

LINGUISTIC THEORY

74-215 O'Donnell, W. R. On generative gymnastics. *Archivum Linguisticum* (Ilkley, Yorks), 5 (1974), 53-81.

Four major articles by Lakoff and three by McCawley are reviewed to show that there is no coherent theoretical justification for generative semantics. Speculative hypotheses have to be supported by speculative hypotheses because none has been rigorously and/or exhaustively investigated. Obfuscation is rife: exactly what is 'semantic representation' or 'content' or 'message' and how is it accommodated, if it is, in the deepest tree? How is phonologically realised meaning derived from the tree? What are the determinants of the set of necessary presuppositions? Why was the competence/performance dichotomy abandoned without discussion, and what is the consequence? The imprecision, inconsistencies, and lack of explicitness and rigour in generative semantics show it to be inadequate as a theory and not (at present) a serious alternative to extended standard theory. Apparently, the main aim of Lakoff and McCawley is to write the grammar of natural language in terms of symbolic logic, ignoring the fact that human beings can be logical without being grammatical, and illogical without being ungrammatical. [References.]

74-216 Watt, W. C. Mentalism in linguistics II. *Glossa* (Burnaby, BC), 8, 1 (1974), 3-40.

This is an updated sequel to Katz's 1964 paper of the same name. Katz held that TG was mentalistic because it was a model of the native speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language. Contemporary enthusiasm for linguistic universals was informed by the assumption that they are mental universals. Although Katz made no appeals

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to empirical evidence from psychology, he did claim that psychological facts could weaken the theory. For some time after, linguistic theory was justified on Popperian grounds, independent of psychological data; and where the latter seemed to weaken linguistic theory the explanation lay in 'performance'. Recent work on linguistic strategies shows that a truly mentalistic grammar must involve different rules, structure representations, and simplicity requirements from an autonomous linguistic grammar. Techniques for surmounting the difference are discussed, and the conclusion is that the sparsest linguistic grammar that has cognitive descriptive adequacy will have the greatest explanatory adequacy. [References.]

SEMANTICS

74–217 **Huddleston, Rodney.** Componential analysis: the sememe and the concept of distinctiveness. *Canadian Journal of Linguistics* (Toronto), **19**, 1 (1974), 1–17.

Kinship terms have been described as sememes composed of semantic distinctive features (SDF) on two separate analogies: (i) Goodenough's, as morphemes are composed of phonemes – but the linear distribution of phonemes in a morpheme has no parallel in semantics; (ii) Lounsbury's, as phonemes are composed of phonetic distinctive features (PDF) – but again, the relationship between the constitute and the components is of a different kind; and, whereas PDF may be absolutely non-distinctive in a language, SDF may not. Furthermore, sememes have no independent status in a semantic description. Lastly, many of the semantic components described by Goodenough and Lounsbury are not primitive and rules are required to predict their structure – rules analogous to those which predict the etic consequences of emic descriptions in, say, generative phonology. [References.]

- 74-218 Katz, Jerrold J. and Nagel, Richard I.** Meaning postulates and semantic theory. *Foundations of Language* (Dordrecht), **11**, 3 (1974), 311-40.

The meaning postulates approach of Carnap (M) to an intensionalist account of semantics in natural language, and the semantic theory approach of Katz (K) are each described and the two approaches compared. K is found to have the following properties that M does not have: (a) selection restrictions; (b) compositional rules; (c) semantic readings that are tree structures; (d) explication of semantic properties and relations (thus overcoming Quine's objection to intensional theories). Since such properties are required by the conditions of adequacy on intensional semantic theories but found lacking in M, and K is shown properly to include M, K is the preferred semantic theory. [References.]

- 74-219 Lewis, H. A.** Model theory and semantics. *York Papers in Linguistics* (York), **3** (1973), 51-63.

Could a semantic theory for natural language take the form of semantics in formal logic? A semantic theory must assign truth values to sentences; this can best be done by Tarski's Convention T, 'S is true if p', where 'S' is a structure revealing description of a sentence in the object language and 'p' is the translation of S in a metalanguage – which could be formal logic. But formal logic has a precise syntax and a set of well-defined terms and it is not obvious that natural language can be translated into such terms, even discounting tense, modality, opinion, etc. A solution may lie in Montague's proposed universal grammar (1970), which, it is claimed, encompasses both natural language and formal logic. Fundamental to this is the recursive derivation of syntactic categories as functions from their domain to the truth value of the sentence on an interpretation. By appropriate complication, the truth value of a sentence for a given situation of utterance can be calculated. Montague's grammar entails that every syntactic rule has an accompanying semantic rule,

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which seems to make it too powerful for natural language, but it would be interesting to apply it to one and find out.

