Language and linguistics

LINGUISTIC THEORY

77–187   **Bolinger, Dwight.** Gradience in entailment. *Language Sciences* (Bloomington, Ind), **41** (1976), 1–13.

Hajicova's discussion of topicality as an influence on entailment is persuasive but not decisive: we can have entailment in its absence, as with *to occasion*, and we can have non-entailment in its presence, as with *to effect*. Certain verbs are conventionally regarded as leading to entailment, others not; but there is a middle ground, and the line between factivity and implication is a tenuous one when the speaker's intentions are disregarded.

The main verb in some cases entails not a fact but a high degree of probability that may be made to include fact; a verb may imply truth and falsity not only absolutely but with a variety of conditions. Thus entailment is a pragmatic question. Other influences discussed in detail are definiteness, emotions, the gerund, perfectivity, nominalisation and context. At least five kinds of gradience in entailment can be identified; thus not much is gained by seeking well defined categories reflecting types of logical entailment.

77–188   **Hervey, S. G. J.** Is deep structure really necessary? *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **39**, 3 (1976), 227–39.

The use of the distinction between deep and surface structure has shifted from registering structural discrepancies (such as between two interpretations of *old men and women*) to registering alleged structural equivalences. The earlier introduction of deep structure was unnecessary, since such discrepancies involve similar linearisations of different grammatical structures, constructional relations between abstract items. In the latter use, analysis is based on the criterion of paraphrasability. However, it is preferable to argue that certain pairs of strings have identical mappings on to ranges of extra-linguistic reality, a characterisation valid for the pair *viper/adder* as well as *Jack gave Jill an apple/Jack gave an apple to Jill*. There can, in fact, be no independent, non-circular, justification of deep structure.

The tacit assumption behind it is that structural description must involve the generation of different structures from underlying common structures. It is therefore crucial to limit precisely the type of similarity to be considered in identifying syntactic, as opposed to, say, purely semantic, generalisations. Transformational linguistics provides no criterion for this: the only restriction seems to be ingenuity; the grounds which apparently justify deep structure justify either an infinity of deep structures or of levels of depth.

77-189 **Lipka, Leonhard.** Topicalization, case grammar and lexical decomposition in English. *Archivum Linguisticum* (Ilkley, Yorks), **7**, 2 (1976), 118–41.

The relationship between sentences and simple and complex lexical items is discussed. Lexical decomposition and the justification of specific semantic elements are investigated. Thus DO is equated with 'Agent', and further equivalences between case grammar and generative semantics are explored. It is claimed that topicalisation is at work in both the formation of sentences and of complex lexical items, and that linguistic theory must take account of the communicative function of language.

SEMANTICS *See also abstracts* 77–192, –215, –258

77-190 **Fillmore, Charles J.** The need for a frame semantics within linguistics. *Statistical Methods in Linguistics* (Stockholm), 1976, 5–29.

The integration of a semantic theory with a theory of language understanding frequently involves reference to information not strictly about language. A metaphor for such a theory is developed and extended: the representation of meaning should be thought of as a set of instructions to a cartoonist or film-maker as to how to create an image of the meaning. The instructions will not only determine the contents of the scene, but frequently specify pointers drawing attention to particular pieces of the text. A primary and secondary pointer are required, for instance, for pluperfect tenses. Further suggestions are advanced for the representation of simultaneity, embedding, foregrounding, etc. Indexical or deictic elements present particular challenges: an interpretation of any such sentence requires strips depicting not only what is spoken about, but also the speaking itself. We need, for instance, a time line and indications of scale. Formulaic expressions are also indexical, predictive of a number of details of performance situations. Finally, the existence of a lexical item necessitates the ability to understand the culture and world in which the classifications it implies are sensible.

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS *See also abstract* 77–226

77-191 **Allan, Keith.** Collectivizing. *Archivum Linguisticum* (Ilkley, Yorks), **7**, 2 (1976), 99–117.

