ability to speak and understand novel sentences, we must ascribe to the speaker's mind a mental grammar that specifies possible sentence patterns. But in order to account for the fact that we have no direct access to this mental grammar, we must admit the possibility that some essential and highly structured parts of our abilities are completely unconscious.

3 The argument for innate knowledge

The character of language acquisition

We now turn to the preliminaries to the second Fundamental Argument. Suppose, following the discussion of the previous chapter, that we have mental grammars in our heads. The next question is: How did they get there?

Observation: All normal human children end up being able to speak whatever language is spoken in the community where they grow up. (If more than one language is spoken regularly, they usually end up speaking them all—but let's stick to the monolingual case for now.) And the language they speak has nothing to do with where their parents came from: a child of American parents growing up in Israel as part of a Hebrew-speaking community will become a native speaker of Hebrew; a Vietnamese baby adopted in Holland will become a native speaker of Dutch. So it's pretty obvious that children learn their language from the other speakers around them.

How do children do it? Many people immediately assume that the parents taught it. To be sure, parents often engage in teaching words to their kids: "What's this, Amy? It's a BIRDIE! Say 'birdie,' Amy!" But language learning can't be entirely the result of teaching words. For one thing, there are lots of words that it is hard to imagine parents teaching, notably those one can't point to: "Say 'from,' Amy!" "This is ANY, Amy!"

Think also about children of immigrants, say the Americans who move to Israel. The adults often never feel comfortable with the language of the adopted country. They speak with an accent, they express themselves with hesitation, they admit to not quite following the news on television, and so forth. Yet their children become fully fluent native speakers of the new language. Evidently the children have learned something their parents don't know. So the parents couldn't have taught them. Nor is the children's knowledge necessarily a result of teaching in school—and of course in nonliterate

societies it can't be the result of teaching in school. More often, the children just "pick up" the language from being with other children. (This example also touches on another phenomenon, the fact that adults usually have much more difficulty learning a new language than children do. I'll return to this in Chapter 9.)

Although children often learn words as a result of parental instruction, it is less clear that they learn grammatical patterns this way. Anyone who has attempted to correct a two-year-old's grammar will know that it can't be done. The following dialogue, recorded by the linguist David McNeill, is a famous illustration.

CHILD: Nobody don't like me.

MOTHER: No, say "nobody likes me."

CHILD: Nobody don't like me.

(eight repetitions of this dialogue)

MOTHER: No, now listen carefully; say "nobody likes me." CHILD: Oh! Nobody don't likes me.

(Of course, we can be sure that this child eventually got it right. But it may well have been at a time when the mother wasn't even paying attention.)

It is true that certain grammatical patterns are taught as part of school grammar, for example the rule that a preposition is something you must never end a sentence with. However, English speakers violate this rule all the time, and have for hundreds of years. I just did, two sentences ago. The idea that a preposition shouldn't occur at the end of a sentence seems to have arisen during the eighteenth century, when for the first time "authorities on English usage" sought to determine the "correct" way to speak, on the basis of the models of the classical languages Latin and Greek.

Now Latin and Greek genuinely do not allow sentences that end with prepositions. Neither do most modern European languages (for instance French, Italian, Spanish, and, with some caveats, German; Swedish, however, is more like English). If we translate "Who did she arrive with?" word for word into those languages-say, "Qui est-elle arrivée avec?" in French-it sounds as barbarous as "Harry ate peanuts a hundred" does in English.

By analogy, the "authorities" ruled that prepositions shouldn't end sentences in English either. Since that time, generations of children have been drilled on this rule, with little effect except in their

formal writing. And ending sentences with prepositions is still very much alive in English.

Such proscriptive teaching of grammar, which evidently doesn't work very well, contrasts strikingly with aspects of English sentence patterns that probably nobody has ever thought to teach. Here's an example. Look at the four sentences in (1).

- (1) a Joan appeared to Moira to like herself.
 - b Joan appeared to Moira to like her.
 - c Joan appealed to Moira to like herself.
 - d Joan appealed to Moira to like her.

