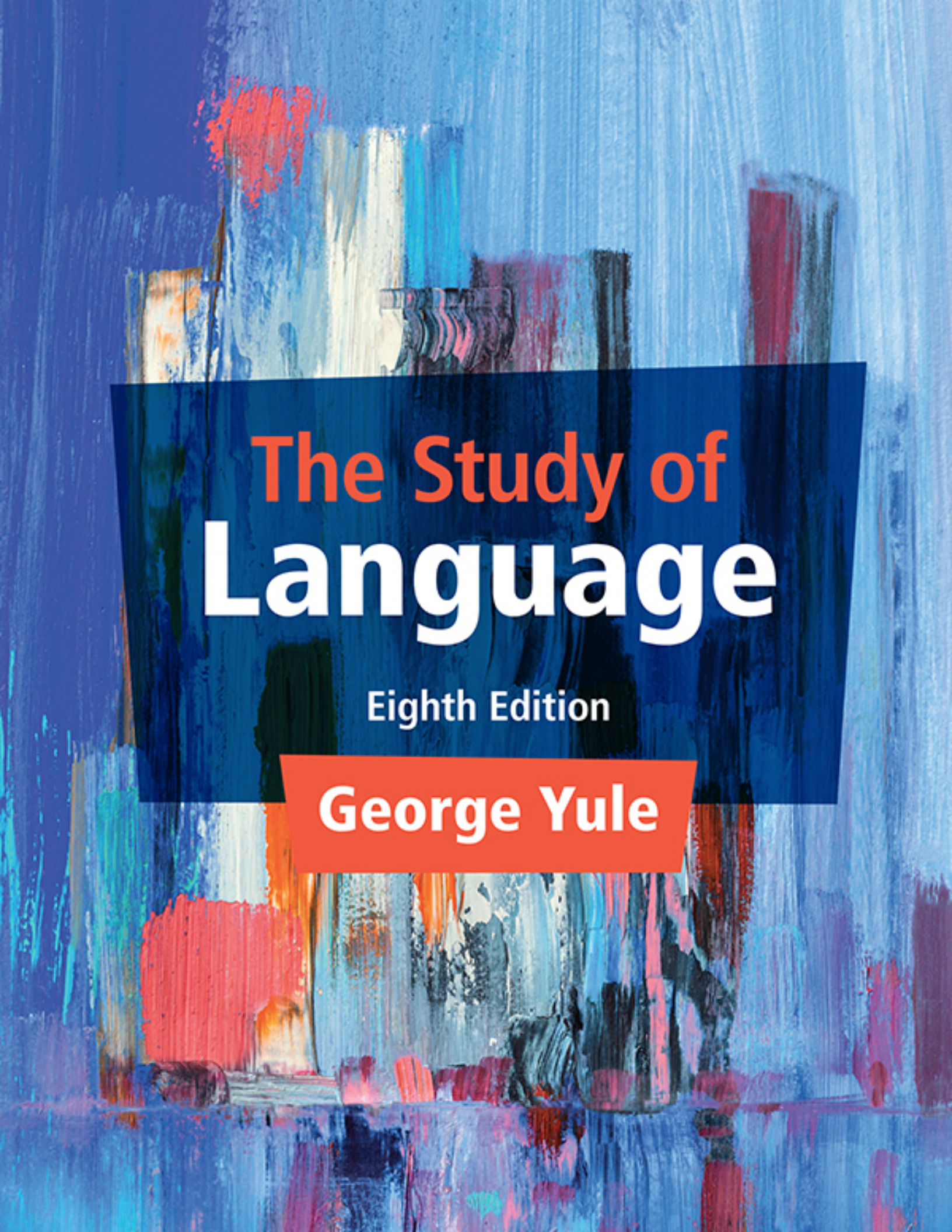
The Study of
Language
Eighth Edition
George Yule

THE STUDY OF LANGUAGE

Eighth Edition

This best–selling textbook provides an engaging and user-friendly introduction to the study of language. Assuming no prior knowledge of the subject, Yule presents information in bite-sized sections, clearly explaining the major concepts in linguistics and all the key elements of language.

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GEORGE YULE has taught linguistics at the University of Edinburgh, the University of Hawai'i, the University of Minnesota and Louisiana State University. His popular textbook, *The Study of Language*, has been translated into 7 different languages.

