style that marked even some of the earlier transformational work he cited. Despite the heated and not infrequently personal rhetoric that marked the argument on both sides and his own sometimes intemperately expressed personal feelings, p. As late as he remarked: Some people are convinced that that is so, but no one can know for sure. My own impression is quite otherwise, p. The State of the Art did not, of course, slow the march toward dominance of the generative paradigm in its successive forms, and it would be unfortunate if Hockett were to be remembered primarily as one who fought a futile

CHARLES F. To the extent that such is the case it can lead to easy dismissal and failure to take account of and appreciate his original and extensive contributions to the field of linguistics and beyond. His work in linguistics was by no means limited to synchronic theory and description. Throughout his career he continued to hold to the belief--in common with Bloomfield, Sapir, Saussure, and their nineteenth-century forbears-- that the investigation of language change was an integral part of the science, and his output included important historical analyses, notably in Algonquian but in other languages as well, including Central Pacific languages and Old English. Hockett maintained the view that diachronic investigation had laid the essential foundation for synchronic study, and that the latter had returned the favor. The two enterprises thus informed each other, and any synchronic theory and description had to be at the very least compatible with what we knew and discovered about language change. In his later work the interaction between the diachronic and the synchronic was even more intimate, to the point that the distinction essentially disappeared. In the tradition of historical linguistics in which he worked, the three central mechanisms of change were sound change, analogy, and borrowing--and analogy accompanied by editing--had become the fundamental mechanism in his dynamic theory of language generation. He collected a number of his papers on those topics in the book *The View from Language*. Its title was emblematic of his belief that the study of language constituted a unique locus for gaining insights and knowledge in other fields of inquiry. From the range of the papers included in it one can gather the range of his interests beyond what is generally considered to be linguistics as well as the power of his intellect in pursuing them. Hockett brought to bear on them an impressive quantity of scholarship from several fields and numerous original insights. The scope was daring and the issues and challenges remain, but the work remains well worth reading, if for no other reason than to set some more recent works by others in perspective. One of his most important contributions was his origination and development of the design-feature approach to the comparative study of animal communication, including the human. A Google search of the Web under his name will immediately show by the sheer number of citations how widely they have been called upon in several fields. For Hockett the most important of the features that marked human language was duality of pattern, by which all of the meaningful elements of language were expressed in terms of meaningless elements: Hockett did not limit his productions to dry academic presentations. His writings, even among the most serious, reflect his valuing of the aesthetic capabilities of language, and the delight that he took in finding and using the right turn of phrase. Metaphors abound in his work, and are used to effect, often serving to make clear a difficult point. His output is also studded with apt quotations and examples from literature ranging from the Bible and Shakespeare through T. He included openness, aka creativity, as one of the basic design features of human language, but he also delighted in the actual creative use of language and the witty turns that it made possible--in short, in having fun with it. In a somewhat less serious vein, he indulged in such conceits as giving birth in his head, as was the case with Athena to one Casimir Cauchemar, adjunct professor of Etruscan rhetoric of the University of Psonch. The Cauchemar volume bore an introduction by one Charles F. Hockett contributed eight poems to the volume *The Linguistic Muse Napoli and Rando*, , and composed numerous others, especially lyrics for his own musical compositions. Hockett is survived by a loving family. He had a long and happy marriage to the former Shirley Orlinoff, whom he wed while on furlough in . She became a professor of mathematics at Ithaca College and the author of a halfdozen textbooks, typed by him, a collaboration that reinforced his own considerable capability in mathematics. They had five children: Music played a vital part in his life. He possessed a deep love for music and a keen ear, and he engaged in a lifelong practice of musical performance and composition. Music was also a vital center of his home life. Everyone in the family played an instrument, and they regularly conducted home musical performances, often of his compositions. Two of his children became professional musicians and a son-inlaw is principal oboist with the Los Angeles Philharmonic. Throughout the last decades, as Hockett turned his efforts increasingly to music, he and Shirley were unstinting in their organizational efforts and financial support and indefatigable in the energy they devoted to bringing music to the Ithaca public. Their leadership and hard work were a vital part in establishing the Cayuga Chamber Orchestra, which after more than a quarter of a century continues to enrich the musical life of the Ithaca community. The effects of their dedication and generosity are lasting and tangible in the Charles F. There is a kernel of truth in this, since

throughout his career he changed his theoretical views and was not hesitant to reject positions that he himself had espoused, developed, and argued for. However, one can consider that as more of a virtue than a vice, as the inevitable result was an active, questioning, and restless mind that was incapable of accepting any theory as immutable and necessarily true when faced with evidence to the contrary. HOCKETT 23 product of a questing temperament that was given to ranging into areas whose inclusion in or even relation to the field or subfield at hand were not immediately obvious.

