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A workbook to develop ability to distinguish between affective language and report language

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Thesis

A WORKBOOK TO DEVELOP ABILITY TO DISTINGUISH
BETWEEN AFFECTIVE LANGUAGE AND REPORT LANGUAGE

Submitted by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	Page
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
Statement of purpose.....	1
Justification.....	1
Scope and Limitations.....	6
Definition of Terms.....	8
General semantics.....	8
Reality.....	8
Fact.....	8
Science.....	9
Report language.....	9
Denote.....	10
Referent.....	10
Symbol.....	10
Affective language.....	11
Connote.....	11
Context.....	11
Generalizing.....	12
Stereotype.....	12
Judgment.....	13
Inference.....	13
Figurative language.....	13
Simile.....	13
Metaphor.....	13
II. REVIEW OF RESEARCH.....	15
Growth of Language.....	15
Theories of origin.....	15
Primitive speech and child speech.....	17
Communicative devices.....	19
Gesture.....	19
Signals.....	19
Symbols.....	20
Figures of speech.....	20

CHAPTER	Page
II.	
Development of the alphabet.....	22
Picture writing.....	22
Pictograms.....	23
Logograms.....	23
Phonetic writing.....	24
Syllable writing.....	24
Alphabetic symbols.....	25
Psychology and Language.....	27
Concept formation.....	27
Nonverbal concepts.....	30
Generalizations.....	31
Imaging.....	32
General Semantics.....	33
Definition.....	33
Foundations.....	34
Principles.....	40
Methods.....	42
Applications.....	45
Figurative language.....	53
Summary.....	57
Implications for the Classroom Teacher.....	64
Reading.....	64
Listening.....	66
Writing.....	68
Core for communication.....	69
III. WORKBOOK.....	73
IV. CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY.....	299
Conclusions.....	299
Suggestions for further study.....	299
SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	301

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of purpose.-- The purpose of this thesis is to construct a Workbook of materials designed to develop the ability of high-school students to distinguish between affective language and report language.

1. Justification

Research on semantics.-- In 1905 Albert Einstein published his theory of relativity. This theory rejected "absolutes." Einstein suggested instead that the concepts of time and space were the same and that the concept of space-time was relative to the system, structure, or yardstick that one selected as a standard by which to measure it.

Einstein's work gave impetus to the rise of the school of modern scientists known as "positivists" or "logical empiricists."^{1/} The group, which included Alfred Whitehead, Bertrand Russell, Lancelot Hogben, and William Bridgman, contended that it was fruitless for a scientist to speculate about the "true" nature of anything. A scientist, they believed, can do no more than report his observations. They believed that "fact" and its basis, measurement, are only relative since the two are dependent upon the particular structure--atomic, molecular, terrestrial, universal--under consideration. These men and the modern

^{1/}Stuart Chase, The Tyranny of Words, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1938, pp. 117-140.

scientists view the universe as structure rather than discrete entities.

Using the work of the logical empiricists as a basis, Korzybski in 1933 published his classic Science and Sanity.^{1/} Viewing language as humanly-contrived symbols, he held that man often uses symbols which are not based upon the "world-as-it-is." As a result, man becomes confused, frustrated and trapped in his own verbal cocoons. If this abuse of language is continued, insanity will follow. He advocated that language, or symbols, be based on the world of reality.

Disciples followed. S. I. Hayakawa, Irving J. Lee, and Stuart Chase popularized semantics in the late 1930's and early '40's. Hayakawa's Language in Action,^{2/} published in 1941, translated semantic principles into terms of the layman. Lee's Language Habits in Human Affairs,^{3/} published in 1941, condensed and simplified the ideas Korzybski put forth in Science and Sanity. In his The Tyranny of Words^{4/} (1938) Stuart Chase avowed that a public trained in semantics would not tolerate dictatorship because with this training, people would recognize a demagogue's weaknesses in logic and force him to account for his vague terms and abuses of language.

^{1/}Alfred Korzybski, Science and Sanity, The Science Press Printing Company, Lancaster, Pa., 1933.

^{2/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1941.

^{3/}Irving J. Lee, Language Habits in Human Affairs, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1941.

^{4/}Stuart Chase, op. cit., p. 28.

Korzybski claimed that a knowledge of words and how they work would reduce, if not cure, mental disease. Chase ^{1/} cites the work of Dr. Douglas Campbell and Dr. C. B. Congdon, psychiatrists at the University of Chicago, who were successful in using semantic training in the treatment of mentally-ill patients.

Wendell Johnson, speech pathologist at the University of Iowa, built a theory of stuttering upon the idea that confusion of symbols and language structure brings about mental disturbances which manifest themselves in speech. His book, People in Quandaries, ^{2/} expounds his semantogenic theory. Jon Eisenson's ^{3/} work with aphasics, persons who have lost their speech due to brain injuries, is also based on the premise that concepts are developed from symbols as their raw materials.

In his Client-Centered Therapy, ^{4/} published in 1951, Carl Rogers expounds his theories of client-centered therapy and nondirective counseling. These are predicated upon semantic principles.

Professional opinion.-- In 1952 the Commission on the English Curriculum of the National Council of Teachers of English undertook the

^{1/}Stuart Chase, op. cit., pp. 86-87.

^{2/}Wendell Johnson, People in Quandaries, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946, pp. ix-xii.

^{3/}Jon Eisenson, The Psychology of Speech, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1938, p. 90.

^{4/}Carl Rogers, Client-Centered Therapy, Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1951, pp. 144-145 and pp. 484-486.

study of the place of language arts in life today and the needs and methods of learning for today's youth. In the resulting volume, English Language Arts,^{1/} the Commission devoted a section to reading and semantics, stressing the need for teaching multiple meanings of words, the principle of constant change in meaning with time and place, emotional aspects of language, and the recognition of hidden referents in printed material.^{2/} The Commission also urged that high-school students be taught to perceive the mood and purpose of the communicator.^{3/} The need for observing language, not as a discrete entity based upon fixed rules, but in actual practice, was also stressed.^{4/} These concepts are not new; however, their emphasis and role in the English curriculum are.

^{5/} LaBrant advocates the teaching of semantics. She also stresses the importance of considering context, recognizing charged language, and discovering weaknesses of generalities which frequently run into stereotypes. She says:^{6/} "Language problems affect human adjustment, as any psychologist can tell, and language problems are vital in the field of national and international relations."

^{1/}National Council of Teachers of English, English Language Arts, Commission on the English Curriculum, Dora V. Smith, director, Volume I, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1952.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 397-411.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 412-413.

^{4/}Ibid., pp. 287-288.

^{5/}Lou LaBrant, We Teach English, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1951, pp. 46-47.

^{6/}Ibid., p. 49.

The Report of the Progressive Education Association's Committee on the Function of English in General Education ^{1/} asserts that students should be taught the difference between referential and emotive language, the deceptive nature of verbal fictions and abstractions, and the importance of contexts in determining meaning.

^{2/} Hook advocates that students be made aware of fallacies, such as false generalizations, unwarranted conclusions, and hidden major premises. He also stresses the importance of teaching "straight thinking" and opposing purely emotional reactions in evaluating. ^{3/}

Emotional language includes figures of speech which are ever-present in newspapers, advertising, popular song, and everyday speech. ^{4/} Strang urges that teachers aid students in discovering that figures of speech are a part of their thinking.

Summary.-- That high-school students should learn to avoid emotional reactions to mere words has been stressed. In a "smaller" world youngsters are, from the time of birth, constantly bombarded with verbal "pressures" via mass media. Because of this, avoiding emotional reaction

^{1/}Committee on the Function of English in General Education, Progressive Education Association, Language in General Education, A Report of the Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1940, pp. 104-129.

^{2/}J. N. Hook, The Teaching of High School English, The Ronald Press Company, New York, 1950, pp. 223-224.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 235-243.

^{4/}Ruth Strang, "Diagnosis and Remediation in Interpretation," Promoting Growth Toward Maturity in Interpreting What Is Read, Report of the Conference on Reading, Supplementary Educational Monograph, Volume XIII, Number 64, University of Chicago, Chicago, 1951, p. 203.

to words is imperative. The ability to distinguish the generalities, judgments, and inferences of propaganda from the facts is necessary if the governed are to continue to govern themselves. In addition, the ever-changing social and scientific concepts render simple dictionary definitions inadequate. To realize that the meanings of words such as "democracy," "communism," "imperialism," and other abstractions will not only change with time and place, but will carry emotional connotations with them, may well be to the advantage of tomorrow's citizen.

Lack of materials.-- Research in the area of semantics recognizes the close relation between the thinking of an individual and the language he uses. It recognizes also the need for distinguishing between two fundamental kinds of language. Yet, research indicates that few, if any, materials exist for teaching such understandings on the secondary level. The writer recognizes that the study of semantics is comparatively "recent" and that further research is necessary.

2. Scope and Limitations

The construction of a Workbook of exercises to develop the ability to distinguish between affective language and report language appears to the writer to be one means of providing for the development of insight into language and understanding of one's fellow men. These exercises are designed to provide for individual differences. They range from easy to difficult and the student may proceed at his own pace through the Workbook. He may stop to refine his skill in using a particular principle, applying the principle to subject matter which is

of interest to him.

The Workbook has been constructed to provide exercises to develop the following abilities:

- (1) the ability to distinguish between the symbol and the thing for which it stands,
- (2) the ability to distinguish between the connotation and the denotation of a word,
- (3) the ability to distinguish between a statement of fact, a generalization, a judgment, and an inference,
- (4) the ability to recognize stereotypes,
- (5) the ability to recognize two kinds of figurative language, namely, simile and metaphor.

These skills are but a small part of the whole language problem. The classroom teacher must, of necessity, keep in mind the language problem as a whole and use these exercises when and where they serve students' needs.

Source of materials.-- The materials for the exercises are drawn from newspapers, magazines, periodicals, and a few recent texts dealing with the subject. Some of the materials are of the writer's own creation.

Limitations.-- Among the limitations of the work are the following:

1. In some cases the exercises have not been taught or used in the classroom.
2. The total Workbook of exercises has not been tested.
3. The exercises are "out of context;" that is, they have been collectively prepared and may or may not correspond to immediate classroom needs.
4. The exercises are representative rather than inclusive of all examples of affective and report language.

5. The Workbook makes no attempt to develop criticism or to examine "scientific methods."

3. Definition of Terms

The terms used throughout the work are defined as follows:

General semantics.-- Wendell Johnson's ^{1/} definition of general semantics is used. He says that general semantics is:

"....a science which deals with symbol systems and the uses that are made of them, and the ways in which these systems and their uses affect, and are affected by, the behavior of individuals and the customs and institutions of organized groups."

Reality.-- Reality is to be regarded as a process; that is, objects and events are considered as ever-changing. Since the world is always changing, no two events, situations, objects, or phenomena can ever be exactly the same. ^{2/} For example, the "Russians," 1943, are not the same as "Russians," 1957. Also a "sofa" bought in 1930 is not the same "sofa" twenty-seven years hence. If one stops to consider, the "sun" which shone yesterday is not the same "sun" which is shining today, nor will it be the same "sun" a split second from now. Chemical changes, the interaction of atoms and electrons, render it a different body every fraction of a second.

Fact.-- The term fact refers to that which can be verified by existing scientific methods and/or perceived at the sense level. ^{3/} For

^{1/}Wendell Johnson, People in Quandaries, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1946, p. 498.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 59.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 94-99.

example, that "scraping one's knee on a cement sidewalk tears the superficial tissue" can be proved by a scientist's analysis of the tissue. It can also be perceived by one's own observation and nerve fibers. This would be called, by terms of the writer's definition, fact. On the other hand, that "some teen-agers in the United States are "delinquent," cannot be proved because of the absence of specific referents for the word delinquency and the ever-changing concepts of "delinquency."

Science.-- The term "science" is used to denote any method of systematizing and classifying the abstracting of human experience. ^{1/}

Report language.-- Report language denotes; that is, primarily it refers to or points to physical objects (referents) in the physical world. Consider the following examples: ^{2/}

1. Affective language:

"My soul is a ship in full sail."

2. Report language:

"The Normandie sails at noon on Wednesday."

The existence of the "soul" can neither be proved nor disproved by existing scientific methods. So far, it has not been seen, heard, touched, or otherwise perceived by the five senses. That it is a "ship" ready to sail cannot be proved by existing scientific methods.

On the other hand, Normandie is a name which refers to an object

^{1/}Anatol Rapoport, Science and the Goals of Man, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1950, p. 69.

^{2/}Hugh Walpole, Semantics, W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., New York, 1941, p. 40.

that can be seen, heard, and otherwise perceived by the senses, and scientists can prove its physical existence. In addition, if one stands in the harbor on Wednesday at noon, one may verify the assertion.

Walpole^{1/} says that report language "...refers to objects, actions or situations which can be pointed to or described, and makes statements which can be verified or disproved by the other fellow."

Denote.-- To denote means to "signify explicitly."^{2/} In the example given above, the word Normandie denotes, signifies, or points to a specific sailing ship. Similarly, the denotation of a word is that meaning which signifies a concrete object, action, or situation which exists in the physical world. Hayakawa^{3/} calls this the literal meaning of a word.

Referent.-- The referent of a word is the physical object, action, or situation to which a word refers.^{4/} For example, the referent of the word dog would be the actual dog himself as he exists in the physical world.

Symbol.-- A symbol is "anything that stands for or represents something else."^{5/} For example, the mule is a symbol of (stands for)

^{1/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., p. 40.

^{2/}Editorial Staff, Webster's New World Dictionary (College Edition), The World Publishing Company, New York, 1955, p. 392.

^{3/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, p. 58.

^{4/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., p. 80.

^{5/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 22.

the Democratic Party. Similarly, the word dog stands for or represents the actual living canine which exists in the physical world.

Affective language.-- Affective language is that language which suggests or implies something in addition to its plain sense meaning. Its purpose is to arouse a person's emotions. Walpole^{1/} states that it involves three aspects:

- (1) feeling, which expresses how the communicator feels about the subject he is discussing,
- (2) tone, which is an expression of the communicator's attitude toward the person he is addressing, and
- (3) intention or purpose of the communicator.

Connote.-- To connote means "to suggest or convey...in addition to the explicit, or denoted meaning."^{2/} Similarly, the connotation of a word is the feeling which a word arouses in the communicator, his audience, or both. It is the suggestive significance of a word apart from its literal meaning.^{3/} For example, the word Cadillac literally means or denotes a kind of car, but it also connotes wealth and luxury. The word star literally means or denotes a particular kind of heavenly body, but in addition it connotes brilliance.

Context.-- Context refers primarily to verbal context and means the surroundings or environment in which a word appears. A word means

^{1/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., pp. 51-52.

^{2/}Editorial Staff, op. cit., p. 311.

^{3/}Richard D. Altick, Preface to Critical Reading, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1946, pp. 4-8.

little by itself. It takes on meaning from its environment or context.^{1/}

Generalizing.-- As used by semanticists, generalizing means "abstracting."^{2/} It designates the selection of specific characteristics which recur in many different situations. For example, that "big business is usually against labor unions," is a generalization formed by selecting the similar and recurring reactions of big business in situations involving strikes, the formation of unions, union meetings and other events. "Business" and "unions" are general terms. "Business" includes every kind of profit organization from a large corporation to the small grocery store on the corner. The two are vastly different; however, certain common characteristics (both are organized and operated for profit) enable the human mind to link them under the general term, business.

Stereotype.-- A synonym for stereotype is the word generalization. It applies primarily to overdrawn or unsupported generalizations or abstractions concerning people or groups of people. For example, the colored people have been assumed to have certain characteristics. Through the theater, motion pictures, and fiction, the Negro has been characterized by laziness, slow, drawling speech, a good singing voice, dancing ability, and a happy-go-lucky outlook on life. These assumed characteristics, drawn from individuals in the group, have been imposed on the group as a whole without recourse to scientific investigation.

^{1/}Ivor A. Richards, The Philosophy of Rhetoric, Oxford University Press, New York, 1936, pp. 9-10.

^{2/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 169.

Judgment.-- The communicator's approval or disapproval of a subject is a judgment.^{1/}

Inference.-- An inference means a hypothesis or guess about the unknown made on the basis of the known.

Figurative language.-- That language used to express one thing in terms of another is figurative language. The two things being compared may be fundamentally different. However, they may have one or more qualities in common. There is no literal meaning for this kind of language. A person's interpretation of the meaning depends upon his experience and familiarity with the things being compared.

Simile.-- A simile is "a figure of speech in which one thing is likened to another, dissimilar thing by the use of like or as."^{2/} It is the comparison between two unlike things in terms of one or more characteristics which the objects have in common. For example: "My car goes like the wind" and "My little sister is as beautiful as an angel" compare the speed of a car to the speed of the wind, and the beauty of the little sister with the supposed beauty of an angel.^{3/}

Metaphor.-- Webster's New World Dictionary^{4/} gives the following definition of a metaphor: "...a figure of speech in which one thing is likened to another, different thing by being spoken of as if it were

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 42.

^{2/}Editorial Staff, op. cit., p. 1359.

^{3/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 35.

^{4/}Editorial Staff, op. cit., p. 925.

that other." For example, in the expression, "Alice is a lemon," Alice is identified with lemon. One realizes that the two parts of the comparison are fundamentally different. However, they share one thing in common, which is the quality of sourness.

In addition, Philbrick's ^{1/} definition is used. She says that a metaphor is "...a comparison between two relations or, in symbols, a statement that A bears to X the relation that B bears to Y."

<u>A</u>	:	<u>X</u>	:	:	<u>B</u>	:	<u>Y</u>
Redness	:	Roast beef	:	:	Redness	:	Neck

For instance, in the metaphor, "a roast-beef neck," redness bears a relationship to roast beef similar to the relationship redness bears to neck. Again, the two things being compared are fundamentally different. However, they have a quality in common. In this case it is redness.

Metaphor, like simile, is a comparison. It is, however, often more subtle in that the signals "like" and "as" are not used. Its understanding depends upon the audience's experience with the two things being compared, and upon the audience's knowledge of the workings of metaphorical language. For example, "Her torrent of words flooded the ears of her husband," implies that a reader or listener knows what both a torrent of water and a great many quickly-spoken words are. In addition, he must know that a comparison is being made between these two essentially different things.

^{1/}F. A. Philbrick, op. cit., p. 35.

CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF RESEARCH

Although on the surface language appears to be a separate entity, it is nevertheless a product of man's mind and as such, is involved in almost every human activity.

The review of research will include four general areas: (1) the growth of language, (2) the relationship between language and thought, (3) general semantics as a means of examining language, and (4) the implications for the classroom teacher.

1. Growth of Language

Since language is unique to man, it is one characteristic which differentiates him from other animals. One may wonder when and how in the evolution of species, this differentiating characteristic appeared. One may also wonder how language came to have its present form and structure.

Theories of origin.-- Theories concerning the origin of language have existed for many centuries. Robertson and Cassidy^{1/} report that Plato believed names existed by some divine decree or fiat. Plato thought names belonged to things by nature. These authors assert that

^{1/}Stuart Robertson and Frederic Cassidy, The Development of Modern English (Second Edition), Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York, 1954, p. 5.

the Orthodox Hebrew (and Christian) theory holds that God gave to Adam a language fully developed. Another "Biblical" theory, as reported by ^{1/}Pei, is that of Trombetti who believes the Tower of Babel story to be true in fact and that all languages have a common origin.

The "bow-wow" or echoic theory holds that language was in the beginning purely onomatopoeic and directly imitative of sounds of nature or animals. The "pooh-pooh" or interjectional theorists believe that language evolved from instinctive ejaculatory responses to emotions. Jespersen believed that language had its origin in the emotional songs of primitive man. ^{2/}The "ding-dong" theory, however, has a great deal of mystery about it. This theory holds that language began as a mystically harmonious response on the part of man's hitherto silent vocal apparatus to a stimulus nature intended to evoke this expression. ^{3/}

^{4/}Eisenson gives an account of Paget's oral gesture theory which he believes is an extension of the "pooh-pooh" theory of Wundt and Bloomfield. He says that Paget believed that the earliest human language consisted of gesture signs. However, he asserts that Paget believed because man became engaged in occupations requiring physical exertion, all the muscles of his body assumed characteristic positions

^{1/}Mario Pei, The Story of Language, J. B. Lippincott Co., New York, 1949, pp. 18-19.

^{2/}Stuart Robinson and Frederic Cassidy, op. cit., pp. 6-7.

^{3/}Jon Eisenson, The Psychology of Speech, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1938, p. 163.

^{4/}Ibid., pp. 20-25.

when engaged in physical activity. He reports that Paget believed the tongue and speech muscles also assumed characteristic positions and that each time an act was performed, a particular laryngeal sound was produced. He asserts that Paget assumed that this sound became associated with the act and that man, profiting from a happy accident, began to use oral gesture or tongue pantomime to communicate.

Although it is most unlikely that the origin of language can be proved, these theories are often bridges for the research of speech pathologists, psychologists, and psychiatrists.

Primitive speech and child speech.-- Anthropological studies of the language of primitive peoples and studies of the language of children reveal that the speech of these two groups is similar in many respects.

First, they are both emotive in nature and secondly, as they become organized, they are used for social functions in addition to their emotive one.

According to Eisenson,^{1/} vocalized speech arose as a by-product of emotional expression of primitive man. He says that our primal ancestor found he could attract the attention of his fellow man and his voice itself could convey emotion.

So, too, the child by his crying finds he can attract his mother.
^{2/} Piaget believes the earliest speech of the child is that of a desire

^{1/}Jon Eisenson, op. cit., p. 56.

^{2/}Jean Piaget, Language and Thought of the Child, Routledge and Kegan Paul, Limited, London, 1932, pp. 3-4.

and a command. He believes that the sounds produced with both lips resulting in "mama," uttered in so many tongues, are nothing more than a prolongation of the act of sucking. Even though the sucking act ceases, the name or word in the mind of the child continues to have a magical significance.

Malinowski^{1/} carried out an extensive study of the language of the Trobriand Islanders. He found the language of the people closely bound to their activities. When engaged in tribal activities such as boating and fishing, the language used is limited to that which will promote and direct action. A word is always used in direct active conjunction with the reality to which it refers. So, too, the child uses words in close conjunction with his acts in order to direct.^{2/} His clamouring for "Mama" and pointing with the utterance "Water" are examples of this.

Malinowski^{3/} further emphasizes that both the child and the primitive adult hold the belief that words have a kind of magic. The primitive of the Trobriand Islands believes that the word gives power to exercise influence over an object or an action. Children display their belief in word magic. Schlauch^{4/} reports for example that when a friendly pair walk down a street and pass on opposite sides of a lamp-

^{1/}Bronislaw Malinowski, "The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages," Supplement I in The Meaning of Meaning, C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards (Eighth Edition), Harcourt, Brace and Co., New York, 1947, pp. 309-313.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 322.

^{3/}Loc. cit.

^{4/}Margaret Schlauch, The Gift of Tongues, Viking Press, New York, 1945, pp. 13-14.

post, they will say, "Bread and butter," in order that their physical separation will not result in a permanent mental or spiritual one.

As the child grows older, the emotional content of his speech becomes less apparent. Through social pressure and resultant inhibitions, his emotions or feelings are suppressed and his speech reflects concern with ideas and intellectual activities. So, too, in civilizations in which technological advance is highly regarded, man tends to use language which is concerned with things and ideas, rather than feelings.^{1/}

Communicative devices.-- Many communicative devices used by primitive man still have meaning today.

Gesture, it is thought, preceded oral speech by a million years.^{2/} However, gesture still has significance. Hand-clapping, yawning, thumbs up or down, and winking signify emotion.^{3/}

Signals Webster^{4/} defines as signs "given by gesture, mechanical device, etc. to convey command, warning, or other information: as a red light is a stop signal." Football and baseball signals, signals of orchestra conductors, and a policeman's whistle also inform, command, and warn.^{5/}

^{1/}Jon Eisenson, op. cit., p. 58.

^{2/}Mario Pei, The Story of Language, J. B. Lippincott Company, New York, 1949, p. 13.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 13-17.

^{4/}Editorial Staff, Webster's New World Dictionary (College Edition), World Publishing Company, New York, 1955, p. 1356.

^{5/}Margaret Schlauch, op. cit., pp. 7-8.

Symbols are those things which stand for or represent something else. ^{1/} For example, the dove is a symbol of peace; a cross stands for the abstraction Christianity; and the alphabetic symbols, d o g, stand for the actual living canine. The symbols in the Morse code stand for other symbols, namely alphabetic ones. Chase ^{2/} says that when a sign is interpreted and given a specific meaning, it becomes a symbol. Only human beings are able to delay automatic reactions to signs, give them meaning, verbalize them, and differentiate them from the things for which they stand. As Hayakawa ^{3/} says, "...so far as the chimpanzee would be concerned, the red light could hardly be said to stand for stop; it is stop."

Figures of speech.-- Figures of speech are more than literary frills. As Philbrick says: ^{4/}

"It is quite wrong to suppose that metaphor and simile are mere ornaments or flowers of speech, for much of our thinking may be described as the comparing of one thing or one relation with another, so that the mechanism of the simile is the mechanism of thought itself."

^{5/} Richards supports this view of language and avows that language

^{1/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 22.

^{2/}Stuart Chase, The Tyranny of Words, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1938, pp. 97-98.

^{3/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, p. 24.

^{4/}F. A. Philbrick, op. cit., p. 36.

^{5/}Ivor A. Richards, The Philosophy of Rhetoric, Oxford University Press, New York, 1936, pp. 90-91.

is metaphor. He adds: "Thought is metaphoric, and proceeds by comparison, and the metaphors of language derive therefrom."^{1/}

A cursory examination will reveal that words themselves are often metaphors. If one traces many of our words back to their beginnings, one finds metaphor, or comparison, giving the words their early meanings. For example, in Old English, the word world was "wer-eld" which meant literally the "age of man." A lord was a "hlāf-weard" or "bread-keeper." The daisy got its name from a comparison to the "eye of day."^{2/} The word governor is an example of compressed metaphor since the word originally meant "pilot."^{3/} Pen originally meant "feather" and to write was once literally "to scratch" or "to cut." Book came from the word "beech," the name of a tree on which runes were often carved.^{4/}

Even in the early stages of English literature imagery and figures of speech are noted. In Beowulf, which was composed about 700 A. D., a king is called "a giver of rings," the sea, "playground of the whales," and a woman, the "ornament of the home" or the "peace-weaver."^{5/}

Today figures of speech are so abundant and common in everyday speech, that one uses them unconsciously. When one talks about the

^{1/}Ivor A. Richards, op. cit., p. 94.

^{2/}Stuart Robinson and Frederic Cassidy, op. cit., p. 193.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 243.

^{4/}Richard D. Altick, Preface to Critical Reading, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1946, p. 218.

^{5/}Mario Pei, The Story of English, J. B. Lippincott Company, New York, 1952, p. 27.

"head" of a cane, the "face" of a cliff, the "bowels" of a volcano, or the "arm" of the law, one is using metaphor. One says without thinking that stock is "watered," prices are "slashed," or that the markets are "flooded."^{1/}

Development of the alphabet.-- It is thought that written language is very recent compared to spoken language. The evolution of the alphabet was of great social significance because it made the record of human knowledge and achievement accessible to mankind.^{2/}

Bodmer and Hogben^{3/} distinguish two different kinds of writing: picture writing, including pictograms and logograms, which have no direct connection with sounds; and sound or phonetic writing, which includes syllable writing and alphabet writing.

Picture writing is the earliest form of written language known. In the ruins of the Egyptian, Toltec, and Aztec civilizations, some of the earliest civilizations known, archeologists have found drawings which tell a story. These pictures were limited to the recording of straight narratives or directions and often told of important exploits or events. For example, the picture story of a princess named Six Monkey who lived in the Toltec region, tells a simple story of her courting.^{4/}


^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 123.



^{2/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, The Loom of Language, ed. by Farrar and Rhinehart, Inc., and dist. by W. W. Norton and Company, New York, 1944, p. 35.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 34.

^{4/}Margaret Schlauch, op. cit., pp. 35-36.

Pictograms, as noted above, are more or less simplified pictures of objects which can be represented. A logogram may be a pictorial symbol substituted for something which cannot be represented by a picture. For example, it may be a sign used to indicate a quality. Such symbols as &, £, and \$ are pure logograms.^{1/} The following is an account of how it was possible for these to evolve.

Logograms are exemplified by Egyptian hieroglyphs. At first these "sacred characters" represented the things which they symbolized. For example,  signified water. Later, it represented any action connected with water.^{2/}

Egyptian, as a spoken language, was very rich in homonyms, or words identical in sound with other words. Therefore, it was possible for one symbol to serve not only for the pictured word but for its homonym too. In addition, a symbol in Egyptian served as a true letter and later represented the same sound whenever it appeared. Ra, represented by , originally meant mouth only. However, in time,  came to be used for the sound of [r] in any context.^{3/}

Now it can be seen that symbols have lost their explicit pictorial meaning. At this stage, it is no longer possible to guess the meaning unless one possesses some key to the language.^{4/}

^{1/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, op. cit., p. 43.

^{2/}Margaret Schlauch, op. cit., p. 37.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 37-38.

^{4/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, op. cit., p. 44.

It should be noted that picture writing, logographic scripts, and syllable scripts were the prerogative of the priestly caste and were usually limited to use by these scholars.^{1/} As man progressed from a primitive hunting and food-gathering stage to settled and established agrarian civilizations, he found it necessary to keep accurate records of the seasons. This evolution can be noted in the Egyptian civilization at the dawn of which calendars based on centuries of precise observation^{2/} appeared.

The ancient calendar priesthoods had a vested interest in keeping their knowledge from the common man. Bodmer and Hogben^{3/} believe this to be one of the reasons why there was a gradual change from pictures to logograms which had lost the power to suggest meaning.

Phonetic writing includes syllable writing and alphabetic symbols, and the symbols used are associated with the sounds produced by the speaker.^{4/}

Syllable writing is characterized by the fact that each symbol stands for a sound which has no meaning by itself; for example, the early adapted script of the Japanese. The Japanese adapted Chinese symbols to their own use about 750 A. D. The Chinese language has an invariable structure. Japanese, on the other hand, was an agglutinating language, one which consisted of root words which could attach themselves

^{1/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, op. cit., p. 35.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 44.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 45.

^{4/}Ibid., p. 47.

to affixed syllables. The significance of the affixes was easily recognized, however, and the affixes were relatively few and regular.^{1/}

In the ancient Mediterranean world syllable scripts were used by the Semitic peoples, the Cypriots and the Persians. They reportedly got them from the people of Mesopotamia and Egypt.

Alphabetic symbols can be traced back to about 1500 B. C. on the Sinai Peninsula. Archeologists have traced the evolution of approximately twenty Egyptian pictograms to the symbols of the early Semitic alphabet which was made up of consonants only.^{2/}

It has been noted that words were divided into syllables. Now the character of Semitic words made it possible to divide words into consonants. Semitic root words were almost always made up of consonants separated by two intervening vowels. The proper names Jacob, David, Rachel and Moloch suggest this. The three consonants in a given order were characteristic of a particular root. Consonants could carry the meaning and there was no necessity for vowel symbols.^{3/}

The Aryan-speaking people of Island Greece came to colonize and trade with the consonant-writing Phoenicians. The Greeks, however, met with difficulty. They used a language which was rich in consonants, and the numbers of words possible with the Semitic script were vast. In addition, the Semitic script was practicable for simple inscriptions or the Holy Writ which was read automatically and without particular

^{1/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, *op. cit.*, pp. 47-54.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 56-57.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 58.

attention to meaning; but it hardly served to convey the grammatical niceties demanded by the rich, worldly literature which emanated from Greece. The Greeks thus adapted the Phoenician alphabet to their own use and added seven vowel symbols.^{1/}

The Italian peoples got their alphabet from the Greeks. It was more rectilinear; that is, its characters were formed by straight lines. It was better adapted to movable type and eventually it superseded the more cursive scripts such as the German Black Letters.^{2/}

In northern Europe about the third century A. D., the early Germanic tribes used an alphabet called runes. The word rune meant "whispering, mystery, or secrecy" and it had connotations of magic. Few people knew the meanings of these runes and they were regarded with superstition. They were often found on trees and were reportedly carved with a blunt instrument.^{3/}

The influence of the Roman rectilinear symbols was felt after Caesar's invasion in 50 B. C. The Anglo-Saxons, however, retained some of their letters and re-introduced others. Among those kept were the thorn [γ] for the "th" sound and the symbol for the "w" sound, [\wp].^{4/}

Technological advance encouraged the use of written symbols. The Chinese are credited with having invented paper about the first century A. D. They are also said to have discovered the art of printing on

^{1/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, op. cit., pp. 58-59.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 60-61.