Collectivising is the process which results in 'hunted animal' nouns being used in the unmarked (singular) form for plural reference and with plural concord even though a normal plural form may exist and be used. Collectivising is

limited to animals that were hunted for food and, subject to a contextual constraint, it extends to some animals hunted for sport. Collectivised nouns are compared with formally and/or semantically similar collective and uncountable nouns. It is suggested that the language user employs the pragmatic 'k-principle' in determining whether it is possible and significant to refer to individuals in the donotata, or preferable to use the unmarked 'k-forms'. A range of data are discussed in the light of this hypothesis; in particular, meat nouns are said to be in k-form because the animals that meat comes from are not significant as individuals, cp. *I like lamb, I like lambs*. It is finally suggested that animals hunted for food are collectivised (i.e. in k-form) just because they were seen to be significant as the source of meat and not as individual animals; by analogy with them some animals hunted for sport came to be collectivised, but only in hunting contexts. This accounts for the fact that pets and beasts of burden, which are not a source of food and are significant as individuals, are not collectivised.

77–192   Helbig, G. Zur Valenz verschiedener Wortklassen. [On the valency of different word-classes.] *Deutsch als Fremdsprache* (Leipzig), **13**, 3 (1976), 131–44.

In the present state of the study of valency two tendencies can be observed: (1) the extension of the concept of valency from the syntactic to the semantic level, and (2) the extension of the concept of valency from the verb to other word-classes. This article deals with the second tendency. The valency of participles is the easiest to describe. Present participles retain all the obligatory members of the underlying predicate (*Der Aktivist wohnt im Hochhaus → der im Hochhaus wohnende Aktivist*). In the case of those past participles which have been derived via the passive with *werden*, the subject can be omitted (*der [vom Schlosser] aufgesuchte Arzt*). With other past participles the valency of the verb is not reduced: thus past participles can be distinguished from adjectives. Adjectives have only one obligatory valency partner, the noun, but they can take several 'objects'. Valency in the verb and the predicative adjective is very similar, but there are a number of unresolved problems. The valency of nouns is more complicated. Only those nouns can be described in terms of valency which are nominalisations from verbs and adjectives, and which designate a process or a characteristic. Whether adverbs have valency is even more difficult to determine, since it is not clear whether an adverb is the valency carrier or valency partner. With prepositions, valency, which is semantic-syntactic, must be distinguished from government, which is syntactic-morphological. With the extension of the concept of valency to other word-classes many problems arise which have not yet been solved.

77-193   Hudson, R. A. Regularities in the lexicon. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **40**, 1 (1976), 115–30.

There are problems over which patterns of regularity in the lexicon should be abstracted and reflected in rules. The paper concentrates on interlevel, rather than intralevel, regularities. Items that can be generated by fully-productive rules, e.g. inflection, should not be included in the lexicon. The output of semi-productive rules needs to be checked against a pre-existing list; these are either regularities between lexical items or within them: the former could be captured by rules, the latter by disjunctive lexical entries.

There are two major arguments for expressing such generalisations in a grammar: that new items can be created by extending the patterns in the lexicon, and that knowledge of the partial similarities between items is part of native-speaker competence. However, the first argument is false, and it is demonstrated that the second does not require recognition of such knowledge in grammar. Such sub-regularities should therefore be excluded from the grammar.

77-194   Hupet, M. and Costermans, J. Un passif: pour quoi faire? [A passive: what for?] *Linguistique* (Paris), **12**, 2 (1976), 3–26.

It seems an unusual luxury that a language should allow the same words to occur in a number of different combinations. There have been questions in the past not only about the direction of derivation of the passive or active, and about the account of the derivation, but whether a passive transformation exists at all. There is an obvious relationship between active and passive, although its description may raise problems. An asymmetry is held to exist between active and passive, which may be compared with asymmetry in many adjective pairs, and with markedness elsewhere in language. [Examples and discussion.]