## 4: LINGUIST List Verbal humour

*Where the Tongue Slips, There Slip I () by Charles F Hockett Add To MetaCart. Tools. Sorted by: Results 1 - 10 of Next 10 â†’ Preliminaries to a Theory of.*

He pulled a tantrum. He pulled a pantrum. Performance errors supply evidence for the psychological existence of discrete linguistic units. Speech errors involve substitutions, shifts, additions and deletions of segments. They constitute the planning units of language production. Victoria Fromkin points out that "many of the segments that change and move in speech errors are precisely those postulated by linguistic theories. One can infer from speech errors that speakers adhere to a set of linguistic rules. He likes to have his team rested. He likes to have his rest teamed. Both kids are sick. Both sick are kids. This proves that first the lemmas are inserted and then phonological conditioning takes place. Due to the pressure to continue speaking, the speaker has to make a quick decision which word should be selected. Hockett there are six possible blends of "shout" and "yell". The speaker obeyed unconscious linguistic rules because he selected the blend, which satisfied the linguistic demands of these rules the best. In conclusion, the rules which tell language users how to produce speech must also be part of our mental organization of language. My thesis is too long. My thesis is too short. In case of substitution errors both segments mostly belong to the same category, which means for example that a noun is substituted for a noun. Lexical selection errors are based on semantic relations such as synonymy, antonymy or membership of the same lexical field. Linguists can elicit from the speech error data how speech errors are produced and which linguistic rules they adhere to. As a result, they are able to predict speech errors. Four generalizations about speech errors have been identified: Elements that interact with one another tend to be phonetically or semantically similar to one another. This means that consonants exchange with consonants and vowels with vowels. Slips are consistent with the phonological rules of the language. There are consistent stress patterns in speech errors. Predominantly, both interacting segments receive major or minor stress. These four generalizations support the idea of the lexical bias effect. This effect states that our phonological speech errors generally form words rather than non-words. Baars showed evidence for this effect when he presented word pairs in rapid succession and asked participants to say both words in rapid succession back. In most of the trials, the mistakes made still formed actual words. There seems to be a hesitant stage and fluent stage that suggest speech has different levels of production. The pauses seem to occur between sentences, conjunctive points and before the first content word in a sentence. That suggests that a large part of speech production happens there. They sat in on the lectures of 47 undergraduate professors from 10 different departments and calculated the number and times of filled pauses and unfilled pauses. They found significantly more pauses in the humanities departments as opposed to the natural sciences. Slips of the tongue are another form of "errors" that can help us understand the process of speech production better. Slips can happen at many levels, at the syntactic level, at the phrasal level, at the lexical semantic level, at the morphological level and at the phonological level and they can take more than one form like: There are some biases shown through slips of the tongue. One kind is a lexical bias which shows that the slips people generate are more often actual words than random sound strings. Baars Motley and Mackay found that it was more common for people to turn two actual words to two other actual words than when they do not create real words. A second kind is a semantic bias which shows a tendency for sound bias to create words that are semantically related to other words in the linguistic environment. Motley and Baars found that a word pair like "get one" will more likely slip to "wet gun" if the pair before it is "damp rifle". These results suggest that we are sensitive to how things are laid out semantically. As such, its usage has attracted a degree of media coverage, particularly from critics who feel that the term is overly approbative in cases where either ignorance of the facts or intent to misrepresent should not be discarded as possibilities. Bush seemed to say that his government was always "thinking about new ways to harm our country and our people", and more famously by then American presidential candidate Hillary Clinton who recalled landing in at the US military outpost of Tuzla "under sniper fire" in fact, video footage demonstrates that there were no such problems on her arrival.