^{3/}Margaret Schlauch, op. cit., pp. 41-45.

^{4/}Mario Pei, op. cit., p. 271.

paper in the ninth century. Movable type was used by the Chinese in the eleventh century.^{1/}

Trade and contact with the peoples of the East stimulated writing. The art was now out of the hands of the priests, for the merchants took over and made more efficient the cumbersome script. Through the traders paper came to the West. Gutenberg's "re-invention" of the art of printing with movable type in the fifteenth century led the way to standardization of the characters and of the spelling, and a democratization of the written language.^{2/}

2. Psychology and Language

Language is composed of symbols. It is now recognized that the language a person uses is closely related to his thinking. Language, no longer regarded as a separate entity, is believed to be an overt manifestation of mental activity. Indeed, as Camp^{3/} says: "Most thinking and overt behavior actually are controlled by symbols."

If, as Sapir^{4/} says, words are symbols of concepts, then one may wonder how a child acquires these concepts.

Concept formation.-- Out of the baby's generalized movements, of which crying is one, come differentiated lip movements. These are often

^{1/}Mario Pei, op. cit., p. 273.

^{2/}Loc. cit.

^{3/}N. Harry Camp, Jr., "How Language Affects Behavior," Education (April, 1950), 70:475.

^{4/}Edward Sapir, Language, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1921, p. 12.

combined with vowels. When in his gurgling and babbling, the bilabial "ma-ma" is accidentally produced, the mother appears and gives the child warmth, love and other satisfactions.

LaBrant^{1/} reports that in the babbling stage many speech sounds are produced, among them French nasals, German gutturals, and the lateral sounds of Russian. However, she says that in an English-speaking environment, these do not bring satisfaction, and so are dropped. Because the bilabial "ma-ma" brings results, it is repeated. Since the same results occur each time, the sound takes on significance or meaning. "Mama" includes not only a person but all the things she is supposed to do. This is the first concept most children learn.

Eisenson^{2/} points out the egocentric nature, or "to-me-ness" of the child's concepts. He says: "Concepts center around what he [the child] does to objects and what the objects do to him." This is evidenced by his definitions of things. For example, a doll is "to play with," a chair "to sit on," and a stove is often translated as "burn."^{3/}

Through experience the child learns names for things and his experience with things conditions the "meaning" he attaches to them.

Dewey^{4/} says that it is "...by making sounds and noting results which

^{1/}Lou LaBrant, We Teach English, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1951, pp. 66-68.

^{2/}Jon Eisenson, The Psychology of Speech, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., New York, 1938, p. 93.

^{3/}Loc. cit.

^{4/}John Dewey, How We Think, D. C. Heath and Company, Boston, 1910, pp. 124-125.

follow, by listening to the sounds of others and watching the activities which accompany them, that a given sound finally becomes the stable bearer of meaning."

Environment influences the meaning attached to words. When the child says, "Tommy go," he usually has some definite method of going and place for going in mind. This is accepted because he has had few experiences. Most of the sentence emanates from his environment and his "go" is interpreted by his parents in terms of what his experience has been. ^{1/} According to LaBrant ^{2/} this problem is never completely outgrown. A person interprets words in terms of his own experience and he becomes hindered by his one-meaning fallacies or limited meanings for words. ^{3/}

At about two years of age the child learns, through the forces of circumstances, that objects in his environment are related to others beside himself. Not until then does he form more objective concepts. He learns that there are things he may not handle but only observe and that things may have one relationship to him but another to other people. ^{4/}

The use of language for affective purposes is noted at the age of three. The child's "whys" and questions of place and name are to affect a change in those around him. From the ages of three to seven he

^{1/}Lou LaBrant, op. cit., pp. 68-69.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 69.

^{3/}Loc. cit.

^{4/}Jon Eisenson, op. cit., p. 94.

also wishes to motivate other people with his questions concerning
cause and time.^{1/}

The work of Reichard, Schneider and Rapaport^{2/} confirms the studies of Piaget. They say that concepts form in roughly three ways: (1) by concretistic methods, or on the basis of physical objects themselves, (2) on the basis of function or use, and (3) by abstraction. Concrete conceptions, such as the origin of objects or where they may be found, appear in young children about the ages of four or five. Concept formation on the basis of function appears in youngsters at about the ages of eight or nine when classifications are made on the basis of what use objects are to them. Concepts made on the basis of abstraction, such as color, form, and material, do not appear until after the age of nine. They reach relative maturity at about eleven years of age.

Nonverbal concepts.-- It might be said here that although the process of conceptualization is closely related to development in the ability to use language, language development and conceptualization are not identical. As Brownell and Hendrickson^{3/} say:

"Long before the young child possesses language, as we know it, he gives plenty of evidence that he can and does react to 'objects not present to sense' by means of nonverbal representations, probably in the form of imagery."

^{1/}Jean Piaget, Language and Thought of the Child, Routledge and Kegan Paul Limited, London, 1932, pp. 164-171.

^{2/}S. Reichard, M. Schneider, and D. Rapaport, "The Development of Concept Formation in Children," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry (January, 1944), 14:156-161.

^{3/}W. A. Brownell and Gordon Hendrickson, "How Children Learn Information, Concepts and Generalizations," Learning and Instruction, Part I, Forty-ninth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1950, p. 124.

They add further that children arrive at understandings which they cannot verbalize.^{1/} This is supported by Smoke,^{2/} whose pain-taking study revealed that adults also have concepts which they are unable to verbalize.

Generalizations.-- A generalization is said to state an abstract relationship among two or more concepts.^{3/}

According to Eisenson,^{4/} generalizing concepts are based upon similarities. When a new situation is essentially the same as a previous one, the child will react to the new as he has to the old. For example, if he has had previous experience with a ball but not with fruit, he will call the orange or apple a ball until he eats the fruit or has other experience with it.

The child now has the task of isolating features essential to one class of objects from features present in this class but also present in another class. Concomitant features which vary from one class to another must be disregarded. Only the essential, nonvarying features may be considered. The essential features will appear more frequently than the nonessential features. These stable features will finally determine the child's learning of the concept.^{5/}

1/W. A. Brownell and Gordon Hendrickson, op. cit., p. 125.

2/Kenneth L. Smoke, "An Objective Study of Concept Formation," Psychological Monographs, Number 4, Published by the American Psychological Review Company, Princeton, N. J. and Albany, N. Y., 1932, p. 35.

3/W. A. Brownell and Gordon Hendrickson, op. cit., pp. 117-118.

4/Jon Eisenson, op. cit., p. 95.

5/Ibid., p. 96.

Imaging.-- According to Wilson,^{1/} one of the characteristics which distinguishes man from other animals is man's ability to break the sense barrier of time. Distance or nearness in space-time makes no difference mentally to man. All points of space-time are merely differentiations of a single space which he is capable of holding within his mind or his ever-present mental world.

Wilson^{2/} holds that man with a conscious mind was able to "intellect" or to take mental possession of the world around him. Because of man's ability to break the sense barrier of space-time, he was able to transfer objects from the outward space-time world of nature to the inner space-time world of his mind. These objects manipulated in the mind are symbols for objects in the outward world of nature. This, in essence, is the background of the imaging process.

A symbol, then, is roughly anything that stands for, or represents something else. In the same sense, words are symbols since they stand for something else.^{3/}

Richards^{4/} declares that our difficulty in taking account of the imaging process lies in the fact that thought itself is metaphoric. He says: "Our thought is being guided by its causal context" and "...mean-

^{1/}James Wilson, The Miraculous Birth of Language, The Philosophical Library, New York, 1948, pp. 184-187.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 202-206.

^{3/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 22.

^{4/}Ivor A. Richards, Interpretation in Teaching, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1938, pp. 48-49.

ing only arises through the causal contexts by which a sign stands for (takes the place of) an instance of a sort."

It has already been noted ^{1/} that a person's experience conditions the meaning he attaches to a word. In a like manner, his experience also conditions the mental image he will conjure when the word is mentioned. Hellersberg ^{2/} states it in this way: "One can only produce images with which one is familiar."

To complicate matters, no two persons' nervous systems or experiences are ever identical. As Eisenson ^{3/} states:

"Because no two individuals are alike, because the extremely delicate and complex systems of connections are peculiarly different for each speaker and hearer, there is never any certainty that two people will react identically to the same situation. In fact, the situation is never the same for any two individuals or for any individual at two different times."

3. General Semantics

Definition.-- General semantics is a method of evaluating language with respect to its accuracy in representing the external world. According to semanticists, language is a set of symbols. As such, language is no more than a map representing the physical universe. In order to be valid, the map must be an accurate guide to the territory

^{1/}See pp. 28-29 of this work.

^{2/}Elizabeth F. Hellersberg, The Individual's Relation to Reality in Our Culture, Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, Springfield, Illinois, 1950, pp. 10-11.

^{3/}Jon Eisenson, op. cit., p. 74.

for which it stands.^{1/}

Foundations.-- General semantics has as its foundation the inquiry of Albert Einstein who, on questioning the Michelson-Morley experiment, found that nature offered no absolute standards of comparison. From this Einstein formulated his Special Theory of Relativity which states that time and space are the same concept and that this space-time concept has no existence apart from man's own mental perception of it. For example, space is an ordering or a relating of things (objects) to one another. Without things occupying it, it is nothing. Similarly, time in itself is not measurable. It is only by man's making of a measuring instrument, such as a clock, and the comparing of the order of events of the sun with the order of events furnished by the clock, that time is conceived. All clocks ever conceived by man have been geared to the solar system. What is called an hour is actually a space measurement; it is an arc of fifteen degrees in the daily rotation of the earth. The theory might be summarized by saying that nothing exists by itself but only in relation to other bodies.^{2/}

^{3/} Chase reports that with the questioning in astronomy and physics, P. W. Bridgman, the logician-mathematician, questioned the concept of length. He found that the concept of length was fixed only when the

^{1/}Irving J. Lee, Language Habits in Human Affairs, Harper and Brothers, Publishers, New York, 1941, pp. 17-18.

^{2/}Lincoln Barnett, The Universe and Dr. Einstein, The New American Library of World Literature, Inc., New York, 1950, pp. 49-53.

^{3/}Stuart Chase, The Tyranny of Words, Harcourt, Brace and Company, New York, 1938, pp. 128-130.

operations by which length is measured are also fixed. He further stated that when concepts are not subject to operations, they become meaningless.

Following Bridgman, Chase ^{1/} states that Lancelot Hogben challenged Euclidean geometry on the basis of "flatness," which is so perfect and hence, so unreal. He asserted that "flatness" was only useful in limited contexts.

Hayakawa ^{2/} says that Alfred Whitehead and Bertrand Russell, although concerned with the foundations of mathematics, presented certain inescapable logical contradictions. Language, they found, concealed "illegitimate totalities." They pondered the question of whether or not a statement about all statements could apply to itself. For example, consider the following: (All statements in these parentheses are false.) If the reader assumes this to be true, he must inevitably conclude that it is false; if he assumes it to be false, then he must conclude that it is true. The "all" in this statement must be limited so that a statement about a totality must itself fall outside the totality. This was Russell's theory of types. However, as Richards ^{3/} remarked about such a statement as the one mentioned above: "Then it [the statement] becomes a member of the class of all classes that are

^{1/}Stuart Chase, op. cit., pp. 142-145.

^{2/}S. I. Hayakawa (Editor), Language, Meaning and Maturity, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954, pp. 20-21.

^{3/}Ivor A. Richards, Interpretation in Teaching, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1938, p. 357.

not members of themselves; that is to say, alack, an indubitable member of itself."

Hayakawa ^{1/} reports that later in Vienna Rudolph Carnap tried to demonstrate that the only philosophic method was the analysis of the forms and rules of language.

Not the least among the pioneers was Richards ^{2/} who questioned the validity of the word is. He isolated eight senses of is, least valid of which he found was the "is" of identity, since language never can be the thing talked about. He also attacked the "truth" of a definition, asserting that the truthfulness of a definition is dependent upon the meaning of the parts which are separated by the word is or some other equivalent of the verb "to be."

In the volume The Meaning of Meaning by C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards is a supplement by Bronislaw Malinowski, ^{3/} an anthropologist, who found that a language does more than simply express thoughts; it actually determines the character of the reality a person thinks he sees.

General semantics is based upon four principles: (1) the propositional function, (2) the operational definition, (3) predictive value

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 21.

^{2/}Ivor A. Richards, Interpretation in Teaching, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1938, pp. 299-321.

^{3/}Bronislaw Malinowski, "The Problem of Meaning in Primitive Languages," Supplement I in The Meaning of Meaning, C. K. Ogden and I. A. Richards, (Eighth Edition), Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1947.

as the criterion of truth, and (4) the theory of types.

The propositional function rests upon the idea that the "truth" of a statement depends upon the meaning of the terms involved.^{1/}

The classical logic of Aristotle assumed that all judgments could be broken up into simple propositions or statements in which something (a predicate) is asserted about something else (a subject). This is known as Aristotle's Law of Identity.^{2/} For example, if one says, "Man is mortal," then one asserts that man and the quality of mortality are the same or identical. On the basis of empirical evidence, one cannot equate the subject and its predication. Here, again, the weakness inherent in the verb "is," is noted.

Aristotle's Law of Contradiction^{3/} assumes that a statement or proposition is either true or false. That is, A cannot be both B and not B. If one assumes the proposition, "Man is good," to be true, then one must conclude that "Mr. X" who has murdered, stolen, and plundered is also good. If, on the other hand, one assumes the proposition to be false, then one gives the philanthropist little encouragement.

The Law of the Excluded Middle^{4/} puts one in another predicament. This, in essence, states that A must be either B or not B. Let the reader assume that the proposition "Man is mortal," is true. One wonders

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 9.

^{2/}Francis Chisholm, Introductory Lectures on General Semantics, Institute of General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut, 1945, p. 58.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 59.

^{4/}Ibid., p. 60.

if this includes woman. Philosophically, one would be tempted to include her. However, physically, she is different. This leads one to such conundrums as: "Woman is not man" or "Woman is man."

The conundrums posed by Aristotelian logic have their roots in linguistic questions. The veracity of a statement can hardly be proved by recourse to grammar. To arrive at the "truthfulness" of a statement, one must look to the empirical evidence instead of the terms involved.^{1/}

The idea of the propositional function is derived from mathematics. If one says, "X is green," one cannot tell whether the statement is true or false. If "X" is grass, then the statement is true. If "X" is milk, then the statement is false. One cannot make an assertion or predication until one examines the values of the terms involved. This idea has showed that practically all assertions and judgments are made in terms of propositions which, when examined, are found to be functions of the language involved.^{2/}

The operational definition rests upon the idea that mere words may not ever adequately define other words. Anything may be formally defined whether it exists or not. An operational definition tells what to do in order to experience the thing defined. For example, if one wished to define the "Edison effect," one would tell one's audience how to proceed to produce it and what to observe. Only in this way would

^{1/}Francis Chisholm, op. cit., pp. 60-62.

^{2/}S. I. Hayakawa (Editor), Language, Meaning and Maturity, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954, pp. 8-9.

one experience a meaningful definition of the term.^{1/}

Predictive value as the criterion of truth necessitates experience with the object or phenomena about which a prediction is to be made. Hayakawa^{2/} states that Carnap and others distinguish two kinds of truth. One is the formal (verbal) kind, based on logical consistency with certain propositions assumed to be true. The propositions of Euclidean geometry are examples of this kind of proof. The propositions, however, are only valid with respect to the postulates and axioms chosen for them.

The other kind of proof assumes no proposition to be true; rather it is based upon experience with an object or phenomena. For example, no amount of formal (verbal) proof can establish that grass is green. The final criterion is looking and experiencing greenness. If, after several experiences with grass, one experiences this "greenness," then the statement, "The grass in my back yard in July is green," approaches some degree of "truth." In this way the criterion involves a prediction from experience.

The theory of types rests on the principle that a class cannot be a member of itself. This principle has already been illustrated with the example "(All statements in these parentheses are false)."^{3/}

General semanticists acknowledge their indebtedness to Alfred Korzybski who, in 1921, published his time-binding theory.^{4/} Korzybski

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., pp. 9-10.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 10-11.

^{3/}See p. 35 of this work.

^{4/}Alfred Korzybski, Manhood of Humanity, E. P. Dutton and Company, New York, 1921.

asserts that man, unlike other animals, can manipulate what happens in time. Man, he stated, is able to learn from the past, apply it to the present, and prepare for the future.^{1/}

Using this as a basis, Korzybski became interested in prediction. Korzybski was trained as a mathematician and engineer. However, when he handled prisoners of war, he became interested in the problems of human adjustment. He noted that when engineers planned structures, the result was a structure that was reliable. However, when men in government, economics or law planned or predicted, the results did not always coincide with predictions. Korzybski then posed the question: "If both the physical structures and the social institutions are products of human nervous systems, what does an engineer do when he builds a bridge that the social scientists do not as invariably do when they go to work?"^{2/} On this basis, Korzybski formulated his principles of general semantics:

Principles.-- General semantics is based upon empiricism. As has been noted, empiricists assert that the only knowledge of the world man possesses is a knowledge of its structure.

^{3/} Korzybski asserts that language is of man's own construction and that the only possible link between the objective world and the

^{1/}Alfred Korzybski, op. cit., p. 186.

^{2/}Irving J. Lee, Language Habits in Human Affairs, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1941, pp. 7-8.

^{3/}Alfred Korzybski, Science and Sanity, The Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Distributed by the Institute of General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut (Third Edition), 1948, pp. 61-63.

linguistic world is found in the structure of language. Language is valid only in so far as it corresponds to the structure of the objective world.

Korzybski's "non-Aristotelian system" is built upon three principles. These are: (1) the principle of non-identity, (2) the principle of non-allness, and (3) the principle of self-reflexiveness.^{1/}

The principle of non-identity^{2/} states that a word is not the thing which it represents. A word is merely a symbol for an object, person, event or phenomenon. That a word is not that which it represents, appears to be an elementary understanding. However, it is not difficult to think of one's reactions to words concerning death, sex, race, and religion. The word communist, for example, may bring a person to fear, anger, vengeance or investigation.^{3/}

The principle of non-allness^{4/} asserts that one can never say everything about a subject. Since each person has a different background of experience, a word stands for a variety of things. This is particularly true of abstract words, such as "democracy," "communism," "republicanism," "love," "hate," "fear," which have no concrete referents. "Democracy," for example, stands for as many different things as

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., pp. 11-12.

^{2/}Alfred Korzybski, Science and Sanity, The Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Distributed by the Institute of General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut (Third Edition), 1948, p. 61.

^{3/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 86-92.

^{4/}S. I. Hayakawa (Editor), Language, Meaning and Maturity, Harper and Brothers, New York, 1954, p. 12.

there are people in the world who have had an experience or experiences with the word.^{1/}

The reader may wonder if the choice of a sufficiently small and sufficiently concrete subject would obviate this difficulty. Take, for example, a pencil. If one were to tell "all" about this object, one could easily be led into discussions of manufacture, lumber, graphite, rubber, labor problems, and all the ramifications thereof. It should be remembered that the world is always changing and that no statement about objects or events can ever be final.^{2/}

The principle of self-reflexiveness^{3/} avows that an ideal map of a territory would have to include a map of itself, which would have to include a map of itself, which would have to include a map of itself, and so on. Applied to language, this means it is possible to have a language₁ about a language₂ about language₁, etc. This principle of multi-ordinality is an outgrowth of Russell's theory of types.

Methods.-- In order to enable an individual to evaluate his own evaluative processes, Korzybski recommends six extensional devices:

Indexing helps an individual to realize that the principle of non-identity is constantly at work. It helps him to realize that each

^{1/}Charles I. Glicksberg, "Semantics in the Classroom," English Journal (October, 1944), 33:409-410.

^{2/}Wendell Johnson, People in Quandaries, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1946, p. 59.

^{3/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., pp. 13-14.

event, person, object, and phenomenon is different. Korzybski^{1/} recommends that if an individual dislikes a person named Smith, instead of extending dislike to all persons with this name or to the rest of the world, that he allocate or limit the term "dislike" to the individual Smith. Similarly, if an individual has had an unfortunate experience with a dog, he should keep in mind that the dog was only one dog and that dog₁ is not dog₂, which in turn is not dog₃, etc. In this way his fear is kept from being a generalized reaction to include all dogs.

Dating^{2/} is another working device. This technique reminds an individual that the world is constantly changing. Continuing with the example of Smith, Korzybski^{3/} warns that if the cause of the dislike for Smith is that he hurt one in 1920, that most of the time, a hurt in 1920 would not be a "hurt" in 1956.

The use of "etc."^{4/} is derived from the principle of non-allness. Korzybski recommends that all statements should be accompanied by an implicit "et cetera" as a reminder that one can never say "all" about a subject and that no statement about the physical world is ever conclusive.

Caution in the use of the "is" of identity is suggested.

^{1/}Alfred Korzybski, Selections from Science and Sanity, The International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Institute of General Semantics, Dist., Lakeville, Connecticut, 1948, p. 16.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 17.

^{3/}Loc. cit.

^{4/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 29.

Since a word cannot be the thing for which it stands, this device helps to guard against the confusion of the word with the thing, and verbal descriptions with the actual events. For example, in the sentence, "Man is an animal," if the word is is translated by the word exists, a ridiculous situation results. One word cannot exist as another word. This identity leads to a false-to-fact relationship.^{1/}

The use of hyphens helps the individual to remember that things in this world do not exist by themselves. Many things are verbally separated which actually do not exist in and by themselves. Einstein's revelation that time and space could not be viewed separately has led astronomers and physicists to think in terms of space-time. Similarly, people in other fields have come to consider relationships outside their narrow, isolated spheres. Psycho-somatic medicine, bio-physics, bio-psychology, and geo-politics make one more aware of the inter-relatedness of events.^{2/}

As Korzybski^{3/} comments:

"If there is no such thing as an absolutely isolated object, then, at least, we have two objects, and we shall always discover some relation between them, depending on our interest, ingenuity and what not. Obviously, for a man to speak about anything at all, always presupposes two objects at least; namely the object spoken about and the speaker, so a relation between the two is always present."

^{1/}Irving J. Lee, Language Habits in Human Affairs, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1941, p. 229.

^{2/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 29.

^{3/}Alfred Korzybski, Science and Sanity, The Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Dist. by the Institute of General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut, 1948, p. 61.

The use of quotation marks around words reminds one that words have an infinite variety of meanings depending upon the listener or speaker and upon the context in which they reside.

Especially ambiguous and sometimes dangerous are words which lack specific referents. "Objective," "subjective," "race," "intellect," "religion," and the "isms" are examples.^{1/}

The device has its origin in the structural and metaphysical implications of language. According to Korzybski,^{2/} because primitive man dealt with objects, he had to have names for objects ("substantives"). However, later man built "substantives," grammatically speaking, for feelings and emotions which were not essentially "substantives." "Color," "heat," and "anger" are examples. These words have their roots, not in physical reality, but in sensory perception. Because each individual has a different nervous system, sensory receptors and hence, feelings, these words have different meanings for each person. "Knowledge" is dependent upon sense perception.

Quotation marks around such emotive or vague terms help one to remember that they are not to be trusted.^{3/}

Applications.-- A few applications may illustrate Korzybski's principles at work in language:

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 29.

^{2/}Alfred Korzybski, Selections from Science and Sanity, The International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Institute of General Semantics, Distributors, Lakeville, Connecticut, 1948, pp. 167-169.

^{3/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 29.

Consciousness of abstracting in language is recommended.

1/ Hayakawa explains Korzybski's structural differential or abstracting process as follows:

A dog will serve here as an example. The lowest level of "knowledge" of the dog is that of the scientist. The dog is here under microscopic inspection and consists ultimately of atoms, electrons and the like, according to present-day scientific inference. Knowledge of the characteristics of the dog at this level is in process and is constantly changing with advance in scientific research.

The second level is that on which the dog is felt, heard, seen, or otherwise perceived because one's nervous system selects or abstracts him from the microscopic totality. Many of the characteristics of the process level or ever-changing dog level have been omitted.

Next, a name is given to that which is perceived. "Fido" is not the dog; the name merely stands for the object which is perceived. It also omits many of the characteristics (four legs, pointed ears, shaggy fur, etc.), which the observer was aware of on the second level.

On the fourth level the word dog stands for the characteristics "Fido" shares in common with dog_1 , dog_2 , dog_3 , etc. The characteristics peculiar to the particular dog are omitted.

1/S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 167-169.

When "Fido" is referred to as an animal, mention is made of only those characteristics which he shares in common with other animals.

Next, "Fido" may be included in the "household assets." Now, only what he has in common with other valuable household items is mentioned.

The seventh level may refer to "Fido" as merely an "asset." If "Fido" has a pedigree, he may indeed be an asset. However, still more of his characteristics are omitted.

If "Fido" brings a stud fee, he may be referred to as "wealth." "Wealth" omits almost any reference to him as an individual.

Abstracting is necessary. Since the world is made up of an infinite number of "things," abstraction is an indispensable convenience. General terms enable the communicator to cover a broad scope or territory since he is relieved of the necessity of naming individual parts of instances in order to proceed with a discussion.^{1/}

Unconsciousness of abstracting, on the other hand, may lead to fallacious thinking and self-destruction. Wendell Johnson^{2/} calls this omission of specific instances and details the IFD disease, explaining that idealization leads to frustration which, in turn, leads to demoralization. Consider, for example, the difference between, "I am a fail-

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 168 and 170.

^{2/}Wendell Johnson, People in Quandaries, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1946, pp. 14-15.

ure" and "I have failed to be able to make a dress three times."^{1/} Two different levels of abstraction are being used. The examples refer to two entirely different states of affairs.

Words in context only should be considered. "There is no such thing as an object in isolation"^{2/} and similarly, "A symbol can have no meaning apart from its context."^{3/} Consider, for example, the word run. This word may have several different meanings. Even in "sentences," words sometimes do not reveal full or complete meaning. In the sentence, "What a run!", the reader is not able to tell whether the word run refers to a track event, a baseball score, a stretch of land, or a defect in nylon hose.^{4/}

Richards^{5/} comments that words in themselves are merely abstractions and that they can only mean when they have other words surrounding them. To say it another way, words get their meanings because they are in context with other words. To make matters worse, in writing words are separated, giving them undue independence; hence, people often make the mistake of thinking words have meaning when they appear alone.^{6/}

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., p. 298.

^{2/}Alfred Korzybski, op. cit., p. 36.

^{3/}Hugh Walpole, Semantics, W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., New York, 1941, p. 105.

^{4/}E. J. Neumayer, "Teaching Certain Understandings About Language," English Journal (November, 1950), 39:510.

^{5/}Ivor A. Richards, The Philosophy of Rhetoric, Oxford University Press, New York, 1936, pp. 9-10.

^{6/}Ibid., pp. 47-48.

Bogus entities^{1/} refer to those words which have nonexistent referents. Words referring to processes are one kind of "bogus entity." "Electric current," for example, is not a "thing" and hence, in reality, not a name-word. Scientifically, "electric current" refers to the movement of electrons through substances conducive to their flow.^{2/}

The relation between some words and the physical objects which they represent, leads to the erroneous belief that if the word exists, the thing must exist also. Words such as, "beauty," "justice," "democracy," and "discipline," are examples. The fact that man has invented these words is not empirical evidence that their referents exist.^{3/}

If a word has many meanings, the popular assumption is that the meanings have some common element and that this common element has a real existence apart from the word. This, of course, is a fallacious assumption since words themselves are man-conceived and products of man's mind.^{4/}

However, the fact that abstractions do not exist in the empirical world does not mean that they are to be discredited. As has been pointed out:^{5/} "The advance of human knowledge would be stopped, and progress

^{1/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 75.

^{2/}Loc. cit.

^{3/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., pp. 159-161.

^{4/}F. A. Philbrick, op. cit., p. 75.

^{5/}Committee on the Function of English in General Education, Progressive Education Association, Language in General Education, A Report of the Commission on Secondary-School Curriculum, D. Appleton-Century Company, New York, 1940, p. 117.

would come to an end, were we to try to do without them [abstractions] in our thinking and in our communication."

"Bogus questions" or "non-sense" questions ^{1/} are those interrogations which have no answers because their terminology refers to nonexistent referents. Questions such as: "What is truth?" and "What is beauty?" are examples. These fruitless questions are based on the assumption that every question that can be stated in words must have a correct answer. ^{2/}

Value judgments ^{3/} are closely akin to "bogus questions" since their terminology is that of abstractions. "Good," "better," "best," and their opposites, "bad," "worse," and "worst," "beautiful," "ugly," "normal," and "abnormal" are examples of words which do not refer to any quality in the thing described, but reflect the thoughts and feelings of the communicator. Expressions of the communicator's approval or disapproval of occurrences, persons, or objects he is describing, are called value judgments.

Often judgments lie disguised in the aura of fact. Statements such as: "Jack lied to us," "Jerry is a thief" and "Tommy is clever," need the substitution of more verifiable language. "Jack told us he didn't have the car keys with him. However, when he later pulled a handkerchief out of his pocket, the keys fell out," "Jerry, a six-year-old,

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, p. 209.

^{2/}F. A. Philbrick, loc. cit.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 65-66.

picked up a toy car on the counter at the store and put it in his pocket," and "Tommy made three model airplanes" can be proved by sensory experience.^{1/}

Generalizations^{2/} are statements based on recurring experiences which are similar in psychological context and whose results are similar. Similar or recurring experiences bring about an expectation. When the same results are perceived each time, an individual is led to a belief about the given experience. When this belief is verbalized, the resultant statement is necessarily in terms which include many specific and individual instances.

Generalizations are helpful, especially in the sciences, since they accelerate progress and act as aids to further summarizing and abstracting of results. This is part of the natural abstracting process.^{3/}

However, a map does not represent all of the territory^{4/} and one should be wary of statements which declare that something is "always" or "usually" true or statements which include "all," "every," "each," "everyone" and the like. Altick^{5/} calls these "glittering generalities."

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, op. cit., pp. 42-43.

^{2/}C. K. Ogden and Ivor A. Richards, The Meaning of Meaning (Eighth Edition), Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1947, pp. 63-64.

^{3/}Alfred Korzybski, Selections from Science and Sanity, The International Non-Aristotelian Library Publishing Company, Institute of General Semantics, Distributors, Lakeville, Connecticut, 1948, p. 173.

^{4/}Francis Chisholm, Introductory Lectures on General Semantics, Institute of General Semantics, Lakeville, Connecticut, 1945, pp. 38-39.

^{5/}Richard D. Altick, Preface to Critical Reading, Henry Holt and Company, Inc., New York, 1946, p. 20.

He gives examples of statements which, although they do not contain the words "all," "every," or other danger signals, are nevertheless generalities because they contain terminology which is high up on the abstraction ladder and, therefore, all-inclusive. The following ^{1/} are examples of statements which are generalities because of their all-inclusive terminology:

"The ministers who are urging Sunday closing are honest, unselfish servants of God and man, who are working for the best interests of the community."

"The liquor dealers' association that is recommending the liberalization of the state law is composed of substantial taxpaying citizens who are well aware that their success depends upon the maintenance of order and decency in their establishments."

Familiar generalizations lead to clichés ^{2/} which are overused expressions or examples of the tendency to overgeneralize and use convenient expressions without thought. Many old adages ("Birds of a feather flock together," "Spare the rod and spoil the child," etc.), and directives of Christian concepts of morality ("Honesty is the best policy," "Silence is golden") are examples of clichés.

^{3/} Stereotypes are trite and narrow conceptions of other people or groups of people which, when originated, may have served a purpose. However, since they are generalizations applied to people, and since they tend to emphasize undesirable characteristics, they are often dan-

^{1/}Richard D. Altick, op. cit., p. 21.

^{2/}Lou LaBrant, "Analysis of Clichés and Abstractions," English Journal (May, 1949), 38:276.

^{3/}Nila B. Smith, "Reading: Concept Development," Education (May, 1950), 70:553.

gerous. In addition, they do not always correspond to an individual's experience with the particular group of people referred to.

Literature has often contributed many stereotypes because of authors' intentions of creating characters for particular purposes.

"Babbitt," "Issac," "Cinderella," and "Robin Hood" are examples.

Multi-valued orientation^{1/} toward ideas and problems is stressed by semanticists. Betts^{2/} asserts that experience in life involves a multiplicity of objects and events, but language implies a one-ness that does not correspond to the variety of life's experiences.