From a number of psychological investigations the function of the passive appears to include that of emphasis and ensuring contextual contiguity [examples]. In addition, the final agent syntagm of the passive may be marked for presupposition, while the active is neutral in this respect. This view of the active–passive distinction reflects the importance of moving away from a purely formalist linguistics towards a functionalist approach. [References.]

77-195   Sousa-Poza, Joaquin F. and Rohrberg, Robert. Communicational and interactional aspects of self-disclosure: a preliminary report on theory and method. *Semiotica* (The Hague), **16**, 4 (1976), 329–45.

A method of coding utterances is derived to facilitate measurement of self-disclosure in interaction. Utterances are coded on two dimensions: the first code

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describes level of disclosure, distinguishing Direct from Indirect, on the premise that any verbal message is either explicitly or implicitly self-disclosing (e.g. *I hate feeling depressed* and *It is going to rain* respectively). The second code concerns the interactional aspect of utterances, and codes directionality of disclosure. Distinctions are recognised between self- and other-disclosure, request for disclosure and confirmation request. In coding, transcripts are divided into units and units coded on both dimensions. Results show high correlation with independent measures of perceptual style and non-verbal behaviour.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS *See abstract 77–275*

STATISTICAL LINGUISTICS

77–196 **Kemp, K. W.** Aspects of the statistical analysis and effective use of linguistic data. *ALLC Bulletin* (Stockport, Cheshire), **4**, 1 (1976), 14–22.

Statistical linguistic analysis is a subject in its own right. Accordingly, criteria on which its test procedures are based should be developed within the context of variations of style and the use of language. The object of most numeric studies of language is discrimination. It is suggested that those parts of contemporary statistical theory relevant to quantitive linguistic analysis become clearer if this objective is borne firmly in mind. The author questions the utility of over-formalising the treatment of sampled data through recourse to theoretical sampling distributions as descriptive devices for word count and sentence length distributions, etc.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS *See also abstracts 77–214, –222*

77–197 **Ferenczi, Victor.** Les besoins langagiers comme représentation des pratiques sociales d'intercommunication. [Language needs are representations of social communicative practices.] *Revue de Phonétique Appliquée* (Mons, Belgium), **38** (1976), 81–94.

An investigation was carried out in firms in the Paris area concerning language needs in the mother tongue. [Hypotheses and conclusions.] The language needs are felt by the users according to their conditions of life and work. They express their aspirations for a change of status. In this respect, these needs are partly the reflection and the result of the social relations which are experienced in daily life. Language needs in professional life are felt in a way which depends on the hierarchical position the person has in the company. The different functions

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of language must be taken into account, i.e. its role as a means of communication, as an instrument of identity and power over others, as a tool of knowledge and as a cultural object. An adult training scheme should not limit its efforts to realising scholastic models, but, in order to challenge the alienating effects of a technological civilisation, should promote a speech culture able to foster social interactions.

77-198   Gordon, J. C. B. Concepts of verbal deficit in Bernstein's writings on language and social class. *Nottingham Linguistic Circular* (Nottingham), **5**, 2 (1976), 31–8.

Bernstein seeks to disassociate his work from the concept of linguistic deprivation or verbal deficit, but does not provide a definitive statement of his theory. Evidence is provided to show that his theory does, in fact, entail such a concept. Bernstein's papers published in and before 1960 establish two modes of language use, 'public language' and 'formal language'; the middle classes have both modes at their disposal while the working classes are limited to 'public language'. [Experiments reported by Bernstein provide further evidence of a concept of verbal deficit.] In papers published in and after 1961 Bernstein abandons the concepts of public and formal language in favour of those of 'restricted code' and 'elaborated code'. But the concept of two substantially different modes of language use is preserved, as social access to the codes is still claimed to be unequal. [Discussion of Bernstein's view of speech regulated by restricted codes. References.]

77-199   Hasan, Ruqaiya. Socialization and cross-cultural education. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* (The Hague), **8** (1976), 7–25.