Without thinking about it consciously, you have automatically inferred that each of these sentences has a different combination of who is to like whom. In (1a), Joan likes Joan; in (1b), Joan likes Moira or some unspecified third party; in (1c), Moira is to like Moira; in (1d), Moira is to like Joan or a third party.

How do we come to understand these sentences this way? It obviously depends somehow on the difference between ordinary pronouns such as "her" and reflexive pronouns such as "herself," and also on the difference between the verbs "appear" and "appeal." But how? Whatever reasons there may be, I'm sure no one is ever taught about contrasts like this by their parents or teachers or anyone else. Yet this aspect of English grammatical patterns is deeply ingrained, much more so than the taught prohibition against ending a sentence with a preposition.

I can't resist another example, because it's so striking. There is an alteration called "expletive infixation" that many speakers perform on words of English under conditions of extreme exasperation, as in (2).

(2) How many times do I have to tell you? I'm not talking about the Allegheny River! Can't you get it into your stupid head that I'm talking about the Susque-goddamhanna?

Even if you're too refined ever to use an expression like this, I'm sure you recognize it. Now the interesting thing is that we have pretty clear intuitions about how to use this infix. It sounds natural in the examples in (3), but decidedly odd in those in (4).

- (3) uni-goddam-versity manu-fuckin-facturer
- (4) Jacken-bloody-doff ele-goddam-phant

In addition, for those words that allow us to use the infix, we are very particular about where it has to go. If we try moving the infix to different places in the words in (3) ("un-goddam-iversity," "manufacfuckin-turer," etc.) we can see that only the versions given in (3) sound at all acceptable.

I'm fairly certain none of us was ever taught the principle (or pattern) that says where it is possible to insert an expletive infix into English words. Yet we readily use this principle to make intuitive judgments about new cases. At the same time, the principle is not so obvious to conscious introspection.

(In case you're wondering, the infix sounds right only when it immediately precedes the syllable of the word with main stress-"Susquehanna," "university," and "manufacturer." Since "Jackendoff" and "elephant" have main stress on the first syllable, there is no place to put the infix. But this is only a first approximation; there are further complexities that we can't go into here.)

We see, then, that much that we know about the grammatical patterns of English has not been taught. But this leads to a further problem about how children acquire language. Chapter 2 showed not only that we have a mental grammar, but that most of it isn't available to conscious introspection. Since adults aren't consciously aware of the principles of mental grammar (and the examples just presented provide further illustration), they certainly can't explain these principles to children—if children could understand the explanations in any event!

In fact, the most an adult can do is supply the child with examples of the patterns, in the form of grammatical sentences, or corrections to the child's sentences. For instance, notice that in the dialogue I quoted above, the mother isn't saying "'Nobody' and 'not' are both negative words, and you shouldn't use two negatives in a sentence." She is just supplying the child with a correct form. This means that the child has to figure out the patterns of the languagethat is, the child has to construct his or her own mental grammar. How?

Children are probably no more conscious of the patterns than adults. For instance, it doesn't make much sense to think that a child would confront sentences like "Joan appeared to Moira to like herself" by thinking "Hmm. I wonder who 'herself' is supposed to be. Well, 'herself' is a reflexive pronoun, so that probably makes a difference ... " To be sure, children eventually learn the words "noun" and "verb," and maybe even "reflexive pronoun," but usually not until the age of ten or so, long after gaining command of the grammatical distinctions these words refer to.

Even simpler phenomena show the disparity between children's command of language and their conscious command of it, For instance, by the age of three or four, children can be taught to count syllables in a word, but they are certainly making use of syllables long before that. Similarly, learning to read depends in part on being conscious of sequences of speech sounds, in order to sound out words. For many children, this is difficult at age six and even later; that's why Sesame Street spends so much time on it. But at the same time, children couldn't discriminate and understand thousands of words by this age—not to mention appreciate rhymes—if they didn't have a sensitive ability to discriminate and sequence speech sounds. (We will see in Chapter 5 how this ability is organized.) So we're evidently faced with the same problem for children as for adults: their learning is backed by unconscious principles that are unavailable for conscious introspection. And if anything, we're tempted to suspect that children's abilities at introspection are less well developed than adults'.