Unfortunately, the generalizations necessarily a part of language tend to blur awareness of differences. Either something is considered to be true, or it is considered to be untrue; either an answer is right or it is wrong. The one-ness implied by language leads to the acceptance of "either-or" thinking; whereas, in reality, events or happenings do not present either one side or its diametrically opposite side, but many sides, facets, or paths leading to a solution of a problem.^{3/}

Figurative language.-- Because thought itself is metaphoric in that it is symbolic,^{4/} and because figures of speech are so abundant

^{1/}Irving J. Lee, Language Habits in Human Affairs, Harper and Brothers Publishers, New York, 1941, pp. 110-111.

^{2/}Emmett A. Betts, "Reading: Semantic Approach," Education (May, 1949), 69:534.

^{3/}Irving J. Lee, op. cit., pp. 100-111.

^{4/}Ivor A. Richards, Interpretation in Teaching, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1938, pp. 48-49.

in everyday language,^{1/} a section is here devoted to figurative language.

Metaphor implies analogy. It is a comparison between two relationships. Put in symbols, it would be said that metaphor is a statement that A bears the same or a similar relationship to X that B bears to Y (A:X :: B:Y). "Six yards is to four yards as three men is to two men,"^{2/} is a simple analogy.

However, metaphor is a little more than mathematical symbols, for it involves borrowing a name of another thing. The "leg" of a chair or the "foot" of a bed are names borrowed from the human body. The "stresses and strains" of society is a comparison borrowed from the physical sciences.^{3/}

However, metaphor and analogy are alike in that they are not methods of scientific proof. Both analogy and metaphor can be useful as means of opening up and suggesting new paths to research. Nevertheless, they are merely comparisons and prove nothing in the physical world. The proof for scientific or factual purposes must be empirical. The phrase "false analogy" is deceiving. Because of it, people are led to believe that an analogy contains some kind of "truth." The comparison is often between two entirely separate entities which are different in structure

^{1/}F. A. Philbrick, Understanding English: An Introduction to Semantics, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1947, p. 36.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 35.

^{3/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., pp. 141-145.

and molecular consistency. A comparison can prove nothing.^{1/}

Technically, metaphor is analyzed into two components--"tenor" and "vehicle." The vehicle is that part of the figure which supplies the illustration; the tenor is the meaning to be conveyed.^{2/} In the statement, "That wolf in sheep's clothing," the "wolf" with all that the animal implies and "sheep's clothing" with all the connotations of innocence that "sheep" carries with it, provide the vehicles or symbols for the meaning (tenor) which the reader abstracts from the sentence.^{3/}

^{4/} Richards explains the process as follows:

"In all interpretation some sort of selection of 'sense' or 'thought' for special handling which sets it temporarily against our feelings about it or about other things, is taking place...."

Metaphor and other figures of speech abound in everyday communication. Many of them, however, have been so frequently used that they have lost the force which they originally had. The following have been so successful that their force has been reduced: the "hands" of a watch, the "branches" of a river or company, the "knocking" of an engine, to "strangle" an enterprise, and to "milk" the consumers. Metaphors which have become commonly used and which have become a normal

^{1/}Committee on the Function of English in General Education, op. cit., pp. 146-147.

^{2/}Ivor A. Richards, op. cit., p. 120.

^{3/}Hugh Walpole, op. cit., p. 155.

^{4/}Ivor A. Richards, op. cit., p. 143.

means of expression, are called "dead" metaphors.^{1/}

Shifts of meaning are common when dead metaphor is used. This is a common device of advertizers, unscrupulous politicians and demagogues. In Huxley's^{2/} Science and Education the author urges education for the working class. He propels the word law through the whole gamut of meaning. When bared, his argument is revealed as a series of syllogisms.^{3/}

"Syllogism one: 'All laws [law as an enactment of court proceedings] should be obeyed; natural laws [phenomena of nature] are laws; therefore, the natural laws should be obeyed.'

"Syllogism two: 'The natural laws should be obeyed; the moral laws [precepts in Christian dogma] are natural laws; therefore, the moral laws should be obeyed.'"

Though convincing, the meanings of the word law are shifted to support an argument. Although with Huxley the shift was unintentional, these shifts in the hands of demagogues are dangerous when the reader or listener is unaware of them.^{4/}

Simile^{5/} is much easier to recognize since the words like or as can be identified. The comparison simply states that A is like B. The comparison here is not one of degree but of kind. "She was as gay as

^{1/}S. I. Hayakawa, Language in Thought and Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, pp. 123-124.

^{2/}Thomas H. Huxley, Science and Education, D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1896, p. 89.

^{3/}Committee on the Function of English in General Education, op. cit., pp. 130-131.

^{4/}Ibid., p. 132.

^{5/}F. A. Philbrick, op. cit., pp. 35-36.

a Christmas tree" and "He ran like a chicken with its head cut off" are much less complicated matters.

One has only to examine such expressions as, "cold war," "iron curtain," "to play ball with," "graveyard shift," and "flatfoot" to realize that figures of speech are a legitimate part of language.^{1/}

4. Summary

The preceding sections are summarized as follows:

Growth of language.-- There are, and have been, many theories concerning the origin of language. Although it is unlikely that the real source of language can be directly pointed to, these theories often serve as points of departure for research of speech pathologists, psychologists and psychiatrists.

Anthropological studies of the language of primitive peoples and studies of the language of children, reveal that the speech of the two groups is similar in many respects. Both the child and the primitive adult use language in direct conjunction with the reality to which it refers. Both use language to promote action and both show manifestations of belief in "word magic." As a child grows older, the emotional content of his speech decreases. Similarly, in a society in which there is a high degree of technological progress, the adult tends to use language which is concerned with ideas rather than feelings.

Figurative language is a legitimate part of everyday speech.

^{1/}Mario Pei, The Story of Language, J. B. Lippincott Company, New York, 1949, p. 177.

Words themselves, when traced back to their origin, are often found to be metaphors. For example, the word gospel was originally "godspell" which meant literally "good message." Today one uses figures of speech quite unconsciously when one speaks of "the leg of a table," "the eye of a potato," and "a warped sense of values." Richards ^{1/} says that thought itself is metaphoric.

Written language is very recent compared to spoken language. Bodmer and Hogben ^{2/} distinguish two different kinds of writing: picture writing, including pictograms and logograms, which have no direct connection with sounds; and phonetic writing which includes syllable writing and alphabet writing. The alphabet was developed by the trading peoples of Island Greece who adapted the Phoenician alphabet to their own use and added seven vowels. The Italian peoples got their alphabet from the Greeks and added the rectilinear characteristics. Traders and merchants helped its diffusion and use throughout Europe. Technological advances, such as the invention of paper and the printing press, led the way to standardization of the characters and of the spelling, and a democratization of the written language.

Psychology and language.-- Since it was generally agreed by psychologists and linguists that thinking and overt behavior are controlled

^{1/}Ivor A. Richards, The Philosophy of Rhetoric, Oxford University Press, New York, 1936, p. 94.

^{2/}Frederick Bodmer and Lancelot Hogben, The Loom of Language, ed. by Farrar and Rhinehart, Inc., and dist. by W. W. Norton and Company, New York, 1944, p. 34.

by symbols and that words are symbols of concepts, the acquisition of concepts was reviewed.

Although the infant in his babbling and gurgling produces many sounds, among them German gutturals and Russian laterals, in an English-speaking environment these sounds do not bring the desired satisfaction, and so are dropped. Because the bi-labial "ma-ma" brings results, it is repeated. Since the same results occur each time, the sound takes on significance or meaning. The concept of "mother" is the first one most children learn.

The child's language is essentially egocentric. Things in the external world are interpreted by the child in terms of what objects do to him. Through experience the child learns that both objects and events have relationships to other people also. However, a child's environment has a great influence on the meanings he attaches to words and he never completely outgrows his one-meaning fallacies or limited meanings for words.

At about four or five years of age children's concepts are made upon the basis of the physical objects themselves. Later, at approximately eight or nine years of age, concepts based on the functions of objects appear. At about nine years of age concepts made on the basis of abstraction, such as color, form, and material, appear.

Three psychologists were found by the writer to agree that long before children possess conventional language, they have concepts which

they are unable to verbalize. One psychologist^{1/} found that adults also have concepts which they are not able to express verbally.

Generalizing concepts are based upon similarities which occur and reoccur in many given situations. When the same features occur in several different situations, the child isolates these recurring features, disregarding the varying and unessential ones. The essential features will reoccur and finally determine the child's learning of a concept.

According to Wilson,^{2/} only man has the ability to symbolize. Objects in the space-time world of nature are manipulated in the space-time world of man's mind. Since all people differ neurologically and since their experiences with things are never exactly the same, no two people react identically to the same situation or are the meanings they attach to symbols exactly the same.

General semantics.-- General semantics is a method of evaluating language with respect to its accuracy of representation of the external world. Semanticists claim that language is like a map of a territory and to be a reliable map, it should be an accurate representation of the territory for which it stands.

Among the people who laid the foundations for the study of semantics was Albert Einstein. His Special Theory of Relativity rejected

^{1/}Kenneth L. Smoke, "An Objective Study of Concept Formation," Psychological Monographs, Number 4, Published by the American Psychological Review Company, Princeton, N. J. and Albany, N. Y., 1932, p. 35.

^{2/}James Wilson, The Miraculous Birth of Language, The Philosophical Library, New York, 1948, pp. 184-187.

the absolutes of time and space and stated that nothing existed by itself but only in relation to other things. I. A. Richards applied this theory to language, saying that the verb "to be" is, in a sense, fallacious, because language can never be the thing talked about. Korzybski applied Richard's theory to language and the social sciences. He believed that when man uses language which does not correspond to the external world, he becomes confused, frustrated, and trapped by his own verbalism. He advocated that, in order to keep his sanity, man must use a language which corresponds to the world-as-it-is.

General semantics is based upon empiricism. Korzybski's "non-Aristotelian" system is built upon three principles: (1) the principle of non-identity, (2) the principle of non-allness, and (3) the principle of self-reflexiveness.

The first of these, the principle of non-identity, states that the word (or symbol) is not the thing for which it stands. The second declares that one can never say "all" about a subject. The last, the principle of self-reflexiveness, contends that in order to be accurate, a language₁, would have to have a language₂, which would tell about language₁, and a language₃, which would tell about language₂, etc.

In order to enable an individual to evaluate his own evaluative processes, Korzybski recommends six extensional devices: (1) indexing, (2) dating, (3) the use of "etc.," (4) caution in the use of the "is" of identity, (5) the use of hyphens, and (6) the use of quotation marks.

The first of these, indexing, reminds one that all individuals,

objects, situations and events are different. No two are ever the same. Dating reminds one that individuals, objects, situations and events change with time. From day to day and even from split second to split second, an individual, object, situation, or event is different. By using "etc." one realizes that one cannot say "all" about a subject. The "is" of identity should be used with caution because words can never be the actual thing under discussion. The use of hyphens helps one to remember that things in this world do not exist by themselves, but only in relation to other things. By using quotation marks one remembers that words continue to have an infinite variety of meanings, depending upon the listener or speaker, and the context in which the words reside.

Korzybski illustrated the ways in which these principles may be applied in reading, writing, listening, and speaking. First, an individual should be aware of the level of abstraction of the words he is reading, writing, listening to, or using in his speech. Some words refer to concrete objects that are possible to experience through the five senses and hence, their meanings are relatively concrete and definite. Other words, however, refer to ideas and feelings and have an infinite variety of meanings because of the vast differences in sensory perception possessed by people and hence, the wide variety of experiences.

Secondly, words should not be considered apart from their contexts, for the meaning of a word depends upon the surroundings in which it appears.

"Bogus entities," or words which refer to ideas and feelings, often lead discussions astray. Since no two persons' nervous systems are the same and since no two people have had exactly the same experiences, the meanings of these words vary from individual to individual. In addition, because "bogus entities" refer to ideas and feelings, their meanings cannot be determined by recourse to a referent in the physical world. Questions phrased in this terminology are called "bogus questions." Interrogations such as "What is life?" and "What is art?" are examples of such questions.

Value judgments are similar to "bogus entities" since their terminology implies "good" and "bad." Their veracity cannot be proved by recourse to a referent in the physical world or by recourse to the five senses. The meanings of the terms good and bad are dependent upon a person's standards which he himself establishes.

Generalizations and stereotypes should be avoided. Generalizations are unreliable because one can never say "all" about a subject and also because generalizations do not recognize the individual exception or exceptions. Stereotypes are unsupported generalizations about a group or groups of people. They are unreliable for the same reasons that generalizations are unreliable.

Korzybski recommends that an individual adopt a multi-valued orientation toward ideas and problems. Experience in life involves a multiplicity of objects and events; hence, there may be not just one path leading to the solution of a problem, but many.

Korzybski recommends that figurative language be recognized for what it is, that is, merely a comparison or analogy. An analogy or comparison proves nothing; it merely points out similarities between two entirely different objects or phenomena.

A summary of the growth of language, of the relationship of language to psychology, and of general semantics, has been presented. How this applies in the classroom situation is given below.

5. Implications for the Classroom Teacher

Semantics as a means of examining thought and language is not a tool reserved for theorists. Educators urge its use in the classroom as a means of improving skills and understandings in the language arts.

Reading.-- In 1944 Davis^{1/} made a careful survey of the literature on reading to identify comprehension skills which were considered by reading specialists to be most important. Among these were the following: (1) knowledge of word meanings, (2) the ability to select the appropriate meaning for a word or phrase in the light of its context, (3) the ability to draw inferences from a passage about its content, (4) the ability to recognize literary devices used and to determine tone or mood, and (5) the ability to determine a writer's purpose, intent, and point of view, i.e., to draw inferences about a writer.

In the literature sampled by the writer it was found that authorities not only agree that semantics has a place in the teaching of read-

^{1/}Frederick B. Davis, "Fundamental Factors in Comprehension in Reading," Psychometrika (September, 1944), 9:186.

ing, but that the use of semantics will help to bring about the skills mentioned in the Davis study. With meaning as the pivot of basic reading instruction, Betts^{1/} lists six possible outcomes of teaching reading with a semantic approach. These are: (1) student awareness that language is symbolic and cannot represent "all" of experience, (2) consciousness of levels of abstraction and an understanding that "fictions" are more likely to be emotionally toned than lower level abstractions, (3) a recognition of shifts in meaning according to context, (4) a recognition of shifts in meaning due to metaphor, (5) the ability to identify and interpret the connotations as well as the denotations of a word, and (6) the ability to discover a writer's attitudes and feelings through statements of judgment and inference.

Conrad^{2/} has proposed that semantics be used as a means of teaching common vocabulary and widening students' horizons with respect to multi-valued word meanings.

Smith^{3/} predicts that semantics as an approach to language will result in: (1) a wider use of first-hand experiences as teaching aids, (2) increased use of audio-visual aids, (3) more attention to contexts as influencing factors in meaning, (4) clarification of different levels of abstraction, (5) adjustment of the speed of reading to different pur-

^{1/}Emmett A. Betts, "Reading: Semantic Approach," Education (May, 1949), 69:549.

^{2/}Lawrence Conrad, "Intensive Vocabulary Study," English Journal (December, 1940), 29:794-798.

^{3/}Nila B. Smith, "How Will the Semantic Emphasis Affect Reading Instruction?" Education (May, 1949), 69:556-561.

poses and content, and (6) reading tests which will emphasize skills in recognizing emotive, referential and judgment terms, the determination of meanings of a word as it appears in several different contexts, and the selection and explanation of colloquial terms and metaphoric expressions.

Using research in the psychology of language learning and semantics, Kopel^{1/} declares that with semantic training many common reading difficulties can be obviated before children enter high school. Children first experience and then learn words for that which has been experienced. Kopel points out that present practices in the teaching of reading reverse this process. Because of this, he asserts that children learn to respond to words automatically, unaware of the multiple meanings behind them. Kopel believes that the golden rule of semantics, that language should bear the same relationship to fact as a dependable map bears to the territory it represents, and other semantic devices, such as indexing, dating, the use of quotation marks and hyphenating, can be introduced long before children enter high school. Hence, it is hoped that increased understanding can be expected at the secondary level.

Listening.-- The "intake" process of listening, long neglected, has once again come to the fore with more demands on critical thinking.

^{1/}David Kopel, "Semantics and the Teaching of Reading," Educational Method (March, 1942), 21:272-277.

^{1/}
LaBrant points out that:

"...the apparent directness of radio and even more television, are deceiving for we have the illusion of participating but in actuality the speaker is uninterrupted and the listener's questions and misunderstandings are not met. The listener has therefore to learn a new technique of interpretation."

^{2/}
Glicksberg warns against war symbols in propaganda and homely sayings and generalities used by unscrupulous office-seekers. He proposes that semantics be used as a useful tool in listening. He declares that a knowledge of the ways in which language works will:

- (1) make students critical of popular generalizations and slogans,
- (2) make them aware of the paucity of empirical truth in such fictions as "liberalism," "democracy," "science," "reactionary," and other verbal abstractions, and
- (3) help them to guard against harmful stereotypes.

In a world which is growing smaller, in which there is a more pressing need for understanding character and observing social amenities, and an increasing use of television, Case ^{3/} recommends semantics as a method for interpreting the meaning of social situations and understanding the symbols which are concomitants thereof.

^{1/}Lou LaBrant, We Teach English, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1951, pp. 11-12.

^{2/}Charles I. Glicksberg, "Methodology in Semantics as Applied to English," School Review (November, 1945), 53:546-550.

^{3/}Keith E. Case, "General Semantics: A Technique in Reading Social Relationships," The Problems and Techniques Involved in Reading Social Relationships, Division II, Fourteenth Yearbook, Claremont College Reading Conference, The Castle Press, Pasadena, 1949, pp. 55-67.

Writing.-- LaBrant ^{1/} discusses a problem common to students' writing. She suggests that the abundant clichés and abstractions in their writing be analyzed in terms of their truthfulness to fact or experience of the writers. She asserts that examination of common stereotypes and clichés such as, "tried and true," "slow but sure," and "poor but honest," will reveal to students false-to-fact relationships, and lead youngsters to be more aware of differences and more scrupulous in recording detail.

^{2/} Helmkamp reports success with discussion of affective language and subsequent writing of factual accounts of personal experiences. She reports that when the reports of students were read orally, they pounced on one another's emotive terms and affective language. The students were eager to rewrite the reports in language that was more specific and more verifiable. The author states that students rewrote newspaper articles, changing affective elements to verifiable report language.

^{3/} Improvement in students' writing was found by Neumayer. Combining discussion of connotation and denotation with the recognition of affective elements in words, he returned to students their writing

^{1/}Lou LaBrant, "Analysis of Clichés and Abstractions," English Journal (May, 1949), 38:275-278.

^{2/}Eunice Helmkamp, "Training Pupils to Cope with Language Difficulties in Interpreting What Is Read in Grades Seven to Ten," in Chapter IX in Promoting Growth Toward Maturity in Interpreting What Is Read, Proceedings of the Annual Conference on Reading, Volume XIII, Number 74, University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1951, pp. 102-104.

^{3/}E. J. Neumayer, "Teaching Certain Understandings About Language," English Journal (November, 1950), 39:509-512.

for re-examination. Papers were revised. He also reports that students wrote paragraphs starting with topic sentences which were opinion, continuing with strict report language from which their opinions could be justifiably derived.

Core for communication.-- Some authorities have organized courses with a semantic basis and with clear thinking and effective communication as basic objectives.

^{1/}
Dilley has organized a communications course which begins with a unit on language as a medium for thought. The dangers of abstract words are taught; attention is given to connotations of words; the differences between inferences, judgments and reports are studied; and types of "crooked thinking," such as stereotyping, half-truths contained in proverbs, common prejudices and their causes, rationalizing, "tabloid-thinking," either-or thinking, and generalization are studied.

She reports excellent results with group discussions of current problems which follow this unit on language. So popular have the discussions become that a Forum Club has been organized and discussions are presented in assemblies for which participants are given "try-outs."^{2/}

^{3/}
Cohler urges that communication cannot be effective unless students understand the meanings behind the words they are using. She

^{1/}Lois Anne Dilley, "Discussion: A New Technique in the Classroom," English Journal (October, 1947), 36:417-418.

^{2/}Ibid., pp. 415-419.

^{3/}Jenny Cohler, "Say What You Mean," English Journal (February, 1954), 43:84-85.

selects words from students' papers and in the discussions which follow, attention is centered on affective elements of the words. Next, students bring in from magazines, newspapers, radio, and television, commonly-used words which are then interpreted. The sense, intention, and devices of the communicators are then discussed.

The same method is then applied to students' own writing. They meet in small groups to discuss and to discover their own weaknesses in communication. Cohler reports a reduction in the use of abstractions, an awareness of factors involved in honest and effective communication, and a critical response to words and their use.^{1/}

Glicksberg^{2/} urges that semantics be used to aid in discussions in order to keep them from going astray and to help students recognize their own mistakes in logic. He reports that he had students compose their own political oratory which sounded impressive but which had little relationship to reality. Next, he had them pragmatically test their statements by applying them to concrete instances.

He advocates the teaching of such semantic principles as: (1) language is like a map, (2) the "non-allness" of language, (3) context is the principal factor in meaning, (4) communication serves a definite purpose, and (5) statements should be indexed and "dated."^{3/}

^{1/}Jenny Cohler, op. cit., pp. 85-86.

^{2/}C. I. Glicksberg, "Semantics in the Classroom," English Journal (October, 1944), 33:408-412.

^{3/}Ibid., p. 413.

Paul, Sorensen and Murray ^{1/} state that human relations with general semantics as a method for training youngsters in appropriate evaluative reactions should be the core for a basic course in communication.

Their argument is that in focusing only on the overt skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, that the silent levels functioning in the personality are neglected. The unspoken level, they maintain, underlies all linguistic behavior and it is at this level that most of the blockages and maladjustments occur. ^{2/}

They recommend that English, speech, and the social sciences be taught in a core. The course would be divided into three parts: (1) an investigation of the individual's own personality, strengths and weaknesses, (2) first-hand experiences in investigation of the individual's relation to his community, state and nation in the light of the vocation he wishes, and (3) investigation of the social possibilities which membership in his particular vocation entails. It is hoped that through these first-hand experiences, youngsters will be able to recognize false-to-fact assumptions concerning themselves and the world around them. ^{3/}

^{1/}Wilson B. Paul, Frederick Sorensen, and Elwood Murray, "A Functional Core for the Basic Communications Course," Quarterly Journal of Speech (April, 1946), 32:232-233.

^{2/}Ibid., p. 233.

^{3/}Ibid., pp. 234-236.

Glicksberg ^{1/} summarizes language-teaching in this way:

"Language is not only a means; it is also definitely related to the life we lead, the ideas and attitudes we hold. It is an integral part of human behavior and must be studied as such. Speech has no meaning unless it is brought in relation to the practical activities that call it forth."

1/C. I. Glicksberg, "Semantics in the Classroom," English Journal
(October, 1944), 33:409.

CHAPTER III

WORKBOOK

TABLE OF CONTENTS FOR WORKBOOK

	Page
LETTER TO THE TEACHER.....	76
DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE WORKBOOK.....	78
LETTER TO THE STUDENT.....	79
TEST.....	80
PART I: WHAT IS LANGUAGE?.....	101
Exercise 1. Symbols as Controllers of Thought.....	101
Exercise 2. Three Common Confusions.....	105
Exercise 3. Words as Symbols.....	109
Exercise 4. Denotation.....	112
Exercise 5. Context.....	115
Exercise 6. Abstraction.....	118
Exercise 7. Words without Referents.....	125
Exercise 8. Change of Meaning with Time and Place.....	130
Exercise 9. Review.....	132
Exercise 10. Connotation.....	134
Exercise 11. Slanting.....	137
PART II: WHAT ARE JUDGMENTS AND INFERENCES?.....	147
Exercise 1. Judgments.....	147
Exercise 2. The Chief Characteristic of Judgments.....	151
Exercise 3. Expressions of Writers' Approval and Dis- approval in Judgments.....	153
Exercise 4. Differences Between Report Language and Judgments.....	157
Exercise 5. Inferences.....	160
Exercise 6. Differences Between Reports, Judgments, and Inferences.....	164

PART III: WHAT ARE STEREOTYPES?.....	168
Exercise 1. A Stereotype from the Mass Media.....	168
Exercise 2. A Stereotype Based on Admiration for Material Wealth.....	171
Exercise 3. A Stereotype Based on Fear.....	174
Exercise 4. One American Stereotype.....	177
Exercise 5. A Racial Stereotype.....	180
Exercise 6. Review.....	184
Exercise 7. Application of Principles.....	187
PART IV: WHAT ARE GENERALIZATIONS?.....	189
Exercise 1. Generalizing by Use of Words Referring to Groups.....	189
Exercise 2. Other Generalizing Signals.....	192
Exercise 3. Generalizing by Implying.....	196
Exercise 4. Review of Generalizations.....	200
Exercise 5. Review of Reports, Judgments, Inferences, and Generalizations.....	203
PART V: WHAT LANGUAGE MAKES COMPARISONS?.....	207
Exercise 1. Simile.....	207
Exercise 2. Characteristics of Figurative Language.....	213
Exercise 3. Implied Comparisons in Similes.....	217
Exercise 4. Metaphor.....	223
Exercise 5. Unreliability of the Verb "To Be".....	227
Exercise 6. Connotation in Metaphor.....	232
Exercise 7. Review of Figurative Language.....	238
KEYS WITH SUGGESTED ANSWERS.....	242
Keys to Test.....	242
Keys to Exercises.....	247
BIBLIOGRAPHY FOR WORKBOOK.....	296

Dear Fellow-teacher:

The main purpose of this Workbook is to help pupils to distinguish between affective language and report language. The first of these includes judgments, inferences, stereotypes, generalizations, and figurative language. The second includes assertions which are verifiable, that is, statements which may be either proved or disproved by empirical methods.

According to language experts and semanticists, language problems affect human adjustment, and the more aware an individual is of the nuances and fallacies inherent in language, the more able he is to cope with the world around him. The increased use of the mass media has increased the number of verbal pressures which assail the ears and minds of young people.

A second purpose of this Workbook is to alleviate the bewilderment of pupils in distinguishing between fact and opinions; between the general and the particular; between the figurative and the literal. In addition, it is not uncommon to find that pupils do not realize that the concepts emphasized in this Workbook operate in all four areas of language and in reading, writing, speaking and listening outside the classroom.

Third, there is little material available for the teaching of these concepts on the secondary level.

The Workbook contains five parts. The first deals with connotation and denotation, the second with judgments and inferences, the third with

stereotypes, the fourth with generalizations, and the fifth with figurative language.

May this Workbook help your pupils to be more discriminating in their use of language. May it help them to be more aware of the light, color, and shades of language. And may it open the door to enrichment in their daily lives.

Sincerely,

Jane Lea Maynard

DIRECTIONS FOR USING THE WORKBOOK

The time and manner in which the Workbook may be used is left to the discretion of the teacher, who knows the needs of his pupils. The exercises may be used as supplementary material or incorporated into the program for the systematic development of the ability to distinguish between affective and report language.

The organization of the Workbook includes:

- (1) A test which is recommended as a follow-up test in order to indicate growth in performance. It may also be used as a pretest to provide for an analysis of individual or class needs. However, the terms used in the test are difficult and it is necessary for the teacher to determine whether its use as a pretest would serve to defeat or to motivate his particular class.
- (2) A Workbook of exercises on connotation, denotation, judgment, inference, report, stereotypes, generalization, simile, and metaphor.
- (3) Keys to the test and to those exercises where suggested answers may be helpful. In many instances two or more answers are suggested. If this is the case, the preferred answer is given first. The subjective nature of the answers, particularly the answers to essay questions, makes it advisable for the teacher to discuss answers with the pupils to discover whether or not their responses show understanding of the principles under discussion.

The pupils may write in the Workbook or on paper provided by the teacher.

Dear Student:

In spite of the fact that you and I use language every day, we often fail to recognize the abuses and inaccuracies in language. We do not always understand what is behind the words of a speaker or writer. In this Workbook are exercises containing material with which you are familiar. There are excerpts from advertisements, sports news, political news and speeches, songs, popular sayings, and even jokes.

It may surprise you to learn that many statements which are accepted as fact actually contain very little truth. It may also surprise you to find that speakers and writers are often able to lead you to believe what they want you to believe. These exercises will help you to acquire a new skill in seeing behind what you read and hear. They may also help you to be more accurate in your own use of words.

Your teacher will have the answers to the questions in the exercises. Be sure to follow directions carefully.

May these exercises help you to increase your understanding and enjoyment of language.

Sincerely,

Jane Lea Maynard

TEST

I. Read each statement which follows. In the parentheses at the left of each statement, put the letter of the item which best completes it.

- () 1. What do the following have in common: horse, running, track, a picture of a man with black boots, black riding breeches, a red coat, a white ascot tie, and a black cap with a large visor.
- They are all names for things.
 - They all have to do with horse racing.
 - They are all symbols.
 - They all have to do with horses.
- () 2. A picture of a penguin with the words, "Smoke Kools, Smoke Kools" coming from its mouth, when analyzed, is:
- A Kool Cigarette.
 - A device used to fool the public.
 - A picture.
 - A symbol for Kool Cigarettes.
- (✓) 3. When people get angry at a picture of a red flag with a hammer and sickle in the middle of it, they are showing:
- That they are patriotic Americans.
 - That they dislike Communism.
 - That they are reacting to a symbol.
 - That they are emotional.
- (✓) 4. When women cry through sad motion pictures:
- They are interested in the story.
 - They are confusing the symbol with the thing for which it stands.
 - They are remembering some sad incidents in their own lives and, therefore, are sympathetic with the characters in the story.
 - They are being emotional over nothing.

(✓) 5. A symbol is:

- a. Anything which stands for or represents something else.
- b. A mathematical sign.
- c. A type of modern painting.
- d. A term used by psychologists and psychiatrists.

II.

✓A. Below in column I is a list of words. Read each one. Then list in column II the numbers of those words which have specific denotations.

I	II
1. an orange	_____
2. animal	_____
3. Carter's ink	_____
4. Mr. William Channing	_____
5. furniture	_____
6. food	_____
7. an Upham portable typewriter	_____
8. pencil	_____
9. peony	_____
10. human being	_____

✓B. Below is a list of words. Read each one. Write in column I the numbers of those words which are denotative; in column II write the numbers of those words which would be likely to have connotations.

	I	II
	<u>Denotative</u>	<u>Connotative</u>
1. education	_____	_____
2. liberalism	_____	_____
3. pillow	_____	_____

	<u>Denotative</u>	<u>Connotative</u>
4. shoe	_____	_____
5. cow	_____	_____
6. independence	_____	_____
7. platter	_____	_____
8. taxation	_____	_____
9. personality	_____	_____
10. gossip	_____	_____
11. cigarette	_____	_____
12. studious	_____	_____

∫ C. Below is a list of words. Read each one. Then decide whether the word is unfavorable, neutral, or favorable, and put the number of the word in the column in which you think it belongs.

	<u>Unfavorable</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Favorable</u>
1. window	_____	_____	_____
2. honor	_____	_____	_____
3. boost	_____	_____	_____
4. criminal	_____	_____	_____
5. automobile	_____	_____	_____
6. steal	_____	_____	_____
7. book	_____	_____	_____
8. ambition	_____	_____	_____
9. quiet	_____	_____	_____
10. to bargain with	_____	_____	_____
11. teacher	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Unfavorable</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Favorable</u>
12. attain	_____	_____	_____
13. to talk with	_____	_____	_____
14. to decorate	_____	_____	_____
15. to lobby	_____	_____	_____

D. Below are some questions. On the line at the left of each one, indicate whether the question is a non-sense question (N) or one which can be answered in report language (R).

- _____ 1. Should everyone be educated?
- _____ 2. How many minutes is the examination supposed to take?
- _____ 3. What are the results of communistic rule?
- _____ 4. Does democracy embody Christian ideals?
- _____ 5. Does the whooping crane live on insects?
- _____ 6. Is jealousy an indication of insecurity?
- _____ 7. How many miles is it from Chicago to New York City?
- _____ 8. What is the temperature today?
- _____ 9. Why do some people cheat in school?
- _____ 10. Do all airlines in the United States carry extra supplies of oxygen?

✓III. Read each statement below. If you think the writer is reporting, put a check (✓) on the line under the "Report" column. If you think the statement reflects the writer's feelings, put a (✓) on the line under the "Feeling" column. If you are uncertain, put a check (✓) on the line under the "U" column.