74-220 Slyusareva, N. A. Проблемы лингвистической семантики. [Problems of linguistic semantics.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), 5 (1973), 13-23.

Linguistics must decide the limits and tasks of semantics, a subject which has been studied by many other disciplines. 'Linguistic semantics' should be distinguished from the 'semantics of reflection', which should deal with the reflection in the consciousness of the particularities of the real world. As a basis for discussion two books are examined, by De Mauro and Mounin [references], both of whom are concerned with the problem of defining the semantic structure ('semantic structuration') of lexis. De Mauro advances the theory that the essence of a word is composed of four dimensions: referential, pragmatic, stylistic and structural. Mounin examines the concept of semantic fields, which he concludes can only be defined *a posteriori* as collections of interconnected semantic systems of vocabulary established on a basis of opposition of distinctive features or components of meaning (semes); he wonders to what extent his 'structuration' is purely linguistic. The author's answer is that semantic structuration goes beyond the scope of linguistics, while at the same time lexical structuration within the limits of each language is one of the tasks of linguistics; the basic units of linguistic semantics consist of groupings of semes, which can be applied equally to the semantics of 'reflection' and of language.

LINGUISTIC DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS

74-221 Henkel, Harald. Verbalmorphem und Verballexem. [Verbal morpheme and verbal lexeme.] *Deutsche Sprache* (Munich), 1 (1974), 1-10.

Most German grammars divide verbs into strong (forming the preterite with a stem vowel change and past participle in *-en*),

weak (forming the preterite with the same stem vowel plus *-t* ending, and past participle in *-(e)t*) and irregular (verbs falling into neither strong nor weak categories). But there is little consistency among grammarians about what constitutes an irregular verb, nor do the terms 'auxiliary' and 'modal' bear any relationship to morphematic qualities.

A matrix is described consisting of the personal forms of the present indicative and subjunctive, the preterite indicative and subjunctive and the two imperatives, and comprising 26 verbal lexeme units. Each German verb can be fitted into one of seven matrices. This proposed solution of the problem of categorising verbs avoids the inadequacies of content and terminology inherent in the present categorisations and will fit into Heringer's *Syntaxtheorie*.

DISCOURSE ANALYSIS *See also abstracts 74-268, -272, -277*

74-222 Lackstrom, J. E., Selinker, L. and Trimble, L. P.

Technical rhetorical principles and grammatical choice.

English Teaching Forum (Washington, DC), **11**, 3 (1973),

1-7.

It is argued that presuppositions shared by the technical writer and reader affect surface syntax in such areas as choice of tenses and articles and are related to rhetorical decisions. The rhetorical process is seen as being organised on a hierarchical basis and a few levels are described in general terms. The notion is advanced of the conceptual paragraph organised around a core generalisation [examples]. Attempts are made to relate syntactic choice to decisions operating at various levels of the rhetorical process [examples].

74-223 Ross, Robert N. Conceptual network analysis. *Semiotica*

(The Hague), **10**, 1 (1974), 1-17.

Conceptual network analysis is an attempt to provide a method for systematically investigating part-whole relations within literary

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texts by examining how the elements of content are connected within a text. The approach uses Schank's conceptual dependency model and presents its analysis in graph form. The approach is exemplified by the analysis of a short poem by Robert Creeley.

SOCIOLINGUISTICS

74-224 **Nikol'skii, L. B.** О предмете социолингвистики. [On the subject matter of sociolinguistics.] *Вопросы языкознания* (Moscow), **1** (1974), 60-7.

Sociolinguistics deals with linguistic variants (within one language, or among several languages in a multilingual society) that are conditioned socially (by territory, social group) or functionally. The 'linguistic situation' in a society is the social-functional distribution of variants; it may change objectively, as a result of socio-economic or political change, and it may be changed (or stabilised) subjectively by state intervention ('linguistic politics'). Sociolinguistics thus studies the relations between languages and dialects, the formation of supra-dialectal speech forms, and language standardisation.

The individual in a bilingual or diglossic society knows the social-functional value of variants, and this is reflected in his appropriate choice of them in his speech behaviour; the latter is not a behavioural term, but indicates determination by an underlying system (the sociolinguistic norm). Intralinguistics studies a single hierarchical system by comparing and contrasting forms and meanings; sociolinguistics compares and contrasts intralinguistic features and social-functional features. Sociolinguistics is thus not separate from other linguistic sub-disciplines, nor does it subsume them. In language change, for instance, both intralinguistic and sociolinguistic approaches must be combined. Marxist sociolinguistics is based on the Marxist theory of sociology (historical materialism), but the individual social sciences require in addition their own specific methodologies. Language is not a class phenomenon (it serves all social groups), though it varies with class.

