

# Language and linguistics

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## SEMANTICS *See also abstract 75–30*

- 75-1 **Kempson, Ruth M.** Presupposition: a problem for linguistic theory. *Transactions of the Philological Society* (Oxford), 1973, 29–54.

The paper argues that the logical relation of presupposition is unnecessary in either a model of competence or a model of performance. Robin Lakoff's account of presupposition in terms of occasion-dependent implication is argued to be useless. Strawson's definition of presupposition from entailment is in terms of a three- instead of two-valued logic where the third value is assigned to the presupposing sentence just in case the presupposition is false. But where the presupposing sentence is false and the presupposition falsified under marked negation the relationship is logically one of entailment. Presuppositions have been discussed particularly in relation to definite NP and factives: the truth value of conjoined propositions involving definite NP (hence also factives) cannot be computed in three-valued logic if the presupposition of the conjunct is false; but in a two-value logic there is no problem. Because the function of semantic theory is to define truth values on sentences, three-value presuppositional relationships should be replaced by two-value entailment relations. The marked status of certain negative sentences is then explained as the cancelling of (Gricean) conversational implicatures of the use of definite NP. Such implicatures must be elaborated within a theory of pragmatics along with other conventions which speakers use. Because pragmatic rules may be broken without affecting the grammaticality, pragmatics is part of performance, not competence. [References.]

- 75-2 **Schank, Roger C.** Adverbs and belief. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), 33, 1 (1974), 45–67.

Describes a computer oriented study rooted in a view of language as a device for transmitting conceptual information between people. Three levels of description are posited: the syntactic, the semantic and the conceptual. The conceptual level can be discussed in terms of a set of primitive 'acts' and conceptual cases (actor, objective, instrumental, recipient, directive). A model of conceptual representation using these and other distinctions is displayed. Adverbs are analysed in terms of the way they modify acts and in terms of their referring to beliefs that are present in the memory structure of the speaker, which in effect modify the entire conceptualisation underlying given sentences. It is argued that the relationships between language and beliefs are more effectively captured by a performance model of this kind than by a competence model.

## LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

- 75-3 **Anderson, John.** Existential quantifiers. *Acta Linguistica Hafniensa* (Copenhagen), 15, 1 (1974), 1-27.

The existential quantifier originates as an underlying locative of existence in the usual Anderson dependency grammar. Quantifiers *some* and *many* come from partitives associated with a superordinate existential; surface structures develop from such a configuration by various independently motivated transformations, thus obviating the need for the *ad hoc* Quantifier Lowering transformation and the sometimes baffling trees that are its necessary input. Lakoff's arguments for Quantifier Lowering merely show the necessity for some superordinate predication, captured here in the existential. [References.]

- 75-4 **Huddleston, Rodney.** Further remarks on the analysis of auxiliaries as main verbs. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht) 11, 2 (1974), 215-29.

Chomsky's (standard theory) position on auxiliary verbs is shown to be inadequate, and four arguments are added to those originally advanced by Ross that greater generality and explicitness are achieved if auxiliaries are treated as main verbs. If auxiliaries are main verbs, then: (i) modals may differ according to whether they trigger SUBJECT RAISING (like *happen*) or EQUI-NP DELETION (like *refuse*); (ii) temporal adverbs can be assigned to sentences containing them, thus disambiguating, e.g. *John was flying yesterday* as 'It was the plan yesterday that John should fly sometime' instead of 'It was the plan sometime that John should fly yesterday'; (iii) modals followed by *to* would be accounted for more satisfactorily; (iv) the problem of where to place the Aux node disappears. It is further argued that all auxiliaries are one-place predicates with sentential subjects, though to hold for non-epistemic modals this requires that their semantic interpretation be affected by pragmatic assumptions not presented in the tree structure. [References.]

- 75-5 **Paduceva, E. V.** On the structure of the paragraph. *Linguistics* (The Hague), 131 (1974), 49-58.

[Translated from the Russian *Trudy po znakovym sistemam*, 2 (1965), 284-92.] Paragraphs exhibit structural regularities. A number of descriptive paragraphs are examined to exemplify the claim that they are structured in terms of a primary name [?NP] which 'directly dominates' coreferential names, and 'indirectly dominates' names in some obvious situational relationship with it. A

verb may dominate a coreferential noun. An implied name informally dominates other names. Topicalisation may invert the order of the dominated and primary name. The destruction of the domination taxonomy may result in bad style or, at worst, incoherence.

**75-6 Sussex, Roland.** The deep structure of adjectives in noun phrases. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), **10**, 1 (1974), 111-31.