	<u>Report</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>Feeling</u>
1. Left-wing elements are suspected in the recent union flare-up.	_____	_____	_____
2. Tony DeMarco made a brilliant comeback last night.	_____	_____	_____

	<u>Report</u>	<u>U</u>	<u>Feeling</u>
3. Oppenheimer spoke at the session of the House today.	_____	_____	_____
4. The Socialist Party has picked Thomas as their candidate.	_____	_____	_____
5. The "Daily Worker" is a biased newspaper.	_____	_____	_____
6. Churchill returned to the United States this week.	_____	_____	_____
7. Nehru in his speech last week said, "What I cannot tolerate is the meanness and bitterness that is gripping this nation."	_____	_____	_____
8. Number one on the United Nations Hit Parade is the "Lullaby of Coexistence."	_____	_____	_____
9. Democrats favor curbs on big business.	_____	_____	_____
10. These novel banking practices did not arouse public concern until three months ago.	_____	_____	_____

IV. Read each sentence below and the statement which follows it. On the line at the left, put the letter of the item which best completes the statement.

_____ 1. Little Moe does it again.

The writer's attitude toward the tennis star is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 2. The senator stalked out of the committee room.

The writer's attitude toward the Senator is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 3. Adlai's stock hits new high.

The writer's attitude toward Stevenson is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral

_____ 4. Williams hits homer in third.

The writer's attitude toward Williams is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 5. Teachers neglect phonics in reading.

The writer's attitude toward present practices in the teaching of reading is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 6. For a vision of chaos, picture the Republican Convention in the event Ike changes his mind and says he won't run.

The writer's attitude toward the Republican Party is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 7. McKeon grilled.

The writer's attitude toward McKeon is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 8. Kefauver strikes a "folksy" tone in his speeches.

The writer's attitude toward Kefauver is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 9. Adlai on first ballot now conceded likely.

The writer is probably:

- a. In favor of Stevenson.
- b. Not in favor of Stevenson.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 10. Estes quits, throws support to Stevenson.

The writer's attitude toward Kefauver is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 11. Harriman was hopeful of corralling some of the uncommitted delegates.

The writer's attitude toward Harriman is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 12. The Burma incident proves that those who live next to aggressors have a precarious existence unless they have the strength, or the allies to be able to resist.

The writer is probably:

- a. In favor of coexistence with Red China.
- b. Not in favor of coexistence with Red China.
- c. Neutral toward coexistence.

_____ 13. Secretary of Labor Mitchell has put forward a series of Republican Party platform proposals aimed at attracting more votes from workers.

The writer's attitude toward the Republican Party is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 14. Wilson proposes cut in defense measures.

The writer's attitude toward reduction of arms is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 15. Twenty-one aluminum plants idle as 28,000 join strike.

The writer's attitude toward the strike is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

_____ 16. Last April the Supreme Court ruled in the case of Communist Leader Steve Nelson, who had been convicted under Pennsylvania law, that the Federal Government had exclusive jurisdiction over sedition cases.

The writer's attitude toward exclusive federal jurisdiction in sedition cases is:

- a. Favorable.
- b. Unfavorable.
- c. Neutral.

V. Read each sentence below and the statement which follows it. On the line at the left, put the letter of the item which best completes the statement.

_____ 1. Mickey Mantle is the greatest outfielder the Yankees ever had.

The statement is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

- _____ 2. The Senator's crude attack on the President's foreign policy was uncalled for.

The statement is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

- _____ 3. Tommy, Mrs. Lane's six-year-old, is allowed to have his own way most of the time. He throws stones at passing automobiles, tortures neighborhood pets, and steals candy and fruit from Chase's Store. The young lad will later be one of our "teen-age problems."

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

- _____ 4. Glucose is found in all kinds of starches. Bread, potatoes, spaghetti, and macaroni all contain glucose. When these starches are taken into the oral cavity, they are partially digested by the enzymes produced by the parotid gland. This partial breakdown of starch into glucose is one contributing factor in tooth decay.

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

- _____ 5. Nylon was first used for parachutes during World War II. It then was used for women's underwear. Because of its durability, it was bought in great quantities. Dresses

were then made of the material. This wonder product will continue to be one of the greatest sellers in the textile world.

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

_____ 6. Many factors gave impetus to the development of automobiles.

First, it was found that gasoline, a waste product of the oil refining industry, could be used in running motors.

Next, roads were paved and made safer for travel. But the hardest "push" of all was given by Henry Ford, the man who

put automobile production on the assembly line and within the reach of the average American's pocketbook.

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

_____ 7. Babe Zaharias, the courageous track and field wizard and

incomparable golfer, underwent another operation last week.

"As soon as I start eating again, I'll be okay," says Babe, a victim of cancer of the bone. Her room contains many religious symbols. Her husband stays by her bed every night.

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

8. As movies go, "Bigger Than Life" is a first-rate thriller, like a peep show seen in a padded cell. It is superbly acted by James Mason. But medically, its greatest blunder is in casting cortisone as an intrinsically monstrous villain. Said one medic: "They could have made a movie about a man drinking himself to death on too many gallons of plain water--that's possible too."

The last statement in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

9. Estes Kefauver, one man who might now settle for second place on the Democratic ticket, could probably not get it under any circumstances.

The statement is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

10. How much progress has been made in desegregating Southern schools since the U. S. Supreme Court's decision two years ago? Last week the nonprofit, nonpartisan Southern Education Reporting Service published a survey that leads to only one conclusion: progress has been slow--and anything but sure.

The last sentence in the paragraph is:

- a. A report.
- b. A judgment.
- c. An inference.

VI.

- A. Read each of the following paragraphs and the "Answers" beneath them. Put a check (✓) in the parenthesis at the left of the statement which you think could be safely made on the basis of the information which is given in each paragraph.
- B. When you have done this, read the "Reasons" below and put a check (✓) in the parenthesis at the left of the reason which most nearly justifies or supports your "Answer."

- *1. From the depths of a dark doorway in Chinatown gleamed the slanted eyes of Chin. His unhealthy, yellow skin glistened as he slithered into the shadow of the lamppost. The outline of a knife beneath the loose sleeve of his kimono could be seen. There was no doubt--he was once more up to his sly tricks.

ANSWERS

- () a. This is true of all Chinese.
 () b. This impression is entirely false.
 () c. This is a true impression of a particular Chinese.
 () d. This is a slanted impression of a particular Chinese.

REASONS

- () a. Within my experience this is characteristic of all Chinese.
 () b. Within my experience this is not characteristic of any Chinese.
 () c. The writer presents enough evidence in the paragraph for one to conclude that this is true of this Chinese.
 () d. The paragraph is overloaded with unfavorable incidents and judgment words and is definitely slanted.
2. As the clock struck nine, Miss Simms bustled into the classroom. Her familiar black dress with its high neck and stiff collar was neatly pressed and without a wrinkle. Her snapping black eyes glared from behind her gold-rimmed spectacles.

"Smith," she barked, "are you wasting time again! Down to the principal's office you go. And this time is the last."

ANSWERS

- () a. The impression given of this teacher omits many details.
- () b. The impression given of this particular teacher is a true one.
- () c. No teacher is like this.
- () d. All teachers are like this.

REASONS

- () a. Scientific evidence indicates that people over sixty-five years of age should be engaged in tasks which require little responsibility and taxation on their energies.
- () b. Within my experience this is characteristic of all teachers.
- () c. This is only one experience of one person with one teacher at one given time; therefore, no conclusion is possible.
- () d. Within my experience this is not characteristic of any teacher.

3. John is a new boy in our school. His father is a minister. The first day he came to class I saw Bill picking a fight with him. As I came nearer, I noticed that the newcomer said nothing. Next, Bill gave him a shove that knocked off his glasses. John proved himself a weakling, however. All he said was, "I don't understand the reason for your argument."

ANSWERS

- () a. Bill is a "bully."
- () b. John is a gentleman.
- () c. This is only a partial report.
- () d. Most ministers' sons are like this.

REASONS

- () a. Within my experience I have found ministers' children to be like this.
- () b. Judgment cannot be made on the basis of one person's observation.
- () c. You have to be calm and use reason in order to get along with others.
- () d. Only a coward and a "bully" would start a fight over nothing.

4. Joe is the best athlete in our school. He is over six feet tall and weighs 185 pounds. His shoulders are wide and his muscles fairly bulge. The girls are always after him and the crowds cheer when he makes a play on the football field. Last year he was class president and will probably make Student Council this year. He will go to college and get a good job when he gets out.

ANSWERS

- () a. Fellows like Joe are always successful in life.
- () b. The writer is emotionally involved and cannot evaluate Joe's character objectively.
- () c. Joe is just another athlete who will go to college on an athletic scholarship.
- () d. The writer's inferences are not justified.

REASONS

- () a. The writer does not have the facts necessary to make the statement that Joe will go to college or that he will be a success.
- () b. Scholarships are readily available to good athletes.
- () c. The paragraph is overloaded with favorable opinions and judgment words and is slanted; therefore, no conclusion is possible.
- () d. Scientific investigation has shown that success in high school is related to success in college.

5. Mrs. Artley was from Boston. This was not difficult to tell. At the reception her conversation was of art, the theater, and the neoclassical influence in literature. Another lady guest came from the western part of the United States. When questioned, she indicated that she was from Idaho.

"I hope you don't mind," said the Bostonian, "but in Boston we pronounce it 'Ohio.'"

ANSWERS

- () a. This impression is almost entirely false.
- () b. This may or may not be true of this Bostonian.
- () c. This is true of most Bostonians.
- () d. This impression is true of this particular Bostonian.

REASONS

- () a. The writer uses humor in order to make the character appear ridiculous to the reader.
- () b. The paragraph contains no emotional words and therefore is not slanted.
- () c. Within my experience this is true of most Bostonians.
- () d. Within my experience this is true of all Bostonians.

6. Mrs. Murphy's husband died and left her with five children. In order to support them, she went to work in a factory and the older children have the responsibility of the household chores and of taking care of their younger brothers and sister. When you go into their house, you know this is a "home," for there is warmth and a spirit of cooperation. Mrs. Murphy's children love her very much. This is typical of the American spirit.

ANSWERS

- () a. Poor people are usually like this.
- () b. To go without often builds character.
- () c. No conclusion is possible.
- () d. Mrs. Murphy's children are a credit to her.

REASONS

- () a. The common working-person is usually good-natured and understanding.
- () b. This is not typical of American families.
- () c. Often children who have fewer material things turn out better than those who are spoiled.
- () d. This description is slanted; therefore, no conclusion can be drawn.

VII. Read each of the statements which follow. On the lines below each statement, write the word or words which make the statement weak with respect to reporting things as they probably exist. If the statement contains no weaknesses and is a report, simply write "C" on the line below it.

1. Nearly all businessmen are afraid of the great increase in unionism in this country.
-

2. Whenever you buy Academy shirts, you can be sure of quality.
-

3. Almost all of the legislation proceeding from the present administration is designed to attract the farmer's vote.
-

4. Five members of the Seelsburg School Board voted against the proposed salary increase for teachers; four voted in favor of it.
-

5. Women make the best drivers.
-

6. You will find interest in athletics wherever you go.
-

7. Americans always try to help the "underdog."
-

8. The latest ruling of the new Student Council is detested by everyone in the school.
-

9. In September a fleet of 200 fishing junks, manned by some 1,600 refugee fisherfolk, set out from Kwangtung to sail into Hong Kong waters.
-

10. Shepilov, the new Soviet Foreign Minister, in 1947 published "The Great Soviet People" in which he said that the Marshall Plan ".... deprives many a European country of sovereignty and transforms them into appendages of the monolithic capitalism of America."
-

VIII.

- A. On the line at the left of each statement below, tell whether the statement is literal (L) or figurative (F).

- ___ 1. He works like a horse.
- ___ 2. He has a sense of humor like Monty Wooley.
- ___ 3. "There is Bryant, as quiet, as cool, and as dignified
As a smooth, silent iceberg...."^{1/}
- ___ 4. "He's as good as a lord"^{2/}
- ___ 5. "He knew that we must all be taught
Like little children in a school."^{3/}
- ___ 6. "A lighthouse like a diamond, cut and sharp"^{4/}
- ___ 7. "My horse must think it queer
To stop without a farmhouse near"^{5/}
- ___ 8. "We heard the miniature thunder where he fled"^{6/}
- ___ 9. "Streets dumb with snow"^{7/}
- ___ 10. "The moon and its broken reflection
And its shadow shall appear
As a symbol of love in heaven"^{8/}

- 1/James Russell Lowell 2/James Russell Lowell 3/Edwin Arlington Robinson
4/Robert P. Tristram Coffin 5/Robert Frost 6/Robert Frost
7/Alfred Tennyson 8/Henry Wadsworth Longfellow

B. Read each numbered statement. In the spaces below tell: (a) the two things being compared, and (b) the quality which they have in common.

1. "Biscuits as light as a baby's conscience"^{1/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They are both _____.
2. "The idea caught on like measles in a kindergarten."^{2/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They are both _____.
3. "The sort of lounge chair that sucks you in like quicksand."^{3/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They both _____.
4. "The Squalus (submarine) leaped forward like a hungry porpoise."^{4/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They both _____.
5. "A plane climbing like a homesick angel"^{5/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They both _____.
6. "The stars slip like tears"^{6/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They both _____.
7. "Her tiny lighted glass port served as a single eye."^{7/}
 - a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - b. They both _____.

1/James Street

2/Sam H. Day

3/George Bagby

4/Joseph D. Harrington

5/William Kearns, Jr. and Beverly Britton

6/Minou Drouet

7/Joseph D. Harrington

8. "Courage like a rock"^{1/}

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They are both _____.

9. The diving bell "was fixed to the Squalus like a great barnacle."^{2/}

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They both _____.

10. Time is like an anesthesia.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They both _____.

C. Read each numbered statement. In the spaces below tell: (a) the two things being compared, and (b) the quality which they have in common.

1. His voice was icy.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They are both _____.

2. Experience is the best teacher.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They both _____.

3. Jet-paced civilization.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They both _____.

4. "...the rock of inertia"^{3/}

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They are both _____.

1/Edna St. Vincent Millay

2/Joseph D. Harrington

3/Alexis Carrel

5. "An electric fan slowly shaking its head from side to side"^{1/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____
- b. They are both _____.
6. "Hoarse-throated cannon"^{2/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They are both _____.
7. "Our dog waited, his tail in neutral, until he decided whether the approaching caller was friend or foe."^{3/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They are both _____.
8. "A cascade of machine-gun fire"^{4/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
9. The corners of the mouth, the heart's weathervane.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
10. "Ere the pruning-knife of Time
Cut him down"^{5/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.

1/Wendy Warren

2/Oliver Wendell Holmes

3/William Walton

4/Joseph Stocker

5/Oliver Wendell Holmes

D. Read each statement below. On the line at the left of each statement, put the letter of the item which best completes it.

- _____ 1. Figurative language is:
- a. Language which makes an imaginative comparison.
 - b. Language which makes an imaginative comparison between two essentially different things.
 - c. Language used to trick the unsuspecting reader.
 - d. All of these.
 - e. None of these.
- _____ 2. Figurative language is used in order to:
- a. Help the reader or listener form a more vivid mental picture.
 - b. Make writing more poetic.
 - c. Give logical proof.
 - d. All of these.
 - e. None of these.
- _____ 3. Figurative language is used by:
- a. Poets.
 - b. Advertisers.
 - c. Common people.
 - d. Prose writers.
 - e. All of these.
 - f. None of these.

PART I WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

EXERCISE 1 Symbols as Controllers of Thought

How Free Are You?

Symbols! You thought this Workbook was about language, didn't you?

Now you might ask, "If it is about language, why talk about symbols?"

One reason is that symbols have a great deal to do with language; another reason is that a good share of what you do and think is controlled by these little dictators called symbols.

"Not me," you say, "I am free to do and think what I please."

Just wait a minute and see. You may change your mind about your "mental freedom."

What is a symbol, anyway? After doing this exercise, build your own definition, and write it on the final page of this exercise.

Read each one of the descriptions of symbols in Column A below.

In Column B write the name of the person or thing for which the symbol stands. In Column C write what you immediately think of when you see the symbol. For example, when you are reading the description of a symbol, you might think about such things as a party, work, school, or eating. Or you might think of an idea or a feeling, such as love, hate, happiness, oppression, or tyranny. The first one is suggested for you.

<u>A</u> <u>DESCRIPTION OF SYMBOL</u>	<u>B</u> <u>WHAT IT STANDS FOR</u>	<u>C</u> <u>WHAT I THINK OF</u>
1. A piece of cloth with red and white stripes running horizontally. In the upper left-hand corner is a square of blue with forty-eight stars in it.	<u>American flag</u> _____	<u>my country</u> _____

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

<u>A</u> <u>DESCRIPTION OF SYMBOL</u>	<u>B</u> <u>WHAT IT STANDS FOR</u>	<u>C</u> <u>WHAT I THINK OF</u>
2. A figure shaped like the letter "S" with two lines running through it vertically and the number one beside it.	_____ _____	_____ _____
3. A lady clothed in a long flowing robe with her arms bare and a crown on her head. One arm is raised and in her hand is a lighted torch.	_____ _____	_____ _____
4. A baby clad only in a cloth with a date on it being greeted by an old man with a flowing white beard and a scythe.	_____ _____	_____ _____
5. A flying red horse.	_____ _____	_____ _____
6. A mule.	_____ _____	_____ _____
7. An elephant.	_____ _____	_____ _____
8. A red and white pole striped like a candy stick standing in front of a shop.	_____ _____	_____ _____
9. A huge white stork carrying an infant suspended in a large white cloth.	_____ _____	_____ _____
10. A camel standing on a desert. Three pyramids are seen in the distance.	_____ _____	_____ _____

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

In the three columns below, write descriptions of some other symbols that you see every day.

- (1) In Column A write a description of each symbol.
- (2) In Column B write the name of the thing for which it stands.
- (3) In Column C write the idea, object, or event it makes you think of.

<u>A</u> <u>DESCRIPTION OF SYMBOL</u>	<u>B</u> <u>WHAT IT STANDS FOR</u>	<u>C</u> <u>WHAT I THINK OF</u>
1. _____ _____	_____	_____
2. _____ _____	_____	_____
3. _____ _____	_____	_____
4. _____ _____	_____	_____
5. _____ _____	_____	_____

TO DO AND DISCUSS

You react to symbols every day. Do you sometimes confuse them with the actual things for which they stand? Write your answers to the questions below and be ready to discuss them with your classmates.

1. What do all the items in Column C have in common?
-

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

2. What do all the items in Column A have in common?

3. What do all the items in Column B have in common?

4. If each of these symbols did not exist, would you be able to carry on your everyday activities? Why or why not?

On the basis of your thinking about symbols, write your own definition.

A symbol is _____.

The following are symbols: "dog," "chair," "hat," "lunch,"

Explain why. _____

EXERCISE 2

Three Common Confusions

How Foolproof Are You?

What is a symbol? Simple. A symbol is anything which stands for or represents another thing. The picture of an infant clad in a cloth with a date on it being welcomed by an old man with a flowing white beard and a scythe is a symbol for the idea of the New Year. The word breakfast stands for the fruit, cereal, egg, toast and milk, or whatever it is that you eat every morning. Pictures and words are symbols; they stand for something else.

Many people confuse symbols with the things for which they stand. People's feelings or emotions are sometimes aroused because they cannot distinguish between the actual thing and the symbol which represents the thing. Three common types of symbol confusion are:

- (1) confusing descriptions of events with actual events.
- (2) confusing picture symbols with the things for which they stand.
- (3) confusing word symbols with the things for which they stand.

Sometimes people act as if the words themselves were objects and feelings. You don't believe it? Try these and see.

I. Confusion of Event with Description of Event

Ask someone to scrape his nail on the blackboard. Why are you cringing? No one has done it yet.

List three other descriptions of events which make you react as if the description were the actual event.

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

<u>DESCRIPTION OF EVENT:</u>	<u>REACTION:</u>
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	3. _____

II. CONFUSION OF SYMBOL WITH THING

Here is one of your favorite dishes. Or is it? If you think it is, go ahead and try to eat it.



Can you eat with proper appetite this picture of an ice cream soda? You certainly cannot. However, what happens to your salivary glands when you look at this and similar pictures?

List below three other picture symbols that make you react as if the symbol were the thing for which it stands. (Don't forget television and the motion pictures!)

<u>PICTURE SYMBOL:</u>	<u>REACTION:</u>
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	3. _____

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

III. CONFUSION OF THE WORD WITH THE THING

Put a piece of paper on your desk. Experience it in every way you can. Weigh it in your hands, hold it up to the light, and mark it. If it is a wood product, you can smell it.

Now put the paper away. What can you do with the word paper?

People sometimes react to words as if the words were the things for which they stand. Do you react in this way? If you do, or if you have in the past, you have probably had some illuminating experiences. You will help yourself understand the ideas presented throughout this Workbook if you list in the columns below:

- (1) words that have caused you to have various feelings; and
- (2) the feelings or emotions they have caused you to have.

You will probably want to discuss your experiences with your classmates to find out if they have had similar ones.

THE WORD:

1. _____

2. _____

THE EXPERIENCE:

1. _____

2. _____

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

THE WORD:

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

THE EXPERIENCE:

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

EXERCISE 3

Words as Symbols

What's In a Name?

What is a word? You have been using words all your life; yet if someone from "Ampha-Lula Land" asked you what a word was, what would you tell him?

You might say, "Well, a word means something." If you added, "A word is a sound or a group of letters which stands for something else," you would be exactly right! A word is not the thing which it represents; it merely refers to or stands for something. For example, take the word milk. Can you drink, spill, taste, or do anything with the word that you can do with the white liquid to which the word refers? No. Why? The word milk is only a symbol for the white liquid which actually and physically exists. Simple, isn't it? A word is only one kind of symbol.

A word is not the thing for which it stands. You might say, "Even a moron knows that!" But does he? How many times have you been "down in the dumps" or "up in the clouds" because of mere words or labels which were attached to you? Perhaps you know some words that cause outbursts of emotions on the part of some of your friends.

Realizing now that words are not the things for which they stand, you are in the "driver's seat" as far as your own emotions are concerned. You can steer yourself away from emotions or feelings toward mere words.

I. DISCOVER THE VALUES OF LANGUAGE POWER

1. What are some of the effects of reacting to words as if they were the things for which they stand?

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

2. What are some of the values to you of making this discovery about your own reactions?

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. What is the meaning of, "Sticks and stones can break my bones, but names can never hurt me"?

List in the proper columns below, words that have caused either you or your friends to act as though the word (the symbol) were the thing for which it stood.

"IN THE CLOUDS"

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

"IN THE DUMPS"

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

II. TO DO AND DISCUSS

Now answer the questions below. You will probably want to discuss them with your classmates.

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

1. What do all these words have in common?

2. How is each one unlike?

3. How did each one get its particular meaning for the person involved?

4. What simple thing did the person neglect to remember when he heard the word?

5. What is a symbol?

EXERCISE 4

Denotation

What Does a Word "Say"?

When you say a word "means something," you are saying that it stands for something. The word cat refers to the furry, four-footed animal with whiskers, sharp claws, and a purr. You can point to this particular animal and say, "That is a cat."

When you use a word to point to a physical object, you use it to refer to that object. There is another word which means to refer; it is to denote. Denote and refer mean the same thing. Simple, isn't it? When you use a word to denote, you are using it to point to a physical or concrete object and you are using its plain sense or literal meaning. For example, the word book refers to or denotes a number of pages of written material between two covers. The word chair denotes an upright, four-legged structure used for sitting.

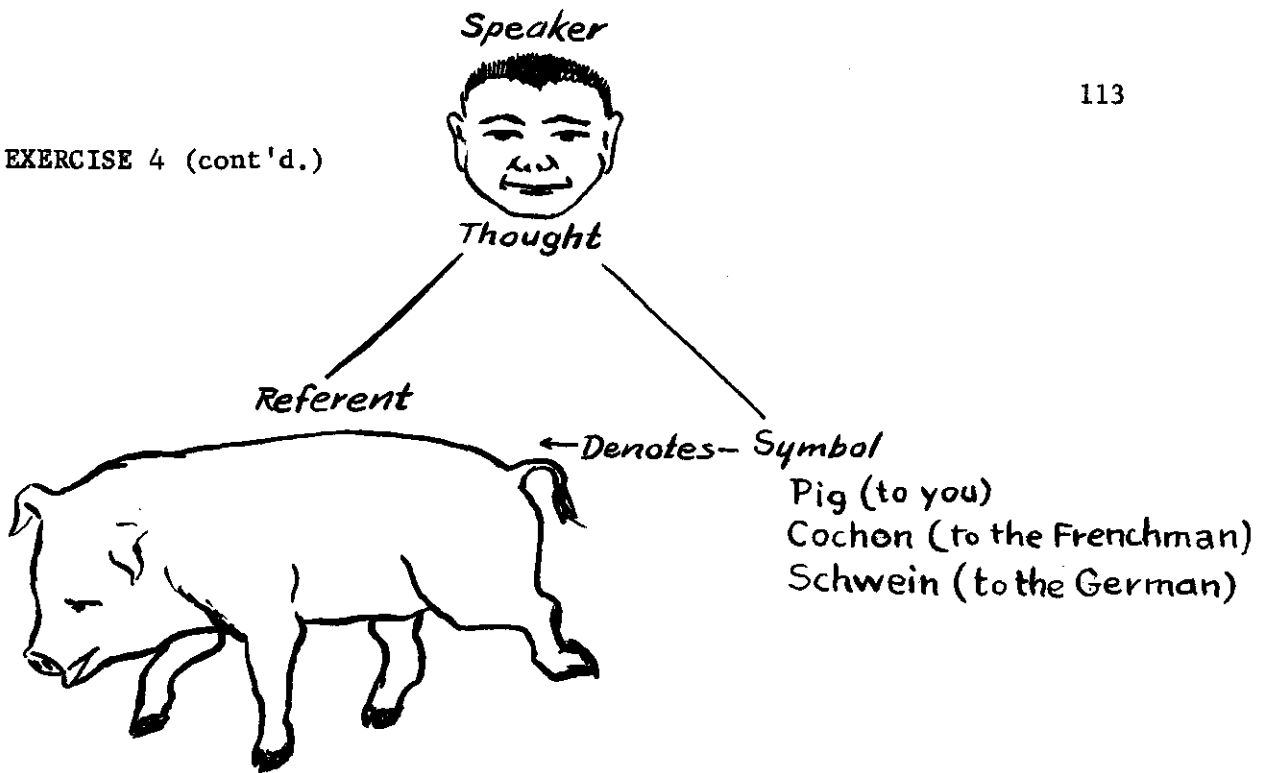
What, then, is the denotation of a word? That's easy. To find the denotation of a word, think of any physical object in the room, cover your mouth, and point to the object. If you have done this, you have given the denotation of your word or its plain sense (literal) meaning.

What is the referent of a word? Elementary, my dear Watson. It is the object to which you pointed. The referent of a word is the object to which a word refers.

If you were to diagram this kind of meaning, it might look like this.^{1/}

^{1/}Adapted from Hugh Walpole, Semantics, W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., New York, 1941, p. 81.

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)



It works the same way in any language. The word denotes or refers to the physical object or the referent.

Now you are ready to do your own thinking. On the spaces below, draw in Column I five referents or physical objects. In Column II write a description of what your sketch denotes. In Column III write the word which stands for the picture of the physical object in Column I.

I	II	III
<u>REFERENT:</u>	<u>IT DENOTES:</u>	<u>WORD:</u>
1.	1. _____ _____ _____	1. _____
2.	2. _____ _____ _____	2. _____

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

I <u>REFERENT:</u>	II <u>WHAT IT DENOTES:</u>	III <u>WORD:</u>
3.	3. _____ _____	3. _____
4.	4. _____ _____	4. _____
5.	5. _____ _____	5. _____

Have you done what you were asked to do? If you have, then you have given in Columns I and II the denotations of the words in Column III.

Write your own definition of the meaning of:

To denote: _____

A referent: _____

Now that you are on your way to becoming a linguist, you will want to know what the denotation of a word is and how "verbal neighborhoods" affect the meanings of words. Don't miss the chance to become a master of word meaning. Turn to the next exercise.

EXERCISE 5

Context

How Does the "Verbal Neighborhood" of a Word
Affect Its Meaning?

The denotation of a word is its plain sense or literal meaning. For example, the denotation of the word pig is the actual, living swine with a long, broad snout, a thick, fat body, and a curly tail.

Does a single word have only one denotation? If you remember your experiences in learning to read in first and second grade, you know the answer.

Some words, depending on their "verbal neighborhoods" or contexts (how they are used), denote "the act of" and sometimes "the results of." For example, look at the ways the word building is used in the following sentences:
1/

1. Building the stadium took three years.
2. The building which was completed in 1897 still stands.

What is the denotation of building in each case?

Below, the word cross appears in several different contexts. On the line beside each sentence, write the meaning of the word cross as it is used in the sentence in which it appears. The first one is done for you.

1/S. I. Hayakawa, Language and Thought in Action, Harcourt, Brace and Company, Inc., New York, 1949, p. 66.

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

I. DIFFERENT DENOTATIONS DUE TO CONTEXT

- signature _____ 1. The poor immigrant made a cross on his immigration papers.
- _____ 2. The general put a cross on the map to indicate the squadron's target.
- _____ 3. Christ died upon the Cross.
- _____ 4. Be careful when you cross the street.
- _____ 5. When I took the family car, Mother was cross with me.
- _____ 6. Being blind from infancy was a cross Miss Keller had to bear.
- _____ 7. Catholics cross themselves before praying.
- _____ 8. Broadway crosses Seventh Avenue at Times Square.
- _____ 9. A pleasant thought just crossed my mind.
- _____ 10. The general would not allow anyone to cross him in his plans.
- _____ 11. A mule is a cross between a donkey and a horse.
- _____ 12. Luther Burbank crossed many plants.

II. SEE FOR YOURSELF

Select two of the following words and use them in four different contexts. Write the referent of the word in each context.

WORDS

frame	point	tie	run
bat	test	score	

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

<u>WORD</u> _____	<u>REFERENT</u>
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	3. _____
4. _____	4. _____

<u>WORD</u> _____	<u>REFERENT</u>
1. _____	1. _____
2. _____	2. _____
3. _____	3. _____
4. _____	4. _____

III. TO SUM UP

1. Look back to page 116 where the word cross was used in several different contexts. How is the word cross the same in each case?

2. How is it different in each case?

3. Look at the top of this page where you saw for yourself how the meanings of words varied with different contexts. Select one of the words you used. How is your word the same in each sentence?

4. How is it different in each sentence?

5. Does a single word have a single denotation? Why?

EXERCISE 6

Abstraction

How Do Words Vary in Definiteness?

Some words are very definite. We say that they are concrete. Concrete words are symbols for persons, places, animals, and things that we can see and touch. What they refer to actually exists in the physical world.

The most concrete words are those that point to one particular referent that is the only one of its kind. For example, Ted Williams, the Brooklyn Bridge, Bud Shulberg, Big Ben, and Mount Vernon are words that are specific. No matter how varied their experience, your audience will probably have the same mental picture when you mention these names because these words point to referents which do not have others like them. They are the only ones of their kind.