It is argued, following Bernstein, that educational systems are intricately related to the culture in which they are embedded. Socialisation through the family and the educational institutions on the Indo-Pakistani subcontinent creates a particular sense of identity which is challenged when the student is brought into the English educational system at university level. This conflict gives rise to many intangible problems for the foreign student. Whereas the mechanical problems which arise are becoming better understood, problems which arise from deep symbolic differences between two distinct educational systems have yet to be made explicit. [References.]

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77-200   Wölck, Wolfgang. Community profiles: an alternative approach to linguistic informant selection. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language* (The Hague), **9** (1976), 43–57.

The basic principles of informant selection (sampling) in dialectologic research are: (1) the informant sample must be adequate for the purpose of the study; (2) the sample must be representative of the population or area under study, and (3) a representative sample must contain sufficient speakers to display non-linguistic characteristics which are likely to accompany the linguistic differences being studied. Sampling techniques are reviewed: traditional studies with informal samples (dialect monographs, comparative studies and surveys); survey sampling techniques (probability samples of various kinds).

A general procedure for an ethnographic (rather than demographic) sample technique is outlined in which the aim is to retrieve all those social characteristics which will aid the interpretation of the linguistic variation found in the study. An initial informal community profile is built up, including such categories as basic demographic information, occupational distribution, political structure of the community, educational aspects, etc. Such a study serves as a reliable basis for selecting a representative sample of the population. Size of sample becomes less important than representativeness. [Implications for questionnaire design; need for a hierarchy of interdependent social factors.] [References.]

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

77-201   Arndt, Horst. Psycholinguistik und Zielsprachenerwerb: zur Funktion von Linguistik und Psychologie bei Strategien der Sprachvermittlung. [Psycholinguistics and the acquisition of the target language: on the function of linguistics and psychology in strategies of language teaching.] *Die Neuren Sprachen* (Frankfurt am Main), **25**, 2 (1976), 100–14.

An outline is given of post-war trends in linguistics: since the turn of the century linguists and psychologists have been following separate lines of research which the discipline of psycholinguistics is now attempting to bring together. Structuralism introduced in the 1950s a number of concepts from behaviourist psychology, often in over-simplified form. As a reaction against this, in the 1960s Chomsky's generative grammar rejected the whole structuralist approach in principle, but without offering an adequate alternative psychology. In the resultant polarisation between the behaviourist and cognitive viewpoints, the latter at present dominates. In the field of psychology, empirical factor analysis has been important: the relation of linguistic variables to one another is expressed as a coefficient (0 to +1); a correlation matrix can then be set up, from

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which the hypothetical underlying factors can be deduced. The 'semantic differential' places words on three bi-polar scales of *evaluation*, *potency* and *activity*. Recent research has turned towards situational orientation; with co-operation between linguists and psychologists, this should prove fruitful. [Tables; examples; bibliography.]

77-202   Greenbaum, Sidney. Syntactic frequency and acceptability. *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **40**, 1 (1976), 99–113.

Judgements of frequency, particularly of syntactic constructions, have a theoretical importance even within a narrowly conceived competence theory. Such judgements are implied in the distinction between marked and unmarked, in theories assessing the functional loading of different distinctions, possibly in language acquisition theories, and in historical linguistics. Sociolinguists such as Labov argue that differences between regional and social dialects are manifested in the relative frequencies with which certain features are used; variable rules have been proposed.

An experiment was performed to investigate the relationship between judgements of frequency and acceptability. The same subjects scored the same sentence first for frequency, then, a week later, for acceptability; there is a close association between the two judgements. Further research on the influences exerted by linguistic environment and style should provide a means of investigating an important aspect of communicative competence.

77-203   James, Linda B. Black children's perceptions of Black English. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **5**, 4 (1976), 377–87.

In studying the perception of differences between Black English and Standard English by 48 first-grade urban black children, BE and SE were partitioned into content (syntax and lexicon) and style (suprasegmentals or prosodic features of phonology). A discrimination task was designed to test whether the subjects could perceive differences in terms of style or content or both. Accurate discriminations were related to language variety preference and school and home-street register maintenance. The results indicated BE style to be as significantly related to BE preference and register maintenance as BE content when the two were separated.