The usual transformationalist, lexicalist and interpretivist accounts of ordered, unbroken concatenations of adjectives are shown to be unsatisfactory. Because ordering is conditioned by the semantic properties of the adjectives involved, a semantically based transformational approach is to be preferred: disambiguation is simplified, parallels in selection restrictions are manifest, and so too are equivalences between adjectives and adjective phrases, and translation equivalents in different languages. A partial semantic analysis of Russian adjectives using paraphrastic glosses demonstrates the method. Three classes of adjectives occur in Russian, English, and most other languages which have pre-nominal attributive adjectives; their respective order is as follows: Modal ( $\widehat{M}$ ) Qualitative ( $\widehat{Q}$ ) Relational ( $\widehat{R}$ ) Noun, e.g. *very nice wooden chair*. Q and R have different formal characteristics, but M are distinguished only by their position in the string. R derive from underlying relative clauses; Q appear to be lexical primes but could derive from some abstract predication; M do not derive from predicatives. The problems of formalising (i) paraphrastic glosses, and (ii) concatenation rules for adjectives, are not solved. [References.]

## SOCIOLINGUISTICS

**75-7 Crowl, Thomas K. and MacGinitie, Walter H.** The influence of students' speech characteristics on teachers' evaluations of oral answers. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **66**, 3 (1974), 304-8.

Tape-recordings were made of six white and six black ninth-grade boys speaking identically worded answers to typical school questions. Significantly higher grades were assigned by 62 experienced white teachers to the recorded answers when spoken by white students than when spoken by black students. Teachers who were most susceptible to vocal stereotyping could not be differentiated on the basis of sex, age, years of teaching experience, most frequently taught grade level, or the percentage of black students most frequently taught.

- 75-8 **Laver, John.** Communicative functions of phatic communion. *Work in Progress* (Edinburgh), 7 (1974), 1-17.

A report of research into five problem areas: what are the actual phenomena of phatic communion? When do these phenomena occur, within the span of a given interaction, and in what type of interaction? With what other types of behavioural phenomena is phatic communion associated? What are the social functions of phatic communion? What is the functional significance of a speaker's choice of indulging in one type of phatic communion rather than another? In examining the phenomena involved, use is made of three basic semiotic notions: *symbol*, *index* and *icon*. Of these, *index* is regarded as crucial and the major position taken in the paper is that the prime function of phatic communion is the communication of indexical facts about the speakers' identities, attributes and attitudes, and that these indexical facts constrain the nature of the particular interaction. Interactions are examined in terms of the characteristics of opening and closing phases and a concluding section offers an anthropological perspective. [References.]

PHONOLOGY AND PHONETICS

- 75-9 **Bondarko, L. V. and others.** Стили произношения и типы произнесения. [Styles of pronunciation and types of articulation.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 2 (1974), 64-70.

A distinction is drawn between 'styles of pronunciation' and 'types of articulation'. The latter term comprises what Shcherba called 'full' and 'conversational' styles [reference], while the former denotes the various forms of speech appropriate to given situations. Style of pronunciation refers to the general phonetic characteristics of an utterance as a whole, whereas type of articulation refers to detailed phonetic characteristics of individual elements or segments of speech. The full type of articulation is recognised by the possibility of making an unambiguous phonological interpretation of a perceived sound. All utterances must contain some segments with full articulation, and most also contain segments with 'conversational' or 'incomplete' articulation, which have to be interpreted phonologically with regard to factors other than purely phonetic ones, as the phonetic data do not allow the identification of a single phoneme. Relevant factors include stress and context. [Further discussion and suggestions as to how this theory may be applied to phonological analysis.]

- 75-10 Sampson, Geoffrey.** Is there a universal phonetic alphabet? *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **50**, 2 (1974), 236-59.

TG systematic phonetics employs a universal phonetic alphabet (a finite set of binary distinctive features) in contrast to structuralist doctrine that humans can produce infinitely many phones. Yet to argue, for example, that there exist only four degrees (values) of vowel aperture is to limit the grammar by a performance restriction comparable with restricting the syntax to two levels of self-embedding. The thesis is presented that within relational parameters (high, low, back, etc.)  $n$ -ary values should be assigned where  $n$  is specified for each natural language (but not universally specified for each parameter as in the outputs of Postal's detail rules). An exemplificatory counter-argument to the universal value hypothesis (a part of the universal phonetic alphabet hypothesis) critically examines literature claiming that there is a limit of four pitch levels in human language, and dismisses the hypothesis as too weak. An analysis of the onset pitch levels of the six tones of Hanoi Vietnamese proves there is no acoustic overlap, thus empirically invalidating the universal alphabet hypothesis. Hence, the universal alphabet hypothesis fails to characterise the range of phones that (i) could possibly occur in human languages, and (ii) do actually occur in human languages. [Charts and references.]

## VOCABULARY STUDIES

- 75-11 Jones, S. and Sinclair, J. McH.** English lexical collocations: a study in computational linguistics. *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), **24**, 1 (1974), 15-61.

