Language and linguistics

SEMANTICS

76-1   **Frajzyngier, Zygmunt.** Against the universality of spatial Source and Goal. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **13**, 3 (1975), 349–60.

Among Fillmore's revised postulated universal deep structure cases are the three: Source, Goal and Location. The distinction between Source and Goal in Awutu is shown to be realised by verbs only. In addition, it is argued that within one propositional core only one of these two notions can occur. It is asserted that in all Awutu sentences containing both Goal and Location or Source and Location in surface structure, the clause containing Goal or Source is embedded into the higher sentence containing Location. From these facts it is concluded that in Awutu one has one deep structure case, for which Fillmore's original term Locative can be retained, rather than the three (Source, Goal and Location).

The fact that notions of source and goal exist in the semantic component of a language does not necessitate their being deep structure cases. However, although Source and Goal cannot be postulated as universal deep structure cases, this does not mean that there are no languages in which such deep structures do not exist. Rather, it implies that certain semantic notions are realised only by lexicon in some languages and by both lexical and syntactic means in others.

76-2   **Sommerfeldt, Karl Ernst.** Valenztheorie und lexikalische Synonymie. [Valency theory and lexical synonymy.] *Zeitschrift für Phonetik, Sprachwissenschaft und Kommunikationsforschung* (Berlin), **28**, 2 (1975), 20–33.

Synonymy is the denotation of one particular object by several different linguistic means. There are three chief groups of definitions of synonyms: (1) words with the same extralinguistic referent, (2) words with similar meanings, and (3) words which are substitutable for each other in the same context. The main criterion, it is argued, is that of similarity of meaning. An analysis which builds on the theory of valency is also of use in studying synonyms, but those synonyms which are studied must be syntactically congruent, i.e. they must belong to the same syntactic type. The elements of meaning of synonyms can be analysed in the form of plus or minus values in a matrix. [Examples, *rennen*, *tüchtig*.] The study of synonyms in this way shows that a logico-semantic valency theory can bring new insights into the semantic structure of lexical items. Absolute synonyms will agree in their logico-semantic and syntactic valency.

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS   *See also abstracts 76–21/2*

76–3   Alinei, M. The structure of lexicon. *ALLC Bulletin* (Stockport, Cheshire), **3**, 1 (1975), 10–14.

A computer experiment to overcome the 'incompleteness' of morphological and phonological analysis of lexical structures enables the author to posit a generative model with two syntactic stages: (1) Ls that are sentences with an internalised syntax, (2) full sentences with an externalised syntax. Analysis of all definitions of a dictionary, by computer, provides evidence of exchange of function between L and (DF) 'distinguishing features', and the 'completeness' of the lexical structures obtained leads to the theory that lexical structures do not have a unique hierarchy, but may be dominated by each DF occurring within the structure.

Lexical 'system' is defined as a syntactical string of Ls with two or three DFs in common in the same SPO relationship, with or without transformers. Lexical domain is defined as a set of Ls with one DF in common and no fixed relationship with SP or O. Systems are analysed into basic relationships, secondary DFs and transformational types, and the 'relativity' of the relationship between domain and system discussed in detail. The hypothesis of formal universals is criticised, and the theory of semantic dominants, defined logically and psychogenetically, is put forward.

76–4   Allerton, D. J. Deletion and proform reduction. *Journal of Linguistics* (London), **11**, 2 (1975), 213–37.

Deletion and reduction to a proform are alternative ways languages have for dealing with an item that does not need to be specifically mentioned. Two possible motivations for optional deletion are discussed, as typified by the examples *John's watching* and *John's reading*, with objects as the deleted items: in the one case the item is 'given' by the linguistic or situational context ('contextual deletion'); in the other it is irrelevant or of no interest and left vague ('indefinite deletion'). These types of deletion, which are optional and involve a kind of ellipsis, are distinguished from obligatory deletions, which are simply grammatical rules devised to prevent ungrammatical strings from occurring. [Two subtypes of obligatory deletion are discussed.]

An attempt is made to survey the different syntactic structures in which optional deletion operates; these include subjects, objects, etc., in verb participant structure, head nouns and modifiers in the noun phrase, adverbial phrases (either the whole structure or just its constituent 'axis' noun phrase), and 'comparands' in comparative structures. Proform reduction is considered as an alternative to optional deletion, and the question raised why a speaker prefers

one to the other in a particular context (cf. *John's reading* vs. *John's reading something*). The factor of 'given'/'new' is suggested as relevant, but with degrees of given-ness, the highest degree perhaps being situationally given.