**5: CHARLES F. HOCKETT | Biographical Memoirs: Volume 89 | The National Academies Press**

*C. F. Hockett, The view from language: selected essays, igig Athens, Ga.: 'Where the tongue slips, there slip I' (). All of these have been very influen-*

Page Share Cite Suggested Citation: The National Academies Press. Photograph by Photo Services, Cornell University. Structuralist linguistics was sometimes referred to as Bloomfieldian linguistics from one of its pioneering figures, Leonard Bloomfield, who produced the seminal work *Language*. But he was by no means narrow in his scope, and he firmly believed linguistics to be a branch of anthropology, to which he also made serious contributions. He entered Ohio State in at This obituary is largely drawn, with permission, from one by the same author that appeared in the *Linguistic Society of America journal Language* 79 3 Sept. Subsequently he took the only course in anthropology available at the time, and those experiences set him on the path to his future academic career. Hockett received his B. Trager, and Benjamin Whorf as teachers and associates. Hockett received his Ph. His paper on Potowatomi syntax was published in *Language* in that year , and the dissertation, in streamlined form, was published as a series in the *International Journal of American Linguistics* in Hockett was drafted into the U. Army in February After basic training in anti-aircraft artillery and a few months helping to prepare other recruits for officer candidate school, he was transferred to Army Service Forces, where his linguistic capabilities were put to work on Chinese. This unit numbered among its personnel or associates a number of the leading linguists of the time, and the effort allowed the application of a Bloomfieldian structural linguistic approach to language teaching on an unprecedented scale. It thus served as a testing ground and laboratory for the applicability and effectiveness of that approach. The materials produced there were later put to use in many postwar civilian programs, particularly in the less commonly taught languages, and they became the model for many subsequent texts. In the course of this work Hockett, with C. He was commissioned as a second lieutenant in , and after the Japanese surrender in was dispatched to Tokyo as a first lieutenant to help train U. In February he was separated from the army with a terminal leave promotion to captain. After a short association with the American College Dictionary, he began his university teaching career in , as an assistant professor of linguistics in the newly formed Division of Modern Languages at Cornell, a pioneering unit designed specifically to unite linguistics and language teaching on the university level following the model of the successful wartime effort. The division, which later morphed into the Department of Modern Languages and Linguistics, was given the responsibility for basic language teaching for virtually all languages at Cornell, a function it retained in a widening number of languages until recently. Hockett was in charge of Chinese and continued to run the Chinese program for 15 years, while teaching a range of linguistics courses and directing students. Along with him were some of the leading names in structural linguistics, both descriptive and historical, including William Moulton, Robert Hall, Frederick Agard, and Gordon Fairbanks, all of whom directed and taught in language programs and carried out productive research and teaching in linguistics. Hockett was elected to the National Academy of Sciences in ; he was also a member of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. He served as president of the Linguistic Society of America in In he was president of the Linguistic Association of Canada and the United States and in he was the distinguished lecturer of the American Anthropological Association. He held visiting positions at a number of institutions, and throughout his career he gave invited lectures at a number of U. Hockett had a long and productive career. His *Festschrift* Agard et al. It lists published items; he also produced many privately reproduced items presented to students and colleagues. He continued to publish after his retirement, though at a much reduced pace, as he turned his attention increasingly to other interests, especially music. Though Hockett studied and associated with several leading figures in American structural linguistics, Bloomfield was unquestionably the major influence on and model for him. In addition, he considered his own works on Algonquian languages, extending throughout his career, to be a tribute to the master. Like Bloomfield, Hockett was himself a master of linguistic description, producing numerous principled, meticulous, and perspicacious descriptions of an array of languages, including not only the Algonquian studies that he was most recognized for but also Chinese, Fijian, and English. American structural