77-204   Kearsley, Greg P. Questions and question asking in verbal discourse: a cross-disciplinary review. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **5**, 4 (1976), 355–75.

The linguistic, psychological and social aspects of questions and question asking in verbal discourse are discussed. Classification taxonomies for question forms and functions are outlined. Research on the processes of question formation, question selection and question asking is reviewed. Descriptive data for the occurrence of question types in verbal discourse are presented. Suggestions are made concerning further descriptive and experimental approaches to the study of questions.

77-205   Keller, R. Handlungen verstehen. [Understanding acts.] *Zeitschrift für Germanistische Linguistik* (Berlin), **4**, 1 (1976), 1–16.

One of the most controversial problems in linguistics is how to understand the communication process. One way to approach this question is to show how misunderstandings arise. They may be due to extraneous factors, such as noise, not knowing what a particular word means, or not understanding the intention of the other speaker. Communication in speech is one of many human acts. An act of communication must presuppose collective knowledge and an intention for something to happen on the side of both participants. The intention of an actor (*eines Handelnden*) to realise the result of an act is called the 'primary intention' and the intention to realise the consequence of an act is called the 'secondary intention'. To have understood a communicative act means to have reconstructed the secondary intention on the basis of the reconstruction of the primary intention. The most important premise in the complex process of drawing the proper conclusion is the knowledge of the convention(s) on the basis of which the activity which has been interpreted as an act is connected with the result. Communicative acts are not linked by cause and effect but by conventions. The speaker recognises the primary intention of another speaker because he knows what he would do in the same situation. To understand the meaning of an expresion means therefore to know how to apply the rule which is connected with it.

77-206   Lindsley, James R. Producing simple utterances: details of the planning process. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research* (New York), **5**, 4 (1976), 331–54.

Subjects produced subject-verb sentences of prespecified structure, such as *The man is kicking*, in response to pictures. The amount of information required to identify the pictured actor or action and to retrieve a name for the actor

was varied. The following results, based on subject response latencies, were obtained. Experiment I demonstrated that only some initial amount of verb information processing occurs before and delays the initiation of such subject-verb sentences. Experiment II demonstrated that verb information processing is initiated only after the subject of the sentence has been identified. Finally, Experiment III demonstrated that verb information processing is initiated in parallel with the retrieval of the name for the subject of the sentence.

77-207   Walmsley, John B. Feedback and simulation. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **14**, 4 (1976), 323–37.

A model of the brain as a variety of servo-mechanism is set up. It consists of five stages: (1) a comparator, (2) a decision-maker, (3) selection of techniques from repertoire, (4) instructions are issued and (5) carried out [diagram and discussion]. The application of this model to transactions such as buying a railway ticket shows how a unifying principle can be imposed on sequences of diverse components. The relationship to first- and second-language learning is the question of how speakers learn to interpret feedback from their partners in social interaction, how they learn to behave in social situations, what the structure of their repertoire is and where and how they acquire it. The application of the model to speech production is of least usefulness, as the cycle is internal and cannot easily be manipulated for teaching purposes. But the development of simulations (as used in, e.g., the training of airline pilots) for use in language teaching would be of real benefit, as they stress the importance of feedback. [Varieties of feedback are discussed.] More detailed study of language functions is needed.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN   *See also abstract* 77–269

77-208   Baldie, Brian J. The acquisition of the passive voice. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **3**, 3 (1976), 331–48.

The aim was to determine the average ages at which children imitate (I), produce (P) and comprehend (C) passive constructions. The results were compared with those obtained from partial studies of the acquisition of the passive voice conducted by researchers such as Fraser, Bellugi and Brown. The finding that imitation precedes comprehension which in turn precedes production (I > C > P), as reported by Fraser *et al.* (1963) for 12 three-year-olds, is confirmed in this study for children from 3; 0–8; 0. The ability to use the passive voice in various tasks was found to be generally greater than that suggested in previous studies.