Where does that leave the learning of language? On the basis of what the child hears in the environment, and in the (near-) absence of teaching and of conscious awareness of what is being learned, the child manages to acquire a command of the grammatical patterns of the language—that is, manages to construct a mental grammar. This isn't the way we're accustomed to thinking of language learning. We usually think of it in terms of something like French class in school, a highly structured situation in which teacher and learner bring a lot of conscious attention to bear on rules and regulations. The child's learning of grammatical structure just doesn't seem to be like that. The child learns just by speaking and being spoken to.

As a result, we can draw another conclusion about human nature: We can acquire unconscious patterns unconsciously, with little or no deliberate training. Perhaps we shouldn't even call such a process "learning," but for lack of a better word, let's leave the terminology alone.

A suggestive parallel to the unconscious learning of language might be the process of learning to skip, which requires complicated patterns of muscle coordination. It's impossible to describe to a child how to do it; the best we can do is demonstrate. And when the child figures out how to skip, it will be impossible to get him or her to explain it. Rather, the process of constructing the patterns takes place outside of consciousness; the major part of the learning is experienced as "just intuitive."

The argument for innate knowledge: The way children learn to talk implies that the human brain contains a genetically determined specialization for language

Here is what makes the child's acquisition of language even more remarkable. Thousands of linguists throughout the world have been trying for decades to figure out the principles behind the grammatical patterns of various languages, the very same grammatical principles that children acquire unconsciously. But any linguist will tell you that we are nowhere near a complete account of the mental grammar for any language. In other words, an entire community of highly trained professionals, bringing to bear years of conscious attention and sharing of information, has been unable to duplicate the feat that every normal child accomplishes by the age of ten or so, unconsciously and unaided. This contrast is so striking and so fundamental that it deserves a name. I like to call it the Paradox of Language Acquisition.

1 1 1

What are we to make of this? How could linguists apparently be so inept compared to children, including the children they once were? Unfortunately, one commonly held attitude is that in fact linguists are just misguided, and that the complications they are struggling with simply don't exist. "Language just has to be simple: even a child can do it."

But if language is so simple, why hasn't anybody else, maybe someone without linguists' methodological blinders, figured it out either? As a case in point, one of the early predictions of the computer revolution was that we would have computers that talked to us and understood us within five years or so, as soon as we could build a machine big and fast enough.* But at the time of writing, forty years later, state-of-the-art computer understanding of spoken

and written language is pretty rudimentary, and one still often hears the prediction that a full solution is only five years off! So the computer people are evidently no better than linguists at figuring out the organization of language—they are just more optimistic.

A more romantic approach to the Paradox might go something like this: "Children are just so wonderfully open and unselfconscious about the world around them! Look! They can pick up language without thinking about it, while we poor adults are hobbled by our self-conscious hangups." Now while there may be a grain of truth in this, it has to be an oversimplification. Why can we think more clearly than children about simple things like income taxes and going to the dentist, but not about the organization of language? Along with our "self-conscious hangups" does come some sophistication, after all. So the Paradox remains: there is something special about language learning that isn't available to adults, and it still remains to be explained what mechanisms permit children to pull off the feat. Saying that it's wonderful and unconscious doesn't explain it, it just restates the problem. We still want to know how it works.

There are three steps involved in escaping the Paradox. The first two have already been touched on. First, as shown in Chapter 2, what the child ends up with is a mental grammar that is completely inaccessible to consciousness. Hence adult linguists can't figure out the principles of mental grammar just by looking into their minds. Second, as shown in the last section, a substantial part of the language-learning process is also unconscious, so linguists can neither directly observe it nor ask children about it.