linguistics, consistent with its empirical orientation, always had a strong descriptive component. Those languages were consequently resistant to analysis in terms developed for the latter and required the development of new armament. His directly theoretical productions were legion, and many of them were legendary, working their way into much of the work of structuralist linguists and becoming part of the conceptual equipment of several generations of students. The neo-Bloomfieldian structuralist linguistics of the 1920s and 30s was developed by a number of productive linguists, including Bernard Bloch, George Trager, Henry Lee Smith, and Zellig Harris, but arguably Hockett was the single most productive and wide-ranging figure in the establishment of the parameters of the enterprise, and in discerning, defining, and elaborating issues that needed to be faced in that work. It attempted a principled typology of phonological systems in the spirit of Troubetzkoy and the Prague school, argued for immediate constituents in phonology in a framework that included the CHARLES F. HOCKETT syllable, and developed a system of phonology based on distinctive features and the recognition of long components. As he duly acknowledged, many of its elements were already present in the field in some form, but their combination and development were innovative and, typical of much of his work, went counter to much of the prevailing structuralist practice and doctrine. They also foreshadowed elements in later work in different frameworks, to an unfortunately often unrecognized extent. Hockett had a remarkable gift for mathematics and for comprehending and working with mathematical and formal systems. One result was the inclusion in *A Manual of Phonology* of an introductory section presenting a finite state, Markovian view of speech communication and grammar, essentially of the kind that Chomsky famously critiqued in *Syntactic Structures*. Hockett quite soon rejected that approach as not fitting the nature of human language, while retaining the view that information science had important contributions to make to linguistics. Ultimately, he also came to reject that endeavor as futile, except for some implications for sound change, p. 10. Though neither Chomsky nor Lees appear in the index of the work or are treated in the text itself, they are listed in the bibliography, and there is a note at the end of one chapter that the transformational approach of Chomsky, Harris, and Lees came too late to be worked into the treatment, p. 10. It was an elegantly conceived attempt to solve the fundamental problem faced by structuralist descriptive linguistics: That paper closed with a characteristically Hockettian passage raising the possibility that the kind of linguistics that led to the problem in the first place, and hence the paper itself, might be misdirected and inadequate to deal with natural language: In part, this shift was stimulated by work that he had done in the 1950s in a project with the psychiatrists Robert Pittenger and Jack Danehy that involved a number of other anthropologists, linguists, and kinesicists and produced a fine-grained analysis of the first five minutes of a psychiatric interview published in

**6: CiteSeerX " Citation Query Where the Tongue Slips, There Slip I**

*His output is also studded with apt quotations and examples from literature ranging from the Bible and Shakespeare through T. S. Eliot, Nero Wolfe, Winnie the Pooh, and Dr. Seuss, and there are numerous oblique allusions as in the title "Where the Tongue Slips, There Slip I".*

This thesis examines disfluencies. Despite their prevalence, disfluencies have traditionally been viewed as irregular events and have received little attention. The goal of the thesis is to provide evidence that, on the contrary, disfluencies show remarkably regular trends in a number of dimensions. These regularities have consequences for models of human language production; they can also be exploited to improve performance in speech applications. The method includes analysis of over hand-annotated disfluencies from a database, words containing three different styles of spontaneous speech: The approach is theory-neutral and strongly data-driven. Show Context Citation Context These concerns set the stage for the DF representation and classification systems developed in Chapter 4. We have analyzed sentences of spontaneous human-computer speech data containing repairs, drawn from a total corpus of 10, sentences. We present here criteria and techniques for automatically detecting the presence of a repair, its location, and making the appropriate correction. The criteria involve integration of knowledge from several sources: The pattern-matching Match Fill Length Length 0 1 2 3 1. Match Length component reported on here looks for identical sequences of words, This research characterizes the spontaneous spoken disfluencies typical of human-computer interaction, and presents a predictive model accounting for their occurrence. Data were collected during three empirical studies in which people spoke or wrote to a highly interactive simulated system as they c Data were collected during three empirical studies in which people spoke or wrote to a highly interactive simulated system as they completed service transactions. The studies involved within-subject factorial designs in which the input modality and presentation format were varied. Spoken disfluency rates during human-computer interaction were documented to be substantially lower than rates typically observed during comparable human-human speech. Two separate factors, both associated with increased planning demands, were statistically related to higher disfluency rates: Therefore, design methods ca The structure of errors in the serial order of speech by Donald G. Mackay - *Neuropsychologia*, " Abstract-Spoonerisms are defined as involuntary rearrangements of elements in the serial order of speech, as when waste the term is produced as taste the worm. An analysis of Spoonerisms in the natural speech of Germans showed that: Identical phonemes usually preceded or followed the revers Identical phonemes usually preceded or followed the reversed phonemes. Reversals preceding identical phonemes were as common as reversals following identical phonemes. Reversed phonemes usually had similar articulatory form, i. But the place of articulation of reversed phonemes differed more frequently than would be expected by chance. Without serious revision chain-association theories appeared incapable of explaining these and other aspects of Spoonerisms. An alternative theory of serial order was proposed which had potential application not only to the pronunciation of words, but to the syntax of other forms of behavior and perception as well. But in nosome in our data was feature reversal the only possible explanation of an error. How listeners compensate for disfluencies in spontaneous speech by Susan E. Schober - *Journal of Memory and Language*, " Listeners often encounter disfluencies like uhs and repairs in spontaneous speech. How is comprehension affected? In four experiments, listeners followed fluent and disfluent instructions to select an object on a graphical display. Disfluent instructions included mid-word interruptions Move to th Disfluent instructions included mid-word interruptions Move to the yel- purple square, mid-word interruptions with fillers Move to the yel- uh, purple square, and between-word interruptions Move to the yellow- purple square. Relative to the target color word, listeners selected the target object more quickly, and no less accurately, after hearing mid-word interruptions with fillers than after hearing comparable fluent utterances as well as utterances that replaced disfluencies with pauses of equal length. Hearing less misleading information before the interruption site led listeners to make fewer errors, and fillers allowed for more time after the interruption for listeners to cancel misleading