PSYCHOLINGUISTICS See also abstract 74-248

74-225 Chafe, Wallace L. Language and consciousness. *Language* (Baltimore, Md), **50**, 1 (1974), 111-33.

The notion of consciousness is seen as being important to linguistics as well as psychology, and specifically to the linguistic distinction between *given* and *new* information. Given information is suggested to be that which the speaker assumes to be already present in the addressee's consciousness at the time of an utterance [an example is discussed at length]. Some attention is given to contrastiveness, a separate phenomenon which is apt to be confused with new information. A brief sketch is given of some related work in linguistics, together with remarks on the status of consciousness within the mainstream of modern psychology, as contrasted with the status of the notion in earlier times. The question of why a speaker treats certain information as given is discussed, and various grounds for doing so are illustrated. The converse question of why a speaker may stop treating something as given is also discussed.

LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT OF CHILDREN

74-226 Chromec, Eva. Phonologische Variation und stilistische Differenzierung in der Kindersprache. [Phonological variation and stylistic differentiation in child language.] *Wiener Linguistische Gazette* (Vienna), **5** (1973), 63-71.

Starting from the supposition that children acquire linguistic competence in more than one style, i.e. that they learn very early in their language development to differentiate between more and less formal styles, the speech of one child was investigated. Georg, a four-and-a-half-year-old boy of lower middle-class background, used three fairly different styles depending on the person he was talking to. Ever since child language has been a subject of linguistic research it has been a tacit assumption that the mother's speech will influence that of the child. In this paper the variation in Georg's speech is systematically compared to that of his mother and it was

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found that the child did not use any phonological rule that was not part of his mother's repertoire, but that he used fewer rules and had fewer levels of style. Variation in child language could be a most fruitful subject for sociolinguists, child language specialists and phonologists, especially if combined with the study of social variation in child language.

74-227 Clark, Ruth. Performing without competence. *Journal of Child Language* (Cambridge), **1** (1974), 1-10.

Speech in children should be viewed as a developing skill. During acquisition the child becomes increasingly capable of organising linguistic structure at a number of different levels concurrently. One boy (2:9-3:0 years) seemed to have strategies for simplifying the tasks of speech reception and production. He would incorporate the immediately prior utterance, or some portion of it, intact into his utterance as if to avoid structuring his entire utterance from scratch. Another strategy was to extend his repertoire of structures to express more complex ideas simply by combining two existing structures without recording any of the elements to match adult syntax. If such strategies are widespread they may account for the recorded facts about the development of children's question forms. Psychological variables, commonly called performance factors, should not be regarded merely as putting restrictions on the extent to which a child's linguistic knowledge can be expressed. Rather, they affect the manner in which syntactic structures develop. Just as the acquisition of linguistic structure is affected by psychological processes, so is the efficiency of these processes affected in its turn by the child's growing linguistic knowledge.

- 74-228 **De Villiers, Jill G. and Peter A.** Competence and performance in child language: are children really competent to judge? *Journal of Child Language* (Cambridge), 1 (1974), 11-22.

The notion of competence as it applies to child language is critically assessed in the light of evidence collected from a number of linguistic performances which share the same word-order rule. These performances – production, comprehension, judgment and correction – parallel Moravcsik's (1969) formulation of Chomsky's criteria for tacit knowledge of a rule, i.e. competence. It was found that these criteria are not all satisfied until the child is four or five years old, as the performances appear at very different points in time. Alternative criteria for tacit knowledge are suggested, with specific models of each performance replacing a general model of competence for early child speech.

LEXICOGRAPHY

- 74-229 **Burchfield, R. W.** The treatment of controversial vocabulary in 'The Oxford English Dictionary'. *Transactions of the Philological Society* (Oxford), 1973, 1-28.

'Controversial' in the title refers to vocabulary on or near the admission/exclusion boundary in the *OED* and its 1933 and 1972 supplements. The general problems of admission/exclusion are discussed with reference to the methodology for compiling the *OED*. The present policy for selecting items of vocabulary is their likely editability, i.e. whether matching entries already exist in the *OED*. An examination is made of some classes of words normally excluded, e.g. geographical names, names of persons, cars, etc., and of rare words and erroneous uses, proprietary terms and racial or religious terms. Recent developments are reviewed and guidelines explained [many examples]. The editor must prevent the inclusion of too many borderline words, which should be in specialised dictionaries. 'Offensiveness' is no longer regarded as grounds for exclusion, and

terms connected with sensitive areas like race, religion and sex will need to be kept under constant review in forthcoming supplements.