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Preface

To the Student

In *The Study of Language*, I have tried to present a comprehensive survey of what is known about language and also of the methods used by linguists in arriving at that knowledge. My main goal has been to provide a broad yet concise treatment of a large number of topics, especially for those who may have had little previous experience with the vocabulary, symbols and descriptions employed in language analysis. I have also created tasks to accompany each chapter, providing opportunities for you to learn more about English and other languages and to explore additional topics in a way that involves problem solving and discovery learning.

There continue to be interesting developments in the study of language, but it is still the case that any mature speaker of a language has a more comprehensive "unconscious" knowledge of how language works than any linguist has yet been able to describe. Consequently, as you read each of the following chapters, take a critical view of the effectiveness of the descriptions, the analyses and the generalizations by measuring them against your own intuitions about how your language works. By the end of the book, you should feel that you do know quite a lot about both the

internal structure of language (its form) and the varied uses of language in human life (its function).

At the end of each chapter, there is a section where you can test and apply what you have learned. This section contains:

- **Study questions** that you can use to check if you have understood some of the main points and important terms introduced during that chapter
- **Tasks** that extend the topics covered in the chapter, mostly through exercises in data analysis, with examples from English and a wide range of other languages
- **Discussion topics/projects** that offer opportunities to consider some of the more general, sometimes controversial, language-related topics and to develop your own opinions on issues involving language
- **Further reading** suggestions provided to help you find more detailed treatments of all the topics covered in that chapter

To the Instructor

Thank you for including *The Study of Language* as part of your course. I originally wrote this book to meet the needs of students who arrived in my introductory courses with little experience of thinking about how language works, and unfamiliarity or confusion regarding the vocabulary used to describe language. I have rewritten the book several times based on feedback from other instructors in similar situations, and have continued to

make improvements based on their constructive reviews and to add new topics, mainly in the form of additional tasks. The result is a very comprehensive treatment of a large number of topics, from which you can select those that meet the needs of the students in front of you. The chapters are designed to be self-contained and can be used in any order that fits your syllabus. The exercises that follow each chapter are designed as possible assignments to engage students in research and analysis beyond the basic information in the chapter.

With the benefit of a recent survey among instructors, I have made revisions and additions to Chapters 1, 3, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14 and 20. Additional material is included on a possible gestural source for language, phonetic analysis using the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), movement in syntactic analysis, semantic features, the cooperative principle, hedges, conversational repair, L1 phonological development, later L1 developments, heritage languages, individual bilingualism and the cultural role of gender, particularly neutral gender.

In addition, there are forty new study questions and more than twenty new tasks and topics, with new language data from Greek, Kuku Yalanji, Papiamentu, Portuguese and Tok Pisin. Apart from Sumerian numbers, Koko the gorilla and the game of charades, most of the new topics involve English: associative plural markers, auditory perception in infants, conversational repair, the Danelaw, *do*-support, gesture development, Middle English, mondegreens, pleonasms, pragmatic markers, raciolinguistics, relative clauses, sibilants, strategic competence, and uptalk. Many of the tasks are data based and designed to help to develop analytic, problem-solving and critical thinking skills. More than sixty new and updated references have been added to the Further Reading sections. An

expanded and revised study guide can be found on the book's website: www.cambridge.org/yule8.

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In addition to advice from instructors, I have had the benefit of suggestions and criticisms from hundreds of students who forced me to present what I had to say in a way they could understand. I am particularly indebted to Professor Hugh Buckingham, Louisiana State University, for sharing his expertise and enthusiasm over many years as a colleague and friend. I must also acknowledge the support of the excellent production team at Cambridge University Press, with special thanks to Helen Barton, Stefanie Seaton, Isabel Collins, and Charles Howell.

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For my own introductory course, I remain indebted to Willie and Annie Yule, and, for my continuing enlightenment, to Maryann Overstreet.

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The Origins of Language

> The first person to set foot on the continent of Australia was a woman named Warramurrungunji. She emerged from the sea onto an island off northern Australia, and then headed inland, creating children and putting each one in a specific place. As she moved across the landscape, Warramurrungunji told each child, "I am putting you here. This is the language you should talk! This is your language!"
>
> Erard (2016)

This origin story from the Iwaidja people of Australia, illustrated in the painting above, offers an explanation of not only where language came from, but also why there are so many different languages. Among the

English-speaking people, there have been multiple attempts to provide a comparable explanation, but not much proof to support any of them. Instead of a belief in a single mythical earth mother, we have a variety of possible beliefs, all fairly speculative.

