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UW ILP NEWSLETTER
Editor: Ivan Roksandic
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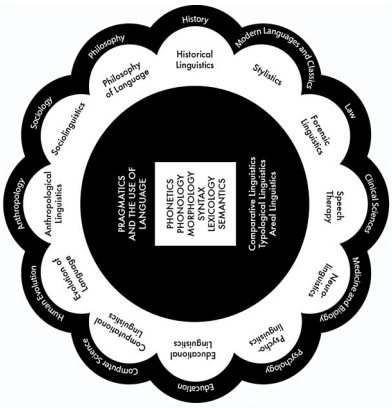
The Interdisciplinary Linguistics Program (ILP) at the University of Winnipeg (UW)



What is Geolinguistics?

Liliane Rodriguez, Modern Languages

In a nutshell, it is the description of a language in its geographical diversity. Geographical variants, more specifically called diatopic or topolectal variants, coexist within a single language, along with other variants: diastratic (related to a social group), diaphasic (related to stylistic choices according to context) and diamesic (oral features). The evidence of geolinguistic diversity often surprises those who may think a language is rather uniform within geographical borders (e.g. French used in France versus Canadian French). It may be indeed surprising to learn that such a typical French word as *escargot*, has more than a dozen geographical synonyms in France, such as *cauquilha* in the Drôme area (just north of Provence), *limaçon* (in Provence and the south-east), and *moine* (meaning *monk*, in the Bordeaux area). Geolinguistic variation is found in other elements of a language —phonology, morphology or syntax.

Additional to its synchronic objectives, geolinguistics has a diachronic dimension. It is associated with dialectology to uncover the historical reasons for the presence of a word in a certain location, and more generally to identify key aspects of linguistic change. Let's look, for example, at the French word *maganer* (used in Manitoba and other areas of Canada). It means to wreck, hurt or spoil. It can be traced back to 1180 (in Chrestien de Troyes' *Perceval*). It remained in use in France until the 17th-century, when it disappeared, only to survive in Canada. Now a French *archaism*, completely discontinued in France, it is still widely used in Canada today. Sometimes, such surviving words were at first more local, limited to a specific region. Let's take the word *trèfle blanc*, attested in Manitoba today. One may quickly assume it is an anglicism, a mere translation of *white clover*. However, it originated in the Jura area of France, where the founders of St. Claude, Manitoba, came from. Historical accuracy rests on geolinguistic and dialectology resources (corpora and maps) established through over a century of research. Subsequently, a clear grasp of a society in motion stems from geolinguistic research, and a better understanding of ethnological, social, political and cultural realities, as they are reflected in that dimension of language. (*See below:* Map 1. Dialectal Areas of France /Surface Layer/.)

Who are the pioneers of Geolinguistics?

The first geolinguistic fieldwork was conducted by Henri Grégoire (1750-1831). He submitted his *Rapport Grégoire* on the dialects of France to the Revolutionary government in 1794 (who intended to suppress them, as reservoirs of superstition!). Other early pioneers include Coquebert de Montbret (1755−1831), and Jean-E. Decorde. Geolinguistics became a modern linguistic discipline with the founding concepts of Charles Joret (who defined *Isogloss*). Map 2 (*see below*) illustrates the *Ligne Joret Isogloss,* which includes the phonetic survival, north of the isogloss, of the sound [k] versus [ʃ] in words like *vaque*, versus *vache* (*cow*). Then, Jules Gilliéron and Edmont Edmond, authors of the ALF, *Atlas linguistique de France* (1902−1910), based their work on their 1898−1901 extensive

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Interdisciplinary Linguistic Program Faculty:

The ILP is anchored at the Department of Anthropology; the core of the Linguistic Faculty resides at that Department, as well as in English, Modern Languages and Classics:

Ivan Roksandic (Anthropology) teaches *Languages of the World*, *Morphology* and *Indo-European Linguistics*. His main research interests are language typology and indigenous languages of South America. His current project focuses on the indigenous toponymy in the Caribbean.

Jane Cahill resides in the department of Classics. She teaches courses in Latin and Greek, as well as *Greek and Latin in Today's English* and *The Classical Roots of Medical Terminology*.

Amy Desroches (Psychology) uses cognitive and brain imaging methods to examine reading and language development. In particular, her work focuses on the role of phonology in learning to read, and the impact that reading development has on spoken language processing.