77-209 Ferguson, Charles A. Learning to pronounce: the earliest stages of phonological development in the child. *Papers and Reports on Child Language Development* (Stanford, Calif), **11** (1976), 1–27.

This paper deals with selected aspects of early phonological development which are neglected or not accounted for in much of the current literature, and provides an account of development, summarised under eight important characteristics. The child plays a highly active, creative role in the acquisition process. His early vocables constitute a connecting link between babbling and adult-modelled speech: his phonological systems for perception and production are relatively independent. In the child's construction of a phonological system for production, he begins with structural constraints in selecting adult model words and in producing his own words. (The baby talk lexicon of the child's speech community provides a reservoir of phonologically simplified models on which the child can draw for his early words.) He invents and applies to his repertoire of phonetic word shapes a succession of phonological rules which regularise the pronunciation of phonetically similar words. The child gradually relaxes his constraints of selection and production to allow greater standard complexity and phonetic diversity within words. Each child follows his own distinctive route in phonological development. [Extensive references.]

77-210 Limber, John. Unravelling competence, performance and pragmatics in the speech of young children. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **3**, 3 (1976), 309–18.

Inferences about linguistic competence in children are typically based on spontaneous speech. This poses a problem since other factors are also involved in speech production. Children who may use complex object and adverbial NPs do not use complex subject NPs. Is this a competence deficit, a performance problem, or simply a reflection of pragmatic factors? Evidence presented here suggests that children probably do not need complex subjects. An extensive use of pronouns in subject but not object position indicates that pragmatics may account for the distribution of clauses in their speech. A similar pattern in adult speech indicates that there is no reason to conclude that children's lack of subject clauses reflects anything more than the nature of spontaneous speech.

77-211 MacWhinney, Brian. Hungarian research on the acquisition of morphology and syntax. *Journal of Child Language* (London), **3**, 3 (1976), 397–410.

Research on the acquisition of Hungarian morphology and syntax is analysed. The specific topics covered are morphological analysis, neologisms, acquisition

of the first inflections, morpheme order, word order and agreement. Several lines of evidence suggest that the first unit acquired by the child is the word. Because of the structure of Hungarian, both errors in segmentation of the utterance and errors in the segmentation of the word are minimised. Morphological analysis seems to begin at the semantic level and proceed to the morphological level. Data on acquisition of free word order and early inflections are potentially of great interest, although at present inconclusive.

BILINGUALISM

77–212 Makkai, Valerie Becker. The competence–performance dichotomy as manifested in the phonology of bilinguals. *Studies in Language Learning* (Urbana, Ill), **1**, 2 (1976), 219–34.

The phonology of the semi-bilingual individual is examined – the person who has perfected his command of the syntax and semantics of his second language but who still has something of a foreign accent. Interlanguage interference is defined and discussed, and is contrasted with intralanguage interference – interference problems caused by the system of the target language itself. Autonomous and systematic phonology are discussed and evaluated with regard to their respective appropriateness in dealing with the two types of interference. It is shown that problems relating solely to the phonology of the target language are the result of interference from the native language, whereas morphophonemic problems usually come from intralanguage interference. The bilingual's problems in phonology are analysed in the light of the competence–performance dichotomy, and it is shown that competence and performance function entirely differently in the bilingual than in a monolingual person.

77–213 Shaffer, Douglas. Is bilingualism compound or co-ordinate? *Lingua* (Amsterdam), **40**, 1 (1976), 69–77.

The compound/co-ordinate distinction is difficult to reconcile with the more recent view that first and subsequent language acquisition are basically similar. A review of that distinction is in order. Ščerba and Weinreich first posited a compound/co-ordinate distinction after observing that bilingual Sorbians had identical lexical ranges from Sorbian and German words. When examined in light of recent work, Ščerba and Weinreich's data do not warrant a compound/co-ordinate distinction. What their data warrant is a comparative statement about the lexical ranges of languages which have or have not been in contact with each other for centuries. Their data do not warrant, as they believed, a statement about different bilingual lexical ranges among various individuals in the same speech community. Future research into bilingualism must proceed

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without assuming that the compound/co-ordinate distinction was established at the time of its postulation.