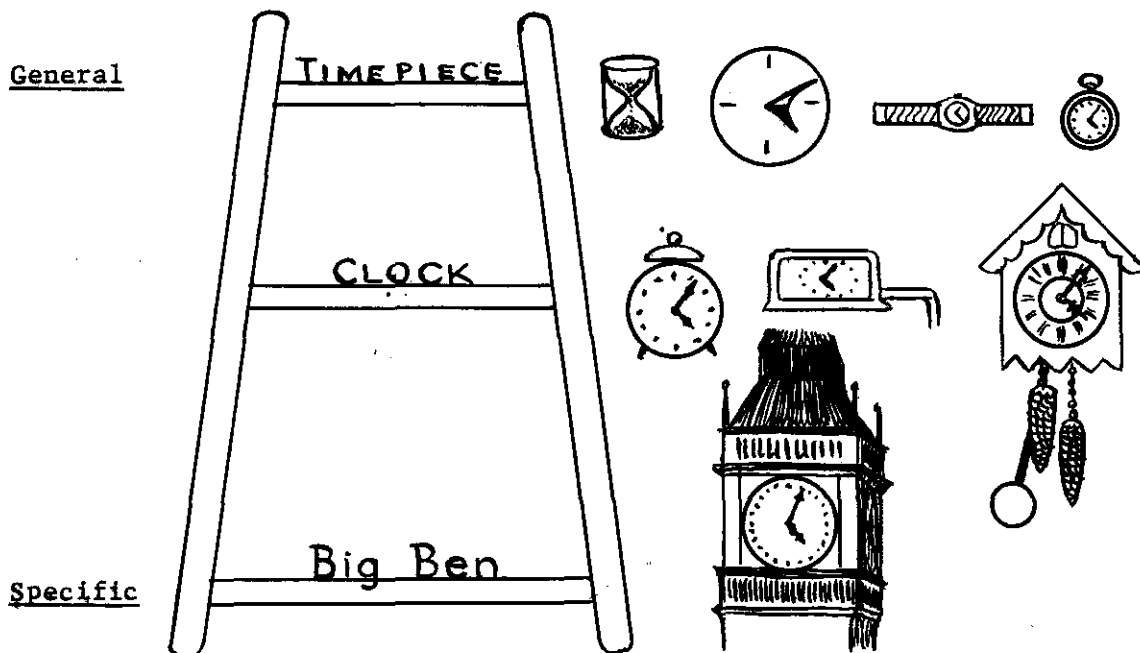
Sometimes you cannot, or do not wish to be specific. In this case, you would use a word which referred to a class or a group of things. For example, instead of naming specifically Ted Williams, the Brooklyn Bridge, Bud Shulberg, Big Ben, and Mount Vernon, you could say baseball player, bridge, novelist, clock, and mansion. These words now point to any one of a number of things within a class; all "group words" refer to things that are similar.

You can see how this works. If you say, "I saw Big Ben in London," your audience will have nearly the same mental image of the huge gray Parliament clock. If you say, "I saw a clock in London," your audience might think of an electric kitchen clock, an old-fashioned bell alarm

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

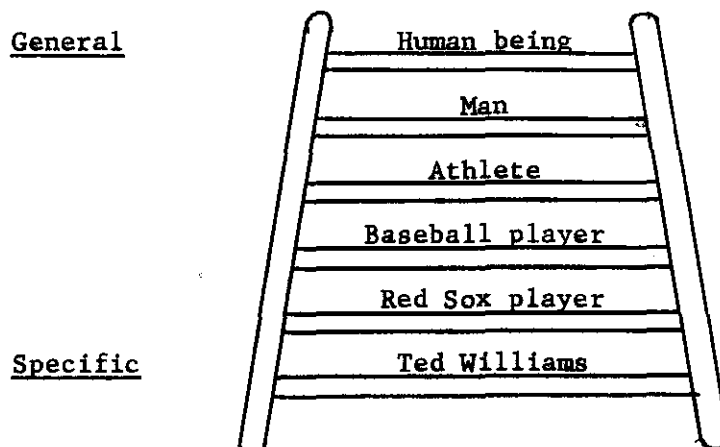
clock, a grandfather's clock, a cuckoo clock, or any one of several kinds of clocks. If you say, "I saw an interesting timepiece in London," your audience might think of a wrist watch, a sun dial, a water clock, a grandfather's clock, or any kind of instrument for telling time.

This is how it might look.



There are several kinds of clocks. There are many kinds of timepieces. But there is only one Big Ben.

You can do the same thing for the word Ted Williams.



EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

Rearrange the words in the lists below from left to right, from most definite to least definite.

1. man, naval officer, Admiral Halsey, human being, United States admiral, United States naval officer

Most definite _____ → Least definite

2. dwelling, shelter, White House, mansion, house, presidential mansion

Most definite _____ → Least definite

3. Leo, feline, animal, Siamese cat, quadruped, domesticated cat, organism

Most definite _____ → Least definite

4. 1949 Plymouth, General Motors automobile, car, transportation, vehicle, green auto, "The Green Hornet."

Most definite _____ → Least definite

5. language, an Indo-European tongue, a Germanic language, "Let's go to the game," communication, English

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

Most definite _____ → Least definite

6. a Shakespearean play, drama, a tragedy of Shakespeare's, an Elizabethan drama, "Hamlet," literature, a literary classic

Most definite _____ → Least definite

7. citrus fruit, orange, nourishment, food, Temple orange, fruit

Most definite _____ → Least definite

8. a man, Henry Cabot Lodge, an organism, a senator, a politician, Republican senator from Massachusetts, a congressman, a biped

Most definite _____ → Least definite

The first words at the left of each group (or at the bottom of the ladder), such as Admiral Halsey, White House, Leo, "The Green Hornet," "Hamlet," and Henry Cabot Lodge are the most specific. They are concrete words. Not only can you see, hear, and touch them, but they also refer to concrete things. In other words, they have specific referents. These words are so specific and concrete that they point to referents

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

which are the only ones of their kind. Your audience could not help but know what you are thinking about when you say the words. There is little chance for confusion when you use words with one-of-a-kind referents.

Words which refer to a class or a group of things, however, are only relatively definite. Terms such as U. S. naval officer, mansion, Siamese cat, 1949 Plymouth, Shakespearean tragedy, and senator are a little less specific. Everyone knows in general what you are talking about when you use them, and almost everyone agrees in general upon what they mean. However, many of the individual characteristics have been omitted in these more general terms. For example, by using the term U. S. naval officer, you omit Admiral Halsey's white hair and steel blue eyes. However, you do bring certain characteristics (navy blue uniform, gold braid, white cap with "scrambled eggs") to the mind of the reader.

These words on the second, third, and fourth rungs of the ladder are relatively definite. They do not point to a referent which is the only one of its kind, but they do point to a group of things which have certain characteristics in common. People differ in the specific and detailed meanings they give to words; but they agree on the general meanings of words.

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

In the spaces at the right, supply a general term for each of the following groups:

<u>GROUP:</u>	<u>GENERAL TERM:</u>
1. mare, stallion, foal, colt, Nashua	_____
2. Mars, earth, Mercury, sun, Jupiter	_____
3. Hollywood bed, captain's chair, table, sofa	_____
4. fountain pen, pencil, crayon, stylus, quill	_____
5. coal, wood, peat, oil, charcoal	_____
6. moccasins, pumps, wedgies, slippers, brogans	_____
7. nylon, dacron, acetate, rayon, bemberg	_____

TO DO AND DISCUSS

Now answer the questions below. Then find out how your classmates answered them.

1. To what do the most specific words point? Give examples of specific words.

2. To what do relatively definite words point? Give examples of these kinds of words.

3. Write your definition of:

a. A specific word _____

b. A relatively definite word _____

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

4. How is it possible for two people to give different definitions of the word dog and for both of them to be right?

5. What purpose do you think relatively definite or "group words" serve?

EXERCISE 7

Words Without Referents

Wanna' Fight?

Have you ever had arguments with your friends about "democracy," "art," "education," or "truth"? If you have, you realize how complicated, involved, and useless these arguments are. Why? Here's the story.

You already know that the denotation of a word is its plain sense meaning. And you know that a word denotes when it points to a concrete object. In addition, you realize that words range from highly specific ones which point to one-of-a-kind objects to less specific words which point to a group or a class of things.

The words book, table, and girl are examples of words which refer to a class or a group of things. When the group word is used, the details of the individuals in that group are omitted. Only the distinguishing or major characteristics of the whole group are recalled to the mind of the reader. For example, in the case of the word book, its content, title, the color and material of its cover, the kind of lettering, and the pictures it may contain are details which are omitted. Instead, only "printed material between two covers," is called to the mind of the reader. Nevertheless, the word book refers to a concrete object that you can see, touch, and otherwise experience. The referent actually exists.

Now let's talk about a different kind of word--an abstract word. Examples are: democracy, art, education, truth, cruelty, and love. These words do not refer to things that can be seen or touched as con-

EXERCISE 7 (cont'd.)

create words do. They do not refer or point to anything in the physical world. They refer to ideas and feelings. Their meanings depend upon a person's experience with them. To prove this to yourself, do the exercise below.

DEMOCRACY

Do you believe in democracy? If you do, then you certainly must know what it is. On a separate sheet of paper, write your definition of democracy.

TO DO AND DISCUSS

Exchange your paper with another pupil and compare definitions. Write your answers to the questions below in the spaces provided for them.

1. Is your neighbor's definition the same as yours? Why?

2. Is his definition wrong and yours right? Is the reverse true? Why?

3. If we all believe in "democracy," then why is there so much variation in definition?

4. To what does the word democracy refer? To what do the words republicanism, Communism, imperialism, and capitalism refer?

EXERCISE 7 (cont'd.)

5. How did you learn the meaning of the word democracy? How do people learn the meanings of abstract words?
-
6. What progress would you make arguing over the definition of democracy? Why?
-

SENSE AND NON-SENSE

You know that some words refer to things that can be seen, touched, heard, or otherwise experienced. These words refer to things which actually exist. You can prove the existence of a dog, a horse, or a book by pointing to them. When you use words whose referents actually exist and you can either prove or disprove their physical existence, you are using report language. To say it another way, report language is the use of words whose referents exist in the physical world.

On the other hand, some words (abstract ones) refer to ideas and feelings. You cannot touch, hear, or see an idea or a feeling, because they simply do not physically exist. You cannot prove an idea or a feeling by referring to a physical object. Because of this, when you are using words which refer to ideas or feelings, you are talking non-sense. There is nothing in the physical world you can point to which proves a statement or answers a question phrased in abstract words. No one of your five senses can perceive the things to which abstract words refer. This is one reason why statements or questions phrased in abstract words are called non-sense.

EXERCISE 7 (cont'd.)

(Notice that non-sense does not mean nonsense which is fun, but refers to ideas and feelings not present to the five senses.)

Indicate whether each question below is a non-sense question (N) or one which can be answered in report language (R) by putting the proper letters in the parentheses beside each question. On the lines below each question write the word or words which make the question one which can be answered in report language or a non-sense question. Remember that a report is something which can be either proved or disproved by referring to actual physical objects.

() 1. Am I a failure?

() 2. What is the meaning of life?

() 3. Who shot Abraham Lincoln?

() 4. Does Tab Hunter earn more money than Debbie Reynolds?

() 5. Is insanity a result of "fast living"?

() 6. Is the Empire State Building taller than the Eiffel Tower?

() 7. How much do you weigh?

EXERCISE 7 (cont'd.)

() 8. Where do bats build their nests?

() 9. Does your husband really love you?

() 10. What is the truth about the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor?

EXERCISE 8 Change of Meaning with Time and Place

What Is "Speeding"?

Have you or any of your friends ever been stopped for "speeding"? If you have been, then the officer probably said something like, "What's your hurry?" or "You were going entirely too fast." What is "too fast"?

In the late 1890's and early 1900's you would have been going "too fast" if your Daimler or "Olds" was going twenty-five miles an hour. In the late 1920's and early '30's forty miles an hour was the usual limit. Today most of our super highways have signs saying fifty, fifty-five, or even sixty miles an hour is the limit.

On a separate sheet of paper write your definition of:

A FAST RATE OF SPEED

TO DO AND DISCUSS

Exchange your paper with another pupil and compare definitions.

Write your answers to the questions below in the spaces provided for them.

1. Is your definition the same as your neighbor's? Why?

2. Will your Highway Department's present definition of a "fast rate of speed" change? Why? _____

3. Are there places in the United States where the definition of "speeding" is different from the one in your locality? Explain.

EXERCISE 8 (cont'd.)

4. The word speeding refers to (a) an idea, (b) a thing.
5. Its meaning, therefore, (a) can, (b) cannot be proved by referring to concrete, physical objects.
6. Because of laws which act as standards of judgment, a person's reaction to the word speeding would be (a) favorable, (b) unfavorable.
7. What is the true definition of "fast"? Why?

8. Is our present definition of "speeding" a true definition of the word? Give the reason for your answer. _____

EXERCISE 9

Review

How Much Have You Learned?

Put each word in the list below under its proper heading. Then indicate whether each word in the Abstract Words column refers to a feeling (F) or an idea (I) by putting the proper letter beside it. The first one is done for you.

LIST

education	jealousy
Baldwin apples	table
slow	cheating
Rudolph	sweater
glamour	a tag wrestling match
syrup	fear
a Queen Anne chair	happiness
good grades in school	

I. SPECIFIC WORDSII. "GROUP WORDS"III. ABSTRACT WORDS

I education

TO DO AND DISCUSS

Now write your answers to the questions below. You may want to discuss them with your classmates.

1. What do all these words have in common?
-

EXERCISE 10

Connotation

What Is the Connotation of a Word?

Watch your language! Some words have two essential meanings. They not only have a denotative meaning, but they also have a connotative one. Words can communicate facts, but they can also communicate ideas and feelings. The extra communication of ideas and feelings is called the connotation of a word. For example, the word collaborate denotes (or literally means) the act of working together. However, in 1942 when Germany occupied Czechoslovakia, Austria, and France, some of the people of these countries were friendly toward and helped (collaborated with) the Germans. Since then, collaborate has taken on an extra meaning. It still literally means or denotes the act of working together, but it also suggests (connotes) treachery because its extra meaning is "to co-operate with the enemy."

The word politician is another example. Literally, it means "a person who is actively engaged in politics." However, it also suggests (connotes) that the person who is engaged in politics is seeking personal gain or graft, or that he is scheming.

Be careful how you use words! You may be saying something you do not mean. A word may have two meanings. One will be its plain sense meaning (its denotation) and the other will be its added suggestive meaning (its connotation). To give the complete meaning of a word, you must give its denotation plus its connotation.

Read each word in the list below. In Column A write its denotative

EXERCISE 10 (cont'd.)

(literal or factual) meaning. In Column B write its connotation (the feeling or emotion it suggests).

<u>LIST</u>	A. <u>DENOTATION</u>	B. <u>CONNOTATION</u>
1. Boy Scout	_____	_____
2. cat	_____	_____
3. Victorian	_____	_____
4. propaganda	_____	_____
5. American	_____	_____
6. dynamo	_____	_____
7. to segregate	_____	_____

Next, write two sentences for each of the words. Write one sentence using the denotative meaning of the word, and one using the connotative meaning.

1. Boy Scout
 - a. Denotative - _____
 - b. Connotative - _____
2. cat
 - a. Denotative - _____
 - b. Connotative - _____
3. Victorian
 - a. Denotative - _____
 - b. Connotative - _____

EXERCISE 10 (cont'd.)

4. propaganda

a. Denotative - _____b. Connotative - _____

5. American

a. Denotative - _____b. Connotative - _____

6. dynamo

a. Denotative - _____b. Connotative - _____

7. to segregate

a. Denotative - _____b. Connotative - _____TO DO AND DISCUSS

Now compare the two lists and the two sentences for each word. Write your answers to the questions below in the spaces provided.

1. What did the meanings in Column B do that the meanings in Column A did not do?

2. What do the sentences using the connotative meanings reveal about the writer that the sentences using the denotative meanings do not reveal?

3. What is the connotation of a word?

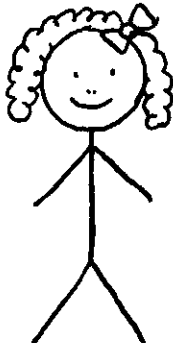
EXERCISE 11

Slanting

What Is the Difference Between Synonyms?

"A rose by any other name would smell as sweet," Shakespeare said. And there's more truth than poetry in that. Here's why.

You know now that a word has a denotation or plain sense meaning. You also know that in addition to its plain sense meaning, a word may imply or suggest an additional meaning which reveals the writer's feelings about his subject. For instance, look at this girl.



She is obviously thin. If she is your girl and you like her, you will say she is svelte or slender. If you dislike her, you will call her skinny.

The same applies to this gal.



She is obviously overweight. If you like her, you will say that she is plump or perhaps chubby. If you don't like her, you will call her fat.

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

"Svelte," "slender," and "skinny" all have the same basic or denotative meaning; they all mean thin. "Plump," "chubby," and "fat" all have the same basic or denotative meaning; they all mean overweight. However, synonyms can be used for both thin and overweight which reveal a speaker's feelings and perhaps sway or prejudice the minds of his audience.

The same thing can be done in talking about a dog. If he is your pet, you might call him a pooch. If he is someone else's dog, he might be a mutt or a cur. All of these words have the same basic (denotative) meaning--dog. However, they differ in their connotations (suggestive meanings). One pair reveals the writer's favorable feelings toward his subject; the other pair reveals the writer's unfavorable feelings toward the dog. Do you know which is which?

Many words which are called synonyms have the same denotative meanings. However, their connotations differ and reveal the speaker or writer's favorable or unfavorable feelings toward his subject. It is by use of these synonyms with favorable and unfavorable connotations that a writer skillfully prejudices his reader for or against his subject. The use of a neutral or denotative word, you remember, is called reporting. The use of these connotative synonyms to prejudice a reader either for or against a subject, however, is called slanting.

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

I. FAVORABLE, UNFAVORABLE, OR NEUTRAL?

Read each group of words below. Put each word under its proper heading in the spaces provided. The first one is done for you.

1. actor, artist, "ham"
2. frock, dress, "glad-rag"
3. flatfoot, officer of the law, policeman
4. eloquent, bombastic, fluent
5. writer, author, "hack"
6. cinema, movie-house, motion-picture theater
7. woman, dame, lady
8. mentally-retarded child, slow learner, dope
9. sparkling, shiny, flashy
10. saw bones, humanitarian, doctor

	<u>FAVORABLE</u> <u>CONNOTATION</u>	<u>NEUTRAL</u> <u>DENOTATION</u>	<u>UNFAVORABLE</u> <u>CONNOTATION</u>
1.	artist	actor	"ham"
2.	_____	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	_____
7.	_____	_____	_____
8.	_____	_____	_____
9.	_____	_____	_____
10.	_____	_____	_____

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

The three words in each group have the same denotative or basic meaning. However, the words in each group differ in what they suggest or connote to the reader. For example, in item #3 policeman conveys the basic or denotative meaning. Officer of the law has a favorable connotation. The term suggests a person entrusted with responsibility to carry out one of the most important functions in our society. Flat-foot, on the other hand, has an unfavorable connotation. The term suggests a city employee who gets his pay from the public by doing nothing but walking the streets all day. The term officer of the law would be used by someone who had respect for, or wanted you to have respect for, policemen. The term flatfoot would be used by someone who had unfavorable feelings, or wanted you to have unfavorable feelings, toward policemen.

The neutral, or denotative words which you encountered in the previous list are below. Write two sentences which are similar, one using the unfavorable connotative word and one using the favorable connotative word. Next, put the sentences in the mouths of people who you think would have such feelings toward the subject. The first two are done for you.

II. WHAT'S BEHIND THEM?1. actor

- a. "Jackie Gleason is a 'ham,'" said the New York Times drama critic.
- b. "Jackie Gleason is an artist," said my younger sister.

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

2. dress

a. "Oh, that's a charming frock," said the buyer at Lord & Taylor's.

b. "Some 'glad-rag,'" whistled the hoodlum to his girl friend.

3. policeman

a. _____

b. _____

4. fluent

a. _____

b. _____

5. writer

a. _____

b. _____

6. motion-picture theater

a. _____

b. _____

7. woman

a. _____

b. _____

8. mentally-retarded child

a. _____

b. _____

9. shiny

a. _____

b. _____

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

10. doctor

- a. _____
- b. _____

You discovered in this exercise that connotations are found in nouns and adjectives and that they reveal a writer's personal feelings. But did you know that you can also slant by using verbs which have connotations? The sentences below are slanted because of the connotations in their verbs. Some of them are slanted for ("pro"); others are slanted against ("con") their subjects. Read each sentence.

- A. Indicate on the line at the left whether the sentence is for (P) or against (C) the subject.
- B. Next, on line a. write the more neutral verb.
- C. On line b. follow this procedure: If the item contains a verb which is favorable in its connotation (P), supply one which is unfavorable or against (C) the subject. If the item contains a verb which is unfavorable (C), supply a verb which is favorable (P) in its connotation. Indicate whether you have slanted the verb "pro" (P) or "con" (C), by putting the proper letter in the space at the left. The first one is done for you.

III. CAN YOU CHANGE THE FEELING?

- P 1. General MacArthur was released from his duties.
- N a. dismissed
- C b. ousted

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

- _____ 2. Secretary Wilson demands additional defense measures.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 3. Twining awed by Russian air show.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 4. Louella Parsons chatted with her friends.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 5. Senate to review White's expenditures during his second term in office.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 6. Russia hints that U. S. caused riot in Poznan.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 7. Please do not loiter in this doorway.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 8. U. S. squanders six million on jet air base.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____
- _____ 9. U. S. forces withdraw from Seoul.
- _____ N a. _____
- _____ b. _____

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

_____ 10. The Catholic Church stifled the showing of "The Moon Is Blue."

 N a. _____

_____ b. _____

IV. WHAT HAVE YOU LEARNED?

Now you know that words are merely symbols and not the things for which they stand. You know that some words refer to ideas. Their referents (the things for which they stand), therefore, do not physically exist.

You have also learned that in addition to their denotations (plain sense meanings), many words also have connotations which suggest or imply a favorable or unfavorable idea to the reader or listener. These words often reveal a writer's or speaker's feelings about his subject.

Below is a short review exercise to sum up what you have learned in Part I of this Workbook. Read each sentence and the four answers which follow. Put the letter of your answer in the parentheses at the left of each sentence.

() 1. When anyone talks about snakes, you should not feel uneasy be-

cause:

- a. Snake is a connotative word.
- b. Snake is a denotative word.
- c. Words are not the things for which they stand.
- d. Symbols are not real.

() 2. When a scientist reports his findings, he uses words which:

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

- a. Refer to ideas, or connotative language.
 - b. Refer to things, or denotative language.
 - c. Refer to groups or classes.
 - d. Refer only to things which can be seen.
- () 3. When a politician speaks, two people of entirely different points of view may agree with him because he often uses:
- a. Words which refer to ideas, or connotative language.
 - b. Words which refer to things, or denotative language.
 - c. Words which refer to groups or classes.
 - d. Words which are favorable.
- () 4. Words used by politicians are often misleading because the words really do not have:
- a. Synonyms.
 - b. Symbols.
 - c. Denotations.
 - d. Referents.
- () 5. The basic meaning of a word is called its:
- a. Connotation.
 - b. Denotation.
 - c. Symbol.
 - d. Referent.
- () 6. The added suggestion which is sometimes added to the basic meaning of a word is called its:
- a. Connotation.
 - b. Denotation.
 - c. Synonym.
 - d. Referent.
- () 7. The tone of this added suggestion may be:
- a. A denotation.
 - b. A referent.
 - c. Neutral.
 - d. Favorable or unfavorable.

EXERCISE 11 (cont'd.)

() 8. When connotative words are used instead of denotative ones,

the writer is probably trying to:

- a. Use words which refer to ideas.
- b. Use words which are familiar to everyone.
- c. Persuade you.
- d. Express his opinion.

PART II WHAT ARE JUDGMENTS AND INFERENCES?

EXERCISE 1

Judgments

What Are Judgments?

What kind of person are you? If you had to choose a word to describe yourself, what would it be? "Drip"? "Jerk"? Or would it be something like "nice-looking," "tremendous," or "powerhouse"?

It is difficult to choose a word, isn't it? If you said, "Oh, I'm a jerk," you would probably realize that this is not true of you every day in your life. You would also realize that your parents and friends do not think this and that this is merely your opinion. Yet, do you realize that this is opinion when you attach labels to other people?

"Oh, yes I do!" you say. Perhaps you do. But many people do not realize that their expressions of approval and disapproval of other people are really opinions or judgments. They act as though judgments were actually facts.

People also make judgments about things and accept these judgments as proven fact. Advertisers, particularly, make judgments about their products. The reader or listener accepts these judgments as facts, and the products are sold. Are you one of those people who accept opinion or judgment as fact? Try the exercises in this part of the Workbook and see.

I. WHAT ARE THESE?

Read each statement below. Then indicate in the parentheses at the left whether the statement is written in report language (R) or in the language of emotion(E).

- () 1. Sugar contains a substance called glucose.
- () 2. Harry got an "A" in history.
- () 3. Jean got an "E" on her Shakespeare quiz.
- () 4. Bob played on the Lakeshore High basketball team last year.
- () 5. Mrs. Smith paid \$2.00 for that vase.

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

- a. What do all the statements have in common?

- b. Write the words which prove your answer in each case.

(1) _____

(2) _____

(3) _____

(4) _____

(5) _____

II. WHAT DO THESE DO?

Now indicate whether each statement below is written in report language (R) or in the language of emotion (E). The statements in this section are written in a kind of language with which you are familiar. However, they all indicate a particular use of that language. As you read, try to determine what each statement does.

() 1. Sugar is wonderful for you.

() 2. Harry is a good student.

() 3. Jean is dumb.

() 4. Bob is a swell athlete.

() 5. That vase is worthless.

- a. What do each of the statements have in common?

- b. Write the words which prove your answer in each case.

(1) _____

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

- (2) _____
- (3) _____
- (4) _____
- (5) _____

III. WHAT IS THE VALUE?

Place each statement from Sections I and II alternately, one under the other and be ready to tell: (1) the difference between them, and (2) what the second statement has done to the first. Label them in the parentheses as you have done before. The first two are written for you.

- I () 1. Sugar contains a substance called glucose.
- II () 2. Sugar is wonderful for you.
- I () 3. Harry got an "A" in history.
- II () 4. _____
- I () 5. _____
- II () 6. _____
- I () 7. _____
- II () 8. _____
- I () 9. _____
- II () 10. _____

Now answer the questions below.

- a. What do all the items marked "E" have in common?

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

- b. Look at each "R" statement and its corresponding "E" statement. What does the "E" statement do to the report in each case?

- c. Each "E" statement here is a judgment. What does each "E" statement tell you about the writer's attitude toward his subject?

- d. In what kind of language is each judgment written?

- e. Using your answers to questions b, c, and d above, write your definition of a judgment in the spaces below.

A judgment is _____

EXERCISE 3 Expressions of Writers' Approval
 or Disapproval in Judgments

"Pro" or "Con"?

Below is a group of statements. Some of them are judgments. Some of them are written in report language. Read each one.

- A. Indicate whether the sentence is a judgment (J) or a report (R) by putting the proper letter in the first set of parentheses (A).
- B. Next, reread all those statements which you have marked J and indicate whether the judgment expresses the writer's approval or disapproval of the subject by writing in the second set of parentheses, P for "pro" or "for," or C for "con" or "against."
- C. When you have done this, reread each statement and write on the lines below, the words which made you decide whether each statement was a judgment or a report.

Keep in mind the characteristics of report language. To refresh your memory, look again at Exercises 4, 6, 7, 9, and 10 of Part I.

I. "PRO" OR "CON"?

- | | | |
|-------|-----|--|
| A | B | |
| () | () | 1. Kathy is a glamour girl in disguise. |
| _____ | | |
| () | () | 2. John is a real "cat." |
| _____ | | |
| () | () | 3. Our Plymouth has a "wrap-around" windshield and an automatic shift. |
| _____ | | |
| () | () | 4. Smith Furniture Co. has a display of Hollywood beds. |
| _____ | | |

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

A B

() () 5. If you use Luv-Lee Soap, you will have a beautiful complexion.

() () 6. Do you realize you are being domineered by these war-mongers who are now in office?

() () 7. I, with the help of my party, will do my best to crush big business and its monopolies.

() () 8. Lobster is now seventy-five cents a pound.

() () 9. Velvetee Lipstick is now only fifty-nine cents.

() () 10. Cuddly Shampoo is as gentle as a lamb.

() () 11. The platform of my opponent is so liberal, in fact, that it borders on socialism.

II. WHAT'S THE CLUE?

Now to "pull together" what you have learned, answer the questions below in the spaces provided.

1. Tell why each "J" item is a judgment.

a. _____

b. _____

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____

2. What human factor did each report omit?

3. Look again at items #8 and #9. What makes one a report and the other a judgment? _____

4. Just think of all the advertisements you see and hear on television! Did you ever stop to consider the language? Quote five advertisements and indicate whether they are reports (R) or judgments (J) by putting the proper letters in the parentheses at the left. On the lines below each quoted advertisement, write the reasons for your answer in each case.

() 1. _____

Reason - _____

() 2. _____

Reason - _____

() 3. _____

Reason - _____

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

() 4. _____

Reason - _____

() 5. _____

Reason - _____

EXERCISE 4 Differences Between Report Language
and Judgments

Can You Change the Language?

Read each sentence in Column A below.

A. Indicate in the first set of parentheses at the left (I) whether the sentence is a judgment (J) or a report (R).

B. For all those statements which are judgments, indicate in the second set of parentheses (II) whether the judgment expresses the writer's approval (P) or his disapproval (C) of the subject.

C. In Column B change all reports to judgments, indicating that you have done so by putting J in the first set of parentheses (I) at the left. Indicate whether you have expressed your approval (P) or disapproval (C) by putting the proper letters in the second set of parentheses (III).

D. Change all judgments in Column A to reports by rewriting them in Column B. Indicate that you have done this by putting R in the first set of parentheses (I) at the left.

I. CAN YOU CHANGE THE LANGUAGE?

A. REPORTS AND JUDGMENTS

B. REWRITTEN

I	II	I	II
()	()	()	()
	1. We have a wonderful basketball team.		1. _____ _____
()	()	()	()
	2. Harry, John, Dick, Paul, and Bob are on the first string.		2. _____ _____

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

A. REPORTS AND JUDGMENTSB. REWRITTEN

I	II		I	II
()	()	3. Mayor Honored at Rotary Banquet	()	()

()	()	4. "Horse racing is a racket," the Senator declared.	()	()

()	()	5. Malenkov Kisses British Babies	()	()

()	()	6. Prominent Businessman Linked with Girl's Death	()	()

()	()	7. Reds are infiltrating our government offices.	()	()

()	()	8. Rocks are being blasted for the building of the interstate highway.	()	()

()	()	9. Portugal plans five television stations.	()	()

()	()	10. The new 1956 "Catapult" is a luxurious car.	()	()

II. WHAT DOES IT TAKE?

Compare your answers for I and II of Column A, and I of Column B, with those in the answer key. You will want to discuss your rewritten reports and judgments with your classmates and teacher. Use the questions below to guide your discussion:

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

1. What did you find it necessary to do in order to rewrite each report in Column A? _____

2. What did you find it necessary to do in order to rewrite each judgment in Column A? _____

3. Which was the more difficult to do--to change a report to a judgment or a judgment to a report? Why? _____

4. List the ways in which a judgment differs from a report on the lines below.
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

to make the second statement?

4. On the lines below tell what you think the writer's reasoning is in each "U" statement. (Be sure to take both statements into consideration.)

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

f. _____

g. _____

h. _____

i. _____

j. _____

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

5. In each case the writer took a known fact or a judgment and made an inference from it. Now what is an inference?

An inference is _____

EXERCISE 6

Differences Between Reports,
Judgments and Inferences

Drudge, Judge, or Fortuneteller?

Read each sentence below.

- A. Tell whether each sentence is a report (R), a judgment (J), or an inference (I) by putting the proper letter in the parentheses at the left.
- B. Next, reread each sentence and write the reasons for your answers on the line below each item.

I. REPORT, JUDGMENT, OR INFERENCE?

- () 1. I'll do well in geometry. I have always done well in math.

- () 2. Teachers have their noses in books so much they do not know what is going on in the world.

- () 3. Women are fickle.

- () 4. Roger is a good athlete. You can be sure that he will be a poor student.

- () 5. The President today approved the bill giving aid to the farmers.

- () 6. Our church sponsored a Young People's dance in order to raise money to help orphans this Christmas.

- () 7. Immigrants often make the best Americans.

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

- () 8. Failing to speak to people is an indication that you are undemocratic.
-
- () 9. You study a great deal. You won't be popular in high school.
-
- () 10. Kefauver says he will run again.
-
- () 11. We Americans vote for our leaders. We will never have a ruler like Hitler.
-
- () 12. "Statistically, TB is at the top of the students' health problems," said Dr. Daniel Douady, "but in a few years mental illness will clearly be problem Number One."
-

Now compare your answers with those in the answer key.

II. WHICH IS THE MOST RELIABLE?

The items above necessitated a great deal of thinking. If you got half of them correct, you are doing well. If you got nine of them correct, you are doing excellent work. If you got all of them correct, you should lead your class in the discussion of the reasons for the answers to these items.

Now answer the questions below and write your answers in the spaces provided.

1. What do all the items labeled "I" include that the other state-

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

ments do not include?