Lois Edmund is a Clinical Psychologist who teaches Conflict Resolution Studies. Her interest is in using communication for effective prevention and resolution of conflicts.

George Fulford is an Anthropological linguist, specializing in Cree and Algonquian languages. He is especially interested in problems related to grammaticalization, language origins, and semiotics and structuralism.

Zbigniew Izydorczyk teaches at the Department of English. His areas of special interest include Old and Middle English, history of English, history of Latin, and palaeography.

Kristin Lovrien-Meuwese (Modern Languages) is interested in language learning in general and second language acquisition in particular, but has most recently worked on a sociolinguistic study of German in Manitoba.

Jorge Machín-Lucas (Modern Languages) is a specialist in XXth and XXIst Century Spanish Literature, and teaches courses in Spanish Normative Grammar and History of the Spanish Language.
During her career in linguistics

Karen Malcolm (English) has used Communication Linguistics (a development of Halliday's System Functional Grammar) and its descriptive framework, phasal analysis, to analyze and explore a great variety of texts: spoken and written, literary and non-literary.

Liliane Rodriguez (Modern Languages) teaches Linguistics, Comparative Stylistics and Translation. Her main research is in Lexicometry, Geolinguistics and Bilingualism. She is the author of several books and of many articles in Linguistics and Translation Studies.

In addition, several courses inluded in the ILP curriculum are taught at other Departments: Classics (**Samantha Booth**); Developmental Studies (**Janet Simpson**); Rhetoric (**Tracy Whalen**).

Other UW faculty members associated with the ILP include **Linda Dietrick** (Modern Languages), **Jeffrey Newmark** (Religion and Culture), as well as no less than two Deans: **Glenn Moulaison**, the Dean of Arts, teaches *History of the French Language*, whereas **James Currie**, the Dean of Science, works on mathematical models of language.

Students

Admissions:
Students interested in majoring in Linguistics should contact the Coordinator of the ILP.

Colloquium: Every year in April, after the exam period, the Annual Student Colloquium is held, offering to students an opportunity to present the results of their research to the audience of their colleagues.
In 2014/15, **the XVI Annual Student Colloquium in Linguistics will take place on Friday, April 24th, from 10:00 AM - 3:00 PM, in room 3D01, on main campus.**

Award: The Angela Mattiaci Memorial Scholarship in Interdisciplinary Linguistics is awarded every October to a student majoring in linguistics with a distinguished performance in ILP courses. For more information visit our website at: http://www.uwinnipeg.ca/index/interdisciplinary-linguistics

Spring 2015		
LING 2003 / ANTH 2403 / ENGL 2802 Syntax	Tu-Th (May) 10 -02 PM	K. Malcolm
Fall/Winter 2015/16		
LING 1001 Introduction to Linguistics	MWF 01:30-02:20 PM	TBA
LING 3311 / FREN 3111 Comparative Stylistics and Translation	MW 04-5:15 PM	L. Rodriguez
Fall 2015		
LING 2002 / ANTH 2402 / ENGL 2805 Morphology	MWF 11:30-12:20 PM	I. Roksandic
LING 2004 / ANTH 2405 / ENGL 2806 Semantics	Tu-Th 10:00-11:15 AM	G. Fulford
LING 2301 / FREN 2202 Phonetics	MW 02:30-03:45 PM	L. Rodriguez
CLAS 2850 The Classical Roots of Medical Terminology	MW 04-05:15 PM	TBA
CRS 2252 Conflict and Communication	M 06-09 PM	C. H. Morris
PSYC 2620 Psycholinguistics	Tu-Th 02:30-03:45 PM	A. Desroches
LING 3006 / 4006 / ANTH 3400 / 4400 Language Typology	MWF 09 :30-10 :20 AM	I. Roksandic
DEV 3300 Speech and Language Disorders in Children	Th 05:30-08:30 PM	J. Simpson
RHET 3236 Orality and Literacy	MW 04-05 :15 PM	R. Byrnes
Winter 2016		
LING 2001 / ANTH 2401 / ENGL 2803 Phonetics and Phonology	Tu-Th 02:30-03:45 PM	K. Lowrien-Meuwese
LING 2102/ ANTH 2400 Method and Theory in Linguistic Anthropology	Tu-Th 10:00-11:15 AM	G. Fulford
LING 2101 / ANTH 2406 / ENGL 2804 Language and Culture	W 06-09 PM	K. Malcolm
LING 2103 / ANTH 2404 Languages of the World	MWF 11:30-12:20 PM	I. Roksandic
LING 2208 / CLAS 2800 Greek and Latin in Today's English	W 06-09 PM	J. Cahill
CRS 2252 Conflict and Communication	MW 04-05:15 PM	L. Edmund
RHET 3151 Critical Studies of Discourse	Tu-Th 02:30-03:45 PM	C. Taylor