information. The information available in disfluencies can help listeners compensate for disruptions and delays in spontaneous utterances. Spontaneous human speech is notoriously disfluent. Speakers hesitate, interrupt themselves mid-phrase or mid-word, repeat or replace words, abandon phrases to start afresh, and season their Show Context Citation Context The repair interval may or may not retrace material from the reparandum in our simple example, the repair Harrison does not include anysretracing. Determining these intervals is not We have analyzed sentences of spontaneous humancomputer speech data containing repairs drawn from a corpus of 10, We present here criteria and techniques for automatically detecting the presence of a repair, its location, and making the appropriate correction. The criteria involve integrat False positives for these cases are instances in which the cue word functions in its usu Complexity in output systems: Evidence from behavioral hybrids by Donald G. Mackay - American Journal of Psychology , " The speech errors known as synonymic intrusions e. Statistical analysis of such intrusions showed that the intruding word or phrase was simpler than the initial one at the segment, syllabic, lexical, and at two syntactic levels. A hierarchic model for the serial production of speech, and more generally, for the study of other motor systems, is proposed. Speech errors place strong constraints on theories of speech production, since an adequate model of normal speech must also allow for those errors, as does the actual speech-production system. Conversely, an adequate explanation of speech errors must incorporate the general principles of normal speech production, in the sense that an explanation of the backfiring of an automobile engine must incorporate the general principles of internal combustion. The present study explores some of the implications of this metatheory for theories of speech production as well as other motor systems. Our more specific goal was to infer the nature of the speech-production system that generates the speech errors known as synonymic intrusions. Synonymic intrusions represent a class of behavioral hybrids that occur whenever a speaker begins with one expression defined as the initial phrase or word and inadvertently continues with another expression having roughly equivalent meaning. The intruding constituent is defined as the sequel phrase or word. What must be explained in such combinations is why the initial phrase stops where it does. One might suggest that the speaker is switching his message or revising his meaning when he makes such errors. But the fact that the initial and sequel phrases are synonymic, or semantically Stuttering, language, and cognition: Extant models of stuttering do not account for: The author presents a model of stuttering as points of suprasegmental sentence plan alignment SPA. Such alignment processes occur when, due to on-line sentence production processes, SPAs adopted prior to utterance initiation need to be aligned with re-revised SPAs. This model parsimoniously accounts for the findings reviewed in the article. Stuttering involves disruptions in the flow of speech that are manifest as complete blocks, part-word or whole-word repetitions, and word elongations. Stuttering has been examined primarily by researchers in the field of speech pathology and motor control and has largely been ignored by psychologists. This state of affairs most likely stems from a belief that stuttering involves failures of motor processes of message transmission rather than failures of cognitive or linguistic processes of message generation cf. In a much cited review, Andrews and his colleagues exemplified this view. This definition removes the burden of stuttering from the cognitive or linguistic system and places it squarely on the motor system. Yet stuttering occurs in a unique pattern that cannot easily be accommodated within a motor framework or be attributed to a loss of control over speech physiology. Instead, the involvement of such motor processes may well be a symptom of stuttering rather than its cause cf. Conture, ; Show Context Citation Context Frame discards occur before utterance initiation even begins. How then does one know that such discards actually occur? First, there is anecdotal evidence e. Second, there is also experimental evidence for frame discards from an innovative series of studies on spoonerisms e.

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