A method of researching collocation between words is presented together with some results of its application to data consisting of 135,000 words of free discussion and 12,000 words of written scientific English. Collocates were found to be significant only within a span of four words to the left and four to the right of the 'node' (the word under consideration). Fisher's Exact Test was used to compute the probability of collocation. The most frequent collocations were, as expected, common grammatical structures and clichés. Examination of the collocation of words occurring 90-290 times in the data and those of their collocates that recurred at least 10 times with a minimum collocation frequency of three occurrences (all arbitrary frequencies), confirmed (i) that the majority of significant collocates fall within a grammatically predictable position, i.e. word classes condition collocation, (ii) that there is sometimes evidence of semantic sets among the collocates of a given node, (iii) that many collocations appear to be text dependent, but (iv) that there is no definable typical context for a word. [Tables and references.]

**LEXICOGRAPHY** *See also abstract 75-76*

**75-12 Iannucci, James E.** Sense discrimination in English and Spanish bilingual dictionaries. *Babel* (Gerlingen), **20**, 3 (1974), 142-8.

The various devices for marking different senses of a dictionary entry are identified: labels, full or partial definitions, synonyms and contexts. Labels are only partially efficient because it is not often possible to restrict an entry to a particular semantic field, e.g. *hunting, military*. Circumlocutions may be full or partial definitions without loss of efficiency; the latter are preferable as regards space saving. Contexts may be words frequently collocated with the entry-word (typical direct objects of verbs, typical head nouns for adjectives). Typographical conventions for each of these devices, and the language in which they appear, are discussed. All examined dictionaries but two have the devices either entirely in the language of the entry or entirely in the translation language. Where a bilingual dictionary is intended for speakers of both languages, the devices are most appropriately expressed in the language of the entries. Any dictionary or section of one which is intended as a comprehension guide only, requires no such devices in either language. The positioning of the devices in the layout is analysed. [Various dictionaries are discussed according to these criteria.] [Entry samples. Notes.]

**TRANSLATION**

**75-13 Krollmann, Friedrich.** Data processing at the translator's service. *Babel* (Gerlingen), **20**, 3 (1974), 121-9.

Data processing is not equally suitable for all types of text. The computer is most helpful when there are numerous specialised terms, as in technical and scientific texts. Computational linguistics, which hardly exists if the computer is regarded merely as a tool, can benefit translation science in various ways. Pioneers tried to reproduce thought processes by programming machines to turn out fully automatic translations; these were however of poor quality. It is the linguistic aspect which presents insurmountable difficulty; pre- and post-editing of the text being translated is uneconomical.

The purpose of data processing equipment is to provide what the user wants from it quickly. Applications have been made to lexicography and information retrieval. Storage and maintenance of very numerous terms depends on the establishment of central data banks. [Forms of output are described.] Terminology banks can also aid the translator by providing text-related glossaries [advantages and disadvantages of the procedure are discussed]. Complete texts, e.g. catalogues, can also be stored. Maximum advantage is obtained when the computer stores, sorts, rearranges and counts data. The computer cannot

replace the translator. Central data banks are costly and should operate supra-regionally as public utilities on a cost-sharing basis. There is still time to influence development so that dehumanisation does not result.

75-14 **Newmark, Peter.** Further propositions on translation. *Incorporated Linguist* (London), 13, 2 (1974), 34-42 (part I); 13, 3 (1974), 62-72 (part II).

A diagram adapted from Bühler's distinction between the three functions of language (the expressive, the informational and the communicative) and Frege's distinction between three levels of meaning (the referential, the textual and the subjective, corresponding to *Bedeutung*, *Sinn* and *Vorstellung*) is proposed as a comprehensive theoretical basis for translating texts. The equivalent effect (dynamic equivalence) principle is recommended as superior to correspondence of content or form or other principles; most translations, notably of non-literary texts, are written for the second reader, but must not infringe the translator's idiolect. A scheme of three series of semantic categories is proposed for testing the meanings of single words, and some cohesive resources of language are distinguished to indicate the general direction of a text's argument. The language of a text is in varying degrees influenced by its author's social role and his values. Translation is complicated by its use of two scales – the grammatical and the lexical. (Occasionally the phonological scale, used for rhetoric and poetry, further complicates the translator's task.) The frontiers of contextualised meaning are discussed. The various categories of interference that may prejudice a translation are listed. Each language segments natural objects differently, and when one word is translated or transliterated from one language to another, it starts acquiring a life of its own. The translator takes into account that synonyms are often used indiscriminately to denote one object, without intentionally adding new information about the object. Paraphrase is the translator's last resource. In a mainly informative passage, loosely used jargon should be reduced to more accurate terms. In handling a sentence, the translator may have to strike a balance between its denotation and its connotations. In principle, he has no choice in translating standardised language and referential terms, but various choices in translating non-standardised language or thought-language. He translates, not ideas, but words semantically affected by context in various ways. In translating from one language to another, 'deletable' words should be categorised. Provided functional equivalence is secured, a literal translation should be preferred to other types. A translator may check a segment of his version by referring it back to its logical structure for language and its denotation for its truth-value. Four types of key-words (main concepts, leitmotifs, expressive words, token words) should always be integrally transferred. Tone is the key to communicative effectiveness. Other translation-rules are also proposed. [Numerous examples and references.]