74-230 Lyne, A. A. L'élaboration des listes de fréquence. [The elaboration of frequency lists.] *Cahiers de Lexicologie* (Paris), 23, 2 (1973), 83-108.

This sequel to a paper presented at the Third Congress of Applied Linguistics (Copenhagen, 1972) assumes that the advantages of lemmatised frequency lists over graphic listings are agreed. In lemmatised lists, it is important to distinguish the two structural levels clearly, i.e. macrostructure (items or type words) and microstructure, the nuances within each item (word occurrences). Consistency of procedure is essential in order to ensure unequivocal interpretation of the list, and to make comparison between different lists possible. The main problems are segmentation, word-class assignment and polysemy/homography. Segmentation of the corpus and word-class assignment, or lemmatisation, gives the macrostructure; more refined analysis, both functional and semantic, gives the microstructure. A procedural scheme is suggested using the eight traditional word classes as a basis. A diagram of this procedure with a key in the form of 19 questions (nodes and questions A-S) shows how each segment is slotted into its appropriate place in the macrostructure. Each question, when fully elaborated, gives guidance on how to deal with verbal and non-verbal forms (particles; pre-vocalic, feminine and plural variables) and on their assignment to lemmas. The word forms which result are the entries and constitute the macrostructure of the list.

- 74-231 **Novikov, L. A.** Учебные словари, их специфика и типы. [Learners' dictionaries, their specific character and types.] *Русский язык в национальной школе* (Moscow), 1 (1974), 8-16.

Learners' dictionaries are a kind of vocabulary textbook for learners of a foreign language. They differ from explanatory dictionaries by containing fewer items, but being more pedagogically oriented (according to the users and their needs). The selection of items combines features of the following dictionary types: structural (grammatical words that occur in any text), statistical (words of high frequency irrespective of theme), and thematic/situational (words essential to given themes or situations, though not of high frequency overall, e.g. *knife, fork, spoon*). Each dictionary article contains a semantic characterisation of the head-word by means of explanation in terms of a minimum vocabulary (provided this does not lead to artificiality); exemplification; distinguishing near-synonyms; pictures, or by translation; it also includes its grammatical characterisation, and preferably common syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations (synonymy, antonymy, paronymy). Even good explanatory dictionaries rarely give the foreign learner sufficient information on collocation.

Learners' dictionaries can be classified by the following three contradistinctions: paradigmatic-syntagmatic; semasiological (from form to meaning, e.g. alphabetical)-onomasiological (from meaning to form, e.g. thematic/situational); monolingual-bilingual (the defects of the latter can be compensated for by adequate examples, and use may be made of the contrastive method). Different degrees of emphasis may also be placed on use (frequency, situation), meaning (synonymy, antonymy), and morphological structure (word-formation). An ideal combined learners' dictionary would make use of all these possibilities, and also accommodate itself to the purpose, level and nationality of the learner. [Examples of dictionary articles from various dictionary types.]

TRANSLATION

- 74-232 **Jáuregui S., Beto.** La terminología científica en la traducción. [Scientific terminology in translation.] *Lenguaje y Ciencias* (Trujillo), 13, 2 (1973), 82-7.

The author refers especially to the question of providing a technical vocabulary for languages lacking one. A flow diagram is offered for a decision procedure for techniques of vocabulary creation, stressing the need for syntactic parallelism between the term in source and target languages where borrowing is concerned. Terms should fulfil certain requirements of simplicity, e.g. not expressing redundant semantic features, and of lending themselves to the creation of further derived terms. Criteria for abbreviability are sketched. [References.]

- 74-233 **Pergnier, M.** Traduction et théorie linguistique. [Translation and linguistic theory.] *Études de Linguistique Appliquée* (Paris), nouvelle serie 12 (1973), 26-38.

Translation theory must be based on the recognition that each term in an utterance is a term in a system and is given its meaning by both the system and the situation in which the utterance occurs. Consequently, each item and each utterance is necessarily polysemic and therefore ambiguous. This is reduced by the proliferation of contextual clues, but can never be eliminated [examples]. An analysis of the problems of translation into French of the English utterance *It is cold* demonstrates the factors involved, and leads on to a logical ordering of the processes of translation.