But to escape the Paradox, a third step is needed. Remember: children can't just "absorb" mental grammar from the surroundings. All they can hear in the surroundings are sentences; they must (unconsciously) discover for themselves the patterns that permit them both to understand these sentences and to construct new sentences for other people to respond to. Whether this process of discovery goes on unconsciously in the child or consciously in the linguist, the very same problems have to be solved. That is, doing it unconsciously still gives the child no advantage over the linguist.

About the only way anyone has devised to overcome this difficulty is to suppose that children have a head start on linguists: children's unconscious strategies for language learning include some substantial hints about how a mental grammar ought to be constructed. These hints make it relatively easy for them to figure out principles that fit the examples of language they are hearing around them. (Only relatively easy: it still takes them eight or ten years!) By

^{*} In fact, Chomsky's first book, Syntactic Structures, which appeared in 1957, acknowledges support from the US armed forces, who were at that time funding research on computer analysis of language. Why were the armed forces interested? Among other things, a "voice-writer," a computer that could take dictation, would be pretty handy for tapping phones.

contrast, though, linguists have no such hints at their conscious disposal, so the problem is much harder for them. To invoke a crude metaphor, linguists are in the position of searching for a needle in a haystack, but children have a powerful magnet that pulls the needle right out.

For a more biological analogy, perhaps language acquisition is something like reproduction. Just about everybody figures out how to reproduce-it seems pretty easy! But it has nevertheless taken centuries of research to understand the actual mechanisms of reproduction, and we don't have a complete account even yet. Does that mean that biologists are inept? Of course not. We don't expect them to have conscious access to the biological mechanisms of reproduction. Somehow, though, because language is in the mind, we are more prone to thinking we should be able to understand it readily. Again I want to stress that we have to give up this preconception. We must realize that some parts of our minds are as distant from awareness as our chromosomes are.

Somewhat more technically, the claim is that all of us as children come to the task of language learning equipped with a body of innate knowledge pertaining to language. Using this knowledge, children can find patterns in the stream of language being beamed at them from the environment, and can use these patterns as a mental grammar. Because this innate knowledge must be sufficient to construct a mental grammar for any of the languages of the world, linguists call it Universal Grammar or UG.

Well, fine, but how is that different from the "romantic" solution? The difference is that it doesn't just revel in the mystery of the child's ability. Rather, it leads to three important questions for research:

- 1. What do children know (unconsciously) about language in advance of language learning? That is, what is Universal Grammar?
- 2. How do they use Universal Grammar to construct a mental grammar?
- 3. How do they acquire Universal Grammar?

I'll set questions 1 and 2 aside until subsequent chapters, when we have a better idea of what a mental grammar is. At the moment I want to think about question 3, the issue of how there could be such a thing as "innate knowledge"-knowledge that is not learned.

First I have to deal with a couple of simple matters. For one thing, we have to keep remembering that Universal Grammar is every

bit as unconscious and inaccessible to introspection as the final mental grammar the child achieves and we adults use. So we have to tolerate a certain degree of strangeness in the use of the term "knowledge."*

"Innate" is also used a little loosely, in that I am not necessarily committed to its presence immediately at birth. Like the teeth or body hair or walking, Universal Grammar could just as well develop at some considerable time after birth; what is important is that its development is conditioned by a biological timetable. In fact, children usually begin acquiring grammatical patterns sometime toward their second birthday (although, as will be mentioned in Chapter 8, there are earlier precursors).

However we describe it, though, the point is that Universal Grammar is not learned. Rather, it is the machinery that makes learning possible. So question 3 amounts to this: How can knowledge or cognitive organization be available to the child before learning?