76–5 **Zolotova, G. A.** Аспекты изучения категории глагольного времени. [Aspects of the study of the category of verbal tenses.] *Серия литературы и языка* (Moscow), **34**, 3 (1975), 248–58.

The criterion for the differentiation of tense meanings is the position of the 'point of observation' along a temporal plane. The speaker can place the point of observation in the same temporal plane as the action or he can place it in time previous to the action or after it. Another criterion for the tense form of the verb is specific time expressions and modal/expressive shades of meaning. These themes are developed with examples from Russian literature and it is concluded that it is possible to work out a typology founded not only upon semantic/stylistic, but also upon grammatical principles.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

76–6 **Avrorin, V. A.** О предмете социальной лингвистики. [On the subject of sociolinguistics.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 4 (1975), 11–17.

Language has two closely connected, but relatively independent sides – the structural and the functional. The structural side is relatively straightforward and concerns the synchronic state and the process of change of the mechanism of language. The functional side is the role of language in society. The complex and changing character of the 'linguistic situation' and its direct causal dependence upon extra-linguistic factors is an aspect of sociolinguistics. Language has essentially social functions and all levels of linguistic structure are subject to the influence of social factors, albeit to varying extents. Changes in language result from social factors or from 'pressure of the system' brought about by a complex chain of interconnected factors. This is so complex that it is sometimes difficult to trace the factor at the start of the chain. But the social nature of language dictates that this initial factor should have its origins in the social order.

76–7 **Budagov, R. A.** Что такое общественная природа языка? [What is the social nature of language?] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 3 (1975), 3–26.

The social nature of language is widely accepted but structuralism claims that the specific character of language lies outside its social function. But linguistic

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features reflect social factors, which are not language-external. The 1917 Revolution brought about changes in Russian not only in vocabulary, but also in the social role of the standard language. The interrelation between social and linguistic categories must not be oversimplified.

Vocabulary is structured and interacts with other aspects of linguistic structure. Relating grammatical categories and social factors is not just vulgarisation of sociology, since the degree of development of the grammatical means at the disposal of a language in different historical periods is sociologically conditioned. Sentences should not be characterised as grammatical without reference to their meaning (e.g. *the round table is square*), or the context of situation (e.g. *good evening*, said in the day-time). Different people may have different conceptions of reality, and may therefore give different grammaticality assignments, different interpretations, to the same expression. [Examples of the viewpoints discussed throughout.]

76–8 **Laosa, Luis M.** Bilingualism in three United States Hispanic groups: contextual use of language by children and adults in their families. *Journal of Educational Psychology* (Washington, DC), **67**, 5 (1975), 617–27.

The use of language pattern was studied in different social contexts among Central Texas Mexican American, Miami Cuban American, and New York Puerto Rican children and adults in their families through structured interviews, by trained indigenous interviewers, for a total of 295 families. Children were first, second and third graders, approximately equally divided by sex. Results indicate that even within subcultural communities there was significant variability in the language patterns used in various social contexts. The Central Texas Mexican Americans evidenced the greatest degree of displacement of mother tongue. There were significant child–adult differences in language use among the Mexican American and Cuban American families. Results are discussed in light of factors that may affect language maintenance.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS

76–9 **Weigl, E.** Neuropsychological approach to the problem of transcoding. *Linguistics* (The Hague), **154/5** (1975), 105–35.

Transcoding is defined as the process whereby units from one sign system are converted into the appropriate units of another sign system with a high degree of automatism; it is a correlated change-over from one sign system into another.

Thus transcription of spoken language, simultaneous interpretation of one language into another, and transcription of numeral words into figures all provide examples of transcoding.

An attempt to establish that this process has a psychological reality is made by studying the performance of aphasic patients in certain transcoding tasks. It is demonstrated that certain aphasic conditions differentially affect these tasks: some patients, while auditorily comprehending a word, may be able to repeat it aloud but not write it; others may be able to write it but not repeat it. The same differential disturbance is evidenced by patients displaying visual comprehension of a word. Other transcoding tasks involving speech and number systems or speech and musical notation also display differential disturbances. Though selective impairment of verbo-motoric or grapho-motoric reproduction, implies that transcoding is a neuropsychological phenomenon, more work is necessary to correlate these aphasic disturbances with details of the cortical damage of the various patients. Further work is also required to clarify the cortical representation of transcoding mechanisms and the extremely complicated learning processes involved in their acquisition.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN   *See also*
abstract 76–55

76-10   **Ivimey, G. P.** The development of English morphology: an acquisition model. *Language and Speech* (Hampton Hill, Mddx), **18**, 2 (1975), 120–44.