2. Do you know any predictions or guesses about the future that you can rely upon? List them below. Beneath each prediction of which you are certain, give the reason why the prediction is always reliable.

a. Prediction - _____

Reason for reliability - _____

b. Prediction - _____

Reason for reliability - _____

c. Prediction - _____

Reason for reliability - _____

3. Is each of your predictions above always reliable? Give the reason for your answer in each case. Below in Column A give the conditions under which it would sometimes be reliable. In Column B list the conditions under which it would sometimes not be reliable.

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

A. Conditions Under Which Prediction Would Be Reliable

- a. _____

- b. _____

- c. _____

B. Conditions Under Which Prediction Would Be Unreliable

- a. _____

- b. _____

- c. _____

4. What is necessary in order to make a prediction?

5. Are judgments reliable? Give the reason for your answer.

6. Of what value is the gathering of facts to make a report? (You should, by this time, know at least two ways in which they are used.)

a. _____

b. _____

PART III WHAT ARE STEREOTYPES?

EXERCISE 1

A Stereotype from the Mass Media

What Is a "Typical" Teen-Ager?

"This younger generation! What will the kids nowadays do next?"

"You're right! Kids didn't used to act like that. Why, when I was a youngster...."

Are these kinds of comments familiar? And is the paragraph which follows a description of a "typical" teen-ager? If you say it isn't, you might also have to say that you are not like the rest of the people your age.

Before you reach the "boiling point," hold on! There really is an explanation. Some newspapers and some movies have described teen-agers similar to "Jim" in the paragraph below. Is "Jim" typical? Or is there such a thing as "typical"?

Perhaps you can discover the one-sided thinking in stereotypes.

As you read the following paragraph, think about these questions:

- (1) Is this an accurate description of all teen-agers at all times? Why?
- (2) What are some facts the writer may have omitted?
- (3) What facts has the writer included?

A TYPICAL TEEN-AGER

Jim can always be found loafing around in front of Green's Drug-store. His black leather jacket and rolled-up dungarees are his usual attire. With his "cat" haircut, loud gum-chewing, and the cigarette which habitually hangs out of his mouth, he gives evidence of his poor upbringing. To add to his slovenly appearance, however, he finds it necessary to whistle at every teen-age girl and make disrespectful re-

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

marks to other passers-by. Last year I hear he stole a car, gave the police a chase, and nearly killed two pedestrians. He is typical of our teen-agers now.

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

Read each item below.

A. In the first set of parentheses at the left (a), indicate whether the item was included (I) in the description of the teen-ager or whether it was omitted (O) from the description.

B. In the second set of parentheses (b) indicate whether the item is favorable (F), unfavorable (U), or neutral (N) toward "Jim."

- | a | b | |
|-----|-----|--|
| () | () | 1. Jim wears a leather jacket. |
| () | () | 2. Jim wears his hair like a "cat." |
| () | () | 3. He is nineteen years old. |
| () | () | 4. Jim chews gum. |
| () | () | 5. Jim was an honor student in high school. |
| () | () | 6. He takes care of two elderly aunts who brought him up. |
| () | () | 7. He wears a gray flannel suit and white shirt to church every Sunday. |
| () | () | 8. He has done a great deal of work for the Community Fund. |
| () | () | 9. Jim has never been in trouble with the police. |
| () | () | 10. He refused a good position because it would take him out of town and he felt his aunts needed him. |

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

Other unfavorable things about "Jim" given in the description but not mentioned above are:

- () () 11. _____
- () () 12. _____
- () () 13. _____
- () () 14. _____

YOU BE THE JUDGE

Answer the questions below and judge the description for its truth or accuracy in representing things as they really exist.

1. How many items are included in the description? _____
2. How many of the included items are favorable? _____
How many are unfavorable? _____
3. How many items are omitted from the description? _____
4. How many of the omitted items are unfavorable? _____
How many are favorable? _____
5. This description is written chiefly in what kind of language? _____
6. In view of things as they really exist, is the description an accurate one? _____
7. What are the reasons for your answer to #6?
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

EXERCISE 2 A Stereotype Based on Admiration
for Material Wealth

Who's "Got It"?

Have you ever wished to be a movie star? Probably your parents said, "Oh, no! Not that!"

Why not? Isn't everyone interested in what they are doing? Don't newspapers and magazines write about their every waking minute?

Yes, that is true. They do. People admire actors, actresses, and other people who are well-known. However, have you ever thought about the reasons some people admire them and wish to be like them? Is it because of their acting ability or talent? Or is it because people admire their material wealth? We do not question your ambition, but the reason for your ambition.

As you read the following description of an actress, think about these questions:

- (1) What facts has the writer included?
- (2) What are some facts the writer may have omitted?

MY FAVORITE ACTRESS

The person I admire most is Gigi Latour. Not only is she beautiful, but in spite of the fact that she is young, she has played many great roles. Among them were a French peasant girl who falls in love with a baron, a young secretary who marries her boss, and an aspiring movie starlet who eventually marries a producer.

She has an exquisite wardrobe. I saw her on television wearing a blue mink stole and a diamond tiara. A movie magazine said she owned two hundred and fifty evening gowns and one hundred and twenty-five bathing suits.

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

The magazine "Movieland" reported that Miss Latour is happily married to Mr. John Kirkland. She is also very generous because she adopted two children, a girl and a boy.

When I grow up, I would like to be an actress like Gigi Latour.

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

Read each item below.

A. In the first set of parentheses at the left (a), indicate whether the item was included (I) in the description of the actress or whether it was omitted (O) from the description.

B. In the second set of parentheses (b), indicate whether the item is favorable (F), unfavorable (U), or neutral (N) toward the actress.

- | a | b | |
|-----|-----|---|
| () | () | 1. Miss Latour is beautiful. |
| () | () | 2. Although Miss Latour actually has a long nose and a poor complexion, make-up, lighting, and camera tricks are able to cover up these defects. |
| () | () | 3. The young actress has played many roles, among which are: a peasant girl who falls in love with a baron, a secretary who marries her boss, and a young starlet who marries a producer. |
| () | () | 4. When analyzed, these roles are all the same. It is much more difficult and takes more talent to play "character" parts. |
| () | () | 5. Miss Latour has an exquisite wardrobe. |
| () | () | 6. The magazine "Movieland" says she is happily married to Mr. John Kirkland. |

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

- () () 7. She has been married and divorced three times.
- () () 8. Miss Latour has recently filed suit for divorce from Mr. Kirkland.
- () () 9. She has adopted two children.
- () () 10. Because of her schedule on the lot, Miss Latour does not take care of these children.
- () () 11. Miss Latour adopted two children because the adoption of two children by movie stars is good publicity.

YOU BE THE JUDGE

Answer the questions below and judge the description for its truth or accuracy in representing things as they really exist.

1. How many items are included in the description? _____
2. How many of the included items are unfavorable? _____
How many are favorable? _____
3. How many items are omitted from the description? _____
4. How many of the omitted items are unfavorable? _____
How many are favorable? _____
5. This description is written chiefly in what kind of language? _____
6. In view of things as they really exist, is the description an accurate one? _____
7. What are the reasons for your answer to #6?
a. _____
b. _____

EXERCISE 3

A Stereotype Based on Fear

Who Isn't Human?

"Well, why don't you ask the boss for a raise?"

This is a frequent question, but how many people do it? If they do, they probably have a few "butterflies" and their speeches for the request are carefully worked out.

Why? A raise is a simple thing to ask for.

Executives or bosses often seem rather frightening. Some people feel that it is impossible to approach their bosses or to talk with them. Are you one of these people?

Psychologists tell us that one reason we dislike people is that we actually are afraid of them. If you dislike some person in authority, what is the basic cause of that dislike? Let's hope it isn't fear.

As you read the following description of a boss, think about these questions:

- (1) Are all businessmen like this at all times? Why?
- (2) What are some facts the writer may have omitted?
- (3) What facts has the writer included?
- (4) Why do you think he has included only these facts?

MY BOSS

My boss is typical of most businessmen who happen to have a few people working for them. Mr. Willard is fat and pompous. He is very irritable around the office and barks his orders to the secretaries. However, when customers come in, he is politeness itself. When he is asked to speak at Rotary Club meetings, he puffs up and no one is able to speak to him for two days before the affair. He does not hire a bookkeeper. Instead, when everyone goes home at night, he stays in the

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

office and counts his money like King Midas.

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

Read each item below.

A. In the first set of parentheses at the left (a) indicate whether the item was included (I) in the description of the boss or whether it was omitted (O) from the description.

B. In the second set of parentheses (b) indicate whether the item is favorable (F), unfavorable (U), or neutral (N) toward the boss.

- | a | b | |
|-----|-----|---|
| () | () | 1. Mr. Willard is fat and pompous. |
| () | () | 2. Often when people reach middle age, they gain weight. In addition, the writer has given no evidence that Mr. Willard is "pompous." |
| () | () | 3. Mr. Willard barks orders to the secretaries. |
| () | () | 4. In his business, Mr. Willard has a great many responsibilities and many people demanding his time and energy. |
| () | () | 5. Mr. Willard is very conscientious and tries to please everyone who does business with him. |
| () | () | 6. The boss is irritable prior to the time he is to speak at Rotary Club meetings. |
| () | () | 7. Mr. Willard, like many people, is nervous when speaking in public. However, he gets particularly upset and has to struggle with himself in order not to show it. |
| () | () | 8. He stays in the office after hours and counts his money like King Midas. |
| () | () | 9. Mr. Willard is paying the college tuition of two youngsters who are not related to him in any way, but are merely deserving. |

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

- () () 10. Even though his own business has been poor, he has given large sums of money to the Boy Scouts.
- () () 11. Despite the fact that he works ten to twelve hours a day, Mr. Willard has given freely of his time to help underprivileged youngsters.

YOU BE THE JUDGE

Answer the questions below and judge the description for its truth or accuracy in representing things as they really exist.

1. How many items are included in the description? _____
2. How many of the included items are favorable? _____
How many are unfavorable? _____
3. How many items are omitted from the description? _____
4. How many of the omitted items are favorable? _____
How many are unfavorable? _____
5. This description is written chiefly in what kind of language? _____
6. In view of things as they really exist, is the description an accurate one? _____
7. What are the reasons for your answer to #6?
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

EXERCISE 4

One American Stereotype

Who Is the Greatest?

"If the place is so swell, why doesn't he go back there?"

This remark is familiar. People may like to talk about their home towns or home states. They are proud of the scenery, natural resources, schools, industries, or whatever other asset their state or town may have.

Some sections of our country are noted for particular things. Often the movies have overdrawn the terrain of a section, the wealth, the poverty, or the people.

The description which follows is a stereotype of one group of people in our country. Obviously, the writer does not like this particular group of Americans. As you read the description, think about these questions:

- (1) Is this an accurate, truthful description? Why?
- (2) What facts has the writer included?
- (3) What are some facts the writer may have omitted?
- (4) Are all Texans like this? Do you know any exceptions?

THE TEXAN

He was overly-fond of telling you, no matter what the occasion, how much bigger and better were the things that grew in Texas. My little home town amused him. In Texas the stores are bigger, the streets wider, and the parking lots occupy at least a whole city block. We didn't know what farming really was. Why, in Texas corn grows fifteen feet high, string beans are as long as garter snakes, and a steer is twice as big as an Oldsmobile. The climax came when I showed him my "hot rod."

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

Texans could not be bothered with such contraptions. They all ride in Cadillacs. It was only after his departure that I wondered if heads were also twice as large in Texas.

People from Texas think everything in their state is "the greatest." If they think so, they should go back and stay there.

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

Read each item below.

A. In the first set of parentheses at the left (a) indicate whether the item was included (I) in the description of the Texan or whether it was omitted (O) from the description.

B. In the second set of parentheses (b) indicate whether the item is favorable (F), unfavorable (U), or neutral (N) toward the Texan.

- | a | b | |
|-----|-----|---|
| () | () | 1. In some cities in Texas, parking lots <u>do</u> occupy whole city blocks. |
| () | () | 2. The Texan is a human being with the feelings, aspirations, and ideals other people have. |
| () | () | 3. The statement that steers are as big as Oldsmobiles is "stretching the truth." |
| () | () | 4. Because of the familiar jokes about Texas, the Texan was joking with his friend. |
| () | () | 5. The writer uses sarcasm which is an unfair weapon of argument, especially when the Texan is not present to defend himself. |
| () | () | 6. The writer is making a statement about all Texans on the basis of his experience with one Texan. |

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

Other unfavorable things about the Texan given in the description but not mentioned above are:

- () () 7. _____
- () () 8. _____
- () () 9. _____
- () () 10. _____

YOU BE THE JUDGE

Answer the questions below and judge the description for its truth or accuracy in representing things as they really exist.

1. How many items are included in the description? _____
2. How many of the included items are favorable? _____
How many are unfavorable? _____
3. How many items are omitted from the description? _____
4. How many of the omitted items are favorable? _____
How many are unfavorable? _____
5. This description is written chiefly in what kind of language? _____
6. In view of things as they really exist, is the description an accurate one? _____
7. What are the reasons for your answer to #6?
 - a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____

EXERCISE 7

Application of Principles

Can You Use Your Head?

By this time you have learned many things about language and the abuses of language. Now let's see if you can identify some misuses of language by analyzing the description below.

As you read the description, think about these questions?

- (1) What does the writer want you to believe?
- (2) What devices is he using to accomplish his purpose?

FEMALE DRIVERS

When I first started driving, I didn't believe all the fantastic stories about crazy women drivers. However, after much experience, I know that they are all true.

Whenever I see a woman start to give a hand signal, I stop my car to see what she really means. Usually she signals for a left turn, zig-zags her car back and forth and turns right. If she signals a right turn, she ricochets right and zooms off to the left. Many times a lady will roll her window halfway down, put her hand out up to the wrist, and wave gently. This dainty gesture can mean anything from a right turn to an indication that she needs air. There is only one thing you can depend upon when a lady puts out her hand and signals-- the window is open.

PICK IT APART

Each of the sentences in the description is listed below. Keep in mind what you have learned about stereotypes and on the lines below

EXERCISE 7 (cont'd.)

each sentence tell what is unreliable or inaccurate in each statement.

(Note, as in the case of the description of the Texan, the use of sarcasm and humor.)

1. When I first started driving, I didn't believe all the fantastic stories about crazy women drivers.

2. However, after much experience, I know that they are all true.

3. Whenever I see a woman start to give a hand signal, I stop my car to see what she really means.

4. Usually, she signals for a left turn, zig-zags her car back and forth and turns right.

5. If she signals a right turn, she ricochets right and zooms off to the left.

6. Many times a lady will roll her window halfway down, put her hand out up to the wrist, and wave gently.

7. This dainty gesture can mean anything from a right turn to an indication that she needs air.

8. There is only one thing you can depend upon when a lady puts out her hand and signals--the window is open.

PART IV WHAT ARE GENERALIZATIONS?

EXERCISE 1

Generalizing by Use of Words

Referring to Groups

Why Are "Group Words" Unreliable?

From doing the preceding group of exercises, you know some of the weaknesses that can be found in descriptions of people. From doing Exercise 6 of Part I, you also know that some words are very specific and definite because they point to objects which are the only ones of their kind. You also know that other words refer to groups of things and that because they do refer to groups, they necessarily leave out some of the distinguishing characteristics of individuals in those groups. For example, if you were to point to your father's favorite rocker and say, "Chair," you would be denoting a group of things to which the rocker belonged. But you would also be omitting the distinguishing characteristics of Dad's rocker such as, "rocker," "mahogany," "cane-seated," "rolled-back," and so forth.

In addition, the words which refer to groups imply or suggest that all things in the group are alike. The word chair suggests that all chairs are alike.

I. WHICH ARE THE "GROUP WORDS"?

As you read each statement below, look for the similarity between them and the descriptions of people in Part III. You are to look for the "group words" in each statement. When you find them, write them on

line a. Wait for directions to write on line b.

1. Bostonians are snobbish.

a. _____

b. _____

2. Americans know the value of giving to the Community Chest.

a. _____

b. _____

3. "A" students behave well in school and out.

a. _____

b. _____

4. Democrats are against big business.

a. _____

b. _____

5. Big businessmen wish to crush labor unions.

a. _____

b. _____

II. WHY ARE THEY UNRELIABLE?

Each of the statements above is a generalization. To find out the weaknesses in generalizations, answer the questions in the spaces provided below.

1. What do each of these statements have in common?

2. In view of things as they probably exist, do you think that

each of these statements is absolutely true? Write the reasons

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

for your answer in each case.

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

3. What do each of these statements imply or suggest?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

4. Do you remember the work you did with judgments and connotative words? In addition to the fact that they are generalizations, other words make these statements unreliable. Write the words, other than group or generalizing words, which make the statements unreliable on line b.

5. From doing this exercise, you have learned another weakness or abuse of language.

- a. The abuse of language studied in this exercise is called _____.
- b. One way to recognize it is _____.
- c. It is an abuse or weakness in the use of language because _____.

EXERCISE 2

Other Generalizing Signals

What's the Reason?

The statements below contain the same weakness as the sentences with the "group words" in the preceding exercise. However, you will find that these statements contain signals by which you can recognize their weaknesses. Read each statement. Write the signal word that makes the sentence a generalization on line a. Wait for directions to write on line b.

I. GENERALIZATIONS

1. Whenever theater people tell about great acting, they mention Ethel Barrymore.
a. _____ b. _____
2. There will always be an England.
a. _____ b. _____
3. Wherever you go you will find juvenile delinquency.
a. _____ b. _____
4. Children with proper upbringing never get into trouble.
a. _____ b. _____
5. Just put your hat anywhere. It will be all right.
a. _____ b. _____
6. Everyone knows the Esso sign means quality.
a. _____ b. _____
7. Everywhere you go nowadays, you find neon signs glaring in your face.
a. _____ b. _____

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

8. All girls are fickle.

a. _____ b. _____

Now here are some more generalizations. The reasons why they are generalizations are a little more "hidden." But they are generalizations nevertheless. Read each statement. Watch for the signals! When you find a signal, write it on line a. below each statement.

9. Teen-agers who hang around in front of drugstores are usually on their way to becoming delinquents.

a. _____ b. _____

10. Most parents want their children to have college educations.

a. _____ b. _____

11. Nearly everyone in our country knows the words to "The Star-Spangled Banner."

a. _____ b. _____

12. Almost all teen-agers smoke.

a. _____ b. _____

13. Most of the time people are honest.

a. _____ b. _____

14. Betty hardly ever knows an answer.

a. _____ b. _____

15. Anyone can tell that Marilyn is now very happy.

a. _____ b. _____

II. FIND THE REASON

Now answer the questions below and learn more about generalizations.

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

1. What do all these statements have in common?

2. What do the statements have in common with those in Exercise 1 which contained "group words"?

3. Now reread each statement. On the lines provided below, tell, in your own words, why each statement is probably untrue.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

d. _____

e. _____

f. _____

g. _____

h. _____

i. _____

j. _____

k. _____

l. _____

m. _____

n. _____

o. _____

4. Now to keep your memory fresh and your skills polished, go back to each generalization, reread it, and write on line b. the word or words (in addition to generalizing ones) that make the statement unreliable. Don't be fooled! Not all the statements contain connotative or judgment words.

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

5. In this exercise you have learned some words which act as signals and tell you that a generalization is at hand. List these signal words on the lines below. There are fifteen of them.

a. _____

h. _____

b. _____

i. _____

c. _____

j. _____

d. _____

k. _____

e. _____

l. _____

f. _____

m. _____

g. _____

n. _____

o. _____

EXERCISE 3

Generalizing by Implying

Why Don't They Say So?

In Exercise 1 of this section you learned that "group words" are general because they refer to a whole group or class of things and neglect individual exceptions which may be in a particular group. In the second exercise you learned that some words, such as "always," "never," "everyone," "anyone," "everywhere," "anywhere," "whenever," "wherever," and "all," signal, "Beware! A generalization is coming."

In this exercise you will learn that some generalizations do not carry these signals. Nevertheless they are generalizations. How do such statements generalize? They imply. Imply means "to suggest." This kind of generalization suggests to the reader the terms "always," "never," "everywhere," "anywhere," and so forth. For example:

Honesty is the best policy.

There are only five words written here--honesty, is, the, best, policy, but the statement implies always. What the writer is suggesting is that honesty is always the best policy.

This kind of generalization is the most dangerous because the signal word is omitted and people are not always aware that a generalization is being made. Also the unthinking reader accepts the "always," "never," "all," or "everyone" the writer has carefully omitted. In short, the reader falls into a well-laid trap!

Then, too, the example given above has an added "charge." Do you remember the words which cannot be proved because they refer to ideas

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

and feelings rather than things which actually exist? Honesty is one of them. These are "loaded" because they appeal to people's personal opinions and ideas and because they are personal, people often fail to realize that such words have no referents in the physical world.

Below are some statements. Read each one. Then on the lines below tell:

- (a) the generalizing term or terms (signal words) which are implied in the statement, and
- (b) the word or words which are abstract because they refer to ideas or feelings.

Remember that there may be more than one abstract word and there may be more than one generalization implied. Be sure to get the answers before you go on to the next part.

I. IMPLIED GENERALIZATIONS

1. Silence is golden.

a. Implied - _____

b. Abstract words - _____

2. To err is human.

a. Implied - _____

b. Abstract words - _____

3. Dog is man's best friend.

a. Implied - _____

b. Abstract words - _____

4. American workers are poor but honest.

a. Implied - _____

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

- b. Abstract words - _____
5. Cleanliness is next to godliness.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____
6. Early to bed, early to rise, makes you healthy, wealthy, and wise.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____
7. Man is a rational animal.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____
8. Where there's "Ginger," there's trouble.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____
9. When there's a teen-ager in a car, there will be juvenile delinquency.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____
10. Democracy is inefficient.
- a. Implied - _____
- b. Abstract words - _____

II. SUMMARIZING WHAT YOU HAVE LEARNED

When you have the answers to the items above, answer the questions below.

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

1. What do all these statements have in common?

a. _____

b. _____

2. Why are statements such as these dangerous if accepted without question?

EXERCISE 4

Review of Generalizations

How Clever Are You?

Read each statement below. Some of them are generalizations; some are reports.

A. On line a:

1. Tell whether the statement is a generalization (G),
2. A report (R),
3. Or a combination of a generalization and a judgment (G and J).

B. On line b:

1. If the statement is a generalization, write the signal word which tells you it is a generalization. If the generalization is implied, write the generalizing (signal) word which is implied.
2. If the statement is a report, write the denotative or specific word or words which make it a report.

C. On line c:

1. Write any group (abstract) words or connotative words (words which refer to ideas and feelings) which may be in the statement.
2. If there are no words of this kind in the statement, it is not necessary to put anything on the third line.

REPORT OR GENERALIZATION?

1. She has won three prizes for jitterbugging.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

2. There's an exception to every rule.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. Never put off until tomorrow what you can do today.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

4. Water consists of one part Hydrogen and two parts Oxygen.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

5. The pupil is not greater than the master.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

6. Blessed are the meek.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

7. The businessmen of Atlanta display racial discrimination.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

8. It was reported today that two Atlantan restaurant owners refused to serve a party of five Negroes.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

9. You shave closer with a Slick.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

10. Try Westerfields. They satisfy.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

EXERCISE 5 Review of Reports, Judgments,
Inferences and Generalizations

Are You A Master Mind?

This is an exercise to help you review and to test yourself. In the group of statements below you will find judgments, inferences, generalizations, and reports.

A. On line a, tell whether the statement is a judgment (J), an inference (I), a generalization (G), a report (R), or a combination of these.

B. On line b:

1. Write the word or words which make the statement a judgment, a generalization, or a report.
2. If a generalization is implied, write the generalizing (signal) word which is implied.
3. If the statement is an inference, give the reason why it is an inference.

C. On line c:

1. Write any group or connotative words which appear in the statement.
2. Label them group or connotative words.

If a part of the directions does not apply, then you do not have to put anything on the lines. The first one is done for you.

REPORT, JUDGMENT, INFERENCE, OR GENERALIZATION?

1. Negroes are lazy.
 - a. G and J
 - b. All Negroes are lazy is implied. lazy
 - c. "Group word" - Negroes. Connotative word - lazy.

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

2. All Centerville teachers signed a petition in favor of Mr. Dodson as superintendent.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

3. The teachers signed because Mr. Dodson is such a nice person.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

4. They signed because they like him.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

5. Mrs. Cory watched her husband die; she sat without speaking or moving; she smiled as he finally died.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

6. Mrs. Cory is a cruel woman.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

7. Mrs. Cory was relieved to see her husband's suffering cut short by death.

a. _____

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

b. _____

c. _____

8. There are sixteen ounces in a pound.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

9. It is silly to become nervous when you are giving a speech.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

10. Morse's outstanding record in Congress assures his election.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

11. Ernest Hemingway has written The Sun Also Rises, A Farewell to Arms, For Whom the Bell Tolls, and The Old Man and the Sea.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

12. His novels are gloomy.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

13. Jean has been taking piano lessons for five years. She likes to play.

a. _____

b. _____

c. _____

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

These are used in everyday speech and because they are commonly used, you do not stop to think that they are really figurative language, or language that makes comparisons. By now you might guess that figurative language is not used exclusively by poets.

Why use figurative language? Quite often it is used to make writing more vivid; sometimes it is used to sell people an idea. For example, consider these two expressions:

Literal 1. I love you very much.

Figurative 2. My love for you is like an eternal flame.

Literal 1. Florida is very warm.

Figurative 2. Florida is the playground of sunbeams.

Which one of each pair is more convincing? Why?

Figurative language or figures of speech compare two things which differ in most ways. This is important. However, they are very much alike in one way. That way is usually a quality which the two things have in common. For example:

A pretty girl is like a melody.

The two things being compared are a pretty girl and a melody. They are alike in that they are both beautiful.

Betty is a lemon.

The two things being compared are Betty and a lemon. They are unlike in every way (Betty is a person; a lemon is a fruit), except one-- they are both sour!

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

I. CAN YOU FIND THE QUALITY?

Read each figure of speech below. They are all similes. Similes are easy to discover because they contain one of two signal words which announce them. When you have read each one, on the lines below each item, write:

- a. the signal word,
 - b. the two things being compared,
 - c. the quality which the two things have in common.
1. He was coughing like a tired Ford.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They both _____.
 2. The workman's hands were as rough as sandpaper.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
 3. The toddler's hair was as soft as cornsilk.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
 4. She was as gay as a Christmas tree.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

5. Her eyes sparkled like ginger ale.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They both _____.
6. The fighter had hands like two large hams.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
7. Mr. Smith has a face like a bloodhound.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
8. John acted like a fish out of water.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
9. Her words were like knives.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.
10. The new clerk approached her first customer like a cat fording a mud puddle.
 - a. The signal word is _____.
 - b. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
 - c. They are both _____.

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

II. DID YOU GET THE PICTURE?

Some of the similes were a little more difficult than the others.

To clear up any confusions, answer the questions below.

1. In what ways were each of the two things being compared alike?
In what ways were they unlike?

ALIKE

- a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
e. _____
f. _____
g. _____
h. _____
i. _____
j. _____

UNLIKE

- a. _____
b. _____
c. _____
d. _____
e. _____
f. _____
g. _____
h. _____
i. _____
j. _____

2. What words told you a comparison was being made?

3. The similes contained in items #6 - #10 in the first section were a little more difficult. Why?

4. Can you prove each comparison is true by referring to physical objects? Why?

EXERCISE 1 (cont'd.)

Imaginative comparisons which use the signal words like or as are called similes. They do not prove anything; they merely point out similarities between essentially dissimilar things. To be called figurative, an expression must be the product of a person's imagination and the comparison must be between two very dissimilar things which have one quality in common.

III. WHAT STATEMENTS CAN YOU MAKE ABOUT SIMILES?

Look again at sections I and II of this exercise and see what generalizing statements you can make about similes. You should be able to find five ways in which they are alike.

Similes have these things in common:

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

EXERCISE 2 Characteristics of Figurative Language

Which Is Figurative?

Not all comparisons are figurative. For example, "He is as sour as a dill pickle" is a figure of speech. Why? The two things being compared are basically different and they have only one thing in common. "He" (a person) is basically different from a pickle (a vegetable). However, "He is a sourpuss" is not a figure of speech. Why? "He" and "sourpuss" are both people and, therefore, basically they are the same. So don't be fooled! To be a figure of speech, the two things being compared must be basically different.

In fact, a figure of speech gets its "punch" from the fact that two things so unlike have something in common. A figure of speech, like the first example above, gives you a surprise; a literal comparison, like the second example, does not.

I. WHICH IS FIGURATIVE?

Read each of the items below. Put F in the blank at the left of those comparisons which you think are figurative. Put L at the left of those which you think are literal comparisons. Look for the things which you think make a comparison figurative.

- ___ 1. He is as straight as an arrow.
- ___ 2. It looks as though Eisenhower will win.
- ___ 3. Betty looks like Lana Turner.
- ___ 4. His mind was as cluttered as an old attic.

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

- ___ 5. His nose is like a little, round button.
- ___ 6. It looks like rain.
- ___ 7. He was as concerned as a mother hen.
- ___ 8. The stores were as crowded as could be.
- ___ 9. Carol is as graceful as a ballerina.
- ___ 10. Susan clattered away like a tommy gun.

II. CAN YOU SUMMARIZE?

Now answer the questions below and see if you can summarize what you have learned.

1. Look at each item. What is the reason for your answer in each case?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____
- f. _____
- g. _____
- h. _____
- i. _____
- j. _____

2. Look at each item you have designated as being a figurative expression. How are each of them alike?

- a. _____

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____
- e. _____

3. Look at each item you have designated as being a literal expression. How are each of them alike?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

4. What three characteristics or features do figurative comparisons have that literal comparisons do not have?

- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____

III. CAN YOU DO AS WELL?

Below are the first parts of some similes which have already been created. The last parts, however, have been omitted. See if you can create comparisons which are just as imaginative as those which have been created by well-known authors. Remember to use your own experience and to draw comparisons from places you have been, people you have met, and games you have played.

- 1. "She is as boring as _____
- 2. "Umbrellas plodding slowly along like _____

EXERCISE 2 (cont'd.)

3. "Her skin was white as _____.
4. "Little oval mirrors like _____.
5. "The moon like (a) _____.
6. "And mothers take home their babies,
Waxen and delicately curled,
Like _____.
7. "Smears of faces like _____.
8. "Gold and gleaming the empty streets,
Gold and gleaming the misty lake
The mirrored lights like _____.
9. "...the curled moon
Was like _____.
10. "...dissolved like _____.
11. "Fierce as _____.
12. "Cunning as _____.

EXERCISE 3

Implied Comparisons in Similes

What Is the Quality?

Here are some similes. However, they are different from the ones in the preceding exercises. As you read them, see if you can tell how they are different. Read until you find the directions to fill in the blanks.

I. CAN YOU SUPPLY THE MISSING LINK?

1. Sandra has hair like carpet fringe.
hair as _____ as carpet fringe.
2. He has a posture like a question mark.
a posture as _____ as a question mark.
3. She has eyes like saucers.
eyes as _____ as saucers
4. Her face was like a newly-minted penny.
a face as _____ as a newly-minted penny
5. The child's laughter was like chimes.
laughter as _____ as chimes
6. He has a personality like a turtle's.
a personality as _____ as a turtle's

How are these similes different? That's right. They omit the quality which the two things being compared have in common. They say that one object is like another, but they omit the adjective which tells the quality which the two have in common. For example, in the

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

first simile, the meaning is, "Sandra's hair is as stringy as carpet fringe." The quality which the two have in common is stringiness. The adjective "stringy," however, has been omitted. You, the reader, must see the similarity between the two essentially dissimilar things and supply the missing quality.

Now reread each of the similes and in the spaces below each item, supply the quality which, although not stated, is the one characteristic the two things compared have in common.

II. CAN YOU AVOID CLICHÉS?

Here are some objects which need comparisons.

A. Simile:

- (1) Write the comparison which is usually made on line a. These comparisons which have been used so often that they have lost their "punch" are called clichés.
- (2) Write your own comparison on line b.

B. Quality:

- (1) Write the quality which, although omitted in the cliché, is shared by both parts of the figure on line a.
- (2) Do the same on line b. for your own comparison.

The first one is done for you.

A. SIMILE

1. Feet like a. lead
b. _____
2. A heart like a. _____
b. _____

B. QUALITY

1. a. heavy
b. _____
2. a. _____
b. _____

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

- | | |
|----------------------------|-------------|
| 3. A chest like a. _____ | 3. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |
| 4. Teeth like a. _____ | 4. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |
| 5. She sings like a. _____ | 5. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |
| 6. They ate like a. _____ | 6. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |
| 7. Ears like a. _____ | 7. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |
| 8. He ran like a. _____ | 8. a. _____ |
| b. _____ | b. _____ |

Be sure to get the answers for the clichés which are given in the answer key. It would be fun to compare your original answers with those of your classmates.