We simply don't have a definitive answer to the question of how language originated. We do know that the ability to produce sound and simple vocal patterning (a hum versus a grunt, for example) appears to be in an ancient part of the brain that we share with all vertebrates, including fish, frogs, birds and other mammals. But that isn't human language.

We suspect that some type of spoken language must have developed between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago, well before written language (about 5,000 years ago). Yet, among the traces of earlier periods of life on earth, we never find any direct evidence or artifacts relating to the speech of our distant ancestors that might tell us how language was back in the early stages, hence the multiple speculations. Closest to the Iwaidja story are tales of gods blessing humans with the power of language.

The Divine Source

In the biblical tradition, as described in the book of Genesis, God created Adam and "whatsoever Adam called every living creature, that was the name thereof." Alternatively, following a Hindu tradition, it is Sarasvati, wife of Brahma, who is credited with bringing language to humanity. In most religions, there appears to be a divine source who provides humans with language. In an attempt to rediscover this original divine language, a few experiments have been carried out, with rather conflicting results. The

basic hypothesis seems to have been that, if human infants were allowed to grow up without hearing any language around them, then they would spontaneously begin using the original God-given language.

The Greek writer Herodotus reported the story of an Egyptian pharaoh named Psammetichus (or Psamtik) who tried the experiment with two newborn babies more than 2,500 years ago. After two years of isolation except for the company of goats and a mute shepherd, the children were reported to have spontaneously uttered, not an Egyptian word, but something that was identified as the Phrygian word *bekos*, meaning "bread." The pharaoh concluded that Phrygian, an older language spoken in part of what is modern Turkey, must be the original language. That seems very unlikely. The children may not have picked up this "word" from any human source, but as several commentators have pointed out, they must have heard what the goats were saying. (First remove the *-kos* ending, which was added in the Greek version of the story, then pronounce *be-* as you would the English word *bed* without *-d* at the end. Can you hear a goat?)

King James the Fourth of Scotland carried out a similar experiment around the year 1500 and the children were reported to have spontaneously started speaking Hebrew, confirming the king's belief that Hebrew had indeed been the language of the Garden of Eden. About a century later, the Mogul emperor Akbar the Great also arranged for newborn babies to be raised in silence, only to find that the children produced no speech at all. It is unfortunate that Akbar's result is more in line with the real-world outcome for children who have been discovered living in isolation, without coming into contact with human speech. Very young children living without access to human language in their early years grow up with no language at

all. This was true of Victor, the wild boy of Aveyron in France, discovered near the end of the eighteenth century, and also of Genie, an American child whose special life circumstances came to light in the 1970s (see Chapter 12). From this type of evidence, there is no "spontaneous" language. If human language did emanate from a divine source, we have no way of reconstructing that original language, especially given the events in a place called Babel, "because the Lord did there confound the language of all the earth," as described in Genesis (11: 9).

The Natural Sound Source

A quite different view of the beginnings of language is based on the concept of natural sounds. The human auditory system is already functioning before birth (at around seven months). That early processing capacity develops into an ability to identify sounds in the environment, allowing humans to make a connection between a sound and the thing producing that sound. This leads to the idea that primitive words derive from imitations of the natural sounds that early men and women heard around them. Among several nicknames that he invented to talk about the origins of speech, Jespersen (1922) called this idea the "bow-wow" theory.

The "Bow-Wow" Theory

In this scenario, when different objects flew by, making a caw-caw or coo-coo sound, the early human tried to imitate the sounds and then used them to refer to those objects even when they weren't present. The fact that all modern languages have some words with pronunciations that seem to echo

naturally occurring sounds could be used to support this theory. In English, in addition to *cuckoo*, we have *splash, bang, boom, rattle, buzz, hiss, screech* and of course *bow-wow*.

Words that sound similar to the noises they describe are examples of **onomatopoeia**. While a number of words in any language are onomatopoeic, it is hard to see how most of the soundless things (e.g. "low branch") as well as abstract concepts (e.g. "truth") could have been referred to in a language that simply echoed natural sounds. We might also be rather skeptical about a view that seems to assume that a language is only a set of words used as "names" for things.