fieldwork, with a 1,900-item questionnaire, in 630 villages, resulting in 1,600 maps. The new wave was initiated with the *Atlas linguistique de la Basse-Bretagne* (1927) by Pierre Leroux, and the complete CNRS Atlases (1950−today). In Canada, the ten volumes of the ALEC, *Atlas linguistique de l'Est du Canada* (1980), by Gaston Dulong and Gaston Bergeron, are a national treasure.

What are the tasks and the methods in geolinguistics?

The tasks are to study language in its geographical distribution: record people's language through fieldwork (several methods); establish corpora based on fieldwork data; analyze recorded data from chosen perspective(s) (e.g. language acquisition, gender, phonological evolution); describe language at specific location(s); present results in an accessible manner (e.g. text, lists, statistics, maps). One major method is the use of a linguistic and sociolinguistic questionnaire answered by various informants. A more recent method is the use of lexicometry —the statistical analysis of a large number of informants and occurrences per geographical point (e.g. Manitoba fieldwork and corpus in L. Rodriguez (2006), *La langue française au Manitoba (Canada): Histoire et évolution lexicométrique*, Tubingen, Max Niemeyer Verlag, 519 p.), or the hypertext approach for written language. Tasks today also include the archiving of previous data (e.g. the digitized maps of the ALF by Le Roux), and its conservation and accessibility (e.g. Open Library). Geolinguistic research results can be presented in maps, lists, lexicometric indices, or electronic atlases (e.g. LexiQué (Québec), or Vivaldi for Italian). In pluridisciplinary projects, geolinguists today can use dialectometry and geomatics, as in the *CartoDialect* and *GeoDialect* (2013) projects.

It has been predicted that half of the 6,500 languages existing today will have disappeared by 2060, and surviving ones may be impoverished or simplified. Geolinguistics can play a role in supporting and recording languages, but it takes patience, laboratory discipline, historical research and constant attention to linguistic diversity.

Map 1: Dialectal Areas of France (Surface Layer)

Map 2: The *Ligne Joret* in Normandy (Isogloss)

An Historical Overview of Alphabets and Writing in Japan

Jeffrey Newmark, Religion and Culture

The most common complaint a Japanese language instructor hears from his or her students is that they must not only learn one new alphabet but three. Indeed, to master all three alphabets is a herculean task. The two *kana* or syllabary alphabets, *hiragana* and *katakana*, contain approximately 50 characters each, while the logographic Chinese-based alphabet, *kanji*, contains thousands. Contemporary Japanese print and online media use all three alphabets as well as a smattering of Romanized letters when necessary. The difficulties involved in learning written Japanese, especially for those from non East Asian countries, has invariably impeded the globalization of the language. Only in the past thirty or so years has Japan begun exporting its language rather than importing it.

For a civilization that has populated the Japanese archipelago since 14,000 BCE, Japan has had a relatively short history of writing. The earliest accounts of Japan come not from Japan but from Chinese descriptions transcribed in dynastic histories, notably the 297 CE *Wei zhi* (History of Wei). The Wei historians called Japan the Kingdom of "Wa," a term that denoted the Japanese people as diminutive and their culture as primitive. More specifically, the Japanese were criticized for following a woman ruler, burying the dead in unprotected coffins, and relying on shamanistic means to convene with the non-human world. Of the Japanese people they encountered, the authors wrote that a typical delegate was "a man who does not comb his hair, does not rid himself of fleas, keeps his clothes soiled with dirt, does not eat meat, and does not lie with women."