III. WHAT'S IN A VERB?

Sometimes when there is no adjective to tell the reader the quality that the two parts of a figure have in common, the quality will be revealed in another way. Look at this example and see if you can tell what word in the simile tells the quality.

Her eyes glistened like dew drops.

If you've guessed the verb, "glistened," you're right. What two things are being compared? Eyes and dew drops, of course. What do they have in common? They both glisten.

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

Read each simile below and write on the line beneath it, the word which tells the quality the two parts of the figure have in common.

1. The children whirled like dead leaves in the wind.

2. He bolted like a rabbit being chased by hound dogs.

3. The old woman barked at the children like a fox terrier.

4. His words cut the silence like a stiletto.

5. The girl melted to the couch like ice cream on a warm day.

6. She purred like a sleek cat.

7. Her look chilled like a deep freeze.

8. Her flattery cloyed like oversweet candy.

9. He sputtered like a jalopy.

10. The scratch stung like black pepper.

What word told the quality in each case? _____

Often a comparison expressed in a vivid verb is more effective because a verb gives the action.

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd,)

IV. CAN YOU CREATE?

The similes below have already been created by recognized authors. The comparisons have been formed by the use of verbs. Fill in the blanks with your own vivid verbs. Then compare your choices with those of the authors which are given in the answer key.

1. "There's a big China liner, _____ing like a gull."

C. Fox Smith, "Sailor Town"

2. "Old-fashioned radiators were _____ing like ghosts rattling their chains."

Margaret Millar

3. "When lit ships veil their faces

And (go) _____ like ghosts at a wake;"

Harriet Monroe, "Twilight"

4. "Life _____ like a geyser"

Alexis Carrel

5. "The sunlight _____ like the golden robe of a Shah."

John Gould Fletcher, "Irradiations"

6. "And trunks (of bodies) face downward, in the sucking mud, _____ed like trodden sand-bags loosely filled;"

Siegfried Sasson, "Counter Attack"

7. "The girl _____ out her tongue at him like a garter snake."

Marjorie Rawlings, The Yearling

8. "The school-boy _____ like (a) snail unwillingly to school."

Shakespeare, "As You Like It"

EXERCISE 3 (cont'd.)

9. "The twilight hour _____ like a soft shawl
over the great stone shoulders of New York."

Cardinal Spellman

10. "....the fog seamews skirl desolately,
and _____ like bits of paper propelled by the wind"

John Gould Fletcher, "Irradiations"

EXERCISE 4

Metaphor

What Is Metaphor?

Metaphors are comparisons too. However, unlike similes, they do not signal the reader with the words like or as. Metaphor means "a change in the shape of" and indeed, metaphors change the shape of things!

Do you remember the exercises on connotation and denotation? Well, you have a chance to use what you have learned because the words in a metaphor connote or mean more than they literally say. They suggest the quality that the two parts of the comparison have in common. You, the reader, have to supply the suggested or implied quality.

I. "ADJECTIVE-LIKE" METAPHORS

There are several ways of making metaphors. The easiest kind of metaphor to recognize is the kind which is formed by hyphenating the word like with a noun. Almost like a simile, isn't it?

Here is an example. See if you can supply the quality which is implied.

She has bird-like legs.

What kind of legs? Bird-like! What quality do you associate with birds' legs? Thin, of course. The writer could have said, "She has legs like a bird." If he wanted to use literal language, he would have said, "She has thin legs."

Read each of the "adjective-like" phrases below in Column A. Write the literal meaning of the phrase in Column B.

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

A. PHRASE

1. banjo-like eyes
2. a caterpillar-like moustache
3. a reed-like figure (girl)
4. a flower pot-like hat
5. a lobster-like face
6. a flag-like tail (dog)

B. MEANING

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____

Now get the meanings from the answer key. You will probably want to discuss the meanings of the phrases with your classmates.

Which expression is the more vivid in each case, the figurative or the literal? Why? _____

II. AGITATING ADJECTIVES

Now suppose you took the phrases in the section above and left out the word like. Could you find the comparison?

1. Banjo eyes

The two things being compared are eyes and banjos.

The person's eyes are like banjos.

What is the quality they have in common? Why, his eyes are

as round as banjos.

2. A reed figure

The objects being compared are _____ and _____.

The girl's figure is _____ a reed.

Her figure is _____ a reed.

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

Now you have it. Some metaphors are formed with adjectives alone. Notice that the words like and as are omitted. Notice also that the quality which the two objects have in common is omitted. The writer lets the reader's imagination supply the similarity between the two.

Below are some metaphors of this kind. The words like and as and the quality they share have been omitted. You are to supply these words and the quality and thus interpret the metaphors formed with adjectives.

3. a stony heart

a. a heart like _____

b. a heart as _____ as _____

4. a roast beef neck

a. _____ like _____

b. _____ as _____ as _____

5. a saccharine voice

a. _____ like _____

b. _____ as _____ as _____

6. pillow clouds

a. _____ like _____

b. _____ as _____ as _____

7. taffy hair

a. _____ like _____

b. _____ as _____ as _____

EXERCISE 4 (cont'd.)

III. ON YOUR OWN

Below are some examples of metaphors formed by using adjectives. Follow the same procedure as you did for those items above. However, work out the comparison in your mind. Write the meaning in your own words.

A. <u>PHRASE</u>	B. <u>MEANING</u>
1. A ski jump nose	1. _____
2. A kettle drum stomach	2. _____
3. Blueberry eyes	3. _____
4. Showshoe feet	4. _____
5. Picket fence teeth	5. _____
6. A mackerel sky	6. _____
7. A polka dot complexion	7. _____
8. A dish mop dog	8. _____
9. A cactus tongue ^{1/}	9. _____
10. Rockefeller ideas	10. _____

1/Montelle Hackett

EXERCISE 5 Unreliability of the Verb "To Be"

Is It the Truth?

Here is another kind of metaphor. What forms or links the comparison?

Her eyes are sapphires.

First, what two things are being compared? That's right--eyes and sapphires. Next, what quality do they have in common? Probably you would say, "Her eyes are as blue as sapphires." You may say the "blueness" is the quality which the two share, or the comparison might suggest sparkling. What word in the sentence forms or links the comparison? That's right--are. The verb "to be" is often used to form a metaphor. This does not really mean that the girl's eyes are (identical with) sapphires. But it does mean that the two things (eyes and sapphires in this case) have one thing in common. The two things stated as being identical are totally different from one another. However, they have one quality in common which comes as a surprise to the reader and makes the metaphor effective. Remember what was said at the beginning of this section? Proportions in mathematics and comparisons in language prove nothing. But language, unlike numbers, does not "stay put." As you do these exercises, watch how is and are skid around and suggest to the uncritical reader that the two things being compared are identical!

I. WHAT'S THE MEANING?

Metaphors which use the verb "to be" to link two things being compared abound in everyday speech. Read the metaphors in Column A below.

EXERCISE 5 (cont'd.)

In the blanks at the left of the metaphors in Column A, put the letter of the expression in Column B which gives its meaning. Write the quality which the two things being compared have in common on the line below each metaphor.

A. METAPHORB. MEANING

- | | |
|--|---|
| <p>_____ 1. She is a lemon</p> <p>_____</p> | <p>a. She is a stable person.</p> |
| <p>_____ 2. She is a cat.</p> <p>_____</p> | <p>b. She is a wonderful carpenter's helper.</p> |
| <p>_____ 3. She is putty in my hands.</p> <p>_____</p> | <p>c. She is worthless.</p> |
| <p>_____ 4. She is an old shoe.</p> <p>_____</p> | <p>d. She has a yellow complexion.</p> |
| <p>_____ 5. She is the Rock of Gibraltar.</p> <p>_____</p> | <p>e. She makes one feel at ease.</p> |
| | <p>f. She has a sour disposition.</p> |
| | <p>g. She is easily influenced.</p> |
| | <p>h. She makes sarcastic remarks about people.</p> |
| | <p>i. She is a Spaniard.</p> |

C. REASONING

1. Is the girl identical with the object in each case? Give the reasons for your answers.
- a. _____
- b. _____
- c. _____
- d. _____

EXERCISE 6

Connotation in Metaphor

What Can an Action Verb Suggest?

You know now that "is" and "are" when used to compare two things are not to be trusted if you interpret them literally. Obviously, one thing cannot literally be another. Now you will see what an action verb used in comparisons can connote or suggest, and how it can sway people's attitudes.

You have noticed that a metaphor does not announce that one thing is like another. It implies that two things are alike by using: (1) an adjective, (2) a part of the verb "to be," and here's another way-- (3) a suggestive action verb. When an adjective is used, you are more aware that a writer is making a comparison and a suggestion to you. When a writer says that one thing is another, the comparison is a little more "hidden." However, now that you are an expert, you know that "is" and "are" are not to be trusted since one thing cannot be another. When a writer uses a suggestive or connotative action verb, the reader is more likely to be fooled. The verb carries the sense of the sentence and because it is necessary to the sense of the sentence, it is often accepted unthinkingly by the reader. Many readers do not try to "look behind the words" to discover what the writer is attempting to connote or have them believe.

Will you, as a reader, be fooled? Try this and see.

The secretary clawed her way through the cocktail party.

What is the word that "gives away" the writer's attitude? That's

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

right--clawed. And it is the verb. What is the writer suggesting or connoting by use of this verb? What are the two things being compared? Why, the secretary and a cat's claws. What do the two have in common? You have it. The writer is suggesting that the secretary has some of the sharp, cutting qualities of a cat's claws. The connotation is unfavorable, of course.

It is easy to see that when a writer uses metaphor, he can suggest or imply qualities or characteristics about his subject by means of his word-choices. Connotations run wildly through metaphor, often without the reader's realizing that the writer is attempting to have him share his favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward his subject.

I. CAN YOU SEE BEHIND THE WORDS?

Read each metaphor which follows and on the lines below each one tell:

- (1) the two things being compared,
- (2) what the writer suggests the two things have in common, and
- (3) whether the writer is trying to have the reader react favorably (F) or unfavorably (U) toward his subject. Put the proper letters on the line at the left of each item.

_____ 1. She glittered as she walked.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

b. They both _____.

_____ 2. A thousand stars flirted in the sky.

a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

- b. They are both _____.
- _____ 3. Some people like to wallow in misery.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 4. "The sea growled assault on the wave-bitten shore"^{1/}
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 5. The little old lady bubbled through the conversation with her callers.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 6. The Senator's plan boomeranged.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 7. Harriman bloomed into prominence.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 8. Audrey Hepburn chirped her reply.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- _____ 9. The bank teller waited while Mrs. Brown rooted through her pocketbook.
- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.

^{1/}Jean Starr Untermeyer

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

___ 10. "A swimmer lacquered by the sea."^{1/}

- a. The two things being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.

II. CAN YOU CREATE THE FEELING?

Now that you have recognized favorable and unfavorable connotations in metaphor, perhaps you can create some of your own. Below are some metaphors which have already been created. However, their verbs which form the comparisons are missing. Some of the missing verbs have favorable (F) connotations; some have unfavorable (U) connotations.

- (1) Look at the connotation indicated by the letter in the blank at the left of each item. Then supply your own verb which makes the comparison.
- (2) In part a. tell the two things being compared.
- (d) In part b. tell what the two processes have in common.

In some cases you are given hints as to the kind of verb used in the original metaphor. Compare your choices with those of the writers which are given in the answer key.

- ___ U 1. Hitler's plan was to _____ (get rid of) the Jewish race.
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- ___ U 2. The enterprise was _____ (discouraged).
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

- U 3. Bud Smith ^(broke down) _____ his opponent.
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- F 4. "Our third goal must be to ^(musical blending) _____ our own self-interests with those of the Free World."^{1/}
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- U 5. "The Super Sabre now was ^(a person does it) _____ downward in a vertical dive at nearly 800 miles per hour."^{2/}
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- U 6. "The brain that could turn this trick had no trouble ^(learning rapidly) _____ up--in three years--all the economics that the professors could teach."^{3/}
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.
- F 7. "In two months' time the book had _____ through nine printings and 170,000 copies into the No. 1 spot on the non-fiction best-seller lists."^{4/}
- a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
- b. They both _____.

1/Peter F. Drucker2/William J. Coughlin3/Lester Velie4/Herbert Brean

EXERCISE 6 (cont'd.)

U 8. His face was _____ with freckles.
 a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
 b. They both _____.

F 9. Fog _____ (a person does it) away the snow.
 a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
 b. They both _____.

F 10. Age had _____ (acid does it) deep lines in her face.
 a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
 b. They both _____.

F 11. "A puddle _____ (a person does it) ^{1/} in the wind."
 a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
 b. They both _____.

U 12. "Winter _____ (an animal does it) ^{2/} away at the days."
 a. The two processes being compared are _____ and _____.
 b. They both _____.

1/Michael Laverty

2/Grace H. King

KEYS TO TEST
Suggested Answers

I.

1. c
2. d
3. c
4. b
5. a

II.

A.

Column II

1
3
4
7
8
9

B.

Column I

3
4
5
7
11

Column II

1
2
6
8
9
10
12

C.

Unfavorable

3
4
6
10
15

Neutral

1
5
7
11
13

Favorable

2
8
9
12
14

D.

N 1.R 2.N 3.N 4.R 5.N 6.R 7.R 8.N 9.R 10.

III.

	<u>Report</u>	<u>Feeling</u>
1.	_____	_____ ✓
2.	_____	_____ ✓
3.	_____ ✓	_____
4.	_____ ✓	_____
5.	_____	_____ ✓
6.	_____ ✓	_____
7.	_____ ✓	_____
8.	_____	_____ ✓
9.	_____	_____ ✓
10.	_____	_____ ✓

IV.

<u>a</u>	1.	<u>a</u>	9.
<u>b</u>	2.	<u>b</u>	10.
<u>a</u>	3.	<u>b</u>	11.
<u>c</u>	4.	<u>b</u>	12.
<u>b</u>	5.	<u>b</u>	13.
<u>b</u>	6.	<u>b</u>	14.
<u>a</u>	7.	<u>b</u>	15.
<u>a</u>	8.	<u>c</u>	16.

V.

- | | | | |
|----------|----|----------|-----|
| <u>b</u> | 1. | <u>b</u> | 6. |
| <u>b</u> | 2. | <u>a</u> | 7. |
| <u>c</u> | 3. | <u>a</u> | 8. |
| <u>a</u> | 4. | <u>c</u> | 9. |
| <u>c</u> | 5. | <u>b</u> | 10. |

VI.

- | | | |
|----|----------|----------|
| 1. | Answer d | Reason d |
| 2. | Answer a | Reason c |
| 3. | Answer c | Reason b |
| 4. | Answer b | Reason c |
| 5. | Answer b | Reason a |
| 6. | Answer c | Reason d |

VII.

1. Nearly all - business men - afraid - great increase - unionism
2. Whenever - sure - quality
3. Almost all - designed - attract - farmer's vote (The term includes all farmers.)
4. C
5. Women - best
6. interest - athletics - wherever
7. Americans - always - try - help - "underdog"
8. detested - everyone
9. C
10. C

VIII.

A.

<u>F</u>	1.	<u>F</u>	6.
<u>L</u>	2.	<u>L</u>	7.
<u>F</u>	3.	<u>F</u>	8.
<u>L</u>	4.	<u>F</u>	9.
<u>L</u>	5.	<u>L</u>	10.

B.

1. a. biscuits and a baby's conscience
b. light
2. a. idea and measles in a kindergarten
b. contagious
3. a. lounge chair and quicksand
b. suck one in; take one in easily
4. a. Squalus, a submarine, and a hungry porpoise
b. leap
5. a. plane and a homesick angel
b. ~~climb~~
6. a. stars and tears
b. slip
7. a. glass port and an eye
b. serve as something to see through; one can see through both
8. a. courage and a rock
b. hard; strong
9. a. diving bell and a great barnacle
b. stick; fasten themselves securely
10. a. time and an anesthesia
b. make one forget

C.

1. a. voice, tone of voice, and ice
b. cold

2. a. experience and a teacher
b. educate
3. a. a jet plane and civilization
b. go fast; have a great deal of speed
4. a. rock and inertia
b. heavy; hard
5. a. an electric fan and a person's head
b. able to move from side to side
6. a. cannon and a person's throat
b. able to make a hoarse-sounding noise
7. a. tail of a dog and the gears of a car
b. able to go into neutral
8. a. cascade of water and machine-gun fire
b. fall
9. a. corners of the mouth and a weathervane
b. indicate
10. a. pruning-knife and time
b. cut down; make things smaller

D.

- b 1.
- a 2.
- e 3.

KEYS TO EXERCISESSuggested Answers

Note: The answers given in the keys are not the only ones possible. The subjective nature of essay questions and of the material make it advisable for the teacher to discuss answers with the pupils to discover whether or not their responses show understanding of the material.

PART I: WHAT IS LANGUAGE?

Exercise 1

B

1. American flag
2. dollar
3. Statue of Liberty
4. New Year
5. gasoline
6. Democratic Party
Army team
7. Republican Party
8. barber shop
9. birth of a child
10. Camel Cigarettes

C

1. my country; freedom; independence; school
2. work; good time; new clothes; automobile
3. liberty; opportunity; freedom; refugees
4. party; good time; resolutions
5. buying gasoline; good time; trip; repairs
6. voting; election day; a Democratic candidate or president
football game; good time
7. voting; election day; a Republican candidate or president
8. haircut
9. a new relative; a present; trying to think of a name
10. a party; doing something unknown to Mother and Dad; a scolding

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. They all name the things for which the symbols stand.
2. They are all descriptions of symbols.

Exercise 1, (cont.)

3. They are all names for symbols.
4. Yes. A symbol is not the thing itself; it merely stands for or represents the thing.

A symbol is something which stands for or represents something else.

"Dog," "chair," "hat," and "lunch" are symbols because the words are not actually a dog, a chair, a hat, or a lunch, but they stand for the real objects. They are symbols for the actual physical dog, chair, hat and lunch.

Exercise 2

I. Possible Descriptions of Events:

1. football game
2. accident
3. a joke

Possible Reactions:

1. excitement
2. horror; fear
3. amusement

II. Possible Picture Symbols:

1. sad movie
2. food advertisement
3. Jackie Gleason, George Goebel or other comedy television show
4. moving picture taken on an airplane or boat

Possible Reactions:

1. sympathy; sadness
2. hunger; mouth watered
3. amusement
4. flying or rolling sensation

III. Possible Words Causing Reactions:

1. sissy
2. pretty; cute; good-looking
3. smart; intelligent
4. dumb; stupid
5. different

Possible Reactions:

1. anger
2. pride; shyness
3. pride; fear that I would not live up to the name
4. desire to do well; feelings of inferiority
5. anger; feelings of inferiority; shame

Exercise 3

I.

1. a. You get excited over nothing.
- b. You worry about things which have not happened.
- c. You lose your friends because of misunderstandings.

2. a. You are better able to "keep your head" in tense situations.
- b. You do not worry about things which have not happened.
- c. You keep your friends because you are better able to understand them.

3. Reacting to words as if they were the actual physical objects or as if they were facts, may result in physical or mental injury. But the name itself cannot harm one; the name is only a symbol.

II.

1. Each one is a symbol which refers to something else.
2. They all stand for or refer to different things.
3. They got their meanings from that person's experience.
4. The word is not the thing for which it stands.
5. A symbol is something which stands for another thing.

Exercise 4

To denote: to refer; to point to

A referent: is the object to which a word refers.

Exercise 5

I.

2. X
3. An upright post transversed by a horizontal one
4. transverse; go from one side to the other

Exercise 5, (cont.)

5. angry
6. burden; affliction
7. move the hand from the forehead to the chest, and then from one shoulder to another
8. intersects
9. suggested itself to
10. oppose
11. result of interbreeding
12. interbred

III.

1. It is spelled the same in each case.
2. It refers to something different in each case.
3. It is spelled the same in each case.
4. It refers to something different in each case.
5. No. One word may refer to several different objects or actions.

Exercise 6

Most definite _____ Least definite

1. Admiral Halsey, United States admiral, United States naval officer, naval officer, man, human being
2. White House, presidential mansion, mansion, house, dwelling, shelter
3. Leo, Siamese cat, domesticated cat, feline, quadruped, animal, organism

Exercise 6, (cont.)

4. "The Green Hornet," 1949 Plymouth, General Motors automobile, green auto, car, vehicle, transportation
5. "Let's go to the game," English, a Germanic language, an Indo-European tongue, language, communication
6. "Hamlet," a tragedy of Shakespeare's a Shakespearian play, an Elizabethan drama, drama, a literary classic, literature
7. Temple orange, orange, citrus fruit, fruit, food, nourishment
8. Henry Cabot Lodge, Republican Senator from Massachusetts, a senator, a congressman, a politician, a man, a biped, an organism

GENERAL TERM:

1. horses
2. heavenly bodies
3. furniture
4. writing implements
5. fuel
6. footwear
7. man-made fabrics

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. They point to things which are the only ones of their kind. Acceptable examples are the names of persons, places, buildings, bridges, etc., which are the only ones of their kind.
2. They point to classes or groups of things. Acceptable examples are the names of classes of animals, buildings, literature, transportation, or names which refer to groups of people.
3. a. A specific word refers to something which is the only one of its kind.
b. A relatively definite word refers to a class or a group of things.

Exercise 6, (cont.)

4. Each person may be referring to a different breed of dog. For example, one person may be referring to a St. Bernard and the other may be referring to a chihuahua.
5. Relatively definite or "group words" save time; that is, they enable a person to refer to many similar objects without naming each object individually.

Exercise 7

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. The other pupil's experiences are different from those of the writer.
2. No. The meanings of words which refer to ideas depend upon a person's experiences with them. The experiences of others are not always the same as one's own experiences.
3. Each person has had different experiences.
4. The word democracy refers to an idea; the words republicanism, Communism, imperialism, and capitalism also refer to ideas.
5. A person learns the meaning of democracy and other abstract words through experience.
6. You would make little progress. Each person has had different experiences and, therefore, each has a different meaning for the word.

SENSE AND NON-SENSE

- (N) 1. failure
- (N) 2. life; meaning
- (R) 3. Abraham Lincoln; shot
- (R) 4. Tab Hunter; Debbie Reynolds; money
- (N) 5. "fast living"; insanity
- (R) 6. Empire State Building; Eiffel Tower; taller (a standard of measure assumed)

Exercise 7, (cont.)

- (R) 7. weigh (a standard of weight assumed)
 (R) 8. bats; nests; build
 (N) 9. love; really
 (N) 10. truth

Exercise 8

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. No. His experiences are different from those of the writer.
2. Yes. Ideas of what constitutes a "fast rate of speed" or "speeding" will not always be the same as they are now.
3. Yes. Highway conditions vary from place to place and, therefore, the rates of speed at which one may travel with safety differ.
4. (a) an idea
5. (b) cannot be proved.
6. (b) unfavorable.
7. There is no true definition of the word fast because "fast" refers to an idea.
8. No, it is not a true definition because our ideas of what constitutes "speeding" have changed and will change with time and place.

Exercise 9

I. SPECIFIC WORDS

Baldwin apple
 Rudolph
 a Queen Anne chair
 a tag wrestling match

II. "GROUP WORDS"

syrup
 good grades in
 school
 table
 sweater

III. ABSTRACT WORDS

I slow
 I glamour
 F jealousy
 I cheating
 F fear
 F happiness

Exercise 9, (cont.)

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. They are all symbols.
2. They are all alike in that they are names for things which exist in the physical world; one can perceive them with the five senses.

The words in Column I refer to specific, one-of-a-kind objects, people, and events. The words in Column II refer to groups which are made up of many similar though different, kinds of objects.

3. The words in Column III refer to ideas and feelings; those in Column II refer to concrete objects which can be perceived with the senses. The words in Column I refer to specific, one-of-a-kind objects, people, and events which may be perceived with the five senses.
4. (Choice and explanation to be made by the pupil.)
5. People learn their meanings through experience.
6. There is no true definition of any of the words in Column III. A person acquires their meanings through his own individual experience.

Exercise 10

A. DENOTATION

1. one who belongs to the organization called the Boy Scouts
2. a small-furred animal of the feline family
3. of, or pertaining to the nineteenth century
4. any movement or communication to set forth an idea

B. CONNOTATION

1. a person who is very naive or idealistic
2. a woman who makes spiteful remarks; one who follows dance bands and wears a black leather jacket, boots and pegged pants
3. intolerant; narrow-minded; old-fashioned
4. deception; distortion of fact

Exercise 10, (cont.)

- | | |
|---|--|
| 5. one who is either born or naturalized in the Western hemisphere | 5. one who thinks of the United States first |
| 6. a device for converting mechanical energy into electrical energy | 6. a powerfully energetic person |
| 7. to set apart from others | 7. to keep separate services and institutions for colored people and separate services and institutions for white people |

Possible sentences

1. a. At twelve Robert became a Boy Scout.
b. When Mr. Jones became chief of police, he was so determined to enforce traffic laws, people called him a "boy scout."
2. a. Our new cat's name is "Petunia."
b. With that black jacket and pegged pants, you certainly look like a cat.
3. a. A marble-topped table belongs to the Victorian era.
b. If you do not believe that people should "date" until they are twenty-one, you are Victorian.
4. a. Lincoln's "Gettysburg Address" was a notable piece of propaganda.
b. In the 1940's the Communists spread their propaganda to many United States colleges and universities.
5. a. The Brazilians are also Americans.
b. No matter what your politics may be, you will probably agree that Franklin Roosevelt was a real American.
6. a. Huge dynamos at Wilson Dam supply the electric power for the surrounding area.
b. The doctor worked long hours and never refused a case; he was a veritable dynamo.

Exercise 10, (cont.)

7. a. The nurses segregated those patients on the critical list from those with minor infections.
- b. In Mobile the white population still insists that the colored people should be segregated from the white people.

TO DO AND DISCUSS

1. The meanings in Column B added or suggested an idea to the reader.
2. They reveal the writer's feelings about the subject.
3. It is the added meaning which suggests an idea or feeling.

Exercise 11

I.

<u>FAVORABLE CONNOTATION</u>	<u>NEUTRAL DENOTATION</u>	<u>UNFAVORABLE CONNOTATION</u>
2. frock	dress	"glad-rag"
3. officer of the law	policeman	"flatfoot"
4. eloquent	fluent	bombastic
5. author	writer	"hack"
6. cinema	motion-picture theater	movie-house
7. lady	woman	dame
8. slow learner	mentally re- tarded child	dope
9. sparkling	shiny	flashy
10. humanitarian	doctor	sawbones

II. Possible sentences

3. policeman

Exercise 11, (cont.)

- a. "Sargeant Nutter has proved time and time again to be our idea of what an officer of the law should be," said the Mayor.
- b. "Look at that flatfoot! He has an easy life," said the hoodlum.

4. fluent

- a. "Mr. Truman made an eloquent speech," announced the president of the Democratic Women's Club.
- b. "Truman made his usual kind of speech yesterday--loud and bombastic," observed the president of the Young Republicans.

5. writer

- a. "James Joyce is an outstanding twentieth-century author," said the teacher.
- b. "Who is the 'hack' who writes these true confession stories?" cried the professor.

6. motion-picture theater

- a. "I do not believe I approve of your being a cinema actress," said the Countess to her daughter.
- b. "That yellow buildin' on the corner is where the first movie-house in town used to be," said the old-timer.

7. woman

- a. "Queen Elizabeth is indeed a great lady," added the British newscaster.
- b. "Don't get mixed up with any dames," warned the thug.

8. mentally-retarded child

- a. "Your child, Bobby, will always be a slow learner," said the psychiatrist.
- b. "Gee, is Bobby a dope!" exclaimed the second-grader.

9. shiny

- a. "The three-carat diamond now displayed in Tiffany's window is certainly sparkling," said Miss Fontaine of "Woman's Hour."

Exercise 11, (cont.)

- b. "Where did ya' get the flashy ring?" the clerk in Woolworth's asked her fellow worker.

10. doctor

- a. "Dr. Salk is a great humanitarian," said the president of the American Medical Association.
- b. "Gee, what a sawbones they got here!" exclaimed the prisoner.

III.

C 2.N a. asksP b. begsC 3.N a. surprisedP b. impressedP 4.N a. talkedC b. gossipedP 5.N a. examineC b. investigateC 6.N a. saysP b. suggestsP 7.N a. spend timeC b. idle; waste time

Exercise 11, (cont.)

C 8.N a. spendsP b. grantsP 9.N a. retreatC b. run away fromC 10.N a. bannedP b. disapproved

IV.

(c) 1.

(b) 5.

(b) 2.

(a) 6.

(a) 3.

(d) 7.

(d) 4.

(c) 8.

PART II: WHAT ARE JUDGMENTS AND INFERENCES?

Exercise 1

I.

- (R) 1.
- (R) 2.
- (R) 3.
- (R) 4.
- (R) 5.

a. They are all written in report language.

- b. (1) Sugar, glucose
 (2) Harry, "A", history
 (3) Jean, "E", Shakespeare quiz
 (4) Bob, Lakeshore High School, basketball team, last year
 (5) Mrs. Smith, \$2.00, vase

II.

- (E) 1.
- (E) 2.
- (E) 3.
- (E) 4.
- (E) 5.

a. They are all written in connotative language, language of emotion.

- b. (1) wonderful
 (2) good
 (3) dumb
 (4) swell
 (5) worthless

III.

- (R) 1.
- (E) 2.
- (R) 3.
- (E) 4. Harry is a good student.
- (R) 5. Jean got an "E" on her Shakespeare quiz.
- (E) 6. Jean is dumb.
- (R) 7. Bob played on the Lakeshore High School basketball team last year.
- (E) 8. Bob is a swell athlete
- (R) 9. Mrs. Smith paid \$2.00 for that vase.
- (E) 10. That vase is worthless.

Exercise 1, (cont.)

- a. They all approve or disapprove of the persons or things talked about.
- b. It either approves or disapproves of the subject of each report.
- c. It tells you whether the writer has a favorable or an unfavorable attitude toward his subject.
- d. Connotative language; affective language; language of emotion
- e. A judgment is a writer's approval or disapproval of a subject. It reveals a writer's favorable or unfavorable attitude toward a subject and is expressed in connotative (affective) language.

Exercise 2

I.

- | | |
|--------|---------|
| (R) 1. | (R) 6. |
| (J) 2. | (R) 7. |
| (J) 3. | (J) 8. |
| (J) 4. | (J) 9. |
| (R) 5. | (R) 10. |

II.

A.

- | | |
|---|--|
| 2. Gail does not know how to dance. | 2. Gail is not a good "mixer," |
| 3. My new dress is linen. | 3. The new dress I have for the dance is lovely. |
| 4. Dick has not completed his assignments for the past two weeks. | 4. He is lazy. |
| 5. She does not speak to me. | 5. She is undemocratic. |

III.

1. They are all reports.
2. They are all judgments.

Exercise 2 (cont.)

3. The statements in Column A can be either proved or disproved by referring to concrete objects, persons, or events which physically exist.
4. No, a judgment is not reliable because it is a person's approval or disapproval and hence, his feelings about a subject.
5. A judgment is a writer's approval or disapproval of a subject. It reveals his favorable or unfavorable attitude toward a subject, is written in connotative (affective) language, or language which expresses emotion, and cannot be either proved or disproved.

Exercise 3

I.

A. B.

- (J) (P) 1. glamour, disguise
 (J) (C) 2. "cat," real
 (R) () 3. Plymouth, "wrap-around" windshield, automatic shift
 (R) () 4. Smith Furniture Company, Hollywood beds
 (J) (P) 5. Luv-Lee, beautiful
 (J) (C) 6. domineered, warmongers
 (J) (C) 7. help, best, crush, big business, monopolies
 (R) () 8. Lobster, seventy-five cents, pound
 (J) (P) 9. Velvetee, only
 (J) (P) 10. Cuddly, gentle
 (J) (C) 11. liberal, borders on, socialism

II.

1. a. The writer expresses his approval of and favorable attitude toward Kathy.
- b. The writer expresses his disapproval of and unfavorable attitude toward John.
- c. The writer expresses his approval of and favorable attitude toward Luv-Lee Soap.
- d. The writer expresses his disapproval of and unfavorable attitude toward those who are now in office.
- e. The writer expresses his disapproval of and unfavorable attitude toward business corporations.

Exercise 3 (cont.)