The "Pooh-Pooh" Theory

Another of Jespersen's nicknames was the "pooh-pooh" theory, which proposed that speech developed from the instinctive sounds people make in emotional circumstances. That is, the original sounds of language may have come from natural cries of emotion such as pain, anger and joy. By this route, presumably, *Ouch!* came to have its painful connotations. But *Ouch!* and other interjections such as *Ah!, Ooh!, Phew!, Wow!* or *Yuck!* are usually produced with sudden intakes of breath, which is the opposite of ordinary talk. We normally produce spoken language as we breathe out, so we speak while we exhale, not inhale. In other words, the expressive noises people make in emotional reactions contain sounds that are not otherwise used in speech production and consequently would seem to be rather unlikely candidates as source sounds for language.

The Musical Source

Part of the problem with the discussion of natural sounds is the assumption that they were used to create "words." However, before we utter words, we can produce a wide range of sounds that aren't word forms at all. Let's go back to the observation that human infants can process sounds early on, and then soon begin to produce sounds in a way that may provide some clues to how language developed. There is a prolonged period in early infant development during which adults and infants interact via single sounds then through more extended sound sequences as the child uses intonation as a means of non-verbal communication. For some scholars, this is consistent with the idea that musical ability developed before the ability to create words. One famous scholar, Charles Darwin, made the following proposal in 1871:

> The suspicion does not appear improbable that the progenitors of man, either the males or females, or both sexes, before they acquired the power of expressing their mutual love in articulate language, endeavored to charm each other with musical notes and rhythm.

The idea that early humans spent their time trying "to charm each other" may not match the typical image that we have of our early ancestors as rather rough characters wearing animal skins and certainly not very charming. However, setting "charm" aside, we do have evidence that intonation, and hence the ability to create melody, develops in the human infant before other aspects of language. We might say that our first musical instrument was the human voice, or more specifically, control of the

vibration of the vocal folds. Control of the respiratory system to produce extended sound was also required.

Studies of newborn infants have found that they can recognize the intonation of their mother's voice and orient to that voice more than any other. They also show a preference for the intonation of their mother's language, even when spoken by others. These observations suggest that early humans may indeed have learned and used melody to express themselves before they added words to their songs. However, other creatures, from songbirds to humpback whales, also produce songs. We have to wonder what prompted humans to go beyond melody and develop a more elaborated means of interacting with each other. One motivation may have been the need to cooperate.

The Social Interaction Source

A source that Jespersen (1922) nicknamed the "yo-he-ho" theory involves the utterance of sounds in physical effort, or more specifically, the sounds needed to coordinate a physical activity involving several people. So groups of early humans might have developed not just songs, but some distinct grunts and curses that were used when lifting and carrying large bits of trees or lifeless hairy mammoths.

The appeal of this proposal is that it places the development of human language in a social context. Early people must have lived in groups, if only because larger groups offered better protection from attack. Groups are necessarily social organizations and, to maintain those organizations, some form of communication is required, even if it is just grunts and curses.

Sounds, then, would have some principled use in the social interaction of early human groups. This is an important idea involving the uses of humanly produced sounds. It does not, however, reveal the origins of the sounds produced. Apes and other primates live in social groups and use grunts and social calls, but they have not developed the capacity for speech.

The Physical Adaptation Source

Instead of looking at types of sounds as the source of human speech, we can look at the types of physical features humans possess, especially those that may have supported speech production. We can start with the observation that, at an early stage, our ancestors made a major transition to an upright posture, with bi-pedal (on two feet) locomotion. This really changed how we breathe. Among four-legged creatures, the rhythm of breathing is closely linked to the rhythm of walking, resulting in a one pace – one breath relationship. Among two-legged creatures, the rhythm of breathing is not tied to the rhythm of walking, allowing long articulations on outgoing breath, with short in-breaths. It has been calculated that "human breathing while speaking is about 90% exhalation with only about 10% of time saved for quick in-breaths" (Hurford, 2014: 83).

Other physical changes have been found. The reconstructed vocal tract of a Neanderthal man from around 60,000 years ago suggests that some consonant-like sound distinctions were possible. Around 35,000 years ago we start to find features in fossilized skeletal structures that resemble those of modern humans. In the study of evolutionary development, there are certain physical features that are streamlined versions of features found in

other primates. By themselves, such features would not guarantee speech, but they are good clues that a creature with such features probably has the capacity for speech.