Soon after the *Wei zhi* was compiled, a wave of immigrants from the Korean peninsula settled in Japan, bringing with them knowledge of Classical Chinese. By 400 CE, both the Japanese and Koreans in Japan wrote inscriptions on bronze steles in Classical Chinese script. The content of the messages as well as the syntax derived from inscriptions found on other artifacts kept in Japan, including swords and bronze mirrors.

As larger clans solidified their political power in Japan, writing became more practical and less ceremonial. Diplomatic relations with China as well as the formation of a proto-Japanese state in the seventh century necessitated the composition of official documents in Classical Chinese. The spread of Buddhism at the same time saw priests and other members of their orders copying sutras and writing commentaries for both their clergy and their governors. Lastly, with the establishment of Japan's first capital city of Nara came a codified set of laws based on earlier Chinese administrative models.

In the early 700s, the Nara court commissioned the compilation of the *Kojiki* (Record of Ancient Matters) in order to publish a collection of early Japanese myths. The editors took the most popular stories from across the country, and constructed a narrative beginning with the formation of the Japanese islands and ending with the subjugation of the lands' barbarians. The project was completed in 712, marking the book as Japan's oldest extant chronicle of its civilization. The work ultimately accomplished two things: 1) it established a national history; and 2) it charted the imperial timeline from the creator deities to the compilers' contemporary ruler. Eight years later, the *Nihon shoki* (Chronicles of Japan) emerged as another court-authorized history Japan. In contrast with the *Kojiki*, the *Nihon shoki* covered particular events and people in more detail and with more historical accuracy.

Both the *Kojiki* and the *Nihon shoki* were written in a peculiar style that alternated among Classical Chinese, Japanese phonograms of Chinese letters, and an amalgamation of the two. Yet, at the same time, imperial edicts and other official documents as well as poetry anthologies relied solely on Classical Chinese, which served as the principal script for the next two centuries. When the Emperor and his regents moved the capital from Nara to Heian-kyo (modern day Kyoto) in 794, very few literate Japanese could read and understand the two works, and the anthologies fell into disuse until the eighteenth century when a nativist scholar named Motoori Norinaga (1730-1801) transliterated and annotated

the *Kojiki* for his fellow early modern Japanese thinkers.

The Japanese fascination with all things Chinese began to wane in the ninth century, as the Imperial Court gradually eliminated overseas diplomatic missions. Consequently, Japanese culture started to flourish with new art, architecture, and literature. Concomitant with this blossoming of the arts, Japanese writers developed the *kana* alphabet, which simplified Chinese characters. For example, the left radical from the Chinese character 阿 (A) was converted into the character ア. Or, more clearly, the character 伊 (I) was simplified into イ. Some apocryphal tales attribute the development of *kana* to Sanskrit studies amongst Japanese Buddhists, but more accurate accounts explain that Japanese phonograms became a cultural necessity to represent Japanese words and expressions.

These simplified *kana* characters that developed from Chinese were not incorporated into official documents but instead into basic forms of Japanese writing. It was a separate *kana* system, *hiragana*, which became the standard alphabet for literary prose after the women of Heian literary salons developed and employed it in their works. *Hiragana* letters were written in a cursive style that contrasted with the straight strokes of the original *kana*. In the examples from above, ア became あ while イ became い. Such letters were more adaptable for the *zuihitsu* (free form writing used in diaries) and *monogatari* (fictional story) genres. Mastery of the *hiragana* alphabet rather than Chinese was a point of pride as well as contention for Heian authors. An amusing entry from the diary of Murasaki Shikibu, the author of the *Tale of Genji*, frivolously criticizes Murasaki's rival Sei Shōnagon, the author of the *Pillow Book*, as a "very proud person. She values herself highly and scatters her Chinese writings all about."

Toward the end of the Heian period (around 1100), an increasing number of men partook in literary Japanese, thereby learning and utilizing the *kana* alphabets in their own writing. Because these men generally were of the official ranks, the *kana* also seeped into formal documents, often phonetically spelling out proper names. While efforts were taken to restrict particular alphabets to the official, religious, and cultural realms, by the seventeenth century characters from all three alphabets were employed in the majority of official and non-official documents. A few technical forms like *sōrōbun* epistolary writing used for communication to and from the Shogunate government of the Edo Period (1603-1868) were bound by formalized dicta. Yet, looser conventions associated fictional prose afforded writers the opportunity to develop and popularize new and freer styles of writing, especially in the late 1600s and early 1700s when non-samurai masses became increasingly literate.