The formation and use of morphological rules was studied in a large sample of English school children, aged 3½ to 9½ years and of average ability. It was found that children induce grammatical rules after a lengthy exposure to adult language models and after the learning of specific forms. Construction of appropriate rules may take many years and children pass through clearly defined stages of rule building. The rate and order of acquisition can be correlated with the characteristics of the adult language models to which they are exposed. Critical factors in these adult models are (1) frequency of occurrence of forms, and (2) regularity or its absence in adult usage.

76-11   **Leroy, Christine.** Intonation et syntaxe chez l'enfant français à partir de dix-huit mois. [Intonation and syntax of the French child from eighteen months onwards.] *Langue française* (Paris), **27** (1975), 24–37.

Instruments and theories developed by Gautheron were used to distinguish voluntary variations of tension in vocal cords from reflex variations. [Theories

of intonation and syntax development.] Children's first intonation systems correspond with French prosody as described by Delattre, the Léons and Malmberg. Children subsequently regress temporarily to monotone enunciation as they struggle to incorporate real words and syntax. Two children who displayed wide differences in parental influence, in language development and in learning strategies, were monitored between ages 2:0 and 2:3. Firm grounds are adduced for concluding that intonation patterns used by adults to children play a large part in helping them to organise words syntactically.

PHONETICS

76–12 **Klatt, Dennis H.** Vowel lengthening is syntactically determined in a connected discourse. *Journal of Phonetics* (London), **3**, 3 (1975), 129–40.

Broad-band spectrograms were made of connected discourse read by a single speaker of American English. Segmental durations were measured for each segment type in stressed and unstressed environments. Median durations were tabulated and deviations from the medians have been studied. Segments significantly longer than their median duration were found to mark the ends of major syntactic units, including the boundary between a noun phrase and a verb phrase. Vowels in phrase-final syllables are 40 ms longer on the average than in other positions. Further analysis indicates that the postvocalic consonant has a small influence on vowel duration except in phrase-final syllables. There is a slight tendency for word-final syllables to be longer than word-initial and medial syllables.

LEXICOGRAPHY   *See also abstract* 76–26

76–13 **Lyne, A. A.** A word-frequency count of French business correspondence. *IRAL* (Heidelberg), **13**, 2 (1975), 95–110.

The language of business correspondence has its own norms and constraints. More realistic teaching of the subject should take account of the concepts of collocation, register and frequency of occurrence. A word frequency count based on a corpus of about 80,000 running words was undertaken [sources, classification of material, editing procedures] and the results should be of interest to practical linguists (teachers and students of French business correspondence) and to those interested in language variety. [Detailed description of exclusions, substitutions, additions and machine-processing, together with description of

the lists produced.] 'Positive registral items' are those which need teaching or consolidating, while 'negative registral items' are unnecessary or sufficiently well-known already.

76–14   Richards, Jack C. Word lists: problems and prospects. *RELC Journal* (Singapore) **5**, 2 (1974), 69–84.

The selection of vocabulary for language teaching is made by means of word lists selected by subjective, objective or combined subjective–objective approaches. [Discussion of West's *General Service List* (1953) and some earlier studies.] Word frequency counts are an objective approach to vocabulary selection, but such lists differ widely; frequency alone is an insufficient basis for selection because low-frequency words are usually high in information content. Other criteria for measuring the words which frequency and range do not account for are discussed: they include definition value (words which help to define other words), word-building elements (e.g. suffixes) and availability [discussion].

Word familiarity (the subjective impression of words) was measured by an experiment in which concrete nouns, many with low frequency ratings, were assessed by subjects who indicated their degree of familiarity with the words. [Method and results.] Principles serving as a guide to the setting up of regional word lists are (*a*) frequency and range, (*b*) availability and familiarity, (*c*) coverage, and (*d*) measuring priorities. [Appendix lists the 300 most familiar concrete nouns; references.]

76–15   Wiezell, R. J. Problems in bilingual lexicography: Romance and English. *Hispania* (Appleton, Wis), **58**, 1 (1975), 131–6.

Bilingual dictionaries have often resembled monolingual ones in their definition by expansion or circumlocution in the target language (TL), in addition to the provision of a simple translation equivalent (TE). For bilingual dictionaries, a TE should suffice, since their aim is solely to help provide a workable TL text for the source language text. Circumlocution here is normally inappropriate. Further, monolingual dictionaries have tended to relax their rigour in indicating syntactic category or frequency of an item, a procedure which would be disastrous in bilingual dictionaries. [History of the emergence of monolingual dictionaries.] Bilingual dictionaries have tended to perpetuate material which is obsolete in one of their languages, or even erroneous (*engolfar* in Spanish).