Teeth and Lips

Human **teeth** are upright, not slanting outwards like those of apes, and they are roughly even in height. They are also much smaller. Such characteristics are not very useful for ripping or tearing food and seem better adapted for grinding and chewing. They are also very helpful in making sounds such as *f* or *v*. Human **lips** have much more intricate muscle interlacing than is found in other primates, and their resulting flexibility certainly helps in making sounds like *p, b* and *m*. In fact, the *b* and *m* sounds are the most widely attested in the vocalizations made by human infants during their first year, no matter which language their parents are using.

Mouth and Tongue

The human **mouth** is relatively small compared to other primates and can be opened and closed rapidly. It is also part of an extended vocal tract that has more of an L-shape than the straight path from front to back in other mammals. In contrast to the fairly thin flat tongue of other large primates, humans have a shorter, thicker and more muscular **tongue** that can be used to shape a wide variety of sounds inside the oral cavity. In addition, unlike other primates, humans can close off the airway through the nose to create more air pressure in the mouth. The overall effect of these small differences taken together is a face with more intricate muscle interlacing in the lips

and mouth, capable of a wider range of shapes and a more rapid and powerful delivery of sounds produced through these different shapes.

Larynx and Pharynx

The human **larynx** or "voice box" (containing the vocal folds) differs significantly in position from the larynx of other primates such as monkeys. In the course of human physical development, the assumption of an upright posture moved the head more directly above the spinal column and the larynx dropped to a lower position. This created a longer cavity called the **pharynx**, above the vocal folds, which acts as a resonator for increased range and clarity of the sounds produced via the larynx. Other primates have almost no pharynx. One unfortunate consequence of this development is that the lower position of the human larynx makes it much more possible for the human to choke on pieces of food. Monkeys may not be able to use their larynx to produce speech sounds, but they do not suffer from the problem of getting food stuck in their windpipe. In evolutionary terms, there must have been a big advantage in getting this extra vocal power (i.e. a larger range of sounds) to outweigh the potential disadvantage from an increased risk of choking to death.

The Tool-Making Source

In the physical adaptation view, one function (producing speech sounds) must have been superimposed on existing anatomical features (teeth, lips) previously used for other purposes (chewing, sucking). A similar development is believed to have taken place with human hands. By about

two million years ago, there is evidence that humans had developed preferential right-handedness and had become capable of making stone tools. Tool making, or the outcome of manipulating objects and changing them using both hands, is evidence of a brain at work.

The Human Brain

The human **brain** is not only large relative to human body size, it is also **lateralized**, that is, it has specialized functions in each of the two hemispheres. (More details are presented in Chapter 12.) Those functions that control the motor movements involved in complex vocalization (speaking) and object manipulation (making or using tools) are very close to each other in the left hemisphere of the brain. That is, the area of the motor cortex that controls the muscles of the arms and hands is next to the articulatory muscles of the face, jaw and tongue. It may be that there was an evolutionary connection between the language-using and tool-using abilities of humans and that both were involved in the development of the speaking brain.

A recent study kept track of specific activity in the brains of experienced stonecutters as they crafted a stone tool, using a technique known to have existed for 500,000 years. The researchers also measured the brain activity of the same individuals when they were asked to think (silently) of particular words. The patterns of blood flow to specific parts of the brain were very similar, suggesting that aspects of the structure of language may have developed through the same brain circuits established earlier for two-handed stone tool creation.

If we think in terms of the most basic process involved in primitive tool-making, it is not enough to be able to grasp one rock (make one sound); the human must also bring another rock (other sounds) into contact with the first in order to develop a tool. In terms of language structure, the human may have first developed a naming ability by consistently using one type of noise (e.g. *BEE*). The crucial additional step was to bring another specific noise (e.g. *GOO*) into combination with the first to build a complex message (*BEE GOO*). Several thousand years of development later, humans have honed this message-building capacity to a point where, on Saturdays, watching a football game, they can drink a sustaining beverage and proclaim *This beer is good*. As far as we know, other primates are not doing this.

The Gesture Source

It seems reasonable to assume that, once our distant ancestors became more skilled at working with their hands, they would have used them to do more than just bang rocks together. Eventually, they must have developed some use of manual gesture, a communicative resource that continues to accompany the everyday talk of modern humans. In the case of sign language users, their complex system takes the place of everyday talk (see Chapter 15). The use of gesture was almost certainly established before modern humans developed. Studies of chimpanzees in their natural environment have reported over sixty different hand signals and movements. These tend to be used as single gestures, each with a single function, a feature of gestures in very young humans.