- f. The writer expresses his approval of and favorable attitude toward Velvetee Lipstick.
- g. The writer expresses his approval of and favorable attitude toward Cuddly Shampoo.
- h. The writer expresses his disapproval of and unfavorable attitude toward his opponent.
2. The feelings or emotions of the writer.
3. The word only in #9 suggests that the buyer is getting a bargain.
4. (Pupil's own choice of television advertisements.)

Exercise 4

I.

A.

- | | |
|-----|--------|
| I | II. |
| (J) | (P) 1. |
| (R) | () 2. |
| (J) | (P) 3. |
| (J) | (C) 4. |
| (R) | () 5. |
| (J) | (C) 6. |
| (J) | (C) 7. |

B. Rewritten Statements Possible

- | | |
|-----|--|
| I | |
| (R) | 1. Our team won seven out of ten games last year. |
| (J) | 2. They are swell athletes. |
| (R) | 3. The mayor was given a bronze plaque by the Chamber of Commerce. |
| (R) | 4. "Many people lose money on horse racing," the Senator declared. |
| (J) | 5. Malenkov "Butters Up" British by Baby-Kissing |
| (R) | 6. Mr. Woods Furnishes Clue to Girl's Death |
| (R) | 7. Five Internal Revenue Bureau employees were found to be members of the Communist Party from 1945 to 1949. |

Exercise 4 (cont.)

- | | |
|------------|--|
| (R) () 8. | (J) 8. The State Highway Department project promises safe driving in the future. |
| (R) () 9. | (J) 9. Portugal surges ahead with modernization. |
| (J) (P)10. | (R)10. The 1956 "Catapult" has a "wrap-around" windshield, power brakes, power steering, and a seating capacity for six. |

II.

1. Add connotative words, or words which suggest feeling.
2. Omit connotative words and substitute denotative ones.
3. It is more difficult to change a judgment to a report because it is necessary to supply actual, physical objects, events, or persons.
4. a. It expresses the writer's approval or disapproval of a subject.
- b. It is written in connotative language, or language which expresses emotion.
- c. It cannot be either proved or disproved by referring to actual physical objects, events, or persons.
- d. It appeals to the reader's emotions.

Exercise 5

I.

- | | |
|--------|--------|
| (R) 1. | (R) 6. |
| (U) a. | (U) f. |
| (R) 2. | (R) 7. |
| (U) b. | (U) g. |
| (R) 3. | (R) 8. |
| (U) c. | (U) h. |
| (J) 4. | (J) 9. |
| (U) d. | (U) i. |
| (R) 5. | (J)10. |
| (U) e. | (U) j. |

Exercise 5 (cont.)

II.

1. past and present tenses
2. future tense
3. a. No, it isn't because even though Russia has not attacked us in the past, there is no indication that she will not do so in the future.
b. The writer is using the known fact as a basis for making the guess in his second statement.
4. a. Roy has not missed a club meeting since he joined. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about a meeting in the future.
b. Bill has been an all "A" student throughout his junior year. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about the future.
c. The school has lasted fifty years. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about events in the future.
d. The writer judges Mr. Woodson to be an honest and fair businessman. Since in his opinion this is a fact, he uses this as a basis for making a guess about his ability as a future mayor.
e. The bank has never had a fire. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about a fire in the future.
f. Russia has not attacked the United States yet. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about happenings in the future.
g. The writer has never had a major illness. The writer uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about a possible illness in the future.
h. The writer knows that his football team won the regional championship last year. He uses this known fact as a basis for making a guess about an event in the future.

Exercise 5 (cont.)

- i. The writer judges her children to be kind to animals. In her opinion this is a fact. She uses this as a basis in making a guess about an event in the future.
 - j. The writer judges the senator's record as outstanding. He assumes this to be true and uses it as a basis for making a guess about his ability in the future.
5. An inference is a guess about the unknown made on the basis of the known.

Exercise 6

I.

- (I) 1. The writer is making a guess about the unknown on the basis of the known.
- (J) 2. So much is used connotatively.
- (J) 3. Fickle is a connotative word.
- (I) 4. The writer is making a guess about the unknown on the basis of the known.
- (R) 5. President and bill denote a specific person and a specific object.
- (R) 6. Dance, money, and orphans denote a specific event, objects, and persons.
- (J) 7. Best is a connotative word.
- (J) 8. Failing and undemocratic are connotative words.
- (I) 9. The writer is making a guess about the unknown on the basis of the known.
- (R) 10. Kefauver and says denote a specific person and a specific action.
- (I) 11. The writer is making a guess about the unknown on the basis of the known.
- (R) 12. Said denotes a specific action.

II.

1. a prediction; a guess about future events
2. Possible predictions:
 - a. death - There has never been an exception yet; at one time or another a living organism has met death.
 - b. taxes - Cities, counties, states, and countries, thus far, have needed money to operate.
 - c. a physical structure - In the building of a bridge, house, or other physical structure, if one knows the characteristics of the materials used, one may predict with some degree of certainty what the result will be.
3. A. Conditions Under Which Prediction Would Be Reliable
 - a. if science does not discover some way of keeping animals alive indefinitely
 - b. if cities, counties, states, and countries operate the same as they have in the past
 - c. if materials keep their characteristic properties
- B. Conditions Under Which Prediction Would Be Unreliable
 - a. if science discovered some way of keeping animals alive or prolonging life indefinitely
 - b. if economists find another basis on which cities, counties, states and countries can operate
 - c. if some chemical or physical change occurred and destroyed the characteristic properties of materials used
4. In the case of physical structures, exact knowledge of the characteristics of the materials is needed.

In the case of people, the ability to see into the future is needed.
5. No. They are only a person's opinion.
6. a. To verify judgments
 - b. To make predictions in order to plan courses of action.

PART III: WHAT ARE STEREOTYPES?

Exercise 1

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

- | a | b | | a | b | |
|------|------|----|------|------|-----|
| (I) | (N) | 1. | (O) | (F) | 6. |
| (I) | (U) | 2. | (O) | (F) | 7. |
| (O) | (N) | 3. | (O) | (F) | 8. |
| (I) | (U) | 4. | (O) | (F) | 9. |
| (O) | (F) | 5. | (O) | (F) | 10. |

- (I) (U) 11. A cigarette habitually hangs out of his mouth.
- (I) (U) 12. He gives evidence of poor upbringing.
- (I) (U) 13. He whistles at teen-age girls.
- (I) (U) 14. He makes disrespectful remarks to passers-by.

YOU BE THE JUDGE

1. seven
2. none
six
3. seven
4. none
six
5. affective language; connotative language; language of emotion
6. No
7. a. All statements included are unfavorable.
b. The writer gives no other side of Jim as a real person.
c. The language used is chiefly emotional or affective language.
d. The writer implies that all teen-agers are like "Jim."

Exercise 2

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

- | a | b | | a | b | |
|------|------|----|------|------|-----|
| (I) | (F) | 1. | (O) | (U) | 7. |
| (O) | (U) | 2. | (O) | (U) | 8. |
| (I) | (F) | 3. | (I) | (F) | 9. |
| (O) | (U) | 4. | (O) | (U) | 10. |
| (I) | (F) | 5. | (O) | (U) | 11. |
| (I) | (F) | 6. | | | |

YOU BE THE JUDGE

1. five
2. none
five
3. six
4. six
none
5. affective language; connotative language; language of emotion
6. No
7. a. The statements included are all favorable.
b. The language used is chiefly emotional or affective language.

Exercise 3

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

- | a | b | | a | b | |
|------|------|----|------|------|----|
| (I) | (U) | 1. | (O) | (N) | 7. |
| (O) | (N) | 2. | (I) | (U) | 8. |

Exercise 3 (cont.)

- | a | b | a | b |
|------|------|----|---------------|
| (I) | (U) | 3. | (O) (F) 9. |
| (O) | (N) | 4. | (O) (F) 10. |
| (O) | (F) | 5. | (O) (F) 11. |
| (I) | (U) | 6. | |

YOU BE THE JUDGE

1. four
2. none
four
3. seven
4. four
none
5. affective language; connotative language; language of emotion
6. No
7. a. All statements included are unfavorable.
b. The writer gives no other side of Mr. Willard as a real person.
c. The language used is chiefly emotional or affective language.
d. The writer implies that all businessmen are alike.

Exercise 4

WEIGH THE EVIDENCE

- | a | b |
|------|------|
| (O) | (F) |
| 1. | |
| (O) | (F) |
| 2. | |
| (I) | (U) |
| 3. | |
| (O) | (F) |
| 4. | |

Exercise 4 (cont.)

a b

- (O) (F) 5.
- (O) (N) 6.
- (I) (U) 7. The Texan told, no matter what the occasion, how great Texas was.
- (I) (U) 8. The writer's home town amused him.
- (I) (U) 9. The writer's section of the country didn't know what farming really was.
- (I) (U) 10. The Texan made fun of the writer's "hot rod."

YOU BE THE JUDGE

1. five
2. none
five
3. five
4. four
none
5. affective language; connotative language; language of emotion
6. No
7. a. All statements included are unfavorable.
b. The writer gives no other side of the Texan as a real person.
c. The language used is chiefly emotional or affective language.
d. The writer states that all Texans are alike.

Exercise 5

PICK IT APART

1. The writer makes a judgment about all Negroes. He uses the connotative words easy-going and lazy which reveal his opinion. He cannot prove this about "Buck"; this is merely his judgment.

Exercise 5 (cont.)

2. The writer says "Buck" never lifts a hand unless it is absolutely necessary. That "Buck" never does cannot be proved by the writer. In addition, absolutely necessary are connotative words.
3. The connotative words slow and careless reveal the writer's judgment. Since these words refer to ideas and not actual physical objects, the writer cannot prove his statement.
4. The writer, by using the word typical, makes a judgment about all Negroes. The connotative words sloppy, leaden drawl reveal the writer's judgment. Since "sloppy" and "leaden" refer to ideas and not actual physical objects, the writer cannot prove his statement.
5. The connotative word wonderful does not refer to any actual physical object and to anything which can be perceived by the five senses. This is the writer's judgment.
6. The connotative word rhythm does not refer to any actual physical object; to say that a person has "rhythm" is to make a judgment.
7. The connotative words rich, deep, and well do not refer to any actual physical objects; these are the writer's judgments.
8. The words "just what you would expect of a colored person," indicate that the writer had a judgment about all colored people before he even knew "Buck."

YOU BE THE JUDGE

1. No, this is not true of all Negroes at all times because people are not slow and lazy all the time. There are, and have been, many colored people who are very ambitious and hard-working. Roland Hayes, Ethel Waters, Marion Anderson, George Washington Carver, and Booker T. Washington are notable examples. In addition, there are many colored people who are not musically-inclined.
2. The writer has omitted that "Buck" is also a human being and as such, he may have ideals and aspirations.
3. The writer has included only those facts which lead the reader to believe that "Buck" is musically-inclined and lazy.
4. The writer wishes his reader to have the impression that all Negroes are lazy and musically-inclined.

Exercise 5 (cont.)

5. (Pupils' choice of exceptions to the stereotype.)
6. The judgment is that all colored people are slow, lazy, and have musical talents.
7. a. All the statements included lead to one general impression, that of a slow, lazy musician.
- b. The description gives no other side of "Buck" as a real person.
- c. The language used is chiefly emotional or affective language.
- d. The writer implies that all Negroes are like "Buck."

Exercise 6

ALL ONE WAY

1. They are all one-sided descriptions of people.
2. The unfavorable items outnumber the favorable items.
3. affective language; connotative language; language of emotion
4. a. It implies that all teen-agers are like "Jim."
- b. It states that all Texans are alike.
- c. It implies that all colored people are alike.
- d. They imply that all people in each group described, are alike.
5. a. Select and use only those facts which lead to a single impression. (They may be favorable or unfavorable toward the subject.)
- b. Use affective or emotional language.
- c. Imply that all people in a particular group are alike.
6. (Pupil's choice of a racial, business, professional, or other stereotype is acceptable.)
7. (A description in which report language is substituted for affective language and which gives more than one facet of the individual's personality, is an acceptable description.)

Exercise 6 (cont.)

8. The second sketch should be the more accurate description of the person's character. The reasons are:
 - a. It describes more than one side of the individual's character.
 - b. It is written chiefly in report language.
 - c. It does not imply that all people in the particular group are alike.

WHAT A STEREOTYPE IS

1. They are all one-sided descriptions of people, written chiefly in affective or emotional language, which imply that all people in the individual's particular racial, business, professional, or geographical group are alike.
2. A stereotype is a description of a person which gives only one side of his character. It is written in affective language and it implies that all people in the individual's particular racial, business, professional, geographical, or other group are alike.
3. People have more than one side to their personalities. They are human beings with ideals, aspirations, and feelings. They must react to family, church, school, and business situations and to the people involved in each. Each situation presents a different problem or relation and hence, difference feelings. A person would not react in the same way to all situations.

Exercise 7

PICK IT APART

1. The connotative words fantastic and crazy reveal the writer's judgment and unfavorable attitude.
2. The words "I know that they are all true" indicate that the writer is implying that each and every story about women drivers must be true in fact. The writer cannot prove this. The word true refers to an idea.
3. The word whenever implies that each and every time a woman signals, one must be careful because one can never tell what she means. The writer cannot prove this.

Exercise 7 (cont.)

4. The word usually implies that it is customary for a woman to do this when she signals. The word zig-zags connotes that she really does not know how to drive properly.
5. The writer implies that she always does this. Ricochets and zooms connote danger. The words reveal the writer's judgment.
6. Many times indicates that women often do this. The use of humor does not actually prove anything, but it helps to win the reader to the writer's point of view.

Gently connotes femininity and weakness which, when used in connection with a machine powerful enough to incur fatalities, is incongruous. Gently reveals the writer's judgment.

7. By using the words "can mean anything," the writer implies that a woman driver can never be depended upon to signal properly. He cannot prove this.

The connotative word dainty again suggests femininity and weakness and reveals the writer's judgment. The use of humor by exaggeration does not prove anything. However, it helps to win the reader to the writer's point of view.

PART IV: WHAT ARE GENERALIZATIONS?

Exercise 1

I.

1. a. Bostonians
b. snobbish
2. a. Americans
b. value, giving
3. a. "A" students
b. well
4. a. Democrats, big business
b. against
5. a. Big businessmen, labor unions
b. crush, wish

II.

1. They all make assertions about groups of people.
2. a. Not all Bostonians could be snobbish.
b. It is not possible that all Americans know the value of giving to the Community Chest.
c. Not all "A" students behave well in school and out.
d. It is not possible that all Democrats are against all big businesses.
e. Not all big businessmen wish to crush all labor unions.
3. a. All Bostonians are snobbish.
b. All Americans know the value of giving to the Community Chest.
c. All "A" students behave well in school and out.
d. All Democrats are against all big businesses.

Exercise 1 (cont.)

- e. All big businessmen wish to crush all labor unions.
4. (See section I of this exercise, part b. of each item.)
5. a. generalization, generalizing
- b. that it uses "group words" or words which include a large number of people or things.
- c. it includes all people in a large group and does not recognize individual exceptions.

Exercise 2

- I.
- | | |
|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1. a. whenever, theater people | b. great |
| 2. a. always | b. _____ |
| 3. a. wherever | b. juvenile delinquency |
| 4. a. never, children | b. proper upbringing, trouble |
| 5. a. anywhere | b. all right |
| 6. a. everyone | b. quality, knows |
| 7. a. everywhere | b. glaring |
| 8. a. all, girls | b. fickle |
| 9. a. usually, teen-agers | b. delinquents, hang around |
| 10. a. most, parents, children | b. want |
| 11. a. nearly everyone | b. knows |
| 12. a. almost all, teen-agers | b. _____ |
| 13. a. most of the time, people | b. honest |
| 14. a. hardly ever | b. knows |
| 15. a. anyone | b. happy |

II.

1. They all make assertions about large groups of people, many places, or long periods of time.
2. They include many people, places, and situations.
3.
 - a. It is not possible for anyone to hear theater people every time they talk about great acting. In addition, it is not possible that they mention Ethel Barrymore every time they talk about great acting.
 - b. One cannot see into the future and predict that there will always be an England.
 - c. There are places where there is no juvenile delinquency.
 - d. It cannot be said that all children with proper upbringing will never get into trouble.
 - e. There are places where one's hat would not be all right. (i.e. stove, dish pan, dog house, etc.)
 - f. Not everyone in the world knows the Esso sign means quality.
 - g. There are places where neon signs do not glare in one's face.
 - h. Not all girls are fickle.
 - i. One cannot say with certainty that teen-agers who hang around drugstores usually become delinquents.
 - j. One cannot say that most parents want (all) their children to have college educations.
 - k. One cannot say with certainty that nearly everyone in our country knows the words.
 - l. One cannot say with certainty that almost all teen-agers smoke.
 - m. One cannot see all people most of the time.
 - n. "Hardly ever" includes all home, church, school, and social situations. The writer could not see Betty in all these situations and record all of her answers in order to determine whether or not she hardly ever knows an answer.
 - o. It is not possible for everyone to tell that Marilyn is now very happy.

Exercise 2 (cont.)

- | | |
|----------------|---------------------|
| 5. a. whenever | h. all |
| b. always | i. usually |
| c. wherever | j. most |
| d. never | k. nearly everyone |
| e. anywhere | l. almost all |
| f. everyone | m. most of the time |
| g. everywhere | n. hardly ever |
| o. anyone | |

Exercise 3

- I.
1. a. always
b. silence, golden
 2. a. always
b. human, err
 3. a. always, all men
b. best, friend
 4. a. always, all American workers
b. poor, honest
 5. a. always
b. cleanliness, godliness
 6. a. always
b. early, healthy, wealthy, wise
 7. a. always, all men
b. rational
 8. a. wherever
b. trouble
 9. a. whenever, all teen-agers
b. juvenile delinquency
 10. a. always
b. democracy, inefficient

Exercise 3 (cont.)

II.

1. a. They are all generalizations.
- b. They all contain connotative or abstract words.
2. They lead one to believe that the assertion is true of all people, in all situations, or at all times.

Exercise 4

REPORT OR GENERALIZATION?

1. a. R
- b. prizes, jitterbugging (One may prove this by seeing a particular step or steps.)
- c. _____
2. a. G
- b. always, every
- c. exception, rule
3. a. G
- b. never
- c. what
4. a. R
- b. water, Hydrogen, Oxygen
- c. _____
5. a. G and J
- b. never greater, all pupils, all masters
- c. greater
6. a. G and J
- b. always blessed, all the meek
- c. blessed, meek
7. a. G and J
- b. all businessmen
- c. racial discrimination
8. a. R
- b. two Atlantan restaurant owners, five Negroes
- c. _____

Exercise 4 (cont.)

9. a. G and J
 b. always shave, every Slick
 c. closer, trade name "Slick"
10. a. G and J
 b. always satisfy, all Westefields
 c. satisfy

Exercise 5

REPORT, JUDGMENT, INFERENCE, OR GENERALIZATION?

2. a. R
 b. Centerville teachers, signed, petition, Mr. Dodson, and superintendent denote
 c. _____
3. a. J
 b. nice
 c. Connotative word - nice
4. a. I
 b. The writer knows that the teachers signed the petition. He is guessing that since they signed, they like Mr. Dodson.
 c. Connotative word - like
5. a. R
 b. woman, watched, husband, sat, speaking, moving, smiled, and died denote
 c. _____
6. a. J
 b. cruel
 c. Connotative word - cruel
7. a. J
 b. relieved, suffering, cut short
 c. Connotative words - relieved, suffering, cut short
8. a. R
 b. sixteen, ounces, and pound denote
 c. _____
9. a. G and J
 b. Whenever is implied. silly, nervous
 c. Connotative words - silly, nervous

Exercise 5 (cont.)

10. a. I and J
b. The writer guesses that Morse will win the election on the basis of his outstanding record. outstanding
c. Connotative word - outstanding
11. a. R
b. Ernest Hemingway, The Sun Also Rises, A Farewell to Arms, For Whom the Bell Tolls, and The Old Man and the Sea denote
c. _____
12. a. G and J
b. All of his novels is implied. gloomy
c. Connotative word - gloomy
13. a. R and I
b. Jean, piano lessons and five years denote. In the second sentence the writer is guessing that since she has taken lessons for five years, she likes to play.

PART V: WHAT LANGUAGE MAKES COMPARISONS?

Exercise 1

2. chip off the ol' block
3. a blue Monday
4. a dragnet
5. hard cash

I.

1. a. like
b. a person -- a tired Ford
c. cough
2. a. as
b. workman's hands -- sandpaper
c. rough
3. a. as
b. toddler's hair -- corn silk
c. soft
4. a. as
b. a person -- a Christmas tree
c. gay
5. a. like
b. eyes -- ginger ale
c. sparkle
6. a. like
b. fighter's hands -- two large hams
c. chunky, thick, clumsy
7. a. like
b. Mr. Smith's face -- bloodhound's face
c. long and sagging; sad
8. a. like
b. John -- a fish out of water
c. ill-at-ease; awkward
9. a. like
b. words -- knives
c. sharp

Exercise 1 (cont.)

10. a. like
 b. new clerk -- a cat fording a mud puddle
 c. timid

II.

1. ALIKE

- a. cough
 b. rough
 c. soft
 d. gay
 e. sparkle
 f. chunky
 g. long and sagging;
 sad
 h. ill-at-ease; awkward
 i. cut
 j. timid

UNLIKE

- a. "He" is a person; a Ford is a car.
 b. Hands are animate; sandpaper is inanimate.
 c. Hair grows on people; cornsilk grows on corn.
 d. "She" is a person; a Christmas tree is a plant.
 e. Eyes are animate; ginger ale is inanimate.
 f. Hands are animate; ham is inanimate.
 g. Mr. Smith is a person; a bloodhound is a dog.
 h. John is a person; a fish is not.
 i. Words are not physical objects; knives are.
 j. A clerk is a person; a cat is an animal.

2. like or as

3. The quality or characteristic they have in common was not stated in the simile.
 4. No, you cannot prove that each comparison is true by referring to physical objects because that which they have in common is an abstract quality. An abstract word refers to an idea or feeling and has no referent in the physical world.

Exercise 1 (cont.)

III.

Similes have these things in common:

- a. They compare two essentially different things.
- b. The two things compared have one thing in common.
- c. They use the signal words like or as.
- d. They are products of a person's imagination.
- e. They do not prove anything.

Exercise 2

I.

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| <u>F</u> 1. | <u>L</u> 6. |
| <u>L</u> 2. | <u>F</u> 7. |
| <u>L</u> 3. | <u>L</u> 8. |
| <u>F</u> 4. | <u>L</u> 9. |
| <u>F</u> 5. | <u>F</u> 10. |

II.

1. a. "He" (a person) is essentially different from an arrow.
- b. People's reactions at the present time are being compared with people's reactions in the past. The two things being compared are essentially the same.
- c. Betty and Lana Turner are essentially the same; they are both people.
- d. A person's mind is essentially different from an attic.
- e. A nose is essentially different from a button.
- f. Indications of rain at the present time are being compared with indications of rain in the past. The two things being compared are essentially the same.
- g. "He" (a person) is essentially different from a hen.

Exercise 2 (cont.)

- h. The stores are as crowded with people as they could be crowded with people. The two things being compared are the same.
 - i. Carol and a ballerina are essentially the same; they are both people.
 - j. Susan, a person, is essentially different from a tommy gun.
2. a. They all make a comparison between two essentially different things.
 - b. The two things being compared have one thing in common.
 - c. They use the signal words like or as.
 - d. They are imaginative.
 - e. They cannot be proved to be true by referring to physical objects; they do not prove anything.
 3. a. They all make comparisons between two things which are essentially the same.
 - b. The two things are alike in most ways.
 - c. The comparisons are not imaginative.
 - d. The comparisons may often be proved by referring to physical objects and events.
 4. a. They compare two essentially different things.
 - b. They are products of a person's imagination.
 - c. They cannot be proved by referring to physical objects or events; they do not prove that the two things being compared are the same.

III.

1. an endless freight train."

Irene O'Sullivan
2. walking toadstools"

Loretta Burrough

Exercise 2 (cont.)

3. leprosy"
S. T. Coleridge
4. tiny pools"
Lola Ridge
5. skull"
Lola Ridge
6. little potted flowers closed under the stars."
Lola Ridge
7. muddied heads"
Lola Ridge
8. sunken swords"
Sara Teasdale
9. a little feather"
Dante Gabriel Rosetti
10. a thin snowfall"
Elinor Wylie
11. a dog with tongue lapping for action"
Carl Sandburg
12. a savage pitted against the wilderness"
Carl Sandburg

Exercise 3

I.

1. stringy
2. rounded
3. big; round
4. bright; shiny
5. musical
6. withdrawn

Exercise 3 (cont.)

II.

A.

1. a. lead
b. _____
2. a. stone
b. _____
3. a. a barrel
b. _____
4. a. pearls
b. _____
5. a. a bird
b. _____
6. a. horses
b. _____
7. a. an elephant
b. _____
8. a. a deer
b. _____

B.

1. a. heavy
b. _____
2. a. hard; cold
b. _____
3. a. round
b. _____
4. a. lustrous; shiny
b. _____
5. a. sweet
b. _____
6. a. gluttonous
b. _____
7. a. large
b. _____
8. a. swift
b. _____

III.

- | | |
|------------|--------------|
| 1. whirled | 6. purred |
| 2. bolted | 7. chilled |
| 3. barked | 8. cloyed |
| 4. cut | 9. sputtered |
| 5. melted | 10. stung |

The verb told the quality each had in common.

IV.

- | | |
|-------------|-------------|
| 1. gleaming | 6. wallowed |
| 2. clanking | 7. flicked |
| 3. glide | 8. creeping |
| 4. leaps | 9. slips |
| 5. glints | 10. flick |

Exercise 4

I.

B.

1. large, round eyes
2. a small, furry moustache
3. a slim (thin) figure
4. a round, flat-topped hat
5. a red face
6. a waving tail

The figurative expression is the more vivid in each case because it compares two dissimilar things and the reader is surprised to find that two things so unlike have something in common.

II.

2. a. a girl's figure -- a reed
like
as slim (thin) as
3. a. stone
b. hard as stone
4. a. neck like roast beef
b. neck as red as roast beef
5. a. voice like saccharine
b. voice as sweet as saccharine
6. a. clouds like pillows
b. clouds as soft as pillows
7. a. hair like taffy
b. hair as yellow as taffy

III.

B.

1. a nose as curving as a ski jump
2. a stomach as round, fat, as a kettle drum
3. eyes as blue as blueberries

Exercise 4 (cont.)

4. feet as clumsy as snowshoes
5. teeth as pointed and wide apart as a picket fence
6. a sky as streaked as a mackerel's back
7. a complexion as spotted as polka dots
8. a dog whose fur is as fluffy as a dish mop
9. a tongue as sharp as a cactus
10. ideas as costly as the Rockefeller assets

Exercise 5

I.

A.

- f 1. sourness
- h 2. sharpness; cutting
- g 3. pliability; easily-molded
- e 4. comfortable
- a 5. stability

C. 1. a. A person is not the same as a fruit.

b. A person is not the same as an animal.

c. A person is not the same as putty.

d. A person is not the same as a shoe.

e. A person is not the same as a rock.

2. By comparing two totally different things, a person makes the quality which they have in common more vivid to his audience. Because the two things compared are essentially unlike, the reader is surprised that they could have something in common and he is more likely to remember that which they do have in common.

Exercise 5 (cont.)

II.

B.

1. Quality - predatoriness
Meaning - The president is like a predatory animal in his dealings with other people and he leads a group of men who are equally unscrupulous.
2. Quality - alertness; watchfulness
Meaning - The United States is the country which watches international affairs closely and does the work in this organization.
3. Quality - deadliness
Meaning - The Russians may be the strongest and most dangerous nation in the world.
4. Quality - poison
Meaning - Harry Truman is the spiteful and dangerous person in the Democratic Party.
5. Quality - noisiness, confusion, disorganization
Meaning - The Democratic convention will be noisy, unorganized, and confused.
6. Quality - driving force
Meaning - Piersall is the reason for the large attendance at Red Sox games.
7. Quality - unpleasantness
Meaning - Marilyn's acting is repugnant and inferior to even the usual kind of Hollywood movie.
8. Quality - restriction, limitation
Meaning - Marriage restricts a person's activities.

III.

1. One thing can never be, that is, exist as another.
2. He is probably making a comparison.
3. A person should remember that when saying one thing is another, he is merely making a comparison, since one thing can never exist as another, separate thing.

Exercise 6

I.

- F 1. a. person--jewels
b. glitter; sparkle
- F 2. a. person--stars
b. flirtatious; mischievous
- U 3. a. people--pigs
b. wallow; enjoy misery
- U 4. a. sea--dog
b. growl
- F 5. a. old lady--liquid; water
b. bubble
- U 6. a. Senator's plan--boomerang
b. return to originator
- F 7. a. Harriman--flower
b. bloom
- F 8. a. Audrey Hepburn--bird
b. chirp
- U 9. a. Mrs. Brown--pig
b. root
- F 10. a. sea--varnish
b. lacquer; make things shiny

II.

1. liquidate
- a. murder and the process of settling debts
b. rid
2. strangled
- a. discouragement of an undertaking and the choking of an animal or person
b. suppress
3. pulverized
- a. the defeating of an opponent and the grinding of a powder into dust
b. break down

Exercise 6 (cont.)

4. harmonize
 - a. the synchronizing of interests of people and the combining of musical tones
 - b. synchronize; make things agree
5. screaming
 - a. the screaming of a person and the shrill noise the plane of an engine makes
 - b. make a loud, shrill noise
6. sopping
 - a. a person's brain and a sponge
 - b. absorb
7. shot
 - a. a rise to popularity and the shooting of a bullet
 - b. rise rapidly
8. peppered
 - a. nature's freckling and peppering
 - b. spot
9. eating
 - a. a person's eating and the fog's melting of snow
 - b. reduce the size of substances
10. etched
 - a. the making of lines by acid and the making of lines by age
 - b. make lines
11. shivering
 - a. the rippling of water and a person shivering
 - b. quiver
12. gnawing
 - a. winter's making days shorter and the gnawing of an animal
 - b. reduce; make smaller or shorter

Exercise 7

- M 1. a. a vice and the Communists' method of conquering
b. tightening
c. U
- L 2. a. athletes and warriors
b. battled, warriors
c. F
- M 3. a. a greenhouse and paradise
b. beautiful
c. F
- S 4. a. dancing with Elvis and heaven
b. divine
c. F
- L 5. a. her talking and the Communist Party philosophy or line
b. Communist
c. U
- M 6. a. Senator's words and whitewash
b. conceal defects, cover up mistakes
c. U
- L 7. a. Kathy's looks and her mother's looks
b. _____
c. N
- S 8. a. youth and a star
b. bright
c. F
- M 9. a. burning of a candle and feelings aroused by temper
b. burn
c. U
- S 10. a. moon and a withered leaf
b. light; easily pushed
c. U
- S 11. a. a man's physique and an orange crate
b. awkward; unattractive
c. U
- L 12. a. babbling of an adult and the babbling of a baby
b. babbled
c. U

Exercise 7 (cont.)

- M 13. a. staggering of a person and the wobbling of lightning
through the sky
b. walk unsteadily; stagger
c. U
- S 14. a. people fighting off an enemy and a dog shaking water
from his ears
b. repulse; repel
c. F
- M 15. a. ship and the earth
b. steer for a destination
c. F

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CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Conclusions.-- It has been the purpose of this thesis to examine some of the factors which account for the complexity of the English language; and to concentrate on one problem in general semantics-- distinguishing between affective language and report language.

Because relatively little material was available for the teaching of semantic skills on the secondary level, the Workbook has been constructed to provide exercises to develop the following abilities:

1. the ability to distinguish between the symbol and the thing for which it stands
2. the ability to distinguish between the connotation and the denotation of a word
3. the ability to distinguish between a statement of fact, a generalization, a judgment, and an inference
4. the ability to recognize stereotypes
5. the ability to recognize two kinds of figurative language; namely, simile and metaphor.

Suggestions for further study.-- Further study is needed to reveal the manner in which an individual gains understanding of the connotations of words. Such research would aid in developing improved methods for teaching language skills.

Meanwhile the following specific possibilities for further study are suggested:

1. the construction of practice materials to develop the ability to recognize:
 - a. irony
 - b. pathos
 - c. the tone of an author
 - d. various kinds of humor
2. the construction of tests to determine the acquisition of these skills
3. the experimental testing of the materials of this Workbook to determine whether they are helpful in accomplishing their purpose.

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