Fortunately, the outlines of a mechanism behind innate knowledge are available. Two components are involved: the determination of brain structure by genetic information, and the determination of mental functioning by brain structure. Let me take these up briefly in

First component: Until relatively recently, it was a major mystery how organisms reproduce their own kind-how it is that people give birth to little people and pigs to little pigs, but not the other way around. One of the major achievements of twentiethcentury science is some understanding of the mechanisms that determine inheritance of the physical structure of organisms: genetic material, coded in the cells' DNA and passed on from generation to generation, determines the physical arrangement and functioning of the body. Although the precise steps by which the genetic material guides the development of the body are as yet mostly unknown, we have for the first time a way of describing the physical basis of reproduction, inherited characteristics, mutation, and evolution.

^{*} The philosopher Gilbert Ryle has made a distinction between "knowing that" (for instance, knowing that Grant's wife is buried in Grant's Tomb) and "knowing how" (for instance, knowing how to swim). The latter might be called "operational knowledge" or "skill"—it is not necessarily verbalizable. And perhaps we can best think of the child's knowledge of how to learn language as like this. (There are some tricky caveats in this, though, because Ryle himself intended the term purely behaviorally: it's not clear he would have been willing to say that someone who has been paralyzed still "knows how to swim." I would.) In any event, for lack of a better term, I'll continue to use the term "knowledge," though it should be clear that I intend the term in the very special sense we have been working out here.

Among the parts of the body determined by the DNA is, of course, the brain. Its anatomical structure is highly complex—at least as complex as that of, say, the little finger. So, although there is some plasticity in the brain's physical organization, there is good reason to believe that substantial aspects of this organization are genetic. As Chomsky often puts it, we don't learn to have arms rather than wings. Why, then, should we suppose that our brains acquire their fundamental structure through learning rather than genetic inheritance?

Second component: The way we think is partly constrained by the way our brains are built. Hardly anyone disputes this: for instance, you are relying on this assumption when you claim that we are smarter than animals because we have bigger brains. Now the idea of innate knowledge of Universal Grammar can be rephrased, if you like, as saying that children have a certain "way of thinking" that enables them unconsciously to construct a mental grammar, given appropriate inputs in the surroundings. The hypothesis, then, is that this "way of thinking" is a consequence of the physical organization of some part of the brain-which is in turn determined by genetic structure. In short, the mechanism for acquiring innate knowledge is genetic transmission, through the medium of brain structure.

This hypothesis—let me call it the Genetic Hypothesis—leads us into a rich range of issues. For it says that the ability to learn language is rooted in our biology, a genetic characteristic of the human species, just like an opposable thumb and a pelvis adapted for upright stance. This means that we can draw freely on biological precedents in trying to explain language.

For example, think of all the surprising structural specializations in the organisms of the world—the elephant's trunk, the bat's sonar, or the little bones of our middle ear. Given such biological precedents, it hardly seems outlandish that there might be a structural specialization in the brain for language (and language learning).

Next consider the fact that the "innate knowledge of language" doesn't seem to be present at birth, but begins to manifest itself at around the age of two. According to the Genetic Hypothesis, this knowledge is determined by brain structure, so it is present only when the supporting brain structures are present. Now development of the physical structure of the body, including the neural structure of the brain, is by no means complete at birth. Among other things, in the newborn's brain the myelin sheaths that serve to electrically insulate the neurons from each other are not yet fully developed. Further, as suggested earlier, the physical growth of various parts of

the body follows a fairly predictable timetable: think of the developmental sequence of baby teeth followed by adult teeth, or the body changes of puberty, not to mention more dramatic developments in other species such as tadpoles turning into frogs. There is no reason why the development of the particular brain structures that support innate knowledge about language couldn't be like that. In other words, gradual development of innate knowledge over several years of life is very much in line with other developmental nhenomena.

This is not to say that we should go out and start looking for the "gene for language." The connections between DNA sequences in the chromosomes and the body's structure are exceedingly indirect. Biologists are just beginning to figure out how the genes guide the differentiation of the embryo into head, middle, and tail, about the crudest of all body structures. When it comes to the exquisite differentiation of the brain (or heart, or ear, or wrist), we are very much in the dark. In addition, we know almost nothing about how brain structure governs the nature of thought. So both components of the Genetic Hypothesis leave a lot of questions at the moment. Still, the Genetic Hypothesis seems to be a plausible way—and maybe the only plausible way-of providing the child with innate knowledge. It can hardly be said to be proven, but all the pieces of it look reasonable.