At around ten months of age, human infants begin using distinct gestures, such as raising both arms, hands open and outstretched, asking to be picked up. By around twelve months, human toddlers are becoming bipedal, able to stand on two legs and starting to walk (with support) and can use their outstretched (right) hand to point to objects to establish joint attention. Unlike chimpanzees, they soon develop gestures for "bye-bye" (waving arm/hand), "show" (holding out an object) and "rejection" (open hand struck against object offered). Also, unlike chimpanzees, young humans accompany these developing gestures with a variety of vocalizations described as "babbling." The sounds that are produced begin as repeated syllables, such as *ba-ba-ba*, that gradually include other combinations which become more complex (*ma-da-ga-ba*) (see Chapter 13). Eventually, a coordination of gestures and vocalizations occurs. This can be observed in the use of an index finger pointing gesture and a vocalization such as *baba* (or *mama*, or *papa*, or *dada*, or *gaga*) when a familiar figure is present or enters the room. Chimpanzees don't do that.

For some scholars, this looks like evidence that the development of language was based on the connection that already existed between the human brain and the human hand. That close connection in the motor cortex between the muscles of the hand(s) and the muscles of the face used in articulation would at least support the idea that human gesture and vocalization shared a physical source. Speaking, from this perspective, consists of "articulatory gestures."

The continued presence of gesture while we are engaged in conversation is certainly part of how we express ourselves when we speak. However, speaking is more than just moving the muscles of the face to produce single "words" in the same way that the muscles of the hand

produce single meaningful gestures. When we speak, we engage other areas of the brain in a way that allows us to express ourselves more fully than simply through manual gesture. Gestures continue to be part of the communicative behavior of modern humans, exemplified by the inclusion of gesture images like "thumbs up" as an emoji when we're texting, but they don't seem to provide an explanation of how we developed the phrases and sentences we also use while texting.

The Genetic Source

As we have already noted, we can think of the human baby in its first few years as a living example of some of these physical changes taking place. At birth, the baby's brain is only a quarter of its eventual weight and the larynx is much higher in the throat, allowing babies, like chimpanzees, to breathe and drink at the same time. In a relatively short period of time, the larynx descends, the brain develops, the child assumes an upright posture and starts walking and talking.

This almost automatic set of developments and the complexity of the young child's language have led some scholars to look for something more powerful than small physical adaptations over time as the source of language. Children who are born deaf (and do not develop speech) become fluent sign language users, given appropriate circumstances, very early in life. This seems to indicate that human offspring are born with a special capacity for language. It is innate, no other creature seems to have it and it is not tied to only one specific variety of language. Is it possible that this

language capacity is similar to a genetic blueprint already present in the newborn human?

The Innateness Hypothesis

As a solution to the puzzle of the origins of language, the **innateness hypothesis** would seem to point to something in human genetics, possibly a crucial mutation or two, as the source. In the study of human development, a number of gene mutations have been identified that relate to changes in the human diet, especially those resulting in an increase in calorie intake, possibly tied to the ability to digest starch in food and a substantial increase in glucose production. These changes are believed to have enhanced blood flow in the brain, creating the conditions for a bigger and more complex brain to develop. We are not sure when these genetic changes might have taken place or how they might relate to the physical adaptations described earlier. However, as we consider this hypothesis, we find our speculations about the origins of language moving away from fossil evidence or the source of basic human sounds toward analogies with how computers work (i.e. built-in hardware in the brain, with added software from individual languages) and concepts taken from the study of biology and genetics. The investigation of the origins of language then turns into a search for the special "language gene" that only humans possess. In one of the tasks at the end of this chapter (Task H on page 11), you can investigate the background to the discovery of one particular gene (FOXP2) that is thought to have a role in language production.

If we are indeed the only creatures with this special capacity for language, then will it be completely impossible for any other creature to

produce or understand language? We will try to answer that question in Chapter 2.

Study Questions

1 When did written language develop?

2 When can we say the human auditory system has begun working?

3 What did Darwin think early human communication was first based on?

4 What two things did early humans need to take control of in order to produce intonation?

5 What percentage of human breathing while speaking normally consists of in-breaths?

6 What is the difference between the position of the larynx in humans and other primates?

7 Why are interjections such as *Ooh!* or *Yuck!* considered to be unlikely sources of human speech sounds?

8 What is the basic idea behind the "bow-wow" theory of language origin?

9 Why is it difficult to agree with Psammetichus that Phrygian must have been the original human language?

10 Where is the pharynx and how did it become an important part of human sound production?

11 Approximately how many hand signals and movements have been observed in chimpanzee behavior in the wild?

12 For those scholars who view gesture as the source of human vocalization, what term is used to describe speaking?

13 Why do you think that young deaf children who become fluent in sign language would be cited in support of the innateness hypothesis?