Sometimes the best TEs are lexicographically incompatible within a standardised format: thus Sp. *oscurecer* 'night falls' (no infinitive). [Special problems: *faux amis*; the provision of translations with connotative accuracy, including location in place, time and society.] The concept of a guide word (contextuali-

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sation) is useful in allowing the selection of appropriate TEs. Guide words may be in either TL or source language.

76–16   Zasorina, Lidia N. and Silvestrov, P. V. A model of a dictionary information bank. *ALLC Bulletin* (Stockport, Cheshire). **3**, 1 (1975), 3–9.

The 'IBD' model is a proposed wide-ranging artificial 'ancilliary intellect' for lexicographers, with precise implementation of definitions of data-input, file linkage on data storage devices, interpretation of summary information on terminals, and definition of time scales. The IBD's possible results include cataloguing of a language's general lexical stock, subject indexes, glossaries, concordances, translations, frequency counts, stored dictionaries available for consultation, foreign and reference dictionaries, word profiles, and a catalogue of information classified according to any of the above. The model is in three parts – information files, information catalogues, and information-retrieval languages, with a built-in hierarchy to separate or conjoin each subsystem, and is a closed-type, multi-level system, receiving data from a network of data-processing and computing centres, as formalised, unstructured, and mixed input.

The need for standardisation of dictionary indexing and classification for the reference retrieval system is stressed. Information files are multi-level, containing independant data in discrete form – video-catalogues with analogous data-presentation format, and audio-catalogues, all controlled by discrete cataloguing. Incoming subfiles are analysed and assessed, and facilities are available for detecting error or redundancy.

DIALECTOLOGY

76–17   Callary, Robert E. Dialectology and linguistic theory. *American Speech* (New York), **46**, 3/4 (1971) [publ. 1975], 200–9.

Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance relegated actual language use, the concern of most dialectologists, to the peripheral area of performance. However, many of the gains made through emphasising the formulation of an explicit set of rules for competence can now be applied to the analysis of dialect data. The notion of grammatical rule is such a concept. For example, one dialect may be said to have a rule absent from another, useful in explaining the Black English tendency to reduce word-final consonant clusters, or delete the possessive marker from such constructions as *John's watch*. Dialects may also differ in the lack of a rule through diachronic loss, or in the order of application of the same rules, or the generality of analogous rules.

Thus addition, loss, reordering and generality of grammatical rules are four constructs from linguistic theory enabling dialectologists to convert dialect data into dialect facts and make more general statements. It is suggested, however, that Labov's evidence of variable rules perhaps indicates that notions of competence should be redefined. Dialectology would profit greatly from utilising to the fullest theoretical linguistic constructs rather than remain content to collect interesting and curious data.

76–18   **Pilch, Herbert.** Structural dialectology. *American Speech* (New York), **47**, 3/4 (1972) [publ. 1975], 165–87.

The crucial problem in structural dialectology is the frame of reference needed as a constant against which to state variables. Two promising approaches are outlined: diatopics, or topological variation, in which certain linguistic paradigms are considered as constant while a variable structuring of these is allowed, and the use of a hypothetical protolanguage through which derivational rules relate observed structure to protostructure. It is then claimed that since the isogloss envisages formal relations among phonemic units it transcends any particular phonemic analysis.

Dialectology for English phonemics thus requires paradigms of phonemic units in different slots. The current framework of slots specified by stresses and junctures is abandoned in favour of a set of four phonemic shape types. A number of major types of phonemic structural isogloss are outlined; it is claimed that structural dialectology is applicable beyond the level of phonemics. A number of examples, such as the 'in-law' section of the kinship field in Russian country speech, and the opposition between a two-tense and a three-tense system in colloquial German are discussed. Problems arising from the gathering of information on the dialectal variability of a given language in relation to the use of questionnaires, experimental phonetics and the use of tape recorders are reviewed.

76–19   **Uskup, Frances Land and Al-Assawi, Mary Lee.** Editing and printing a dialect atlas by computer. *American Speech* (New York), **47**, 3/4 (1972) [publ. 1975], 203–10.

A systems approach is outlined for the application of computer techniques to the editing and printing of dialect atlases. The systems approach involves two main components: an input component and an output component. The first component deals with the editing and coding of dialect data from researchers' notebooks and transcripts, and with its subsequent storage by the computer. The second component deals with the retrieval and manipulation of the stored data. This process involves both the scanning of stored data for significant

patterns and correlations, and also the reproduction of these patterns in the form of a traditional dialect atlas suitable for publication.

The various forms of computer hard- and software available for both the input and output stages are described, and it is argued that use of this systems approach combined with computer technology will save time, reduce human error, and make the final product easier to print.

INTERPRETING   *See abstract* 76–60