A variety of writing styles had developed by the end of the samurai's rule as literacy approached 80 percent in Japan's cities in the mid 1800s. Subsequently, this array of written forms generated a confusing number of ways to read Japanese. The sound "O," for example, could be represented variably as お, オ, ほ, ホ, を, or ヲ. The new Meiji government of the 1860s therefore made efforts to streamline the alphabets and writing systems, in order both to standardize education in Japan and to enhance communication with the Western world.

Japan's Ministry of Education first stressed the use of Chinese characters with *kana* in glosses for foreign words. For example, "Canada" would be spelled out in *kanji* with the Japanese pronunciation of "Kanada" written above it in *katakana*: カナダ 加奈陀. Other measures changed the usage of somewhat homophonic characters. For the sound of "O," ヲ was used only for historical purposes and を was put into use solely for grammatical reasons. Finally, the Education Minister proposed modernizing many *kanji* with simplified Chinese characters for contemporary words and retaining complex characters for traditional ones. For the character representing country (Japanese: *kuni* or *koku*), 國 was used for historical referents while 国was used for modern ones.

Following Japan's defeat in the Second World War, the Ministry of Education made further changes to Japanese writing. Secondary schools were ordered to limit *kanji* instruction to approximately 1,500 characters. Then, *hiragana* was to be used for Japanese words and grammatical indicators, and *katakana* was to be employed solely for loan words. Punctuation marks also came into use in the postwar era, as 、and 。represented commas and periods respectively. *Nakuten* (・) became part of the *katakana* alphabet to separate for-

eign nouns as in トム・スミス (tomu sumisu or Tom Smith). Even Romanized letters were incorporated into Japanese writing for particular events, dates, or places.

It is clear that for most of its history, Japan had imported and adapted foreign alphabets to transcribe its lexicon. Only in the past thirty years has the Japanese language and writing system experienced a globalization of sorts. Words related to Japanese cuisine—sushi, teriyaki, soba—have become commonplace in English, and certain cultural and historical phrases—karaoke, Zen, bonsai, and rickshaw—have been appropriated for use in non-Japanese languages as well. Finally, smartphone users across the world have, perhaps unknowingly, achieved fluency in the newest Japanese alphabet of emoji (絵文字 or "picture characters").

Suggestions for Further Reading:

Kornicki, Peter. *The Book in Japan: A Cultural History form the Beginnings to the Nineteenth Century*. Honolulu: The University of Hawai'i Press, 2001.

Seeley, Christopher. *A History of Writing in Japan*. Honolulu: The University of Hawai'i Press, 2000.

Study Abroad: Linguistics and Languages in Bamberg, Germany

Linda Dietrick, Modern Languages

The University of Winnipeg maintains an official exchange program with the Universität Bamberg in Bavaria, Southern Germany. In order to participate, students do not have to know German or be majoring in German Studies. And, because German universities do not charge tuition fees, our students do not have to pay tuition in Bamberg either, but only the registration fee, as long as they are studying full time, i.e. taking the equivalent of three courses per semester. In Germany, there are two university semesters, the *Wintersemester* from October to February, and the *Sommersemester* from April to July. University of Winnipeg students who want to go on the exchange apply through the International Student Centre in Admissions. Application deadline is in mid-January for the next academic year (October to July), and you can apply to go for one or both semesters.

The Universität Bamberg offers courses in the Humanities, Social Sciences, and Business Administration, and a surprising number of courses are taught in English. These include Linguistics courses, many of which are offered by the Linguistics section of the English department. Currently, in the *Wintersemester* 2014-15, courses whose language of instruction is English include the following titles: Applied Linguistics, Canadian English, Chaucer in Context, English Contact Linguistics, English Phonetics and Phonology, English Lexicology and Lexicography, Statistics in Language Studies, and Language and Identity: Contact, Change, Planning and Death (?). The Universität Bamberg also has a Chair in General Linguistics that (for reasons unknown to me) is housed in the *Institut für Orientalistik*. Here you can find the following courses currently being taught in English: An Introduction to Linguistics, Language and Society: An Introduction to Sociolinguistics, New Approaches in Morphological Theory, and Cognitive Aspects of Grammatical Variation in English.