14 With which of the seven "sources" would you associate the following quotation?

Chewing, licking and sucking are extremely widespread mammalian activities, which, in terms of casual observation, have obvious similarities with speech.

(MacNeilage, 1998)

Tasks

A What is the connection between the Heimlich maneuver and the development of human speech?

B Can you find out if Babel was a real place and why it is used in explanations of language origins?

C What are the arguments for and against a teleological explanation of the origins of human language?

D The Danish linguist Otto Jespersen, who popularized the terms "bow-wow" and "pooh-pooh" for theories about language origins, dismissed both of these ideas in favor of another theory. What

explanation did Jespersen (1922, chapter 21) favor as the likely origin of early speech?

E In the study of the relationship between brain, tools and language in human development, two distinct types of stone tools are typically mentioned. They are described as Oldowan tools and Acheulean tools. What is the difference between them, when were they used, and which of them was investigated in the recent study involving blood flow in the brain, as described in the chapter?

F In this chapter, we described what is called "request-reaching" as one of the first gestures made by human children. Other early gestures are listed here. Can you work out (or find out) the typical order of occurrence of these gestures as the young child becomes more interactive?

(a) open hand pointing, fingers spread

(b) clapping hands together

(c) reaching with hand toward an object

(d) using head nod to indicate "yes"

(e) shaking head, looking away (when offered food)

(f) pointing with index finger

G The game of charades is based on the assumption that we have not lost our ability to use gesture to communicate. Are there patterns of gestures in this game that would provide insight into the kinds of gestures that earlier humans might have used? This is an empirical

question. For data, arrange to play and record a game of charades. There is no predetermined answer.

H When it was first identified, the FOXP2 gene was hailed as the "language gene." What was the basis of this claim and how has it been modified?

I The idea that "ontogeny recapitulates phylogeny" was first proposed by Ernst Haeckel in 1866 and is still frequently used in discussions of language origins. Can you find a simpler or less technical way to express this idea?

J In his analysis of the beginnings of human language, William Foley comes to the conclusion that "language as we understand it was born about 200,000 years ago" (1997: 73). This is substantially earlier than the dates (between 100,000 and 50,000 years ago) that other scholars have proposed. What kinds of evidence and arguments are typically presented in order to choose a particular date "when language was born"?

K What is the connection between the innateness hypothesis, as described in this chapter, and the idea of a Universal Grammar?

Discussion Topics/Projects

I In this chapter we didn't address the issue of whether language has developed as part of our general cognitive abilities or whether it has evolved as a separate component that can exist independently (and is

unrelated to intelligence, for example). What kind of evidence do you think would be needed to resolve this question?

(For background reading, see chapter 4 of Aitchison, 2000.)

II When we reviewed the connection between gesture and vocalization in the lives of early humans, we didn't explore the contexts in which one of those would be favored over the other. Try to think of communicative situations (old and new) where one would be more useful, such as times when silence is needed, or when people can't see each other, or when people can only see each other through thick glass, or any others you can think of.

For background reading, see Armstrong and Wilcox, 2007.

Further Reading

Basic Treatments

Aitchison, J. (2000) *The Seeds of Speech* (Canto edition) Cambridge University Press

Hurford, J. (2014) *The Origins of Language* Oxford University Press

Kenneally, C. (2007) *The First Word* Viking Press

More Detailed Treatments

Beaken, M. (2011) *The Making of Language* (2nd edition) Dunedin Academic Press

McMahon, A. and R. McMahon (2013) *Evolutionary Linguistics* Cambridge University Press

Human Physical Development

Harari, Y. (2015) *Sapiens: A Brief History of Humankind* Harper Collins

Onomatopoeia

Haiman, J. (2018) *Ideophones and the Evolution of Language* Cambridge University Press

Music before Language

Mithen, S. (2006) *The Singing Neanderthals* Harvard University Press

Patel, A. (2008) *Music, Language and the Brain* Oxford University Press

A Hum Versus a Grunt

Bass, A., E. Gilland and R. Baker (2008) "Evolutionary origins for social vocalization in a vertebrate hindbrain-spinal compartment" *Science* **321** (July 18): 417–421