Let's try to put this all together, tracing our argument back to our initial questions. (1) We arrived at the Genetic Hypothesis as a potential answer to the question of how there could be such a thing as innate knowledge. (2) Why did we need innate knowledge? We needed it in order to solve the Paradox of Language Acquisition -how it is that all children can unconsciously "pick up" a mental grammar on their own, while linguists as a community can't figure out completely how the mental grammar works. That is, the Paradox shows how difficult the task is that children accomplish. Innate knowledge of some aspects of language would give children a head start on learning the language spoken in the environment.

(3) Why does the Paradox of Language Acquisition arise? Because, as we showed, children mostly don't learn language by being taught. Rather, they must be unconsciously figuring out a mental grammar that gives them the patterns for forming sentences. (4) How do we know that children must be figuring out an unconscious mental grammar? Because that's what they have to end up with as adults, in order to account for their ability to speak and understand an unlimited range of sentences they have never heard before.

Questions about innate knowledge

For some reason, the hypothesis of a genetically determined Universal Grammar has provoked various degrees of astonishment, disbelief and outrage since the time it was proposed by Chomsky. Let me try to defuse some of the more common reactions, once again through a conversation with my imaginary skeptic.

The child's acquisition of language clearly depends on exposure to language in the environment. So why should we believe that it is genetically determined?

The answer is that one's language ability is a complex combination of nature and nurture. A biological comparison may be helpful here. Our bone structure is obviously genetically determined, but it can't develop properly without nourishment and exercise. In this case it's clear that environmental interaction complements genetic endowment: both are necessary. Why shouldn't the same be true of the brain structure that supports language, where "nourishment" includes a sufficient quantity and variety of incoming information, and "exercise" includes the opportunity to converse with people?

I don't mind the idea of a genetic component to learning, so long as none of it is specifically linguistic, that is, if it consists only of general-purpose learning strategies such as stimulus—response learning or principles of association or analogy. But why do you insist that there is a genetic component of learning that has to do specifically with language?

The problem is that general-purpose learning strategies alone can't solve the Paradox of Language Acquisition. Adults, including adult linguists, have access to plenty of general purpose strategies, but they can't figure out the organization of mental grammar. We have to suppose that children know something more, something specifically about language. Still, this is not to say that language acquisition doesn't make use of more general learning strategies. It is just that this cannot be all there is.

But how could a brain structure for Universal Grammar have originally come to be coded into the genes?

The only possible answer is evolution. Unfortunately, there isn't any record of the evolution of language: we can't dig up fossil vowels or verbs, and the earliest written documents already display the full expressive variety and grammatical complexity of modern languages. So the route by which language evolved is pretty mysterious. It is easy

to see how having language would confer a selective advantage in the course of evolution, but presumably it didn't spring into existence full-blown. What are the steps on the way? There are not just one but many missing links.

On the other hand, evolution gives us an interesting angle on the Paradox of Language Acquisition. For it says that language acquisition doesn't just take ten years of the child's life. Those ten years are backed up by a couple of million years that evolution has spent developing in the brain the Universal Grammar that children start with—more time than linguists will ever have!

Isn't the Genetic Hypothesis just a "null hypothesis," a desperate move to explain away all this embarrassing complexity?

Remember: we're stuck between a rock and a hard place. On one hand, the expressive variety of language demands a complex mental grammar that linguists can't entirely figure out. But on the other hand, children manage to acquire this grammar. Thus, in a sense the Genetic Hypothesis is a move of desperation. As I said earlier, it's the only answer anybody has been able to think of; different schools of thought disagree mainly in exactly what and how much they think is innate.