77-214   Skutnabb-Kangas, Tove. Bilingualism, semilingualism and school achievement. *Linguistische Berichte* (Braunschweig), **45** (1976), 55–64.

Finnish children make up about half of the immigrant population in Swedish schools. The aim of the Swedish system is to develop active bilingualism but out of 80,000 immigrant pupils of all nationalities, only 9,000 attend lessons given in their mother tongue. Studies quoted show that the immigrant Finnish children learn neither Swedish nor Finnish as well as native speakers – this phenomenon is known as 'double semilingualism'. Neither bilingualism in itself nor the social group of the children seems to account for their poor achievement in school. Unless minority children receive their instruction in their mother tongue they will learn neither their L1 nor L2 adequately. Comparison with bilingual children in the St Lambert study indicates that the same kind of L2 instruction for middle-class children from a linguistic majority group with a high-prestige language results in bilingualism, not semilingualism.

PHONOLOGY AND PHONETICS   *See abstracts* 77–209, –212, –224, –249, –251, –276

MORPHOLOGY   *See abstracts* 77–211, –225

VOCABULARY STUDIES   *See abstract* 77–221

LEXICOGRAPHY

77-215   Bahr, J. Ein Modell zur Beschreibung von Wortbedeutungen. [A model for the description of word meanings.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Munich), **3** (1975), 243–54.

A model for the description of word meanings is discussed. A clear distinction must be made in lexicography between the practical and the theoretical. Traditional lexicography has not clearly differentiated between textual and word meaning, the latter being the property of the linguistic system. The separation of word and sentence meaning is a necessity for the description of a linguistic system. The lexical model in this article has been empirically developed and does not rank as a theory. The meaning of the words in a word class is defined

by both formal and substantive semantic features. Words can be divided into lexical classes paradigmatically, i.e. verbs can be divided into action and process verbs; syntagmatically, i.e. whether they take one subject (*das Haus steht*), or a subject and two objects (*Herr Meier schreibt einen Brief an seinen Freund*). Nouns can also be classified in a similar way. Two meanings of a word cannot have the same syntagmatic *and* paradigmatic features. Meanings are understood as formal, semantic substantives, which are differentiated according to rules of word use and are thus formally determined units which can be clearly differentiated from one another.

TRANSLATION

77-216   Loh, S.-C. Machine translation: past, present, and future. *ALLC Bulletin* (Stockport, Cheshire), **4**, 2 (1976), 105–14.

This article discusses the need for machine translation. It also describes briefly the history of machine translation from its beginnings to the present and its possible future development. As the article was written in Chinese and translated into English by means of a language translator called CULT, the quality of the translation may provide some indication as to the capability of the machine translation system which has been developed.

77-217   Vauquois, B. Automatic translation – a survey of different approaches. *Statistical Methods in Linguistics* (Stockholm), 1976, 127–35.

The characteristics of first-generation automatic translation programmes involved a catalogue of linguistic facts locally relevant for a given pair of languages considered from the point of view of translation in one direction; its major guide was the designer's knowledge of grammar and experience of human translation. Second-generation systems were characterised by relating structural specifications of sentences in the source and target language; their levels of transfer from one language to another were variable in depth. Second-generation parsers and synthesisers also compile for each grammar a programme which then operates on the text, as opposed to applying linguistic information directly to the input text. The artificial intelligence approach to natural language processing is mainly directed towards the semantic interpretation of texts. Thus inference rules become applicable, and semantic consistency becomes open to evaluation. The incorporation of such a semantic component is the characteristic of third-generation programmes; however, all experiments so far have been restricted to 'micro-worlds'. The merging of human translators and computers in a hybrid process has become more feasible.