With the exception of standard required courses, the offerings change every semester, and the new course schedules are only announced a month or so before the semester begins. To explore current offerings, go to the Uni Bamberg's on-line course information system at http://univis.uni-bamberg.de. Click on *Lehrveranstaltungen einzelner Einrichtungen*, then *Fakultät Geistes- und Kulturwissenschaften*. From there, you can select the *Institut für Anglistik und Amerikanistik*, and then *Englische Sprachwissenschaft*; or the *Institut für Orientalistik*, and then the *Lehrstuhl für Allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft.*

Obviously, a little knowledge of German would be helpful in navigating things like this. But you can also go to Bamberg to learn German or improve your skills at their Language Centre, where you can take other languages, too. These foreign-language courses are not regular university courses, but we do give transfer credit for those that correspond to our language courses here.

The Linguistic Reality and Variety of Spain

Jorge Machín-Lucas, Modern Languages

In Spain there are three Romance languages that descended from Vulgar Latin, namely, Spanish, Catalan, and Galician. A fourth language is also spoken in the country: Basque, which is neither Romance nor Indo-European.

The Spanish language originated in Castile, a kingdom located in a big mesa in the central part of the Iberian peninsula. As a mother language, it is the second most spoken language in the world, after Mandarin Chinese, and the third in terms of the number of speakers, after Mabdarin and English. Some 470 million people speak Spanish as a mother tongue. Apart from Latin, the Spanish language was influenced by many other langugaes in its history: Arabic, Germanic, English, French, Celtiberian, Celtic, and Basque. It is widely spoken in the Americas, even in the USA, with the exception of Canada, some Caribbean islands –Jamaica, for instance-, Belize, Brazil, the Guyannas, and Suriname. In western Africa, it is spoken in Equatorial Guinea. The language was spoken in the Philippines during the Spanish colonial period between 1565 and 1898 (for 333 years); although Filipino and English are the official languages now, personal names and last names of many of its inhabitants are of Spanish origin.

Spanish is a co-official language in three autonomous communities in Spain. Those are regions with asymmetrical degrees of autonomy. Those three communities are Galicia, the Basque Country ("El País Vasco" in Spanish or "Euskadi" in Basque), and Catalonia ("Cataluña" in Spanish and "Catalunya" in Catalan). In Galicia, in the northwestern corner of the Iberian peninsula, Spanish is spoken with Galician. Almost 3.200.000 people can speak this language that has many similarities with Portuguese: in fact, they were one language during the middle ages, the "galaico-portugués." It is also spoken in the western part of the autonomous community of Asturias, in the county of "El Bierzo" located in the northwest of the Castilian province of León, and in the north of the autonomous community of Extremadura. All those are among the poorest regions of Spain, scarcely industrialized.

In the Basque Country, in the northern coast of Spain, close to southwestern France, the "Euskera" or Basque is spoken by some 720.000 native speakers. It is also spoken in the northwestern part of Navarre -"Navarra" in Spanish or "Nafarroa" in Basque- and in southwestern France. It is the only non Indo-European language that remained in Western Europe. It's origins are uncertain even though some linguists have found some similarities between this language and languages spoken in the Caucasus region, in Georgia, a country that used to belong to the former USSR. Moreover, some scholars relate it to the Etruscan or to non Indo-European languages such as Finish, Hungarian, or Estonian. The Basque language had in the past some influence on the Spanish language, not only on the lexical level (loan words), but also in phonology influencing the "double "r"" sound at the beginning of a word and in intervocal position ("rr"). Other evidences of this substrate are the fact that the initial "f" of the Latin words usually became "h", that the vowel system has only five sounds ("a", " e", "i", "o", and "u"), that "b" and "v" are similarly pronounced as voiced bilabial stops (even though sometimes they can be pronounced as voiced bilabial fricative as well), and that both languages have less phonemes than letters. However, the superstratum of the Spanish language has also influenced the vocabulary and grammar of Basque during the last few centuries, The growing desire of separatism in this autonomous community and in Catalonia (the two more industrialized parts of in Spain) tried to either reduce or eliminate such linguistic influences.