Still, I don't think the Genetic Hypothesis is an attempt to explain the complexity away. One can imagine a similar criticism of the theory of gravitation: "The theory postulates an occult, invisible force; it just restates the facts of the interaction of physical bodies without explaining them." In fact, the Genetic Hypothesis plays much the same role in linguistics as the hypothesis of gravitation does in physics. It is a construct which, as we will see, serves to unify a large body of diverse facts from language structure, language universals, and language acquisition.

In turn, like the theory of gravitation, the Genetic Hypothesis calls for eventual deeper explanation. But remember, it is over three centuries since Newton postulated a gravitational force, and we don't yet have an entirely satisfactory theory of how gravity works. So I'm inclined to counsel patience.

Conclusions

Putting together all the considerations of the past sections, our proposed account of mental grammar takes the following overall form:

Mental Grammar = Innate Part (Universal Grammar) + Learned Part

In trying to understand the mental grammar of English (or Chinese, or whatever), linguists try always to find the simplest possible account, consistent with the complexity of the facts of the language. At the same time, rather than insisting that language is all learned (or all innate), we leave it as an empirical question to determine how the mental grammar is parceled out between innate and learned parts. Three basic criteria are involved.

- 1. If the language in question is different from other languages in some respect, the child must be able to acquire this difference, so it must fall into the learned
- 2. If certain aspects of all languages we have examined are alike, these aspects are likely to fall into the innate part. Of course, there is always the possibility that they are alike purely by accident. In practice, this can be checked out by examining more languages, preferably unrelated
- 3. Suppose there is some aspect of language that children couldn't possibly figure out from the evidence in the speech they hear around them. Then this aspect can't be learned; it has to fall under the innate part of the language.

The last of these criteria has been called the "poverty of the stimulus" argument. Its use requires a certain amount of care, and in fact there is a running debate on what sorts of evidence children are capable of using. We have already encountered this debate in discussing the character of language learning; there is more to come in succeeding chapters.

We can go a step further and decompose the innate part of language like this:

Innate part of language = Part due to special purpose endowment for language + Part due to general properties of the mind

Again, rather than insisting that language is based entirely on generalpurpose principles, or entirely on principles peculiar to language, we leave it to be decided by research how the work is divided up.

I sympathize with those who are suspicious of a specific

language capacity: we should try to minimize the first factor. A special-purpose endowment for language, after all, demands an evolutionary jump during the time since we diverged from the apes, and we would like to think that the jump was not too extraordinary. But that doesn't mean we can eliminate it altogether: something has to account for the Paradox of Language Acquisition.

To close this chapter, let's recall our initial question: What does human nature have to be like in order for us to be able to use language? Two more answers, having to do with the nature of learning, have emerged from the Argument for Innate Knowledge.

First, the learning of language isn't just a passive "soaking up" of information from the environment. Rather, language learners actively construct unconscious principles that permit them to make sense of the information coming from the environment. These principles make it possible not just to reproduce the input parrotlike, but to use language in novel ways. What is learned comes as much from inside the learner as from the environment.

Second, we have spent considerable time chewing over the idea that certain aspects of our knowledge of language must be derived genetically, rather than through learning per se. We have concluded that the child's language ability comes from a combination of environmental influence, which is obvious, and heredity, which is far less so. The fact that language learning is supported by a genetic component is what makes the task possible for every normal child, despite the complexity of the resulting knowledge.

Is the learning of language just a curious exception in the story of human learning, or are other kinds of learning like this too? If they are, there are strong implications for one's approach to education: one should see the learner as an active agent of learning, not just a vessel to be filled with facts. Education should stress the learner's engagement and creativity, for ultimately the learner must construct the knowledge in his or her own mind.

Similarly, we can ask if other kinds of learning are, like language acquisition, supported by some sort of special-purpose innate endowment. If this is the way language is, what about all the other things we do? We will return to this question in Part IV, after working out our ideas about language itself more clearly. But in the meantime, it should remain lurking in the background, for this is ultimately the issue that makes the study of language absolutely crucial to understanding ourselves.