In Catalonia (the northeastern part of the Iberian peninsula, bordering southeastern France), in the Valencian community, in the Balearic Islands, in "La Franja" (the area of Catalan-speaking territories of "Aragón" bordering western Catalonia), in Roussillon in Southern France bordering northeastern Spain, and in the Italian town of Alghero ("L'Alguer" in Catalan) located in northwestern Sardinia, the Catalan language is spoken by some 11.5 million people. Only in Catalonia, more than 6 million people can un-

derstand the language, while in Valencia and in the Balearic Islands more than 3 million and than 800.000 people, respectively, are fluent in Catalan. It shares many traits with Italian, Sardinian, Occitan, French and, of course, Spanish; those similarities are more obvious in written language, but substantially reduced when in the spoken language due to the different accents and pronunciations.

The three non-Spanish languages were either forbidden or repressed under Francisco Franco's fascist regime between 1939 and 1975, and declared official in their autonomous communities after his death and the arrival of democracy in Spain under King Juan Carlos I. In the three autonomous communities they have been used in order to request the independence of these communities, above all in the overindustrialized Catalonia and Basque country, where the linguistic, cultural and/or racial difference can be an excuse that aims to justify the most important desire not to pay taxes to the Spanish government in the central capital of Madrid. Some of their greatest writers are the XIXth century romantic Galician poet Rosalía de Castro, the XXth century Basque poet Gabriel Aresti, and the XIIIth-XIVth Mallorcan philosopher, poet, mystic and theologian Ramon Llull, who wrote in Catalan.

Bibliography

Ferreiro Fernández, Manuel. *Gramática Histórica Galega. Volume I. Fonética e Morfosintaxe*. Santiago de Compostela: Edicións Laiovento, 1995.

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Lleal Galcerán, Coloma. *Breu història de la llengua catalana.* Barcelona: Barcanova, 2003.

Pharies, David A. *A Brief History of the Spanish Language*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 2007.

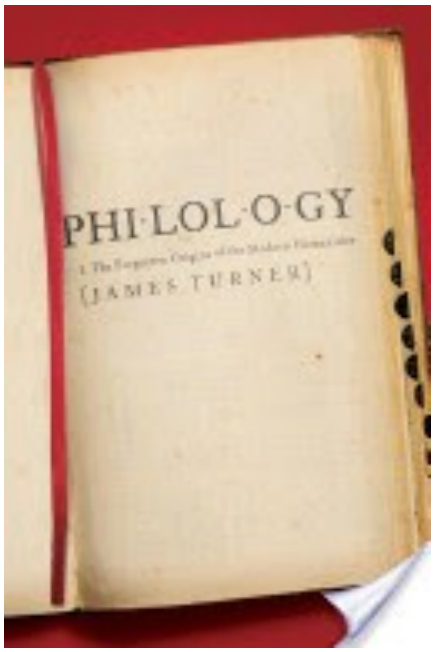
Trask, Robert Lawrence. *The History of Basque*. London, UK: Routledge, 2014.

Madrid, Spain, Photo Tana R 2013

Books

James Turner: *Philology: The Forgotten Origins of the Modern Humanities*. Princeton University Press, 2014. 978-0691145648.

Linda Dietrick, Modern Languages



Lovers of language will enjoy this book. Turner's basic argument, elaborated in this comprehensive, erudite, but remarkably readable work of intellectual history, is that most of the myriad disciplines that we now call the humanities have descended from a common ancestor: philology. Now "coated with the dust of the library" such that one "would not be startled to see its gaunt torso clad in a frock coat," philology was once "chic, dashing, and much ampler in girth" (ix-x). Until the 19th century, it was the "king of the sciences" in Europe and North America, for it encompassed all studies of language and texts. Originating in Antiquity and revived in the Renaissance, it was always more a method than a subject matter. Philologists concerned themselves with rhetoric and with exacting research into the historical origins of texts, languages and language itself. They explored the history of texts so as to establish authoritative versions and understand them in the context of their times. They employed systematic comparisons of texts, languages, and their contexts, allowing each to illuminate the other in what we would now call a hermeneutic circle. And they used these tools genealogically to uncover origins and lines of descent. One ground-breaking result was the reconstruction of Proto-Indo-European.

By telling the stories of the careers and discoveries of philological researchers, Turner constructs a genealogy of his own. As he shows, around 1800, beginning largely in Germany, the modern fields of historical linguistics, literary studies, classical studies (*Altertumswissenschaft*), archaeology, history, and biblical criticism gradually started to emerge. Later, after the secular "higher criticism" of German biblical philology had made inroads into pious English and American universities, the field of comparative religious studies came into being. Eventually, each discipline marked off its territory with its own learned societies, scholarly journals, and standards of peer review. And so here we are. There is, however, one ancient discipline now classed with the humanities that Turner firmly excludes from the philological family: philosophy. Philosophers "understood *their* studies as the *opposite* of philology, rhetoric, and antiquarianism"; they were interested in drawing precise, timeless conclusions by logical deduction, while philology "was interpretive, empirical, treating in probabilities, drenched in history" (381). Yet today, as some branches of linguistics have become more rule-oriented and some branches of philosophy more language-oriented, perhaps we can observe a rapprochement. More generally, the future of interdisciplinarity may be a sort of return to the past. As Turner concludes: "When the time for change comes – whatever form change takes – it will help to remember that the humanities amount to more than a set of isolated disciplines, each marooned on its own island. Modern disciplinarity masks a primal oneness" (386). And language study was and is central to the enterprise.

Alexandra Aikhenvald: *The Art of Grammar: A Practical Guide*. Oxford University Press, 2015. 978-0199683222.

Ivan Roksandic, Anthropology

Yet another book for language lovers, this one with a focus on field linguistics. Alexandra Aikhenvald is one of the most prominent linguists in the world today, best known for her research on Amazonian languages, especially on the Arawak language family, and on language contact and areal influence in Amazonia, with particular attention to the multilingual area of the Vaupés River Basin in the border regions of Colombia and Brasil. She also worked on various aspects of linguistic typology (evidentiality; complementation; imperatives; classifiers).

In this book, Aikhenvald explains how to proceeded when doing field work in documenting a hitherto poorly known language and in "constructing" its grammar. Comprehensive reference grammars are crucial for exploring the linguistic diversity of the world, for studies of linguistic typology, and for understanding social and cognitive underpinning of different languages. Aikhenvald explains principles and methodologies of collecting, analyzing and organizing linguistic data, and also shows how language, history and culture are intermingled. Her book gives practical advice as well as a set of criteria for assembling reference grammars, based on her own field work (she wrote comprehensive grammars of Warekena and Tariana, both Arawak languages).

Students' Corner

My name is **Danielle Kampen** and I am graduating this spring with an honours in linguistics and a 3-year major in psychology. I have studied mostly at the university of Winnipeg, and I studied for one semester at Simon Fraser University in British Columbia. I loved learning about the science of speech and first language acquisition at SFU, but I am thoroughly grateful for the cultural and theoretical knowledge of linguistics that I gained at the university of Winnipeg! I am fascinated by the science of speech and am interested in using my knowledge in linguistics for speech therapy.

Katharina Klassen: I am in my third year of study at the University of Winnipeg, working towards a double honours degree in Interdisciplinary Linguistics and Anthropology. I have thoroughly enjoyed partaking in many discussions amongst a stellar community of linguistic instructors and fellow linguistic students, on topics from the magnitude of a phrase such as "colourless green ideas", to the significance of the assignment of a word to a certain semiological process, to the symbolism of a reconstructed dragon myth in Proto-Indo-European. I am particularly interested in the Celtic languages of Manx and Welsh, as well as the folklore associated with them, and intend to pursue these interests in a Master's program at a Canadian university following my graduation next spring.

Danielle (left) and Katharina

The Interdisciplinary Linguistic Program (ILP) at the University of Winnipeg (UW)

The ILP at UW provides a vibrant environment for teaching, study and research, offering a 3-year BA, a 4 -year BA, and an Honours BA degrees in Interdisciplinary Linguistcis, through a variety of courses ofered at several different departments. Linguistics is defined as the branch of knowledge whose subject-matter includes both language as a general property of human species, and particular languages. Since human language is both a biological phenomenon (language faculty is innate), and a socio-cultural one (language is the main carrier of all human culture), linguistics is necessarily an interdisciplinary field covering the academic divisions of Humanities, Social Sciences and Natural Sciences. We invite you to join us in this magic adventure that is the study of human language in all its protean forms, from conventional to quirky.